

Chapter 1 : A Short History of the Sudan - Wikipedia

A Short History of The Sudan (Oxford University Press) is a history book which concerns the development of the Sudan from the earliest times until the conclusion of the condominium era and the attainment of independence from Britain. It concentrates mainly on the political and social aspects of Sudanese.

A couple of days ago, July 9th, the Republic of South Sudan became the newest nation on the planet. There was wall-to-wall media coverage. Everybody and his friend was trying to grab a piece of history. The people of South Sudan have been at this nation-building business for quite some time. This is because they are totally different people from the folks in the north. The fact is the northern Sudanese are Arabs, and the southern Sudanese are Africans. The entire British Empire was an administrative mess for most of its history, and Africa was particularly complicated. Egypt, on the other hand and therefore Sudan was, legally, an independent province of the Ottoman Empire. Of course, the reality was different. The British were running the show in Cairo. There was a huge British presence in Egypt because the Brits owned the Suez Canal and they were going to protect it, come hell or high water. Therefore, they basically told the Khedive of Egypt the local dictator he could either do as he was told or Britain would find a new Khedive with better hearing. The Khedive listened the first time "every time" and it was a good arrangement. After that, Sudan was considered get this a condominium under Anglo Egyptian control, but South Sudan was always administered as a separate province. Again, it was a good arrangement. However, after World War II, in a wave of postwar austerity, the Brits decided to save some money and combine the two colonial administrations. Unfortunately, when it came time for independence, it mattered a great deal. The British screwed up. It ran hot and cold for the next fifty years. Here they are trying their best to join the family of nations, and the family seems to have disappeared, just like it did in Celebrities and the media played a huge role in getting these people a negotiated independence. As of Saturday, the South Sudanese automatically qualify as one of the poorest nations on earth. Here is a chance for the rest of us to do it right.

Chapter 2 : South Sudan: A Short History | WD Fyfe

A Short History of Sudan You are here: Countries / Sudan Sudan has its darkest years in history during its two civil wars starting after it gained independence from Egypt and United Kingdom in up to , and from to , and the Darfur rebellion in two years before the second civil war was to be resolved.

History of Sudan – In 1821, an Ottoman force conquered and unified the northern portion of the country. The new government was known as the Turkiyah or Turkish regime. They were looking to open new markets and sources of natural resources. Historically, the pestilential swamps of the Sudd discouraged expansion into the deeper south of the country. Although Egypt claimed all of the present Sudan during most of the 19th century, and established a province Equatoria in southern Sudan to further this aim, it was unable to establish effective control over the area. In the later years of the Turkiyah, British missionaries traveled from modern-day Kenya into the Sudan to convert the local tribes to Christianity. A typical slave merchant of Khartoum, Mahdism and condominium[edit] See also: Anglo-Egyptian invasion of Sudan , Battle of Omdurman , and Battle of Umm Diwaykarat In , a religious leader named Muhammad Ahmad proclaimed himself the Mahdi "guided one" and began a war to unify the tribes in western and central Sudan. His followers took the name " Ansars " "followers" which they continue to use today, in association with the single largest political grouping, the Umma Party once led by a descendant of the Mahdi, Sadiq al Mahdi. Taking advantage of conditions resulting from Ottoman-Egyptian exploitation and maladministration, the Mahdi led a nationalist revolt culminating in the fall of Khartoum on 26 January The interim governor-general of the Sudan, the British Major-General Charles George Gordon , and many of the fifty thousand inhabitants of Khartoum were massacred. The Mahdi died in June Following his victories in eastern Ethiopia, he sent an army to invade Egypt, where it was defeated by the British at Toshky. The British became aware of the weakness of the Sudan. Sudan was proclaimed a condominium in under British-Egyptian administration. The Governor-General of the Sudan, for example, was appointed by "Khedival Decree", rather than simply by the British Crown, but while maintaining the appearance of joint administration, the British Empire formulated policies, and supplied most of the top administrators. British control – [edit] Flag of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan – In , a Belgian expedition claimed portions of southern Sudan that became known as the Lado Enclave. The Lado Enclave was officially part of the Belgian Congo. At the same time the French claimed several areas: By they had a firm administrative hold on these areas and they planned on annexing them to French West Africa. An international conflict known as the Fashoda incident developed between France and the United Kingdom over these areas. In , France agreed to cede the area to the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. From , the United Kingdom and Egypt administered all of present-day Sudan as the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, but northern and southern Sudan were administered as separate provinces of the condominium. In the very early s, the British passed the Closed Districts Ordinances which stipulated that passports were required for travel between the two zones, and permits were required to conduct business from one zone into the other, and totally separate administrations prevailed. Islam was discouraged by the British in the south, where Christian missionaries were permitted to work. Condominium governors of south Sudan attended colonial conferences in East Africa, not in Khartoum, and the British hoped to add south Sudan to their East African colonies. Most of the British focus was on developing the economy and infrastructure of the north. Southern political arrangements were left largely as they had been prior to the arrival of the British. Until the s, the British had limited authority in the south. In order to establish their authority in the north, the British promoted the power of Sayyid Ali al-Mirghani , head of the Khatmiyya sect and Sayyid Abd al-Rahman al-Mahdi , head of the Ansar sect. In , the British began preparing the north for self-government, establishing a North Sudan Advisory Council to advise on the governance of the six North Sudanese provinces: Then, in , the British administration reversed its policy and decided to integrate north and south Sudan under one government. The South Sudanese authorities were informed at the Juba Conference of that they would in future be governed by a common administrative authority with the north. From , 13 delegates, nominated by the British authorities, represented the south on the Sudan Legislative Assembly. Many southerners felt betrayed by the British,

because they were largely excluded from the new government. The language of the new government was Arabic, but the bureaucrats and politicians from southern Sudan had, for the most part, been trained in English. Of the eight hundred new governmental positions vacated by the British in 1956, only four were given to southerners. Also, the political structure in the south was not as organized in the north, so political groupings and parties from the south were not represented at the various conferences and talks that established the modern state of Sudan. As a result, many southerners do not consider Sudan to be a legitimate state.

Post-colonial history to present [edit] Independence and the First Civil War[edit] Main articles: The transitional period toward independence began with the inauguration of the first parliament in 1956. On 18 August a revolt in the army in Torit Southern Sudan broke out, [75] which although quickly suppressed, led to a low level guerrilla insurgency by former Southern rebels, and marked the beginning of the First Sudanese Civil War. The United States was among the first foreign powers to recognize the new state. However, the Arab -led Khartoum government renege on promises to southerners to create a federal system, which led to a mutiny by southern army officers that sparked seventeen years of civil war “ In the early period of the war, hundreds of northern bureaucrats, teachers, and other officials, serving in the south were massacred. Abboud did not carry out his promises to return Sudan to civilian government, however, and popular resentment against army rule led to a wave of riots and strikes in late October that forced the military to relinquish power. The Abboud regime was followed by a provisional government until parliamentary elections in April led to a coalition government of the Umma and National Unionist Parties under Prime Minister Muhammad Ahmad Mahjoub. Between 1964 and 1969, Sudan had a series of governments that proved unable either to agree on a permanent constitution or to cope with problems of factionalism , economic stagnation, and ethnic dissidence. The succession of early post-independence governments were dominated by Arab Muslims who viewed Sudan as a Muslim Arab state. The Nimeiry Era[edit] Main article: The coup leader, Col. Gaafar Nimeiry , became prime minister, and the new regime abolished parliament and outlawed all political parties. Disputes between Marxist and non-Marxist elements within the ruling military coalition resulted in a briefly successful coup in July 1971, led by the Sudanese Communist Party. Several days later, anti-communist military elements restored Nimeiry to power. In 1972, the Addis Ababa Agreement led to a cessation of the north-south civil war and a degree of self-rule. This led to ten years hiatus in the civil war. In 1973, the Sudanese government became more pro-Western, and made plans to export food and cash crops. However, commodity prices declined throughout the 1970s causing economic problems for Sudan. At the same time, debt servicing costs, from the money spent mechanizing agriculture, rose. This further promoted the mechanized export agriculture sector. This caused great economic problems for the pastoralists of Sudan See Nuba Peoples. In 1975, the Ansars mounted a bloody but unsuccessful coup attempt. Arms suppliers[edit] Sudan relied on a variety of countries for its arms supplies. Since independence the army had been trained and supplied by the British, but relations were cut off after the Arab-Israel Six-Day War in 1967. From 1973 to 1979, the Soviet Union and eastern bloc nations sold large numbers of weapons and provided technical assistance and training to Sudan. At this time the army grew from a strength of 18,000 to roughly 50,000 men. Large numbers of tanks , aircraft, and artillery were acquired at this time, and they dominated the army until the late 1970s. Relations cooled between the two sides after the coup in 1971, and the Khartoum government sought to diversify its suppliers. The USSR continued to supply weapons until 1979, when their support of Marxist elements in Ethiopia angered the Sudanese sufficiently to cancel their deals. China was the main supplier in the late 1970s. Egypt was the most important military partner in the 1980s, providing missiles , personnel carriers, and other military hardware. Western countries began supplying Sudan again in the mid 1980s. The United States began selling Sudan a great deal of equipment around 1985, hoping to counteract Soviet support of Marxist Ethiopians and Libyans. After the start of the second civil war, American assistance dropped, and was eventually all but cancelled in 1991. After several years of fighting, the government compromised with southern groups. Unfortunately, however, Sadiq proved to be a weak leader and incapable of governing Sudan. Party factionalism, corruption, personal rivalries, scandals, and political instability characterized the Sadiq regime. After less than a year in office, Sadiq al Mahdi dismissed the government because it had failed to draft a new penal code to replace the sharia, reach an agreement with the IMF, end the civil war in the south, or devise a scheme to attract remittances from Sudanese expatriates. To retain the support of the DUP and the

southern political parties, Sadiq formed another ineffective coalition government. The leader of the junta, Omar al-Bashir, consolidated his power over the next few years, declaring himself president. The civil war has displaced more than 4 million southerners. Some fled into southern cities, such as Juba; others trekked as far north as Khartoum and even into Ethiopia, Kenya, Uganda, Egypt, and other neighboring countries. These people were unable to grow food or earn money to feed themselves, and malnutrition and starvation became widespread. The lack of investment in the south resulted as well in what international humanitarian organizations call a "lost generation" who lack educational opportunities, access to basic health care services, and little prospects for productive employment in the small and weak economies of the south or the north. The rebels accused the central government of neglecting the Darfur region, although there is uncertainty regarding the objectives of the rebels and whether they merely seek an improved position for Darfur within Sudan or outright secession. Both the government and the rebels have been accused of atrocities in this war, although most of the blame has fallen on Arab militias Janjaweed allied with the government. The rebels have alleged that these militias have been engaging in ethnic cleansing in Darfur, and the fighting has displaced hundreds of thousands of people, many of them seeking refuge in neighboring Chad. There are various estimates on the number of human casualties, ranging from under twenty thousand to several hundred thousand dead, from either direct combat or starvation and disease inflicted by the conflict. In August, the African Union sent Rwandan troops in to protect the ceasefire monitors. It, however, soon became apparent that troops would not be enough, so they were joined by Nigerian troops. On September 18, United Nations Security Council issued Resolution declaring that the government of Sudan had not met its commitments, expressing concern at helicopter attacks and assaults by the Janjaweed militia against villages in Darfur. It welcomed the intention of the African Union to enhance its monitoring mission in Darfur and urged all member states to support such efforts. During the African Union Mission in Sudan force was increased to about 7,000. The Chadian-Sudanese conflict officially started on December 23, 2005, when the government of Chad declared a state of war with Sudan and called for the citizens of Chad to mobilize themselves against Rally for Democracy and Liberty RDL militants Chadian rebels backed by the Sudanese government and Sudanese militiamen who attacked villages and towns in eastern Chad, stealing cattle, murdering citizens, and burning houses. Peace talks between the southern rebels and the government made substantial progress in early 2006, although skirmishes in parts of the south have reportedly continued. The two sides have agreed that, following a final peace treaty, southern Sudan will enjoy autonomy for six years, and after the expiration of that period, the people of southern Sudan will be able to vote in a referendum on independence. Furthermore, oil revenues will be divided equally between the government and rebels during the six-year interim period. The ability or willingness of the government to fulfill these promises has been questioned by some observers, however, and the status of three central and eastern provinces was a point of contention in the negotiations. Some observers wondered whether hard line elements in the north would allow the treaty to proceed.

Chapter 3 : Short History of Sudan by Mohamed H. Fadlalla

A brief history of modern Sudan and South Sudan South Sudan, the world's newest nation, was once a sizeable part of Sudan, the country to its north. The conflicts between what is now Sudan and South Sudan are often understood through their historical roots: centuries of exploitation and slave-raiding by the "Arab" north against the "African."

The first co-ordinated southern insurrection of the Anya-Nya had settled following the signing of the Addis Ababa agreement. The main theme in this part is the growing Islamification of the Sudanese government, set against a backdrop of North-South conflict and political instability. The role of external pressure in changing domestic Sudanese policy becomes increasingly important from the late nineties. Alcohol was purged from the streets of Khartoum. Over people were publicly executed, and government ministers were required to attend the executions. Many Sudanese were shocked and the international community was outraged. Numayri did not last much longer. His regime oversaw a troubled economy, with professionals striking despite the weakness of labour movements , IMF-imposed austerity following failed debt-fuelled development projects, and a severe drought between and In March Numayri turned on his closest allies, the Islamists, having thousands of the Muslim Brotherhood arrested. In April tens of thousands protested in Khartoum while Numayri was out of the country bringing the city to a standstill. Keeping with the tradition of earlier parliamentary governments in Sudan, the government was ineffective and suffered badly from petty bickering. Al-Mahdi himself was indecisive, and despite initial promises to revoke the September Laws he took a long time to change anything. Eventually, he appointed Hasan al-Turabi , the drafter of the original September Laws, to draw up some replacements. The government suffered several breakdowns, and new political coalitions were hastily reassembled as needed. The economy was in a dire state, with huge foreign debt, low prices for commodity exports, continuing drought and the on-going costs of civil war. The government built upon pre-existing ethnic tensions, but by arming and otherwise supporting the murahiliin as the militias were known , enabled the Baqqara to massacre thousands of civilians. Al-Turabi was arrested as a token measure, but was soon released as the regime pursued an even harsher application of Islamism. Non-government media was suppressed, the traditionally independent judiciary replaced and new security institutions were set up, under which public floggings, executions and disappearances were not uncommon. Many members of the intelligentsia and political parties fled the country. Because of increasing authoritarianism and a lack of political substance, the SPLM suffered from a coup attempt and the splintering off of rival factions. Arabs were granted unrestricted entry into Sudan, providing the Afghani mujahidiin refuge. Usama bin laden arrived in Khartoum, and Sudanese diplomats assisted with the bombing of the World Trade Centre. The Islamists gradually split between hardliners and moderates, with divisions exacerbated by a Sudan-backed attempted assassination of Mubarak, the Sudan-backed kidnapping of Carlos the Jackal by the French, and large scale protests. Bin Laden became a particularly divisive issue, with al-Bashir seeking his extradition to the Americans while al-Turabi sought his safety in Afghanistan. In the late nineties economic prosperity was mainly confined to Khartoum, with expanding oil exports and growth in the telecommunications and agricultural sectors. Government debt remained a large problem, though privatisation and inflation controls helped. US sanctions had a serious impact, though they permitted the export of the soft-drink ingredient gum Arabic. Al-Turabi sought to use the opportunity to build his own power, but came into increasing conflict with al-Bashir. In al-Bashir dissolved the assembly and then in banned al-Turabi from political activity. Al-Turabi was arrested the following year for signing an agreement with the SPLA rather bizarrely given his ideological opposition to southern insurrection. International pressure became increasingly important in establishing peace: The SPLM also had good reason to seek peace at the time: Peace negotiations were drawn out, frustrating and often vague and directionless. A growing insurgency in Darfur gave the North an added incentive to resolve the southern problem swiftly. On 9 January , the Comprehensive Peace Agreement was signed, which provided for an interim period of self-governance for the South, followed by a referendum in which as we now know led to the secession of South Sudan. In July , John Garang arrived in Khartoum to be sworn in as vice-President of the interim unity government, where he was greeted by the cheers of over a million Sudanese. In a bitter finale to

this short history, John Garang was killed three weeks later in a helicopter crash. In just under years, Sudan has gone from disparate traditional African and Arab tribes, through over a century of colonialism and 50 years of intemperate independence, to being cleaved in two by its own internal strife. Much more has happened since Collins wrote his history, and since independence in tensions between the two countries have repeatedly flared up. However, the very nature of independence grants South Sudan the self-determination it has long demanded and frees it from the neglect and Islamisation that have been the primary fuels for civil war. While the incomplete demarcation of the border and rights to oil resources remain dangerous points of contention, over which a threat of renewed conflict hangs over, one hopes that the chapter of war has finally closed for Sudan.

Chapter 4 : A Short History of the Sudan by Mandour el Mahdi

This "Short History of Sudan" is a summarized necessary reference for everyone who would like to acquire well-basic knowledge about the largest country Africa's in it is cultural, geographical, ethnical and religious structure and the political and economical situation in a easy understandable form.

Condensing history inevitably means missing out detail, but I have aimed to capture the main events and trends that have brought Sudan to where it is today and that also offer valuable lessons for the future. This history is to come in two parts, as I have been unable and unwilling to condense it as much as I had hoped. By way of introduction, the key themes I have focused on here are the division between North and South Sudan, the potency of international pressure, and the burden of continuous political instability. This geographic barrier seems to have been an early sign of North-South division, as the Ottoman administration could hardly reach beyond it, and I would surmise that it in part explains how Islam never gained an extensive foothold in Southern Sudan. The British, who had occupied Egypt in 1882, were opposed to this development and despite sending several parties into the Sudan were unable to dislodge the Ansar. In 1898, however, the Mahdi died, leaving the Ansar to squabble over succession and face military threats from every point of the compass. The European contest for Africa had largely left the Sudan alone, until the French sought to force Britain out of Egypt by capturing parts of the upstream Nile valley. In response, and partly at the invitation of the Italians who were trying unsuccessfully to rough up the Ethiopians at the time, the British eventually sent in the famed Horatio Herbert Kitchener. Kitchener and Marchand, in a thoroughly civilised manner, deferred the question of Sudan to their respective governments. The British were prepared to fight, but the French were not. From thereon, the British shared governance of the Sudan with Egypt through the Condominium Agreement, via a fairly independent governor-general. The British actively sought to contain Islam in Sudan, by encouraging Christian missionaries and teaching English in the South which had become more navigable following clearing expeditions. This, coupled with different approaches to administrative governance in the North and South, laid the political groundwork for Southern insurrection many years later. A major irrigation scheme was completed at Gezira in 1903, and was for a short while enormously successful. Though the bulk of the Sudanese, who continued to practice traditional pastoralism and horticulture, were not directly affected by the global depression, the growing educated classes were. Following a revolution in Egypt in 1922, British policy opposed the expansion of the educated classes in Sudan, and discontent flourished, to the point where the governor-general, Sir Lee Stack, was assassinated in 1924. Though the Congress soon antagonised the British rulers by politely asking for self-determination, the British gradually created a new popular legislative assembly for Sudan, which first met in 1926. On the 1st of January 1956, Sudan became independent from both Egypt and Britain. There were more lost opportunities for the South here. Massive replacement of British for Sudanese officials in the bureaucracy favoured Northerners. Only 6 junior, of over posts went to Southerners. Parliamentary safeguards and representation for the South were insufficiently addressed. In August 1955, Southern troops at Torit mutinied, killing hundreds of Northerners. A foreboding sign of things to come. Despite the strong need to renegotiate water rights with Egypt to enable an expansion of the Gezira irrigation scheme, negotiations were ineffective. Then with true African style, less than three years after independence, the army overthrew the government in November 1958 in response to petty and unstable party politics. Despite this, his regime was able to complete negotiations on the Nile Waters Agreement in 1959, and oversaw a relatively prosperous economy. Since independence, both the parliamentary and military governments sought to spread Islam and Arabic culture into the South, largely with heavy regulation on education and later outlawing Christian missionaries. Active neglect saw several important development projects moved North by the regime. In response, the Southern armed rebellion gradually began to emerge. The Anya-Nya, as the rebels chose to be called, had some five thousand fighters by 1963, though they were a highly fragmented group and had little strong political or military leadership. New parliamentary elections were held in 1965, though the South was unable to take part because of insecurity. The new parliament was unstable and short-lived. Al-Mahdi only lasted 10 months as PM before Mahjub was returned to power. The Anya-Nya remained fragmented and without a strong political

consciousness, despite some efforts to organise a provisional Southern government. In July , with encouragement from Mahjub to harass educated Southerners, the army garrisoned in Juba massacred 1, Southerners and left the town in ruins. Ineffective governance enabled some 1. In the very early hours of 25 May, , less than troops led by six officers overthrew the government in a bloodless coup. He also severely restricted media freedom. Following mass protests in March , Numayri sent troops to brutally kill 12, Ansar within a matter of days. Even so, a communist led a failed coup against Numayri in . In retaliation, the principal leaders of the Sudan Communist Party were hanged. The military regime sought to deal with the South by force rather than by diplomacy. At the time Joseph Lagu, with Ethiopian support and Israeli arms and training, was cementing his position as leader of the Anya-Nya. By the end of fighting reached a stalemate, forcing Numayri into negotiations. Here international, particularly African, political opposition to secession movements was influential in directing the outcome. The agreement provided for a single regional government for the South, covering southern territories as defined at independence. Areas with high populations of Southerners would choose to join by referendum. The question of security forces was divisive, though both parties eventually settled on an integrated Southern Command made up of half Northern and half Southern soldiers. Some of the problems that plagued the Addis Ababa agreement are the same as those that plague the independent country South Sudan today – ill-defined borders and unanswered questions about border regions such as Abyei. In the early s, Sudan, particularly encouraged by the International Monetary Fund, became increasingly less socialist, and was able to bring in substantial investment from Gulf countries overflowing with oil money. Around this time too, significant oil deposits were found in central Sudan. The South protested in opposition to plans to pipe the oil out through Port Sudan, preferring that it be piped out to Mombassa in Kenya. This preference has remained in the South to this day and is now on its way to fulfilment. In the mids, Numayri became increasingly Islamic and totalitarian. He escaped two coups by sheer luck, in and 76 – the latter led by Sadiq al-Mahdi with the backing of Libya. In the South, Numayri increasingly sought to renege on the Addis Ababa agreement. Garang planned a mutiny of a Southern battalion in May, and in response Numayri sent Garang himself to settle the discontent. In June, Numayri announced that Southern Sudan was to be divided into three separate regional governments, with only very limited powers. During the colonial era, both under the Turks then the British, with a brief respite under the Mahdi, the seeds of division between North and South were planted in a naturally suited geography. Post-independence, successive Northern-led parliamentary and military governments neglected and actively harassed the South, while seeking to impose Northern cultural and religious habits. The South failed to come together politically in this period, though managed to string together an impressive militaristic insurrection. International pressure was imperative in establishing a peace deal at Addis Ababa, which lasted for the better part of a decade. In Sudan plunged back in to civil war. Coup count – Two successful, five unsuccessful.

Chapter 5 : History of Sudan

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Enjoy the Famous Daily Nubia: But it also has a strong identity as the eastern end of the great trade route stretching along the open savannah south of the Sahara. Soon after the uniting of the kingdoms of Egypt, in about BC, the pharaohs extend their control as far up the Nile as a boat can easily travel. This brings them to the first cataract or rapid, in the region of modern Aswan. Over the centuries the Egyptians push further south, past a succession of cataracts, first to raid and then to build fortified settlements among the people of these middle reaches of the Nile. By about BC the Egypt of the pharaohs extends as far up the river as the fourth cataract, in the region of the modern Merowe. The area between the first and fourth cataracts is known to the Egyptians as Cush. To the Greeks, from Homer onwards, all the known people living south of Egypt are called Ethiopians inhabiting the areas of modern Sudan and Ethiopia. Later again Sudan as far south as Khartoum becomes widely familiar under the Latin name Nubia. The whole region is rich in gold mines, and the name probably derives from the word for gold nub in Mahasi, though this is only one among the many dialects of Nubia past and present. During the most expansive period of dynastic Egypt, from the 16th century BC, it becomes conventional for pharaohs to build temples, monuments and proud boundary inscriptions in Cush or Nubia. Thutmose I, in about BC, penetrates further south than any of his predecessors and leaves an inscription some fifty miles upstream of Abu Hamad. In the north the most flamboyant statement of possession is the four colossal statues of Ramses II, carved in the sandstone cliff at Abu Simbel in about BC. As in any outpost of a long-lasting empire, the ruling class in Cush adopts the customs and beliefs of their imperial masters. The first lasting Cushite dynasty, established at some time before the 8th century BC with its capital city at Napata near modern Merowe, is entirely Egyptian in style. And the Cushite god by this time is Amen-Re. Indeed Kashta, the king of Cush in the early 8th century, maintains a court so authentic in its Egyptian manner that his descendants, after conquering Egypt, are willingly accepted as a dynasty of pharaohs. But it is his son Piye, also known as Piankhi, who from about BC captures cities the entire length of the Nile as far north as Memphis and receives the submission of the local rulers of the delta region. After this achievement Piye retires to his capital at Napata, where he builds a great temple to Amen-Re. But it is impossible to remain in control of Egypt from as far south as Napata. Shabaka renews the campaign to the north, defeating Bochoris a descendant of the previous Egyptian dynasty, whom Shabaka is said to have burnt alive and installing himself securely in Thebes and Memphis. Here he and his descendants might well have ruled peacefully for some time, since they are widely welcomed for their pious safeguarding of the cult of Amen-Re. But it is their misfortune to coincide with the greatest external threat yet to confront the Nile civilization. The new power in the middle east is the formidable state of Assyria, now brutally subduing the many small states and cities of Palestine and Phoenicia. From about BC, when Assyria has a new king Sennacherib, there is a widespread rebellion in the middle east against Assyrian rule. He is heavily defeated. Egypt becomes the next Assyrian target. When the Assyrian army withdraws, leaving Egypt under the control of vassal rulers, the Cushites briefly recover Memphis. But another Assyrian expedition, in 720 BC, settles the issue. This time Thebes is reached and plundered. The traditional date for the end of the Cushite dynasty in Egypt is 720 BC. But this is very far from the end of the dynasty itself, which survives in the Sudan for another thousand years - still interring the royal family in Egyptian pyramids, at Napata and subsequently at Meroe. Over the centuries, living in remote isolation as Persians, Greeks and Romans follow each other in control of Egypt itself, this southern outpost of Egyptian culture gradually fades away. Pyramids begin to be built in brick instead of stone. The knowledge of writing is forgotten. Finally, in the 4th century AD, Meroe is sacked by an army from neighbouring Aksum. But it is another years before Dongola, by now the main kingdom in Nubia, is brought within the Christian fold. In about 540 the king of Dongola is converted to the monophysite version of Christianity, associated in particular with the Coptic church of Egypt and Ethiopia. A few years later, in about 570,

the orthodox Christianity of the Byzantine empire reaches Mukarra, a neighbouring kingdom to the south. During the following century the Christians of Egypt and north Africa succumb to the expansionist vigour of Islam. But Nubia is left free to follow its new Christian path, thanks partly to a treaty agreed in . In this year Muslim Arabs invade the northern part of the region from Egypt. But they agree to withdraw on condition that they are sent an annual tribute of slaves. The treaty holds for more than six centuries, during which the trade routes bring many Muslims south into Nubia. But Muslim raids begin in earnest in the s during the reign of Baybars , the energetic Mameluke sultan of Egypt. In the annual tribute is finally abolished and a Muslim is placed on the throne of Dongola. For the next five centuries the Muslim rulers of the Sudan are sometimes the representatives of a powerful administration in Egypt for example in the early Ottoman years , after . But they are more often tribal dynasties, managing to assert control for a while over a territory more extensive than their immediate local area. This changes in , when the the region is forcefully taken in hand by the most aggressive ruler of Egypt since the time of Baybars - the Ottoman viceroy Mohammed Ali. By they have conquered sufficient of the territory to establish themselves in military headquarters on the point of land formed by the confluence of the Blue and White Niles. A few years later Khartoum is made the administrative centre of an Egyptian province in the Sudan, acquiring the status of a capital which it and Omdurman , on the opposite bank, have retained ever since. Though at first seen as part of the Ottoman empire , the independence claimed by Mohammed Ali means that the Sudan becomes once again what it has been in ancient times - the southern province of Egypt. And Egypt steadily claims more and more of the surrounding territory. And in Samuel Baker returns to the southern Sudan, this time with an army, to annexe the vast region known as Equatoria on behalf of the khedive of Egypt now Ismail , a grandson of Mohammed Ali. But Egyptian control remains tenuous in much of this region. And it is made particularly unwelcome by the western influences to which Ismail inclines. Another is the policy, inspired by western pressures but fully accepted in Cairo, of putting an end to the slave raiding and trading which is a central feature of the Sudanese economy. Four years later the same two tasks still confront his rather more effective successor in this role, Charles Gordon. His role is extended in to cover the whole of the Sudan. In six years of ceaseless effort, employing the decisive vigour for which his Chinese exploits have already made him famous, Gordon subdues rebellious groups in many different regions of the Sudan. On his return to England, in , he appears to leave a Sudan in which the Egyptian garrisons have the province well under control. But the situation is transformed a year later by the emergence of a charismatic religious leader who takes advantage of the widespread discontent of the local Muslims. The Mahdi and the British: Publicly announcing his new role, he calls for the creation of a strict Islamic state. The immediate result is an order from Khartoum for his arrest, followed by the escape to the mountains of the Mahdi and his followers. The Egyptian garrisons further to the south are now dangerously isolated. So is the capital, Khartoum, with its vulnerable population of non-Sudanese civilians. In this crisis the British government, led at the time by Gladstone, hastily appoints Gordon to rush south to Khartoum on a rescue mission. But he is provided with woefully inadequate support. Gordon reaches Khartoum on 18 February and begins to organize an evacuation. For nine of these London has no news of what is happening, for the Sudanese cut the telegraph line to Cairo in mid-April. The unknown but all too imaginable fate of Gordon, already a hero from past campaigns, galvanizes public opinion in Britain and eventually forces a vacillating government to plan for the relief of Khartoum. His vanguard reaches Khartoum on 28 January - too late by just two days. The remaining Egyptian garrisons in the Sudan make their way north as best they can. The Mahdi has made his camp around the small village of Omdurman, on the left bank of the Nile a short way downstream from the confluence of the two rivers. This now becomes the capital of a Sudan administered as an Islamic state in imitation of the early caliphate. The Mahdi rules until his death in June , when he is succeeded by the man whom he has appointed as caliph - Abdullahi ibn Mohammed, usually known simply as the Khalifa. For thirteen years the Khalifa maintains a military Islamic state in keeping with the early traditions of the caliphate , and on occasion his efforts at expansion meet with some success - as in his interference in in neighbouring Ethiopia. But in the long run the Anglo-Egyptian alliance to the north has an irresistible military advantage. This victory restores British and Egyptian control in the Sudan - though it is challenged two weeks later by France in the dangerous confrontation known as the Fashoda Incident. The

Anglo-Egyptian partnership continues in the arrangements now made for the government of the Sudan. Sovereignty in the region is to be shared by the British crown and the khedive. British and Egyptian flags are to fly side by side. But cooperation does not prove easy, particularly when politicians in Cairo after World War I begin to demand the incorporation of Sudan within Egypt - a policy vigorously opposed by Britain. In outbreaks of anti-British violence in Egyptian units in the Sudan are followed by the assassination in Cairo of Lee Stack, the British governor general of the southern colony. The British response is to force the withdrawal of all Egyptian forces. For twelve years the British govern the Sudan on their own, until an Anglo-Egyptian treaty in restores the role of Egyptian officials. There are further disputes. This declaration has little meaning on the ground, pleases no one in the Sudan and is soon rendered irrelevant when Farouk is himself overthrown in the coup by Naguib and other officers. However his views are altered by the experience of office as prime minister. Contrary to his campaign rhetoric, he leads the nation into a separate independence at the start of Independence and civil war: The reason is alarm at the approaching event by the non-Muslim African majority in the south, where people are mainly Christian or animist. These southern Sudanese fear control by the more numerous Muslim Arabs of the northern regions. With hindsight this event can be seen as a disastrous omen for the new nation. For the rest of the century the recurrent feature of the troubled political life of the area is the attempt by northern Muslim groups to transform the Sudan into a fundamentalist Islamic state. The underlying strength of the Islamic movement derives from the strong Mahdist tradition in the Sudan. Indeed two of the main parties are at various times led by direct descendants of the Mahdi. The political ambitions of the Muslim community fuel two separate long-running conflicts.

Chapter 6 : Sudan profile - Timeline - BBC News

The region known in modern times as the Sudan (short for the Arabic bilad as-sudan, 'land of the blacks') has for much of its history been linked with or influenced by Egypt, its immediate neighbour to the north. But it also has a strong identity as the eastern end of the great trade route.

Chapter 7 : Short History of Sudan - Mohamed Hassan Fadlalla - Google Books

This Short History of Sudan is a summarized necessary reference for everyone who would like to acquire well-basic knowledge about the largest country Africa's in it is cultural, geographical, ethnical and religious structure and the political and economical situation in a easy understandable form.

Chapter 8 : HISTORY OF THE SUDAN

I've just finished reading Robert O. Collins' A history of Modern Sudan, and thought it might be good to put a short(ish) summary up calendrierdelascience.comsing history inevitably means missing out detail, but I have aimed to capture the main events and trends that have brought Sudan to where it is today and that also offer valuable lessons for the future.

Chapter 9 : A Brief History of Sudan

History of Sudan Sudan has a long history that begins with its being a collection of small kingdoms until Egypt conquered the area in the early 's. At this time however, Egypt only controlled the northern portions, while the south was made up of independent tribes.