DARFUR:

PROFILE OF NYALA TOWN AND ADJACENT IDP CAMPS
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Amid the gloom that pervades reports on Darfur and the decimation imposed on the lives and livelihoods of its people through conflict and constant threats, this report seeks to identify ways of operating and ways of enhancing people’s lives, despite the difficulties. Of course, serious commitment is required by all sectors of society – supported by the international community – to make positive things happen. But it is doable, presenting a real opportunity to challenge the doubters and thwart the efforts of authoritarian factions and rebel groups to keep people down.

The focus of this report is Nyala town in South Darfur and nearby camps for internally displaced persons (IDPs). While there are links to the rural sector, the emphasis is on the urban environment, with the argument that it offers a greater opportunity for success at this time. However, revitalizing the gum arabic industry will directly benefit rural communities and increase links with urban areas. The report encourages the United Nations (UN) and humanitarian operation to take greater risks by adding a longer-term perspective to present recovery programmes, while acknowledging that some non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are already pursuing this route.

The opportunities identified and the recommendations presented are believed to be achievable within a three-year time frame. The recommendations are divided into the following categories: Employment, Food Security, Income Generation, and Health/Environment (not including direct health interventions). Before these are addressed however, it is strongly advised that support structures are created in the form of an overall urban partnership (described in detail on page 35) and sectoral partnerships, as well as a clear capacity-strengthening method through the Asset-based Community Development approach. The concept of a specific foundation for Darfur is briefly presented, as is the need for the development of appropriate government policies to assist in the implementation of the recommendations.

**RECOMMENDATIONS IN BRIEF**

**Employment**
There are no accurate statistics available for unemployment in the Nyala area. Nevertheless certain assumptions can be made – thousands of people have been employed in the construction industry over the last few years, but the majority are employed on a casual basis and are unskilled or semi-skilled. The rate of unemployment for young people is very high; women are employed in low-paying jobs, unless they are with international organizations.

Employment strategies are proposed through Recommendations 3, 5, 8, and 9 – Appropriate Technology on Construction and Building Materials; Revitalizing the Gum Arabic Industry; Development of the Microfinance Programme; and Construction of a Vocational Training Centre respectively.

**Food Security**
Lack of affordable food is an ongoing problem, which has been exacerbated by World Food Programme’s reduction in food aid distributions due to insecurity and soaring prices. Drought has delayed crop harvests, while many traditional farmers and livestock owners have sought other means of living, reducing local produce. Transport costs, demand for payment by different groups, and government taxes on transport companies have also driven prices up.

Food security strategies are proposed through Recommendations 4, 6, and 7 – Food Security (land allocation, construction of catchment dams, seeds, and equipment), Development of a Poultry Production System, and Small Animal Restocking.

**Income Generation**
Rising costs, the relatively small number of jobs available compared to the number of unemployed, and limited access to credit and loans are backing people into an economic corner and opportunities need to be created to assist them to lift themselves up. Options are presented to enable people to shift from dependency on aid, provide opportunities for the underemployed or unemployed, and promote small businesses.

Income generation strategies are proposed through Recommendations 3, 5, 6, 7, and 8 – Appropriate Technology on Construction and Building Materials; Revitalizing the Gum Arabic Industry; Development of a Poultry Production System; Small Animal Restocking; and the Development of the Microfinance Programme.
The study was intent on obtaining a balanced approach to collecting data and opinions from the townspeople of Nyala and the IDP camps; however, access to the camps was extremely limited during the time of the study. It was important to ascertain the level of interdependency between the two communities while recognizing that the humanitarian aid programme is primarily aimed at the displaced population. The information was collected through desk research, interviews, and discussions. While seeking opinions from people from various backgrounds was part of this approach, it also encouraged people to come forward with ideas they believe could help improve their livelihoods and generally enhance the town.

There was a secondary objective to this study: creating a community development component designed to utilize and capitalize on the existing skills of people on the ground and use these to further train others, who would become a local resource for the many agencies and bodies conducting research in Darfur. The first step was to identify between four and six consultants or experienced individuals who were based in either Khartoum or Darfur and form a team to conduct the profiling. They would be supported by the external consultants to identify and train study assistants who would then become the aforementioned local resource. Seven local experts were identified over the course of two missions. However, due to time delays the profiling started later than expected, and three members of the original team could not participate and had to be replaced.

In total, 14 study assistants were identified, 9 in El Fasher and 5 in Nyala. They worked together with the team and did very well, though they need ongoing training and work to hone their skills.

Each section of the following report was researched by a team member. These were then compiled by Brian Nugent and Sonia Zambakides, who were commissioned directly by UN-HABITAT to coordinate and produce this piece of work.
There needs to be a conscious decision on the part of UN agencies to shift into recovery mode while maintaining emergency preparedness. In the unlikely event that the UN operations ceased in the next three years, for example, what would remain that is truly sustainable?

In the context of an urban environment such as Nyala, including the camps close by, there are opportunities for generating employment and increasing incomes, which the report shows. There is an emphasis on the urban and “suburban” areas, which is based on better opportunities for risk management compared to the rural areas. However, there is justification in seriously examining the potential for expanding and improving the gum arabic industry, given the extent of this natural resource, its past economic viability, and its ecological relevance. If seriously addressed, producing this valuable product in Nyala’s comparatively better climate (and with its better access to water), could be a very attractive option for IDP camp dwellers if and when hostilities cease.

The recommendations are presented by firstly proposing achievable outputs through realistic financial inputs. The report limits the number to nine rather than delivering a plethora of recommendations, which might result in confusion and demand resources that are not available. The recommendations each focus on at least one of the following themes:

- Capacity strengthening
- Appropriate building materials
- The environment
- Employment
- Microfinance development and enterprise
- Food security
- Gum arabic production
- Policies

There is also an overall recommendation to develop “real” strategic partnerships on a sectoral and wider basis, in order to encourage the integration of assets and mutual responsibility for improvements and development.
1. INTRODUCTION

The climate in which this report is written is best summed up by the UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (UNOCHA) Darfur Humanitarian Overview June 2008, which states, “The combination of poor harvests, difficulties in bringing supplies into Darfur, reduction in the quality of humanitarian services, reduced food rations and overcrowded IDP camps is truly alarming. Although malnutrition rates are currently in line with last year’s figures, the prognosis for the humanitarian situation in the coming months is extremely worrisome.”

The following report is a sectoral profiling of Nyala town in South Darfur, with direct reference to the camps for internally displaced persons (IDPs) that are in close proximity, which are inextricably linked to the town, particularly through business and trade. Nyala had fewer than 100,000 people prior to the conflict but has swollen to over 600,000; some fled to safety in the wake of the fighting while others sought financial security in an urban setting after their livelihoods became unreliable. This number is exacerbated by IDPs – more than 100,000 people in the camps that surround the town and thousands more in town, most of whom live with relatives. Surveys and research reports on the Darfur region or areas within it make for very depressing reading. While the international efforts have indeed contributed significantly to saving lives and providing the basic requirements for a camp environment, report after report illustrates a decline in all areas, including: water tables; forests; grazing areas; infrastructure; job opportunities; household income; and household assets. They also highlight serious capacity issues at local government levels, which are exacerbated by insufficient revenue to tackle infrastructural and social needs.

Strong links have developed between Nyala and the IDP camps in proximity to the town, and this will be explored through highlighting the difficulties that have emerged, as well as the opportunities the situation presents.

This report will not seek to repeat what is in other reports, but will use information collected and available from other sources to look for ways of illustrating hope and possibilities in an appropriate and workable context. The financial resources and manpower required to “fix” Darfur would be monumental; therefore, it is an objective to present manageable ways forward by examining at the Nyala town and IDP camp environments and seeing what can collectively be done to engender relative prosperity, progress, and hope.

While referring to and presenting information on a range of sectors, the report will focus on the income and financial possibilities that can be derived from these sectors. Analyses will be done on the basis of where people are now; speculation as to how many IDPs will return, and when, will be left to others. That said, it was very noticeable that the potential for improved livelihoods in South Darfur was greater than in the north, given the water availability, natural resources, and opportunity to revive expand gum arabic production.

1.1 NYALA TOWN

Nyala, the state capital, in Daju means “the place of chatting” or a theatre. It was the former centre for the Daju empire before its fall in the late 15th century and the area and its environs contain significant archaeological remains, engravings, and pottery, especially around Nari, Dobo, and the Simiat Hills. Lying at 673 metres above sea level, it is both a railway and road terminus and the gum arabic centre of Sudan. Located around 1,200 km from Khartoum, it has an estimated population of 600,000.

Challenging El Fasher for the distinction of being Darfur’s biggest city, Nyala is a historical trade hub, having routes to Chad, Central African Republic, Khartoum, and South Sudan. It is a thriving town, with traders, dealers, and businesspeople contributing to the hustle and bustle, which only goes to show what it could be like with security and without a curfew for the UN and others.

South Darfur, including around Nyala, has a large number of rebel groups, and numerous tribes are represented. People who live in Nyala town expressed their eagerness for the end of the conflict, to enable them take advantage of the business opportunities and comparatively rich resources the area has to offer. They opined that outside investors will rush to the area to take advantage of the perceived opportunities.

It is possible to purchase restaurant food such as pizza, fast food, and Sudanese specialities in the evening and at the earlier fatour. One restaurant in the town is Egyptian, and the manager estimates they make a
profit of USD 7,000 to 10,000 per month. There is an outdoor cinema where Bollywood films are popular; it is a major source of entertainment, including for families during the day. There are many TVs, DVDs, and electronic devices within the town.

Items such as imported perfumes, hair oils, handbags, cell phones, accessories are available within the camps, where free enterprise among the displaced is notable. Although Kalma IDP camp is affected by insecurity, in general enterprise thrives. For example, in Al Salam camp, women with few resources can make up to USD 7 per day simply making tea.

Accommodation for visitors expanded quickly from 2004 onwards, although African Union/UN Hybrid Operation in Darfur (UNAMID) staff are banned from living in the town centre and within concentrated population areas (within a radius of 8 km). In addition, they are not permitted to visit the marketplaces in uniform.

1.2 IDP CAMPS

Camps which are in proximity to Nyala include:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Camp</th>
<th>Population</th>
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<tr>
<td>Kalma</td>
<td>78,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Otash</td>
<td>14,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Derieg</td>
<td>13,000</td>
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</table>

Kalma is the largest IDP camp in South Darfur and, as can be seen by the numbers in these and other camps, the outlying areas of Nyala town accommodate in excess of 100,000 people.

1.3 LINKS BETWEEN NYALA TOWN AND SURROUNDING IDP CAMPS

Links between the town and the camp will be elaborated throughout this report, but it is important to highlight early on that there are areas of significant difference and areas of commonality between the two.

The townspeople claim that the aid the IDPs receive is damaging their businesses. Urban water sellers cannot compete with water delivered free to the camp; many town residents travel out to the camps to buy the water for consumption or reselling in the town. Many other relief items can be purchased from markets in the camps and the town. Some Nyala residents who have relatives in the camps have left their homes, registered as IDPs, and taken up residence in the camps. They thus can rent out their urban houses, receive free commodities, and avoid paying taxes.

It is important to note that there are historical differences between people in the camps and those in the towns, either through resentment of nomads/pastoralists or tribal differences, but many recognize the opportunities of doing business and developing livelihoods or survival mechanisms, which necessitate an acceptance of the benefits of interdependency.

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<table>
<thead>
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<th>Box 1: Links between Nyala Town and Surrounding IDP Camps</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Camp Population</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Traditionally rural dwellers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Now displaced due to insecurity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Receive distributions of free food.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Receive free services.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Live in temporary accommodation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Do not pay taxes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Have lost most of their assets.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Many have become dependent on aid.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Still have experience, skills, and knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• See opportunities to do business with townspeople.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Balance antagonism with opportunity.</td>
</tr>
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2. BACKGROUND INFORMATION AND CONTEXT

2.1 GENERAL SITUATION ASSESSMENT

After five years of conflict, the situation in Darfur continues to be fragile and unpredictable. The security situation in all three states remains unstable and the conflict's impact continues to be framed according to the demographical and political context of the region. The central conflict is often characterized as beginning with the 2003 rebellion against the central government by the Justice and Equality Movement and the Sudanese Liberation Army. This portrayal represents the government as the oppressor of non-Arabs, who seek an equitable distribution of resources. However, those who are familiar with the Sahel region of sub-Saharan Africa in general and the Darfur region specifically would suggest that this analysis is simplistic. In fact, the oral history of the Darfur conflict suggests that the militias (the so-called Janjaweed) migrated from neighbouring countries during the famines of the 1980s.

Desertification pushes the Sahel further south and this encroachment creates a shortage of grazing areas and induces migration. This natural phenomenon suggests that drought, famine, migration, and internal displacement are both environmental and historical. It is the combination of these factors that make Darfur such a vulnerable and unique area. But it will be shown that despite these frailties, the resourcefulness of the population is tremendous as they work hard to eke out a living in a sea of adversity.

2.2 HISTORICAL CONTEXT

Geography
Darfur is located in the western part of Sudan in an area between the 10th and 16th degree latitude and the 22nd and 30th degree longitude, covering an area of 510,888 square kilometres. It is surrounded by three countries (Chad, Libya, and Central African Republic) and four Sudanese states. This location has given the region strategic and economic significance. Although western Sudan is sub-Saharan, there are three climates that affect the region: semi-desert in the north; semi-mountainous (Jebel Marra Mountains); and savannah in the south and west.

Demography
There are more than 160 tribes in Darfur, most of whom speak local languages and have their own culture, norms, traditions, and features. These elements have played an integral part in Darfur's old and recent history. The region's old kingdoms did experience stability and prosperity for more than 430 years.

2.3 POPULATION PROFILE AND BREAKDOWN

There are more than 160 tribes in Darfur, most of whom speak local languages and have their own culture, norms, traditions, and features. These elements have played an integral part in Darfur’s old and recent history. The region's old kingdoms did experience stability and prosperity for more than 430 years.

The population of South Darfur State in 2003 was estimated at 3 million, of which 140,343 were displaced. The state had an annual population growth rate of 3.28 percent between 1998 and 2003 and an estimated density of 17 persons per square kilometre. In 2003, 79 percent of the population was classified as rural and 21 percent as urban, the main communities being Rezieghat, Habanya, Falat’a, Bani Halba, Taisha, and Fur. Recent figures indicate a human population of 3,999,575, with approximately 838,182 of the population being displaced persons. According to the UN Humanitarian Profile January 2008, the population of Nyala town is estimated to be 664,050.

UNOCHA reports clearly show how the deterioration of the security situation increased the number of displaced to the camps. Insecurity is the primary reason for the massive numbers of displaced people, which OCHA estimates at almost 2.4 million, while 1.8 million are seriously affected.

2.4 POLITICAL CONTEXT AND SECURITY

The political conflict in Darfur is deeply rooted in history. Although the various movements in Darfur often disagree, they all confirm that the main reason for the recent conflict was marginalization and neglect by the central government.

\footnote{STARBASE South Darfur State, Version 2, June 2004.}
Political Affiliations
Darfurians attribute the development of the modern political history of the region to two Darfurian political figures, namely Ahmed Diraige and Dr. Ali Elhaj. They are regarded as the founders of the first Darfurian political identity, a Sunni organization, after independence. This movement of an independent party did not continue for long as the two leaders joined the Umma and the Muslim Brothers Parties. Darfurian elders believe that some of those early Darfurian elites were “bought by Jalaba political leaders and parties for personal gains” and recently some are said to be “hiding in Justice and Equality Movement to reproduce [a National Islamic Front] era in Darfur”. The majority of those who are now involved in the current conflict still support and have loyalty to the Umma Party and the disagreement within the Umma Party across the country creates disagreements in Darfur as well.

2.5 Political Developments
The current conflict erupted with fighting between two main opposition groups and the Government of Sudan. The Sudanese Liberation Movement/Army and the Justice and Equality Movement, a faction of the Sudanese Liberation Movement, began to fight against government-supported militia groups collectively known as Janjaweed. This fighting intensified in the three states of Darfur and insecurity steadily increased until the Darfur-based Sudanese Liberation Movement attacked government military forces at El Fasher on 24 and 25 April 2003.

Hundreds of thousands of people have been forced to flee their homes since the fighting broke out, while the situation of women and children has become particularly desperate. The United Nations estimated that as a result up to 600,000 people have been displaced by the conflict.

The military groups started as allies, but disagreements appeared in May 2006. The groups differed over the Darfur Peace Agreement, which only some groups signed. This brought the disintegration of the overall movement and led to new political developments. After the agreement, the conflict took on tribal overtones; the conflict moved to the camps as they became divided according to political affiliation. The signatories of the peace agreement were targeted by non-signatories, and this developed into a conflict between the Zaghawa and Fur tribes. The camps around El Fasher were directly affected as IDPs started to move to areas dominated by their tribe. Moreover, in 2007 the conflict started to move to the Arab tribes in South Darfur, with fighting subsequently emerging between tribes.

2.6 Administration Development between 1937 and 2004

2.6.1 Colonization
During colonialism, the districts were divided into provinces based on the hakura system, with special tribal consideration. Designated authorities controlled the districts, and provinces were divided into councils. These councils were further divided into rural areas, cities, and localities.

2.6.2 Independence
Independence was gained on 1 January 1956. After independence, international consultants studied the structure and established the Administrative Law in Sudan, which led in turn to a more decentralized system.

2.6.3 Decentralization
Local public law established the public council executive to administer the cities’ councils and the rural areas. The main purpose was apparently to increase the participation of local communities in the councils’ structure. Darfur was divided into North and South Darfur under the following structure:

2.6.4 Federal System
The federal system was later introduced and the entire country was divided into six regions. In 1993, Darfur was divided into three states. The Federal Law of 2003 was established, and many localities and provinces were abolished. The new law established the following structure for the three states:
- South Darfur: nine localities
- North Darfur: seven localities
- West Darfur: seven localities

The new decentralization structure limited community participation and subjected participation to constitutional and legislative conditions. The local
community leaders and Darfuri politicians tend to ignore much of this legislation, as their role in the administration is limited. The situation minimizes central support for building local infrastructure in the states, resulting in the states relying on their own resources.

2.6.5 IDP Camp Administration Structure
The IDP camps have developed a new administrative structure to facilitate and coordinate activities: the local community leaders and aid workers collaborate in the management of camp activities. The Humanitarian Aid Commission is the government body that is supposed to facilitate and support aid workers, but the IDPs reject the presence of the commission in most of the camps and are reluctant to collaborate with them.

Consequently, the tribal and community leaders influence the administration inside the camp. However, in Nyala it was stated at a meeting that the “new” sheiks do not have full authority over the IDPs, nor do they have the skills or the necessary blessing of their communities. They are described as *mutafaliteen*, or those who do not abide by the laws and traditions of their communities. Some incidents of abuse of power and lack of loyalty to the groups were mentioned.

2.7 CONFLICT AND THE INTERNATIONAL AND NATIONAL HUMANITARIAN RESPONSE

After 5 years of conflict, it is estimated that 2.5 million people have become displaced and as many as 4.5 million people in Darfur and eastern Chad rely upon some form of humanitarian assistance. The initial humanitarian response came through the formation of camps that provided water, food, sanitation, education, healthcare, and basic necessities. However, these have been extended to include the management of natural resources and income-generating activities.

Since the crisis emerged in 2003, the international response has had different approaches. The political process for peace negotiations and civilian protection has been conducted in parallel with the aid delivery process. UN agencies and international and national non-governmental organizations (NGOs) work in partnership and within a construct that coordinates the response. UNOCHA is the coordination body for all the humanitarian operations in the region; in the Darfur Humanitarian Profile of March 2008, it stated that the number of aid workers in Darfur has risen to over 14,000, representing 860 organizations. Despite many constraints, major epidemics continue to be avoided and vaccination campaigns have been implemented successfully. There are also successful supportive projects in the areas of agriculture, livelihoods, psychosocial support, and capacity building.

The continuing insecurity, however, has resulted in population movement and a general deterioration in living conditions. Malnutrition rates have increased this year, and the results of the Annual Food Security and Nutrition Survey showed a malnutrition rate of 16 percent among the conflict-affected populations. For the first time since 2004, the rates are above the emergency threshold of 15 percent. This is in contrast to the expanded humanitarian programmes that indicate increased access to safe water, improved waste disposal systems, and lower mortality rates. Food security remains the major humanitarian problem, with only 30 percent of the conflict-affected people considered to be food self-sufficient. Most disturbingly, the Darfur Humanitarian Profile of January 2008 stated that the end-of-year harvest will be below expectations due to general insecurity and crop failure. As a result, more Darfurians than usual will be entirely dependent on food aid from as early as January 2008. At the time of writing, the World Food Programme (WFP) had cut its rations by 50 percent as a result of trucks being stolen and staff being abducted (and in some cases killed). This will have a significant negative impact on nutrition levels, particularly in the rural areas.

The NGOs play a significant role in reporting on the consequences of the conflict and the deterioration of the security situation. According to OCHA, humanitarian access in Darfur is primarily determined by a combination of two factors:
- The degree of general insecurity, which may require the United Nations and other humanitarian partners to suspend or limit operations in areas deemed unsafe for a certain amount of time.
- Random targeted attacks on humanitarians and their assets, including the hijacking of cars and abduction of personnel, physical violence directed towards humanitarian workers, and ambushes and armed break-ins aimed at humanitarian compounds.
In principle, and in accordance with the communiqué between the Government of Sudan and the United Nations, the humanitarian response in general and the delivery of relief and recovery assistance in particular, is a partnership. This is to say that a sustained and timely response to the humanitarian needs of Darfur requires positive collaboration and coordination between the two parties. An example of this collaboration is the 2008 Sudan Work Plan. The plan, developed by the Government of Sudan and UN agencies, outlines both humanitarian needs and recovery activities. The intended purpose is to inform and direct the humanitarian response in Darfur.

This report too wishes to inform the humanitarian response and is keen to encourage a greater focus on recovery programmes, while continuing emergency interventions where and when needed only, not because they may be written into a time frame. While it is understandable that the IDP population depends on humanitarian aid, this dependency is spreading throughout the urban society of Nyala and other towns. This impact needs to be noted, and alternative operations should be explored that build on existing assets and maintain the traditional coping mechanisms that have seen Darfurians survive terrible hardships over many years.

In the examination of the consequences of the war on livelihoods in the table below, it is interesting to note the effect also of the humanitarian aid programme on the Nyala area over the last five years. Table 1 identifies assets under 6 headings, and while it is not exhaustive it demonstrates areas of concern and the need for redress.

While some people have received very tangible benefits, the majority of people have been negatively affected by conflict, drought, the inability to travel, increasing commodity prices, and poor services. Women-headed households, youth, the unskilled, those with disabilities, and the aged — both in the town and camp — depend on assistance, either through international aid or through neighbours and families. The international community will not be around forever, and if a clear, constructive, and workable recovery programme is not put in place, the consequences will be grave.

![Government building in Nyala](image-url)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources or Assets</th>
<th>Negative Post-war Consequences</th>
<th>Positive Post-war Consequences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human Capital</td>
<td>Loss of livelihoods and dependency on aid for many</td>
<td>Improved and new livelihoods for many</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brain drain to Khartoum and elsewhere</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Humanitarian organizations employing highly qualified people in positions such as guards</td>
<td>Humanitarian organizations paying relatively high salaries to employees and supporting families</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Impact of war on schools will seriously affect next generation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Increased town population by approximately 600 percent in 8 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Capital</td>
<td>Large numbers of marginalized people, including those living with HIV/AIDS, the elderly, and the disabled</td>
<td>Much awareness raising carried out by UN agencies and NGOs, particularly on HIV/AIDS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Many traditional forms of income, especially related to agriculture and livestock, have disappeared</td>
<td>As a result of the humanitarian programme, new businesses have flourished, particularly those related to property, construction, and haulage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Financial loan terms are unfavourable, as loans are regarded as extremely risky in Darfur</td>
<td>Traditional support mechanisms still exist and some NGOs run microcredit projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Remittances have been reduced as the means of transferring money have been negatively affected</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reliance on imported commodities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The readiness of the international community to pay extremely high rents has increased the price of materials and rents generally, resulting in increased hardship for poor people</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Traditional jobs lost</td>
<td>Numbers employed in humanitarian organizations, haulage and taxi businesses, and the service industry increasing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Serious tax anomalies affecting urban businesses, livestock owners, and traders</td>
<td>IDP businesses do not pay taxes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The gum arabic industry has been seriously affected</td>
<td>Natural regeneration has occurred on abandoned farms and neglected land</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Capital</td>
<td>IDPs have few assets of worth (apart from land, which they are separated from)</td>
<td>Some people within the town have gained assets (particularly property and vehicles, but also basic household items) not previously available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Traditional livestock keepers have lost huge numbers of animals and still lose them today as payment to rebel groups to allow access</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The yield for crop farmers is much less and many harvests are stolen by rebel groups</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructural Capital</td>
<td>Routes between urban centres are insecure</td>
<td>A road programme plans to construct 5 km of roads each year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clean water is being piped to a small minority of households</td>
<td>Water sources are sufficient for Nyala's population</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Buildings are in poor repair</td>
<td>Offices and rented houses are being refurbished</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Technical training facilities exist but the capacity is low</td>
<td>The potential exists to build a modern vocational training facility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Capital</td>
<td>Cultural norms affected</td>
<td>Many local community-based organizations have been established; women and youth groups have been formed in the camps and town</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Youth are reluctant to return to traditional livelihoods, but few alternatives are available</td>
<td>More opportunities have been created for women to work for improved wages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Government health and education services are poor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Resource Capital</td>
<td>Negative discrimination is shown against IDPs (e.g. regarding employment in town)</td>
<td>Positive discrimination shown in favour of IDPs by humanitarian aid programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Depleted forests</td>
<td>The area remains forested, but environmental protection policies are necessary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reduction in the water table</td>
<td>Water sources are still adequate, as rainfall is higher in the southern region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Environmental degradation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Depleted grazing land</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. ECONOMY

Nyala’s infrastructure is among the best in Darfur, and a number of cultural and business opportunities will exist when security is improved and sustained. Up to 60 percent of the population in South Darfur is “urban”, including displaced people concentrated in the capital and other smaller towns. The state’s community is the most diverse within Darfur. Its rainfall is the best among the three states; it holds some forested land and has gum arabic, water reservoirs, fertile land, and livestock. However, most natural resources and a range of local assets have been destroyed since 2003. Nevertheless, Nyala as an investment centre could be expanded, with benefits to Darfur, border areas, and populations in South Sudan.

The Darfur emergency and recovery operation is currently the largest humanitarian operation in the world. Over the 3 states, there are more than 14,000 aid workers engaged in humanitarian activities that directly support a displaced community of up to 2.5 million.

Retail sales are constantly increasing, including trade in a diverse range of edible and inedible imported items, such as fruits, oils, and electronic and other goods. With large numbers of international staff and Sudanese employed by international agencies, the demand for food, water, and electricity has grown alongside the demands of an expanded local population. Rental prices have skyrocketed since 2003, with monthly charges of up to USD 3,000 for a home or office. Plots of land within the city council’s area have risen sharply in price. This used to be a busy yet subsistence-based market town; it is now a bustling capital on which many people rely for livelihood security, even though this is based on a shallow foundation of what is essentially a false economy.

3.1 UNEMPLOYMENT

There are no accurate statistics available for unemployment in the Nyala area. Nevertheless, certain assumptions can be made – thousands of people have been employed in the construction industry over the last few years, but the majority are employed on a casual basis and are unskilled or semi-skilled. The rate of unemployment for young people is very high, and women have low-paying jobs unless they are employed by international organizations.

After 2004, many people with experience in agriculture- and livestock-related work were forced by the security situation to turn to casual work in towns. In addition, according to IDPs interviewed in Abu Shouk Camp, once someone is identified as an IDP, they are given less consideration for permanent job opportunities.

Based on discussions with shop owners, business people, and youth in El Fasher, many young people do not want to follow family business traditions and instead envision travelling to Khartoum for employment or seeking work with international organizations. This reveals a lack of faith in the Comprehensive Peace Agreement. The continuing violence meanwhile results in short-term planning and highlights the apparent futility of planting roots in El Fasher or any other part of Darfur.

3.2 BUSINESS

Like in El Fasher, interviews conducted with businessmen in Nyala revealed a disgruntlement with the level of direct taxes and indirect payments they are expected to make, while IDPs have no such burden.

Nevertheless, timber production, haulage, and construction (house building particularly) are among the more profitable business areas. While more people are getting into the contracting business or coming from other locations to take advantage of demand, there are few who have a reputation for quality. The calibre of artisans’ work is often questionable and requires addressing.

3.3 FINANCE AND FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS

The challenges of the Ministry of Finance are symptomatic of many government departments in Darfur, in that the war and ongoing hostilities have severely reduced the confidence to plan on a long term basis. Even tax incentives are not attracting investors, who fear the insecurity and view the infrastructure as too underdeveloped for their needs.

Tax rates have not changed since 2003, but many business people argue that the imposition of formal taxes together with the informal payments that must be made to rebel groups and at checkpoints are
crippling their businesses, forcing them to seek other sources of income or alternative but risky transport routes. Many have already entered a parallel economy, smuggling goods and avoiding formal taxation.

Banks in El Fasher have very limited capital for business (their headquarters in Khartoum regard the area as too great a risk). Branch directors have limited power to authorize loans. According to one branch director, loan amounts over SDG 100,000 must be referred to the head office. The reality of doing business in Darfur generally means that it takes more than 18 months to generate sufficient funds to repay loans, which is the maximum repayment period. One bank director stated that he cannot loan more than 25,000 pounds for a period longer than 4 months.

Banks give loans only within the framework of the Central Bank’s policy guidelines (which adhere to Islamic forms of finance). Loans are approved through the morabaha form of finance, which stipulates that the bank must purchase the required inputs for the loan seeker. Some of the stated constraints of this system are procurement delays and the poor quality of commodities, which contribute to people defaulting and businesses collapsing. Delays in providing much needed equipment can particularly be seen in the seasonal business activities related to agriculture. Morabaha does not facilitate growth of business activities. Many small businesses end up returning their assets to the bank as a result of their inability to make repayments. The agricultural bank will make substantial loans to farmers, but in order to qualify, a farmer or family member must own property in town, be used as collateral. There is a separate bank for livestock keepers, namely the Animal Resources Bank.

3.4 IDP CAMP LIVELIHOODS

The IDPs in Nyala are located in the town with limited options, but they are linked to the urban economy. As a group, they changed from being producers (farmers) to being consumers; they are now unable to apply most of their skills, although they are learning and adapting. They face serious environmental resource deficits as degradation occurs around the camps. This means travelling longer distances for firewood and being exposed to increased risk. Adapting to this reality, more girls and women are going to work in the town. As the markets get swamped with relief commodities, causing prices to fall, IDPs involved in trading are forced to sell larger quantities to generate the cash required. They have become reliant on humanitarian assistance and do not perceive themselves to be part of the government agenda.

A series of Livelihood Workshops organized by Tufts University in 2007 identified a need to provide support to the urban poor in Nyala town to prevent further movement into camps. In addition, they recommended giving general attention to the natural environment; woodlots, alternative fuels, environmental impact assessments by NGOs, tree planting in the camps, tree nurseries, and environmental training were seen to be future strategies to protect the environment and mitigate conflict.

A number of displaced families practice sharecropping with landowners, while others engage in domestic work or seasonal agricultural work and collect firewood and wild fruits. A number exercise control over the sale of relief items (food and non-food), and women in particular provide cheap labour in the urban agricultural subsector (both are outlined below).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assets</th>
<th>Process, policy, institutions</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Goals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Skills suitable for urban labour</td>
<td>Provision of basic services</td>
<td>Casual labour:</td>
<td>To earn money for:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capital to start businesses</td>
<td>Security</td>
<td>• Construction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Donkeys for transport</td>
<td>Buoyant labour market</td>
<td>• Brick making</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Land</td>
<td>Access to natural resources</td>
<td>• Domestic work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural resources, e.g. water and firewood</td>
<td>Recognition of the needs of the urban poor</td>
<td>• Employment with international agencies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Donation/marks:</td>
<td></td>
<td>Petty trading/markets:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Donkey/horse carts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Tea-making</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Firewood and grass</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Charcoal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Recycling empty food containers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Other:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Criminal acts, video clubs, income-generation activities supported by NGOs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>To build assets to start businesses</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>To save (minority)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>To live a more urban life, e.g. buying phones, entertainment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Feinstein International Centre, June 2007. Sharpening the Strategic Focus of Livelihoods Programming (South Darfur – Nyala Workshops).
There is no government-run vocational training centre in Nyala, although there is the Nyala Technical College, which includes IDP students. They provide services such as skills upgrading for operators of refrigeration and cooling equipment. In addition, the Nyala Youth Centre, which is operated by the private sector, offers training for young boys in carpentry and auto mechanics. However, the training centres are poorly equipped, curricula are not designed on the basis of labour requirements, and facilities inadequately address the level of need.

Skilled persons are leaving local businesses and public jobs in favour of employment with UN agencies and NGOs. There are no clear capacity-building strategies being devised by the state government and there is no training budget in place.

3.6 SMALL INDUSTRIES AND ENTERPRISES IN NYALA TOWN

The Nyala Chambers of Industries has 25 members working on small-scale industrial production of peanut oil, soaps, and sweets. In Nyala and Ed Daein, there are an estimated 3,500 artisans (at least 2,000 in Nyala in 2007). A UNIDO assessment (2007) noted that they face three main constraints, namely the unavailability of raw materials, workspace, and finance. In addition, there is a paucity of technical skills, with the majority not holding any trade certificates. Workshop management is very poor: health hazards and wastage of materials combine with low-level technology and poor financial skills\(^1\). Research into the revival of some of these small businesses is important, as some technical knowledge still exists.

\(^1\) UNIDO. *Fact Finding Mission Report: On Search of Opportunities for Sustainable Livelihoods in Darfur.*

At present, the traditional agricultural industries include food processing, tanning, pottery making, shoe making, oil extraction, honey harvesting, making agricultural tools and machines, baking, and rural transport services. The modern industries include peanut shelling, oil mill processing, tanning, and food processing. The only industrial tannery in Darfur is in Nyala, but it has closed. The handmade leather footwear produced there, based on one design, is recognized across Sudan for quality and comfort.

**Small Industries in Nyala in the 1980s**

It is useful to note industries from pre-conflict days in order to assess potential areas of expansion or redevelopment.

The leather industry was found to be among the most important of the traditional industries, with 147 enterprises and 254 workers in 1987–1988 season. They produced shoes, water sacks, bracelets, and knife and sword sheaths using mainly local tools. Cow and goat leather bought and tanned locally were the main raw materials. Less commonly, snake and leopard skin were used. Gum shoes were also produced by a different set of craftsmen, for people with less income.

Carpentry has for some time been one of the most rapidly expanding industries, due mainly to urban growth and higher demand; there are 130 workshops and 39 workers within the Carpenters Union. They were distinguished largely by whether they used manual tools or electricity, and all worked to order. Wooden doors and windows in Nyala have been replaced with metal, so most of the carpenters’ products were beds, tables, sideboards, and cabinets. Less than 12 percent of the carpenters had institutional training and almost all owned their businesses. The local vocational school was regarded...
as too “theoretical”. The average business, when successful, was found to support family units of up to six persons. Wood is both local and imported: teak and mahogany from South Sudan, sandalwood from South Darfur, and whitewood from Central Africa or outside the continent.

Metal workshops included blacksmith workshops, tinsmith workshops, foundries, repair shops, and “modern” workshops. There were 55 modern workshops with 820 workers, 89 of whom worked on car repairs. The metal workshops produced furniture, windows, doors, lorry boxes, water tanks, house-building supports, peanut decorticators, horse carts, and spice and snuff mills. Only seven entrepreneurs had received any technical or business training.

The blacksmith trade was found to be very different vis-à-vis technology, market, and raw materials. They produced hand tools (sickles, axes, hacks, scratchers for gum arabic, tongs, trowels, knives, pestles, swords, points for spears, scissors, weights, harnesses, and dancing instruments), almost all targeting agricultural producers. Car scrap and charcoal were the two main raw materials, both purchased locally. Charcoal was purchased at between SDG 17 and 30 per sack. This enterprise was found to have a lower output than carpentry, supporting up to 3 persons within the family unit, with a weekly income between SDG 300 and 400 in the summer.

Women worked in the textile, soft drink, oil production, and ice production factories, while also producing pottery and palm leaf products, the latter in home-based enterprises.

Forty-seven percent of the enterprises were licensed and all relied on their own finances when establishing their business (source: Sudan Economy Research Group, *The Potential of Small Industries in Sudan: Case Study of Nyala*, Discussion Paper No. 4, University of Bremen, 1989).

Both the traditional and modern industries have been negatively affected by the dualism that exists between them. The traditional industries, as household-based enterprises, depend on family labour and local materials, with very limited support and an understated role from the government, but still the systems have survived for hundreds of years (shoes making, skin tanning, food processing, and oil extractions). Unclear national and state policies and processes have meanwhile jeopardized the modern industries, meaning they cannot compete at the global level or at the more traditional level.

Oil processing started in the 1970s. In 2007, there were 19 oil companies in Nyala, with a total production capacity of 760 tons per day. At the time of the assessment, only two were operating and that was on an irregular basis. This was due to high taxes, a shortage of raw materials, inadequate electricity over the previous four years, and the high price of processing oil. The cost of production of one jerrycan (20 litres) was estimated at SDG 80, which cannot compete with imported products (SDG 40 per jerrycan) or aid distributions.

### 3.7 MICROFINANCE

It is widely accepted that microfinance options are a sound basis from which to launch small-scale projects; the Grameen Bank and other models show how they can have extremely positive results for poor communities.

In theory, microfinance schemes are a very viable option for the poorer people of El Fasher and surrounding camps. But in the absence of a structured system, the imposition of harsh conditions and Darfur’s “high risk” label has meant that microfinance there has had little impact on the lives of the population. That said, there are a number of NGOs that have established microfinance projects for small groups – these do create opportunities for people to buy household items and small animals and send children to school dressed well. While these projects do not have obvious community-wide benefits, they do illustrate the potential of this lending mechanism, if banking structures are improved and lending conditions (particularly for women) are made more flexible.

Commercial banks in Sudan are expected to allocate 12 percent of their total annual lending portfolios to microfinance, but in practice this does not happen. It is estimated that microfinance in Sudan has only 3 to 5 percent of the current market covered, which indicates its potential. Khartoum and other large urban areas are the main focus of microfinance projects. The International Fund for Agricultural Development’s North Kordofan Rural Development Project has been working with the Agricultural Bank of Sudan for some years, with many microfinance initiatives and successes recorded.
The report from the Microfinance Best Practices in Conflict-affected Countries meeting held in Khartoum in November 2007 clearly showed that there is a keen interest on the part of the government and international community to develop microfinance in Sudan. It demonstrated that the country has to focus more on the poor sector of society and that more investment is required, more experienced staff are necessary, and greater risks need to be taken by the banks and lending institutions. This is an opportune time to capitalize on the focus microfinance is receiving.

Darfur presents a challenge: most existing loans will be defaulted on due to the loss of assets resulting from the conflict. So from where does the incentive come to tackle this problem? Developing microfinance programmes in urban locations such as El Fasher is less risky and presents greater monitoring options than rural-based projects (in the present circumstances). Developing flexible conditions that allow more women to access loans is essential, since the present system depends on owning urban assets and therefore eliminates the possibility for most women to access the system. Discussion with banks to encourage them to ease restrictions, increase loan amounts, extend repayment terms, and introduce moratoriums for serious cases will go a long way to putting this financial mechanism on a more sound footing.

A positive step forward has been the plan to establish the new Family Bank, which will specialize in microcredit. This will be announced in August 2008. There will be six initial banks based in Khartoum, Northern State, Nile State, and the three states of Darfur. The aim of the bank is to provide credit to create opportunities for people to start small businesses. Initial capital will be USD 32 million and the chairman of the board stated that he expects that to grow to USD 500 million over the next 5 years. The maximum loan will be SDG 10,000.

3.8 REMITTANCES

Many Darfurians have emigrated to countries such as Libya, and remittances traditionally have been an important addition to household incomes. Young et al. (2005) noted that in 2004 the Sudanese Embassy reported that there were 320,000 Darfurians working in Libya. Remittances from these emigrants ranged from USD 40 to 900 per annum. If one takes a crude average of USD 400 per person per year, which is a total of USD 128 million, it gives a rough idea of the financial magnitude of remittances in Darfur.

However, it is certain that this level has been reduced significantly as access routes have become more difficult to travel; carrying money is extremely risky given the many rebel groups now roaming the region.

4. INFRASTRUCTURE

4.1 BACKGROUND

The Sahelian drought of the early 1970s led to a major movement of people from North Darfur to South Darfur. In addition, Nyala and other towns – Ed Daien, Adilla, and Buram – hosted displaced persons from South Sudan since the late 1980s. The population of South Darfur State in 2003 was estimated at 3 million, of which 140,343 were displaced. The state had an annual population growth rate of 3.28 percent between 1998 and 2003 and an estimated density of 17 persons per square kilometre. In 2003, 79 percent of the population was classified as rural and 21 percent as urban.

Population movements in recent years have resulted from ecological factors, insecurity, seasonal migrations (whether with livestock or in search of work or alternative livelihoods), and, most significantly, the outbreak of conflict in 2003, with secondary displacements up to mid-2008, most notably in South Darfur.

4.2 URBAN LAND, DISPLACEMENT, AND RESETTLEMENT

With respect to urban land, the existing legal framework relies on statutory law. The basis of land- and property-related legislation is the Sudanese Constitution of 1998 and the Interim Constitution of New Sudan (July 2005).

Article 23 of the 1998 constitution allows for free choice of movement and settlement. In addition, the Land Settlement and Registration Act of 1925 foresees procedures for determination of land for mainly urban settlement (and resettlement), surveying of plots, demarcation, registration, transfer of leasehold, and issuance of certificates. The Land Acquisition Act of 1930 allows for procedures...
for land acquisition for public purposes and compensation. Land that was not registered prior to the enactment of the Land Act of 1970 becomes the property of government.

The Urban Planning and Land Disposal Act of 1994 outlines the institutional arrangements for urban planning, town and village demarcation, expropriation for public purposes, and procedures for acquiring land leases. Urban areas in Darfur fall under the direct jurisdiction of the state. The Ministry of Planning and Development is the main body dealing with urban land matters. The tax department deals only with town land. In theory, the government leases urban land to citizens in the town and requires rent payment, the tax department receiving 1 percent. When land rights are being transferred, the vendor is required to pay 5 percent of the price to the tax department.

It is worth noting that there is no master plan for Nyala. Planning has been carried out on a piecemeal basis, but the local authorities recognize that a long-term plan is required as demands for land and services increase.

**Camps**

By nature, camp dwellings are small and temporary. Dwellings sit on approximately ten square metres each, with larger plots given for agency offices, community buildings, schools, etc. There is a market in most camps, where all sorts of foodstuffs, UN distribution goods, and other commodities are available. In the bigger camps, this is a thriving business environment and a hive of activity as hundreds of people sell their wares; there is a constant flow of trucks delivering supplies, and many taxis wait to shuttle people between the town and camp.

### 4.3 OTHER BUILDINGS IN NYALA

- State legislative council
- State government headquarters
- Army headquarters for the western area
- State ministries
- Teaching hospital
- Agricultural Research Station
- Nyala airport
- National and international NGOs
- Government institutions
- Headquarters of the Transitional Regional Authority
- Banks

- Mosques
- Churches
- Secondary and primary schools
- Nyala University
- Teaching hospital
- Six dispensaries
- Pharmacies
- Training institutions
- Sports stadium
- Fourteen drugstores
- Eight shops for the supply of improved seeds and pesticide

### 4.4 WATER

In 1997, 20 percent of the wells in South Darfur were not functioning, leaving Nyala town with critical water shortages; available supplies met only 18 percent of its needs. Ten wells supplied 6,650 cubic metres, while the actual need was calculated at 37,000 cubic metres. The available storage capacity was 1,090 cubic metres, just under 50 percent of the state’s population had access to safe water by 2000.

#### 4.4.1 Urban Water

Water provision has improved, but the provision of basic commodities and water is a challenge as the urban population grows – neither the old piped system nor vendors are able to meet needs. Those purchasing from vendors receive poor quality water while also using a large part of their income. With Dutch funding, a major project was undertaken – the Water Supply Extension Project – between 1986 and 1993, which engaged closely with Nyala Urban Water Corporation. In parallel, an Institutional Strengthening and Management Development Project ran from 1989 through to 1993. The latter worked with the water corporation to prepare an Enterprise Development Plan. Technical training was provided in Nyala Technical High School on hygiene education and sanitation. Although progress was slow in improving the pipe network and booster pumping system, up to 100,000 extra people benefited from piped water after 1993.

Technical surveys associated with the above showed that adequate water is available in the natural aquifers to meet the area’s needs. But with the majority of people converging on densely populated urban centres like Nyala, lack of planning and budget deficits mean that only a minority receive treated piped water. The direct piped water system presently

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serves around 25 percent of households. Water vendors and scattered water points served by hand pumps are the main water sources for the remaining families.

The ground and surface water is primarily from Wadi Nyala (a seasonal water course). Where wells are sunk, they often reach depths of 100 feet. The daily water supply from these sources is approximately 15,000 cubic metres. However, the average daily consumption needs are about 100,000 cubic metres, which leaves a large supply deficit.

The constant increasing demand is due to the ever-growing urban population, the spread of houses, the expansion of the industrial sector, the requirements of the IDPs (which surpass those met by humanitarian water distributions), and the presence of the international aid community and armed forces. The building industry, which is thriving, is also putting huge pressure on water resources.

4.4.2 Water Prices
The price of water varies according to the source and according to the need (residential, commercial, industrial, and social services such as hospitals). Average prices are as follows (the approximate exchange rate is SDG 2 to USD 1):
- Residential holdings: between SDG 21 and 28 per month
- Commercial/industrial: between SDG 75 and 150 per month

The present piped system is poorly maintained, which is resulting in leakages and significant water loss. The dependence on Wadi Nyala is putting too much pressure on one source. However, an alternative source, the baggara water basin, is anticipated to ease that pressure. The work on this basin is due to be completed in 2009 and will increase the direct supply to households based on their ability to pay. The local water corporation also has plans to construct more wells and further exploit Wadi Nyala in the areas of Mosay and Kondowa (source: Ministry of Planning and Public Utilities, Nyala Locality Water Corporation Director-General Engineer Ahmed Hamza Bushra).

**UNAMID Engineers**
There are now 122 Chinese engineers in Darfur as part of the UNAMID deployment. In Nyala, they are complementary to the “supercamp” and will support the expansion of other UNAMID camps and bases. They have expertise in bridge- and road-making, construction, maintenance, and well-drilling. They will work with the local communities on the maintenance of water systems and well-drilling.

4.5 SANITATION
Sixty-two percent of people rely on pit latrines, 11 percent on flush toilets with a septic tank system or other, and 27 percent of the population have no facility.

4.6 ELECTRICITY
The modern Nyala electricity station was established in 1985, with an extension completed this year. The daily average requirement for Nyala town is 9 megawatts; this is catered for, as the capacity from the 2 stations is now 11 megawatts. However, this supply is confined to less than 30 percent of households, as well as to offices, industrial properties, and public buildings.

The price range per kilowatt, according to the type of premises, is as follows:
- Residential housing: 20 piastre
- Commercial sector: 24 piastre
- Governmental: 33 piastre
- Industrial: 24 piastre
- Agricultural: 22 piastre

Money permitting, there is a plan to construct a thermal station. However, it has been calculated that this will use 120 barrels of oil per day, so it is strongly suggested that alternative systems or extensions of existing stations be explored (source: town authority engineer).

4.7 ROADS
Presently the total length of tarmac roads in Nyala is 44 km, which is approximately 30 percent of the town’s road network. There are 3 tarmac roads in Nyala, including the airport road.

The director for Roads and Bridges stated that there is a plan to construct 5 km each year, with more constructed if extra funds become available (source: Engineer Ismail Ahmed Holi).

It was suggested that this piecemeal approach results from the government not prioritizing

the development of the road system. However, a major highway, the West Salvation Road, is under construction and will connect Khartoum, El Obeid, Um Kedaba, El Fasher, Nyala, and El Geneina. Presently, the road network linking the state with the rest of the country is very poor, and between May and October is almost impassable.

4.8 TRANSPORT

Nyala probably has the worst traffic congestion among all the towns in Darfur. There are over 4,000 small three-wheel vehicles in Nyala (tuk tuk). They are officially excluded from using the main roads (tarmac roads) because of the congestion and problems they cause. However, this rule is often flaunted. These vehicles are usually owned by individuals or families, but the daily income is low due to their large number. They normally work inside residential areas and on the outskirts of the town. The daily returns do not exceed 20–30 pounds, thereby providing the driver – who earns one-third of the takings – with an average daily income of 7–10 pounds.

Taxis, minibuses, and buses also exist in the town. Taxis are owned by individuals, many of whom also drive the vehicles; they make 30–40 pounds per day.

Minibuses are used by people who live in remote residential areas and are owned by individuals from various sectors. Prices vary according to locality and distance. Old buses are used by the poor due to their low cost.

4.9 AIRPORT

The regional airport in Nyala connects with Khartoum, El Fasher, and El Geneina, in addition to El Obeid. Sudan Airways flies three times per week to Khartoum, in addition to UNAMID/UNMIS and WFP flights.

4.10 RAILWAY

There is a train that travels between Nyala and Khartoum, a four-day trip.

4.11 TELECOMMUNICATIONS

There is Internet connectivity and an expanding mobile phone network. In 2001, there were roughly 4 telephone lines per 1,000 persons.

4.12 SEWAGE TREATMENT

Under UNAMID, 8 mobile treatment units, each with a capacity of 100 cubic metres, were installed in May 2008 in both El Fasher and Nyala camps. The technical delivery was by Corodex Ltd.²

² www.ameinfo.com

Transporting wood in Nyala
5. FOOD ECONOMY AND AGRICULTURE

5.1 INTRODUCTION

South Darfur State has 9 localities, further divided into 10 urban and 33 rural administrative units. The total area of the state is approximately 138,000 square kilometres, which is about 28 percent of Darfur. It borders West Darfur, North Darfur, Western Kordofan to the east, Bahr el Ghazal to the south, and the Central African Republic.

About 75 percent of the state’s land is considered arable, with three distinct zones – northern, central, and southern:

- Northern – semi-desert, median annual rainfall of 200–900 mm, with clay and sandy soils, also known as baggara. In the north-west, the Jebel Marra Mountains receive much higher rainfall, up to 1,290 mm annually.
- Central – largely savannah, with mainly sandy soils and pockets of clay soils, and a median annual rainfall of 300–450 mm, mainly sand-clay types.
- Southern – savannah climate, with fertile clay soils and a median annual rainfall between 600 and 1000 mm, also known as ragaba.

The rainy season begins in May and continues through to September, but its distribution shows considerable variation. An estimated 14.05 percent of the state supported forest cover in 2003. This included large tracts of gum arabic-producing trees, integrated into smallholder crop-producing areas, mainly in the sandy lowlands. It also included rich savannah and upland forests, the latter in Jebel Marra.

The main soils are sand dunes, pediplain, clay plains, clay flats, and cracking clay. The patterns of vegetation follow the soil types and the amount of rainfall in the northern part of the state, resulting in a progression from scattered acacia trees to thick forest in the south. The main sources of water are rainfall, runoff, and groundwater. There are about 8 wadis in the state, with a total annual discharge of 1,141 million cubic metres of water. With regard to groundwater, the baggara aquifer has a total area of 60,000 km and stored water capacity of 300,000 cubic metres, in addition to underground water at the wadi banks.

The total cultivable area is estimated to be 24 million feddan, while the annual area under cultivation is about 10 million feddan. Most of the areas are suitable for grazing.

5.2 POST-INDEPENDENCE PERIOD

At independence, the government did not consider the traditional agriculture sector a priority, and most public investment went into the irrigated sector. The most important transformation in the state was the establishment of a railway line between Nyal and Khartoum in the 1960s. This development in infrastructure had been accompanied by the rapid development of markets for traditional crops (e.g. peanuts and gum arabic) and livestock. Nyal had changed from a small market to a large urban market. The development of the railway encouraged investment in rural transport (lorries), which resulted in the growth of rural marketing. This in turn encouraged traditional producers to expand their crops, and from the farm surplus they started to invest in livestock. In 1968, the government established rural water and development cooperation with credit from international institutions – for example, 700 wells were drilled in South Darfur and South Kordofan.

Some of these interventions brought negative environmental impacts. Overgrazing around the water points and over-cultivation around large settlements on sandy soils were prominent. Then the settlement of nomads became part of the government agenda. In the 1970s, the government established the Western Savannah Development Programme to develop the traditional production system. The projects provided services to the farmers and nomads (extension services, veterinary service training, storage, and the introduction of animal draft ploughs). After the drought of 1984, the government started to think more seriously about the development of the state, but had to contend with serious financial constraints.

5.3 SOUTH DARFUR TRADITIONAL FARMING SYSTEMS

The cultivable area is estimated to be 24 million feddan and the area under annual cultivation is estimated to be 10 million feddan. An estimated 175,000 feddan is classified suitable for vegetable and fruit production, and in recent years approximately...
75,000 feddan has been cultivated. The main crops are millet, sorghum (durra), peanuts, watermelons, and vegetables. Forest production, including gum arabic trees, is of major significance but is deeply affected by the current context and other external factors outlined in the following section.

Six farming and economy zones can be distinguished, and most have been affected by insecurity, asset loss, and displacement since 2003. These comprise the following: goz clay plot, wadi farm, irrigated, urban agriculture, large mechanized farm, and pastoralist systems. The southern localities of Ed Daïen, Ed el Fersan, and Buram are the most productive under traditional rain-fed systems, with millet, peanuts, and sorghum as the main crops grown; peanuts are important for income generation.

5.3.1 Goz Farming System
This is supported on sandy soils and normally accounts for 60–70 percent of all smallholder farms in South Darfur, commonly reaching 6 or 7 million feddan. The main crops are millet, peanuts, and watermelon. An average household under secure conditions and favourable growing conditions can cultivate up to 10 feddan, with 50 percent for millet and 30 percent and 20 percent for peanuts and watermelon respectively. In terms of ensuring household food security and producing a surplus for the market, this is a key system. Failure to achieve this forces households to seek alternative livelihoods and income sources. There is, however, a large variation in average smallholder farm size across the 9 localities; Buram, El Dien, Adyla, and Tulus are the most productive, where farm sizes can reach 20 feddan.

In the 2007–2008 season, the area producing millet was 2.3 million feddan, a decline from 2.9 million feddan in the previous season. Productivity dropped sharply from 134 kg per feddan to 42 kg because an estimated 17 percent of the area cultivated could not be weeded due to insecurity and poor access by farmers. The average area per household in the current season in the goz farms is estimated at 5.3 feddan, and average production is 213 kg, compared to 850 kg in the previous season.

5.3.2 Rain-fed Clay Farming Systems
This is supported on the heavy and fertile clay soils (or mixed clay soils); up to 1,500 feddan are usually cultivated, producing mainly sorghum and occasionally intercropped with cress (lubia). The average farm size is smaller than under the goz system above, not least because of the labour required for preparation and weeding. In the current 2007–2008 season, the sorghum area was estimated at 1 million feddan, with a mean production of 58 kg per feddan; this was a decline from 2006–2007, which yielded 160 kg per feddan. More than 25 percent of the area planted was not weeded due to inaccessibility. The width of the riverbank is very limited on most of the wadis in South Darfur. The average farm size is no more than one or two feddan, and the main crops are okra, tomato, and watermelon, which are grown as cash crops. This traditional farming starts after September when work on other systems has been completed.

5.3.3 Irrigated Farming System
The total area under cultivation of this system is estimated at 75,000 feddan. The main crops are vegetables, fruits, potatoes, and wheat. This system depends on underground water resources held in six key wadis; Nyala, Bulbul, Kogra, Kabo, Rehade, and El Birdi, with a total area of 500,000 feddan. The total capacity of this resource is estimated at 17 million cubic metres. Under manual systems, the average farm size is one or two feddan. When a pump system is adopted, 10–15 feddan can be cultivated. The majority of smallholders cannot afford this system, and with little capital or access to credit, this system is dominated by the wealthy.

5.3.4 Urban Agriculture System
The system carried out within the town and its immediate surroundings is dominated by poultry, milk, and vegetable production and small animal husbandry. Fodder is also produced to meet livestock needs and is an important commodity, as the urban and adjoining lands do not support very favourable grazing lands. The total area is estimated at 5,000 feddans around Nyala town. Due to proximity to the urban area, the system benefits from better access to technology, finances, markets, and inputs. The performance of this system in terms of productivity is notable for vegetable, poultry, and milk production (see Tables 4 and 5). This productivity is related to the scarcity of produce coming into the urban market from the rural area, as well as the large consumer base within the resident and camp populations. Insecurity and high transportation and protection fees are disincentives for many rural producers and traders. The IDPs – mainly women – find employment on these urban farms at low wages, and the low production costs favour higher profit margins.
Regarding milk production, farmers made losses due to the structure of the herd (only 40 percent of each herd produces milk). Those involved in urban agriculture, particularly in poultry and milk production, find it difficult to cover their operational costs, primarily due to the rising price of sorghum.

Table 4: Cost and Revenue for Vegetable Production per Feddan in Nyala Urban Areas (2007-2008)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Onion (SDG)</th>
<th>Tomato (SDG)</th>
<th>Cost per Unit (SDG)</th>
<th>Total Cost (SDG)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Well construction</td>
<td>17,000</td>
<td>17,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irrigation canal</td>
<td>12,000</td>
<td>12,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pump + engine x 2</td>
<td>2,400</td>
<td>4,800</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subtotal capital assets</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>500</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Land rent</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeds</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transplant</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plough</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weed</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backing</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>420</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harvest</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>420</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>255</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irrigate</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spray</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>137</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total cost</td>
<td>2,412</td>
<td>3,138</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total output</td>
<td>100 sacks</td>
<td>840 boxes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross return (SDG)</td>
<td>5,500</td>
<td>6,720</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Net return (SDG)</strong></td>
<td><strong>3,088</strong></td>
<td><strong>3,582</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Cost and Revenue for Poultry Production in Nyala Urban Area on a Monthly Basis (2007-2008)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Breakdown</th>
<th>Total Cost (per month) SDG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of units</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total capacity</td>
<td>4,500 chickens</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current production</td>
<td>500</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost of chick</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13 x 500</td>
<td>6,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sorghum (<em>durra</em>) feed</td>
<td>0.5 sack</td>
<td>70 x 0.5 x 15</td>
<td>210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cakes</td>
<td>6 x 15</td>
<td></td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concentrate</td>
<td>4 x 15</td>
<td></td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>5 x 15</td>
<td></td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drugs/vitamins</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>44.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Packing material</td>
<td>14 x 1</td>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watering</td>
<td>3 x 30</td>
<td></td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Losses</td>
<td>3 x 10</td>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subtotal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7,323.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total output</td>
<td>33 x 30</td>
<td></td>
<td>990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revenue – egg production</td>
<td>990 x 3</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revenue – 18-month-old chicken</td>
<td>450 x 10</td>
<td></td>
<td>4,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subtotal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7,470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Net return (SDG)</strong></td>
<td><strong>147</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.3.5 Large-scale Mechanized Farming
The area for large mechanized farming had been demarcated in Um Agaga (El Dien locality) as part of the Western Savannah Development Project in the 1970s. The total area demarcated was 1 million feddans, with 140,000 feddans allocated to the state farm (70,000) and private large farmers (70,000). Of this, only 20,000 feddans had been cultivated by the 1980s. The main constraints for the development of the mechanized subsector are the remoteness of the area, poor infrastructure, shortage of labour, and high cost of transport for both inputs and outputs. In the 2007–2008 season, an estimated 129,000 feddans was cultivated. No production figures were available during this profiling exercise.

5.4 HOUSEHOLD FOOD SECURITY
The total grain demand for South Darfur State is estimated at 602,856 metric tons, while total production of staple grains is 177,848 tons (30 percent). Household production varies widely among the localities. Insecure areas now have food shortages, while surpluses are produced in more secure localities. The war mainly destroyed the farming systems of the majority poor, thus enlarging the poverty gap between the marginalized and the more wealthy and powerful. This large food deficit will affect rural areas more than urban areas due to the high cost of transport of food and inaccessibility to certain areas.

Table 6: Average Area Planted per Household in South Darfur State per Feddan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Locality</th>
<th>Millet</th>
<th>Durra</th>
<th>Groundnut</th>
<th>Wheat</th>
<th>Sesame</th>
<th>Melon</th>
<th>Okra</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nyala</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheeria</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kass</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idd El Fursan</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rehad</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buram</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tulus</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edein</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>25.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adyla</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>47.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Jabal</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alsalam</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Post-harvest Assessment on Crop and Food Supply Food Security and Livelihood Coordination Forum.

Table 7: Average Production (kg) per Household in South Darfur State for 2007, 2006, and Mean 1993-2002

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nyala</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>470</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>540</td>
<td>165</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheeria</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>680</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>464</td>
<td>1,116</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kass</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>459</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>383</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al Fursan Idd</td>
<td>333</td>
<td>820</td>
<td>970</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>684</td>
<td>576</td>
<td>495</td>
<td>1,076</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rehad al Birdi</td>
<td>470</td>
<td>1,220</td>
<td>1,060</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>351</td>
<td>324</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>446</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buram</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>1,329</td>
<td>910</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>783</td>
<td>369</td>
<td>595</td>
<td>1,548</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tulus</td>
<td>520</td>
<td>1,930</td>
<td>770</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>432</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>671</td>
<td>2,138</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edein</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>820</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>585</td>
<td>397</td>
<td>1,708</td>
<td>1,490</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adyla</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1,780</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1,224</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>1,514</td>
<td>5,193</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Jabal</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alsalam</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>442</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>850</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>351</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>571</td>
<td>1,548</td>
<td>33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.5 LIVESTOCK-BASED PASTORALISM

During the condominium period (1889–1956), the government initiated veterinary services; most nomads refused the idea until 1930 when the Veterinary Services Department established an immunization programme. In 1946, the government devoted more effort to the livestock sector and established a committee for livestock and veterinary policies. The main functions of the committee were provision of veterinary services, elimination of diseases, and supply of water. From 1951 to 1955 the government constructed 36 hafirs (capacity of 224,000 cubic metres) in South Darfur. The delivery of veterinary services became more systematic, leading to an increase in the livestock population, which encouraged the government to think about how to exploit livestock resources. A meat factory was established at Kosti on the White Nile (900 km from Nyala) to draw off a surplus of 100,000 head annually. The meat factory stopped after a few seasons because it failed to compete with livestock traders in Omdurman who offered higher prices.

During this period, overgrazing around water points led to a debate between the water and soil conservation boards and the formulation of new ideas for the development of South Darfur. To research and improve pasture, the government established the Western Baggara experimental station at Ghazal Gawazat in 1955. Due to a shortage of funds, only one-tenth of the demarcated area (210 square miles) was enclosed by fences. A consultancy concluded that “due to scarcity of population, shortage of labour is a serious factor limiting Darfur’s economy... migration is very wasteful as far as labour is concerned. Their supporters should remember that nowhere in the world have nomadic producers achieved any considerable economic progress. The settlement of the Baggara must play an important part in economic development of the country” (Basinski 1956:13).

The livestock population is estimated at 3,851,663 cattle, with 3,471,773 sheep, 2,756,688 goats, and 74,950 camels. Between 1998 and 2002, the estimated livestock population rose from 9.1 million to 11.5 million, dominated by cattle and sheep. There were no estimates for donkeys, which are a key livelihood asset in both urban and rural areas. There were also no specific recent census data to distinguish the herds managed under strict nomadic systems, which in South Darfur largely shaped the path of development. In 1998, it was estimated that 25–40 percent of the livestock population was managed under this system and utilized natural resources that cannot be accessed in other systems. The total nomadic migratory route is estimated to be 4,500 km over the Darfur states, typically extending into South Sudan (via South Darfur), Chad, and the Central Africa Republic. In 1987, an analysis of the system by Martin Adams revealed that the performance of the system in terms of calving rates, the average calving interval, heifer calving under four years, the calf mortality rate, and meat production per kilogram of breeding female is far better than the sedentary system. The movement of nomads encourages both supply and demand for the different farming systems (see next section). Despite this inherent ecological and economic soundness, national policies emphasize sedentary ideology, and most livestock and veterinary research and investment is directed towards intensive dairying.

Livestock production, herding, and marketing are important to the state’s economy (more information below). Emergency sales of livestock post-2003 threatened food security; looting or killing of animals was a feature of the attacks, which forced displacement.

In Kass, Sharia, and Nyala localities, up to 60 percent of all livestock were looted in 2003. The livestock maintained in the camps are mainly goats, chickens, and donkeys. There are limited veterinary services for the camp-based keepers, e.g. there are no annual vaccinations.

5.6 MARKETING AND TRADE – GENERAL TRENDS POST-2003

The costs of marketing and associated transportation grew steeply as the conflict intensified since 2003, up to four or more times the normal price. Taxation costs climbed, and the economy continued to be affected as state governments boosted their revenue. Significantly, diverse levies by militia compounded the problem for transporters, wholesalers, and producers. The prices of the more common commodities have doubled across Darfur and informal credit support systems have broken down. Between 20 and 30 percent of urban-based traders have lost their livelihoods. Traditional markets in the rural areas have disappeared or been replaced by new markets, which are often supported by military factions.
5.6.1 Camp Markets
The unregulated camp markets, especially those close to major centres such as Nyala, represent the most prominent economic outcomes over the past five years, operating outside the formal tax net. While relief foods are a major commodity in camp markets, so too are looted items, including livestock for slaughter. A study in 2007 on trade and markets in Darfur found that relief grain buffeted both the displaced and town residents against escalating food prices, both for domestic consumption and as fodder for livestock. It further found that busy markets, such as that in Kalma outside Nyala (the largest in Darfur), benefit traders, who offload charcoal and livestock at the camp market rather than pay taxes at the town’s checkpoint. At 2007 prices, a sack of charcoal cost SDG 20 in Nyala market, while it was sold at SDG 15–16 in Kalma; one kg of meat retailed at SDG 6–7 in Nyala and SDG 5–6 at the camp. This encourages residents and town traders to regularly purchase in Kalma IDP camp market; close trade relations have evolved between the town and IDP traders.

In both West Darfur and South Darfur the timber, fuel, charcoal, and pole wood industries thrive, but this is in the absence of any regulations, as most government personnel cannot travel beyond a certain radius (about 20 km in the case of Nyala).

Prior to the conflict, markets were one of the key institutions through which stakeholders and people from various livelihood groups interacted. For example, in the case of the South Darfur and Nyala markets, these included pastoralists, resident farmers, the internally displaced in both rural and urban areas, traders, and others. Thus “traditional” networks for trade are broken but are being replaced by new stakeholders and trade or market channels and systems. New routes have opened (albeit at considerable cost), resulting in long-distance trade (including export) for grains, cash crops, and livestock, which affects farmers, pastoralists, and traders.

Traders, especially grain traders, have survived mainly because of relief food. There is three times the amount of relief grain in the market as locally produced food, much of it traded outside the formal market system (usually sold by IDPs to generate income).

5.6.2 Crop Marketing
Nyala market is the central market for the state. There are 8 semi-urban markets and 14 markets at locality level for crop produce, and all are officially registered and managed by the government. The central market and semi-urban markets operate daily, and the rural markets open for one or two days per week.

To analyse the relationships among the different markets, Table 8 shows the prices of the main crops at locality level:

Table 8: Comparison of Prices of Millet, Sorghum (*Durra*), and Groundnuts at Markets in the Localities for 2005, 2006, and 2007 (SDG)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shearia</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kass</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idd al Fursan</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>80.3</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rehad al Birdi</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buram</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tulus</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edein</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adyla</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Jabal</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alsalam</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In all cases, 2007 prices for the 3 crops are higher, including a 73 percent hike in millet prices. In 2005, the average price per 50 kg was SDG 76.6, 51.3, and 26 for millet, durra, and groundnuts respectively. In 2006, the prices dropped by 12 percent and 9 percent for millet and durra respectively, while the price of groundnuts increased by 12 percent due to good production. The highest prices for millet were recorded in 2007 in Buram (SDG 132 per sack) and Sharea localities, and the minimum prices were recorded in East Jebel, Rehad, and Nyala.

A comparison between Nyala and other markets show that the prices are lower by 97 percent, 65 percent, and 51 percent for groundnuts, millet, and durra respectively for 2007 (Table 9). In Nyala, the price of gum arabic – both basab and tala – showed a fall through 2007 to early 2008, as did karkade (roselle).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Groundnut</td>
<td>KT*</td>
<td>43.6</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shelled nut</td>
<td>ton</td>
<td>1,333.6</td>
<td>1,710</td>
<td>1,650</td>
<td>1,590</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Millet</td>
<td>sack</td>
<td>70.9</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sorghum</td>
<td>sack</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gum arabic (basab)</td>
<td>KT</td>
<td>49.3</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T. gum (tala)</td>
<td>KT</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sesame</td>
<td>KT</td>
<td>50.6</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karkade</td>
<td>KT</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wheat</td>
<td>sack</td>
<td>43.3</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lubia</td>
<td>sack</td>
<td>49.8</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Okra</td>
<td>KT</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dry tomato</td>
<td>KT</td>
<td>84.4</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Onion</td>
<td>sack</td>
<td>91.8</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pepper</td>
<td>KT</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*KT = guntar = 45.5 kg

Over half of the groundnut traders in Nyala lost their business, a downturn that affected producers and a formerly busy groundnut oil processing industry. Orange traders transporting mainly from Jebel Marra in the north-west corner of the state fared much better, although they pay double taxes and multiple payments en route for protection and passage through militia-held territory. The gum arabic trade, previously affected by low world prices and an earlier expansion of mechanized farming in South Darfur, has virtually collapsed. In addition, as demand for charcoal, building materials, and timber rises with the increased demand in Nyala, many gum arabic trees are being felled. However, it should be noted that with post-2003 displacement, particularly in the wetter savannah farmland, the regeneration of on-farm trees – including gum arabic trees – was an indicator of a decline in cultivation, whether by machine, donkey, or manual means.

5.6.3 Livestock Markets
There are 14 markets specifically for livestock across South Darfur State. In the past year, the supply exceeded the demand for all livestock, with only 40, 30, 27, 15, 35, and 16 percent sold for cattle, sheep, goats, camels, horses, and donkeys respectively in 2007. In terms of numbers, cattle and sheep dominated. Due to reduced exports because of the high cost of transportation or movement by hoof due to insecurity, emergency or “stress” sales were taking place. To examine the livestock market performance in the whole state, Tables 10 and 11 show the prices of livestock at the rural markets that supply the central market in Nyala.
In general, the prices in 2007 increased compared to 2006 for the rural areas, but there are many discrepancies among the localities. Comparing rural prices with the price of the central market Nyala in 2007, the producers received only about 45–64 percent of the centre’s price for cattle and 52–85 percent for sheep.

Besides moving fewer animals and need more herders for protection, livestock traders have faced blocked seasonal migration routes across Darfur (11 major routes), longer travel time, and, in some cases, closed markets.

Herders pay one-third of their market price as levies and protection fees between El Fasher and Nyala. The survey mentioned above noted that walking between 45 and 55 cattle between Nyala and El Fasher in 2007 with two herders cost up to SDG 2,950 per trip, including levies, taxes (at both government and Sudanese Liberation Army checkpoints), food, water, and herder fees. When a 30-ton truck is used, the same 37 percent is lost in the form of levies and taxation, but in slightly different ways.
5.6.4 Fruit Marketing

There are separate markets for fruit, which are mainly oranges and grapes. The average monthly supply is estimated at 90–150 trucks. The number of traders involved is about 40, organized into 3 groups: those who supply the fruits from the production areas, wholesalers, and exporters. Since January 2008, the stakeholders at the market have listed three constraints: (a) high cost of transport, (b) high level of illegal taxation, and (c) cessation of export of fruits to other parts of North Sudan due to inaccessibility (bad roads) and the import of cheaper fruit from Egypt.

The perishability of fruits such as grapes and the consequences for traders is indicated in Table 12.

Table 12: Breakdown of the Market Margin for the Grape Trade (Nyala, Early 2008)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Units</th>
<th>Breakdown</th>
<th>Total SDG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Producers at the farm gate</td>
<td>Sacks</td>
<td>60 x 0.95</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picking cost</td>
<td></td>
<td>60 x 0.04</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport by camel</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Packing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taxes checkpoints</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offloading</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other costs for harvesting and transport</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subtotal cost</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value to wholesaler on the first day</td>
<td></td>
<td>54 x 4</td>
<td>216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value after four days</td>
<td></td>
<td>36 x 4</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value after seven days</td>
<td></td>
<td>24 x 4</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When there is high demand, traders can market the fruit on same day. Due to poor packing, poor storage conditions, and high temperatures, after 4 days the traders lose 40 percent and after 7 days 60 percent; hence, marketing on the same day is the key to making a profit. The overhead includes an annual license fee of SDG 115, with shop rent of SDG 100 per month.

5.7 THE IMPACT OF TRANSPORT ON COMMODITY PRICES

Depending on the routes involved, between 2007 and 2008 transport costs rose from 8 to 27 percent, with the routes around Nyala and El Geneina most affected. Fifty-one percent of truck highjackings occurred on the Ed Daen–Zalingei route. Over the period, the UN Joint Logistics Centre noted that 22 percent of 15 transporters surveyed ceased their operations. This influenced pricing in Nyala town, inflating costs to twice the national inflation rate. In addition, January 2007 and January 2008 price comparisons for a range of items showed that availability declined, leading to a growth in price in Nyala and El Geneina, but not El Fasher\(^1\) (Table 13).

Table 13: Comparison of Prices January 2007 and January 2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commodity</th>
<th>Price Increase (percent)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Groceries</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fresh produce</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Furniture</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fuels, oils, and vehicle parts</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothing</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building materials</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sudanese national inflation rate</td>
<td>5.3–9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.8 MANUFACTURING AND AGRICULTURAL INDUSTRIES

Nyala was once considered the second most important centre for manufacturing after Khartoum. The range of enterprises for many years has been diverse, mostly relying on local resources and raw materials.

5.8.1 Gum Arabic

This is the most important non-wood forest product in northern Sudan and has been used since 4000 BC. It is an exudate of *Acacia senegal* (hashab gum), which is the prime producer, *Acacia seyal*, and *Acacia fistula* (talah gum). All are found in South Darfur, which, along with Kordofan, forms the most significant area in the “gum arabic belt”, between 10 and 14 degrees north latitude. In the belt, the trees grow naturally, usually from dispersed seed and through on-farm coppicing on sandy plains. It is used in soft drinks (including Coca Cola), baked goods, candy, beer, marshmallows, shoe polish, medicine, cosmetics, printing inks, and the lining of car doors.

Traditionally, the trees were managed as part of the farming system within the cereal-, fruit-, and vegetable-based systems, improving soil fertility, boosting yields, rejuvenating soil nutrients during fallowing, and providing fodder for livestock. Tapping is usually carried out in October in South Darfur, with collection about six weeks later. During drought phases, the trees meant a regular farm income was guaranteed. From the 1950s, plantations were established in order to maintain production, and *Acacia senegal* plantations made up 50 percent of all reforestation in North Sudan.

Farmers sell to merchants, who bring the gum to sorting sheds where it is graded. It is then purchased by the Gum Arabic Corporation, which sets the export price with the 4 international agents who are responsible for reselling 80 percent of Sudan's gum. Most of the small gum producers do not travel to auctions or central locations, thereby selling to “middlemen” and losing out on higher prices. Within the post-Comprehensive Peace Agreement poverty eradication, rural development, and food security strategies, there were welcome plans to privatize the industry with support to producer cooperatives, which would allow direct sales by producers to buyers. However, this has not happened.

At present there are many different taxes (Box 3) being imposed on production. Taxes currently amount to between USD 200 and 400 per ton, while additional taxes are collected from transporters.

Recognizing that figures are not easy to validate and accurate information on the business side of the product is sketchy at best, the following figures attempt to show how significant gum arabic has been and could again be in the future.

Since 2006, production and export levels fell to their lowest ever, around 9,000 tons (2006). From the 1950s to the 1990s, it was the second main export earner, commanding over 80 percent of the world’s production and trade. In 2007, Sudan’s share in the trade had fallen to 60 percent. Total gum exports ranged between 20,000 and 40,000 tons per year between the late 1970s and early 1990s, generating between USD 2,000 to 4,000 per ton annually. An acute world shortage in 2003 pushed the price to USD 5,000 per ton, a record high. Quality control continues to be a problem, as is ensuring a regular supply. Since the 1970s, world demand has fallen, with fluctuations in both production and price. Revenue from the gum in Sudan now totals less than USD 80 million per year. However, it remains an extremely valuable product for developed countries and could act as a lever in building relations with the international community while supporting livelihoods and natural resource recovery in Darfur.

Only in recent years (since 2003) did local processing commence, specifically when the Ministry of Investment granted processing licences to gum producers. This has helped render the market more competitive and reduce the level of control by the Gum Arabic Corporation.

Box 3: Range of Taxes and Levies Related to Gum Arabic Production

- Gum Arabic Union Tax
- NFC Tax
- Locality Tax
- Zakat
- General Tax
- Crop Marketing Tax
- Wounded Soldiers Tax
- Transport Tax
- Other informal taxes – border taxes, militia group demands, etc.

![Box 3: Range of Taxes and Levies Related to Gum Arabic Production](image)

The importance of the product and its uses were revealed when the USA exempted it from their 1997 sanctions and the more recent sanctions relating to the Darfur conflict. The USA purchases around 25 percent of Sudan’s gum arabic. Due to the difficulties in accessing Sudan’s gum, importers are looking to Chad, Uganda, Nigeria, and Ethiopia.

This is a complex industry that requires more flexibility at the policy and trade level in Sudan, but the potential is enormous and its revival and expansion should be looked at as a viable means to economic recovery.

As integral components of this valuable product’s development, reforestation and encouragement of natural regeneration of acacia trees will be essential. At the same time, educating villagers and providing access to microfinance schemes would be very beneficial, enabling local communities to take more ownership of gum arabic production and sales. Another important subject for discussion will be local people’s access to land for the production of gum arabic and the land issues facing many IDPs should they decide to return to their home areas.

5.8.2 Baobab Fruit Pulp
Baobab fruit is used as a drink and in cooking, derived from the fruits of the baobab tree (Adansonia digitata), which grows at low altitudes and is widespread in South Darfur. It is a “sacred” tree, a holder of water, and, as mentioned above, was previously registered along with gum arabic trees. It can be used as a drink, now available in the main restaurants in Nyala. It has medicinal functions, can be made into jams, fillings, and biscuits, and contains antioxidants. It is the chief source of cream of tartar. In Khartoum, processing and packaging of baobab powder is done for the local market. Its full potential has not been explored as yet in Darfur.

5.8.3 Other Fruits
There is considerable loss of fruits due to perishability (as noted in Table 12 above), long travel distance, and temperature. This has been compounded in the last few years by increased distances, failure to harvest, and destruction of orchards and fields holding mangos, oranges, watermelon, guava, and tomatoes. UNIDO estimated that up to 40 percent of the harvests can be lost under normal conditions. Juice production has grown in Nyala due to increased demand, mainly from the expatriate community.

5.8.4 Dried Food
Practical Action in North Darfur is supporting these enterprises with women’s groups, and includes indigenous forest fruits. In Nyala, this has not yet developed.

5.8.5 Milk-derived Products
Butter and yoghurt (berkeb) are made by women.

5.8.6 Karkade
Karkade, also known as roselle, is derived from Hibiscus sabdariffa and Darfur-sourced karkade is universally popular. Using seeds purchased in the Nyala market, scientists from the University of Zalingei produced furundu, a meat substitute made by cooking the seeds and fermenting them for nine days. It is rich in amino acids and minerals1.

5.9 AGRICULTURAL SERVICES
The main agricultural services include the supply of inputs, control of pests and diseases, extension services, veterinary services, transport, and storage. These services are provided by the public sector, the private sector, and NGOs, as well as through the trade unions.

5.9.1 Public Sector
This includes the Departments of Plant Protection, Horticulture, Extension, Veterinary Services, and Pasture.

**Plant Protection**
The main services are control of birds, rats, and sorghum pests, farmer training on pest control, and supervision of chemical usage. The department is staffed with 20 inspectors and 3 specialists, who are

distributed across 6 stations at the state level. During this period of conflict, they are largely confined to their stations due to the insecurity, lack of funding, and poor transport facilities.

**Extension Services**
The main services are farmer training on the production of crops and dissemination of information about new technologies. The department has 6 offices with 52 inspectors and 88 local extension agents, as well as 7 women’s centres, only 2 of which are working. Even in areas that are relatively accessible, the extension agents underperform due to poor transport facilities and a shortage of funds. A radio and TV programme has been abandoned.

**Veterinary Services**
The main services include immunization, disease control, drug supervision, laboratory services, and extension services. The laboratory service was established in 1965 to provide laboratory services to Darfur (all three states). The laboratory still functions through diagnosing, surveying, and research. It is staffed with nine veterinary scientists and two technicians, but resources such as diagnostic equipment are poor.

**Horticulture Services**
The main services are provision of seedlings, farmer training, extension services, and demonstration plots. There are 9 inspectors and 20 technicians distributed among six stations. The department operates 6 nurseries with complete irrigation systems, 2 of them at Nyala town with a production capacity of 45,000 seedlings. Due to the conflict, activities are mainly confined to the town area.

**5.9.2 Private Sector**
There are eight shops for the supply of improved seeds and pesticide. The average capital for establishing the shop is estimated at SDG 10,000–40,000. The main seeds are sorghum, tomato, watermelon, cucumber, onion, and okra. Due to the war, their activities reduced from 50 percent to 30 percent and the main problems faced are high transportation costs from Khartoum (SDG 43 per sack), high taxes, and high rent for shops (SDG 250 per month).

There are 14 drugstores in Nyala town, most commonly supplying Bendazol, Teramezol, Tetracycline, and Avomake to livestock keepers. Business has fallen in the past few years by one-third or more. Their initial capital has diminished; now most of these stores receive loans or credit from the drug industries from Khartoum and pay the cost of the drug after marketing. The main problems are high shop rent (SDG 300 per month), zakat (SDG 4,500 per year), losses due to the expiry of drugs (SDG 7,200 per year), and high licensing fees (SDG 1,250 per year).
6. NATURAL RESOURCES

6.1 THE POLITICS AND ECONOMY OF LAND IN SUDAN AND DARFUR

For centuries, residents in Darfur owned and distributed their land according to customary laws, which included regulation of access to, holding of, and transfer of property and land through the **hawakeer** system (introduced first in the 17th century). There are two types, the “administrative hakura” being a tract of land divided for general administration (also known as dar), and a “status hawakeer”. The colonial administration (1917–1956) recognized the dar system. However, these systems are not officially recognized by government, as all land in Sudan is the property of the government, which rents it to citizens for 25-year periods. Depending on its status, various pieces of legislation apply; in the case of town land, the Civil Transaction Act of 1984 is most relevant. Historically, mixed settlements, and in some cases farming by more than one group, was common in Darfur, even if land rights were not well defined. This sharing of an area by more than one group generated economic gains. Once allocated, cleared, and continually utilized, it was difficult even for the leadership to repossess the land unless it was abandoned. Women’s rights were recognized and defended under the hakura system in Darfur.

When Sudan was the leading gum arabic exporter, people registered their holdings of hashab trees, and until boreholes became common, rights to baobab trees (used to store water) were also registered. In contrast, more marginal areas were held under looser communal tenure. These more customary rights allowed for usufruct, clearing, and then planting. This was most common in South Darfur, where one survey estimated that 46 percent of land under cultivation arose from clearing “without permission”. This suggests that there were less formal arrangements in South Darfur. There was increased settlement in the 1970s and 1980s. This may have been due to the opening up of large, previously inaccessible areas through road improvements, borehole development, and loss of wildlife. Groundnut cultivation expanded swiftly between the 1950s and 1973 without major conflict over land.

The Western Savannah Development Corporation (initiated in 1982) promoted rural development and water supply agricultural research and extension; it had an underlying theme relating to stronger land tenure based on securing access, following a fixed rotation, and adopting specific stocking rates. It largely failed, not recognizing that customary land tenure worked and that overcultivation and overstocking were not as widespread as originally assumed.

Small communities in Darfur historically were politically forced to move often. The land question, while complex everywhere, is particularly difficult in Darfur, especially when there are political claims to land. Such claims meant that taxes and judicial functions could be exerted. It is not clear how the intense events since 2003 have impacted or will impact customary approaches and the exertion of such authorities.

In South Darfur – despite the widespread expansion of smallholder groundnut production as roads improved, markets opened, and boreholes were dug – there were no major land clashes between the 1950s and the 1970s. In the south, the customary land tenure system was weaker than in North Darfur. Following the severe droughts of the mid-1980s and the migration of farmers and pastoralists from North Darfur, competition and tensions arose.

Globally, a rural–urban drift is forecast as rural inhabitants experience climate change effects such as a drop in subsistence farm output. In the urban areas, they expect greater access to services and to employment. Rapid and unplanned expansion, however, can increase slum populations and raise levels of poverty, disease, and food insecurity (food and water). This requires comprehensive urban planning within a sound policy and regulatory environment. The Comprehensive Peace Agreement signed in early 2005 provided for the establishment of national and state land commissions throughout Sudan, including Darfur. The Darfur Peace Agreement of May 2006 reiterated this.

City planning in Nyala will require a multi-faceted approach with regard to reviewing municipal policy, redefining priorities, and establishing a new institutional framework beyond settlement planning for housing, water, sanitation, and related infrastructure. Rezoning procedures are required if

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the camp populations are to be facilitated. A large proportion of the current city and camp urban population lost assets, livelihoods, and their security of tenure under hakura or other traditional systems. Access to finance is difficult without registered title to property within the city boundary. Access to land is difficult due to the boom in the land “market”, although it is known that a number of IDPs who travelled with valuable assets secured access and are engaged in peri-urban agriculture. Securing secondary land rights may be difficult to obtain.

6.2 Forest and Biodiversity

An estimated 14.05 percent of the state had forest cover in 2003, the highest in North Sudan; given the ecological diversity in forests and farmland, including indigenous food crop strains, South Darfur remains a potential centre of biodiversity for North Sudan. The Jebel Marra ecosystem supports some of the last remaining forests for North Sudan, a resource undergoing major conversion as timber for fuel and construction is trucked to Nyala, El Fasher, and El Geneina without any regulation.

Wood as a Source of Energy

In a 2006 survey in the Kalma and Otash camps within the Nyala area, it was reported that up to 50 percent of families miss meals due to a lack of firewood and up to 60 percent of IDP women in South Darfur purchase firewood. Up to 40 percent of food rations are sold to purchase firewood to cook meals in the same areas. Most IDPs (about 90 percent) were using a 3-stone stove, which uses about 5 kg of wood per day; each meal can take up to 1.3 hours to cook. Tea is usually prepared using charcoal, about 0.8 kg per day. Using an average household size of 7 persons and assuming 300,000 IDP households, the average IDP daily consumption is 1.5 million kg (1,500 tons) of firewood. This is for domestic use and does not take other users into account: schools, brick-making businesses, bakeries, restaurants, and other small industries. It also does not include charcoal usage, which in 2006 cost SDG 150,000 per truck. The firewood comprises branches and split logs, felled by people with no authorization. The firewood is purchased by truckers for SDG 100 per bundle, and the retail price is similar at SDG 100 per bundle at SDG 100 per bundle.

Table 14 is used to highlight the importance of wood and biomass as sources of fuel in South Darfur during the 1990s. While Liquid Petroleum Gas usage has grown since then, in addition to charcoal, as a densely populated state the issue of energy and how it is derived nevertheless remains basic to any urban planning interventions.

While the 3 Darfur states held 22.39 percent of the population in 1994, they consumed 46 percent of total firewood consumed over Sudan’s 13 states. Notably, the consumption was double in South Darfur compared to North Darfur or West Darfur. South Darfur’s population was only behind that of Khartoum State and the fertile, agriculturally advanced Gezira State. Its consumption of firewood was the highest for any state, as was its use of biomass (residues). This was 45.24 percent, which represented more than 87 percent of the total consumption. Firewood consumption was calculated at 774,371 tons (1994) and charcoal at 45,448 tons. Of this, FAO estimated that 44 percent of the firewood consumed was in urban areas, especially Nyala (340,692 tons in 1994).

Box 4: The Business of Firewood and Charcoal in Nyala and Surrounding Areas

- Most wood is trucked from the Jebel Marra area 160 km to the north-west, carrying 40–50 cubic metres (4,000–6,000 bundles of firewood)
- The firewood comprises branches and split logs, felled by people with no authorization
- Felling and loading costs SDG 150,000
- Tax paid by truckers is 20 percent (Forest Department)
- A bundle is sold at SDG 100
- Retail value per truck: SDG 400,000–600,000 (excluding transport costs, fuel, food, and contractor costs)
- Wood is also transported by donkey-cart vendors: the retail price is similar at SDG 100 per bundle
- Women collect small-diameter firewood (4 cm diameter or a bit more)

6.3 OIL

Geographically, the area between Kordofan and South Darfur is significant because of the oil it holds. Chinese installations have set up in Kordofan, and Darfur rebels have attacked a number of them. The Chinese National Petroleum Corporation holds rights to “Block C” of South Sudan, which straddles part of South Darfur. In April 2005, the government announced that oil was “discovered” in South Darfur, with an estimated pumping capacity of 500,000 barrels per day. The US-sourced Chevron (formerly in the Abyei region) and Exxon Mobil are in neighbouring Chad and plan a USD 3.7 million oil pipeline from Doba to Cameroon on the Atlantic Coast, for US refineries. The Chinese plan to have a pipeline running from Abyei to Port Sudan, and any new reserves are to be pumped towards Equatorial Guinea via South Darfur.

6.4 CLIMATE AND ENVIRONMENTAL CHANGE

The UNEP 2006 Post-conflict Environment Report for Sudan indicated a number of natural resource trends such as the physical encroachment of desert into Darfur, including South Darfur. Others indicate that the “desert” lies only 4 km from Nyala. The rate of desert movement southwards is approximately 100 km over the last 40 years. It is known that the current gum arabic belt of distribution lay further northwards previously and that large wildlife populations (including elephants) roamed in North Darfur; such habitats are now found further south. Forest cover across Darfur (South Darfur’s most significant forests are in its south-west and western areas) was reduced by up to 12 percent in the 15-year period up to 2005.

The long episodes of drought in Darfur show a pattern of seven-year cycles, including that of the mid-1980s when relief food was first introduced into the three states. Climate models predict that growing periods will be reduced by between 5 percent and 20 percent from South to North Darfur by 2020 (compared to 2000). UNDP has predicted that cereal production could reduce by more than 25 percent across central Darfur by 2080.

Landsat satellite images of Nyala from October 1987 and November 2000 were compared to assess major land use changes during the Darfur Joint Assessment Mission assessment (2006). The rich lush vegetation of Jebel Marra was visible. In the 1987 image, the vegetation was denser and intense cultivation was observed around Nyala town and Jebel Marra.

Table 14: Fuel Wood Consumption and Other Biomass by States in North Sudan in 1994 (as Percentage of Total for North Sudan)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Charcoal</th>
<th>Firewood</th>
<th>Other Biomass</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>South Darfur</td>
<td>10.41</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>45.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Darfur</td>
<td>5.62</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Darfur</td>
<td>6.36</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>2.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khartoum</td>
<td>16.71</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gezira</td>
<td>13.69</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>31.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>River Nile</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kassala</td>
<td>5.95</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Red Sea</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gedaref</td>
<td>5.17</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>4.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sennar</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White Nile</td>
<td>6.07</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>10.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blue Nile</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


2 Schmidt, M. Blood, Water and Oil – Fallacies of the Darfur War, and www.anakismo.net
Symptoms of degradation in eastern Jebel Marra were evident and sand pockets were clear. In the later image, extensive cultivation was evident in former grazing areas, suggesting the substantial loss of grazing resources to cropland in the 12-year period\(^4\) (see Appendix 2 on farming systems).

7. SOCIAL SECTOR

7.1 WOMEN’S ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES: A PERPETUATION OF TRADITIONAL SOCIO-ECONOMIC PATTERNS

Traditionally, and as documented in many reports, rural Darfuri women are actively engaged in economic activities outside of the house in the “public sphere”, while they remain involved in farm activities and traditional in-house activities (the “domestic sphere”). Historically, they are the main builders in urban and rural areas. Upon displacement, women are more confined to domestic activities, which include fetching water and collecting firewood. Cutting firewood is an environmental hazard, but is also known to have put many girls and women at risk of gender-based violence (sexual abuse and exploitation). Many in the camps are mothers to children who were born following rape during attacks on villages.

To minimize the risk of exploitation of women and to reduce environmental damage, many agencies are promoting the manufacture and use of fuel-efficient stoves. In addition to protecting women and the environment, the stoves can generate income: women can produce them at home and sell them at the local market.

Apart from this newly introduced activity, most of the income-generating activities chosen by women or on their behalf lack visionary programming; women are trained in the conventional package that agencies provide, i.e. tailoring, embroidery, handicrafts, food making and processing, etc. This vicious circle of repeatedly promoting the same kind of skills, which appear to be more therapeutic than profitable, needs to be rethought when programming for women’s business ventures. There are many limitations surrounding these types of so-called economic activities. Often the choice is made in the absence of other options. Usually women are asked what type of business they like to do before any income-generating or microfinance project commences. Women would generally choose the conventional activities, which they have known for generations. A way out is to have orientation sessions that will introduce women to more options; wisdom cannot be achieved without knowledge, and knowledge is what needs to be managed to enable women to make informed decisions that will not only yield better financial earnings, but will also link businesses to networks that can enhance their growth.

Two-thirds of the NGOs interviewed mentioned that they provide starting capital for small businesses. The “beneficiaries” are not expected to make any financial contribution to the economic venture. One organization mentioned that they pay only 50 percent of the grant and upon successful completion of phase one of the project they give the second 50 percent. This way motivation and self-reliance can be created.

Women’s capacity to manage a business is lagging behind. The capacity must exist to make informed choices about the type of business a woman wants to get engaged in, securing and managing capital, ensuring quality control, promoting products, marketing, and managing earnings. Usually the start-up capital is small, which limits quality, as well as demand and earnings.

There is a strict division of labour based on gender; women perform certain agricultural tasks, while men perform others. Men are hired as supervisors; they live on the farm and are provided with meals. Payment in this case is on a monthly basis. Women, on the other hand, are casual labourers who get paid on a daily basis. Working on farms is considered “not bad”, as they are not too far from the camp. It is usually a collective type of work, which some people find enjoyable and which speeds up the work. During harvest, workers can take some vegetables home.

There is certainly a demand for agricultural workers, but ethnicity can create barriers. A farmer informed the team that they do not hire just anybody who is looking for a job – they prefer certain tribes. This preference is not based on efficiency or skills, but is rather based on the preconceived idea that some tribes are more peaceful than others.

7.2 YOUTH

The youth are a very vulnerable group and are often partially educated and unskilled, with bleak futures. If they do not decide to leave Darfur for Khartoum or other large towns, they are ripe for recruitment into one of the many militia groups, afterwards basking in the power that role gives them.

There are no social outlets for young people, places where they can gather in safety to conduct specific activities or just socialize. It is sad to say that they do not have the opportunity to be “young” and do what young people do in a hostility free, protected environment. They are expected to work, join military groups, or become politically involved in the Youth Union or initiatives such as one entitled the “Role of Youth in the Peace Building Process”. This is noble and important, but it is unfortunate that youth have to partake in such activities as a result of a war caused by others. Social outlets and opportunities to develop skills are two areas that will be examined under “Recommendations” below.

7.3 OTHER MARGINALIZED GROUPS

The study did not have time to assess the level and extent to which the war has impacted on other vulnerable groups, such as people living with HIV and the elderly, nor discuss what may be required to ease their plight. This is something we suggest be followed up when activities begin under new programmes that result from this study.

8. TAXATION

From the government information available and verbal reports from business people it is clear that the taxation system is skewed and does not act as an incentive for investment and business development. While ostensibly the government has introduced pro-investment policies such as the Investment Encouragement Act (1999) and reduced the corporate tax to 10 percent, there is little to illustrate their impact. The World Bank has stated that after “the incomplete process of decentralization (initiated in 1992) through which public services such as education, health, infrastructure and agricultural management were delegated to state and local authorities, but without revenue or administrative capacity to execute the mandates... According to the 2003 Local Government Act, revenue sources assigned to state and local authorities are the taxes on economic activities in the region. The result is a proliferation of various taxes on productive enterprises” (World Bank, 2007: 252).

Formal and informal taxation has severely impacted the private sector, to the extent that people often turn to illegal trading or incur other means to avoid paying taxes. Traders are susceptible to numerous taxes on their goods and vehicles; when travelling, the factions “ruling” different areas each demand their cut (in cash or goods), which is regarded mainly as a protection payment.

Margie Buchanan-Smith and Dr. Abdul Jabbar Abdulla Fadule illustrate clearly the tax imposed on traders in their report and show that taxes have risen by a minimum of 200 percent, and in some cases 400 percent, since the conflict began (source: Trade and Markets in Darfur: Adaptation and Devastation 2008).

The legitimate tax exemption that applies to IDP businesses inevitably causes resentment among townspeople, who are subject to numerous taxes, depending on their business. However, it certainly presents an opportunity for the IDPs to build their business confidence through the maximization of profits.

Interviews with an agricultural seed merchant and a farmer engaged in sharecropping revealed that when they transport the seeds from Khartoum or El Obeid (the capital city of North Kordofan), they pay taxes to different authorities (e.g. the government and the military of opposition factions), which increased the cost of doing business. There are examples of a tribe paying fees to a rival tribe or an opposition faction to facilitate access to a certain area. It was reported that a masar that was closed for some time as a result of a conflict between farmers and pastoralists is now reopened after the banned tribes paid money to use it.

9. JUDICIAL SYSTEM

Administrators of formal and informal laws come in various forms throughout Sudan, depending on ethnic, religious, and political factors. Judicial courts are provided for under both statutory and customary law, while informal community practices also rely on local chiefs known as sultans to resolve disputes between community members. Customary
laws generally consist of non-state dispute resolution systems that are usually based on local customary, traditional, or tribal systems of justice. Given Sudan's ethnic and religious plurality, customary laws and practice differ from tribe to tribe and community to community.

The judiciary seems to have been compromised, as evidenced by the arbitrary dismissal of qualified judges, attorneys-general, and law officers. Existing legislation fails to provide guarantees for human rights and fundamental freedoms, while military decrees and emergency laws undermine rights currently protected by statutory law. Though the constitution provides for an independent judiciary, in practice it appears that the judiciary is subject to the President or the security forces, particularly in cases of crimes against the state (source: Sharanjeet Parmar, 2007).

Lawyers throughout Sudan must belong to the Sudan Bar Association, which is based in Khartoum. The association has endured its difficulties over time. In 1992, the government amended the Advocate Act of 1983 in such a way as to question the association’s independence. For the first time in its history, the Sudan Bar Association has been reduced to being basically another trade union. The association has actually been registered with the Registrar of Trade Unions. According to the US Department of State, members of the legal profession viewed as political opponents are harassed by the government; some have been detained, including the director of the Darfur Lawyers Association, who was later released.

There are calls for a serious review of the judicial system; the rights of women and children are not secured, as women suffer rape and abuse in Darfur, while children are kidnapped and forced to fight for different groups.

10. Conclusion and Overall Recommendation

The vast majority of the people of Nyala and the surrounding camps have suffered greatly, but none more than the traumatized IDPs who have lost family members, possessions of value, and livelihoods. Others have seized the opportunities that the conflict and humanitarian aid programme have presented to them and are prospering, at least for the short term.

The government structures are weak, and assistance from the central government is inadequate. The economy, which once depended on agriculture, livestock, and local resources, now depends for the most part on the job opportunities, transport programmes, cash circulation, and commodities offered by the international community. While aid interventions are crucial in their provision of basic needs to keep people alive, it has to be recognized that they have also contributed to a major shift in how people live. Qualified people have taken relatively low-level jobs with international agencies, as the wages are high; rental prices are very high, which affects proper shelter; some traditional urban businesses such as the selling of water have been affected by access to free water in the camps, which can be brought to the town and sold.

Conflict, lack of free mobility, and drought have also resulted in farmers and livestock owners shifting from their traditional livelihoods to take up or seek urban employment, possibly never to return to their preferred work. The various rebel factions that roam the territory demanding food, animals, and cash as payment for safe passage have also forced people to seek alternative ways of surviving, and in most cases they head to urban locations.

The sad irony is that while the conflict and those with the guns are changing many people’s way of life, the emergency solutions through the aid programme are indirectly doing the same.

It is essential that the international community and particularly the UN agencies agree on a policy of shifting to recovery mode and longer-term perspectives, while remaining prepared for emergencies. It is only through such a mechanism that local people can take ownership of their futures and over time reduce the level of aid presently required.

The relative security of the town and the vision and often false hope of new urban livelihoods have been attracting people to Nyala and other towns for many years. When people again feel secure in their areas of origin, it is likely that most will remain in towns, either fearing that the conflict will recommence or believing that there is greater economic security with urban employment.

This report identifies opportunities to increase incomes and survive through sustainable mechanisms
rather than direct emergency aid systems. But it argues that these mechanisms need to focus initially on the camps and towns, as they offer a greater chance of success than providing longer-term solutions in Darfur’s rural areas within the present climate. In the Nyala case, however, one exception may be the revitalization of the gum arabic industry, the potential of which should be thoroughly examined in order to determine how it can re-emerge to play the role it once played in people’s lives.

It may be argued that this focus will only attract more people to already crowded locations. However, urbanization is a phenomenon driving through Africa, despite the fact that there is sufficient rural land available. The migration had been happening in Darfur for a number of years before the current conflict. The reduction in arable land, frequent droughts, lack of water, and undependable political situation had forced people to seek alternatives. Instead of showing reluctance to inject financial assistance, so as to not be blamed for urban population growth, why not be prepared for the inevitable and assist in preventing more urban poverty by having the necessary systems and mechanisms in place?

10.1 OVERALL RECOMMENDATION ON STRUCTURES AND PARTNERSHIPS

This report will be presenting a series of project proposals seen by the team as achievable steps towards addressing a variety of social and economic issues facing the communities. These are practical and measurable projects that involve a number of organizations working together to ensure the objectives are actually achieved.

But presenting projects is the easy part. It is a more complicated, though crucial, process to encourage people, humanitarian organizations, and the public and private sectors to combine their efforts and pool their knowledge, thus ensuring that the results are true and benefits widespread.

Therefore, before presenting “what” will be achieved, a method to achieve the “how” will be presented, which is also a mechanism that can facilitate greater cooperation among the various parties and be a process towards conflict management.

10.2 PARTNERSHIP ARRANGEMENTS

Historically, working through partners (in development terms) means that a certain institution holds the purse strings and the recipients carry out their tasks under the donor’s terms. It is rarely an equal relationship. A true partnership is the coming together of a number of groups on equal terms to combine their resources for a common purpose.

In Darfur, a system is required that will bridge a number of sensitive gaps. There are cultural differences, ethnic grievances, discrimination (against IDPs), and mistrust of government officials, and all of these types of antagonism create major blocks against constructive development and the achievement of mutual objectives. The humanitarian response since 2003 has further isolated nomadic communities, there is vulnerability around access to and ownership of assets, and integrating greater Darfur and its diverse community into the national development agenda has failed. A rural–urban disconnect has taken place in the past five years or so.

The creation of a forum used to further common aims for the good of the community, in which everyone has an equal say and equal status, reduces hierarchies and tensions and creates an avenue for shared success across political and socio-cultural divides. In the Darfur scenario it can go even further by helping to reconcile differences and illustrating by example what can be achieved by working together.

To this end, and to ensure that appropriate development initiatives are adopted, the formulation of partnerships is being recommended. Governments, donors, and humanitarian organizations often use the term “partnership” to illustrate joint strategies towards common goals, while in reality they are hierarchical arrangements in which conditions are laid down and penalties incurred by the “superior” body (e.g. the donor–NGO relationship). The model being proposed here is based on the success of the European social development movement, executed in a number of countries, which emphasizes creating opportunities for all.

Partnerships can represent a multi-sectoral approach: a region, town, city, or rural location can form a partnership to identify major issues to be addressed and accept mutual responsibility for the formulation of strategies and implementation of projects and programmes.
Specific examples for Nyala and the surrounding camps are given below.

10.2.1 Urban Partnership
This is proposed in the context of recognizing that the urban agenda and economy sit in a framework that requires urban–rural interaction and sensitivity to the “non-displaced” – affected and relevant stakeholders such as the nomadic and semi-nomadic pastoralists and other producers who may not have left their traditional lands.

Responsibilities
1. Identify the social, financial, infrastructural, and environmental changes required to bring the sectors to the next level of development and progress towards creating opportunities that heretofore were not available to the people.
2. Formulate comprehensive proposals that will be presented to the government and international donors for the resources necessary to carry out appropriate, practical, visible, and measurable programmes. These proposals would include the full North Darfur “community” spectrum to ensure peace sensitivity in development interventions, with attention to the natural environment.
3. Monitor and report on the activities.

Membership
In the case of Nyala, the broad guide on the membership required for such a comprehensive approach would be representatives from the following five sectors.

Public Sector – The municipality (1) and relevant government departments (1 each), especially planning, health, education, roads, environment, employment and enterprise, and community development

Business sector – Chamber of Commerce (1); businesses (2); trade associations (2); and banks (1)

Social sector – Community representatives (3) and local organizations (5) (representing women, youth, the disabled, people living with HIV, farmers, and pastoralists)

Non-profit sector – UN agencies; NGOs (2); and trade unions (2)

Training and education institutions (2)

It is important to consider here the IDP camps dimension. Some may prefer a separate partnership arrangement for the camps, but ideally, in order to close the gaps and encourage a greater understanding of perspectives and obstacles faced, representatives of the camps should sit in the main partnership group. Therefore IDP representatives could number about six people.

This overall number of more than 30 people on such a forum may seem unwieldy, but it is essential that all sections of the community are represented.

However, such a large forum requires assistance, and therefore it would be important to establish a facilitation office to support the work of the partnership. This, at a minimum, would consist of an office and support system for a manager, an accountant/administrator, a project organizer, and a receptionist. These would be paid staff, while those on the partnership forum would not be paid.

The estimated budget per year is USD 275,000.

10.2.2 Sector Partnership
A second type of partnership is one that is formed for a specific sector. For example, if there is a proposal to address unemployment and develop enterprises, the make-up of the forum could be as follows:

- Municipality (1)
- Department of employment and enterprise (2)
- Vocational training institute (1)
- Employers (3)
- Trade unions (2)
- Youth groups (2)
- Women’s groups (2)
- UN ILO (1)
- Relevant NGOs (3)

Note: This form of partnership would not need the same level of inputs as the broader partnership and can have a specific time frame according to activities.

It is important to point out at this stage that each member of a partnership has their own role to play. They need to outline to the other members what their organization/agency/group does, they need to have ideas to contribute, and they need to be prepared to work on finding information, influencing proposals, and suchlike. They also have to share information by informing their constituency what the partnership is doing and bringing information and ideas from their organization to the table.
10.2.3 The Establishment of a Foundation

Should such a partnership be formed, it could become the controlling mechanism or the board of trustees for the establishment and running of a foundation.

Its initial fund should be a moderate figure of USD 1 million, of which it agrees to use a percentage and retain the remainder to act as a reserve, but primarily to generate interest. For example, it could retain USD 600,000 and use USD 400,000 for grants and loans. This money would be allocated based on specific criteria drawn up and agreed on a legal basis. Its aim would be to assist businesses and enterprises, as well as social projects. The foundation or trust would employ a person to manage the business, and a committee would be formed to decide on applications.

To kick off the fund, an initial injection would be needed from a lone source (a government or philanthropist) or a combination of sources (donors and suchlike). It could also be made attractive for the Darfuri diaspora to contribute to. Over time, depending on the achievements and integrity of the scheme, it could generate substantial funding and be extended to the Darfur region. Given the recognition Darfur has globally, the potential is huge and the establishment of a “Darfur Foundation” very achievable.

The one-off budget input would be USD 1 million.

11. RECOMMENDATIONS

This report has confined its recommendations to ten to allow an opportunity to focus on results over a manageable period of time after which others can be taken on board depending on the success of these proposals.

Why these recommendations?
- They are achievable
- They can be divided among UN agencies for direct intervention or support
- They have measurable outcomes
- They are affordable
- They are complementary and can be part of an overall programme
- They can be funded and implemented for both the camps’ and town’s populations
- Those who will benefit include women (Recommendations 2–9), youth (Recommendations 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9), businesses (Recommendations 1, 3, 4, 8, 9), the camp population (Recommendations 1–6, 8, 9), and the town population (Recommendations 1–9).

Before these are addressed, however, there are key factors that the team believes United Nations organizations must discuss in order to create momentum. During the study, discussions with UN agencies clearly indicated that they are restricted by policy to focus on emergency programmes only, which would prevent their involvement in many, if not all, of the proposed recommendations. Leaving aside what determines emergency and developmental (or recovery) projects, if we were to focus only on time frames, all of the following proposals could be implemented over a two- or three-year period. If it is recognized that a number of larger, better funded initiatives have been implemented over the last five years without changing the situation significantly, it surely justifies the notion that different or at least complimentary approaches are required. This requires a determined shift on the part of all concerned.

11.1 RECOMMENDATION 1

Policy Development

Objective
State government to review existing policies and introduce new policies, as appropriate, towards the creation of flexible approaches to assist people to produce local food, access finance, and create employment.

Much work still needs to be done to bolster state government departments to achieve the capacity required to govern and be of viable service to the Darfur population. Finance, incentives, skill development, and inputs to boost morale are required. Facilitating departmental integration would be important for planning, for implementing town improvements, and for improving relationships with both the town and camp populations. For example, a joint planning initiative with residents, IDPs, and the private sector would create greater dialogue towards a common purpose and go a long way to addressing trust issues.

The state government needs to be seen as a support system to the people, not an obstacle and threat.
They must generate viable ideas and implement programmes beneficial to the community. They have to impose taxes along the way, but if they clearly show how this revenue is spent and how it benefits the infrastructure, schools, health system, etc., people will appreciate the improvements being made. This may be an obvious function of government, but South Darfur’s record is poor, and clear strategies need to be formed to enhance their image. There are some extremely powerful personal and corporate development tools that can be used to strengthen government departments. Training in certain skills (finance, planning, etc.) is an ongoing and important feature of performance enhancement supported by UN agencies, but it will count for nothing unless public servants’ commitment and motivation are increased. There are numerous programmes that can be implemented to achieve this outcome, which can be discussed further if there is a decision to proceed down this route.

Recommendations 2–9 that follow clearly require support and input from the state government and relevant departments. Examples of issues that require action and input from the state include land, taxation, and public-private partnerships.

Land
The Darfur Peace Agreement clearly outlines structures and responsibilities with regard to land policies. There is a proposal to establish a land commission, which has not yet been enacted. In the meantime, the governor’s office makes the decisions on land matters in the towns. In rural areas, customary law dominates and has served the people well for hundreds of years. Introducing a more authoritative approach whereby land is registered and allocated through a structured procedure (which is the plan under the Darfur Peace Agreement) is a complicated and potentially volatile process.

The practicality of embarking on an expensive and complicated exercise of land registration needs to be measured against the benefits and general acceptance of the traditional mechanisms. As Morton (2008) accurately points out, property rights are governed by social consensus and supported by the political leadership, not by laws. It is with this in mind that Recommendation 4 on food security suggests that land be set aside for people to cultivate, thus enhancing food production. Town land is a different matter and the swelling Nyala population requires planning and order. Again, this can be done through consultation with residents, bringing their suggestions and concerns on board.

Taxation
Taxation is a sensitive area and a subject that received criticism from the public during this study. A review of the tax system is recommended to determine where taxes are imposed and how services are supported through tax revenue. If the business sector is to be supported, more palatable tax rates are required. A viable area to generate revenue is through refuse collection and disposal services; with an improved service, payment by the public would be justifiable.

Outside investment is required to stimulate the economy, and while current conditions (insecurity, lack of incentives) do not promote investment, a menu detailing sectors eligible for tax relief should be put together to entice investors, particularly in preparation for a more peaceful environment.

An even more complex and sensitive area to consider regarding taxation is the position of the IDPs, particularly those generating business with Nyala and other urban locations. It is a bone of contention among the townspeople that they pay taxes while IDPs do not, yet the IDPs are generating income for the most part because of their proximity to and trade relationship with the town. The IDPs on the other hand refuse out of hand any attempt to pay taxes, stating that they have lost all of their belongings as a result of the conflict, they do not have homes, and they do not receive services from the state government. But to all intents and purposes the camp has become a “suburb” of Nyala, and at some point a decision will have to be made as to the permanency of the camp dwellers and the possibility of permanent structures being built. Such a decision will require extending services, incorporating the population into the urban framework, and requiring the payment of taxes.

Public-private Partnerships
Public-private partnerships, which have been developed in numerous countries, have resulted in many mutually beneficial outcomes. The current opportunities in Nyala are few, but they do exist and should be explored, particularly if security improves and the number of investors increases. Should Recommendation 5 (Revitalizing the Gum Arabic Industry) be taken up, it presents a great opportunity to embark on a public-private
partnership arrangement. Part of Block C’s oil-producing area is in South Darfur, which presents opportunities to demand agreements that will provide community benefits in the form of infrastructure, such as clinics, schools, and training facilities. It is incumbent upon the government to ensure that this comes about through a process of highlighting social responsibility on the part of international oil explorers and investors.

11.2 RECOMMENDATION 2

Capacity Strengthening

Objective
Through the Asset-based Community Development (ABCD) approach, work with communities to empower themselves to address the many difficulties they face – with support from rather than dependency on outside aid.

Outputs from the Project
- 6 community organizers employed
- 200 people trained in the ABCD approach
- 10,000–12,000 people involved
- At least 20 projects proposed by the communities in 3 years

Outline of the Project
Capacity strengthening is sewn into most programme proposals as a worthy and important component, whose existence ensures the growth of an organization and the sustainability of projects. However, methods to achieve this aim are few and are often confined to training only; while effective, this is often not enough to enable an exit strategy for the international organization that provides the comfort of knowing that future projects are in safe hands. There has to be something more, which moves beyond improving someone’s project or financial skills to engendering ownership, responsibility, and a feeling of independence.

This capacity-enhancing strategy has to be aimed at the community itself, to the point where people genuinely feel powerful enough to democratically challenge that which damages their livelihoods and threatens their future. It has to instil the confidence to recognize what is best for the community and the determination to access the resources that will assist them to achieve their aims.

It was noted that the voluntary and civil society sector in North Sudan, including Darfur, has a history dating back to the late 1960s and early 1970s; it initially focused on displaced and street children in the large urban areas and on environmental conservation. This feature of Darfur society remains, and cross-community women’s groups pursue economic and peacemaking activities, often supported by agencies such as Practical Action, SUDO, and SPCR (South Darfur).

One community development tool that strives to work from the inside out is the Asset-based Community Development model. The ABCD model works by first identifying the existing assets of a community; when fully recognized, these assets are pooled, built upon, and used to take the people from where they are to the next level.

The populations of Nyala and its IDP camps and the area’s nomadic pastoralists have faced war, drought, displacement, deaths of family members, economic hardship, discrimination, and marginalization over a very long period of time. They want what everyone in the world wants: peace, a safe environment, and real opportunities to make a living. The resilience of the people is phenomenal, so why not give them the steering wheel and allow them to steer in the direction they wish to go, not the one they are forced to go?

It is recommended that the IDPs, townspeople, and linked stakeholders are presented with a new way of taking control of their own lives; the establishment of the ABCD approach would be a powerful means to this end. (Please see Appendix 4 for a summary of the approach, drawn up by Cormac Russell.)

If this approach were adopted, it would necessitate the development of a programme that incorporates the employment of “community organizers”, who would be people from the area trained in the skills of ABCD. They would link with selected areas with approximately 1,000–2,000 people each, listing assets, identifying existing groups, and forming associations. Through this process they will identify the strengths and requirements of the community and develop appropriate ways to address them, e.g. lobbying the government, seeking funds to support projects, and developing local initiatives. The community organizers work for the community, who after a three-year period will either employ an organizer or take on the responsibility themselves.
It is proposed to establish this programme in Nyala town and one camp. Based on the outcomes, an expansion can be considered.

**Estimated Budget over Three Years:** USD 400,000

It is proposed that this programme is facilitated by a UN agency or NGO.

### 11.3 Recommendation 3

**Appropriate Technology for Construction and Building Materials**

**Objective**

Generate employment and income through developing a consistent approach to the production of appropriate materials for low-cost and sustainable housing.

**Outputs from the Project**

- 400 people gain employment
- Block-making is systematized
- 2,000 houses constructed in 3 years
- A house design and materials are agreed and consistently used

**Who Will Be Involved?**

UN-HABITAT; UNEP; community representatives; Department of Housing; the Municipality; NGOs.

**Outline of the Project**

UN-HABITAT is currently identifying in Sudan local, affordable building materials that will seriously reduce the level of environmental degradation being caused by the hundreds of IDPs (primarily) making fired bricks as a source of income. An associated objective is to ensure that this income can be maintained through the acceptance of an alternative brick-making system.

Presently the brick-makers require local clay and water, which are mixed and fired. The firing process uses trees, which, along with the collection of firewood for other uses, has caused serious deforestation and clearing of scrubland.

The ongoing testing is to determine the appropriateness of developing stabilized soil blocks, which require soil and water and a bonding and strengthening agent such as cement. This completely eliminates the need for wood. The testing will also look at developing interlocking techniques to reduce the need for mortar.

As previously pointed out, the labour at present is supplied by the IDPs, who construct houses and other small buildings in the town. The construction of permanent units in the camp is prohibited, but there are many thousands of IDPs using makeshift shelter or living with relatives in the town. The need for small affordable housing is increasing at a very fast pace, but there is no quality control monitoring the strength, durability, and resistance of the bricks being produced. This is an area that must be addressed.

The population of Nyala has grown exponentially in the last five years. In 2008 alone, 150,000 more Darfurians have been displaced, and the assumption is that they will end up living in camps or towns. A more ordered approach to construction is thus required, whereby plots of land are given over to residential usage and a number of houses are constructed.

There is an urgent need for projected town planning for the next ten years at least. The planning authorities have already drawn up proposals that see large tracts of land given over to housing development, but with insufficient detail given to the provision of services, markets and shops, and community buildings.

UN-HABITAT is heading up a forum in El Fasher that is to work with the government on such matters, while at the same time working with NGOs and technology centres to agree on the most suitable building block. This will see thousands of houses being constructed in a fast, efficient, affordable, and environmentally friendly manner. It is recommended that a similar forum be assembled in Nyala.

Training of people (including existing brick-makers) in new systems that use manual compacting machines will be necessary.

**Estimated Budget over Three Years:** USD 1 million

### 11.4 Recommendation 4

**Food Security**

**Objective**

Present opportunities for IDP camp dwellers and townspeople to produce food locally to complement other inputs and reduce dependency on food aid.

**Outputs of the Project**

- Direct benefits to 1,000 families
- Increase in food availability by 30 percent
- Development or rehabilitation of two surface dams
- 250 acres of land made available

**Who Will Be Involved?**
Departments of Planning, Agriculture, and Water; El Fasher Municipality; community representatives; WFP; FAO; and NGOs.

**Outline of the Project**
An examination of long-term food security needs to look at alternatives to food aid and reliance on market-driven food security. Food aid can be seriously disrupted by insecurity and looting, something that was illustrated on more than one occasion in 2008. WFP's recent cut in food rations by 50 percent due to staff being murdered and trucks being stolen clearly shows the vulnerability of this mode of survival. Coping mechanisms have evolved over hundreds of years, and while food support is essential to ensure survival and maintain people's lives, it should not be allowed to eliminate traditional systems. The town's expanding population is becoming more reliant on food coming through the markets and therefore susceptible to the vagaries of the prices, which are continually rising.

Recommendations 6 and 7 propose complementary and related inputs to improve domestic access to essential food products through small animal holdings and poultry. But, as has already been reported, livelihoods dependent on crop production and livestock keeping have been seriously affected over the last six years due to insecurity, drought, theft, and informal and formal tax burdens. Land has been lost, with people either fleeing for safety to IDP camps and urban locations or deciding to abandon their traditional way of life and seek alternative livelihoods in towns. This results in more pressure on dwindling resources, higher prices, and the importation of foodstuffs from distant locations. With an increase in urban populations and an IDP population that might never return home, this pressure is only going to increase, unless alternative measures are introduced.

It will be necessary to allocate new tracts of land for cultivation, based on relative proximity to the town and accessibility to water. These can be divided into plots and allocated for household or small group production for a given period of time or until routes to personal land and property become safe to travel. Surface dams for small-scale irrigation and watering animals will be rehabilitated or constructed. These can be expensive undertakings, but FAO and the international NGOs have constructed at least two, which are extremely beneficial to agriculturalists and livestock owners. Costs will vary depending on the size of the dam or the amount of soil to be excavated. They can also be done mechanically or through food-for-work or cash-for-work programmes. It is suggested that the initial fund required would be USD 500,000.

Seeds and tools will be provided under FAO. The government will provide security. As a project of this type will necessitate people travelling from the town and camps, it is incumbent upon the government to ensure people's safety and secure specific routes to these places of work. The planned peacekeeping forces may be an option.

The initial aim is for 1,000 households to produce enough for themselves and also sell at the market.

**Estimated Budget:** USD 500,000

11.5 RECOMMENDATION 5

**Revitalizing the Gum Arabic Industry in South Darfur**

**Objective**
Revitalize the gum arabic industry in South Darfur.

**Outputs**
- A gum arabic “partnership” that will review the present status of the industry and develop strategies for its development and growth
- Increased local government support
- Improved policies that will support trading conditions and encourage the numerical growth of local producers

**Who Will Be Involved?**
UNIDO; local government; producers; the Gum Arabic Foundation; Tradecraft; and exporters.

Gum arabic is a natural product of the *Acacia senegal* tree, an exudate from the trunks and branches. It is normally collected by hand when dried, when it resembles a hard, amber-like resin normally referred to as “tears”. Gum arabic is widely used in the food industry as an emulsifier, thickener, flavour encapsulator, and thickening agent.
Maud Grieve’s classic *A Modern Herbal* states that gum arabic is employed as a soothing agent for inflammatory conditions of the respiratory, digestive, and urinary tract, and is useful in the treatment of diarrhoea and dysentery. It exerts a soothing influence on all the surfaces with which it comes in contact. Gum arabic is an ingredient of many troches and various syrups, pastes, and pastilles or jujubes. It is also reckoned to be highly nutritious.

This is a precious commodity, which once contributed significantly to Sudan’s export revenue. While exports continue, Sudan’s share has dropped from being 80 percent of the global market to 50 percent (World Bank report: *Export Market of Sudanese Gum Arabic*). In the meantime, other countries such as Chad and Ethiopia are becoming bigger players, though the gum arabic they mainly produce (*Acacia seyal* or *talah*) is regarded as inferior to Sudan’s, the majority of which is *hashab* (*Acacia senegal*).

The number of local producers has reduced due to the low prices they were receiving, and farmers have sought to grow crops (e.g. millet), which is regarded as more secure. The business structure for gum arabic is poor and many producers believe it is controlled by only a few players; the government originally granted an exclusive concession on gum arabic exports to the Gum Arabic Corporation. There are signs of a more open environment being created, with more export licences being granted (World Bank report *Export Market of Sudanese Gum Arabic*). There is a tremendous opportunity to capitalize on this and develop greater flexibility, which will create more producers and increase income for the poorer sectors of the community. In addition, this approach provides multiple benefits: improved soil fertility, bee-keeping and pollination, soil protection, and preservation of ecological integrity, which is significant in the context of climate change. Some of the main aspects to be examined and improved include:

- The provision of greater incentives to producers
- An improved business structure
- Improved management of the resources – protection of the acacia trees (in particular from charcoal conversion); environmental control; and recognition and mitigation of the effects of climate change. Community strengthening towards business ownership and small enterprise management
- Access to land and resources

It is therefore recommended that a forum be developed that would review the industry and bring the various players, technical advisors, and interested parties together. Representatives of the government, producers, union, processors, and exporters should form such a forum, with support from the World Bank. It would be advisable that interested bodies such as the Gum Arabic Foundation and Tradecraft could act in an advisory capacity and steer the group on issues such as fair trade, standards, and local producers’ concerns. This body could form a collective that could then steer the industry towards being a dominant player in the world market; more importantly, it would ensure that local producers can make a profitable living while contributing to the economy of the country.

This project could be instigated by a UN agency or the World Bank.

**Estimated Budget (Time Frame of One Year): USD 100,000**

### 11.6 RECOMMENDATION 6

#### Development of a Poultry Production System

**Objective**

Supplement both the nutrition and income of poor households in Nyala town and at least one IDP camp.

**Who Will Be Involved?**

Selected groups from both communities supported by a microfinance institution or organization; and FAO and/or the Department of Livestock.

**Outline of the Project**

- 500 layers are distributed among 100 households – 50 from each community.
- A core group will access the loan, purchase the hens, and select the households for distribution, according to agreed criteria.
- 20 roosters are rotated among the households.
- The focus for the first 18 months will be on the production of eggs for consumption and sale; after that period, when egg production usually reduces, the initial hens will be sold and the income used to replicate and expand the programme.
- Initial training will be given by FAO who will recommend on care, treatment, and appropriate business models.
- Technical support should be accessible from the Department of Livestock, who will provide vaccinations against Newcastle’s disease and monitor for avian flu and other threats.

**Estimated Budget**
The initial financial requirement will be approximately USD 5,000, but a detailed financial plan with projected gains will be conducted after accessing information about the cost of hens and associated inputs in the Nyala area.

The project is to be implemented by local organizations.

**11.7 RECOMMENDATION 7**

**Small Animal Restocking (Nutrition and Income Focus for Poor Households)**

**Objective**
Provide a means to improved nutrition and income opportunities to selected households in the town and IDP camp.

**Anticipated Outcomes**
- Linkages with organizations carrying out similar activities
- Measurable improvements in nutrition and incomes of selected households
- Skills development, particularly for women
- Direct involvement of the Department of Livestock

**Who Will Be Involved?**
Department of Livestock; FAO; NGOs; and interested camp and town community groups.

**Outline of the Project**
One of the proposals suggested by IDPs was for restocking goats. Their proposal suggested that each family (1,500 families) be allocated one male and two female goats, with the objective of improving nutrition, generating income for households, and providing an overall improvement to their livelihoods.

The study agrees with the basic idea of distributing goats to families, but a more cautious and strategic approach would be recommended. The purpose is to provide an input at household level, not to flood the market with animals that may otherwise only encourage the immediate sale of the animals, benefit traders, and eventually leave the poorer households back where they started.

It is proposed that 100 female goats and 6 males are allocated equally to selected residents of the chosen IDP camp and selected townspeople in the early phase. This could be based on a local management plan for the provision of water and fodder that is acceptable to all local stakeholders. Women should be the recipients, as they and their children are generally the minders of small animals.

There are existing women’s groups in both communities, and it is suggested that the project works through structures that are already in place. It is recommended that the groups divide the animals among them in order to benefit from the milk produced. But a facility should be established whereby offspring, or a percentage of offspring, is in turn allocated to carefully selected households – those headed by females and those with low incomes, for example.

Training would be required for the groups to enhance their general and financial management capacity. Agencies such as Oxfam UK and Practical Action have engaged in similar enterprises in the past. There are animal health-care workers trained by Practical Action who could assist the groups.

Initially, the programme would have to pay for appropriate vaccinations, but subsequently the community group would pay for such treatment. However, it is the responsibility of the Department of Livestock to support such initiatives, and they will be involved if government resources are available.

The animals initially should be purchased from local small herders.

This programme could be taken on by a local NGO, with assistance with the initial capital and technical support from FAO.

**Estimated Budget for One Year:** USD 15,000
11.8 RECOMMENDATION 8

Development of the Microfinance Programme

Objective
Strengthen the microfinance structure in Nyala and develop a more comprehensive and coordinated approach to allocating loans.

Anticipated Outcomes
- The establishment of a transparent and more flexible microfinance and microcredit facility
- The development of easy access to credit for women
- Strengthening of the system through greater confidence shown by both lenders and borrowers
- A maximum 10 percent default rate
- Measurable and visible businesses and microenterprises

Outline of the Project
The opportunities existing in Sudan to develop the microfinance sector (as presented on page 11) need also to be taken by people, businesses, organizations, and financial institutions in Darfur. The conflict has left banks (e.g. the Agricultural Bank of Sudan) incurring large debts due to loan defaulters, so their confidence needs to be raised to encourage them to establish viable lending mechanisms and be a key component of enhancing the local economy of South Darfur and particularly Nyala. Risk will be a big factor, but it is suggested that for an initial period microfinance facilities are afforded to urban dwellers only, people who can be followed up, supported, and monitored. Special programmes should also be available to the IDP camp populations, especially for small groups of people wishing to start microenterprises and those who may not have collateral.

The anticipated Family Banks, which are to be established in each of the three Darfur states by the government, could be a tremendous asset that could significantly boost this sector. The maximum loans of SDG 10,000 may not be attractive to large businesses, but the aim of this microcredit bank is to kick-start small enterprises and bring more people into the labour market.

A strategic approach is recommended whereby all organizations and institutions involved in allocating loans or financing microprojects are identified and a central data collection point is agreed. A partnership approach is strongly suggested that would include representatives from the various institutions and agencies agreeing on a common strategy to:
- Establish clear guidelines on priority targets – such as women’s groups, other socially marginalized groups, and microenterprise individuals or groups.
- Agree on a set of terms and conditions for loans, taking into consideration the obstacles faced by women and other groups who have no collateral.
- Organize the training of staff involved in lending and monitoring loans.
- Publicize information on microfinance.
- Hold workshops that give a human approach to the programme; allow question-and-answer sessions; and ease difficulties for people with literacy problems.

While this approach will not interfere with the independence of each entity, it will offer a more “shared” approach, which will in turn develop confidence among all concerned. Shared information will indicate possible proposals to avoid, illustrate areas that should receive greater focus, and present a clearer picture of the impact microfinance is having on the community as a whole.

This will need coordination, and it is suggested that one of the UN organizations – UNICEF, UNDP, or UNIDO – be requested by the partnership to take on this role.

A related programme for UN-HABITAT to consider is developing a microfinance project for community groups in the town and camp that focuses on making appropriate construction materials and constructing affordable houses.

As a test case, 10–15 people can be identified from a specific area of the town. They are trained in basic business and construction skills. They are then given a loan to build an agreed number of houses, which must be sufficient to pay 75 percent of the initial loan, make enough profit to pay themselves, and commence further construction or undertake the repair of existing houses.

It is recommended that this develops into a “social business”, as opposed to a profit-making enterprise where each individual pays themselves according to the level of profit made. A social business
stipulates that there is an agreed payment to people notwithstanding the profit made, and the remainder goes back into the project. This system ensures that, while people receive a steady income, the essence of the project, which is to provide homes to poor people, remains. This is purely a suggestion and it would be up to the group and organization to decide on their methodology.

It would be necessary that technical backup is available and, where appropriate, links are developed with organizations involved in house construction, such as Practical Action and CHF. ACORD Sudan is a highly reputable organization in this area with considerable experience in Eastern Sudan.

**Estimated Budget for Two Years:** USD 60,000

### 11.9 RECOMMENDATION 9

**Construction of a Vocational Training Centre**

**Objective**

*Develop a functioning and effective training institution and incorporate a community meeting and social facility.*

A number of previous reports suggest that skills training requires a much greater level of inputs to meet the demand. Training for specific trades is conducted at a few locations in Nyala, but this report suggests that a new, modern, professional facility be created to assist such a large population. It is also an opportunity to organize the centre in such a way that a venue is created for community groups (youth groups, women’s groups, etc.) to meet and carry out social activities.

**Outputs**

- The establishment of a fully functional vocational training centre, which would be run by the appropriate government department after an initial period of three years
- A minimum of 200 trained people per year in a range of skills: carpentry, brick-laying, electrics, and motor mechanics
- The provision of a community venue for meetings and activities
- The provision of trained personnel for the ever-growing building industry, as well as for traditional products

**Outline of the Project**

There are training facilities in Nyala, but they are inadequately structured and equipped to address the level of need. It is therefore recommended to construct a modern training facility that will be flexible in its usage and include offices, workshops, and social and sports areas. This could allow for the piloting of building materials, equipment, alternative technologies, alternative fuels, and energy conservation methods. Staffing will include management, instruction, administration, cleaning, security, and catering staff.

This is a big project, but the high levels of unemployment, the issues youth face, and the low quality of workmanship show that there is a dire need for a professional centre that will offer a range of skills training.

It is recommended that an agreement be made with the government whereby the centre would be run by an experienced NGO or reputable educational institution for the first three years, before it comes under a government department. During this period, seconded staff from the government would work in the centre and be trained in the management and running of such a facility.

A board should be formed to oversee the management of the centre, comprised of representatives of training and educational institutions, the department of education, the UN, NGOs, and community groups.

**Suggested Budget**

The budget is for three years, giving the centre the opportunity to generate funds to become an economically viable entity. Financial and staffing commitments from the government would be crucial before any agreements are signed.

**Estimated Budget:** USD 2.5 million
12. SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS AND BUDGET

Provisional Total over a Three-year Period: USD 6,405,500

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<td>Establishment of a foundation (or access to existing foundations)</td>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>Multi-year, but a once-off setting up amount</td>
<td>1 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Policy Development</td>
<td>State government to review existing policies and introduce new policies, as appropriate, towards the creation of flexible approaches to assist people to produce local food, access finance, and create employment.</td>
<td>Government policy review</td>
<td>Ongoing</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Capacity Strengthening</td>
<td>Through the Asset-based Community Development (ABCD) approach, work with communities to empower themselves to address the many difficulties they face – with support from rather than dependency on outside aid.</td>
<td>Development of a stronger civil society</td>
<td>Initially for three years</td>
<td>400,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Appropriate Technology for Construction and Building Materials</td>
<td>Generate employment and income through developing a consistent approach to the production of appropriate materials for low-cost and sustainable housing.</td>
<td>Employment; shelter provision; income generation</td>
<td>Initially for three years</td>
<td>1 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Food Security</td>
<td>Present opportunities for IDP camp dwellers and townspeople to produce food locally to complement other inputs and reduce dependency on food aid.</td>
<td>Food production; construction of surface dams; income generation</td>
<td>Two years</td>
<td>500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Revitalizing of the Gum Arabic Industry</td>
<td>Improve local livelihoods through expanding the industry in an organized manner to enable local growth and increase exports.</td>
<td>Livelihood improvement; income generation</td>
<td>One year</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Development of a Poultry Production System</td>
<td>Supplement both the nutrition and income of poor households in Nyala town and at least one camp.</td>
<td>Health and nutrition; food production; income generation</td>
<td>One year</td>
<td>5,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Small Animal Restocking</td>
<td>Provide a means to access improved nutrition and income opportunities for selected households in the town and camp.</td>
<td>Income generation; nutrition</td>
<td>One year</td>
<td>15,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Development of the Microfinance Programme</td>
<td>Strengthen the microfinance structure in Nyala and develop a more comprehensive and coordinated approach to allocating loans.</td>
<td>Business development; employment</td>
<td>Two years</td>
<td>60,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. Construction of a Vocational Centre</td>
<td>Develop a functioning and effective training institution and incorporate a community meeting and social facility.</td>
<td>Employment; capacity strengthening</td>
<td>Three years</td>
<td>2.5 million</td>
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13. MEETING THE UN’S MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

The proposal presented will contribute in some small way to 50 percent of the stated Millennium Goals through addressing food shortages (Goal 1); promoting gender equality and empowerment of women (Goal 3); reducing child mortality (Goal 4); addressing environmental degradation (Goal 7); and developing a global partnership for development (Goal 8).

The specified Millennium Development Goals:

- Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
- Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education
- Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women
- Goal 4: Reduce child mortality
- Goal 5: Improve maternal health
- Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases
- Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability
- Goal 8: Develop a global partnership for development
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
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<tr>
<td>ABCD</td>
<td>Asset-Based Community Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>FAO</td>
<td>Food and Agricultural Organization</td>
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<td>IDP</td>
<td>internally displaced person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>non-governmental organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNAMID</td>
<td>African Union/United Nations Hybrid Operation in Darfur</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
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<td>UNEP</td>
<td>United Nations Environmental Programme</td>
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<td>UN-HABITAT</td>
<td>United Nations Human Settlements Programme</td>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Fund</td>
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<td>UNIDO</td>
<td>United Nations Industrial Development Organization</td>
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<td>UNMIS</td>
<td>United Nations Mission in Sudan</td>
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<td>UNOCHA</td>
<td>United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs</td>
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<td>WFP</td>
<td>World Food Programme</td>
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## APPENDIX 2: KEY ISSUES, CONSTRAINTS, AND SOLUTIONS FOR THE MAIN FARMING SYSTEMS IN SOUTH DARFUR STATE

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>System</th>
<th>Constraints</th>
<th>Solution</th>
<th>Estimated Cost</th>
<th>Expected Output</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Goz farming system</td>
<td>Fluctuation of production and productivity</td>
<td>Provision of improved drought-resistant seeds (groundnut and <em>durra</em>)</td>
<td>SDG 27 per farmer (9 kg x 3) for <em>durra</em> and SDG 50 for groundnuts</td>
<td>Productivity increase by 300 kg and 400 kg per feddan for millet and groundnuts</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Continuous cultivation</td>
<td>Intercropping lubia and increasing the fallow cycle</td>
<td>Training of farmers through demonstration (SDG 50 per farmer)</td>
<td>Introduction of fallowing to stop the deterioration of production</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Market information is lacking</td>
<td>Establishment of an information system at the locality level</td>
<td>SDG 4,000 per locality</td>
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<td>Clay farming system</td>
<td>Small size, with more family labour required</td>
<td>Introduction of animal plows (camel, horse, and donkey)</td>
<td>SDG 850–1,250 per farmer including training</td>
<td>Increase the area by 50 to 100 percent</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Low productivity</td>
<td>Introduction of mature varieties (<em>tabat</em>, W. Ahmed, A. Gadmk) and sesame</td>
<td>SDG 280 per farmer</td>
<td>Increase productivity to 400 kg and 170 kg respectively for <em>durra</em> and sesame</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poor utilization of crop residues</td>
<td>Introduction of baling and storage system for crop residues</td>
<td>SDG 150 per farmer</td>
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<tr>
<td>Irrigation system</td>
<td>No access for traditional farmers</td>
<td>Introduction of small-scale irrigated projects</td>
<td>SDG 1,750 per farmer</td>
<td>Increase the area by 200 to 500 percent</td>
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<td>Poor water management, cultural practices, and marketing skills</td>
<td>Training of traditional farmers</td>
<td>SDG 100 per farmer</td>
<td>Improving the efficiency of irrigation and marketing systems will reduce the cost</td>
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<td>High losses during transport and marketing</td>
<td>Improvement of packing and storage capacity</td>
<td>SDG 20,000 for establishing group store system</td>
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<td>Urban agriculture</td>
<td>No access to the formal financial market</td>
<td>Increase the awareness about loan procedures and loan management</td>
<td>SDG 50 per farmer</td>
<td>Increase the area under urban agriculture</td>
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<td>Mono-cropping</td>
<td>Diversification of crops (vegetables, forage, poultry, and milk)</td>
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<td>Increase the utilization of capital assets</td>
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<td>Large mechanized farms</td>
<td>The current model in other parts of the country is not sustainable (no yield due to the cropping pattern)</td>
<td>Research on cropping pattern and culture practices</td>
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<td>Sustainable farming system</td>
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<td>Pastoralist</td>
<td>Lack of planning for pastoralist system</td>
<td>Incorporation of pastoralists into regional and natural planning</td>
<td>SDG 10,000 for establishing the system at the regional level</td>
<td>Formal recognition</td>
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<td>Low productivity of pasture land</td>
<td>Distribution of seeds of pasture vegetation</td>
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<td>High losses of natural pasture</td>
<td>Introduction of pasture harvesting techniques</td>
<td>SDG 150 per farmer</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poor natural resource management</td>
<td>Training of farmers and pastoralists on natural resource management practices</td>
<td>SDG 50 per farmer</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Rigid traditional grazing rights</td>
<td>Modernization of traditional grazing rights through workshops for the traditional leaders of farmers and pastoralists</td>
<td>SDG 20,000 for the state</td>
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<tr>
<td>Agricultural industries</td>
<td>Lack of plans and policies for the development of agricultural industries</td>
<td>Formulation of new policies and plan for development of agri-industries in the state</td>
<td>SDG 30,000</td>
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### APPENDIX 3: SUPPLY QUANTITIES AND PRICES FOR THE CENTRAL MARKET IN NYALA

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</table>
|     | Watermelon | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0
APPENDIX 4: SUMMARY OF THE ABCD APPROACH

Asset-based Community Development – An Overview

What Is ABCD? It is an approach to community-based development, based on the principles of:

- Appreciating and mobilizing individual and community talents, skills, and assets (rather than focusing on problems and needs).
- Community-driven development rather than development driven by external agencies.

It builds on:

- **Appreciative inquiry**, which identifies and analyses the community’s past successes. This strengthens people’s confidence in their own capacities and inspires them to take action.
- The recognition of **social capital** and its importance as an asset. This is why ABCD focuses on the power of associations and informal linkages within the community, and the relationships built over time between community associations and external institutions.
- **Participatory approaches to development**, which are based on principles of empowerment and ownership of the development process.
- **Community economic development** models that place priority on collaborative efforts for economic development that makes best use of its own resource base.
- Efforts to strengthen **civil society**. These efforts have focused on how to engage people as citizens (rather than clients) in development, and how to make local governance more effective and responsive.

How Is ABCD Facilitated?

ABCD is a process of self-mobilization and organizing for change. This process has happened spontaneously in many communities. The challenge for an external agency, such as an NGO, is to stimulate this process in other communities without having the opposite effect of creating dependency. There are a set of methods that can be used, but it is important not to consider this a blueprint, but more as guidelines for achieving community-driven development. We are already seeing variations in how ABCD is facilitated by different NGOs.

1. Collecting Stories
   To begin building confidence in the community, informal discussions and interviews that draw out people's experience of successful activities and projects will help to uncover the gifts, skills, talents, and assets people have. Not only does this uncover assets that people have not recognized before, but it also strengthens people's pride in their achievements. This celebration of achievement and realization of what they have to contribute builds confidence in their abilities to be producers, not recipients, of development.

2. Organizing a Core Group
   In the process of collecting stories, particular people will emerge as leaders in the community — people who have shown commitment and leadership in the past or who are currently taking a leadership role. The next step is to organize a group of such committed individuals who are interested in exploring further the community’s assets and acting on the opportunities identified. Each of these individuals will have a network of relationships inside the community whom they can draw in to the process. Each of these individuals will have a personal interest — something that motivates him or her to act.

3. Mapping Completely the Capacities and Assets of Individuals, Associations, and Local Institutions
   Mapping is more than gathering data. It is very important that citizens and their associations do the asset mapping themselves so that they themselves build new relationships, learn more about the contributions and talents of community members, and identify potential linkages between different assets.

Mapping the local economy is an exercise that helps people in the community understand how the local economy works, showing how well local resources are maximized for local economic benefit. Are products and services imported that could be produced locally?

4. Convening a Broad Representative Group to Build a Community Vision and Plan
   During this part of the process, assets are matched with opportunities around an “organizing theme” — a vision for community development. An activity is selected within that organizing theme for the community to begin working on right away. It needs to be concrete (people know what to do to succeed, and what success will look like), immediate, achievable with community resources, unifying (it brings people together), and strengthening (people's skills are used and valued).
How is this process managed? It is important that the representative group that is convened reflects the energy that has been identified at the associational level. Institutions take a backseat role, leaving decision making to those who have been identified as leaders in the community with key links to associational networks.

5. Mobilizing Assets for Community Development
The process continues as an ongoing mobilization of community assets for economic development and information sharing purposes, initiated by the associational base. Associations are encouraged to engage by appealing to their interests, finding common ground and ensuring that they are contributing on their own terms. Eventually, an “association of associations” emerges.

6. Leveraging Activities, Investments and Resources from Outside the Community to Support Asset-based, Locally Defined Development
The process of realizing the community vision begins with associations asking themselves “What can we do to make this vision happen?” External resources are not tapped until local resources have been utilized. This puts the community in a position of strength in dealing with outside institutions.

APPENDIX 5: TERMS OF REFERENCE FOR THE ECONOMIC PROFILING MISSION IN DARFUR

Background:
The conflict in the Sudan has had devastating impacts on overall development in the country, particularly in the southern region and in Darfur. The level of infrastructure is low. Access to markets has been made difficult, not only due to intensity of conflict, but due to lack of useable roads. Links between communities have been cut off. Basic services, water, electricity and the like are scarce, increasing the burden on communities, particularly on women. The displacement of populations as a result of the conflict and scarce economic opportunities is the highest in the world. There have been an estimated 4 million IDPs inside the Sudan and an additional 570,000 refugees in neighbouring countries. In particular the escalating levels of conflict and the increasing level of insecurity and targeting of humanitarian agencies have severely impacted on the civilians of Darfur. It is estimated that the number of affected people according to the UN Darfur humanitarian profile No 27 April 2007 is 4.1 million, of which 2.1 million are registered IDPs.

Compared to April 2006 the caseload of conflict affected populations has increased by 550,000, while access has dropped from 78 percent to 68 percent. Virtually the entire population of Darfur may be considered to be affected by the war. Communities have been severely impacted or destroyed. Apart from the 80 percent of displaced who have lost everything they owned, every community whether they be sedentary rural farmers or nomadic pastoralists, public sector workers or urban dwellers have seen their livelihoods severely disrupted. Basic services are overloaded or have ceased, markets are curtailed, and freedom of movement and personal security are severely threatened and compromised, through gender-based violence and physical attacks on people and property.

In the current crisis, the joint programme of the Resident Coordinator’s Office, UNEP, and UN-HABITAT aims to safeguard and begin to build up sustainable livelihood options, minimizing environmental degradation and potential conflicts. In this context, it is difficult to measure the absolute economic benefits of the situation, particularly with no baseline information available. The overall objective of the UN-HABITAT programme component is to build a foundation for post-conflict sustainable recovery in Darfur through adaptation and implementation of woodless building techniques and strengthening capacities on land regularization and dispute resolution processes. The programme component will enable IDPs to reconstruct their
shelter and community infrastructure through aided self-help using local material resources. The programme will enable the community to:

1. Improve its housing situation. This has implications on household well-being and wealth.
2. Acquire new skills that will enhance their income-generating possibilities.
3. Provide land security of tenure, which further enhances shelter investment and improvement.
4. Mitigate deforestation, which leads to protecting environmental resources and enhancing community livelihoods.
5. Stimulate the formation of small businesses among community groups, including building materials providers, contractors, and tool makers.

At the national level, shelter investment has a positive multiplier effect on the economy, especially if it is labour-intensive and utilizes local human and materials resources. It generates employment and has forward and backward linkages with other sectors of the economy.

It is anticipated that large movements to urban areas of perceived economy opportunity will take place. It is important that support be provided to improve existing infrastructure and establish necessary systems in areas where people are expected to converge. It is important that infrastructure is viewed as a comprehensive need, linked closely with economic needs of the populations as they move. Additionally, these issues combine in the longer term to form the critical foundations for sustainable human settlement development in Darfur. Infrastructure and economic opportunities will also have a great impact on the process of securing peace and re-establishing connections among and between communities. This is a vital component in the long-term stability and development of the region.

In light of this, the economic profiling entails identifying areas of existing or potential economic opportunity in Darfur; determining the impact of these opportunities on host and returning communities; developing a clear picture of requirements (technical assistance, capacity building, infrastructure support, etc.) related to key areas of economic opportunity in Darfur; and preparing recommendations for primary economic activities in the region. The implementation methodology entails the training of local assessment teams on the assessment methodology. The first two economic profiling assessments will be conducted as a joint exercise by two profiling experts and the local economic profiling assessment teams. This way the programme will also sustain local capacity for undertaking follow-up assessments.

The profiles gather and assess relevant socio-economic information on a participatory basis to identify opportunities and key needs for settlement recovery to reduce existing poverty and unemployment.

**Target Study Locations:**
The two economic profiling assessments will be undertaken in two Darfur towns and their environs. The exact locations are to be confirmed.

**Phase I – Scoping Mission to Khartoum and Potentially to Darfur (One Week)**
The objectives of the scoping mission are the following:

- Familiarization with local conditions, environment, and dynamics.
- Meeting with programme partners and stakeholders.
- Preliminary data collection.
- Conducting an introductory workshop for potential trainers to introduce the assessment methodology and assessment objectives.
- Selection of two assessment teams.
- Two-day training workshop for the assessment team.
- Preparation of a work plan for the economic profiling exercise for November–October 2007.

Mission outputs:

- Confirmed composition of the two assessment teams.
- Initial training on the assessment methodology.
- Work plan for the economic profiling mission.

Scoping mission implementation:

To be undertaken by two consultants over a period of one week in Khartoum and/or Darfur (to be confirmed).
Phase II – Economic Profiling for 2–3 Weeks at the Target Locations

The objectives of the economic profiling are the following:

- Identify areas of existing or potential economic opportunity in Darfur.
- Determine the impact of these opportunities on host and returning communities.
- Develop a clear picture of requirements (technical assistance, capacity building, infrastructure support, etc.) related to key areas of economic opportunity in Darfur.
- Prepare recommendations for primary economic activities in the region.

Expected mission inputs:

- Use of appropriate data collection instruments and methodologies for socio-economic data collection at each of the identified locations sufficiently comprehensive to deliver the expected outputs (see below).
- Use of appropriate data analysis assessment instruments/methods for delivering the expected outputs (see below).

Expected outputs:

- Two study area socio-economic reports.
- Each report containing a section on information and analysis as relevant and as follows:
  - *General Situation Assessment* covering a crisis situation to be addressed, main economic problems identified, affected population groups, gender/socio-cultural issues, any structural issues impacting on the target area, economic situation, human rights and political context, social system and programmes, legal and administrative framework, international and local assistance programmes, and active development organizations in the area.
  - *Capacity Assessment for Constituents* covering the community in general, local authorities, local economic actors, local development organizations, and others of relevance.
  - *Sectoral Assessments for Programme Planning* covering vocational training and public employment programmes, social security protection, labour market and employment prospects, social dialogue, microfinance and credit services, business advisory and technical services, potential for labour-intensive works, and special target groups.
  - *Economic Gaps Relevant to the Study Area.*
  - *Socio-Economic Information* covering any macro-economic data available, historical timeline, population information, climate and environment, buildings and facilities, water resources and infrastructure, roads infrastructure and transport, housing infrastructure, power supply resources, telecommunications and information flows, airports/airstrips, important economic sectors and currencies, important market centre relationships, inventory of town businesses and main employers, grazing resources and livestock migration, vegetation and wildlife resources, and sites of interest – historical, archaeological, touristic, etc.
  - *Legal and Regulatory Framework* covering the judicial system, business licensing, taxation, land allocation systems, and other issues as relevant.
  - *Socio-Economic Dynamics* covering a resource map, seasonal calendar, market day, development dimensions, socially sensitive segments/areas, income sources and preferences, information and commercial flows for each active economic sector, and any other monetary flows (remittances, etc.).
  - *Expressed Needs of the Community.*
  - *Local Resource Persons.*

- Each report containing a section on conclusions and recommendations as relevant and as follows:
  - *General Study Conclusions.*
  - *Conclusions and Recommendations* – infrastructure (including opportunities for labour-intensive works).
  - *Conclusions and Recommendations* – development of the capacity-building sector in preparation for transition to post conflict development.
  - *Conclusions and Recommendations* – interventions in sectors with business growth potential and potential for improving/creating livelihoods and jobs.

Mission implementation:
The field inputs will be delivered by two consultants over two to three weeks at the target locations.
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