

Vegetation Dynamics vs. Sediment Supply During the Late Quaternary: Paradigm of Sea Level Change and Two Distinct Time-Bound Stages of the Niger Delta Coastal Evolution

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Abstract

This study examines the impact of climate-sea level controls on the vegetation and evolution of the Niger Delta during the Late Quaternary. The extraneous controls on the environment outlined in this context confirm a direct link between vegetation dynamics (pollen data), sediment supply, and the landscape evolution of the Niger Delta between 20 ka and 6.5 ka. Two phases of sedimentation are recognized based on multiple proxies analyzed in three gravity cores obtained from the shallow offshore at ~40 m water depth. Phase I records abundant occurrences of Poaceae, Cyperaceae, and Podocarpus pollen from a dry hinterland, charred grass cuticles, nonmarine alga *Pediastrum*, high Ti/Zr ratio, and lower sedimentation from 20-11.7 ka. Phase II records an expansion of mangrove vegetation, high Fe/S ratio, and increase in planktonic foraminifera between 11.7 ka and 6.5 ka. This second phase is attributed to sea-level rise and higher sedimentation during the development of delta plain and mangrove vegetation on the gently sloping shelf. These sequential records provide a new clue about the link between the evolutionary stages of the Niger Delta landscape and vegetation dynamics during two distinct time-bound intervals, which potentially delineate the boundary between two Marine Isotope Stages: MIS2 (late glacial period) and MIS1 (interglacial period). Keyword: Sea level- climate change, Late Quaternary, mangrove pollen, biogeochemistry, Niger Delta, landscape evolution.

Geochemical vs. palynological records during the Late Quaternary: Paradigm of sea level change and two distinct time-bound stages of the Niger Delta evolution

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Abstract

This paper examines the impact of climate-sea level controls on the vegetation and evolution of the Niger Delta during the Late Quaternary. The extraneous controls on the environment outlined in this context confirm a direct link between vegetation dynamics (pollen data), sediment supply, and the landscape evolution of the Niger Delta between 20 ka and 6.5 ka. Two phases of sedimentation are recognised based on multiple

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Keyword : Mangrove pollen, biogeochemistry, Niger Delta, landscape evolution, sea level- climate change, Late Quaternary

Introduction

The reconstruction of the vegetation dynamics and deltaic shift of the Niger Delta during the late to post-glacial period (Marine Isotope Stages MIS1 and MIS2) over the last 20 ka has been the subject of debate (2009; Adojoh et al., 2017; Adeonipekun and Sowunmi, 2019). This study presents a model that explains the interplay between the driving mechanisms and palaeoenvironmental settings in the basin based on biotic and abiotic evidence (Zong et al., 2009; Adojoh et al., 2017; Boyden et al., 2021). Previous studies of the Late Quaternary sea level in the shallow offshore of the Niger Delta and other West African regions indicate post-glacial sea level rise (SLR) and a middle Holocene SLR, followed by a subsequent fall to the present time (e.g., Lézine, 1997; Lézine et al., 2005; Scourse et al., 2005; Miller and Gosling, 2013; Bouimetarhan et al., 2015; Joo-Chang et al., 2015; Chadwick et al., 2020). Climate-driven sea level change and local fluvial sediment discharge are among the factors controlling evolution of the Niger Delta during the Quaternary (Lézine, 1997; Adojoh et al., 2017; Adeonipekun and Sowunmi, 2019). Several shallow offshore palaeoenvironments exist in this setting, such as the littoral realm (mangrove swamps, barrier islands, lagoons, deltas), and inner neritic realm. These palaeoenvironments may be composed of an integrated depositional system, and thus cannot be examined in sequestration (Woodroffe, 2002, Cohen et al. 2014). The major depositional systems under rising sea level on a gently sloping sandy coast are barrier islands or littoral system, while strand-plains (sand belt) with beach-ridges are essentially absent (Cohen et al., 2014, Chadwick et al., 2020).

The response of the shallow offshore paleoenvironments of the Niger Delta to sea level changes is influenced by tidal impact, and climate driven-nearshore wave and fluvial discharge relative to the nature of the sedimentary budget (Lézine et al., 2005; Adojoh et al., 2017). All littoral settings assumed their present structure during the sea level transgression that occurred during the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM), about 20-25 ka (Poumot 1989; Lézine, 1997; Riboulot et al., 2012; Cohen et al., 2014 Adojoh et al., 2017; Chadwick et al., 2020). Nevertheless, a sea level fall promotes extremely adverse conditions for the origination and preservation of the littoral and neritic realms, especially in wave-controlled settings of the delta. Thus, if rapid fluvial/sediment supply occurs during shoreline progradation, it may generate a delta (Cohen et al., 2014, Chadwick et al., 2020). Under this circumstance and depositional complexities, lagoons, shoreface and the neritic realm evolve, and wave-dominated deposits may rapidly prograde, causing regressive sand strands (Martin and Suguio, 1992; Chadwick et al., 2020).

Some major questions associated with this complexity remain unanswered in relation to the link between the nature of the vegetation dynamics and timing of sediment supply to the onshore and shallow offshore Niger Delta areas, as well as the impact of the Niger and Benue Rivers and their tributaries (Adojoh et al., 2017) (Figure 1). The significance of the key vegetation distribution over the post glacial evolution of the Niger Delta is still not well known, in particular how the mangrove ecosystem has responded to sea level changes and the impact of Holocene warm and wet conditions on the coastal vegetation. This study attempts to answer some of these questions through the evaluation of palaeovegetation dynamics and sediment supply using three gravity cores (GCs) (Figure 1). When present, mangrove vegetation and marine sediments along the littoral realm can be used as markers of coastal and delta dynamics, since their locations within the intertidal zone are strongly influenced by SLR (Woodroffe, 1989, 1995, 2002; Lézine, 1997; Scourse et al.,

2005; Adojoh et al., 2017; Adeonipekun and Sowunmi, 2019). The mangroves and littoral fringe of most tropical settings have kept up with sedimentation and can accommodate eustatic SLR rates of ~ 3.8 mm/year. However, when eustatic rates surpass 5.2 mm/year, then the mangroves would not be preserved (Mckee et al., 2007; Cohen et al., 2014; Chadwick et al., 2020).

The main aim of this study is to establish the relationship between the evolution of the Niger Delta landscape and vegetation dynamics during the Late Quaternary. In addition, it explores the significance of detailed and integrated multiproxy data (key pollen indicators, biogeochemistry, planktonic foraminifera and sedimentology) to identify the main controls on the distinct stages of the Niger Delta evolution and its reorganisation during the Late Quaternary (MIS1 and MIS2). The methodological approaches will contribute to the body of knowledge on the factors affecting the depositional succession (stages of evolution) of the West African region through the impact of climate-driven sea level fluctuations on the coastal/littoral vegetation and delta dynamics.

2. Niger Delta setting

The Niger Delta is situated in the Gulf of Guinea on the passive Atlantic margin of West Africa and consists of a tripartite sedimentary sequence (Figure 2). During the Palaeogene and Neogene, it built out onto the Atlantic Ocean at the mouth of the Niger-Benue River system, a catchment area that encompasses more than one million square kilometres of predominantly savannah-covered lowlands (Morley, 1995; Adeonikpekun and Sowunmi, 2019). A recent comprehensive analysis by George et al. (2019) indicates that the extent of the Niger Delta is 70,000 km², contrary to earlier publications that documented 75,000 km² (Figure 2). The delta has also been remapped and classified into mega- sedimentary environments as follows: upper deltaic plain, lower deltaic plain, and delta front comprising 69%, 25%, and 6% of the total extent, respectively (Doust and Omatsola, 1990; Omuije et al., 2015; George et al., 2019). The regressive wedge of clastic sediments which comprises the delta is estimated to reach a maximum thickness of about 12 km (Okpoli and Arogunyo, 2020).

The palaeoenvironmental and sedimentological evolution of the Niger Delta has experienced dramatic changes over the Quaternary period (Doust and Omatsola, 1990; Reijers, 2011). The accumulation of marine sediments in the rifted basin undoubtedly commenced during the Early Cretaceous period (Albian time), following the opening of the South Atlantic Ocean as a result of rifting between the African and South American plates (Bonne, 2014; George et al., 2019). However, the current delta development only began in the late Palaeocene-Eocene when sediments began to bulge outside the syncline between the basement horst blocks at the northern flank of the recent delta setting (Figure 2). Since then, the delta plain has advanced southward onto the oceanic crust, possibly assuming a lobate morphology across the shallow offshore shoreline (Reijers, 2011). The proprietary concern of the petroleum companies prospecting in the basin and lack of published data have complicated the interpretations about the evolution of the delta for a long time.

The Niger Delta is normally categorised as tidally and wave-influenced in the classic terminology of Galloway (1975). The Cenozoic stratigraphic sequence comprises clastic sediments (Agbada and Benin formations) advancing over ductile marine shales (Akata Formation) (George et al., 2019; Figure 2). Previous studies indicate that the sedimentation pattern is composed of five depobelts (Figure 1) controlled by gravity-driven tectonism due to the presence of a mobile ductile shale at the base of the sediment fill (e.g., Corredor et al., 2005; George et al., 2019). The deltaic configuration has experienced broad progradation (circa 300 km) since the Palaeocene, with a maximum sediment thickness of approximately 12 km, and a surface area of 140,000 km² (Doust and Omatsola, 1990; Stacher, 1995; Reijers, 2011; George et al., 2019; Figure 2). In addition, past investigations of marine core sediments obtained from the Niger Delta suggest that changes in the riverine input during the Late Quaternary were linked to global glacial-interglacial cycles (e.g., Riboulot et al., 2012; Adojoh et al., 2017, 2019; Adeonikpekun and Sowunmi, 2019). Periods of warm temperature over Greenland were found to be associated with enhanced river discharges in West Equatorial Africa and conversely, cold conditions were related to weak river input (Shannahan et al., 2007; Weldeab et al., 2007; Miller and Gosling, 2013; Adojoh et al., 2017, Adeonikpekun and Sowunmi, 2019).

3. Materials and methods

The three gravity cores (GCs) utilized for this study were collected from the Niger Delta by Fugro Geotechnical Company for Shell Petroleum Development Company of Nigeria in 2002 (Adojoh et al., 2020; Figure 1). The cores were acquired from the seabed within the near shore (shallow marine) realm at approximately 40 m water depth (Adojoh et al., 2017, 2020). They were well positioned in the eastern (GC1 = Latitude - 4deg49'43" N, Longitude - 5deg20'20" E), central (GC2 = Latitude - 4deg05'08" N, Longitude - 6deg33'30" E) and western (GC3 = Latitude - 4deg11'59" N, Longitude - 7deg21'29" E) parts of the delta (Figure 1; Adojoh et al., 2017, 2020). A detailed lithological description on the scale of 1:10 cm was undertaken to select the intervals for detailed microfossil and biogeochemical analyses. Each gravity core was sampled at every 2 cm for detailed stratigraphic, chronostratigraphic and palaeoenvironmental study, and to further infer the imprints of sea level/climate cycles and vegetation dynamics over time.

Preparations for palynomorphs, nannoplankton and foraminifera data followed the standard procedures described in Adojoh et al. (2017, 2020). In addition, the geochemical components of the three GC samples were analysed at 2 cm intervals for physical and chemical properties using a Bruker S2 Ranger XRF Spectrophotometer Autosampler. In this study, 28 samples were selected as required for the maximum batch of 28 clean and dry pots. Nylon film was used to separate the individual pots while the bases of the pots were kept flat and level with no protrusions. The samples were compacted gently by using the brass plunger. All recorded measurements were obtained from the saved drive of the XRF analyser database and used for graphical plots.

The samples for Ti/Zr and Fe/S ratios were selected in their ranges of elemental analyses for the XRF Spectrophotometer. High Ti/Zr ratios of hinterland pollen provide information on the extent of fluvial materials supplied from terrestrial environments, whereas high Fe/S ratios provide the extent of inherent marine shale deposited on the continental shelf (Marius and Lucas, 1991; Zabel et al., 2001; Adegbe et al., 2003; Doktorgrades, 2004; Mendoza, 2007).

Adojoh et al. (2017, 2020) based the age model for each gravity core only on biostratigraphy defined by the first occurrences (FO) of calcareous nannoplankton (NN19 to NN21) and planktonic foraminifera (*Glorobotalia tumida* and *Glorobotalia truncatulinoidea*). Those studies could not utilize radiometric dating because the impact of freshwater dilution on the near-shelf margin affected the preservation and quantitative counts of fossil materials, such as foraminiferal tests, macrofossil shells (gastropod, bivalves), and wood particles, that could have been used for dating. However, this present study has compared the dated multiple proxy records from the GCs with published data on relative sea level change for the Niger Delta region over the last 20 ka. In Figures 3-5, we have extrapolated the relative sea level curve for the Gulf of Guinea region plotted against the radiocarbon date from a global isostatic model database (Peltier, 1994) and a representative location (5830V S, 11830V E, T89-16 core) on the Congo shelf margin (Scourse et al., 2005).

4. Results

The photomicrographs and microfossil taxonomical records of the three GCs published by Adojoh et al. (2017, 2019), other non-pollen proxies, and some selected key pollen/vegetation proxies are used to establish the link between vegetation dynamics and landscape evolution of the Niger Delta. The three GCs record remarkably similar changes in the different proxies and two main phases of sedimentation were distinguished (Figures 3-5).

4.1 Phase I: Lower Depths (GC1: 272-202 cm, GC2: 266-202 cm, GC3: 260-202 cm)

The lower depths record lower sedimentation of intercalated fine to medium sand (GC1 = 9.8cm/kyr; GC2 = 13.9cm/kyr; GC3 = 13.1 cm/kyr), high abundances of hinterland components (e.g., ~40-41% Savannah grass pollen – Poaceae, 30% Cyperaceae (Fluvial and Freshwater indicator), 19-21% charred grass cuticles, ~43% afro-montane taxon – *Podocarpus*), ~18-19% freshwater algae – *Pediastrum*, high Ti/Zr ratio (Table 1). In addition, low abundances of planktonic foraminifera *Globorotaliaspp.* (~18-20%) and mangrove pollen

(*Rhizophora* 21%, Avicenniaceae ~13%), and low Fe/S ratio (~10-15 mg⁻¹/ppm) are also recorded at these depths (Figures 3-5). Thus, hinterland indicators increased relative to mangrove/littoral proxies.

4.2 Phase II: Mid-Upper Depths (GC1: 0-202 cm, GC2: 0-202 cm and GC3: 0-202 cm)

These depths cover the middle to the upper parts of the three GCs and are characterised by a slower sedimentation rate of mudstone, expansion of mangrove vegetation (~60-80% *Rhizophora* sp. and 25-30% Avicenniaceae), high Fe/S ratio (Table 1), and increase in planktonic foraminifera (~60-79% *Globorotalia* spp.). These depths also record fewer hinterland pollen (e.g., ~10-20% Poaceae, 0-5% *Podocarpus*, ~7% Cyperaceae, 0-4% charred grass cuticles), 2-5% *Pediastrum*, low Ti/Zr ratio, and higher sedimentation rate of very fine-silty sand (GC1 = 78.2 cm/kyr; GC2 = 57.3 cm/kyr; GC3 = 57.3 cm/kyr) (Table 1). During this interval of rapid expansion of mangrove-dominated pollen, hinterland pollen and other components (e.g., Ti/Zr, cuticles) dramatically decline when compared to the lower depths (Figures 3-5).

5. Discussion

The three GCs record a coherent signal of significant changes in geochemical ratios and abundances of palynomorphs and planktonic foraminifera that correlate with the effects of the transition from low sea level (phase I) to sea level rise (phase II) on the coastal margin of the Niger Delta. This change in sea level has been reported elsewhere especially along the West equatorial African margin (Lezine, 1997; Scourse et al., 2005; Adeonikpekun and Sowunmi, 2019). In addition, these phases record transitions between seasonal variations in vegetation dynamics, sediment supply, catchment preferences, and climate change in the Niger Delta.

5.1 Phase I: NN19/MIS2

This phase correlates to the later part of the last glacial period (MIS2) which is characterised by fluvial runoff from open landscape vegetation (Dupont and Agwu, 1991; Morley, 1995; Morley et al., 2011, 2017; Miller and Gosling, 2013; Cohen et al., 2014; Adojoh *et al.*, 2017; Adeonikpekun and Sowunmi, 2019) (Figure 7). It provides evidence of fluvial sediment supply to the Niger Delta based on abundant records of the hinterland indicators interpreted from the lower part of the GCs Zabel et al., 2001; Adegbe et al., 2003; (Pastouret et al., 1978; Morley and Richards, 1993; Skonieczny et al., 2015; Adojoh et al., 2017; Adeonipekun and Sowunmi, 2019; Boyden et al., 2021) (Figures 3-5). Significant records of hinterland pollen taxa in several other sediment cores in west equatorial Africa, such as T89-16, MD03-2708, and GeoB-4905 (Kim et al., 2010; Marret et al., 2001; Skonieczny et al., 2015) indicate dry conditions. In addition, the observed fluvial sediment supply could be linked to the seasonal latitudinal migration of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) with a mean annual position assumed to be around 13°N positioned further south (10°S) (Leroux, 1993; Marret et al., 2001; Shannahan et al., 2015; Adojoh et al., 2017; Hopker et al., 2019; Dai et al., 2021; Boyden et al., 2021).

Assuming the sedimentation pattern remained uneroded, this phase could be the main conduit through which terrestrial and riverine materials were transported to the Niger Delta during the sea level fall and dry climate (Figure 1). It was possible that sediment transport was local (period of intense tectonism), regional (climate sea and level change), or experienced both conditions, which contributed to the volume of sediment discharge through the Niger and Benue Rivers to the Niger Delta (Adegbe et al., 2003; Skonieczny et al., 2015; George et al., 2019) (Figure 1).

5.2 Phase II: NN20-NN21/MIS1

Mangrove assemblages (e.g., *Rhizophora* sp.) can be linked to stages of sea-level and climate change over the last 20 ka (Lezine, 1997; Scourse et al., 2005; Punwong et al., 2013; Adojoh et al., 2017; Morley, 2017), as also inferred in this study (Figures 6-7). During the Early to mid-Holocene (11-6.5 ka), this phase experienced sea level transgression and warm climate based on the higher sedimentation rate, expansion of mangrove vegetation, and marine indicators in the GC depths of ~202-0 cm (Figures 3-5). This was a setting of both rapid spread of the coastal/littoral vegetation zone associated with sea level rise and linked to the gently sloping shelf where transgressive sedimentation took place, leading to delta plain retreat (Morley, 1995; Rull,

2002; Torricelli et al., 2006; Amorosi et al., 2014; Adojoh et al. , 2015, 2017; Adeonikpekun and Sowunmi, 2019; Hopker et al., 2019; Dai et al, 2021). This phase also experienced increased marine (tidal) influence when compared to phase I (GC depths of ~272-202) (Figures 3-5), implying that mangrove pollen abundance in intertidal and tidal settings would be much higher (Oomkens, 1974; Poumot, 1989; Morley, 1995; Rull 2002; Punwong et al. , 2013; Joo-Chang et al., 2015; Hopker et al., 2019) (Figures 6-7). Consequently, abundance of mangrove pollen type (*Rhizophora*) is acknowledged as an indicator of sea level transgression when correlated with the regional sea level curve (e.g., Peltier, 1994; Scourse et al. , 2005; Joo-Chang et al., 2015; Adojoh et al., 2017; Chadwick et al., 2020; Boyden et al., 2021) (Figures 3-5).

5.3 Palaeoenvironmental evolution, climate and sea level change implications

The integrated multi-proxies obtained in this study provides a link to two evolutionary time-bound stages of vegetation dynamics and sediment supply in the Niger Delta during the last 20 ka. These two succinct time-bound stages provide a resonating clue on the prevailing past environment, climate and sea level change as follows: stage 1 (advancing or prograding delta) and stage 2 (retreating or retrograding delta) (Figures 6-7)

During stage 1, the GC data confirm the emergence of the continental shelf in response to a lower than present day sea level (Figures 6-7). The littoral environment (mangrove and coastal swamp) is subaerially exposed, and sedimentation and fluvial transport are effected by mass movement triggered by the weak West African Monsoon (WAM) (Morley, 1995; Reijers, 2011; Zong et al. , 2009; Shannahan et al., 2015; Skonieczny et al., 2015; Adojoh et al., 2017; Hopker et al., 2019; Chadwick et al., 2020; Dai et al, 2021). The GC records indicate the predominance of hinterland pollen during stage 1 evolution of the Late Quaternary Niger Delta. The pollen types identified were transported beyond the littoral realm/coastal zone, representing a strong signal of the prevalent arid conditions and low sedimentation rates (Figures 3-5; 6-7). In addition, the dominance of hinterland pollen taxa and low abundance of planktonic foraminifera suggest that stage 1 was a distal offshore/lower shoreface prodelta environment (Adegoke, 1975; Murray, 1991; Morley, 1995) (Figure 7). On a regional scale, this stage was a period of an enhanced sediment transport, as observed in the settings of the Amazon, Senegal (Ogolian regression), and Congo Rivers (Figures 3-5; 7) (Barusseau, 1988; Barusseau et al. , 1995; Marret et al., 2001; Giosan et al., 2005; Bonne, 2014; Adeonipkekun and Sowunmi, 2019; Boyden et al., 2021).

Following stage 1 was a period of rapid sediment retreat in the Niger Delta attributed to sea level rise (Figures 6-7). This period of an onset of Early to mid-Holocene sea level rise coincides with an episode of shoreline transgression and fine-grained sediment suspension reflecting the proximity of turbidity currents (Peltier, 1994; Goodbred , 2003; Scourse et al., 2005; Joo-Chang et al ; 2015; Hopker et al., 2019; Dai et al, 2021). Increases in the values of mangrove pollen (e.g., *Rhizophora*) and the Fe/S elemental data suggest a reducing environment with the potential of rapid post-dissolution of pyrite (FeS) minerals and organic-rich sulphur content during the warm climate (Fletcher, 2005; Mendoza, 2007) (Figures 3-5; 6-7). In addition, this stage suggests a proximal-upper shoreface (delta plain/delta front) palaeoenvironment based on the dominance of the planktonic foraminiferal (*Globorotalia* spp.) (Figure 7). Sediment supply and pollen deposition during stage 2 was principally driven by the interaction between the creation of accommodation space and density of mangrove vegetation spread across the near shore (Bonne, 2014) (Figures 6-7). On a regional extent, stage 2 correlates to the period of sea level rise (Nouakchottian transgression) as observed from the coastal margins of Congo, Senegal, and Mauritania (Barusseau, 1988; Barusseau et al. , 1995; Lezine 1997; Lezine and Deneffe, 1997; Dalibard et al., 2014; Scourse et al., 2005; Hopker et al., 2019; Dai et al, 2021).

6. Conclusions

Integration of the multiple datasets in the three GCs permitted the identification of the direct link between delta landscape and vegetation dynamics in the eastern (GC1), central (GC2), and western (GC3) parts of the Late Quaternary Niger Delta. The study clearly identified two time-bound stages (1 and 2) of delta evolution as inputs for interpreting seasonal variations in climate and sea level change. The major findings are as follow:

1. Stage 1 linked the period from 20-11.7 ka to higher influx of hinterland pollen, slow sedimentation on the prodelta, sea level fall. and drier climate in the Niger Delta.
2. Stage 2 (11.7-6.5 ka) indicated a phase of expansion of the littoral realm/mangrove vegetation, higher sedimentation rate on the delta front, sea level rise, and warm climate.
3. The changes in the geochemical ratios during the two phases of sedimentation provided the first clarification on the timing between seasonal variation in vegetation, sediment supply, and palaeoenvironmental settings (lower / upper shoreface) in the Niger Delta.
4. Sea level change was apparently the major driver in the evolution of the Niger Delta based on the dominance of *Rhizophora* pollen recorded from the GCs during stage 2.
5. The integrated datasets (e.g., mangrove and hinterland pollen, planktonic foraminifera, trace elemental ratios) provided a robust and coherent information for delineating the MIS2 (late glacial) and MIS1 (interglacial) boundary.

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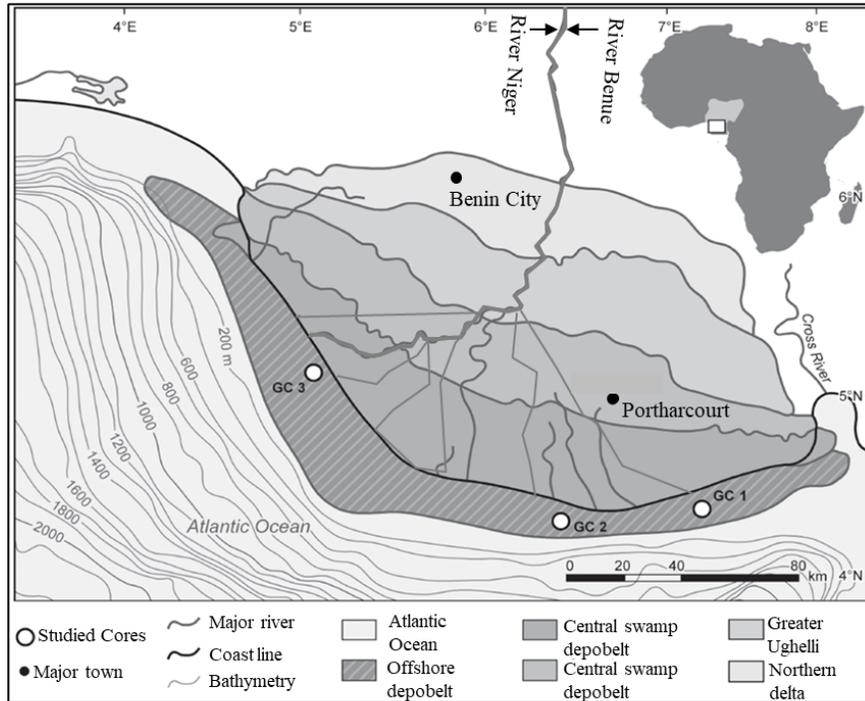


Figure 1. Map of the Niger Delta showing its location in southern Nigeria (inset) and the locations of the gravity cores (GCs). Note - The major river was formed from the confluence of Niger (North-West Nigeria) and Benue (South-West Nigeria) Rivers (modified after Adojoh et al., 2017).

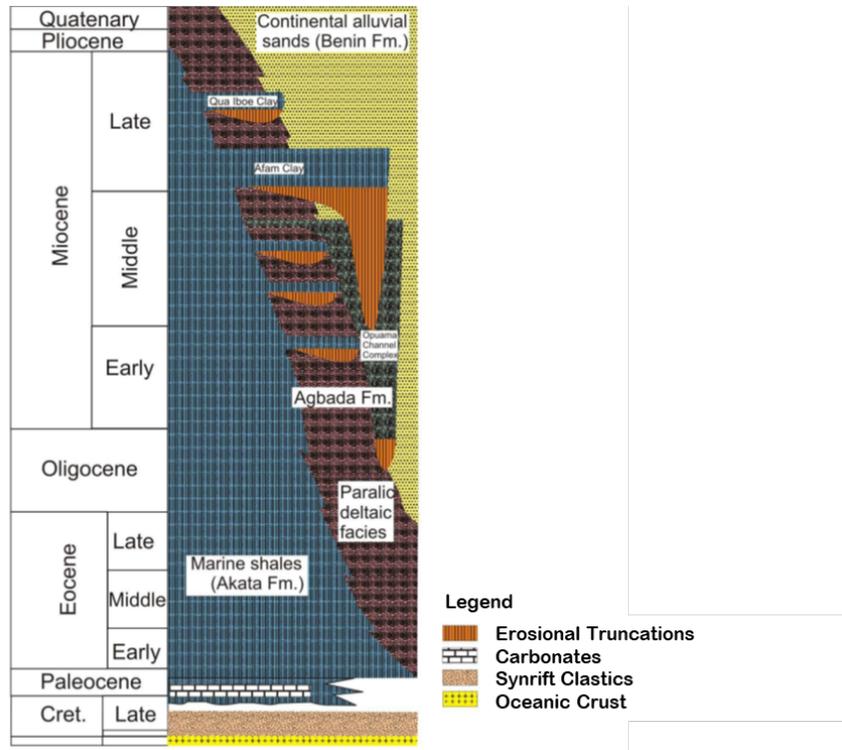
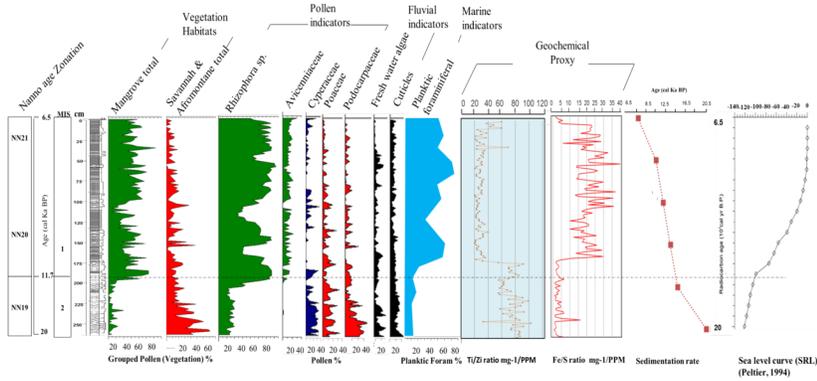


Figure 2. The stratigraphy of the Niger Delta; FM = Formation (after Doust and Omatsola, 1990).



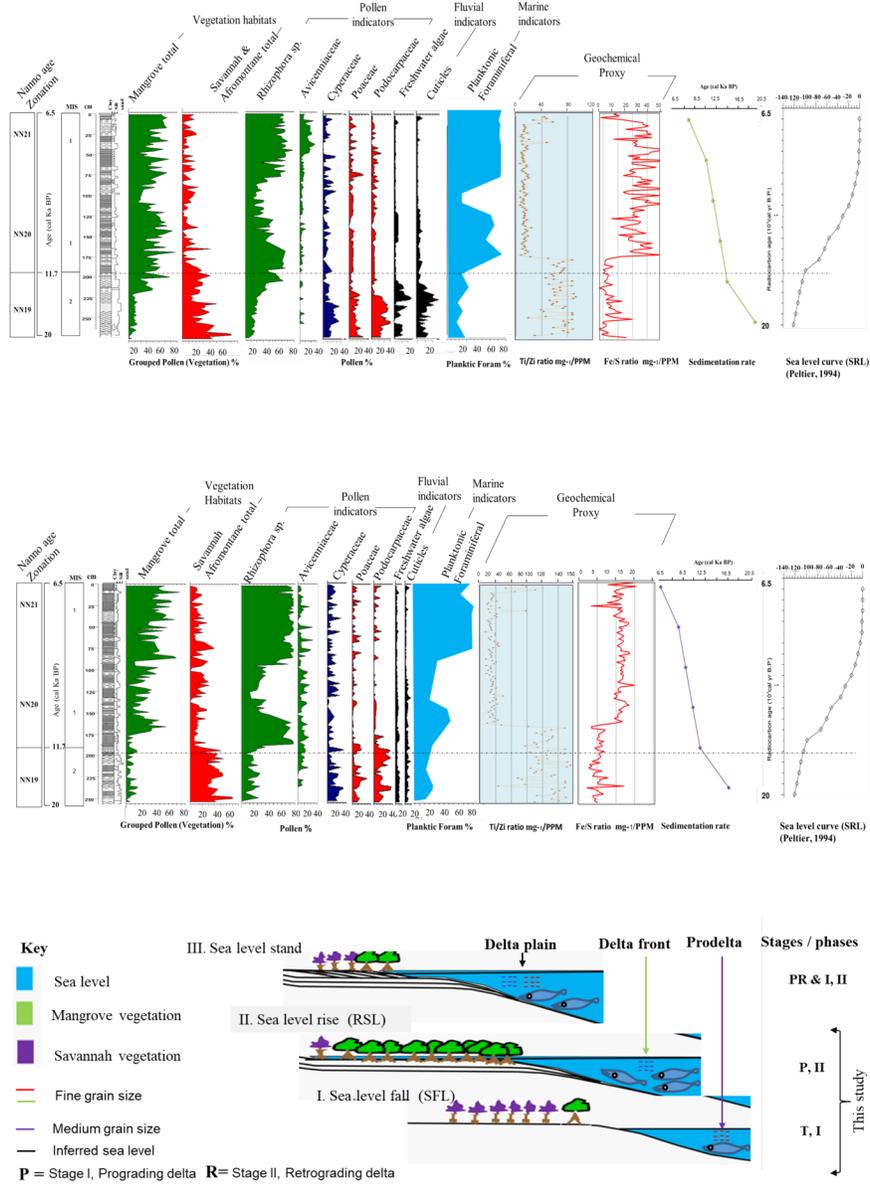


Figure 6. A model of sea level change in relation to vegetation dynamics, deltaic evolution, and sediment supply (grain size variation) (modified after Morley, 2011 and Adojoh et al., 2015).

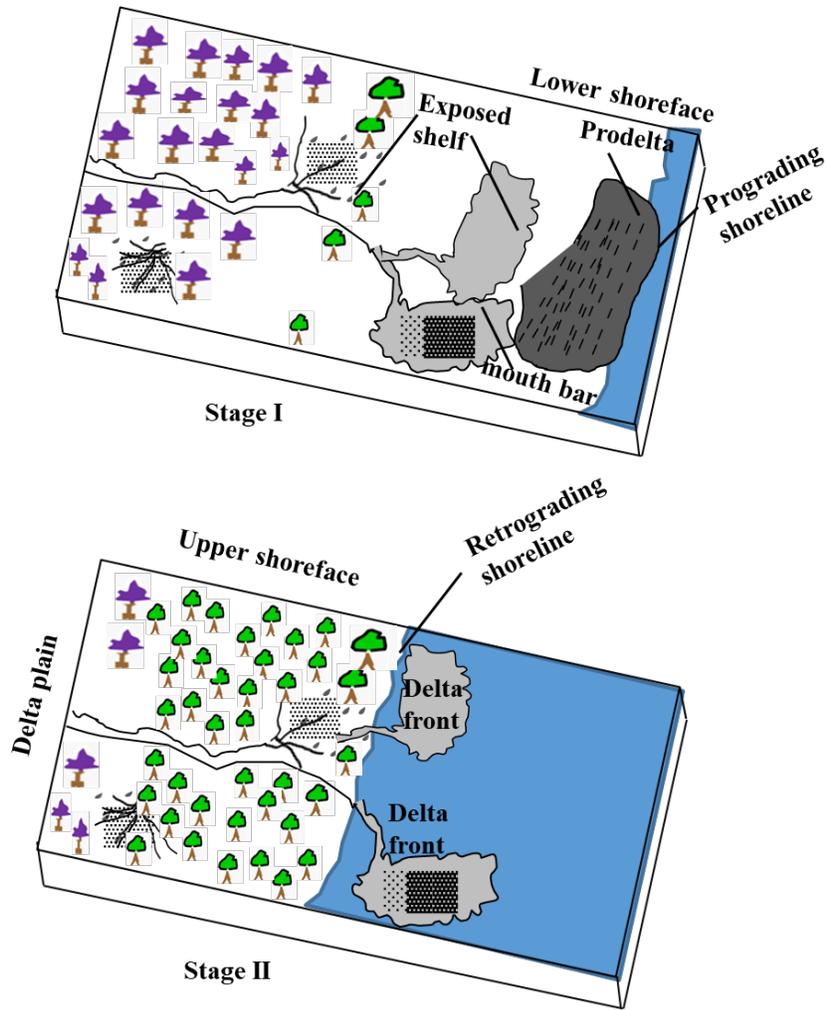


Figure 7. Two stages of vegetation dynamics, sea level change, and depositional settings observed in Figures 3-5 modified into the landscape evolution of the Niger Delta during the Late Quaternary (last 20 ka).

Table 1: Sedimentation rate records of the GCs. Sedimentation rate (SR, cm/kyr) is the thickness of sediment (Z, cm) that accumulates over a specified time interval (age difference) (T, kyr). Therefore, $SR = Z/T$ where Z = Intervals between samples (cm); T = Age difference between samples (kyr). The first two intervals (i.e., from 11.7-8.5 + 6.5) ka were added to compute the SR result for the phase II.

Gravity Core (GC)	Age (ka)	GC1	SR (cm/ kyr)	GC 2	SR SR (cm/kyr)	GC3	SR (cm/ kyr)
Depth (cm)	6.5	0-40	6.2	0-40	6.2	0-40	6.2
Depth (cm)	11.7	40-184	72.0	40-142	52.6	40-142	52.6
Depth (cm)	20	184-272	9.8	142-266	13.8	142-260	13.1

