



Sudan

SUDAN IS LOCATED IN NORTHEASTERN AFRICA. IT IS THE TENTH LARGEST COUNTRY IN THE WORLD. SUDAN IS BORDERED BY SEVEN COUNTRIES AND THE RED SEA. IT HAS A LONG HISTORY OF CIVIL WARS AS WELL AS POLITICAL AND SOCIAL INSTABILITY.

Official Name: Republic of the Sudan (Jumhuriyat as-Sudan)

Total Population: 42,337,000 people (2019 est.)
Distribution: Urban 35.5% - Rural 64.5% (2019)

Location: Northeast African country bordering the Red Sea to the northeast.

- Bordered by **Egypt, Libya, Chad, Cameroon, South Sudan, Ethiopia and Eritrea**
- The Red Sea is the lowest point in Sudan with Deriba Caldera being the highest point at an elevation of 3,042m.



Population projection: 59,000,000 (2050)

Capital City: Khartoum

- The White Nile and the Blue Nile are the two tributaries of the Nile. They merge at Khartoum, becoming the Nile River before flowing into Egypt.
- The origin of the city name is unknown but is believed to be derived from the Arabic word 'khartum' meaning 'trunk' due to the narrow strip of land between the Blue and White Niles.
- With a hot desert climate, the city is often considered one of the hottest major cities in the world.

- Sudan was once the largest and most geographically diverse state in Africa. It was split into two countries in July 2011. It is now the third largest country in Africa.



Languages:

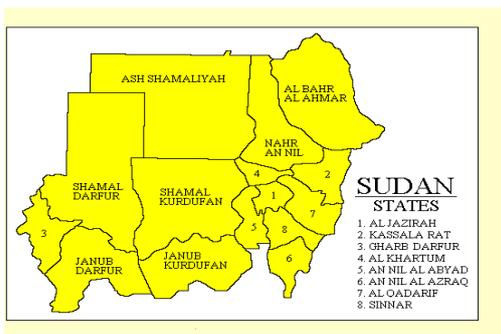
- **Arabic** is the dominant language of Sudan. Spoken in one dialect, Sudanese Arabic.
- **Beja** two other languages in the Afro-Asiatic family are spoken in Sudan. Also known as Bedawi, the language is native to the Beja community, who inhabit the Red Sea's western coast.
- There are more than 597 tribes in Sudan speaking more than 400 dialects and languages.

Ethnic Groups: Sudanese Arabs are the largest ethnic group in Sudan and are predominantly Muslim. They speak the Sudanese-Arab dialect.

- **Sudanese Arabs** 52%
- **Arabs** 39%
- **Beja** 6%
- **European** 2%
- **Jewish & Other** 1%

Religion: Islam is the state religion. Sudan is predominantly Sunni Muslim.

- **Sunni Muslim** 97%
- Other 3% (includes **Christian, Jewish, Shia Muslim and Baha'i**)



Currency: Sudanese Dinar

- It is a paper currency of 100 piasters (qurush) or 1,000 milliemes.

Visas: All visitors to Sudan must obtain a visa to enter the country and must be requested through the Sudanese Embassy. Upon arrival in country, you must register with the Aliens Department at the Ministry of Interior.

Literacy: 83.3% males and 68.6% of males aged 15 and over are literate.

CLIMATE

Sudan has a tropical climate, with summer temperatures often exceeding 43.3°C (110°F). The central and northern part of the country have extremely dry desert areas such as the Nubian Desert in the northeast and the Bayuda desert to the east. The dry regions are plagued by sandstorms, known as haboob. They can completely block out the sun. In the northern and western semi desert areas, the scant rainfall is relied upon for basic agriculture. Many of the population are nomadic. Nearer the River Nile, there are farms growing crops using irrigation.

The amount of rainfall increases towards the south, in the south there are swamps and rainforest. The rainy season in the north lasts for about three months, July to September and up to six months in the south, June to November.

Sunshine duration is very high all over the country, especially in the deserts where it can soar to over 4,000 hours per year.



Natural Recourses:

- Petroleum
- Gold
- Chromium Ore
- Copper
- Tungsten

National holidays: The Sudanese observe the standard Islamic holidays as well as several secular and national holidays, such as

Independence Day (1st January) and Revolution Day (30th June).

Vaccines: Yellow Fever vaccination certificate is required.

- Typhoid and Hepatitis A are strongly recommended.
- Sudan is a high-risk malaria area and antimalarials are advised.

Sudan map of Köppen climate classification

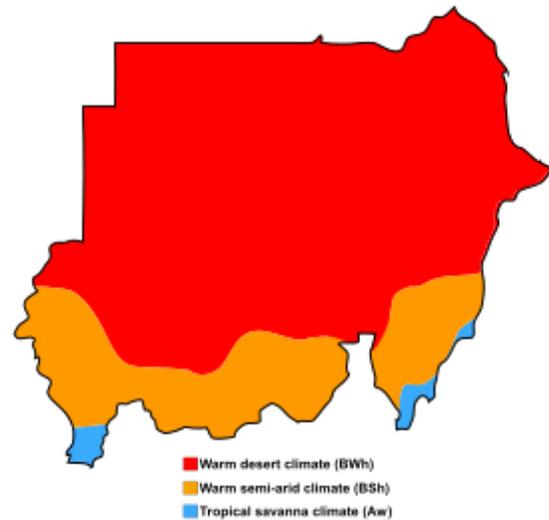


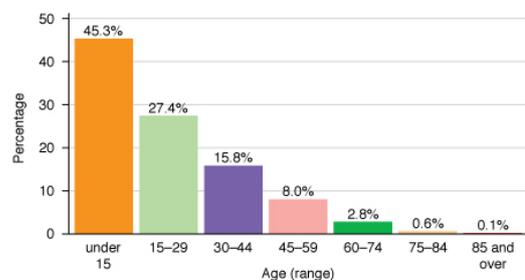
Figure 1: Sudan's climate classification

DEMOGRAPHICS

Sudan, officially the Republic of Sudan but sometimes referred to as North Sudan, has a population consisting mostly of descendants of migrants from the nearby Arabian Peninsula. Sudan has a total area of 1,886,068 square kilometres, 728,215 square miles and has an estimated population (2019) of 42.5 million. This is a significant increase from the 34.9 million estimated in 2013.

Sudan has a young population with 45.3% of its total population being under 15. 27.4% being 15 to 29 years old, 15.8% are between 30 and 44 and 8% being 45 to 59. The population over 60 is just 3.5%.

Age breakdown (2015)



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Figure 2: Just below half the population are aged under 15 years old

Sudan's demographic situation is reflected in its:

1. **Life expectancy**
 - Male (2019) = **63.4 years**
 - Females (2019) = **66.9 years**
2. **Living standards**
 - Sudan is one of the world's poorest countries.
 - 40% of the population live below the poverty line and most Sudanese are destitute and living in terrible conditions.
3. **Infant mortality rate**
 - 43.7 deaths/1,000 live births (2017 est.)
4. **Education**
 - Education in Sudan is, in theory, compulsory, but almost half of all children do not attend school. Poverty, instability and lack of security add to this.
 - Girls, face many obstacles preventing them access to an education, including child marriage.
 - To reduce school dropouts, the Ministry of Education and the World Food Programme, joined forces to offer school lunches. Parents are now more willing to allow their children to attend school, knowing they will be fed.

MIGRATION

In recent history, Sudan has endured prolonged conflicts, civil wars, droughts and famines in the 1980s, as well as environmental changes, namely desertification. These factors have resulted in forced migration inside and outside of the country's borders of large numbers of the Sudanese people.

Given the expansive geographic territory, the ethnic and regional tensions and conflicts, much of the forced migration has been internal. These people have suffered the typical issues that affect refugees: economic hardship, providing for themselves and their families with basic needs and sustenance.

An estimated 3.2 million Sudanese are considered Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs). Continuing insecurity along with government-imposed restrictions on humanitarian access in the Darfur region, South Kordofan and Blue Nile States have hampered UNHCR's activities.

Refugee assistance programmes in Sudan have historically relied on the definition of a refugee meaning someone who has crossed an international frontier. This definition is increasingly inappropriate worldwide, but even more so in Sudan, where the number of IDPs greatly exceeds the number of refugees.

Since the 1990s there has been an increased number of refugees from Sudan entering Egypt

and this in turn forced UNHCR Cairo to shift its focus from education and training to care and maintenance of the refugees. In Cairo, the International Organisation for Migration (IOM) are involved in helping to process the refugees for settlement, moving existing refugees and assisting with medical examinations. The IOM also conducts cultural orientation to prepare the refugees for settlement in third countries.



Figure 3: Women and children wait in Cairo for their UNHCR applications to go through, while husbands wait in Sudan.

INFRASTRUCTURE

Sudan has one of the most selectively and underdeveloped infrastructures in the entire continent. The country's population is so scattered with only a few areas of significant economic activity that developing infrastructure across the whole country has been considered cost ineffective. The greatest challenges to improving infrastructure in Sudan lie within the transport and water sectors.

Infrastructure in Sudan largely consists around Khartoum, the country's capital. Which acts as a direct connection between five major areas, Port Sudan, Egypt (including North Africa), the Eritrean border, Kordofan and Ethiopia. The rest of the country consists of disjointed highways and 72 airports, 15 with paved runways, which due to financial constraints are limited in their operational capacity.



Figure 4: Khartoum international airport runway

Sudan Airways is the national airline of Sudan with the headquarters in Khartoum. Since 2012 the company has been solely owned by the Government of Sudan

- Founded in February 1946
- Commenced operations in July 1947
- Fleet size is 4 (as at 2016)
- Fly to 15 destinations
- In March 2010, all Sudan based airlines were banned by the EU from flying into or within the member states.



Figure 5: De Havilland Dove of Sudan Airways in 1967

Roadways:

- Total of 11,900km of highways
- 4,320km **surfaced**
- 7,580km **unsurfaced**

In 1990, Sudan's road system totalled between 20,000 and 50,000 kilometres. It comprises of an extremely sparse network considering the size of the country. Asphalted roads (excluding towns and cities) amounted to roughly 3,000 to 3,500kms. The Khartoum-Port Sudan road accounted for almost 1,200kms of that.



Figure 6: Road and Railroad map of Sudan

Until the early 1970's, the government had favoured the railroads believing that the purpose of roads was to act as feeders to the rail system. Disillusionment with the railroad performance led to a new emphasis on roads and a decision to

encourage competition between rail and road transport was a good way to improve services.

Ports: Beginning in 1905, Port Sudan was built to complement the railroad line from Khartoum to the Red Sea, it became the only operational deep-water harbour in Sudan. Facilities at the port eventually included fifteen cargo berths, warehouses and storage tanks for edible oils and petroleum.



Figure 7: Port Sudan

Oil: The oil discoveries in Sudan, in the late 1970s has additionally aggravated the political and economic situation in Sudan. It played a pivotal role in igniting the second civil war in 1983, complicating the possibility of peace between the North and South as it became the central objective for the fighting parties. The civil war and The United States' aggressive policies, aimed at controlling Sudan's natural resource, put the country on the verge of collapse as a state.

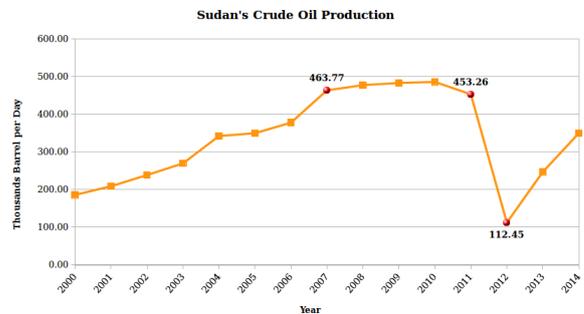


Figure 8: Sudan's crude oil production up to 2014

The first shipment of Sudan crude oil was loaded aboard a Shell tanker at Marsa Bashyer on the Red Sea (18 km south of Port Sudan) on 31 August 1999, marking the beginning of twelve years of unprecedented economic growth. Sudan's oil production peaked at an average of almost 500,000 barrels per day in 2007, before falling back somewhat in 2008-2009. It reached only about 125,000 bpd after the independence of South Sudan in 2011, putting an end to the 'boom' years because around 75% of oil and production was coming from oilfields in the present Republic of South Sudan, while 90% of pipelines and export facilities are in (North) Sudan.

Since South Sudan was officially recognised as an independent nation state in July 2011, Sudan's

oil production has declined because of continued political instability and conflict between the two countries.



Figure 9: Oil pipeline on the road from Bentiu to Yida

Electricity: Power generation capacity in Sudan tripled, from about 800 megawatts (MW) in 2005 to 2,687 MW in 2015, with a shift toward hydropower from the expensive thermal power. The Merowe Dam, built between 2003 and 2010 on the Fourth Cataract of the Nile in northern Sudan, generates 1,250 megawatts. This makes it the largest contemporary hydropower project in Africa. Nevertheless, the shortage of electric power is the main bottleneck in the Sudan economy.

According to local media reports, factories in Sudan operate, on average, at only one-quarter of design capacity, because of a shortage of power, and the cost of energy significantly reduces the competitiveness of Sudanese industries in both national and international markets.

The total production of energy is estimated to meet only 70% of the total demand for power in Sudan, which explains why the government is planning construction of three more hydropower dams in Sheriak, Kajbar and Dal, despite the strong objections of citizens at the proposed locations of dams in eastern and far northern Sudan.



Figure 10: Electricity transmitter in Merowe Dam

Merowe Dam is criticised for its forced relocation of some fifty thousand people from their historical home to a poorly developed semi desert area. Other concerns are its possible negative

environmental impact, which was not properly studied, and the archaeological heritage lost under water.

POLITICAL HISTORY

The early history of the Kingdom of Kush, located along the Nile region in what is now northern Sudan, is intertwined with the history of ancient Egypt, with which it was politically allied over several ruling periods.



Figure 11: The Kingdom of Kush

The modern republic of Sudan was formed in 1956 and inherited its boundaries from Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, established in 1899. Since its independence in 1956, the history of Sudan has been plagued by internal conflict.

- First Sudanese War 1955 – 1972
- Second Sudanese War 1983 – 2005
- War in Darfur 2003 - 2010

The **First Sudanese Civil War**, also known as the Anyanya Rebellion, after the name of the rebels, was between northern Sudan and Southern Sudan. In February 1953, the UK and Egypt concluded an agreement providing for Sudanese self-government and self-determination. Sudan achieved independence on January 1st, 1956. However, in the run-up to granting Sudan's independence, the civil service and administration were placed increasingly in Northern Sudanese hands – hugely excluding the Southern Sudanese from the government. The Arab led Khartoum government reneged on the promises made to southerners to create a federal system, which in turn led to mutiny by Southern troops. Feeling disenfranchised and cheated, the separatist Southerners began a low-intensity civil war with the hope of establishing an independent South. This war would last seventeen years.

The chronic state of insurgency against the central government was suspended in 1972, following the signing of the Addis Ababa Accords, which granted southern Sudan regional autonomy on internal matters.

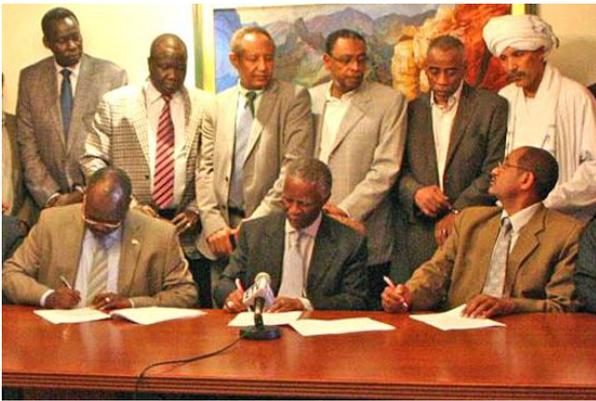


Figure 12: Addis Ababa Agreement signing 1972

The **Second Sudanese Civil War** ran from 1983 to 2005, it was largely a continuation of the First Sudanese Civil War. The conflict was between the central Sudanese government and the Sudan People's Liberation Army. Although the war originated in southern Sudan, the civil war spread to the Nuba mountains and Blue Nile. Roughly two million people have died because of war, famine and disease caused by the conflict. Four million people in southern Sudan have been displaced at least once and often repeatedly during the conflict.

The civilian death toll is one of the highest of any war since World War II. The conflict officially ended with the signing of a peace agreement in January 2005. This war lasted 22 years.

Some terms of the peace treaty were:

- The south had autonomy for six years, followed by a referendum on independence.
- Oil revenues were divided equally between the government and SPLA during the six-year autonomy period
- Islamic Sharia law was applied in the north, while terms of use of Sharia in the south were decided by the elected assembly.



Figure 13: North/South Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) ends civil war, January 2005.

The **War in Darfur**, also known as the **Land Cruiser War**. Was a major armed conflict in the Darfur region of Sudan that began in February

2003, when the Sudan Liberation Movement (SLM) and the Justice and Equality Movement (JEM) rebel groups began fighting the government of Sudan, whom they accused of oppressing Darfur's non-Arab population.

The government responded to attacks by carrying out a campaign of ethnic cleansing against Darfur's non-Arabs. This resulted in the death of hundreds of thousands of civilians and the indictment of Sudan's president, Omar al-Bashir, for genocide, war crimes and crimes against humanity by the International Criminal Court.

The Sudanese government and the JEM signed a ceasefire agreement in February 2010, with an agreement to pursue peace. However, the talks were disrupted by accusations that the Sudanese army launched raids and air strikes against a village, violating the Tolu agreement. The JEM, the largest rebel group in Darfur, vowed to boycott negotiations.



Figure 14: Abu Surouj, after government forces and allied militias burned the town.

The conflict is considered by many as ongoing.

GOVERNMENT

Officially, the **politics of Sudan** takes place in the framework of a presidential representative democratic republic, where the President of Sudan is head of state, head of government and commander-in-chief of the Sudanese Armed Forces in a multi-party system. Legislative power is vested in both the government and in the two chambers, the National Assembly (lower) and the Council of States (upper), of the bicameral National Legislature. The judiciary is independent and obtained by the Constitutional Court.^[1] However, following a deadly civil war and the still ongoing genocide in Darfur, Sudan was widely recognized as a totalitarian state where all effective political power was held by President Omar al-Bashir and the National Congress Party (NCP). However, al-Bashir and the NCP were ousted in a military coup which occurred on April 11, 2019. The government of Sudan is now led by the "Transitional Military Council"

Legislative power is vested in both the government and the bicameral parliament – the National Legislature, with its National Assembly (lower chamber) and the Council of States (upper chamber). The judiciary is independent and obtained by the Constitutional Court.

On 16 October 1993, al-Bashir's powers increased when he appointed himself President of the country, after which he disbanded the Revolutionary Command Council for National Salvation and all other rival political parties. The executive and legislative powers of the council were later given to al-Bashir completely.

In late 1994, to change his nations going image as a country that harboured terrorists. Al-Bashir secretly cooperated with French special forces to orchestrate the capture and subsequent arrest on Sudanese soil of Carlos the Jackal.

In 1996, he was elected president, with a five-year term in the national election. He was the only candidate by law to run for election.

OMAR AL-BASHIR



Figure 15: Seventh President of Sudan, Omar al-Bashir

Omar Hassan Ahmed al-Bashir is a Sudanese politician who served as the seventh President of Sudan from 1989 to 2019. He is the founder of the National Congress Party. He came to power in 1989 when, as a brigadier in the Sudanese Army, he led a group of officers in a military coup that ousted the democratically elected government of prime minister Sadiq al-Mahdi after negotiations with rebels in the south had begun.

He became Chairman of the Revolutionary Command Council for National Salvation. After this promotion, he allied himself with Hussan al-Turabi, the leader of the National Islamic Front, they began institutionalising Sharia Law in the northern part of Sudan. Al-Bashir issued purges and executions of people whom he alleged to be coup leaders in the upper ranks of the army, the banning of associations, political parties and independent newspapers as well as the imprisonment of leading political figures and journalists.



Figure 16: Carlos the Jackal arrested in Khartoum.

On 12 December 1999, al-Bashir sent troops and tanks against parliament and ousted Hassan al-Turabi, the speaker of parliament, in a palace coup.

He was re-elected by popular vote for a further five-year term, in the presidential elections in December 2000.

Between 2005 and 2010, a transitional government was set up under a 2005 peace accord that ended more than two decades of north-south civil war and saw a power sharing agreement between the Sudan's People's Liberation Movement and al-Bashir's National Congress Party.

On 14 July 2008, the Chief Prosecutor of the ICC, Luis Moreno Ocampo, alleged that al-Bashir bore individual criminal responsibility for genocide, crimes against humanity and war crimes committed since 2003 in Darfur.

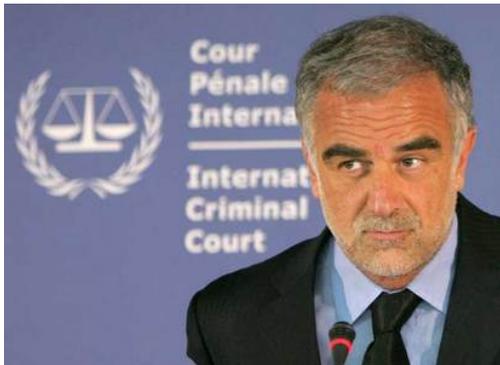


Figure 17: Luis Moreno Ocampo

In March 2009, al-Bashir became the first sitting president to be indicted by the ICC, for allegedly directing a campaign of mass killing rape and pillage against the people of Darfur. The courts issued an arrest warrant on counts of war crimes and crimes against humanity. They ruled there was insufficient evidence to prosecute him for genocide.



Figure 18: A man casts his ballot at a polling station in the city of al-Kamlin, Sudan on 15 April 2010

Bashir won 68% of the popular vote in the 2010 election. However, the election was marred by corruption, intimidation and inequality. The EU criticised the polls as ‘not meeting international standards’. It has been suggested that by holding a legitimate election, al-Bashir had hoped to evade the ICC’s warrant for his arrest.

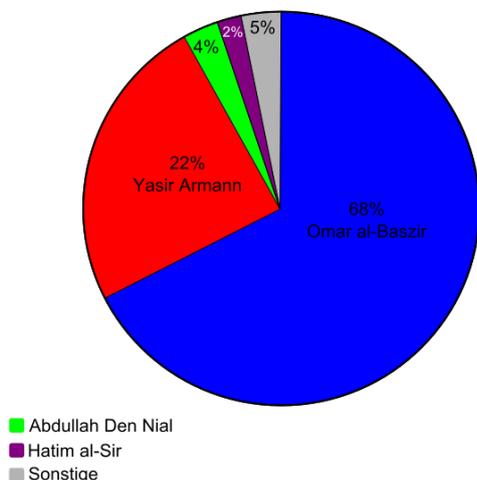


Figure 19: Sudan presidential election results 2010

A second arrest warrant was issued for President al-Bashir in July 2010. The ICC issued the additional warrant adding 3 counts of genocide for the ethnic cleansing of the Fur, Masalit and Zaghawa tribes. The ICC released a further statement detailing that the new warrant included charges for ‘genocide by killing, genocide by causing serious bodily harm and genocide by deliberately inflicting on each target group, conditions of life calculated to bring about the group’s physical destruction’. The new warrant now sat alongside the first, as the initial charges initially brought against him remained in place.

11th April 2019, al-Bashir was removed from his post by the Sudanese Armed Forces after many months of protest and civil uprisings. He was placed under house arrest. The army also ordered the arrest of all ministers of al-Bashir’s cabinet. At the time of his arrest al-Bashir had ruled Sudan longer than any other leader since the country gained independence in 1956.

On 17 April 2019, al-Bashir was moved from house arrest to Khartoum’s Kobar prison.

On 13 May 2019, prosecutors charged al-Bashir with ‘inciting and participating in’ the killing of protestors.

FOREIGN RELATIONS

During the 1990s, as Sudan sought to steer a nonaligned course, courting Western aid and seeking rapprochement with Arab states, its relations with the US grew increasingly strained. Sudan’s ties with countries like North Korea and Libya and its support for regional insurgencies such as Egyptian Islamic Jihad, Eritrean Islamic Jihad, Ethiopian Islamic Jihad, Palestinian Islamic Jihad, Hamas, Hezbollah, and the Lord’s Resistance Army generated great concern about its contribution to regional instability. Allegations of the government’s complicity in the assassination attempt against the Egyptian President in Ethiopia in 1995 led to UNSC sanctions against Sudan.

By the late 1990s, Sudan experienced strained or broken diplomatic relations with most of its neighbouring countries. However, since 2000, Sudan actively sought regional rapprochement that rehabilitated most of these relations.

Sudan, with its ethnic amalgam stretching South of the Sahara prior to the 2011 independence of South Sudan, did not fit comfortably into the Arab world. To be sure, Arab culture - language, media, the arts, history, manners - permeated Northern Sudanese thinking and behaviour, and its influence was evident even among Southerners prone to resist it. Moreover, Sudan’s political and

military institutions were dominated by members of riverine, eastern and western tribes conventionally classified as Arab.

As politics go, however, this Arabic link, introduced by the Egyptians, was in many ways an artificial conception. Sudanese, embroiled in their own national and personal problems, were not emotionally driven by "Arab issues" like the Israeli-Palestinian conflict and the Iranian threat, except as they bear a more direct relationship, e.g. Israel's Ethiopian ties and its alleged links with the SPLA (Sudan People's Liberation Army). Religious and racial factors - the historic stain of the Arab slave trade, instances of discrimination, and perceptions of Islamic nonconformity - also distanced Sudanese somewhat from the Arab mainstream.



Figure 20: Sheikh Mansour bin Zayed, Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Presidential Affairs in a meeting with Tata Othman Al Hussein, the Sudanese Minister of State in Khartoum.

While Northern Sudanese tended to accept their Arab status as useful, Southerners perceived Arabs as the problem. To Southerners, "Arab" was a pejorative term representing unjust and oppressive behaviour. Passing over Sudan's ethnic diversity, traditional rivalries and ideological divisions, they were fond of blaming the Arabs for misrule and inequity. A frequent Southern refrain was that Arabs constituted only a minority, though a plurality, in Sudan, which was probably true. Based on this assumption, prior to independence Southerners argued that their uniting with non-Arab Northerners - such as the Nuba, the Fur, and the Nubians - could resolve Sudan's divisive problems. The improbability of this thesis only underscored its fallacy. Religious, ideological and traditional tribal divisions outweighed the issue of Arab ties. The Fur of Darfur, for example, were more at ease with Arab Muslims than with Southern Christians.

Since 1983, Sudan's relations with its other African neighbours, Central African Republic, Ethiopia, Kenya, Uganda, and Zaire, had been affected by the civil war in the south. These five countries hosted thousands of Sudanese refugees who had fled the fighting and provided various forms of assistance and/or sanctuary to the SPLM (Sudan People's Liberation Movement) and

SPLA. As of mid-1991, most of the border area with Central African Republic, Kenya, Uganda, and Zaire was under SPLM control. The governments of Kenya and Uganda openly supported the SPLM's humanitarian organizations and facilitated the movement of international relief personnel and supplies into southern Sudan. The SPLM's most important foreign supporter, however, was the government of Colonel Mengistu Haile Mariam in Ethiopia. The Mengistu regime had provided military assistance, including facilities for training, to the SPLA and extensive political backing to the SPLM. In retaliation, Khartoum had allowed Ethiopian rebels to maintain facilities in Sudan, the Eritrean People's Liberation Front at Port Sudan, and the Tigray People's Liberation Front at Al Qadarif.



Figure 21: Former Sudanese President Omar al-Bashir (left) with current South Sudanese President Salva Kiir Mayardit (right)

MILITARY SECURITY

The origins of the Sudanese Army date to Sudanese soldiers recruited by the British during the reconquest of Sudan in 1898. Sudan officially became the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan in 1899. The highest-ranking British officer in Egypt, known as the Sirdar, also served as Governor General of the Sudan. In 1922, after nationalist riots stimulated by Egyptian leader Saad Zaghloul, Egypt was granted independence by the United Kingdom. The Egyptians wanted more oversight in the Sudan and created specialized units of Sudanese auxiliaries within the Egyptian Army called Al-Awtirah. This became the nucleus of the modern Sudanese Army.



Figure 22: The Sudanese Armed Forces

The Sudanese Armed Forces (SAF) are the Armed Forces of the Republic of the Sudan. According to 2011 IISS estimates, it numbers 109,300 personnel. They comprise the Land Forces, the Sudanese Navy, the Sudanese Air Force, and the Popular Defence Forces. They also previously had Joint Integrated Units formed together with its rebel enemies the Sudan People's Liberation Army. The Armed Forces operate under the authority of the People's Armed Forces Act 1986. In 1991, the Library of Congress used the term "Sudan People's Armed Forces" to refer to the entire armed forces, but by the late 2000s (decade), the "Sudanese Armed Forces" term was most widespread.

In 2004, the Federal Research Division of the Library of Congress estimated that the Popular Defence Forces, the military wing of the National Islamic Front, consists of 10,000 active members, with 85,000 reserves. It has been deployed alongside regular army units against various rebel groups.

Sudan now receives most of its military equipment from the People's Republic of China and Russia. Sudan has a weapons production company called the Military Industry Corporation.

MEDIA

Sudan's first periodical, the Arabic-English Sudan Gazette, began publication in 1899. The British, who shared administrative authority over Sudan with Egypt, used the gazette to publicize new laws and official rulings. Four years later came Sudan's first private Arabic newspaper, Al-Sudan, owned by a Lebanese businessman. In subsequent years, Sudan's emerging press industry largely followed the pattern of foreign ownership and a pro-government stance.

During the first three decades of its history, the Sudanese press was routinely subjected to Anglo-Egyptian censorship. Sudan adopted its first press regulation in 1930, meaning owners and editorial boards had to meet with government approval and

all were subject to censorship by the Intelligence Department.



Figure 23: A selection of Sudanese newspapers.

It was during this era of press restrictions that Sudan's first daily newspaper, Al-Nil made its debut, in 1935. That was followed in 1940 by Sudan's first radio broadcast. It aired from Omdurman for 30 minutes a day with updates on World War II. Gaps in technology and infrastructure delayed a national radio service for more than 30 years.

Sudan's independence in 1955 unleashed a volatile era for the press, after the military coup in 1958, political parties and their newspapers were banned. This decision was reversed in 1964.

Television broadcast arrived in Sudan in 1963, thanks to West German engineers and technology. In 1969 General Gaafar al-Nimiri seized power, the following year he nationalized the press and banned independent publications. Free press was not restored until 1985 when Nimiri was himself overthrown.

In the 1990s, when most Sudanese could not read or write, television and radio were the primary tools of communication. The gradual introduction of the internet during the late 1990s further broadened Sudanese citizens access to information. Nonetheless, the government maintained tight control over the media throughout the decade.

It is no surprise that Sudan's media ranks as among the most repressive in the world. Reporters Without Borders – World's Press Freedom Index (2017) ranked Sudan at no. 174 out of 180.

Television broadcasts in Sudan are monopolised by the Sudan Radio and Television Corporation, which is a government network founded in 2002. Private television channels are not officially outlawed, but the governments hold over infrastructure and funding means few stations exist.



Figure 24: Sudan TV Channel

Radio: Radio is the most prevalent medium in Sudan, due to broadcast costs being relatively low and its ability to reach far rural areas. By 2017 18 of Sudan's then states were within reach of regional radio stations. National stations, both public and private are mainly broadcast from Khartoum or Omdurman.

The government retains at least a 15% stake in all radio channels.



Figure 25: Sudan received at 64 freedom of the net score. With 0 = most free.

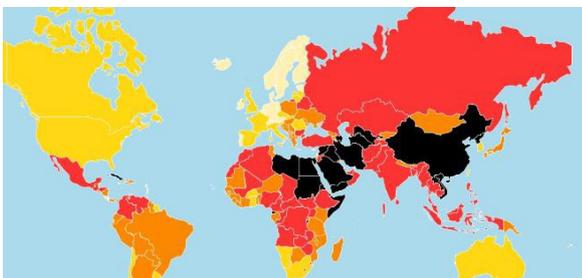


Figure 26: a map showing the rate of freedom of press in different countries in 2018, an investigation carried out by Reporters Without Borders, where the lighter the colour shows the higher the level of freedom

ECONOMY

GDP (PPP): \$117,488 MILLION (2017 estimate)

GDP per capita: \$2,899 (2017 estimate)

Gini (2017): 35.3 (medium)

Global Rank: 105

HDI (2017): 0.502 (low, 167th)

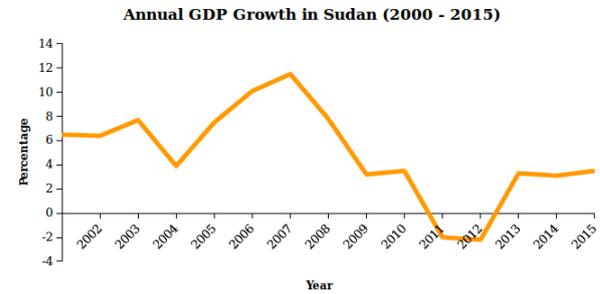


Figure 27: Annual GDP growth in Sudan 2015

Sudan is a poor country, despite its potential resources. Sudan's economy is basically agricultural, with inadequate infrastructure and ridden by civil wars and social and ethnic conflict. The country witnessed a radical change in 1999, when the country began to export crude oil. For nearly a decade, the economy boomed, driven by rising oil production and prices and significant inflows of foreign direct investment related to the oil sector, but the economic shock of South Sudan's secession in 2011 was devastating. The government of Sudan has endeavoured, in vain, to absorb the consequences, re-stabilize the economy, and make up for the sharp drop in badly needed foreign-exchange earnings. The interruption of oil production in South Sudan for more than a year and the eventual loss of oil transit fees (1 billion USD in 2013) further worsened Sudan's fragile economy

Sudan's Economy

Contribution of Each Sector to the GNP

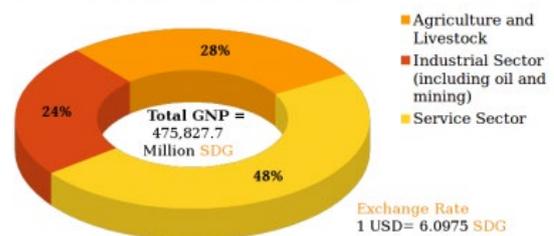


Figure 28: Economy of Sudan

Comprehensive sanctions imposed on Sudan by the US and other international parties for political reasons further mired the economy. Sudan is attempting to develop non-petroleum sources of revenues, such as gold mining, while carrying out an austerity programme to reduce expenditures. The world's largest exporter of gum Arabic, Sudan produces 75-80% of the world's output.

The civil war in South Sudan, which broke out in December 2013 and is closely linked to disagreements over oil following South Sudan's

secession, imposed new pressures on Sudan's economy. In March 2017, the number of South Sudanese refugees in Sudan was around 330,000, according to the United Nations. A famine, which has largely affected the northern areas of South Sudan since early 2017, has forced additional refugees across the border.

The World Bank emphasizes the importance to Sudan of agriculture and livestock for economic diversification and macroeconomic stability in the medium term. The country's multi-phase strategy to reduce poverty and reform the economy Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP) and the Five-year Program for Economic Reforms, which were approved in December 2014, rely on increasing agricultural productivity and exploiting other export possibilities, notably livestock.

As part of the secession, Sudan agreed to take over all South Sudan's pre-secession debt, provided it received enough international commitments on debt relief.

According to the World Bank, the main barriers preventing Sudan from achieving its economic goals are conflicts; reliance on oil; neglect of agriculture and livestock and alternative energy sources; unfair distribution of financial resources and access to natural resources; government failure; the low credibility of public policy; and insufficient incentives for private sector investors.

AGRICULTURE

Agriculture is the most important economic sector in the country, creating 39 per cent of GDP, employing more than one third of the workforce, and producing 80 per cent of the country's exports until the late 1990s when oil and gold to lesser extent, took over as the main export products. Agricultural and animal products made up 75% of Sudan exports, until 1999 when oil became Sudan's main export product. About 22% of imports are destined for agricultural production, including such inputs as machinery, fertilizers, and pesticides.

Another agricultural pillar of the modern economy of Sudan was constructed by the colonial state following the Second World War. Mechanized farming of **sorghum** (*dura*), the main food staple of the northern part of the country, began in 1945 near Gedaref, in eastern Sudan. The first mechanized crop-production scheme covered about 12,000 feddans (A feddan is a unit of area. It is used in Egypt, Sudan, Syria and the Sultanate of Oman. In Classical Arabic, the word means 'a yoke of oxen': implying the area of ground that could be tilled by them in a certain time). At independence in 1956, there were more than 300 private mechanized schemes covering about 388,000 feddans.



Figure 29: A farmer in Nyala, harvesting sorghum

Rain-fed mechanized agriculture occupies a strip (estimated at 5 million hectares) of the clay plains in the high-rainfall savannah belt in central Sudan. The main rain-fed crops cultivated in Sudan are sorghum, sesame, peanuts, and, to a lesser extent, cotton and sunflower seeds.

Gum Arabic also known as acacia gum, Arabic gum, gum acacia, acacia, Senegal gum and Indian gum, and by other names,[1] is a natural gum consisting of the hardened sap of various species of the acacia tree. Gum Arabic is collected from acacia species, predominantly *Acacia senegal*[2] and *Vachellia (Acacia) seyal*. The term "gum Arabic" does not indicate a botanical source. In a few cases so-called "gum Arabic" may not even have been collected from *Acacia* species, but may originate from *Combretum*, *Albizia* or some other genus.[1] The gum is harvested commercially from wild trees, mostly in Sudan (80%) and throughout the Sahel, from Senegal to Somalia—though it is historically cultivated in Arabia and West Asia.



Figure 30: Sacks of gum Arabic, ready for export

Cotton is the principal export crop in both rain-fed and irrigated sectors and an integral part of the country's economy, and Sudan is the world's third largest producer of sesame seed, after India and China. Sugarcane is also a very important crop on which the large sugar industry of Sudan depends. According to the Annual report of Sudan Central

Bank of 2014 irrigated agriculture amounted to 3.3 million feddans while rain-fed agriculture reached 36 million feddans.



Figure 31: Cotton plant

Sugar production is a key industry in Sudan, being Africa's third largest producer of sugar. There are six cane-sugar factories in Sudan, belonging to Khartoum-based Sudanese Sugar Company are New Halfa, Guneid, Assalaya, and Sennar with a total annual production of 288,000 tonnes, and the White Nile Sugar Company (WSNC) aims to produce 450,000 tons a year. The Kenana Sugar Company is shareholder of 30% of WNSC and owns the Kenana factory, which produces 400,000 tonnes a year, making it not only the largest producer in Sudan, but also the world's largest producer of white sugar. KSC is a joint venture of the Sudanese government, the Kuwaiti government, and private investors and some other local and foreign small shareholders.



Figure 32: Sacks of Kenana sugar

While Kuwait owns 30.5% of shares, Saudi Arabia 10.92%, and the Arab Investment Company 6.96%, the Sudanese government (35.17% of shares) is notorious for making decisions without consulting the GCC co-shareholders. For example, in mid-2014 a crisis loomed following threats of the Minister of Industry having taken place without him or shareholders having been informed or consulted. During the last five years, at least 2 billion USD in local and foreign investments have gone into the sugar industry. Two new factories have been built and a few existing ones were renovated. The

government has attempted to proceed with a controversial plan to privatize sugar factories, but the National Assembly has rejected it numerous times.

Shareholders in Kenana Sugar Company

Percentage of Shares

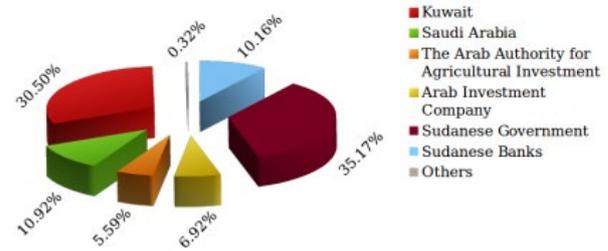


Figure 33: Shareholders in Kenana

Edible Oils: Sudan is an important international producer of oil seeds. Sudan's vast agriculture sector produces sesame seeds, groundnuts (peanuts), cottonseed, and sunflower seeds. There are approximately 223 factories extracting edible oil, with a capacity of 2.3 million tons.

Edible-oil production has fallen in the last few years. Instead of exporting seeds oil as it did during the 1980s, Sudan now must import them. Many reasons contributed to this; mainly the deterioration of cotton production because of government policy to expand in growing wheat and other food products instead of cotton; the deterioration irrigation system as a result of lack of upkeep – including of the Gezira scheme – leading to shrinkage of cultivated area; and exorbitant government taxes discouraging farmers and the cost of providing some inputs like fertilisers and fuel for agricultural machinery. Meanwhile, the annual local consumption has risen to about 230,000 tons per year, 150,000 tons of which is provided locally, while about 80,000 tons is imported.

Manufacturing: Sudan's manufacturing sector remains relatively small; manufacturing and mining combined contribute less than one-third of the GDP and employ only a small percentage of the country's labour force.

The country's industrial base is dominated by the processing of food and beverage products. Sugar refining is a major activity, as are the production of vegetable oil and of soap, the ginning of cotton, and the production of cotton textiles.

Other industries include oil refining and the production of shoes, chemical fertilizers, and cement. Many factories, however, operate at a mere fraction of their capacity.



Figure 34: Factory for LPG cylinders

Finance and Trade: All banks operating in Sudan were nationalized in 1970, but foreign banks were again allowed to operate after 1975.

The Bank of Sudan issues the currency, the Sudanese pound, and acts as banker to the government. The banking system is geared primarily to the finance of foreign trade and especially the cotton trade.

Most banks are concentrated in Khartoum and the surrounding area. After the 1989 coup, banks using Islamic banking principles rapidly achieved a dominant position within the finance sector and a large degree of control over the country's trade. In 1990 the Bank of Sudan announced its intention to Islamize the country's entire banking system.



Figure 35: Bank of Sudan

A long-term reorganisation plan was introduced by the Bank of Sudan in 2000 that would create six banking groups from mergers of the country's existing banks.

More than half of the government's total revenue is from petroleum exports. Besides petroleum, Sudan's other chief exports are livestock, cotton, gum Arabic, sorghum, and sesame, while its chief imports consist of machinery and equipment, manufactured goods, motor vehicles, and wheat. China is Sudan's leading trading partner; others include Japan, Saudi Arabia, and Egypt.

Imports and Exports: Sudan is the 110th largest export economy in the world and the 120th most complex economy according to the Economic Complexity Index (ECI). In 2017, Sudan exported \$4.67B and imported \$9.9B, resulting in a negative trade balance of \$5.2B. In 2017 the GDP

of Sudan was \$117B and its GDP per capita was \$4.9k.

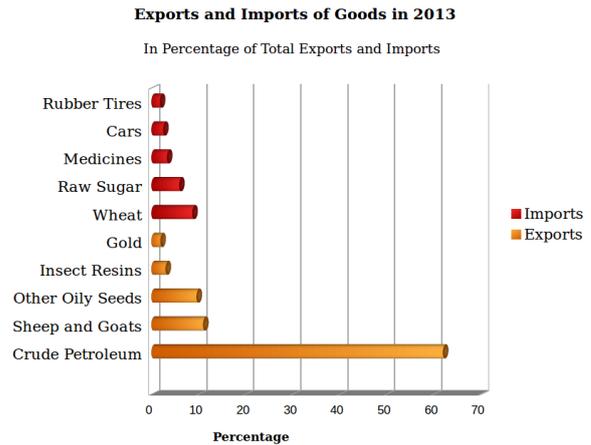


Figure 36: Sudan's Imports vs Exports (2013)

The top exports of Sudan are Gold (\$1.51B), Crude Petroleum (\$720M), Sheep and Goats (\$476M), Other Oily Seeds (\$458M) and Other Animals (\$302M), using the 1992 revision of the HS (Harmonized System) classification. Its top imports are Wheat (\$977M), Refined Petroleum (\$718M), Raw Sugar (\$425M), Unpackaged Medicaments (\$263M) and Cars (\$251M).

The top export destinations of Sudan are the United Arab Emirates (\$1.71B), China (\$611M), Saudi Arabia (\$600M), India (\$426M) and Egypt (\$394M). The top import origins are China (\$2.34B), the United Arab Emirates (\$972M), India (\$834M), Saudi Arabia (\$638M) and Russia (\$636M).

In 2017 Sudan imports were valued at \$9.9B, making it the 91st largest importer in the world. During the last five years the imports have increased at an annualized rate of 1.2%, from \$9.4B in 2012 to \$9.9B in 2017. The most recent imports are led by Wheat which represent 9.9% of the total imports of Sudan, followed by Refined Petroleum, which account for 7.28%.

The economy of Sudan has an Economic Complexity Index (ECI) of -1.458 making it the 120th most complex country. Sudan exports 53 products with revealed comparative advantage (meaning that its share of global exports is larger than what would be expected from the size of its export economy and from the size of a product's global market).

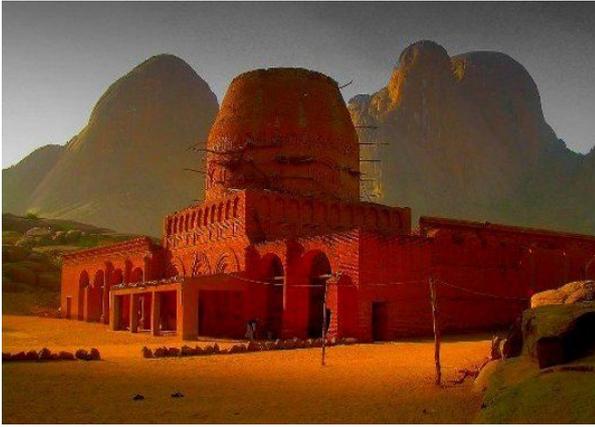


Figure 36: The Kassala Khatmiyya Mosque

Tourism: Sudan enjoys various tourist resources due to the availability of enormous natural capabilities. It is regarded as one of the richest African countries in wildlife, birds and Nile natural scenery which encourages tourism investment. The climate in Sudan is characterized by varied climatic conditions which are moderate all the year round in the Red Sea area especially in the highlands such as Erkwiet Summer Resort. The special concern being attached to the promotion of tourism in Sudan is necessitated by many factors represented in the necessity of activating domestic internal tourism, notably among the youths to familiarize with their country.



Figure 37: Khartoum at night

Tourism activity also makes youths realize the power of Almighty Allah, thus deepening their faith in Him. It as well inculcates them with love for their country and is further considered an important economic resource as it brings foreign currency to the country. Tourism also promotes acquaintance and friendly relations with other people who are attracted to our country by its vast tourist resources.

In this way, tourism plays two key roles. First it boosts Sudan's good image to the outside world, reflecting the good nature of its people, its civilization, its popular heritage and its arts.

Secondly, it contributes to the boosting of popular diplomacy of the country.



Figure 38: The Nubian Pyramids

DEVELOPMENT: CHINA SILK ROAD PROJECT

The news that China will build a railway from the Red Sea city of Port Sudan to the Chadian capital of N'Djamena proves just how serious Beijing is about pioneering a transcontinental Sahelian-Saharan Silk Road to more easily connect Africa's largest country of Nigeria to the Eurasian landmass, bringing with it plenty of multipolar opportunities for China's Pakistani and Turkish partners and showcasing the indispensable position that Sudan is poised to play in making this grand vision possible.



Figure 39: The symbolic joining of China and Sudan

Sudan signed a deal with China to explore the viability of constructing a railway from Port Sudan to N'Djamena, with an eye on completing a long-awaited connectivity project that had hitherto been held up due to various degrees of regional instability. The original plan was to link up the Chadian and even nearby Central African Republic capitals with the Red Sea to provide these resource-rich landlocked states with an outlet to the global marketplace, which is increasingly becoming Asia-centric ergo the Eastern vector of this initiative. In terms of the bigger picture, however, the successful completion of the Port Sudan-N'Djamena Railway would constitute a crucial component of China's unstated intentions to construct what the author had previously referred to as the "Sahelian-

Saharan Silk Road”, the relevant portion of which (the Chad-Sudan Corridor) is a slight improvisation of Trans-African Highway 6.

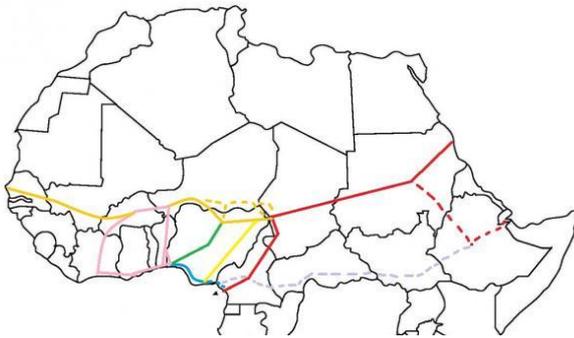


Figure 40: The full cross-continental vision of China

Red: CCS (Cameroon-Chad-Sudan) Silk Road
 Gold: Trans-African Highway 5
 Lavender: Ethiopia-Nigeria Silk Road (the most direct route through resource-rich territory)
 Pink: West African Rail Loop
 Blue: Lagos-Calabar Silk Road
 Green: Lagos-Kano Silk Road
 Yellow: Port Harcourt-Maiduguri Silk Road

The two pertinent points to focus on in this map are the CCS Silk Road (outlined in red on the map) and its larger purpose in possibly connecting Africa’s two largest countries and future Great Powers of Nigeria and Ethiopia. One of China’s grand strategic objectives in the emerging Multipolar World Order is to lay the infrastructural groundwork for facilitating the robust full-spectrum integration between these two giants, understanding that their Beijing-built bicoastal connectivity would bestow the People’s Republic with significant influence in the continent by streamlining an unprecedented corridor between them, thereby giving China the potential to more directly shape Africa’s overall development across the 21st century.

It goes without saying that Sudan is poised to play an indispensable role in making this happen by virtue of its advantageous geography in allowing China to circumnavigate the “Failed State Belt” of South Sudan, the Central African Republic, and increasingly, maybe even Cameroon, as well by charting an overland Silk Road connectivity corridor between Ethiopia and Nigeria via Sudan and Chad.

Moreover, the potential linkage of the planned Ethiopia-Sudan railway to the prospective Port Sudan-N’Djamena railroad would enable Sudan to provide China with alternative access to these two landlocked states. Regional military leader and energy exporter Chad is already in physical touch with the outside world through Cameroon, just as the world’s fastest-growing economy and rising

African hegemon Ethiopia utilizes the newly built Djibouti-Addis Ababa railway for this purpose, but the shrewd and far-sighted Chinese always feel more comfortable if they’re not dependent on a single route, hence the strategic importance of supplementary access to Chad and Ethiopia through Port Sudan.

While Sudan’s financial standing was left reeling since the American-backed separation of oil-rich South Sudan in 2011, Khartoum might fortuitously find itself wheeling and dealing along the New Silk Road if it’s successful in providing China with alternative market access to Chad and Ethiopia in the future, and especially if it can do the same with Nigeria in saving China the time in having to sail all the way around the Cape of Good Hope in order to trade with it. For as easy as all of this may sound, however, the premier challenge that China will have to confront is to ensure the security of this traditionally unstable transit space, specifically in the context of maintaining peace in the former hotspot of Darfur and dealing with the plethora of destabilization scenarios emanating from the Lake Chad region.

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