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The social impacts factors of internal irregular migration on the Sudan: Concepts and challenges

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Abstract

Sudan is a sanctuary for many neighboring countries such as south Sudan, Ethiopia, Eritrea, Libya, Chad and Egypt. There are four million foreigners in the country 40 per cent of the population of Khartoum State is foreigners, including 60,000 illegal residents". Some of them fled the violence, including more than 150,000 South Sudanese who fled after fighting broke out in December 2013. The Sudan has an important third group in a permanent movement. These are the shepherds who move from one place to another according to the changes of the seasons and in search of water and food for their live there.

Keywords: Displacement, migration, social impact, Smuggling

Introductions

Migration is an expression of the human ambition for dignity, safety and a better future. It is part of the social structure, part of a human structure and family. As summarizes, internal migration contributes to high rate of urban growth. Unfortunately, in general, Sudan has no relevant policy to avoid or to control the high magnitude of internal migration in urban areas (e.g. Khartoum city). This is because migration is unavoidable spatial phenomenon in urban areas. It is the same with urbanization (Migration in Sudan 2011) ^[22]. More importantly, migration behavior is due to multiple factors such as social, economic and physical effect. It includes understanding where places in urban areas become the center of migration flow in future, mapping distribution of possibility migration flows in urban areas, estimating a number of potential migrants in specific areas, understanding a complex scenario or problems could create migration distribution, and understanding relationships between migration and other urban phenomena (Bell and Edwards, 2013) ^[2]. More than half the world's population sticks around in urban areas, and cities continue to attract people in search of a better of life and greater job prospects and services. Cities address the immediate needs of migrants and respond to a number of challenges brought on by integration. (Oyenyi 2013) ^[7].

The Impact of internal migration on origin household

The scale of internal migration and recent trends had been reported by an international research project, Comparing Internal Migration around the Globe (IMAGE), is compiling a repository of internal migration statistics, based on national census data. (Bell and Edwards 2013) ^[2] report the project's first results, based on a sample of about 70 countries.

According to empirical studies, which focus on internal migration for labor, the impact of internal migration on origin households can be positive or negative, mainly depending on the context. (Brauw and Harigaya 2007), find that seasonal migration in Vietnam increases origin households' living standards and significantly reduces poverty. (Park and Wang 2005) find modest effects of internal migration on poverty reduction in China and explain their result by showing that poor households are relatively less likely to afford internal migration. In the context of rural Bangladesh, (Mendola 2008) assesses whether households with migrants are more likely to adopt modern rice seeds varieties compared to households without migrants. The studies find that the positive effect of migration on technology adoption is only verified in the case of international migration. Differently, technology adoption is less likely for households with internal migrants than for non-migrant households.

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This result could be explained by international migration providing larger remittances relative to internal migration. Moreover, due to greater distances, international migrants' income is less correlated with origin households' income, compared to internal migrants' income. Hence, international moves can also provide better insurance for families at the origin than internal moves can. Given that in rural Bangladesh, households with internal migrants appear to be relatively disadvantaged, migration may actually perpetuate poverty and increase inequality (Bell and Muhidin, 2011).

It is estimated that, in 2005, 12 per cent of the global population – about 763 million people – were living in their home country, but outside their birth region. This estimate subject to revision as more data become available. However, it shows that, globally, the number of internal migrants far exceeds that of international migrants, which, as of 2010, is recorded as being 221 million, about 3 per cent of the global population (United Nations, 2013a) ^[2]. Latin America is the region with the highest internal migration rate, while Asia has the lowest. However, there is substantial heterogeneity within regions (Bell and Edwards, 2013) ^[2].

Empirical studies provide mixed evidence. In the setting of Tanzania, (Weerd and Dercon 2011) find that migrants had 36 per cent higher consumption growth than stayers. However, studies from developing countries analyzing the relationship between happiness and internal migration mostly conclude that internal migrants are less satisfied than stayers (Simpson, 2013). There is evidence that this can be due to the overly optimistic expectations of prospective migrants. Indeed, while monetary returns can be predicted, relatively accurately, other aspects of relocation, such as environmental and social conditions at destination, are less understandable when deciding on migration and can generate dissatisfaction when discovered. This is consistent with the study by (Farré and Fasani 2013) ^[14], who find that media exposure reduces internal migration in Indonesia. The mechanism outlined by the authors is that greater media exposure results in prospective migrants better understanding the actual urban living conditions. In particular, prospective migrants understand that they are over-estimating the benefits of urban living, and thus are less likely to migrate.

From the above, an immediate policy suggestion to increase the benefits of internal migration is to provide prospective migrants with improved information regarding not just job opportunities at the destination, but also living conditions (Migrants wellbeing). Moreover, (Yamauchi 2004) finds that better educated migrants have faster wage growth in destination labor markets and therefore suggests schooling investments, either before or after migration, as measures to speed migrants' economic integration at destination. As outlined in the review by (Selod and Shalizi 2006), increasing internal migrants' unionization and protecting migrants' rights through formal job contracts could also enhance migrants' wellbeing. Other relevant policy suggestions provided by (Selod and Shalizi 2006) include ensuring sufficient access to health facilities at the destination and supporting the local political participation of newly arrived internal migrants.

This highlights the need for policy that improves the wellbeing of internal migrants' families at origin. For instance, policies easing the transmission of remittances can improve the development impact of internal migration. Moreover, as underlined by (Taylor and Brauw 1999), improving the functioning of formal insurance and credit markets at origin could provide households with alternatives

that do not result in the loss of labor income in the short term. For example, micro-finance could prove beneficial, even for the poorest households that cannot afford internal migration.

Internal Migration and Its Impact on Cities

Cities provide economic opportunities that have always attracted migrants. Demographic shifts, ageing in many developed economies and youths in emerging economies seeking employment have caused imbalances in labour markets (Bell and Muhidin, 2011).

More than half the world's population resides in urban areas, and cities continue to attract people in search of a better of life and greater job prospects and services. Cities provide economic opportunities that have always attracted migrants. Demographic shifts, ageing in many developed economies and youths in emerging economies seeking employment have caused imbalances in labour markets. Countries and cities unable to fulfill skill requirements internally look abroad to fill worker shortages at all skill levels. Cities reap the largest benefits of mobile talent but also face the important challenges of integrating migrants and offering them services. Cities can either capitalize on migrants' skills and enhance their competitiveness, or increase the overall cost on their welfare system from unemployment. (Selod and Shalizi, 2006).

Type of impact factors

Economic factors: These relate to the labour market of a place, the employment situation and the overall state of the economy.

Socio political factors: These include family conflicts and unification; the quest for independence; ethnic, religious, racial and cultural parameters; warfare, or the threat of conflict, among other factors that contribute to migration.

Ecological factors: These include environmental factors, such as climate change and the availability of natural resources that cause individuals to migrate in search of more favorable ecological conditions (Pantuliano *et al.* 2011).

Internal migration or displacement in Sudan

Sudan does not produce regular statistics on international migration, thus data is often out dated and misrepresentative of the population. Nonetheless, if we compare the migrant stock of 2010, as reported by UN DESA (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs) (UNDESA 2010), and the work permits issued by Sudan a few trends emerge.

It is safe to assume that the political and security crises that Sudan and its neighboring countries face have changed some of these labour migration trends. For instance, the current economic crises that the country faces in light of the shortage of oil production directly impacts the number of migrants who are attracted to work in such plants (CIA, 2017) ^[10]. A recent IOM study corroborates this image. The research will covered 308 migrants in Khartoum and half of these left their country of origin for lack of jobs and economic opportunities. Considering these motivations, life in Sudan did not represent an improvement, as the majority of respondents were unemployed at the time of the survey and jobs were hard to come by. In terms of migration intentions, 55 per cent of respondents expressed no intention of living in Sudan for longer and 70 per cent of them did not

intend to stay in Sudan even when leaving their country of origin. Tied to this, the study also uncovered that asylum seekers and refugees are just as likely to migrate once more for economic and financial reasons, even if they attain protection under the 1951 Refugee Convention (IOM, 2017b).

International Labour Organization (ILO) reports suggest that this trend has influenced the growth of the informal sector in these cities, where these sectors do not have informal social security services, whereas rural areas do. Moreover, this urban increase also relates to large numbers of IDPs moving to cities, through pull factors such as better access to services and greater economic opportunities (Strachan, 2016). In rural settings this migration has resulted in seasonal labour shortages which increased the cost of agricultural production, and thus of food (Darbo, 2015).

Government policies have not kept pace with this urbanization rate and Sudan's development strategy does not attain to urbanization as a separate point of concern. Its strategy is to make the countryside a more appealing place to live and work, in an attempt to reduce rural-urban migration (Pantuliano *et al.* 2011).

Irregular migration

Irregular migration is of high importance in Sudan, as most movement in and out of the country is of irregular nature using smugglers and brokers throughout the journey (DAI and Euro Trends, 2015).

1. Human smuggling

Smuggling is a common feature in Sudan, as it facilitates irregular movement in and out of Sudan every year. Eritreans often turn to this modality, in light of Sudanese encampment policies and the strict exit requirements the Eritrean government has. Eritreans and Ethiopians tend rely on members of their country of origin to guide them through the smuggling process, as it is not manageable to follow the migration route without the help of smugglers. In order to reach neighboring countries, such as Libya, migrants often change between different smugglers. The journey tends to happen in refugee camps, passing through Khartoum and onto Sudan's borders (Marchand *et al.* 2016).

2. Trafficking in human beings

Sudan is a Tier 3 country under the US Department of State classification of trafficking classifications. It is a source, destination and transit country for men, women and children subjected to forced labour and sex trafficking. Trafficked children tend to work in brick-making factories, gold factories and agriculture. It is common for these children to be exposed to threats, physical and sexual abuse. Children are also vulnerable to being recruited as child soldiers, even though Sudanese law prohibits this recruitment. Still, reports announce that armed groups and militias like the Sudanese Armed Forces continue to recruit boys. In addition, South Sudanese rebels have been reported to abduct children from West Kordofan. Girls and women are especially vulnerable to trafficking for domestic servitude and sex trafficking (US Department of State, 2016).

Migrants' vulnerabilities and protection issues

The following vulnerabilities and protection needs have been identified for migrants moving to or in transit through Sudan:

- Sudan is a transit country for Eritrean and Ethiopian migrants and the number of migrants has increased in recent years. A significant problem during transit is abduction from refugee camps (Altai Consulting & UNHCR, 2013), especially in Eastern Sudan, as well as different forms of exploitation and extortion. Communities nearby the refugee camps have been associated with aiding traffickers and abductors in order to make a living (IOM 2015). Women are especially vulnerable, since they are often subject to forced prostitution. For this reason, many migrants started organizing their journeys to Khartoum independently, avoiding refugee camps (Altai Consulting & UNHCR, 2013).
- Compared to other transit countries in the region, Sudan offers more employment opportunities for migrants. As a result, some migrants choose to stay in Sudan, at least for a few years. These migrants mostly come from Eritrea and Ethiopia. Both nations have large diaspora communities in Khartoum. Migrant workers from Eritrea and Ethiopia are involved in unskilled work, sometimes as irregular migrants. Even though most asylum seekers (97%) are granted refugee status in Sudan, a significant portion of migrants never applies for asylum (Altai Consulting & UNHCR, 2013). These workers are therefore subject to different forms of abuse and domestic servitude (DAI and Euro Trends, 2015).
- In Khartoum, there are two shelters, for Eritrean and Ethiopian nationals, respectively. The shelter for Ethiopians is run by the diaspora and the Ethiopian Embassy. As for the shelter for Eritreans, it is run by the diaspora, but does not receive support from the Eritrean Embassy due to perceptions that Sudanese and Eritrean security services cooperate, enabling kidnapping and forced return of refugees to Eritrea.

Relevant national policies and stakeholders

Sudanese legislation related to migration provides for matters related to Sudanese labor migration, irregular migration, employment of foreign nationals, and refugees. In addition, it prohibits human trafficking. All foreigners, except Egyptians, need a visa to enter Sudan. Labour migrants are required to have a working permit. Moreover, Sudanese citizens are only allowed to leave the country with a valid exit visa (IOM, 2011)^[22]. The Sudanese government, in cooperation with IOM, provides reintegration support to return migrants (IOM, 2014). No bilateral labour agreements could be identified for Sudan.

Sudan has a large diaspora population, yet it has a lack of policies to engage this potential in a productive manner. Nonetheless, Sudanese diaspora organizations exist and have in the past influenced the peace-making process. Examples are diaspora networks in Darfur identifying contentious and consensual points on peace agreements (Brinkerhof, 2011).

Looking at forced migration, Sudan applies an "open door" policy for asylum seekers providing land for the establishment of camps and access to immediate basic services, such as education and health facilities. Currently, a series of international organizations follow the "Strategy to Address Human Trafficking, Kidnappings and Smuggling of Persons in Sudan – Strengthening Alternatives to Onward Movements (2015-17)" developed by UNHCR Sudan, IOM, UNODC, UNICEF and UNFPA. Another priority is the

promotion of self-reliance programmer, aiming at enhancing economic self-reliance and reducing aid dependency (UNHCR, 2017d). Historically the government's refugee policy is based on assumptions that refugees can represent a threat to social security, and therefore should be placed in spatially segregated areas. This highlights a central priority of the government to keep towns and urban centers clear of refugees, ensuing encampment policies (Grabska & Mehta, 2008; Strachan, 2016). Nonetheless, it has generally failed to achieve this goal as urban centers like Khartoum host large numbers of refugees (DAI and Euro Trends, 2015). Another assumption sees refugee status as a temporary approach before a durable solution can be found. This prevents integration of refugees into host communities, for instance by not granting them access to employment and naturalization (Grabska & Mehta, 2008). In 2009, Sudan introduced the National Policy on Internal Displacement which establishes the right of freedom of movement for IDPs. Yet, it favors return over other options, like integration or resettlement (Strachan, 2016).

Attempts to prevent human trafficking within the country include increased patrols by the police where the Sudanese population seems especially vulnerable to trafficking. The government is aware of capacity building needs, for instance, in the field of human trafficking, and organizes trainings and workshops for officials. Nevertheless, the US Department of State (2016) regards efforts by the Sudanese Government to combat human trafficking as insignificant. A reception desk at the border with Eritrea provides assistance to Vots and other migrants who are victims of exploitation (IOM, 2015).

Key stakeholders in the field of migration include, but are not limited to the Ministry of Labour, the National Committee to Combat Trafficking, Ministry of Interior, the Commission of Refugees, the Secretariat of Sudanese Working Abroad and the National Security and Intelligence Service (IOM, 2011) ^[22].

Gaps in migration policies

All in all, Sudan's migration policy does not seem coherent. The mandates between ministries and agencies often overlap. For instance, three ministries are responsible for foreign workers in Sudan. Gaps in the policy framework also arise from this lack of coherence. Sudan largely depends on the support of international organizations regarding the development and implementation of migration policies and programmers as it lacks adequate capacities and resources, for instance to address human trafficking and smuggling (US Department of State, 2016). Authorities often conflate human trafficking and smuggling. In addition, Sudan should expand the protection of Sudanese labour migrants abroad, for instance through negotiating bilateral labour agreements with prominent destination countries, where migrants are at risk of exploitation. Assistance to return migrants, IDPs, refugees and host communities should be strengthened (Bartolomeo *et al.*, 2012) ^[13].

History of internal migration in Sudan

The history of migration to and from the regions of Sudan dates back to the beginning of mankind. Sudan has been a meeting place for migrants for thousands of years, both north to south, and from west to east. The routes of this historic migration include the lines of transportation of

pastoralists and the lines followed by the Sudanese, either in search of a better life or to escape the hell of war in the various regions of Sudan. While Sudan is known for its conflicts, such as the Darfur war, which has led many to flee their homes, Sudan has also received in the past and is currently receiving large numbers of refugees from many neighboring countries such as South Sudan, Ethiopia or Eritrea (IOM, 2015).

Sudan has experienced many migrations, and historically historians have written about Arab migrations to Nubia in pre-Islamic times, with different reasons for doing this. Until the ninth century, Arabs migrated to Sudan for several commercial reasons: the lucrative slave trade, mining activities in the Eastern Desert, and hajj, as well as trade with India that eventually led to the development of Red Sea ports (Bartolomeo *et al.*, 2012) ^[13].

The Arab migration to Sudan also had other reasons, for example, political, such as the policy of the Tatar sitter in the era of the Mu'tasim, the eighth of the Abbasid rulers, which led to the migration of large numbers of Arabs to Nubia, or the power struggle in Egypt between Arabs and Mamluks that eventually led to the Arabs' exit from Egypt and stability in Sudan (IMO 2016).

In modern times, Sudan witnessed large-scale internal and external migrations, beginning with the Egyptian-Turkish colonizer in 1821, which carried out a number of raids on the country to obtain slaves and established a power center in Khartoum, and identified the dynamics of internal migration for centuries to come (DAI and EuroTrends, 2015).

Although this is significantly lower than the figure indicated by council members, it remains high compared to other countries, with Kampala, the capital of Uganda, receiving no more than 3.6 per cent of the country's total population, and only 7 per cent in Nairobi, the capital of Kenya. (IOM 2018).

Analysis and Results

The research form was designed, which includes all aspects related to immigration and displacement from neighboring countries and its impact on the economic and social situation in the country. The section one focused on the social characteristics of the mobility, the second, it dealt with displacement, migration and stability in the camps, while the third section focused on the participation and contributions of the migrant inside the camp.

Data was collected using questionnaire, in order to be sure that the research had fulfilled the required purpose and until the hypotheses of the study were verified, and for that some statistical methods were used. Such as the frequency distribution of the respondents' answers, shapes and graphs, frequency and percentages.

In order to obtain results characterized by a high degree of accuracy, the statistical analysis program SPSS was used, which stands for Statistical Package for Social Sciences in the analysis process as it is one of the most widely used programs in data analysis.

A 164 questionnaire was distributed to respondents to answer according to the main characteristics (demographic and social) and main issue regarding to displacement for whom come to Sudan from neighborhood countries especially, Eretria by Kassala get, represent an internal migration.

Table 1: Personal and demographic characteristics

| Characteristic | | Frequency | Per cent% |
|--------------------|--------------|-----------|-----------|
| Sex | Male | 68 | 41.5 |
| | Female | 96 | 58.5 |
| Age | Less than 20 | 42 | 25.6 |
| | 20-30 | 59 | 36.0 |
| | 31-40 | 35 | 21.3 |
| | 41-50 | 18 | 11.0 |
| | 51 and above | 10 | 6.1 |
| Marital status | Single | 73 | 44.5 |
| | Married | 71 | 43.3 |
| | Other | 20 | 12.2 |
| Education level | Literacy | 39 | 23.8 |
| | Basic | 56 | 34.1 |
| | Secondary | 49 | 29.9 |
| | Graduate | 20 | 12.2 |
| Permanent resident | Village | 79 | 48.2 |
| | Town | 20 | 12.2 |
| | Camp | 65 | 39.6 |

Table 2: The social characteristics of the displaced

| Characteristic | | Frequency | Per cent% |
|---|--------------|-----------|-----------|
| How old are you when you made the decision to immigrate | Less than 20 | 117 | 71.3 |
| | 20-30 | 27 | 16.5 |
| | 31-40 | 8 | 4.9 |
| | 41-50 | 7 | 1.3 |
| | 51 and above | 5 | 3.0 |
| Did you have a job before emigrating | Yes | 31 | 18.9 |
| | No | 133 | 81.1 |
| With whom did you immigrate to Sudan | Family | 60 | 36.6 |
| | Friends | 23 | 14.0 |
| | Relatives | 11 | 6.7 |
| | Alone | 70 | 42.7 |

Discussion and recommendations

According to table () which focused on the demographic characteristics we found that shows the distribution of the sample respondents by gender, where we note that the number of males (41.5%), and females (58.5%), and for age we found that (25.6%) are less than 20 years old, (36.0%) are between 20 and 30 years old, (21.3%) are between 31 to 40 years, (11.0%) are between 41 to 50 years, and (6.1%) whose ages more than 51 years old, and for the marital status (44.5%) are single, (43.3%) are married, and (12.2%). otherwise, for academic qualifications (23.8%), literacy while (34.1%) basic, (29.9%) secondary, (12.2%) graduate, and for the permanent place of residence, (48.2%) of their permanent place of residence have a village, (12.2%) of their permanent place of residence have a town, and (39.6%) of their permanent place of residence is the camp.

For the table () which focused on the social characteristics we found that for answer of the question How old are you when you made the decision to immigrate? (71.3%) less than 20 years old, (16.5%) between 20 and 30 years old, (4.9%) between 31 to 40 years, (4.3%) between 41 to 50 years, and (3.0%) ages more than 51 years old. And for the answer of the question, did you have a job before emigrating? (18.9%), answered yes have a job, and (81.1%) answered no had a job.

Finally, we conclude that the female is more than male to migration into Sudan, and most of migrants from youth (less than 30 yrs.), single and married all of them migration, and most of them have a basic or literacy educate, and came from village in our origin country may nothing suffering to normal life.

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