

Sudan (48)

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BACKGROUND PAPER

ON

REFUGEES AND ASYLUM SEEKERS FROM THE SUDAN

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1. Introduction

Sudan is the largest country in Africa covering an area of 2,506,000 sq. km and shares its borders with Egypt, Libya, Chad, Central African Republic, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Uganda, Kenya, Ethiopia and Eritrea.

Sudan is one of the most ethnically diverse countries in the world, with a population of 27.9 million (1997 IMF estimate) consisting of 29 major ethnic groups with some 600 subgroups. The largest of these ethnic groups are those which identify as Arabs - approximately 40% of the population - other major ethnic groups include the Dinka (12%), Beja (7%) and Fallata (6%). The majority (over 60%) of Sudanese are Muslim, while the remainder of the population follow Christianity or indigenous beliefs.

Arabic is the official language, which 60 % of the population speak English is also spoken in southern Sudan while it is estimated that there are some 115 tribal languages.¹

Institutions of the State and Government

The current president, Omar Hassan Ahmed al-Bashir, came to power on 30 June 1989 through a coup d'état. After overthrowing his democratically elected civilian predecessor, President Omar al-Bashir formed a new cabinet, which was dominated by members of the National Islamic Front (NIF). Once in power, the NIF consolidated its position through purging the military of NIF opponents, outlawing trade, professional and labour organizations and through 'Islamizing' Sudanese institutions.²

In 1996, presidential and parliamentary elections took place and resulted in Omar al-Bashir winning the presidency in what has been described as "a deeply flawed process". Only 275 of the 400 members of the National Assembly were popularly elected, while the remainders were appointed. Opposition parties boycotted the elections, which were not conducted in all provinces due to the civil conflict.³

In March 1998, the National Assembly adopted a new constitution, which was subsequently approved through a referendum and entered into force in July of that year. The constitution is seen as a major policy shift by the Government of the Sudan, in that it allows for the formation of political parties, the equality of women and guarantees religious freedom. However, these rights are reportedly restricted in practice and the constitution has been criticised for maintaining the status quo through outlawing political parties and practices which oppose the ruling party.⁴

¹ Economist Intelligence Unit (EIU), *Country Profile*, 1999 – 2000

² Norwegian Refugee Council, *Global IDP Database: Internally Displaced Persons in Sudan*, December 1999

³ U.S. Department of State, *1999 Country Report on Human Rights Practices: Sudan*, 25 February 2000

⁴ UN General Assembly, *Situation of human rights in the Sudan, Report on the Situation of Human Rights in the Sudan, Prepared by Leonardo Franco, Special Rapporteur*, A/54/467, 14 October 1999

In December 1999, President Omar al-Bashir declared a state of emergency and disbanded the National Assembly two days before it was due to vote on a constitutional amendment that would have reduced presidential powers. The amendment called for the creation of a Prime Minister who, though appointed by the President, would be accountable to the National Assembly. It also called for direct elections of the state governors, currently appointed by the President and, if approved, would have made their dismissal contingent on parliamentary approval.¹ The state of emergency was declared under articles 43 and 131 of the constitution in compliance with the President's responsibility for preserving the security of the country in the face of foreign threats, which are targeting its unity and wealth, and to secure the internal front, unity, security and stability in the Sudan.

The purpose of this action was to reduce the power of the Parliamentary Speaker and chairman of the ruling political party, Hassan al-Turabi. President Omar al-Bashir suspended articles of the constitution and suspended the political activity of Mr. al-Turabi.² The split between the President and Mr. al-Turabi is significant; some observers interpret the split as symbolic of President Omar al-Bashir's move away from the hard-line Islamist doctrine proposed by Mr. al-Turabi towards a political system which is less dominated by religious ideology. Sudan's neighbours have viewed the President's move to politically isolate Mr. al-Turabi as a positive step towards the creation of a lasting solution to the conflict in the Sudan.³

On 24 January 2000, President Omar al-Bashir formed a new government. In an effort to reconcile the split between the President and Mr. al-Turabi, the National Congress (NC, formerly the NIF) Consultative Council granted President Omar al-Bashir the chairmanship of the NC and the responsibility to run the government and to appoint ministers without interference from the NC.⁴ Mr. al-Turabi was made responsible for ideological, organizational and mass activities as well as for nominating party officials. In May 2000, however, the President froze all party's activities, and in June 2000, Mr. al-Turabi launched his own political party, the National Popular Conference, and sought to challenge President Omar al-Bashir accusing him of trying to separate religion and the state.⁵

In an effort to gain a "democratic" endorsement, President Bashir subsequently confirmed that the presidential election had been brought forward from 2001 to October 2000, and that he had been selected by the NC as its sole candidate.⁶

2. Background Information and Recent Political Developments in the Sudan

Since independence from Britain and Egypt in 1956, the Sudan has been gripped by almost continuous civil war. The succession of peace negotiations between the government and its opponents have not led to any meaningful resolution to the conflict. To date, it is estimated that in the last 15 years 2 million people have died as a result of the conflict in the Sudan, and more than 4 million have been displaced.⁷

¹ EIU, *Country Report, Sudan*, 1st Quarter 2000

² Panafrican News Agency (PANA), *Turabi Forms New Political Party, Vows to Challenge Bashir*, 28 June 2000

³ Foreign Report, *Sudan's Chance*, Issue No. 2577, 25 January 2000

⁴ Agence France Press (AFP), 24 January 2000

⁵ PANA, *Turabi Forms New Political Party, Vows to Challenge Bashir*, 28 June 2000

⁶ EIU, *Country Report, Sudan*, June 2000

⁷ U.S. Committee for Refugees, *Refugee Survey*, 9 September 1999

The basis for the main civil conflict is commonly thought to be the ethnic and cultural divisions between the warring factions. The war is often thought of as a struggle between the Muslim Arab dominated government in the North and the non-Muslim, black African rebels from the South. While the major catalyst for the current crisis was the government's adoption of *Sharia* (Islamic law) in 1983, according to many observers, the conflict has now become a battle for resources. In particular the control of oil and the Sudanese oil fields has become the key source of conflict between government forces and the Sudan People's Liberation Army (SPLA) given that the government uses revenue from the sale of oil to fund its war against its opponents.¹

Since seizing power, President Omar al-Bashir's administration has engaged its forces in violent offensives against its southern opponents while taking several steps towards reconciliation. In 1994, the Government and the Sudan People's Liberation Movement/ Sudan People's Liberation Army (SPLM/A) concluded the Declaration of Principles (DOP) as a result of talks sponsored by the Inter-Governmental Agency on Development (IGAD). In 1995, the government began to pursue a strategy of "Peace from Within" and in 1996 entered into a political alliance with six southern rebel groups, which led to the conclusion of the Khartoum Agreement in April 1997. Notably, the 1997 agreement did not include the participation of the SPLM/A, which is the principle insurgent faction in Sudan.

A settlement to the conflict proved elusive because of the difficult nature of contentious issues ranging from religion and the state, economic and political marginalization of minorities, and the diversity of Sudan's Arab and African, Muslim and non-Muslim population. In southern Sudan, the conflict is complicated by ethnic clashes within rebel ranks. In 1991, the SPLA led by Colonel John Garang, split when ethnic Nuer troops joined dissident Riak Machar in the Southern Sudan Independence Movement in protest against alleged ethnic Dinka domination of the SPLA. Machar defected to the government in 1996. Internecine strife within rebel ranks intensified in 1998.² In March 1999, the Dinka and Nuer concluded a peace agreement.³

In 1998, peace negotiations between the Government of the Sudan and rebels took place under the auspices of IGAD, in Nairobi, in May, and Addis Ababa, in August. The May negotiations resulted in an agreement in principle to hold a referendum on self-determination for southern Sudan but as yet this has not occurred due to a disagreement over the drawing of the border as well as over arrangements for sharing water and oil resources between the two entities.⁴

In 1998, the humanitarian situation in the province of Bahr-al-Ghazal deteriorated and 2.6 million people were affected by famine. This led to the SPLA's announcement of a three-month cease-fire in the province and a government-initiated truce, which lasted until April 1999. The crisis was exacerbated, however, by the deliberate efforts of the government and the SPLA to hamper the delivery of aid to the civilian population.

In particular, the government imposed flight ban affected the function of the United Nations' Operation Life Sudan, a coalition of international aid organizations, which has been operational in the Sudan since 1989.

¹ Mekenkamp, M. Tongeren, P. Veen, H. (Eds.), *Searching for Peace in Africa: An Overview of Conflict Prevention and Management Activities*, European Platform for Conflict Prevention and Transformation, 1999

² Freedom in the World 1998-99, *Sudan*, 1999

³ Human Rights Watch, *World Report: Sudan*, 2000

⁴ EIU, *Country Report, Sudan*, 1st Quarter 2000

In April 1999, discussions took place between the Parliamentary Speaker Hassan al-Turabi and Sadiq al-Mahdi, the leader of the Umma political party and an active member of the NDA - an organization comprised of members of northern Muslim opposition political parties as well as southern rebel groups, which is based outside Sudan.¹ Former Vice-President Abel Alier also met with the government and the leader of the SPLA, John Garang. Talks sponsored by Egypt and Libya, which commenced in May 1999, resulted in the creation of a five-point peace plan, which called for a permanent cease-fire and a preparatory meeting to discuss how, where and when to hold a peace conference.

Prospects for merging the Egyptian-Libyan talks with the IGAD initiative were also discussed, although the SPLA fears an Arab plan undermining IGAD's achievements, and hence the right of self-determination for southern Sudan. While the northern opposition groups, excluded by the IGAD initiative, appeared to support the proposal, the SPLM, aware of long-standing Egyptian opposition to southern autonomy, expressed its preference for the mediation effort to be led by IGAD. The secular opposition parties, especially in the South, were delighted by the declaration of principles that emerged from the IGAD negotiations, which stated that Sudan should be a secular state or, failing this, that the South should be able to exercise the right of self-determination. But for Umma leader Sadiq al-Mahdi and some of his colleagues, secularism is akin to atheism and self-determination equals secession. The Egyptian-Libyan peace initiative, which aims at reconciling the NDA with the National Congress in a power sharing formula, avoided any statement of principles, and both Mr. al-Turabi and Mr. al-Mahdi see it as a way of achieving a reconciliation of conservative Islamists that would take secularism and self-determination off the agenda.²

Peace negotiations, again sponsored by Egypt and Libya, began in January 2000 and ended in a deadlock over the separation of religion and the state, and the government in Khartoum rejecting the proposal that the South should have a separate secular constitution.³ The January negotiations were followed by several developments. The Umma Party - one of the major Sudanese opposition parties - withdrew from the NDA and sought to improve its relations with the government.⁴ In June, the government announced an amnesty for all its political opponents, which led to the return to Sudan of some members of opposition parties while other government opponents rejected the amnesty.⁵ In July, the NDA reaffirmed its commitment to the Egyptian-Libyan peace agreement, while President Omar al-Bashir called for a national forum to be held in August for all of Sudan's political forces in pursuit of the Egyptian-Libyan initiative.⁶ President Omar al-Bashir declared that the creation of peace with the South was his Government's "top concern".⁷

The withdrawal of the Umma Party from the NDA marked a significant loss for the opposition alliance and underlines many of the problems it faces. The Islamic northern opposition parties (such as the Umma and the Democratic Unionist Party-DUP) represent rival sectarian groups. Other than a shared opposition to the government, northern groups have little in common with secular, southern groups.⁸

¹ Norwegian Refugee Council, *Global IDP Database: Internally Displaced in Sudan*, December 1999

² The Economist, *Sudan Through the Looking Glass*, 30 October – 5 November 1999; Sudan Democratic Gazette, November Issue, 1999

³ AFP, 20 January 2000

⁴ AFP, *Sudan's Opposition Umma Party Willing to Share Power*, 9 July 2000

⁵ Reuters, *Forty-nine Opposition Forces Return to Sudan*, 9 July 2000

⁶ Xinhua, *Sudanese Opposition Committed to Egyptian-Libyan Peace Initiative*, 10 July 2000

⁷ AFP, *Bashir Calls for National Forum of Sudanese Political Forces*, 29 June 2000

⁸ EIU, *Country Report, Sudan*, June 2000

Despite the loss of the Umma Party support, in March 2000, the NDA's United Military Command launched one of its largest offensives against government positions on the eastern front. The rebels successfully attacked and took a number of government outposts in Kassala and Red Sea provinces, and bombed the oil export pipeline.¹

International and Regional Relations

In the late 1990s and into the new century, Sudan has sought to improve its international relations. This follows years of policies adopted by President Omar al-Bashir's administration, which have isolated Sudan from the international community and provoked tense relations with its neighbours.

In 1990, Sudan supported the Iraqi occupation of Kuwait and in the following years it opened its borders to rebel factions from Uganda, Ethiopia and Eritrea as well as radical Islamist groups from the Middle East.² In doing so Sudan isolated itself from the international community and was placed on the United States of America's list of states that sponsor terrorism. Tensions between Sudan and its neighbours were exacerbated, when in 1995, the Sudanese opposition based itself in Eritrea and the Governments of Eritrea, Uganda and Ethiopia openly supported the alliance of the NDA and SPLA, formed in 1996. It has also been claimed that the U.S. covertly supported Sudan's neighbours who in turn were supporting Sudanese opposition forces.³ Relations between Sudan and the U.S. deteriorated in August 1988 when the U.S. bombed what it claimed was a chemical weapons factory in Khartoum; also claiming that Osama bin Laden, the Saudi-born terrorist, had a stake in the factory.⁴ The bombing has been interpreted by many observers as an act of revenge for Sudan's alleged role in the bombing of the U.S. embassies in Tanzania and Kenya, which bin Laden is accused of masterminding.⁵

Relations between Sudan and the U.S. deteriorated in 1998 when the U.S. administration accused Sudan of involvement in the bombings of the U.S. embassies in Kenya and Tanzania. Following the embassy bombings the U.S. retaliated with the bombing of what it suspected was a chemical weapons factory in Khartoum.⁶

In 1996 the United Nations Security Council imposed sanctions on the Sudan as a result of Sudan's connections with the 1995 assassination attempt of the President of Egypt, Hosni Mubarak, in Addis Ababa. In recent years Sudan has increased its efforts to have the sanctions lifted, it has improved its relations with various countries and the exploitation of its oil fields by foreign companies has facilitated this process. Sudan has successfully secured the support of Ethiopia and Egypt; both have written to the Security Council on Sudan's behalf stating that it has complied with the sanction demands while France also has expressed its support for the lifting of sanctions.⁷

¹ Ibid.

² Mekenkamp, M. Tongeren, P. Veen, H. (Eds.), *Searching for Peace in Africa: An Overview of conflict Prevention and Management Activities*, European Platform for Conflict Prevention and Transformation, 1999

³ Mekenkamp, M. Tongeren, P. Veen, H. (Eds.), *Searching for Peace in Africa: An Overview of conflict Prevention and Management Activities*, European Platform for Conflict Prevention and Transformation, 1999

⁴ AFP, *Sudanese government seeks to reopen embassy in Washington*, July 2 2000

⁵ EIU

⁶ DPA, *France Favors Lifting Sanctions Against Sudan*, 27 June 2000

⁷ Africa Confidential, *Sudan: Hall of Mirrors*, Vol. 41, No 13, 23 June 2000

The country remains locked, however, in its dialogue with the U.S. because the latter has expressed its concern at the lifting of sanctions and, as a result, a Security Council debate on the issue has been delayed.¹

Sudan has also sought to normalise its relations with the U.S.; the former has sought to reopen its embassy in Washington and has received some support from the U.S. administration in this pursuit.² In June 2000, U.S. presidential envoy Harry Johnston visited the Sudan to discuss the possibility of improving bilateral relations between the U.S. and the Sudan.³

3. Review of the General Human Rights Situation

3.1 The International Legal Framework

In April 2000, the United Nations Commission on Human Rights decided to extend the mandate of the Special Rapporteur on the Situation of Human Rights in the Sudan for a further year. In its latest resolution on the Sudan, the Commission maintained its concern that human rights continued to be violated by both sides of the civil conflict, while stating that it was encouraged by recent moves of the government toward the protection of human rights, such as the inclusion of a bill of rights in the constitution.⁴ The Commission also viewed the adoption of the Political Organizational Act (2000) as a positive development; this law revises the 1999 Political Association Act and is believed to reflect the government's dedication to improving freedom of expression and association.⁵

In recent years, Sudan has been visited by the Special Rapporteur on the Situation of Human Rights in the Sudan twice (February-March 1999 and February-March 2000), the Special Representative of the Secretary-General for Children in Armed Conflict (March 1999), the Special Rapporteur on the Promotion and Protection of the Right to Freedom of Opinion and Expression (September 1999), and the Special Rapporteur on Religious Intolerance (1996).⁶

¹ AFP, *Sudan Accepts Possible Delay of Debate to Lift Sanctions*, 25 June 2000

² AFP, *Sudanese Government Seeks to Reopen Embassy in Washington*, 2 July 2000

³ AFP, *Khartoum Wants to Normalize Relations with Washington*, 13 June 2000

⁴ UN Commission on Human Rights, *Situation of human rights in the Sudan, Resolution 2000/27*, E/CN.4/RES/2000/27, 18 April 2000

⁵ Ibid.

⁶ Ibid.

As a member of the United Nations Sudan is bound by the Charter of the United Nations. It is also a party to the following international human rights instruments:

Convention	Date of Ratification (R), Succession (S) or Accession (A)
Convention Relating to the Status of Refugee (1951)	22 February 1974 (A)
Protocol to the Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees (1967)	23 May 1974
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966)	18 March 1986 (A)
International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966)	18 March 1986 (A)
International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (1965)	21 March 1977 (A)
Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989)	03 August 1990 (R)
International Convention on the Suppression and Punishment of the Crime of Apartheid (1973)	21 March 1977
Charter of the Organization of African Unity (1963)	19 July 1963 (R)
Convention Governing the Specific Aspects of Refugee Problems in Africa (1974)	22 February 1974

Source: UNHCR REF WORLD, July 1999

Sudan is not a state party to the following international human rights instruments:

- Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide (1948)
- Convention on the Non-Applicability of Statutory Limitations to War Crimes and Crimes Against Humanity (1968)
- Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1979)
- Convention on the Political Rights of Women (1964)
- Convention relating to the Status of Stateless Persons (1960)

On 4 June 1986, Sudan has signed but has not yet ratified the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment.¹

¹ It should be noted that the Special Rapporteur on the Situation of Human Rights in the Sudan has expressed concern that international treaties ratified by Sudan are not identified as a source of legislation in Sudan according to the constitution. However, the Human Rights and Public Duties Committee is charged by the National Assembly with the task of "harmonizing Sudanese domestic legislation with international human rights standards." UN General Assembly, A/54/467, 14 October 1999

3.2 The National Legislative Context

The Constitution

On 29 March 1998, the National Assembly adopted a new constitution subsequently approved by a national referendum,¹ which entered into force on 1 July 1998.²

The constitution contains a bill of rights providing for most of the rights enshrined in the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, which Sudan has ratified. Rights omitted from the constitution include prohibition of detention for debt, prohibition of propaganda for war and advocacy of hatred, and freedom of assembly.

The constitution contains innovative provisions, such as the newly acquired right of Sudanese women to pass their nationality on to their children regardless of the nationality of the father. It has also prompted the need to adjust existing legislation and to enact new laws to conform to its principles.³

Article 55 enshrines the sources of legislation, "Islamic law and the consensus of the nation, by referendum, Constitution and custom" without mentioning the status of international human rights treaties ratified by the Sudan. The only reference to international instruments is to be found in article 73(d), which states that it is a function of the National Assembly to "pass bills ratifying international conventions and agreements". The Special Rapporteur on the Situation of Human Rights in the Sudan, Leonardo Franco, requested clarification on this matter, which he considers key for the enforcement of international human rights standards in the Sudan.

The Special Rapporteur has called for clarification regarding a number of articles, including Article 30 (immunity against detention), which in his opinion needs to be developed so as to guarantee that no one shall be subject to arbitrary detention; and Article 32 (the right of innocence and defence), which should be more articulated and encompass guarantees provided for in international standards. It was also brought to the Special Rapporteur's attention that many provisions of the constitution include clauses that may potentially limit the right guaranteed. Specifically, article 20 (freedom and sanctity of life), article 23 (freedom and right of movement), article 24 (freedom of creed and worship), article 25 (freedom of thought and expression), article 26 (freedom of association and organization), article 29 (inviolability of communication and privacy) and article 31 (right and sanctity in litigation) guarantee the respective rights without restriction in so far as these rights are expressed "in accordance with the law". Interlocutors outside of the government note that these laws are yet to be enacted and, therefore, concern was expressed that future legislation may restrict the rights guaranteed by the constitution.⁴

¹ While the Sudanese Electoral Commission announced that 96% of those who voted, cast their votes in favor of adopting the Constitution, some observers claimed that the referendum was rigged. Notably, Sudanese who live in areas under the control of the armed opposition did not vote in the referendum despite the Electoral Commission's claims that 91% of Sudanese voted. UN Commission on Human Rights, *Situation of Human Rights in the Sudan*, E/CN.4/1999/38/Add.1, 17 May 1999

² UN Commission on Human Rights, *Civil and Political Rights Including the Question of Freedom of Expression, Report Submitted by Mr. Abid Hussain, Special Rapporteur on the Promotion and Protection of the Right to Freedom of Opinion and Expression*, E/CN.4/2000/63/Add.1, 3 March 2000

³ UN Commission on Human Rights, E/CN.4/1999/38/Add.1, 17 May 1999

⁴ UN Commission on Human Rights, E/CN.4/1999/38/Add.1, 17 May 1999

The Special Rapporteur noted that the constitution reflected a "minimalist approach" in regard to the right to equality as the constitution prohibits discrimination on the basis of "race, sex or religious creed" rather than those categories common in international instruments including "race, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status".¹

Sharia and the criminal code

Islamic law or *Sharia* has been the basis of Sudan's civil and criminal systems since 1983. The constitution of 1998 again reiterates that *Sharia* is the main basis for laws in Sudan. According to the Special Rapporteur on the Promotion and Protection of the Right to Freedom of Opinion and Expression, Mr. Abid Hussain, "the relevance of faith is not confined to the area of individual morality, but is also part of the socio-economic and political relationships".²

According to the Criminal Code (1991) "whoever commits in a public place, an act or conducts himself in an indecent manner or a manner contrary to public morality or wears an indecent or immoral uniform which causes annoyance to public feelings" will be subjected to 40 lashes. In addition to the regular police force there is the Public Order Police, which polices offences such as improper dress, indecency and other misdemeanours which relate to public morality.³

The Judicial System

Article 101 of the constitution states that "judges are independent in the performance of their duties and have full judicial competence with respect to their functions; and they shall not be influenced in their judgments". However, this independence is said to be compromised by the fact that the President can appoint members of the Constitutional Court, the Chief Justice and lower court judges. The appointment of members of the Constitutional Court is subject to the approval of the National Assembly, while the Supreme Council of the Judiciary recommends candidates for other judicial appointments.⁴

In the South, efforts to establish an independent judiciary in SPLA-controlled areas were undercut by high-level interference.⁵

Human Rights Institutions

The Constitutional Court was established in April 1999 "to protect the Bill of Rights enshrined in the Constitution", its main function being to examine draft laws to ensure that the National Assembly does not adopt laws that conflict with the constitution.⁶ Any individual whose rights have been violated can lodge a complaint with the Constitutional Court when all other remedies have been exhausted. Since members of the Constitutional Court are appointed by the President with the approval of the National Assembly, its effectiveness as an institution which protects human rights might be called into question when the government itself is accused of violating human rights.⁷

¹ Ibid.

² UN Commission on Human Rights, E/CN.4/2000/63/Add.1, 3 March 2000

³ Ibid.

⁴ UN General Assembly, A/54/467, 14 October 1999

⁵ Human Rights Watch, *Country Report: Sudan*, 2000

⁶ UN Commission on Human Rights, E/CN.4/2000/63/Add.1, 3 March 2000

⁷ Ibid.

The Advisory Council for Human Rights, established in 1994 "is mandated *inter alia* to advise the Government on human rights and to participate in local, regional and international conferences" and it also interacts with the United Nations on human rights issues.¹

The Committee for the Eradication of Abduction of Women and Children (CEAWC), which has been in operation since May 1999, has been seen as a constructive response on the part of the government to the problem of abduction.

3.3 General Respect for Human Rights

Sudan continues to have a notorious human rights record. The United Nations Commission on Human Rights has been encouraged, however, by recent developments, such as the creation of new institutions to protect human rights, the continuation of peace negotiations, and the adoption of the 1998 Constitution, containing a bill of rights.

Of particular concern is the fact that the rights enshrined in the constitution are not guaranteed, and that the government and the SPLA continue to be accused of serious human rights violations.

Both the government and the opposition forces have been accused of directly targeting civilians throughout their struggle, either for the purpose of purging civilians of whatever resources they possess or using civilians themselves as resources.² Civilians have been abducted and children recruited into the armed forces by both sides. Famine has resulted from SPLA and government sponsored raids on villages during which cattle are stolen and crops are burned. The situation of famine is often exacerbated by the deliberate efforts of both sides to hamper the work of humanitarian agencies working in the Sudan. Many observers note the use of starvation as a method of combat³ by both sides of the conflict and commonly claim that the severity of the 1998 famine in the province on Bahr-el-Ghazal was related to the government's deliberate actions to hamper the delivery of aid.⁴

In the Western Upper Nile, the population has become the target of human rights violations because their homes are located on Sudan's oil fields. A recent report by Amnesty International claims that government forces have used ground attacks, helicopter gunships and indiscriminate high altitude bombardment, mass execution, and torture in an effort to "cleanse" the oil fields of their civilian population.⁵

The Special Rapporteur on the Situation of Human Rights in the Sudan also noted that the government has intentionally targeted civilians through the use of aerial bombardment and that civilian objects such as hospitals run by international humanitarian organizations had been bombed on numerous occasions during which patients were killed.⁶

¹ Ibid.

² Norwegian Refugee Council, *Global IDP Database: Internally Displaced Persons in the Sudan*, December 1999

³ For example, according to Mekankamp (et al.), the Government has attempted to "starve the civilians into leaving" the rebel held areas of the Nuba Mountains. Mekankamp, M. Tongeren, P & Veen, H. (Eds.), *Searching for Peace in Africa: An overview of Conflict Prevention and Management Activities*, European Platform for Conflict Prevention and Transformation, 1999

⁴ UN Commission on Human Rights, E/CN.4/1999/38/Add.1, 17 May 1999

⁵ Amnesty International, *Sudan: The Human Price of Oil*, May 2000

⁶ UN Commission on Human Rights, E/CN.4/1999/38/Add.1, 17 May 1999

It its most recent resolution on the situation of human rights in the Sudan, the United Nations Commission on Human Rights expressed "it's deep concern at the serious violations of human rights, fundamental freedoms and international humanitarian law by all parties to the conflict [in Sudan]". The resolution cited a list of abuses perpetrated by both the government and the rebel forces including summary execution, involuntary disappearance, the use of children as soldiers, torture and ill-treatment of civilians. The Commission criticized the government for the latter's use of arbitrary detention, excessive and severe punishments, aerial bombardment of the civilian population and civilian objects and restrictions placed on the freedom of religion, association and peaceful assembly, while welcoming the government's commitment to peace initiatives, the process of democratization and moves to eradicate slavery-like practices. The Commission on Human Rights also criticised the SPLA for the attack, murder and use of force against United Nations and humanitarian personnel.¹

Human Rights Watch similarly deplored human rights abuses perpetrated by the Government of the Sudan and the SPLA, while praising Government efforts to improve human rights in the country. Human Rights Watch has heavily criticised the SPLA for the obstruction of humanitarian work. The SPLA was accused of diverting food aid and exacerbating and creating famine in some areas and also for its direct involvement in the deaths of four government workers who had accompanied ICRC workers into SPLA-held territory. The government was criticized for its association with militia groups that abduct women and children.²

Amnesty International's annual report on the Sudan for 1999 made similar criticisms but raised particular concern over the Sudanese authorities' practice of detaining civilians without charge, torture and ill-treatment in detention centres and extrajudicial killings. The organization also made mention of human rights abuses committed by the SPLA. People taking no active part in the hostilities faced gross human rights abuses by all parties to the conflict, massive internal displacement and widespread disruptions to food supplies. Human rights abuses in contested areas included indiscriminate bombing, abductions and deliberate and arbitrary killings of civilians.³

Religious Freedom

Although a provision for freedom of religion is included within the constitution "Islam is treated as the state religion". Religious minorities are subject to discrimination and persecution by the Sudanese authorities, as are Muslims who criticise the government or it's particular Islamic ideology.⁴

The Special Rapporteur on the Promotion and Protection of the Right to Freedom of Opinion and Expression noted in his report on 3 March 2000 that he had received reports that the government had demolished Christian churches and Christian schools and seized church property. He also added that the Government had not granted a building permit to a Christian organization, to build a church since 1967.⁵

¹ UN Commission on Human Rights, *Resolution 2000/27*, E/CN.4/RES/2000/27, 18 April 2000

² Human Rights Watch, *Country Report: Sudan*, 2000

³ Amnesty International, *Annual Report: Sudan*, 2000

⁴ UN Commission on Human Rights, E/CN.4/2000/63/Add.1, 3 March 2000

⁵ Ibid.

Human Rights Watch asserts that in the last ten years alone the government has demolished 30 to 50 Christian Churches because they lacked construction permits, suggesting that the government rarely grants permits to Christians while freely granting permits for mosque construction. Due to the difficulties faced by Christians in obtaining construction permits, many Christian organizations have been forced to base themselves in slum areas in order to practice their religion and escape prosecution.¹

Given that the Criminal Code (1991) outlaws gatherings of more than five people without approval from the authorities, Christian organizations must be registered in order for their parish to practice their religion legally.² Non-Muslim organizations and Muslim groups that have connections with opposition political parties also experience difficulties in registering their organizations with the authorities.³

Amnesty International and Human Rights Watch, as well as the United Nations Special Rapporteur on the Promotion and Protection of the Right to Freedom of Opinion and Expression, have noted that Christians and religious minorities in the Sudan face treatment which amounts to persecution. Mr. Hussain, the Special Rapporteur, cites an event, which occurred in February 1999, where Christian students holding a Christian book were violently attacked by a group of Islamists; the police reportedly did not intervene.⁴ Human Rights Watch and the U.S. Department of State in recent reports cite the case of two Catholic priests, Fr. Hillary Boma and Fr. Lino Sebit who were detained along with 24 others on charges of conspiracy and sabotage. Whilst in detention the group was said to have experienced torture which resulted in the death of three of them; the others were released from detention in November 1999.⁵

Human Rights Watch, in its latest annual report on the Sudan, in addition notes many examples where Christians and members of other religious minorities have been the target of violence and harassment. Human Rights Watch links the government's declaration of *Jihad* (holy war) against the South, as a reason for the continuation of religious intolerance in the Sudan.⁶

The U.S. Department of State reported that people have been arrested for their religious beliefs and held in prolonged detention; falsely accused of crimes by authorities that could not detain them legally on the basis of their religion's activities.⁷

Discrimination and persecution of Muslims

The Special Rapporteur on the Promotion and Protection of the Right to Freedom of Opinion and Expression reported also on the discrimination experienced by Muslims in southern Sudan where they constitute a religious minority.⁸

¹ Human Rights Watch. *Country Report: Sudan: 2000*.

² UN Commission on Human Rights, E/CN.4/2000/63/Add.1, 3 March 2000

³ USDOS, *Annual Report on International Religious Freedom for 1999: Sudan*, 9 September 1999

⁴ UN Commission on Human Rights, E/CN.4/2000/63/Add.1, 3 March 2000

⁵ Human Rights Watch. *Country Report: Sudan, 2000*; and, USDOS, *Annual Report on International Religious Freedom for 1999: Sudan*, 9 September 1999

⁶ Human Rights Watch. *Country Report: Sudan, 2000*

⁷ USDOS, *Annual Report on International Religious Freedom for 1999: Sudan*, 9 September 1999

⁸ UN Commission on Human Rights, E/CN.4/2000/63/Add.1, 3 March 2000

Reports that address the persecution and discrimination of Muslims in Sudan typically focus on the experiences of Muslims who do not follow the Government's version of Islamic ideology. Islamic groups such as the Ansar, the Muslim Brothers and the Ansar al Sunna, which have been critical of the government, are subject to harassment and arbitrary detention by the Sudanese authorities.¹ Amnesty International reports that during 1998 at least 5 *imams* (Islamic priests) were detained without charge for raising questions about the "religious credentials" of Hussan al-Turabi (the former Secretary General of the NIF).²

Under the 1991 Criminal Code, Muslims who change their religion face the death penalty. The Special Rapporteur on the Promotion and Protection of the Right to Freedom of Opinion and Expression reported that charges of "apostasy have sometimes been used against those who oppose the policies of the regime in any way".³

Disappearances, Abduction and Forced Labour

The May 1999 report of the Special Rapporteur on Sudan stated that he firmly believes that there is enough consistent and credible information to ascertain that a pattern of slavery exists in the Sudan.⁴ The victims of abduction are typically taken during raids on their villages and are either kept until a ransom is paid or "kept in conditions amounting to slavery".⁵

Most cases of abduction are reported to occur in the Bahr-al-Ghazal region where the problem is linked to the government's need to secure the passage of the supply train as it travels south through SPLA-held territory. The government is said to give weapons to militia and the Popular Defence Force (PDF) and *murahaleen* militias who escort the train and raid villages that border the trainline; the Government does not prevent these attacks and has even been accused of sponsoring them⁶.

Amnesty International and other human rights groups report that during raids on villages women and girls have been raped, children forcibly conscripted into the armed forces, villagers have been murdered and tortured, and houses and crops have been burnt so that those who survive such violence are likely to starve to death.⁷

Most of those who are abducted are women and children; those who are Christian are typically forced to convert to Islam. Human Rights Watch reports of the many western anti-slavery groups that pay ransoms to release slaves, one group had reportedly redeemed a total of 15,400 people. UNICEF has denounced the practice of buying human beings for any purpose.⁸

¹ Ibid.

² Amnesty International, *Country Report: Sudan*, 1999

³ UN Commission on Human Rights, E/CN.4/2000/63/Add.1, 3 March 2000

⁴ UN Commission on Human Rights, E/CN.4/1999/38/Add.1, 17 May 1999

⁵ Ibid.

⁶ Amnesty International, *Country Report: Sudan*, 2000

⁷ Ibid.; Human Rights Watch, *World Report: Sudan*, 2000; and, Freedom in the World: 1998-99, *Sudan*, 1999

⁸ Human Rights Watch, *World Report: Sudan*, 2000

It has only been in recent years that the Government of the Sudan has acknowledged and tried to combat the problem of abduction. In 1996 the government established the Special Commission to investigate Slavery and Disappearance and in 1999, following a United Nations Commission on Human Rights resolution, the government formed the Committee on the Eradication of the Abduction of Women and Children (CEAWC).¹ CEAWC, whose membership includes members of conflicting tribes such as the Baggara and Dinka, as well as various NGO groups and UNICEF, has had some success in rescuing abductees.²

Freedom of Association and Organization

The right to freedom of association and organization is included in Article 26 (2) of the constitution and is the subject of the 1999 Political Association Act (also known as the Tawali Law) revised by the Political Organizational Act (2000). While the United Nations Commission on Human Rights, in its latest resolution on the situation of human rights in the Sudan, saw the revision of the Tawali Law as a positive step, it is yet to comment further on how the amendments will affect the exercise of freedom of association in practice.³

The Tawali Law marks a significant change in government policy as it lifts a ten-year ban on political parties; its implementation has subsequently led to the registering of 33 new parties. However, the Tawali Law imposes the restriction that all new parties must adhere to the ruling party's ideology; this requirement contravenes Article 25 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights.⁴

New political parties are approved at the discretion of the registrar, who is appointed by the President with the approval of the National Assembly. According to the Special Rapporteur on the Sudan, this guarantees that the registrar will be a member of the National Congress, the ruling party.⁵

Various organizations including the United Nations Human Rights Commission, Amnesty International, and Human Rights Watch note that the Sudanese authorities have used violence to break up peaceful demonstrations and protests, and Sudanese citizens have been arbitrarily arrested and detained for their participation in unregistered organizations, meetings, demonstrations and press conferences.

¹ USDOS, *1999 Country Reports on Human Rights Practices: Sudan*, 25 February 2000

² Human Rights Watch, *World Report: Sudan*, 2000

³ UN Commission on Human Rights, *Resolution 2000/27*, E/CN.4/RES/2000/27, 18 April 2000

⁴ Article 25 states: "Every citizen shall have the right and the opportunity, without any of the distinctions mentioned in article 2 and without unreasonable restrictions:

(a) To take part in the conduct of public affairs, directly or through freely chosen representatives;
(b) To vote and to be elected at genuine periodic elections which shall be by universal and equal suffrage and shall be held by secret ballot, guaranteeing the free expression of the will of the electors;

(c) To have access, on general terms of equality, to public service in his country." International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, in UNHCR/CDR RefWorld, July 1999 edition

⁵ UN Commission on Human Rights, E/CN.4/2000/63/Add.1, 3 March 2000

Freedom of Expression and the Media

The constitution makes provisions for freedom of the press. Article 25 states "there shall be guaranteed for citizens the freedom of pursuing any science or adopting any doctrine of opinion or thought without coercion by authority, and there shall be guaranteed the freedom of expression, reception of information, publication and press without prejudice to security, order, safety and public morals, as regulated by law".¹

The 1999 Press Act details the jurisdiction of the National Press Council (NPC), which can grant licences to the press, register journalists and issue sanctions and penalties. The NPC has the power to revoke licences and confiscate printing presses when serious offences are committed by members of the press. At least three newspapers were suspended on approximately ten different occasions during 1999 for publishing articles criticizing the government.² The main opposition newspapers are based outside Sudan; circulation of these newspapers within the Sudan "is strictly forbidden".

The Special Rapporteur on the Promotion and Protection of the Right to Freedom of Opinion and Expression refers to a number of "taboo" topics including "religion, the conflict between government troops and rebels in the South [and] state corruption" which are indirectly referred to in the Press Act as sensitive issues. According to the Special Rapporteur, "sufficiently broad restrictions" are applied in relation to these taboo topics "so as to justify all sorts of censure", as a result of which many journalists are said to practice self-censorship.³ The U.S. Department of State makes similar observations but adds that the SPLA also places restrictions on journalists in southern Sudan who are reporting on rebel activities.⁴

Aspects of the Criminal Code also have a "direct impact on the exercise of the right to freedom of opinion and expression" including sections of the code which deal with morality and defamation. Section 153 of the Criminal Code imposes punishment by flogging to "whoever manufactures, photographs,⁵ or handles materials contrary to public morality". The Special Rapporteur on the Promotion and Protection of the Right to Freedom of Opinion and Expression describes Sudanese legislation in regard to freedom of the press as vague and open to interpretation.⁶

Journalists are subject to harassment, arbitrary arrest and detention and violence including torture. Journalists are often arrested without charge and detained in "ghost houses", secret prisons where security forces torture detainees.

¹ Republic of the Sudan Ministry of Justice, *Constitution of the Republic of the Sudan*, Republic of the Sudan Gazette, Special Supplement No. 1, 1998

² Amnesty International, *Annual Report: Sudan*, 2000

³ UN Commission on Human Rights, E/CN.4/2000/63/Add.1, 3 March 2000

⁴ USDOS, *1999 Country Reports on Human Rights Practices: Sudan*, 25 February 2000

⁵ It is important to note that it is illegal to take photographs in Sudan without a permit; it has been reported to the Special Rapporteur on the Promotion and Protection of the Freedom of Opinion and Expression that "people have been hauled up while taking photographs without a permit." In UN Commission on Human Rights, E/CN.4/2000/63/Add.1, 3 March 2000

⁶ Ibid.

The broadcast media and radio in Sudan are required to reflect the government's ideology. Government-owned media "forbid the broadcasting of Sudanese songs and the performance of poets and artists, claiming that they are not in conformity with the cultural orientation of the regime".¹ Sudanese television is monitored by a permanent military censor who ensures that programmes reflect official views.²

Arbitrary Arrest and Detention

The Constitution prohibits arbitrary arrest and detention without charge but despite this arbitrary arrest and detention remains common in Sudan. It must also be noted that laws exist to allow for bail - except in cases where the arrested person is accused of crimes punishable by death or life imprisonment. However, the U.S. Department of State reports that courts have refused to allow certain lawyers to represent defendants and that "the government continued to use arbitrary arrest and detention in practice".³ "People are subjected to arbitrary arrest and detention at the hands of various security forces, which have virtual impunity. The [1994 National Security] Act grants security forces virtual immunity from prosecution and provides them with investigative powers that allow arbitrary arrest, incommunicado detention, lengthy detention without judicial review and arbitrary search".⁴

According to the Special Rapporteur on the Situation of Human Rights in the Sudan those most likely to be subjected to arbitrary arrest and detention include human rights advocates and political, religious and student leaders. The Special Rapporteur also notes that most cases of arbitrary arrest and detention are "related to violations of the freedom of opinion and expression".⁵

The Special Rapporteur documents the case of Mutasmin Mahmoud, the chief political editor of the Al Ray Alaam newspaper and several other journalists who have been arrested and held in incommunicado detention. Other cases of arbitrary arrest and detention, which have been cited by this Rapporteur and several human rights organizations, include the arrest of 40 lawyers in April 1999 at a meeting of the Sudan Bar Association - all but one were subsequently released without charge. In June 1999, 102 people were arrested for taking part in a press conference, which announced the formation of a new political party, all of whom were also subsequently released. Members of the Muslim religious brotherhood were arrested "for chanting slogans against President Omar al-Bashir's regime".⁶ On 5 July 1999, security officers arrested the UNICEF Programme Officer and his wife; they were also subsequently released.⁷

The U.S. Department of State also reports on the arrest and mistreatment of refugees by Sudanese authorities, and arrest and detention based on the detainees' religious beliefs.⁸

¹ Freedom in the World: 1998-99, *Sudan*, 1999

² USDOS, *1999 Country Reports on Human Rights Practices: Sudan*, 25 February 2000

³ Ibid.

⁴ UN General Assembly, A/54/467, 14 October 1999

⁵ UN General Assembly, A/54/467, 14 October 1999

⁶ Ibid.

⁷ Ibid.; and, Amnesty International, *Annual Report: Sudan*, 2000

⁸ USDOS, *1999 Country Reports on Human Rights Practices: Sudan*, 25 February 2000

Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment and Extrajudicial Killing

Many examples of torture, cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment have been discussed in the previous sections and it has already been mentioned that the United Nations and human rights organizations remain concerned about the practice of torture in the Sudan. The United Nations also maintains its concern over the use of torture and cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment as punishment such as the use of the death penalty, lashing and amputation.¹ The Special Rapporteur on the Situation of Human Rights in the Sudan reports on the case of nine men sentenced to cross amputation (amputation of the right hand and left foot) and death by hanging, followed by crucifixion for the crime of bank robbery. The Special Rapporteur noted that the nine accused had already been "deprived of sleep and forced to do strenuous exercise in the heat".² The Special Rapporteur reported also that pregnant and elderly women have been flogged.³

Torture is also used by the security forces to obtain confessions or to incriminate third parties. Security forces are also said to use excessive force, including beatings, to disperse unapproved demonstrations.⁴

Students, Journalists, political dissidents, women, religious and ethnic minorities all experience varying degrees of discrimination and are subjected to conditions that amount to persecution.

As universities are centres of political activity and political change, students have been subjected to "violent repression during demonstrations against the government. They are also subject to attacks by the security forces and by militias of the Islamist groups which are protected by the government"⁵. Students have been arrested, abducted and tortured, and some have died whilst in custody, for participating in demonstrations. Some have been taken to "ghost houses" and tortured or have disappeared.⁶

In June 2000, police opened fire on students who were participating in an anti-government demonstration at Sennar University in central Sudan; according to the Sudanese authorities one student reportedly died and six others were wounded.⁷

Male students also face difficulties accessing tertiary education as they are required to undertake military service in order to receive a certificate for leaving secondary school and thus accessing tertiary education facilities. Many students choose to forego their education rather than participate in military service.

The U.S. Department of State notes that academics that criticize the government are also subjected to torture.⁸

¹ UN Commission on Human Rights, E/CN.4/2000/63/Add.1, 3 March 2000

² UN General Assembly, A/54/467, 14 October 1999

³ UN Commission on Human Rights, E/CN.4/1999/38/Add.1, 17 May 1999

⁴ USDOS, *1999 Country Reports on Human Rights Practices: Sudan*, 25 February 2000

⁵ UN Commission on Human Rights, E/CN.4/2000/63/Add.1, 3 March 2000

⁶ Ibid.

⁷ AFP, *Khartoum students protest death at central Sudanese University*, 20 June 2000

⁸ USDOS, *1999 Country Reports on Human Rights Practices: Sudan*, 25 February 2000

Amnesty International adds that civilians have been extrajudicially executed by soldiers, opposition forces and government-backed militia.¹ Reports by Human Rights Watch, the U.S. Department of State and the Special Rapporteur on the Situation of Human Rights in the Sudan commonly claim that extrajudicial killings are perpetrated by government security officials.

4. Vulnerable Groups

Women

Women are accorded equal rights under the Sudanese constitution. However, according to the Special Rapporteur on the Promotion and Protection of the Right to Freedom of Opinion and Expression, the 1991 Criminal Code restricts the rights of women through placing restraints on their public behaviour and dress; women can be flogged for such breaches of the law.² The 1996 Public Order Act states that women should dress "in a manner that takes into account Islamic values".³ The application of laws relating to women's public behaviour and dress is uneven.

The Public Order Police allows the arrest of female students for wearing trousers and short skirts. On 13 June 1999, 24 female students from the Ahlia University in Khartoum were arrested for "committing indecent and immoral acts and wearing clothes (shirts, trousers and tee-shirts) which upset public feelings"; all were sentenced to 40 lashes and were fined.⁴

Sudanese women who oppose the government face even greater discrimination and can face far worse penalties for expressing their anti-government views than their male counterparts. The Special Rapporteur writes: "Sudanese women who oppose the government run enormous risks".⁵ He explains that because women are less active in politics in Sudan, women opponents of the government are regarded with suspicion. Authorities have been known to use violence to break up peaceful protests and gatherings organised by women's groups, which are opposed to, whereas women who support the ruling party's ideology have been allowed to organise gatherings freely.

Following one violent incident in 1997, where police dispersed a peaceful demonstration with force - subsequently sentencing the female protesters to lashings - the Special Rapporteur on the Situation of Human Rights in the Sudan and the Special Rapporteur on Violence Against Women sent a joint communication to the Government of the Sudan.

Women, along with children, are also the main targets of abduction and slavery.

Children

Children continue to be the most vulnerable group in the Sudan. They are the principle targets of raids conducted by militias, they are recruited into the armed forces by both the government and its opponents, and as IDPs they are subject to abuse in camps.⁶

¹ Amnesty International, *Annual Report: Sudan*, 2000

² UN Commission on Human Rights, E/CN.4/2000/63/Add.1, 3 March 2000

³ Ibid.

⁴ UN Commission on Human Rights, E/CN.4/2000/63/Add.1, 3 March 2000

⁵ Ibid.

⁶ UN Commission on Human Rights, E/CN.4/1999/38/Add.1, 17 May 1999

Amnesty International reports that children have been taken from the streets of Khartoum and forcibly recruited by the Popular Defence Force (PDF) - referred to as a Government-organised defence force. Amnesty International also claims that children have been used to protect foreign oil companies from rebel attacks.¹

Ethnic minorities

Members of the Massaleit people of western Sudan have claimed persecution based solely on their black African heritage, whilst other reports generally link the persecution of ethnic groups to other factors such as the victims' religious beliefs as well as ethnic origin. The Massaleit, who are black African Muslims, claim that the government is engaged in a policy of "Arabisation" and that government sponsored militia groups have sought to purge western Sudan of Massaleit and other black tribes². They assert that the government is manipulating traditional tribal rivalries in order to exacerbate inter-tribal conflicts as part of a "divide and rule" strategy directed at non-Arabs.³

Different reports concur, claiming that the government has interfered in local politics and armed both sides of inter-tribal wars, which has resulted in increased violent clashes between rival tribes.

According to the U.S. Department of State, the government continues to discriminate against ethnic minorities in the areas of education and employment, whilst members of minority tribes are targeted in raids by militia groups. The same source asserts that raids on tribal villages by government-backed militia groups "have a pronounced racial aspect, as the victims are exclusively black southerners and members of indigenous tribes of the Nuba mountains."⁴

5. Sudanese Refugees and Asylum Seekers – Global Trends

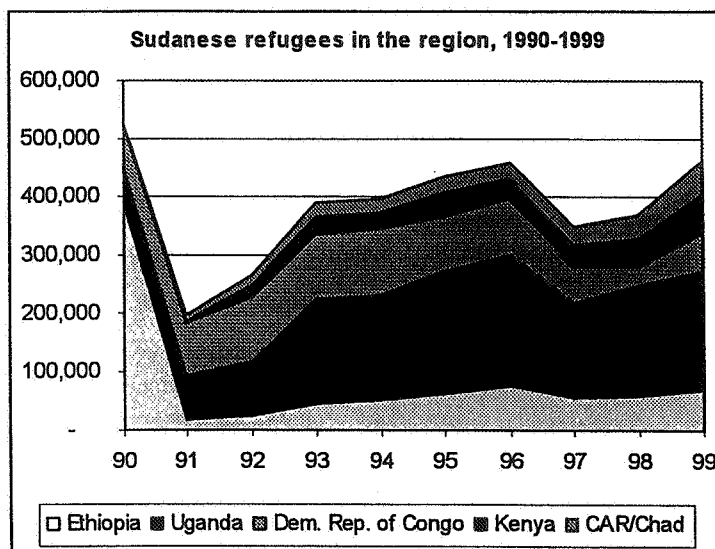
Asylum in the region

Since the early 1960s, UNHCR Offices in Ethiopia, the DRC (then Zaire), the Central African Republic and Uganda have reported on Sudanese refugees. During the 1990s, the number of Sudanese refugees in neighboring countries has generally increased (see chart).

By the end of 1999, the refugee population was some 462,000 in the six countries listed in the these, some 200,000 are Uganda.

During 1999, some arrivals of Sudanese were reported by asylum the region, compared to 1998 and 20,000 in 1997.

spontaneous returns from Uganda, repatriation has been very limited in the past few years.



Sudanese estimated at asylum chart. Of living in

52,000 new refugees countries in 37,000 in Except for

¹ Amnesty International, *Sudan: The Human Price of Oil*, May 2000

² Ibrahim, S. Yahya, M. Sharief, H. Abbakorah, O. *Ethnic Cleansing and Slaughter in Western Sudan*, posted on <http://www.usafricaonline.com/> on 21 August 1999

³ Ibid.

⁴ USDOS, *1999 Country Reports on Human Rights Practices: Sudan*, 25 February 2000

However, the number of Sudanese refugees resettled from the region through UNHCR programmes continues to increase, from 300 in 1997 to 750 in 1998 and to 1,280 in 1999 (see Annex Table 1). The largest number of Sudanese refugees is resettled, however, via the UNHCR Office in Cairo, Egypt (170 during 1997, 890 during 1998 and 1,620 during 1999).

At the global level, UNHCR facilitated the resettlement of some 210 Sudanese refugees in 1996, 660 in 1997, 1,810 in 1998 and 3,180 in 1999.

Asylum applications and refugee status determination in Europe, 1990-1999

The number of Sudanese applying for asylum in Europe has been limited. A peak was reached during 1998 when almost 3,300 applications were lodged (Table 2). During 1990-1999, Germany and the Netherlands received each 28% of all Sudanese asylum-seekers, whereas the United Kingdom (UK) received another 20% (cases only). In 1999, however, some 60% of all Sudanese applications were lodged in the Netherlands.

During the period 1990-1999, some 2,700 Sudanese asylum-seekers were granted 1951 Convention refugee status. Over the past few years, some 700-800 Sudanese were granted refugee status on an annual basis (Table 3). The Convention recognition percentage for Sudanese asylum-seekers has decreased in recent years, from 17% in 1997 to 5% in 1999 (Table 5).

During 1990-1999, an additional 3,120 Sudanese were allowed to remain for humanitarian reasons in Europe. In 1999, of the 300 Sudanese granted humanitarian status, 250 were allowed to stay in the Netherlands. The total recognition percentage, that is including persons allowed to remain on humanitarian grounds, for Sudanese asylum applicants in Europe has recently fallen, from 36% in 1997 to 16% in 1999.

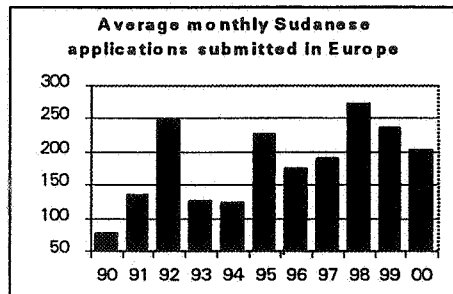
Asylum applications and refugee status determination: a global perspective, 1999

In 1999, some 13,350 Sudanese asylum-seekers applied for asylum in more than 80 countries worldwide. Of the 11,260 asylum decisions taken, some 2,540 resulted in refugee status, whereas in an additional 890 cases, persons were granted some form of humanitarian status (Table 7).

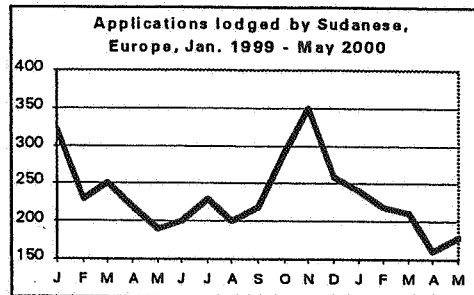
When cases, which are closed on non-substantive grounds, are excluded, the global Convention recognition percentage for Sudanese asylum applicants during 1999 amounted to 26%. The total recognition percentage, including grants of humanitarian status, amounted to 35%. [Note that in Table 7, the denominator used to calculate the recognition percentages is the number of decisions taken, whereas in Table 5 and 6, the denominator used is the number of applications lodged.]

Monthly asylum applications submitted in Europe, 1999 and 2000

During April and May 2000, the number of asylum applications was the lowest since, at 1999 (see chart). During the first five months of 2000, the main receiving countries were the (54%), the United Kingdom (16%, cases Germany (8%) (see Table 8 and 9).



The



monthly applications lodged by Sudanese nationals in Europe decreased from 275 in 1998 to 200 during the first five months of 2000 (see chart).

Sudanese least, January months of Netherlands only) and

average number of

**Table 1. Populations and movements of Sudanese refugees in the region
January 1997 - 31 March 2000**

A. First quarter 2000

Country of asylum*	Refugee pop. begin period		New arrivals	Repatriation**		Resettlement		Refugee pop. end of period	
	Total	of which: UNHCR-assisted		Total	of which: UNHCR-assisted	Total	of which: UNHCR-assisted	Total	of which: UNHCR-assisted
CAR	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
DRC	68,000	37,600	60	-	-	-	-	71,900	36,000
Ethiopia	70,300	70,300	5,400	-	-	160	160	62,900	62,900
Kenya	64,300	64,100	2,400	-	-	120	120	66,700	66,500
Uganda	200,600	180,600	-	-	-	-	-	200,600	180,600
Total	202,600	172,000	7,860	-	-	280	280	201,500	165,400

B. 1999

Country of asylum*	Refugee pop. begin period		New arrivals	Repatriation**		Resettlement		Refugee pop. end of period	
	Total	of which: UNHCR-assisted		Total	of which: UNHCR-assisted	Total	of which: UNHCR-assisted	Total	of which: UNHCR-assisted
CAR	34,000	33,800	-	-	-	-	-	35,500	35,300
Chad	8,800	8,800	14,500	-	-	-	-	23,300	23,300
DRC	31,100	22,000	-	40	40	-	-	68,000	37,600
Ethiopia	58,600	58,600	11,200	-	-	780	780	70,300	70,300
Kenya	48,200	48,000	15,400	90	90	370	370	64,300	64,100
Uganda	189,800	169,800	10,400	-	-	130	130	200,600	180,600
Total	370,500	341,000	51,500	130	130	1,280	1,280	462,000	411,200

C. 1998

Country of asylum*	Refugee pop. begin period		New arrivals	Repatriation**		Resettlement		Refugee pop. end of period	
	Total	of which: UNHCR-assisted		Total	of which: UNHCR-assisted	Total	of which: UNHCR-assisted	Total	of which: UNHCR-assisted
CAR	32,500	32,200	1,600	10	10	-	-	34,000	34,000
Chad	190	190	8,500	-	-	-	-	8,700	8,600
DRC	61,200	61,200	-	-	-	-	-	31,200	22,000
Ethiopia	56,900	56,900	7,200	-	-	440	440	58,600	58,600
Kenya	37,400	37,400	10,300	110	110	310	310	48,200	48,000
Uganda	160,400	160,400	9,500	-	-	-	-	189,800	169,800
Total	348,590	348,290	37,100	120	120	750	750	370,500	341,000

D. 1997

Country of asylum*	Refugee pop. begin period		New arrivals	Repatriation**		Resettlement		Refugee pop. end of period	
	Total	of which: UNHCR-assisted		Total	of which: UNHCR-assisted	Total	of which: UNHCR-assisted	Total	of which: UNHCR-assisted
CAR	30,700	30,700	1,400	-	-	-	-	32,500	32,200
DRC	96,500	-	10	-	-	-	-	61,200	61,200
Ethiopia	75,700	75,700	10,000	-	-	170	170	56,900	56,900
Kenya	33,500	33,400	8,300	20	20	160	100	37,400	37,400
Uganda	223,700	223,700	-	63,300	10	40	30	160,400	160,400
Total	460,100	363,500	19,710	63,320	30	370	300	348,400	348,100

Notes

* CAR: Central African Republic; DRC: Democratic Republic of the Congo

** Based on country of asylum and country of origin reporting.

Table 2. Number of asylum applications submitted Sudan											
Country	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	Total
Austria	10	-	10	-	10	40	-	70	170	90	400
Belgium	20	10	10	40	130	240	100	100	230	180	1,060
Bulgaria	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	10	10	-	30
Czech Rep.	-	-	-	-	-	10	-	10	-	-	20
Denmark	10	-	1,280	50	20	20	10	10	10	10	1,420
Finland	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10
France	20	20	30	40	40	70	70	70	70	80	510
Germany	380	290	860	600	550	1,150	790	910	400	210	6,140
Greece	-	-	50	20	10	-	-	10	20	20	130
Hungary	-	-	-	-	-	20	20	-	40	60	140
Italy	20	10	10	30	100	170	30	30	20	10	430
Netherlands	50	100	90	160	260	600	660	680	1,880	1,700	6,180
Norway	10	30	30	40	20	20	30	30	40	60	310
Poland	-	-	-	-	-	10	10	20	10	10	60
Portugal	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	10	10	30
Spain	-	-	-	10	20	20	10	10	50	50	170
Sweden	40	-	-	160	-	20	10	10	20	20	280
Switzerland	10	30	60	50	-	-	70	60	50	40	370
UK (cases)	340	1,150	560	300	330	350	280	230	250	280	4,070
Canada	140	380	360	250	310	430	240	190	180	340	2,820
USA (cases)	80	290	270	240	250	250	460	570	400	380	3,190
Australia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	-	-	10
Total	1,140	2,310	3,620	1,990	2,050	3,420	2,800	3,040	3,860	3,550	27,780
Total EUR	920	1,640	2,990	1,500	1,490	2,740	2,100	2,270	3,280	2,830	21,760
- EU-13	900	1,580	2,900	1,410	1,470	2,680	1,960	2,140	3,130	2,660	20,830

Table 3. Convention status granted Sudan											
Country	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	Total
Austria	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	10	-	20
Belgium	-	-	-	10	-	-	-	-	10	-	20
Bulgaria	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	-	-	10
Czech Rep.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Denmark	-	-	-	10	-	-	-	10	-	-	20
Finland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
France	10	10	20	20	10	10	10	70	40	30	230
Germany	-	10	20	80	90	120	70	40	30	20	480
Greece	-	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	20
Hungary	-	-	-	-	-	10	-	-	10	-	20
Italy	10	-	-	20	40	20	10	20	10	10	140
Netherlands	-	-	10	20	10	30	70	160	150	50	500
Norway	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Poland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	10
Portugal	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Spain	-	-	-	-	10	-	-	-	-	-	10
Sweden	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Switzerland	-	-	-	10	-	-	10	-	20	10	50
UK (cases)	10	10	150	740	30	10	60	60	60	-	1,130
Canada	110	150	480	260	260	250	290	190	150	190	2,330
USA (cases)	10	30	50	100	170	290	320	200	320	320	1,810
Australia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	-	10	20
Total	150	220	730	1,270	620	740	840	780	810	660	6,820
Total EUR	30	40	200	910	190	200	230	380	340	140	2,660
EU-13	30	40	200	900	190	190	220	370	310	120	2,570

Table 4. Humanitarian status granted											Sudan
Country	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	Total
Austria	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Belgium	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Bulgaria	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Czech Rep.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Denmark	-	-	-	10	-	10	-	10	-	-	30
Finland	-	-	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10
France	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Germany	-	-	-	-	-	110	10	-	-	-	120
Greece	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	-	10
Hungary	-	-	-	-	-	10	-	-	-	10	20
Italy	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Netherlands	10	-	10	20	130	160	120	360	680	250	1,740
Norway	-	30	10	10	10	30	20	20	20	20	170
Poland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Portugal	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Spain	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	-	-	10	20
Sweden	10	20	30	40	10	-	-	-	10	-	120
Switzerland	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	-	-	10	20
UK (cases)	10	10	120	660	20	10	10	20	-	-	860
Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
USA (cases)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Australia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	30	60	180	740	170	330	180	410	720	300	3,120
Total EUR	30	60	180	740	170	330	180	410	720	300	3,120
EU-13	30	30	170	730	160	290	150	390	700	260	2,910

Table 5. Convention recognition rates

Sudan

(Convention status divided by Total applications * 100%; based on unrounded figures)

Country	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	Total
Austria	-	-	-	-	-	2.3	..	20.9	3.0	4.4	6.1
Belgium	20.0	-	8.3	12.5	0.8	1.2	-	2.1	2.6	0.6	2.1
Bulgaria	..	..	..	..	..	..	18.2	58.3	33.3	..	48.3
Czech Rep.	..	-	..	..	-	57.1	-	20.0	..	..	40.0
Denmark	-	133.3	-	9.4	-	6.7	11.1	55.6	20.0	-	1.2
Finland	-	..	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	..	-
France	46.7	81.3	77.8	65.7	35.0	12.9	18.1	93.2	55.9	37.0	47.5
Germany	-	3.5	1.8	13.7	16.1	10.5	8.2	4.3	7.5	9.0	7.6
Greece	..	233.3	-	13.3	-	..	33.3	-	10.0	64.7	19.7
Hungary	..	..	..	..	..	37.5	18.2	..	20.0	5.1	15.2
Italy	26.3	21.4	50.0	51.5	43.1	12.9	14.7	59.4	66.7	60.0	31.3
Netherlands	5.8	4.1	13.8	14.4	4.7	5.1	10.6	24.0	7.7	3.2	8.4
Norway	-	2.9	-	-	-	8.7	-	-	-	-	0.9
Poland	..	..	..	..	..	33.3	21.4	11.8	22.2	100.0	30.2
Portugal	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	-	-	-	-
Spain	..	..	..	30.0	53.3	5.9	20.0	-	-	2.0	9.3
Sweden	-	..	..	0.6	..	4.8	-	12.5	5.3	-	3.3
Switzerland	-	-	3.4	20.8	..	..	20.9	-	29.6	18.6	13.5
UK (cases)	2.9	0.9	26.8	246.7	9.1	2.9	19.6	26.1	22.0	-	27.6
Canada	78.2	39.5	133.7	104.0	82.9	58.5	120.7	99.0	87.5	55.7	82.8
USA (cases)	9.5	8.6	17.7	39.1	67.5	114.3	69.7	35.5	79.4	85.5	56.2
Australia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	140.0	..	..	250.0
Total	12.9	9.8	20.4	63.7	30.7	22.0	30.0	26.2	20.7	19.0	24.7
Total EUR	3.1	3.3	7.0	60.9	13.5	7.8	11.1	17.0	9.9	5.2	12.5
EU-13	3.1	3.3	7.1	64.0	13.7	7.5	10.7	17.5	9.5	4.8	12.5

Table 6. Total recognition rates											
Sudan											
(Convention and humanitarian status divided by Total applications * 100%; based on unrounded figures)											
Country	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	Total
Austria	-	-	-	-	-	2.3	..	20.9	3.0	4.4	6.1
Belgium	20.0	-	8.3	12.5	0.8	1.2	-	2.1	2.6	0.6	2.1
Bulgaria	..	..	..	..	..	..	18.2	58.3	33.3	..	51.7
Czech Rep.	..	-	..	..	-	57.1	-	20.0	..	..	40.0
Denmark	20.0	200.0	0.1	20.8	-	93.3	22.2	200.0	60.0	15.4	4.2
Finland	-	..	266.7	33.3	25.0	400.0	-	-	150.0	..	73.9
France	46.7	81.3	77.8	65.7	35.0	12.9	18.1	93.2	55.9	37.0	47.5
Germany	-	3.5	1.8	13.7	16.1	20.3	8.8	4.5	8.2	9.0	9.7
Greece	..	233.3	-	13.3	-	..	33.3	-	65.0	82.4	31.6
Hungary	..	..	..	..	..	100.0	18.2	..	31.4	13.6	29.5
Italy	26.3	21.4	50.0	51.5	43.1	12.9	14.7	59.4	66.7	60.0	31.3
Netherlands	19.2	5.2	25.5	26.3	55.0	32.3	28.4	77.4	43.9	18.2	36.6
Norway	33.3	79.4	31.0	27.5	53.3	139.1	46.9	61.8	47.7	35.6	52.7
Poland	..	..	..	..	..	33.3	21.4	11.8	22.2	100.0	30.2
Portugal	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	80.0	-	-	25.0
Spain	..	..	..	30.0	53.3	5.9	90.0	25.0	1.9	14.3	19.3
Sweden	23.1	..	..	27.0	..	14.3	12.5	37.5	68.4	25.0	54.8
Switzerland	-	-	3.4	20.8	..	..	32.8	-	37.0	34.9	18.5
UK (cases)	4.4	1.3	47.3	466.7	15.2	4.3	23.2	32.6	22.0	-	48.1
Canada	78.2	39.5	133.7	104.0	82.9	58.5	120.7	99.0	87.5	55.7	82.8
USA (cases)	9.5	8.6	17.7	39.1	67.5	114.3	69.7	35.5	79.4	85.5	56.2
Australia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	140.0	..	..	250.0
Total	15.2	12.2	25.3	100.7	39.1	32.0	35.8	40.1	40.0	27.5	36.1
Total EUR	5.9	6.6	12.9	110.1	25.1	20.3	18.8	35.8	32.6	16.0	26.9
EU-13	5.7	5.2	13.0	115.8	24.9	18.7	17.9	36.4	32.3	14.9	26.6

Table 7. Global asylum applications and refugee status determination, 1999

Calculations of percentages are based on unrounded figures.

T (type) of procedure: G= Government, U=UNHCR; V= Various/unknown.

L (level of procedure): First instance only, FA = First instance and appeal, A=Appeal only, JR = Judicial review, V= Various/unknown.

General procedure: First instance only, FI = First instance and appeal, A=Appeal only, JR = Judicial review, V= Various/unknown.															
asy code	Procedure T L		Pending cases begin year	Applied during year	Decisions during year					Pending cases end of year	Recognition percentages				% change pend. cases
					Recognized		Rejected	Otherw. closed	Total		Incl. o/w. cl.		Excl. o/w. cl.		
	Ref. status	Other			Ref. status	Total					Ref. status	Total			
ANG	V	FI	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50.0	50.0	50.0	50.0	-100.0
ARE	U	V	840	5,200	910	-	1,450	-	2,640	3,670	34.7	34.7	38.6	38.7	338.7
ARM	G	FI	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50.0	50.0	50.0	50.0	-100.0
AUL	G	FA	-	-	10	-	-	-	-	20	..	..	100.0	100.0	..
AUS	G	V	-	90	-	-	40	30	80	-	5.0	5.0	8.5	8.5	..
BEL	G	A	-	-	-	-	10	-	10	-	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	..
BEL	G	FI	-	180	-	-	10	-	10	-	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	..
BEN	G	V	-	10	-	-	-	-	-	10	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	166.7
BGD	U	V	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.0	0.0	..	..	..
BKF	G	FA	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	..	..	..	..	-66.7
BLR	G	FI	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.0	0.0	..	..	..
BRA	G	V	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	33.3	33.3	100.0	100.0	-100.0
BUL	G	V	10	-	-	-	-	-	10	-	50.0	66.7	50.0	66.7	-100.0
CAN	G	FI	140	340	190	-	20	30	240	240	79.2	79.2	92.1	92.1	72.5
CAR	G	FI	10	60	-	-	-	-	-	60	..	..	..	..	800.0
CHD	U	V	80	180	-	-	-	-	-	250	..	..	..	..	233.3
COB	U	V	-	10	-	-	-	-	-	10	0.0	0.0	..	..	1100.0
COD	U	V	-	10	10	-	-	-	10	-	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	-50.0
CUB	U	V	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	..	..	..	..	..
CYP	U	V	-	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	200.0
DEN	G	FA	-	10	-	-	-	-	10	-	0.0	40.0	0.0	40.0	..
DJB	U	V	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	..	..	..	..	0.0
ECU	U	V	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	..	..	..	..	..
ERT	G	V	-	590	-	590	-	-	590	-	0.0	99.5	0.0	99.5	..
FRA	G	FI	-	80	30	-	30	-	60	-	53.6	53.6	53.6	53.6	..
GAB	U	V	-	20	-	-	-	-	-	20	..	..	..	..	..
GBR	G	FI	-	280	-	-	-	-	-	-	..	..	..	..	..
GFR	G	FI	110	210	20	-	200	70	300	90	6.4	6.4	8.5	8.5	-20.5
GHA	G	FA	-	10	-	-	-	-	-	10	0.0	0.0	..	..	400.0
GHA	U	V	-	10	-	-	-	-	-	10	..	..	..	..	..
GRE	G	V	-	20	10	-	-	-	10	-	78.6	100.0	78.6	100.0	..
HUN	G	FI	10	60	-	10	20	20	40	30	6.8	18.2	11.5	30.8	115.4
ICO	U	V	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	..	..	..	..	0.0
IND	U	FA	-	90	50	-	40	-	90	-	50.6	50.6	50.6	50.6	..
INS	U	V	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-100.0
IRE	G	A	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	..
IRE	G	FI	-	40	10	-	10	10	20	-	33.3	33.3	44.4	44.4	..
IRQ	U	V	-	30	-	-	30	-	30	-	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	..
ISR	U	V	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.0	0.0	..	..	0.0
ITA	G	FA	-	10	10	-	-	10	20	-	35.3	35.3	66.7	66.7	..
JOR	U	V	320	390	20	-	210	240	470	150	4.1	4.1	8.3	8.3	-54.5
JPN	G	FA	30	10	-	-	-	10	10	30	0.0	8.3	0.0	20.0	-18.8
JPN	U	FA	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.0	100.0	0.0	100.0	..
KEN	U	FA	400	160	10	-	40	460	500	60	2.0	2.0	22.2	22.2	-86.0
KOR	U	V	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	..	..	..	..	..
KUW	U	V	-	-	-	-	-	10	10	-	0.0	0.0	..	..	-100.0
LBR	U	V	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	..	..	..	..	0.0
LBY	U	V	20	10	-	-	-	10	10	10	0.0	0.0	..	..	-50.0

Table 7 (continued)

asy code	Procedure		Pending cases begin year	Applied during year	Decisions during year				Pending cases end of year	Recognition percentages				% change pend. cases	
					Recognized		Rejected	Otherw. closed		Total	Incl. o/w. cl.		Excl. o/w. cl.		
	Ref. status	Other			Ref. status	Total					Ref. status	Total			
LEB	U	V	1,390	1,500	100	-	950	110	1,160	-	8.8	8.8	9.7	9.7	-100.0
LTU	G	FI	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-100.0
LUX	G	V	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	..	..	..	..	..
MDA	U	V	10	50	-	-	10	10	10	50	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	433.3
MLS	U	V	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	..
MLW	V	V	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	..	..	..	..	200.0
MOR	U	V	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	..	..	0.0	0.0	..
MOZ	G	V	10	10	-	-	-	-	-	20	..	..	..	..	100.0
MTA	G	FA	-	10	10	-	10	-	10	-	53.8	53.8	53.8	53.8	..
NAM	G	V	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	16.7
NET	G	V	-	1,700	50	250	2,050	-	2,360	-	2.3	13.1	2.3	13.1	..
NOR	G	FA	-	60	-	20	70	-	90	-	0.0	23.3	0.0	23.3	..
PAN	G	FA	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.0	0.0	..	..	..
PHI	G	FA	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	..	..	..	..	0.0
POL	G	FA	-	10	10	-	-	-	10	-	70.0	70.0	77.8	77.8	..
POR	G	V	-	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	..	..	0.0	0.0	..
QAT	U	V	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	..	..	..	..	..
ROM	G	JR	30	20	-	-	30	10	50	-	4.4	4.4	6.5	6.5	-100.0
RWA	G	V	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.0	0.0	..	..	-20.0
SAU	U	V	10	40	-	-	10	10	10	30	7.7	7.7	12.5	12.5	540.0
SEN	G	V	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	..
SIN	U	V	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.0	0.0	..	..	..
SPA	G	FA	-	50	-	10	60	-	60	-	1.6	11.1	1.6	11.1	..
SVK	G	FI	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	..
SVN	G	FI	-	10	-	-	-	-	-	10	0.0	0.0	..	..	..
SWE	G	FI	-	20	-	-	10	-	10	-	0.0	28.6	0.0	30.8	..
SWI	G	FI	50	40	10	10	40	10	60	30	14.5	27.3	14.5	27.3	-43.5
SYR	U	V	1,030	500	130	-	650	120	900	640	14.9	14.9	17.1	17.1	-38.0
TUR	U	V	10	10	-	-	-	10	10	-	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-57.1
UAE	U	V	10	20	-	-	-	-	-	30	..	..	..	..	158.3
UGA	V	V	50	400	440	-	-	-	440	-	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	-100.0
UKR	G	V	30	50	20	-	60	-	80	-	19.2	19.2	19.2	19.2	-96.6
USA	G	A	170	140	60	-	60	60	180	140	33.5	33.5	50.9	50.9	-19.2
USA	G	FI	300	380	320	-	40	30	390	210	83.7	83.7	90.0	90.0	-28.4
YEM	U	V	40	200	110	-	150	-	260	-	41.8	41.8	41.8	41.8	-100.0
ZIM	G	V	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.0
Total			5,130	13,350	2,540	890	6,310	1,270	11,260	5,850	22.7	30.6	26.2	35.3	13.9

Table 8. Monthly asylum applications lodged in Europe, 1999													Origin: Sudan
Country	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun	Jul.	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Total
Austria	10	0	10	10	0	10	0	10	10	10	20	10	100
Belgium	20	20	10	10	10	20	20	20	20	20	20	10	200
Bulgaria	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Czech Rep.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Denmark	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
Finland	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
France	10	10	10	0	0	0	10	10	10	10	10	10	90
Germany	30	20	30	20	20	10	20	10	20	20	30	20	250
Greece	0	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
Hungary	10	0	0	0	10	0	0	10	10	10	10	0	60
Ireland	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	10	10	10	0	0	40
Liechtenstein	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Luxembourg	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Netherlands	210	150	120	160	120	110	130	100	100	160	200	150	1,710
Norway	0	0	10	0	0	10	10	10	0	0	10	10	60
Poland	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Portugal	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Romania	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Slovakia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Slovenia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	0	10
Spain	10	0	10	0	10	0	0	0	10	10	0	0	50
Sweden	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	10
Switzerland	0	10	10	0	0	10	0	0	0	10	0	0	40
UK (cases)	20	20	30	20	20	20	20	20	30	30	40	50	320
EU (N=14)	310	220	230	220	180	180	220	180	210	270	320	250	2,790
Total Europe	320	230	250	220	190	200	230	200	220	290	350	260	2,960

Table 9. Monthly asylum applications lodged in Europe during 2000													
Country	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Total
Austria	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
Belgium	20	10	10	10	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	60
Bulgaria	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Czech Rep.	0	10	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20
Denmark	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Finland	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
France	10	10	20	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	50
Germany	10	10	20	20	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	80
Greece	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Hungary	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
Ireland	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
Liechtenstein	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Luxembourg	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Netherlands	130	140	90	100	80	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	540
Norway	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
Poland	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Portugal	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Romania	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
Slovakia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Slovenia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Spain	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
Sweden	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Switzerland	10	10	10	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	40
UK (cases)	40	20	30	30	40	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	160
Total	240	220	210	160	180	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,010
- EU-15	220	190	190	160	160	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	920

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