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Fascinating succulents

The plant life found in the world's deserts includes a remarkable array of diverse species—including cacti, agaves, desert shrubs, and hardy grasses—that have evolved to flourish in extremely arid environments. These resilient plants often possess specialized adaptations, such as succulent foliage or extensive root systems.

▼ Desert icon

Standing tall amid
Namibia's arid
landscape, the iconic
quiver tree is a good
example of adaptation
to the harsh desert
environment.

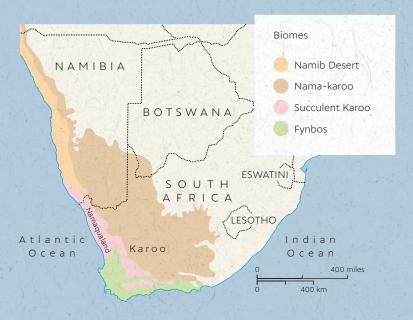
The Succulent Karoo ecoregion, stretching from southwest Namibia down into South Africa, encompasses the arid region of Namaqualand, which is home to the world's most diverse desert flora. The distinctive characteristic of Namaqualand is the predominance of dwarf shrubs with succulent leaves. Typical species are members of the Aizoaceae family (the lithops and mesembs, or vygies), but *Crassula*, *Haworthia*, and other genera are also important. Some 1,700 species of leaf succulents grow in the Succulent Karoo, of which 700 are contracted, dwarf forms. Namaqualand has between four to six times the plant diversity of equivalent-sized areas found in other foggy, winter-rainfall deserts across the world, such as Mexico's northwestern Baja California, Chile's southern Atacama, and Morocco's southern coastline.

Lithops optica is one such succulent of the family Aizoaceae and these plants are often referred to as "living stones"; their scientific name is derived from the Greek lithos, meaning "stone," and opsis, meaning "appearance," due to their remarkable resemblance to the pebbles found throughout their natural environment. L. optica is endemic to the area around Lüderitz, in the southern Namib Desert, and found nowhere else on Earth. It thrives in its unique habitat, which primarily consists



PLANT POACHING

Plant poaching, driven by human greed and the desire to possess rare specimens, is becoming an increasingly alarming issue, and Namaqualand, with its rich biodiversity and endemic plants, has become a prime target. Operating under the guise of tourists, ruthless environmental criminals deplete the region's plant resources. The specimens they smuggle out of the region often perish during transportation, introduce plant pathogens, and disrupt the delicate ecological balance. Ultimately, poachers prioritize profit over environmental preservation, disregarding the well-being of the ecosystems they exploit.







of coastal plains with sandy terrain, and rainfall averaging between only 0.8–2 inches (20–50 mm) per year, with frequent fog. Among rocks and gravel, these plants can be challenging to detect, due to their exceptional camouflage. Their flowers open only in the late afternoon, closing again at dusk, and they can be pollinated by the bees, flies, wasps, gnats, and so on that are common in the area. Lithops are self-sterile, so cross-pollination is critical for survival.

Aloidendron dichotomum—previously Aloe dichotoma, and commonly known as the quiver tree—is a unique and iconic succulent plant found in Namaqualand and other arid regions of southern Africa. It possesses a distinctive appearance, featuring a thick trunk that branches out into multiple symmetrically oriented stems. Its branches are adorned with densely packed succulent leaves, creating a striking crownlike look. The quiver tree has evolved to thrive in harsh desert conditions, utilizing its succulent leaves to store water during prolonged droughts. Within the local ecosystem, where few other tree species exist, it serves a vital role by offering shelter to various desert-dwelling creatures. The San people have historically used different parts of the tree for practical purposes, notably hollowing out its branches to fashion quivers (arrow holders) for hunting—hence its common name. Today, the quiver tree is a symbol of strength and beauty in the arid landscapes of southern Africa.

Camouflaged Lithops

(top) A Lithops species consists of a two-lobed fused and thickened pair of opposite leaves with a very smooth texture and a very short stem that is not visible. (bottom) Succulent Lithops species are well adapted to survive in the desert and also difficult to spot by herbivores because they are camouflaged to resemble the pebbles of the environment.

Beyond Earth: deserts of the universe

If moisture deficits define aridity (on Earth), then the absence of moisture on other terrestrial bodies in our solar system suggests that desertlike conditions could, even should, be present in their landscapes. And to some degree this is the case, though marked differences compared to Earth in surface temperatures, and in atmospheric densities and compositions, make direct comparisons with our deserts—and expectations of what features might be found, or formative processes experienced—rather challenging.

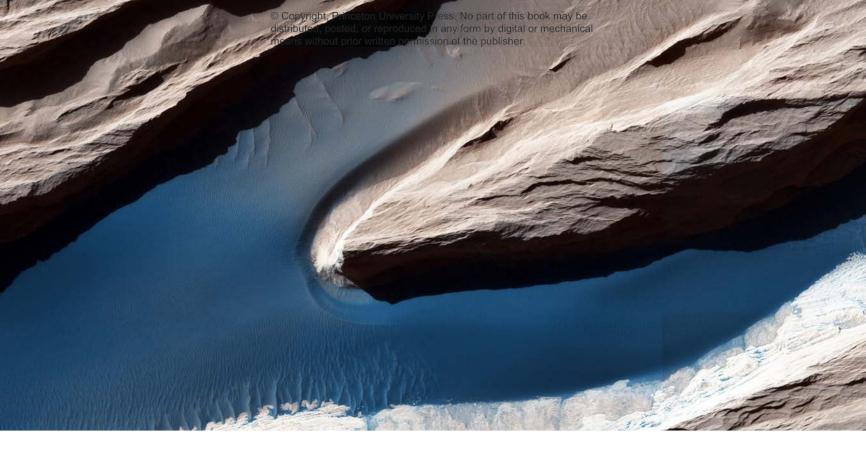
When the first astronaut set foot on our Moon in 1969, his footfall generated puffs of dust that indicated a surface that was not simply solid, but mantled by soft, mobile sediment. The growth of extraterrestrial exploration (via multiyear, even multidecadal, unmanned spacecraft missions that have reached, orbited, observed, and returned data from planetary bodies to Earth) is providing a wealth of data on other landscapes in our solar system. Dunes have been identified on three other planets (Mars, Venus, and, more recently, Pluto) and on one of Saturn's moons, Titan, while massive dust storms have been observed across the surface of Mars and Titan. Even alluvial fans are observed on Mars—evidence, along with possible channel systems, of the presence of water in the past. Remotely controlled rover vehicles have also been landed on the surfaces of both the Moon and Mars and successfully utilized in exploration, providing images akin to those we have of Earth's deserts, as well as carrying out simple experiments on the sediments and features they have encountered.

Planets and moons have to have atmospheres in order for sediment-moving winds to blow from high-pressure to low-pressure areas. For there to be sediment to move in the first place requires rock breakdown via weathering, which in turn calls for significant temperature differences or some form of salt crystallization to force

Red storm

In June 2018, a dust storm developed on Mars that eventually engulfed the planet's entire surface. NASA's Curiosity Rover vehicle, which has operated continuously in Mars' Gale Crater since August 2012, recorded the early stages of the storm that lasted over three days.





particles apart. Planetary scientists tend therefore to consider "aridity" in the sense we understand it with reference to Earth to best apply to other bodies that first have a solid surface (thereby excluding gas bodies such as Jupiter) and second have atmospheres containing condensable gases (such as methane on Titan).

Mars, the cold red planet, 50 million miles (80 million km) farther away from the Sun than Earth, has experienced significant climate changes, including stages when liquid water was present—which may explain the presence of channel-like landforms in some regions. Today its thin carbon dioxide ($\rm CO_2$)-dominated atmosphere is conducive to the movement of sediment by wind, the most prevalent environmental process affecting its surface. There are many spectacular dune fields, and other areas showing the efficacy of wind erosion, where moving dust and sand have sculpted large fluted hills and faceted the surfaces of exposed pebbles and rocks into ventifact forms.

Though a moon of Saturn, Titan is larger than the planet Mercury. It has a dense, extremely cold (average temperature -292 °F/-180 °C) atmosphere of methane. This can condense into a liquid and fall as rain, explaining the occurrence of fluvial-like landforms and lakes on the moon's surface. Strong winds also allow aeolian processes to operate, with multiple fly-pasts by the Saturn-exploring NASA *Cassini* spacecraft from 2004 to 2017 revealing fields of equatorial linear sand dunes comparable in morphology to those of the deserts of southern Africa and Australia.

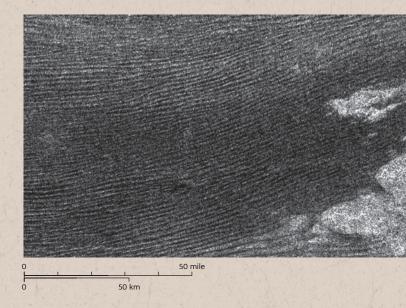
The most recent discovery of arid landscape features has been on the surface of small, distant Pluto, which, depending on orbital position, is between 2.66 and 4.67 billion miles (4.28-7.5 billion km) from Earth, and only a sixth its diameter. NASA's New Horizons mission flew by Pluto in 2015, producing imagery that shows its thin, nitrogen-dominated atmosphere possesses winds that have formed the distinctive Sputnik Planitia dune field—made not of sand but of frozen methane particles deposited on the surface of one of the planet's extensive ice plains.

▲ Martian winds

Wind is one of the most active forces shaping Mars' surface in today's climate. Wind-carved features such as these, called "yardangs," are common on the Red Planet. Wind has also deposited fine sand on the floor of shallow channels between the yardangs. On the sand, the wind forms ripples and small dunes. In Mars' thin atmosphere, light is not scattered much, so the shadows cast by the yardangs are sharp and dark.

PLANETARY DUNES

Dunes on other planets come in all sorts of patterns, forms, and materials. Many forms are similar to dunes on Earth: for example, in the Belet dune field on the equator of Saturn's moon Titan, linear dunes extend east-west over tens of miles, spaced about 1.2 miles (2 km) apart, captured here in a radar image from the Cassini spacecraft. On Mars, we have the benefit of dune images not only from space but captured on the surface by the Curiosity Rover. For example, "barchanlike" dunes have been recorded in high resolution from NASA's Mars Reconnaissance Orbiter, in this example (farthest right) in 2015, showing ripples on the dune's upwind side as the dune migrates over a fractured rocky surface (from the top-right corner of the image toward the bottom left). The amazing Curiosity image of another barchan form, the so-called Namib dune in the Bagnold dune field (named in honor of one of Earth's most spectacular dune fields and, in turn, one of dune science's earliest proponents, Ralph Bagnold), shows the downwind slip face of the dune, again in 2015. This is about 13 feet (4 m) high, and displays the typical patterns of sediment avalanches that form as a dune moves forward. Repeat analyses suggest that this dune is migrating at a rate of about 3 feet (1 m) per Earth year. The upwind, or lee, sides of the dunes are covered in ripples, shown in close up in another Curiosity mosaic image, from the Bagnold dune field. Elsewhere on Mars, dunes that do not have an earthly analogue are found



▲ Titan dunes

The Belet dunefield on Titan.

Barchan

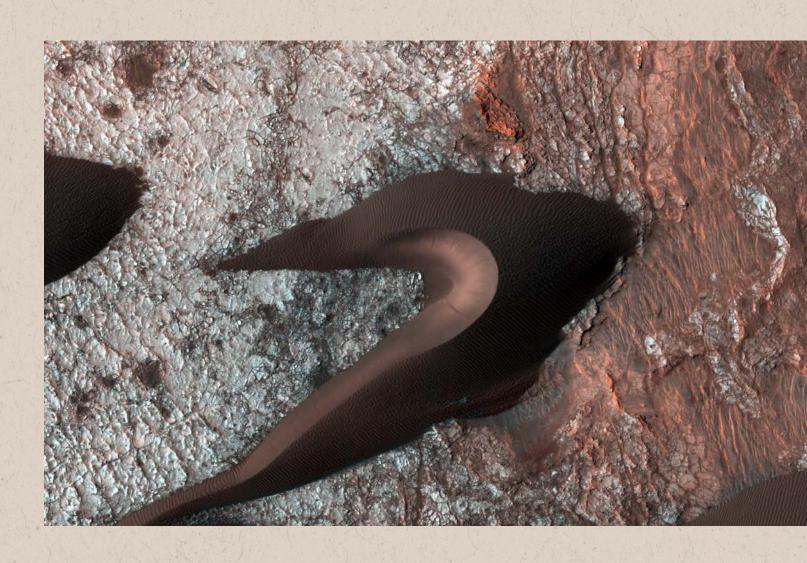
A classic barchan dune on Mars.

▼ Martian dune

Curiosity Rover image of the slip face of the "Namib dune" on Mars.



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What causes dryness, and where?

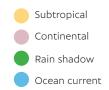
It is possible to break down the atmospheric and environmental factors that cause the moisture deficits around the globe into four broad influences: atmospheric stability; distance from the ocean (or "continentality"); topographic ("rain shadow") effects; and the influence of cold ocean currents on neighboring coastal areas.

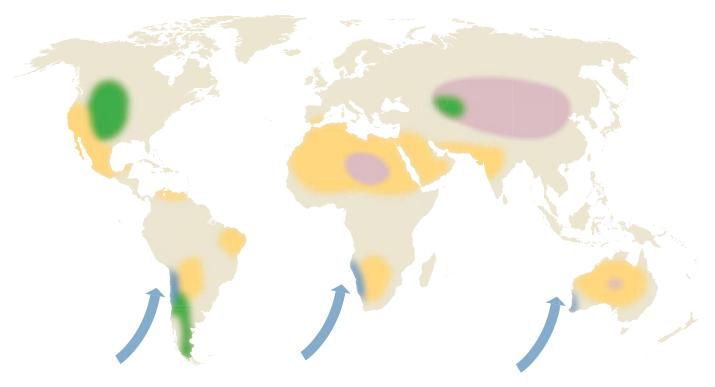
Dryness drivers

The generalized main causes of aridity in the world's desert and dryland areas.

Every desert and dryland area on Earth is caused by at least one of these factors. The great belts of subtropical deserts, including the Sahara, Arabian, and Thar Deserts of the northern hemisphere, and the Kalahari and Australian Deserts of the southern, result from atmospheric stability that limits rainfall. The extensive deserts of central Asia and China are largely caused by their great distance from the oceans. Desert areas also occur on the lee (downwind) side of mountain barriers, creating dynamic deserts and drylands, particularly in North and South America. Finally, on a much smaller scale than any other mechanism, cold ocean currents cause dryness on the western Atlantic coast of southern Africa, parts of the Pacific coastlines of South and North America, and, to a lesser extent, the west coast of Australia. While the areas affected by this final influence are relatively small, the processes involved have contributed to the existence of two of the driest deserts on Earth: the Namib and Atacama.

Each of these mechanisms results in limited moisture in the atmosphere over the land, and therefore to little precipitation. To compound matters, some individual desert areas are influenced by more than one of these factors. For example, low precipitation in the heart of Australia is affected not only by its subtropical location,

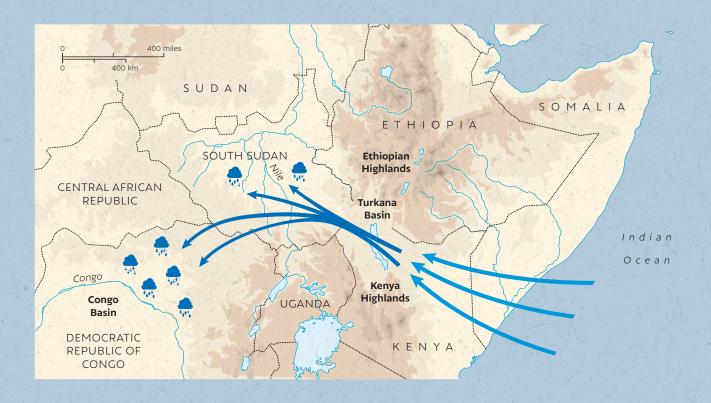




RIVER IN THE SKY

Scientists have often wondered why tropical East Africa, spanning South Sudan, Ethiopia, and Kenya, is dryland—its latitude means it ought to be a wetter region, like the Congo Basin to the west. Research in 2023 by Callum Munday and colleagues has shown that the answer seems to lie in the effect of the east—west Turkana Basin, a gap between the

Ethiopian and Kenya Highlands created by faulting in the East African Rift. This channels low-level winds from the Indian Ocean as the "Turkana Jet," carrying water vapor away from eastern Africa toward the Congo, drying the former and making the latter even rainier than it would otherwise be.

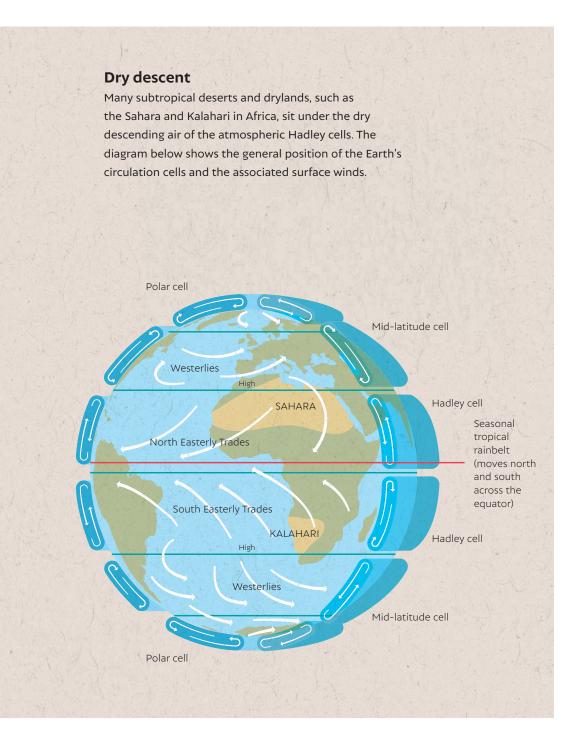


but by distance from the ocean, while the eastern Australian interior is also impacted by the north-south Great Dividing Range inhibiting rain-bearing easterly trade winds reaching farther inland. Taken together, almost 75 percent of Australia is consequently either arid or semiarid.

Land masses are not equally distributed over the Earth's surface, with 68 percent found in the northern hemisphere. When combined with the occurrence of the atmospheric and environmental factors that cause deserts and drylands, the size of landmasses as well as their latitudinal distributions result in each of Africa and Asia possessing over 30 percent of global arid lands, with 12 percent in North America, around 5 percent in southern Europe, just 9 percent in South America, and 11 percent of the global total in Australia.

Atmospheric stability: subtropical deserts and savannas

The subtropics, centered on latitudes 30° North and 30° South, are the location of great atmospheric belts of moisture-limited stable air. Atmospheric stability tends to bring dryness, creating the major desert and dryland zones of Afro-Asia that include the Sahara, Arabian, Lut, and Thar Deserts; the Sonoran and Chihuahuan Deserts of North America; and the large, dry expanses of the Kalahari and Australia in the southern hemisphere.





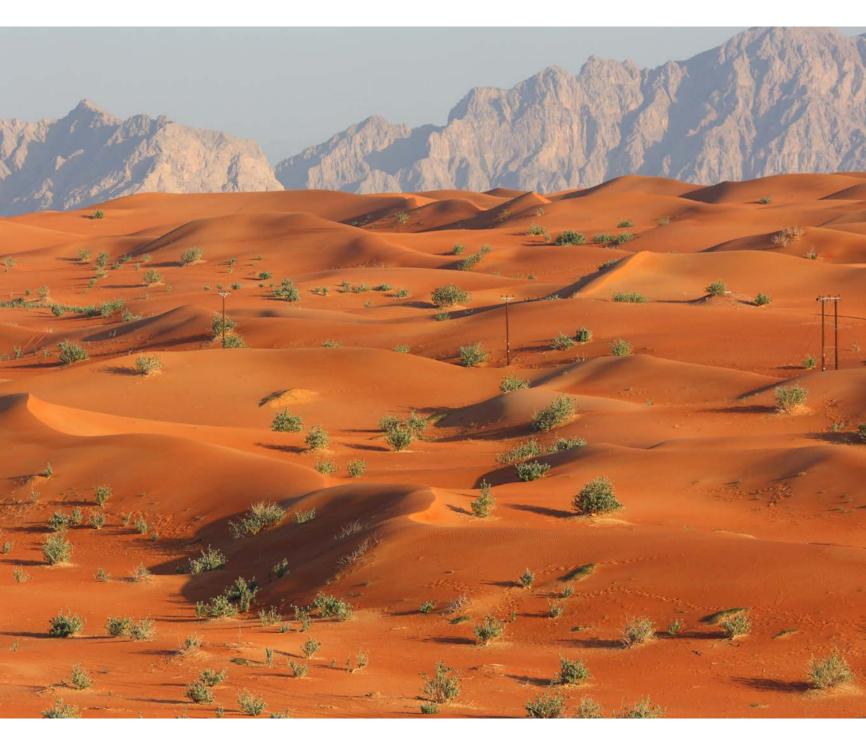
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These stable air masses represent the descending limbs of large circulation cells that originate in the wet tropics (the Hadley cell) and the mid-latitudes. Descending air is generally moisture-depleted, creating stable conditions in the lower atmosphere, and surface trade winds that blow out of the driest areas, further limiting rainfall incursion and contributing to evaporative loss. The resulting dry conditions tend to comprise central arid regions, with surrounding semiarid and dry-subhumid areas that are affected seasonally by elements of the monsoon rains of the tropics or the westerly depressions of the mid-latitudes.

Given their subtropical location, many of these deserts and drylands are hot all year round (mean temperatures of the warmest months exceeding 86 $^{\circ}$ F [30 $^{\circ}$ C]), such as in the central Sahara and Arabia, or they have hot summers and mild winters (mean

▼ Subtropical Arabia

The desert dunes of the Arabian Peninsula, here in the United Arab Emirates, are influenced by the aridity caused by dry descending subtropical air.



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Cerrado

Located between the Amazon Basin and Pantanal wetlands, this extensive savanna area covers over 7.5 million square miles (2 million sq km) of Brazil.

Desert dates

The oasis at Tafilalt, Morocco, sits on the northern margin of the subtropical Sahara Desert. coolest month temperatures in the 50-85 °F [10-30 °C] range), for example in the southern Sahara, the Kalahari, and the deserts of Mexico. These expansive deserts include depositional sedimentary basins that have some of the most extensive areas of sand dunes on Earth.

The aridity gradient of subtropical drylands results in a transition from almost vegetation-free conditions to surrounding better-vegetated areas, sometimes called semideserts. These have a distinct climatic seasonality, expressed not so much in temperature variations as in the distinct timing of rainfall. On the equatorial side of subtropical drylands, vegetated areas comprise savanna grasslands and dry tropical woodlands, the result of a commonly short, hot, summer rainy season and dry winter months, which aggregate to give a net mean annual moisture deficit.

Some subtropical savanna areas occur without an associated desert core—notably the Cerrado (Portuguese for "savanna") and neighboring Caatinga (dry, thorny shrubland) regions of central-eastern Brazil. Other subtropical drylands also have, on their temperate (mid-latitude-facing) margins, conditions with a reverse seasonality of wet winter months and hot, dry summers. These include so-called Mediterranean climates, among which are the semiarid to dry-subhumid drylands of the extreme north of Africa, the Levant, and southern Europe, as well as occurring in southeastern and southwestern Australia and South Africa's Cape region.



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Deserts and drylands of the continental interiors

Continentality, or distance from the ocean, is an important contributor to moisture deficits in the interior of the largest land masses. Continentality is responsible for the great desert areas of central Asia centered on latitude 45° North, and the dry regions of central North America, as well as acting as an additional contributor to aridity in the heart of the Sahara and Australia.

▼ Gobi Bactrian

This camel species native to the Gobi Desert, Mongolia, is well adapted to the continental desert climate.

Rain-bearing winds, such as the tropical monsoons and temperate-region westerly depressions, derive most of their moisture from the oceans. Precipitation on land generally therefore decreases in an inland direction from the coast.

Asia

The belt of mid- and higher-latitude drylands that stretches from the Caspian Sea in Turkmenistan in the east, to Mongolia and China in the west, is a function of continentality, with the Dzoosotoyn (Gurbantünggüt) Desert, in the China-Kazakhstan borderlands, up to 1,644 miles (2,645 km) from the nearest ocean, being the most continental place on Earth. Other major deserts of continental Asia include the Gobi ("waterless place") in Mongolia and China, the Taklamakan Desert of China, and the Karakum Desert of Turkmenistan. The Taklamakan and Gobi Deserts also sit at relatively high altitudes, ranging 2,900–5,000 feet (900–1,500 m) above sea level, which, when combined with distance from the moderating effects of the ocean,





leads to seasonal temperature extremes. Mean monthly summer temperatures can readily exceed 86 °F (30 °C) in some places, while mean monthly winter temperatures can fail to reach 32 °F (0 °C). Plants and animals therefore have to display distinct adaptations to survive such extremes.

North America

Much of the western half of the North American interior is also dry due to distance from the ocean, the greatest distance being over 1,025 miles (1,650 km) near Kyle in South Dakota. The Great Plains grassland prairies of the United States and Canada are effectively drought-prone semiarid regions that also experience seasonal extremes of heat and cold: the northernmost latitude (up to around 53° North) of the Canadian Prairies makes them among the most northerly and coldest drylands on Earth. While the prairies are, in contrast to true deserts, agriculturally productive today, this is generally only achieved by using artificial means of irrigation on soils with poor moisture retention, with much of the region receiving less than 16 inches (400 mm) of mean annual rainfall. Natural grasslands and their extensive fauna have been dramatically altered over the past 200 years by human interventions—including arable cultivation and extensive stock rearing—so are now among the least "natural" drylands on Earth.

A notable feature of some Asian and North American continental deserts and drylands is that the very low temperatures result in snow cover being a major characteristic of long winter months.

▲ Canadian Prairies

Continentality and a higher latitude bring cold winter conditions to the plains of Saskatchewan.

Rain shadow deserts

Mountain ranges, especially those parallel to ocean margins, can block the passage of rain-bearing winds and cause rainfall on windward slopes, resulting in drier conditions on their lee (downwind) sides.

Mountain-building, or orogeny, has been particularly important for the development of the deserts and drylands of the western United States and throughout Asia.

Mountains also contribute to dryness in parts of the eastern and western Sahara, Australia, and South America.

North and South America

In North America, mountain ranges that stretch from northern Mexico through California to southern Oregon, including the Sierra Madre, Sierra Nevada, and Cascade Range, provide an effective trap for moisture emanating from the eastern Pacific Ocean. This creates the Great Basin and Mojave Deserts in their lee, as well as contributing to the aridity of the subtropical Chihuahuan Desert. Farther east, the extensive Rocky Mountains, extending from Canada to New Mexico, cast a rain shadow on the interior plains and prairies. The geological faulting and rifting that created the region's mountains has formed a series of parallel ridges and troughs with abrupt altitude changes, giving rise to the name Basin and Range Province for the region as a whole.





The uplift of mountain-building has also meant that rivers such as the Colorado have cut deep canyons into the desert landscape. The 5,250 feet (1,600 m) mean elevation Colorado Plateau is also dryland affected by rain shadow factors from the mountains to the west. In South America, the largely semiarid Patagonian and Monte Deserts of Argentina similarly lie in the rain shadow of the Andes Mountains.

Asia

Several desert and dryland areas of Asia result from, or are enhanced by, rain shadow effects. East of the Caspian Sea, for example, the Caucasus Mountains and the Hindu Kush contribute to aridity in the Karakum and Kyzylkum Deserts, while the cold winter semiarid steppe lands of eastern Turkey and Syria are at least in part shadowed by the Taurus and Pontic Mountains. Iran's Lut Desert, which experiences some of the hottest summer temperatures on Earth, is located in an interior mountain-rimmed basin.

Typical landforms

Mountains often have a direct effect on the landforms of their shadow deserts, too. Mountain-sourced rivers, often with a spring peak flow from snow melt, and which may have been more active during past wetter climate conditions, have deposited sediments that form desert salt lakes or provide the material for sand dune formation. Another characteristic landform of many dynamic deserts, notably in North America and Iran, are extensive and distinctive alluvial fans that cover desert-facing mountain slopes.

▶ Great Sand Dunes

In Colorado, pockets
of dunes have formed
where rain shadow
conditions and
sediments from rivers
provide the setting for
dunes to develop in the
lee of mountains.

▼ Landlocked desert

The Hindu Kush
mountains provide a
significant obstacle for
rainfall penetration into
the interior drylands of
Tajikistan and
Afghanistan.



Ocean-margin deserts

Narrow coastal deserts occur on the west coast of several landmasses, due to the impact of cold ocean water on the ability of rain clouds to form. The Namib and Atacama Deserts (see the map opposite) are among the driest places and oldest deserts on Earth.

▼ Atacama

Cold fogs called the Camanchaca can bring moisture from the cold ocean to the neighboring hyperarid desert landscape.

Where cold Southern (Antarctic) Ocean water currents upwell and reach the ocean surface in the subtropics in latitudes 15–34° South, they have the effect of cooling the lower atmosphere, enhancing the aridifying effects of descending stable subtropical air. The cold water both limits the ability of rain clouds to form over the ocean through convection, and creates fog through condensation as cold air has a lower capacity than warm air to store water vapor. These conditions then affect neighboring coastal areas, creating narrow deserts up to 1,200 miles (2,000 km) long and extending inland for up to 100 miles (160 km). The rotation of the Earth means that currents tend to flow along the west coast of landmasses.

While the Namib (and its northern extensions) and Atacama Deserts are the most distinctive manifestation of the aridifying effects of cold southern-hemisphere ocean currents, the same processes occur to a lesser degree on the west coast of Australia. In the northern hemisphere, cold currents originating in the Arctic Ocean have a similar effect on the coast of the United States and Baja California in Mexico, enhancing dryness in the Sonoran Desert, as well as in the Canary Islands off the west coast of Africa's Sahara Desert.

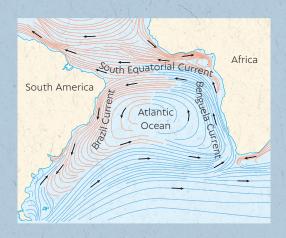
In the most coastal parts of these deserts, fog can be the dominant source of moisture, amounting to only a few millimeters of precipitation each year. The Namib and Atacama are renowned for the specialist animal and plant adaptations to this unusual dominant moisture source. While some parts of these deserts are represented by rocky landscapes, the coastal locations can result in wave action bringing significant quantities of sediment to the dry coastline. Strong onshore winds transport this material inland, building in the Namib a distinctive "sand sea" that possesses some of the biggest dunes on Earth, up to 1,000 feet (300 m) high.



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GLOBAL MAP OF COLD CURRENTS AND ASSOCIATED DESERTS

Cold-water currents contribute to aridity in west-coast deserts—notably the Namib, Atacama, and Sonoran Deserts, but also in western Australia and the Canary Islands off the Saharan coast. The inset shows how the Benguela Current, which cools the southern African west coast, forms part of a more extensive ocean-water circulation system called the South Atlantic Gyre. Warm surface water is shown in orange; cold surface water is blue.







Is Antarctica a desert?

As well as being extremely cold and windy, Antarctica receives the least precipitation of all the Earth's continents—conditions that together favor aridity. Extremely cold air simply cannot transfer sufficient water from surrounding oceans to generate much precipitation: what small amounts occur are almost exclusively in the form of snow. Technically, precipitation levels are well within the values that are usually considered to designate desert conditions. But is Antarctica really a desert?

McMurdo Station, a research facility on the coastal tip of Antarctica's Ross Island, receives on average 7.9 inches (200 mm) of precipitation a year. Another, the Amundsen–Scott South Pole Station—more than 740 miles (1,200 km) from the landmass margin—has recorded on average 2 inches (50 mm) of precipitation per year. At Vostok Station, which is located at the southern geomagnetic pole, less than 0.2 inches (5 mm) of annual precipitation is recorded, making it one of the very driest (and, with a mean temperature of -67 °F [-55 °C], coldest!) places on Earth.

Antarctica can also be very windy, and wind provides an important mechanism for the movement of sediment and loose material in dry environments that lack protective vegetation. The British Antarctic Survey runs six research stations on the continent. They report generally moderate wind-speed conditions year-round, with a mean speed of 6 meters (19.7 ft) per second (m/s), which is around the threshold speed at which loose particles start to be blown around. Also notable is that over 40 days a year are reported to experience gales, when wind speeds exceed 30 m/s (98 ft/s), and even hurricane-force gusts (over 55 m/s [180 ft/s]). One factor that makes Antarctica generally windy is its high plateau nature. Cold air flows off this surface toward lower coastal areas, in what are called katabatic winds, which can make the margins of the continent particularly windy places.

On precipitation criteria alone, Antarctica could therefore be regarded as a desert, while its windiness also favors some of the common attributes of desert environments. Why is it not therefore formally recognized as a desert by organizations such as the United Nations Environment Programme?

To understand why, it is necessary to appreciate the scientific evolution of desert research during the twentieth century.

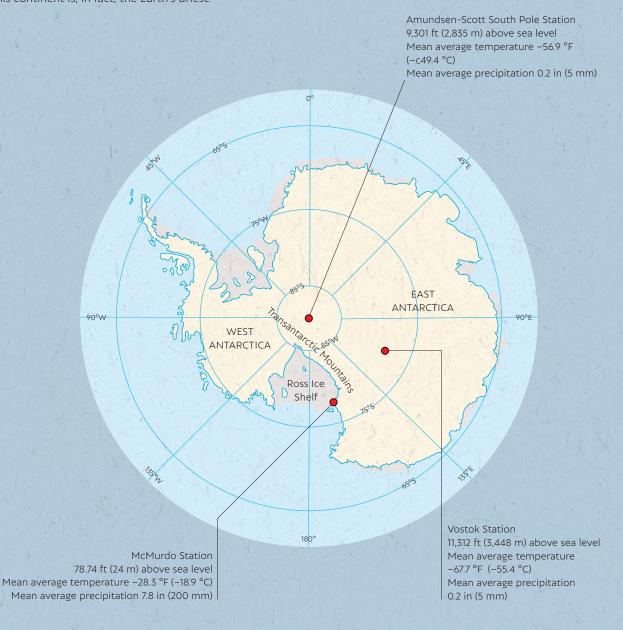
Land classifications

Following World War II, global concern rose regarding support for human populations living in drought-prone and dryland conditions. As a result, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) commenced a program concerning global food production, out of which grew analyses of aridity and the classification of land areas. The early work of the American geographer Peveril Meigs was especially influential in this regard, and remains so today. In 1953 his aridity scheme, produced for UNESCO, classified deserts and drylands based not only on their effective precipitation amounts, but on temperatures being sufficient for crop growth. Thus Antarctica was, and continues to be, excluded from UN designations of desert areas.

That most of Antarctica is ice-covered—only 0.4 percent is not—also favors its exclusion from areas regarded as deserts, as most of its land surface is not exposed to the elements and therefore does not experience the direct impacts of atmospheric conditions and associated environmental processes. Contrastingly, seasonally very cold, and winter-snow covered, continental dry regions, such as the Gobi of Mongolia, are recognized as deserts because summer months are snow-free and warm enough for crop growth.

POLAR DESERT?

Data from the few weather stations in Antarctica show that this continent is, in fact, the Earth's driest.



Dry valley dunes

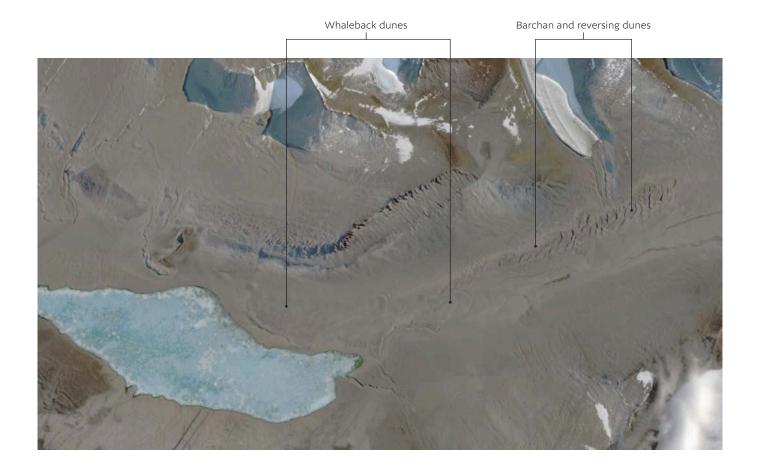
Dry valley dunes provide an unusual landscape feature in a unique ice-free part of Antarctica.

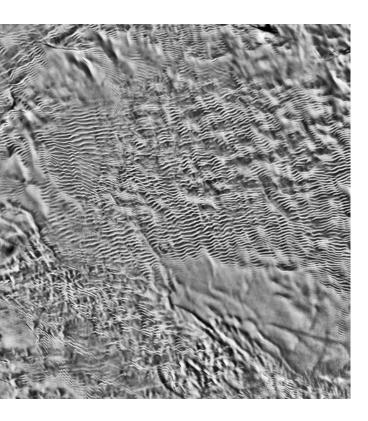
The dunes of Antarctica

Antarctica is not a place where you would generally expect to find sand dunes, but there are circumstances on the continent where environmental conditions align to make their formation possible. As conditions of very low temperatures, aridity, and windiness are common on other planetary bodies, where unmanned exploration has led to the identification of extensive dune fields, the Antarctic dunes may be important analogs for their interpretation.

The Victoria Valley of Ross Island is one of a series of "dry valleys" near the Antarctic coast that are glacier-free in their lower reaches. Fine sand-sized sediment on the valley floor has accumulated in a glacial-outwash sand sheet, from material eroded by the Victoria Glacier and sourced from frost-weathered rocks exposed in the steep valley sides. The valley's aridity and its windiness, assisted by the funnelling effect of the valley itself, provide unique local conditions that have allowed aeolian sand dunes to form in this ice-free part of the continent. Initially scientifically investigated in the 1960s, the first data on these dunes appeared in the 1970s, including a detailed field analysis in 1974, as interest grew in their potential as analogs for Martian dunes. Subsequent research has applied advanced methods such as ground penetrating radar (GPR), to understand the dunes' internal structures and luminescence dating, which measures when sand grains became buried and therefore when they were deposited or ceased to be moved by the wind, allowing their age and rate of movement to be established.

The main dune field occurs in a belt that is just 2.2 miles (3.5 km) long and 0.6 miles (1 km) wide. Dunes are formed of sand blown westward in "summer" months from the sand sheet, and are mostly barchan dune forms, mobile features with distinct slip faces on their downwind edges. Northwesterly katabatic winds, however, cause







some seasonal reversal in movement direction so that some of the features may be what are known as reversing dunes. Individual dunes are up to around 1,950 feet (600 m) from tip to tip and can be over 30 feet (10 m) high. Close to the sand sheet, another dune patch comprises features that are formed of coarser sand and have no slip faces and a generally rounded profile. These so-called "whaleback dunes" also have an active surface layer including a capping of gritty sediments, while their interiors are reported to be largely frozen.

GPR surveys of the barchan and reversing dunes have also revealed dune interiors that include distinct frozen snow layers within the stratified sand. Samples collected for luminescence dating show that the oldest dune sediments were deposited around 1,300 years ago. The dunes remained stable until around 300 years ago, when circulation strengthened; movement today, at a rate of around 5 feet (1.5 m) per year, may now be heightened in association with temperature rises due to anthropogenic global warming.

Satellite imagery has also revealed extensive dunelike patterns over large swathes of Antarctica's interior plateau. These are snow forms upon the ice sheet surface, up to 26 feet (8 m) high, with wavelengths that can be as long as 3.7 miles (6 km). Relative to sand dunes, these generate low, undulating surfaces, but they undoubtedly owe their existence to the transportation of dry snow and ice particles by strong katabatic winds.

Whether these features and the mobile dunes of the dry valleys are sufficient evidence to warrant Antarctica being regarded as a true desert landscape is not clear; however, it is certainly one of the largest dry regions on Earth, and it possesses marked evidence of the wind being an important environmental agency in shaping the surface of its landscape.

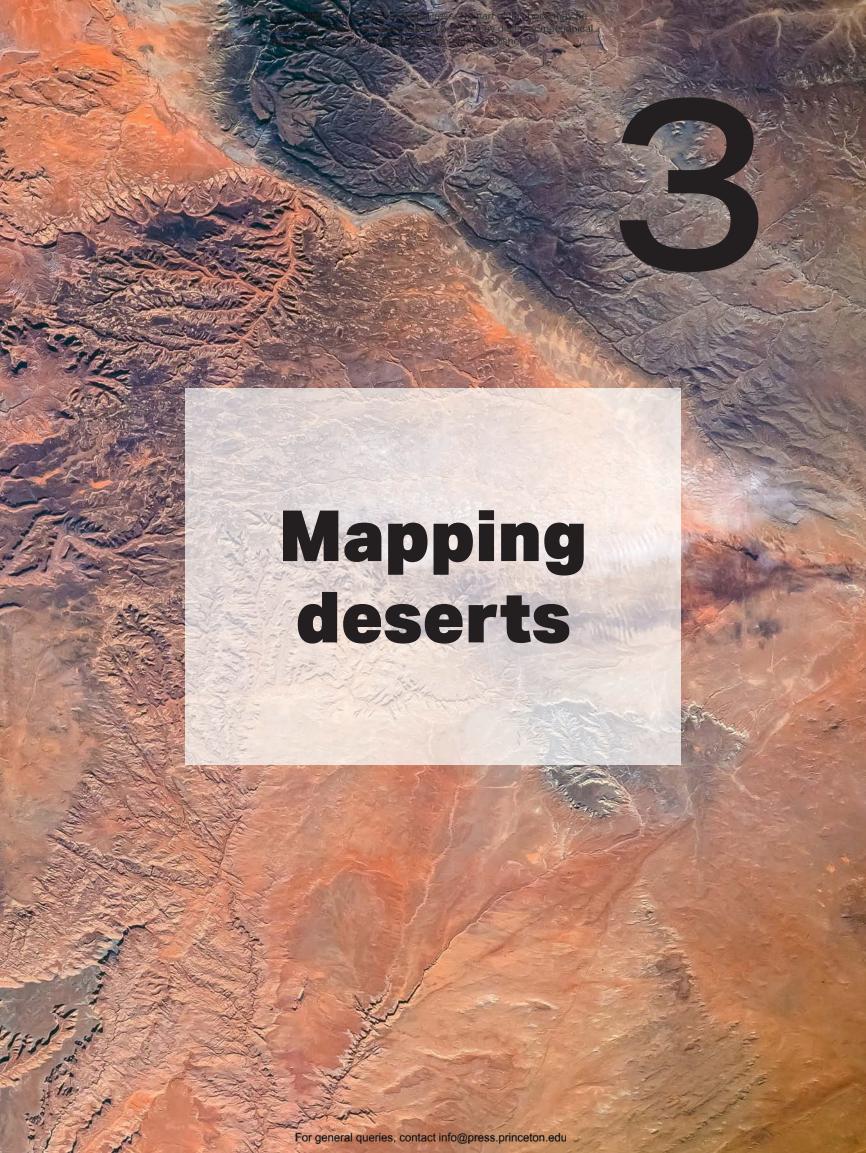
Snow dunes

High on Antarctica's bleak interior, satellite images have revealed fields of dunelike features formed from snow.

▲ Polar sand dunes

The dry valley dunes in Antarctica are formed of more usual material: sands washed out from under the ice sheet.



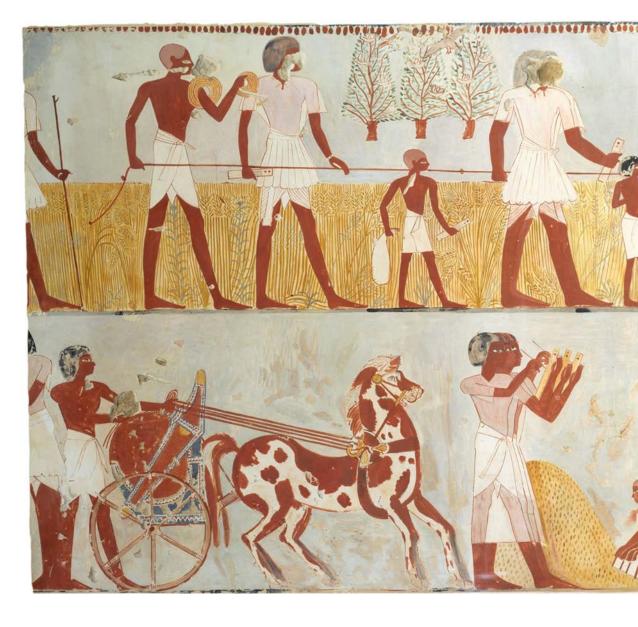


Early maps

Mapping of deserts has occurred since prehistoric times, witnessed in rock art from the Sahara and Arabia. In this section we explore the history of desert mapping, from prehistory to the latest technological developments. The following pages draw extensively, but not exclusively, on the Sahara Desert and surrounding regions, where many mapping developments have played out and can be well illustrated.

The world's earliest maplike drawings come in fact from drylands. In the deserts of Saudi Arabia and Jordan there are remarkable 9,000-year-old plan-view rock etchings of gigantic stone structures known as kites, used to aid hunting of wild animals. Amazingly, the remains of these structures still exist today (see pages 188–189). Their makers had the uncanny ability to depict them accurately in their stone-engraved plans, despite not being able to see the kites from above. There is then little evidence of further developments in mapping from anywhere until about

Early surveyors A painting showing Egyptian surveyors using a knotted rope to measure property dimensions.



2,600 years ago, with conception of the first map of the world, the Imago Mundi. This is a clay tablet centered on ancient Babylon and surrounding desert regions in present-day Iraq, but it also depicts the rest of the known world of its maker, albeit in a stylized and schematic manner.

Early Egyptian art exhibits many aspects of mapping, at a similar time to the Imago Mundi. For example, the lid of a 2,400-year-old stone sarcophagus (coffin) bears a circular depiction of Egypt and the surrounding regions. An inner circle shows numerous standards associated with the ancient territorial divisions of Egypt, and an outer ring depicts its neighboring peoples. The goddesses of east and west are shown on the left and right of the outer ring respectively, thus allowing orientation of the inscription. By 1,150 years ago, Egyptian cartography had developed considerably, as evidenced by the Turin Papyrus, a map showing the location of a quarry deep in the desert that was to be reopened in order to acquire stone to build statues for the pharaoh Ramesses IV. This map is particularly important as it contains the earliest surviving depiction of topography.





Though the Turin Papyrus has no scale, it is clear that the Egyptians could measure distance accurately, as evidenced by archaeological finds of a surveying instrument known as a merchet, as well as sticks and ropes. The Egyptians also used a unit of measurement known as a cubit, derived from the distance from the elbow to the tip of the middle finger. Because a few plans of buildings have survived, we know that the cubit, and the instruments developed to measure it, were used to survey and map urban areas. Pictures of surveyors measuring fields have also been discovered, indicating that they were used to make larger-scale maps showing land ownership too. Maps were also perhaps used to show trade routes across the Sahara. We know that the latter existed in Egyptian times and their users would have benefited considerably from the knowledge used to prepare them. For example, there is a line



of archaeological sites known as the Abu Ballas Trail that stretches some 250 miles (400 km) from Dakhla Oasis to the Gilf Kebir in the central Sahara. The site of Abu Ballas itself, which means "Father of Jars," is a large pottery depot—one of many used to store water for the people and donkeys that used the trail. The first map to include geographical details of the Sahara was made by the Egyptian Claudius Ptolemy. Born around 100 CE, Ptolemy lived on the coast at Alexandria, where he had access to what was at the time the world's greatest library. He was an expert in mathematics, astronomy, astrology, geography, and music, and wrote numerous books on these subjects, including what is known as the Geographia. The Geographia explained how to draw maps using geographical coordinates based on a map projection. It then described how to use astronomical data to establish accurate locations, but also how to use less-precise travelers' reports when these were not available. Ptolemy collated vast amounts of geographical information using these methods and employed it to construct a ground-breaking map of the known world at the time. Though the map did not have the specific aim of mapping deserts, it did so where they were known. However, even though Ptolemy lived on the edge of the Sahara, the map shows less detail here than it does elsewhere, suggesting a paucity of travelers' reports from such a harsh environment.

Furthermore, we now know that Ptolemy's world map contained many errors for the Sahara region, which, despite its proximity to Egypt, is not even portrayed as a desert. Instead, it incorrectly shows the north-central Sahara as being drained from east to west by a large river system feeding numerous lakes along the way and eventually debouching into the Atlantic Ocean. In contrast, the mapping of the River Nile has stood the test of time, being relatively accurate—presumably because it had been an important trade route for thousands of years. The lesson to be learned from this map is that relying solely on a small number of travelers' reports, as Ptolemy appears to have done for the Sahara, can lead to erroneous results.

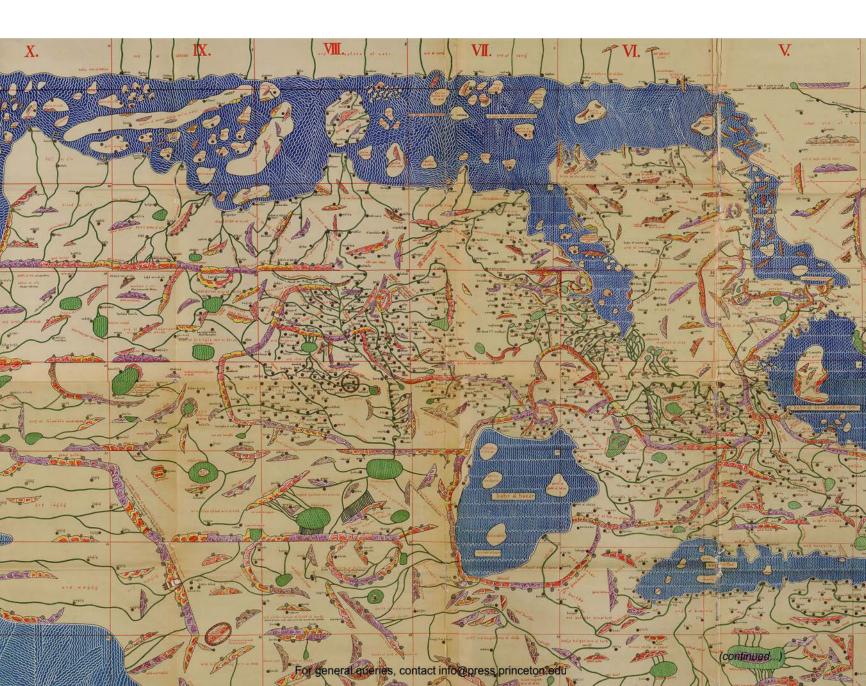
Ptolemy world map

Produced in the
Greco-Roman era,
this map was later
reproduced in an
embellished form by
Lord Nicolas the
German in 1482. It
shows a largely empty
Sahara in its lower
left-hand quadrant.

Mapping from exploration

The mapping techniques laid down by Ptolemy appear to have been lost during the Dark Ages that followed the collapse of the Roman Empire, but a renaissance in desert mapping seems to have begun in the twelfth century CE.

No maps of the Sahara that we have evidence of today appear to have been produced for around a thousand years after Ptolemy's time. A renaissance in Saharan mapping started with Muhammad al-Idrisi (1100–65), who spent his early life travelling in North Africa, then moved to Europe, where he continued his travels while also embarking on a career in geography and cartography. He is best known for the Tabula Rogeriana, a map of the known world that included a remarkable amount of detail on the location of settlements, mountain ranges, and rivers. For the Sahara, the map was a significant development. It contains much more detail than Ptolemy's map, showing numerous previously unrecorded settlements. However, there is one obvious similarity—it indicates the erroneous east-west river crossing the Sahara that Ptolemy's map introduced.



Index

macx
•
Ahariginal Augstraliana 200
Aboriginal Australians 308 spinifex resin 174
Abu Ballas Trail 69
Acacia 350, 351
A. mellifera 319 adaptation, desert 11
adaptation, description adaptation to the cold 232-41
animal and plant adaptation
36-7, 38-9, 39, 176-83, 232-5, 237 coping with changing deserts
376-83
human adaptation to cold 238-
41
Adjumani 325 Afar Depression 26, 210
Afghan-Tajik Depression 229
Afghanistan, dryness in 57, 57
Africa
African rainbelt 124, 124, 125 coastal deserts of southwestern
Africa 274-7
dust-source regions 86, 86-7
see also East Africa; North Africa; South Africa and
individual countries and
locations
African Humid Periods (AHPs)
112, 115 African Journal of Ecology 38
Africanus, Leo 71-2
agave 173, 255, 382
agriculture in Australia 315
C4 and CAM plants 171, 173, 382
changing the balance of deserts
308, 309, 309 cotton 312
drought adaptations 382-3
Dust Bowl 334, 336-7
effect of dzud on 224-6, 224, 227
effects of global warming on 361, 376
extreme events and 228
Harappan civilization 311
in India 311, 313 irrigation systems 318, 319
pastoralism 231
ranched cattle 266-7
Virgin Land scheme 326-7
Ahnet-Mouydir Megalake 93, 93 AHPs (African Humid Periods) 112
air 168
air temperature 24-5, 26-7, 32
dry descending air 50, 51, 51 mapping deserts from the air
78-81
Aïr Mountains 140, 145
air temperature
and evaporation 32 highest recorded 24-5, 26-7
Aizoaceae family 40
Alberta 129
Alexander the Great 197, 320 Algeria
Chotts Megalake 93
early exploration of 72, 73
Hoggar 140 Opuntia cultivation 382
Sahara Desert 141
Saharan Atlas 28
alluvial fans 29, 57, 128, 254, 260-1
Death Valley 263 dust sources 136
Okavango Delta 116
on Mars 42
Sarir Dalmah 99
Aloe 281 Aloidendron dichotomum 41, 41

Andes Mountains 57, 244, 245, 246,
279, 355
animals
adaptations to life in the desert
38, 176-83
climate change and 377
cold adaptations 232-5, 237 dryland adaptation 36-7
migration 150-3, 189, 225, 227, 237,
240-1, 309
pastoralism 230-1
see also individual species
Antarctica 25, 60-3, 279 dunes of 62-3
precipitation in 60, 61
temperatures in 35, 61
winds 60, 62-3
antelope
adaptation to life in the desert 176
Euphorbia and 373
and lichens 290-1
migration 189, 237
Anti-Desertification Research Center 337
ants 298
Aouzou 24
Aphricae Tabula IIII 71
aqueducts 326
aquifers 337
artesian aquifers 314-15, <i>314</i> Great Artesian Basin 315, <i>315</i>
Ogallala Aquifer 265, 318
Arabana people 120
Arabia 50-1
diversity of 31
dust-source regions 86, 86-7 human occupation 308
natural resources 219
Arabian Desert
causes of dryness in 48,50
diversity of 31 human occupation 184, 185,
186-7
paleolakes 90
rock art 66
temperatures in 51-2
Arabian Gulf 324-5 Arabian horned viper 180
Arabian oryx 178-9
Arabidopsis thaliana 164
Aral Sea 199, 210, 326-9
Aralkum Desert 195, 328 Arches National Park 216-17
areic areas 32
areoles 164
argali sheep 226, 237
aridity 34, 51, 128
aridity index (AI) 32, 34, 34, 364, 365, 368, 369
causes of 48-9
driest places on Earth 24-5
mapping 34-5 Sahel 142
Aristotle 233
arroyos 129
Artemisia 236
artesian aquifers 314-15, 314
Asia animal migration 237
causes of dryness in 48, 56, 57
Central Asian desert landscapes
198-9
climate extremes 200-1 continentality and 54-5
dust-source regions 86, 86-7
earthquakes 229
great deserts of 194-201
natural resources 219 rain-shadow deserts 57
temperatures in 29, 223
see also individual countries and
deserts
Aswan High Dam 79, 332 Atacama Desert 270-3
age 278, 278, 279
archaeological sites 285
causes of dryness in 48, 58, 58, 59
fog in 58 human occupation of 284-5, 825
hyperaridity 284-5
natural resources 219, 284, 284
plant diversity 40

precipitation in 25, 26, 132-3, 134,
135 salt lakes 272, 272, 273
Atlas Mountains 73, 381
atmosphere atmospheric stability 48, 50-3 Earth-atmosphere system 365
Atriplex 236
Atyrau Desert 195 Aubréville, André 338
Australia
agricultural expansion 10
billabongs 128 causes of dryness in 48-9, 50, 56,
58, 59
channel beds 134 continentality and 54
diversity in 29
dust-source regions 86, 86-7
floods 135 Great Artesian Basin 315, <i>315</i>
human occupation 308
mineral dust 136 natural resources 219, 221
spinifex grass 174-5, 299, 299
Trans-Australia railway 9
wildfires 158, 159, 160-1 Australian Flying Corps 78, 78
riustrariari Fry irig Corps 70, 70
B
baboons 176 Babylon 67
Bacillus 168
bacteria, beneficial soil 166, 168 Bactrian camels 54, 231, 232-4, 233
Badain Jaran Desert 195, 195, 337
badlands 129
Badwater Basin 262, 262, 263, 263 Bagnold, Ralph 44, 76, 77
Bagnold dune field, Mars 44, 44-5
Baikal, Lake 333 Baja California
causes of dryness in 58
plant diversity 40
Bakalahari Schwelle 150, 150 Balkhash, Lake 199, 199
Ball, John 76
barchan dunes Antarctica 62, 63
Bodélé Depression 85
Mars 44, 45, 62
Namib Sand Sea 276 Nosy Ve-Androka beach 84, 84
Sanlongsha 84, 84
Tunisian Sahara 17 Valley of the Lakes 212
Barth, Heinrich 72
bears 235
Bedouin 308 camels 75
beetles 289
Belet dune field, Titan 44, 44 Benguela Current 59, 59, 274, 276,
279
Bidibidi 325
Bigelow's monkey flower 164 billabongs 128
biological soil crusts (BSCs) 167, 167
birds 38, 212, 283 impact of temperature increases
on 370-1
Biskra 24 bison 264, 265, 266, 267
black rhinos 176, 176
blowout penstemon 267
blowouts 266, 266 blue agave 382
blue wildebeest 37
Bodélé Depression 84, 85 dust-source regions 86, 86-7, 87
dust storms 136
Bonneville, Lake 256, 256, 257
Bonneville Salt Flats 256, 256 borehole water 319
Boteti River 152, <i>152</i> -3
Botswana 191, 219, 319
Botucatu Desert 104-5, 104, 105 boundary layer 180
Brandberg 296, 373, 375
Brandt's vole 235 Brasilichnium elusivum 105
Breed, Carol 82

```
British Army 76, 78
Bromus rubens 160
BSCs (biological soil crusts) 167, 167
Buckland, Catherine 382
buffalo 336
buffelgrass 160
Burchell's zebra 153
Burt, William 75
bushman grass 172
Bushmen 191
C4 photosynthesis 170-3, 175, 382
Caatinga 52
cacti 162, 163-4, 382, 383, 383
cactus wren 371
Calanscio Sand Sea 99
Calendulauda erythrochlamys 283
CAM (Crassulacean acid
      metabolism) 170-3, 382
Camanchaca 58-9
camels 74, 230, 241
   Bactrian camels 54, 231, 232-4, 233
   Bedouin camel trains 75
   caravans 75, 144, 145, 145, 202, 202,
      203
   cold adaptations 232-4
drought adaptation 178
   Gobi Desert 211
wild camels 237
Campbell, Sir Malcolm 256, 256
Camponotus detritus 283
Campylorhynchus brunneicapillus
371
Canada
Dust Bowl 334
Prairies 55, 55, 252
canals 326, 382
Canary Islands, causes of dryness
in 58,59
Canning, Alfred 10
Canyonlands National Park 167
canyons, slot 128
Caprivi Strip 116
carbon dioxide
   atmospheric 358, 361, 368
   photosynthesis 170, 172, 173, 286
Cascade Mountains 56, 252
Caspian Sea 199, 221
Cassidy, Butch 251, 251
Cassini spacecraft 43, 44 cattle 230, 233, 235, 241, 266, 267
Caucasus Mountains 57
Cenchrus ciliaris 160
Central Arizona Project 333
Central Asia 48, 188, 195, 197
   Aral Sea 326-9
   Central Asian desert landscapes
198-9
   Central Asian Internal Drainage
      Basin 210
   continentality and 54 dzud 201, 224
   earthquakes 229
   natural resources 219
Silk Road 203
   wildlife 237
   see also individual countries and
deserts
Central Kalahari Game Reserve
      150, 150
Cerastes gasperettii 180
Cerrado 52, 53
Chad 141
Chad Basin 81, 91, 99
   Bodélé Depression 84, 85, 86, 86-7, 87, 136
Changtang 196
Channel Country, Australia 126, 135
channels 127-8, 130, 134
Chasmistes cujus 259
Chicama 24
Chihuahuan Desert 252
   causes of dryness in 50, 56 climate 255
   diversity of 31
   natural resources 219
China
   agriculture 201
   causes of dryness in 48
   desertification in 337, 346-7
   fastest-moving dunes 84, 84
```

Altai Mountains 210, 211 Altiplano Desert 214, 270-3

35, 36

ammonium 166

ana tree 38

salt lakes 272, 272, 273 altitude, effect on temperature

Amu Darya River 197, 201, 326, 327

Station, Antarctica 60, 61

Amundsen-Scott South Pole

British Antarctic Survey 60

Great Green Wall scheme 348-9, 348	Darfur Megalake 92, 93 Darvaza Crater 197, 197	causes of 48-59 continentality 54-5	Eragrostis lehmanniana 160 Erg Chebbi 130
natural resources 219	Darwin, Charles 103	driest places on Earth 24-5	ergs 131, 142, 143, <i>14</i> 3
Silk Road 202, 203, 204	Dasht-e Kavir 29	mapping 32-5	Eritrea 141, 142
wind-eroded forms 131	Daurian pika 235	measuring 32	erosion
see also individual deserts	Davis, W. M. 126	ocean-margin deserts 48, 50,	water erosion 126-31, 127, 214,
Chincorro culture 285, 285 chlorophyll 373	Dead Sea 332 Death Valley 210, 254, 262-3	58-9 rain shadow deserts 56-7	216, 338 wind erosion 43, 43, 95, 214,
Chobe River 148, 151, 152	air temperatures in 26, 26	see also aridity	216-17, 247, 300, 338
Chotts Megalake 93, 93, 94	Devil's Golf Course 261	du Toit, Alexander 80	Ethiopia 26, 141, 142, 143
chromatogram fingerprints 374,	lowest temperatures in 27	Dubai 8, 8, 324	drought 124
375	deel 241	dune grass 169	dryness of 49
Chuquicamata copper mine 284, 284	DEMs (digital elevation models) 85, 91, 92, 94, 96-7, 99	dunes 20 Antarctica 62-3	refugees from 325 Euphorbia 177, 179, 296-8
cities 320-5, 326	Denham, Dixon 72	barchan 17, 44, 45, 62, 63, 84, 84,	E. damarana 176, 176, 177, 177,
Citrullus colocynthis 179	desert kites 66, 188-9	85, 212, 276	372-5
Clapperton, Hugh 72	Desert Sunlight Solar Farm 378	circular 109, 109	E. gregaria 176
clean energy 376-9 Clifton, Lake <i>1</i> 56-7	Desert Survey Department 76 Desertec 376	complex 85	E. gummifera 176 Evans, J. Sunny 181
climate	desertification 9, 338-51, 376, 382	crescentic 85 dune activity 81, 81	evaporation 32, 155, 256, 263, 338-9
animal and plant adaptation	in China 337	dune fields 29, 264-7	expansion, desert 364-7
36-7	tackling 348-51	fastest-moving on Earth 84, 85	exploration, mapping deserts from
desert climate extremes 24-7	Desertification Control Bulletin 339	formation of 57, 130-1	70-3
variety of dryland climates 36-7 climate change 356-83	deserts boundaries 18-19, 20, 340	fossilized 102-5, 106, <i>116</i> , 118 largest dune field 264-7	extinctions, megafaunal 120–3 extremes
CAM and C4 adaptations 170, 170	classification of 60	linear 84, 85, 104, 116, 277	continental deserts 222-9
coping with changing deserts	continental deserts 192-241	mapping and monitoring 82-5	desert climate extremes 24-7,
376-81	as dead habitats 38-9	Martian dunes 42, 43, 43, 44,	200-1
declining <i>Euphorbia</i> populations	definition of 18-21, 22-45	44-5, 62, 106-7, 107, 108, 109, 109	extreme events 132-7, 222-9
372-5 expanding and shrinking	desert land-shaping 126-31 deserts on the move 100-37	most extensive on Earth 52 Namib sand sea 58	Eyre, Edward John 120 Eyre, Lake 118-19, 120, 122-3, 126, 128
deserts 347, 364-7	expanding and shrinking 364-7	nebkha dunes 131	Ey10, Eak0 110 13, 120, 122 3, 120, 120
extreme events and 133	mapping 64-99	parabolic 85, 131	F
fog-dependent habitats 289	predicting and modelling future	planetary dunes 42, 43, 44-5	Faidherbia albida 38
measuring future dryland ecological change 368-71	of 358-63 rain shadow deserts 242-67	reversing dunes 63	fairy circles 292-8, 374, 375
predicting and modelling desert	reasons for them being on Earth	shape and pattern of 131 size of 131	famine 124 fencing 309, <i>30</i> 9
and dryland futures 358-63	46-63	star 85, 108, 109, 130, 255, 276	films, images of deserts in 12-17
salt lake levels 258	subtropical deserts 138-91	whaleback 63, 131	fires, desert 158-61, 266, 358, 359
temperature increases 159, 227	see also individual deserts	Dunhuang 131	Flaming Cliffs of Bayanzag 213
cold, adaptation to the 232-41 color composite technique 87-8, 89,	diagonal arreica 244, 244 Diamantina 135	dust 130-1 dust-source regions 86-7, 86-7	flamingos 354-5, 355
90, 95, 96	digital elevation models (DEMs) 85,	dust storms 87, 88, 88-9, 132, 136-7,	floods 132, 134-7, 214, 270, 359 fluvial fans 93, 97
Colorado Plateau 57, 110, 252, 254	91, 92, 94, 96-7, 99	228-9, 335	fog 286-9
Colorado River 57, 321, 322-3, 330,	dinosaurs 213	mapping and monitoring 86-9	Camanchaca 58-9
331, 333 Comminhers 38, 30	Diprodontids 121 Djibouti 27	Dust Bowl 9, 10, 266, 267, 318, 334-7, 382	as form of hydration 25, 182, 290
Commiphora 38, 39 compasses, solar 75, 75	dormancy 36	dynamic deserts 21, 48, 57, 118, 124-5	Namib Desert 41, 179, 274, 274, 276 ocean-margin deserts 58, 270
Congo Basin 49	drainage, desert 96-7, 99, 116	Dzoosotoyn (Gurbantünggüt)	fog-basking beetle 289, 289
Connochaetes taurinus 37	drainage lines 300	Desert 54	footprints, human 95, 95
continental deserts 192-241	endorheic drainage basins 199,	dzud 222, 224-6, 226, 227, 241	fossil fuels 358, 361, 376, 379
adaptations to the cold 232-41 desert weathering 214-17	210 Drosanthemum 162-3	Dzungar (Junggar) Desert 195 Dzungarian hamster 235	fossils
extreme events 222-9	D. hispidum 163	Dzungarian namster 255	fossil dunes 116, 118 fossilized deserts 102-5, 106
great deserts of Asia 194-201	drought 25-6, 37, 226-7	E	fossilized microbials 156-7
human occupation 238-41	agricultural adaptations 382-3	Earth-atmosphere system 365	Gobi Desert 210, 213
Mongolian landscapes 208-13	desert fires and 159	Earth Summit 32, 344, 347	Fryberger, Steve 84
natural resources 218-21 pastoralism 230-1	desertification 340, 342–3 drought-adapted oryx 178–9	earthquakes 229 East Africa	Furnace Creek, air temperatures in 26, 263
the Silk Road 202-7	Dust Bowl 267, 334-7, 382	dryness of 49	future of deserts
continentality 50, 54-5	dust storm frequency 136	human occupation in 308	coping with changing deserts
Cooper Creek 126, 135	Great Basin's salt lakes 258	ecohydrological index (EI) 368-9,	376-81
Copernicus Sentinel-2 satellite 300-1	multiyear 132 rising temperatures and 359	368 ecological change, measuring	declining <i>Euphorbia</i> populations 372-5
cormorant, great 212	Sahara Desert 124-5, <i>125</i> , 132, 142	future 368-71	expanding and shrinking
cotton 312, 326	Sahel 124, 125, 132, 340	Egypt	deserts 364-7
Crassula 40	species adaptation to 377	ancient Egyptians 66-7, 67-8, 69,	measuring future dryland
Crassulacean acid metabolism (CAM) 170-3, 382	Drought Relief Service 337 dry subhumid 34, 35, 51, 52	311	ecological change 368-71
creosote bush 159	drylands	mapping deserts from motor vehicles 74, 75, 76-7	predicting and modelling desert and dryland futures 358-63
Cresques, Abraham, Catalan Atlas	animal and plant adaptation	Qattara Depression 75, 76, 140,	and aryland racares 550 ° 55
202	36-7	142	G
crocodiles, giant 121	aridity index (AI) 34, 34, 35	Sahara 144, 304	Ganga Canal 313
cubits 68 cui-ui 259	classification of 60 definition of 34	Sahara-Sahel region 141 Toshka 332, 332, 333	Gariep 27
Curiosity Rover 42, 44, 45, 107, 109,	desertification 338-51	Eifler, Douglas 181	gas 219, 221, 324, 376 Gas Chromatography-Mass
109	diversity of 28	Eifler, Maria A. 181	Spectrometry (GC-MS) 374,
currents, ocean	drought 227	El Djem 24	375
Benguela Current 59, 59, 274, 279	expansion and shrinkage of 364-7	El Niño 118, 121, 132-3, 135	gazelles 213, 237
cold-water currents 48, 50, 58, 59, 59, 196	extreme events 132-7	El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) 121	geckos 182, 377 Gehyra variegata 377
cyanobacteria 167, <i>1</i> 68–9, 290, 291,	land-use practices 37	electromagnetic radiation 85	gemsbok 179, 373
354-5	measuring future dryland	elephants, desert-adapted 38–9, 39	Genghis Khan 197, 203, 213
D	ecological change 368-71	Emi Koussi 140	Genyornis newtoni 121, 121
D Dadaab 325	of North America 252-5 predicting and modelling future	Emirates Mars Mission, <i>Hope</i> spacecraft <i>10</i> 6	Geographical Journal 80
Dallol, Danakil Desert 26	of 358-63	emu 121	gerbils 235 gers (yurts) 224, 225, 229, 230-1,
Damara milk-bush 176, 177, 177	subtropical 52	endemism, Namib Desert 280-3	238-9, 240
Damaraland 176	variety of climates 36-7	endorheic drainage basins 32, 199,	glaciers 223, 223, 246, 246-7
Danakil Desert 26	see also individual locations dryness	210 energy clean 376-9	Global Assessment of Soil
Dapper, Olfert 71 Barbaria Biledulgerid o: Libye et	atmospheric stability and 48,	energy, clean 376-9 The English Patient 17	Degradation (GLASOD) 347 global warming 133, 258, 356-83
pars Nigritarum Terra 72	50-3	Ennedi Mountains 87	g100a1 wa1111111g 133, 230, 330-63

coping with changing deserts	heat, CAM and C4 adaptations to	irrigation canals 305, 312, 313	Landsat 1 MSS imagery 82, 82, 83,
376-81 declining <i>Euphorbia</i> populations	170–3 heliostats 380	qanats 305, 307 Virgin Land Scheme 326	83, 85, 99 Landsat Thematic Mapper (TM)
372-5	Herodotus 230	Wadi ad-Dawasir 316, 316, 317	imagery 90, 92, 93, 95, 95,
expanding and shrinking deserts 364-7	heuweltjies 298, 298 hibernation 36	isolation, Namib Desert 280-3	96-7, 98 landscapes
measuring future dryland	Himalayan mountains 310, 311	J	complexity and diversity 28-31
ecological change 368-71 predicting and modelling desert	Himba people 38, 39, 39 Hindu Kush Mountains 57, 57, 229	jerboas 235	weathering of 214-17 Langbein, Walter 127, <i>127</i>
and dryland futures 358-63	Hoggar Mountains 140	Jordan, desert kites 66, 189 Joshua tree 10-11, 255	Langbein and Schumm (1958)
goats 230, 235	Holdridge, Leslie 35, 36, 38	Journal of Arid Environments 314	annual sedimentary yield
Gobi bear 235 Gobi Desert 61, 195, 208-13	hoodoos 129 Hoover Dam 321, <i>322</i> –3	Ju/'hoansi 161, 191	curve 127 Las Vegas 8, 320-1
altitude 54	Hope spacecraft 106	K	Lasiurus scindicus 178
causes of dryness 54 climate in 200, 201, 209-10	Hornemann, Friedrich 72 horses 230, 235	Kakuma 325	latitude, effect on temperature 35, 36
drought 226	Huang, Jianping 364, 366	Kalahari Basin 29, 116, 117, 118, 146-9 Kalahari Desert 116-19, <i>14</i> 6, 274,	Lawrence, T. E. 14
early map of 18	humans	300-1	Lawrence of Arabia (film) 14
frost-free days 196 Great Green Wall 349	Aboriginal Australians 174, 308 adaptations to cold 238-41	agriculture 309 borehole water 319, 319	Laycock, Dallin 84 Lehman's lovegrass 160
human occupation of 212	Arabana people 120	causes of dryness in 48, 50	Libya 74, 77, 141
lowest temperatures 27 natural resources 201, 221	city building 320-5 desert kites 188-9	channel beds 134	lichens 290-1, 349
Ordos 324	desertification 338-51	diversity of 29 endemism in 282	life zones, global 35, 36, 38 Light Car Patrols (LCPs) 74-6, 74, 75
temperatures in 27, 29, 55, 200,	early humans 184-7, 212, 304	fairy circles 292	Lima, rainfall 24, 26, 134, 135, 135
209 weathering residuals and eroded	effects of global warming on 361 Harappan civilization 311, <i>311</i> ,	Great Escarpment 281, 281	lithification 104 Lithium Triangle 219, 352-5
bedrock 198	313	human occupation <i>185</i> , 186, <i>187</i> , <i>190</i> , 191, 308	Lithops 40, 41
wildlife in 54, 213, 233, 233, 235	Himba people 38, 39, 39 human influence 302-55	Khi Solar One (KSO) 380, 380-1	L. optica 40-1
Yolyn Am 223, 223 gold trade 284	Ju/'hoansi 161, 191	mapping 80, 81 rainfall 116, 118	Little Sandy Desert 299 livestock 308, 314, 315, 319
Botswana 219	living in continental deserts	salt pans 29, 118, 154-5, <i>154</i> , <i>155</i> ,	effect of dzud on 224-6, 224, 227
Death Valley 263 Gobi Desert 201, 220-1, 221	238-41 living in hyperarid deserts	156, 256	lizards 160, 161, 180, 181, 181, 182 loess 246
Oyu Tolgoi 220-1	284-5	temperatures in 52, 360 wildfires 160, 161, <i>161</i>	Loess Plateau 129, 198-9, <i>198</i>
Sahara Desert 144, 144, 145	living in sub-tropical deserts 184-91	zebras 152-3, <i>152-3</i>	Long Range Desert Group (LRDG) 76, 77, 77
Gondwana 104, 117 Google Earth 85	Martu people 160	Kalahari Scheme 148 Kaokoveld, Damaraland 38, 39, 39	76, 77, 77 Longabaugh, Harry 251, <i>251</i>
Goudie, Andrew 300	Masai people 308	Karakorum Mountains 229	longhorn cattle 266
Govi-Altai Mountains 212, 212 Gran Desierto de Altar 255, 255	mobility and sedentarization 308-9, 376	Karakum Canal 326	Lüderitz, Namib Desert 40 Lut Desert 215
Grand Canyon 254, 254-5	Native Americans 308	Karakum Desert 54, 57, 197, <i>1</i> 97, 198, 326	causes of dryness in 50, 57
grasses 38	Navajo Nation 12	Karoo Desert 27	temperatures in 26-7, 27, 57
spinifex grass 160, 174-5, 299, 299 grassification 160	San people 134, <i>190</i> , 191, 308 Tehuelche 248-51	katabatic winds 60, 62–3 Kati Thanda <i>118–19, 126</i> , 128	yardang fields 131 Lyell, Charles 102, 103
grasslands 21	Timbisha Shoshone Native	disappearance of 120-3	M
graylag goose 212 Great American Desert 336	Americans 263 water sourcing 304-19, 320, 321	Kazakhstan 195, 197 Aral Sea 326, 328	Mabbutt, Jack 339
Great Artesian Basin 315, 315	humid desert 34	cold temperatures in 200	McAuliffe, Joseph 298
Great Basin Desert 252, 254 alluvial fans 261	Hutton, James 102 hxaro 191	Kashagan oil field 221	McKee, Edwin 82
causes of dryness in 56	hyperarid deserts 34, 35, 280, 347	see also individual deserts Kelso Dunes 181	Mackinder, Halford 195 McMurdo Station, Antarctica
climate 255	fog 286-9	Kennedy-Shaw, Bill 77	60, 61
diversity of 31 salt lakes 256, 257, 258	living in 284-5	Kenya, dryness of 49 Khangai Mountains 210, 211, 212,	Madagascar 84, 84 Madrean Sky Islands 111, <i>111</i>
temperatures in 29	I	213	Mahazat as-Sayd Protected Area
great cormorant 212 Great Dividing Range 49	Ibn Battuta 203 ice 200, 214, 246, 359	Khentii Mountains 210, 211, 213, 213	178 Makgadikgadi 146, 147, <i>14</i> 7, 148
Great Escarpment 277, 278, 281,	ichnofossils 105	Khi Solar One (KSO) 380, 380-1 Khrushchev, Nikita 326	human occupation in <i>185</i> , 186,
281, 282	al-Idrisi, Muhammad 70-1, 70	Kinahan, John 285, 304	187
Great Green Wall scheme 348–9, 348 Great Kyz Kala Palace 205	Ifrane, Morocco 27 images	Kitchen, Thomas, map of northeast Asia 18	salt flats 31, 118, <i>148</i> , 149, <i>14</i> 9 zebra in 151, 152, 153
Great Man-Made River 333	image classification 90	kites, desert 66, 188-9	Mali 141, 144, 144
Great Plains 55, 252, 318 Dust Bowl 334, 336, 337	in the popular media 12-17 Imago Mundi 67	Kizilgaha 204	mallard 212 mallow <i>132-3</i>
Sandhills 255, 264-7, 318	Inca Empire 284	klipspringers 176 Koutroulis, Aristeidis 366	mammals 38
Great Salt Lake 258	India	Kublai Khan 203	mapping deserts 64-99
Great Sand Dunes 56, 255 Great Sand Sea 76	solar energy in 379 Thar Desert 310-13	kudu 176, 373 Kufra river system 73, 99, 99	desert river systems 96-7 early maps 66-9
Great Sandy Desert, diversity in	Indira Gandhi Canal 313	Kuiseb Canyon 16	from the air 78-81
29, 30-1 greenhouse gases 358, 361	Indus River 128 infrared light 89, 90, 373	Kumtag Desert 130-1, 131 Kuwait 137	from exploration 70-3 from motor vehicles 74-7
groundwater 382	insects 38, 283, 289	Kyzylkum Desert 195, 197, 326	from space 82-5
use and impact of 314-19 Grove, Alfred Thomas ("Dick")	inselbergs 281, 288, 289	causes of dryness in 57	lakes and megalakes 90-5
80-1, 80	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) 359,	frost-free days 196 temperatures in 200	mapping dust 86-9 mapping dryness 32-5
Guanaco 249	361	-	subsurface remote sensing 98-9
gullies 129 Gutenberg, Johannes 71	International Center on Qanats and Historic Hydraulic	L	marmots 226, 235 Mars
Guthrie, Woodie 337	Structures 307	La Niña 135, <i>137</i> Laguna Mountains 252	alluvial fans 42
Н	International Institute for	Laguna Verde 273	Bagnold dune field 44, 44-5
Hadley Cell 50, <i>50</i> , 51	Environment and Development 339	Lahontan, Lake 257 Lake Eyre Yacht Club 121	desert rocks on 106-9 dunes on 42, 43, 43, 44, 44-5, 62,
Hakskeen Pan 256	Iran 195, 197	lakes, mapping 90-5	106-7, 107, 108, 109, 109
halophytes 236 halos, grass 294-5	Lut Desert 26-7, 27, 50, 57, 131, 215 qanats 305, 307	L'Amour, Louis 8	Namib Dune 109 red storm 42
hamada 142	Iraq 67	Lamprey, Hugh 340 land	Stimson formation 106-7, 107
Harappan civilization 311, 311, 313 hartebeest 150	irrigation Canadian Prairies 55	desertification 9, 337, 338-51, 376,	Mars Reconnaissance Orbiter (MRO) 44,109
Harvard University 368	center-pivot systems 318	382 land classifications 60-1	Martin, Henno 16
Hassanein, Ahmed 73	Great Plains 337	land-use practices 37	Martu people 160
Haworthia 40	groundwater resources 105, 314, 382	see also agriculture	Masai Mara Desert 37 Masai people 308

Mauritania 141, 144	monitoring deserts	Naukluft Mountains 274, 276	Paleodeserts Project 95
Mazaalai 235 Mazzoni, Annamaria 316	from space 82-5	Navajo Nation 12 nebkha dunes 131	paleolakes 90-1, 93, 95 Palestine 74, 78, 78, 308, 332
media, desert images in popular	monitoring dust 86-9 monkey orange trees 161	Nebraska Sandhills 255, 264-7, 318	Pallimnarchus pollens 121
12-17	Mono Lake 259	Nefud Desert, paleolakes 95, 95	PALSAR (Phased Array L-band
Mediterranean climates 52	monsoons 54, 310, 361	Negev Desert 129, 332	Synthetic Aperture Radar)
Mega-Chad, Lake 81, 87, 90, 91, 91, 93, 94, 94, 95, 96	West African monsoon 113-14 Monte Desert 244-7	Nevada 8, 256 Las Vegas 8, 320-1	99, 99 Pamir Mountains 196, 229, 326
megafaunal extinctions 120-3	causes of dryness in 57	New Horizons mission 43	Pan-African Great Green Wall 350
Megafezzan, Lake 93, 93	temperatures in 245	Newton's thunder bird 121, 121	Panicum turgidum 178
megalakes 121, 146	Monument Valley 12, 13	Nicholas IV, Pope 203	Parker, Robert LeRoy 251, 251
Kati Thanda-Lake Eyre <i>118-19</i> , 120-3, <i>126</i> , 128	the Moon, deserts on 42 Moremi Game Reserve 152	Nicolas the German, Lord 68-9 Niger 141	particulate matter (PM) 228 pastoralism 230-1, 241, 348, 349
Lake Mega-Chad 81, 87, 90, 91, 91,	Morocco 141	Niger River 143, 145	Patagonia 244-7
93, 94, 94, 95, 96	natural resources 219	Nigeria, dunes in 80, 81	rainfall 245
mapping 90-5	plant diversity 40	Nile, River 115, 115, 141, 142-3	Tehuelche and Y Wladfa 248-51
Sahara megalakes 91, 92-5 Meigs, Peveril 60	solar power 381 morphometric analysis 82, 84	Niobrara Valley Preserve 264 nitrogen 166, 168	Patagonian Desert, causes of dryness in 57
Meroles anchietae 181	motor vehicles, mapping deserts	nomads 230-1, 240-1	pathogens 168
M. cuneirostris 182	from 74-7	Normalized Difference Vegetation	patterns, desert 292-301
mesembs 40	mountains	Index (NDVI) 124, 124	Penman-Monteith method 32
Mexico Dust Bowl 334	effect on landforms 57 and rain shadow deserts 56-7	North Africa 25, 28, 115, 185 climate 113, 114	Penstemon haydenii 267 peripheral belts 294-5
temperatures in 52	Mu Us Desert 195	early maps 70-1	permafrost 227
microbialites 156-7	Multispectral Scanner (MSS) 82,	megalakes 93, 93	PET (potential evapotranspiration)
Microhodotermes viator 298	82, 83, 83, 85, 99	qanats 305	32, 34, 35, 36
Middleton, Nick 347 migration 150-3, 240-1, 309, 376	Münster, Sebastian 71 Muyunkum Desert 195	trade in 145 see also individual countries and	Petraglia, Michael 95 petroleum 219
animal 189, 225, 227, 230, 237	Widy difficult Desert 195	deserts	PGPR (plant growth-promoting
human 184, 185	N	North America	rhizobacteria) 166, 168
milk-bush 176, 177, 177	Nachtigal, Gustav 73	continentality and 54, 55	Phased Array L-band Synthetic
declining populations 372-5	Namaqualand	drylands of 252-5	Aperture Radar (PALSAR)
and fairy circles 296-8 Mimulus bigelovei 164	plant poaching 41 plantlife in 40, 41	Dust Bowl 9, 10, 266, 267, 318, 334-7, 382	99, 99 photosynthesis
M. mohavensis 164	Namib Desert 17, 19, 274-7	dust-source regions 86, 86-7	CAM and C4 photosynthesis
mineral dust 136, 136	age of 278	human occupation 308	170-3, 175, 382
mineral resources 218-21, 284-5,	archaeological sites 11, 285	indigenous peoples 10	lichens 290, 291
308, 324 lithium 352-5	bushman grass 172 causes of dryness in 48, 58, 59	rain shadow deserts 56-7 temperatures 29	piosphere effects 319, 319 Plains of Saskatchewan 55
mining 221, 228, 314	fairy circles 292-8	see also individual locations and	planets
coal 324	fog in 58, 274, 274, 276, 286-9, 290	deserts	deserts on 42-5
controversy and impact of 227,	Great Escarpment 281, 281	Nosy Ve-Androka 84, 84	planetary dunes 43, 44-5
231 copper 284	human occupation of 284-5	Novoiy region, Uzbekistan 37 Nullabor Plain 9, 29	plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) 166, 168
Death Valley 263	hyperaridity 284-5 isolation and endemism in	Nxai Pan National Park 152	plants
gold 144, <i>144</i> , 145, 201, 219, 220-1,	280-3		CAM and C4 adaptations 170-3,
221, 263, 284	Kuiseb Canyon 16	0	175, 382
lithium 219, 353, 354-5	Namib Sand Sea 58, 82, 179, 276,	oases 145, 314	chromatogram fingerprints 374, 375
mobility 308–9, 376 Moçâmedes Desert 274	276, 277, 279, 279, 285, 287, 304 natural resources 284	ocean currents 48, 50, 58, 59, 59, 196 ocean-margin deserts 48, 50, 58-9,	cold adaptations 236-7
modelling, desert and dryland	plants in 40, 281, 282, 286, 288-9,	268-301	dryland adaptation 36-7
futures 358-63	373, 375	antelope and lichens 290-1	effect of higher levels of
Moderate Resolution Imaging	precipitation in 25	Atacama and the Altiplano-	atmospheric CO2 368, 368,
Spectrometer 88-9 Mojave Desert 10-11, 159-60, 252	temperatures 276 wildlife in 176, <i>1</i> 76, 179, 181, <i>181</i> ,	Puna 270–3 coastal deserts of southwestern	369, 369 monitoring climate change 373,
alluvial fans 261	289, 290-1	Africa 274-7	373, 375
causes of dryness in 56	Namib dune, Mars 44, 44–5, 109	fog 286-9	Namib Desert 280, 281, 282, 283
Death Valley 26, 26, 27, 210, 254,	Namib-Naukluft National Park 375	hyperaridity 284-9	poaching 41
261, 262-3 diversity of 31	Namib sand gecko 182 Namibia 104, 191, 274, 369	isolation and endemism in the Namib Desert 280-3	rhizosphere formation 166-9 succulents 38, 40-1, 162-4, 165,
Las Vegas 320-1	endemism in 280-3	patterns in the desert 292-301	165, 172, 288, 382, 383, 383
rainfall 255	salt pans 157	world's oldest deserts 278-9	survival in subtropical deserts
salt lakes 256	tiger bush 301	Ogallala Aquifer 265, 318, 318	162-5
solar and wind energy 378, 378-9 Mojave fringe-toed lizard 181	wildlife in 38, 280-3	oil 219, 221, 316, 324, 376	transpiration 32, 163, 286 water loss and retention 162-3,
Mojave monkey flower 164	see also Namib Desert Namibian dune ant 283	Okavango Delta 116, 118, <i>14</i> 6, 149, 151 Okavango River 146, 148, 149, 152	165, 168
mole rats 298	Namibian dune lark 283	olivine 107	see also individual species
Molopo River 154	Namibian oryx 179	Ondaatje, Michael 17	playas 29
Mongolia 208-13 camels 234, 241	nanofibers 175	127 Hours 16	Pluto, dunes on 42, 43 poaching, plants 41
climate 222	NASA Cassini spacecraft 43, 44	Onymacris unguicularis 289, 289 Opportunity rover 108	Polo, Marco 194, 203
cold adaptations 238–40	Curiosity Rover 42, 44, 45, 107,	Opuntia ficus-indica 382, 383, 383	Pontic Mountains 57
daily temperature ranges 200	109, <i>1</i> 09	Orange River 31, 128, <i>150</i> , 154, 276,	popular media, desert images in
desertification 348, 349 drought 227	Landsat TM 90, 92, 93, 95, 95,	380	12-17 porcupines 176
dust storms 228-9, 228	96-7, 98 Landsat 1 MSS imagery 82, <i>82</i> ,	Ordos Desert 195, 324 orogeny 56	Portulacaria afra 170
	83, 83, 85, 99	oryx 176, 290, 373	potential evapotranspiration (PET)
dzud 201, 224-6, 224, 227, 241	Mars Reconnaissance Orbiter	drought-adapted oryx 178-9	32, 34, 35, 36
earthquakes 229 extreme events 222	(MRO) 44, 109	Oryx dammah 179	precipitation 26, 34 in Antarctica 60
gers 238-9, 240	New Horizons mission 43 Opportunity rover 108	O. gazella 179 O. leucoryx 178-9	Asian deserts 201
horses 235	Shuttle Radar Topography	otjize 39	driest places on Earth 24-5
livestock and herding 224-6, 227,	Mission (SRTM) 85	Oudney, Walter 72	drought and 226
240-1	Native Americans 308	Outback 16	effect of climate change on
natural resources 219, 220–1, 221, 227	Timbisha Shoshone Native Americans 263	Owen, Lewis 248 Owens Lake 258-9, 258-9	361-3, 362 interannual precipitation
pastoralism 231, 241	natural resources 218-21, 227, 308,	○ WC110 Harc 200 3, 200-3	variability 36, 37
temperatures in 227, 232, 238-9	324	P	on land 54
wildlife 237	gold 144, <i>144</i> , 145, 201, 219, 220-1,	Pachydactylus rangei 182	low levels as cause of dryness
wind energy 221 monkey flower	263, 284 lithium 219, 352-5	Pakistan Thal Desert 310, 311	48-9 mean precipitation 24
Bigelow's monkey flower 164	Nature Climate Change 364	Thal Desert <i>310</i> , 311 Thar Desert 310, 313	measuring 32
Mojave monkey flower 164	Nature Communications 370	palaeodunes 104	monsoons 54, 310, 361

googanal variation 12/1/2//	DlM	-: £121	golov composes 75 75
seasonal variation 124, <i>124</i> see also rainfall	Rocky Mountains 56, 252, 255, 264 rodents 235	size of 131 star 85, <i>108</i> , 109, <i>130</i> , <i>255</i> , 276	solar compasses 75, 75 solar power 376, 378-81, 378-9
prickly pear 162, 382, 383, 383	Rohlfs, Friedrich 73	whaleback 63, 131	Khi Solar One (KSO) 380, 380-1
pristine desert 8	Rub' Al Khali (Empty Quarter) 178,	sand monitor lizards 160	ten largest power plants 379
Ptolemy, Claudius 203	316, 316, 317	sand seas 131, 142, 143, 143	solar radiation 196
world map 68-9, 69, 70, 71	dune sand sea 31	Sandhills 255, 264-7, 318	and evaporation 32
pulsating deserts 112-15	Ruschia 162-3	Sanlongsha dune field 84	Son, Paul van 376
Puna 270	S	sapropels 115	Sonoran Desert 110-11, 159-60, 252
Punta Piccolo 115 Pyramid Lake 259		Sarir Dalmah 99 satellite imagery 82-5, 86, 300	bushfires 158 causes of dryness in 50, 58, 59
1 yrannid Lake 259	sacrifice zone 319, <i>319</i> saguaro 110, 159, 255	desert river systems 96-7	diversity of 31
Q	Sahara Desert 35, 52-3	electromagnetic radiation 98-9	natural resources 219
Qaidam Basin 27	anatomy of 140-3	mapping lakes and megalakes	plant and animal species 110, 111,
qanats 304-7, 308	barrier vs opportunity 144-5	90-5	255
Qatar 2022 World Cup 325, 325	causes of dryness in 48, 50, 56	mapping and monitoring dust	rainfall 110
Qattara Depression 75, 76, 140, 142	continentality and 54	86-9	temperatures in 27
quiver tree 40,41	desertification 340-1, 341	monitoring climate change 373,	South Africa 191
D	diversity of 28-9	<i>373</i> , 375 Satluj River 313	Khi Solar One (KSO) 380, 380-1 South America
R radar interferometry 85	droughts in 124-5, <i>125</i> , 132, 142 dunes <i>20</i>	Saudi Arabia	climate of arid zones 271, 271
radiation 113, 114	dust-source regions 86, 86-7,	desert kites 66	dust-source regions 86, 86-7, 88
railways 9	87-8, 88-9	irrigation systems 316	fossilized deserts 104
rain shadow deserts 56-7, 242-67,	dust storms 136	paleolakes 97	ocean-margin deserts 270–3, 274
270	Great Man-Made River 333	savannas, sub-tropical 50-3	Patagonia and the Monte 244-7
alluvial fans 260-1	human occupation 184, 184	saxaul trees 236, 237	rain shadow deserts 56-7
Death Valley 262-3	lowest temperatures in 27	Schumm, Stanley 127, <i>127</i> Schutte, Christiaan 292, 293	see also individual locations South Atlantic Gyre 59
drylands of North America	mapping 66-77, 80-1, <i>81</i> megalakes 91, 92-5	Schwarz, Ernest Hubert 148	South Dakota 129
252–5 largest dune field 264–7	mountains in 28	scimitar oryx 179	space, mapping and monitoring
Patagonia and the Monte 244-7	natural resources 219	Scotland, deserts in 102-3	deserts from 82-5
salt lakes 256-9	Pan-African Great Green Wall	seasonal variation 124, 124	Spain 342-3
the Tehuelche and Y Wladfa	350	sedentarization 308-9, 376	spekboom 170
248-51	pulsating nature of 112-15, 112, 114	sediment 42, 57	spinifex grass 160, 174-5, 299, 299
rain shadow effect 50, 196	rainfall 25, 124, 124, 125, 361, 362	alluvial fans 260-1, 260	spinifex grass resin 174-5, 175
rainfall 26, 150, 162, 382	rock art 66	Loess Plateau 198, 198	springbok 150, 176, 176, 290, 373
in Antarctica 60	Sahara-Sahel region 141, 142	mapping 91	springs 29, 145 Sputnik Planitia dune field, Pluto
badlands 129	sand seas 142, 143, <i>143</i> Selima Sand Sheet 98-9, 98, 99	movement of by water 127, <i>127</i> , 128	43
on desert margins 124 driest places on Earth 24-5	solar power 221, 381	movement of by wind 58, 60, 95	Star Wars: Episode I—The Phantom
effect of climate change on	temperatures in 51-2, 360	ocean 114, 114, 115	Menace 17
361-3, 362	trade routes 68, 71, 144-5	sand dune formation 130-1	Steinbeck, John 337
extreme desert rainfall events	West African monsoon 113-14	whaleback dunes 63	Stimson formation, Mars 106-7, 107
24,159	Sahel 124-5, 376	Selima Sand Sheet 98-9, 98, 99	Stipa 236
floods and flooding 132, 134-7,	desertification 350	semiarid deserts 34, 51, 52, 127, 142	Stipagrostis 172, 178
214, 270, 359	ergs 143	semideserts 52	stomata 165, 165, 172, 173, 286
interannual precipitation	drought 124, 125, 132, 340	Senegalia senegal 350, 351 Senussi 74	storms 228
variability 36, 37	rainfall 361	Serengeti, diversity of 29	dust storms 87, 88, 88-9, 132, 136-7, 228-9, 335
Kalahari Desert 116, 118	Sahara-Sahel region 141, 142 wildlife in 179	serir 142	stripes, desert 300-1, 300-1
and land-shaping 127-8 mean precipitation 24	Saiga antelope 237	Shantz, Homer 37	stromatolites 156
monsoons 54, 310, 361	Salar de Uyuni 29, 272, 272, 273, 353	sheep 230, 233, 235	Strychnos spinosa 161
and rain shadow deserts 56	Salsola 236	argali sheep 226, 237	Strzelecki Desert 121
Sahara Desert 124, 124, 125	salt 236	The Sheltering Desert 16	"A Study of Global Sand Seas" (1979)
seasonal variation 124, 124	salt trade 144, <i>144</i> , 145	shovel-snouted lizards 181, 181,	82, 83, 83
Sonoran Desert 110	salt lakes/flats and pans 29, 57,	182-3	Stülpnagel, Johann Friedrich
Thar Desert 310	256-9	shrinkage, desert 364-7	von 73 Sturt, Charles 121
West African monsoon 113-14	Altiplano-Puna 272, 272, 273 Atacama Desert 272, 272, 273	shrubs 38 plastic shrubs 337	subsurface remote sensing 98-9
rainforests 136 deserts beneath 104-5	Kalahari Desert 118, 154-7	Shuttle Imaging Radar-A (SIR-A)	subtropical deserts 50-3, 138-91
Ralson, Aron 16	Great Basin 256-9	project 98-9, 98	anatomy of 140-3
Ramesses IV 67	Kati Thanda-Lake Eyre 120	Shuttle Radar Topography Mission	animal adaptations 176-83
Ramsar Sites 212	lithium supply 219, 352-5, 352,	(SRTM) 85	Australian spinifex grasses 174-5
red brome 160	353	Siccar Point, Scotland 102-3, 102,	CAM and C4 adaptations to heat
Red Sea 99, 141, 332	Makgadikgadi 31, 118, <i>148</i> , 149, <i>14</i> 9	103	and water stress 170-3
refugee camps 325	Mojave Desert 356-9	Side Looking Synthetic Aperture Radar 98	delta in the desert 146-9
reg 142	Salton Sea 330-1	Sierra Madre 56, 252	desert fires 158-61 desert kites 188-9
remote sensing, satellite 82-5, 86,	Salton Sink 330 San people 134, <i>190</i> , 191, 308	Sierra Nevada 56, 110, 252	drought-adapted oryx 178-9
300 desert river systems 96-7	quiver tree 41	Sikkim 206-7	early humans 184-7
electromagnetic radiation 98-9	sand dunes 20	Silk Road 202-7	human occupation 184-91
mapping lakes and megalakes	Antarctica 62-3	Simpson Desert	migrations 150-3
90-5	barchan 17, 44, 45, 62, 63, 84, 84,	expeditions in 121	plant survival in 162-5
mapping and monitoring dust	85, 212, 276	temperatures in 159	reptiles 180-3
86-9	circular 109, 109	wildfires 159	rhizosphere formation 166-9 Sahara 140-5
monitoring climate change 373,	complex 85	Sinatra, Frank 330 sip well method 134	salt pans 154-7
373, 375	crescentic 85 dune activity 81, <i>81</i>	SIR-A (Shuttle Imaging Radar-A)	temperatures 51-2
paleolakes 90 reptiles 38, 180-3	dune fields 29, 264-7	project 98-9, 98	what causes dryness in 48
reversing dunes 63	fastest-moving on Earth 84, 85	Siwa Oasis 76, 77	see also individual deserts
rhinos, black 176, 176	formation of 57, 130-1	Skeleton Coast 38, 39, 276	Succulent Karoo ecoregion 40,
Rhizobium 166, 168	fossilized 102-5, 106, 116, 118	slopes 127-8	298, 298
rhizosphere formation 166-9	largest dune field 264-7	slot canyons 128	succulents 38, 40-1, 162-4, 288
Richthofen, Ferdinand von 203	linear 84, 85, 104, 116, 277	Smith, Jonathan 84	cultivation of 382, 383, 383
rivers 33, 128	mapping and monitoring 82-5	snakes 180, 180, 182, 265 snow 37, 224, 228, 238, 240	water retention 162–3, 165, <i>165</i> , 172
areic areas 32	Martian dunes 42, 43, 43, 44, 44–5, 62, 106–7, 107, 108, 109, 109	Antarctica 60, 63, 63	see individual species
desert river systems 96-7, 98, 99, 99	most extensive on Earth 52	continental deserts 55	Sudan 141
endorheic areas 32	Namib sand sea 58	Gobi Desert 61, 200	dryness of 49
Kalahari Basin 146, 147, 148, 149	nebkha dunes 131	as water resource 233	Sahara 141
mountain-sourced 57	parabolic 85, 131	snow leopards 237, 237	Sahel region 179
Sahara Desert 142-3	planetary dunes 42, 43, 44-5	soil, desert 167	Tokar Delta 136
see also individual rivers	reversing dunes 63	soil erosion 9, 160, 376	Sundance Kid 251, 251
rock pools 29	shape and pattern of 131	soil moisture 361, 363, 365	Sutlej River 312

erosion 126-31, 127, 214, 216, 338 Synthetic Aperture Radar sensors Tunisia 141, 358 Tunisian Sahara 17, 314 evaporation 32, 155, 338-9 Great Man-Made River 333 irrigation 55, 105, 307, *312*, 313, Svr Darva River 201 Turin Papyrus 67-8 Syria, causes of dryness in 57 Turkana Basin 49 Turkana Jet 49 314, 316, 316, 317, 318, 326, 337, Turkey, causes of dryness in 57 Turpan Depression 196 Tushka Megalake 93 382 Tabula Rogeriana 70, 70-1 TADS (Trans-African Drainage plants and water loss and retention 162-3, 165, 168 System) 99 Twyfelfontein 292, 292 qanats 304-7, 308 Salton Sea 330-1 sourcing 304-19, 320, 321, 326-33 surface water 59, 116, 150, 151, 153, Tafilalt, Morocco 52 Tynan, Aidan 18 Tajikistan 197 dryness in 57, 57 162, 210, 265 Toshka 332, 332, 333 Taklamakan Desert 195, 196 UK Directorate of Overseas altitude 54 Surveys 80 use and impact of groundwater in deserts and drylands 314ancient settlements in 320 sand seas 198 Ulaantaiga Bio Reserve 201 Uluru 16, 16 temperatures in 55 Uma scoparia 181 19 Tarim Depression 229 Taurus Mountains 57 water loss 32 UNESCO (United Nations waterholes 128 Educational Scientific and tectonics 126 Cultural Organization) 60 Wayne, John 12, 12 weathering, desert 214-17 wedge-snouted lizard 182 Bukara 203 Flaming Cliffs of Bayanzag 213 Namib Sand Sea 285 Tehuelche 248-51 temperature adaptations to the cold 232-41 Welland, Michael 18, 19 Welwitschia mirabilis 280, 281, 282, 283, 286, 287, 288 Western Desert, Egypt 76, 77 whaleback dunes 63, 131 Asian deserts 200 Silk Road 203, 205 effect of climate change on global 359-61, 359, 360 Wadi Rum 14 uniformitarianism 102-3 effect of latitude and altitude on Union Defense Airforce 80 White Nile 143 White Nile Megalake 92, 93 United Nations 201 highest recorded 24-5, 26-7 impact of increased Aral Sea 329 aridity index (AI) 32, 35 Wilber, Charles Dana 336 temperatures on birds 370-1 wild melon 179 dzud 224 wildebeest 150, *150* wildfires 158-61, 358, 359 large day-night contrasts 24 Environment Programme 60 lowest recorded 27 measuring 26 International Year of Rangelands and Pastoralism Williams, Claud 75 and rock weathering 214-15, 214 Wilson, Ian 143 wind see also individual locations United Nations Conference on Tengger Desert 195 desertification 337, 349 on Antarctica 60 Desertification (UNCOD) 340, dune formation 126, 130-1 and dune movement 104 evaporation and windspeed 32 solar energy 379 United Nations Convention tequila 173, 382 termites 298 to Combat Desertification (UNCCD) 344, 347, 348 Patagonia and the Monte 246-7, Terra nullius 10, 10-11 United Nations Food and surface winds 50, 50, 51 Thal Desert 310 Agriculture Organization 143 Thar Desert 310-13 causes of dryness in 48, 50 wind energy 378-9 wildfires 158 United Nations Educational wind erosion 43, 43, 95, 131, 214, 216-17, 247, 300, 338 yardangs *130-1*, 131 wombats, giant 121 thermal dances 182, 182-3 Scientific and Cultural Organization see UNESCO United States of America (USA) causes of dryness in 58 theropods 105 Thomas, David 347 Thornthwaite method 32 World Atlas of Desertification 344-7 World Climate Research Programme 364 thrombolites 156, 156-7 Dust Bowl 9, 10, 266, 267, 318, Tian Shan Mountains 196, *1*96, 197, 201, 229, 326 334-7, 382 rain shadow deserts 56 World War I (1914-18) 74 Tibesti Mountains 87, 99, 99, 140, see also individual locations Wright brothers 78 140 the universe, deserts of the 42-5 Tibetan Plateau 196, 198, 208 Timbisha Shoshone Native Urwi Pan 156 U.S. Geological Survey 82, 98 Utah, Arches National Park 216–17 xerophytes 236 Americans 263 Xi Jinping, President 324 Timbuktu, Megalake 92, 92, 93 Timur 203 Uzbekistan Aral Sea 326 Titan 43 Navoly region 37 Y Wladfa 248-51 Belet dune field 44, 44 Silk Road 203 yaks 231, 232, 232, 234, 234 dunes on 42, 43 Tokar Delta 136 see also individual deserts yardangs 43, 130-1, 131, 214 Yellow (Huang) River 196, 198, 199, 201, 213 TOMS sensor 86-7, 86-7 topographic effect 50 Vachellia seyal 350 Yolyn Am 223, 223 Valley of the Lakes 212 Yukka 255 Torres del Paine National Park 249 yurts (*ger*) 224, 225, 229, 230-1, 238-9, 240 Venus, dunes on 42 Victoria Valley, Ross Island 62 Toshka 332, 332, 333 Total Ozone Mapping Spectrometer (TOMS) 86-7, Vicuna 270 Visible Infrared Imaging Radiometer 89 Z 86-7 Za'atari 325 Zambezi River 149 Toulmin, Camilla 339 volcanoes 140, *140* trace fossils 105 Trans-African Drainage System Vostock Station, Antarctica 60, 61 zebras 151, 152-3, 152-3 Vozrozhdeniya Island 328-9 Burchell's zebra 153 (TADS) 99 vulcanism 126 Zerzura Club 76-7 Trans-Australian Railway 9 transpiration 32, 163, 286 vygies 40, 162-3, 163 tree dtella 377 Wadi ad-Dawasir 316, *31*6, *317* Wadi Howar 96, 96 ana tree 38 drought-resistant 38 Wadi Rum 14, *14-15* Joshua tree 10-11, 255 wartime, mapping in 74-7, 78 Warren, Andrew 81 monkey orange tree 161 quiver tree 40, 41 saxaul tree 236, 237 water Aral Sea 326-9 Triodia 174, 175, 299, 299 borehole water 319 CAM and C4 adaptations to T. irritans 175 T. pungens 175 Tsagaan Suvarga 209 Central Arizona Project 333 Tsauchab valley 277 desalination 324 Tsondab Sandstone Formation drought-adapted wildlife 178-9

effects of global warming on 361

279, 279

Tuareg 145