

South Sudan: Country Profile

Summary Indicators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population number (last census)</td>
<td>8,260,490</td>
<td>2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population number (projection)</td>
<td>11,296,173</td>
<td>2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population growth rate</td>
<td>4.12%</td>
<td>2012</td>
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<tr>
<td>Population density</td>
<td>13/km²</td>
<td>2012</td>
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<tr>
<td>Urban density</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>2011</td>
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<tr>
<td>Average household size</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2012</td>
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<tr>
<td>Net migration rate</td>
<td>11.94/1,000</td>
<td>2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People with disabilities %</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age distribution</td>
<td>45.8% under 15</td>
<td>2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life expectancy at birth</td>
<td>55 years</td>
<td>2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under-five mortality</td>
<td>99/1,000 live births</td>
<td>2012/13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maternal mortality</td>
<td>2,054/100,000 live births</td>
<td>2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malnutrition prevalence (GAM)</td>
<td>22.7%</td>
<td>2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HDI ranking and value</td>
<td>N/A¹</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Corruption perceptions index ranking (value)</td>
<td>171 (out of 175)</td>
<td>2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People below the poverty line (%)</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hunger index ranking</td>
<td>72/76 (26.0)</td>
<td>2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World Risk Index ranking (value)*</td>
<td>N/A²</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Inequality Index ranking (value)*</td>
<td>N/A⁴</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy rate</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>2009</td>
</tr>
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Sources: Geohive, 2015; CIA Factbook, 2015; South Sudan National Bureau of Statistics, 2012; ICRC, 2012; IFPRI, 2014; Dutch Coalition on Disabilities and Development, 2012:

South Sudan is a landlocked country of approximately 640,000km². It was formed in 2011, gaining independence from Sudan. It is bordered by Sudan, Ethiopia, Kenya, Uganda, Democratic Republic of Congo, and Central African Republic. Abyei region is claimed by both Sudan and South Sudan, with its final status pending negotiations.

¹ Sufficient data has not been collected to calculate this figure due to the country only gaining its independence in 2011 and subsequent insecurity.
² This figure is based on 2009 poverty line estimate of SDG 74 (Sudanese Pounds). However, since then South Sudan has a new currency (SSP) and significant devaluation, which impacts upon the accuracy of the estimate.
³ See footnote 1.
⁴ See footnote 1.
between the two countries (CIA Factbook, 2015). The country is divided into 10 states, with the capital being Juba.

The country’s terrain rises from plains in the north and central areas to southern highlands along the border (CIA Factbook, 2015). The country’s landscape is made up of hills and mountains in the north; rainforests in the south and southeast; and extensive flood plains and the Sudd wetlands in the centre, north and northeast of the country (ACTED, 09/2013). A large section of the White Nile river flows through South Sudan, and these wetlands are a vast swamp area formed by the White Nile, a main tributary of the Nile River, and make up more than 15% of the country’s total area (WB, 2014).

Society and Communities

Key population figures: The average family size in a private household is seven. 71% of households are female-headed. Polygamy is widely practised: approximately 41% of women are in polygamous unions, therefore a large number of households are satellites of larger male-headed families. The population is largely rural, with 83% of the population residing in rural areas. Five cities had an estimated population exceeding 100,000 prior December 2013 and the most recent escalation of violence; Aweil, Malakal, Wau, Yei and the capital Juba. Juba is the biggest city with a population estimated to be nearly 400,000. 72% of the population is under the age of 30: 51% of these are under 18, 32% under 10, and 16% under five. (South Sudan Bureau of Statistics, 2012; WFP, 2010)

Ethnic or tribal groups: The Dinka are the largest ethnic group in the country (35.8% of the total population). The Dinka are broken down into roughly 10 sections based around a separate geographical territory. Each one is considered an individual political entity. They inhabit the vast arc of land running north, west, and south of the central Nile basin, covering the greater Bahr el Ghazal in the northwest and Upper Nile areas in the northeast. Many live as pastoralists (CMI, 2012; Gurtong, 2014).

The Nuer are the second-largest group, and constitute 15.6% of the population. The Nuer groups traditionally occupy Unity state, extending eastwards along the Sobat and Baro Rivers through the northern areas of Jonglei, and southern Upper Nile. Groups of Nuer are also found in southwestern Ethiopia (CMI, 2012).

Other prominent groups include Shilluk, Azande, Bari, Kakwa, Kuku, Murle, Mandari, Didinga, Ndogo, Bviri, Lndi, Anuak, Bongo, Lango, Dungotona, Acholi. (CIA Factbook, 2015). Within these groups are various subtribes, usually based around specific geographical regions (Gurtong, 2014).

(See Map of Distribution of Ethnic Groups Geographically)

Languages: English is the official language, although there are few fluent speakers; Arabic (includes Juba and Sudanese variants), and 64 tribal languages. Dinka, Nuer, Bari, Zande, and Shilluk are the most widely spoken (CIA Factbook, 2015; BBC, 2011; The Niles, 2013).

Religion: Most of the population is Christian or animist; a very small percentage are Muslim (CIA Factbook, 2015; South Sudan Embassy in Washington DC, 2011).

Protracted displacement: Since independence, displacement has occurred at different stages and for different reasons. People have been displaced by floods and droughts, fighting between Sudan Armed Forces (SAF) and Sudanese People’s Liberation Army (SPLA) in Abyei, fighting between SPLA and armed opposition groups, inter-tribal conflicts in Jonglei, Warrap, Lakes and Unity states, and LRA activity in Western Bahr el-Ghazal and Western Equatoria states (LRA, 06/2012).

In 2012, an estimated 183,000 people were reported as newly displaced (IDMC, 28/12/2012). There were further 189,000 people displaced in 2013 prior to the violence that erupted in December. These numbers only reflect people who were accessed and assisted, which indicates actual figures might be higher. Due to repeated displacements, total figure of those who remain displaced, compared to the newly or repeatedly displaced have limited validity (IDMC, 2014).

Returnees: Two million people of South Sudanese origin have returned from Sudan primarily through voluntary returns, particularly in the years preceding independence. Returnees were offered free rural land as part of a government policy to encourage returns, but in many cases in areas that were either flood-prone or unfamiliar to the returnees. Only a few returns took place in 2014: it is suggested that returnees are going back to Sudan (IDMC, 08/07/2014).

Hazard Profile

Floods: Seasonal floods are common in South Sudan, and typically occur between August and October each year, especially affecting low-lying areas in Warrap, Lakes, Unity, and Jonglei states. By January, floods recede (FEWSNET, 24/09/2014).

Drought: South Sudan periodically experiences drought, dramatically affecting crop production and subsequently food security, particularly for South Sudan’s large
number of subsistence farmers. The most severe and recent droughts were in 2011 and 2013, with north and northeastern states being worst affected. In 2011, drought directly contributed to 3.7 million people being in need of food assistance (The Niles, 07/2014; GIEWS, 03/2014).

**Historical Background**

**Colonisation:** Egypt attempted to colonise the area covered by South Sudan by establishing the province of Equatoria in the 1870s. An Islamic Mahdist revolutionary force recruited from Sudanese tribes in opposition to Egyptian rule overran the region in 1885, but a British force overthrew the Mahdist regime in 1898. An Anglo-Egyptian Sudan was established the following year: Equatoria was the southernmost of its eight provinces. Sudan gained independence in 1956 (CIA Factbook, 2015).

**Civil wars (1955–2005):** The root causes of both civil wars can be generalised as a conflict of religious identity between the Muslim North and largely Christian south, political autonomy for the South from Khartoum, and control of resources, especially oil following its discovery in the 1970s. The first civil war (1955–72) was between the Government in Khartoum and a separatist movement in the south. After 1963, most of the fighting was conducted by the military wing of the resistance called the Anya-Nya. The second (1983–2005) was between the Government and the Sudanese People’s Liberation Army/Movement (SPLA/M), led by John Garang, and allies. The conflict intensified when oil was discovered in the South and oil exploration increased in the 1980s (ODI, 07/2012). In 1991, an SPLA commander, Riek Machar, split from the John Garang to form SPLM/A-Nasir faction (Sudan Tribune; ODI, 07/2012; The Mideed East Quarterly, 2001).

**Comprehensive Peace Agreement, semi-autonomy and independence (2005–2011):** The Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) was signed on 9 January 2005, and among its provisions was a referendum on independence six years after the CPA. John Garang died in a helicopter crash in July 2005 (Sudan Tribune); On 9 January 2011, an overwhelming majority voted for independence, leading to a new country, the Republic of South Sudan, on 9 July (UCDP, 2014).

**December 2013 conflict–present:** Violent clashes erupted in Juba on 15 December 2013, between SPLA soldiers from rival political and ethnic groups. Consequently, President Salva Kiir accused Riek Machar, the former Vice-President (who was removed from office in July 2013), of inciting the violence in an attempted coup. Machar has repeatedly denied this accusation. The violence quickly spread to other locations in late December 2013, with heavy fighting between Government and opposition forces in Central Equatoria, Jonglei, Unity and Upper Nile states. The fighting also adopted characteristics of an inter-ethnic conflict between Dinka, allied with President Kiir, and the Nuer, loosely allied with Machar.

**Governance**

South Sudan’s constitutional model is presidential. The President is elected directly and forms the head of the executive.

**Legal system:** The South Sudanese legal system is built on a combination of statutory and customary law. South Sudan has enacted dozens of laws since 2005, but their use in legal disputes and courts is limited. Poor dissemination, little experience with new provisions, the difficulty of many legal staff in understanding English, and lack of access to statutory courts limit the relevance of new laws.

The Supreme Court is the highest organ of the judiciary. It consists of seven judges, one of whom is the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court and one the Deputy President. The Court can form three different panels: the Constitutional Panel, the Criminal Panel and the Civil Panel. Decisions are majoritarian. Most of the time the Supreme Court decides cases on the record but it can call litigants for oral argument if needed (NYU, 12/2012).

**Local government:** The relationship between the central Government in Juba and the state governments is unclear. The structure appears federal: each states has its own constitution, elected governor, and legislative assembly (NYU, 12/2012).

**Chiefdom governance:** Hierarchy and chiefdom governance varies among different ethnic groups. In general, the Dinka, Nuer, and other ethnicities view their chiefs as possessing supernatural powers associated with truth-telling, justice, wealth, knowledge, and prophetic vision. Within each group, there can be an elaborate system of administrative elected chiefs: head chiefs, court presidents, and, at least in the case of the Nuer, sub-chiefs (Gurtong, 2014).

**Security forces:** The SPLA became South Sudan’s armed forces. As of 2013, its strength stood at 212,000 troops. The President is the commander-in-chief (Global Security, 2014).

Communities have formed their own defence units. With an utter lack of security forces and police in certain areas, these groups represent an important source of physical protection. They vary in composition and nature, but are usually formed of mainly, and sometimes exclusively, young males (PI, 02/07/2015; Enough, 03/2010).
**Police:** Most of the South Sudan National Police Service is run by former SPLA combatants. There is little to no decentralisation to state or local areas. Though the standards of policing service have reportedly been improving, corruption, extortion, and illiteracy in English (the national language) are very common. Some have been reported as being involved in robberies, and there are many cases where ethnic and cultural prejudices are exhibited by individual officers. Rather than cooperating with other security forces, the police operate a parallel system (The Sudd Institute, 09/2013).

**Corruption:** In the 2014 Corruption Perception Index, South Sudan ranked 171/174, with a score of 15/100 (Transparency International, 2014).

### Political Stakeholders

**SPLM-in-Opposition (SPLM-IO)** is the term used to describe the opposition to the Government of Salva Kiir. The SPLM-IO formed in the December 2013 conflict and is led by former Vice President Riek Machar. It is made up of a number of interconnected groups including the political SPLM-IO under the leadership of Riek Machar, the wider Nuer political class in exile, and armed supporters in the Nuer heartlands of the Greater Upper Nile (Jonglei, Upper Nile, and Unity). The armed wing is almost entirely Nuer (Small Arms Survey, 02/05/2015).

The **South Sudan Democratic Movement (SSDM)/South Sudan Defence Army (SSDA)** insurgent militia group was created by SPLA General George Athor after losing the Jonglei governor election in 2010. Athor died in December 2012, but SSDM has attracted other dissenting commanders who formed their own factions. In 2012, they had an estimated core force of 500–1,000 men, although some estimates say the SSDA can raise a total of 3,000–6,000 youths. In the current conflict, its official position has been in opposition to the state government in Jonglei, but declaring loyalty to the national Government in Juba. However, in 2015, the SSDM/A has been involved in clashes with government forces outside Jonglei state (Small Arms Survey, 6/11/2013; ICG, 04/2014; Nyamilepedia, 04/2015).

The **SSDM/A-Cobra Faction:** the SSDM/A ‘Cobra faction’, led by David Yau, emerged in 2013 and has increasingly acted independently from the wider South Sudan Democratic Movement/Army (SSDM/A), and has presented itself as more neutral (Small Arms Survey, 6/11/2013). Yau, who ran but was not elected to the Jonglei legislature in 2010, is from the Murle ethnic group, who inhabit Pibor county, Jonglei. The group’s main area of operation is Pibor and at times Jonglei. Yau Yau claimed his main motivation was the underdevelopment and marginalisation of Pibor county. On 30 January 2014, the SSDM/A-Cobra signed a cessation of hostilities agreement with the Government (Small Arms Survey, 02/05/2014). The peace agreement also gave Yau Yau’s base county of Pibor country a higher level of autonomy (VOA, 07/2014), with the government led to a split within the Cobra faction between elements aligned with the Government and those wishing to remain independent (African Arguments, 01/2015). Yau Yau has since reportedly met with Machar, and refused requests from the government to conduct operations against the SPLM-IO (Sudan Tribune, 04/2015).

**South Sudan Liberation Movement/Army:** The South Sudan Liberation Movement/Army (SSLM/A) was founded by Peter Gadet, of the Bul Nuer ethnic group from Mayom county in Unity state. Gadet defected from the SPLA in March 2011, with the aim of attacking the Government. From mid-April until August 2011, the SSLM/A and SPLA clashed in Abiemnom and Mayom counties in Unity before spilling over into Lakes and Warrap. In August 2011, Gadet signed a peace agreement with the Government and was integrated into the SPLA. In late 2013, he defected again to the opposition with troops loyal to him and attacked Government facilities in Bor. In July 2015, Machar dismissed Peter Gadet from the SPLA-IO. His replacement and current allegiance in unclear (Small Arms Survey, 6/11/2013; BBC, 11/07/2014; African Spotlight, 22/07/2015).

The **Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA):** The earliest sightings of the LRA in Eastern Equatoria date from 1991 but it was not until 1994 that the group located a base there and made its presence felt (Small Arms Survey, 09/2007). LRA operated in Magwi county in Eastern Equatoria (along the South Sudan–Uganda border) over 2002–2005. During the 2006–2008 Juba peace talks between the Government of Uganda and the LRA, the LRA’s area of operation moved west, towards Central Equatoria, and later moved further west, to Western Equatoria, closer to the border with Democratic Republic of Congo and Central African Republic (Small Arms Survey, 02/2010). The LRA was then reported to be operating in parts of Western Bahr el Ghazal and Darfur, Sudan (OCHA LRA Update, 23/01/2012). After a two-year lull in fighting, three suspected LRA attacks were reported in Ezo and Tambura counties of Western Equatoria in late 2013 (OCHA LRA Update, 22/01/2014); No incidents have been reported since (OCHA LRA Update, 11/04/2014).

**Inter-communal conflict:** Conflicts between different ethnic groups have occurred since independence. Underlying causes include persistent lack of services, increased competition over natural resources, and the erosion of traditional leadership structures as well as the unspoken rules of cattle raiding.

Within Jonglei, inter-tribal violence involving the Lou Nuer (a subtribe of the Nuer), Murle, and to lesser extent Dinka ethnic groups, escalated in 2009 and has become increasingly violent (Small Arms Survey, 10/2012). Between December 2011 and January 2012, clashes between Lou Nuer and Murle groups killed more than 1,400 people in remote areas of Pibor county (UCDP, 2014; HRW, 19/07/2013). Attacks by armed ethnic groups
militia have also been frequently reported in Warrap, Lakes, Eastern and Western Equatoria, and Upper Nile states (ACLED Database, 2015).

Foreign Relations

**UN:** The United Nations Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS) was established on 8 July 2011 (UN, 2011). Its original mandate was to support the Government in conflict prevention and peace consolidation, long-term state building and economic development. Its initial strength was up to 7,000 military personnel, including military liaison officers and staff officers, and up to 900 civilian police personnel (UN).

After December 2013, the UN Security Council authorised a temporary increase in numbers, to 12,500 military and 1,323 police. The mission’s focus also temporarily shifted from mainly peacebuilding activities to protecting civilians, facilitating humanitarian assistance, monitoring and reporting on human rights, preventing further inter-communal violence, and supporting the IGAD led mediation efforts as and when requested. The protection priority would be displaced people. This shift in focus is expected to remain until the Government and SPLM-IO find a political agreement (UN). The current authorisation is until 30 May 2015 (UNMISS).

**Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD):** The IGAD comprises seven member states: Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, Sudan and Uganda. The IGAD Monitoring and Verification Mechanism for South Sudan, headquartered in Juba, was set up shortly after the Government and SPLM-IO signed the Cessation of Hostilities Agreement on 23 January 2014. Its mission is to support the mediation process by monitoring, investigating and reporting the two parties’ compliance with the Agreement (IGAD).

IGAD has led mediation efforts (Enough Project). Peace talks collapsed on 5 March 2015 in Addis Ababa, as the parties failed to meet a deadline for an agreement on power sharing and security issues. (Reuters, 06/03/2015).

**United States, United Kingdom, and Norway:** Also known as the ‘Troika’, the three states are supporting IGAD’s mediation efforts between the parties. The United States also helped create the 2005 Comprehensive Peace Agreement. The US Government is the leading international donor to South Sudan (US Department of State, 04/03/2014).

**Sudan:** The border with Sudan has neither been delimited nor demarcated since South Sudan’s independence. Abyei and other areas remain contested. The border region contains crucial grazing areas for pastoralist and transhumance groups, which traditionally agreed grazing arrangements between themselves. Oil regions along the border region are a source of conflict. In March and April 2012, the SPLA took Heglig from the Sudan Armed Forces (SAF), to widespread international condemnation. The SPLA said the assault was prompted by a series of SAF attacks on South Sudanese positions along the border. Fighting continued throughout 2012 (Small Arms Survey).

In 2005, the Government of Sudan and the Sudan People’s Liberation Movement signed the Abyei Protocol of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA), which committed both sides to implementing a referendum to determine whether Abyei would rejoin the states that now constitute South Sudan. However, both Sudan and South Sudan have shown little interest in resolving Abyei’s political future (Small Arms Survey, 17/04/2015).

Oil has been the major contribution to South Sudan’s budget and a major root cause of conflict with the North. South Sudan has approximately 75% of the former Sudan’s oil reserves, but relies on the infrastructure of the North to extract and sell it. In January 2012, when talks around sharing the oil revenue broke down between the two countries, tensions and conflict erupted. It also resulted in the halt of oil production. Production only resumed in 2013 when a demilitarised zone was created (BBC, 20/05/2015).

Significant clashes over disputed territory occurred in 2011 and 2012. The borders remain officially closed, but unofficial cross border travel and trade is known to take place. Tensions along the borders of oil-rich areas, such as Upper Nile state and the disputed Abyei region, remain high. Both nations have military forces positioned along it (PI, 20/07/2015; Global Witness, 2015).

**Kenya** has played a central role in hosting negotiations between Sudan and South Sudan, including the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement. Kenya has also focused on boosting economic relations, especially with many Kenyans working to develop of South Sudan’s private sector such as banking, infrastructure, construction, and private-goods sector (Al Jazeera Centre for Studies, 29/03/2012).

**Uganda** supported the SPLA during the Sudan civil war, and continues to support it, purchasing and delivers military resources on behalf of the SPLA (The Insider, 01/2015). Uganda also sent troops and aircraft to support the SPLA against the SPLM-IO. Uganda is also an important trading partner for South Sudan, and many Ugandans have taken up residence in South Sudan, attracted by the opportunities of the post-war economy (IRIN, 19/03/2014).
Humanitarian and Development Stakeholders

**International aid community:** 23 UN Agencies and more than 150 INGOs are in South Sudan (UN) (South Sudan NGO Forum). The cluster system was activated in 2010, including cluster-level NGO coordinators and state-level focal points (UNICEF, 27/08/2012).

The South Sudan NGO Forum and Secretariat is an independent body coordinating national and international NGOs, also including the Government of South Sudan, the UN, donors, and other external stakeholders (South Sudan NGO Forum, 2014).

**National response capacity:** OCHA works closely with the Government of South Sudan’s Relief and Rehabilitation Commission to boost humanitarian coordination and policy capacity at state and central level (OCHA; 2015; GoSS, 2015). There are 140 national NGOs, as of 2014 (South Sudan NGO Forum).

**Perceptions:** In 2012, South Sudan was third (after Afghanistan and Somalia) in the ranking of countries with most violent attacks against humanitarian aid workers. Aid agencies have struggled with the Government’s lack of capacity and lack of observance of responsibilities regarding the security of aid operations. Aid agencies are hesitant to approach government officials for security advice or support, and most agencies try to avoid association with the central government. Security forces commandeering agency vehicles and other communications assets and detain aid agency staff with no legal basis, along with other harassments and threats. At the local level, relations tend to be better, and most agencies heed officials’ advice (Humanitarian Outcomes, 2012).

Infrastructure

**Airports:** There are more than 50 airstrips, serviceable by fixed wing aircraft and by helicopters. Juba, Wau and Malakal are the only airports with asphalted runways capable of handling large aircraft. The rest are gravel and only accessible by light aircraft. Juba is the only international airport receiving flights from international commercial airline carriers (Logistics Cluster, 21/02/2014).

**Roadway:** South Sudan has one of the world’s most underdeveloped road networks. The total estimated track length in South Sudan is approximately 90,200km, which includes approximately 14,000km of primary and secondary roads, and 6,000km of tertiary tracks. Only 300 km of roads are sealed, and this includes the only international road (192 km) between Juba and Nimule on the Ugandan border, and most of the rest are within Juba (African Development Bank, 10/2012). Most roads are not passable for extended periods during the rainy season, cutting off large areas of the country (Logistics Cluster, 21/02/2014). The rugged terrain, insecurity along some transport routes, and the large amount of capital investment required all limit the expansion of the road network.

**Ports and waterways:** During the rainy season, the White Nile is the only reliable transport link between the southern, central, and northern areas of the country. The country has access to approximately 1,400km of navigational waterways from Juba in the south, Bentiu (Unity state), to Akobo on the Ethiopian border to the east, and Kosti in Sudan. The river is accessible throughout the year. Many of the river’s tributaries are navigable during the rainy reason (Logistics Cluster, 21/01/2014).

Melut, Malakal, and Renk in Upper Nile, Mangalla in Central Equatoria, and Bor in Jonglei are major ports. Other ports are mostly an easily accessible riverbank. Loading and offloading facilities remain problematic. Passenger transport along the river has not been fully developed, and is mostly powerboats and allocated space on cargo barges (Logistics Cluster, 20/03/2015).

**Railway:** South Sudan’s current rail infrastructure was constructed in 1959–1962. The single narrow-gauge railway links Wau and Aweil to Babanusa in Sudan, which forms part of a rail transport corridor that extends up to Port Sudan. During the Second Civil War (1983–2005) military trains went as far as Aweil, frequently with train cars carrying large numbers of troops and militia. This caused great levels of disruption to civilians and humanitarian aid organisations along the railway line (Institute of Developing Economies, 2015; HRW, 1999). However, the railway is in a serious state of disrepair and rail operations have been suspended due to border closures, unserviceable equipment and lack of capacity (Logistics Cluster, 21/01/2014).

**Electricity and energy sources:** South Sudan has the lowest per capita electricity consumption in Africa, according to the African Development Bank. Only 1% of South Sudan’s population is connected to the electricity grid. More than 96% uses firewood and charcoal for household heating and cooking. Even those connected to the power network still experience infrequent service because of ageing equipment and limited maintenance. Load shedding, or forced blackouts, are a regular part of South Sudan’s power system (African Development Bank, 10/2012).

**Storage:** There is a lack of permanent storage capacity in South Sudan, with a majority of storage solutions provided through temporary and mobile storage units. The humanitarian sector uses most of the warehouse space. Cold chain remains problematic (Logistics Cluster, 21/01/2014).
**Media and Communication**

**Radio** is the most widely owned device for accessing information. In a 2013 Internews survey, 37% of respondents stated they had a functioning radio in their household (Internews, 09/2013). Around three-quarters of the population listen to the radio each day (BBC Media Action, 08/2012). As of 2012, more than 30 radio stations were on air across the country. Radio stations are funded or supported by foreign donors, such as Eye Radio (funded by USAID) and Radio Miraya (operated by UNMISS). The Catholic Church also supports local radio stations (infoasaid, 02/2012).

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**Newspaper:** Readership and distribution of newspapers is extremely limited outside Juba (18.8% of people receive the paper regularly). The Juba Post has a circulation of approximately 2,000 and The Citizen reports a circulation of approximately 4,400. The low literacy rates and distribution challenges are responsible for the low rates of readership (BBC Media Action, 08/2012).

**TV:** The country’s government-run television station, South Sudan TV, has a relatively low and restricted audience, particularly outside Juba, where television ownership is low (BBC Media Action, 08/2012). A privately owned, independent news station called Citizen TV went off air due to lack of staff and security threats in April 2014 (local media, 05/04/2014).

**Internet:** Only one in ten South Sudanese regularly uses the internet (BBC Media Action, 08/2012).

**Mobile network:** As of 2013, 25% of the population had a mobile phone subscription (ITU, 2013).

**Economy**

South Sudan’s nominal gross domestic product (GDP) in terms of purchasing power parity (PPP) in 2013 was estimated at USD 14.71 billion (CIA Factbook, 2015). Oil accounts for 98% of government revenue and 70% of the country’s GDP. The decision to suspend oil production in January 2012, following tensions with Sudan on production and pipeline transit fees, caused large deficits in the budget and the balance of payments, with a 47% contraction of GDP in 2012. Oil production resumed in April/May 2013 (WFP, 2014).

**Budget:** For the fiscal year 2013, government revenues were an estimated USD 437 million; while expenditures were USD 2.3 billion (CIA Factbook, 2015). Following a 60% drop in oil production since 2013, the country is experiencing a major budget shortfall (AP, 22/03/2015).

**Currency:** The South Sudanese Pound (SSP) was introduced following independence and operates under a managed float, i.e. its exchange rate depending on the price of oil and the value of other regional currencies. Initially, the currency was intended to have parity with the Sudanese pound (SDG), trading at 2.67 SSP to the US Dollar (Bloomberg, 11/07/2011). However, a parallel exchange rate has emerged, varying from 4.6 SSP in early 2012 to 8 SSP in 2015. The Government has attempted to unify the exchange rates by devaluing the South Sudanese pound in November 2013 and again in September 2014, following a drop in financial reserves (Bloomberg, 15/09/2014) (WFP, 2014).

**Inflation:** Annual inflation in January 2015 was 5.5% in Juba, and 2.2% in Wau, compared with -1.3% for the country (NBS, 2015). Following the shutdown in oil production, inflation in 2012 was 79%, but country-wide average inflation stabilised to 1.7% in 2013 as production resumed (NBS, 2015).

**Key industries:** Oil is exported through two pipelines that run to refineries and shipping facilities at Port Sudan on the Red Sea.

**Trade flows:** Since the closure of the border with Sudan in 2011, the flow of commodities to northern regions of South Sudan has dwindled to a virtual standstill, with only a few informal routes still open to cross-border trade (e.g. near Aweil, for goods from Darfur and near Renk for mechanised farming). As a result, markets in these regions have become heavily dependent on food commodities and other goods from Uganda. In southern areas, supplies from Uganda were always important, but more so after the border closure. In eastern areas (Jonglei, Eastern Equatoria, and Upper Nile) supplies from Ethiopia and Kenya may be relevant, but much less important than those from Uganda (FAO/WFP, 20/02/2014).

**Main export products:** Crude petroleum makes up 99.8% of exports (OEC, 2015)

**Main partners (exports):** China 77%, Japan 22%, Pakistan, Sudan 0.0039%, and Uganda all less than 1% (OEC, 2015)

**Main partners (imports):** China 30%, Pakistan 23%, Uganda 15%, United States 14%, and Japan 9.8% (OEC, 2015)

**Banking:** In addition to the central bank, there are also commercial and foreign banks (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2015). Penetration of the banking sector is negligible, and the urban population enjoys the most banking services (UCW, 31/01/2013). Two
Kenyan banks, Equity bank and the Kenya Commercial Bank, lead the banking sector (IFC, 2015).

Remittances: Data on remittances is currently not available

Resources: Hydropower, fertile agricultural land, gold, diamonds, petroleum, hardwoods, limestone, iron ore, copper, chromium ore, zinc, tungsten, mica, silver (CIA Factbook). South Sudan's forest resources are also abundant (AFDB, 10/2012)

Markets: The main retail markets in the country are in the state capitals, namely Juba, Aweil, Malakal, Wau, Torit, Kuajok, Bentiu, Bor, Rumbek, and Yambio.

Agriculture: Agricultural production is mainly rain-fed; as such, rainfall variability is a major factor that determines crop performance. Crops are mostly produced on small, hand-cultivated plots farmed by women-headed households belonging to larger family aggregations, reflecting the polygamous nature of most communities. After many years of conflict and high levels of insecurity, farmers have become accustomed to cultivating only land close to their home or in group-farmed blocks of individual plots of land, according to location. Cereal area per household is estimated this year at 0.9 ha (WFP, 2014).

Mechanised agriculture: Large-scale rain-fed mechanised cereal production is practiced in the Upper Nile counties of Renk, Manyo, Baitel, Fashoda, and Malakal.

Livestock: important assets for households throughout the country, mainly cattle, goats, and sheep. The cattle population is estimated at 11.7 million, with an estimated 12 million each of sheep and goats. Sale of livestock, especially small ruminants, offers significant income opportunities for both pastoralists and sedentary livestock rearers. While the domestic cattle market is growing, cattle sales, unless forced by circumstances, are considered taboo (WFP, 2014; WB, 01/2013).

Labour force per occupation: 62% of the working-age population is employed in the agricultural sector, 12.1% in services, and 15% is involved in household production that includes undifferentiated goods- and services-producing activities of private households (UCW, 31/01/2013).

Services: The service sector mainly consists of government employees, NGO employees, and small businesses such as shops and restaurants (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2015).

Poverty

GDP per capita: USD 1,081 (World Bank, 2013).

Poverty line: In 2009, 51% of the population was below the poverty line, which was measured at 72.9 SDG (12.2 USD) per month (World Bank, 2013). Female-headed households are more likely to be poor (57%) compared to male-headed households (48%). The incidence of poverty is also higher in rural areas (55%) and urban areas (24%) (AFDB, 08/2012). In 2010, Northern Bahr El Ghazal had the highest rate of poverty, at 76%, and Upper Nile the lowest, at 26% (NBS, 08/02/2011). Poverty rates also correlate closely with education levels: they are highest for those living in households whose head has no education or only some primary education; they are much lower for households where the head has more education (UCW, 31/01/2013).

Food Security and Livelihoods

Food security: High food prices, insecurity, and floods are the main drivers of food insecurity. Food insecurity levels are highest in June at the peak of the lean season (May to August). Food insecurity is highest in households engaged in sale of natural resources (WFP, 2014).

Livelihood zones: South Sudan has seven major land systems and livelihood zones: the Western Flood Plains, the Eastern Flood Plains, the Nile and Sobat Rivers, the Ironstone Plateau, the Greenbelt, the Hills and Mountains, and the Arid/Pastoral Zone (WB, 2014).

Main crops: Sorghum (of several varieties ranging from short-season to very long-season) is the main cultivated crop, comprising 70% of the cereal area sown. Maize is planted in 27% of the area. Other cereals such as bulrush, finger millet and rice comprise the remaining 3%. In Western Bahr el Ghazal and Warrap, yams and sweet potatoes are also cultivated. Groundnut is grown on sandy soils in northern regions, and serves as the main cash crop in the Bahr el Ghazal region. Okra, cowpea, green-gram (black-eyed pea), pumpkin, Bambara groundnut, and tobacco are grown around homesteads in all areas. Vegetables such as tomatoes and onions...
are not commonly grown in rural areas, but are cultivated in areas near the cities to supply urban markets.

Main inputs in traditional smallholder agriculture are manual labour and local planting material (seeds and cuttings). Traditional tools are a significant limiting factor for agricultural activities, and for most households farm size is limited to the area of land the farming families can clear, cultivate and weed.

Livestock: The main livestock product is milk, which constitutes the main diet of pastoralists (WB, 01/2013). Endemic diseases (like haemorrhagic septicaemia, contagious bovine pleuropneumonia, anthrax, and peste des petits ruminants) are undermining livestock production. An estimated one in five cattle die from disease (FAO, 2014).

Fisheries: Fish is an important seasonal source of food in many parts of the country, and year-round in the Nile-Sobat corridor and other areas with permanent water bodies. All states have natural fishing grounds, which are easily accessed during the year. It is estimated that some 15–25% of the population depend on fishery products as part of their nutritional needs (WFP, 03/2013). Fishing is commonly artisanal, using very simple equipment including hooks, throw nets, and fishing spears. Large nets are seldom used and are not available in Yirol, the main fishing area. Some fresh fish is sold at the Rumbek and Yirol markets, but the sale of sun-dried fish is far more common (WB, 01/2013).

Coping mechanisms and hunger season: The most frequently adopted coping strategies involve changes in food intake such as eating less preferred foods, eating fewer meals, limiting portion size. The least favoured (and last resort) are the sale or consumption of resources such as animals and seed stocks. There is a very pronounced seasonal pattern in the intensity of coping mechanisms used. Unlike in many other food insecure countries, the selling of livestock in South Sudan is seen as a last resort due to cattle’s link with social status (Oxfam 03/2013).

Prior to December 2013, the highest levels of coping were observed in Northern Bahr el Ghazal, Warrap, Unity, Upper Nile and Jonglei, as a result of high poverty and high commodity prices. Households that depend on sale of livestock and, to a lesser degree, sale of other natural resources and alcohol, tend to be worst affected (WFP, 03/2013).

Due to the frequency of conflict, many communities are reported to preposition supplies, so that, when displaced, they have access to some resources. It has also been observed that when individual communities are displaced, they frequently move towards other communities with ethnic or tribal affiliations who can share resources (PI, 02/07/2015).

**Health**

**Health system:** As of 2012, there were 1,487 health facilities in the countries. Only 1,147 were functional, including three teaching hospitals, seven state hospitals, 27 county hospitals, 284 primary health care centres, 792 primary health care units, 10 private facilities, 14 specialised hospitals/clinics, and 10 police and military health facilities. Only 26% of all health facilities had infrastructure in good condition, while 33% needed complete replacement. Furthermore, the facilities lacked medical equipment, transport, communication, water and power supplies (MOHSS, 2012). NGOs, both international and faith-based, comprise the majority of healthcare employers (WHO, 2015).

**Health expenditures:** In 2012, total expenditure on health was 2.6% of GDP (WHO, 2015).

**Maternal health:** There is currently only one qualified midwife for 39,088 people (WHO, 15/01/2014). 81% of women deliver at home; only 11.5% deliver in any type of health facility (South Sudan Household Health Survey, 2010). In 2011, only 19% of births were attended by skilled health personnel (WHO, 2013). Maternal mortality is among the highest in the world, with 2,054 deaths per 100,000 live births, as of 2006. This is the equivalent to a 1 in 7 chance of a woman dying of pregnancy-related causes in her lifetime (GoSS Ministry of Health, 01/2012). Many deaths are not reported as 90% of women give birth away from formal medical facilities (IRIN, 2012/07/20).

**Infant and child health:** In 2012, the under-five mortality rate is 99 deaths per 1,000 live births, compared to 253 in 1990. Acute respiratory infections, prematurity, birth asphyxia, and diarrhoea are the main causes of death for children under five years (WHO).

**Vaccination:** No conclusive evidence can be produced but based on WHO estimates in 2014, DTP3 (diphtheria, tetanus, pertussis) coverage was 40% (WHO, 07/07/2015).

**Nutrition:** Prior to the December 2013 crisis, GAM was 22.7% (SHHS, 2010). GAM prevalence was above WHO emergency threshold of 15% in all states except Western Equatoria (ALNA 2012). Chronic malnutrition was just under 40% in 2012 (WHO). Unity, Jonglei, and Northern Bahr el Ghazal had the highest burden of acute malnutrition (ALNA 2012). Acute malnutrition peaks every year during the pre-harvest lean season (April–June) and gradually declines to its lowest in October before rising again in February (WFP, 06/2013) Malnutrition rates spike following conflict and displacement (MSF 14/07/2014).
Cholera: In 2014, a cholera epidemic claimed 6,421 cases including 167 deaths (case fatality rate 2.60%) in five states and 16 counties (WHO/GoSS, 14/12/2014). Cholera outbreaks occurred in the southern part of Sudan from 2006 to 2009, with the case fatality rate peaking at 3.64% in 2007 (WHO, 15/01/2014).

Guinea worm: South Sudan remains host to 98% of the world’s remaining Guinea worm cases, despite a reduction in caseload from more than 20,500 in 2006 to below 1,000 in 2011 (UNICEF, 2012).

Hepatitis E: Several outbreaks of hepatitis E were reported in refugee camps across the country in 2013 (WHO, 15/01/2014).

HIV: An estimated 150,000 people were living with HIV/AIDS in South Sudan in 2013; 12,600 people died of the disease. In 2013, only 16% of women living with HIV received antiretrovirals for preventing mother-to-child transmission, and around 6% of patients with HIV in total receive some form of antiretroviral treatment (WHO, 2013; UNAIDS, 2013; VOA, 2013).

Malaria: In 2012, there were 54 deaths due to malaria per 100,000 head of population, and 4.6% of all deaths (WHO, 2013). There is a high malaria risk due predominantly to *P. falciparum*, in the whole country including the capital Juba. The risk exists throughout the year and is especially high during the rainy season. (WHO, 15/01/2014).

Measles: The risk of measles is high because of low vaccination coverage, population movement, and overcrowding in IDP settings (WHO, 15/01/2014). The last measles outbreak started in September 2013 and lasted until end of July 2014, with a total of 2,054 suspected cases (WHO, 08/08/2014).

Meningococcal disease: South Sudan is located in the meningitis belt, and epidemics of meningitis strain A typically occur during the dry season (December to May). In 2013, during outbreak of meningitis 259 cases were reported (WHO, 2013).

Tuberculosis (TB) was the cause of 2.5% of all deaths in South Sudan in 2012 (WHO, 2013). The TB burden is high among the poor, the elderly, and the male population (WHO, 15/01/2014). Identifying multi-drug resistant tuberculosis (MDR-TB) remains a challenge (USAID).

Visceral leishmaniasis (kala azar): Epidemics were reported in 1997 and 2014. In 2014, there were 2,627 new cases, including 102 deaths, the highest death rate since 2011. Most cases are in Jonglei and Upper Nile. Studies estimated that more than 100,000 people died from 1984 to 1994, more than half of the population of some affected villages in western parts of Upper Nile state (WHO, 2013).

**Yellow fever** is endemic in South Sudan, but no cases have been reported in the last decade. Risk of transmission still exists, with reduced immunisation coverage and disruption of mosquito control programmes (WHO, 15/01/2014).

River blindness: The MoH estimates that around 4.1 million people are at risk of contracting river blindness, as communities often group near fast-flowing rivers where the carrier of the disease, the blackfly, breeds (Al Jazeera, 04/03/2014). In 2009, 12% of the inhabitants of some villages were blind, mainly due to river blindness (South Sudan Medical Journal, 2009).

Sleeping sickness: The number of new cases fell from over 3,000 in 2002 to between 100 and 200 in 2013, largely due to the introduction of nitumox-eflornithine combination therapy by MSF in 2009 (MSF, 2014). The recent conflict has prevented the distribution of drugs and obstructed control measures. There are concerns that an increase in new cases is likely (WHO, 2015).

**WASH**

Access to water: Officially, 68% of the population in South Sudan has access to improved sources of drinking water. However, 30–50% of water facilities are non-functional at any given time, so the actual level of access in rural areas is figured to be closer to 34% (USAID, 2013). Among the urban population, 73% at most have access to improved sources of drinking water. Only 2.1% of households have water on their premises. Nearly 86% of people who collect water are women aged 15 and older. 8.8% of female children under the age of 15 collect water (SHHS, 2010; USAID, 2013). Women and girls collecting water are at risk of attacks in insecure places.

Water supply: The average availability of water resources is ample, but it varies enormously according to the season, with frequent extremes of both flood and drought (WB, 01/2013). Drainage networks are poorly developed. Many significant rivers and small streams flow mainly in the rainy season (WB, 01/2013). Substantial groundwater resources are available in large areas of the country. However, these range from very shallow groundwater to moderately productive aquifers that can be developed with 90–180m boreholes, which are impractical for the majority of the population. Moreover, little knowledge of these aquifers is available in terms of their location, hydrogeology, depth, extent, and yield (WB, 01/2013).

Sanitation facilities: Only 13% of the population has access to adequate sanitation facilities (UNICEF, 2013). 64.1% practices open defection (SHHS, 2010). In some states, collapsing formations and/or rocky ground hamper the construction of pit latrines.
Waste management: In Juba, solid waste is frequently blocked in sewage channels, creating pools of stagnant water and increasing the risk of waterborne diseases. 70% of South Sudanese disposed of their household waste randomly. In Juba, the most populous area in South Sudan, this number rises to 75% (Journal of Applied Sciences, 2014).

Hygiene practices: The general level of hygiene awareness and of vectors of disease is very low. The incidence of waterborne diseases is widespread (MWRI, 08/2011).

Water pollution: Increasing urbanisation along the White Nile presents a major threat for water pollution for the river (local media, 22/04/2013; international media, 19/11/2009). Oil exploration activities have been linked to water contamination of the White Nile River, especially in northern parts of Unity state (international NGO, 26/02/2015).

Education

Literacy rate: The literacy rate of the total population aged 15 and over is 27%. Literacy among men is 40%; among women it is 16% (WB, 04/2013).

Access to education: The majority of adults and children have not attended school due to decades of civil war. 70% of children have never attended any school. In 2012, the net enrolment rate (NER) – the proportion of children of school age who are enrolled in school – was 42%: 47.3% for boys and 36.3% for girls (GOSS, 2012).

The completion rate in primary schools is less than 10%, with girls half as likely to complete as boys (UNESCO, 06/2011). Early marriage is the greatest barrier to girls’ education, while cattle herding is the main barrier to boys completing their education (OCHA, 13/11/2014).

Education system: Basic education is in principle free and compulsory (FHI, 04/2014). The formal education system consists of eight years of primary education, four years of secondary education, and four years of higher education (GOSS, 2012). The official age of entry is six years. In practice, however, many schools follow the curricula of neighbouring countries, and the number of years for primary and secondary education may vary (FHI, 04/2014). The use of foreign curricula is partly due to the lack of a South Sudanese syllabus and teaching resources following independence and the reliance of displaced South Sudanese on foreign schools and higher education during the decades of conflict before independence (IRIN, 18/12/2008; PI, 07/2015).

After the civil wars, the Ministry of Education constructed a parallel alternative education system, of six different programmes, offering flexible entry and exit points for children, youth, and adults (GOSS, 2012).

Infrastructure and facilities: 73.5% of primary schools continue to be government operated; the remaining schools are supported by NGOs or managed by private entities. The number of primary schools increased in 2012 (3,639) compared to 2011 (3,447) and 2010 (3,349). The number of primary schools fell only in Unity state. In 2012 there were 18,461 primary classrooms, of which 6,363 were permanent, 4,000 semi-permanent, 5,888 open-air and 2,210 ‘other’ (including roof-only, tent, etc.).

60.3% of the secondary schools are government-owned; the remaining 39.7% are NGO-supported or privately owned, a slight change from 2010 (66.7, 33.3% respectively). The number of secondary schools also increased in 2012 (242) compared to 2011 (196) and 2010 (168) in all states. In 2012, there were 1,299 secondary school classrooms, 987 of which were permanent, 256 semi-permanent, 6 open-air and 50 ‘other’.

Pupil:Classroom ratio in secondary schools was 45.7, up from 43.1 in 2010 due to the increase in student numbers. The pupil:classroom ratio: for primary schools was in 2012 was 131.8, down from 143.2 in 2010 (GOSS, 2012).

There are nine universities: seven are in Central Equatoria (four in Juba and three in Yei River), and one each in Jonglei and Western Equatoria.

Teacher qualifications: In 2012, 47% of the total 28,029 primary school teachers were trained, 32% were untrained and 21% had unknown qualifications (GOSS, 2012). At the secondary level, 57% of teachers were trained, compared to 16% untrained and 27% with unknown qualifications. 10% of secondary school teachers were women (GOSS, 2012).

Protection

Children: Children face a multitude of risks, such as abduction, early marriage, recruitment into armed groups, violence, and separation from families (UNICEF, 10/02/2012). 35% of all children aged 10–14 years are in work exclusively, while almost 11% of the same age group attend school and work at the same time. Only 26% of 10–14 year olds attend school and do not work. A very large residual group (28% of 10–14 year-olds) is neither in school nor in employment. It is likely that most of this group are involved in work activities such as unpaid household chores within
their own homes (UCW, 12/2011). 72% of working children are in non-remunerated family employment and over 60% are in the agriculture sector. Only a very small share of children (less than 6%) are in formal sector work that typically falls within the domain of labour inspection regimes (UCW, 12/2011).

In 2014, an estimated 12,000 children, mostly boys, were recruited and used as soldiers by armed forces and armed opposition groups (UNICEF, 27/04/2015).

The legal minimum age for marriage is 18 years, though girls, particularly in rural areas, often get married much earlier. Such marriages are usually arranged. Almost half (48.1%) of girls aged 15 to 19 years are currently married, out of which 17% were married before age 15 (HRW, 2013). The men are typically in their early twenties for their first marriages, although marriage of boys in their teens is not uncommon, particularly in rural areas (Small Arms Survey, 01/2012).

**Gender-based violence:** In attacks in 2011–12 in Pibor county, Jonglei state, Human Rights Watch quoted observers saying that women had been raped (Small Arms Survey, 04/2012). Until then, sexual violence had not been noted as an issue during conflict in south Sudan.

**Landmines and explosive remnants of war:** All ten states are contaminated to varying degrees with mines and explosive remnants of war (ERW). Central Equatoria, Eastern Equatoria, Jonglei, and Upper Nile are most affected. Armed conflict has since led to new contamination (The Landmine and Cluster Munition Monitor, 25/11/2013).

### Key Documents

- BBC (2015) South Sudan profile - Timeline
- FEWSNET (2014) Seasonal Monitor South Sudan
- Government of South Sudan (2012) Education Statistics
- Small Arms Survey (2015) Human Security Baseline Assessment for Sudan and South Sudan
- WHO (2013) Public Health Risk Assessment and Interventions
- World Bank (2013) South Sudan Dashboard
### Seasonal and Critical Events Calendar

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key seasonal data</th>
<th>Jan</th>
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<td>Average rainfall precipitation 1990-2009 (mm)</td>
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*Epidemics: month of the start of the outbreak

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⁵ This includes Northern Bahreil Ghazal, Western Bahr el Ghazal, Unity, Warrap, Jonglei, Lakes and Upper Nile state.

⁶ This includes north and north west in Central, Eastern and Western Equatoria.
Livelihood Zones

Source: FEWSNET 08/2013