

Linking eutrophication to carbon dioxide and methane emissions from exposed mangrove soils along an urban gradient

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2	mangrove soils along an urban gradient
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1 Linking eutrophication to carbon dioxide and methane emissions from exposed

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29 Graphical Abstract



30

31 HIGHLIGHTS

- Elementary, isotopic, and molecular proxies indicated mangrove organic matter
 lability;
 Organic matter lability increased with urban growth and untreated sewage
- 35 discharges;
- Carbon dioxide emissions from exposed mangrove soils increased with
 eutrophication;
- Methane emissions were 3 orders of magnitude lower than dioxide carbon
 emissons;
- 40 n-alcanes and sterol biomarkers suggest enhanced biomass degradation with
 41 pollution.

43 Abstract

44 Mangroves are one of the most important but threatened blue carbon ecosystems globally. 45 Rapid urban growth has resulted in nutrient inputs and subsequent coastal eutrophication, 46 associated with an enrichment in organic matter (OM) from algal and sewage sources and 47 substantial changes in greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. However, the effects of nitrogen 48 (N) and phosphorus (P) enrichment on mangrove soil OM composition and GHG 49 emissions, such as methane (CH₄) and carbon dioxide (CO₂), are still poorly understood. 50 Here, we aim to evaluate the relationships between CO2 and CH4 efflux with OM 51 composition in exposed soils from three mangrove areas along watersheds with different 52 urbanization levels (Rio de Janeiro State, Brazil). To assess spatial (lower vs. upper 53 intertidal zones) and seasonal (summer vs. winter) variability, we measured soil-air CO₂ 54 and CH₄ fluxes at low spring tide, analyzing elementary (C, N, and P), isotopic (δ^{13} C and 55 δ^{15} N), and the molecular (n-alkanes and sterols) composition of surface soil OM. A general trend of OM composition was found with increasing urban influence, with higher 56 δ^{15} N (proxy of anthropogenic N enrichment), less negative δ^{13} C, more short-chain n-57 58 alkanes, lower C:N ratio (proxies of algal biomass), and higher epicoprostanol content 59 (proxies of sewage-derived OM). The CO₂ efflux from exposed soils increased greatly in median (25/75% interquartile range) from 4.6 (2.9/8.3) to 24.0 (21.5/32.7) mmol m⁻² h⁻¹ 60 61 from more pristine to more urbanized watersheds, independent of intertidal zone and 62 seasonality. The CO₂ fluxes at the most eutrophicated site were among the highest 63 reported worldwide for mangrove soils. Conversely, CH₄ emissions were relatively low 64 (three orders of magnitude lower than CO₂ fluxes), with high peaks in the lower intertidal 65 zone during the rainy summer. Thus, our findings demonstrate the influence of coastal eutrophication on global warming potentials related to enhanced heterotrophic 66 67 remineralization of blue carbon within mangrove soils.

68 Keywords: CO₂; CH₄; Nutrient; Urban Growth; Organic Matter.

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70

71 **1. Introduction**

Recent scientific evidence indicates that increased organic matter (OM) and nutrient flows to coastal areas are critical components of global change, resulting in the degradation of biodiversity, water quality, and C storage (Breitburg et al., 2018). Eutrophication can be defined as an increased rate of OM supply to an ecosystem, not as a trophic state but as a process (Nixon, 1995). Nutrient and OM inputs from natural sources may be increased due to cultural eutrophication associated with urban sewage loading and enhanced coastal productivity. Eutrophication has become widespread in coastal marine environments around the world (Jiao et al., 2018; Häder et al., 2020). Substantial changes in sources and quality of OM deposited in aquatic sediments have been widely reported following eutrophication (Alongi, 2009; Kristensen et al., 2017).

82 Soils are the main organic carbon (OC) pool in mangrove ecosystems (Hamilton 83 and Friess, 2018). These pools are referred to as blue C, an important component of the 84 marine C cycle. (Jiao et al., 2018). However, the large blue C stocks in these systems may 85 be partially remineralized to greenhouse gases (GHGs) and returned to the atmosphere 86 (Jacotot et al., 2018; Martin et al., 2020). Despite their importance to global climate and 87 biodiversity, mangroves have been heavily threatened by deforestation (Hamilton and 88 Friess, 2018) and cultural eutrophication (Barcellos et al., 2019). Previous studies have 89 indicated contrasting effects of eutrophication on C storage in mangrove soils, such as 90 enhanced OM accumulation (Sanders et al., 2014) and remineralization (Queiroz et al., 91 2020).

The principal GHG released from mangrove soils is CO₂, as this gas may be derived from a wide variety of aerobic and anaerobic diagenetic reactions (Alongi, 2009). In turn, CH₄ production is a strictly anaerobic process and limted in coastal wetlands due to high sulphate concentrations from seawater. High sulphate concentrations favor OM degradation through sulphate reduction rather than methanogenesis (Martens and Berner, 1974). However, eutrophication and subsequent enrichment of labile organic substrates may stimulate methanogenesis in these environments (Chen et al., 2011).

99 Although several studies have demonstrated changes in OM composition and C 100 cycling processes in mangroves undergoing eutrophication (Sanders et al., 2014; 101 Keuskamp et al., 2015; Pérez et al., 2020), a better understanding of the mechanistic links 102 between GHG emissions and the quality of natural and anthropogenic OM is still needed. Highly variable CO₂ and CH₄ emissions from mangrove soils are also commonly 103 104 attributed to the effects of biogenic structures (e.g., crab burrows and pneumatophores) 105 that promote oxygenation and gas diffusion (Ouyang et al., 2016). As a result, differences 106 in subaerial exposure time observed between the lower and upper intertidal zones are also 107 a critical control of redox conditions to biogeochemical processes in mangrove soils 108 (Kristensen et al., 2017). In addition to spatial variation from lower to upper intertidal 109 zone, the physical, chemical, and biological drivers of GHG emissions may vary 110 temporally over the seasonal cycles, especially due to variation in temperature and/or 111 rainfall (Kristensen et al., 2008a; Jacotot et al., 2019).

112 Diverse spatial and seasonal responses of highly dynamic GHGs to eutrophication 113 remain poorly understood for a wide intra- (Chen et al., 2012) and inter- (Kristensen et 114 al., 2017) variation of mangrove soils. This study aims to assess the relationship between 115 OM composition (elementary, isotopic, and molecular proxies), biological structures (crab burrow and pneumatophore densities), and GHG emissions (CO₂ and CH₄) from 116 117 three mangrove soils, with different urbanization levels along specific watersheds within 118 the Rio de Janeiro State, Southeastern Brazil. Our hypothesis was that higher CO₂ and 119 CH₄ emissions would be associated with increasing cultural eutrophication indicated by 120 OM elementary, isotopic, and molecular composition in mangrove soils, independent of 121 intertidal zone and seasonality. To address these assumptions, soil-atmosphere C 122 exchange rates were compared during low spring tides, taking into account differing 123 spatial scales among mangroves and their intertidal zones (lower vs. upper intertidal 124 zones), as well as seasonal variability (summer vs. winter).

126 **2. Methods**

127 2.1. Sampling area and possible eutrophication sources within catchments

128 This study was conducted in three mangroves along the inner parts of semi-enclosed 129 bays within a relatively close distance of ~160 km along the shoreline of the Rio de 130 Janeiro State (Southeast Brazil). Each study site is shown on Figure 1: Saco de Mamanguá 131 (M1), Guapimirim (M2) and Guaratiba (M3). For each mangrove area, two sites were 132 established considering differences in the topographic profile and dominant vegetation 133 composition: the lower and upper intertidal zones situated at fringe and basin forests, 134 respectively (Fig 1). This classification assumes that fringe forests have higher frequency 135 of tidal inundation than basin forest in the innermost zone, as described by Schaeffer-136 Novelli et al. (2000). The lower zone here is dominated by Avicennia schaueriana in M1 and M3 and Laguncularia racemosa in M2, while in the upper zone of these mangroves 137 138 *Rhizophora mangle* is most prevalent (Table S1).

139 The climate of the region according to Köppen-Geiger classification is tropical with 140 wet summers and dry winters (Aw). The 12-year (2007-2019) monthly averages of 141 temperature and accumulated rainfall in the three study regions vary from ~21 to ~26°C 142 and ~121 to ~475mm in winter and summer, respectively (data provided by the Brazilian 143 National Institute of Meteorology, stations A602 and A619 located ~4 and ~12 km from 144 M3 and M1, respectively, and by the Brazilian Airspace Control Institute, station 83746 145 located ~24 km from M2). Monthly mean temperature and accumulated rainfall data in 146 each sampling season and region were provided by meteorological stations A602 and 147 (available A619 at https://portal.inmet.gov.br/) and 83746 (available at 148 https://www.redemet.aer.mil.br/). The micro-tidal regime of M1, M2 and M3 mangroves

is predominantly semidiurnal, averaging 0.75, 0.76 and 0.43m, respectively, as estimatedusing the software PACMARE (Franco, 1997).

151 M1 is a small and well-preserved ecosystem inside an elongated cove with 152 restricted water circulation, which receives oligotrophic waters from pristine inland and 153 marine environments, located within the Cairucu Environmental Protection Area in the 154 west portion of the Ilha Grande Bay. Also, the watershed of the M1 mangrove is very 155 small, with a low local river freshwater discharge (Brandini et al., 2019). In contrast, M2 156 site is influenced by eutrophic and mesotrophic rivers, even considering that this site is 157 located within the Guapimirim Environmental Protection Area in Guanabara Bay 158 (Carreira et al., 2001). Lastly, the M3 site is located within Sepetiba Bay, also situated at 159 a conservation area (State Biological Reserve of Guaratiba), though highly impacted due 160 to continuous domestic and industrial sewage discharges from a highly urbanized 161 catchment area (Copeland et al., 2003; Marins et al., 2004). Although the entire drainage 162 basin of Guanabara Bay is one of most urbanized in Brazil (Amador, 2013), with an 163 estimated population ~17 million compared to ~1.8 million in of Sepetiba Bay (IBGE, 164 2010), the immediate watershed of the M2 site is much less urbanized than that of M3 165 (Table S1, Fig 1).

166 The urban growth along the Rio de Janeiro coastline occurred with a low level of 167 wastewater treatment (Fistarol et al., 2015), contributing to the eutrophication of 168 Guanabara and Sepetiba Bays, where M2 and M3 mangroves are respectively located 169 (Figure 1). In constrast, the Ilha Grande Bay, including the cove where M1 is situated, 170 remains relatively pristine (Abril et al., 2022). During the sampling period, the increased eutrophication in surface waters around M3, eastern portion of Sepetiba Bay, is confirmed 171 172 by the highest DO saturation and inorganic nutrient concentrations (Table S2), which are 173 typically associated with eutrophication in coastal waters (Marotta et al., 2012). As an

evidence of eutrophication sources in the study area, data from the Rio de Janeiro State Environmental Institute (N = ~4 monthly samples per 3-6 contributing river of each bay portion from 2017 to 2018, available at http://www.inea.rj.gov.br) indicate biochemical oxygen demand, total phosphorus (TP) concentrations, and fecal coliform counts above 1.5, 2.5, and 3.5 times higher, respectively, in tributaries near M2 than those of M1. The highest eutrophication in tributaries near M3 is represented by these water parameters above 6, 20, and 170 times higher, respectively, compared to those of M1.

181 2.2. Study Design

Samples were taken from each mangrove area: most pristine (M1), intermediate (M2) and most urban (M3). Sampling included measurements of soil-air CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes associated with OM elementary, isotopic, and molecular compositions and biogenic structures. Sampling sites included the lower (L) and upper (U) intertidal zones and samples were taken in winter ("W"; July-September 2017) and summer ("S"; February-March 2018) at low spring tide.

188 Gas chambers (N=3-5 and 7 for CO_2 and CH_4 , respectively) were randomly 189 distributed in the same day between 08:00 and 13:00 local time at both zones for each 190 mangrove. After gas sampling, the aboveground density of pneumatophores of Avicennia 191 schaueriana and crab burrows were counted. Then, surface soil samples (~ 2 cm) for OM 192 composition and granulometric analysis were taken from the area under each chamber where 193 CO₂ and CH₄ emissions were measured. For PCA and correlation analysis, each data of 194 biogenic structures, soil composition, and GHG flux was the median for each upper or lower 195 zone, mangrove ecosystem, as well as winter or summer (N = 12). At each upper or lower 196 intertidal zone of mangrove, samples of live leaves, stems, and roots of the dominant 197 species (Rhizophora mangle, Avicennia shaueriana or Laguncularia racemosa) were still 198 collected (N = 3 samples of plant material from each of 3 individuals per species) to

- 199 determine isotopic composition of these potential endmembers. Lastly, the topography of
- 200 each ecosystem was measured along transects from the lower and upper intertidal zones
- 201 to estimate the number of days in which soils are annually exposed or flooded by tides in

202 each sampling site.

203 2.3. Analytical Methods

- 204 2.3.1. Gas Emissions from the Exposed Soil-Air interface
- a) Exposed soil-air CO₂ exchange rates

206 Short-term measurements of CO₂ concentration (ppm) were taken inside Plexiglass chambers (volume of 5776 cm³ and area of 268 cm²; N = 3-5 chambers measured 3-7 207 208 times each one) coupled in a closed system with a previously calibrated infrared gas 209 analyzer (Licor, LI-820). To minimize disturbance of surface roots or other biogenic 210 structures, these chambers were gently inserted ~2 cm into the soil, permitting the 211 quantification of CO₂ exchange rates as a function of the linear increase gas concentration 212 inside the chambers (Rochette and Hutchinson, 2015). After closing the system and 213 reaching atmospheric levels (\pm 10%), the CO₂ concentrations were measured every second during a short incubation period of ~8 min to avoid bias on gas diffusivity by 214 215 artificial changes, especially in temperature (Kabwe et al., 2002).

216 b) Exposed soil-air CH₄ exchange rates.

These fluxes were measured with the static closed chamber method, derived from significant linear slopes (p<0.05) only with a R²> 0.80 of gas concentration versus time to ensure accurate measurements. We used 3-5 discrete air samples for CH₄ concentrations, of which were taken at ~30-45 min intervals over 90-160 min inside chambers. For detection purposes, low rates require longer incubation times. Seven Plexiglass chambers (volume of 5,776cm³ and area of 268cm²) were gently inserted ~2 cm into soils and placed randomly around a 10-20m distance in each studied zone, season, 224 and mangrove (Hutchinson and Livingston, 2001). To reach the atmospheric equilibrium 225 before the initial time, chambers were opened for ~20-min through a gas valve (Keller et 226 al., 2000). Air samples were carefully collected after being homogenized inside each 227 chamber, using a 20-mL gas-tight syringe, and transferred to pre-evacuated 12-mL glass 228 vials (Exetainer®, Labco, UK). Then, these vials were kept at room temperature, 229 transported, and analyzed in the laboratory using a previously calibrated Agilent gas 230 chromatograph (model 7890B) equipped with flame ionization detector and nickel 231 catalytic methanizer.

232 c) Calculations of exposed soil-air gas exchange rates

233 CO_2 or CH_4 fluxes across the exposed soil-air interface (F) were calculated from 234 the linear regression of each gas concentrations inside chambers versus time (only values 235 of $R^2>0.8$ were used), following the Eq. (1):

236 $F_{(CO2, CH4)} = (d (CO_2, CH_4)/dt). (P.V)/(R.T.S)$

where F is the CO₂ or CH₄ flux from exposed soils to the atmosphere (CO₂: mmol m⁻¹ h⁻¹ 1; CH₄: μ mol m⁻² h⁻¹); d (CO₂, CH₄/dt) is the variation in CO₂ or CH₄ concentrations as a function of time (ppm s⁻¹), P is the atmospheric pressure (μ atm), V is the total chamber volume (m³); R is the ideal gas constant of 820528 x 10⁻⁰⁵ (atm m³ K⁻¹ mol⁻¹), T is the absolute air temperature (K), and S is the surface area covered by the incubation chamber (m²).

243 2.3.2. Chemical composition of Mangrove Soils and Endmembers

Analysis of elementary (C, N, P), isotopic (δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N), and molecular (sterols and n-alkanes) composition of OM, and soil grain-size were performed in ~2 cm depth surface soils inside each of the CO₂ and CH₄ flux chambers, totalizing 84 samples (14 samples per mangrove zone and season). Fresh leaves, stems, and roots considered as endmembers representatives were carefully washed with deionized water before freezedrying. The soil samples and plant material were kept at -20°C before being freeze-dried,
grounded to powder, and stored in plastic containers for further analysis. Plant debris
were removed when present in the soil samples before freezing.

a) Carbon and Nitrogen content and Isotopic composition

253 Prior to OC and δ^{13} C analysis, soil samples were acidified (10% HCl) as described 254 by Wendlandt (1986) to eliminate carbonates, while soil for TN, δ^{15} N analysis and all 255 plant samples were not acidified. Both acidified and non-acidified dry-powder soil 256 samples were weighted (10-20 and 6-8 mg sealed in silver and tin capsules for soils and 257 plant tissues, respectively), and the analysis were carried out using a Flash Element 258 Analyzer coupled to a Thermo Fisher isotope ratio (Delta V IRMS) mass spectrometer. 259 Analytical precision was as follows: C=0.1%, N=0.1%, δ^{13} C=0.1‰, and δ^{15} N=0.15‰.

b) Phosphorus content

Total phosphorus (TP) was determined after calcination at 450°C for 4h, while inorganic phosphorus (IP) in freeze-dried samples. IP was determined in soil samples extracted with 1N-HCl after stirring for 16 hours, using the ascorbic acid/molybdenum blue colometric method at 880nm (Grasshoff et al., 1999). In turn, the organic phosphorus (PO) was calculated as the difference between total and inorganic P fractions. The absorbance was measured using a Shimadzu UV-1601PC spectrophotometer.

267 c) Lipid biomarkers

The n-alkane and sterol extractions were performed in dry-powder soil samples (~2g) following EPA (1996) as adapted by Wakeham and Canuel (1988). The extraction was carried out using ultrasonic baths of dichloromethane (DCM), DCM: methanol (1:1), and methanol (2x). After centrifuge the supernatants, complete reduction in rotoevaporate and transfer to a chromatographic column, the n-alkanes were obtained eluting 3 ml of n-hexane, while sterols were eluted with 3.5 ml of hexane and ethyl acetate (3:1).

Analysis was performed in a GC-FID 7890A HP-Agilent fitted with a DB-5 capillary column (30m, 0.32mm, 0.25 μ m). Derivatization was performed prior to sterols analysis. The n-alkanes and sterols were identified in comparison with commercial standards, Surrogates (C30D64 and androstanol) and internal standards (C24D50 and 5acholestane), respectively. Detection limit for alkanes was 0.005 ng g⁻¹ and for sterols 0.01 ng g⁻¹. Due to highly variable OC (Table 2), sterol concentrations were normalized to the organic carbon content (μ g gOrgC⁻¹).

281 To distinguish natural matter sources from anthropogenic impacts, the following 282 proxies were used. For sterols: (I) phytosterols (campesterol, stigmasterol and β -283 sitosterol) were applied for higher plant or phytoplankton, (II) the sum of coprostanol and 284 epicoprostanol for sewage, and (III) cholesterol and cholestanol for plankton (Mannino 285 and Harvey, 1999). In addition, coprostanol is abundant in untreated domestic sewage, 286 while epicoprostanol is typically low in that untreated (Mudge and Lintern, 1999) and 287 increased by the cholesterol reduction during the sewage treatment, being a proxy of 288 treated sewage (McCalley et al., 1981).

289 Then, the 5β :($5\beta+5\alpha$) ratio (coprostanol:(coprostanol+colestanol) was used as a 290 proxy of fecal contamination (Grimalt et al., 1990), while the coprostanol:cholesterol 291 ratio (Cop:Cho; Mudge and Bebianno, 1997) pointed for sewage influence versus 292 microbial degradation process and the diagenetic ratio stanol:stenol (Nishimura and 293 Koyama, 1976; McCaffrey, 1990) indicated the proportion between fresher phytosterols 294 and their degraded forms (campestanol, stigmastanol and β -sitostanol). For n-alkanes we 295 used the indexes: (1) Terrestrial: Aquatic Ratio (TAR; Bourbonniere and Meyers, 1996) 296 assumed here as (C27+C29+C31):(C15+C17+C19) ratio, in which values > 1.0 indicate 297 the predominance of compounds from terrestrial or mangrove higher plants rather than 298 algae; (2) the input of total n-alkanes (Σ C14-40); (3) Carbon Preference Index (CPI; Clark Jr. and Blumer, 1967) represented here as $\sum (C_{odd}(15-39):\sum (C_{even}(14-40))$, in which CPI < 1 indicates anthropogenic inputs, while CPI > 1.0 indicates biogenic sources; (4) Low Molecular Weight:High Molecular Weight Ratio (LMW:HMW, Wang et al., 2006) represented here as $\sum (C14-23:\sum (C24-40))$ which was used to attribute aquatic over terrestrial input; and (5) Pristane:Phytane ratio (Pr:Ph, Steinhauer and Boehm 1992) was used as a proxy for redox conditions.

305 2.3.3. Grain Size

306 This procedure was carried out in dry soil samples free of carbonates and organic 307 compounds. Carbonates were removed by adding 20mL of HCl 1M for 48 hours followed 308 by washing and centrifugation with deionized water (5min at 3500rpm), while OM was 309 removed by loss on ignition at 400°C overnight (Schumacher, 2002). In addition, the 310 samples were disaggregated with 20mL of 4% sodium hexametaphosphate dispersant and 311 stirred on an orbital shaker for 24 hours, and subsequently sieved with a mesh diameter 312 of 420µm before laser diffraction analysis using a CILAS 1064 (0.04-500µm range). The 313 grain-size distribution was classified according to the Wentworth scale adopted in the GRADISTAT routine, assuming the statistical parameters of Folk and Ward (1957). 314

315 2.3.4. Topography and Annual Period of Soil Exposure in Mangroves

316 Topographic profiles of mangrove soils from the lower to the upper intertidal zone 317 were measured with a Leica TS06 Total Station at low spring tide (e.g., Moser et al., 318 2007; Wheaton et al., 2009). The vertical and horizontal distances of a transversal profile 319 were converted into altimetry using the sea level at the lower intertidal zone (*i.e.*, initial 320 seaward edge) with a GPS receiver (planimetric accuracy of $\pm 3m$). Then, the transect was 321 adjusted using the azimuth angle (magnetic north) at specific measured coordinates (Lam 322 and Chen, 2001), considering the mean sea-level which was established by the Brazilian 323 Navy as the altimetric reference. At the mangroves M1 and M3 sites, topographic profiles

were measured from the lower to the upper intertidal zones. In turn, two topographic profiles were surveyed at the M2 site due to logistical constraints, associated with highly unstable muddy substrate along single transects.

Additionally, between January 2017 and December 2018, we modeled 10-min interval tidal heights based on the harmonic method using the PACMARE software (Franco, 1997), which allows to calculate the annual mangrove soil subaerial exposure and flooding in each zone by the difference between the predicted tide height and the measured topography (Verhoeven et al., 2014). The tide gauge data derived from tidal height measurements and harmonic parameters were established by the Brazilian Navy (*https://www.marinha.mil.br/chm/tabuas-de-mare*).

334 2.4. Statistical analysis

335 The data in this study did not show significant homoscedasticity (Bartlett, p>0.05) 336 and normal distribution (Kolmogorov-Smirnov, p<0.05) even after different 337 transformations (Zar, 1996). For this, the Mann-Whitney test (significance level p<0.05) was used to compare two categories (e.g., upper and lower intertidal zones or summer 338 339 and winter), while the Kruskal-Wallis test (significance level p<0.05) three or more (e.g., 340 M1, M2, and M3 or intertidal zones in each mangrove and/or season). As post-test, 341 differences were assessed with False Discovery Rate (FDR; significance level p<0.05), 342 considering p-values from Mann-Whitney tests and the two-stage step-up method 343 described by Benjamini et al. (2006). FDR is also more appropriate for environmental data that involved many multiple comparisons and small samples (García, 2004). 344

In addition, spearman correlation matrix (significance level p<0.05) and principal component analysis (PCA) were applied to find out the major controls on CO₂ and CH₄ emissions from mangrove soils (N = 12 including 2 intertidal zones, 2 seasons and 3 mangroves for each variable). The PCA was used to assess the magnitude and direction of 349 correlations between both dependent (soil-air CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes) and other independent
350 variables. All statistical tests were performed using GraphPad Prism (version 7.0), except
351 the PCA in Statistica software (version 10).

352

353 **3. Results**

The three studied mangroves showed significant heterogeneity in soil OM composition and urban growth along watersheds (Table 1), indicating a higher spatial (among mangroves and intertidal zones) than seasonal (summer *vs.* winter) variability as detailed below.

358

359 3.1. Elementary and Isotopic Composition of Soils

360 The surface soil of the studied mangroves was predominantly composed of silt (71-361 93%) and clay (4-17%; Table 1). Comparing the three systems, M1 showed ~2 times 362 higher OC concentration than M2 and M3 (FDR, p<0.05; Fig 2). TN, OP, OC:TN and OC:TP ratio were ~2-4 times higher in M1 than in M2 and M3 (FDR, p<0.05; Fig 2; 363 Table 1). $\delta^{15}N$ was ~ 5 times higher in M3 than in M1and $\delta^{13}C$ was ~20% higher in M3 364 365 than in M1 and M2 (FDR, p<0.05; Fig 2). In addition to being the highest in median, the 366 δ^{13} C data showed the highest variation in M3 (25/75% interquartile) when compared to 367 M1 and M2 (from -28 to -11‰, from -31 to -24‰, and from -32 to -26‰, respectively; 368 FDR, p<0.05; Fig 2; Table 1). Median IP concentration was similar between M2 and M3, 369 being ~70% higher than M1 (FDR, p<0.05; Fig 2). M2 showed the highest median 370 (25/75% inter-quartil) values of TP concentration, since M1 = 1010 (908/1180), M2= 1202 (1054/1338), and M3= 1072 (1001/1150) µg g⁻¹ (FDR p<0.05; Fig 2). Only in M1 371 site, the OP was the predominant P form (Fig 2). 372

373 In relation to intertidal spatial variability of element composition, OC, TN, TP, $\delta 13C$, 374 δ 15N, C:N, C:P, and OP were from ~10 to 40% higher in the upper than in the lower zone, 375 except IP that decreased ~10% (Mann-Whitney, significance level p<0.05; Fig S1). The 376 seasonal variability between winter and summer was not significantly different for values 377 of OC, TN, TP, δ^{15} N, C:N, and C:P ratio (Mann-Whitney, p>0.05; Fig S2). However, $\delta^{13}C$ and IP were significantly higher and OP lower in winter compared to summer 378 379 (Mann-Whitney, p<0.05; Fig S2). Moreover, the highest soil OC concentrations were 380 found in the upper intertidal zone of M1 in both summer and winter seasons, contrasting with the lowest values in the lower zone of M3 in winter (FDR, p<0.05; Fig S3). 381

382 In the studied soils, 10 sterol compounds were identified (Table S3 and Table S4), and the total concentrations ranged from not detectable to 57.4 μ g g⁻¹. β -sitosterol and 383 stigmasterol showed a greater participation in the sterol pool in M1, and coprostanol (5β-384 385 cholestan-3 β -ol) in M3. Highest concentrations of epicoprostanol (5 β -cholestan-3 α -ol) 386 were found in M3, and often below the detection limit in M1 and M2. In contrast, the 387 intermediate compounds of the diagenetic degradation of sterols, *i.e.* cholesterol (cholest-388 5-in-3 β -ol) and cholestanol (5 α -cholestan-3 β -ol), varied among mangrove sites. These results indicate the highest cholesterol values in M2, variability of cholestanol in M3, and 389 390 diagenetic ratio (stanol:sterol) in M3 (Table S3). Finally, a greater contribution of higher 391 plants and algae sources in M1 and M2 (~60% to 79% of campesterol, stigmasterol, and β -sitosterol) contrasted with the highest influence of sewage in M3 (~3% to 11% of 392 393 coprostanol and epicoprostanol; Fig. 4).

The total n-alkanes ($\sum Cn_{14-40}$) ranged from 186.3 in M1 to 4,021.1 µg gOrgC⁻¹ in M2, with an overall predominance of odd long chains (Cn_{25-29}). The dominant compounds were Cn_{25} in M1, while Cn_{25} , Cn_{29} and Cn_{31} in M2 and M3 being Cn_{21} more abundant in M3 (Table S5). In turn, all studied zones showed LMW:HMW ratio lower than 1, with 398 maximun and minimun values of CPI in M1 and M3, respectively. The TAR values in 399 the upper zone of M3 were from 2 to 10 times lower than in other mangroves. Although 400 maximum values of pristane and phytane were ~3 and 5 times higher in M3, the Pr:Ph 401 ratio was less variable and ranged from 0.2 to 0.6 among mangroves (Table S3).

402

403 3.2. Isotopic composition of mangrove plant tissues

No significant difference in median of δ^{13} C values from leaves; stems and roots were observed among M1, M2, and M3 in upper and lower zones (Kruskal-Wallis, p>0.05; Table 2; Fig. S4). However, δ^{15} N from mangroves tree stem and roots were up to 72% higher in the lower intertidal zone of the most impacted mangrove (M3) than in all sites of the most pristine ecosystem (M1) (FDR, p<0.05; Figs. 3 and S4). Similarly, δ^{15} N from mangroves tree leaves was up to 70% higher in the upper zone of M3 than in all sites of M1 (FDR, p<0.05; Figs. 3 and S4).

411

412 3.3. GHG efflux from exposed soils to the atmosphere

Soil-air CO₂ efflux varied from 0.7 to 86.7 mmol m⁻² h⁻¹ (Table 1), with higher values in the mangrove with the greatest urban growth along the watershed (M3), which were from near 60 and 30% higher on average than M1 and M2, respectively (FDR, p<0.05; Fig 5). Moreover, no significant spatial differences within intertidal zones (upper vs lower) and seasonal difference (summer vs winter) in CO₂ fluxes were observed (Mann-Whitney, p>0.05; Fig 5).

419 CH₄ emissions were relatively low but showed a single peak of 1.69 of mmol m^{-2} 420 h^{-1} in the lower intertidal zone of M2 in summer (Table 1). Despite no significant 421 difference among the mangroves M1, M2, and M3 (Kruskall-Wallis, p>0.05), soil-air

422 CH4 fluxes were ~70% greater in lower compared to upper intertidal zones and summer
423 to winter seasons (FDR, p<0.05; Fig. 5).

424

425 3.4. Topography, annual subaerial exposure time, and biological structures along426 mangrove soils

427 All topographic profiles here indicated a very subtle morphological change, with 428 the soil elevation varying from 0.81 to 1.19, 1.12 to 1.18, and 0.88 to 1.32 m in relation 429 to the Mean Sea Leval (MSL) between the lower and upper zones of M1, M2 and M3, 430 respectively (Fig. S6). Our estimates calculated from topographic profiles and tide gauge 431 data indicate that soils are exposed during 201 versus 333, 304 versus 320, and 303 versus 432 360 days annually at the lower and upper mangrove zones in M1, M2 and M3, 433 respectively. As a result, the annual subaerial exposure time was ~66, 5, and 19% higher 434 in the upper than lower zones of M1, M2 and M3, respectively. Regarding biological 435 structures, crab burrow density showed an increasing trend from M1 and M2 to M3 soils, in median, 0 and 40 to 150 m⁻², respectively, while pneumatopheres did not follow any 436 pattern, reaching 370, 70, and 240 m⁻², respectively. 437

438

439 3.5. Relationships between soil variables

Overall, OC was positively related to TN and OP, and negatively related to δ^{15} N, δ^{13} C and IP (rs = 0.90,0.94, -0.87, -0.59 and -0.88, respectively, p<0.05; Table S6 and Fig. 3). TN was positively related to OP, and negatively related to δ^{15} N, δ^{13} C, IP and crab burrow (rs = 0.93, -0.95, -0.60, -0.87 and -0.69, respectively, p<0.05; Table S6 and Fig. 3). δ^{15} N was positively related to IP and crab burrow, and negatively related to OP (rs = 0.94, 0.73, and -0.94, respectively, p<0.05; Table S6 and Fig. 3). δ^{13} C was positively related to crab burrow, and negatively related to OP (rs = 0.82 and -0.62, respectively, 447 p<0.05; Table S6 and Fig. 3). IP was positively related to crb burrow, and negatively 448 related to OP, while OP was negatively related to crab burrow (rs = 0.65, -0.91 and -0.70, 449 respectively, p<0.05; Table S6 and Fig. 3).

In turn, soil-air CO₂ fluxes were positively correlated to Σ n-alkanes, δ^{15} N, δ^{13} C, IP 450 451 and crab burrow (rs = 0.74, 0.61, 0.70 and -0.65, respectively, p<0.05; Table S6 and Fig. 452 3), while CH₄ fluxes was positively related to Σ n-alkanes and sandy (rs = 0.60 and 0.88, respectively, p<0.05; Table S6 and Fig. 3). The sewage (coprostanol+epicoprostanol) was 453 454 positively correlated with 5 β :(5 β +5 α) ratio (coprostanol:(coprostanol+cholestanol), δ ¹⁵N, 455 and IP as well as negatively with TN (rs = 0.82, 0.64, 0.60 and -0.64, respectively, p<0.05; Table S6 and Fig. 3). Finally, diagenetic ratio was positively correlated to crab burrow 456 457 (rs = 0.74, p < 0.05; Table S6 and Fig. 3).

458 Considering data from all mangrove soils, CO_2 emissions were positively correlated 459 with the aboveground density of crab burrows ($r_s = 0.65$; p<0.05, Table S7), but no 460 significant relationships were observed with that of pneumatophore (p>0.05). Moreover, 461 CH₄ emissions were not significantly related with aboveground density of 462 pneumatophores and crab burrow.

463 The PCA showed that Factor 1 and Factor 2 together explained ~68 % of the total 464 data variance. Factor 1 (CO₂ fluxes) explained ~51 % of the total variance with positive loadings for $\delta^{15}N$, IP, crab burrows, $\delta^{13}C$, sewage, Σ n-alkanes, diagenetic ratio, 465 466 5β :($5\beta+5\alpha$), pneumatophores, OP and CH₄ fluxes versus negative loadings for TN, sandy 467 and OC. Factor 2 (CH₄ fluxes) explained ~17 % of total variance with negative loading for diagenetic ratio, δ^{13} C, crab burrows, sewage, 5 β :(5 β +5 α), OC, TN, δ^{15} N and CO₂ 468 469 fluxes versus positive loadings for Σ n-alkanes, pneumatophores, OP, IP, sandy, and CH₄ 470 fluxes (Fig 6, Table S8). Accordingly, the M1 mangrove was grouped at a negative 471 direction of Factor 1 similarly to OP, OC, and TN. The M3 mangrove was grouped at a 472right direction of Factor 1 and positive direction of Factor 2 such as sewage (coprostanol473and epicoprostanol), $5\beta:(5\beta+5\alpha)$ ratio (colestanol and coprostanol), diagenetic ratio474(stanol:sterol), IP, δ^{15} N, and δ^{13} C. The M2 mangrove displayed an intermediate position475with an exception in the lower zone in summer, which difference was likely driven by476CH4 emissions and the percentage of sand in surface soils (Fig. 6; Table S8).

477 **4. Discussion**

478 4.1. Anthropogenic variations in sources, composition, and diagenesis of OM in479 mangrove soils

480 The trend of eutrophication with urban growth along the watersheds here was 481 apparent by substantial differences in mangrove soil IP and OM. Mainly caused by 482 nutrient inputs and defined as an increase in the rate of supply of OM to an ecosystem (Nixon, 1995), eutrophication has widely been indicated by proxies related to increased 483 484 algal biomass in benthic coastal marine environments (Dell'Anno et al., 2002; Lemley et 485 al., 2015). As found from M1 to M2 and M3, increased IP content (Wolters et al., 2016; Barcellos et al., 2019), $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{13}C$ values (Sanders et al., 2014), and OM lability 486 487 biomarkers (Kumar et al., 2019) have been largely attributed to increased algal and sewage inputs associated with more intense diagenesis of OM. 488

489 Previous evidence based on pelagic chlorophyll-a satellite data confirms the 490 presence of dense algal blooms as a proxy of water eutrophication in Sepetiba Bay (site 491 M3) and Guanabara Bay (site M2), but not in Ilha Grande Bay where the M1 mangrove 492 is located (Abril et al., 2022). Hence, the present study gives a more detailed assessment 493 of the contribution of natural (*i.e.*, mangrove trees vs algae) and anthropogenic (*i.e.*, 494 sewage) sources of OM, as well as identifying recent diagenesis processes through the 495 proportion of fresh compounds and their degraded forms (stanol/stenol) in mangrove soils 496 with urban growth along their watersheds.

497 The bulk composition of soil OM was consistent with an additional dual source of 498 anthropogenic OM that mixes with material from mangrove trees in the study sites 499 impacted by urban discharges. The increasing δ^{15} N trend between mangrove soils (M1 < M2 < M3) was consistent with what was found in the plant material, specifically 500 501 significantly higher values in tree leaves from M3 compared to M1. The δ^{15} N proxy has 502 shown to be a robust indicator of eutrophication as it traces N cycling from untreated 503 sewage to mangrove areas (Gritcan et al., 2016). The range of these soil variables in M3 504 have often been associated with the influence of algal blooms in coastal aquatic sediments 505 under nutrient-enriched conditions (Zhang et al., 2015), and was also observed in urban 506 mangroves receiving untreated wastewaters (Machiwa, 2000). Accordingly, only M3 soils presented both δ^{15} N and δ^{13} C values within the previously observed range of sewage 507 508 (Barros et al., 2010). In contrast, more negative δ^{13} C and higher C:N ratio in soils of the 509 upper intertidal zone of the most pristine mangrove (M1) suggests greater dominance of 510 OM from woody plants (Meyers, 1994; Lamb et al., 2006). This confirms the potential 511 role of tree biomass to fuel the net heterotrophy that was previously reported in its 512 surrounding bay waters (Brandini et al., 2019).

513 In addition, molecular analysis supported potential differences in soil OM quality 514 and source with increasing the urban activity along the watershed. As many sterols may 515 be from natural biomass, the total sterol concentrations in the most pristine mangrove 516 (M1) were much higher than previously reported in estuarine sediments undergone 517 sewage contamination (dos Reis Souza et al., 2020). For instance, the contributions of 518 stigmasterol and β -sitosterol were predominant in pristine M1 soil, consistent with 519 natural source from higher plants (mangrove trees leaves and roots; Nes, 1974). In turn, the coprostanol concentration below 0.5 μ g g⁻¹ in sediments of all sampling sites did not 520 521 indicate sewage contamination (González-Oreja and Saiz-Salinas, 1998; Carreira et al.,

522 2009). Even the mangrove soils with greater urban pressure along the watershed (M3) 523 showed coprostanol concentrations similar to estuarine sediments not impacted (Muniz 524 et al., 2006) or moderately impacted (Carreira et al., 2009) by sewage, as well as lower 525 than those impacted (dos Reis Souza et al., 2020).

526 Conversely, sterol biomarker distributions indicate a higher contamination of 527 mangrove soils with sewage OM in M3 than M2, compared to non-detectable levels in 528 the most pristine M1. The highest epicoprostanol concentrations found in the M3 soils 529 are typical of sewage contamination, as reported in many coastal bottom sediments in 530 South America (Mudge and Seguel, 1999), Australia (Pratt et al., 2008), and Asia (Isobe 531 et al., 2002; Jeng, 2006). The predominance of epicoprostanol in relation to coprostanol 532 in M2 and M3 soils, independent of sampling site or season, also indicates intense 533 biological degradation likely fueled by OM derived from sewage (Santos et al., 2008). 534 Accordingly, higher values of the sum of epicoprostanol and coprostanol in M3, as a 535 proxy of sewage (McCalley et al., 1981), explains the positive relationships in the 536 correlation matrix and PCA analysis to other indicators of eutrophication in mangrove soils here, including 5 β :(5 β + 5 α), IP, and δ^{15} N. The sewage contamination in M3 was 537 538 further indicated by the coprostanol:cholesterol ratios (chop:cho) higher than 1.0 (Mudge 539 and Bebianno, 1997) and coprostanol:cholestanol 5β : $(5\beta + 5\alpha)$ higher than 0.5 (Santos et 540 al., 2008), as reported in tropical coastal aquatic sediments receiving high sewage discharges (Frena et al., 2016; dos Reis Souza et al., 2020). This limit of 5β :($5\beta + 5\alpha$) 541 542 ratio of 0.5 for sewage pollution is assumed lower at tropical than non-tropical latitudes 543 due to higher microbial activity with increasing temperature (Araujo et al., 2011).

544 Concerning n-alkanes, the CPI index higher than 1.0 in all studied mangrove soils, 545 confirmed a large contribution of biogenic sources rather than petrogenic sources (Kumar 546 et al., 2019). In particular, LMW:HMW ratio lower than 1.0 and TAR values above 1 at

547 all sampling sites confirm a dominance of high molecular OM weight from mangrove 548 trees (Gearing et al., 1976; Wang et al., 2006), as previously reported in mangroves 549 globally (Alongi et al., 1999; Kristensen et al., 2008a). Another proxy of OM sources 550 here was the overall predominance of long and odd chain of n-alkanes (Cn₂₅₋₃₁), still 551 indicating a large contribution from mangrove tree leaves (Eglinton et al., 1962; 552 Nishigima et al., 2001). In addition, exposed soil conditions might have favored oxidative 553 decarboxylation of fatty acids, also contributing to the predominance of odd-numbered 554 hydrocarbon chain (Guoying et al., 1980), except for the lower zone M2 during summer 555 and the lower intertidal zone of M3 during winter, likely due to petrogenic sources and 556 biological remineralization of OM (Thomazelli, 2010). Petrogenic sources of OM are 557 reasonable in M2 and M3 due to the high influence of industrial plants and ship traffic in 558 Guanabara Bay (Fistarol et al., 2015) and Sepetiba Bay (Molisani et al., 2006), 559 respectively.

560 The CPI index still above but closer to 1.0 in M3 soils typically indicate greater 561 abundance of low molecular weight n-alkanes than M1 and M2, which may be derived 562 from phytoplankton, bacteria, fungi and/or contamination by petroleum products (Boehm 563 and Requejo, 1986; Wang et al., 2003). In these mangrove soils of which was most 564 influenced by urban watershed, a greater abundance of short-chain n-alkanes Cn₁₅₋₂₁ 565 indicates an additional contribution of phytoplankton and bacteria (Clark Jr. and Blumer, 1967; Canuel et al., 1997), a common effect of intense metabolic processes under coastal 566 eutrophication (Breitburg et al., 2018). Indeed, the lowest values of TAR observed in the 567 568 upper zone of M3 confirmed a lower relative contribution of vascular plants in the 569 mangrove to the n-alkane pool in the soil at this impacted site (Carreira et al., 2009). The 570 highly reducing anaerobic conditions of organic mangrove soils were still supported by 571 the values of Pr:Ph ratio below 1.0 in all sampling sites. Both n-alkane and sterols 572 biomarkers thus converge to the idea of a net gradient of increasing contributions not only

of sewage derived OM but also algal (phytoplankton and/or microphytobenthos) derivedOM from M1 to M2 and M3.

575 Besides differences in OM sources, the organic C and P contents were significantly higher in the most pristine mangrove M1 (particularly along the upper intertidal zone) 576 577 than in the more impacted mangroves M2 and M3. This trend contributes to the negative 578 relationships between OC with IP, δ^{15} N and δ^{13} C found in the correlation matrix and PCA 579 analysis. A likely explanation is that local rivers around M2 (Faria and Sanchez, 2001) 580 and M3 (Borges and Nittrouer, 2016) promote a higher discharge of suspended matter 581 (i.e., OM dilution by inorganic sediment loads). This greater discharge of suspended 582 matter is related to deforestation and river straightening along the urban watersheds of 583 M2 and M3. In contrast, the more pristine mangrove (M1) is associated with a lower river flow and more enclosed geomorphology of which could have contributed to the higher 584 585 OC content at this mangrove.

586 Furthermore, previous experimental evidence has indicated that total C and N 587 stocks may decrease from more pristine to more impacted mangrove soils, as an effect of 588 increased OM remineralization under anthropogenic-derived nutrient enrichment from 589 untreated effluents (Palacios et al., 2021). The higher diagenetic ratio in the most 590 eutrophicated M3 soils is a typical proxy of intense biological degradation of OM (Frena 591 et al., 2016), especially when stanol forms are dominant (i.e., this diagenetic ratio > 1.0; 592 Nishimura and Koyama, 1977). In contrast, M1 and M2 soils showed lower than 0.5 593 diagenetic ratios. The phytosterol:OC, C:N and C:P ratios were also higher in M1 and M2 594 soils compared to M3, particularly in the upper intertidal zone soil of M1, indicating that 595 OM is more preserved at these sites.

596 Considering the variability between lower and upper intertidal zones, a higher 597 influence of marine OM was still observed in mangrove soils of the lower than upper

598 zone, a potentially important effect of the increased inputs of marine compounds from 599 higher tidal inundation frequency near the sea (Sanders et al., 2010b). Trees retain woody 600 biomass within their roots, also increasing the nutrient uptake and light attenuation, which 601 could explain the reduced algal composition in soils of the upper intertidal zone (Sanders 602 et al., 2010a, 2014). In addition, more subaerial oxygenation throughout the year could 603 enhance phosphate adsorption by iron oxyhydroxides (FeOOH-PO4; (Sherman et al., 604 1998) or the uptake from more dense mangrove vegetation (Servais et al., 2019)could 605 have contributed to decrease IP content in the upper as compared to the lower intertidal 606 zones of the studied mangroves.

607 4.2 Response of GHG fluxes to anthropogenic perturbations and other parameters

Overall, our nutrient (N and P), isotopic (δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N), and molecular (sterols and 608 609 n-alkanes) analysis in the three studied sites allowed us to assess potential controls of OM 610 composition on soil-air CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes. We observed a substantial increase in CO₂ 611 emissions among mangrove soils from more pristine to more urban areas, contrasting with 612 similarly low CH₄ fluxes, except a single except peak in the site with more river influence 613 (lower zone of M2). This partially confirm previous evidence on enhanced production of 614 GHGs due to increased biological remineralization of OM with organic pollution in 615 mangrove soils (Sotomayor et al., 1994; Yang et al., 2018). Moreover, the observed 616 positive relationship in the correlation matrix between the abundance of n-alkanes and 617 soil-air CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes suggests the role of organic substrates to enhance biological 618 activity that releases these gases (Guoying et al., 1980).

619 Substantially higher CO_2 emissions from exposed soils, mainly in the most 620 eutrophicated soil (M3), is comparable to highly sewage-impacted mangroves around the 621 world (*e.g.*, Chen et al., 2010; Jacotot et al., 2018). This indicates a potential mechanistic 622 link between the intense urban sprawl (*i.e.*, associated with untreated wastewaters) and

623 increased soil OM remineralization, which have been reported in mangrove soils 624 undergone eutrophication from urban sources (Chen et al., 2010; Martin et al., 2020). 625 Higher soil-air CO₂ fluxes with urban growth along the watersheds here confirm the 626 increased remineralization fueled by higher availability of labile OM from sewage and 627 algae, typically associated with eutrophication (Breitburg et al., 2018). As a result, the 628 highest proportion of fecal sterols and degraded phytosterols associated with less OC 629 content in M3 also corroborates the role of the more labile OM derived from 630 phytoplankton and sewage to produce CO_2 (Drake et al., 2020). Besides the amount of 631 organic substrates to biological remineralization, another explanation for the increased 632 CO₂ release in ecosystems is the priming effect, in which the inputs of labile OM with 633 high energy and nutrients contents lead to additional metabolic breakdown of the more 634 recalcitrant OM pool, contributing to enhanced emissions of this gas (Guenet et al., 2010). 635 Previous studies have reported that heterotrophic responses to more labile OM inputs are 636 potentualy a threat to coastal eutrophication and blue carbon preservation (Alongi et al., 637 1999; Kristensen et al., 2008a). Indeed, experimental research over past decade has indicated increased OM remineralization with CO₂ production by priming effect in a wide 638 639 variety of coastal marine sediments, such as from estuaries (Gontikaki et al., 2015), 640 seagrass meadows (Liu et al., 2020), as well as other subtidal and intertidal areas (Van 641 Nugteren et al., 2009).

In turn, the CH₄ emissions here was within the range often found in pristine to impacted mangroves around the world (Kreuzwieser et al., 2003; Kristensen et al., 2008b; Konnerup et al., 2014). The median CH₄ efflux \sim 70% is significantly higher and was associated to an increase in temperature of \sim 6°C and rainfall of \sim 900% in summer in relation to winter over 30 days before sampling (average between meteorological stations near M1, M2, and M3, as described in the Methods section). This result could be explained by enhanced methanogenesis under warmer conditions (Vizza et al., 2017; Jacotot et al., 2019) and higher freshwater inputs (Rosentreter et al., 2018). Accordingly, the lower intertidal zone closest to the river mouth into the sea (i.e., more susceptible to episodic reductions in salinity) might have contributed to the single peak of CH₄ outgassing in the M2 lower intertidal zone in summer, suggesting that transient increases in methanogenesis could be influenced by nutrient enrichment.

654 In general, CH₄ emissions from exposed soils to the atmosphere were three orders of 655 magnitude lower than those of CO₂, confirming earlier findings in mangroves in Southern 656 China (Chen et al., 2010, 2011) and Brazil (Nóbrega et al., 2016). This result is a potential consequence of previous estimates indicating that methanogenesis rates represent only 1-657 658 10% of the total carbon mineralization in mangrove soils (Alongi, 2009). Although the 659 positive relationship between eutrophication and CH₄ emissions is commonly reported in 660 coastal aquatic ecosystems (Purvaja and Ramesh, 2001; Konnerup et al., 2014), we found 661 no significant changes along the urban gradient. Methanogenesis is often high in 662 freshwater sediments, while in marine environments the competition with more energetic 663 redox reactions by oxygen (*i.e.*, aerobic respiration) and other electron acceptors present 664 in seawaters (*i.e.*, mainly sulphate; King, 1984) or even the CH₄ oxidation under high 665 oxygenation of exposed soils (Das et al., 2018) is high in coastal wetlands. Oxidation 666 (Kristensen et al., 2008a) and more efficient OM remineralization pathways (Nóbrega et 667 al., 2016) could be especially intense in exposed mangrove soils and explain nonsignificant changes of CH₄ emissions with eutrophication as found here. 668

Regarding the biogenic structures, pneumatophere and crab burrow densities have presented differing relationships with GHG emissions from the exposed mangrove soils studied. The weak explanation in the PCA and non-significant correlation between pneumatophore density and CO_2 efflux contrasts with previous studies, which have indicated a significant role in the release this gas directly to the atmosphere (Kristensen

and Alongi, 2006; Kristensen et al., 2008a; Ouyang et al., 2016). On the other hand, the 674 675 positive relationship between crab burrow density and CO₂ emissions found in PCA and 676 correlation analyses has been confirmed in a wide variety of mangrove soils (Ouyang et 677 al., 2016; Tomotsune et al., 2020). This result has been attributed to increased aerobic CO2 production from microbial processes within mangrove soils under more oxygenated 678 679 conditions driven by crab bioturbation (Kristensen and Alongi, 2006). Here, the 680 increasing trend of crab burrow density in M3 soils contributed to the significant positive relationships of these faunal structures not only with CO₂ emissions, but also with 681 parameters affected by eutrophication (*i.e.*, IP, $\delta^{15}N$, $\delta^{13}C$, and diagenetic ratio). Instead, 682 683 pneumatophere density did not increase in the most impacted mangrove, and as a result 684 significant relationships were not found. In turn, lower CH₄ emissions as compared to CO2 might have contributed to the weak explanation in the PCA analysis and non-685 686 significant correlation with both biogenic structures.

687 In addition to the influence of anthropogenic and natural inputs of OM, the subaerial exposure time is a critical component to determine GHG emissions in mangrove soils 688 689 during the ebbing period, due to expected variations in metabolic rates with flooding 690 (Alongi et al., 2020). As performed here, previous studies have reported hourly or daily C gas fluxes exclusively under exposed conditions (e.g., Kabwe et al., 2002; Kristensen 691 692 et al., 2008b; Chen et al., 2010; Nóbrega et al., 2016). On an annual basis, estimates of 693 GHG emissions have assumed that mangrove soils are exposed 50% of the time 694 (Rosentreter et al., 2018). However, this assumption was not valid for any sampling site of M2 or the upper intertidal zones of M1 and M3 (both showing >90 % exposed time), 695 696 suggesting that more careful consideration on exposure time is needed.

697 Variable subaerial exposure time along the intertidal zone, attributed to local698 topography and tidal regime, has been rarely considered in estimates of GHG fluxes in

mangroves (*e.g.*, Sotomayor et al., 1994). By upscaling the medians of hourly soil-air flux rates only to the annual exposed period, encompassing lower and upper intertidal zones during summer and winter seasons, we can provide first-order estimates of CO_2 versus CH₄ efflux ~507 versus 0.7, 965 versus 0.7, and 1512 versus 0.8 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ in M1, M2, and M3, respectively. Accordingly, the longer exposure time over the year contributed to still higher GHG emissions from non-flooded soils in the most impacted mangrove (M3) compared to that most pristine (M1).

706

707 Conclusions

708 This multi-proxy analysis of OM elementary, isotopic, and molecular compositions 709 confirms increased eutrophication in mangrove soils are associated with greater urban 710 growth along watersheds. Furthermore, the present results indicate a potential link 711 between untreated wastewater inputs and increased CO₂ emissions to the atmosphere, 712 suggesting a potential loss of blue C from algae or plants from mangrove soils. Hence, 713 our hypothesis was confirmed for CO₂, as indicated by an increased presence of sewage (e.g., higher δ^{15} N, and P, degraded sterols, and coprostanol) and phytoplankton (e.g., 714 715 lower δ^{13} C and C:N), which were associated with higher efflux of this gas, independent 716 of intertidal zone or season. However, CH4 emissions did not increase in mangrove soils surrounded by more urban areas. Soil-air fluxes of this gas varied significantly between 717 718 intertidal zones and seasons, likely due to the overall low rates associated with high peaks, 719 which were in turn influenced by a greater contribution of labile algal OM seaward and 720 increased freshwater discharges during the rainy summer. Indeed, annual estimates of 721 GHG emissions from exposed mangrove soils after integrating variable exposure times 722 over the tidal regime here may be more realistic, compared to the common assumption that any sampling site in the intertidal zone is flooded for half of the year. Despite this 723

high complexity of natural and anthropogenic drivers of CO_2 and CH_4 efflux, the greater contribution of OM from algal and sewage sources with coastal eutrophication was generally associated with increased global warming potentials (i.e., carbon emissions to the atmosphere). Our findings support that the control of water pollution and mangrove conservation efforts are critical to climate mitigation for a more sustainable future.

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1139 Figures



1140

Fig.1. Location of the tree studied mangroves and their respective drainage basins including land use characteristics. All sites are located within Rio de Janeiro State, southeastern Brazil. Ilha Grande Bay, the Sepetiba Bay and the Guanabara Bay show Saco de Mamanguá (M1), Guaratiba (M3) and Guapimirim (M2) mangroves, respectively. Land use and land cover was based on the MapBiomas dataset (2017), available at https://plataforma.mapbiomas.org/map#coverage.



Fig. 2. Spatial comparison of the elementary composition among Mamanguá (M1), Guapimirim (M2) and Guaratiba (M3) mangroves soils (Kruskal Wallis, p<0,05), in which a) total organic carbon (OC, mg g⁻¹), b) total nitrogen (TN, mg g⁻¹), c) total phosphorus (TP, μ g g⁻¹), d) isotopic ratios of ¹³C (δ¹³C, ‰), e) isotopic ratios of ¹⁵N (δ¹⁵N, ‰), f) organic phosphorus (OP, μ g g⁻¹), g) OC to TN ratio (C:N), h) OC to TP ratio (C:P), and i) inorganic phosphorus concentration (IP, μ g g⁻¹). Horizontal line represent median, bars represent interquartile range, and different letters represent statistically significant difference.



Fig. 3. Relationships between (a) δ^{15} N and δ^{13} C in soils, (b) C:N and δ^{13} C in soils, (c) δ^{15} N and δ^{13} C in leaves and roots of Mamanguá (M1), Guapimirim (M2), and Guaratiba (M3) mangroves, including upper and lower zones. The ranges of terrestrial plants, marine algae and freshwater algae are those reported in (Leng and Lewis, 2017). Sewage range data reported in Barros et al. (2010).



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1168 Fig.4. a) Relative contribution of different sources of sterols in soils of upper (U) and lower (L) 1169 zone in Mamanguá (M1), Guapimirim (M2) and Guaratiba (M3) mangroves during winter (W) 1170 and summer (S) periods. Sewage origin identified by the presence of 5\beta-cholestan-3β-ol 1171 (coprostanol) and 5β-cholestan-3α-ol (epicoprostanol), plankton origin identified by cholest-5-em-1172 3β -ol (cholesterol) and 5α -cholestan- 3β -ol (cholestanol), and higher plant and algae identified by 1173 24-methylcholesta-5-en-3β-ol(campesterol), 24-ethylcholesta-5,22-dien-3β-ol (stigmasterol) and 1174 24- ethylcholesta-5-en-3β-ol (β-sitosterol). b) Comparison between diagenetic ratio (bars) and phytosterols concentration (µg gOrgC⁻¹ black dots and lines) in upper (U) and lower (L) zone of 1175 1176 Mamanguá (M1), Guapimirim (M2) and Guaratiba (M3) mangroves during summer (S) and winter 1177 periods (W).



Fig. 5. CO_2 and CH_4 (mmol m⁻² h⁻¹) fluxes from surface soil to the atmosphere in the upper and lower zones of Mamanguá (M1) Guapimirim (M2) and Guaratiba (M3) mangroves during summer and winter periods. Horizontal line represent median, bars represent interquartile range, and different letters represent statistically significant difference among ecosystems (Kruskal Wallis Test, p<0,05), intertidal zones and year seasons (Mann-Whitney Test, p<0.05). Clear circles represent chambers measurements (n=3-5 chambers per zone: season, which were measured 3-7 times consecutively).



Fig. 6. Principal component analysis showing the magnitude and the direction of correlations between the different dependent variables: CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes and independent variables: total organic carbon (OC), total nitrogen (NT), carbon 13 (δ^{13} C), nitrogen 15 (δ^{15} N), diagenetic ratio, sewage contamination ratio 5 β :(5 β +5 α), sewage presence (coprostanol + epicoprostanol), inorganic phosphorus (IP), organic phosphorus (OP), sand, and total alkanes (Σ NAlk) in the mangroves of Mamanguá (M1), Guapimirim (M2), and Guaratiba (M3) according to the two first axes. The green, blue, and red circles indicate sampling sites from M1, M2, and M3, respectively.

1196 Tables

- 1197 Table 1. Median (25-75% interquartile range) values of CO₂ (mmol m⁻² h⁻¹) and CH₄ (µmol m⁻² h⁻¹) fluxes in the soil-air interface, elementary
- 1198 composition (C, N, P in mg g⁻¹) of surface soil, and number of days of exposed soil conditions in a year in the Mamanguá (M1), Guapimirim
- 1199 (M2), and Guaratiba (M3) mangroves at upper and lower zone during summer and winter period for spring tide.

		Mamang	guá (M1)			Guapimi	rim (M2)		Guaratiba (M3)				
	$U_{]}$	pper	Lo	wer	Up	oper	Lo	wer	Up	oper	Lo	wer	
	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer	
CO ₂	5.52 (4.5- 7.5)	4.59 (2.9-8.4)	5.0 (3.1- 11.2)	8.5 (4.8- 10.4)	9.7 (6.1- 10.4)	19.5 (16.5- 23.9)	6.6 (4.5- 23.1)	19.18 (11.6- 31.2)	14.8 (6.8- 26.1)	8.6 (7.3- 13.16)	12.1 (10.5- 53.1)	24.0 (21.5- 43.1)	
CH ₄	1 (1-2)	2 (2.5-3)	9 (13-21)	10 (21-23)	3 (4-7)	2 (4-7)	1 (1-7)	8 (39.5- 131.5)	1 (2-4)	4 (9-27.5)	1 (2-5)	8 (17-25)	
OC	391.8 (370- 407)	414.1 (395.9- 433.3)	130.9 (110.1- 141.1)	115.5 (101.7- 162.3)	127.7 (111.9- 140)	150.6 (142- 160)	79.1 (71- 88.3)	67.2 (57.4- 82.1)	58.8 (52.2- 75.2)	44.7 (38.7- 47)	40 (39.3- 43.1)	75 (59.4- 97.4)	
TN	10.6 (10.5- 11.1)	11.1 (10.7- 11.3)	7.4 (6.9-7.7)	7.9 (6.9-9.2)	6.7 (6.2-7.1)	9.3 (8.9-9.8)	4.7 (4.3-5.1)	4.5 (4.2-5.4)	4.8 (4.2-5.4)	4.1 (3.8-4.3)	4.5 (4.3-4.7)	5.2 (4.7-5.6)	
TP	1.23 (1.00- 1.8)	1.18 (1.05- 1.29)	0.977 (0.92- 1.15)	0.86 (0.81- 0.92)	1.26 (1.21- 1.32)	1.39 (1.35- 1.53)	1.14 (1.06- 1.19)	1.03 (0.96- 1.13)	0.99 (0.96- 1.03)	1.13 (1.09- 1.16)	1.02 (0.99- 1.04)	1.29 (1.21- 1.33)	
IP	0.09 (0.07- 0.13)	0.05 (0.02- 0.09)	0.41 (0.28- 0.48)	0.32 (0.22- 0.46)	0.74 (0.65- 0.92)	0.71 (0.69- 0.77)	0.84 (0.72- 0.99)	0.80 (0.77- 0.90)	0.78 (0.74- 0.85)	0.77 (0.75- 0.84)	0.94 (0.87- 0.97)	0.73 (0.67- 0.76)	

	1.21	1.16	0.66	0.54	0.43	0.67	0.31	0.19	0.21	0.33	0.10	0.53
OP	(0.88-	(1.01-	(0.49-	(0.42-	(0.27-	(0.59-	(0.20-	(0.11-	(0.15-	(0.24-	(0.05-	(0.42-
	1.72)	1.22)	0.79)	0.59)	0.54)	0.82)	0.38)	0.29)	0.26)	0.37)	0.15)	0.59)
	43.2	42.6	20.6	17.6	22.3	18.9	19.0	17.1	14.8	12.4	10.6	16.4
C:N	(38.5-	(41.8-	(18.3-	(16.7-	(21.1-	(18.2-	(16.9-	(15.5-	(13.5-	(11.1-	(9.9-	(14.9-
	44.7)	45.6)	21.5)	20.4)	23.8)	19.5)	22.1)	18.2)	16.5)	13.5)	11.7)	21.0)
	301	323	115	139	102	105						
C:P	(221-	(287-	(107-	(121-	(100-	(102-	73	65	59	40	39	56
	396)	396)	143)	176)	111)	111)	(68-77)	(56-74)	(53-76)	(37-42)	(38-42)	(50-78)
	-0.3	0.5	24	19	52	34	6.6	62	6.6	69	7.0	53
$\delta^{15}N$	(-1.2-	(0-1.4)	(0.9-3.1)	(1.7-2.5)	(5-5,5,4)	(3-3,5)	(64-70)	(6-64)	(6-7.4)	(65-71)	(68-74)	(52-55)
	0.9)	(0 1.1)	(0.9 5.1)	(1.7 2.3)	(5 5.5.1)	(5 5.5)	(0.1 7.0)	(0 0.1)	(0 7.1)	(0.0 7.1)	(0.0 7.1)	(0.2 0.0)
a 12 -	-29.2	-30.3	-24.8	-25.8	-28,5	-28.4	-27.0	-28.1	-22.9	-22.8	-14.7	-25.7
$\delta^{13}C$	(-29.6	(-30.6	(-25	(-25.9	(-28.9	(-28.6	(-27.6	(-28.8	(-23.7	(-24.3	(-17.4	(-27.1
	29.1)	29.9)	24.1)	25.2)	27.7)	28.2)	26.8)	27.8)	22.2)	21.8)	13.3)	22.6)
	0.1	0	_	0.1	0	0	5.1	24.9	0.2	0.1	0	0.9
SAND%	(0-0.3)	(0-52.8)	0	(0-0.1)	(0-0.4)	(0-0.3)	(4.3-	(0.2-	(0-0.6)	(0-0.4)	(0-0.1)	(0.4-2.6)
	(0 0.0)	(0 0 = 10)		(0 0.1)	(0 0.1)	(0 0.0)	36.2)	33.4)	(0 0.0)	(0 011)	(0 011)	(0)
	86.2	67.7	75.4	78.8	87.5	86.4	87.4	66.5	75.9	71.1	81.3	85.2
SILT%	(85.2-	(41-	(74.9-	(77.3-	(86.5-	(84.6-	(57.9-	(58.5-	(72.2-	(63.8-	(79.1-	(81.1-
	88.0)	69.1)	76.9)	80.1)	89.3)	87.3)	87.9)	86.3)	79.8)	72.6)	82.5)	86.3)
	6.7	15.4	11.9	10.5	7	7	4.3	4.6	14.2	17.2	11.4	8.2
CLAY%	(5.9-8.3)	(3.3-	(11.5-	(10.1-	(5.6-7.6)	(6.5-7.9)	(3.3-4.7)	(4.2-7.1)	(11.6-	(16.3-	(10.4-	(6.4-
	(5.5 0.5)	16.9)	12.5)	11.4)	(0.0 7.0)	(0.5 7.5)	(3.5 1.7)	(1.2 7.1)	16.2)	21.0)	12.4)	10.9)
	64.8	73.1	33.8	29.7	32.7	34.44	23.2	18.4	22.8	18.7	19.7	24.7
OM %	(63.2-	(68.9-	(32.2-	(28.6-	(30.9-	(33.82-	(21.8-	(16.9-	(21.3-	(17.4-	(18.8-	(23.5-
	67.0)	73.3)	34.7)	35.2)	34.8)	36.0)	24.5)	21.7)	26.5)	20.2)	20.9)	25.7)

1202 Table 2. Average (\pm SD) values of δ^{13} C (‰), δ^{15} N (‰) and C:N of leaves. stems and roots for the different species in the three studied

1203 mangroves.

			$\delta^{13}C$			$\delta^{15}N$			C:N	
Mangroves	Species	Leaves	Stems	Roots	Leaves	Stems	Roots	Leaves	Stems	Roots
Mamanguá (M1)	Rhizophora**	-28.4 ± 0.9	-29.2±1.3	-28.7±0.2	1.5±1.0	1.6±0.4	2.6±0.1	32,7±4,8	50,9±1,3	42,2±7,1
	Avicennia*	-29.9±1.9	-31.5±3.9	-31.2±4.3	$2.8{\pm}0.9$	3.8±2.3	4.2 ± 0.6	35,9±2,3	$106,5\pm 66,1$	39,6±6,7
Guapimirim (M2)	Rhizophora**	-28.5 ± 2.9	-28.4±0.7	-30.1±2.2	4.3±0.9	3.8±0.7	4.8±0.4	34,3±1,1	41,8±9,0	35,0±5,6
	Avicennia*	-32.5 ± 2.1	-29.4±1.9	-29.9 ± 1.8	4.8 ± 0.4	4.8 ± 0.1	5.1±0.2	21,9±3,5	37,6±8,6	36,5±3,3
	Laguncularia*	-30.4 ± 0.7	-30.2 ± 0.2	-34.6 ± 3.9	6.2 ± 0.9	5.5 ± 0.7	6.4 ± 0.5	27,0±1,3	49,2±8,8	$77,7{\pm}78,8$
Guaratiba (M3)	Rhizophora**	-28.2 ± 1.6	-27.1±1.9	-28.1±2.7	6.7±0.1	6.2±0.2	6.5±0.2	32,1±5,7	60,1±18,5	69,8±33,5
	Avicennia*	-32.2 ± 2.9	-31.2 ± 0.9	-33.6 ± 2.5	6.5 ± 0.4	6.4 ± 0.4	7.6 ± 0.3	$18,1\pm 5,1$	23,5±5,2	119,5±76,3

1204 * Lower Intertidal Zone (Fringe Forest) and **Upper Intertidal Zone (Basin Forest). Mangrove Species: Avicennia shaueriana. Rhizophora

1205 mangle and Laguncularia racemosa.

1207 Supplementary Figures



Fig. S1: Intertidal comparison of the elementary composition between upper and lower zones of the studied mangroves soils (Mann-Whitney, p<0,05), being a) total organic carbon (OC, mg g⁻¹), b) total nitrogen (TN, mg g⁻¹), c) total phosphorus (TP, $\mu g g^{-1}$), d) isotopic ratios of ¹³C (δ^{13} C, %), e) isotopic ratios of ¹⁵N (δ^{15} N, %), f) organic phosphorus (OP, $\mu g g^{-1}$), g) OC to TN ratio (C:N), h) OC to TP ratio (C:P), and i) inorganic phosphorus concentration (IP, $\mu g g^{-1}$). Horizontal line represent median, bars represent interquartile range, and different letters represent statistically significant difference.



Fig. S2: Seasonal comparison (summer vs. winter) of the elementary composition among the studied mangroves soils (Mann-Whitney, p<0,05), being a) total organic carbon (OC, mg g⁻¹), b) total nitrogen (TN, mg g⁻¹), c) total phosphorus (TP, μ g g⁻¹), d) isotopic ratios of ¹³C (δ^{13} C, ‰), e)

- 1217 isotopic ratios of ¹⁵N (δ^{15} N, ‰), f) organic phosphorus (OP, $\mu g g^{-1}$), g) OC to TN ratio (C:N), h) OC to TP ratio (C:P), and i) inorganic phosphorus
- 1218 concentration (IP, µg g⁻¹). Horizontal line represent median, bars represent interquartile range, and different letters represent statistically significant
- 1219 difference.



Fig. S3: Spatio-temporal variability among mangroves, zones and seasons for the elementary composition of studied soils, being a) total organic carbon (OC, mg g⁻¹), b) total nitrogen (TN, mg g⁻¹), c) total phosphorus (TP, mg g⁻¹), d) isotopic ratios of ¹³C (δ^{13} C, ‰), e) isotopic ratios of ¹⁵N (δ^{15} N, ‰), f) organic phosphorus (OP, mg g⁻¹), g) total organic carbon and total nitrogen ratio (C:N), h) total organic carbon and total phosphorus ratio (C:P), and i) inorganic phosphorus concentration (IP, mg g⁻¹). Horizontal line represent median, bars represent interquartile range, and different letters represent statistically significant difference in the Kruskall-Wallis comparison followed by FDR Test (p<0.05).



Fig. S4. Comparation of δ^{15} N and δ^{13} C from roots, stems, and leaves among upper and lower zones of Mamanguá (M1), Guapimirim (M2) and Guaratiba (M3) mangroves. Horizontal line represent median, bars represent interquartile range, and different letters represent statistically significant difference (Kruskal Wallis followed by FDR post-test; p<0.05).

1232



1235 Fig S5: Spatio-temporal variability among mangroves, zones and seasons for the a) CO₂ and b) CH₄ fluxes in the soil-air interface. Horizontal line

represent median, bars represent interquartile range, and different letters represent statistically significant difference in the Analysis of Kruskall-Wallis followed by FDR test (p<0.05). Clear circles represent chambers measurements for CO₂ (n=3-5 chambers per zone: season, which were

1238 measured 3-7 times consecutively) and CH₄ (n=3-7 chambers per zone: season)



1240 Fig. S6. Topographic profile (white circles) in the study mangroves M1, M2 and M3,

1241 including the sampling points (red triangles) in lower and upper zone. Data calculated

- 1242 based on the altimetry (Elevation) corrected for the MSL (Mean Sea-Level).



Figure S7: Spearman correlation among soil-air CO₂ and CH₄ flux, Σ n-alkanes, Σ sterols, diagenetic ratio, 5 β :(5 β +5 α), OC, TN, δ ¹³C, δ ¹⁵N, IP, OP, 1247

sand, pneumatophores and crab burrow. Red squares show significant negative relationships between parameters and blue square show significant 1248

positive relationships between parameters (p<0.05). Open squares represent show non-significant relationships (p>0.05). Each data is the median 1249

1250 for each upper or lower zone, mangrove ecosystem, as well as winter or summer (N = 12).

1251 Supplementar Tables

1252 Table S1. Characteristics of the watershed from the studied mangroves areas.

Mangroves	Mamanguá (M1)	Guapimirim (M2)	Guaratiba (M3)
Location	Ilha Grande Bay	Guanabara Bay	Sepetiba Bay
Sampling sites ^a	23°17'48.12"S, 44°38'15.79"O* 23°17'50.80"S;44°38'20.50"O**	22°41'54.55"S,43°2'8.53"O* 22°42'12.60"S.43°1'40.50"O**	23°01'18.99"S,43°36'16.19"O* 23°01'15.28"S;43°36'17.03"O**
Watershead area (Km ²) ^b	17.9	2,078.8	200.8
Approximate Population in the whatershed ^c	2,825	445,610	1,617,538
Population density of the municipality (Hab/Km ²) ^c Dominant land use ^d (%)	158	215	8,056
Urban	0.0	3.8	27.8
Fields	0.7	54.4	33.9
Upward Forest	91.8	40.4	30.8
Mangroves	7.5	1.3	6.0
Water	0.0	0.1	0.1
Others ^e	0.0	0.1	1.3
Level of modification	Relatively pristine	Modified	Extensively modified
Dominant mangroves species	A. shaueriana*, R. mangle**	L. racemosa*, R. mangle**	A. shaueriana*, R. mangle* ,**

1253 ^a Mangrove Forest.

¹²⁵⁴ ^bGuapimirim, Cachoeira de Macacu and Caceribu sub watershed in M2; and Portinho, Piraquê, Cabuçu and Porto sub watershed in M3.

1255 ° Data from The Brazilian Institute for Geography and Statistics (IBGE) in 2010 (concerning the approximate population of the districts and villages

1256 which each studied watershed).

1257	^d Land use and land cover was based on the MapBiomas dataset (2017), available at https://plataforma.mapbiomas.org/map#coverage.
1258	^e Others represent beaches, non-vegetated areas (hilltop, rocky outcrops).
1259	* Lower intertidal zone
1260	**Upper intertidal zone.
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1271 Table S2: Physicochemical characteristics of temperature (°C), salinity, DO saturation (%DO, %), dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN, uM), and

	Man	nanguá (M1)	Guapi	mirim (M2)	Gu	aratiba (M3)
	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer
Temperature*	25.7-27.2	30.0-29.0	23.0-22.0	35.3-37.0	24.0-26.0	35.4-30.8
Salinity*	30.4-32.0	31.6-32.6	25.0-22.6	20.0-21.3	29.0-29.0	23.7-27.3
% DO*	78.7-63.7	60.0-69.3	78.7-54.7	58.8-62.0	138.9-57.0	210.0-51.4
DIN**	0.5-0.5	1.1-13.5	14.4-17.6	26.1-37.4	no data	20.6-86.9
PO ₄ -P**	0.9-1.2	1.2-1.4	0.7-0.8	1.6-1.8	no data	1.5-2.7

1272 fosfato (PO₄-P, uM) in surface bay waters around Mamanguá (M1), Guapimirim (M2) and Guaratiba (M3) mangroves.

1273

1274 * Temperature and %DO were taken using a YSI Pro ODO thermoximeter, while salinity by a WTW Cond 330i conductivimeter.

1275 ** DIN as the sum of NH₄-N, NO₂-N, and NO₃-N, as well as PO₄-P were determined by standard methods (APHA et al., 2012) using a Hach

1276 DR/4000 spectrophotometer.

1278 Table S3: Molecular composition (Total organic carbon (OC, g g⁻¹)), sterol (μ g gOrgC⁻¹), and \sum n-alkanes (μ g g⁻¹) concentrations, as well as 1279 diagnostic ratio in surface soils in the Mamanguá (M1), Guapimirim (M2), and Guaratiba (M3) mangroves at upper and lower zone during summer 1280 and winter period for spring tide.

		Maman	guá (M1)			Guapin	irim (M2)		Guaratiba (M3)				
	U	oper	Lo	ower	U	pper	Lower		Uj	pper	Lo	ower	
	Winter	Sumer	Winter	Sumer	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer	
OC	0.39	0.41	0.13	0.12	0.13	0.15	0.08	0.06	0.06	0.04	0.04	0.08	
Coprostanol	0.88	0.29	<dl< td=""><td>1.71</td><td>1.57</td><td>1.09</td><td>4.45</td><td>3.22</td><td>0.95</td><td>1.01</td><td>3.55</td><td>5.08</td></dl<>	1.71	1.57	1.09	4.45	3.22	0.95	1.01	3.55	5.08	
Epicoprostanol	0.49	<dl< td=""><td><dl< td=""><td>0.87</td><td><dl< td=""><td>2.62</td><td>4.84</td><td><dl< td=""><td>1.89</td><td>8.00</td><td>3.00</td><td>6.52</td></dl<></td></dl<></td></dl<></td></dl<>	<dl< td=""><td>0.87</td><td><dl< td=""><td>2.62</td><td>4.84</td><td><dl< td=""><td>1.89</td><td>8.00</td><td>3.00</td><td>6.52</td></dl<></td></dl<></td></dl<>	0.87	<dl< td=""><td>2.62</td><td>4.84</td><td><dl< td=""><td>1.89</td><td>8.00</td><td>3.00</td><td>6.52</td></dl<></td></dl<>	2.62	4.84	<dl< td=""><td>1.89</td><td>8.00</td><td>3.00</td><td>6.52</td></dl<>	1.89	8.00	3.00	6.52	
Cholesterol	6.65	4.02	14.61	51.78	10.60	13.87	55.24	46.80	2.15	9.17	21.25	3.32	
Cholestanol	3.71	3.43	4.69	16.07	6.74	7.79	14.03	22.04	21.75	2.80	13.55	2.81	
Campesterol	15.85	26.46	11.11	52.51	23.34	26.99	70.87	89.68	9.53	16.88	29.62	7.67	
Campestanol	10.10	14.59	17.30	30.86	11.72	21.36	67.60	56.74	51.68	104.51	94.82	52.66	
Stigmasterol	61.15 101.58		38.49	265.04	69.50	86.40	182.87	341.91	7.22	26.46	42.64	12.01	
Stigmastanol	13.09	23.62	9.61	35.33	11.22	14.79	54.65	57.36	3.57	5.15	13.85	2.70	
β-Sitosterol	75.08	138.57	28.22	240.98	121.54	146.10	156.98	386.47	7.25	27.06	17.48	8.26	
β-Sitostanol	15.50	28.45	6.15	29.42	15.49	20.34	34.24	65.78	12.44	3.37	11.19	2.62	
Total Sterols	202.50	341.00	130.18	724.56	271.73	341.35	645.75	1,070.00	118.44	204.41	250.94	103.65	
Phytosterol	152.08	266.61	77.83	558.52	214.39	259.49	410.72	818.06	24.00	70.39	89.74	27.94	
Diagenetic Ratio	0.25	0.25	0.42	0.17	0.18	0.22	0.38	0.22	2.82	1.61	1.34	2.08	
5β :(5β + 5α)	0.19	0.08	<dl< td=""><td>0.10</td><td>0.19</td><td>0.12</td><td>0.24</td><td>0.13</td><td>0.04</td><td>0.27</td><td>0.21</td><td>0.64</td></dl<>	0.10	0.19	0.12	0.24	0.13	0.04	0.27	0.21	0.64	
Cop:Cho	0.13	0.07	<dl< td=""><td>0.03</td><td>0.15</td><td>0.08</td><td>0.08</td><td>0.07</td><td>0.44</td><td>0.11</td><td>0.17</td><td>1.53</td></dl<>	0.03	0.15	0.08	0.08	0.07	0.44	0.11	0.17	1.53	
∑n-alkanes	186.30	242.60	444.10	1066.80	743.40	2327.30	1010.50	4021.1	693.10	1129.40	3287.2	1655.80	
LMW:HMW	0.28	0.22	0.34	0.25	0.21	0.18	0.18	0.15	0.45	0.51	0.22	0.07	
CPI	4.10	2.40	4.0	4.80	2.70	4.00	2.90	1.60	2.20	2.00	1.30	2.90	
TAR	31.80	33.30	19.9	19.70	24.60	13.40	39.70	15.10	5.10	3.90	20.3	53.5	
Pr:Ph	0.30 0.30 0.40 0.60		0.20	0.40	0.20	0.30	0.40	0.20	0.60	0.40			
Odd:Even	4.10 2.40 3.90 4.80		2.70	4.00	2.90	1.60	2.20	2.00	1.30	2.90			

1281

1282Phytosterol includes campesterol. stigmasterol. and β-sitosterol. Diagenetic ratio calculated as Σ n-stanol: Σ n-sterol. 5β:(5β+5α) calculated as1283coprostanol: (coprostanol+cholestanol). Cop:Cho calculated as coprostanol: cholesterol. CPI: Carbon preferential index considering Cn₁₂₋₃₈.1284LMH:HMW calculated as Σ short chain (C₁₄₋₂₃): Σ long chain (C₂₄₋₄₀). TAR (Terrestrial: Aquatic ratio) calculated as Σ (C₂₇; C₂₉; C₃₁) : Σ (C₁₅; C₁₇;1285C₁₉). Pr: Ph = pristano: phytano. All data normalized by OC concentration in the soil (for original data in µg g⁻¹ see Fig. S3).

Table S4. Total organic carbon (OC g g⁻¹) and sterols concentrations (μ g g⁻¹). \sum n-alcanos (μ g g⁻¹), diagenetic ratio. 5 β :(5 β +5 α), and Cop: Cho in upper and lower zone of Mamanguá (M1). Guapimirim (M2) and Guaratiba (M3) mangroves during winter and summer periods. Data used to calculate standardize values reported in table S3 in μ g gCOrg⁻¹.

		Mamang	guá (M1)			Guapim	irim (M2)		Guaratiba (M3)				
	Up	oper	Lo	wer	U	pper	Lower		Uj	pper	Lo	wer	
	Winter	Sumer	Winter	Sumer	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer	
OC	0.39	0.41	0.13	0.12	0.13	0.15	0.08	0.06	0.06	0.04	0.04	0.08	
Coprostanol	0.35	0.12	<dl< td=""><td>0.20</td><td>0.20</td><td>0.16</td><td>0.35</td><td>0.21</td><td>0.06</td><td>0.05</td><td>0.14</td><td>0.38</td></dl<>	0.20	0.20	0.16	0.35	0.21	0.06	0.05	0.14	0.38	
Epicoprostanol	0.19	<dl< td=""><td><dl< td=""><td>0.10</td><td><dl< td=""><td>0.39</td><td>0.38</td><td><dl< td=""><td>0.11</td><td>0.36</td><td>0.12</td><td>0.49</td></dl<></td></dl<></td></dl<></td></dl<>	<dl< td=""><td>0.10</td><td><dl< td=""><td>0.39</td><td>0.38</td><td><dl< td=""><td>0.11</td><td>0.36</td><td>0.12</td><td>0.49</td></dl<></td></dl<></td></dl<>	0.10	<dl< td=""><td>0.39</td><td>0.38</td><td><dl< td=""><td>0.11</td><td>0.36</td><td>0.12</td><td>0.49</td></dl<></td></dl<>	0.39	0.38	<dl< td=""><td>0.11</td><td>0.36</td><td>0.12</td><td>0.49</td></dl<>	0.11	0.36	0.12	0.49	
Cholesterol	2.61	1.67	1.87	5.98	1.35	2.06	4.37	3.02	0.13	0.41	0.86	0.25	
Cholestanol	1.45	1.42	0.60	1.86	0.86	1.16	1.11	1.42	1.28	0.13	0.55	0.21	
Campesterol	6.21	10.96	1.42	6.06	2.98	4.00	5.61	5.79	0.56	0.75	1.19	0.58	
Campestanol	3.96	6.04	2.21	3.56	1.50	3.17	5.35	3.66	3.04	4.67	3.82	3.97	
Stigmasterol	23.96	42.06	4.91	30.61	8.88	12.81	14.47	22.07	0.42	1.18	1.72	0.91	
Stigmastanol	5.13	9.78	1.23	4.08	1.43	2.19	4.32	3.70	0.21	0.23	0.56	0.2	
β-Sitosterol	29.42	57.38	3.60	27.83	15.52	21.67	12.42	24.95	0.43	1.21	0.7	0.62	
β-Sitostanol	6.07	11.78	0.79	3.40	1.98	3.02	2.71	4.25	0.73	0.15	0.45	0.2	
Total Sterols	79.34	141.21	16.61	83.69	34.70	50.62	51.08	69.07	6.96	9.14	10.11	7.81	
Phytosterol	59.58	110.40	9.93	64.51	27.38	38.48	32.49	52.81	1.41	3.15	3.62	2.11	
Diagenetic Ratio	0.42	0.17	0.25	0.25	0.38	0.22	0.18	0.22	1.34	2.08	2.82	1.61	
5β :(5β + 5α)	0.20	0.10	<dl< td=""><td>0.10</td><td>0.20</td><td>0.10</td><td>0.20</td><td>0.10</td><td>0.60</td><td><dl< td=""><td>0.10</td><td>0.2</td></dl<></td></dl<>	0.10	0.20	0.10	0.20	0.10	0.60	<dl< td=""><td>0.10</td><td>0.2</td></dl<>	0.10	0.2	
Cop:Cho	0.10	0.10	<dl< td=""><td><dl< td=""><td>0.10</td><td>0.10</td><td>0.10</td><td>0.10</td><td>1.50</td><td>0.40</td><td>0.10</td><td>0.2</td></dl<></td></dl<>	<dl< td=""><td>0.10</td><td>0.10</td><td>0.10</td><td>0.10</td><td>1.50</td><td>0.40</td><td>0.10</td><td>0.2</td></dl<>	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10	1.50	0.40	0.10	0.2	
∑n-alkanes	73.9	101.60	58.50	125.50	96.60	350.70	81.20	264.00	43.10	55.20	134.20	125.40	
LMW:HMW	0.30	0.20	0.40	0.30	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.50	0.70	0.20	0.10	
CPI	4.10	2.40	3.90	4.80	2.70	4.00	2.90	1.60	2.20	2.00	1.30	2.90	
RTA	31.80	33.30	19.90	19.70	24.6	13.40	39.70	15.10	5.10	3.90	20.30	53.50	
Pr:Ph	0.30	0.30	0.40	0.60	0.20	0.40	0.20	0.30	0.40	0.20	0.60	0.40	
Odd:Even	4.10	2.40	3.90	4.80	2.70	4.00	2.90	1.60	2.20	2.00	1.30	2.90	

Legenda: Phytosterol includes campesterol. stigmasterol. and β-sitosterol. Diagenetic ratio calculated as $\sum n-stanol: \sum n-sterol. 5\beta:(5\beta+5\alpha)$ calculated as coprostanol:(coprostanol+cholestanol). Cop:Cho calculated as coprostanol: cholesterol. CPI: Carbon preferential index considering Cn₁₂₋₃₈. LMH:HMW calculated as \sum short chain (C₁₄₋₂₃): \sum long chain (C₂₄₋₄₀). TAR (Terrestrial:Aquatic ratio) calculated as $\sum (C_{27}; C_{29}; C_{31}) : \sum$ (C₁₅; C₁₇; C₁₉). Pr:Ph = pristano:phytano.

		Maman	guá (M1)			Guapim	irim (M2)		Guaratipa (M3)				
	U	Jpper	L	ower	U	pper	L	ower	U	pper	L	ower	
	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer	Winter	Summer	
C14	0.12	0.19	0.10	0.47	0.13	4.20	0.09	1.55	0.19	0.49	0.16	0.51	
C15	0.12	0.16	<ld< td=""><td>0.58</td><td>0.16</td><td>7.02</td><td>0.11</td><td>3.86</td><td>0.64</td><td>1.23</td><td>0.19</td><td>0.54</td></ld<>	0.58	0.16	7.02	0.11	3.86	0.64	1.23	0.19	0.54	
C16	0.12	0.13	0.39	1.28	0.34	4.98	0.19	3.60	0.78	1.42	0.69	0.67	
C17	0.22	0.25	0.51	1.25	0.55	3.94	0.24	1.85	1.01	1.58	0.88	0.33	
C18	0.95	0.48	1.10	1.73	0.38	1.57	0.85	1.25	0.74	1.86	0.48	0.19	
C19	0.54	0.64	0.55	0.94	0.76	2.51	0.58	0.89	0.72	0.82	0.76	0.14	
C20	1.11	0.92	1.33	0.99	0.85	2.35	0.89	1.56	0.91	1.69	0.70	0.22	
C21	2.52	2.70	2.07	3.24	2.52	5.74	2.59	3.36	2.98	3.08	10.87	2.33	
C22	0.65	1.77	0.83	1.72	1.56	2.66	1.13	3.36	0.90	0.95	2.27	<ld< td=""></ld<>	
C23	9.41	10.81	7.39	12.19	8.96	18.80	5.71	13.40	3.80	3.88	7.04	3.05	
C24	3.99	7.96	1.96	3.30	5.14	11.89	3.05	17.76	1.66	1.57	9.53	1.28	
C25	17.33	19.87	12.28	24.53	18.41	45.24	10.62	33.29	5.04	7.18	15.67	7.05	
C26	2.65	6.84	1.43	2.37	6.21	6.49	4.13	26.67	1.00	2.56	16.72	1.80	
C27	11.29	14.97	7.18	18.54	15.13	54.71	12.20	43.39	4.45	4.72	18.10	8.76	
C28	3.06	6.66	2.00	4.59	5.92	16.54	5.24	25.55	3.07	2.99	15.41	3.75	
C29	14.58	16.58	9.77	24.60	15.26	83.98	19.95	45.40	5.11	5.57	13.31	19.11	
C30	1.40	3.15	1.39	3.09	3.48	13.61	3.25	12.37	2.40	2.12	8.05	7.99	
C31	2.05	3.24	4.15	11.31	5.89	41.84	4.40	10.68	2.58	3.72	5.56	26.69	
C32	0.27	0.93	0.36	1.38	0.95	3.47	1.03	4.26	0.61	0.81	2.98	5.51	
C33	0.43	0.97	1.29	4.24	1.49	11.23	2.41	3.36	1.20	1.47	2.01	15.73	
C34	0.09	0.19	0.11	0.48	0.25	0.85	0.43	0.79	0.34	0.31	0.71	4.79	
C35	0.11	0.29	0.22	0.40	0.24	1.39	0.26	0.84	0.31	0.30	0.28	9.22	
C36	<ld< td=""><td>0.77</td><td>0.25</td><td><ld< td=""><td>0.34</td><td>0.15</td><td>0.44</td><td>0.26</td><td>0.32</td><td>0.18</td><td>0.11</td><td>5.11</td></ld<></td></ld<>	0.77	0.25	<ld< td=""><td>0.34</td><td>0.15</td><td>0.44</td><td>0.26</td><td>0.32</td><td>0.18</td><td>0.11</td><td>5.11</td></ld<>	0.34	0.15	0.44	0.26	0.32	0.18	0.11	5.11	

1304 Table S5. Concentration of n-alkanes from C-14 to C-40 chain (µg g⁻¹) in surface soil of lower (L) and upper(U) zone from Mamanguá (M1).

Guapimirim (M2) and Guaratiba (M3) mangroves during winter (W) and summer (S) periods.

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	CO ₂ flux	CH4 flux	Σ Alkanes	Sewage	Diag. Ratio	5ß:(5B+5a)	OC	NL	8N ¹⁵	8C ¹³	IP (mg/g)	OP (mg/g)	Sandy (%)	Pneumatophores	Crab burrow
CO ₂ flux															
CH ₄ flux															
Σ Alkanes	0.74	0.60													
Sewage															
Diag. Ratio															
5ß:(5ß+5a)				0.82											
OC															
TN				-0.64			0.90								
δN^{15}	0.61			0.64			-0.87	-0.95							
δC^{13}							-0.59	-0.60							
IP (mg/g)	0.70		0.60	0.60			-0.88	-0.87	0.96						
OP (mg/g)			-0.59				0.94	0.93	-0.93	-0.63	-0.91				
Sandy (%)		0.88	0.66												
Pneumato- phores															
Crab burrow	0.65				0.74			-0.69	0.73	0.82	0.65	-0.70			

1319 Table S6: Values of Spearman correlation coefficient (r_s) for statistically significant relationships (p<0.05) reported in Fig. S5.

1321	Table S7. Eigenvectors.	variables contribution	based on	correlations	from principal	component	analysis	(PCA)	. factors-variables	correlations
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	Eigenvectors		Variable contributions		Factor loadings		
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 1	Factor 2	
CO ₂ flux	0.283877	0.026262	0.080586	0.000690	0.784619	0.042072	
CH ₄ flux	0.116912	-0.525154	0.013668	0.275787	0.323138	-0.841284	
Σ n-Alkanes	0.236693	-0.348214	0.056024	0.121253	0.654206	-0.557831	
Sewage	0.248625	0.161782	0.061814	0.026173	0.687184	0.259171	
Diagenetic Ratio	0.217566	0.340801	0.047335	0.116145	0.601340	0.545955	
5B/(5B+5a)	0.146751	0.158754	0.021536	0.025203	0.405611	0.254320	
OC	-0.325280	0.049447	0.105807	0.002445	-0.899055	0.079213	
TN	-0.337825	0.024001	0.114126	0.000576	-0.933727	0.038448	
$\delta^{15}N$	0.340042	0.007945	0.115629	0.000063	0.939856	0.012728	
$\delta^{13}C$	0.252864	0.234537	0.063940	0.055008	0.698900	0.375722	
IP	0.332472	-0.018883	0.110537	0.000357	0.918931	-0.030250	
Sand	-0.333885	-0.076817	0.111479	0.005901	-0.922836	0.123060	
OP	0.103943	-0.554104	0.010804	0.307031	0.287292	-0.887661	
Pneumatophores	0.077257	-0.133223	0.005969	0.017748	0.213533	-0.213421	
Crab burrows	0.284157	0.213590	0.080745	0.045620	0.785393	0.342165	

1322 (factor loadings) based on correlation between variables. Sewage shows coprostanol + epicoprostanol.