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## Degradation of groundwater quality in expanding cities in West Africa. A case study of the unregulated shallow aquifer in Cotonou

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1 **Degradation of groundwater quality in expanding cities in West Africa. A**  
2 **case study of the unregulated shallow aquifer in Cotonou.**

3

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23

24 **Abstract**

25           In Cotonou, as in many expanding West African cities, major population growth and  
26 infrastructural development has not kept up with informal settlement development onto floodable  
27 plains and marshes. The population of the slum, which makes up about 60 % of the city's inhabitants,  
28 is highly disadvantaged and vulnerable to rising sea levels, flooding, sanitation and waste management  
29 issues. However, the risks associated with the use of contaminated shallow groundwater for domestic  
30 purposes are less recognised. Our study demonstrates that, in many instances, the cheaper option of  
31 the use of shallow groundwater from the coastal Quaternary aquifer for domestic purposes represents  
32 a significant risk for the poorer residents of Cotonou through the voluntary (drinking) or non-  
33 voluntary (dish washing, cooking) consumption of this unmonitored and untreated water resource. In  
34 the 3 neighbourhoods surveyed, environmental tracers (major ions, Cl/Br molar ratios and stable  
35 isotopes) showed that this shallow aquifer is degraded by seawater intrusion as well as septic and  
36 sewerage contamination. In particular, the higher NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations correspond to ranges associated  
37 with sewerage and septic tank effluent pollution and the major ion concentrations and  $\delta^2\text{H}-\delta^{18}\text{O}$   
38 signatures showed that high salinity values are where groundwater mixes with saline Lake Nokoue  
39 water. The population using this resource from local wells should be made aware of seasonal changes  
40 in groundwater contamination and potential health risks associated with sewerage and septic tank  
41 contamination.

42 **Key words:** Groundwater, sewerage and septic tank contamination, salinization, urbanization,  
43 recharge and discharge.

44

## 45 **1. Introduction**

46 With cities in developing countries expanding at unprecedented rates, ensuring clean water  
47 supplies for all inhabitants is becoming increasingly more challenging. This is particularly the case in  
48 more impoverished urban areas, where infrastructure development often lags behind population  
49 growth (Lapworth et al., 2017). In addition, there often exist two types of water supplies: firstly, there  
50 is the official water supply that is monitored, treated and comes at a cost for consumers; and then there  
51 is the second unregulated water supply that is often sourced from wells accessing shallow  
52 groundwater that is unmonitored, untreated but free.

53 The health risks in using the unregulated groundwater resource for domestic purposes,  
54 including drinking water supplies, is high due to water quality issues in many urban areas (e.g.  
55 Ouedraogo et al., 2016; Hassane, 2010). The same factors driving the demand for water supplies,  
56 accelerated urban growth and the expansion of informal settlements, are also significant drivers of  
57 groundwater pollution (UNESCO, 2017). One of the many threats to shallow groundwater quality in  
58 cities is from sanitary wastewater and solid waste disposal (Lu, 2015). Uncontrolled seepage of  
59 wastewater from septic tanks and human activities as well as infiltration of urban stormwater lead to  
60 groundwater contamination (Dhanasekarapandian et al., 2016). Many parts of the world are now  
61 reporting groundwater and surface water nitrate pollution issues (Roy et al. 2007; Stuart et al. 2007;  
62 Zhang et al., 2014; Ogrinc et al., 2019). For example, in the Coimbatore city, India, population  
63 growth, pit latrines and septic tanks, industrial effluents, and irrigation water return flows are the main  
64 sources of groundwater contamination (Selvakumar et al. 2017). In Florida, the proximity of wells to  
65 septic tanks contributes to increasing fecal coliform, nitrate and phosphate concentrations during wet  
66 season compared with the dry season (Arnade, 1999). Many studies have identified sewerage and  
67 latrine contamination as a significant public health issue due to the resultant presence of faecal  
68 bacteria in waters such as *Escherichia coli*, faecal *Streptococci*, *Salmonella* and *Shigella* (Boukari,  
69 1998; Odoulami et al. 2013; Yadouléton, 2015). During this study, for the first time, the seasonal  
70 variation in the contamination of waters by sewerage and latrine contamination is investigated using  
71 environmental tracers.

72 In addition, shallow groundwater resources in coastal cities are particularly vulnerable to  
73 salinity problems due to mixing with saline surface waters and seawater intrusion (Barker et al., 1998;  
74 Cary et al., 2015; Petelet-Giraud et al., 2016; Najib et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2017). For example, in Ho  
75 Chi Minh city, Vietnam, the groundwater resources are under threat due to saltwater intrusion in the  
76 shallow aquifer (Ngo et al., 2015).

77 In this study, we use the example from Cotonou, Benin, to identify processes resulting in  
78 nitrate and salinity contamination of a city's unmonitored and untreated shallow groundwater  
79 resource. The complexity of contamination processes in evolving urban environments makes it  
80 difficult to study the risks of shallow groundwater quality. This can be due to both natural seasonal  
81 shifts from climatic and environmental influences, and significant anthropogenic influences on the  
82 hydrogeological system. In this study, we analyse the distribution and concentration of major ions and  
83 stable isotopes ( $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ) to investigate the temporal variation in groundwater quality across 3  
84 sites in Cotonou. These 3 neighbourhoods were selected to represent contrasting hydrogeological  
85 environments: (i) a neighbourhood (St Jean) where there is no surface inundation; (ii) a  
86 neighbourhood (Ladji) bordering Lake Nokoué which overflows towards the end of the wet season;  
87 and (iii) a neighbourhood (Agla) located in a swamp low land and is subject to inundation during both  
88 the small and large wet seasons. In doing so, we identify hydrological conditions and seasons when  
89 groundwater is at its greatest vulnerability in terms of salinization and latrine contamination. At each  
90 site, there are wells where local inhabitants have access to unmonitored and untreated shallow  
91 groundwater for domestic consumption.

92

## 93 **2. Study Area**

94

### 95 **2.1 Location and climate**

96 The city of Cotonou is bordered by Lake Nokoué to the north, and the Atlantic Ocean to the  
97 south. The location of Cotonou and the average monthly interannual rainfall at Cotonou station from  
98 1971 to 2016 are shown in Figures 1 and 2. The topography of the city is relatively flat with an  
99 altitude varying between 0 m and 6 m (Boukari, 1998). The average annual rainfall for Cotonou is

100 1,300 mm (Yabi et al. 2006). The city's climate is characterised by 4 seasons; main dry season  
101 (average rainfall is 25 mm from mid-November to mid-March), main wet season (average rainfall is  
102 152 mm from mid-March to mid-July), small dry season (average rainfall is 55 mm in mid-July to  
103 mid-September), and small wet season (average rainfall is 75 mm from mid-September to mid-  
104 Novembre).

105

## 106 **2.2 Aquifer geology**

107 Cotonou is located in the coastal sedimentary basin comprised of Quaternary (Holocene)  
108 sediments, which include facies of the littoral plain (sands) and alluvial deposits, underlain by  
109 sediments from the Mio-Pliocene (Continental Tertiary), Paleocene and Upper Cretaceous (Maliki,  
110 1993). Previous studies by Oyédé (1991), Maliki (1993), Alidou (1994) and Boukari (1998) have  
111 described in detail the different sedimentary units of this coastal sedimentary basin and the  
112 distribution are presented in Figure 1. The shallow Quaternary sediments consist predominantly of  
113 fine to medium sands (85.5%), silts (5.5%) and clays (9%) (Oyédé, 1991). The low clay content in  
114 these sediments results in the high permeability of the shallow sandy soils (Maliki, 1993), and  
115 therefore a high vulnerability of the aquifers to the transfer of surficial pollutants. The clays in  
116 Quaternary sediments are constituted by smectite and a kaolinite content, which increases with depth.  
117 The traditional domestic wells were sampled in this study so that we could analyse the water  
118 consumed and used by local residents. However, due to the intense pumping of these wells, the  
119 fluctuations in hydraulic head are heavily influenced by pumping, therefore we were unable to use the  
120 hydraulic head data to infer subsurface flow directions. There has however been previous work that  
121 has addressed this question, the work of Maliki (1993) and Boukari (1998) focused on the piezometry  
122 of the Cotonou water table during the flood and low water periods, and the interactions with the Lake.  
123 It appears from these studies that during the flood period, there is a flow direction of groundwater  
124 from the center of Cotonou (piezometric dome) to outlets such as Lake Nokoué, the lagoon, the  
125 Atlantic Ocean and swamps. In comparison, during the low-water period it was observed that water  
126 from the Lake Nokoué flows into the groundwater aquifer

127

## 128 **2.3 Sewerage and waste**

129 The city of Cotonou has about 166,433 households and the population evaluated at 679 012  
130 inhabitants in 2013 (INSAE, 2015) and is subject to increasing urbanization. The poorer dwellings are  
131 located in the neighborhoods along the coastline, along the edges of the Cotonou Channel and Lake  
132 Nokoué, and in the swamp areas. In these neighbourhoods, solid and liquid wastes are released into  
133 the immediate environment without treatment as illustrated in the Figure 1(c). In addition, they are  
134 also scattered in various places of the city where garbage heaps have formed. 78.5% of household  
135 wastewater and 33 % of solid wastes are ejected in gardens, streets, gutters, unused wells and empty  
136 blocks (INSAE, 2016). These poorer neighborhoods are also without adequate sanitation systems. In  
137 Cotonou 64.9% of households use latrines that are reportedly leak-proof, whereas 13.5% adopt unsafe  
138 and non-hygienic practices such as stilt latrines and open defecation. Only 20.8% of the population  
139 use septic tanks, which are generally evacuated by drainage structures (INSAE, 2016). Since there are  
140 few market gardens in this heavily urbanised city, the potential sources of nitrate in the study area are  
141 predominantly from wastewater, solid waste and septic tanks. Therefore, the risk of pollutant transfers  
142 to the shallow aquifers is high in the poorer neighbourhoods because they are exposed to both (i)  
143 frequent episodes of inundation and (ii) high levels of pollutants from poorly constructed landfills and  
144 latrines.

## 145 **2.4 Groundwater quality and use**

146 Several studies have evaluated the impact of human activities on the quality of the shallow  
147 groundwater in the Cotonou region and have reported relatively high levels of nitrates (e.g. up to 100  
148 mg/L; Maliki, 1993; Boukari, 1998; Odoulami et al. 2013; Totin et al. 2013). In addition, the  
149 vulnerability of this groundwater resource is also related to its proximity to the Atlantic Ocean and the  
150 saltwater or brackish lakes (Boukari, 1998; Totin et al. 2013). Data from previous studies have shown  
151 an increase in salinity levels in groundwater near Lake Nokoué. The salinity of the Lake Nokoué also  
152 exhibits a marked seasonal cycle (0 psu during the small wet season in October and 25-30 psu at the  
153 end of the dry season) (Stephen et al. 2010; McInnis et al. 2013; Totin et al. 2013). The coastal  
154 groundwater system in Cotonou has relatively high chloride (23.6 to 160 mg/L) and sulphate (6.4 to  
155 25.7 mg/L) concentrations (Alassane et al. 2015; Nlend et al. 2018). Lake Nokoué and the Atlantic

156 Ocean are therefore a major concern in terms of the source of salinization of groundwater resources in  
157 the coastal zone (Alassane et al. 2015).

158 Due to the groundwater pollution problems, shallow groundwater is excluded from the official  
159 supply of drinking water to the city of Cotonou. However, the low rate of services to the public water  
160 supply network in the neighborhoods of peri-urban areas (51%) leads the population to use the  
161 groundwater from the shallow Quaternary aquifer for their various domestic uses (INSAE, 2016). This  
162 is despite the fact that the Quaternary aquifer is not part of the official monitoring services of the  
163 National Water Company of Benin, the only legal water distribution structure.

164 Groundwater from the shallow Quaternary aquifer, is accessed by the residents of Cotonou via  
165 large-diameter wells installed on private household property. These large-diameter wells are shallow  
166 and are designed to pump groundwater from the water table surface so as not to pump deeper saline  
167 groundwater (Maliki, 1993). The Quaternary aquifer sands have a high permeability (in the order of  
168  $10^{-2}$  to  $10^{-4}$  m/s) and locally contains fresh to brackish groundwater whose exploitation is related to the  
169 position of the lake water and seawater intrusions, and to the replenishment of freshwater lenses.

170 In Cotonou, 81% of the neighbourhoods have wells, and whilst 9% have not any water supply  
171 (no wells nor stand pipe for drinking water supply) for domestic purposes, they sometimes buy water  
172 for drinking purposes from neighbours (Houngpè et al., 2014). Furthermore, the groundwater from the  
173 large-diameter private wells is used in households for drinking, cooking, laundry, bathing and washing  
174 dishes (Yadouléton, 2015; EAA, 2018).

175 In this study, we expand on previous work to elucidate the seasonality of hydrogeological  
176 processes resulting in the contamination of groundwater from latrine waste (notably nitrate and nitrite  
177 concentrations, herein referred to as NO<sub>x</sub>) and from salinization.

178

### 179 **3. Methods**

180 Three neighbourhoods in Cotonou were selected for sampling based on differences in their  
181 hydrogeological environments: (i) St Jean, where there is no long-term surface inundation and the  
182 heavy rainfall infiltrates the soils or leaves the site via overland flow; (ii) Ladji, which is located at the



183 shore of Lake Nokoué and is inundated towards the small wet season; and (iii) Agla, which is located  
184 in a flood plain and is inundated early during both the small and large wet seasons. The locations of  
185 these three neighbourhoods and sampling sites are presented in Figure 1. In each neighbourhood,  
186 groundwater wells were selected for sampling and, where/when possible, surface water samples  
187 (permanent and temporary pools, as well as Lake Nokoué) were also included. The depths to the water  
188 table and the electrical conductivity (EC) of groundwater in the Quaternary aquifer were monitored  
189 monthly at 9 wells and 3 piezometers from each of the 3 neighbourhoods from June 2017 to June  
190 2018. The wells are separated by an average distance of ~200 m within the same neighbourhood  
191 probe.

192 The hydrochemistry of waters were analysed 6 times between November 2016 to June 2018  
193 during the months of February (main dry season), June (main wet season) and November (small wet  
194 season), resulting in a total of 127 groundwater, and 60 surface water samples. In addition, for the  
195 period from June 2017 to June 2018, 13 rainfall samples were analysed to determine water stable  
196 isotopes ( $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ). Lastly, 2 water samples from atlantic ocean (AO) were collected of the  
197 periods from January 2019 (main dry season). Groundwater was sampled from the Quaternary aquifer  
198 via the large-diameter wells. Groundwater and surface water temperature, EC, and dissolved oxygen  
199 (DO) were measured *in-situ* using a WTW 3430i portable digital multiparameter.

200 Water samples were collected for the analyses of cations (filtered at 0.45  $\mu\text{m}$  and acidified  
201 with  $\text{HNO}_3$ ), anions and stable isotopes, that were conducted at the Laboratory of Hydrogeology of the  
202 University of Avignon, France. Major ions were analysed using ion chromatography (Dionex;  
203 ICS1100 and autosampler AS-AP). Ion analysis uncertainty is in the order of 3 %, and all ionic  
204 balances were  $\leq 5$  %. The alkalinity was measured using a HACH digital titrator, and stable isotopes  
205 were analysed using a Picarro Analyser L 2130-I. For the stable isotopes of waters, the error is  $\pm 0.1\%$   
206 for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\pm 1\%$   $\delta^2\text{H}$ . The results are presented in Tables 1 and 2. The mixing ratio between lake and  
207 shallow groundwater is calculated by using stable isotopes values according to Paran et al. (2015):

$$208 \quad \delta^{18}O_m = f \cdot \delta^{18}O_L + (1 - f) \cdot \delta^{18}O_{GW}.$$

209 The same equation is used with  $\delta^2\text{H}$  to compute the  $\delta^2\text{H}_m$  mixing ratio.  $O_m$  is water sample  
210 isotope composition where groundwater (GW) and Lake (L) mixing is supposed.  $O_L$  is Lake isotope  
211 composition.  $O_{GW}$  is groundwater isotope composition and  $F$  is mixing fraction.

212 One questionnaire in each sampling site was administered, 10 per study area (Ladji, Agla and  
213 St. John). A total of thirty (30) questionnaires were administered through an interview with  
214 households in each study area. Main information such as the the source of drinking water supply,  
215 groundwater use, waste and wastewater management are mentioned in the questionnaire  
216 (supplementary data).

217

## 218 **4. Results**

### 219 **4.1 Seasonal variations of the water table and groundwater EC**

220 The monthly monitoring of the depth to water table and EC over a one-year period highlights  
221 the variations in seasonal fluctuations of the aquifers between the sites. Typical of unconfined shallow  
222 aquifers, the Quaternary aquifer shows marked spatial and seasonal variations and is in phase with the  
223 monthly rainfall. The seasonal variations of the water table and groundwater EC in each of the  
224 neighbourhoods are illustrated in Figures 3 and 5.

225 Between the neighbourhoods, St Jean has a maximum depth to water table (1.5 m at site J5)  
226 corresponding with the dry season (February) that is relatively deep compared with the depths of 1.4  
227 m and 1.0 m observed in Ladji (site L7) and Agla (site A4), respectively (Fig. 5). In addition, at 2 of  
228 the 4 sites in Agla, the negative depth values indicate that the water table is above the land surface  
229 during the wet season (thus contributing to the floods), whereas groundwater at St Jean and Ladji  
230 remains below the surface. The seasonal fluctuation amplitudes also vary. In St Jean, the maximum  
231 change between wet and dry season water table depth is of 1.2 m. Here the water table fluctuations  
232 also vary between wells. Well J5 strongly reacts to the increased rainfall in October (small wet season)  
233 whereas the deepening of the water table in wells J1 and J2 remain relatively weak (Fig. 5). These  
234 relatively low water table values can be attributed to the use of wells by households (Boukari, 1998;  
235 Kadjangaba et al., 2018). Similar to St Jean, in Ladji, the seasonal fluctuations in the water table

236 between the wet and dry seasons vary by 1.3 m (Fig. 5). In comparison, in Agla, the seasonal  
237 amplitude of the water table variation is lower (0.5 m). Since Ladji is located on the shore of Lake  
238 Nokoué, the lake fluctuations likely influence the variation of the water table depths. An increase of  
239 about 90 cm in the water table is observed at Ladji between the wet and dry seasons is consistent with  
240 the observed elevation of the lake level during the same period (IRD/IRHOB, unpublished data). The  
241 rise in water level starts in January and increases gradually to April/May, which is a 2-month time lag  
242 from Agla and St Jean.

243 With seasonal variations in the water table depth, the groundwater EC also shows varying  
244 trends (Fig. 3). In St Jean, the groundwater EC values (297-1,285  $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ ) are relatively weak  
245 compared to Agla and Ladji, and show variable seasonal changes (Fig. 3). Wells J1 and J2 recorded  
246 higher EC values in the dry season (511-1,285  $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ ) when groundwater levels were low compared  
247 with the wet season (297-799  $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ ). In comparison, the well J5 and the piezometer had higher EC  
248 values (444-1,169  $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ ) in the rainy season (rise of the water table) compared with the dry season  
249 (497-685  $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ ). In Agla, the groundwater EC ranges between 353-1,468  $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ , which is low  
250 compared with local surface waters (including temporary ponds and swamps; 2,800-2,900  $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ ). EC  
251 values are similar during the rainy season and the dry season (Fig. 3). In Ladji, the groundwater EC  
252 values are higher than in the other neighbourhoods (633-5,340  $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ ) and similar to the local  
253 temporary ponds (480-4,090  $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ ), but strongly lower than the Lake Nokoué (up to 49,700  $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$   
254 during dry season). With the exception of well L2, no difference was observed in the variation of the  
255 EC during the dry season and the rainy season (1,478-5,340  $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ ).

256

#### 257 **4.2 Seasonal variations of major ions**

258 The composition of major ion concentrations of waters is different in each of the  
259 neighbourhoods as highlighted in Figure 4. In St Jean, the groundwater is of Na-Ca-HCO<sub>3</sub>-Cl type. In  
260 comparison, the groundwater in Ladji is of Na-HCO<sub>3</sub>-Cl type, and Agla groundwater is more of the  
261 Na-Ca-HCO<sub>3</sub>-SO<sub>4</sub>-HCO<sub>3</sub> type (Fig. 4). The ponds sampled in both Ladji and Agla show some  
262 similarities in major ion compositions with local groundwater, thus indicating a potential connection  
263 between surface and subsurface waters. However, this connection is spatially and/or temporally

264 variable, in particular in Agla, since some of the pond samples have a greater concentration of  $\text{HCO}_3$   
265 relative to  $\text{Cl}$  and  $\text{SO}_4$ , and increased  $\text{Ca}$  relative to  $\text{Na}$  and  $\text{Mg}$  compared with groundwater. In  
266 addition, in Ladji, the Lake Nokoué has a greater ratio of  $\text{Cl}$  to  $\text{SO}_4$  and  $\text{HCO}_3$  compared with  
267 groundwater.

268 The temporal evolution of these major ions at each site is presented in Figure 5 and, similar to  
269 EC values, the seasonal changes vary both between sites and between neighbourhoods. Greatest  
270 seasonal variations are observed in Ladji, and particularly for groundwater sampled at L6 and L7  
271 where dry season conditions results in increases in  $\text{Na}$  (by 244-374 mg/L),  $\text{Ca}$  (by 76-81 mg/L),  $\text{Cl}$  (by  
272 301-447 mg/L) and  $\text{HCO}_3$  (by 530-622 mg/L). These sites are located between 100 to 150 m from the  
273 Lake shore. The increase of the ions' concentration during dry season is associated with a deepening  
274 of the water table and may therefore indicate influences of lake infiltration. The Lake Nokoué has  
275 greater concentrations of  $\text{Na}$  (3,168-12,219 mg/L),  $\text{Ca}$  (146-419 mg/L),  $\text{Cl}$  (6,166-1,9310mg/L), and  
276  $\text{HCO}_3$  (73-110 mg/L) compared with all groundwater samples (Tables 1 and 2).

277 In Agla, the seasonal variations in major ions remain relatively stable except for  $\text{HCO}_3$  and  
278  $\text{SO}_4$  concentrations (Fig. 5). However, between sites, there are large differences in seasonal trends.  
279 Four of the eight groundwater wells (A4, A5, A9 and A10) show an increase in  $\text{Na}$  (by 47-128 mg/L),  
280  $\text{Ca}$  (by 20-88 mg/L),  $\text{HCO}_3$  (by 155-750 mg/L) and  $\text{Cl}$  (by 61-155 mg/L) during the month of  
281 February (dry season). During the wet seasons (June and October/November), the remaining four  
282 wells (A2, A6, A8 and A7) show an increase in  $\text{Na}$  (by 93-158 mg/L),  $\text{Ca}$  (by 34-78 mg/L),  $\text{HCO}_3$  (by  
283 99-436 mg/L),  $\text{Cl}$  (by 110-176 mg/L), and  $\text{SO}_4$  (by 75-276 mg/L) concentrations. These trends  
284 correspond to changes in the water table depths, where the increasing wet season major ion  
285 concentrations occurs in wells where the groundwater is (sub)artesian during the wet season (A2 and  
286 A8), compared to wells where groundwater remains well below the surface and has increased dry  
287 season major ion concentrations (A4). These trends may highlight the influence of groundwater  
288 mixing with pond water in the discharge areas, compared with infiltrating rainfall diluting  
289 groundwater in other areas during the wet season. The temporary and permanent pond waters have  
290 similar concentrations of  $\text{Na}$  (56-166 mg/L),  $\text{Ca}$  (34-147 mg/L),  $\text{Cl}$  (43-240 mg/L), and  $\text{HCO}_3$  (97-738  
291 mg/L) compared with Agla groundwater samples (Tables 1 and 2).

292 In St Jean, groundwater at seven of the ten wells sampled (J1, J2, J10, J3, J4, J6 and J9) show  
293 an increase in Na (by 36-115 mg/L), Ca (by 49-114 mg/L), HCO<sub>3</sub> (by 119-439 mg/L) and Cl (by 42-  
294 111 mg/L) concentrations during the dry season (February and March, Fig. 5). This occurs at the time  
295 when the water table is at its deepest level. In addition, small wet season peaks in major ion  
296 concentrations are also observed in groundwater from wells J5, J7 and J8. These increases include Na  
297 (by 63-65 mg/L), Ca (by 63-80 mg/L), HCO<sub>3</sub> (by 128-272 mg/L) and Cl (by 61-79 mg/L)  
298 concentrations. Since St Jean does not have any surface water bodies, the wet and dry season major  
299 ion variations are probably due to variations in the composition of infiltrating water, mixing between  
300 subsurface waters, reactions during water table fluctuations, and evaporation.

301

### 302 4.3 Stables isotopes

303 The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values of rainfall in Cotonou (obtained from 95 samples from the IITA and  
304 IAEA Global Network of Isotopes in Precipitation (GNIP) from 2005-2016) has a weighted average  
305 of  $-2.8 \pm 1.6 \text{ ‰}$  for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $-11.2 \pm 11.7 \text{ ‰}$  for  $\delta^2\text{H}$ . The local meteorological water line (LMWL) of  
306 rainfall obtained from these data has a slope of  $\sim 7$  and is presented together with the global meteoric  
307 water line (GMWL; slope of  $\sim 8$ , Craig, 1961) in Figure 6. These data were also used to calculate the  
308 mean weighted average values of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$  for different ranges in monthly rainfall. The results  
309 show that when monthly rainfall is  $< 50$  mm, the isotope values are greater compared with monthly  
310 rainfall ranging from 50 mm to 500 mm (Fig. 6a). The isotope values of rainfall collected in Cotonou  
311 show an overall mass effect; a depletion in heavy isotopes correlates with an increase in rainfall  
312 amounts. In Cotonou, the local rainfall has stable isotope values covering a large range; from  $-5.4$  to  
313  $0.8 \text{ ‰}$  for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , and from  $-30.9$  to  $14.5 \text{ ‰}$  for  $\delta^2\text{H}$  (Fig. 6a, black crosses). The groundwater values  
314 from the three sites are also presented in Figure 6a, which also highlights a large range in values (from  
315  $-4.17$  to  $0.35 \text{ ‰}$  for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , and from  $-21.9$  to  $4.3 \text{ ‰}$  for  $\delta^2\text{H}$ ).

316 In St Jean, the stable isotope values for groundwater vary between  $-4.17$  and  $-2.37 \text{ ‰}$  for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$   
317 and between  $-21.87$  and  $-8.98 \text{ ‰}$  for  $\delta^2\text{H}$ . These values show that the groundwater in St Jean is  
318 depleted at  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$ . The linear regression between  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values (slope of 7.5) lie close to  
319 the LMWL (Fig. 6a), suggesting that groundwater likely originates from local rainfall.

320 In Ladji, groundwater has enriched in  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$  compared with St Jean (-3.36 to 0.35 and  
321 -12.96 to 4.17 ‰, respectively; Fig. 6b). This discrepancy may be due to three distinct phenomena: (i)  
322 the recharge of relatively low volume rainfall events (< 50 mm/month) in Ladji compared with St  
323 Jean; (ii) evaporation effects (some values lie to the right of the LMWL indicating a slope of 5.2), or  
324 (iii) groundwater mixing with lake water. During the dry season, groundwater isotopic values are  
325 close to the lake Nakoue values (Fig. 6b), which suggests a strong mixing between the lake and  
326 groundwater during this season. There are also a number of groundwater samples whose  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$   
327 values remain close to those of the temporary and permanent ponds.  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$  mixing ratios  
328 indicate ranges from 72 to 74 % of shallow groundwater mixing with lake water during the dry season  
329 in Ladji.

330 Like in Ladji, groundwater in Agla is also enriched in  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$  (-3.57 to -0.03, and -18.22  
331 to 2.78 ‰, respectively) compared with St Jean. Some samples from Agla (mostly during the dry  
332 season) lie to the right of the MWL with a slope of 5.4 (Fig. 6c). Therefore, these groundwaters may  
333 also be subject to evaporation and mixing with enriched surface waters such as the lake water (via the  
334 lowlands) and the pond water. In addition, groundwaters (e.g., wells A9 and A10) that are close to  
335 lake water are located in discharge areas.  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$  mixing ratios indicate ranges from 54% to  
336 62% of shallow groundwater mixing with lake water in Agla.

337

#### 338 **4.4 Nitrogen**

339 The Beninese quality standard for drinking water for nitrogen is 45 mg/L (0.70 mmol/L) for  
340  $\text{NO}_3$ , 3.2 mg/L (0.07 mmol/L) for  $\text{NO}_2$ , and 250 mg/L (7.0 mmol/L) for Cl (Decree N ° 2001-094 of  
341 February 20<sup>th</sup>). In this study, 26 % (values of 0.73-5.06 mmol/L) of the groundwater sampled exceeds  
342 these limits in terms of  $\text{NO}_3$ , and 7.0 % (values of 0.12-2.04 mmol/L) for  $\text{NO}_2$  (Table 1).

343 Highest values of  $\text{NO}_x$  ( $\sum\text{NO}_2+\text{NO}_3$ ) are observed in groundwater of St Jean, where the  
344 concentrations reach values of 5.06 mmol/L (average of 0.90 mmol/L). For  $\text{NH}_4$ , the groundwater  
345 concentrations remain low (up to 0.80 mmol/L, average of 0.04 mmol/L). The highest concentrations  
346 of  $\text{NO}_x$  are observed during the dry season (> 3 mmol/L) compared with wet season samples ( $\text{NO}_x$  <

347 3.37 mmol/L). Two sites (J6 and J8) have elevated NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations in both the wet and dry  
348 seasons (1.15-5.06 and 0.99-2.58 mmol/L, respectively). NO<sub>x</sub> in St Jean groundwater may originate  
349 from natural fixation of nitrogen in the soil and human pollution via leaky latrines and human  
350 defecation in the streets.

351 In Ladji, the groundwater NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations ranges up to 2.51 mmol/L (average of 0.54  
352 mmol/L), and NH<sub>4</sub> is up to 0.43 mmol/L (average of 0.11 mmol/L). During the wet season, the  
353 groundwater NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations are highest (1.06-2.51 mmol/L) compared to dry season  
354 concentrations (<0.13 mmol/L). The wet season increase in NO<sub>x</sub> of groundwater in Ladji may either  
355 be due to infiltration of anthropogenic pollution, or nitrogen fixed by vegetation in the soils. The NO<sub>x</sub>  
356 concentrations are low in the permanent ponds and the lake (<0.01 mmol/L). However, the wet season  
357 temporary ponds have high concentrations of NH<sub>4</sub> (up to 1.55 mmol/L), which may undergo  
358 nitrification during infiltration and may also result in the NO<sub>x</sub> contamination of groundwater.

359 The highest value of NH<sub>4</sub> in groundwater is observed in Agla, but only at one site (A10: 4.91  
360 mmol/L). All other sites have NH<sub>4</sub> concentrations in groundwater ranging from 0.00 to 0.52 mmol/L  
361 (average of 0.17 mmol/L). Compared with Ladji and St Jean, groundwater NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations in  
362 Agla are low, with a maximum of 0.86 mmol/L (average of 0.15 mmol/L). In contrast, permanent  
363 ponds in the Agla lowlands have high NO<sub>x</sub> levels only at one site (A13: 17.50 mmol/L), particularly  
364 in the dry season.

365 As described by Katz et al. (2011), the Cl/Br ratio can be a valuable first assessment of septic  
366 tank contamination of shallow groundwater. This is based on the assumption that sewerage waters and  
367 septic tank effluent exhibit distinct ranges and higher values of Cl/Br molar ratios and Cl  
368 concentrations compared with rainwater (Davis et al. 1998), as observed in many samples from this  
369 study (Fig. 7a). Elevated Cl/Br ratios may also result from the dissolution of halite. However, halites  
370 have not been reported in the local Quaternary aquifer. In addition, many of the groundwater values  
371 correspond to ranges reported for sewerage and septic tank effluent (Davis et al. 1998; Vengosh and  
372 Pankrativ, 1998; Katz et al. 2011) compared with waters with halite dissolution (Davis et al. 1998;  
373 Pastén-Zapata et al. 2014; Panno et al. 2006), rainwater from coastal areas, and seawater (Alcalá and  
374 Custodio 2008; Davis et al. 1998). According to Figure 7b, groundwater values with similar Cl/Br

375 ratios and Cl concentrations than sewerage wastewater also show higher concentrations of NO<sub>x</sub>. Three  
376 samples (wells J2, L9 and A6) plot above the Cl/Br ratios for sewage or septic tank effluent (Cl/Br  
377 molar ratios 676-1350; Cl <1000 ml/L), likely indicating animal manure. As evidenced in Figure 7b,  
378 values that fall into the animal manure/animal urine (Cl/Br molar ratios, 2,810-3,730; Cl <1000 mg/L)  
379 also have high NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations (0.76-0.81 mmol/L). Other evidence for a septic tank and animal  
380 manure influence are the corresponding elevated dissolved organic carbon (DOC) concentrations  
381 (Table 1). However, not all the groundwater samples have high DOC concentrations. According to  
382 Broun et al. (2009), rapid oxidation of DOC into carbon dioxide may account for the low DOC  
383 concentration in groundwater.

384 Alternatively, samples with low NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations and relatively low Cl/Br ratios, such as  
385 groundwater from Agla (Fig.7b), can indicate areas of organic biodegradation (e.g. McArthur et al.,  
386 2012). The relationship between HCO<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub> and DO for all groundwater sampled at Agla is  
387 shown in Figure 8. The samples where dissolved oxygen (DO) and NO<sub>x</sub> are low compared with HCO<sub>3</sub>  
388 correspond to discharge areas. This is especially the case for groundwater sampled during the dry  
389 season at wells A10, A9 and piezometers A11, J11 where HCO<sub>3</sub> values increases (4.80-12.31  
390 mmol/L) and NO<sub>x</sub> decreases (0.0-0.40 mmol/L) with low DO values (0.06-4.22 mg/L). However, this  
391 may also indicate areas of recent rainfall infiltration resulting in a dilution of NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations (e.g.  
392 for well A4).

393

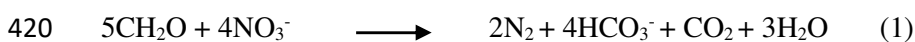
## 394 **5. Discussion**

### 395 **5.1 Variations in the drivers of groundwater degradation**

396 The vulnerability of groundwater degradation from either salinization or sewage leakage in  
397 Cotonou is temporally and spatially variable. The Quarternary aquifer is exposed to large fluctuations  
398 in the water table in response to rainfall changes; all sites show seasonal water table fluctuations  
399 higher than 0.5 m. However, both the timing of the water table fluctuations and the seasonal changes  
400 in groundwater quality varies between urban areas.



401 In Agla, a strong driver of groundwater quality is the proximity to lowlands. Agla is scattered  
 402 by these low elevation zones, which have either temporary or permanent ponds where groundwater  
 403 seasonally discharges. As highlighted by the major ion results, wet season increases in the water table  
 404 can either result in increased groundwater salinity (EC up to 1,468  $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ ) in these lowland discharge  
 405 areas due to mixing with pond water, or can result in lower groundwater salinity (EC < 842  $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ )  
 406 due to the dilution effect from infiltrating rainfall. During the dry season, the groundwater stable  
 407 isotope values also highlight increased mixing with pond water and saltier Lake Nokoué water.  
 408 Elevated NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations in groundwater at Agla is due to sewerage contamination and was  
 409 recorded during both dry and wet seasons (NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations up to 0.86 mmol/L). Groundwater  
 410 contamination from sewerage may infiltrate directly from leaky latrines or from mixing with the  
 411 permanent ponds, which have accumulated NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations up to 17.50 mmol/L. According to  
 412 Starr et al. (1993), denitrification tends to occur in aquifers with very shallow groundwater compared  
 413 to aquifers with deeper groundwater (more than 2 m). Low dissolved oxygen levels combined with  
 414 low NO<sub>x</sub> levels in shallow wells (even less than 1.0 m) in the study area (Fig. 8) where higher levels  
 415 can be expected, may be related to biodegradation or denitrification processes (Postma et al. 1991,  
 416 Jorgensen et al. 2004, Hassane et al. 2016 and Kadjangaba et al. 2018). Either by reducing NO<sub>3</sub> to  
 417 HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (1) or N<sub>2</sub> (2). According to Postma et al. (1991) and Anornu et al. (2017), the absence or low  
 418 concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> and NH<sub>4</sub> in groundwater is probably related to the reduction of NO<sub>3</sub> to N<sub>2</sub>. The  
 419 overall denitrification process can be described as (Berner, 1980):



422 However, denitrification may not be the only process that contributes to the increase of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>  
 423 in shallow groundwater, which probably also results from the decomposition of organic matter and  
 424 mineral dissolution reactions (e.g. Alassane et al. 2015).

425 In Ladji, the main influence on groundwater salinization (EC up to 5,340  $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ ) is the  
 426 mixing with the Lake Nokoué waters. This was obvious during the dry season where both stable  
 427 isotopes values and major ion concentrations clearly highlight mixing, and the water level also shows  
 428 an early dry season rise in values due to lake infiltration. In comparison, the sewerage contamination

429 of groundwater is mostly evidenced during the wet season (groundwater NO<sub>x</sub> up to 2.5 mmol/L).  
430 During the wet season, increases in NO<sub>x</sub> from sewerage sources may result from both (i) rises in the  
431 water table mobilising NO<sub>x</sub> in the unsaturated zone, and/or (ii) infiltrating rainfall and temporary  
432 ponds recharging the shallow groundwater (as suggested by stable isotope results) and therefore  
433 transporting NO<sub>x</sub> to the saturated zone.

434 St Jean is the only studied neighbourhood that does not have any surface water bodies and no  
435 groundwater discharge sites. Therefore, the wet and dry season variations in groundwater degradation  
436 are potentially due to variations in the composition of infiltrating water, mixing between subsurface  
437 waters, and reactions during water table fluctuations. Although St Jean has low groundwater salinity  
438 levels (EC up to 1,285 uS/cm), this area has the highest NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations recorded in this study  
439 (NO<sub>x</sub> up to 5.06 mmol/L). Since the local rainfall is the only origin of the shallow groundwater (as  
440 seen from stable isotope values), it is expected that either recharging rainfall or rising water tables  
441 transfers NO<sub>x</sub> from the sewerage sources to the groundwater system during the wet season. However,  
442 at St Jean, groundwater NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations are greater during the dry season (up to 5.06 mmol/L)  
443 compared with the wet season (up to 2.58 mmol/L). So, instead, the contamination may be constant  
444 leakage from latrines throughout the year and wet season rainfall may act to dilute this contamination.  
445 Almost all the pit latrines and septic tanks in Cotonou have depths between 1.50 and 2.50 m (Houknpè  
446 et al. 2014; Yadouléton, 2015). In St Jean, the maximum depth to water table is observed at 1.53 m in  
447 the dry season, which means that dry season saturated zones remain close to leaking sewerage sources.

448

## 449 **5.2 Periods of increased risk due to groundwater degradation**

450 Generally speaking, groundwater samples with nitrate levels that exceed the Beninese quality  
451 standards for drinking water originated from wells J1, J3, J6, J7, J8, J9 and J11 (piezometer) during  
452 the dry season (February and March) in St Jean, from wells L7 and L11 during the rainy season (June  
453 and October) in Ladji, and from wells A2, A6 in the dry season (February and November) in Agla.  
454 Thus, risk for nitrate pollution in shallow groundwater shows high seasonal variation between sites.  
455 Similar results were obtained by Boukari (1998) and Totin et al. (2013) at different sites in Cotonou  
456 with higher NO<sub>3</sub> levels (up to 1,61 mmol/L) observed during recharge of the wet season.

457        The measured EC values show a large amplitude of spatial and temporal variation. The EC values  
458 in Agla and St Jean are in the same order of variations (200-1,800  $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ ) whereas the groundwater in  
459 Ladji records EC values in the order of 750-5,340  $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ . In St Jean, the waters are more saline during  
460 the dry season. Unlike St Jean, the wells in Agla and Ladji are saline during both the dry and the rainy  
461 seasons due to mixing processes with lake water.

462

463

### 464 **5.3 Shallow groundwater, an unregulated water resource in expanding urban environments**

465 In urban areas of sub-saharan Africa, groundwater from shallow wells is commonly used to  
466 partially or fully supply drinking water resources (Okotto et al. 2015). In major cities, such official  
467 groundwater resources are monitored and treated. For example, in the coastal city of Douala  
468 (Cameroon), shallow groundwater is the main source for domestic and drinking purposes (Takem et  
469 al. 2015). Likewise, in Bamako (Mali), around 55 % of the population uses water from aquifer  
470 resources (British Geological Survey, 2002). Where shallow groundwater is not the official resource,  
471 the shallow groundwater usually free and therefore commonly used in the impoverished areas of urban  
472 sprawls, including for domestic uses. Normally this resource is meant for washing only, but it  
473 commonly ends up for drinking, dish washing, shower and cooking water supplies. For example, the  
474 interviews conducted during this study showed that 10 on 10 of the households in St Jean, 9 on 10 in  
475 Agla, and 4 on 10 in Ladji reported to use well water only for dish washing. In St Jean, 1 on 10  
476 households declared to use well water for drinking water supply compared with Agla and Ladji where  
477 no households have reported such use. The results of the interviews have therefore showed that there  
478 are differences in groundwater use between St Jean, Ladji and Agla. The underprivileged areas of the  
479 city are subject to greater groundwater quality issues, and this also correspond to the parts of the city  
480 where the residents are more dependent on the groundwater as a domestic water resource. This is the  
481 case in Kinshasa (Democratic Republic of Congo) where in peri-urban and rural inhabitants widely  
482 use the unregulated and untreated shallow groundwater resources for drinking water supply (Ndembo,  
483 2009).

484 Unfortunately, as seen in this case study of Cotonou, the shallow groundwater in urban  
485 environments is often contaminated. This was also observed in Blantyre (Malawi) where drinking  
486 water from shallow groundwater was heavily polluted by a lack of sanitation facilities and  
487 indiscriminate waste disposal (Mkandawire, 2008). Likewise, high  $\text{NO}_3$  concentrations in urban  
488 shallow groundwater resources have been observed in Dakar, Senegal ( $\text{NO}_3 > 100 \text{ mg/L}$ ; Ndeye et al.  
489 2017); Douala, Cameroon ( $\text{NO}_3$  up to 241 mg/l; Ketchemen-Tandia et al. 2017) and in different  
490 regions of Ghana ( $\text{NO}_3$  up to 507 mg/L; Rossiter et al. 2010).

491 In many urban cases, the nitrate contamination of shallow groundwater is from  
492 anthropogenic sources (Martínez-Santos et al. 2017). This was also observed in this study and previous  
493 work in Cotonou (Boukari, 1998; Maliki, 1993; Boukari et al., 1996; Totin et al. 2013), and as also  
494 noted in other major sub-saharan cities such as N'djaména, Tchad, (Kadjangaba et al. 2018) and  
495 Djibouti (Ahmed et al. 2017). As highlighted in the study of Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso (Yaméogo,  
496 2008), such nitrate contamination is linked to the high population density that relies on archaic or non-  
497 existent sanitation systems. This is a particularly significant challenge in informal settlements, like in  
498 the cities of Douala (Takem et al. 2010; Ketchemen-Tandia et al. 2017) and Kampala, Ouganda  
499 (Nyenje et al. 2013) where the increase in nitrates and chlorides in shallow groundwater are related to  
500 faeces from pit latrines, sewages, landfills, surface discharges and droppings from domestic animals.

501

502

## 503 **6. Conclusion**

504 Although pollution sources are identical for each of the three neighbourhoods studied, the  
505 resultant transfers and reactions controlling concentrations are distinct. In the neighbourhood where  
506 there is no surface inundation and acts as a local recharge area, the groundwater salinity values remain  
507 low ( $EC < 1285 \mu S/cm$ ), however  $NO_x$  concentrations are the highest recorded in this study (up to  $5.1$   
508  $mmol/L$ ). In the neighbourhood bordering a lake where there is seasonal inundation and groundwater  
509 discharge, the dry season interaction with lake water results in groundwater with highest observed  $EC$   
510 values (up to  $5340 \mu S/cm$ ). Stable isotope ( $\delta^2H$  and  $\delta^{18}O$ ) mixing ratios indicate mixing of up to  $74 \%$   
511 with lake water; In the neighbourhood located in a swamp that is subject to inundation during both the  
512 small and large wet seasons also shows mixing with lake water (up to  $62 \%$  using  $\delta^2H$  and  $\delta^{18}O$   
513 values) resulting in groundwater  $EC$  values up to  $1468 \mu S/cm$ . This discharge site notably has lower  
514  $NO_x$  concentrations (up to  $0.86 mmol/L$ ), however this is not indicative of less sewerage  
515 contamination only greater degradation processes. Understanding the seasonal changes in processes  
516 controlling groundwater quality between each site is key to identifying risks to the residents who use  
517 this unregulated shallow groundwater resource for domestic purposes, including drinking water  
518 supplies. Seasonal variations highlight heightened risks from sewerage and septic tank leakage during

519 the wet season in neighbourhoods located in discharge areas compared with increased risk during the  
520 dry season in the recharge area. In addition, there are increased risks of shallow groundwater  
521 salinization during both the small wet and dry seasons in discharge areas.

522 Stable water isotopes showed a direct relationship between local rainfall water and  
523 groundwater at St Jean compared with Ladji and Agla where groundwaters are also be subjected to  
524 mixing with enriched surface waters such as the lake water (via the lowlands) and the pond water,  
525 particularly during the dry and small wet seasons.

526 Groundwaters chemistry in each of the neighbourhoods are different. In St Jean, the  
527 composition of major ion concentrations of waters is dominated by Na-Ca-HCO<sub>3</sub>-Cl groundwater  
528 type, while Ladji is of the Na-HCO<sub>3</sub>-Cl type and Agla of the Na-Ca-HCO<sub>3</sub>-SO<sub>4</sub>-HCO<sub>3</sub> one. The ponds  
529 sampled in both Ladji and Agla showed some similarities in major ion compositions with local  
530 groundwater, thus indicating a potential connection. The Lake Nokoué has greater concentrations of  
531 Na and Cl compared with all groundwater samples.

532 Groundwater samples indicated that 26 % for NO<sub>3</sub> and 7.0 % for NO<sub>2</sub> do not comply with the  
533 Beninese quality standard for drinking water. Based on Cl/Br molar ratios, sources of NO<sub>x</sub> in  
534 groundwater appear to be dominated by infiltration of sewerage and septic tanks in dry season in St  
535 Jean, while in Agla and Ladji, contamination was obvious in wet season following infiltrating rainfall  
536 and ponds recharging. Low NO<sub>x</sub> for some of the groundwater samples may indicate effects from  
537 biodegradation in discharge area or dilution from rainfall.

538

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544

545

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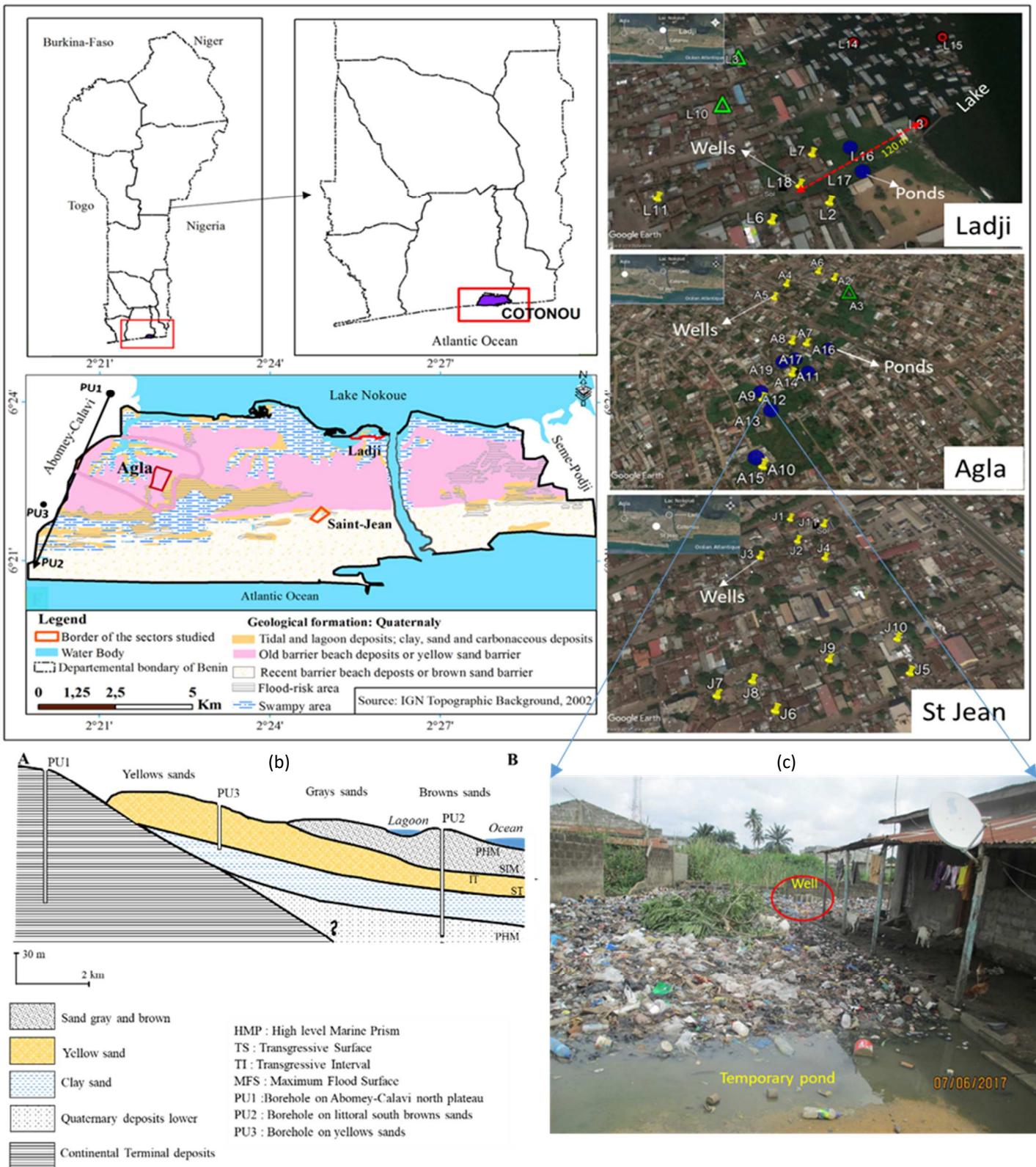


Figure 1. (a) Location of Cotonou and sampling sites in the three neighbourhoods; (b) Sedimentary unit cross section (A-B) of marginal-littoral area of Benin (modified from Boukari, 1998); and (c) Environmental situation at Agla (A9 site)

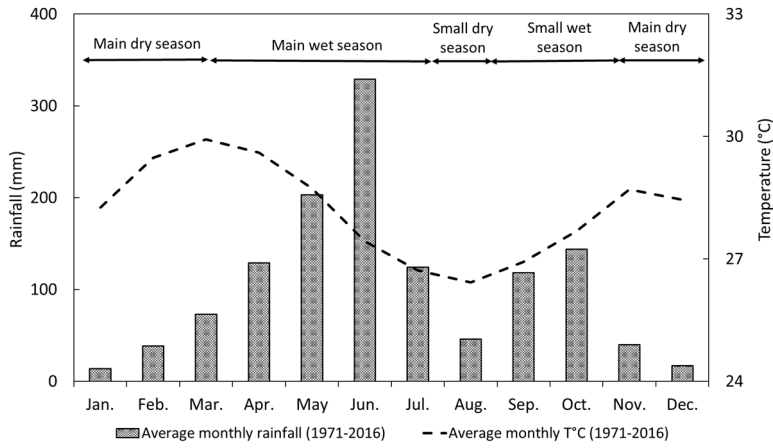


Figure 2: Average monthly interannual rainfall at Cotonou station from 1971 to 2016 (ASECNA station)

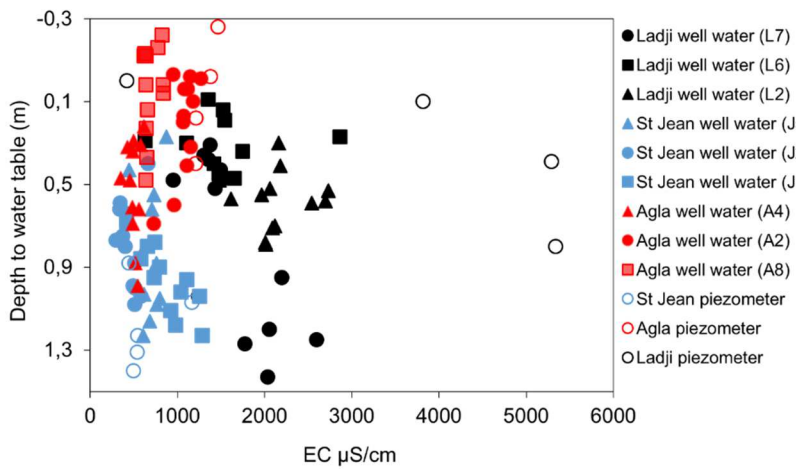


Figure 3. Relationship between water-table variation and electrical conductivity at each site

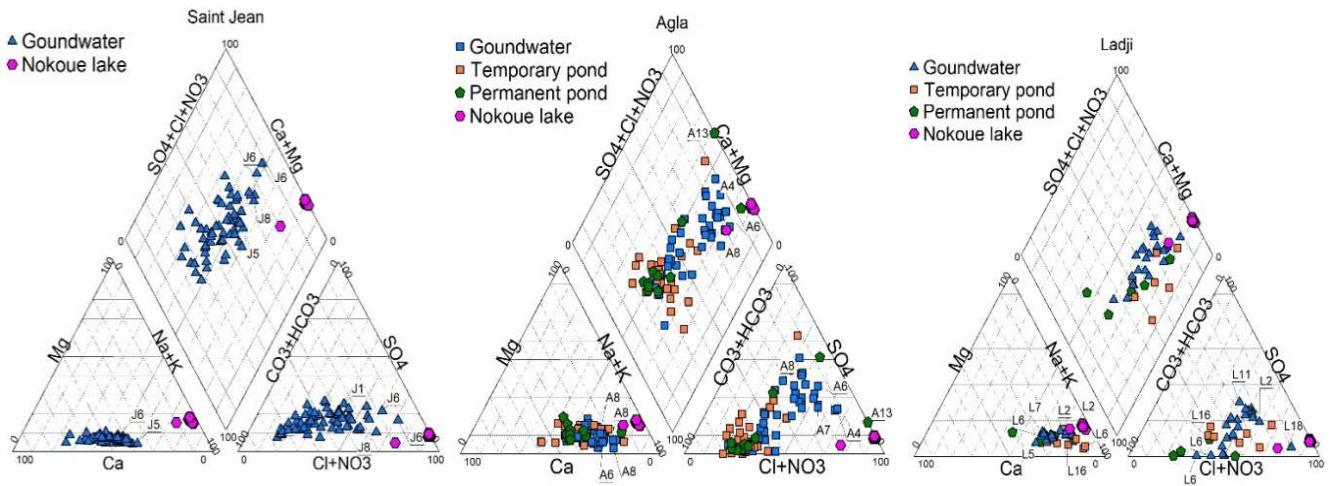


Figure 4. Piper diagram for groundwaters, ponds and lake at each site



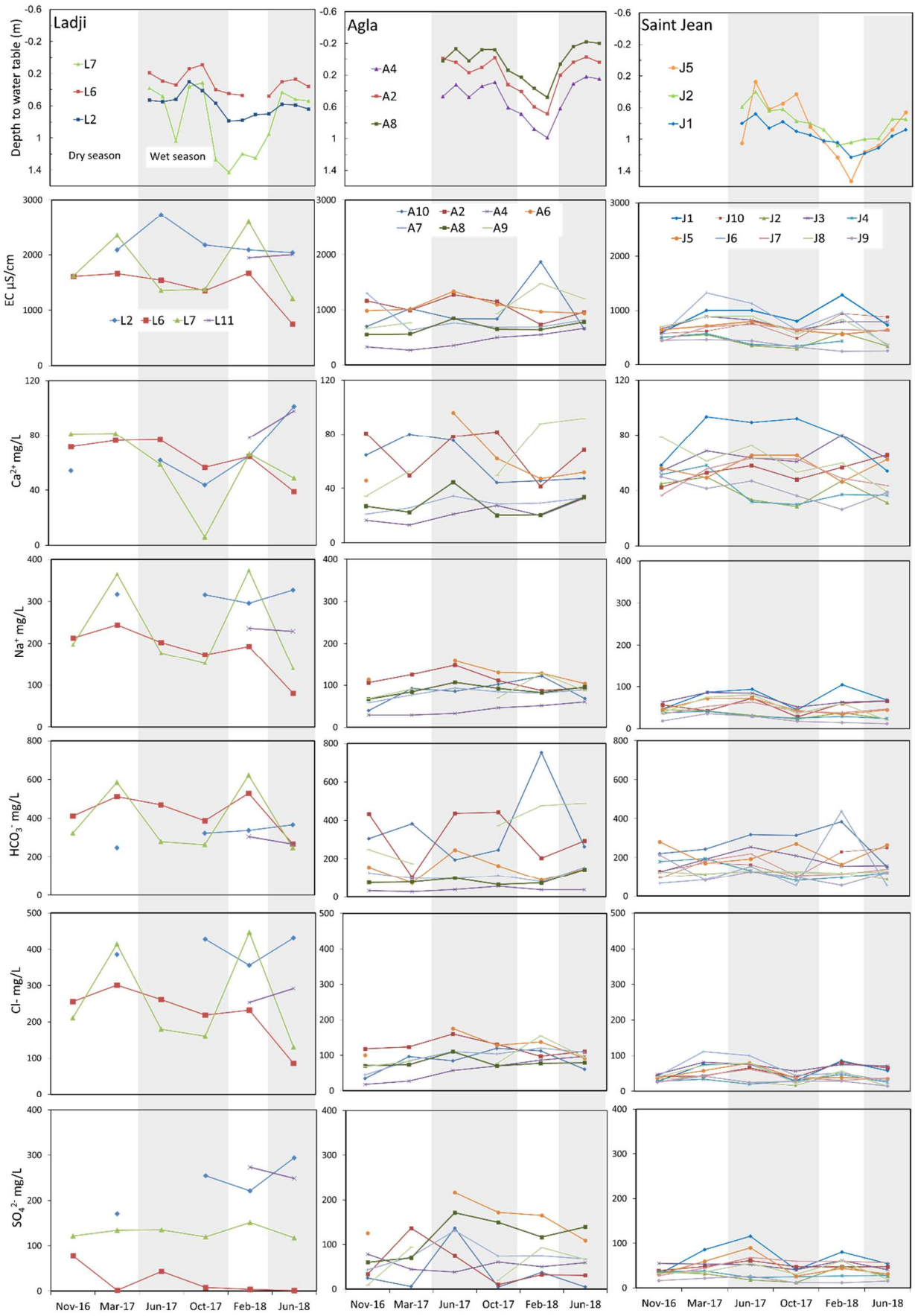


Figure 5. Temporal variation between, depth water table, electrical conductivity, major ion and isotopic stable at each site.

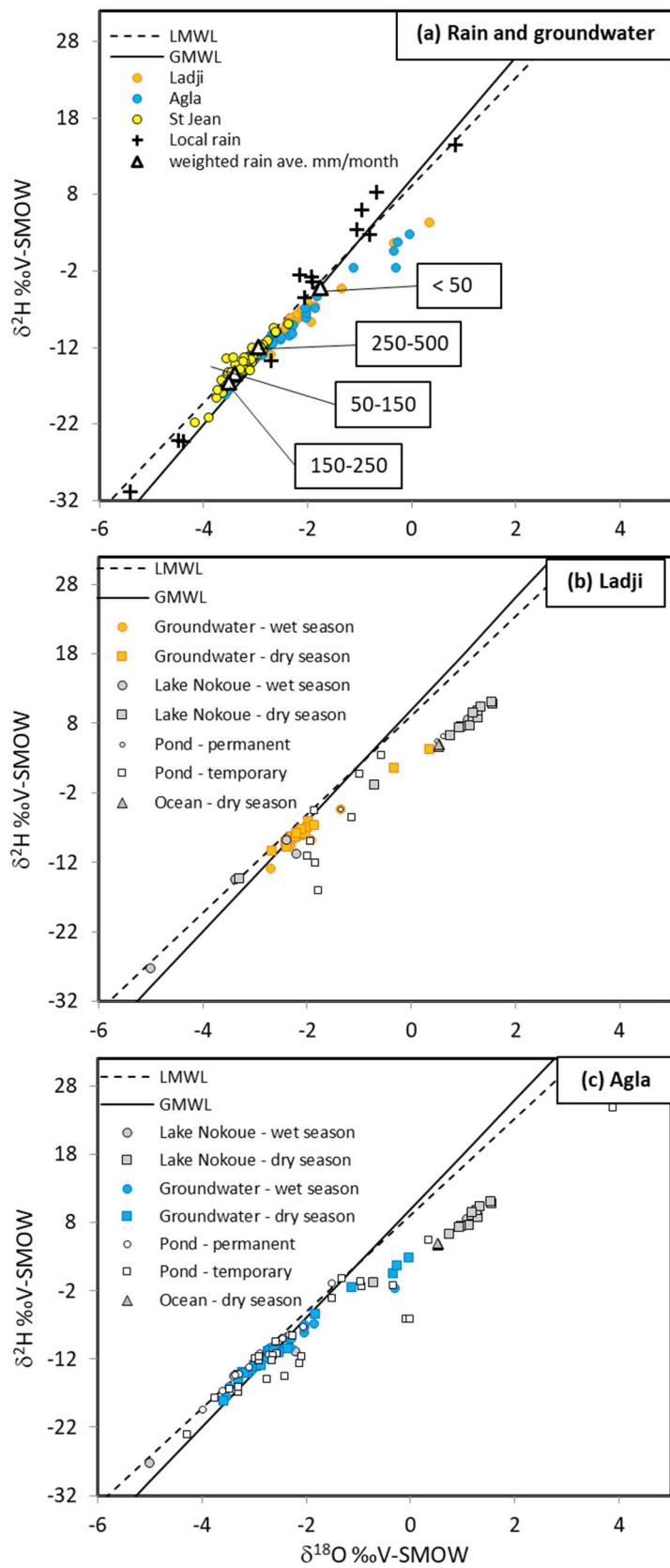


Figure 6. Relationship between  $^{18}\text{O}$  and  $^2\text{H}$  with Global Meteoric Water Line (GMWL) and Local Meteoric Water Line (GMWL).

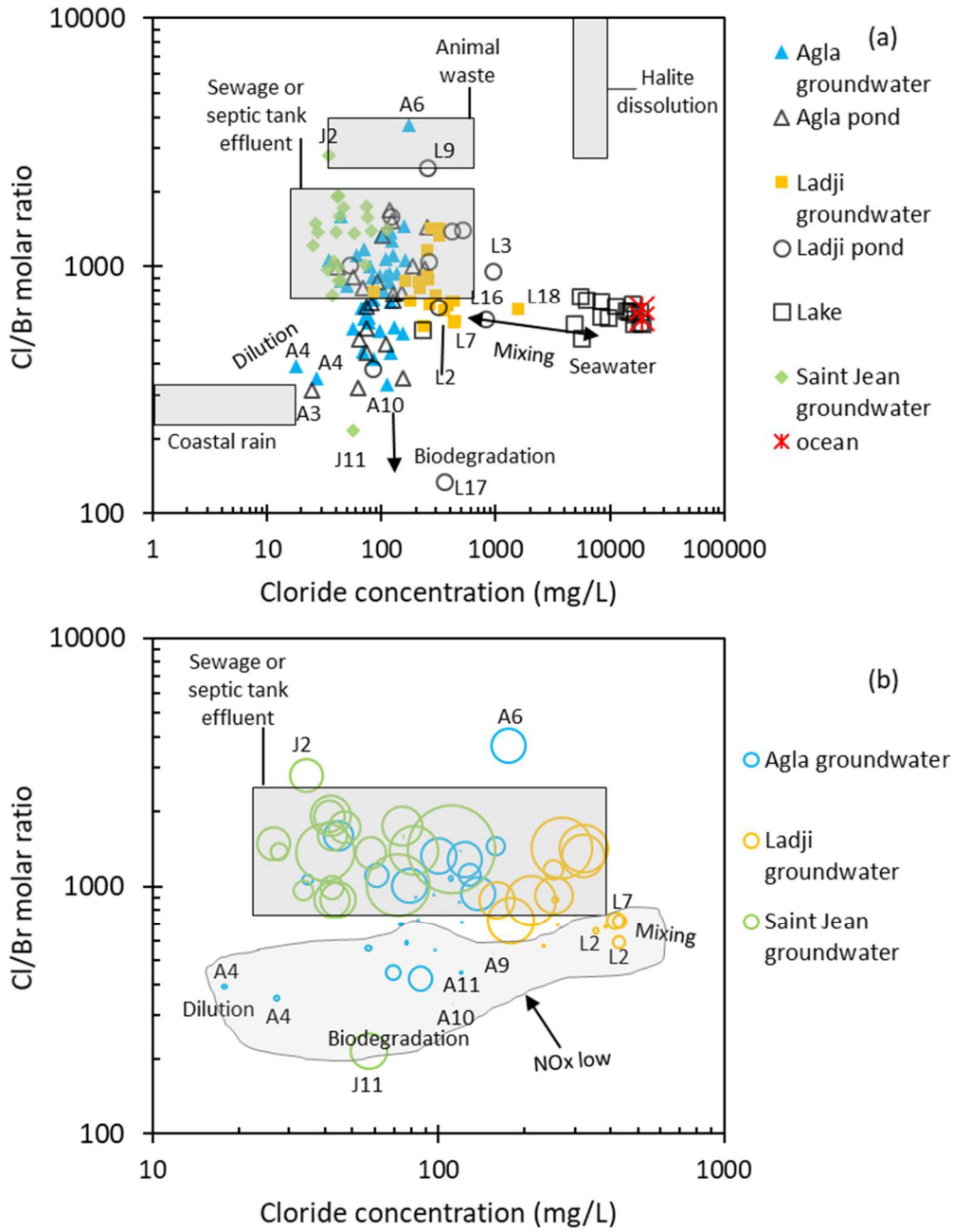


Figure 7. (a) Groundwater, pond and lake water Cl/Br molar ratios with changes in Cl concentrations highlights different sources of Cl in the waters. (b) Relationship between Cl/Br ratios and Cl concentrations showing higher concentrations in NO<sub>x</sub> (circle sizes are relative to NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations).

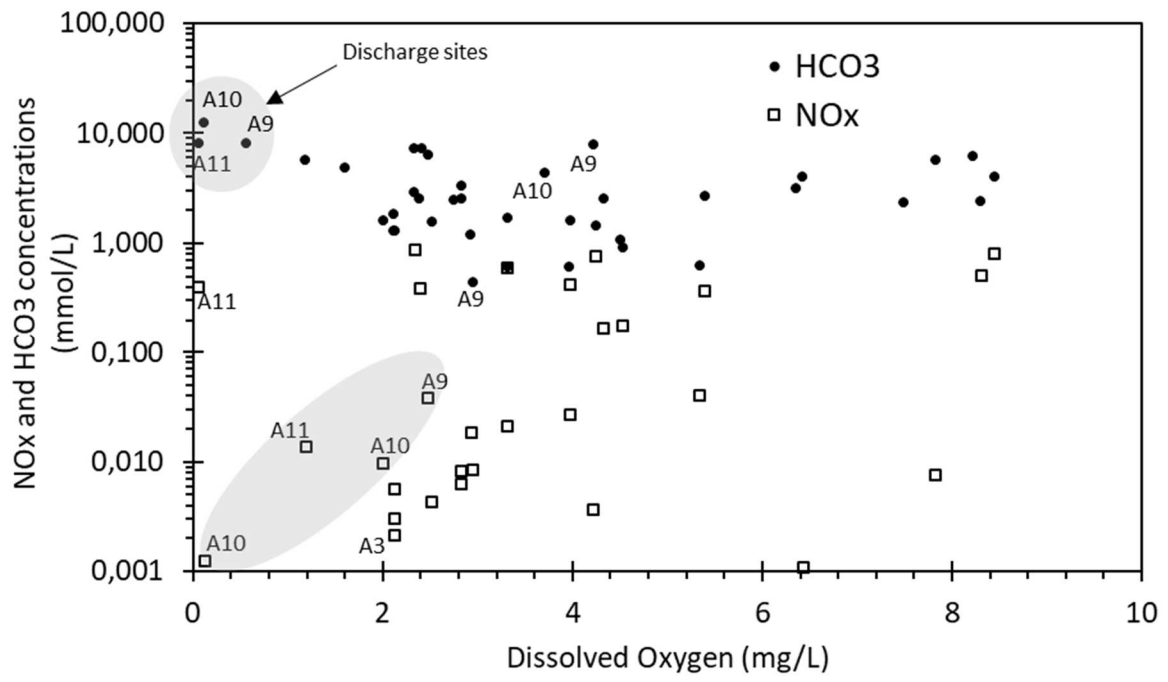
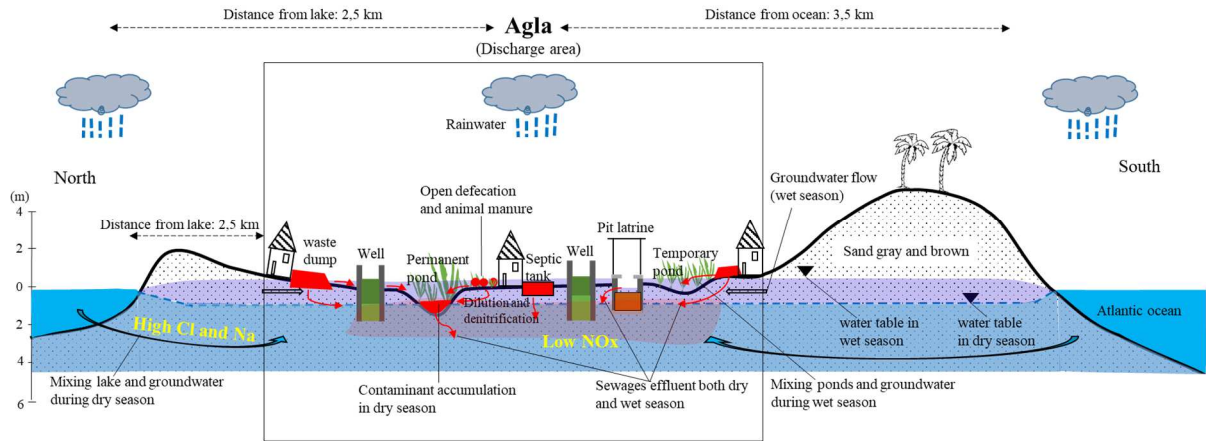


Figure 8. Relationship between HCO<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub> and DO for all groundwater sampled at Agla

(a)



(b)

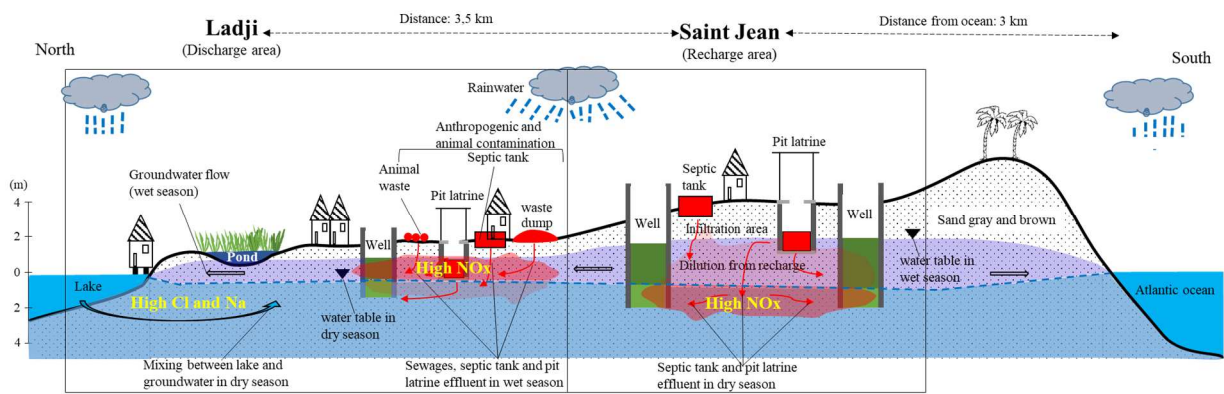


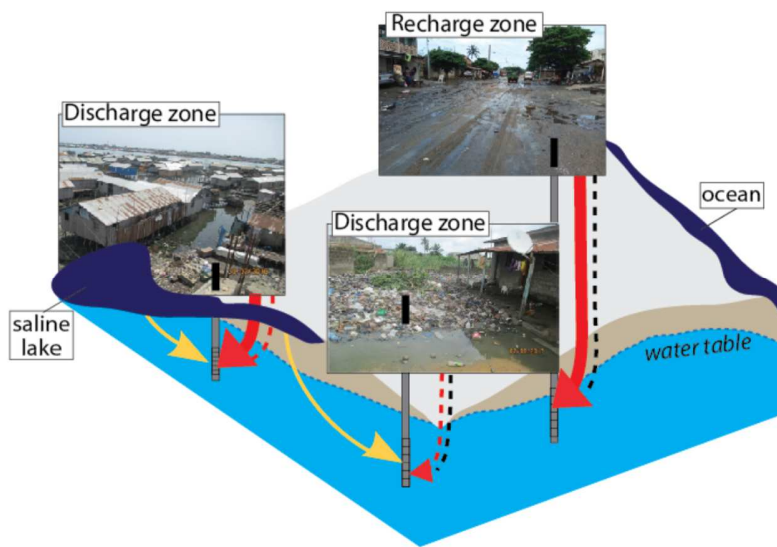
Figure 9. Schematic of conceptual model for contaminant sources and transfers at (a) Agla, and (b) Ladji and Saint-Jean.











■ High NOx contaminantion

- - - DRY SEASON denitrification

— DRY SEASON salinisation

- - - WET SEASON dilution