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1	The Senegal River during the last millennium
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9 Abstract

10 The diatom and pollen assemblages of the upper 4.5 m of a core recovered from the bank of 11 the Senegal River upstream of St Louis (16.03 N, 16.48 W) reveal an exceptional diversity (39 12 diatom taxa from which 5 mentioned for the first time in Senegambia and 147 pollen taxa), allowing reconstruction of the environmental history of the northern Sahel over the last 13 millennium. Our study confirms that the Little Ice Age was a period of increased dryness. This 14 15 resulted in the disappearance of tropical trees that were developed in gallery forests during 16 the Holocene humid period. However, freshwater inputs from the Senegal River remained 17 constant during the whole millennium while being strongly impacted by sea level variations: 18 An episode of sea level rise, already recorded in the Ferlo river valley, led to a supply of salt waters up to 1250 CE. It was only after 1720 CE that a dramatic event occurred with the 19 massive development of marine to brackish diatoms at the expense of freshwater forms as a 20 result of the weakening of the Senegal river inputs. Increased dry conditions during the second 21 half of the 18th the 19th centuries culminating 1826 CE led to the salinization of the core site 22

with the development of *Avicennia* populations and halophilic plant species from the rearmangrove.

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26 Key words: Last millennium, Senegal river, Sea level, Diatoms, Pollen

27 Introduction

28 Since the great Sahelian drought of the 1970s, which had dramatic consequences on human 29 populations, the variability of the west African monsoon system has been the subject of 30 intense research (e.g., the AMMA project: Redelsberger et al., 2006). Instrumental data since the beginning of the 20th century at St Louis (Northern Senegal) (Gallego et al., 2015) and 31 documentary sources from earlier centuries (in e.g., Nicholson, 2001; 2012; Coquery-32 33 Vidrovitch, 1997; Kane, 2002), bear witness to this variability in reporting either exceptional 34 rainfall events at the origin of catastrophic floods in the valley of the Senegal River and its 35 tributaries or repeated dramatic dry years in the inner delta of the Niger River. This short-term (annual to decadal) climatic variability was superimposed on a slow evolution towards an 36 37 increasing drought since about 3000 years ago (Lézine et al., 2019) which led to the disappearance of most of the tropical plant species (Hély et al., 2014) and the drying up of the 38 water bodies (Lézine et al., 2011), which widely expanded throughout the Sahel and the 39 40 Sahara during the Holocene humid period.

The study of past climate variability in northern Senegal is largely hampered by the lack of permanent freshwater bodies that would allow access to continuous high resolution sedimentary series. The well-developed mangrove along the downstream sector of the Senegal River may fill this gap mainly because of the high rate of sediment accumulation in

45 such an environment. (e.g., Lézine et al., 2017). However, mangroves are extremely sensitive to local changes in their environment such as the formation of sandy banks or erosion by flood 46 events. The sediment accumulation is therefore rarely continuous and often presents 47 significant discontinuities (e.g. Médus and Monteillet, 1981). An additional difficulty comes 48 from the specific configuration of the Senegal River bed, whose level is located below the sea 49 50 level over about 250 km (Cogels and Gac, 1983). This Sahelian river was therefore regularly 51 subjected to marine water intrusion during the dry season before the Diama dam was built in 52 1985. As a consequence of this morphological configuration, sea level variations and/or 53 geoidal changes, even of very small amplitude, may have had major consequences on the river environment leading to the development of mangroves along the Senegal river banks up to 54 55 500 km upstream (Michel and Assémien, 1969) or to the presence of marine shells as far south 56 as 15.6°N in the Ferlo river (Faure et al., 1980; Monteillet et al., 1981).

Here we present the diatom and pollen records of the 4.5 upper meters of a 7 m-long core recovered in the rear mangrove from the Senegal river bank in St Louis, Senegal, at 16.03 N and 16.48 W. The goal of our study is to try to decipher the local (geomorphological) and regional (climate) signals in the evolution of the river environment during the last millennium and place them within the general context of long-term paleoenvironmental and paleoclimate reconstructions from continental (Lézine et al., 2019; Lemonnier and Lézine, in prep) and marine (Mulitza et al., 2010) records in northern Senegal and off-shore.

64 Environmental setting

The Senegal river delta lies in the semi-arid to arid Sahelian band characterized by a coastal
climate with an average temperature of 24.5°C and total precipitation of 284 mm. The Senegal

River is a 1,760 km long seasonal river with a unimodal flow regime strongly influenced by the
Atlantic monsoon rains with peak flows recorded from August to November. Since the mid1980s, this flow regime has been regulated by two dams (Manantali in Mali, Diama located
27 km upstream of St-Louis) (Figure 1).

71 The local vegetation is composed of mangrove forests. Mangroves are littoral forests which occur in the intertidal coastal plains. In Senegal, mangrove populations are poorly diverse, 72 with species distributed according to a gradient in decreasing water depth and increasing 73 74 salinity: Rhizophora racemosa requires freshwater from both rivers and summer rainfall (Spalding et al., 1997) and dominates at the mouth of the rivers where it benefits from large 75 76 muddy areas and flooding from the sea-water. It reaches here its northernmost position 77 (Trochain, 1940; Adam, 1965). Upstream from the Rhizophora zone, Avicennia germinans 78 occurs on sand banks and salty soils in irregularly submerged areas in association with 79 Paspalum vaginatum. Its high tolerance to salinity allows it to grow in desertic areas, as far north as the island of Tidra in Mauritania along the Atlantic coast of Africa (19.7°N) and further 80 north along the Red Sea or the Arabo-Persian Gulf. The rear mangrove, where salt is highly 81 82 concentrated, is characterized by the presence of various Amaranthaceae plant species and 83 rare trees (Tamarix senegalensis). At a regional scale, the vegetation surrounding the core site is of steppic, semi-desertic type with rare trees mainly Acacia sp., Balanites aegyptiaca, 84 Salvadora persica and Capparis decidua. The herbaceous cover is discontinuous with short 85 86 grasses such as Cenchrus biflorus.

87 Materials and methods

A 7 m long core was collected in November 2014 from the *Rhizophora* mangrove in the suburbs of St-Louis (16.03° N, 16.48° W) using a manual Russian corer (Jowsey, 1966). The sediment consists of sandy clay with intercalations of sand levels. Shells and shell fragments are found around 450 and 300 cm downcore. Plant debris are found in the uppermost levels (Figure 1).

93 Dating control and age model

The radiocarbon dating reveals a strong discontinuity in the sedimentary deposition around 94 95 500 cm downcore. Such a pattern is often found in fluvial environments (Medus and 96 Monteillet, 1981). As a consequence, our study has only been focused on the 450 upper centimeters corresponding to the last millennium with the base of the sequence dating back 97 to 916 CE. The time scale was obtained by fitting a 2nd-order polynomial curve to the profile 98 of calibrated ¹⁴C ages against depth (Stuiver et al., 2019) taking into consideration the 99 reservoir-age calculated off the Senegal River mouth of 511+176 BP (Ndeye, 2008) (Table 1; 100 101 Figure 2) and two additional control points at 50 cm and at the surface. Two shells fragments 102 were dated at 415.5 and 208.5 cm. As already mentioned in Lézine et al. (2019) the additional control points were given by the first occurrence of *Casuarina equisetifolia* pollen grains in our 103 104 samples the parent trees of which were planted in 1948 in the area (Ndiaye et al., 1993) and 105 by the year of sampling (2014).

106 Diatom and pollen analyses

107 The core was sampled at 10 cm interval for both diatom and pollen analyses.

108 For diatom analyses samples were processed using a standard method (Battarbee, 1986). The

residue was diluted in 20 ml of water and 2 ml was taken, then dried and fixed with Naphrax.

110 Diatom identification was based on Gasse (1986), Servant-Vildary (1978), Foged (1986), Compère (1991), Denys (1991), Krammer and Lange-Bertalot (1986, 1988, 1991a, 1991b), 111 112 Germain and Bourrelly (1981), Simonsen (1987), Carter and Denny (1981). In addition, Zanon (1941), Guermeur (1954), Amosse (1970), Leuduger-Fortmorel (1898), Ouattara et al (2000), 113 Sow (2006), Sow and Diène (2002), Sow et al. (2005; 2006a and b; 2012; 2013), Fofana et al. 114 115 (2014), Badiane et al (2016), Nguetsop et al. (2011; 2013), Lézine et al. (2019) were used to precise the ecological requirement of taxa. Thirty-nine diatoms were determined among 116 117 which 5 for the first time in Senegambia (Table 2). They correspond to four main hydrological conditions: freshwater, freshwater/salt tolerant, brackish and marine waters. Diatoms are 118 presented as percentages calculated against the sum of all the diatoms counted (Figure 3). 119

For pollen analyses samples were processed using the standard HF method described by 120 121 Faegri and Iversen (1977). After sieving in a 5 μ m mesh, the residue was stained with safranin and mounted in glycerine. Pollen identification was based on the reference slide and photo 122 collections of the LOCEAN laboratory and the Museum national d'Histoire naturelle in Paris as 123 well as on pollen atlases of tropical African flora from e.g., Maley (1970), APLF (1974), Ybert 124 125 (1979) and Bonnefille and Riollet (1980). Pollen nomenclature, which follows the standard defined by the African Pollen Database (Vincens et al., 2007), was based on Lebrun and Stork 126 (1991-2015). The pollen microflora was composed of 147 taxa. Pollen taxa were grouped 127 according to the phytogeographical and ecological affinity of the parent species following 128 129 Lézine et al. (2009) with dry tropical (including Saharan, Sahelian and Sahelo-Sudanian pollen 130 types), humid tropical (including Sudano-Sahelian, Sudanian, Sudano-Guinean and Guinean pollen types), mangrove, wet indicators, cultivated plants and undifferentiated (including 131 132 Poaceae) (Table 3). Pollen percentages were calculated against a sum excluding mangrove pollen types, wet pollen types and ferns, the percentages of which were calculated separately

against a sum including all the pollen grains and fern spores counted (Figure 4).

Both pollen and diatom data are presented under the form of percentage diagrams using Tiliasoftware (Grimm, 1991).

137 Results

138 Diatoms

The diatom content is extremely low between the base and 100 cm down core (dated 1576 CE) where less than 50 specimens in total per sample could be counted. This number reaches up to 351 in the upper meter. This explains the variability of the percentages, particularly at the base of the diagram. However, on the basis of variations in major taxa, three main zones have been distinguished.

Zone 1, from the base to 1240 CE, is characterized by the dominance of *Thalassiosira* sp associated with *Triceratium favus, Thalassiosira decipiens, Terpsinoe americana*, all marine to brackish water indicators. However, the presence of *Navicula viridula, Stauroneis anceps*, *Caloneis bacillum*, and *Eunotia flexuosa* associated with *Nitzschia acicularioïdes*, *Achnanthidium catenatum*, and *Cyclotella meneghiniana* in minor proportion suggests that the fresh water influence was also present.

Zone 2, from 1240 to 1720 CE, is typified by the disappearance of the marine taxon
 Thalassiosira sp which dominated in the preceding zone. Two sub-zones can be distinguished:
 In zone 2a, from 1240 to 1600 CE, *Cyclotella striata, C. meneghiniana, Nitzschia separanda, N. radiopunctata* and *Achnantidium catenatum* occur, suggesting that the freshwater influence

increased. In zone 2b (from 1600 to 1720 CE) this freshwater influence is confirmed by the
peak of *Navicula radiopunctata* percentages (60%).

156 Zone 3, from 1720 CE onward is characterized by disappearance of the taxa present in zone 157 2, and their replacement by Nitzschia separanda which reaches here its highest values (80%). 158 This taxon is associated with Eunotia pectinalis which regularly increases from the base of subzone 2b to the level dated 1919 CE (25%) as well as, in a lesser extent, T. decipiens. The 159 increase in Aulacoseira granulata, Thalassiosira decipiens and Diploneis subovalis in the upper 160 161 levels, allows individualization of sub-zone 3b (post-1965 CE). All this indicate a drastic change in the environment dominated by saline conditions. The great number of diatom frustules 162 163 gives a high validity to this zone, compared to the lower ones where diatoms were poorly 164 preserved.

165 Pollen

Despite its high floral richness (Table 3), low amplitude variations characterize the pollen record (Figure 4). Most of the taxa appearing only once. Two main zones can however be distinguished:

Zone 1, from 900 to 1600 CE: This zone is characterized by the presence of tropical trees from gallery forests and savannahs, among which *Uapaca, Anogeissus, Celtis, Mitragyna intermis, Alchornea*, different types of *Combretum* and *Acacia*. Although in low percentages, they are nevertheless constant. They are associated with indicator taxa of sub-desert environments such as *Suaeda, Aerva/Cornulaca*, Asteraceae. Poaceae largely dominate the spectra underlining the open nature of the environment. Within the mangrove, *Rhizophora* dominates but its percentages remain below 20% (sous-zone 1a). Ferns spores are regularly present.

At 1370 CE, sub-zone 1b differs from the previous one in that the increase in mangrove taxa (*Avicennia* and *Rhizophora*) reaches up to 39% in total. This increase is parallel to that of the herbaceous taxon *Gnaphalium*-type *luteo-album*, characteristic of the former coastal dunes (Trochain, 1940) of northern Senegal in a very open steppe environment or of the salty soils of the Saloum delta (Adam, 1958).

Zone 2 from 1600 CE onward: With the exception of *Celtis* and *Alchornea*, which are still remarkably present in sub-zone 2a (1600-1720 CE), the taxa mentioned above are decreasing or disappearing in favor of typical Sahelian taxa, in particular *Balanites*. Sub-zone 2a characterized by the maximum of mangrove and saline environment taxa. Steppe taxa (Aizoaceae, *Cassia*-type) are well represented. Sub-zone 2b (1720-2014 CE) is characterized by the decrease of the mangrove indicators and the increase of *Tamarix* indicating the drying of the regional environment.

188 Discussion

Our record gives evidence of a complex environmental history where two distinct signals are superimposed: the regional environment of northern Senegal and the littoral and river environment including the mangrove forest.

192 The regional environment

The regional environment of SL 14-01 was open and dry as shown by the dominance of Poaceae and the continuous occurrence of herbaceous plant types indicative of salt and steppic conditions (e.g., *Suaeda, Aerva/Cornulaca*). Trees were rare except *Uapaca* and *Celtis* and in a lesser extent *Syzygium* which testify for the presence of a gallery forest of humid tropical affinity in the immediate surroundings of the core site. These taxa are currently

198 common in the Sudanian and Sudano-Guinean dry forests south of 14°N. They widely extended along the shores of Guiers lake and in the Niaye interdunal depressions during the 199 200 Holocene (Lézine, 1988). As a whole tropical trees did not exceed 10% in total showing that the gallery forests were only poorly developed, having already retreated from northern 201 202 Senegal compared to their Holocene distribution (Watrin et al., 2009; Hély et al., 2014). Their 203 decrease was accentuated from 1365 EC to a minimum at 1826 EC. This evolution is coeval to that observed in the Niaye interdunal depression along the northern coast of Senegal (Lézine 204 205 et al., 2019) where a minimum of tropical trees was reached at 1845 CE (Figure 5A). The wet indicators trend recorded in SL 14-1 shows that the retreat of tropical gallery forests types 206 occurred within a period of increased drought conditions from the onset of the last 207 208 millennium, which continued during the Little Ice Age (Lézine et al., 2019). This record clearly 209 fits with the increase in dust fluxes to the ocean as reflected by the terrigenous sedimentary fraction recorded off shore in core GeoB 9501 (Mulitza et al., 2010). The slight increase of the 210 wet indicators in the uppermost levels of SL 14-1, which is coeval with a return of a woodier 211 212 environment in the Niaye area could correspond to a short period of increased monsoon rains 213 in 1869-1890 (Gallego et al., 2015). Nevertheless, humidity was not sufficient to induce a 214 recovering of the tropical humid plant types in the Senegal river valley. Contrasting with this slow evolution of the regional environment, the hydrology of the Senegal river dramatically 215 216 changed within only one century. This abrupt change is characterized by the replacement of freshwater diatom communities by almost exclusively marine ones showing that the 217 freshwater flow of the Senegal River has decreased considerably at the end of the 17th 218 219 century CE, allowing marine waters to expend upstream.

220 Saline invasion in the river bed and mangrove development

221 Abundant macro-remains and pollen grains of *Rhizophora* have been recovered in the Senegal river delta, and upstream (e.g., Médus and Monteillet, 1981; Michel and Assémien 1969-1970) 222 223 including the adjacent Guiers lake (Lézine, 1988), testifying for the wide extent of this littoral forest during the last massive marine transgression, the "Nouakchottian" around 5.5 kyrs BP. 224 Marine shells show that the influence of seawater persisted beyond this period outside the 225 226 current mangrove forest zone in the river delta even during the last millennium ((Michel et al., 1968; Faure et al., 1980; Evin et al., 1983) (Supplementary Table). Mangrove mollusk shells of 227 228 Tympanotonus fuscatus and Tagelus angulatus have been found outside their current distribution as far as the Ferlo river bed, upstream of Guiers Lake (Monteillet et al., 1981) 229 (Figure 5D). These species mainly occur today in sandy-silty areas characterized by low to 230 231 moderate energy in mangroves and rear-mangroves (Elouard and Rosso, 1977). Their presence show that a marine transgression occurred under dry climate conditions between 232 927 to 1039 CE. Our data strongly support this overall evolution of the littoral environment 233 over the last millennium: 234

235 Despite their anemophilous way of dispersion, *Rhizophora* pollen grains are known to be poorly transported outside their source zone. A Study of modern pollen deposition 236 along the Senegal river (Lézine, 1988) shows that they reach 46% within the 237 *Rhizophora* forest and decline rapidly with distance to values below 5%. The values 238 encountered during the first half of the last millennium up to 1576 BC are around 20%, 239 which indicates that *Rhizophora* was present at the study site, although at a moderate 240 density. Its wide distribution at that time is consistent with the presence of 241 mangrove/marine shells found inland, in arid areas south and north-east of St-Louis 242 243 (near Guembeul and in Lampsar/Djeuss area) (Figure 5D). The availability of

244 freshwater, crucial for Rhizophora mangrove development, is attested by the presence of freshwater diatoms such as Achnanthidium catenatum and Navicula radiopunctata, 245 and freshwater to salt-tolerant diatoms such as Nitzschia acicularioides, Cyclotella 246 meneghiniana and Discostella stelligera (Figure 5C), indicating that the Senegal river's 247 contribution was constant. The increase of Avicennia percentages at 1576 CE reveals a 248 249 dramatic environmental change with the setting of more saline conditions at the core site (Figure 5E). Dry and salty conditions are confirmed by the presence of *Gnaphalium* 250 251 *luteo-album* among the pollen types. Similarly, brackish to marine taxa dominate the diatom assemblages (Nitzschia separanda, Thalassiosira decipiens, Thalassiosira sp., 252 Eunotia pectinalis). However, Rhizophora remained present and it is only after 1782 CE 253 254 that their populations strongly declined.

The diatom record closely matches the shell record of the Ferlo river in showing the
 presence of marine and brackish taxa up to 1250 CE. We interpret this finding as
 reflecting the marine invasion related to the sea level rise event revealed by the
 mollusk shells. As a consequence, the interval of freshwater dominant diatom
 assemblage from 1275 to 1655 CE does not reflect a phase of increased humidity but
 only the retreat of the salt waters linked to the sea level lowering.

261 Conclusion

Core SL14-01 shows that the Senegal River delta has had a complex history over the past millennium. Two distinct influences were at play: (1) sea level variations induced strong ecological changes in the diatom flora. The sea level rise episode ca 900-1000 CE, already mentioned by Monteillet et al (1981) based on the study of marine shells from the Ferlo river valley, is confirmed. It is reflected by the presence of marine diatoms that mixed with

267 freshwater ones from the Senegal River at the onset of the last millennium; (2) increasing dry environmental conditions during the Little Ice Age, as already recorded further south, in the 268 269 Niaye area (Lézine et al., 2019) led to the gradual disappearance of tropical trees which widely expanded along the shores of Guiers lake (Lézine, 1998) and more widely in the Sahel and the 270 Sahara (Hély et al., 2014) during the Holocene Humid Period. Contrasting with the gradual 271 272 trend toward drier vegetation revealed by the pollen record, diatom assemblages show that the hydrological system has undergone an abrupt change, during which freshwater inputs 273 274 from the Senegal River have declined significantly, leaving the possibility for marine waters to rise at least to the core site. 275

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441 Table and Figure captions

Figure 1 : Map of the lower valley of the Senegal river including the Ferlo river and Guiers Lake. The left panel shows the location of core SL 14-01 (red dot) and sites cited in the text. Bleu dots show the marine shells testifying for the past extension of marine influence during the last millennium (Supplementary Table). The right panel shows the core SL 14-01 sediment accumulation and ¹⁴C measurements on shells and shell fragments.

447 Figure 2: Core SL 14-01 age model

Figure 3: Synthetic diagram of core SL 14-01 showing percentages of selected diatom taxa. In
grey: 10x magnification

450 Figure 4: Synthetic pollen diagram for core SL 14-01 showing selected pollen taxa. In grey: 10x
451 magnification

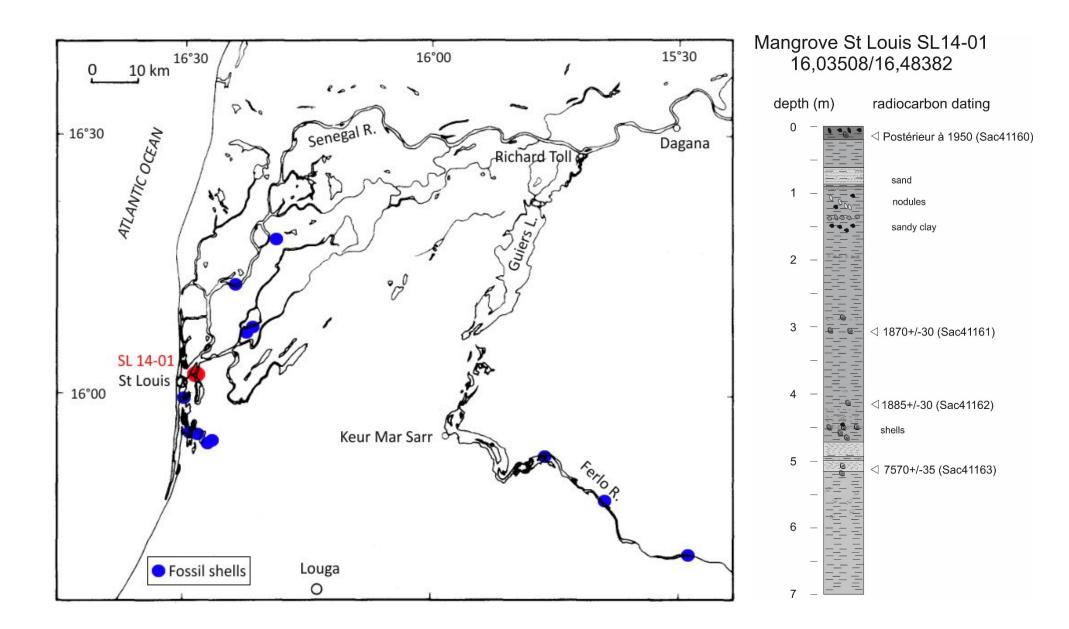
452 Figure 5: Evolution of the environment of the Senegal River over the last millennium showing in the bottom panel the regional environment with A: SL 14-01 pollen percentages of two 453 454 groups: tropical trees and local wet indicators and tropical trees Mboro Baobab (Lézine et al., 455 2019); B: the marine core GeoB 9501 terrigenous record indicative of dust transport (Mulitza et al, 2010); in the top panel the river environment with C: Synthetic diatom diagram for SL 456 457 14-01 indicating fluctuations in the three main ecological groups brackish/marine, intermediate (freshwater salt tolerant) and freshwater); D: Age of marine shells recovered in 458 the Senegal river delta (Michel et al., 1968; Faure et al., 1980; Evin et al., 1983) and Ferlo river 459 460 (Monteillet et al., 1981). In brackets, an age considered as a possible contamination by the 461 authors; E: SL 14-01 Rhizophora/Avicennia ratio illustrating the evolution of mangroves at the 462 core site.

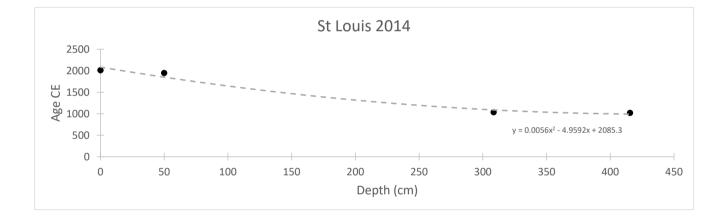
Table 1: ¹⁴C measurements and additional control points used to construct the age model of
core SL 14-01. Dating on marine shells were conducted at UMS-ARTEMIS AMS Facilities
(France).

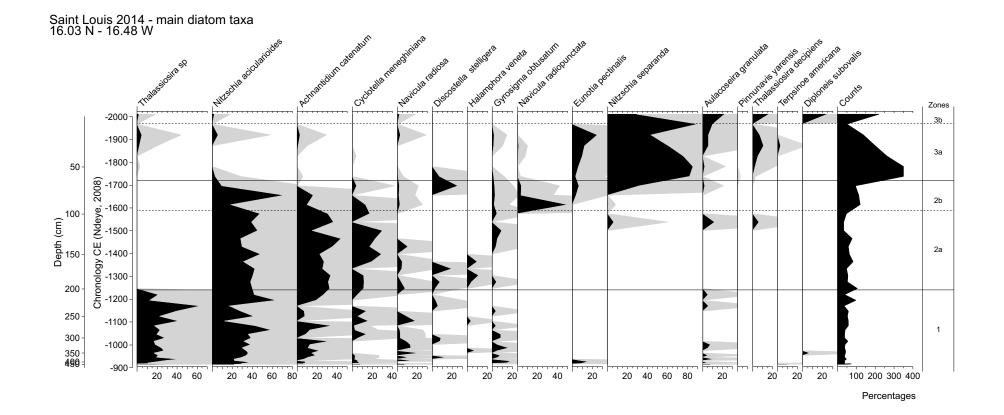
466 **Table 2:** list of diatom taxa encountered in SL 14-01 with their ecological requirements.

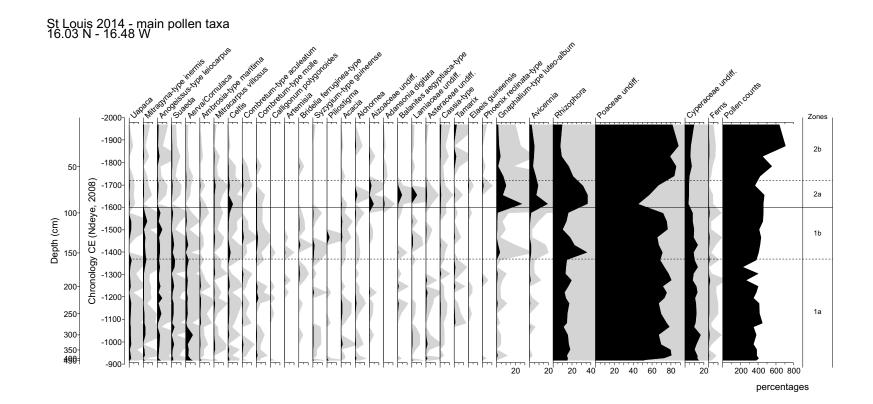
467 Table 3: list of pollen taxa recovered in SL 14-01 grouped according main
468 phytogeographical/ecological groups in western Africa. (Nomenclature from Vincens et al.,
469 2007)

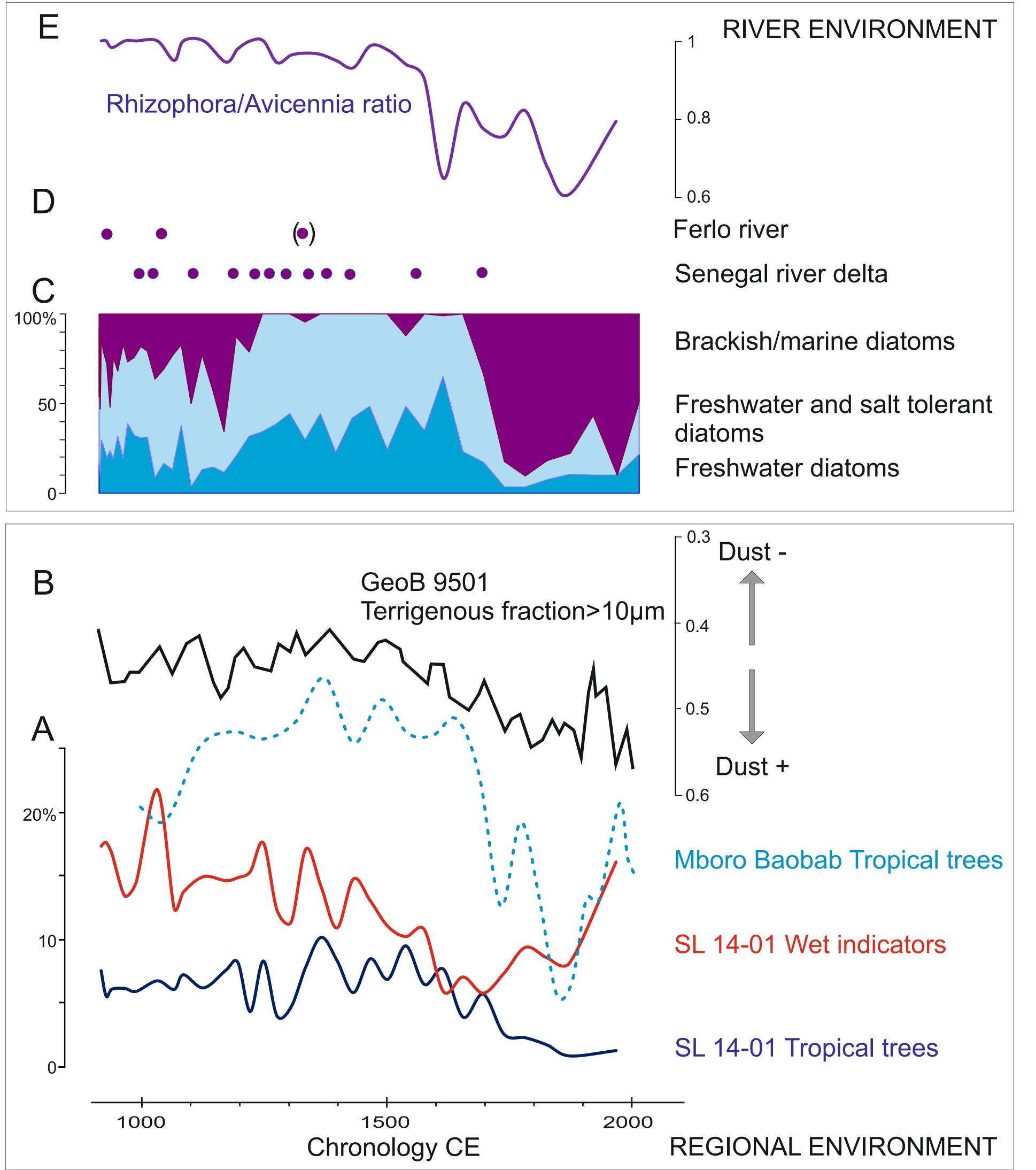
470 Supplementary Table: Littoral and mangrove shells recovered in the Senegal river delta and
471 the Ferlo river. Ages were calibrated using Stuiver et al (2019) taking into account the
472 reservoir age calculated by Ndeye (2008) off the Senegal coast.











14C measurements		∆R Ndeye 511 <u>+</u> 176 BP
Lab. Nbr.	depth (cm)	Age cal CE
SacA41161	308-309	872 - 1230
SacA41162	415-416	853 - 1214

Additional control points			
	0.5	2014	
	50	1948	

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(*) Diatom species first mentioned in Senegambia

DRY TROPICAL	HUMID TROPICAL	Heliotropium lithospermoides/Echiochilon verrucosum	Sapotaceae undiff.
Acacia	Allophylus	Hypoestes-type	Syzygium-type guineense
Achyranthes-type	Acalypha	<i>Ipomoea</i> -type	Tapinanthus-type
Adenium obesum-type	Adansonia digitata	Keetia-type cornelia	Tetracera alnifolia-type
Aerva/Cornulaca	Afzelia africana-type	Kohautia	Tiliacora-type funifera
Aerva-type javanica	Albizia-type	Lamiaceae undiff.	Treculia africana-type
Aizoaceae undiff.	Alchornea	Lepidagathis	Trilepisium-type madagascariensis
Amaranthaceae undiff.	Anacardiaceae undiff.	Lepistemon owariense-type	Uapaca
Amaranthus/Chenopodium	Anogeissus-type leiocarpus	Lotus	Zanthoxylum-type
Ambrosia-type maritima	Anthostema-type senegalense	<i>Maerua</i> -type	Zanthoxylum-type zanthoxyloides
Apiaceae undiff.	Bridelia ferruginea-type	Margaritaria discoidea	
Artemisia	Cardiospermum halicacabum-type	Matricaria-type	WET ENVIRONMENTS
Arthrocnemum macrostachyum-type	Ceiba pentandra	Mitracarpus villosus	Aeschynomene
Asteraceae undiff.	Celtis	<i>Phyla</i> -type	Azolla
Atractylis-type	Chrysobalanus icaco/Parinari	Phyllanthus-type maderaspatensis	Caperonia
Atriplex-type	Clausena anisata	Phyllanthus-type reticulatus	Ceratopteris cornuta
Balanites aegyptiaca-type	Combretaceae undiff.	Piliostigma	Cyperaceae undiff.
Brassicaceae undiff.	Combretum-type aculeatum	<i>Polycarpaea</i> -type	Lycopodium
Calligonum polygonoides	Combretum-type molle	Polygala-type	Lygodium microphyllum
Caryophyllaceae undiff.	Commelina-type benghalensis	Resedaceae undiff.	<i>Mimosa pigra-</i> type
Cassia-type	Daniellia	Rumex	Monoletes sp.
<i>Celosia</i> -type	Detarium senegalense-type	Salix	Monoletes undiff.
Centaurea-type perrottetii	Dialium	Salvadora persica-type	Nymphaea lotus-type
Cerastium-type	Elaeis guineensis	Spermacoce-type	Phoenix reclinata-type
Cichorieae undiff.	Ficus	Spermacoce-type radiata	Polycarpon-type
Cissus	Flabellaria-type paniculata	Suaeda	Polygonum senegalense- type
Cleome-type	Hymenocardia acida-type	Tamarindus-type indica	Pteris-type
Cleome-type gynandra	Isoberlinia-type	Tamarix	Ruppia maritima
Cocculus	Ixora-type brachypoda	Tribulus	Triletes undiff.
Commiphora	Lannea-type	Vangueria-type	Typha
Convolvulus-type	Lophira alata-type	Ziziphus-type	
Dichrostachys cinerea-type	Macaranga-type	UNDIFFERENTIATED	MANGROVE

Ephedra fragilis-type	Mallotus-type	Rubiaceae undiff.	Avicennia
Eriosema-type	Meliaceae undiff.	Acanthaceae undiff.	Rhizophora
Erodium	Mitragyna-type inermis	Fabaceae undiff.	CULTIVATED
Euphorbia-type	Morelia senegalensis	Mimosaceae undiff.	Anacardium occidentale
Faidherbia albida	Nauclea-type	Monocotyledoneae undiff.	Casuarina equisetifolia
Gnaphalium-type luteo- album	Pavetta	Poaceae undiff.	Citrus
Gomphrena	Prosopis-type africana	Undetermined	Parkinsonia
Grewia-type	Psydrax-type subcordata	Urticaceae undiff.	