

**GEOGRAPHY, RESOURCES AND ETHNIC POLITICS:  
A CASE STUDY OF THE SUDAN**

**Dissertation Submitted to Jawaharlal Nehru University  
in Partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the award of the Degree of**

**MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY**

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### DECLARATION

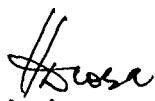
I declare that the dissertation entitled “**GEOGRAPHY, RESOURCES AND ETHNIC POLITICS: A CASE STUDY OF THE SUDAN**” submitted by me for the award of the degree of Masters of Philosophy of Jawaharlal Nehru University is my own work. The dissertation has not been submitted for any degree of this university or any other university.

  
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### CERTIFICATE

We recommend that this dissertation be placed before the examiners for evaluation.

  
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**Dedicated**  
**to**  
**Beloved Parents**

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*For any drawback in this dissertation if any, I alone am responsible for it.*

*Ashok Kumar*

# CONTENTS

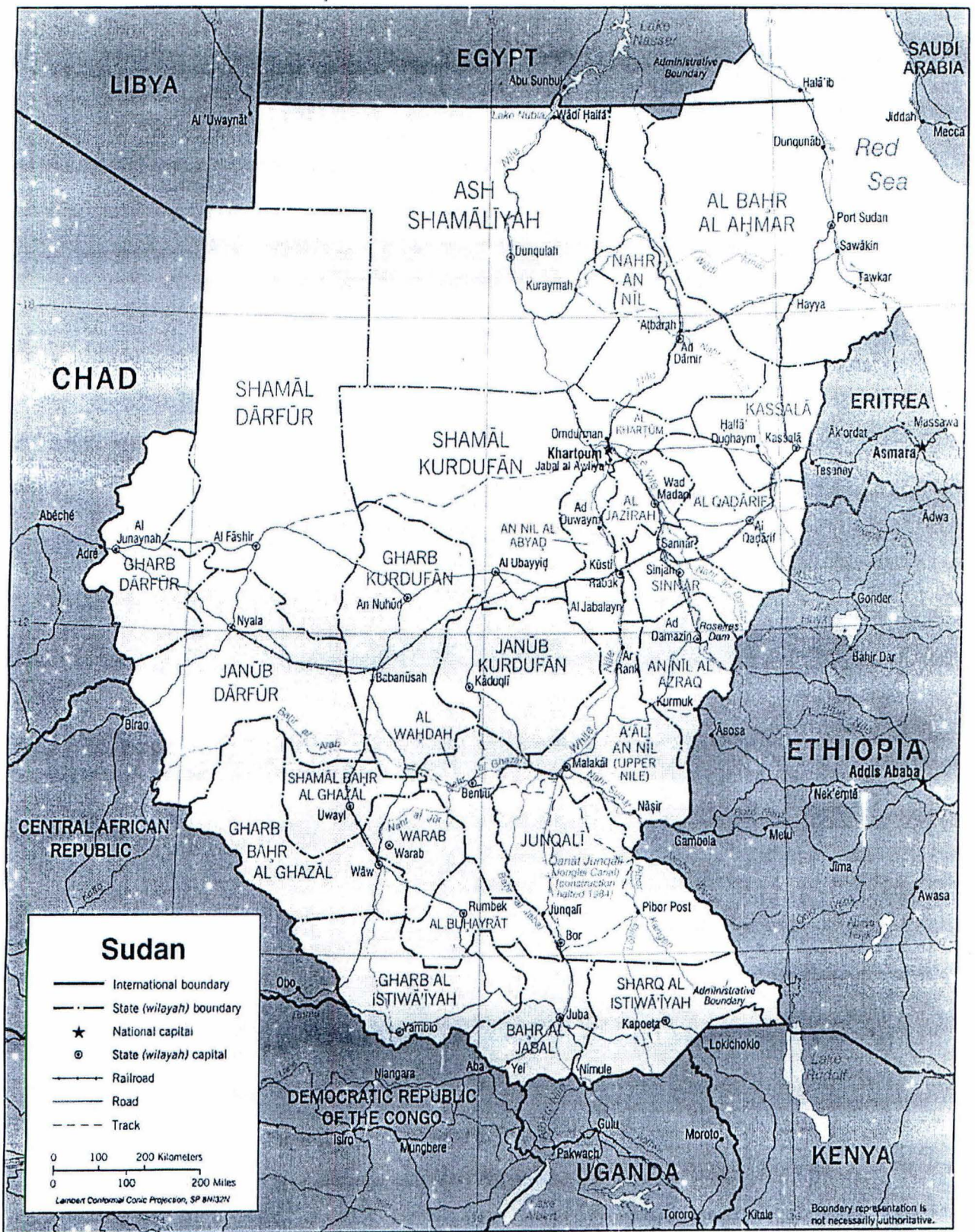
<b>S.NO.</b>	<b>Particulars</b>	<b>Page No.</b>
1.	<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENT</b>	<b>i</b>
2.	<b>CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION</b>	<b>1-14</b>
3.	<b>CHAPTER 2: NATURAL RESOURCES OF AFRICA: GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION</b>	<b>15-36</b>
4.	<b>CHAPTER 3: GEOPOLOTICS OF RESOURCE UTILIZATION IN SUDAN: THE ETHNICITY FACTOR</b>	<b>37-53</b>
5.	<b>CHAPTER 4: ETHNIC DIVIDE IN SUDAN ND ITS IMPACT ON RESOURCE UTILIZATION AND MANAGEMENT</b>	<b>59-76</b>
6.	<b>CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION</b>	<b>77-79</b>
7.	<b>BIBLIOGRAPHY</b>	<b>80-89</b>

## LIST OF TABLES

S.No.	Table No.	Particulars	Page No.
1.	1.1	Unit Wise Population of the Sudan.	10
2.	2.1	Soil Estimation in Africa.	17
3.	2.2	Annual Internal Renewable Water Resources in Africa.	19
4.	2.3	Annual Average Number of Cattle in Africa during 1992-94.	22
5.	2.4	Main Known Reserves of minerals in Africa.	23
6.	2.5	Natural Gas Reserves in Africa in 1993.	25
7.	2.6	Average Annual Freshwater Catch in Africa, 1998-2000.	27
8.	2.7	Annual Percentage Withdrawals of Water Resources in Africa, 1995.	28
9.	2.8	Hydroelectric [Megawatts] in Africa, 1993.	30
10.	2.9	Major Producers of Roundwood in Africa in 1999-01.	30
11.	2.10	Africa's World-Ranked Mineral Producers.	31
12.	2.11	Major African Exporters of Forest Products, 1996.	33
13.	2.12	Major Exporters of Mineral, in Africa.	34
14.	3.1	Ethnic composition of population of the Sudan.	38
15.	3.2	Number of Schemes on Irrigated Land, 1955.	54
16.	3.3	Population and Representation 1986.	55
17.	3.4	The National Council for Distribution of Resources	55

## LIST OF DIAGRAMS

<b>S.No.</b>	<b>Diagram No.</b>	<b>Particulars</b>	<b>Page No.</b>
1.	2.1	Land use in Africa.	16
2.	2.2	Area Occupied by each type of Vegetation.	20
3.	2.3	Crude Oil Reserves in Africa.	24
4.	2.4	Known Exploitation Potential of Hydroelectricity Power.	25
5.	2.5	Percentage of Installed Capacity of Hydroelectricity to the total Potentiality.	29



Source: <http://www.rightsmaps.com>



# CHAPTER - I

## INTRODUCTION

This research study is an attempt at explaining the politics of allocation and management of natural resources in a plural society. Pluralism is a state of society in which number of diverse ethnic, racial, religious or social groups maintain an autonomous participation in and development of their traditional culture or special interest within the confines of a common civilization. Discords and conflicts based on ethnicity/ pluralism are frequent themes among geographers<sup>1</sup>. A relatively new issue which has attracted both traditional and non-traditional (radical) geographers is that of development and pluralism. This is probably the most political topic nowadays among political geographers and will most likely prove to be a focus for much research in the coming decades.

Geographers have for long understood the relevance and importance of the theme of pluralism. Pluralism is not a new topic within the field of geography. Geography is, by its very nature, a plural discipline, interfacing with the social and natural sciences and the humanities. Thus, political geography, as a branch of geography is a natural location for the study of those aspects of plural societies which have both a geographic or spatial element and a political cause or effect<sup>2</sup>.

Cleavages which characterize conflictive pluralism are based on social class, language, religion, race or ethnic groups and represent, perhaps, the most widely studied area of pluralism. Ethnicity is the most prominent factor in conflictive pluralism. Political geographers recently have turned to conflictive pluralism<sup>3</sup>.

Unity and diversity, continuity and change, these paired constructs may appear to be contradictory, but collectively they epitomize the essence of modern African

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<sup>1</sup> Nurit Kliot and Stanley Waterman (ed.), *Pluralism and Political Geography: People, Territory and State*, London: Croom Helm, 1983, pp.1-2.

<sup>2</sup> Ibid. p. 312.

<sup>3</sup> Ibid. p. 6.

society. Africa has a rich diversity of cultures that is further compounded by religious, class, and gender differences within each society.

During the 1960's the term pluralism was widely used in African nations. African peoples may be subdivided into several broad groups, defined according to their primary economic activity (e.g., hunter-gatherers, farmers, and pastoralists), language family, or another criterion. Political conflicts with ethnic dimensions have always received considerable attention in the Western media. The 1996 riots and the subsequent civil war in Nigeria, the recurrent Hutu-Tutsi conflicts in Rwanda and Burundi, and political disputes in Uganda under Idi Amin are typical examples of crises<sup>4</sup>.

The Sudan is a plural society having so many ethnic and tribal groups. Conflicts are still continued in Sudan since its independence (1956). Every year approximately thousands of human resources are either massacred or forced to the refugee camps. Allocation, utilization and management of natural resources in Sudan, is ethnically motivated, is the central theme of this research. This theme considers some other aspects also, that the Sudan is an Arab nation; Arabs dominated an economically and politically viable position; other ethnic groups have been avoided by Sudan's government; the problem of southern Sudan is ethno-economical; the current crisis in Darfur is ethnical.

## **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

### **Resources**

The dictionary defines resources as 'a means of support' – support that is, for the animal life of our sphere and in particular, support for man<sup>5</sup>. The first and most obvious of these is a set of natural conditions with which our planet in its various parts is endowed – rocks, minerals, soils, water, vegetation and wild life. The list is never fixed because human assessment of what constitutes a resource is

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<sup>4</sup> Robert Stock, *Africa South of the Sahara. A Geographical Interpretation*, New York: the Guilford Press, 1995, pp. 42, 44, 55.

<sup>5</sup> J. H. Paterson, *Land Work and Resources: An Introduction to Economic Geography*, New Delhi: Arnold-Heinemann, 1976, p.1.

constantly changing; but these supply some want or deficiency; a stock or reserve upon which one can draw when necessary. Every thing of the environment is 'capable of serving man's needs'<sup>6</sup>.

This term is often taken to be synonymous with natural resource, but it can be extended to embrace human resources such as the manual skills, the innovative ability or the entrepreneurial talents of a population, because natural resources are given utility by the capabilities and wants of men.

### **Ethnic Group**

Ethnic group is a collection of people who share common history, customs, and identity as well as, in most cases, language and religion, and who see themselves as a distinct unit. It thus constitutes an identity for members and forms a basis for social action<sup>7</sup>.

The term also often implies that the group constitutes a minority element in same larger population. In many instances, the distinctiveness of an ethnic group is reinforced by other secondary characteristics, such as their general social status, occupations, affluence or poverty, and their residential concentrations in particular areas. The acquisition of such secondary traits tends to inhibit the assimilation process and to exacerbate concentrations rather than dispersal<sup>8</sup>.

### **Ethnicity**

Ethnicity is a characteristic of social groups that rely upon a shared identity, whether this is perceived or real, based on common cultural, religious, or traditional factors<sup>9</sup>.

Ethnicity and ethnic group, it would seem, rest on the cultural differentiation of individuals and on the creation of social bonds between those

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<sup>6</sup> Zimmerman, E. W., *World Resources and Industries*, New York: Harpen, 1933, p.1.

<sup>7</sup> Tony Lawson & Joan Garrod (Ed.), *Dictionary of Sociology*, London: Fitzary Dearborn Pub, 2001, p. 84.

<sup>8</sup> Michael Witherick, Simon Rass, John Small (ed.), *A modern Dictionary & Geography*, London: Oxford University Press, 2001, p. 90.

<sup>9</sup> William Outhwaite, Fom Bottamore, *The Blackwell Dictionary of: Twentieth Century Social Thought*, Oxford: Blackwell, 1993, pp.-205-206.

who share a common culture. In practice, however, ethnicity becomes involved in and is apparent through the interaction of races, of classes, of status groups and estates. Not surprisingly, therefore, when attempts have been made to define ethnicity reference has been made not to the characteristics of ethnicity in itself but to the structural differentiation and grouping within which ethnicity is expressed<sup>10</sup>.

### **Spatial relationship between Geography, Resources and Ethnic Composition**

Geography and availability of resources in any region play a dominant controlling role on ethnic group, because it is the spatial geographical phenomena that develop them in distinct groups, and if there were plenty of resources they would not have been struggled. The republic of Sudan has more than 45 ethnic groups. The immigrants [the Christians in the fifth century and the Arabs in the eighth century]<sup>11</sup> have continuously pushed the native people of Sudan since long history southward, had created complexity in Sudanese ethnic demography. Each incoming group was ethnically different from the previously existing peoples, thus it tried either to occupy them with full control over their resources or to mix with them.

Politics, arises when people try to get his interest or national interest. Scarce natural resources or natural and cultural resources lead to conflicts in interest. To resolve these conflicts power is necessary. The power can be found in any form. If the people organized themselves on the basis of ethnicity, ethnic politics takes place. This is worsened when one ethnic group occupied the political control over others, as Arabs dominated the Sudan since 1956<sup>12</sup>. The other groups blamed that the powerful Arab group is trying to control over their resources; is trying to suppress their self-consciousness to territory. On the other hand ruling

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<sup>10</sup> Ibid.

<sup>11</sup> John Obert Voll and Sarah Potts Voll [ed], *The Sudan: Unity and Diversity in a Multicultural State*, London : Westview Press, 1985, P.30.

<sup>12</sup> *The Review of African Political Economy*, vol. 30, no. 97, Sept. 2003, p. 512.

group disproved it. It is a very complex situation when one blames and other disproves.

Groups that use ethnicity for getting their demands in the political environment to ameliorate their status, in their economic welfare, in their civil rights, or in their educational opportunities are engaged in a form of ethnic group politics, which became prominent in the Sudan. However, some ethnic groups in other contexts go further and demand that corporate rights be conceded to the group as a whole, that they be given not just individual educational opportunities on the same basis as others, but that they be given control over the public system of education in their areas of concentration so that they can teach the history, language, and culture of their group to their own children. They demand a major say for the group in the political system as a whole or control over a piece of territory within the country, or they demand sovereignty. As in Sudan the SPLM/A is demanding a country of their own with full sovereignty<sup>13</sup>.

Ethnically originated demands initially emphasize about a single central symbol, just as, territory, religion, language or colour. In the movement to create greater internal cohesion and to press more effectively ethnic demands against rival groups, ethnic and nationalist elites increasingly stress the variety of ways in which the numbers of the groups are similar to each other and collectively different from others.

This effort, however, creates its own problems because the selection of additional symbols inevitably involves either the loss of potential adherents or the need to persuade or coerce group members to change their language, religion, behaviour, or dress. It also may lead nationalist leaders into expansionist military adventures and conflicts with other states when the drive to achieve multi-symbol congruence involves irredentist claims. More often than not, ethnic groups that come into conflict in multiethnic societies reach accommodations with each other. State authorities also usually find that it is politically wiser to recognize and

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<sup>13</sup> Paul R. Brass, *Ethnicity and Nationalism: Theory and Comparison*, New Delhi: Sage Publications, 1991, p. 20.

tolerate some forms of cultural diversity rather than impose a total uniformity for forcible means<sup>14</sup>.

Transformation for the development of ethnic groups includes the articulation and acquisition of economic, political and social status for the whole group and for the members, even single member, of the group. Demands can target to educational, modest civil and political rights or opportunities for the members of the group, but depending on the needs and demands of the group, its size and distribution, its relations with other groups and the political context.

Inter-ethnic conflict may occur when the dominant external group attempts to impose its religion or permits proselytizing activities among an indigenous population. In that case, the localities will naturally move quickly to defend their interests in promoting ethnic consciousness by attempting to arouse their fellows in defense of the native religious systems<sup>15</sup>. Such competitive proselytisation has, of course, been endemic for centuries in Sudan, among the Arabs, the Christians, and the native peoples<sup>16</sup>.

In Sudan, the north-south distinction and the hostility between the two religions were granted in religion conflicts as well as a conflict between peoples of differing culture and language. The language and culture of the north were based on Arabic and the Islamic faith, whereas the south and its own diverse, mostly non-Arabic languages and cultures. It was faith with few exceptions non-Muslims, and its religious character was indigenous [traditional or Christians]. Several African Roman Catholic Priests figured in Southern leadership, and the churches played a significant role in bringing the south's plight to world attention in the civil war period. Sudan's Muslim Arab rulers thus considered Christian mission activity to be an obstacle to the full Arabisation and Islamization of the South. North-South hostility predates the colonial era. In the 19<sup>th</sup> century and earlier,

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<sup>14</sup> Ibid

<sup>15</sup> Ibid, p. 27.

<sup>16</sup> MacMichael, S. H., *The Sudan*, London: Ernest Benn Ltd., 1954, p. 23.

Arabs saw the south as a source of slaves and considered its people inferior by virtue of their paganism if not their colour.

Moreover, ethnic groups at one time or another competed for more traditional resources contributing to a heritage of hostility toward one another. In the early 1990's one of the main sources of ethnic conflict in the south was the extent to which the Dinka dominated southern politics and controlled the natural resources; allocation of rewards; whether of government posts or of other opportunities.

Inter-ethnic tensions also have occurred in the north, especially in Darfur with the Arab-dominated Khartoum government. The frustrations of budding elite among Fur, the region's largest ethnic group and Fur-Arab competition may account for that disaffection and for Darfur regionalism. After the World War II many educated Fur made a point of mastering Arabic in the hope that they could make their way in the Arab-dominated political, bureaucratic & economic world; they did not succeed in the quest.

### **AREA OF STUDY: THE SUDAN**

Geographically the term Sudan is used to describe a climatic vegetation belt lying between the desert and the higher grass savannas stretching across Africa from the Atlantic Ocean to the Red Sea and the Ethiopian Massif. The term has a literary meaning of the country of the blacks also<sup>17</sup>.

After 57 years of Anglo-Egyptian condominium era, the modern Sudan became an independent country on 1 January 1956.

### **GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES**

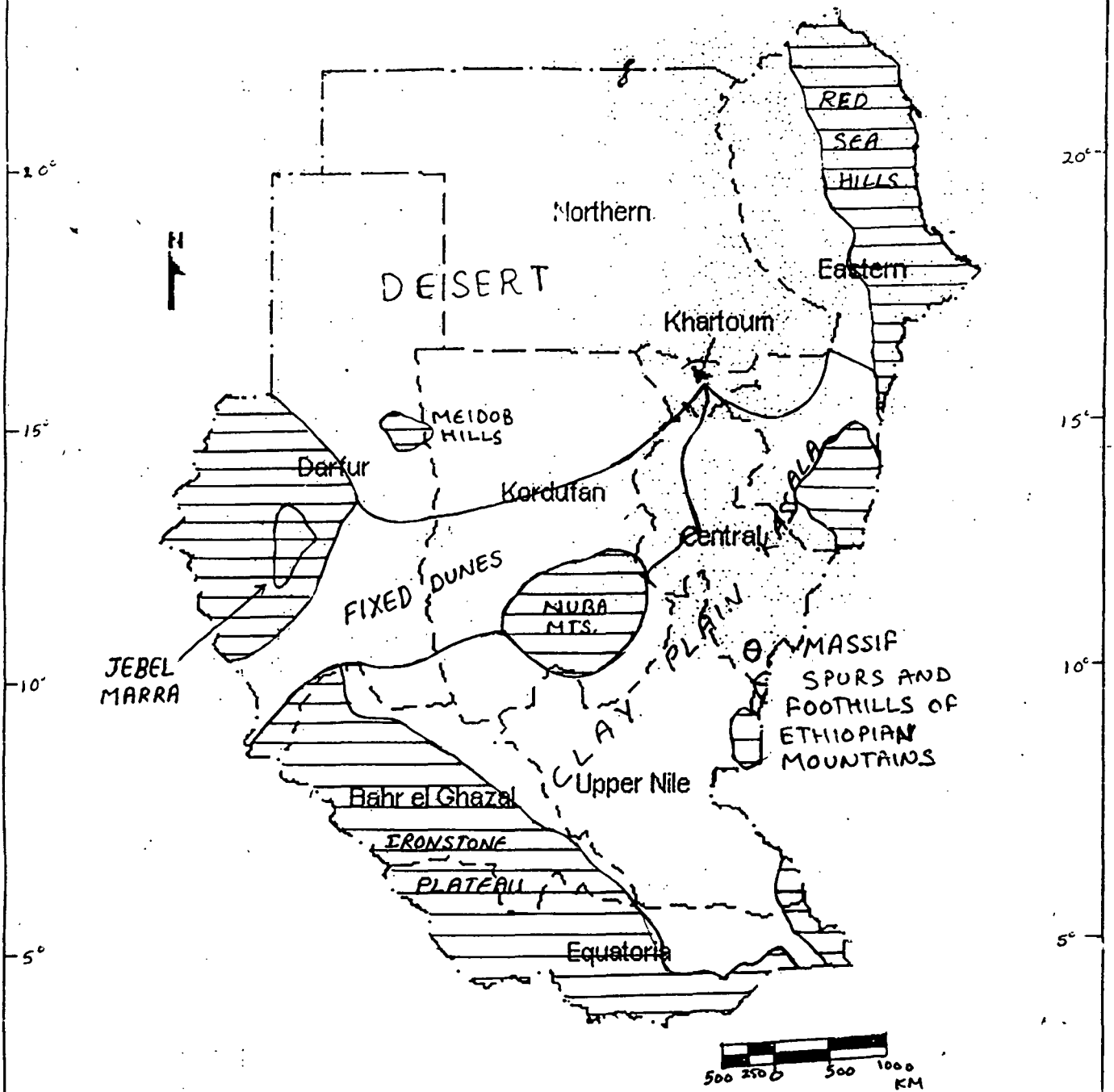
The republic of Sudan is Africa's second largest state having an area of 237,600,000 hectares, after Algeria (238,174, 000 hectares)<sup>18</sup>. The Republic is extending from the northern boundaries of Uganda and Kenya in the South to

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<sup>17</sup> Stamp L. Dudley, *Africa: A Study in Tropical Development*, New York: John Willey and Sons Inc., 1967, p. 331.

<sup>18</sup> *World Resources, A Guide to the Global Environment 1996-97*, New York: Oxford University Press, 1996, p. 216.

# Sudan: Relief Regions



Source: R.J. Harrison Church, John I. Clarke, P.J.H. Clarke, H.S.R. Henderson; *Africa and the Islands*, Longman, p. 178.



Egypt in the north over a range of latitude of about 19½ latitude of (3½ North to 23°North). The southern border shows some adjustment to physiographic conditions, running along divide areas between major drainage lines. To the West lie the Republic of Chad and Central African Republic and to the East lie the Red Sea and Ethiopia from longitude 21¾ °E. The territory also marches for short distances with the Zaire Republic in the South west and with Libya is the north-west. It is 1070 miles (1,722 km) from west east and 1245 miles (2,003 km) from north to south<sup>19</sup>.

### **Topography**

The territory of Sudan presents of fairly simple geomorphologic structure, consisting of a strip of Precambrian crystalline basement rock. Much of the Sudan is composed of a huge clay plain of aggradations surrounded by uplands. The only diversity of relief is provided by a number of inselberges, now in the process of gradual burial under alluvium. The southern part of the plain mostly south of latitude 10°N is swampy.

In the eastern part of the plain lies massif and spurs of the Ethiopian mountains project into the Sudan. To the south of the clay plain is the Ironstone plateau, which is 1500-2500 ft above Sea-level<sup>20</sup>. The central region of Sudan is mountainous, with 'volcanic massif of Jebel Marra (10128 ft[3088 m]) to the west' in Darfur, and the high plateaus of Kordofan at the center, extending to moderate elevations of about 2600-3300 ft [800-1000 m], occasionally reaching to approximately 4500 ft [1300-1400 m] (Jebel ed Dair, 4759 ft [1451 m])<sup>21</sup>. Northern Sudan is desert in which west of the Nile lie the Libyan Desert and east of the Nile lies Nubian Desert. Between these two the Nile flows northwards.

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<sup>19</sup> Dunstan M. Wai (ed.), *The Southern Sudan: the Problem of National Integration*. London: Frank Class, 1973, p.7.

<sup>20</sup> Harrison Church, John I, Clarke, P. J. H. Clarke, H J R Henderson, *Africa and the Islands*, Longman, p. 174.

<sup>21</sup> Sybil P. Parker, *World Geographical Encyclopedia: Vol. 1 Africa*, New York: McGraw Hill, Inc., 1994, pp-74-75.

Along the eastern edge of the Nubian Desert are the rugged Red Sea hills, which rise to over 5,000 feet.

The Sudan may thus be divided into three general climatic regions: the desert area in the north, the semi arid central belt with increasing amounts of rainfall to the South; and the southern tropical rainy region.

In addition, special conditions affect smaller areas. Along the Red Sea coast, high humidity and cool winters give the coastal plains a different climatic character from the rest of the north. Small regions of low mountains such as the Jabal Marra area in the west, the central Nuba Mountains, and the Ethiopian border high lands have distinctive climatic patterns. More significant, economically than the relief regions is the climatic transition from north to south, in particular the gradual increase in the total annual rainfall. It is the amount of rainfall that decides the economic activity and concentration of population in Sudan.

### **Climate**

Sudan has variety of climatic conditions, as it is stretching from north-south almost from the Tropic of cancer to the equator. North of latitude 20°N little or no rain falls and perpetual drought prevails. Southwards, rain falls and is increasingly reliable. Along the Southern boundary with the Congo and Uganda, about 60 inches are received annually. The mean monthly temperature of January rises from 60°F in the north to over 83°F in the south, but in June it declines from over 90°F in the north to about 78°F in the south. Consequently, central Sudan experiences the highest mean annual temperatures<sup>22</sup>.

### **Flora**

The increase in the length of the growing period is the cause of the sequence of vegetation types encountered from north to south across the Sudan. Desert in the north gives way gradually to semi-desert (sub-desert steppe), which is replaced by

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<sup>22</sup> Harrison Church, John I. Clarke, P. J. H. Clarke, H J R Henderson, *Africa and the Islands*, Longman, pp. 176-177

grass steppe first with acacia and short grass and then with acacia and tall grass. Farther south the proportion of semi-deciduous woodland increases to form a belt of woodland – savanna<sup>23</sup>. Highland areas like the Jebel Marra, the Nuba Mountains, the Imatong mountains and Boma plateau in the far south has mountain vegetation.

## The People

Total population of the country in mid 2002 is 32.8 million<sup>24</sup>. The republic has nine administrative units. The population distribution according to these units is shown in table<sup>25</sup> 1.1:

The varied conquests and reconquests of different parts of the Sudan have produced considerable ethnic diversity. Most significant is the cultural divide which occurs approximately along latitude 12°N<sup>26</sup>. The Pagan, Negroid, Sudanese tribes and other socially backward peoples live south of latitude 12°N, peoples largely of mixed Negroid-white descent, Arabic in culture and Moslem in religion found to the North.

**Table 1.1: Unit Wise Population**

<u>Administrative Units</u>	<u>Area Mile Square</u>	<u>Population (1983 census)</u>
Bahr el Ghazal	82,508	22,65,510
Central	54,865	40,12,543
Darfur	1,91,599	30,93,699
Eastern	1,31,493	22,08,259
Equatoria	76,475	14,06,131
Khartoum (Province)	8,095	1,80,22,999
Kordofan	1,46,891	30,93,294
Northern	1,84,151	10,83,024
Upper Nile	91,166	15,99,605

Source: Sybil P. Parker, *World Geographical Encyclopedia: Vol. 1 Africa*, New York: McGraw Hill, Inc., 1994.

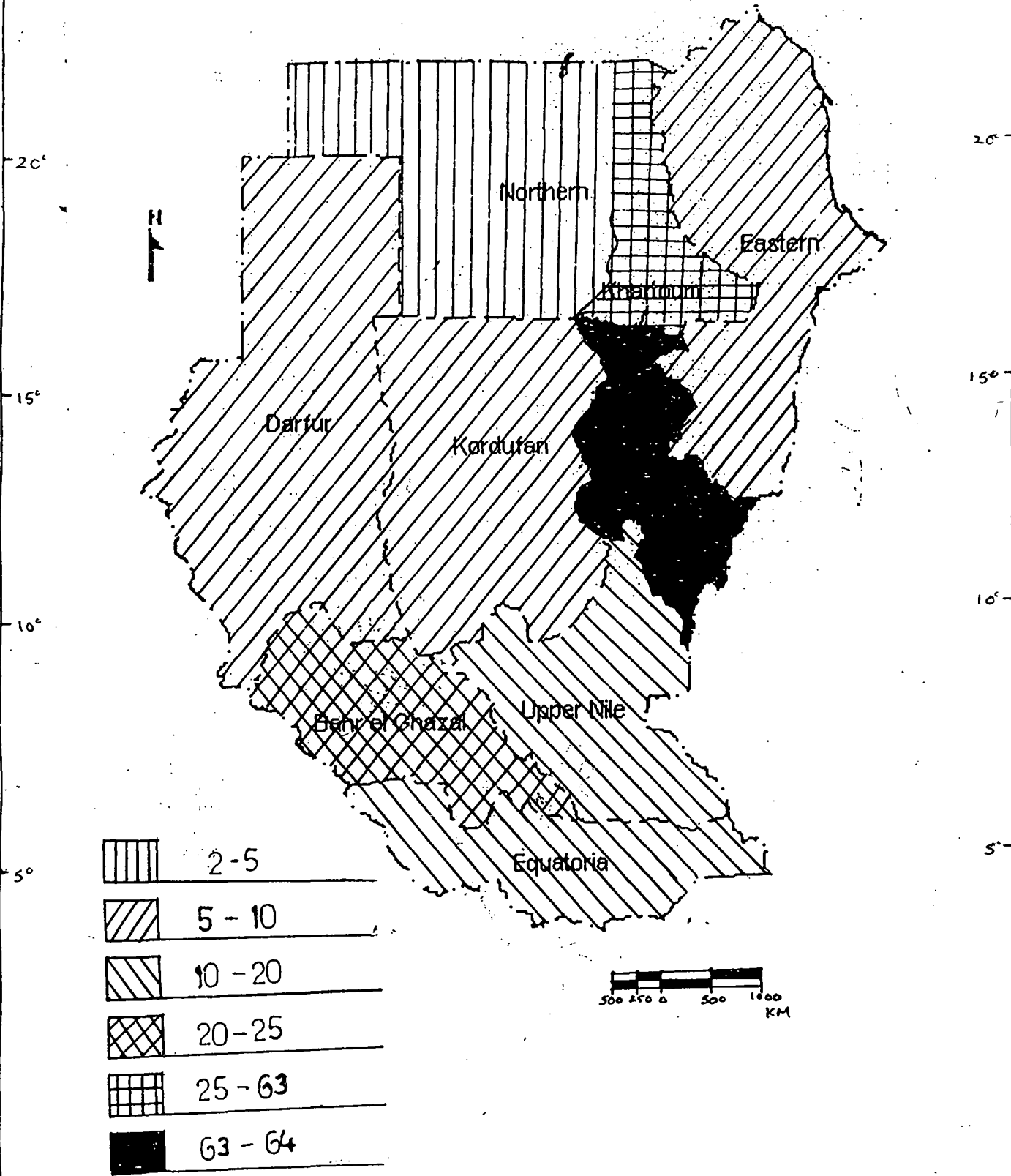
<sup>23</sup> Ibid p. 177

<sup>24</sup> *African Development Indicators 2004*, Washington D.C.: The World Bank 2004. p. 5.

<sup>25</sup> Sybil P. Parker, *World Geographical Encyclopedia: Vol. 1 Africa*, New York: McGraw Hill, Inc., 1994, p.76.

<sup>26</sup> Harrison Church, John I; Clarke, P. J. H. Clarke, H J R Henderson, *Africa and the Islands*, Longman, p. 179

# Population Density of Sudan (inhab./km<sup>2</sup>)



Source: F.A.O. 1997.

25° 30° 35°

Khartoum province is the most populated area; because its site is very rich due to the confluence of both, Blue Nile and White Nile, and it is the capital city of the country<sup>27</sup>.

### **Drainage**

Most of the part of the country is drained particularly by the River Nile [White and Blue Nile] along with its tributaries.

Bahr-al-Arab, Bahr-al-Ghazal are the main tributaries of White Nile from west in the upper course in Southern Sudan, on the other side Kagen and Mahr Subat are the tributaries from east. The upper course of the White Nile is swampy area with many islands.

Blue Nile enters in central province from Ethiopian border. At Khartoum both rivers make their confluence. Atbara River enters in Eastern province north of Khartoum and debauches its water at Atbara in Nile. Nile river system provides good water transportation in Sudan. In rainy season in Southern Sudan the Nile River is the important mode of transportation except the Air transportation. The north-west part of the country is devoid of any big river except, rainy seasons.

### **Land use regions**

There are five land use regions in Sudan. These are:-

#### ***Northern Desert***

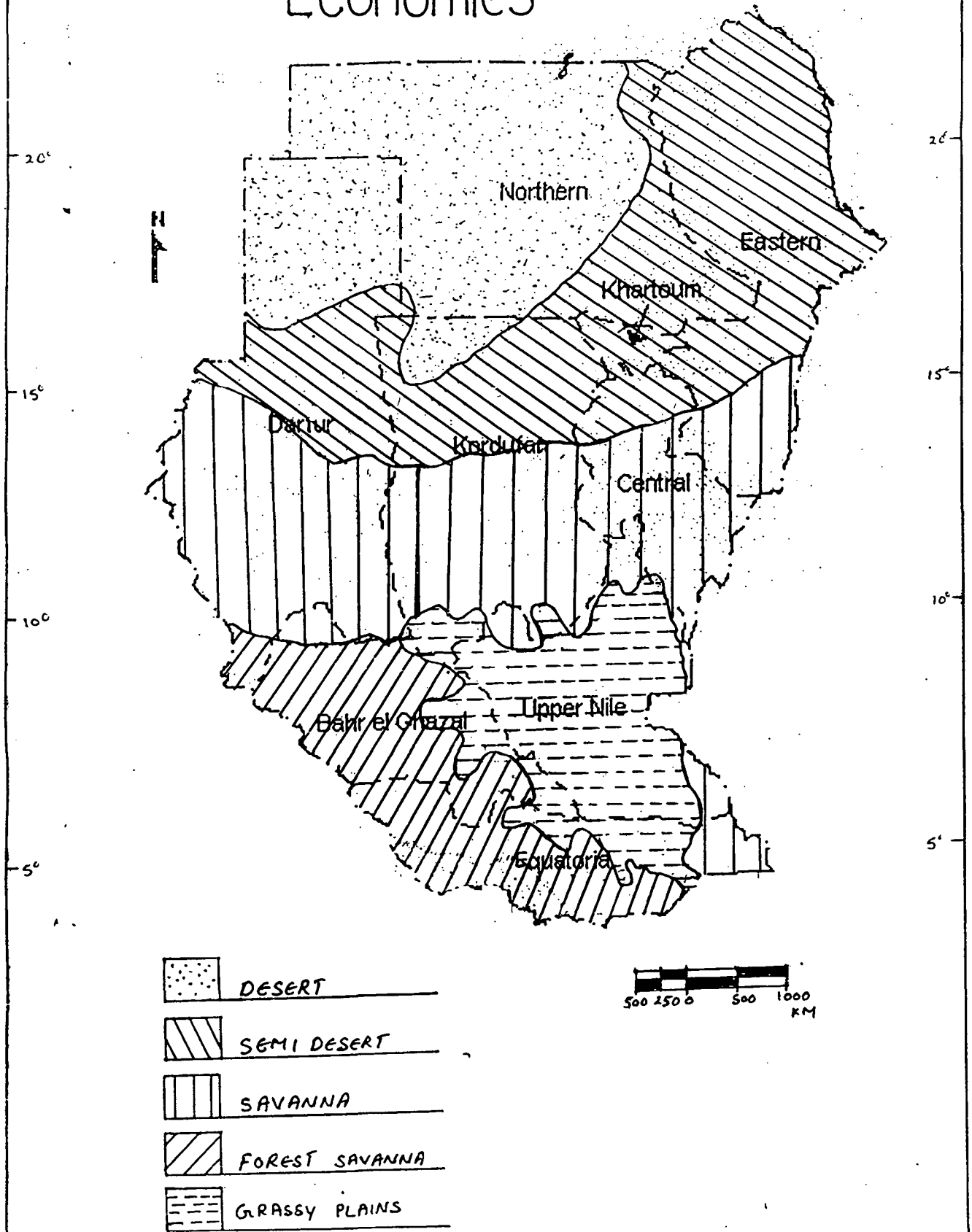
The Northern part of the Sudan is desert, which comprises about 30% of the total geographical area of the country and which again is stretching mostly in Northern Darfur and the Northern Kassala provinces<sup>28</sup>. In the north-south extension, this region of expanded sand dunes with few Oases, is extending from north of Khartoum to the Egyptian border. Here the river Nile flows in S-shaped valley

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<sup>27</sup> Sybil P. Parker, *World Geographical Encyclopedia: Vol. 1 Africa*, New York: McGraw Hill, Inc., 1994, p. 76.

<sup>28</sup> William A. Hance, *The Geography of Modern Africa*, New York: Columbia University Press, 1964, p. 143.

# Sudan: Natural Environments & Economies



Source : Alen C.G. Best , Harm J. De Blij , *African Survey* , New York ;  
 John Wiley & Sons , 1977 . p 509.

providing water for irrigation to the narrow ribbons of land stretching continuously along with both of the banks.

Basin irrigation, diesel powered pumps schemes are the main irrigation schemes. Along these ribbons population density is comparatively high and most of the people speak Arabic and reside in permanent settlements<sup>29</sup>. Away from the Nile valley in East and West directions the population is very sparse with nomadic pastoralism as their main occupation. The Berbers in the west of Nile valley (in Libyan Desert) and the Beja in the East (in Nubian Desert) are main pastoral tribes having camels, sheep and goat in their possession. Here, like the scarcity of population, availability of fodder is also scarce, that forced these natives to adopt pastoralism as their main occupation<sup>30</sup>.

Date palm is the main tree resource in this region, which is gathered and sold to the nearest market towns. Due to harsh climatic conditions and unavailability of other resources poverty and starvation prevails in this desert except the years when the Nile is flooded in drier areas.

South of the extreme desert around the 14° to 15° north latitude the precipitation is increased from 4 inches to 14 inches yearly and the nomadic culture is shifted to semi-nomads, with their self-sufficient economy. This compromises northern part of Kordofan, central part of Darfur, southern part of Kassala provinces. Here the number of people increases towards the south and vegetation is more abundant. These semi-nomads people follow a pattern of seasonal migration, toward the north during the rains and to south in winter.

### ***Central Part***

Parallel to the semi-desert belt, between latitude of 10° to 15° north this central part is extending in southern Darfur, Kordofan, Blue Nile province and Southern Kassala provinces<sup>31</sup>. The whole region is mainly plain except Nuba mountains in

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<sup>29</sup> Ibid p.143.

<sup>30</sup> Harrison Church, John I, Clarke, P. J. H. Clarke, H J R Henderson, *Africa and the Islands*, Longman, p. 176.

<sup>31</sup> Jarrett H. R., *Africa* London: Macdonald & Evans Ltd., 1974, p. 223.

Nuba province and Jebel Marra mountains in Darfur province that is somewhat rugged with low residual hills.

This region receives 14 to 30 inches of annual rainfall. There is no wide spread flooding due to short rainy season. Scarcity of water made agriculture a subsidiary to pastoral. Baggara Arabs and Fur Arabs are the main pastoral tribes possessing sheep, goat and camels. These tribes use the trunk of Baobab tree as small reservoirs of water<sup>32</sup>.

Permanent settlement and cultivation is found where deep and permanent wells are digged. Millet, seasons, groundnuts are major crops of this region. Where sufficient water is available for irrigation, cotton is the major commercial crop. Gum Arabic is obtained from acacia tree that employs many people in gathering activities. Sudan is the major producer of gum Arabic in the world<sup>33</sup>.

### ***Southern Clay Plain***

This region lies between the upper course of White Nile and Blue Nile. It is a shallow basin between these two rivers where upper White Nile makes meanders. Relief gradient in this area is very slow, thus south of 10° North latitude it becomes marshy in rainy season that is called EL Sudd<sup>34</sup>.

Fishing is the main occupation and food for population in rain season. This region is occupied by Nilotes cattle keeping peoples like Shilluk, Dinka. In agriculture millet beams and tobacco are the major crops.

There is a seasonal migration pattern of population in this area. In the flooding season of June to October people seeks high areas and in December to May when the water recedes people come back down to river waters. So permanent villages are found on higher grounds that lie on the ridges in river basin. Communication becomes difficult during flood.

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<sup>32</sup> Ibid

<sup>33</sup> *Africa south of Sahara* 2005. p. 1102.

<sup>34</sup> Stamp L. Dudley, *Africa: A Study in Tropical Development*, New York: John Willey and Sons Inc., 1967, pp. 337-338.



### ***Southern High Ground***

The south-west and south part of the Sudan is a high land with Iron stone plateau [1500-2500ft above from mean sea level]. This area lies along the Nile and Congo River divide. Numerous small streams along with White Nile flow down from this region<sup>35</sup>.

This is the region of Negroid people [Azande] that are sparsely, populated. Slavery from ancient time, high relief, harsh climatic conditions, and ethnic war from a long time may be the causes of sparse population.

Villages are scattered here and there in rainforest. Subsistence shifting cultivation is the dominant occupation. Though some Negroid people rear animals, yet it is not so easy because of tsetse fly. Millet, cassava and vegetables are main agricultural crops. In the areas of Azande scheme cotton, sugarcane and palm oil are the major commercial crops.

### ***Red Sea Hills***

Along the eastern edge of the Nubian Desert are the rugged Red Sea Hills, which rise to over 5,000 feet. This area is extending up to sea coast in the east in a strip from north to south up to Eritrea border. The Beja are the main tribal group in this area, who are engaged in pastoralism and some are employees in mining and port activities<sup>36</sup>.

Thus considering the geographical-social aspects of the Sudan, the country is a best example for understanding the allocation and management of natural resources in a plural society.

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<sup>35</sup> Harrison Church, John I, Clarke, P. J. H. Clarke, H J R Henderson, *Africa and the Islands*, Longman, p.74.

<sup>36</sup> *Ibid* p. 176.

## CHAPTER – II

### NATURAL RESOURCES OF AFRICA: GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION

Africa has so many natural resources ranging from soil and vegetation to metallic and non-metallic minerals. It is a museum of different type of natural resources though some resources are in small quantity. The availability or the pure reserves of natural resources is not the only parameter of development and welfare of any country. The country has to develop these reserves, utilize these in proper way, and manage these for futuristic point of view. The country has to allocate and distribute these in a proper manner of equity and equality, so that there is no conflict or discards over resources among different group identities or societies of the country.

Natural resources in Africa are not equally distributed, developed and managed. Some countries have great reserves and some have scarcity, but there is a harmony among different nations of Africa in the mutual exchanges of resources. At this stage of scalar hierarchy of political geography, strife among the nation is not found. Africa, except South African Republic up to some extent, is poor in production, management, trade and commerce of natural resources, whatever may the reason be.

All those elements of the earth which are useful or necessary to man can be considered as resources. Hence everything around man's life is a sort of resource because it has some relevancy in human life. So if we take everything as resource than the distributional pattern of resources may become complexed. For better understanding of distribution of natural resources and man's interaction to that pattern, here, in this chapter; only few natural resources [land, soil, vegetation, water, animals, minerals, population] are considered, that are mostly utilized by human being for economic development.

## RESOURCES POTENTIAL AND ESTIMATES

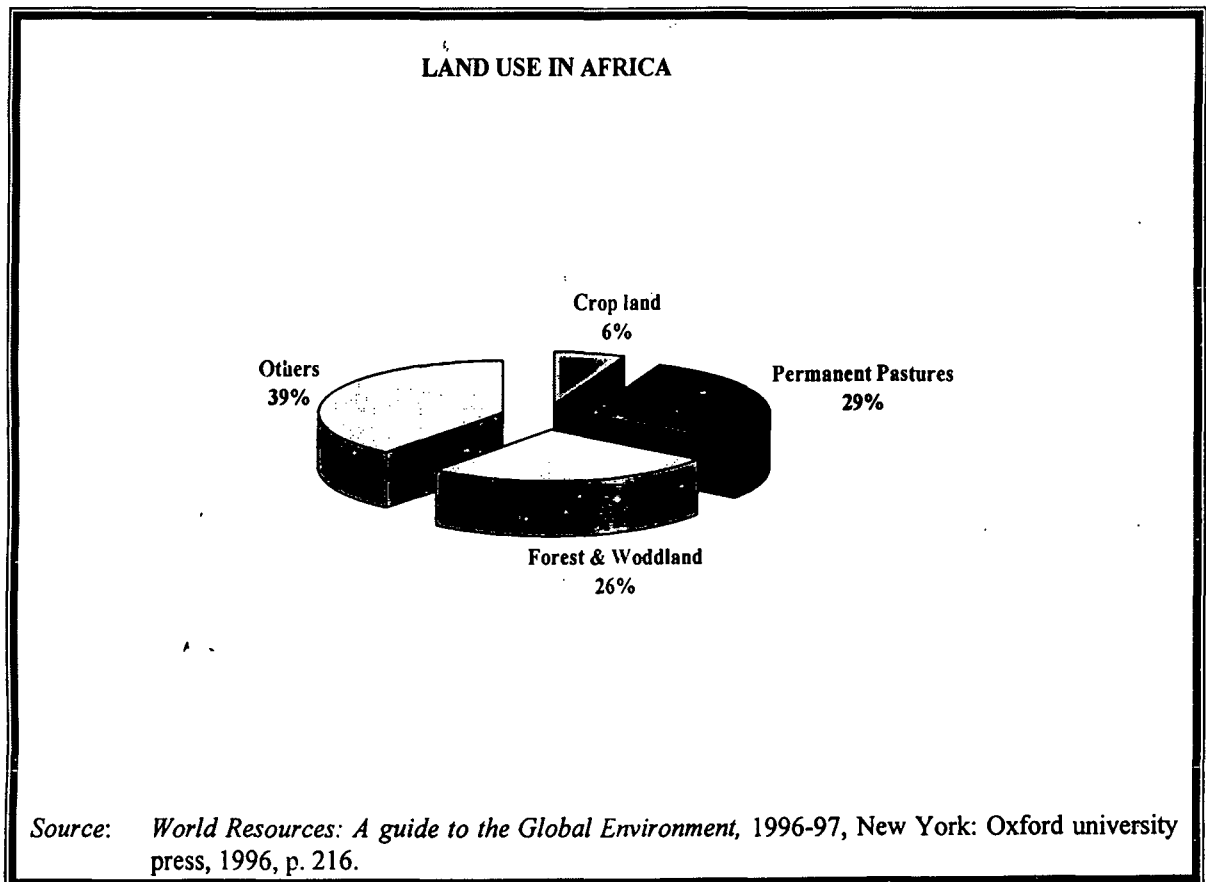
All kind of natural resources are available in African continent, weather they are available in small or large quantity.

### Land Resources

Land area or the surface area is the most important resource, as it is the surface that provides base for everything whether it is the socio-economic activity of mankind.

When we consider the absolute land area, Africa has total land area of 2,963,611[thousand hectares] out of which 35% to land area is domesticated<sup>37</sup>. The total land use of Africa is given in figure 2.1:

**Figure 2.1: Land use in Africa**



<sup>37</sup> *World Resources: A Guide to the Global Environment 1996-97*, New York: Oxford University Press, 1996, p. 216.

Algeria has the largest land area of 238,174,000 hectares in Africa continent followed by the Sudan, Zaire [226,705,000 hectare], Libya [175,954,000 hectare], and Niger (126,670,000 hectare)<sup>38</sup>.

### Soil Resource

There are different types of soils in Africa. The reason may be coined to the different climatic zones found in Africa from north to south and from west to east coast. The soils that are broadly found in Africa are sandy, latosols, alluvial, and chernozems. There estimation is given in table 2.1:

**Table 2.1: Soil Estimation in Africa**

Type of Soil	Percentage of total land
Sandy	50%
Latosols	33%
Others	17%

Source: 1. Walter Fitzgerald, *Africa: A Social, Economic and Political Geography of its Major Regions*, London: Methven & Co. Ltd., 1968, p. 23.  
2. Jarrett H.R., *Africa* London: Macdonald & Evans Ltd. 1974, p. 37.

### *Sandy Soils*

This type of soils is of light colouring, that may be explained by the low humus content in this soil and it's founding in desert and semi desert areas. This is unleached and having a plenty of carbonates.

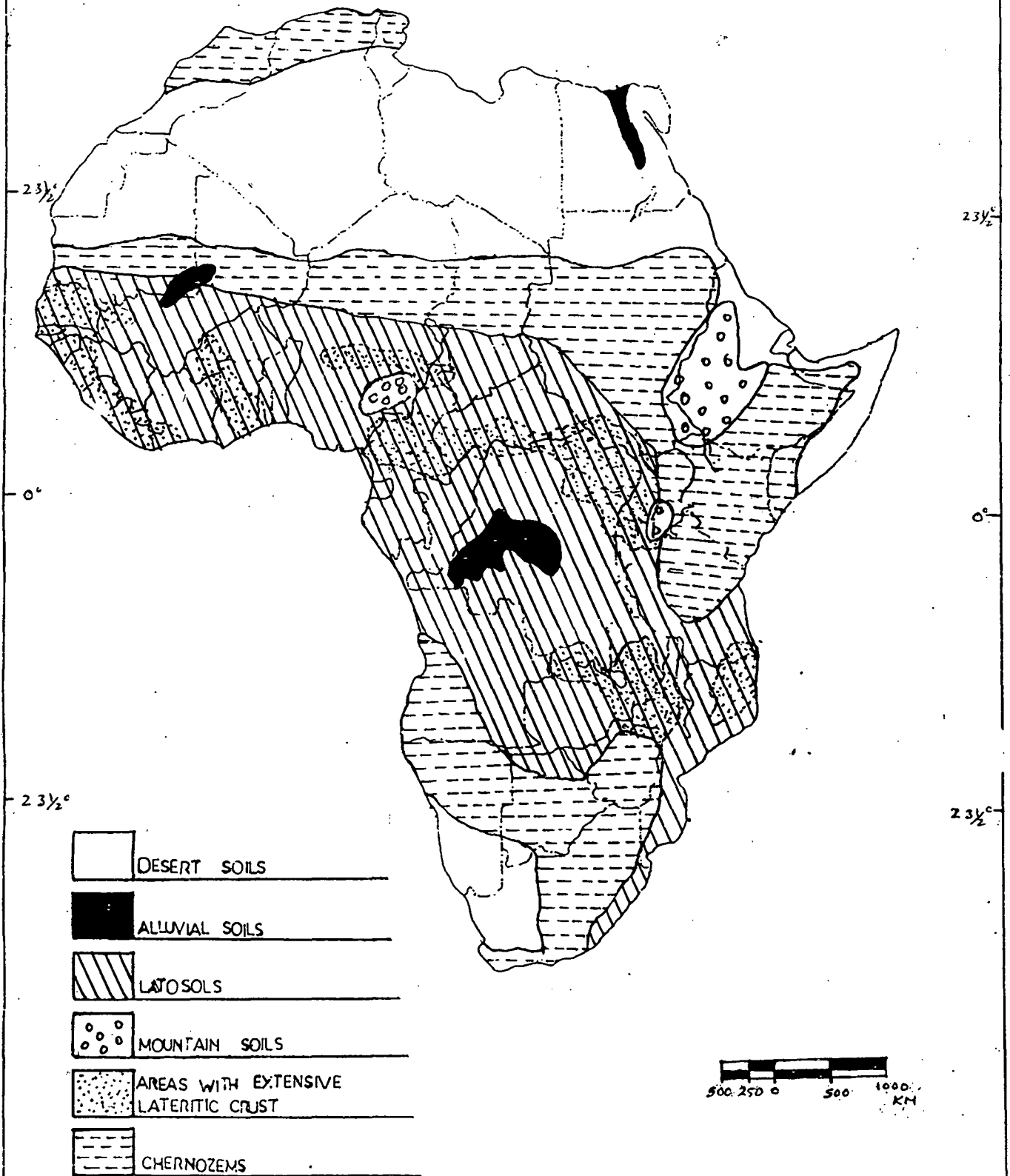
### *Latosols*

These soils are partially or even wholly leached under the prevailing humid conditions, and agriculturally valuable lime carbonate has removed as a result of such leaching. These soils are found in the central zone of Africa from the Southern Sudan to the savanna of Angola, Southern Congo, and Northern Rhodesia.

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<sup>38</sup> Ibid

# Africa Chief Soil Types



Source : Jarrett, H. R.; Africa ; London ; Macdonald & Evans Ltd; 1974 , p. 438

Red loams are commonly found on hill sides within inter-tropical Africa, in very few and small localities of the hill-slope covering of the East African plateau, the Cameroon's highlands and the Natal province.

### *Alluvial Soils*

These are the soils that are deposited by the rivers. They are found in the extensive areas of the Nile, the Congo and the Niger valley. These are the most fertile soils.

### *Chernozem*

Among all of the African soils, chernozems are richest in nitrogen and lime, though the percentage of phosphorus is low, but higher than in most of the other soils of the continent. This type of soil is found in Semi-desert and grassland areas of Africa. Similar soils, occurring in a hilly environment and of grey or brawn color are found in parts of East Africa and in the Transvaal<sup>39</sup>.

### **Water Resources**

The water resources comprise rainfall, lakes and rivers. The annual rainfall of whole of the Africa is 20 c.m.. About one third of Africa receives less than 25 c.m. of rain per annum on an average in which losses from evaporation are extremely high. The annual rainfall varies from over 250 cm. on part of the West African coast, the East coast of Madagascar, and a few mountain areas of South Africa, to virtually nothing in parts of the Sahara and on the coast of South West Africa.

The great north-south trench of the rift valley has many huge lakes like, Lake Tana, Lake Turkana, Lake Victoria, Lake Kyaga, Lake Albert. Edward-kiwu, Lake Tangahyika, Lake Mweru and Lake Malawi.

The other lakes that are but out of fault region are lake Chad in Saharan desert, lake Volta in the lower course of the river Volta in Ghana, large parts of the North-West of the Sahara are known to be underlain by artesian water.

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<sup>39</sup> Walter Fitzgerald, *Africa: A Social Economic and Political Geography of its Major Regions*, London: Methuen & Co Ltd., 1968, p. 25.

It may be said that seven or eight major rivers drain the two-thirds of the surface of Africa; much of the remainder is occupied by island drainage with no outlet to the sea. The important river basins are:-The Nile basin, the Congo basin, the orange basin, the Zambezi basin, the Limpopo basin, and the Chad basin.

When we see the annual internal renewable water resources, a contrasting image of the continent comes to emerge. As is shown in table 2.2:

**Table 2.2: Annual Internal Renewable Water Resources in Africa**

[Top five and least five]

<u>Country</u>	<u>Annual internal renewable water (Cubic km)</u>
Top five	
D.R. Congo	1283
R. Congo	832
Madagascar	337
Nigeria	286
Cameroon	286
Liberia	232
Least Five	
Libya	1
Burundi	4
Tunisia	5
Rwanda	5
Eritrea	6
Somalia	14

Note: D.R. - Democratic of Republic  
R. - Republic

Source: *African development indications, 2004*, Washington D.C.: The World Bank, 2004, p. 347.

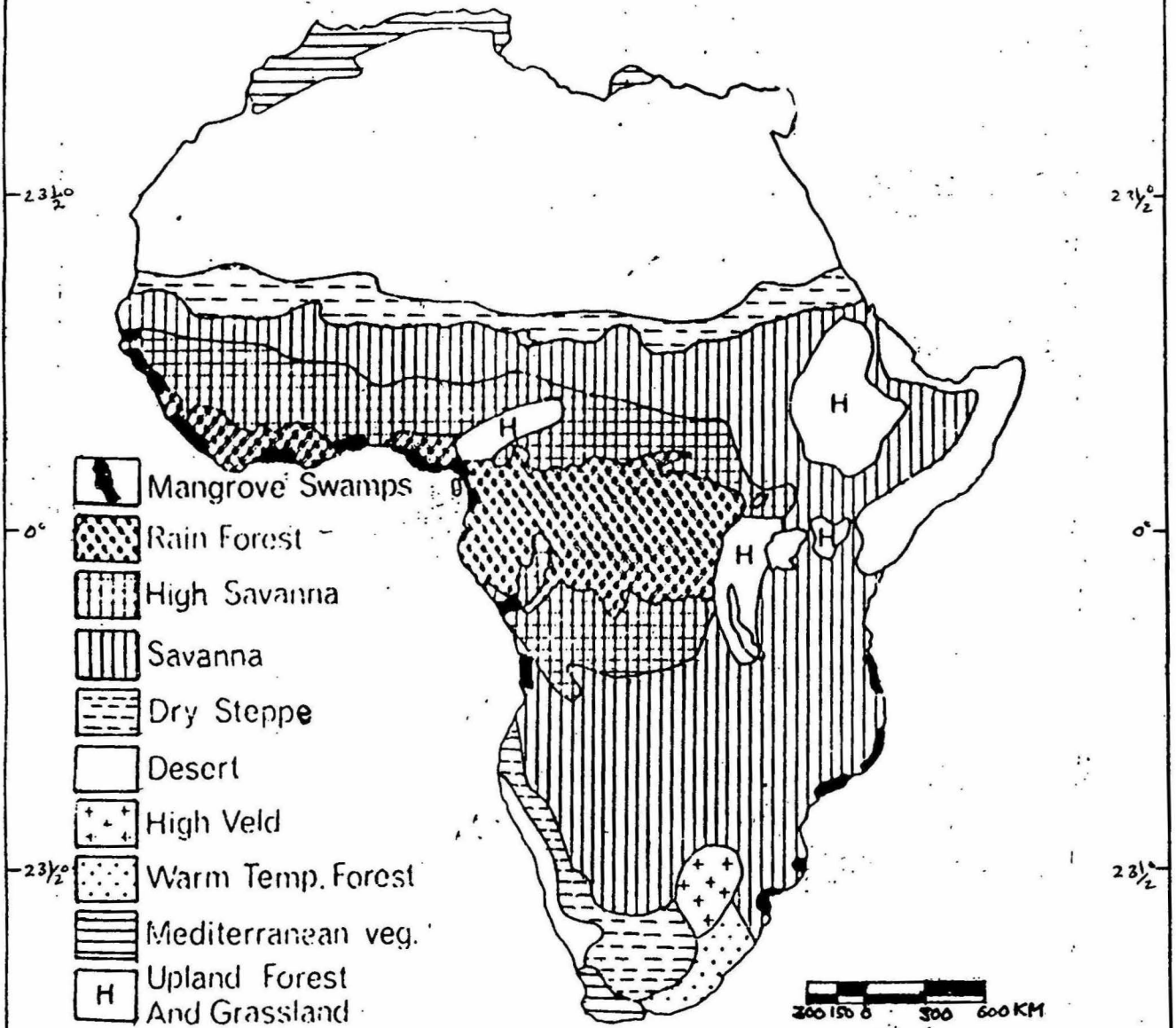
The equatorial countries have more renewable water resources due to high rainfall on the other hand desert areas have fewer amounts. These least countries hence are more dependent on precipitation than their ground water, so they face water scarcity problem almost all the year.

### **Vegetation**

Africa has 17.2 percent of forest area of the world, which exists on the 24% of its total surface area<sup>40</sup>. Africa has different type of vegetation. These include forests

<sup>40</sup> Singh S. Jagdish and Kashinath, *Aarthik Bhoogal Ke Mool Tatwa*, Gorakhpur: Gyandodaya Publication, 2001, p. 73.

# Africa Natural Vegetation

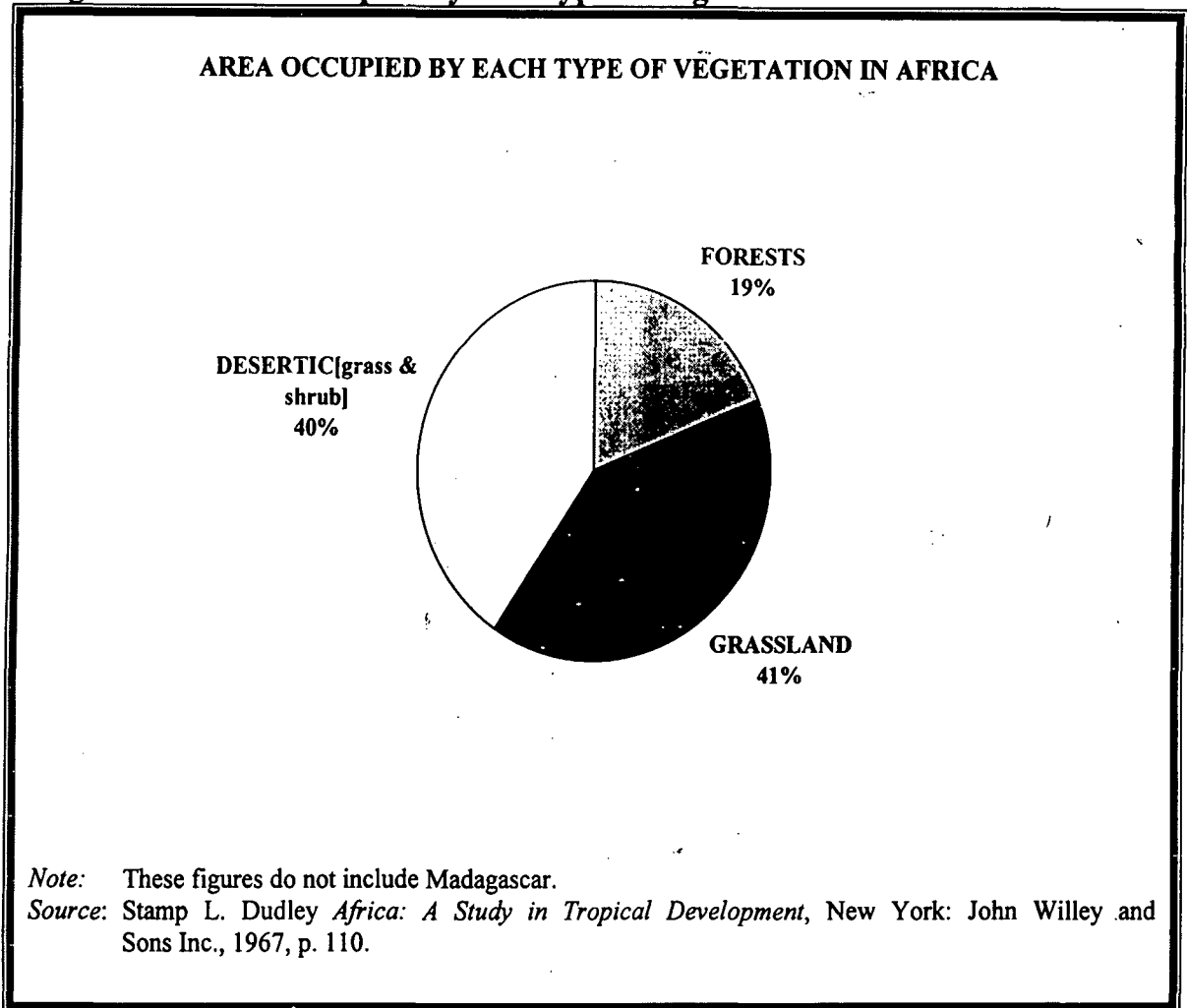


Source : Jarrett H.R. ; Africa , London ; Macdonald & Evans Ltd; 1974, p. 43.



and grasses, Equatorial rain forest; Savanna forests, Dry forests, Mediterranean and swamp forests. As the figure 2.2 indicates:

**Figure 2.2: Area Occupied by each type of Vegetation**



Equatorial rainforests are the densest type of tropical forest. These forests, have large number of tall trees, many of which are as tall as 159 feet [46 m]<sup>41</sup>. Hard woods, including mahogany, oil palm and rubber-bearing plants are the composition of these forests. The rain-forest is of heterogeneous membership from the point of view of species and those are scattered rather than closely grouped.

These are found in those areas having more than 60 or 80 inches of rainfall annually and a consistently high temperature throughout the year. These are

<sup>41</sup> Walter Fitzgerald, *Africa: A Social, Economic and Political Geography of its Major Regions*, London: Methven & Co. Ltd., 1968, p.31

extending in Congo Basin, Belgian Congo, the Guinea region, Niger delta, and a coastal stretch extending from Niger delta to Sierra Leone in West, in the north-western part of Malagasy. This type of forest is absent in the equatorial region of the East African plateau due to lowered temperature, consequential from high altitude<sup>42</sup>.

The Savanna vegetation is extended over about 40% of the total area of the continent<sup>43</sup>. This type of vegetation is composed of coarse, rank grasses reaching 5 to 12 feet in height, with small trees scattered throughout. This type of vegetation is found between the outer reaches of the rainforest and the dry steppe of the desert margins. The transition from Savanna to desert, so far as north Africa is concerned, occurs throughout a belt varying in width from 200 to 300 miles and extending from north of the Senegal River almost to the Red Sea coast of Anglo-Egyptian Sudan<sup>44</sup>.

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The vegetation of the tropical deserts has a distinguishing feature of the scanty vegetation with the very occasional occurrence of acacia and other thorn bush. Except for the scattered baobabs, the trees do not usually exceed 10 or 20 feet in height. Often various species of Acacia are dominant, including the Acacia Arabia.

The Mediterranean type of vegetation is found mainly in Barbary and the cape district of South Africa.

Swamp forests are found along many of the coast of Africa. They consist primarily of trees 25 to 75 feet high, either standing on larger roots. The trees grow essentially between the tide marks on extensive stretches of mud. In many parts of Central and East Africa there are vast swamps where the most important plant is Cyperus. Papyrus Swamps cover vast areas in the upper basin of the White Nile.

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<sup>42</sup> Singh . Jagdish and Kashinath, *Aarthik Bhoogal Ke Mool Tatwa*, Gorakhpur: Gyandodaya Publication, 2001, p. 58

<sup>43</sup> Jarrett H.R., *Africa* London: Macdonald & Evans Ltd., 1974, p.44

<sup>44</sup> Ibid, p. 54.

## Animals

Africa is rich in variety and number of animals. Tropical Africa can probably claim to be richer in wildlife than any other major region on the earth. The animals that are mostly found are – camels, sheep, goats, pigs, ass, monkeys, baboons, zebra, lion, hippopotamus, elephant, and ostrich. Cattle are dominant among all pastoralists like the Galla of Ethiopia, the Baggara Arabs of eastern Sudan, the Fulani and Hottentots, the Masai.

Sudan has the largest annual average number of sheep and goats [38773000] in 1992-94, followed by Nigeria, South Africa and Somalia. Buffaloes and Camels were found in largest annual average in Somalia followed by Egypt and Sudan<sup>45</sup>. The table 2.3 shows the over all annual average number of cattle of leading countries in Africa.

**Table 2.3: Annual Average Number of Cattle in Africa during 1992-94**

Country	Annual average (000)
Sudan	21,650
Ethiopia	19,633
Nigeria	16,244
South Africa	12,720
Kenya	11,333

Source: *World Resources: A Guide to the Global Environment*, 1996-1997, New York: Oxford University Press, 1996, p. 242.

We may conclude that most of the Savanna countries have largest number of cattle due to their climatic conditions that is reflected again in their vegetation cover, fertility of soil and availability of water. The wildlife of Africa is a major tourist attraction. Out of the total land area of Africa continent, 4.9 percent is under protected area<sup>46</sup>.

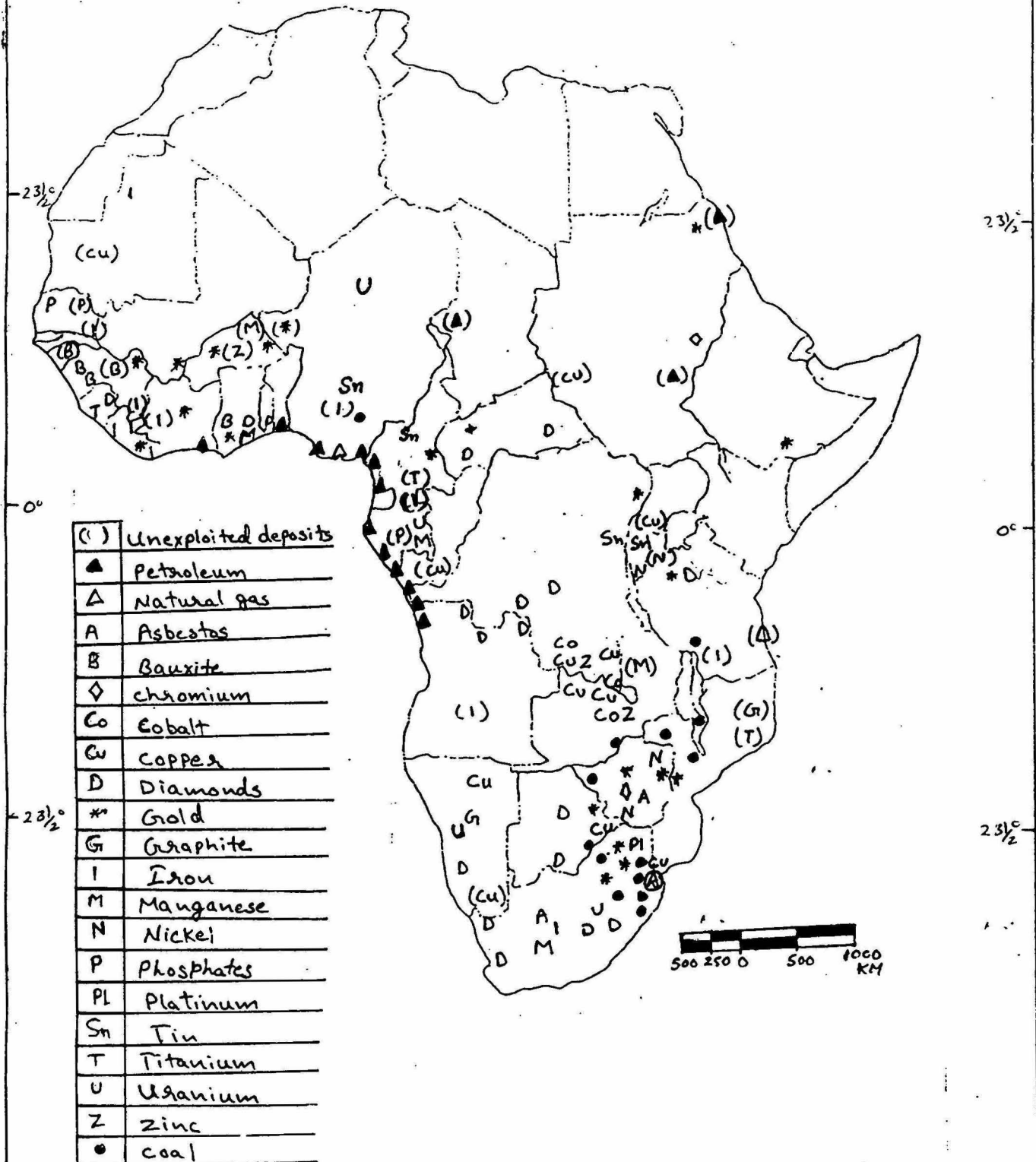
## Minerals

Africa may be concerned as a mineral storehouse as almost all of the minerals are found and new discoveries are constantly being made. For convenience a list is added here of the main known reserves of minerals in Africa, in table 2.4.

<sup>45</sup> *World Resources* 1996-97, p. 242.

<sup>46</sup> *Ibid*, p. 262.

# Africa Minerals



Source : Robert Stock , Africa, South of the Sahara : A Geographical Interpretation , New York ; The Guilford Press , 1995 , p. 282

**Table 2.4: Main Known Reserves of minerals in Africa**

Country	Minerals
Nigeria	Iron ore, phosphates, mineral oil, natural gas
Angola	Iron ore, diamonds
Cameroon	Bauxite
Gabon	Manganese, uranium, iron ore
Ghana	Gold, manganese, diamonds, bauxite
Guinea	Iron ore, bauxite, diamonds
Liberia	Iron ore, diamonds
Madagascar	Mica
Morocco	Phosphates, iron ore, coal, manganese, cobalt, antimony
Nigeria	Mineral oil, tin, coal
Sierra Leone	Iron ore, diamonds, bauxite
South Africa	Gold, uranium, coal, diamonds, iron ore, asbestos, lead, antimony, manganese, mica
Tunisia	Phosphates, iron ore
Zaire	Copper, diamonds, uranium, gold, silver, tin, cobalt, zinc, manganese
Zambia	Copper, cobalt, zinc, lead

Source: Jarrett H.R., *Africa* London: Macdonald & Evans Ltd. 1974, pp. 84-85.

Africa has 14% reserves of world's copper reserves. African copper belt is extending in a belt of 450 km in length and 80 km in width stretching from south of Sahara to Katanga region of Zaire to Gambia<sup>47</sup>. Iron ore areas are found in Maghrib, Egypt, Mauritania, Liberia, Guinea, Sierra-Leone, Angola, Zimbabwe and South Africa. Bomi hills of Liberia is rich in Iron ore, nearly 69% of its area is covered with ore. Another hills of Liberia, the Nimba hills is also rich in Iron ore, having 25 crore tone of Iron ore<sup>48</sup>.

Africa has 37.5% bauxite reserves of the world. Out of which Guinea comprised 31%, Ghana 3.3% and Cameron another 2.8%. Phosphate deposits are found in North-West Africa. Morocco has 15% of world phosphate reserves followed by Tunisia 3%. Africa has 32.9% uranium reserves of the world<sup>49</sup>. Coal reserves in Africa are basically found in South Africa [10.65 million tone in 1990]

<sup>47</sup> Singh . . . Jagdish and Kashinath, *Aarthik Bhoogal Ke Mool Tatwa*, Gorakhpur: Gyandodaya Publication, 2001, pp. 109-110.

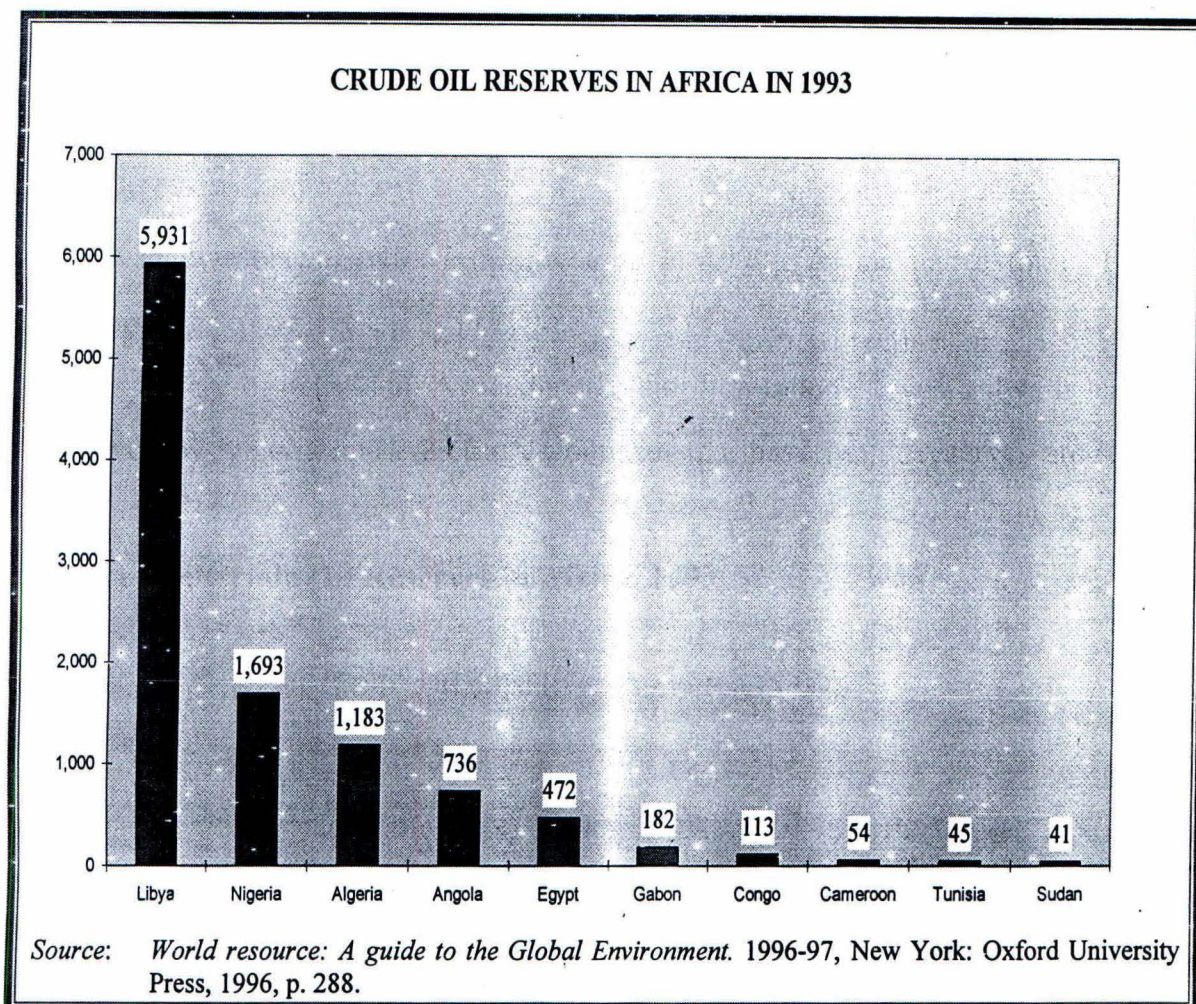
<sup>48</sup> Ibid, p.103.

<sup>49</sup> Ibid, p.152.

followed by Botswana [0.67 million tone in 1990]. Africa had a total of 11.6 million tones of coal reserves in 1990<sup>50</sup>.

In case of petroleum Africa has 6.68 million tone reserves. Libya is leading followed by Nigeria and Algeria<sup>51</sup>. Countries that have major reserves are shown in figure 2.3:

**Figure 2.3: Crude Oil Reserves in Africa, 1993**



In case of natural gas Africa had 10,166 billion cubic meters of proved recoverable reserves in 1993<sup>52</sup>. Table 2.5 shows the countries of major reserves:

<sup>50</sup> Ibid, p.127.

<sup>51</sup> Ibid

<sup>52</sup> *World Resources 1996-97*, p. 288.

**Table 2.5: Natural Gas Reserves in Africa in 1993**

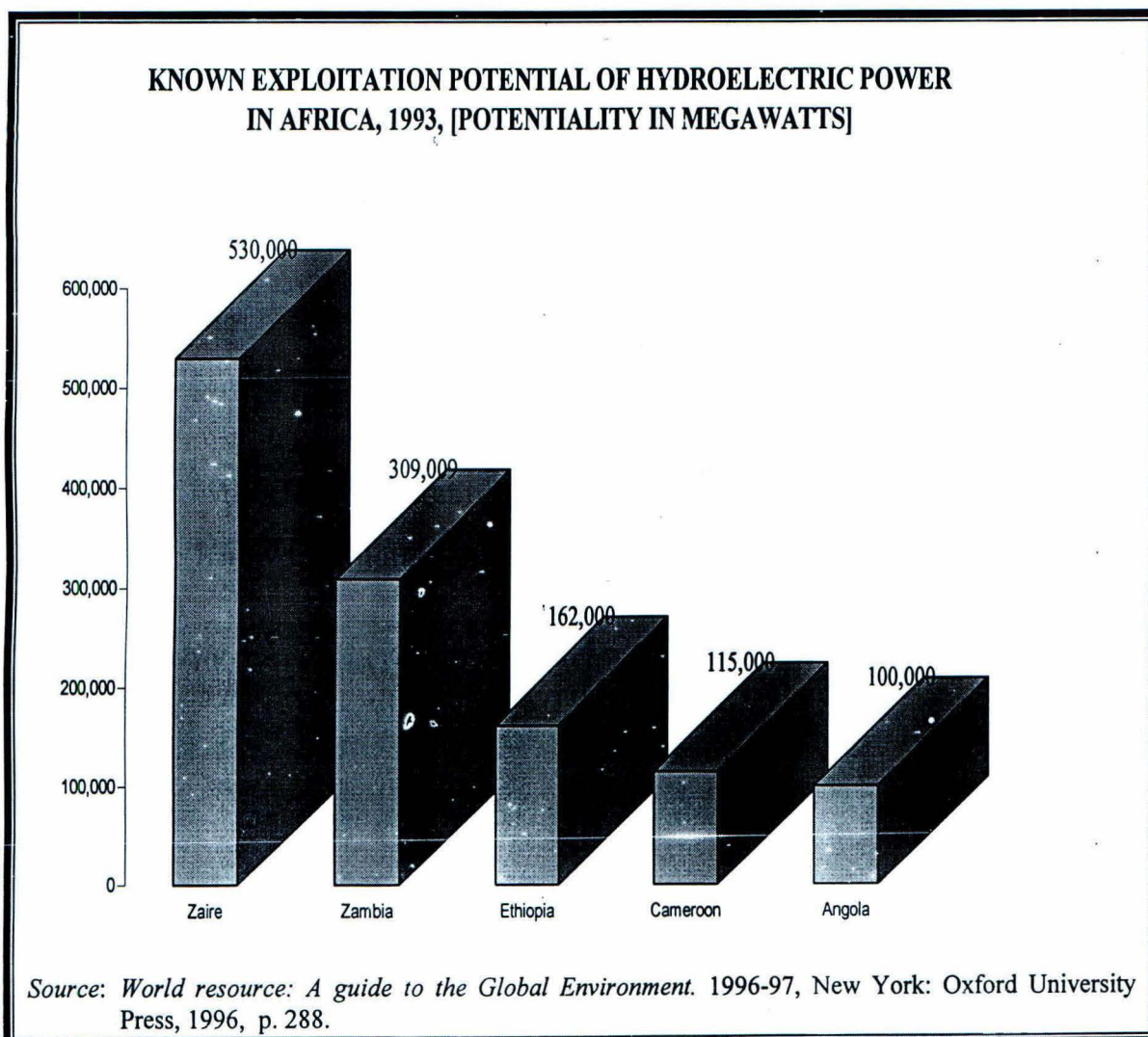
Country	Natural gas reserves in bcm
Algeria	3,700
Nigeria	3,451
Libya	1,296
Egypt	706
Namibia	147
Tanzania	116
Cameroon	110
Tunisia	92
Sudan	86

Note: bcm – billion cubic meters

Source: *World Resources*, 1996-97, p. 288.

The water power resources of Africa are tremendous and are estimated at about 40% of the world's total [275 of 688 million horsepower]<sup>53</sup>. Known exploitable potential of hydroelectric power of top most countries is given in figure 2.4:

**Figure 2.4: Known Exploitation Potential of Hydroelectricity Power**



<sup>53</sup> William A. Hance, *The Geography of Modern Africa*, New York: Columbia University Press, 1964, p. 19.

## Population

Population quantitatively as well as qualitatively is the most important resource, because all other resources are considered resource in relation with human being.

Quantitatively the total population of African continent is 831.9 million in, mid 2002. Niger has largest population [120,911,000] in the continent followed by Egypt, Ethiopia, South Africa, Tanzania, and the Sudan<sup>54</sup>.

## Marine

When we see the marine resources of Africa, the coastal areas, rivers and interior lakes come under consideration. Fish are catches mostly all over the coast but the Mediterranean Sea, Northern Atlantic Ocean, the Gulf of Guinea, South Atlantic and South Indian Ocean are the major areas of catching. Sardine fish is hunting at the south- west coast of Africa.

The whole Africa produces 4.3 % of marine fisheries of the world<sup>55</sup>. In African continent Morocco is the leading country in average annual marine catch (including marine fish and diadromous fish, mollusks, crustacean) having a value of 782 thousand metric tons during 1998-2000. Morocco is followed by South Africa (59 thousand metric tons), Ghana (385 thousand metric tons), Senegal (379 thousand metric tons), Nigeria, Namibia, Angola, and Egypt<sup>56</sup>.

The central part of African continent is rich in freshwater catches. It produces 27.5 % of the world freshwater catches. The whole Africa produces 8 % of the world catches from freshwaters<sup>57</sup>. The average annual freshwater catch including freshwater fish and diadromous fish, mollusks, crustacean is given in table 2.6:

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<sup>54</sup> *African Development Indicators*, 2004, p. 5.

<sup>55</sup> Singh Jagdish and Kashinath, *Aarthik Bhoogal Ke Mool Tatwa*, Gorakhpur: Gyandodaya Publication, 2001, p.77-78.

<sup>56</sup> *African Development Indicators*, 2004, p.348.

<sup>57</sup> Singh Jagdish and Kashinath, *Aarthik Bhoogal Ke Mool Tatwa*, Gorakhpur: Gyandodaya Publication, 2001, p.77-78.



**Table 2.6: Average Annual Freshwater Catch in Africa, 1998-2000**

<u>Country</u>	<u>Average annual freshwater catch (000 metric tons)</u>
Tanzania	280
Uganda	268
Egypt	220
Dem.Rep. of Congo	194
Kenya	192
Nigeria	137
Mali	102

*Source: African Development Indicators. 2004. P.348.*

Tanzania, Uganda the leading countries have so many lakes and mild climate for their high catches. On the other hand the freshwater catches of Egypt come from the river Nile.

## **PRODUCTION AND UTILIZATION OF RESOURCES**

Only the reserves of natural resources do not reveal the development of a country. The country must have capability of utilizing them otherwise reserves are useless. The production and utilization pattern of natural resources in Africa is given below.

### **Land and Soil**

In case of utilization of land and soil resources, Africa is poor, as more than 80 percent land surface is covered by sandy and latosolic soils. Though the sandy soils are less fertile but they are highly fertile where irrigation facility can be provided, as in the Saharan Oasis.

Chernozems are often difficult to work, because they remain sticky and wet during the period of rainfall and become brittle and crack in the dry season, so that the sub-soil moisture is evaporated.

The alluvial soils of Nile valley are more productive than that of other two regions of alluvial soils [the Congo and Niger valleys]. This is partly because the concentration of nutrient minerals as the volcanic rocks of Ethiopia does contain from which the alluvium is derived is not contained in other two regions, and

partly because the processes leading to the formation of latosols [which do not operate in Egypt] are constantly lowering any inherent fertility<sup>58</sup>.

## Water

Africa is not harnessing the full potentiality of its water resource. It is because of more water is available by rainfall and river basins that is again depend on rainfall. Here rainfall fluctuates greatly from year to year. Variations are of tremendous importance for the farmers.

Another problem is that in tropical or equatorial climate most of the available water is in Swampy areas, so that is difficult to be utilized.

When we see the Annual withdrawal percentage of water resources, as is shown in table 2.7, the whole Africa has 4% of value out of its total water resource of 3996 cubic km.

**Table 2.7: Annual Percentage Withdrawals of Water Resources in Africa, 1995 (top 5 countries)**

Country	Percentage of water resource
Libya	767
Egypt	97
Tunisia	78
Morocco	36
Algeria	30

Source: *World resource: A guide to the Global Environment*. 1996-97, New York: Oxford University Press, 1996, p. 306.

Drier countries have a large percentage of annual withdrawals because of their dry climatic conditions. When we see sector wise percentage withdrawals Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Tanzania and Zaire, utilized more than 60% of their water resources in domestic use. On the other hand except Madagascar which as a higher percentage and not a savanna country, most of the savanna countries, like Mali, Somalia, Sudan, Rwanda, and Mauritania utilize more than 92% of their water resource in Agriculture sector<sup>59</sup>.

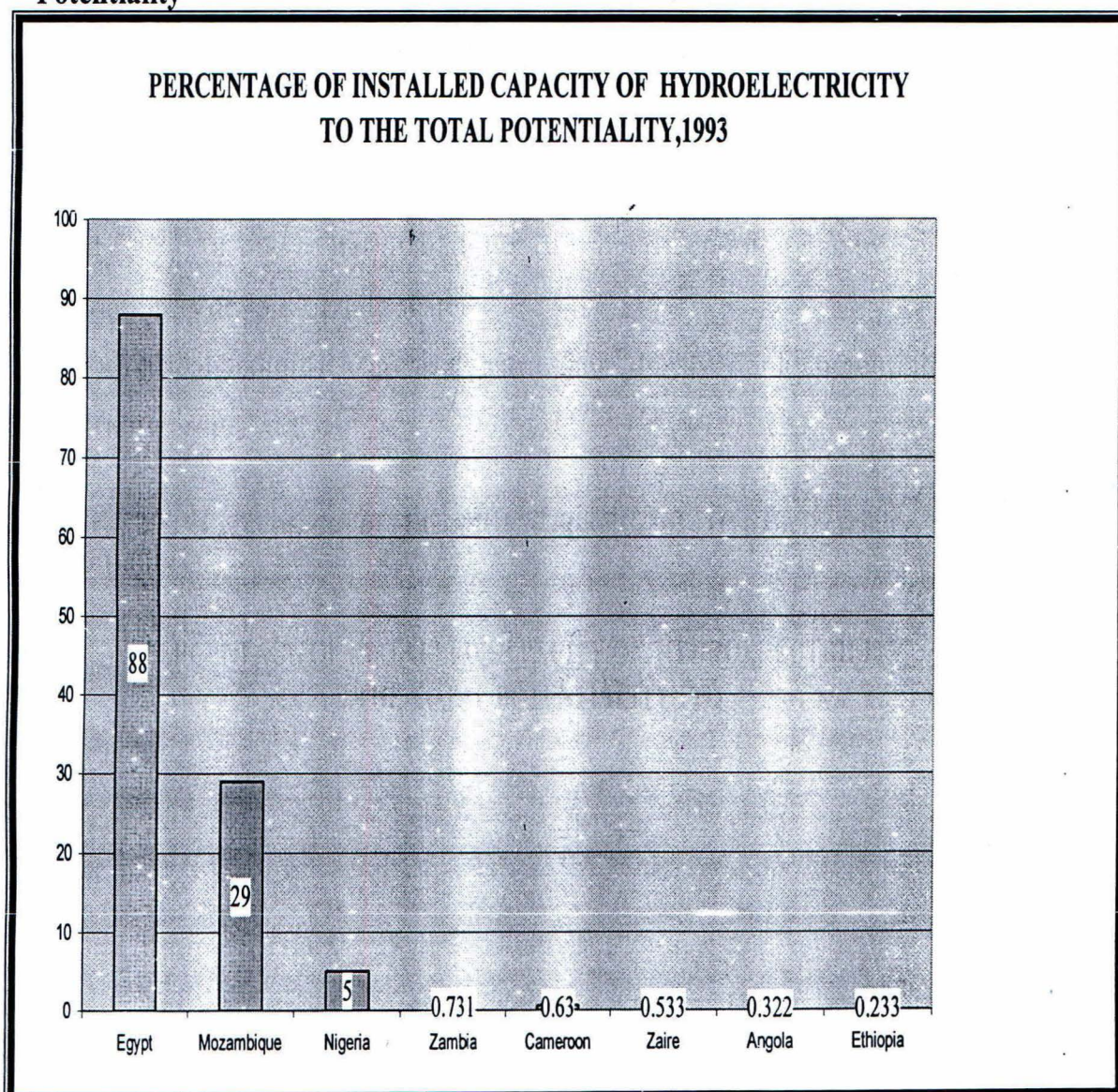
<sup>58</sup> Jarrett H. R., *Africa* London: Macdonald & Evans Ltd. 1974, p. 40.

<sup>59</sup> *World resource: A guide to the Global Environment*. 1996-97, New York: Oxford University Press, 1996, p. 306.

In Africa 64 percent of population is with access to safe water. Egypt has a ratio of 100% population access to safe water. A majority of 35 percent population has not access to safe water. It is due to drier climatic conditions as in Chad (27%) or due to not availability of proper technology as in Congo 45%<sup>60</sup> of population is devoid of safe water.

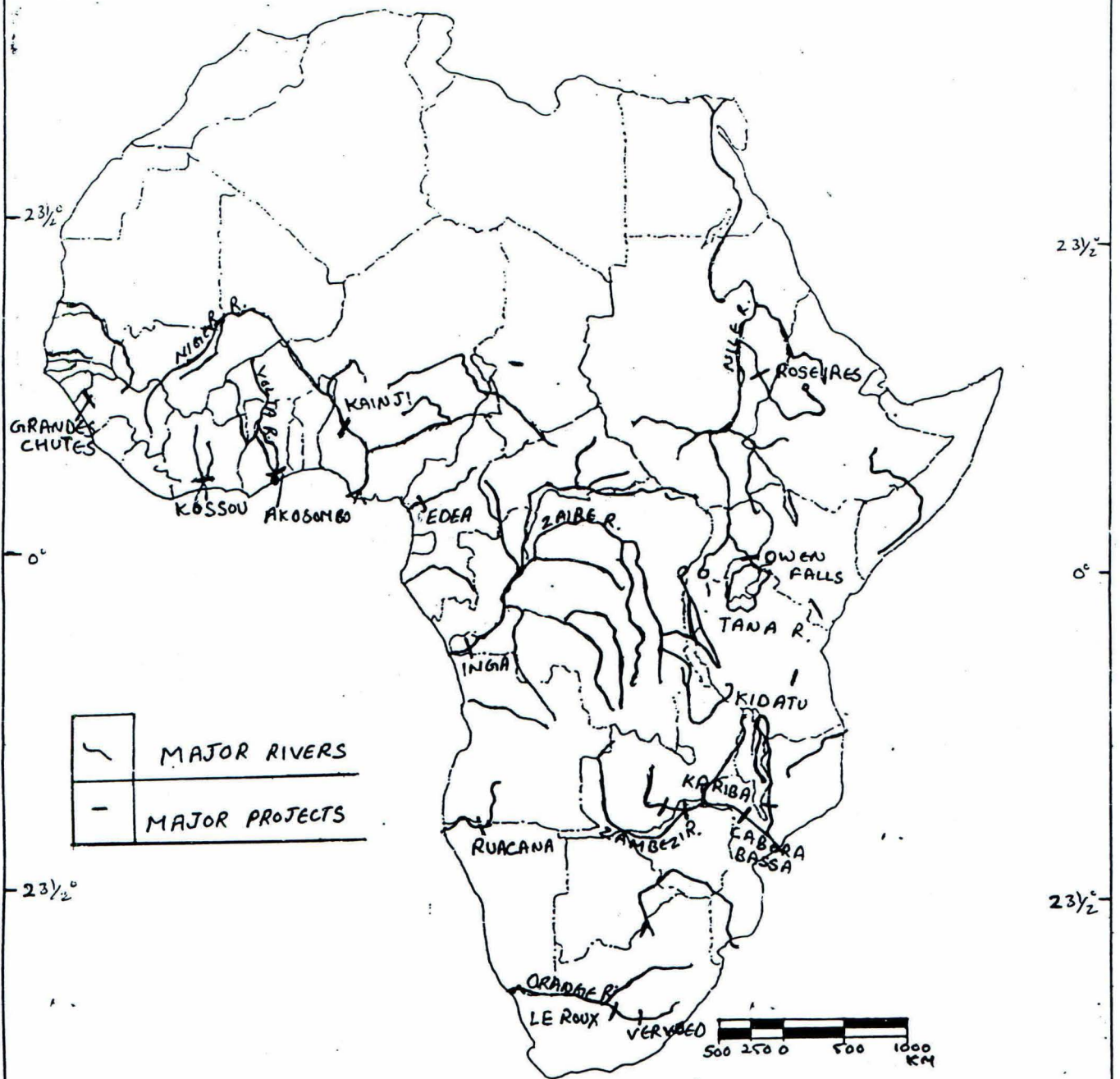
African countries are not harnessing the available potentiality of hydro-electricity properly.

**Figure 2.5: Percentage of Installed Capacity of Hydroelectricity to the Total Potentiality**



<sup>60</sup> African Development Indicators 2004, p. 319.

# Africa Major Hydroelectric Projects



Source : Robert Stock ; Africa , South of the Sahara : A Geographical Interpretation , New York ; The Guilford Press , 1955 , p. 291

Zaire, Zambia, Egypt, Mozambique, Nigeria have utilized the most part of their potential, otherwise most of the countries are lagging far behind. Ethiopia, Cameroon, Angola are poor in harnessing due to their economically and technologically poorness. As table 2.8 shows.

**Table 2.8: Hydroelectric [Megawatts] in Africa, 1993**

Country	Known Exploitable Potential	Installed Capacity
Zaire	530,000(1)	2,829(1)
Zambia	309,009(2)	2,259(3)
Ethiopia	162,000(3)	378
Cameroon	115,000(4)	725
Angola	100,000(5)	322
Egypt	3,210	2,825(2)
Mozambique	72,000	2,081(4)
Nigeria	40,000	1,970(5)

Source: *World resource: A guide to the Global Environment*. 1996-97, New York: Oxford University Press, 1996, p. 288.

### Vegetation

Equatorial forests are the densest in Africa, They have more exploitability. Mahogany, hardwood, is the main roundwoods in equatorial region and silk cotton, Baobab, Tamarind, white acacia, tea butter, locust beam are main trees of the West African savanna<sup>61</sup>.

Major producers of roundwood in Africa are given in table 2.9.

**Table 2.9: Major Producers of Roundwood in Africa in 1999-01**

Country	Cubic Meters (000)
Ethiopia	89,817
Nigeria	68,725
Congo	68,527
Uganda	37,318
South Africa	30,616
Tanzania	23,139
Ghana	21,871
Kenya	21,644
Sudan	18,873

Source: *African Development indicators 2004*: p.346.

Equatorial region is not utilizing its full potentiality due to transporting difficulties, heterogeneous of scattered pattern of trees, tsetse flies. On the other-hand Savanna region has a problem of scattered trees and threat from environmentalists.

<sup>61</sup> Robert Stock, *Africa South of the Sahara. A Geographical Interpretation*, New York: the Guilford press. 1995, p. 312.

In case of fuel wood and charcoal production Nigeria is leading with 97.1 million cubic meters [mcm] followed by Ethiopia (37.1 mcm), Kenya [32.5 mcm], Zaire (31.5 mcm), Tanzania (30 mcm) and Sudan (79.6 mcm)<sup>62</sup>.

### Mineral Production

Africa is an important source of several minerals. It produces half or more of the world's diamonds, platinum and cobalt and 30% or more of the world's chromium, manganese and uranium. It supplies at least one-tenth of the world's copper, bauxite and rutile. Phosphates (8% of the world's supply), iron ore (7%) and petroleum (6%) are also produced in large quantities<sup>63</sup>. South African Republic produces 3.6% Iron of world, and 4% coal of the world<sup>64</sup>. Africa's world-ranked mineral producers are given in table 2.10.

**Table 2.10: Africa's World-Ranked Mineral Producers**

Mineral	% from Africa			World Rank of leading Africa producers			
	1981	1989		Rank	(%)	Rank	%
Diamonds	72	50	Zaire	1	(24)	2	(20)
			Botswana	2	(21)	3	(16)
			South Africa	4	(16)	5	(10)
Cobalt	66	76	Zaire	1	(51)	1	(58)
			Zambia	3	(10)	2	(16)
Gold	54	35	South Africa	1	(5)	1	(33)
Platinum	40	49	South Africa	1	NA	1	(48)
Chromium	38	38	South Africa	1	(32)	1	(32)
			Zimbabwe	5	(5)	1	(5)
Uranium	33	31	South Africa	3	(12)	3	(10)
			Niger	4	(10)	5	(9)
			Namibia	6	(8)	6	(9)
Manganese	23	33	South Africa	2	(13)	2	(18)
			Gabon	4	(9)	3	(14)
Copper	17	12	Zambia	5	(7)	6	(15)
			Zaire	6	(7)	5	(15)
Bauxite	16	20	Guinea	2	(15)	2	(16)

Source: Robert Stock, *Africa South of the Sahara: A Geographical Interpretation*, New York: The Guilford Press 1995, p. 284.

<sup>62</sup> Ibid, p.311.

<sup>63</sup> Ibid, p.282.

<sup>64</sup> Singh, Jagdish and Kashinath, *Aarthik Bhoogal Ke Mool Tatwa*, Gorakhpur: Gyandodaya Publication, 2001, p. 100, 145.

When we see the petroleum sector Nigeria is leading in production having 3% of the world's total petroleum production, followed by Libya (25), Algeria (1.9%), and Egypt (1.5%)<sup>65</sup>. Many MNC's from all over the world that deals in petroleum production are showing their interest in African oil fields, like OVL of India in Sudan.

### **TRADE AND COMMERCE PATTERN: THE RESOURCES CONTEXT**

The trade pattern of natural resources in Africa is composed of Forest woods, animal products and minerals. Most of the African economies are dependent on international trade and commerce of natural resources, because in some resources they are rich and in exchange of that they get their other requirements.

The other reasons that explain that some natural resources required more skill and energy in their processing stage, so export is the only way to the poor country to utilize its natural resource. Congo in the case of copper and Guinea in the case of bauxite are the best explanation, because both copper and bauxite needs more electricity in their process of finalization. Sierra Leone exports its rough diamonds to Europe because it lacks in skilled labour.

#### **Forest Products Exports**

Tropical forests of Africa contain dozen of species that are exploited commercially for a variety of specialized uses. Mahogany widely used to construct fine furniture and paneling, is the best known.

The leading exporters, of tropical hardwood which together account for 80% of supplies are Cote d'Ivoire and Gabon. Although two African nations are among the top five exporters of the World. Africa produces only 12% of tropical hardwoods in international trade. Most hardwood is exported from Africa is

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<sup>65</sup> Ibid, p.135.

unprocessed logs<sup>66</sup>. Major African exporters of tropical timber are shown in table 2.11.

**Table 2.11: Major African Exporters of Forest Products, 1996**

<u>Country</u>	<u>Thousands of Cubic Meters</u>
Gabon	1,632
Ghana	1,018
South Africa	641
Nigeria	248
Liberia	225
Mozambique	158
Congo	91

*Source: African Development Indicators 2004, Washington D.C.: the World Bank, 2004, p. 89.*

In average annual percentage growth from 1985 to 1994 Madagascar led by 35.7% annual growth of forest exports followed by Angola (35%) and Tanzania [24.2%]. Hence Savanna countries are also making their contribution in forest products<sup>67</sup>.

Longer-term prospects for tropical timber exports are poor. The desired species are increasingly scarce in accessible areas. They also take many decades to grow and are difficult to propagate artificially. Once the commercially valuable timber is gone the timber trade will end, and some exporters may have to import hardwood. Thus, the future availability of adequate forestry resources will depend on the careful management of these ecosystems.

### **Animal Products**

The trade and commerce of animal products includes basically meat and hide of animals. Hides have less importance in front of big volume of meat. Meat is more commercial than hides and other products derived from animals. In Africa major meat exporter countries are Namibia having 316 hundreds of metric tons in year 2002 followed by Benin (301), South Africa (25), Botswana (133), Zimbabwe

<sup>66</sup> Robert Stock, *Africa South of the Sahara: A Geographical Interpretation*, New York: The Guilford Press 1995, p. 307.

<sup>67</sup> *African Development Indicators*, 2004, p. 89.



(122), Sudan (84), Ethiopia (12), and Egypt (11). For all Africa this volume was 1,309 hundreds of metric tons<sup>68</sup>.

There is a pattern in the exporter countries that most of the countries lie in dry or semi dry areas where pastoralism is the dominant occupation of people. Only South Africa and Zimbabwe lie in the somewhat temperate belts where good grass of veldt support this industry.

### Minerals Export

Africa contributes substantially to the global supply of minerals. Except for South Africa, which has a large and diverse industrial sector, most African production is exported<sup>69</sup>. Major minerals exporters are shown in table2.12.

**Table 2.12: Major Exporters of Mineral, in Africa**

Mineral	Country	Thousands of metric tons
Petroleum [2002]	Nigeria	107,176
	Libya	50,392
	Algeria	38,556
	Angola	35,089
	All Africa	281,807
Copper [1998]	Zambia	228
	South Africa	68
	Botswana	20
	All Africa	316
Phosphates (1997)	Morocco	11,669
	Togo	2,392
	South Africa	1,300
	Tunisia	1,247
	All Africa	17,680
Gold (1989)	South Africa	-
Diamonds (1989)	Botswana	-
Bauxite (1989)	Guinea	-

Source: 1. *African development indications* 2004, pp.90-93.  
2. Robert Stock, *Africa South of the Sahara: A Geographical Interpretation*, New York: The Guilford Press, 1995, p. 283.

Mineral exploitation in Africa is often not an easy task. One difficulty facing mining companies is that they often are scarcely able to recruit sufficient labour in a continent which generally sparsely populated. Another difficulty is that mineral deposits usually

<sup>68</sup> Ibid, p.103.

<sup>69</sup> Robert Stock, *Africa South of the Sahara: A Geographical Interpretation*, New York: the Guilford Press, 1995, p. 282.

need good rail communications to enable them to be transported to the coast for export, and railway construction in Africa is difficult and expensive.

### **Conclusion**

Though Africa is a pot of almost all of natural resources, yet the availability in the terms of quantity is very less except the land, flora-fauna, petroleum, cobalt, copper, phosphates, gold and diamonds. Most of these natural resources are concentrated in few pockets of different countries, so other countries have been devoid of these resources.

Scarcity of natural resources in neighboring countries in African continent makes the economic situation worst. Population started migrate to resource rich countries, that resulted, in cultural/ ethnic or tribal mixture; and increasing pressure on existing limited natural resources. Sudan is a poor country in natural resources except land and petroleum. The neighboring countries of Sudan are also poor in natural resources except petroleum in Libya and Chad, forest in Congo, Central African Republic and Uganda. So immigration from neighboring countries in the drought-famine-flood time, or in the time of civil war in neighbors make the situation worst in Sudan. These environmental, cultural or economic refugees make additional burden on the scarcity of land, food and water. On the other hand these immigrants make the ethnical identity of Sudanese people more severe because cultural identities have no boundaries, so after entering in Sudan they join either of the existing ethnic groups.

From the decade of 1950's-1960 to 2000's, Africa has not yet developed its natural resources, and has not managed these in a scientific and rational way. Some reasons may be accountable for this underdevelopment of natural resources:

- Lack of skilled and adequate human resource
- Lack of large quantity of capital investment, technology and energy
- Civil war in many African countries
- Presence of harsh climatic conditions

- Nature of equatorial as well as desertic vegetation
- Less quantity of some minerals
- Increasing awareness and protection of natural environment at world level

Though today Africa is underscoring in production and utilization of its natural resources but in future, when the world population is increasing rapidly and the conventional resources of most of the developed nations are depleting rapidly, then this continent with its undeveloped natural resources would be the future continent of the world. Technological development can also make African resources more potential.

## CHAPTER – III

### GEOPOLITICS OF RESOURCE UTILIZATION IN SUDAN: THE ETHNICITY FACTOR

Geographically and socially people started to integrate themselves in various local groups to protect and enhance their distinct cultural, geographical and historical identity. In Sudan there are so many groups and sub-groups which organized together, whatever the basis of their formation may be. On the other hand Sudan is poor in natural resources except the few resources, and of which the over all quality is very less making the economic condition of the peoples very pathetic. In such a situation every ethnic line tries to get hold over the good pasture lands, minerals areas, and irrigated lands. So due to scarce natural resource in Sudan and its neighboring countries and increasing demand in the pluralism society of Sudan conflicts arises to take share of the limited resources. The powerful political group of Arabs always tried to shift most of the good natural resources to their own cultural lines. The other ethnic groups resist it.

#### ETHNIC COMPOSITION OF SUDAN

The Sudan, in the variety of its people, languages, and religions, is virtually a microcosm of the whole African continent. Various estimates indicate that more than one hundred different languages are spoken in Sudan by at least fifty major ethnic or tribal groupings, with almost six hundred significant subgroups<sup>70</sup>.

If we see the total population of Sudan according to their religious background, then 70 % is Muslim, 25 % having Traditional beliefs, 5 % are Christian<sup>71</sup>.

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<sup>70</sup> John Obert Voll and Sarah Potts Voll [ed], *The Sudan: Unity and Diversity in a Multicultural State*, London : Westview Press, 1985, P. 6.

<sup>71</sup> *The Encyclopedia of World Geography*. Andromeda Oxford Ltd., 2002, pp. 148.

**Table 3.1: Ethnic composition of population of the Sudan<sup>72</sup>:**

Arabs	49.1
Dinka	11.5
Nuba	8.1
Beja	6.4
Nuer	4.9
Azande	2.7
Bari	2.5
Fur	2.1
Shilluk	1.7
Lotuko	1.5
Others	9.5

*Source: The Encyclopedia of World Geography. Andromeda Oxford Ltd., 2002. p. 148.*

## **THE MUSLIM PEOPLE**

### ***The Arabs***

Within the Sudan, a Sudanese person must be identified as Arab in two dimensions [languages and history]. The person must speak Arabic and consider it to be his/her home languages. In addition, however, the person must also be identified with a tribe that is believed to have come originally from the Arabian Peninsula or with a group that has so Arabised in culture and customs that it has no other visible or publicly known identity<sup>73</sup>.

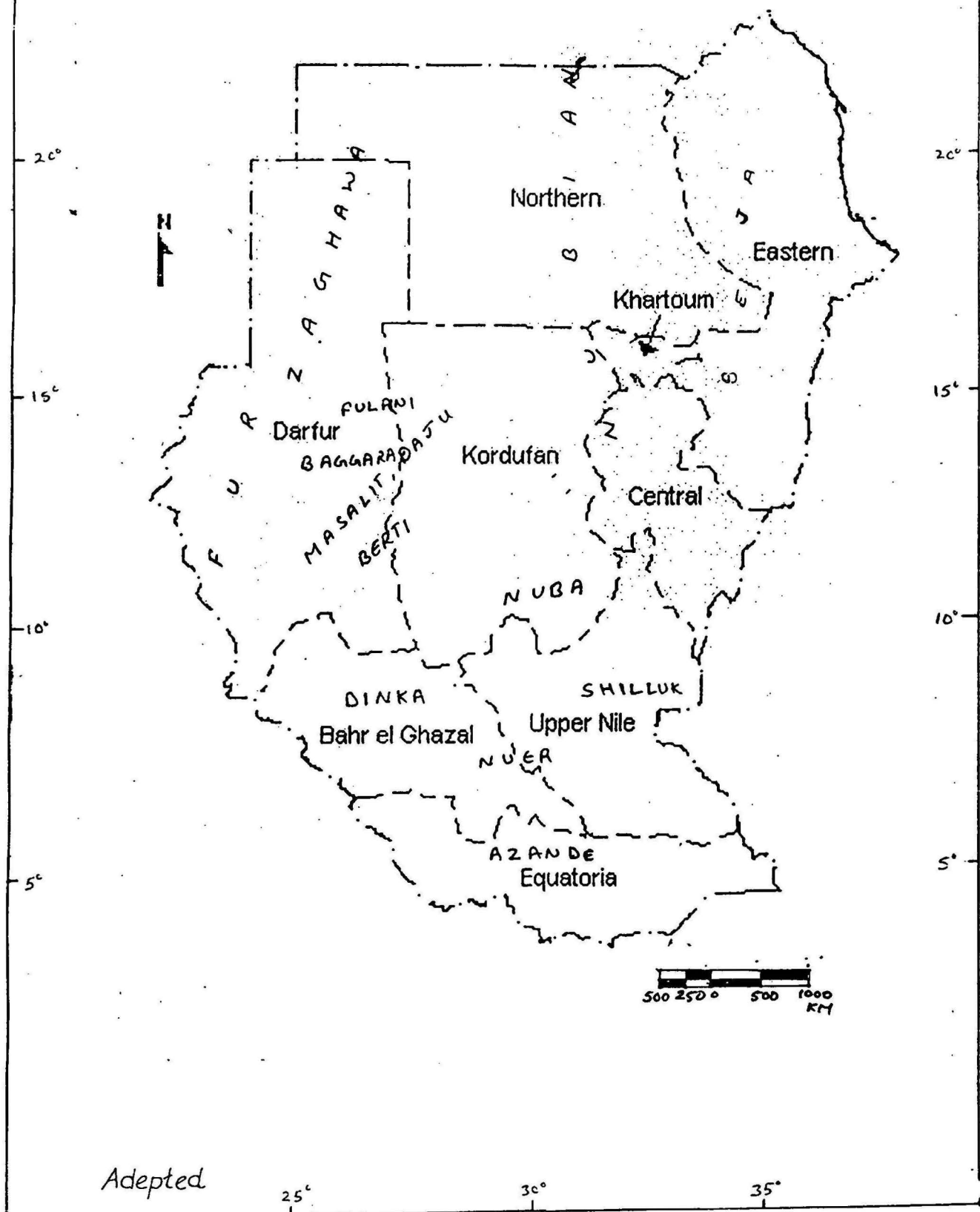
The two largest of the supra-tribal categories of the Arabs in the early 1990's were the Jaalyin and the Juhayna. The tribes that emerged in the northern part of the Nile valley within the Sudan are grouped together under the name of Jaalyin. These tribes were historically important in political systems and government structure in the Sudan since medieval times. They tend to be

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<sup>72</sup> *The Encyclopedia of World Geography. Andromeda Oxford Ltd., 2002, p. 148.*

<sup>73</sup> John Obert Voll and Sarah Potts Voll [ed], *The Sudan: Unity and Diversity in a Multicultural State*, London : Westview Press, 1985, pp. 7-8.

# Sudan: Ethnic Groups



associated with settled agriculture and urban life in the river valley ; from which they developed country wide networks of trade and political influence <sup>74</sup>.

The Jaalyin encompassed the riverine sedentary peoples from Dunqalah to just north of Khartoum and members who had moved elsewhere. Some of its groups had become sedentary only in the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Sudanese saw the Jaalyin as primarily indigenous peoples who were gradually arabised Sudanese. Though the Juhayna were less mixed, yet some Juhayna groups had become more diverse by absorbing indigenous peoples. The Baggara, for example, who moved south and west and encountered the Negroid peoples of these areas, are scarcely to be distinguished from Juhayna<sup>75</sup>.

The other major grouping of Arab tribes is traditionally identified as the Juhayna. The Juhayna category consisted of tribes considered nomadic, although many had become fully settled. Included in this category are most of the Arab nomadic and semi nomadic tribes of the central and western desert and steppe areas, the camel herding tribes such as the 'Kababish' and the cattle herds of 'Baggara' of the western plains<sup>76</sup>.

A third supra-tribal division of some importance was the Kawahla , consisting of 13 tribes. Of these, 8 tribes and segments of the other 5 were found north and west of Khartoum. These people were more heavily dependent on pastoralism than were the segments of the other 5 tribes, who lived on either side of the White Nile from south of Khartoum to north of Kusti . This cluster of five tribes [for practical purposes independent tribes] exhibited a considerable degree of self-awareness and cohesion in some circumstances, although that had not precluded intertribal competition for local power and status.

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<sup>74</sup> Ibid, p. 9.

<sup>75</sup> Ibid.

<sup>76</sup> Ibid

### *The Nubian*

The area of the Nile valley in southern Egypt and the northern most sections of the Sudan are considered Nubia. With a long heritage of small-scale urban life, Nubians have provided leadership in the economic and political life of Sudan. Approximately they represent 3 % of the population. Almost all Nile Nubians speak Arabic as a second language; some near Dunqulah have been largely Arabised and are referred to as Danqulah.

In the mid 1960's in anticipation of the flooding of their lands after the construction of the Aswan high Dam, 35,000 Nile Nubians resettled in Khashm al Qirbah on the Atbarah River in what was then Kassala province. It is not clear how many Nubians remained in the Nile valley. Even before the resettlement, many had left the valley for varying lengths of time to work in the towns, although most sought to maintain a link with their traditional homeland<sup>77</sup>.

Many Nubians there retained their tenancies, having been oversee on the land and hiring Non-Nubians to work in the fields. Often with their families, worked in Khartoum, the town of Kassala, and Port Sudan in jobs ranging from domestic service and semi- skilled labour to teaching and civil service, which required literacy. Despite their Knowledge of Arabic and their devotion to Islam, Nubians retained a considerable self-Consciousness and tended to maintain tightly knit communities of their own in the towns<sup>78</sup>.

### *The Beja*

In the eastern highland regions along the Red Sea coast the major Tribes are identified as Beja. These are often traced back to ancient Inhabitants of the region and have their own special linguistic and cultural heritage. They make up an estimated 7 % of the total Sudanese population.<sup>79</sup> In the 1990's most Beja belonged to one of the three groups –the Bisharin , the Amara , the Hadendona,

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<sup>77</sup> <http://www.countrystudies.us>, Date 13 August 2004.

<sup>78</sup> Ibid.

<sup>79</sup> John Obert Voll and Sarah Potts Voll [ed], *The Sudan: Unity and Diversity in a Multicultural State*, London : Westview Press, 1985, p. 11.



but the Bisharin had the most territory, with settled tribes living on the Atbara River in the far south of the Beja range and nomads living in north. A good number of the Hadendona were also settled and emerged in agriculture, particularly in the coastal region near Tawkar, but many remained nomads. The Amara, living in the central part of the Beja range, seemed to be largely nomads, as were the second largest group, the Bomi Amir who lived along the border with Northern Ethiopia.

### *The Fur*

The Fur of the western region is a relatively small group but have historical significance. The Fur Sultans united much of region that is now called Dar-Fur [which literally means the adobe of the Fur] within a single state that lasted from as early as the fifteenth century to the time of the World War I. They, oriented politically and culturally to peoples in Chad, where a sedentary, cultivating group long settled on and around the Jabal Marrah<sup>80</sup>. Although the ruling dynasty and the peoples of the area had long been Muslims, they have not been Arabised.

Live stock has played a small part in the subsistence of most of the Fur people. Those who acquired a substantial herd of cattle could maintain it only by living like the neighboring Baggara Arabs, and those who persisted in this pattern eventually came to be thought of as Baggara.

### *The Zaghawa*

Living on the plateau north of Fur were the semi-nomadic people calling themselves Beri and Known to the Arabs as Zaghawa. Large number of people of this group lived in Chad. The Zaghawa are herders of cattle, camel, sheep and goats, and also gains a substantial part of their livelihood by gathering wild grains and other products. Cultivation had become increasingly important but remained risky, and the people reverted to gathering in times of drought. Though they are

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<sup>80</sup> Ibid. p. 13

converted to Islam, yet they nevertheless retain much of their traditional religious orientation.

### *The Masalit, Daju and Berti*

Of other peoples living in Darfur in 1990's who spoke Nilo-Saharan languages and were at least nominally Muslim, the most important were the Masalit, Daju, and Berti. All were primarily cultivators living in permanent villages, but they practiced animal husbandry in varying degrees.

The Masalit living on the Sudan-Chad border, were the largest group. Historically under a minor sultanate, they were positioned between the two dominant sultanates of the area, Darfur and Wadai [in Chad]. A part of the territory they occupied had been formerly controlled by the Fur, but the Masalit gradually encroached on it in the first half of the twentieth century in a series of local skirmishes carried out by villages on both sides, rather than the sultanates. In 1990-91 much of Darfur was in a state of anarchy, with many villages attacked. There were many instances in which Masalit militias attacked Fur and other villages<sup>81</sup>.

The Berti consisted of two groups, are lived northeast of Al Fashir. They had migrated to eastern Darfur and western Kordofan provinces in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. The two Berti groups did not seem to share a sense of common identity and interest. They are the members of the Western group. In addition to cultivating subsistence crops and practicing animal husbandry, they gathered gum Arabic for sale in markets. The Berti tongue had largely given way to Arabic as a home language.

The term Daju was a linguistic designation that was applied to a number of groups scattered from western Kordofan and southwest Darfur states to eastern Chad. These groups called themselves by different names and exhibited no sense of common identity<sup>82</sup>.

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<sup>81</sup> <http://www.countrystudies.us>, date 13 August 2004.

<sup>82</sup> Ibid.

### *The West Africans*

These are the people who have migrated from West Africa and settled in Sudan, mostly in western and central Sudan. West Africans living in Sudan in 1990 was nearly a million people of non-African origin. Together West African who has become Sudanese nationals residents, and non nationals residents made up 6.5% of the Sudanese population. In the mid-1970's West Africans had been estimated at more than 10% of the population of the Northern provinces.

Nearly 60% of people included in the West African category were said to be of Nigerian origin [locally called Borno after the Nigerian emirate that was their homeland]. Given Hausa dominance in north Nigeria and the widespread use of their language there and elsewhere, some Non-Hausa might also be called Hausa and describe themselves as such. But the Hausa themselves, particularly those living in Sudan preferred to be called Takari.

The Fulani, even more widely dispersed throughout West Africa, may have originated in states other than Nigeria. Typically, the term applied to the Fulani in Sudan was Failata, but Sudanese also used that term for other West Africans. The Fulani nomads were found in many parts of central Sudan from Darfur to the Blue Nile, and they occasionally competed with indigenous populations for pasture lands. In Darfur groups of Fulani origin adapted in various ways to the presence of the Baggara tribes. Some retained all aspects of their own breeds of cattle and ways of handling them. Some of the Fulani groups in the eastern states are sedentary, descendants of sedentary Fulani of the ruling group in north Nigeria.

## THE NON-MUSLIM PEOPLE

### *The people of Southern Sudan*

The inhabitants of southern Sudan are undoubtedly Negroid Africans. They may be divided into three main groups: the Nilotes, the Nilo-Hamites and the Western Sudanese tribes.

### *The Nilotes*

Nilotes live near the Bahr al Jabel and its tributaries; comprise the Dinka, Nuer, Shilluk, Anuak, Burun, Bor, Baland, Jar, Shilluk Luo and Aeholi<sup>83</sup>. The term refers to people speaking languages of one section of the Nilotic sub branch of the Eastern Sudanic branch of Nilo-Saharan and sharing a myth of common origin. Despite the civil war of famine, the Nilotes still constituted more than three-fifth of the population of Southern Sudan in 1990.

One group, the Dinka-made up roughly two-third of the total category, 40% or more of the population of the area and more than 10% of Sudan's population<sup>84</sup>. The Dinka were widely distributed over the northern portion of the southern region particularly in Aali on Nile and Bahr al Ghazal. The Dinka comprises about 25 separate groups [Cie, Bor, Aliab, Agur, Atot, etc.]<sup>85</sup> all sharing a common sense of Dinka identity. These groups are the level at which effective political organization and social action take place. They have more interest in cattle.

The next largest group, only one-fourth to one-third the size of the Dinka was the Nuer. The Shilluk, the third largest group, had only about one-fourth as many people as the Nuer, and the remaining Nilotic groups were much smaller. Shilluk settled mainly in a limited, uninterrupted area along the west bank of the Bahr al Jabal, just north of the point where it becomes the White Nile proper. A few lived on the eastern bank, with easy access to fairly good land along the Nile, they relied much more heavily on cultivation and fishing than the Dinka and the

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<sup>83</sup> Dunstan M. Wai [ed.], *The Southern Sudan: The Problem of National Integration*, London: Frank Cass, 1973, p.9.

<sup>84</sup> John Obert Voll and Sarah Potts Voll [ed], *The Sudan: Unity and Diversity in a Multicultural State* London: Westview Press, 1985, p. 10.

<sup>85</sup> Ibid. p. 10.

Nuer did, and had fewer cattle. The Shilluk had truly permanent settlement and did not move regularly between cultivating and cattle camps.

### *The Nilo-Hamites*

This group comprises of Bari, Mundari, Nyang, Wara, Pojulu, Kakawa, Kuku, Nyepu, Lokoya, Luluba, Latuko, Lopit and the Ligo<sup>86</sup>. The main occupation of the Nilo-Hamites is cultivation with some pastoralism. Several peoples living mainly to the south and east of the Nilotes spoke languages of another section of the Nilote sub branch of Eastern Sudanic branch. Primary among them were the Bari and Mandari who lived near the Nilotes, and had been influenced by them and had sometimes been in conflict with them in the past. The more southerly, Kuku and Kakwa lived in the highlands, where cultivation was more rewarding than cattle-keeping or where cattle diseases precluded herding<sup>87</sup>.

### *The Murle, Diding and others*

Two other tribes, the Murle and the Didinga spoke Eastern Sudanic languages of sub branches other than Nilotic. The Murle had dwelt in South Ethiopia in the 19<sup>th</sup> century and some were still there in the 1990's, others had moved west and had driven out the local Nilotes, whom they reportedly regarded with contempt, and acquired a reputation as warriors. Under environmental pressure, the Murle raided other groups in the late 1970's and early 1980's.

Several small heterogeneous groups lived along the mountains border with Ethiopia in Al Awsat state. Some like the Uduk, spoke languages of the Koman division of Nilo-Saharan and were believed to have been in the area since antiquity. Others like the Ingessana, were refugees driven into the hills by the expansion of other groups, most of these problems straddling the Sudan-Ethiopia border had experienced strife with later-arriving neighbors of more dominant groups.

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<sup>86</sup> Dunstan M. Wai [ed.], *The Southern Sudan: The Problem of National Integration*, London: Frank Cass, 1973, p. 10.

<sup>87</sup> Ibid. p. 10.

### *The Azande*

In western Al Istiwai and Bahr al Ghazal states lived a number of small sometimes fragmented groups. The largest of these were the Azande, who comprised 70-80 % of the population of Southern Sudan and were the dominant group in western Al Istiwai.

The Azande had emerged in the 18<sup>th</sup> -19<sup>th</sup> centuries when groups of hunters, divided into aristocrats and commoners , entered the north east part of present day Zaire [and later southwest Sudan ] and conquered the peoples already existing there.

Azande support of the Anya Nya guerrilla groups, as well as conflicts with the Dink; also served to worsen the Azande's situation. In the early 1980's there was talk of resurrecting a revised Azande project but the resumption of the civil war in 1993 prevented the process.

### *The Bviri and Ndogo*

Several other groups of cultivators in southwest Sudan spoke languages closely akin to that of the Azande but lacked a dominant group. The most important seemed to be the Bviri. The Bviri and a smaller group called Ndogo spoke a language named after the latter. Other, smaller communities spoke dialects of the this tongue. However these communities did not share a sense of common ethnic identity.

### *The Nuba*

Nuba is the common collective name given to more than fifty tribal groups who live in and around the range of massifs known as the Nuba Mountains in South Kordofan, and central Sudan, inhabiting the so-called transitional zone between the Arab north and African south<sup>88</sup>. The tribes of the Nuba mountain area of Kordofan in the west have remained relatively isolated in their mountain villages.

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<sup>88</sup> *Review of African Political Economy*, Voll. 25, No. 77, 1998 Sept., pp. 463-464.

Nuba soldiers have played an important role in the modern Sudanese armed forces<sup>89</sup>.

Despite the arabisation of the people around them, only small number of Nuba had adopted Arabic as a home language, and even fewer had been converted to Islam, some had, however, served in the armed forces and police. Most remained cultivators; thus animal husbandry played only a small part in their economy.

## RESOURCES OF SUDAN

Sudan is very poor in resources. There is scarcity of almost all of resources, [of water, flora and fauna, minerals, population], except the land.

### *Land*

Approximately one third of Sudan's total area of about 2.5 million square km is considered to be suitable for some form of agriculture. Of this, about 84 million hectare is potential arable land and the remainder is pastoral. Only about 15 %, however, of the available arable land is cropped<sup>90</sup>. Much of this land is composed of highly fertile soil, constituted by silt washed down from the Ethiopian highlands.

The Blue and White Niles, converging in Khartoum, provide an ample supply of water for irrigation. The vast majority of settled cultivation has, until recently, been limited to the permanent watercourses of the Blue and White Nile and their tributaries in north-centre Sudan. It is these areas which, within the framework of Sudan's 2 million hectare of irrigation schemes, have been the focus of modern, commercial agriculture- producing the major export crop, cotton, as vital import substitutes such as sugar and wheat<sup>91</sup>.

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<sup>89</sup> John Obert Voll and Sarah Potts Voll [ed], *The Sudan: Unity and Diversity in a Multicultural State*, London : Westview Press, 1985, p. 12.

<sup>90</sup> *Africa South of Sahara 2005*, p. 110.

<sup>91</sup> Ibid.

In contrast, some 60% of Sudan area is occupied by the 11% of the population [officially estimated at 33.6m. in 2003] who are fully or partly nomadic- combining cultivation of subsistence crops and in some cases crops with seasonal migration, with their herds, along well-defined routes determined by the location of sources of drinking water during wet and dry seasons<sup>92</sup>.

### *Soils*

The soil resource of Sudan is rich in agriculture potential. This depends on the availability of the water and proportion of the clay plains of central and east Sudan.

Along the Nile valley in the northern two-thirds of the country, in the Nuba Mountains and in some parts of central Kordofan, in other areas of Darfur, round the ironstone plateau and in the hill masses of the south, and in parts of the central clay plains, the predominant means of livelihood is settled farming.

In other areas nomadism is the principal means of livelihood-as among the cattle owing Nilotic tribes of the southern clay plains and the Baggara tribes stretching over southern Darfur and southern Kordofan, and among the camel - owning tribes such as the Kababish of northern Kordofan, the Rufa a al-Hoi of the southern Gezira area, the Shukriya of the Butana to the east of the Blue Nile, the Beja tribes inhabiting the Red Sea hills and the Ababada to the east of the Nile close to the Egyptian border.

Clay soils also occur in the south, being deposits of the White Nile and Sobat streams. Recent alluvium provides a basis for productive agriculture in the narrow Nile Valley north of Khartoum. Elsewhere, in the west and north the soils are sandy, with little agriculture potential, except in the dry valleys, which generally contain some soil moisture.

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<sup>92</sup> Ibid.



## *Water*

In relation to water resource the Great River Nile along its tributaries form the basis of the economic activity of Sudan. In Sudan the river flows with a distance of 3000 km. up to Lake Nubia on the Egyptian border. The flow of White Nile is suspected because of the Lake Victoria from which it starts to flow and the nature of the relief [the swamps of the Sudd and Machar act as a reservoir]; and climate [by evaporation in the north].

Sudan has embarked many canal projects on Nile system to harness the water for irrigation to its potential land use. Inadequate rain led to lower levels on the River Nile, thus reducing the flood plain that is crucial for farming in many ribbon areas along the river.

Rainfall increases with southern movement and specially south of Khartoum [200 mm per year]. The southern receives over 1000 mm per year. Potential evaporation approaches 3000 mm per year in the north and is always over 400 mm per year, even in the humid south<sup>93</sup>.

Of the 2 million hectare of land under irrigation, about 50% is in the Gezira scheme, which is located between the Blue and White Niles. First developed by the British in the 1920s, the Gezira is now the world's largest farming project entering under one management the parasitical Sudan Board<sup>94</sup>. The remaining irrigated land is also predominantly under publicly administered schemes: the small scale farmer pump schemes on the Blue, White and main Niles; the new Halfa scheme developed in the 1960s on the Gash river to resettle people displaced by the Aswān high dam flooding; and the Rahad scheme, on the Blue Nile, inaugurated in 1977.

Although these scheme accounts for over 60% of Africa's total irrigated area, they represent less than 50% of Sudan's estimated potential. Expansion into

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<sup>93</sup> Ibid.

<sup>94</sup> Ibid.

new areas has been limited by capital costs and by the terms of agreement with Egypt governing the use of the Nile waters<sup>95</sup>.

In 2004, Sudan had 728 mega watts of electric generation capacity, which included roughly equal amounts of thermal [mainly oil] and hydropower capacity. Sudan's main hydropower generating facility is the 280 mega watts Rosaries dam located about 315 miles southeast of Khartoum. Some projects are funding from other countries<sup>96</sup>.

One of such largest project is the proposed Merowe and Kajbar hydroelectric facilities in northern Sudan. The 1250 mega watts Merowe facility will be located 250 miles north of Khartoum at the Nile River's fourth cataract. The Kajbar Dam, located at the Nile's second cataract, is currently under construction, and will have a capacity of 300 mega watts. The People's Republic of China was to finance 75% of the project with Sudan providing the remaining 25%. Environmental groups have expressed concern about Kajbar Dam, citing potential damage to the Nile River's ecosystem and to the culture of the displaced Nubian residents of the area<sup>97</sup>.

### *Flora-Fauna*

Vegetation is closely related to the climatic zones. From the desert in the north vegetation gradually improve through semi-arid shrub to low woodland savannah characterized by acacia and short grasses. Progressively higher rainfall towards the south promotes trees and shrubs as well as herbs. While the more reliable watered land of the Bahr al-Arab provides an important seasonal resource for the graziers from the poor pastures of Darfur and Kordofan. The flooded areas of the Sudd and Machar and environment support swamp vegetation and grassland. On the uplands of the southern border, rainfall is sufficient to support topical rain forest.

Almost 12% of Sudan's area is classified as forestland, but a minimal amount is under commercial plantations, largely fuel wood development in the

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<sup>95</sup> Ibid.

<sup>96</sup> Ibid. p. 1105.

<sup>97</sup> Ibid. pp. 1105-06.

central region. Exploitation of the natural forest is also predominantly limited to fuel wood, other than gum Arabic, which is by far the most important forest product. Sesame, which is also used locally as a source of vegetable oil, has pursued a similar trend in production and exports<sup>98</sup>.

Swampy Sudd region is dominated by elephant grass, reaching heights of up to 13ft [4m]. Papyrus and aquatic lettuce are also common, often so dense as to interfere with river traffic.

Live stock represents an important resource for the country, and is concentrated in the central region, with cattle [21.028 million head in 1991], sheep and goats [35,977,000], and camels [2757000]<sup>99</sup>.

### ***Minerals***

Sudan's known mineral resources include petroleum, marble, mica, chromites, gypsum and gold. Gold deposits in the Red Sea hills have been known since Paranoiac times<sup>100</sup>.

In recent years Sudan has benefited from a resurgence of interest among foreign companies in reworking gold deposits in the Red Sea hills, which, using new technology, have a high recoverable gold content. Gold production at the Hassai mine, which is carried out by a joint Sudanese-French venture, reached an estimated 1.6 tons in 1993 and was, expected to advance to 4 tons in 1994<sup>101</sup>.

There are uranium reserves on the western borders with Chad and the Central African Republic. Until recently, only the chromites deposits in the Ingessana Hills near the Ethiopian border were exploited on a substantial scale by the state owned Sudan Mining Co,<sup>102</sup>.

Experts predict that oil and natural gas companies will rush in to expand Sudan's oil production from the 345,000 barrels a day recorded in June 2004. The

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<sup>98</sup> Ibid. p. 1102.

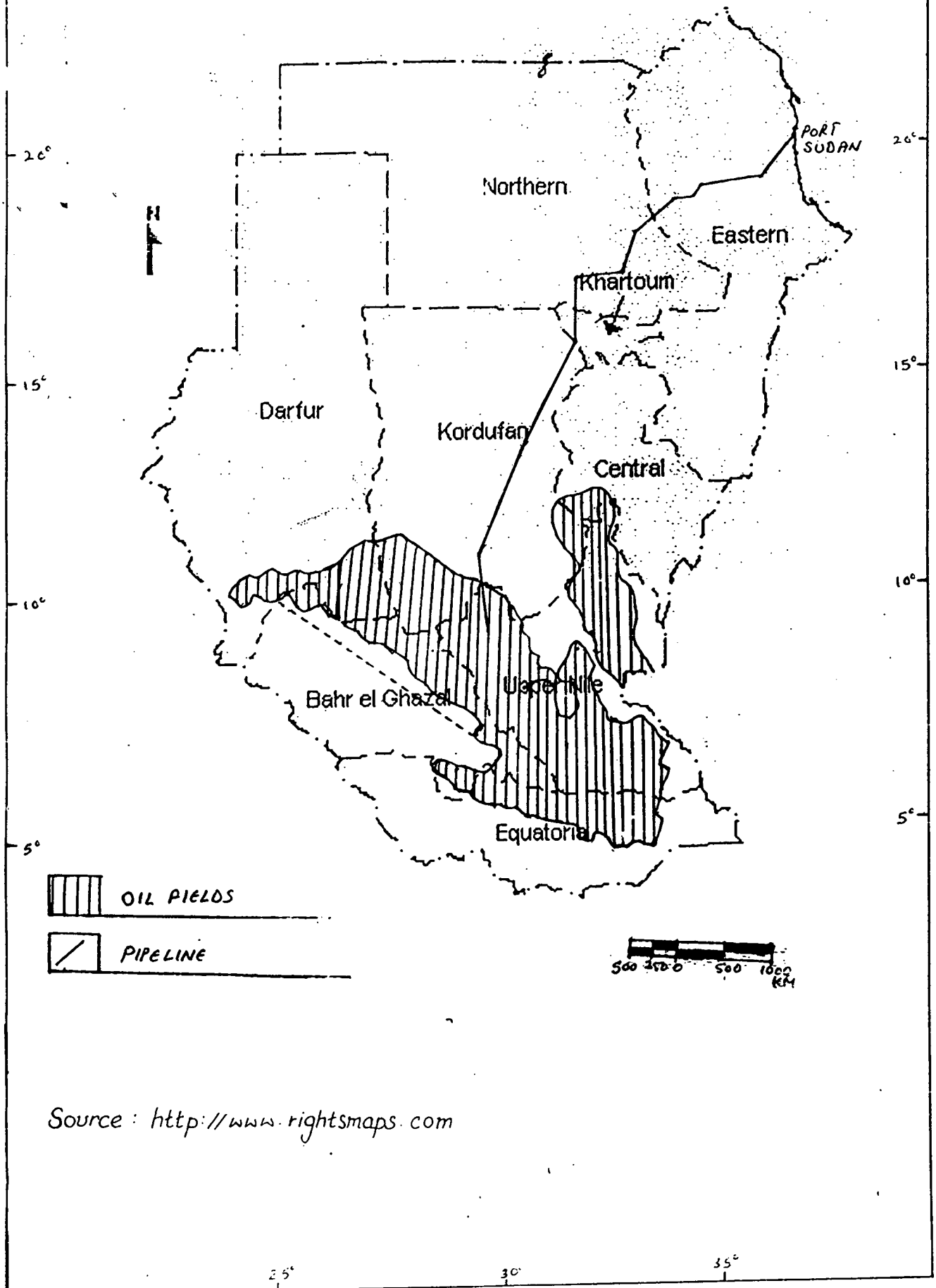
<sup>99</sup> *World resource: A guide to the Global Environment*. 1996-97, New York: Oxford University Press, 1996, p. 242.

<sup>100</sup> *Africa South of Sahara* 2005, p. 1104.

<sup>101</sup> Ibid.

<sup>102</sup> Ibid.

# Oil Fields in Sudan, 2003



Source : <http://www.rightsmaps.com>

country has proven reserves of 635 million barrels much of which has not been accessible because of the war<sup>103</sup>. Sudan's oil reserves are located beneath war-torn southern swamps and savanna<sup>104</sup>. The White Nile area has about five billion barrels reserves, central part of the Sudan has 0.6 billion barrels, Southern Sudan has 1.2 billion barrels reserves<sup>105</sup>.

Chromites obtained also from the salt pans at Port Sudan. The known reserves exceed 1 million tons of high-quality chromites. In the case of gypsum, it is now estimated that there are four or five deposits in the Fodikwan area, with reserves of more than 500 million tons of ore. Fodikwan is famous for its iron-ore deposits also<sup>106</sup>. Sudan's offshore sea-bed is known to be rich in precious minerals, as well as copper, zinc and iron, and plans are under consideration for these to be exploited jointly with Saudi Arabia. Copper is obtained from several deposits at Hofrat en Nahas and one at Bishara<sup>107</sup>.

### ***Population***

According to UN estimates, the total population of the country was 33,610,000 in mid- 2003. The population is concentrated in Khartoum province and the central Region, where population densities were, respectively, 55 and 28 per sq. km in 1973, compared with 3.6-6.8 per sq. km. elsewhere<sup>108</sup>.

There are local concentrations of population in the Nuba Mountains and higher densities than average in better-farmed parts of the Southern and Darfur Regions. The country is still subject to significant immigration by groups from Nigeria and Chad, such as the Fulani.

The mean population density of Sudan is about 26 per miles sq. [10 per km], but the population is very unevenly distributed. The north-central regions are the most densely populated, occasionally exceeding 260 per mile sq. [100 per km];

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<sup>103</sup> Ibid.

<sup>104</sup> *The World Today*, Dec. 2003, p. 25.

<sup>105</sup> *Petroleum Economist*, vol. 72, n. 5, May 2005, p. 4.

<sup>106</sup> *Africa South of Sahara* 2005, p. 1104.

<sup>107</sup> Ibid.

<sup>108</sup> Ibid. p. 1087.

the eastern administrative regions, with their center at Wad Medani, have 5 inhabitants per mile sq. [2 per km]<sup>109</sup>. The Gezira region located between the two branches of the Nile, with twice the country's average density, is the real center of attraction for immigrants. The low density in the south is due to past persecutions and slave trading, and to the presence of swampy soil that makes cultivation difficult.

Eighty percent of Sudan's population lives in rural environments characterized by Arab-influenced villages. The nomadic peoples [14% of the total population] concentrated in the territory around Kassala, Darfur and Kordofan provinces. The semi-nomads live in mud houses. Some 22% of the population is urbanized, living in cities with a center that is typically European or Muslim, containing shop, the market, government buildings, and the palaces of former Sultanates and missions.

Only 21.6% of the population has received any education, despite the fact that primary schooling [from age 7 to age 12] is mandatory and free. There are two universities in Sudan, both in Khartoum. Social conditions are aggravated by the presence of 2 million refugees from adjacent countries torn by civil war [Chad, Uganda, Ethiopia], and by the emigration of skilled workers to the Persia Gulf states in search of higher wages<sup>110</sup>.

## **GEOPOLITICS OF RESOURCES**

In Sudan one ethnic group has long existed in political dominance, thus that group favoured their own peoples reflecting most of the resources to their own peoples. The independent Sudan has continued the geographical patterns of development. Development has been concentrated around the three towns and along the rail lines whose center is the Khartoum complex.

There are many big irrigation projects in Sudan that also led to dissatisfaction to the local people. Broadly two main reasons may be counted for

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<sup>109</sup> Sybil P. Parker, *World Geographical Encyclopedia: vol.1 ,Africa*, New York: MacGraw Hill, Inc., 1994, pp. 75-76

<sup>110</sup> *Ibid.* p. 77

this resentment. The first is that the native peoples of the area in which the project is established, are removed from that area, and forced to go away or in any other areas where the opportunity for good agriculture or irrigation are less or in poor quality. The second is that, most of the big projects are distributed in already developed areas or in areas where there is a majority of population belong to the group that is in power.

As the table shows the distribution of different irrigation schemes in Sudan.

**Table 3.2: Number of Schemes on Irrigated Land, 1955:**

<u>Province</u>	<u>Name/type of scheme</u>	<u>Number of schemes</u>
Blue Nile	Gezira [gravity]	1
	Pump schemes	581
Northern	Pump schemes	430
Kassala	Gash [gravity]	1
	Tokar [gravity]	1
	Pump schemes	4
Upper Nile	Pump schemes	34
Khartoum	Pump schemes	117
Total		1169

Source: Tim Niblock, *Class and Power in Sudan: the Dynamics of Sudanese Politics, 1898-1985*, London: Macmillan press. 1987. p. 86.

The table shows that most of the schemes were concentrated in the northern Sudan in the Northern Province and Khartoum Province, where the Arab population is in majority.

There are many schemes in Sudan like, the Gezira Scheme, Tokar in the Baraka delta Khashm el-Girba, and the Kassala Scheme in Gash delta. Tokar: The delta was declared government land, and annual allotments were made to applicants who wished to cultivate. Kassala: The Kassala project was an extension of the Gezira Scheme<sup>111</sup>. Inaugurated in 1925 under the management of the Kassala Cotton Company, a subsidiary of the Sudan Plantations Syndicate, its aim was to produce cotton under the same tenure system as that at Gezira.

<sup>111</sup> A vast agricultural project in the central Sudan, between the Blue and White Niles south of Khartoum.

In government positions, according to table, Northern Region with a population of 5.4% of the total had 79.5% of central government positions, a striking illustration of political dominance by a minority; Even in this position three ethnic groups –Shaygia, Jaalieen, Danagla – in effect dominate the country. There is no sympathy for the minority groups within the Northern Regions that are said to be dominated by these powerful three<sup>112</sup>.

**Table 3.3: Population and Representation 1986:**

Regions	Population	Percentage	Representation	Percentage
North	1,026,406	5.4	58	79.5
East	2,222,779	11.8	1	1.4
Central	4,908,038	26.5	2	2.8
South	4,407,450	23.7	12	16.4
West	6,072,872	32.6	0	0

Notes: *Review of African Political Economy*, no. 97, p. 511.

The ministry of finance is a Northern Regions preserve, and the result is a gross misallocation of development investment among regions. No [non-northern] state has ever expended more than 36% of its allocated budget, while actual expenditure of the two northern States has never dropped below 60% of their annual approved allocation. This has put the northern States in position to attract extra funds originally destined for other states<sup>113</sup>.

**Table 3.4: The National Council for Distribution of Resources**

Region	No of representatives	Percentage
Northern	19	76
Eastern	1	4
Central	1	4
Southern	3	12
Western	1	4

Note: *Review of African Political Economy*, no. 97, p.514.

Northern- south hostility predates the colonial era. In the 19<sup>th</sup> century & earlier, Arabs saw the south as a source of slaves & considered its people inferior by virtue of their Paganism if not their color.

<sup>112</sup> *Review of African Political Economy*, no. 97, p. 514.

<sup>113</sup> *Ibid.* p. 513.



The opportunity for power & wealth in the new politics & bureaucracy in southern Sudan were limited; some groups felt deprived of their shares by an ethnic group in power. Moreover, ethnic groups at one time or another competed for more traditional resources, contributing to a heritage of hostility toward one another.

Interethnic tensions also have occurred in the north. Disaffection in Darfur with the Arab-dominated Khartoum government led in the late 1980's to Darfur becoming a virtually autonomous province.

Further, by the late 1960's as cash crops were introduced, land & labor were becoming objects of commercial transactions. As this happened, the Arabs & the Fur competed for scarce natural resources & gave their greater prominence & power. The Fur regarded the Arabs as exploiters. The discovery of oil in the late 1970's [not appreciably exploited by 1991 because of the civil war leading to the departure of Chevron overseas as petroleum corporation personnel] added another resource & further potential for conflict. While men do the fighting, some women have the role of appraising men's conduct in war. They can make or break a man's reputation with their poems and songs that is locally called hakkama.

The Condominium's developmental efforts were concentrated in an area resembling an inverted T imposed on Sudan: composed of the valley of the Nile to the north of Khartoum, the Blue and White Nile areas immediately south of Khartoum, central Kordofan, and the southern part of Kassala province.

Since independence, not a single major development scheme has been implemented in Western Region<sup>114</sup>. Where, though, religiously the population is Muslim, but not Arabic.

Decentralization of development may become a significant feature of the governmental regionalization efforts, as regional governments plan their own local economies. Decentralization, however, will require a major commitment of

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<sup>114</sup> Ibid.

political will, as all of the economic incentives favor concentration of development around the three towns.

### **Conclusion**

At the conclusive point of utilization of natural resources on ethnic lines in Sudan, it can be said that most of the resources are occupied by the ruling cultural-political group of Arab identity. More and major irrigation projects are distributed to the northern Sudan that is culturally Arab, whether these are canals or diesel pumped schemes. Even the Gezira scheme and introduction of wheat crop in central Sudan was funded by Arab countries of Gulf area on ethnic lines. They looked Sudan in 1970's-1980 as bread basket for their food demand and supported Sudan with arms to fight with non-Arab Sudanese of the Southern Sudan.

Good pastures are occupied by Arab identities in Darfur and Kordofan provinces where other ethnic groups also lived. Even, sometimes, government also supported this practice through making its local trained militias who served the government in two terms, first by forcing the non-Arab Sudanese for proselytization and secondly to depopulate other ethnic groups so that they may occupy the area.

Khartoum supports the murahaleen militia to do its fighting. The murahaleen are Arab tribesman who harbor a historic enmity against the neighbouring southern Dinka tribe- a feud based on ancient competition over grazing land, cattle raiding, and the abduction of slaves. Khartoum has exploited this rivalry by employing the murahaleen to harass the Dinka in Bahr al Ghazal and to run interference for the army's resupply trains to garrison in the provincial capital Wau. Tribal fights have claimed thousands of lives in recent years in Darfur region of Western Sudan. Competition over scarce and diminishing resources is the usual cause of conflict, pitting nomads against nomads, nomads against cultivators, migrants from Chad across the border against local inhabitants, and Arabs against Fur.

Same is the condition in relation to oil resource of Sudan that are found mostly in Southern Sudan or the area that is occupied by non-Arab Sudanese. The government of Sudan led by Arab ethnic line tried, since 1970's when oil was discovered in that area, to dislocate the native Dinka and Nuer people from that region and to occupy that region by Arabs, because oil revenues give a major boost to economic plight of northern government and simultaneously support the war expenditure of government against the southern rebels. From the north's perspective, therefore, the battle against the south has become self-sustaining, both politically and economically. It has become, in essence a perfect war.

## CHAPTER – IV

### ETHNIC DIVIDE IN SUDAN AND ITS IMPACT ON RESOURCE UTILIZATION AND MANAGEMENT

Geographically Sudan is made up of, diverse regions and includes many different peoples. Its physical and social multiplicity is so large that it has been said a mixture of tribal and regional systems. Geographically and socially people started to integrate themselves in various local groups to protect and enhance their distinct cultural, geographical and historical identity.

The identities of people existing in the Sudan are multifaceted over and over again, and overlap in perplexing ways. Identification of someone depends upon the cultural background of a provided situation. Thus, for example, a person from the northern Sudan might be identified as an Arab.

Group identities at local and individual level are incorporated into broader identities. In this process the Sudanese ethnically group divisions, usually preserves the autonomy of the small-scale identity. The most important apparatus of this multidimensional representation are ethnic and tribal identities, language, religion and common heritage.

The pluralism society produces its tornable impact on utilization and management of natural resources. Ethnic groups are fighting with each other to get possession over natural resources. The resources are remained underdeveloped and less utilized in their proper potentiality because of the civil war that engaged the locals in fight and shifted their mind from technological and environmental improvements that are the basic infrastructure for utilization of natural resources. People remained unskilled and inadequate to manage the natural resources.

## AGGRAVATED ETHNIC DIVIDE

Due to certain reasons Sudan's social composition is ethnically divided in many groupings and sub-groupings that effect its national integration as well as its capacity to mobilize the potentiality of its natural resources. It is estimated that the population of Sudan is divided into 572 tribes<sup>115</sup>. It is the social composition who uses the resources of a country and if this composition is engaged in conflicts than it can not use that potentiality in a proper way that would otherwise be utilized in a best way.

Ethnically Sudan is divided in many groups comprised of Arabs, Dinka, Nuba, Beja, Nuer, Azande, Beri, Fur, and Shilluk etc. We may count many reasons behind this divide. The most important factors are mentioned below:

### Race

Race is normally used to refer to minor biological differences. The shape of head, colour of the hair, eyes, skin etc. are some of the physical characteristics, which are taken into account in determining the race.

Racism is the belief that particular group is superior to others. Thus it excludes other groups from the people that belong to another race, and resulting in group divisions in society on the basis of any element that defines the race. The population of Sudan is basically composed of two races the Mediterranean and the Negroid<sup>116</sup>.

The people of Mediterranean race have long head, straight forehead, small eyebrow, normal lips, and light coloring eyes, wavy hairs with black colour, olive colour skin, and average height of 160 cm<sup>117</sup>. The Arab people in northern, central, western and eastern Sudan belong o this race<sup>118</sup>. The people of Negroid race have curly and dense hairs with black colour, broad nose, long head and skull, thick lips

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<sup>115</sup> Alasdair Drysdale and Geruld H. Blake, *The Middle East and North Africa: A Political Geography*, New York: Oxford University Press, 1985, p. 215.

<sup>116</sup> E.A. Boateng, *A Political Geography of Africa*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1979, p. 22.

<sup>117</sup> C. Mamoria, *Human Geography*, Agra: Sahitya Bhavan Publications, 1997, p. 82

<sup>118</sup> E.A. Boateng, *A Political Geography of Africa*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1979, p. 231.

and outward oriented jaw, average height of 170 cm<sup>119</sup>. Most of the population of southern Sudan belongs to this race<sup>120</sup>.

A different course of action was seen to be operational in Sudan. Highly developed groups, Arabs in particular, were considered to turn out to be degraded all the way through close forms of interaction in the company of people of inferior stock, that is, in the course of miscegenation. The innermost thought here is that Arab genes or blood became watered down through fusion with the genes or blood of inferior races, to the tip that the hypothetical advanced characters of Arabness were nowhere to be found. So they tried to keep themselves away from others and this tendency produced a separate ethnic identity<sup>121</sup>.

### **Religion**

Faith in different religions divides people in various sects and groups. The daily routinely life is guided according to the basic principles of the religion which they follow. The morning prayers, dressings, food styles, living styles, ethics, behavior all these are fashioned by religious value and traditions. Each religion shapes a special set of attitudes and institutions. The followers of different religion accustomed with these things in a different way so they develop a different life style. Every religion thinks that they are in the correct way to God so they are superior, their behavior, habits, rituals are the best and other religions are not comparable with their religion. This type of thinking develops a feeling of religious divide in society.

The Christians that have faith in different norms and values, the Muslims in different and any other religion have faith in other life styles. When we see the religious composition of the Sudan, about 70 % of the Sudanese population is

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<sup>119</sup> C. Mamoria, *Human Geography*, Agra: Sahitya Bhavan Publications, 1997, p. 83

<sup>120</sup> E.A. Boateng, *A Political Geography of Africa*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1979, p. 231.

<sup>121</sup> M.A. Mohamed Salih and John Mar kakis [ed.], *Ethnicity and the State of Eastern Africa*. Stockholm: Elanders Gotab, 1998, p. 64.

Muslim<sup>122</sup>. The Muslims are concentrated in the northern regions of the country, where they make up, in some areas, virtually all of the population<sup>123</sup>.

Approximately 5 percent of the population is Christian. This is primarily the result of western missionary activity during the past century in the central and southern areas<sup>124</sup>. The largest Christian group is Roman Catholic, and there are Protestant groups and a few smaller communities of Middle Eastern Christian traditions [for example, the Copts]. The Roman Catholics and Protestants are primarily southerners.

The third major religion grouping is based on adherence to tribal customs and patterns of belief. Such world views are identified with particular tribal and ethnic groups. About 25 percent<sup>125</sup> of the population primarily in the southern region follows this type of practice and faith.

Christianity came to the Sudan through the travels of merchants and refugees from the Roman Empire. Christians were also engaged in the process of religion conversion, but from traditional to Christianity. Rules of the local kingdoms in the Nubia and the central Nile valley converted from the religious traditions of antiquity to Christianity<sup>126</sup>.

The advancement of Islam in the Sudan has shaped a special set of attitudes and institutions. Initially, Islam had move toward the Sudan through the migrations of Arab tribes and Muslim merchants. These groups had been to blame for the gradual opening of Islamic practices into Sudanese life before the founding of the Funj state<sup>127</sup>.

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<sup>122</sup> Ann M. Lesch. *Sudan: the torn country*, pp. 218.

<sup>123</sup> Alasdair Drysdale and Geruld H. Blake, *The Middle East and North Africa: A Political Geography*, New York: Oxford University Press, 1985, p. 215.

<sup>124</sup> John Obert Voll and Sarah Potts Voll, *The Sudan: Unity and Diversity in a Multicultural State*, London, West view Press. 1985, pp. 16.

<sup>125</sup> Ann M. Lesch. *Sudan: the torn country*, pp. 218.

<sup>126</sup> John Obert Voll and Sarah Potts Voll, *The Sudan: Unity and Diversity in a Multicultural Stat.*, London: West view Press. 1985, pp. 20.

<sup>127</sup> Lauro, Lino J and Samuelson, Peter A, "Toward Pluralism in Sudan: A Traditionalist Approach", *Harvard International Law Journal*, 37(1), Winter 1996, pp.65-138.

When Egypt was conquered by the Arab-Islamic armies in 640, a new era in Sudanese-Egyptian relations began. For eight or nine centuries there was a long history of interactions between Muslim rulers in Egypt and Christian rulers in the Sudan. Gradually, with the migration of Arab tribes into the Sudan and the growing activities of Muslim merchants, the influence of Christianity began to decline. Some states became Muslim through the conversion of their rulers; others were conquered by Muslim neighbors. The sequence was complete by the closing stages of the fifteenth century.

As a result this local practice produced two emerging trends, the first is that due to conversion in Christianity the southerners or the people residing in other parts of the Sudan and who were facing the problem of their religion conversion, were becoming day by day far-different from the other peoples, that resulted in a religion based divide of the social composition of Sudan. The second is, as outsiders challenge these local practice and beliefs, either intellectually or by military force, there is tendency among southerners to join together to defend their special and unique traditions.

### **Language**

In society, different groups may be formed on the basis of the languages spoken by them. The speakers of a language look the speakers of their own language as their own family member [in a broad term], because he can talk with them, understand their feelings and express his own feelings and thoughts to them. This whole socio-geographical and psychological process develops a feeling of belongingness in the same linguistic group. People of one linguistic group look others as strangers because they can not interact with each other so they feel that they are different. Thus the whole society is divided in different linguistic groups.

It is expected that more than 26 different languages are spoken in the Sudan<sup>128</sup>. In numerous cases a particular language is part of the tribal and ethnic

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<sup>128</sup> Alasdair Drysdale and Geruld H. Blake, *The Middle East and North Africa: A Political Geography*, New York: Oxford University Press, 1985, p. 215.



identity and helps to construct that identity more unique. The northern part of the country speaks Arabic, the Beja speaks Hamitic-northern Cushitic, the Western people speaks Hausa, the Dinka- Nuer- Shilluk speaks language of Chari Nile category, the Azande speaks language of Niger-Congo family, the people of the Nuba area speaks Kordofanian. This is true largely among the minor tribal groups. The chief languages have broader influence of a regional and, a national nature. In Sudan in his context Arabic is the chief language.

Approximately 40 percent of the population who are identified ethnically as being Arab, and at least another 10 % population speak Arabic as the language of their home<sup>129</sup>. In history, Arabic has been the language of the major political units in the northern two-thirds of the country as well as the language of nearly everyone interregional commercial activity. Arabic was moreover the fundamental language of literacy for a good number of Sudanese. Therefore, Arabic became the language of urban society and learning, at the same time as the majority of other languages remained languages of folk culture and popular civilization.

In the southern Sudan, language there has been a divisive factor no solitary local language has surveyed to triumph over the tribal boundaries.

As an outcome, the further extensively used language for urban society and region wide actions in the south is English. Practice of English enabled leaders of smaller tribes to uphold a little level of autonomy in their affairs with larger tribes like the Dinka or with legislative body of a northern Arabic-speaking administration<sup>130</sup>.

On the other hand, more formal, government-sponsored efforts to boost the speed of arabization in the southern Sudan have aroused worries and resistance. In the north arabization appeared to be competent to take place exclusive of the damage of local cultural autonomy, but southerners feared that arabization in their region was a threat to their personal extraordinary way of life and identities. The

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<sup>129</sup> John Obert Voll and Sarah Potts Voll, *The Sudan: Unity and Diversity in a Multicultural State*, London: West view Press. 1985, pp. 13-14.

<sup>130</sup> Ibid. p. 15

question of language preference has been a starting point for inconsistency as well as consistency.

### **Economy**

Though economic factors are not directly divisive factors of different ethnic groups, yet they are responsible for promoting, vibrating and accelerating other divisive factors. It is the economic status that promotes factions. The people those who have plenty of resources, income, and wealth may have different notions from the people those who are poor in their economic status. If one ethnic group is rich and resourceful and another is poor and resource less then they may feel each other as different economic groups. As the Arab people in northern Sudan in fertile Nile valley are economically rich and the western and southern Sudanese people are poor, faces drought and famine, almost every year, have different feelings towards each other<sup>131</sup>. Socially and psychologically a feeling of jealousy and being more competitive is developed among different groups and they try to develop their group so they are more vehemently stick to their group and make the division more and more stronger. As the Fur people faced in 1960's to 1980's.

Another economic aspect may be possible in the strength of work force of people, as, if one knew a person's ethnic identification, one could fairly reliable predict what form her or his incorporation would take, including the type, pattern and intensity of work. The result was a highly segmented labor force structured in terms of ethnic identification. Employers who sought labor of a particular type wanted first of all to know which ethnic groups provided it, and then ended to go to the villages where those ethnic groups were known to live in order to recruit<sup>132</sup>.

“.....The labor files of the Sudan Plantations Syndicate in the Gazira Scheme are filled with messages from inspectors requesting workers of the particular ethnicity they deemed most suitable to the type of work needing to be done. Workers who sought work of the particular type found it necessary or convenient to be in the villages where they could expect potential employers to look for them. In this way, an ethnic template of a

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<sup>131</sup> E A. Boateng, *A Political Geography of Africa*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1979, p. 232.

<sup>132</sup> M.A. Mohamed Salih and John Mar kakis [ed.], *Ethnicity and the State of Eastern Africa*. Stockholm: Elanders Gotab, 1998, p. 65

very particular sort was imposed on Sudan's social geography. In this situation, access to certain positions in the labor force and labor market tended to become regulated by ethnic identity" [p. 65]<sup>133</sup>.

## Political

Politics also is not a direct divisive factor of ethnic grouping as the race, religion and language are, yet it is the most critical factor that accelerates the division. The increasing tendencies of representation of group in compare to other groups in government and power; distribution of seats, even at the higher levels of government and power; being in power since long time; take ill advantage of power in favour of the interests of their own social group; are such factors that divides different social groups.

The states that emerged in the central and western parts of the Sudan, the largest of which were the Darfur and Funj sultanates, firmly established traditions of super tribal political organization in the northern Sudan. This political experience provided a way of integrating tribes and local religious centers into a political whole without eliminating local identities<sup>134</sup>.

The Muslim peoples were in dominance in the government and politics of Sudan since independence so they tactfully tried to impose their own religious tradition on other peoples. Up to some extant Muslim laws or the laws accepted by the Government of the Sudan that were to some extent influenced by Muslim religion, were also responsible for the ethnic divide in Sudan. In 1983, the Numeri regime [1969-85] introduced Islamic sharia laws that resulted in religious uprising in Sudan<sup>135</sup>.

In November 1991, the Khartoum governor issued an administrative decree which requisite women to be dressed in Islamic dress in all state offices, public buildings and schools. Consequently, the Civil Aviation Authority issued rule prohibited, female employees who did not put on Islamic dress, from inflowing the

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<sup>133</sup> Ibid.

<sup>134</sup> Ibid. p. 34

<sup>135</sup> Lauro, Lino J and Samuelson, Peter A, "Toward Pluralism in Sudan: A Traditionalist Approach", *Harvard International Law Journal*, 37(1), Winter 1996, p. 105

airport building, because, the National Islamic Front (NIF) dominated governor's council jihad considered that the airport represents the reflection of the Sudan to the outside World and that picture should be Islamic. Schools were instructed that female students should be dressed in Islamic dress. When these set of laws were fundamentally overlooked by the public, they were reintroduced in 1996<sup>136</sup>.

The Muslim-Arab dominated ruling parties made, tactfully, militias or distorted the Sudanese Army in such a way so that they can, if not liberally, forcibly achieve their goal of an Islamic-Arabic country. The establishment of the Popular Defense Forces [PDF]<sup>137</sup> followed a practice of militarization of Sudanese society initiated by the government of Sadig Al-Mahdi [1986-89]. Tribal militias were formed in 1986 to serve in the war against the SPLA and were responsible for atrocities committed against communities in southern Sudan<sup>138</sup>.

The PDF recruited officers among young professionals and students connected by way of the Muslim Brotherhood. According to the regime's party line, the PDF is waging jihad to stop the progress of Christian opening out in central Africa. The formation of PDFs has considerably distorted the composition of the Sudanese military organization. By 1996, the PDF immensely outnumbered the ordinary army, whose officer positions were drastically worn-out by recurring purges<sup>139</sup>.

PDF forces have been active against suspected dissidents in north, including regions where the majority of the population is Muslim but non-Arab, such as Darfur, Kordofan, the Nuba mountains, and the eastern region. To that extent, the declaration of jihad has more to it than simply the invocation of an Islamic tradition. Its association with the NIF, whose followers are predominantly

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<sup>136</sup> M.A. Mohamed Salih and John Markakis [ed.], *Ethnicity and the State of Eastern Africa*. Stockholm: Elanders Gotab, 1998, p.77.

<sup>137</sup> PDF was a '...paramilitary force whose objectives are to train men and women in civil and military tasks, to raise their level of security consciousness, and instill military discipline so that they can cooperate with the regular armed forces and security services'. [ M.A. Mohamed Salih and John Markakis. *Ethnicity and the State of Eastern Africa*. Stockholm: Elanders Gotab. 1998, p. 76. ]

<sup>138</sup> M.A. Mohamed Salih and John Markakis. *Ethnicity and the State of Eastern Africa*. Stockholm: Elanders Gotab. 1998. p. 76.

<sup>139</sup> Ibid.

Arabic-speaking ethnic groups, means that Islam has a distinct Arabic character superimposed on it by the regime<sup>140</sup>.

Indeed, one of the chief causes of the war's persistence and spread beyond the south-to central Sudan in the 1980s, the east in the 1990s, and the west this year- is that the ruling Islamist-military party does not respect diversity among Muslims and Arabs, much less the country's African majority. There are gross abuses of the rights of the majority. If the government could abandon its central programme of Islamizing and Arabising the people are agree to real multi- part democracy and human rights, peace might have a chance.

The marginalized ethnic groups that joined the SPLA<sup>141</sup> took up arms against the regime as part of the struggle of the oppressed for an alternative Sudanese identity outside the Arab-Islam framework of the NIF. In a sense, force has become an important factor in current Sudanese identity formation<sup>142</sup>. At the discussion point, marginalized ethnic groups are dead set against to political incorporation into the dominant ethno nationalist identities. Rulers in the center were seen as outsiders, even if they were Sudanese.

There were some laws in Sudan made by the government that also led to the ethnically division of the Sudanese population. One such law was the law of citizenship as:

“This was made clear in the first act the Sudanese legislative assembly was empowered to formulate, the 1948 Nationality Act. It defined citizenship in terms of membership [by descent] in ethnic groups living within the territorial boundaries established for the Anglo-Egyptian Condominium in 1898. in contrast to the policies of many countries, being born on Sudanese soil, even to 'parents born in Sudan, did no entitle a person to citizenship in the absence of the proper ethnic qualification, in practice, it often became sufficient to be acknowledged as a member of an Arab tribe to be accorded the rights and privileges of citizenship. In contrast, admitting to [or sometimes even being suspected of] membership of an ethnic group thought to have originated in West Africa and generally regarded as not Sudanese, was often sufficient to disqualify a claim to

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<sup>140</sup> Ibid. pp.76-77.

<sup>141</sup> '...Sudan People's Liberation Army [SPLA] and its political body, the Sudan People's Liberation Movement [SPLM]...', *Africa today*, Vol. 51, No. 1, Fall 2004, p. 65.

<sup>142</sup> M.A. Mohamed Salih and John Markakis. *Ethnicity and the State of Eastern Africa*. Stockholm: Elanders Gotab, 1998, p. 75.

Sudanese citizenship, even for people whose families and lineages had established themselves in what came to be Sudan well before British conquest" [Pp.67-68 Jay O'Brien in the article ('power and the discourse of ethnicity in Sudan')]<sup>143</sup>

Here is a case study of Zabarma people:

"The Zabarma people of Um Fila and other villages in the Rahad region are a case in point. When tenancies in the new Rahad irrigation scheme were allocated to farmers in 1976, all Zabarma who had not already secured nationality certificates were denied them, despite the fact that their ancestors had settled in Sudan in the middle of the nineteenth century. When sympathetic officials encouraged Zabarma men to be listed as Arab so that they might be eligible, they refused. When three adult men in Um Fila claimed membership of Arab tribes, they were granted tenancies without having to prove citizenship. Neither the abolition of native administration in 1964, nor the exclusion of questions about ethnicity from the 1973 census, altered the fact that ethnicity, defined in a rigid and essentialist way, was a fundamental aspect of postcolonial government policy" [Pp.67-68 Jay O'Brien has described in the article ('power and the discourse of ethnicity in Sudan')]<sup>144</sup>.

### Strategic

Foreign states and people are some times also responsible for making ethnic groupings in society, promoting and cementing the feelings of groupings by supporting the group from out side. Borders are culturally transition areas, having same group of population existing both sides of the border.

If the ethnic group in domestic country is undergoing with pressure of any national or international disputes or problems; then the neighboring country if it has the same ethnic group in its territory, or any other country in the World creates and cements the ethnic feelings in that domestic country, by providing ethnically biased help, and by separating the specific identity of that ethnic group from others<sup>145</sup>. As in Sudan the Arab peoples are supported by the Arab nations, Fur and Baggara by Chad, Azanda by Uganda, Beja and Anyuak by Ethiopia.

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<sup>143</sup> Ibid.

<sup>144</sup> Ibid.

<sup>145</sup> E A. Boateng, *A Political Geography of Africa*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1979, p. 232.

## IMPACT ON RESOURCE UTILIZATION AND MANAGEMENT

It is the social composition of the people, who give the term of resource to anything or use the resources at any given situation. If the population is divided in many opponent groups or struggling with each other in a bloody way than there are little chances that they can give their full attention and efforts to those resources. Their mindset is, almost, toward the practices or tactics that, how they can deprive the other group from those scarce resources, without knowing that in this struggle no one can gain forever and the potentiality of the resource will becoming extinct day by day through its division in smaller pieces and its wastage into the hands of unable peoples. This is the case with most of the natural resources in Sudan whether it is land, mineral, population, water, or vegetation.

In Sudan different ethnic groups are divided on the different lines of their identity. In the mineral rich areas, like petroleum oil areas of southern Sudan, the Nuer and other peoples mostly Dinka are straddling to have possession on that land and the Arab group in the form of government is supporting one group by playing an ethnic card. Same is the situation in fertile lands of valley areas from where in the wake of irrigation projects the native peoples are devoid from their land by the peoples who are in power.

In the southern Sudan, where various forces destroyed that region's isolation, explorers and traders moved up the Nile Valley in search of products, wealth, and glory. Early commercial activity centered on the ivory trade, but merchants soon found the trade in slaves to be more profitable. By the middle of the century a number of private armies had been created by slave trades that raided many parts of the south. The government did little to stop this and, at least at times, actually participated in this trade<sup>146</sup>. This trade and strife between private armies led to destroy the harmony of that region, persuaded the local peoples to struggle with each other so that they can make possession on any natural resource of the region and can make a grand profit from exchange.

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<sup>146</sup> John Obert Voll and Sarah Potts Voll, *The Sudan: Unity and Diversity in a Multicultural State*, London: West view Press, 1985, p. 39.

## **Economy**

Sudan is mostly farming and pastoral country, by means of about 59% of the economically active population busy in the agricultural segment. Industry is generally agriculturally based and accounted for a projected 18.3% of gross domestic product in 2002. According to the World Bank estimates, its gross national income, in 2002, was equivalent to \$350 per head on an international purchasing power parity basis<sup>147</sup>.

Due to ethnic divide and conflicts in Sudan, its economy faced crisis through overspending on a grandiose development programme, heavy government borrowing and inefficiency and corruption in the public sector earlier in the 1970s, leading to the suspension of several important rehabilitation schemes and other activities. However, the Islamization, in 1983, of economic policies and the legal code, was an attempt to suppress growing popular opposition of Nimeri's government, and the fall in living standards associated with the austerity programmes, brought the economic improvement to an abrupt end<sup>148</sup>.

Beside the Nuba, South Kordofan is the home for Sudanese Arab cattle herding tribes [Baggara], Arab traders [Jellaba] and Fellata farming communities. Though ethnically they belong from the same Arab group but there are so many sub-groups even in a broad group. The region's fertile lands have long been a focus for tensions between these competing resource users<sup>149</sup>.

Historically managed through economic exchange and inter-marriage, in the past three decades local resource disputes have been exacerbated by drought, the commercialization of Sudan's agrarian economy and expansion of mechanized farming, and the discovery of commercial oil deposits in the southern reaches of South Kordofan. Inter-tribal tensions have been manipulated by successive civilian

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<sup>147</sup> *Africa South of Sahara, 2005*. London: Europa Publishing, p. 1101.

<sup>148</sup> Ibid.

<sup>149</sup> *Review of African Political Economy*, vol. 25, no. 77, 1998[Sept.], p. 466.



and military governments in a struggle to control and exploit South Kordofan's agrarian and mineral assets<sup>150</sup>.

The displacement of populations in Sudan is not just a by-product of war. It has been a strategy employed by the warring parties to control territory, resources and peoples<sup>151</sup>. As the Baggara militias that are supported by the government of Khartoum, raided continuously in oil fields of Southern part of Kordofan province to depopulate the local Nuer and Dinka, so that Arab based government can get control over the oil fields<sup>152</sup>. The end product, is a destitute and asset less population whose labour can be drawn upon for the commercial exploitation of the region<sup>153</sup>.

Epidemics, famine and forced movements of population led to a significant depopulation of the central rain lands, while the cultivators of the Gezira had been displaced to provide space for the western Mahdist immigrants. Agriculture had been exploited to support the military establishment, and surpluses that survived the demands of the tax collector were claimed by military governors or were vulnerable to seizure by rapacious, and often starving, soldiers. Thus there was little incentive for the agricultural sector to produce more than each family's needs, even when such production was possible.

### **Petroleum**

By exacerbating civil unrest in the south, Islamization also created security uncertainties, which led to the suspension of activities and the exploitation of the country's petroleum reserves. In Sudan oil is located beneath war-torn southern swamps and savannas.

Chevron discovered substantial southern oil reserves in 1978, the impoverished Africans of the south feared that the oil refinery, pipeline, port, and

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<sup>150</sup> Ibid. p. 467.

<sup>151</sup> Ibid.

<sup>152</sup> Hutchinson, Sharon E, "Curse From God? Religious and Political Dimensions of the Post-1991 Rise of Ethnic Violence in South Sudan", *Journal of Modern African Studies*, 39(2), 2001 (June), pp.307-31.

<sup>153</sup> *Review of African Political Economy*, vol. 25, no. 77, 1998[Sept.], p. 467.

other infrastructure would be located in the north, and it would be cheated of its potential benefits<sup>154</sup>.

In 1999, oil in the ground became the main objective of government military actions- scorched earth campaigns intended to run southern pastoralists off their land. Oil above ground becomes a target of sporadic rebel attacks designed to scare off foreign oil operators, as was done in 1984 with Chevron. Hundreds of thousands of southern Sudanese whose families had unsuspectingly lived with their cattle on the oilfields for centuries have been brutally displaced, without notice, hearing or compensation. Finally production began – on the military’s terms<sup>155</sup>.

Conveniently, the new oil revenues, soaring from \$547 million in 2000 to \$805 million last year, enabled the Sudanese military to purchase attack helicopters and weapons that intensified the war and expanded oil protection. Up to sixty percent of the revenues went to military spending, which increased by almost fifty percent in two years<sup>156</sup>.

Human rights groups condemned Talisman [foreign oil investor company in Sudan] and the other foreign oil investors for their role in oil development in Sudan, whose record of gross human rights abuses intensified when the Islamist government came to power through a military coup in 1989, when Talisman stepped in, two million Sudanese- were already dead and fur million displaced because of the war, not to mention war-provoked famines and epidemics<sup>157</sup>.

The human rights groups claimed that foreign companies operating in the southern theatre of war exacerbated the abuses; the companies built new oilfield airstrips, bridge, and roads which were promptly put to military use. Successful operations by Talisman and its partners- produced a revenue stream that enticed

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<sup>154</sup> *The World Today*, December 2003, p. 25.

<sup>155</sup> Rone Jemera, “Sudan: rebels, religion and oil”, *World Today*, Vol. 59, No. 12, 2003 [Dec.], p. 25.

<sup>156</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>157</sup> *Ibid.* pp. 25-26.

the government to clear more civilians from their pastures and small sorghum fields<sup>158</sup>.

The government supported a faction of the SPLM/A that split from the rebel group in 1991 along ethnic lines-part of the Nuer ethnic group which traditionally live in the oilfields. The Nuer, the second largest southern ethnic group, took on the largest the Dinka, which dominates the officer corps of the SPLM/A. The Nuer presence in the oilfields kept the SPLM/A out of the oil business<sup>159</sup>.

The government's success in playing the ethnic card began to break down, however. It weakened the Nuer faction by causing proliferation of warlords. Then the Sudanese military insisted to guarding all the oilfields, even in home areas of ex-rebel leaders not allowing a role for the Nuer. Finally, ordinary southerners did not even receive the crumbs of the oil business: the government allowed CNPC unit to bring in ten thousand Chinese laborers to build the infrastructure<sup>160</sup>.

The main Nuer faction first went on the military offensive to prevent Sudanese government troop incursions into their oilfields in 1999. Lundin Company and OMV Company had to suspend operations several times, for months at a time. They did not succeed in stopping Talisman however. After almost three years of resistance, the main Nuer faction returned to the SPLM/A<sup>161</sup>.

### **Land Tenure**

If the land is the permanent property of peasant then he can use this resource in the best way and can make efforts to improve the degrading quality of the land in a long-term basis, but if the land is under the possession of government then there is always uncertainty about the use of land among the peasants. The situation is worsened more when the people in the power belongs to the different ethnic group because they can favour their own ethnic line.

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<sup>158</sup> *Petroleum Economist*, vol. 72, no. 5, May 2005, p. 4.

<sup>159</sup> Rone Jemera, "Sudan: rebels, religion and oil", *World Today*, Vol. 59, No. 12, 2003 [Dec.], p. 26.

<sup>160</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>161</sup> *Ibid.*

In Sudan, in general, ownership was given to those who could demonstrate cultivation for several years; those who could prove legal title but not recent possession were compensated elsewhere. Lands for which there were no private claims were assumed to belong to the government, an assumption formalized and extended by the Land Acquisition Ordinance [1903], which allowed the government to expropriate any land, rural or urban, required for a public purpose. By 1911, the commissions had completed land registration in most of the agricultural districts. In the north, cultivators were recognized as owners even in tribal areas as tribal lands were broken up into individually held plots. In the south, on the other hand, land disputes continued to be settled on a tribal basis according to custom<sup>162</sup>. There was not any permanent settlement of land ownership in Southern Sudan. This gave path way to the tribal conflicts over lands. This uncertainty of land tenure results in lowering of crop production, which might be higher in opposite situation.

### **Conclusion**

Sudan is divided in so many ethnic societies on different sets of devising forces. Among these race, religion, language are the main. Linguistic discard seldom appears as the sole factor, generally, it is accompanied by differences in religion and ethnicity. Politicization of all devising factors make ethnic divide more aggravated. Pluralism of national societies is not always a worst thing, it is the characteristic of all most all of the countries of the world, but when this pluralism is diverted to resource utilization and management then it is bad. Ethnically divided society of Sudan has caused mismanagement and underutilization of natural resources. Each group is diverting resources towards their own interests; so the economy of large scale is devoid from all groups; resources are torn into small pieces.

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<sup>162</sup> John Obert Voll and Sarah Potts Voll, *The Sudan: Unity and Diversity in a Multicultural State*, London: West view Press, 1985, p. 97.

Many developmental projects are trapped under the paw of underutilization due to ethnic conflicts. Like oil is not exploiting in Southern Sudan due to civil war. Another scheme affected by war is, World Bank funded rice project in the Malwal Dinka area of Aweil. Located in the transitional grazing areas, the project was initially opposed by the Dinka and only after much demonstration of its utility, it was accepted. Covering an area of one million acres, the project was intended to make the Sudan self- sufficient in rice. Although the project is still productive, its capacity has been considerably reduced by the effects of the war. The Jonglei canal project was also affected by war since 1983.

## CHAPTER – V

### CONCLUSION

The 237,600,000 hectares area of Sudan is bisected by the Blue and White Niles, which merge at the capital city of Khartoum. Along the two rivers the country has many geographical features from Sudd to the desert, intersecting by the hill and plateau area of central-west and east region. These multifaceted divisions played a crucial role for the evolution and development of different life styles and social groups thus dividing the country in many socio-geographical divisions.

The society of Sudan is torn in different ethnic groups and sub-groups on the basis of race, religion, language and region. There is no conformity among various ethnic groups on these bases. There are sub-groups even in a large ethnic group. Linguistic and religious difference overlaps. The politicization of this division has embittered the relations among the Sudanese and plays a crucial role in the push and pull between unity and secession.

Historical developments have also underlined and exacerbated these differences. The Britishers attempted to seal off the south from the north by banning northern traders and Muslim preachers from operating there: they also banned Arab-style dress and the use of Arabic language in government offices and schools. Although these measures were designed to protect the south, they severed normal contact and exacerbated the inherent differences between the region's peoples. The Muslim Arab politicians in the north who led the drive for independence conceived of Sudan in their own image and hoped to transform the south into that image: southern leaders sought to preserve their autonomy and cultural identity.

Each socio-geographical division is dependent on its available resources, though these are very few and available in meager quality. Peoples have developed their social and economic life styles according to the natural resources. Due to harsh climatic conditions and relief features, pasture land is the main

resource of the Sudan, while the southern part has big amount of oil reserves. Nomadic pastoralism is the main occupation of the peoples to northern Sudan with exception along the Nile valley where settled agriculture has great influence with pastoralism as the supplement. The northern region faces severe droughts almost every year, so the people in the northern parts of Darfur and Kordofan provinces face scarcity of food. Their land is fertile but due to scarcity of water they have been forced by nature towards animal herding.

Most of Sudan's oil wealth lies in southern Sudan, the part of Sudan that has been fighting the repression of central governments for thirty-seven years. The amount of oil here is big but the location of the reserves in this area is bad because the southern peoples are devoid of the revenues from the exploitation of this natural resource, and the government use the infrastructure developed by the oil companies in this region to crush the rebellion of southern people, so the southerners are always feared that instead of developing the region by the infrastructure and revenue the north-dominant government is crushing their local identity and right of self-consciousness. Thus they sometimes attacks on company assets and the result is that this resource is not been exploiting with its full potentiality.

Most of the natural resources of Sudan are torn by war or ethnic conflicts, weather they are the pasture lands or agricultural land and petroleum. In Darfur and Kordofan provinces people fight for the right to good pasture lands on ethnic basis. Even the Muslim led government is supporting one group (to the Arabised Muslims) through its trained militias causing grand massacre of innocent peoples and violating the human rights at large scale. The government instead of indulging in wars and spending it's nearly 50% annual budget to war-economy, should understand that, this is a war that no one has won militarily.

Though Sudan is enormously diverse. Its hundred ethnic groups and religious cannot sit comfortably at the table, they would multiply the difficulties. In stead of this the peace process among different groups and government is going on. One of such agreement is held in Kenya on 9<sup>th</sup> January 2005, between the

north-dominated government and the SPLM. Both the parties are agreed to share the oil revenues in ratio of fifty-fifty, and the SPLM led armies will not attack on oil assets.

The international bodies and countries are also playing their role in Sudan. The U.N. wants peace in ethnically war trodden Sudan. The U.S. initially supported the SPLA but after 1997 when US Embassy was attacked in Nairobi then it turned against the separatist and pressurizing the government to settle all the ethnic issues. While neighboring countries are also playing their role. Congo, Central African Republic and Chad have aligned themselves closely with the regime, whereas Uganda and Eritrea support the NDA-SPLM alliance and Libya seeks to mediate between the government and the SPLM.

If a permanent peace settlement is held in Sudan between the various regional and ethnical identities than the country can manage and develop its natural resources with full of its potentiality. The international community, both governments and NGO's should begin to support various peace settlements.

At the conclusion of this profile of the modern Sudan, peaceful unity is a very important theme in modern Sudanese life. It will represent a significant dimension in all political activities and natural resource management. The present situation and historical experience of the country shows that Sudanese unity is not a simple matter. Diverse elements often compete and sometimes create real conflicts. Moreover, the genuineness of the regime's commitment to peace settlement and sharing to natural resources is suspected. Alternative of unity, respect to all diverse groups, equal rights to natural resources utilization and management, that supports diversity has yet to be achieved.



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