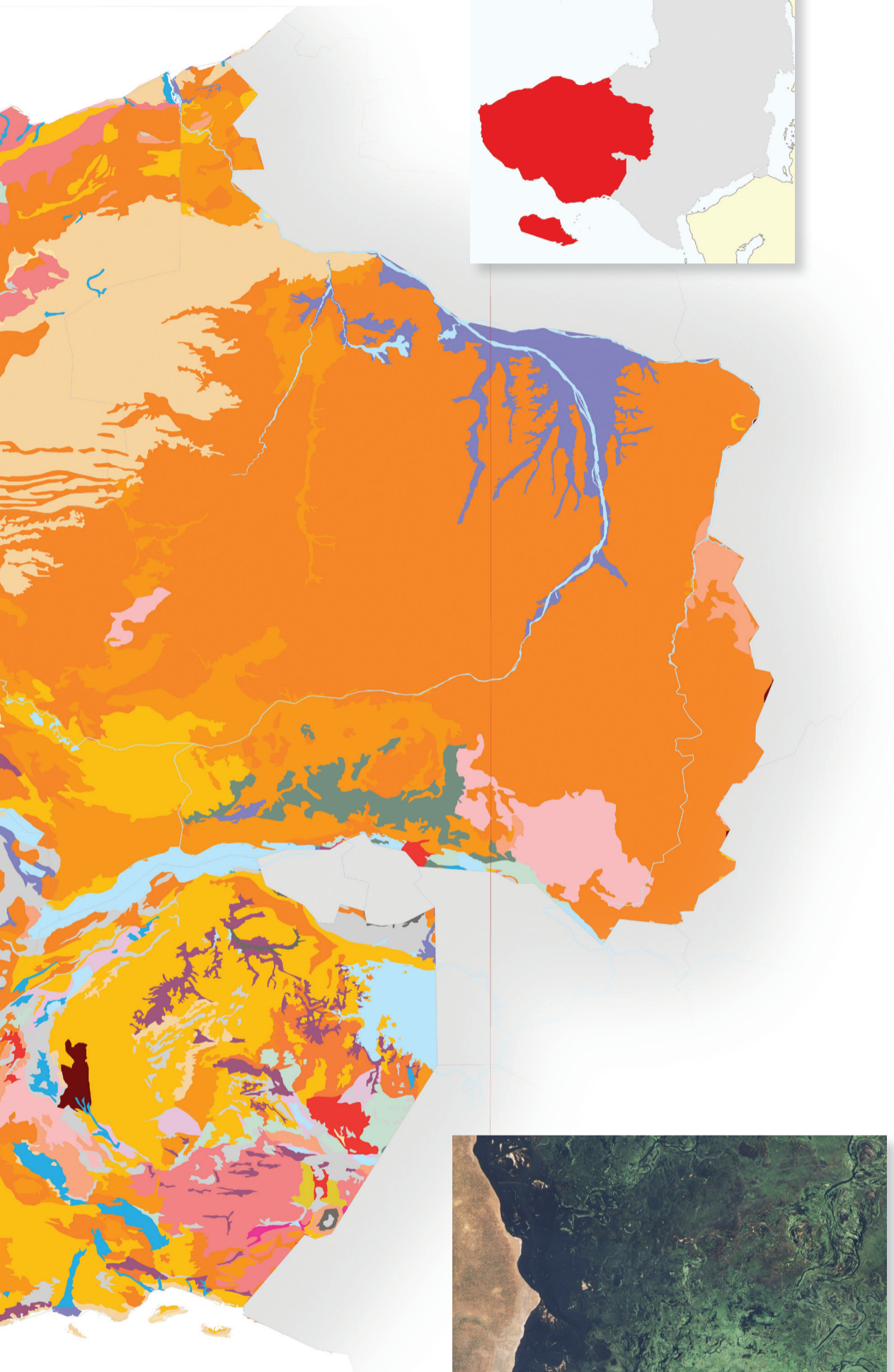


The Southern African Development Community (SADC)

The Southern African Development Community (SADC - Communauté Économique des États de l'Afrique Centrale (CEEAC) in French) is an economic, social and cultural agreement to increase self-sufficiency and endogenous development, and create a framework for development and mobilisation of human resources and material between fifteen southern African countries. The member states are Angola, Botswana, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Lesotho, Malawi, Madagascar, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, the Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, and Zimbabwe. SADC covers an area of 10 million km² (around 32% of Africa) and has an estimated population of 240 million (2010) with a density of around 30 people/km² – however, this reflects a range of around 2 people/km² in Namibia to over 600 people/km² in Mauritius. There has been notable population growth in Malawi and Mozambique. Per capita GDP is estimated at US\$ 3 152 – with South Africa being the economic powerhouse of the region [66]. The FAO has reported that agriculture supports about 85% of the rural population and employs 80% of the labour force. Rural poverty, unsustainable development and land tenure issues are the main causes and consequences of environmental degradation throughout the region.

The SADC area is bordered on three sides by the seas of the Atlantic and Indian Oceans, while the north is characterised by tropical rainforest and savannah. Consequently, a broad range of soil types are to be found. The western half of the region is dominated by the Kalahari and Namib Deserts. The arid and hot conditions give rise to characteristic soil types. The Namib consists of sand seas (Arenosols) near the coast with gravel plains and scattered mountain outcrops further inland (Leptosols). Some of the sand dunes are 300 m high. Arenosols are interspersed by Leptosols and Cambisols. Unlike the Namib, the Arenosols of the Kalahari support grasses, acacia trees and salt-tolerant vegetation. As in the Sahara, low soil organic matter levels, low water retention, over-grazing and wind erosion are important considerations in this area.



In the more temperate and more humid southern and eastern parts, a mosaic of leached, red Acrisols, clay-rich Luvisols and stony Leptosols are mixed with Plinthosols, Vertisols and weakly developed Cambisols and Regosols. In general, the soils of southern Africa are not characterised by high fertility with water retention and availability being an issue (the fertile soils of the Western Cape river valleys and on the KwaZulu-Natal coast are exceptions). High concentrations of salts give rise to saline and sodic Solonchaks and Solonetz throughout Botswana, southern Mozambique, South Africa and Zimbabwe. Lightly leached, clay-rich Luvisols, interspersed with Ferralsols and Leptosols, dominate Malawi, northern Mozambique, southern Tanzania and eastern Zambia, with young Cambisols becoming more prevalent in northern Tanzania. Along the Rift Valley, volcanic soils are common and are intensively cultivated. The volcano of Kilimanjaro, the highest mountain in Africa, sits on the northern border of Tanzania.

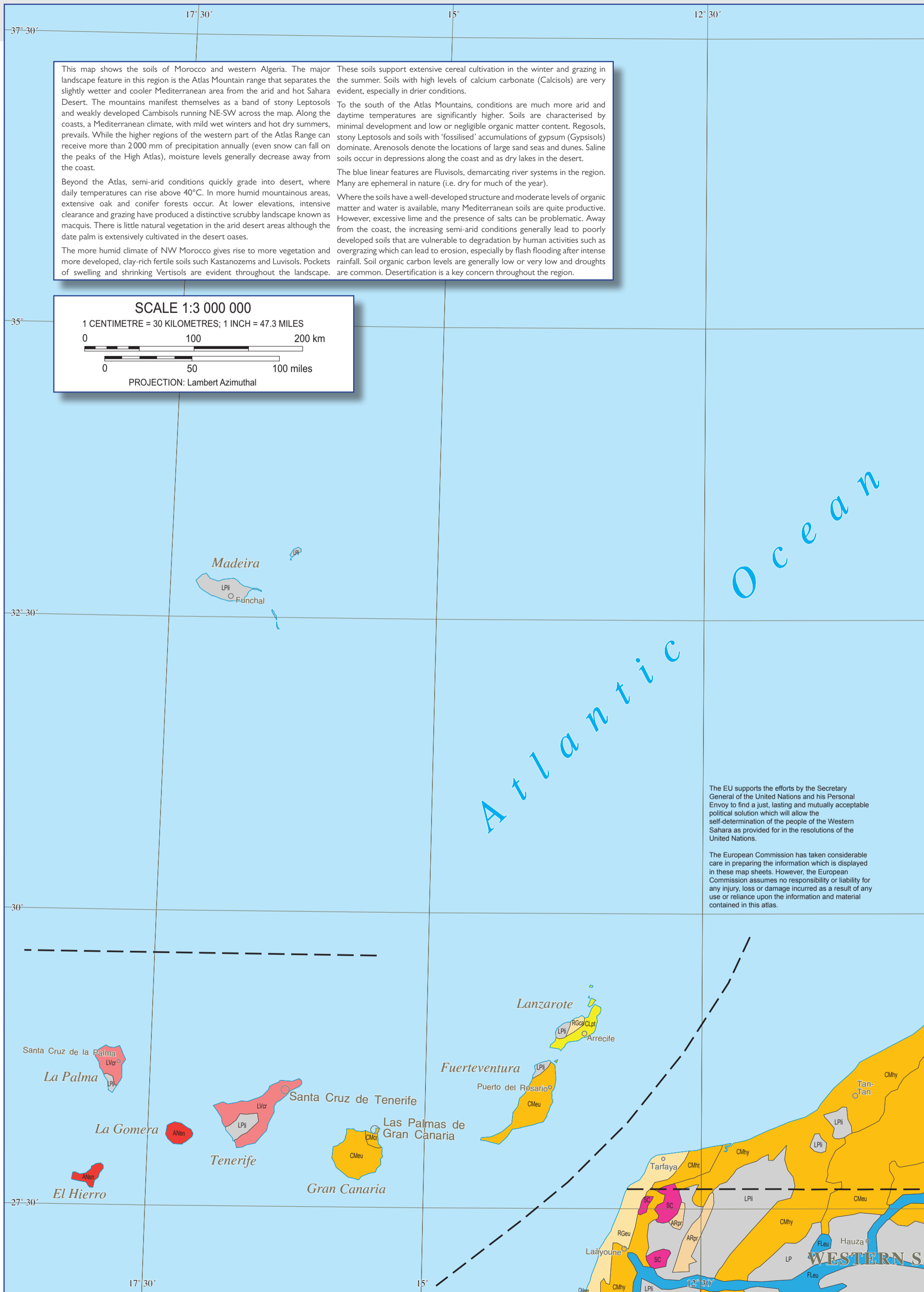
Western Angola, DR Congo and much of Zambia are dominated by tropical Ferralsols under rainforest (see page 75). While the region is home to the Congo and Limpopo river basins and several large lakes (e.g. Lake Victoria - Africa's largest lake by area and the largest tropical lake in the world), the huge delta of the Limpopo is highlighted as a large expanse of Fluvisols.

The large expanse of Gleysols on the Angola/Zambia border denotes the Barotse wetlands in the Zambezi floodplain. Almost due south in Botswana are the peatlands of the Okavango Delta.

Key issues affecting soils in the SADC region are restricted water-holding capacity, soil erosion and surface crusting, large expanses of inherently saline, acid and/or nutrient poor soils and droughts in combination with organic matter and nutrient depletion through unsustainable cultivation practices.



The large expanse of Gleysols in the centre of the adjacent map denotes the swampy wetlands that are the source of the Zambezi, one of Africa's greatest rivers. The image above was acquired by a sensor onboard NASA's Earth Observing-1 (EO-1) satellite and shows a flood on the eastern tip of the Caprivi Strip in 2010. This striking true-color image shows the stark boundary between the southern and eastern edge of the floodplain (which is higher land and dry) while to the north, the land is flooded. Deep blue channels wind among green, shallowly flooded plains. This area corresponds to the zone of Fluvisols on the borders of the Caprivi Strip with Botswana, Zambia and Zimbabwe. (NASA)



This map shows the soils of Morocco and western Algeria. The major landscape feature in this region is the Atlas Mountain range that separates the slightly wetter and cooler Mediterranean area from the arid and hot Sahara Desert. The mountains manifest themselves as a band of stony Leptosols and weakly developed Cambisols running NE-SW across the map. Along the coasts, a Mediterranean climate, with mild wet winters and hot dry summers, prevails. While the higher regions of the western part of the Atlas Range can receive more than 2000 mm of precipitation annually (even snow can fall on the peaks of the High Atlas), moisture levels generally decrease away from the coast.

Beyond the Atlas, semi-arid conditions quickly grade into desert, where daily temperatures can rise above 40°C. In more humid mountainous areas, extensive oak and conifer forests occur. At lower elevations, intensive clearance and grazing have produced a distinctive scrubby landscape known as macquis. There is little natural vegetation in the arid desert areas although the date palm is extensively cultivated in the desert oases.

The more humid climate of NW Morocco gives rise to more vegetation and more developed, clay-rich fertile soils such as Kastanozems and Luvisols. Pockets of swelling and shrinking Vertisols are evident throughout the landscape.

These soils support extensive cereal cultivation in the winter and grazing in the summer. Soils with high levels of calcium carbonate (Calcisols) are very evident, especially in drier conditions.

To the south of the Atlas Mountains, conditions are much more arid and daytime temperatures are significantly higher. Soils are characterised by minimal development and low or negligible organic matter content. Regosols, stony Leptosols and soils with 'fossilised' accumulations of gypsum (Gypsisols) dominate. Arenosols denote the locations of large sand seas and dunes. Saline soils occur in depressions along the coast and as dry lakes in the desert.

The blue linear features are Fluvisols, demarcating river systems in the region. Many are ephemeral in nature (i.e. dry for much of the year).

Where the soils have a well-developed structure and moderate levels of organic matter and water is available, many Mediterranean soils are quite productive. However, excessive lime and the presence of salts can be problematic. Away from the coast, the increasing semi-arid conditions generally lead to poorly developed soils that are vulnerable to degradation by human activities such as overgrazing which can lead to erosion, especially by flash flooding after intense rainfall. Soil organic carbon levels are generally low or very low and droughts are common. Desertification is a key concern throughout the region.

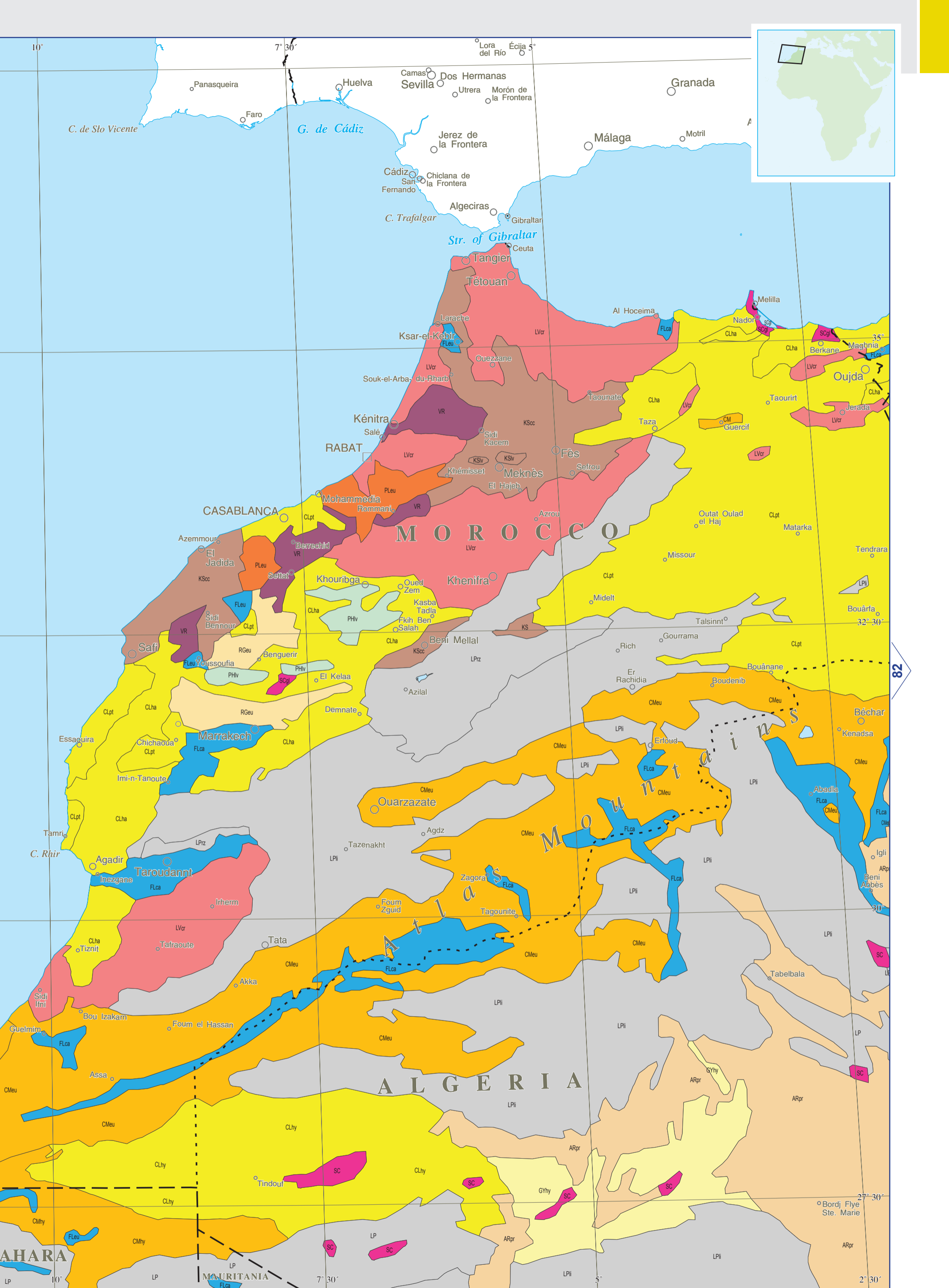
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 1 CENTIMETRE = 30 KILOMETRES; 1 INCH = 47.3 MILES

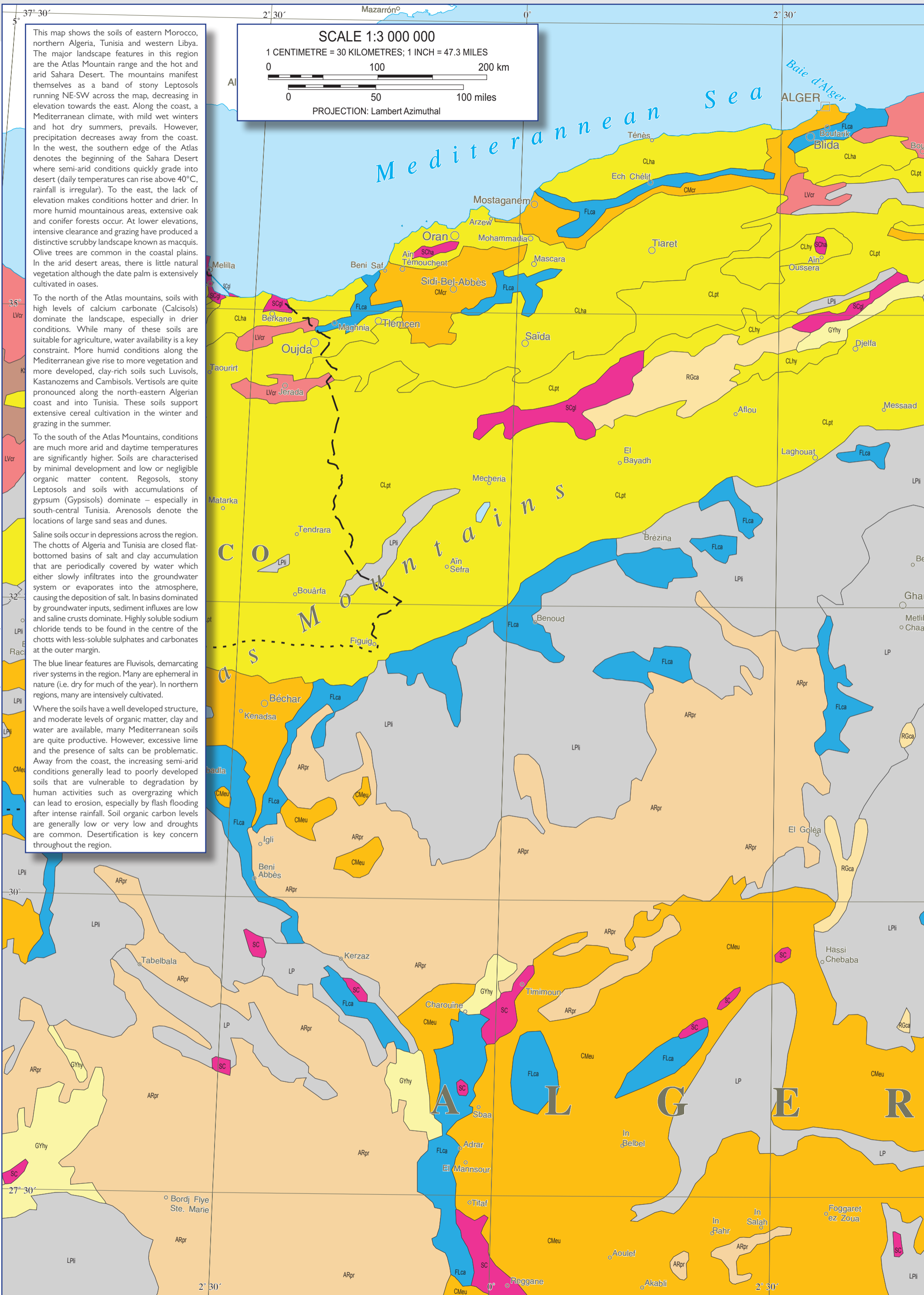
0 100 200 km
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PROJECTION: Lambert Azimuthal

The EU supports the efforts by the Secretary General of the United Nations and his Personal Envoy to find a just, lasting and mutually acceptable political solution which will allow the self-determination of the people of the Western Sahara as provided for in the resolutions of the United Nations.

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This map shows the soils of eastern Morocco, northern Algeria, Tunisia and western Libya. The major landscape features in this region are the Atlas Mountain range and the hot and arid Sahara Desert. The mountains manifest themselves as a band of stony Leptosols running NE-SW across the map, decreasing in elevation towards the east. Along the coast, a Mediterranean climate, with mild wet winters and hot dry summers, prevails. However, precipitation decreases away from the coast. In the west, the southern edge of the Atlas denotes the beginning of the Sahara Desert where semi-arid conditions quickly grade into desert (daily temperatures can rise above 40°C, rainfall is irregular). To the east, the lack of elevation makes conditions hotter and drier. In more humid mountainous areas, extensive oak and conifer forests occur. At lower elevations, intensive clearance and grazing have produced a distinctive scrubby landscape known as macquis. Olive trees are common in the coastal plains. In the arid desert areas, there is little natural vegetation although the date palm is extensively cultivated in oases.

To the north of the Atlas mountains, soils with high levels of calcium carbonate (Calcisols) dominate the landscape, especially in drier conditions. While many of these soils are suitable for agriculture, water availability is a key constraint. More humid conditions along the Mediterranean give rise to more vegetation and more developed, clay-rich soils such as Luvisols, Kastanozems and Cambisols. Vertisols are quite pronounced along the north-eastern Algerian coast and into Tunisia. These soils support extensive cereal cultivation in the winter and grazing in the summer.

To the south of the Atlas Mountains, conditions are much more arid and daytime temperatures are significantly higher. Soils are characterised by minimal development and low or negligible organic matter content. Regosols, stony Leptosols and soils with accumulations of gypsum (Gypsisols) dominate – especially in south-central Tunisia. Arenosols denote the locations of large sand seas and dunes.

Saline soils occur in depressions across the region. The chotts of Algeria and Tunisia are closed flat-bottomed basins of salt and clay accumulation that are periodically covered by water which either slowly infiltrates into the groundwater system or evaporates into the atmosphere, causing the deposition of salt. In basins dominated by groundwater inputs, sediment influxes are low and saline crusts dominate. Highly soluble sodium chloride tends to be found in the centre of the chotts with less-soluble sulphates and carbonates at the outer margin.

The blue linear features are Fluvisols, demarcating river systems in the region. Many are ephemeral in nature (i.e. dry for much of the year). In northern regions, many are intensively cultivated.

Where the soils have a well developed structure, and moderate levels of organic matter, clay and water are available, many Mediterranean soils are quite productive. However, excessive lime and the presence of salts can be problematic. Away from the coast, the increasing semi-arid conditions generally lead to poorly developed soils that are vulnerable to degradation by human activities such as overgrazing which can lead to erosion, especially by flash flooding after intense rainfall. Soil organic carbon levels are generally low or very low and droughts are common. Desertification is key concern throughout the region.

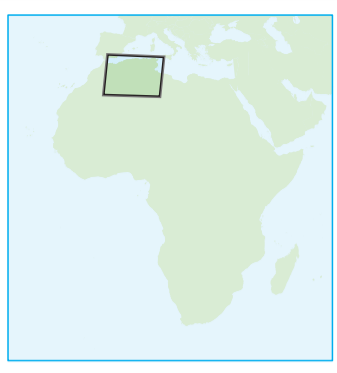
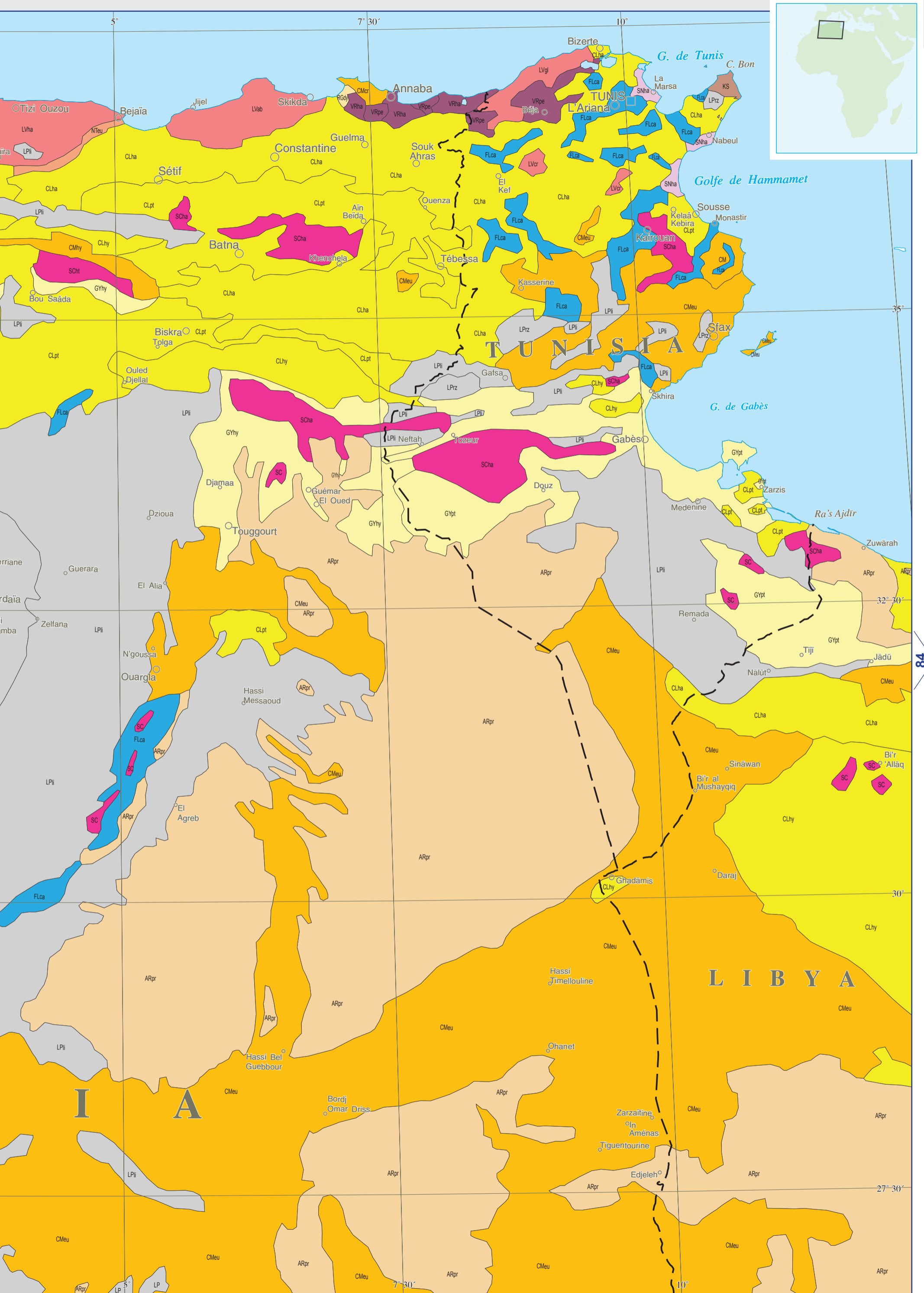
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 1 CENTIMETRE = 30 KILOMETRES; 1 INCH = 47.3 MILES

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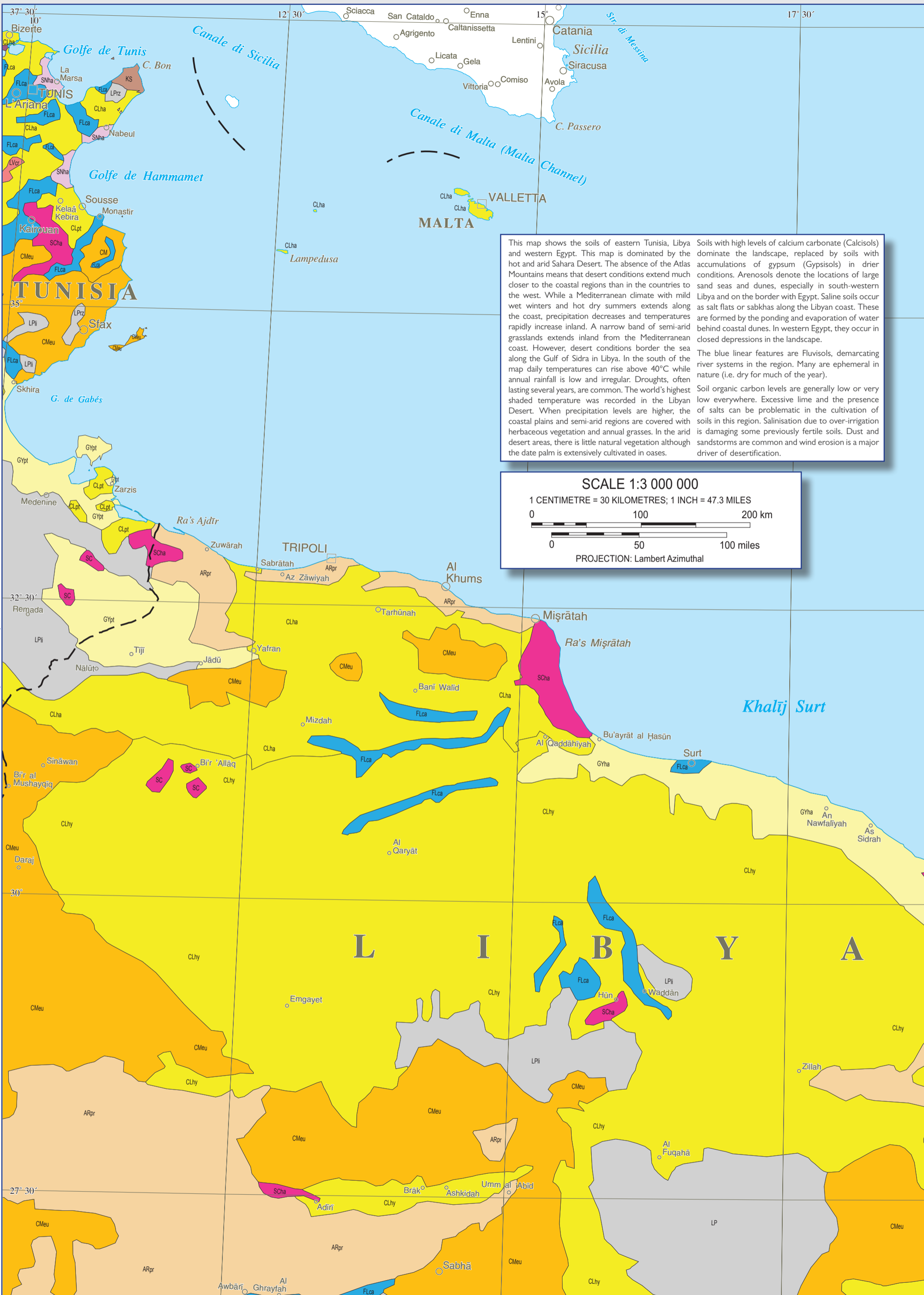
PROJECTION: Lambert Azimuthal

81

90



84



This map shows the soils of eastern Tunisia, Libya and western Egypt. This map is dominated by the hot and arid Sahara Desert. The absence of the Atlas Mountains means that desert conditions extend much closer to the coastal regions than in the countries to the west. While a Mediterranean climate with mild wet winters and hot dry summers extends along the coast, precipitation decreases and temperatures rapidly increase inland. A narrow band of semi-arid grasslands extends inland from the Mediterranean coast. However, desert conditions border the sea along the Gulf of Sidra in Libya. In the south of the map daily temperatures can rise above 40°C while annual rainfall is low and irregular. Droughts, often lasting several years, are common. The world's highest shaded temperature was recorded in the Libyan Desert. When precipitation levels are higher, the coastal plains and semi-arid regions are covered with herbaceous vegetation and annual grasses. In the arid desert areas, there is little natural vegetation although the date palm is extensively cultivated in oases.

Soils with high levels of calcium carbonate (Calcisols) dominate the landscape, replaced by soils with accumulations of gypsum (Gypsisols) in drier conditions. Arenosols denote the locations of large sand seas and dunes, especially in south-western Libya and on the border with Egypt. Saline soils occur as salt flats or sabkhas along the Libyan coast. These are formed by the ponding and evaporation of water behind coastal dunes. In western Egypt, they occur in closed depressions in the landscape.

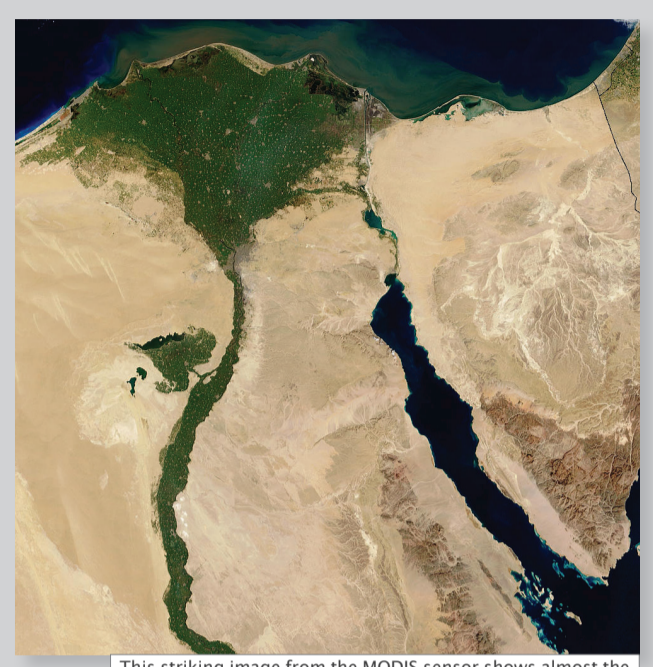
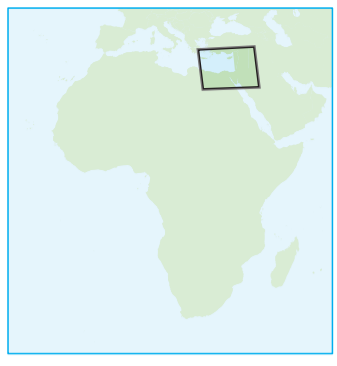
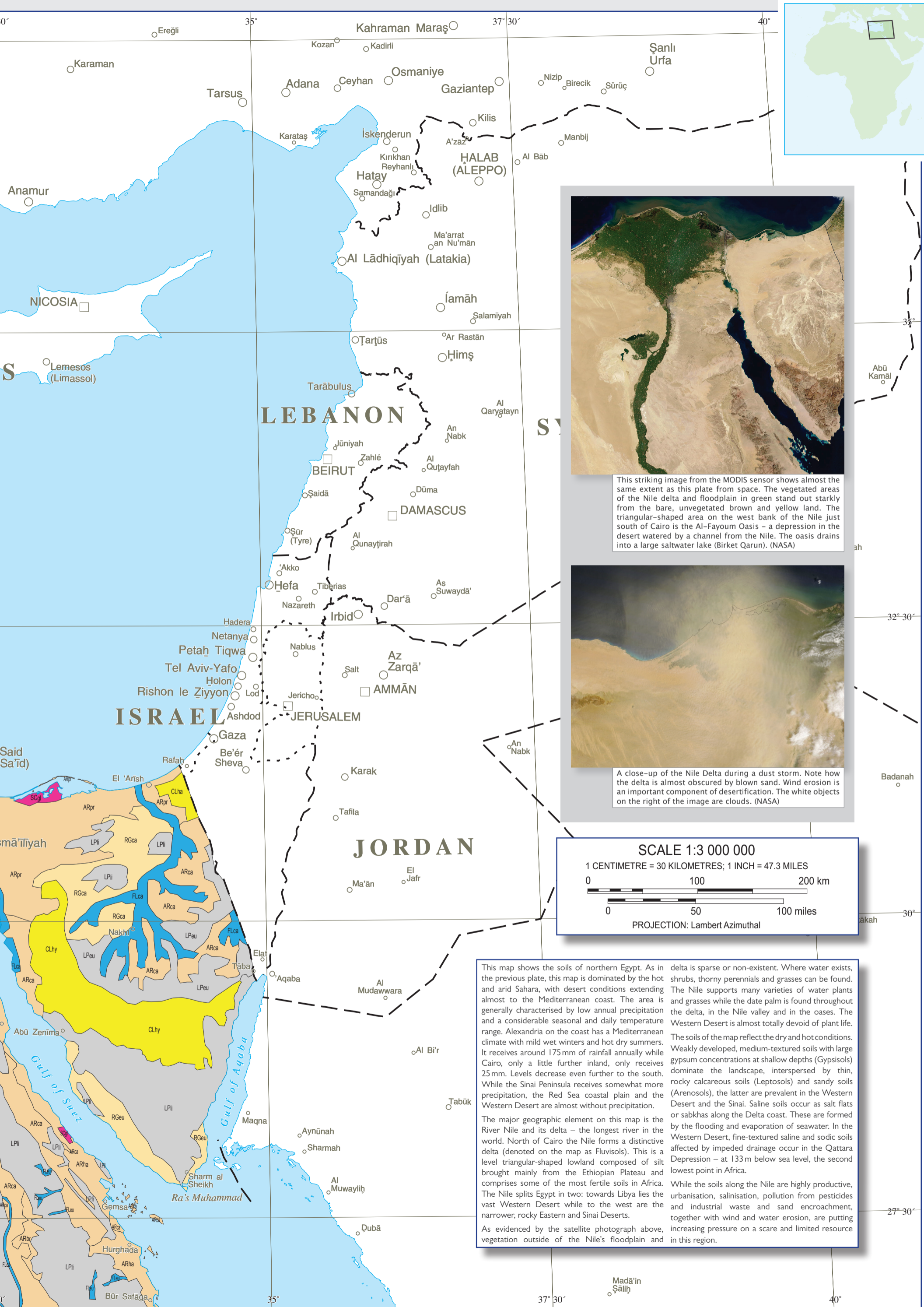
The blue linear features are Fluvisols, demarcating river systems in the region. Many are ephemeral in nature (i.e. dry for much of the year). Soil organic carbon levels are generally low or very low everywhere. Excessive lime and the presence of salts can be problematic in the cultivation of soils in this region. Salinisation due to over-irrigation is damaging some previously fertile soils. Dust and sandstorms are common and wind erosion is a major driver of desertification.

SCALE 1:3 000 000
 1 CENTIMETRE = 30 KILOMETRES; 1 INCH = 47.3 MILES

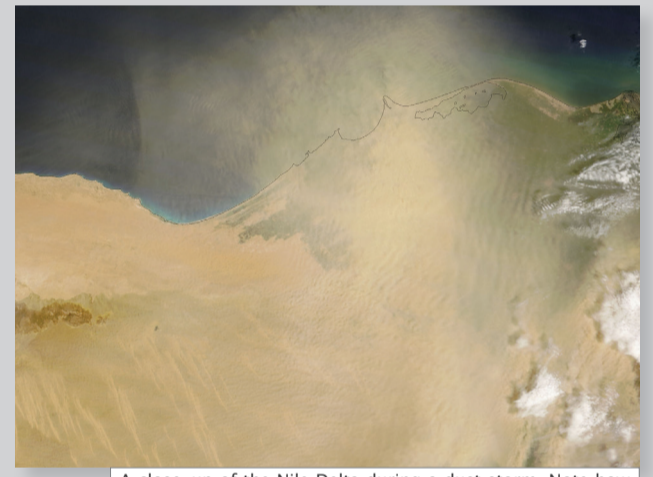
0 100 200 km
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PROJECTION: Lambert Azimuthal

83



This striking image from the MODIS sensor shows almost the same extent as this plate from space. The vegetated areas of the Nile delta and floodplain in green stand out starkly from the bare, unvegetated brown and yellow land. The triangular-shaped area on the west bank of the Nile just south of Cairo is the Al-Fayoum Oasis – a depression in the desert watered by a channel from the Nile. The oasis drains into a large saltwater lake (Birket Qarun). (NASA)



A close-up of the Nile Delta during a dust storm. Note how the delta is almost obscured by blown sand. Wind erosion is an important component of desertification. The white objects on the right of the image are clouds. (NASA)

SCALE 1:3 000 000
 1 CENTIMETRE = 30 KILOMETRES; 1 INCH = 47.3 MILES

PROJECTION: Lambert Azimuthal

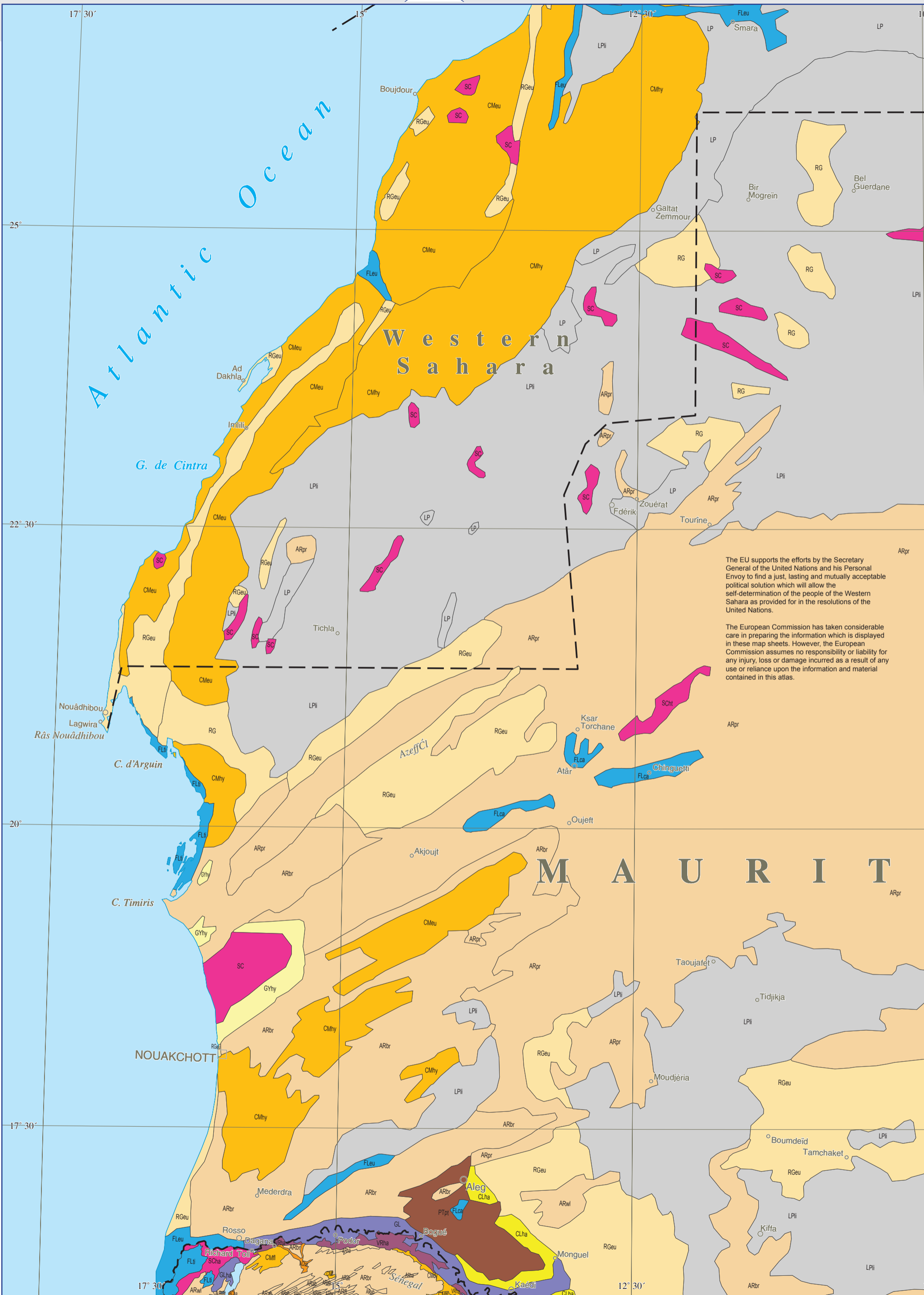
This map shows the soils of northern Egypt. As in the previous plate, this map is dominated by the hot and arid Sahara, with desert conditions extending almost to the Mediterranean coast. The area is generally characterised by low annual precipitation and a considerable seasonal and daily temperature range. Alexandria on the coast has a Mediterranean climate with mild wet winters and hot dry summers. It receives around 175 mm of rainfall annually while Cairo, only a little further inland, only receives 25 mm. Levels decrease even further to the south. While the Sinai Peninsula receives somewhat more precipitation, the Red Sea coastal plain and the Western Desert are almost without precipitation.

The major geographic element on this map is the River Nile and its delta – the longest river in the world. North of Cairo the Nile forms a distinctive delta (denoted on the map as Fluvisols). This is a level triangular-shaped lowland composed of silt brought mainly from the Ethiopian Plateau and comprises some of the most fertile soils in Africa. The Nile splits Egypt in two: towards Libya lies the vast Western Desert while to the west are the narrower, rocky Eastern and Sinai Deserts.

As evidenced by the satellite photograph above, the delta is sparse or non-existent. Where water exists, shrubs, thorny perennials and grasses can be found. The Nile supports many varieties of water plants and grasses while the date palm is found throughout the delta, in the Nile valley and in the oases. The Western Desert is almost totally devoid of plant life.

The soils of the map reflect the dry and hot conditions. Weakly developed, medium-textured soils with large gypsum concentrations at shallow depths (Gypsisols) dominate the landscape, interspersed by thin, rocky calcareous soils (Leptosols) and sandy soils (Arenosols), the latter are prevalent in the Western Desert and the Sinai. Saline soils occur as salt flats or sabkhas along the Delta coast. These are formed by the flooding and evaporation of seawater. In the Western Desert, fine-textured saline and sodic soils affected by impeded drainage occur in the Qattara Depression – at 133 m below sea level, the second lowest point in Africa.

While the soils along the Nile are highly productive, urbanisation, salinisation, pollution from pesticides and industrial waste and sand encroachment, together with wind and water erosion, are putting increasing pressure on a scarce and limited resource in this region.



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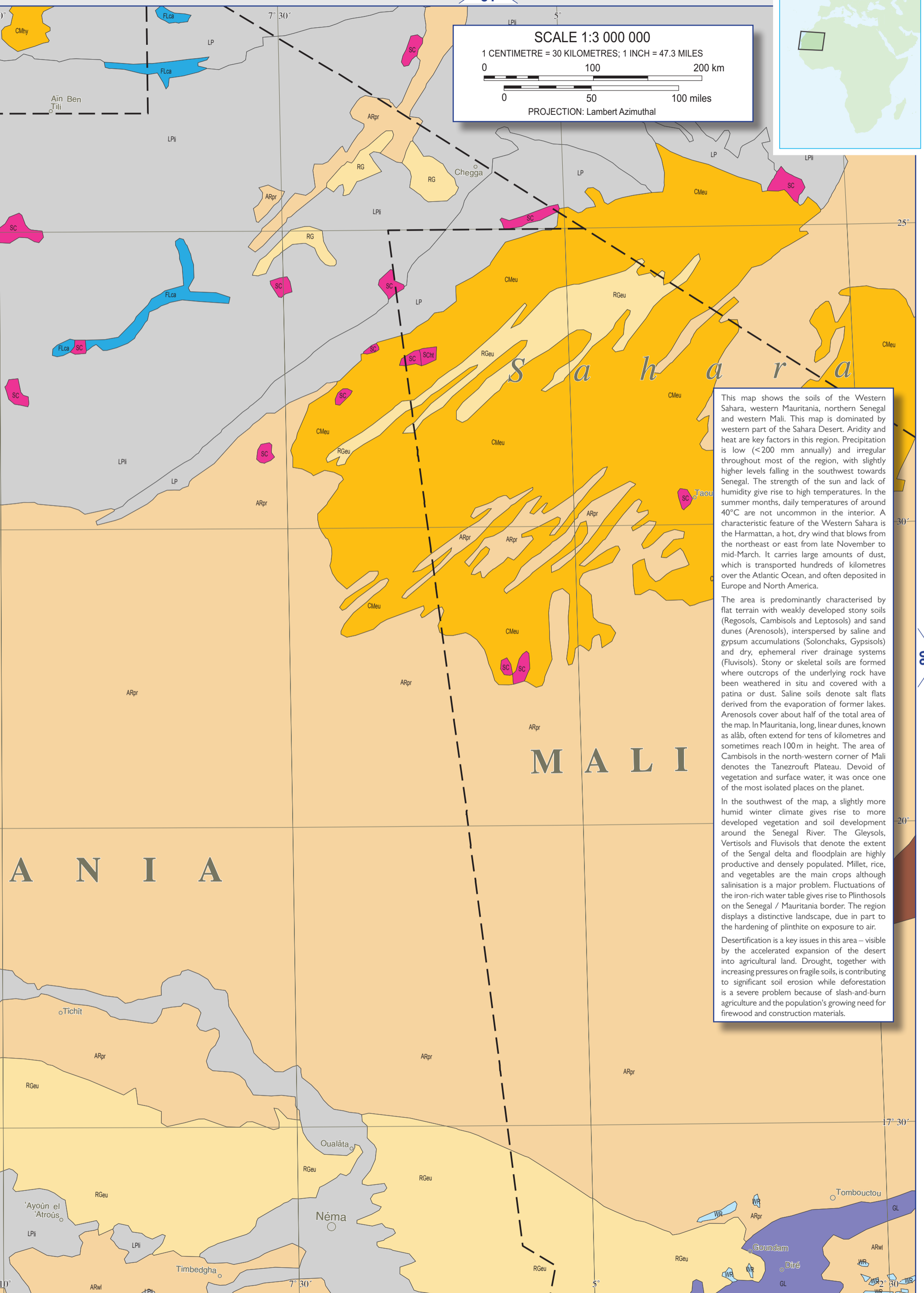
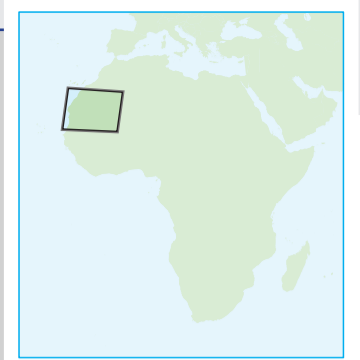
SCALE 1:3 000 000

1 CENTIMETRE = 30 KILOMETRES; 1 INCH = 47.3 MILES

0 100 200 km

0 50 100 miles

PROJECTION: Lambert Azimuthal



This map shows the soils of the Western Sahara, western Mauritania, northern Senegal and western Mali. This map is dominated by western part of the Sahara Desert. Aridity and heat are key factors in this region. Precipitation is low (<200 mm annually) and irregular throughout most of the region, with slightly higher levels falling in the southwest towards Senegal. The strength of the sun and lack of humidity give rise to high temperatures. In the summer months, daily temperatures of around 40°C are not uncommon in the interior. A characteristic feature of the Western Sahara is the Harmattan, a hot, dry wind that blows from the northeast or east from late November to mid-March. It carries large amounts of dust, which is transported hundreds of kilometres over the Atlantic Ocean, and often deposited in Europe and North America.

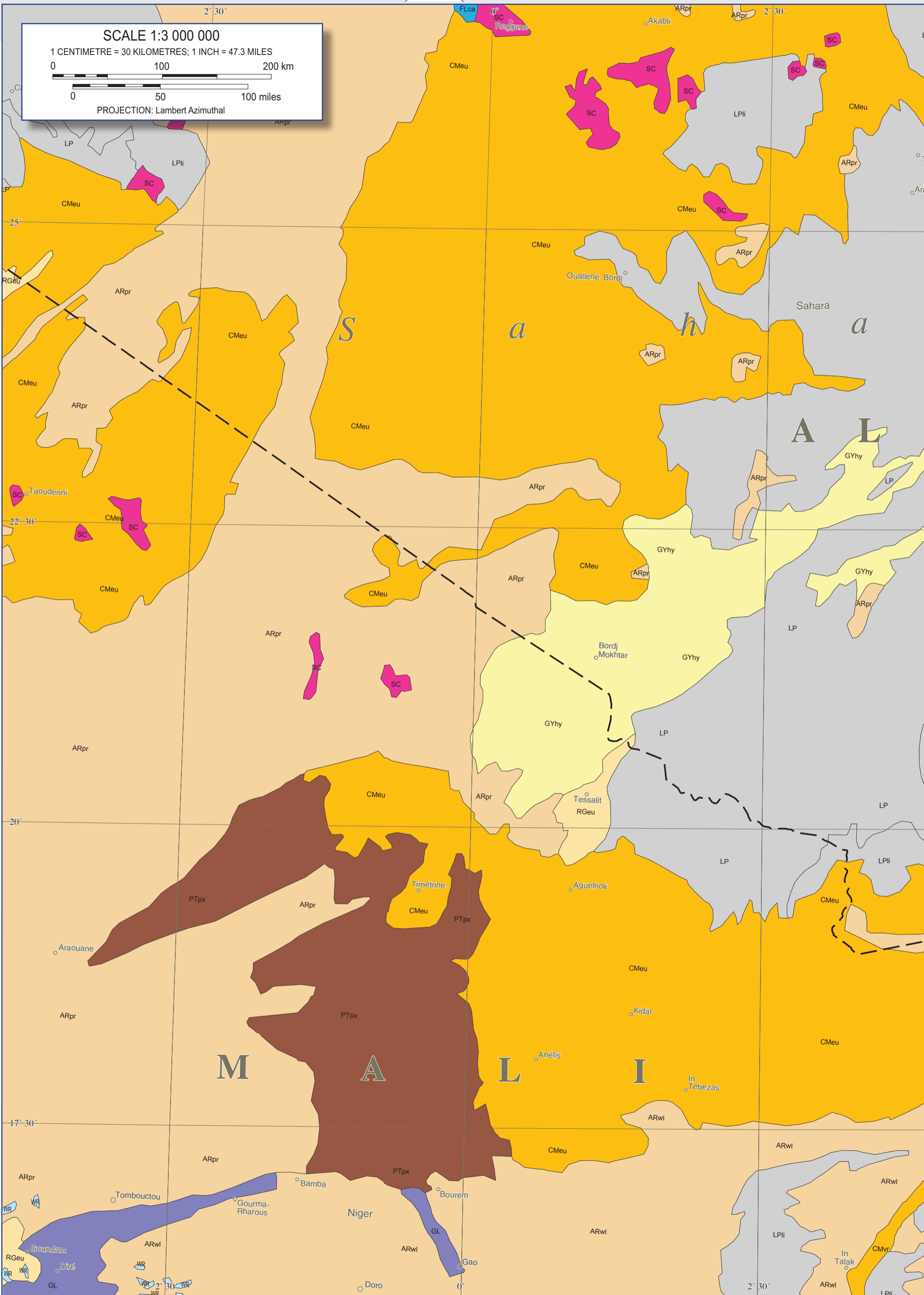
The area is predominantly characterised by flat terrain with weakly developed stony soils (Regosols, Cambisols and Leptosols) and sand dunes (Arenosols), interspersed by saline and gypsum accumulations (Solonchaks, Gypsisols) and dry, ephemeral river drainage systems (Fluvisols). Stony or skeletal soils are formed where outcrops of the underlying rock have been weathered in situ and covered with a patina or dust. Saline soils denote salt flats derived from the evaporation of former lakes. Arenosols cover about half of the total area of the map. In Mauritania, long, linear dunes, known as alâb, often extend for tens of kilometres and sometimes reach 100m in height. The area of Cambisols in the north-western corner of Mali denotes the Tanezrouft Plateau. Devoid of vegetation and surface water, it was once one of the most isolated places on the planet.

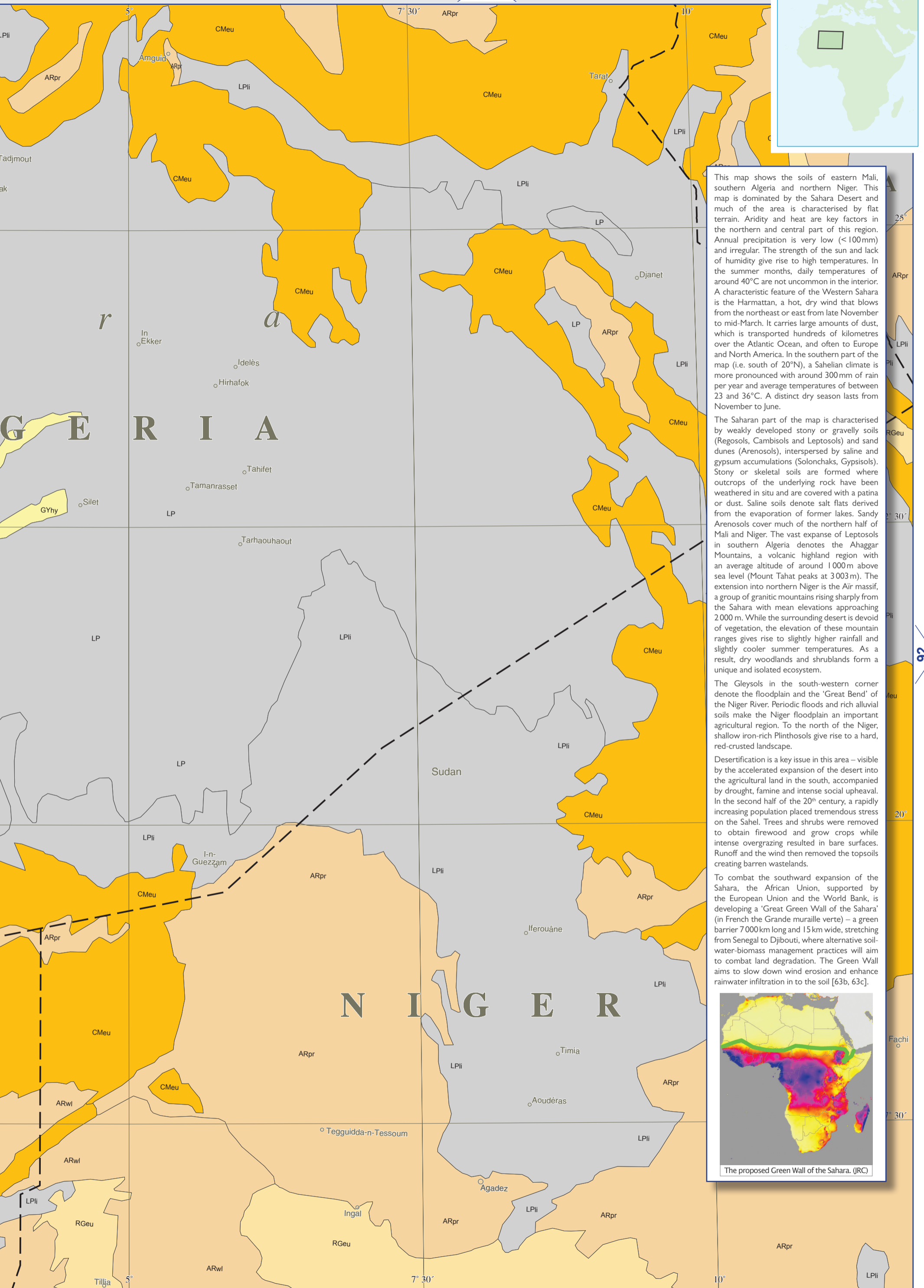
In the southwest of the map, a slightly more humid winter climate gives rise to more developed vegetation and soil development around the Senegal River. The Gleysols, Vertisols and Fluvisols that denote the extent of the Senegal delta and floodplain are highly productive and densely populated. Millet, rice, and vegetables are the main crops although salinisation is a major problem. Fluctuations of the iron-rich water table gives rise to Plinthosols on the Senegal / Mauritania border. The region displays a distinctive landscape, due in part to the hardening of plinthite on exposure to air.

Desertification is a key issue in this area – visible by the accelerated expansion of the desert into agricultural land. Drought, together with increasing pressures on fragile soils, is contributing to significant soil erosion while deforestation is a severe problem because of slash-and-burn agriculture and the population's growing need for firewood and construction materials.

SCALE 1:3 000 000
1 CENTIMETRE = 30 KILOMETRES; 1 INCH = 47.3 MILES

PROJECTION: Lambert Azimuthal





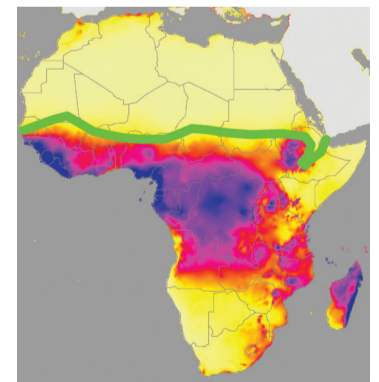
This map shows the soils of eastern Mali, southern Algeria and northern Niger. This map is dominated by the Sahara Desert and much of the area is characterised by flat terrain. Aridity and heat are key factors in the northern and central part of this region. Annual precipitation is very low (<100mm) and irregular. The strength of the sun and lack of humidity give rise to high temperatures. In the summer months, daily temperatures of around 40°C are not uncommon in the interior. A characteristic feature of the Western Sahara is the Harmattan, a hot, dry wind that blows from the northeast or east from late November to mid-March. It carries large amounts of dust, which is transported hundreds of kilometres over the Atlantic Ocean, and often to Europe and North America. In the southern part of the map (i.e. south of 20°N), a Sahelian climate is more pronounced with around 300mm of rain per year and average temperatures of between 23 and 36°C. A distinct dry season lasts from November to June.

The Saharan part of the map is characterised by weakly developed stony or gravelly soils (Regosols, Cambisols and Leptosols) and sand dunes (Arenosols), interspersed by saline and gypsum accumulations (Solonchaks, Gypsisols). Stony or skeletal soils are formed where outcrops of the underlying rock have been weathered in situ and are covered with a patina or dust. Saline soils denote salt flats derived from the evaporation of former lakes. Sandy Arenosols cover much of the northern half of Mali and Niger. The vast expanse of Leptosols in southern Algeria denotes the Ahaggar Mountains, a volcanic highland region with an average altitude of around 1000m above sea level (Mount Tahat peaks at 3003m). The extension into northern Niger is the Air massif, a group of granitic mountains rising sharply from the Sahara with mean elevations approaching 2000 m. While the surrounding desert is devoid of vegetation, the elevation of these mountain ranges gives rise to slightly higher rainfall and slightly cooler summer temperatures. As a result, dry woodlands and shrublands form a unique and isolated ecosystem.

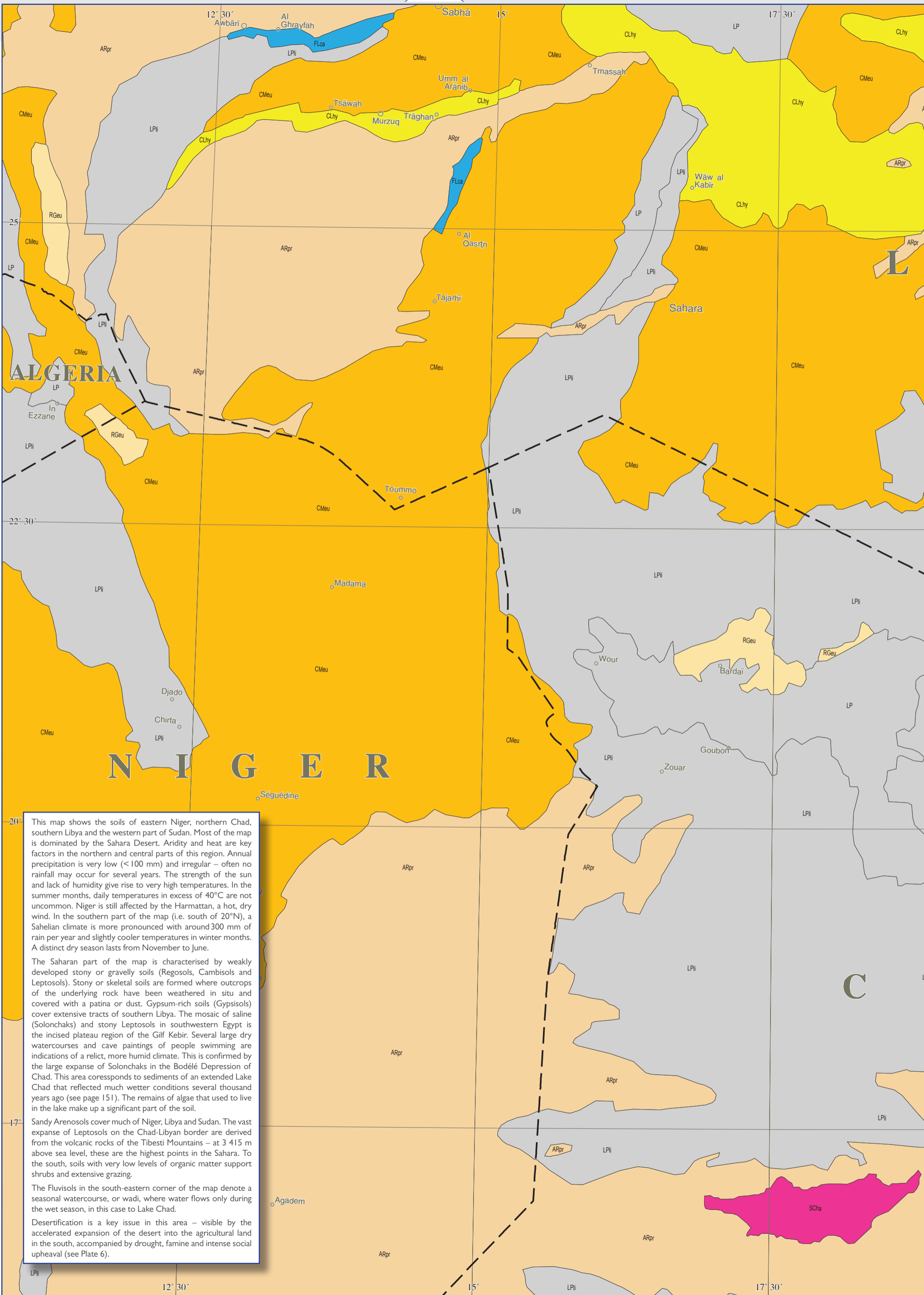
The Gleysols in the south-western corner denote the floodplain and the 'Great Bend' of the Niger River. Periodic floods and rich alluvial soils make the Niger floodplain an important agricultural region. To the north of the Niger, shallow iron-rich Plinthosols give rise to a hard, red-crust landscape.

Desertification is a key issue in this area – visible by the accelerated expansion of the desert into the agricultural land in the south, accompanied by drought, famine and intense social upheaval. In the second half of the 20th century, a rapidly increasing population placed tremendous stress on the Sahel. Trees and shrubs were removed to obtain firewood and grow crops while intense overgrazing resulted in bare surfaces. Runoff and the wind then removed the topsoils creating barren wastelands.

To combat the southward expansion of the Sahara, the African Union, supported by the European Union and the World Bank, is developing a 'Great Green Wall of the Sahara' (in French the Grande muraille verte) – a green barrier 7000 km long and 15 km wide, stretching from Senegal to Djibouti, where alternative soil-water-biomass management practices will aim to combat land degradation. The Green Wall aims to slow down wind erosion and enhance rainwater infiltration in to the soil [63b, 63c].



The proposed Green Wall of the Sahara. (JRC)



This map shows the soils of eastern Niger, northern Chad, southern Libya and the western part of Sudan. Most of the map is dominated by the Sahara Desert. Aridity and heat are key factors in the northern and central parts of this region. Annual precipitation is very low (< 100 mm) and irregular – often no rainfall may occur for several years. The strength of the sun and lack of humidity give rise to very high temperatures. In the summer months, daily temperatures in excess of 40°C are not uncommon. Niger is still affected by the Harmattan, a hot, dry wind. In the southern part of the map (i.e. south of 20°N), a Sahelian climate is more pronounced with around 300 mm of rain per year and slightly cooler temperatures in winter months. A distinct dry season lasts from November to June.

The Saharan part of the map is characterised by weakly developed stony or gravelly soils (Regosols, Cambisols and Leptosols). Stony or skeletal soils are formed where outcrops of the underlying rock have been weathered in situ and covered with a patina or dust. Gypsum-rich soils (Gypsisols) cover extensive tracts of southern Libya. The mosaic of saline (Solonchaks) and stony Leptosols in southwestern Egypt is the incised plateau region of the Gifl Kebir. Several large dry watercourses and cave paintings of people swimming are indications of a relict, more humid climate. This is confirmed by the large expanse of Solonchaks in the Bodélé Depression of Chad. This area corresponds to sediments of an extended Lake Chad that reflected much wetter conditions several thousand years ago (see page 151). The remains of algae that used to live in the lake make up a significant part of the soil.

Sandy Arenosols cover much of Niger, Libya and Sudan. The vast expanse of Leptosols on the Chad-Libyan border are derived from the volcanic rocks of the Tibesti Mountains – at 3 415 m above sea level, these are the highest points in the Sahara. To the south, soils with very low levels of organic matter support shrubs and extensive grazing.

The Fluvisols in the south-eastern corner of the map denote a seasonal watercourse, or wadi, where water flows only during the wet season, in this case to Lake Chad.

Desertification is a key issue in this area – visible by the accelerated expansion of the desert into the agricultural land in the south, accompanied by drought, famine and intense social upheaval (see Plate 6).

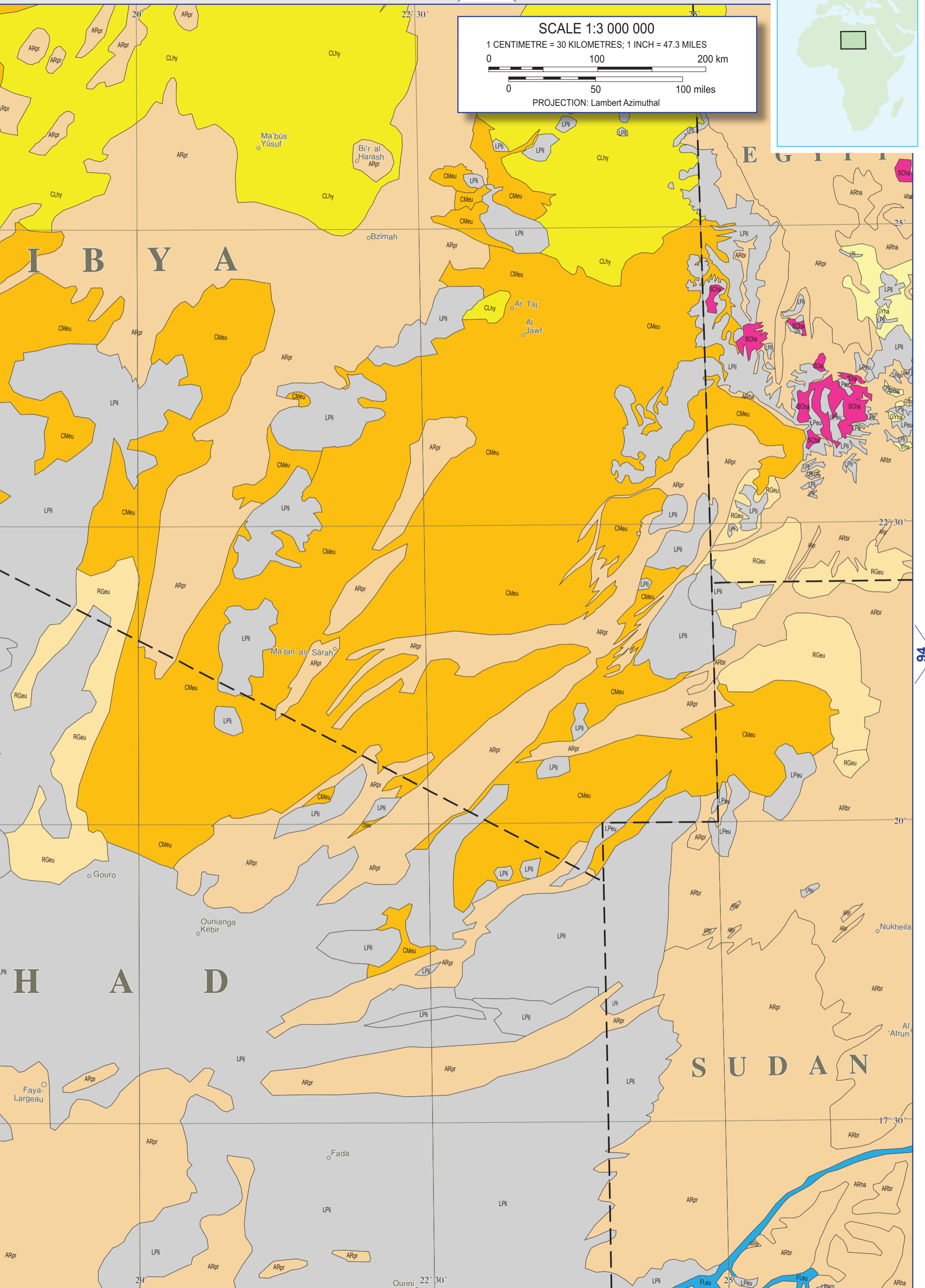
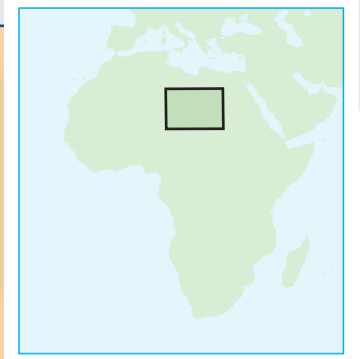
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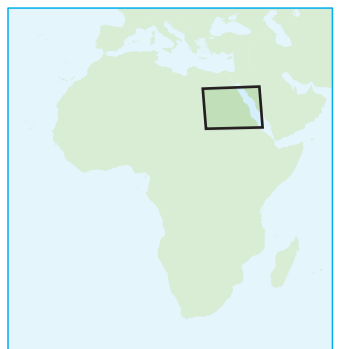
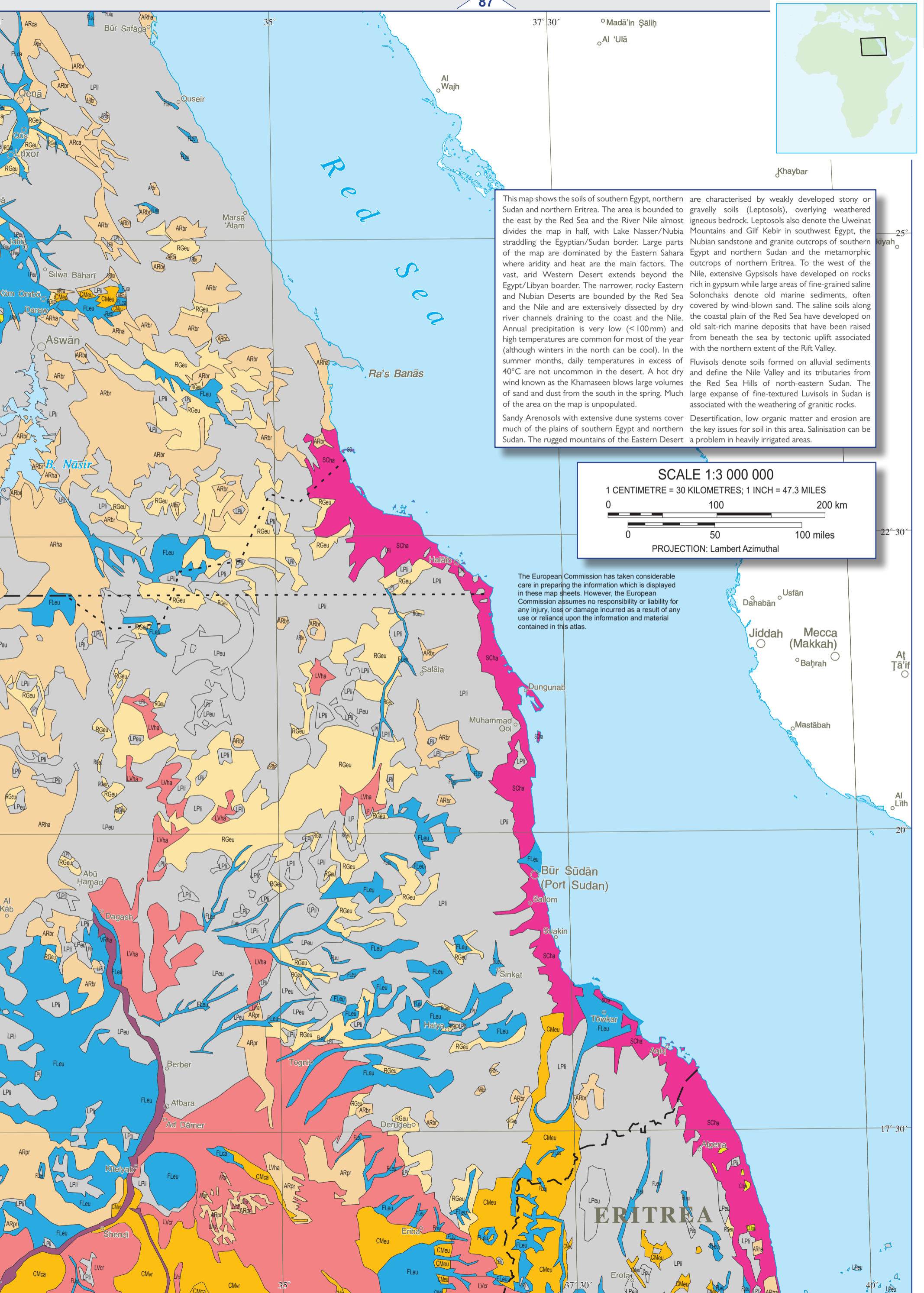
1 CENTIMETRE = 30 KILOMETRES; 1 INCH = 47.3 MILES

0 100 200 km

0 50 100 miles

PROJECTION: Lambert Azimuthal





This map shows the soils of southern Egypt, northern Sudan and northern Eritrea. The area is bounded to the east by the Red Sea and the River Nile almost divides the map in half, with Lake Nasser/Nubia straddling the Egyptian/Sudan border. Large parts of the map are dominated by the Eastern Sahara where aridity and heat are the main factors. The vast, arid Western Desert extends beyond the Egypt/Libyan border. The narrower, rocky Eastern and Nubian Deserts are bounded by the Red Sea and the Nile and are extensively dissected by dry river channels draining to the coast and the Nile. Annual precipitation is very low (<100mm) and high temperatures are common for most of the year (although winters in the north can be cool). In the summer months, daily temperatures in excess of 40°C are not uncommon in the desert. A hot dry wind known as the Khamaseen blows large volumes of sand and dust from the south in the spring. Much of the area on the map is unpopulated.

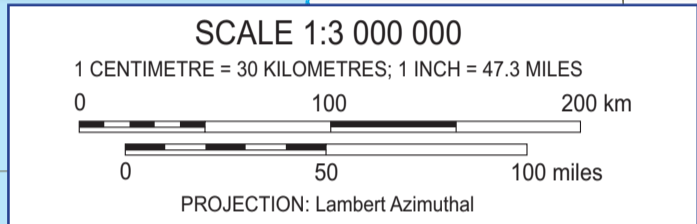
are characterised by weakly developed stony or gravelly soils (Leptosols), overlying weathered igneous bedrock. Leptosols also denote the Uweinat Mountains and Gifl Kebir in southwest Egypt, the Nubian sandstone and granite outcrops of southern Egypt and northern Sudan and the metamorphic outcrops of northern Eritrea. To the west of the Nile, extensive Gypsisols have developed on rocks rich in gypsum while large areas of fine-grained saline Solonchaks denote old marine sediments, often covered by wind-blown sand. The saline soils along the coastal plain of the Red Sea have developed on old salt-rich marine deposits that have been raised from beneath the sea by tectonic uplift associated with the northern extent of the Rift Valley.

Fluvisols denote soils formed on alluvial sediments and define the Nile Valley and its tributaries from the Red Sea Hills of north-eastern Sudan. The large expanse of fine-textured Luvisols in Sudan is associated with the weathering of granitic rocks.

Sandy Arenosols with extensive dune systems cover much of the plains of southern Egypt and northern Sudan. The rugged mountains of the Eastern Desert are characterised by weakly developed stony or gravelly soils (Leptosols), overlying weathered igneous bedrock. Leptosols also denote the Uweinat Mountains and Gifl Kebir in southwest Egypt, the Nubian sandstone and granite outcrops of southern Egypt and northern Sudan and the metamorphic outcrops of northern Eritrea. To the west of the Nile, extensive Gypsisols have developed on rocks rich in gypsum while large areas of fine-grained saline Solonchaks denote old marine sediments, often covered by wind-blown sand. The saline soils along the coastal plain of the Red Sea have developed on old salt-rich marine deposits that have been raised from beneath the sea by tectonic uplift associated with the northern extent of the Rift Valley.

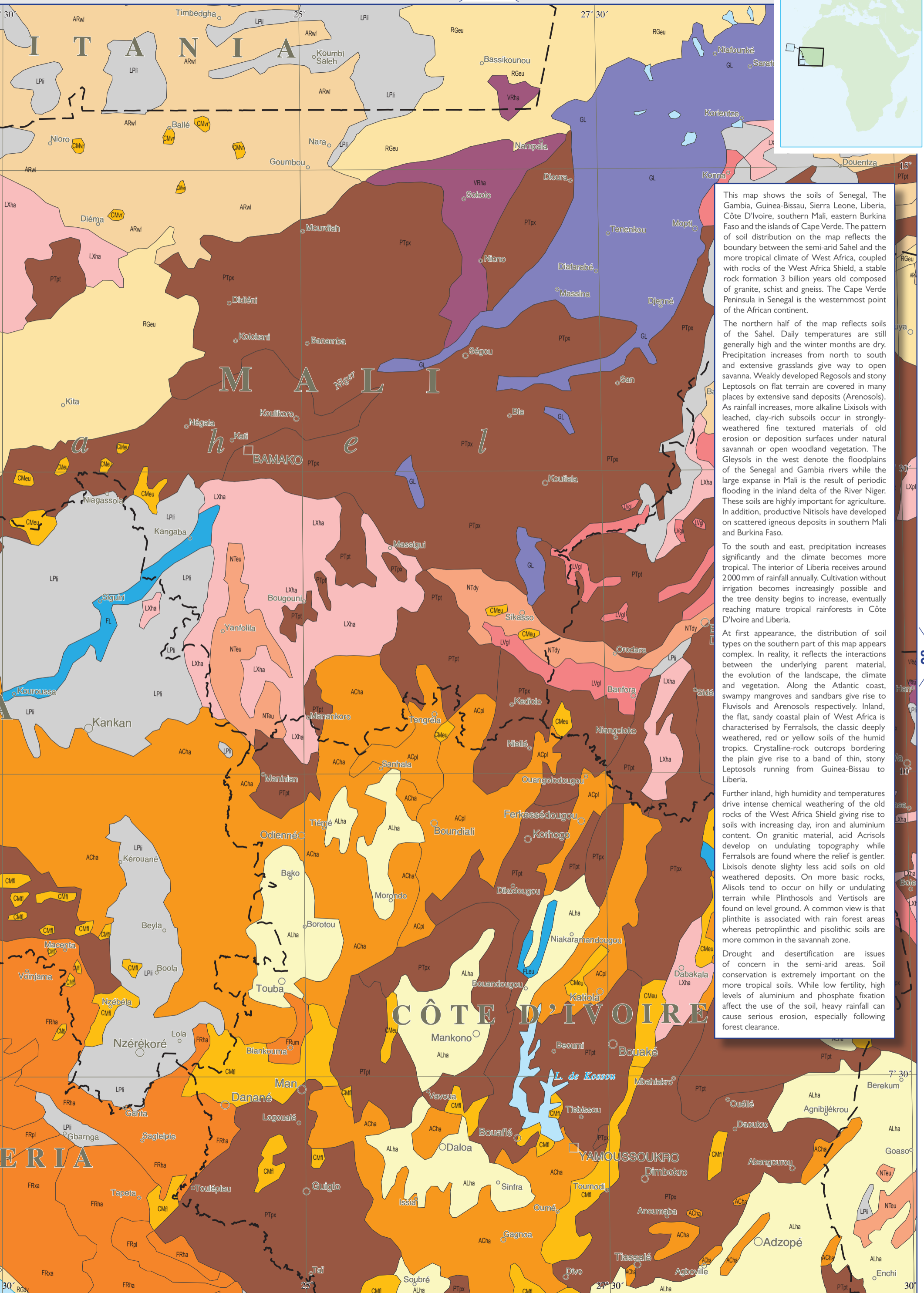
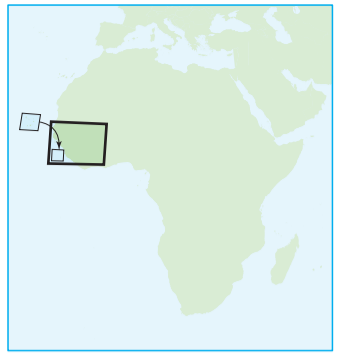
Fluvisols denote soils formed on alluvial sediments and define the Nile Valley and its tributaries from the Red Sea Hills of north-eastern Sudan. The large expanse of fine-textured Luvisols in Sudan is associated with the weathering of granitic rocks.

Desertification, low organic matter and erosion are the key issues for soil in this area. Salinisation can be a problem in heavily irrigated areas.



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This map shows the soils of Senegal, The Gambia, Guinea-Bissau, Sierra Leone, Liberia, Côte D'Ivoire, southern Mali, eastern Burkina Faso and the islands of Cape Verde. The pattern of soil distribution on the map reflects the boundary between the semi-arid Sahel and the more tropical climate of West Africa, coupled with rocks of the West Africa Shield, a stable rock formation 3 billion years old composed of granite, schist and gneiss. The Cape Verde Peninsula in Senegal is the westernmost point of the African continent.

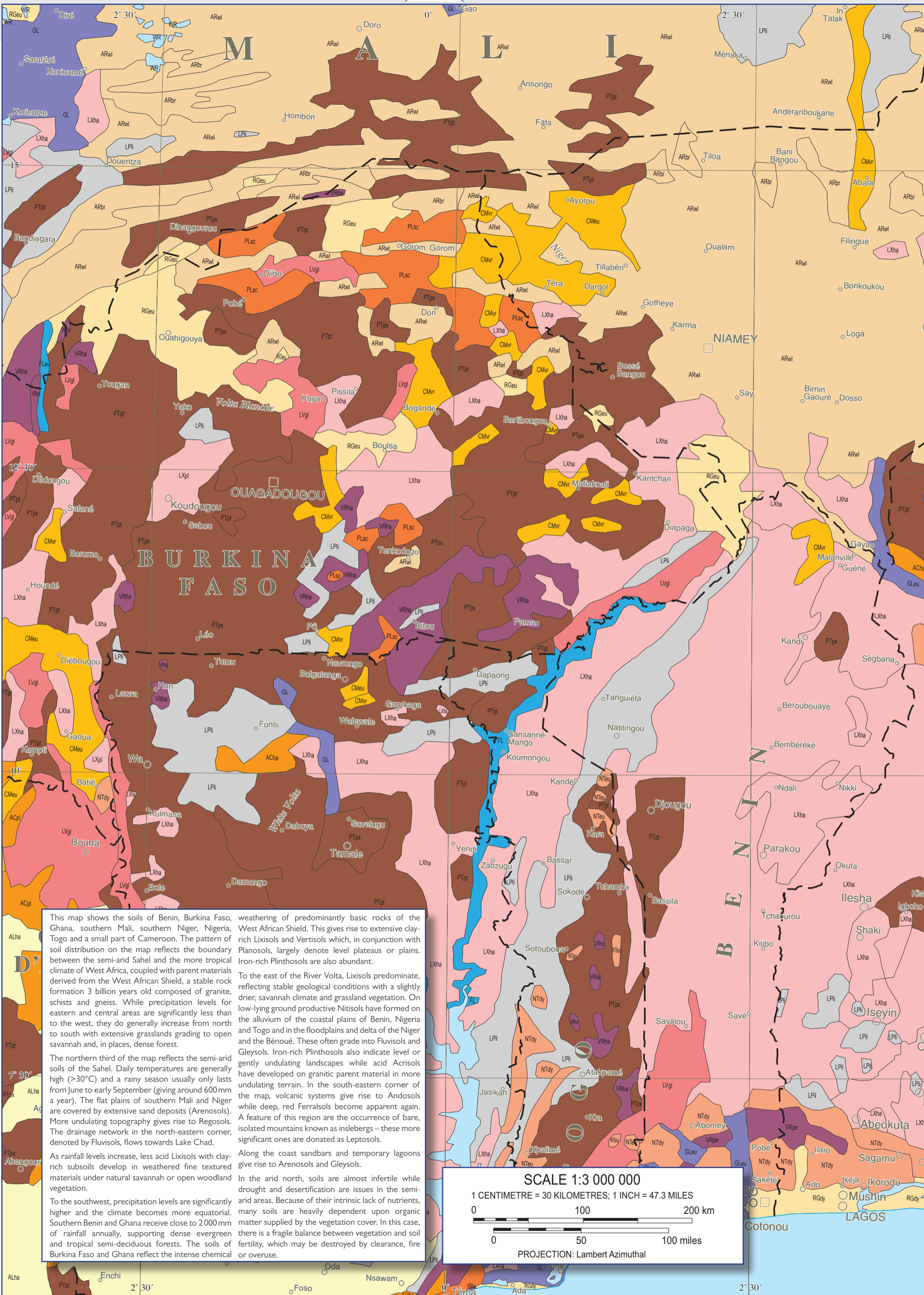
The northern half of the map reflects soils of the Sahel. Daily temperatures are still generally high and the winter months are dry. Precipitation increases from north to south and extensive grasslands give way to open savanna. Weakly developed Regosols and stony Leptosols on flat terrain are covered in many places by extensive sand deposits (Arenosols). As rainfall increases, more alkaline Lixisols with leached, clay-rich subsoils occur in strongly-weathered fine textured materials of old erosion or deposition surfaces under natural savannah or open woodland vegetation. The Gleysols in the west denote the floodplains of the Senegal and Gambia rivers while the large expanse in Mali is the result of periodic flooding in the inland delta of the River Niger. These soils are highly important for agriculture. In addition, productive Nitisols have developed on scattered igneous deposits in southern Mali and Burkina Faso.

To the south and east, precipitation increases significantly and the climate becomes more tropical. The interior of Liberia receives around 2000mm of rainfall annually. Cultivation without irrigation becomes increasingly possible and the tree density begins to increase, eventually reaching mature tropical rainforests in Côte D'Ivoire and Liberia.

At first appearance, the distribution of soil types on the southern part of this map appears complex. In reality, it reflects the interactions between the underlying parent material, the evolution of the landscape, the climate and vegetation. Along the Atlantic coast, swampy mangroves and sandbars give rise to Fluvisols and Arenosols respectively. Inland, the flat, sandy coastal plain of West Africa is characterised by Ferralsols, the classic deeply weathered, red or yellow soils of the humid tropics. Crystalline-rock outcrops bordering the plain give rise to a band of thin, stony Leptosols running from Guinea-Bissau to Liberia.

Further inland, high humidity and temperatures drive intense chemical weathering of the old rocks of the West Africa Shield giving rise to soils with increasing clay, iron and aluminium content. On granitic material, acid Acrisols develop on undulating topography while Ferralsols are found where the relief is gentler. Lixisols denote slightly less acid soils on old weathered deposits. On more basic rocks, Alisols tend to occur on hilly or undulating terrain while Plinthosols and Vertisols are found on level ground. A common view is that plinthite is associated with rain forest areas whereas petroplinthic and pisolithic soils are more common in the savannah zone.

Drought and desertification are issues of concern in the semi-arid areas. Soil conservation is extremely important on the more tropical soils. While low fertility, high levels of aluminium and phosphate fixation affect the use of the soil, heavy rainfall can cause serious erosion, especially following forest clearance.



This map shows the soils of Benin, Burkina Faso, Ghana, southern Mali, southern Niger, Nigeria, Togo and a small part of Cameroon. The pattern of soil distribution on the map reflects the boundary between the semi-arid Sahel and the more tropical climate of West Africa, coupled with parent materials derived from the West African Shield, a stable rock formation 3 billion years old composed of granite, schists and gneiss. While precipitation levels for eastern and central areas are significantly less than to the west, they do generally increase from north to south with extensive grasslands grading to open savannah and, in places, dense forest.

The northern third of the map reflects the semi-arid soils of the Sahel. Daily temperatures are generally high (>30°C) and a rainy season usually only lasts from June to early September (giving around 600 mm a year). The flat plains of southern Mali and Niger are covered by extensive sand deposits (Arenosols). More undulating topography gives rise to Regosols. The drainage network in the north-eastern corner, denoted by Fluvisols, flows towards Lake Chad.

As rainfall levels increase, less acid Lixisols with clay-rich subsoils develop in weathered fine textured materials under natural savannah or open woodland vegetation.

To the southwest, precipitation levels are significantly higher and the climate becomes more equatorial. Southern Benin and Ghana receive close to 2000 mm of rainfall annually, supporting dense evergreen and tropical semi-deciduous forests. The soils of Burkina Faso and Ghana reflect the intense chemical

weathering of predominantly basic rocks of the West African Shield. This gives rise to extensive clay-rich Lixisols and Vertisols which, in conjunction with Planosols, largely denote level plateaus or plains. Iron-rich Plinthosols are also abundant.

To the east of the River Volta, Lixisols predominate, reflecting stable geological conditions with a slightly drier, savannah climate and grassland vegetation. On low-lying ground productive Nitisols have formed on the alluvium of the coastal plains of Benin, Nigeria and Togo and in the floodplains and delta of the Niger and the Bénoué. These often grade into Fluvisols and Gleysols. Iron-rich Plinthosols also indicate level or gently undulating landscapes while acid Acrisols have developed on granitic parent material in more undulating terrain. In the south-eastern corner of the map, volcanic systems give rise to Andosols while deep, red Ferralsols become apparent again. A feature of this region are the occurrence of bare, isolated mountains known as inselbergs – these more significant ones are denoted as Leptosols.

Along the coast sandbars and temporary lagoons give rise to Arenosols and Gleysols.

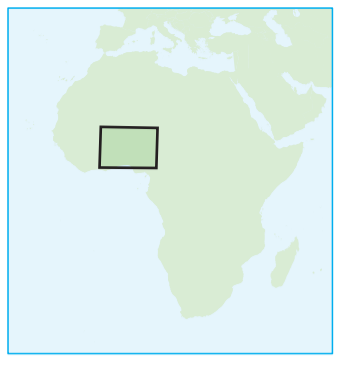
In the arid north, soils are almost infertile while drought and desertification are issues in the semi-arid areas. Because of their intrinsic lack of nutrients, many soils are heavily dependent upon organic matter supplied by the vegetation cover. In this case, there is a fragile balance between vegetation and soil fertility, which may be destroyed by clearance, fire or overuse.

SCALE 1:3 000 000
 1 CENTIMETRE = 30 KILOMETRES; 1 INCH = 47.3 MILES

0 100 200 km
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PROJECTION: Lambert Azimuthal

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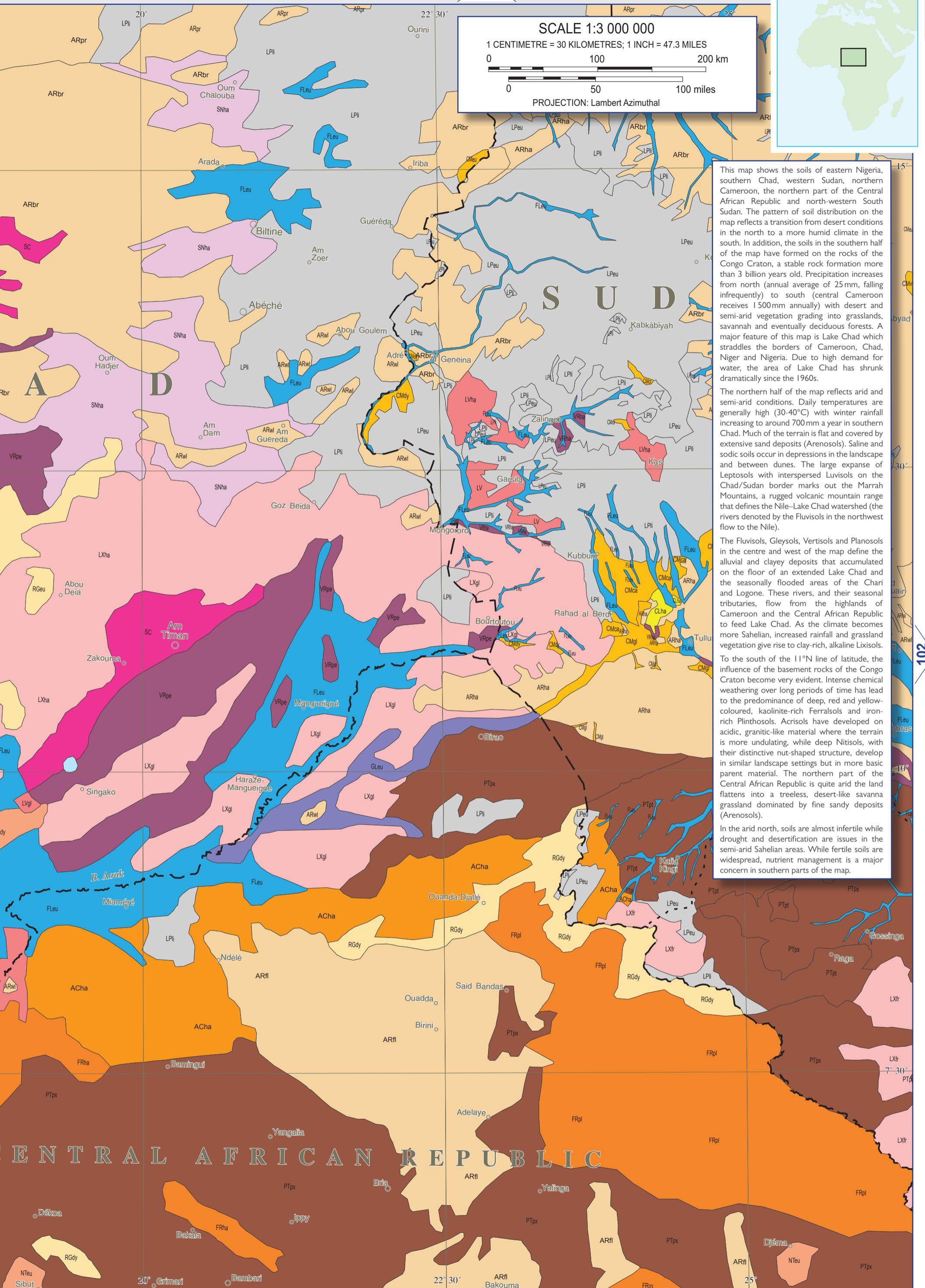
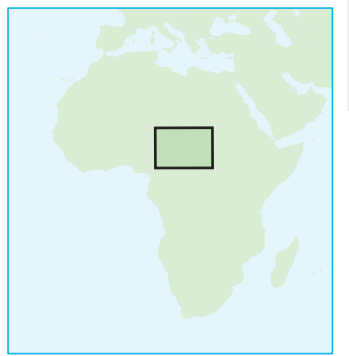
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1 CENTIMETRE = 30 KILOMETRES; 1 INCH = 47.3 MILES

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PROJECTION: Lambert Azimuthal



This map shows the soils of eastern Nigeria, southern Chad, western Sudan, northern Cameroon, the northern part of the Central African Republic and north-western South Sudan. The pattern of soil distribution on the map reflects a transition from desert conditions in the north to a more humid climate in the south. In addition, the soils in the southern half of the map have formed on the rocks of the Congo Craton, a stable rock formation more than 3 billion years old. Precipitation increases from north (annual average of 25 mm, falling infrequently) to south (central Cameroon receives 1500 mm annually) with desert and semi-arid vegetation grading into grasslands, savannah and eventually deciduous forests. A major feature of this map is Lake Chad which straddles the borders of Cameroon, Chad, Niger and Nigeria. Due to high demand for water, the area of Lake Chad has shrunk dramatically since the 1960s.

The northern half of the map reflects arid and semi-arid conditions. Daily temperatures are generally high (30-40°C) with winter rainfall increasing to around 700 mm a year in southern Chad. Much of the terrain is flat and covered by extensive sand deposits (Arenosols). Saline and sodic soils occur in depressions in the landscape and between dunes. The large expanse of Leptosols with interspersed Luvisols on the Chad/Sudan border marks out the Marrah Mountains, a rugged volcanic mountain range that defines the Nile-Lake Chad watershed (the rivers denoted by the Fluvisols in the northwest flow to the Nile).

The Fluvisols, Gleysols, Vertisols and Planosols in the centre and west of the map define the alluvial and clayey deposits that accumulated on the floor of an extended Lake Chad and the seasonally flooded areas of the Chari and Logone. These rivers, and their seasonal tributaries, flow from the highlands of Cameroon and the Central African Republic to feed Lake Chad. As the climate becomes more Sahelian, increased rainfall and grassland vegetation give rise to clay-rich, alkaline Lixisols. To the south of the 11°N line of latitude, the influence of the basement rocks of the Congo Craton become very evident. Intense chemical weathering over long periods of time has led to the predominance of deep, red and yellow-coloured, kaolinite-rich Ferralsols and iron-rich Plinthosols. Acrisols have developed on acidic, granitic-like material where the terrain is more undulating, while deep Nitisols, with their distinctive nut-shaped structure, develop in similar landscape settings but in more basic parent material. The northern part of the Central African Republic is quite arid the land flattens into a treeless, desert-like savanna grassland dominated by fine sandy deposits (Arenosols).

In the arid north, soils are almost infertile while drought and desertification are issues in the semi-arid Sahelian areas. While fertile soils are widespread, nutrient management is a major concern in southern parts of the map.



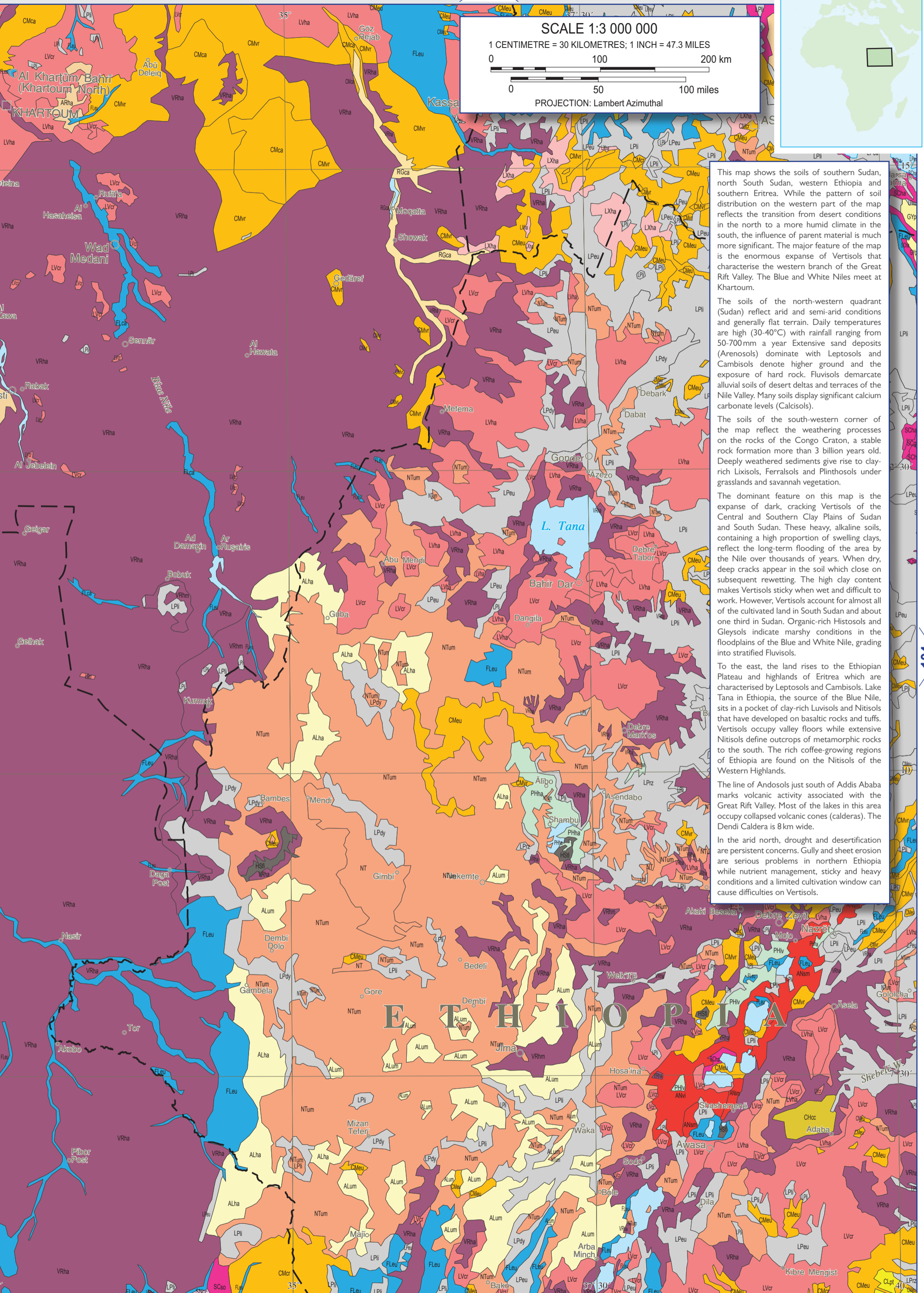
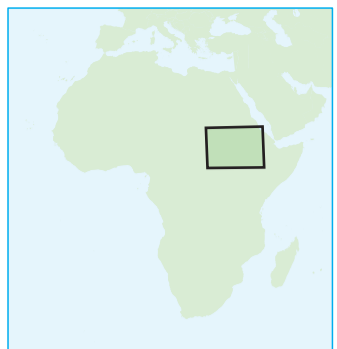
SCALE 1:3 000 000

1 CENTIMETRE = 30 KILOMETRES; 1 INCH = 47.3 MILES

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PROJECTION: Lambert Azimuthal



This map shows the soils of southern Sudan, north South Sudan, western Ethiopia and southern Eritrea. While the pattern of soil distribution on the western part of the map reflects the transition from desert conditions in the north to a more humid climate in the south, the influence of parent material is much more significant. The major feature of the map is the enormous expanse of Vertisols that characterise the western branch of the Great Rift Valley. The Blue and White Niles meet at Khartoum.

The soils of the north-western quadrant (Sudan) reflect arid and semi-arid conditions and generally flat terrain. Daily temperatures are high (30-40°C) with rainfall ranging from 50-700mm a year. Extensive sand deposits (Arenosols) dominate with Leptosols and Cambisols denoting higher ground and the exposure of hard rock. Fluvisols demarcate alluvial soils of desert deltas and terraces of the Nile Valley. Many soils display significant calcium carbonate levels (Calcisols).

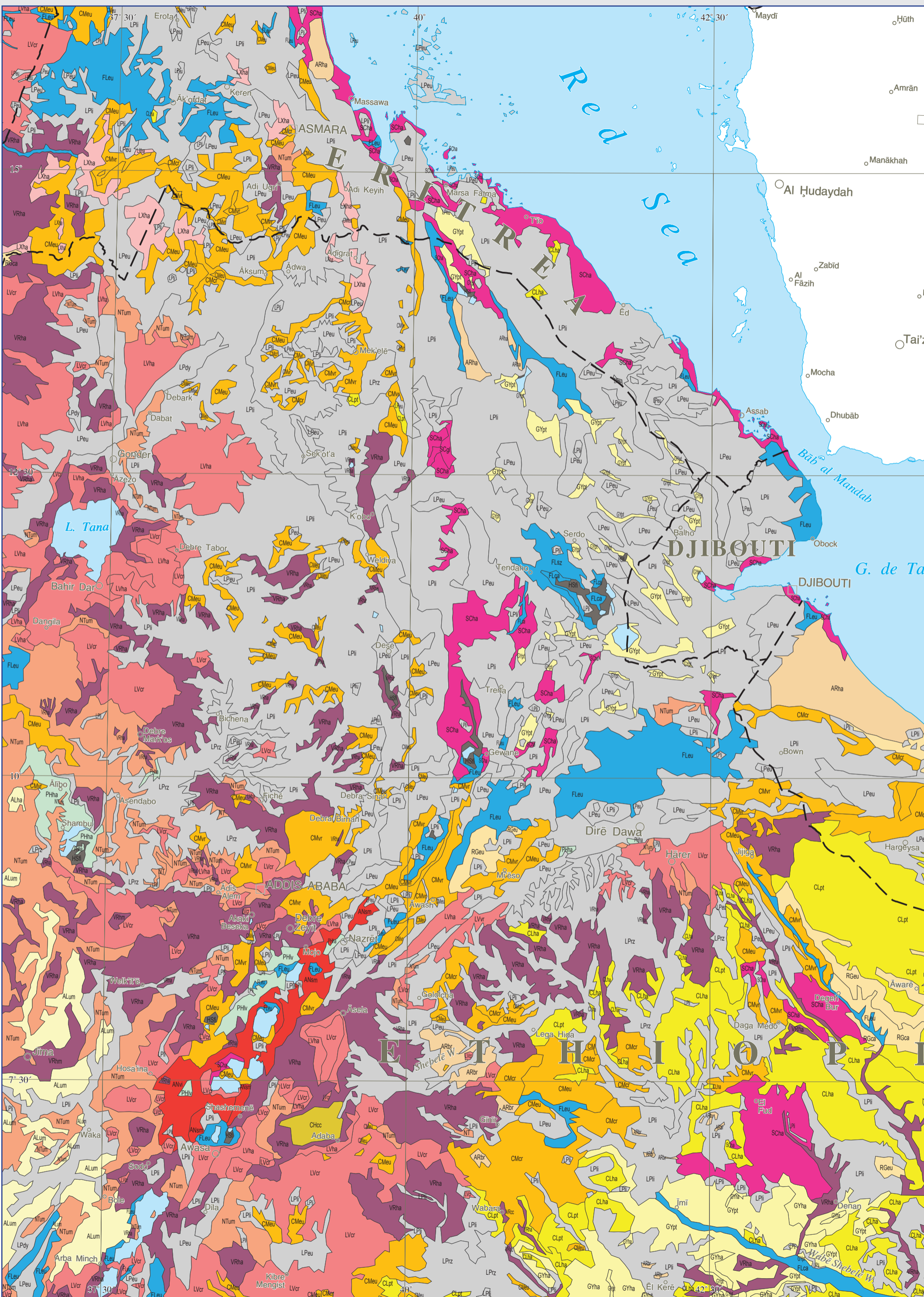
The soils of the south-western corner of the map reflect the weathering processes on the rocks of the Congo Craton, a stable rock formation more than 3 billion years old. Deeply weathered sediments give rise to clay-rich Lixisols, Ferralsols and Plinthosols under grasslands and savannah vegetation.

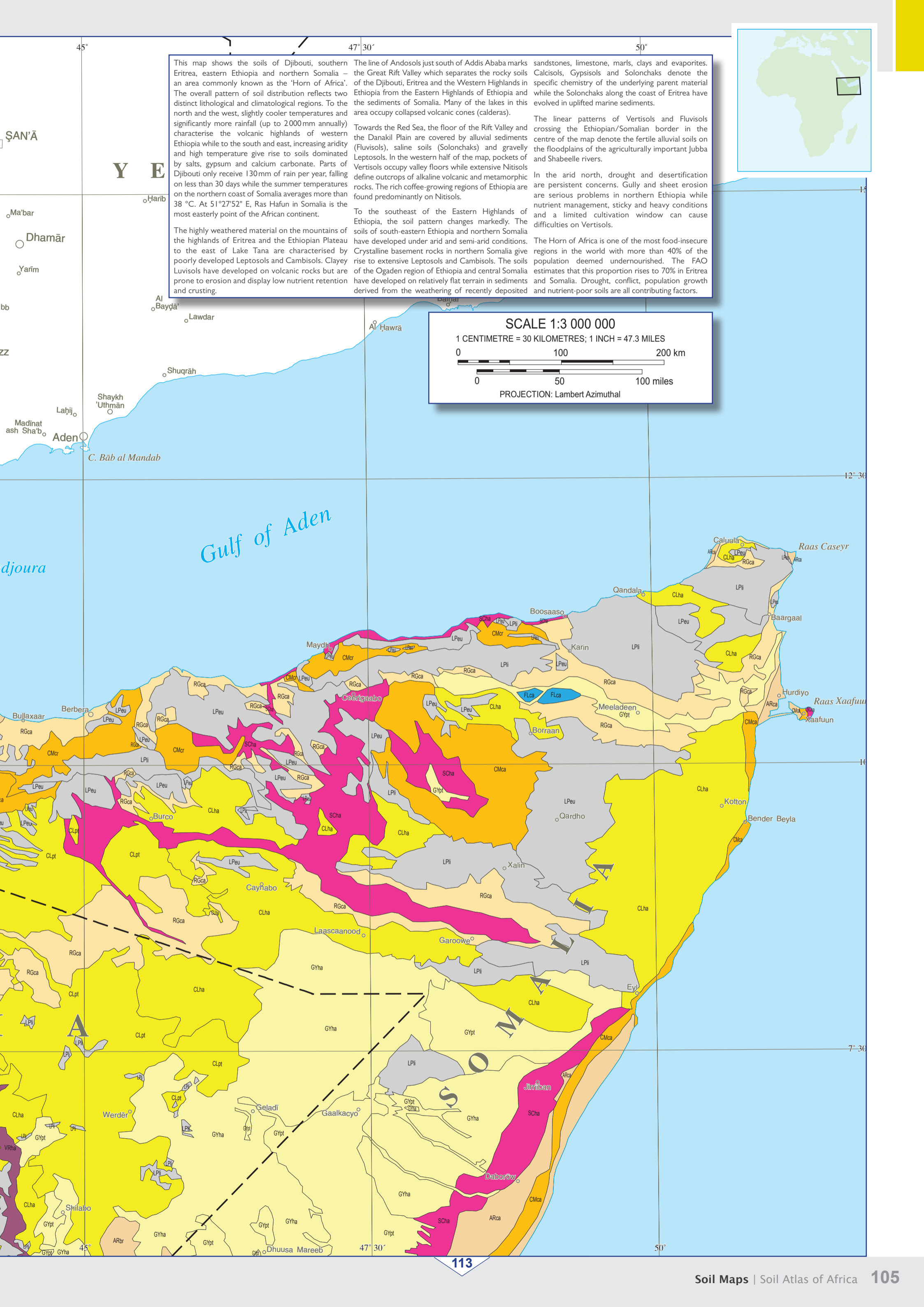
The dominant feature on this map is the expanse of dark, cracking Vertisols of the Central and Southern Clay Plains of Sudan and South Sudan. These heavy, alkaline soils, containing a high proportion of swelling clays, reflect the long-term flooding of the area by the Nile over thousands of years. When dry, deep cracks appear in the soil which close on subsequent rewetting. The high clay content makes Vertisols sticky when wet and difficult to work. However, Vertisols account for almost all of the cultivated land in South Sudan and about one third in Sudan. Organic-rich Histosols and Gleysols indicate marshy conditions in the floodplains of the Blue and White Nile, grading into stratified Fluvisols.

To the east, the land rises to the Ethiopian Plateau and highlands of Eritrea which are characterised by Leptosols and Cambisols. Lake Tana in Ethiopia, the source of the Blue Nile, sits in a pocket of clay-rich Luvisols and Nitisols that have developed on basaltic rocks and tuffs. Vertisols occupy valley floors while extensive Nitisols define outcrops of metamorphic rocks to the south. The rich coffee-growing regions of Ethiopia are found on the Nitisols of the Western Highlands.

The line of Andosols just south of Addis Ababa marks volcanic activity associated with the Great Rift Valley. Most of the lakes in this area occupy collapsed volcanic cones (calderas). The Dendi Caldera is 8 km wide.

In the arid north, drought and desertification are persistent concerns. Gully and sheet erosion are serious problems in northern Ethiopia while nutrient management, sticky and heavy conditions and a limited cultivation window can cause difficulties on Vertisols.





This map shows the soils of Djibouti, southern Eritrea, eastern Ethiopia and northern Somalia – an area commonly known as the 'Horn of Africa'. The overall pattern of soil distribution reflects two distinct lithological and climatological regions. To the north and the west, slightly cooler temperatures and significantly more rainfall (up to 2000mm annually) characterise the volcanic highlands of western Ethiopia while to the south and east, increasing aridity and high temperature give rise to soils dominated by salts, gypsum and calcium carbonate. Parts of Djibouti only receive 130mm of rain per year, falling on less than 30 days while the summer temperatures on the northern coast of Somalia averages more than 38 °C. At 51°27'52" E, Ras Hafun in Somalia is the most easterly point of the African continent.

The highly weathered material on the mountains of the highlands of Eritrea and the Ethiopian Plateau to the east of Lake Tana are characterised by poorly developed Leptosols and Cambisols. Clayey Luvisols have developed on volcanic rocks but are prone to erosion and display low nutrient retention and crusting.

The line of Andosols just south of Addis Ababa marks the Great Rift Valley which separates the rocky soils of the Djibouti, Eritrea and the Western Highlands in Ethiopia from the Eastern Highlands of Ethiopia and the sediments of Somalia. Many of the lakes in this area occupy collapsed volcanic cones (calderas).

Towards the Red Sea, the floor of the Rift Valley and the Danakil Plain are covered by alluvial sediments (Fluvisols), saline soils (Solonchaks) and gravelly Leptosols. In the western half of the map, pockets of Vertisols occupy valley floors while extensive Nitisols define outcrops of alkaline volcanic and metamorphic rocks. The rich coffee-growing regions of Ethiopia are found predominantly on Nitisols.

To the southeast of the Eastern Highlands of Ethiopia, the soil pattern changes markedly. The soils of south-eastern Ethiopia and northern Somalia have developed under arid and semi-arid conditions. Crystalline basement rocks in northern Somalia give rise to extensive Leptosols and Cambisols. The soils of the Ogaden region of Ethiopia and central Somalia have developed on relatively flat terrain in sediments derived from the weathering of recently deposited

sandstones, limestone, marls, clays and evaporites. Calcisols, Gypsisols and Solonchaks denote the specific chemistry of the underlying parent material while the Solonchaks along the coast of Eritrea have evolved in uplifted marine sediments.

The linear patterns of Vertisols and Fluvisols crossing the Ethiopian/Somalian border in the centre of the map denote the fertile alluvial soils on the floodplains of the agriculturally important Jubba and Shabeelle rivers.

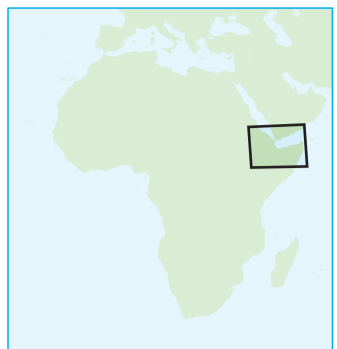
In the arid north, drought and desertification are persistent concerns. Gully and sheet erosion are serious problems in northern Ethiopia while nutrient management, sticky and heavy conditions and a limited cultivation window can cause difficulties on Vertisols.

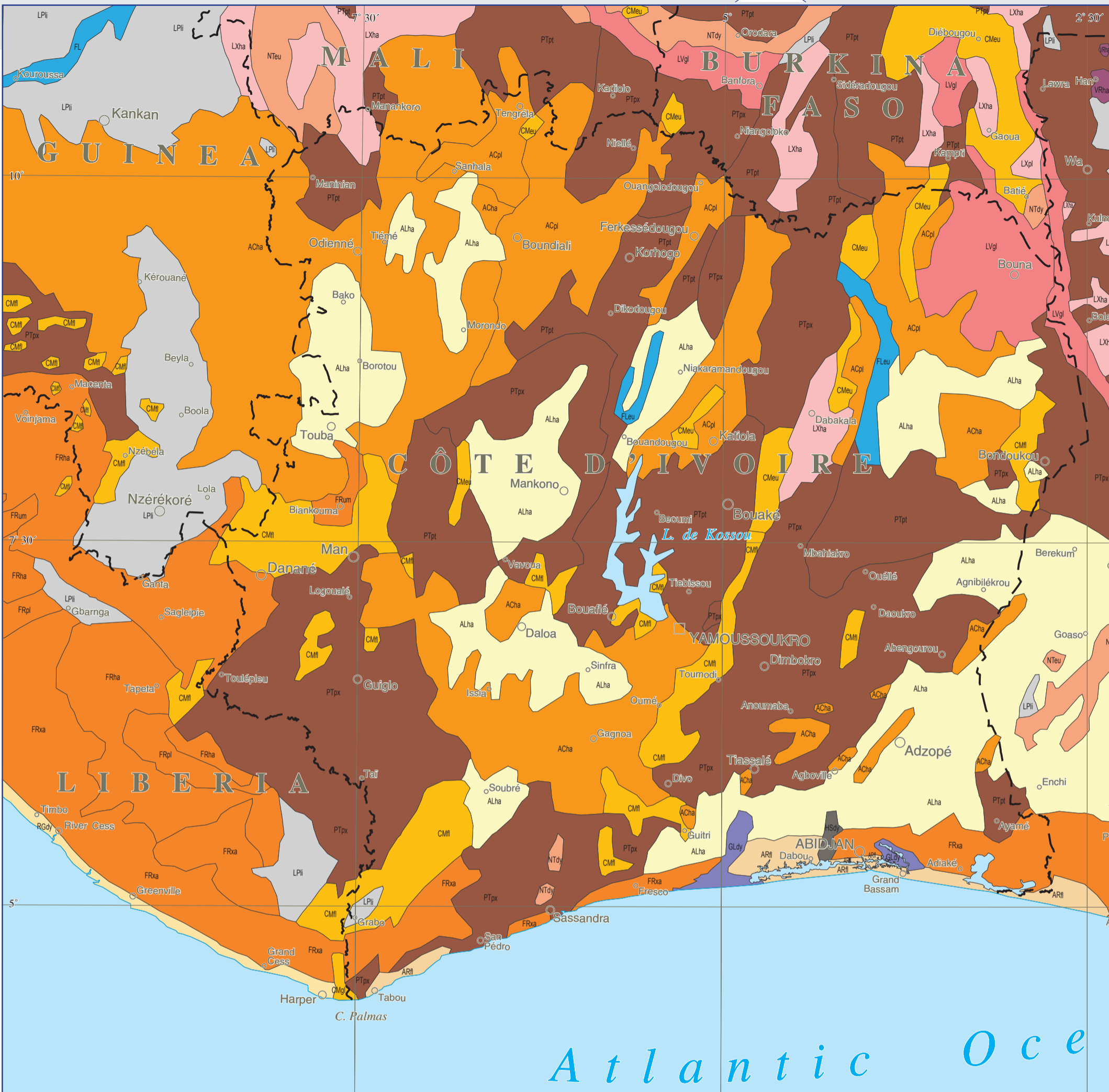
The Horn of Africa is one of the most food-insecure regions in the world with more than 40% of the population deemed undernourished. The FAO estimates that this proportion rises to 70% in Eritrea and Somalia. Drought, conflict, population growth and nutrient-poor soils are all contributing factors.

SCALE 1:3 000 000
 1 CENTIMETRE = 30 KILOMETRES; 1 INCH = 47.3 MILES

0 100 200 km
 0 50 100 miles

PROJECTION: Lambert Azimuthal





This map shows the soils of eastern Liberia, eastern Guinea, the Côte D'Ivoire, Ghana, Togo, Benin and southwest Nigeria. The pattern of soil distribution on the map reflects the intense weathering of the rocks of the West African Shield, a stable 3 billion year old rock formation, under hot and humid equatorial conditions. The large expanse of water lying along the Greenwich Meridian in Ghana is Lake Volta, the largest reservoir by surface area in the world (about 8500 km²).

While the south-western part of the map has a typical hot and humid equatorial climate with extensive evergreen rainforest, the majority of the region has a humid savannah environment. Precipitation levels increase significantly to the south and west with the southern parts of Liberia receiving some of the highest rainfall in Africa (approaching 3000mm annually). Average monthly temperature varies between 25-35°C).

To the north and east, the humid savannah climate is characterised by the dry Harmattan wind (which blows from the northeast during winter), a dry season lasting from about November to March and annual precipitation of around 1500mm. The shrubby grasslands of the north become more wooded towards the south, eventually grading into forest. The boundary between the savannah and forest is increasingly being cleared for rain-fed cultivation.

The distribution of soil types reflects the interplay between the underlying parent material, topography

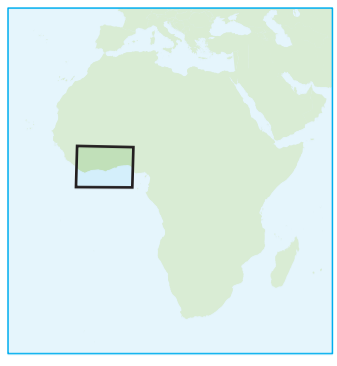
and climate. In the west, the intense chemical weathering of the West African Craton gives rise to a gently undulating landscape where extensive acidic Acrisols have developed on granites and schists while Alisols occur on more basic materials. Clay- and iron-rich Plinthosols denote more level terrain. On the alluvial sediments of the coastal plain of the Côte D'Ivoire, Liberia and Togo, deep, red or yellow Ferralsols have formed under rainforest.

The valley of the River Volta, denoted by alluvial Fluvisols, marks the eastern boundary of the West African Craton. To the east, less acid Lixisols with leached, clay-rich subsoils occur in strongly-weathered, fine textured materials under natural savannah or open woodland vegetation. Nitisols are found on gentle slopes between the coastal plains and interior plateau of Benin, Nigeria and Togo while iron-rich Plinthosols also indicate level or gently undulating landscapes. In Nigeria, bare, isolated mountains known as inslebergs give rise to individual patches of Leptosols.

Along the coast sandbars and lagoons or deltas give rise to Arenosols and Gleysols respectively. The Gleysols and Fluvisols on the coast at the extreme right of the map denote the beginning of the delta of the River Niger.

Soil conservation is extremely important in this region. While low fertility, high levels of aluminium and phosphate fixation affect the use of the soil, heavy rainfall can cause serious erosion, especially following forest clearance.

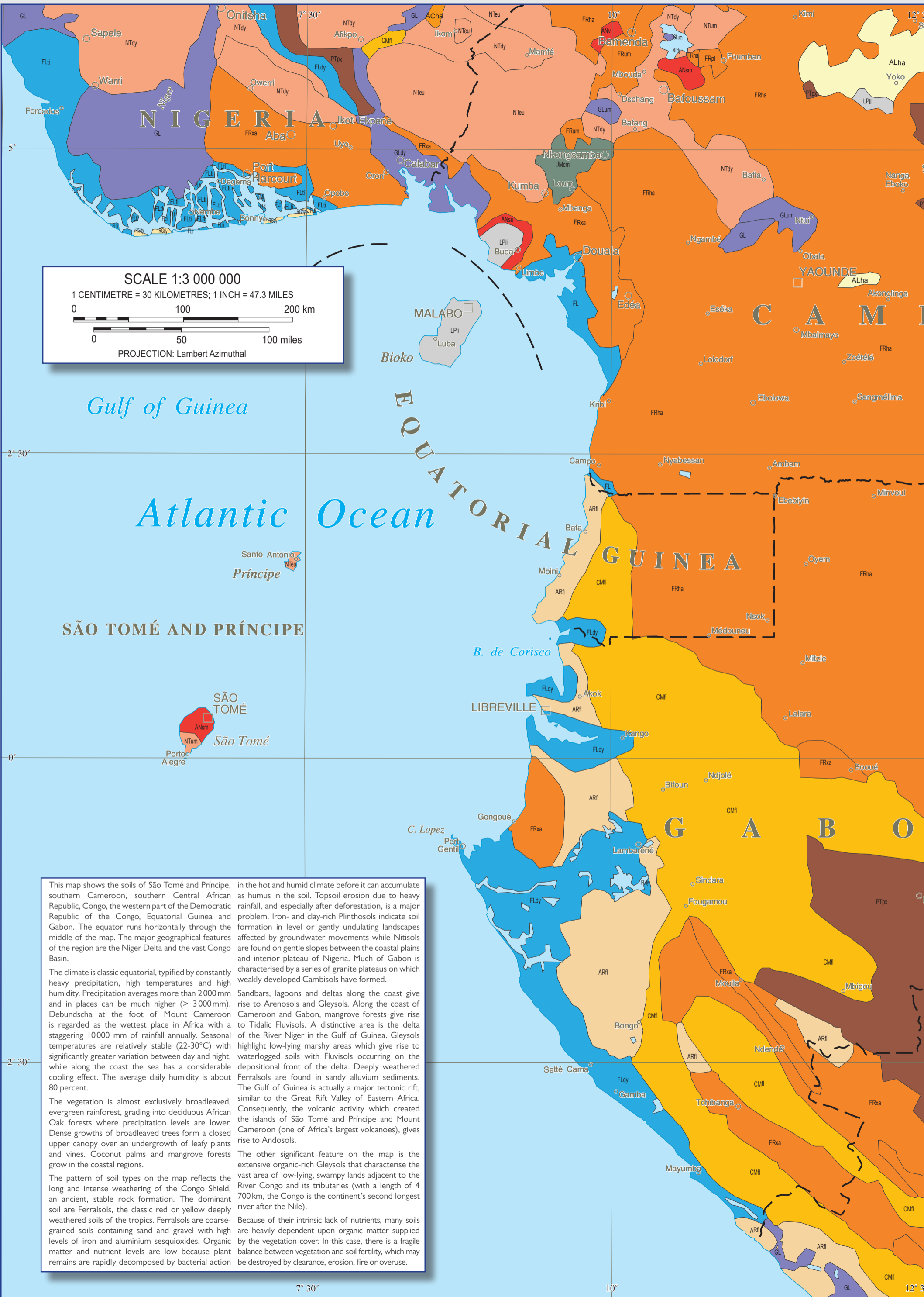
Atlantic Ocean



SCALE 1:3 000 000
 1 CENTIMETRE = 30 KILOMETRES; 1 INCH = 47.3 MILES

0 100 200 km
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PROJECTION: Lambert Azimuthal



SCALE 1:3 000 000
 1 CENTIMETRE = 30 KILOMETRES; 1 INCH = 47.3 MILES

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PROJECTION: Lambert Azimuthal

This map shows the soils of São Tomé and Príncipe, southern Cameroon, southern Central African Republic, Congo, the western part of the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Equatorial Guinea and Gabon. The equator runs horizontally through the middle of the map. The major geographical features of the region are the Niger Delta and the vast Congo Basin.

The climate is classic equatorial, typified by constantly heavy precipitation, high temperatures and high humidity. Precipitation averages more than 2000 mm and in places can be much higher (> 3000 mm). Debundscha at the foot of Mount Cameroon is regarded as the wettest place in Africa with a staggering 10000 mm of rainfall annually. Seasonal temperatures are relatively stable (22-30°C) with significantly greater variation between day and night, while along the coast the sea has a considerable cooling effect. The average daily humidity is about 80 percent.

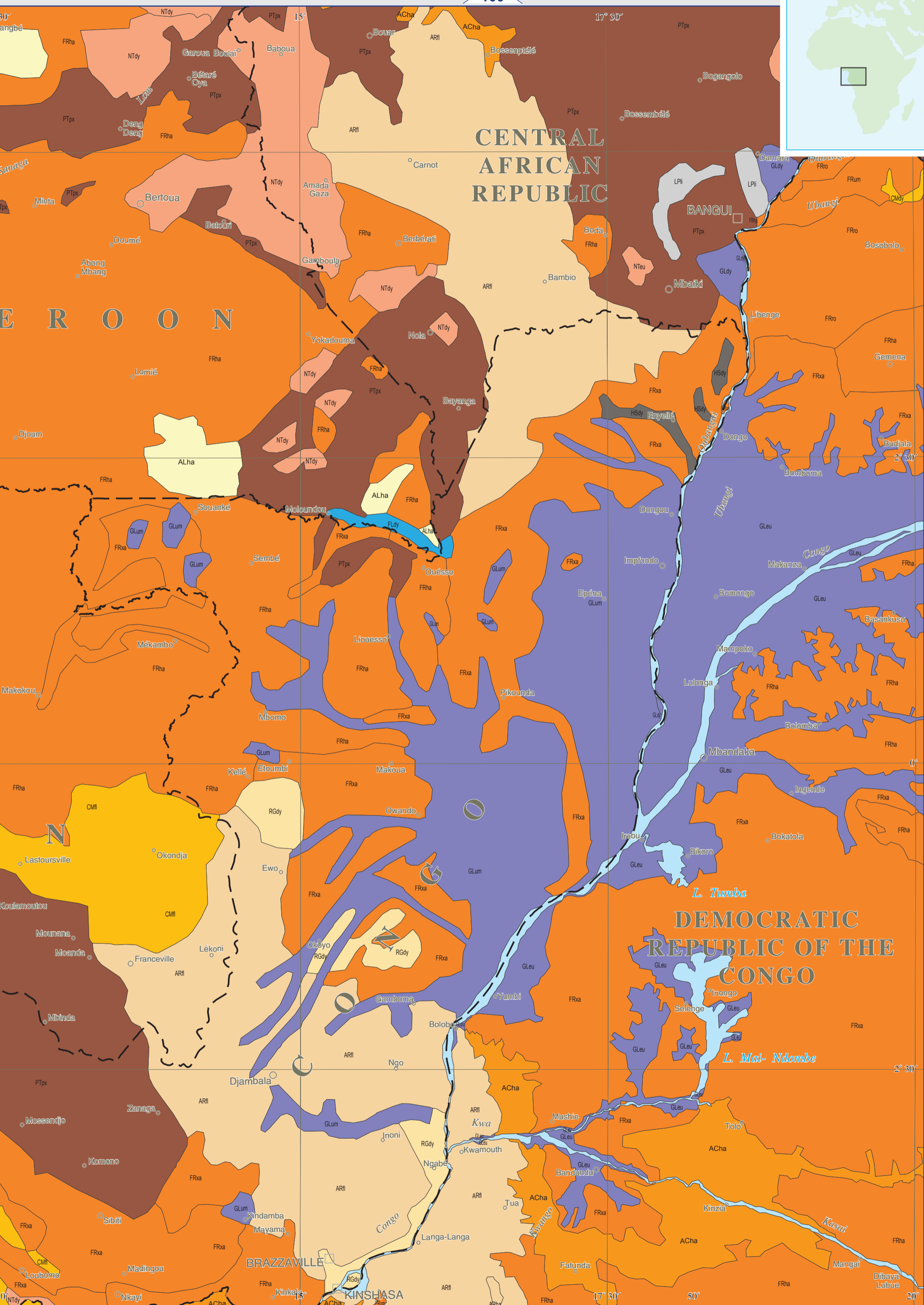
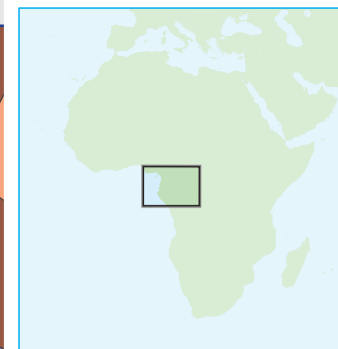
The vegetation is almost exclusively broadleaved, evergreen rainforest, grading into deciduous African Oak forests where precipitation levels are lower. Dense growths of broadleaved trees form a closed upper canopy over an undergrowth of leafy plants and vines. Coconut palms and mangrove forests grow in the coastal regions.

The pattern of soil types on the map reflects the long and intense weathering of the Congo Shield, an ancient, stable rock formation. The dominant soil are Ferralsols, the classic red or yellow deeply weathered soils of the tropics. Ferralsols are coarse-grained soils containing sand and gravel with high levels of iron and aluminium sesquioxides. Organic matter and nutrient levels are low because plant remains are rapidly decomposed by bacterial action in the hot and humid climate before it can accumulate as humus in the soil. Topsoil erosion due to heavy rainfall, and especially after deforestation, is a major problem. Iron- and clay-rich Plinthosols indicate soil formation in level or gently undulating landscapes affected by groundwater movements while Nitisols are found on gentle slopes between the coastal plains and interior plateau of Nigeria. Much of Gabon is characterised by a series of granite plateaus on which weakly developed Cambisols have formed.

Sandbars, lagoons and deltas along the coast give rise to Arenosols and Gleysols. Along the coast of Cameroon and Gabon, mangrove forests give rise to Tidalic Fluvisols. A distinctive area is the delta of the River Niger in the Gulf of Guinea. Gleysols highlight low-lying marshy areas which give rise to waterlogged soils with Fluvisols occurring on the depositional front of the delta. Deeply weathered Ferralsols are found in sandy alluvium sediments. The Gulf of Guinea is actually a major tectonic rift, similar to the Great Rift Valley of Eastern Africa. Consequently, the volcanic activity which created the islands of São Tomé and Príncipe and Mount Cameroon (one of Africa's largest volcanoes), gives rise to Andosols.

The other significant feature on the map is the extensive organic-rich Gleysols that characterise the vast area of low-lying, swampy lands adjacent to the River Congo and its tributaries (with a length of 4 700 km, the Congo is the continent's second longest river after the Nile).

Because of their intrinsic lack of nutrients, many soils are heavily dependent upon organic matter supplied by the vegetation cover. In this case, there is a fragile balance between vegetation and soil fertility, which may be destroyed by clearance, erosion, fire or overuse.



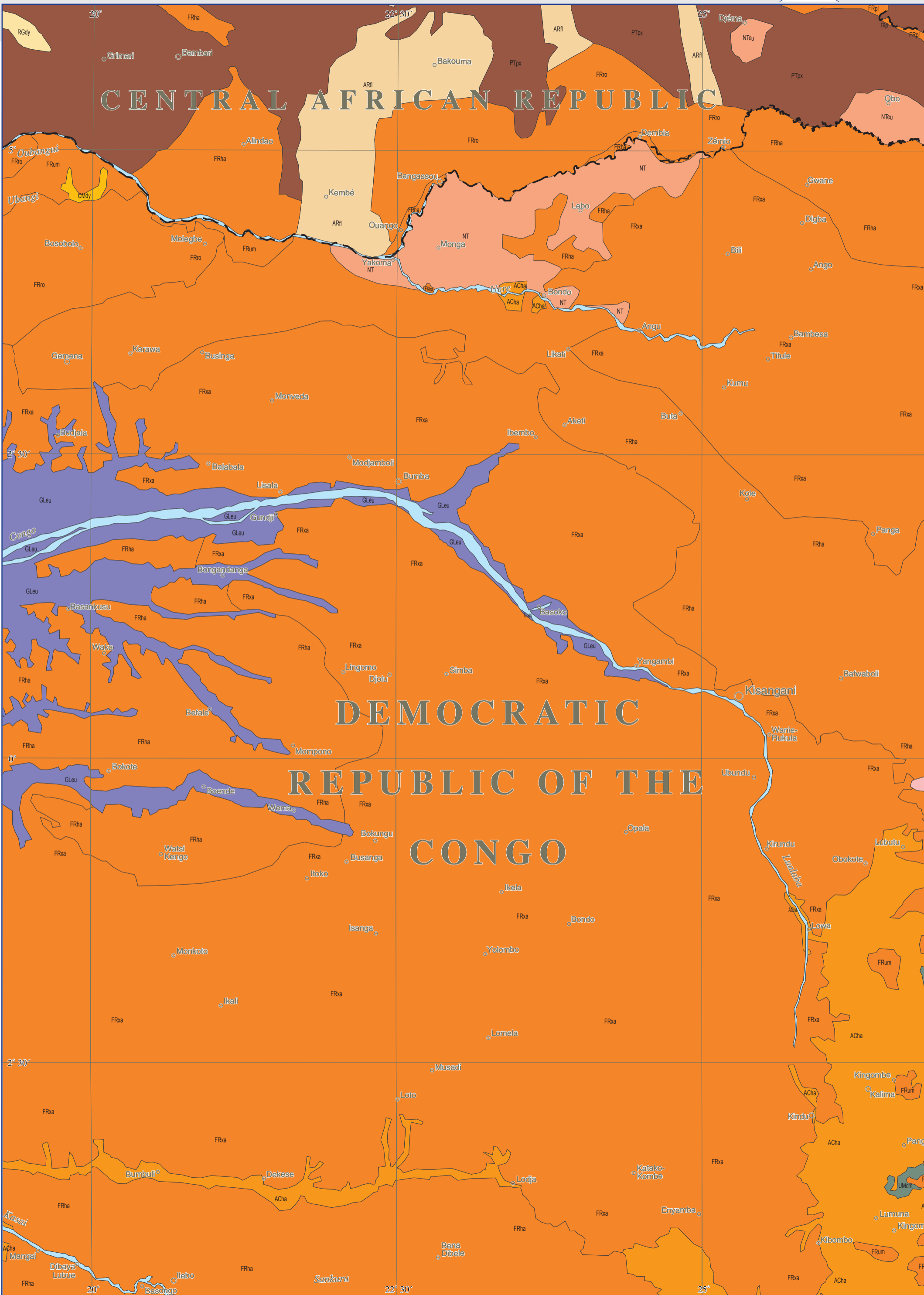
CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO

E R O O N

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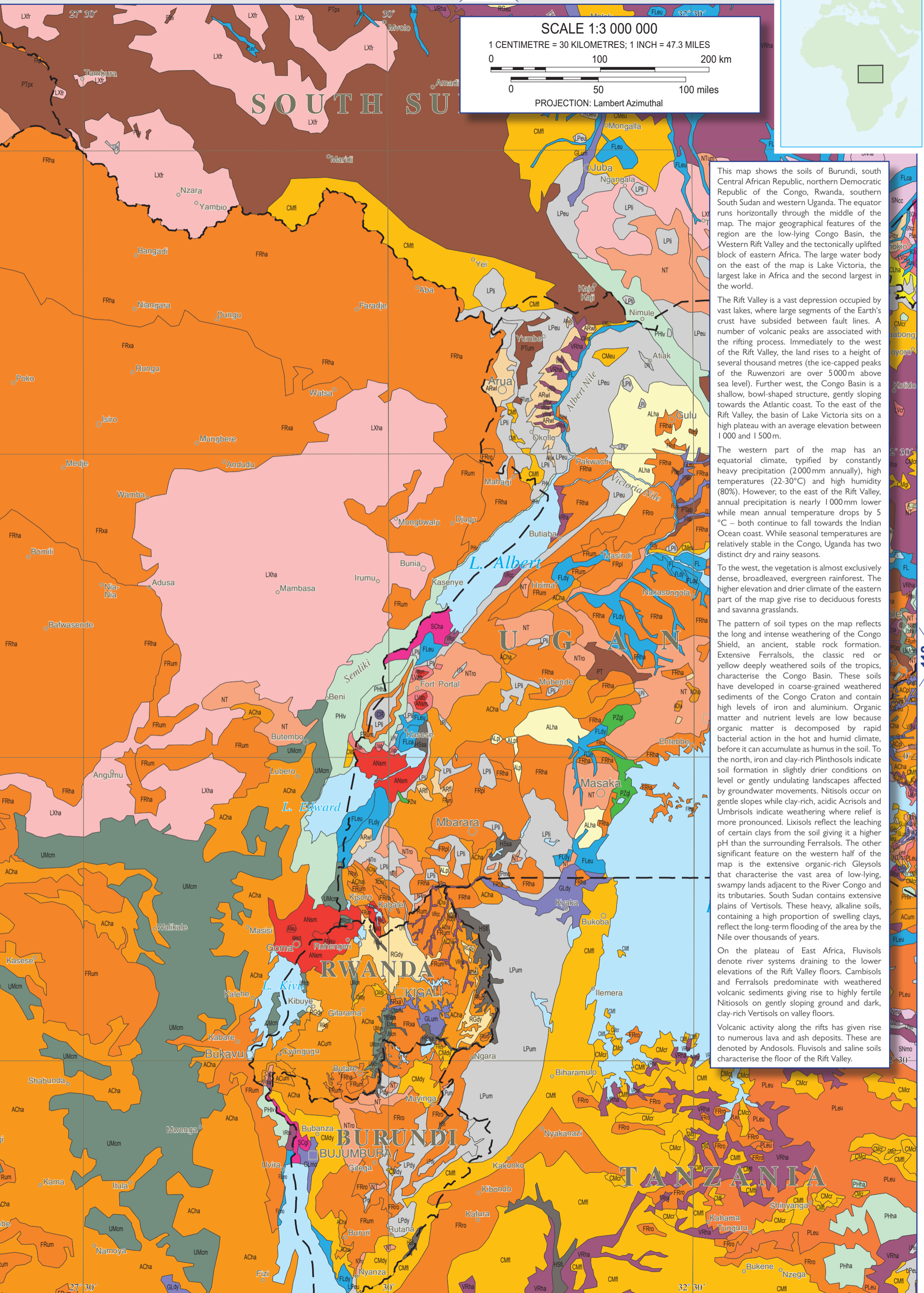
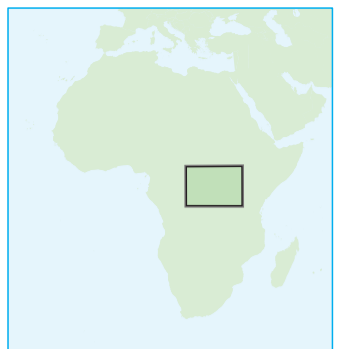
SCALE 1:3 000 000

1 CENTIMETRE = 30 KILOMETRES; 1 INCH = 47.3 MILES

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PROJECTION: Lambert Azimuthal



This map shows the soils of Burundi, south Central African Republic, northern Democratic Republic of the Congo, Rwanda, southern South Sudan and western Uganda. The equator runs horizontally through the middle of the map. The major geographical features of the region are the low-lying Congo Basin, the Western Rift Valley and the tectonically uplifted block of eastern Africa. The large water body on the east of the map is Lake Victoria, the largest lake in Africa and the second largest in the world.

The Rift Valley is a vast depression occupied by vast lakes, where large segments of the Earth's crust have subsided between fault lines. A number of volcanic peaks are associated with the rifting process. Immediately to the west of the Rift Valley, the land rises to a height of several thousand metres (the ice-capped peaks of the Ruwenzori are over 5000m above sea level). Further west, the Congo Basin is a shallow, bowl-shaped structure, gently sloping towards the Atlantic coast. To the east of the Rift Valley, the basin of Lake Victoria sits on a high plateau with an average elevation between 1000 and 1500m.

The western part of the map has an equatorial climate, typified by constantly heavy precipitation (2000 mm annually), high temperatures (22-30°C) and high humidity (80%). However, to the east of the Rift Valley, annual precipitation is nearly 1000mm lower while mean annual temperature drops by 5 °C – both continue to fall towards the Indian Ocean coast. While seasonal temperatures are relatively stable in the Congo, Uganda has two distinct dry and rainy seasons.

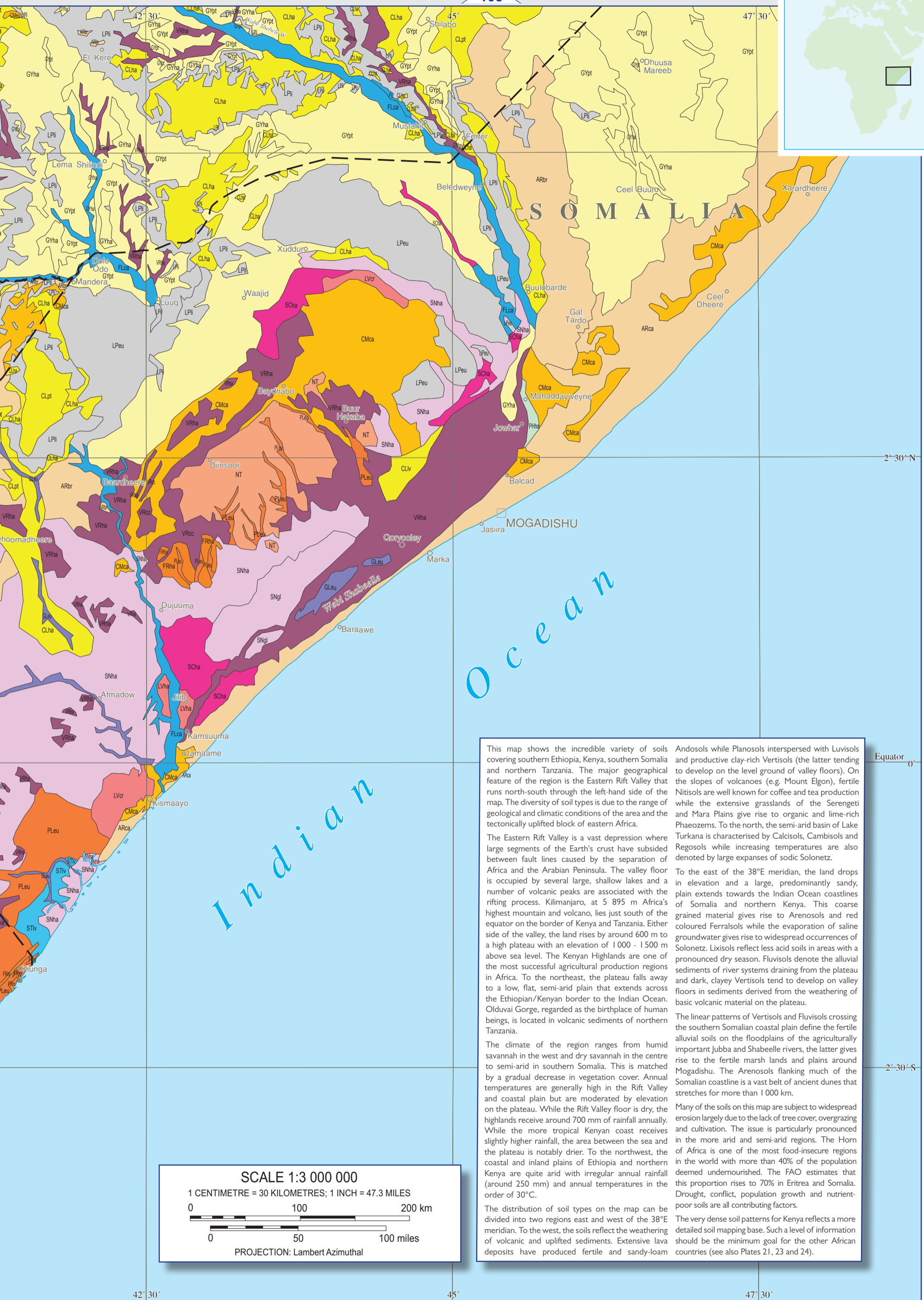
To the west, the vegetation is almost exclusively dense, broadleaved, evergreen rainforest. The higher elevation and drier climate of the eastern part of the map give rise to deciduous forests and savanna grasslands.

The pattern of soil types on the map reflects the long and intense weathering of the Congo Shield, an ancient, stable rock formation. Extensive Ferralsols, the classic red or yellow deeply weathered soils of the tropics, characterise the Congo Basin. These soils have developed in coarse-grained weathered sediments of the Congo Craton and contain high levels of iron and aluminium. Organic matter and nutrient levels are low because organic matter is decomposed by rapid bacterial action in the hot and humid climate, before it can accumulate as humus in the soil. To the north, iron and clay-rich Plinthosols indicate soil formation in slightly drier conditions on level or gently undulating landscapes affected by groundwater movements. Nitisols occur on gentle slopes while clay-rich, acidic Acrisols and Umbrisols indicate weathering where relief is more pronounced. Lixisols reflect the leaching of certain clays from the soil giving it a higher pH than the surrounding Ferralsols. The other significant feature on the western half of the map is the extensive organic-rich Gleysols that characterise the vast area of low-lying, swampy lands adjacent to the River Congo and its tributaries. South Sudan contains extensive plains of Vertisols. These heavy, alkaline soils, containing a high proportion of swelling clays, reflect the long-term flooding of the area by the Nile over thousands of years.

On the plateau of East Africa, Fluvisols denote river systems draining to the lower elevations of the Rift Valley floors. Cambisols and Ferralsols predominate with weathered volcanic sediments giving rise to highly fertile Nitisols on gently sloping ground and dark, clay-rich Vertisols on valley floors.

Volcanic activity along the rifts has given rise to numerous lava and ash deposits. These are denoted by Andosols. Fluvisols and saline soils characterise the floor of the Rift Valley.





This map shows the incredible variety of soils covering southern Ethiopia, Kenya, southern Somalia and northern Tanzania. The major geographical feature of the region is the Eastern Rift Valley that runs north-south through the left-hand side of the map. The diversity of soil types is due to the range of geological and climatic conditions of the area and the tectonically uplifted block of eastern Africa.

The Eastern Rift Valley is a vast depression where large segments of the Earth's crust have subsided between fault lines caused by the separation of Africa and the Arabian Peninsula. The valley floor is occupied by several large, shallow lakes and a number of volcanic peaks are associated with the rifting process. Kilimanjaro, at 5 895 m Africa's highest mountain and volcano, lies just south of the equator on the border of Kenya and Tanzania. Either side of the valley, the land rises by around 600 m to a high plateau with an elevation of 1 000 - 1 500 m above sea level. The Kenyan Highlands are one of the most successful agricultural production regions in Africa. To the northeast, the plateau falls away to a low, flat, semi-arid plain that extends across the Ethiopian/Kenyan border to the Indian Ocean. Olduvai Gorge, regarded as the birthplace of human beings, is located in volcanic sediments of northern Tanzania.

The climate of the region ranges from humid savannah in the west and dry savannah in the centre to semi-arid in southern Somalia. This is matched by a gradual decrease in vegetation cover. Annual temperatures are generally high in the Rift Valley and coastal plain but are moderated by elevation on the plateau. While the Rift Valley floor is dry, the highlands receive around 700 mm of rainfall annually. While the more tropical Kenyan coast receives slightly higher rainfall, the area between the sea and the plateau is notably drier. To the northwest, the coastal and inland plains of Ethiopia and northern Kenya are quite arid with irregular annual rainfall (around 250 mm) and annual temperatures in the order of 30°C.

The distribution of soil types on the map can be divided into two regions east and west of the 38°E meridian. To the west, the soils reflect the weathering of volcanic and uplifted sediments. Extensive lava deposits have produced fertile and sandy-loam

Andosols while Planosols interspersed with Luvisols and productive clay-rich Vertisols (the latter tending to develop on the level ground of valley floors). On the slopes of volcanoes (e.g. Mount Elgon), fertile Nitisols are well known for coffee and tea production while the extensive grasslands of the Serengeti and Mara Plains give rise to organic and lime-rich Phaeozems. To the north, the semi-arid basin of Lake Turkana is characterised by Calcisols, Cambisols and Regosols while increasing temperatures are also denoted by large expanses of sodic Solonetz.

To the east of the 38°E meridian, the land drops in elevation and a large, predominantly sandy, plain extends towards the Indian Ocean coastlines of Somalia and northern Kenya. This coarse grained material gives rise to Arenosols and red coloured Ferralsols while the evaporation of saline groundwater gives rise to widespread occurrences of Solonetz. Lixisols reflect less acid soils in areas with a pronounced dry season. Fluvisols denote the alluvial sediments of river systems draining from the plateau and dark, clayey Vertisols tend to develop on valley floors in sediments derived from the weathering of basic volcanic material on the plateau.

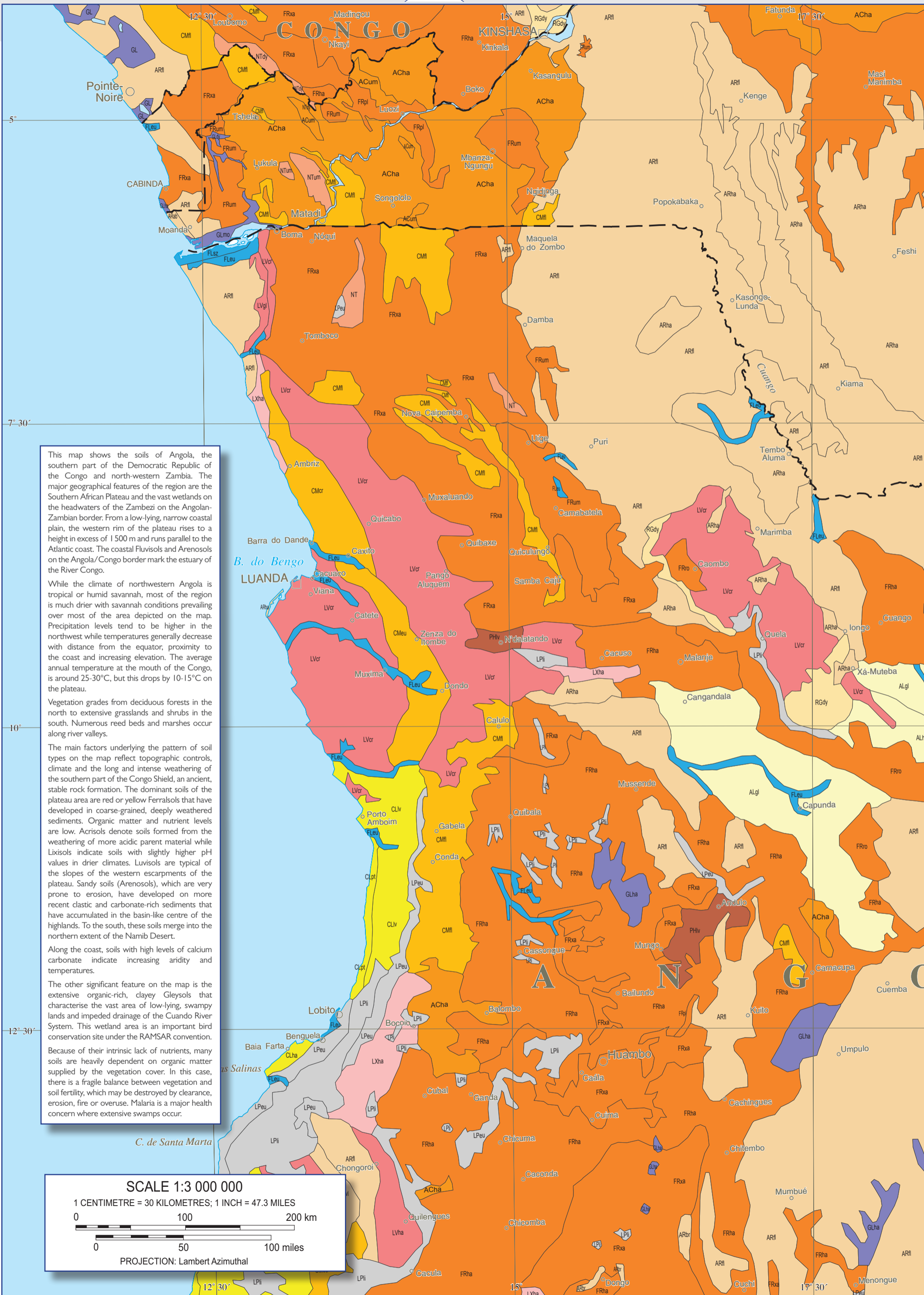
The linear patterns of Vertisols and Fluvisols crossing the southern Somali coastal plain define the fertile alluvial soils on the floodplains of the agriculturally important Jubba and Shabeelle rivers, the latter gives rise to the fertile marsh lands and plains around Mogadishu. The Arenosols flanking much of the Somali coastline is a vast belt of ancient dunes that stretches for more than 1 000 km.

Many of the soils on this map are subject to widespread erosion largely due to the lack of tree cover, overgrazing and cultivation. The issue is particularly pronounced in the more arid and semi-arid regions. The Horn of Africa is one of the most food-insecure regions in the world with more than 40% of the population deemed undernourished. The FAO estimates that this proportion rises to 70% in Eritrea and Somalia. Drought, conflict, population growth and nutrient-poor soils are all contributing factors.

The very dense soil patterns for Kenya reflects a more detailed soil mapping base. Such a level of information should be the minimum goal for the other African countries (see also Plates 21, 23 and 24).

SCALE 1:3 000 000
 1 CENTIMETRE = 30 KILOMETRES; 1 INCH = 47.3 MILES

PROJECTION: Lambert Azimuthal



This map shows the soils of Angola, the southern part of the Democratic Republic of the Congo and north-western Zambia. The major geographical features of the region are the Southern African Plateau and the vast wetlands on the headwaters of the Zambezi on the Angolan-Zambian border. From a low-lying, narrow coastal plain, the western rim of the plateau rises to a height in excess of 1500 m and runs parallel to the Atlantic coast. The coastal Fluvisols and Arenosols on the Angola/Congo border mark the estuary of the River Congo.

While the climate of northwestern Angola is tropical or humid savannah, most of the region is much drier with savannah conditions prevailing over most of the area depicted on the map. Precipitation levels tend to be higher in the northwest while temperatures generally decrease with distance from the equator, proximity to the coast and increasing elevation. The average annual temperature at the mouth of the Congo, is around 25-30°C, but this drops by 10-15°C on the plateau.

Vegetation grades from deciduous forests in the north to extensive grasslands and shrubs in the south. Numerous reed beds and marshes occur along river valleys.

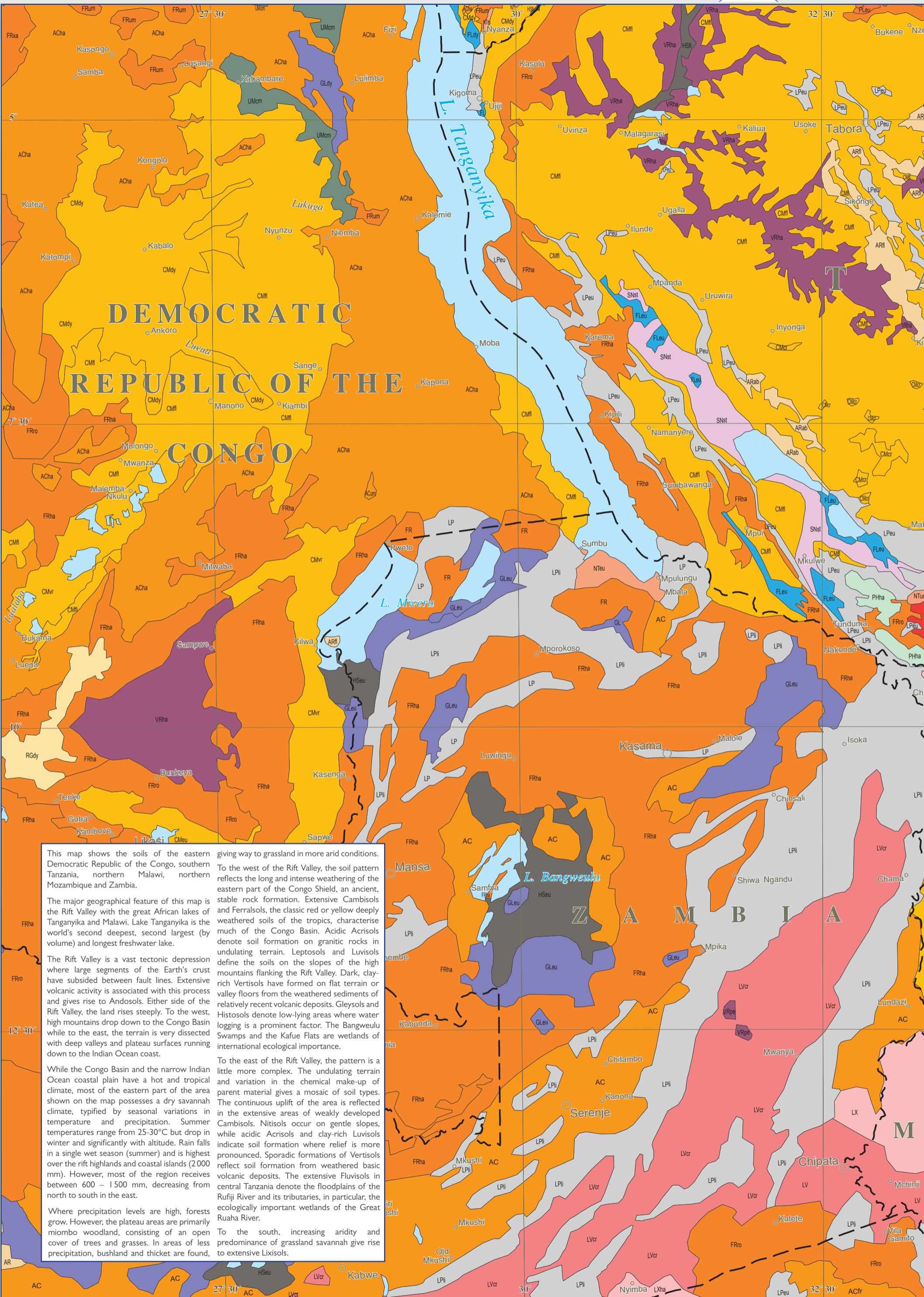
The main factors underlying the pattern of soil types on the map reflect topographic controls, climate and the long and intense weathering of the southern part of the Congo Shield, an ancient, stable rock formation. The dominant soils of the plateau area are red or yellow Ferralsols that have developed in coarse-grained, deeply weathered sediments. Organic matter and nutrient levels are low. Acrisols denote soils formed from the weathering of more acidic parent material while Lixisols indicate soils with slightly higher pH values in drier climates. Luvisols are typical of the slopes of the western escarpments of the plateau. Sandy soils (Arenosols), which are very prone to erosion, have developed on more recent clastic and carbonate-rich sediments that have accumulated in the basin-like centre of the highlands. To the south, these soils merge into the northern extent of the Namib Desert.

Along the coast, soils with high levels of calcium carbonate indicate increasing aridity and temperatures.

The other significant feature on the map is the extensive organic-rich, clayey Gleysols that characterise the vast area of low-lying, swampy lands and impeded drainage of the Cuando River System. This wetland area is an important bird conservation site under the RAMSAR convention. Because of their intrinsic lack of nutrients, many soils are heavily dependent on organic matter supplied by the vegetation cover. In this case, there is a fragile balance between vegetation and soil fertility, which may be destroyed by clearance, erosion, fire or overuse. Malaria is a major health concern where extensive swamps occur.

SCALE 1:3 000 000
 1 CENTIMETRE = 30 KILOMETRES; 1 INCH = 47.3 MILES

PROJECTION: Lambert Azimuthal



This map shows the soils of the eastern Democratic Republic of the Congo, southern Tanzania, northern Malawi, northern Mozambique and Zambia.

The major geographical feature of this map is the Rift Valley with the great African lakes of Tanganyika and Malawi. Lake Tanganyika is the world's second deepest, second largest (by volume) and longest freshwater lake.

The Rift Valley is a vast tectonic depression where large segments of the Earth's crust have subsided between fault lines. Extensive volcanic activity is associated with this process and gives rise to Andosols. Either side of the Rift Valley, the land rises steeply. To the west, high mountains drop down to the Congo Basin while to the east, the terrain is very dissected with deep valleys and plateau surfaces running down to the Indian Ocean coast.

While the Congo Basin and the narrow Indian Ocean coastal plain have a hot and tropical climate, most of the eastern part of the area shown on the map possesses a dry savannah climate, typified by seasonal variations in temperature and precipitation. Summer temperatures range from 25-30°C but drop in winter and significantly with altitude. Rain falls in a single wet season (summer) and is highest over the rift highlands and coastal islands (2000 mm). However, most of the region receives between 600 – 1500 mm, decreasing from north to south in the east.

Where precipitation levels are high, forests grow. However, the plateau areas are primarily miombo woodland, consisting of an open cover of trees and grasses. In areas of less precipitation, bushland and thicket are found, giving way to grassland in more arid conditions.

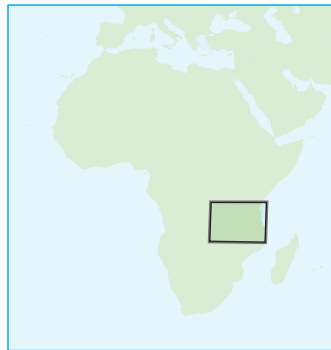
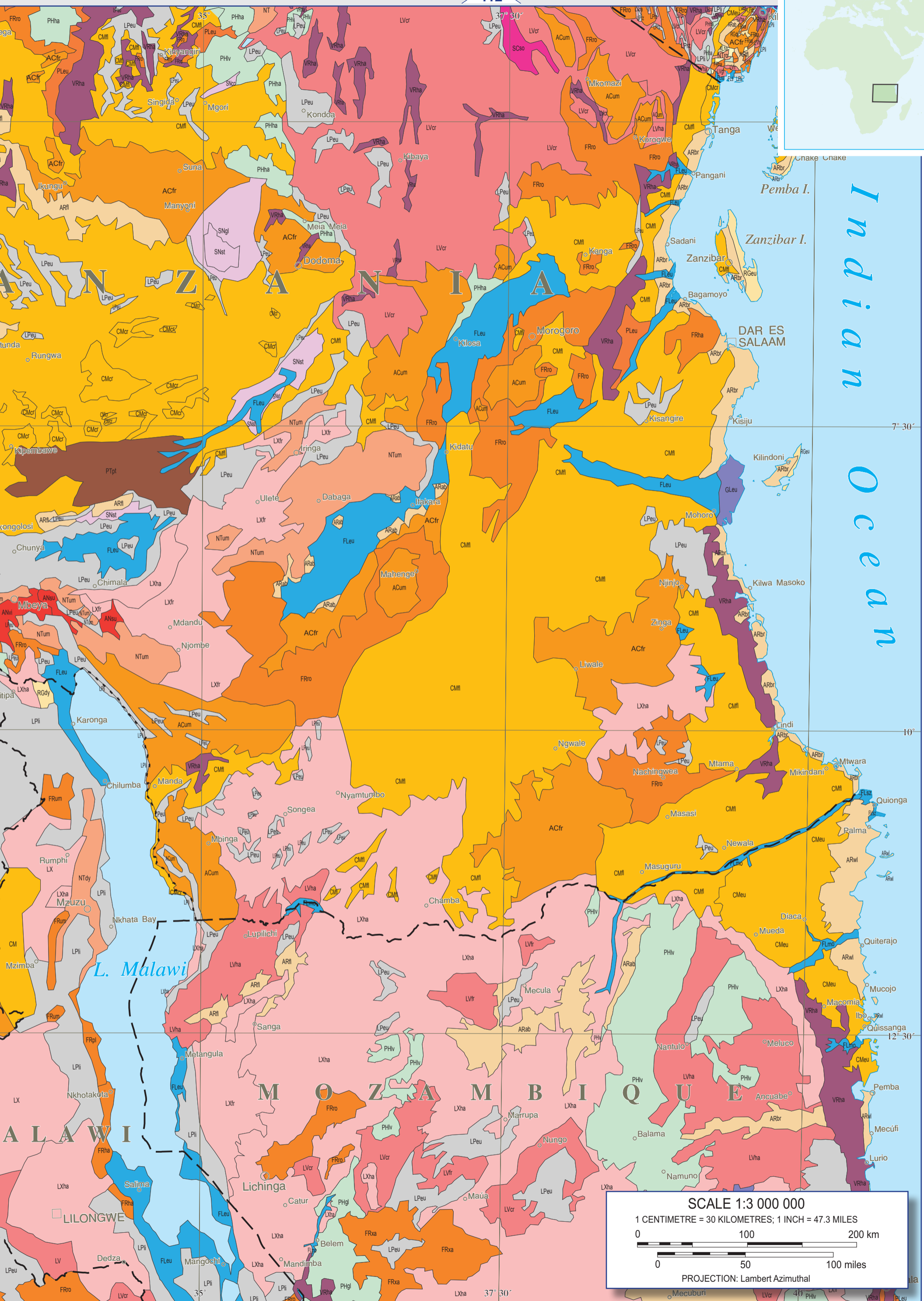
To the west of the Rift Valley, the soil pattern reflects the long and intense weathering of the eastern part of the Congo Shield, an ancient, stable rock formation. Extensive Cambisols and Ferralsols, the classic red or yellow deeply weathered soils of the tropics, characterise much of the Congo Basin. Acidic Acrisols denote soil formation on granitic rocks in undulating terrain. Leptosols and Luvisols define the soils on the slopes of the high mountains flanking the Rift Valley. Dark, clay-rich Vertisols have formed on flat terrain or valley floors from the weathered sediments of relatively recent volcanic deposits. Gleysols and Histosols denote low-lying areas where water logging is a prominent factor. The Bangweulu Swamps and the Kafue Flats are wetlands of international ecological importance.

To the east of the Rift Valley, the pattern is a little more complex. The undulating terrain and variation in the chemical make-up of parent material gives a mosaic of soil types. The continuous uplift of the area is reflected in the extensive areas of weakly developed Cambisols. Nitisols occur on gentle slopes, while acidic Acrisols and clay-rich Luvisols indicate soil formation where relief is more pronounced. Sporadic formations of Vertisols reflect soil formation from weathered basic volcanic deposits. The extensive Fluvisols in central Tanzania denote the floodplains of the Rufiji River and its tributaries, in particular, the ecologically important wetlands of the Great Ruaha River.

To the south, increasing aridity and predominance of grassland savannah give rise to extensive Lixisols.

115

120



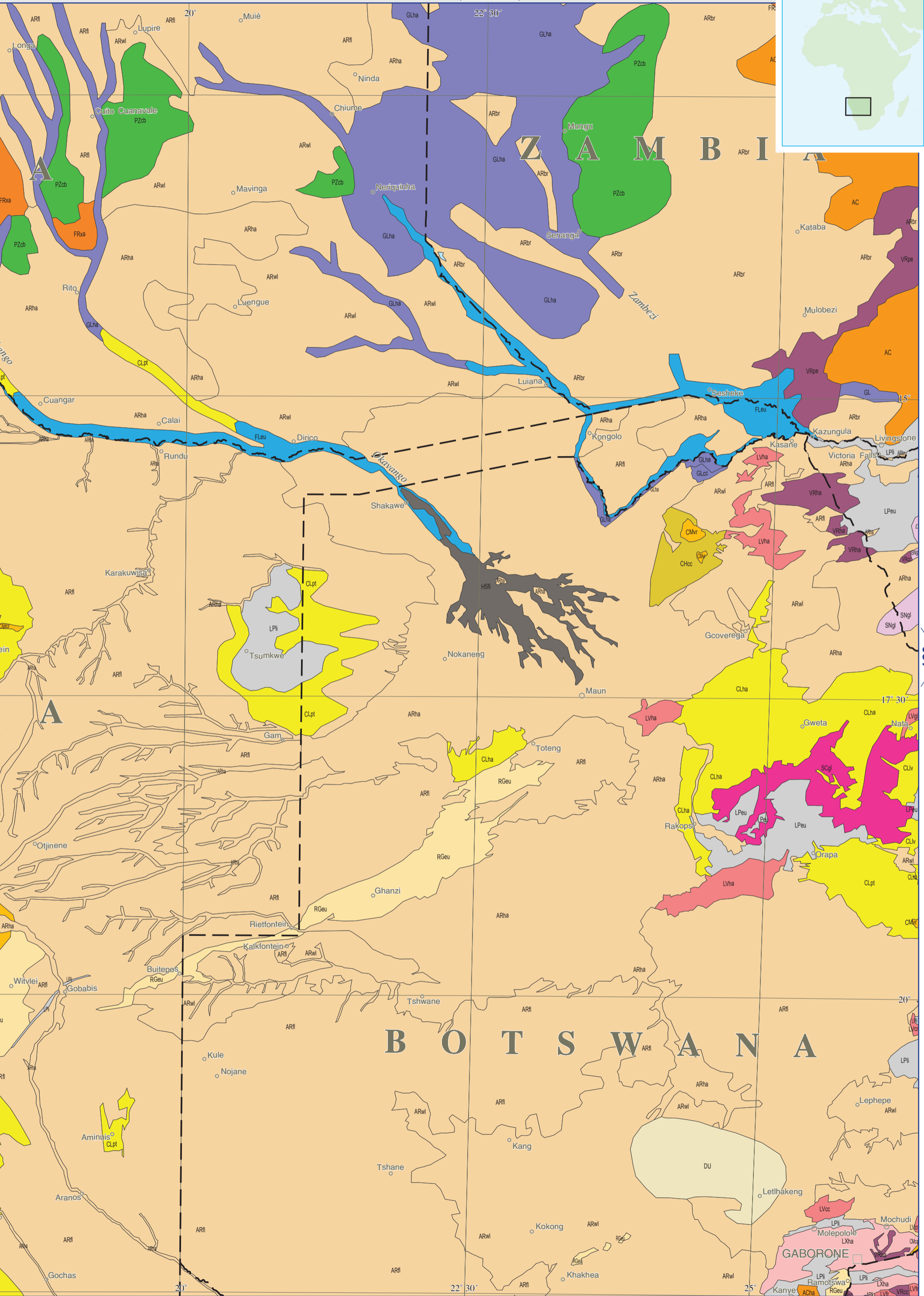
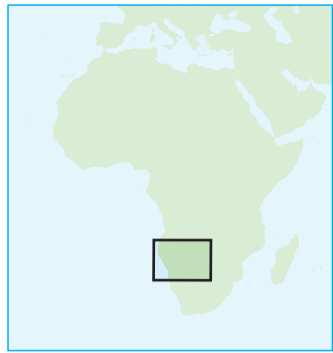
Indian Ocean

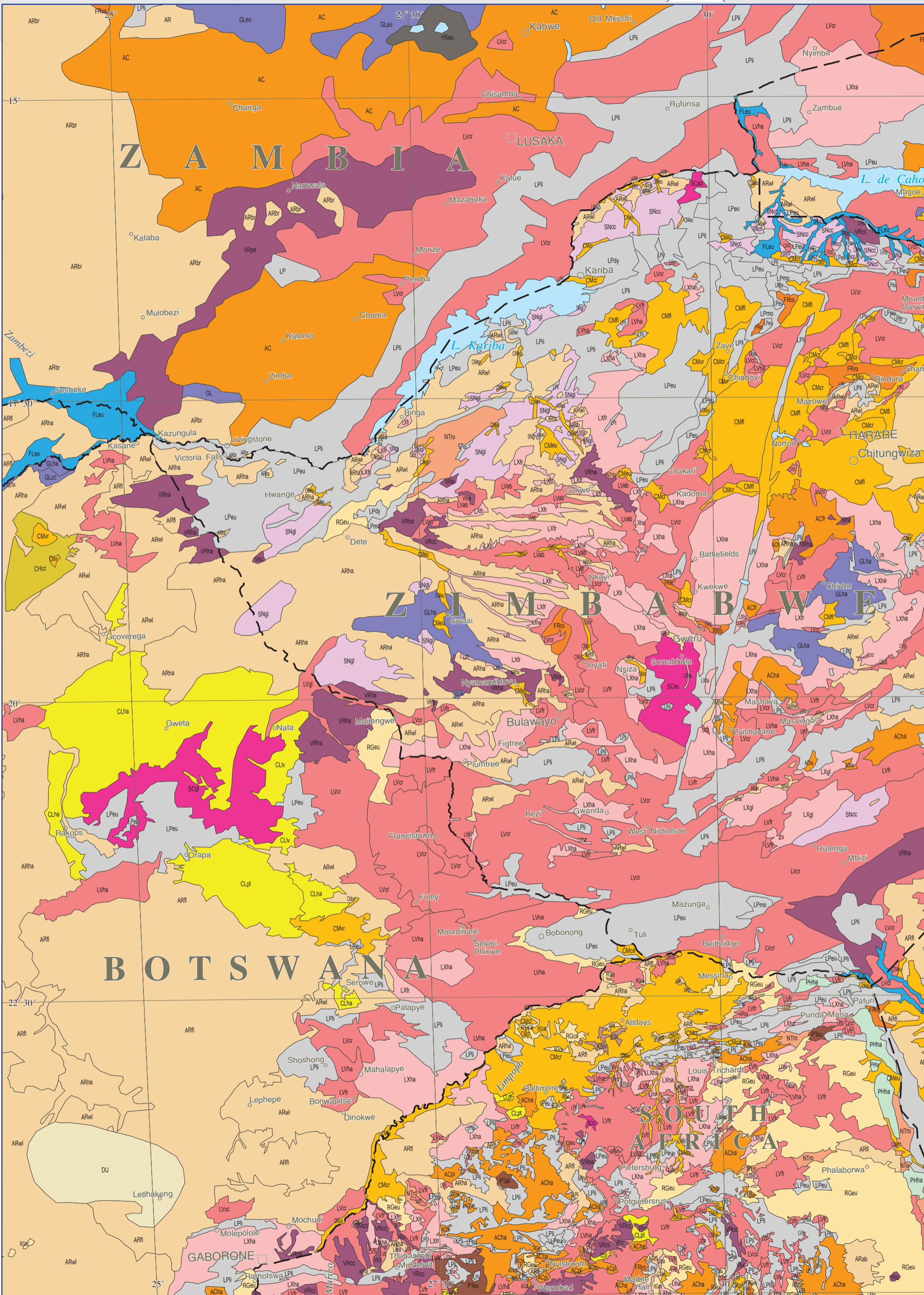
SCALE 1:3 000 000
 1 CENTIMETRE = 30 KILOMETRES; 1 INCH = 47.3 MILES

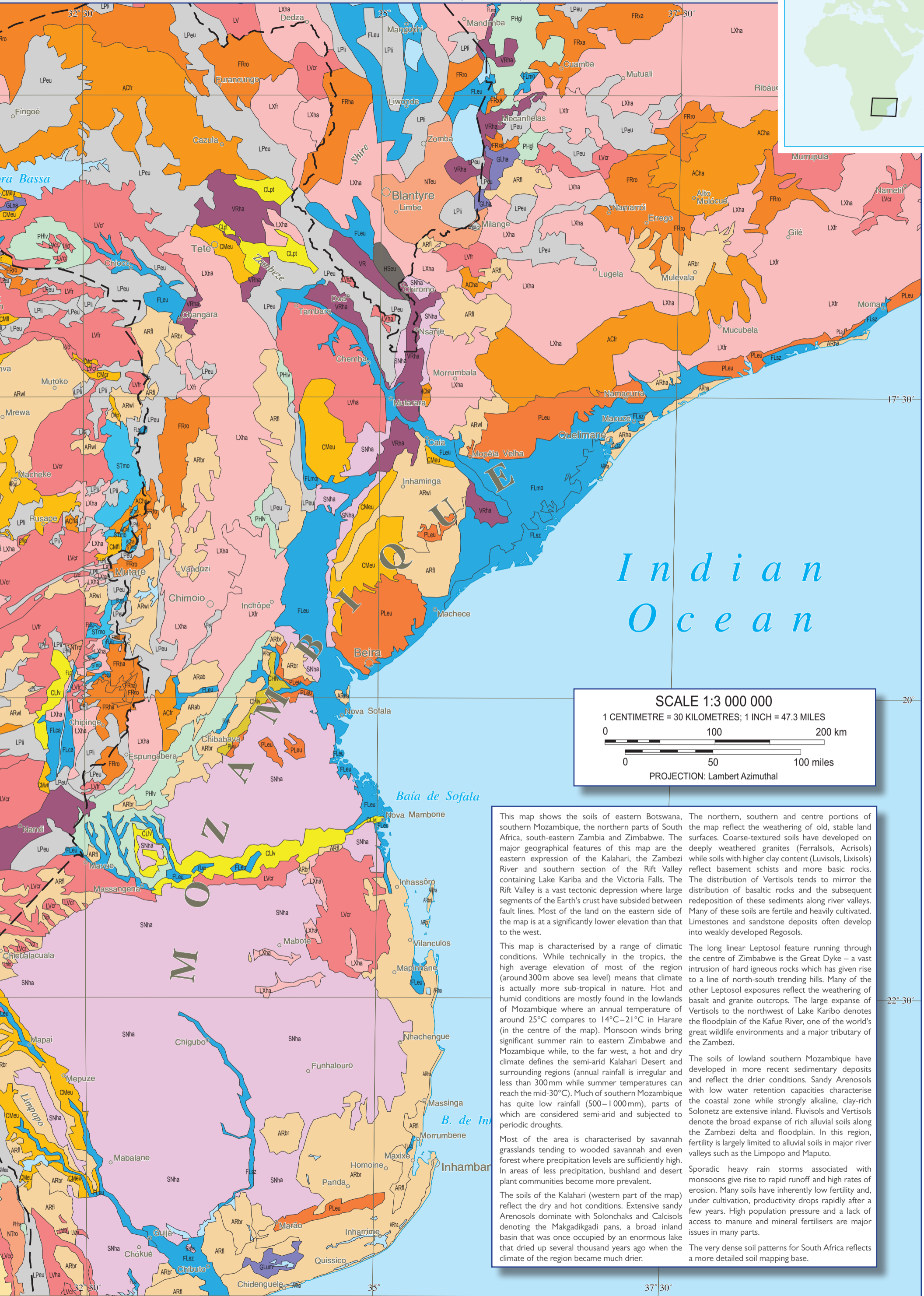
0 100 200 km

0 50 100 miles

PROJECTION: Lambert Azimuthal







SCALE 1:3 000 000
 1 CENTIMETRE = 30 KILOMETRES; 1 INCH = 47.3 MILES

0 100 200 km
 0 50 100 miles

PROJECTION: Lambert Azimuthal

This map shows the soils of eastern Botswana, southern Mozambique, the northern parts of South Africa, south-eastern Zambia and Zimbabwe. The major geographical features of this map are the eastern expression of the Kalahari, the Zambezi River and southern section of the Rift Valley containing Lake Kariba and the Victoria Falls. The Rift Valley is a vast tectonic depression where large segments of the Earth's crust have subsided between fault lines. Most of the land on the eastern side of the map is at a significantly lower elevation than that to the west.

This map is characterised by a range of climatic conditions. While technically in the tropics, the high average elevation of most of the region (around 300m above sea level) means that climate is actually more sub-tropical in nature. Hot and humid conditions are mostly found in the lowlands of Mozambique where an annual temperature of around 25°C compares to 14°C–21°C in Harare (in the centre of the map). Monsoon winds bring significant summer rain to eastern Zimbabwe and Mozambique while, to the far west, a hot and dry climate defines the semi-arid Kalahari Desert and surrounding regions (annual rainfall is irregular and less than 300mm while summer temperatures can reach the mid-30°C). Much of southern Mozambique has quite low rainfall (500–1 000mm), parts of which are considered semi-arid and subjected to periodic droughts.

Most of the area is characterised by savannah grasslands tending to wooded savannah and even forest where precipitation levels are sufficiently high. In areas of less precipitation, bushland and desert plant communities become more prevalent.

The soils of the Kalahari (western part of the map) reflect the dry and hot conditions. Extensive sandy Arenosols dominate with Solonchaks and Calcisols denoting the Makgadikgadi pans, a broad inland basin that was once occupied by an enormous lake that dried up several thousand years ago when the climate of the region became much drier.

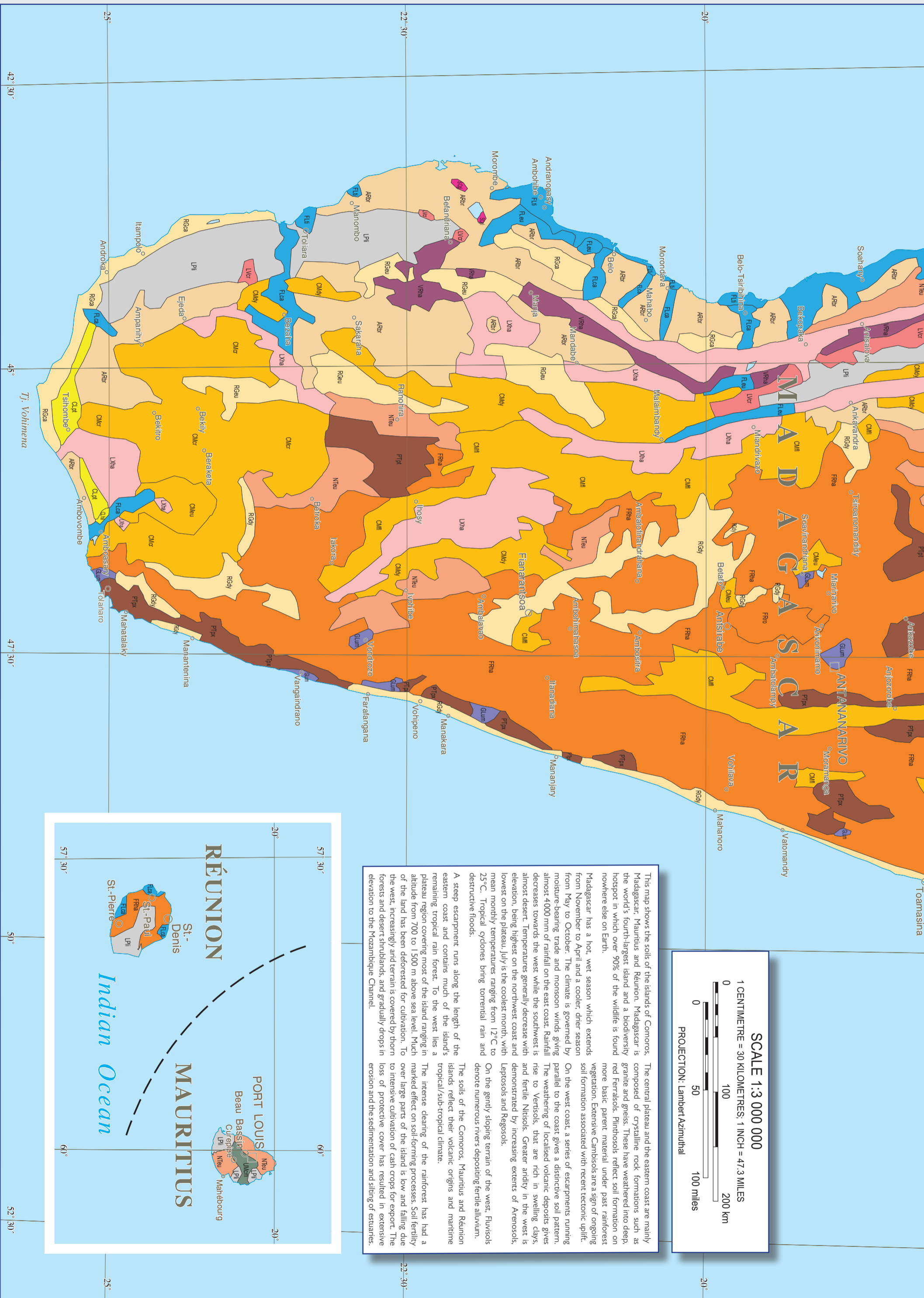
The northern, southern and centre portions of the map reflect the weathering of old, stable land surfaces. Coarse-textured soils have developed on deeply weathered granites (Ferralsols, Acrisols) while soils with higher clay content (Luvisols, Lixisols) reflect basement schists and more basic rocks. The distribution of Vertisols tends to mirror the distribution of basaltic rocks and the subsequent redeposition of these sediments along river valleys. Many of these soils are fertile and heavily cultivated. Limestones and sandstone deposits often develop into weakly developed Regosols.

The long linear Leptosol feature running through the centre of Zimbabwe is the Great Dyke – a vast intrusion of hard igneous rocks which has given rise to a line of north-south trending hills. Many of the other Leptosol exposures reflect the weathering of basalt and granite outcrops. The large expanse of Vertisols to the northwest of Lake Kariba denotes the floodplain of the Kafue River, one of the world's great wildlife environments and a major tributary of the Zambezi.

The soils of lowland southern Mozambique have developed in more recent sedimentary deposits and reflect the drier conditions. Sandy Arenosols with low water retention capacities characterise the coastal zone while strongly alkaline, clay-rich Solonetz are extensive inland. Fluvisols and Vertisols denote the broad expanse of rich alluvial soils along the Zambezi delta and floodplain. In this region, fertility is largely limited to alluvial soils in major river valleys such as the Limpopo and Maputo.

Sporadic heavy rain storms associated with monsoons give rise to rapid runoff and high rates of erosion. Many soils have inherently low fertility and, under cultivation, productivity drops rapidly after a few years. High population pressure and a lack of access to manure and mineral fertilisers are major issues in many parts.

The very dense soil patterns for South Africa reflects a more detailed soil mapping base.



SCALE 1:3 000 000
 1 CENTIMETRE = 30 KILOMETRES; 1 INCH = 47.3 MILES

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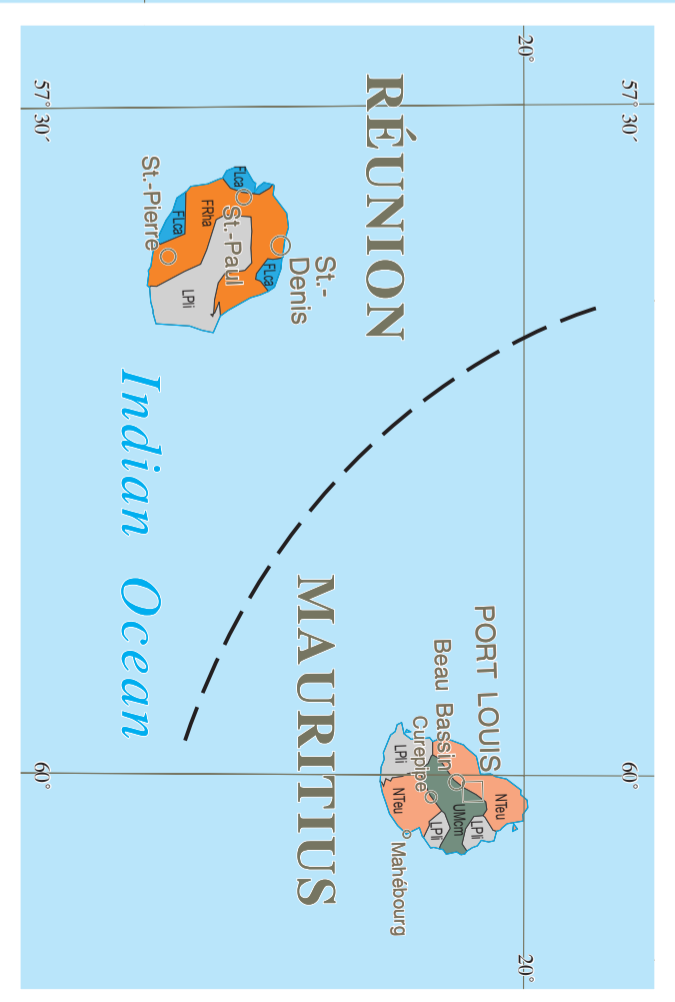
PROJECTION: Lambert Azimuthal

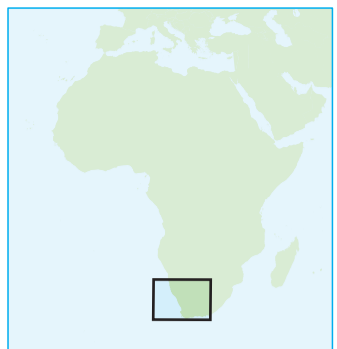
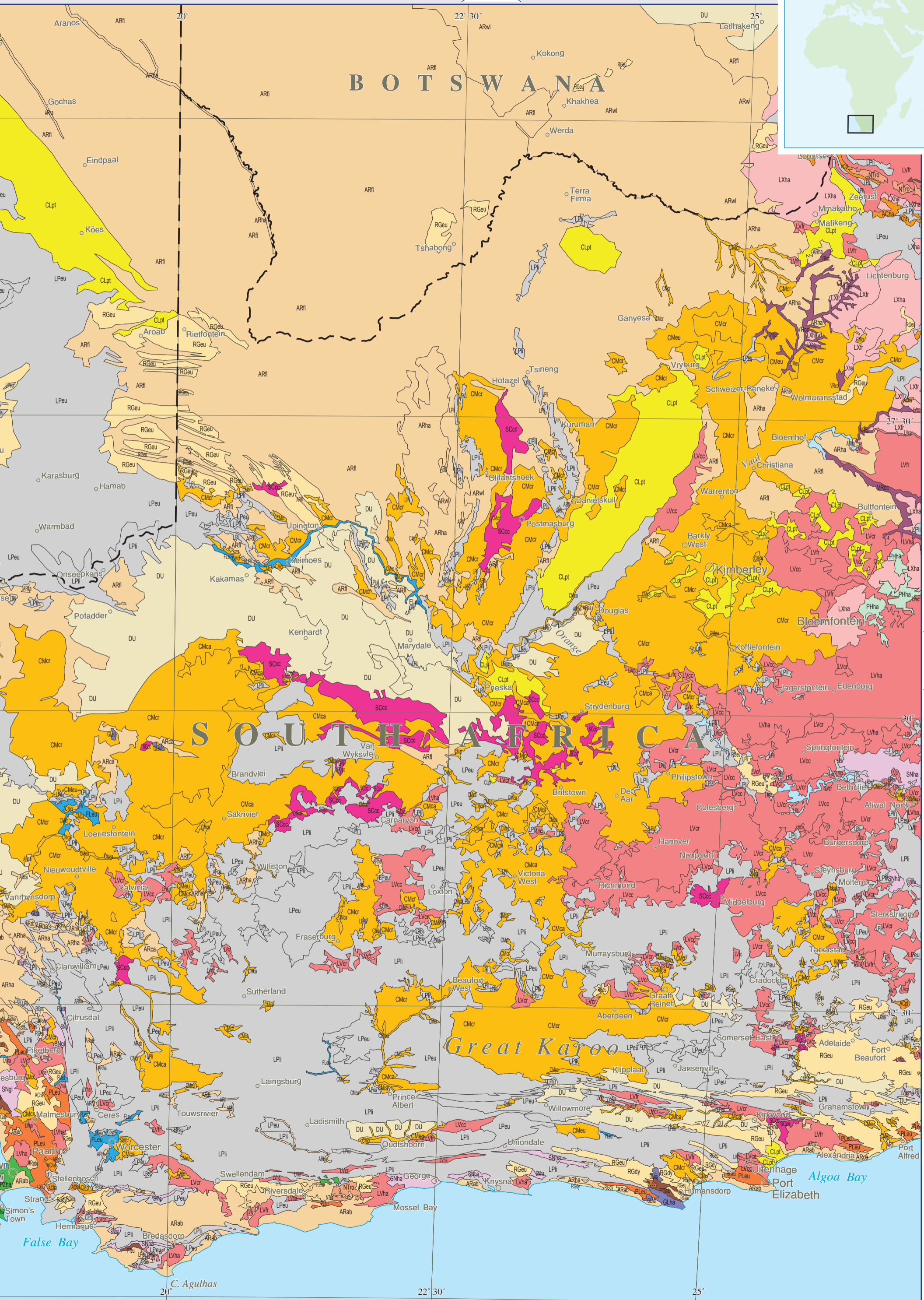
This map shows the soils of the islands of Comoros, Madagascar, Mauritius and Réunion. Madagascar is composed of crystalline rock formations such as the world's fourth-largest island and a biodiversity hotspot in which over 90% of the wildlife is found nowhere else on Earth.

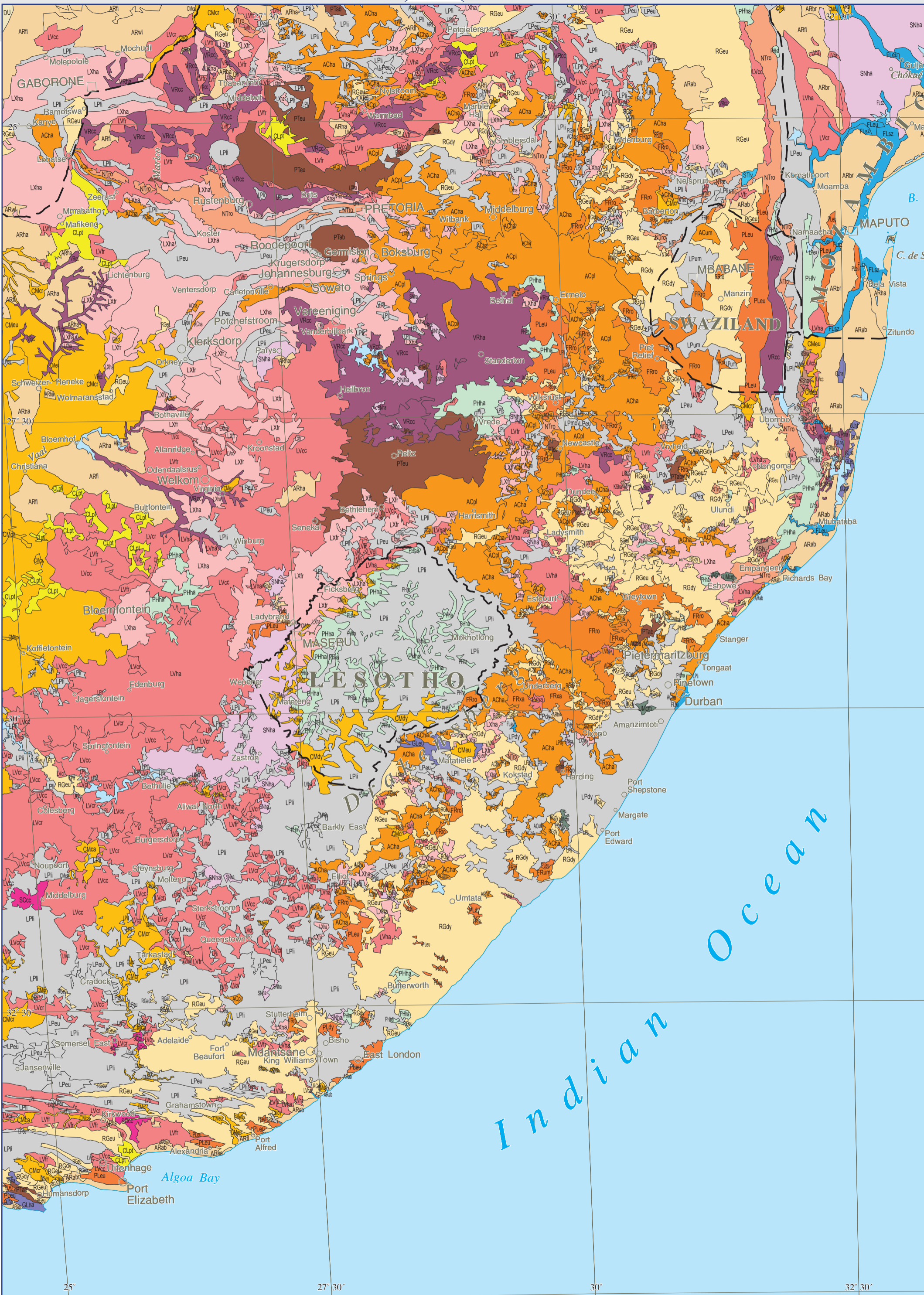
Madagascar has a hot, wet season which extends from November to April and a cooler, drier season from May to October. The climate is governed by moisture-bearing trade and monsoon winds giving almost 4000 mm of rainfall on the east coast. Rainfall decreases towards the west while the southwest is almost desert. Temperatures generally decrease with elevation, being highest on the northwest coast and lowest on the plateau. July is the coolest month, with mean monthly temperatures ranging from 12°C to 25°C. Tropical cyclones bring torrential rain and destructive floods.

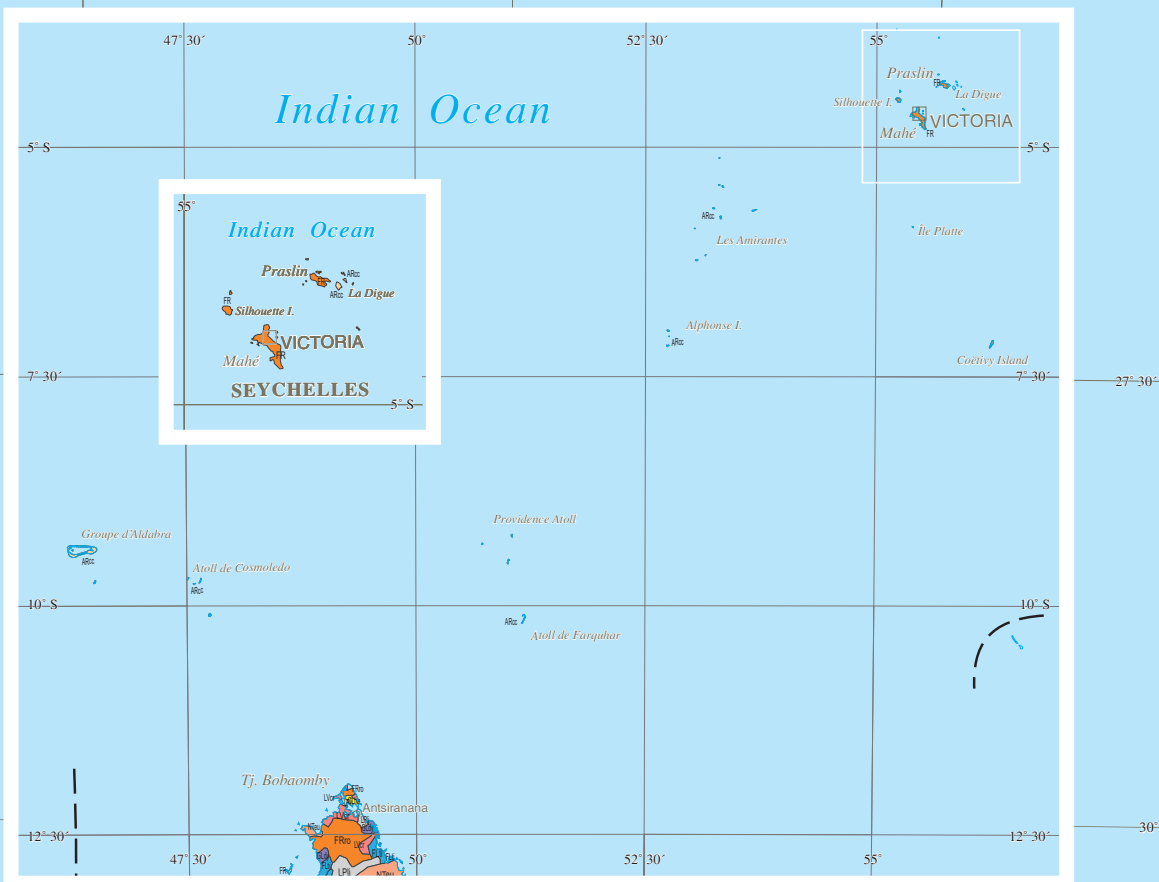
On the gently sloping terrain of the west, Fluviosols denote numerous rivers depositing fertile alluvium. The soils of the Comoros, Mauritius and Réunion islands reflect their volcanic origins and maritime tropical/sub-tropical climate.

The intense clearing of the rainforest has had a marked effect on soil-forming processes. Soil fertility over large parts of the island is low and falling due to intensive cultivation of cash crops for export. The loss of protective cover has resulted in extensive erosion and the sedimentation and silting of estuaries.









This map shows the soils of Lesotho, Swaziland and the eastern half of South Africa, together with the islands of the Seychelles. The dominant geographical feature of the region is the high plateau lands of southern Africa. A coastal plain runs along the entire coast to southern Mozambique. This narrow plain between the ocean and the Great Escarpment is the most fertile region of southern Africa with well developed soils and moderate to high rainfall. The Great Escarpment is most pronounced at the Drakensberg Mountains along the border of Lesotho and Natal province, South Africa (i.e. denoted by Leptosols on the map).

While the climate of the region is greatly influenced by the surrounding oceans, stable atmospheric conditions give a generally dry climate with temperatures being moderated by the fairly high elevation of much of the territory. Most of the area shown on the map is regarded as semi-arid with highly variable precipitation. To the south and southeast, the maritime influence increases and precipitation levels are slightly elevated. Less than 300 mm of rain falls annually in the northwest corner of the map and southern Mozambique while the highlands of Natal and Lesotho receive around 1 000mm. Temperatures are strongly determined by elevation and distance from the sea. Summers are generally warm to hot while winters are mostly cool to cold, with higher elevations having lower temperatures. Temperatures below 0°C are not uncommon in Lesotho.

The vegetation cover is predominantly grassland and

becomes more shrubby and wooded to the southeast as rainfall increases. Denser woody growth, known locally as 'thicket', occurs in the river valleys of the eastern and south-eastern coastal region.

Soils on the high plateau of South Africa generally reflect the weathering of sedimentary rocks, interspersed with igneous intrusions of dolerite sills and dykes. Sedimentary rocks give rise to soils with high clay content (Luvisols) while dolerite and basaltic rocks weather to produce nutrient-rich Vertisols in semi-arid climates. Lixisols denote slightly less acidic soils. Calcisols and calcareous Cambisols indicate soil formation in dry climates while the weathering of granitic complexes to the east gives rise to sandy Acrisols and dolerite to iron-rich Ferralsols.

While the mountainous belt of the Great Escarpment running parallel to the coast is denoted by shallow Leptosols and weakly developed Regosols, pockets of Plinthosols and Vertisols (also in Lesotho and Swaziland) occur on flat or very gently sloping ground on the inland plateau.

The very dense soil pattern for South Africa reflects a more detailed soil mapping base. Such a level of information should be a target for other African countries (see also Plates 17, 21 and 23).

An interesting observation is that the semi-circular pattern of Leptosols and Solonetz around the town of Parys (west of Klerksdorp, Free State, South Africa) denotes the inner section of the Vredefort Dome, the site of the world's largest meteorite impact crater.

