

1 **Mangrove sediment organic carbon storage and sources in relation to forest age**
2 **and position along a deltaic salinity gradient**

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15

16 **Abstract**

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18 Mangroves are widely recognised as key ecosystems for climate change mitigation as they capture and
19 store significant amounts of sediment organic carbon (SOC). Yet, there is incomplete knowledge on
20 how sources of SOC and their differential preservation vary between mangrove sites in relation to envi-
21 ronmental gradients. To address this, sediment depth profiles were sampled from mangrove sites ranging
22 from river-dominated to marine-dominated sites and including old and young mangrove sites, in the
23 Guayas delta (Ecuador). The stable carbon isotope ratios ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) and the elemental composition (OC%,
24 C:N) of sediment profiles, local vegetation (i.e., autochthonous carbon) and externally-supplied sus-
25 pended particulate matter (i.e., allochthonous carbon) were obtained to assess variations in the amount
26 and sources of SOC at different locations throughout the delta. In general, across all sites, we found
27 increasing SOC contents and stocks are associated with decreasing $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and increasing C/N ratios, indicating

28 that SOC stocks and sources are intrinsically related. The SOC stocks (down to 0.64 m depth profiles) are
29 significantly lower in young mangrove sites (46-55 Mg C ha⁻¹) than in old sites (78 - 92 Mg C ha⁻¹). The
30 SOC in the young mangrove sites is mainly of allochthonous origin (estimated on average at 79%)
31 whereas in the old sites there is a slight dominance of autochthonous OC (on average 59%). Moreover,
32 from river- to marine-dominated sites, a pattern was found of increasing SOC stocks and increasing
33 autochthonous SOC contribution. These observed differences along the two studied gradients are hy-
34 pothesized to be mainly driven by (1) expected higher sedimentation rates in the river-dominated and
35 lower-elevation younger sites, thereby ‘diluting’ the SOC content and decreasing the relative autoch-
36 thonous contribution; and (2) potential differences in preservation of the different SOC sources. Our
37 finding of high contributions of allochthonous SOC, especially in young mangroves, implies that this
38 carbon is not originating from CO₂ sequestration by the mangrove ecosystem itself, but is externally
39 supplied from other terrestrial, marine or estuarine ecosystems. We argue that accounting for lower SOC
40 stocks and higher contribution of allochthonous SOC in young and river-dominated mangrove sites, as
41 compared to old and marine-dominant sites, is particularly relevant for designing and valuing nature-
42 based climate mitigation programs based on mangrove reforestation.

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44 KEYWORDS

45 blue carbon, sediment organic carbon, stable carbon isotope, autochthonous, allochthonous, climate change,

46 Guayas delta

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56 1 | INTRODUCTION

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58 Situated at the interface between terrestrial and marine environments, mangrove forests are unique wetland
59 ecosystems occupying (sub-)tropical intertidal zones (Burkett & Kusler, 2000; Duke et al., 2007; Polidoro et
60 al., 2010; Tue et al., 2012). They provide a myriad of ecosystem services, such as their ability to contribute
61 to global climate regulation by effectively sequestering carbon (Donato et al., 2011; Mcleod et al., 2011;
62 Taillardat et. al., 2018). Mangroves accumulate organic carbon at an estimated rate of 20-949 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹,
63 accounting for more than 10% of the carbon sequestration by the global ocean (Mcleod et al., 2011; Alongi,
64 2014), while mangroves only cover ca. 2 % of the global ocean (Duarte et al., 2004). Compared to other
65 ecosystem types, such as rain forests, peat swamps, salt marshes and seagrasses, mangroves store much
66 higher carbon stocks which approximately range from 140 - 1023 Mg C ha⁻¹ (Donato et al., 2011; Alongi,
67 2014; Schile et al., 2017). This demonstrates the importance of the carbon capture and storage capacity of
68 mangrove ecosystems. Recent estimations by Atwood et al. (2017) equate to 2.6 billion Mg of C stored in
69 mangrove sediments down to a 1 m depth worldwide.

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71 This high capacity of mangroves to store carbon is to a large extent due to the accumulation of organic
72 carbon into their sediments through a range of mechanisms. Generally, sediment organic carbon (SOC) orig-
73 inates from autochthonous inputs (i.e. from local biomass production) and allochthonous inputs (i.e. from
74 particulate sediment deposition during tidal inundation) that are well-preserved by the mostly anoxic sedi-
75 ment conditions in mangroves (Kristensen et al., 2008). Above and belowground biomass accumulates in
76 mangrove sediments through litterfall, vegetation die-off, root exudation, root growth and peat formation (Ez-
77 curra et al., 2016), and this constitutes the autochthonous SOC in mangrove sediments. On the other hand,
78 during regular tidal flooding events mangroves trap allochthonous carbon from tidal waters containing fine
79 sediment particles from marine, estuarine, and terrestrial origin (Alongi, 2014). These organic materials of
80 both autochthonous and allochthonous origin are stored and buried in the mangrove sediments, through sed-
81 imentation (during high tides and high-energy events like storm surges) and bioturbation (e.g. burrowing of
82 crustaceans). The preservation of this buried SOC is dependent on, among other factors, organic matter sorp-
83 tion to mineral substrates, microbial decomposition activity (Kristensen et al., 2008; Adame et al., 2015) and
84 tide-driven groundwater fluxes (Maher et al., 2013).

85 Unveiling environmental gradients that affect variations in the amount of allochthonous and autochtho-
86 nous SOC in mangroves is highly relevant, since the fate and long-term preservation of these two SOC
87 sources may differ. Recent field studies in temperate-climate tidal marshes indicate that locally produced
88 autochthonous SOC is abundantly present in the top 5-20 cm of sediment profiles, but is largely lost with
89 increasing depth beneath the sediment surface, due to mineralization and leaching. In contrast, long-term
90 preserved SOC is to a large extent of external allochthonous origin, suggesting this SOC source is more
91 protected against mineralization (Van de Broek et al. 2018; Mueller et al. 2019). Furthermore, discriminating
92 between autochthonous and allochthonous SOC sources is important, especially to properly assess the mag-
93 nitude to which this ecosystem can help mitigate climate change. After all, it is only the autochthonous SOC
94 that is assimilated from atmospheric CO₂ within the mangrove ecosystem itself, while the allochthonous SOC
95 originates from externally supplied organic C from other upstream (terrestrial), downstream (marine) or es-
96 tuarine ecosystems. In that respect, double accounting of allochthonous OC has to be avoided in carbon
97 budgets (Van den Broek et al. 2018) as this SOC is originally sequestered in another environment. Yet the
98 burial of allochthonous OC into mangrove SOC is relevant, as that OC may have contributed otherwise to
99 greenhouse gas emissions from estuarine waters (Barr et al., 2010; Borges & Abril, 2011; Sturm et al., 2017;
100 Jacotot et al. 2018). Thus, making a distinction between allochthonous and autochthonous SOC is crucial.
101 However, there is limited knowledge on the relative contribution of the autochthonous and allochthonous
102 inputs to SOC in mangroves and specifically how this contribution may vary spatially in relation to environ-
103 mental gradients.

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105 The scarce number of studies on tidal marshes in temperate climate zones might provide hypotheses on
106 which environmental gradients may be relevant for tropical mangroves. Here we focus on two gradients, for
107 reasons argued below: (1) a deltaic or estuarine gradient from seaward sites (marine dominated) to landward
108 sites (riverine dominated), and (2) young and old mangroves. Available studies from tidal marshes show a
109 general pattern of decreasing SOC contents along estuarine salinity gradients from land to sea (Abril et al.,
110 2002; Craft, 2007; Wieski et al., 2010; Hansen et al., 2017; Van de Broek et al., 2016), and this may be
111 associated with shifts in the allochthonous versus autochthonous contributions to marsh SOC. For example,
112 in studies of tidal marshes in the US (Craft, 2007) and in Belgium and the Netherlands (Van de Broek et al.,

113 2016), it was found that tidal marshes located more upstream along estuaries predominantly store SOC from
114 allochthonous riverine inputs, due to higher contents of suspended particulate matter (SPM) and particulate
115 organic carbon (POC), hence leading to higher rates of allochthonous SOC accumulation and higher SOC
116 stocks in more upstream marsh sites. Further, young low-elevation marshes that established more recently
117 on mudflats, are often characterized by higher rates of allochthonous sediment deposition, as compared to
118 higher-elevation older marsh sites (Temmerman et al., 2004; Kirwan et al., 2016), and therefore it may be
119 hypothesized that the SOC in young sites contains more allochthonous carbon as compared to old sites.
120 However, it still remains to be investigated if such patterns on allochthonous versus autochthonous SOC
121 sources and preservation, in relation to wetland age and position along an estuarine land-to-sea gradient, as
122 found for temperate zone tidal marshes (Van de Broek et al., 2016; Van de Broek et al., 2018, Mueller et al.,
123 2019), also occur in tropical mangroves, which obviously differ from marshes in many respects such as veg-
124 etation type, canopy density, and climate, among others.

125

126 While it is widely accepted that mangroves act as major C sinks (Bouillon et al., 2008; Nelleman et al.,
127 2009, Atwood et al., 2017; Marchand, 2017; Jennerjahn, 2020), at present, there are no studies that specifi-
128 cally investigated the stocks and sources of SOC in relation to the age and position of mangroves along the
129 land-to-sea gradient within a delta or estuary. Therefore, this study aims at quantifying and identifying first-
130 order controls of SOC stocks and sources (allochthonous versus autochthonous) along an estuarine land-to-
131 sea gradient and between old and young mangrove forest sites, for a specific case study in the Guayas Delta,
132 Ecuador.

133

134 **2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS**

135

136 **2.1 | Study site**

137

138 Field sampling was conducted in the Guayas Delta (Ecuador) which borders the Gulf of Guayaquil (Figure
139 1), together forming the largest estuarine system along the Pacific coast of South America (Cucalon, 1989;
140 Reynaud et al., 2018). Its geomorphology is characterized by multiple branching river channels that intersect
141 a large deltaic plain with approximately 4000 km² of mangroves (Reynaud et al., 2018). Tidal gauge stations

142 within the delta operated by Instituto Oceanográfico de la Armada del Ecuador (INOCAR, Oceanographic
143 Institute of the Navy, Figure 1) recorded mean long-term (1984 -2016) tidal ranges of 2.12, 2.85, and 3.42 m
144 and sea level rise rates of 1.7, 4.9, and 4.0 mm/yr for stations Puerto Bolivar, Puná and Rio Guayas, respec-
145 tively.

146

147 Two main estuarine sub-systems can be distinguished within the delta. To the east is the Guayas River
148 estuary, which is a river-influenced estuary exhibiting a salinity gradient that ranges from 0-2 at the landward
149 side of the tidal influence to 30 ppt at the delta mouth during the yearly dry season (June to November),
150 dropping down at the latter location to 15-20 during the wet season (December to May) (Arreaga Vargas,
151 2000). To the west is the Estero El Salado estuary, which is a former tributary of the Guayas River that is
152 now disconnected from freshwater river discharge at its northern limit, making it a marine-dominated estua-
153 rine system with salinity levels higher than in the Guayas River, ranging from 23.4 – 32.7 (Cifuentes et al.,
154 1996; Twilley et al., 1998; Reynaud et al., 2018). Rainfall in the Guayas River catchment is seasonal, with
155 95 % of precipitation occurring in the rainy season. As a result, the Guayas River has an average monthly
156 discharge of 1400 m³/s, ranging from 200 m³/s in the dry season to 1600 m³/s in the rainy season, during a
157 year of average precipitation (Cifuentes et al. 1996; Twilley et al., 2001).

158

159 Eight sampling locations (see Table S1 for coordinates) were identified in these two subsystems, consist-
160 ing of four paired sets of young and old mangrove sites that are located nearby each other (Figure 1). These
161 four pairs of young/old sites were situated in four sampling zones with different position in the delta. Three
162 different sampling zones were selected along the Guayas River estuary. These three sampling zones are re-
163 ferred to as the Upstream, Intermediate and Downstream zones (Figure 1). A fourth sampling zone was se-
164 lected in the marine-dominated El Salado estuary, which is further referred to as the Marine zone. Based on
165 an analysis of historical LANDSAT satellite images, we selected within each zone a young mangrove site
166 (only emerging on satellite images at least after 1993 by mangrove establishment on initially bare mudflats)
167 and an old mangrove site (visible as established mangroves on satellite images older than 1984). Although
168 the selected young sites can't be biologically categorized as young, for the purpose of this study, we will
169 refer to these sites as 'young' as they are still significantly younger than their older counterparts. There is a

170 strong dominance of *Rhizophora somoensis* in the old sites and *Avicennia germinans* in the young sites of
171 the intermediate, downstream and marine zones, whereas the young and old sites of the upstream zone show
172 high diversity of mangroves (*Rhizophora* and *Avicennia*) and an understory of freshwater plant species. Trees
173 on the old sites have stem diameters mostly between 0.5 and 1 m, while on young sites this was mostly
174 between 0.1 and 0.5 m, confirming we had selected contrasting old and young sites.

175

176 **2.2 | Sample collection**

177

178 Sediment cores were collected in September 2018 using cylindrical PVC tubes (0.10 m diameter), inserted
179 manually down to a minimum depth of 0.64 m. At each site, 3 replicate sediment cores were sampled with
180 an approximate maximum distance of 3 meters per coring location, resulting in a total of 24 sediment cores.
181 Aboveground biomass samples (sun-shaded and sun-exposed green leaves, senescent leaves, leaf litter, live
182 twigs and branches) were collected in the field on all sampling locations, as well as belowground biomass
183 (light-colored roots) were manually sampled from the sediment cores in the lab, to represent autochthonous
184 mangrove biomass. Surface water samples for determination of allochthonous suspended particulate organic
185 carbon (POC) concentration were also collected from the river channels directly adjacent to each mangrove
186 site with a 3 L Niskin bottle from just below the water surface and stored in 1 L opaque plastic bottles in a
187 cool box filled with ice. Water samples were taken during a high water and low water campaign, both during
188 the dry season (September 2018) and wet season (March 2019).

189

190 All samples (sediment and biomass) were transported and immediately frozen at the laboratory. The fro-
191 zen sediment cores were mechanically sliced per centimeter, thawed and then oven-dried at 60°C for 48
192 hours. Biomass samples were oven-dried using the same procedure. Total suspended matter (TSM) and POC
193 content of the TSM were determined by filtering a known volume of water through pre-weighed and pre-
194 combusted 47 mm and 25 mm Whatmann GF/F filters (nominal pore size 0.7 µm), respectively.

195

196 **2.3 | Sample analyses**

197

198 From each core, subsamples (i.e., slices of 0.01 m depth increments) were taken every 0.04 m. To obtain the
199 sediment bulk density the samples were oven-dried at 60°C for 48 hours and were desiccated for 30-minutes
200 to constant weight. Large pieces of living macroscopic vegetation residues (i.e., light colored roots) were
201 then manually removed and kept as belowground biomass samples, while the remaining sediment samples
202 were homogenized. All samples were treated with 10% HCl solution after weighing them into silver cups to
203 remove carbonates, and were left overnight in an oven at 50°C. These were then analyzed for OC content,
204 C:N ratios and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ using an Elemental Analyzer (Thermo EA 1110 coupled to a Thermo Delta V Advantage
205 isotope ratio mass spectrometer). For the analysis of grain size distribution, subsamples were taken every
206 0.08 m for each core and were analyzed using a LS I3 320 Laser Diffraction Particle Size Analyzer. The
207 grain size was classified to fractions of clay ($<2\mu\text{m}$), silt ($<2\text{-}63\mu\text{m}$) and sand ($>63\mu\text{m}$).

208

209 Before analysis of the plant materials, the samples were pulverized using a mortar and pestle. The re-
210 maining samples with harder composition were powdered using a mechanical ball mill or after treatment
211 with liquid nitrogen. The ground samples were then weighed into tin cups. The filters used to collect POC in
212 TSM samples, on the other hand were exposed to HCl fumes for 4 hours to remove inorganic carbon and
213 dried at 50 °C overnight. Hereafter, filters were encapsulated in silver cups and stored in well plates. All plant
214 materials and filters were analyzed for OC, C:N and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ using the same EA-IRMS setup as for the sediment
215 core samples.

216

217

218 **2.4 | Data analysis**

219 **2.4.1 | OC Stocks Calculation**

220

221 For the analysis of depth profiles of OC%, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and C:N ratios, all replicate cores were analyzed at 0.04 m
222 depth intervals. As the replicate cores have varying sampling depths, depth profiles were analyzed up to a
223 maximum common depth of 0.64 m for the three replicates per location. For the determination of OC stocks,
224 continuous depth profiles of SOC content and bulk density were first obtained by linear interpolation. The
225 OC density (g cm^{-3}) was then obtained by multiplying the interpolated OC (%) and bulk density (g cm^{-3})
226 values. The total OC stocks (Mg OC ha^{-1}) from each site were finally determined by summing up OC density

227 at all depth intervals and then multiplying the values by the depth interval (cm). Compaction during sample
228 collection was taken into account in the calculation of OC stocks.

229 **2.4.2 | Two End-Member Mixing Model**

230

231 To identify the sources and examine the factors controlling the accumulation of OC in mangrove sediments,
232 two end-member mixing curves were made describing the relationship between OC% and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values, and
233 between C/N and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values. Organic carbon derived from local (autochthonous) and external (allochtho-
234 nous) inputs are expected to exhibit different $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values. With this, two end-members, namely the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ratio
235 of the POC of the estuarine waters (allochthonous component) and of the above and belowground vegetation
236 biomass (autochthonous component), were considered. The input parameter values were calculated using
237 averages of the POC and vegetation data. The definition of these components was necessary to calculate the
238 expected $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of sediments for a given C/N or OC%. The latter calculation was done using the equa-
239 tions derived by Bouillon *et al.*, (2003). First, the fraction of the bulk sediment which is from mangrove
240 origin, X_{mangrove} , was calculated as:

241

$$242 \quad X_{\text{mangrove}} = \frac{C_{\text{sediment}} (\%) - C_{\text{allocht}} (\%)}{C_{\text{mangrove}} (\%) - C_{\text{allocht}} (\%)} \quad (1)$$

243

$$0 < X_{\text{mangrove}} < 1 \quad (1)$$

244

245 Where C_{sediment} , C_{allocht} , and C_{mangrove} corresponds to the OC content (%) of the sediment, of the alloch-
246 thonous particulate organic carbon and of the autochthonous vegetation, respectively. The result obtained
247 from the equation above was correspondingly used to calculate the fraction of OC in the sediment that is of
248 autochthonous mangrove origin, $X_{\text{mangroveC}}$ (%), as:

249

$$250 \quad X_{\text{mangroveC}} = \frac{X_{\text{mangrove}} - C_{\text{mangrove}} (\%)}{X_{\text{mangrove}} * C_{\text{mangrove}} (\%) + (1 - X_{\text{mangrove}}) * C_{\text{allocht}} (\%)} \quad (2)$$

$$0 < X_{mangroveC} < 1$$

Finally, the expected $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the sediment organic matter, $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{sediment}}$ (‰), was calculated as:

$$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{sediment}} (\text{‰}) = X_{mangroveC} * \delta^{13}\text{C}_{mangrove} (\text{‰}) + (1 - X_{mangroveC}) * \delta^{13}\text{C}_{allocht} (\text{‰}) \quad (3)$$

Where $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{mangrove}$ (‰) and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{allocht}$ (‰) correspond to the stable carbon isotopic composition of the autochthonous mangrove vegetation and allochthonous estuarine POC, respectively. For the relationship between the sediment $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values and C:N ratios, similar equations were derived.

2.4.3 | Statistical Analyses

To test whether the OC%, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and C:N significantly differed between the young and old sites, paired t-tests were performed. One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to test if the same parameters and the OC stocks were statistically significantly different between zones (upstream, intermediate, downstream, and marine). All data were checked for normality (Shapiro-Wilk) and homogeneity of variances (Levene's Test) with a level of significance of $p < 0.05$. Appropriate transformations (log & box cox) were performed for data that were not normally distributed and corresponding non-parametric tests (Mann-Whitney & Kruskal-Wallis) were employed for data that remained non normal after transformations. The data were analyzed using R programming (R Core Team, 2017).

3 | RESULTS

3.1 | Sediment organic carbon (SOC) depth profiles

The SOC contents of the sampled mangrove sediments varied considerably from 1.10 to 7.80% (Figure 2). The SOC contents of the old mangrove sites were significantly higher than for the young counterparts (Upstream: T-test, $T(5)=4.76$; $p < 0.005$; Intermediate: T-test, $T(5)=11.68$; $p < 0.05$; Downstream: T-test, $T(5)=12.01$; $p < 0.005$) (Fig. 2 and Table S2). On the other hand, the SOC contents of the young and old sites

278 in the Marine zone were not significantly different (T-test, $T(5) = 2.59$; $p > 0.05$). A general pattern of increas-
279 ing SOC content was observed from Upstream to Downstream sites and the values were found to significantly
280 differ between these sites (Kruskall-Wallis, $\text{Chi-Square} = 68.29$; $p < 0.001$) (Fig. 2 and Table S2). The SOC
281 content for each site showed a relatively uniform distribution over depth (Figure 2), with some minor varia-
282 tions with depth for certain sites (Intermediate Old, Downstream Old and Marine sites).

283 **3.2 | Inventories of sediment organic carbon stocks**

284 A direct comparison between sites was done after calculating the SOC stocks down to the maximum common
285 depth of 0.64 m, showing SOC stocks varying between 46.6 ± 0.3 and $98.3 \pm 1.9 \text{ Mg C ha}^{-1}$ (Figure 3 and
286 Table S3 and Figure S1). First, the SOC stocks were significantly higher on old sites as compared to young
287 sites (T-test, $T(5) = 2.80$; $p < 0.005$). Secondly, the SOC stocks were found to significantly increase (ANOVA,
288 $F_{6,14} = 12.39$; $P < 0.001$) from upstream to downstream, at least for the old sites (Figure 3 and Table S2). The
289 young and old sites of the Marine zone had SOC stocks (97.74 ± 1.52 and $92.7 \pm 0.93 \text{ Mg C ha}^{-1}$, respectively)
290 that are comparable to the Intermediate and Downstream old mangrove sites.

291

292 **3.4 | Stable carbon isotope ratios in sediments and potential sources**

293 Figure 4A-D shows the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of SOC along the sediment depth profiles, together with the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values
294 of the above and belowground vegetation and POC of the adjacent water bodies. The sediment $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values
295 of the sediment cores are 6-10‰ higher relative to the vegetation of the sites (Table S2 S4 and S8) and varied
296 between -28.1 and -24.4‰. In contrast, the average $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of the POC of the adjacent water bodies
297 (circles) in the Upstream, Intermediate and Downstream sites were found to correspond closer to the sediment
298 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values, with the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of sedimentary OC being lower compared to values for riverine POC (Table
299 S5). Furthermore, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of the older sites (at the Intermediate, Downstream and Marine sites) are more
300 negative than the younger sites (Fig. 4; Table S2 and Figure S2). Comparison between the young and old
301 sites revealed that these differences were statistically significant at the Upstream, Intermediate and Down-
302 stream zones (T-test, $T_5 = 2.78$, $T_5 = 41.25$, and $T_5 = 89.48$; $p < 0.005$, respectively). A generally homogeneous
303 pattern of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values with depth was observed in all the sites, except the Upstream old site (Fig. 4A-D).

304

305

306 **3.5 | Two end-member mixing model**

307 The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ was plotted against the elemental ratios (C/N) and SOC content (%) of the sediments from all sites
308 (Figures 5A and 5B). Figure 5A showed a negative correlation ($r = -0.83$) between the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values and the
309 SOC content of the sediment samples. An inverse relationship ($r = -0.78$) was also observed between C/N
310 ratios and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (Figure 5B.). The SOC content and C/N of the POC from the suspended particulate
311 matter of the adjacent estuarine waters were particularly low (1.45– 3.24% and 7.3 – 9.5, respectively) and
312 corresponded to less negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (-25.1 to -27.2‰). On the other hand, the SOC content and C/N of
313 the vegetation samples were found to be higher (26.5 -47.6 % and 27.1 – 47.2, respectively) and were matched
314 with lower $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (-33.7 to -29.0‰).

315 Mixing model curves were calculated then from the data (Fig. 5). The average mixing curves (referred to
316 as “mixing mid” in Fig. 5A and B) were obtained using the average observed POC and vegetation data as
317 input values for the model parameters in equations 1-3. To account for the uncertainty of the parameter val-
318 ues, they were also varied to obtain minimum and maximum mixing curves (“mixing min” and “mixing max”
319 in Fig. 6A and B). After checking the degree of sensitivity of the resulting mixing curves to the variations in
320 input values, a slight variation of values was applied ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{allocht}}$ between -27.0 and -25.2‰, $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{mangrove}}$ be-
321 tween -33.0 and -27‰, $\text{OC}_{\text{sediment}}$ between 0.6 and 1.5%, $\text{C:N}_{\text{mangrove}}$ between 42 and 60), resulting in the
322 minimum and maximum mixing curves in Figures 5A and B.

323 To account for the variability of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of the different above- and belowground plant materials
324 (roots, leaves, branches, live, senescent, and surface litter, see supporting Table S8) used as vegetation end-
325 member, a one-factor-at-a-time (OAT) sensitivity analysis was performed and no significant changes in the
326 mixing model results after linear regression was observed (Figure S4, S5, S6 and S7). Overall the obtained
327 mixing curves encompass the observed data reasonably well.

328

329 **3.6 | Stable carbon isotope ratios in sediments and potential sources**

330 Estimations on the relative contribution (%) of allochthonous and autochthonous origin to the SOC (Figure
331 6, see Table S4 and S8 for specific values of all sites) show that overall, the sampled mangrove sediments
332 predominantly contain externally supplied allochthonous carbon (estimated at 65 %) rather than locally
333 produced autochthonous carbon. Younger sites also have more allochthonous carbon (79 ± 17 %) whereas
334 older sites have slightly more autochthonous carbon (59 ± 8 %) stored in the sediments. While the contribu-
335 tion of allochthonous carbon was consistently higher for all sites, a general pattern of increasing contribu-
336 tion of autochthonous carbon from the upstream to the downstream and marine zones was observed (Figure
337 6).

338

339 **4 | DISCUSSION**

340

341 Despite widespread recognition of mangroves as key ecosystems for climate change mitigation through C
342 capture and storage (Mcleod et al., 2011; Pendelton et al., 2012; Siikamäki et al., 2012; Murdiyarso *et al.*,
343 2015), relatively limited knowledge is available on the variability in amounts and sources of sediment organic
344 carbon in relation to environmental gradients within a system, such as mangrove age and position along an
345 estuarine land-to-sea gradient. Our study on the Guayas delta (Ecuador) shows that SOC stocks and contents
346 on old sites increase from river-dominated to marine-dominated sites and are generally lower in young sites
347 as compared to old sites. Across all sites, increasing SOC contents are associated with decreasing $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and
348 increasing C/N ratios. This suggests that the sources of SOC are predominantly of allochthonous origin for
349 younger sites (on average 79%), while for older sites there is a slight dominance of autochthonous SOC origin
350 (on average 59%). In the following section we explore potential mechanisms and hypotheses that may explain
351 these observations, and we discuss implications for managing mangroves for carbon capture and storage.

352

353 **4.1 | SOC variability between young and old mangrove sites**

354

355 The majority of the old mangrove sites along the Guayas Delta had a significantly higher SOC stock and
356 content than the young sites (Figure 2 and Figure 3). As a first potential explanation, we hypothesize this is

357 due to a SOC ‘dilution effect’ that is, as explained below, related to differences in suspended sediment ac-
358 cretion rates between old and young mangrove sites. Several authors (Pethick, 1981; Allen, 1990; French,
359 1993; Temmerman et. al., 2003; Kirwan et al. 2016) have shown that more recently formed (young) tidal
360 marshes experience higher sediment accretion rates than their older counterparts. This is because new
361 (young) marsh formation, through establishment of pioneer vegetation on initially unvegetated intertidal flats,
362 starts at a lower elevation relative to mean sea level as compared to the higher elevation of established old
363 marshes. Hence younger, lower-elevation marshes are subject to a higher tidal inundation frequency, depth
364 and duration, and therefore higher rate of suspended sediment supply and deposition. Applying this analogy
365 to mangroves, it is therefore reasonable to assume that the sampled sediment profiles in our young mangrove
366 sites (formed after 1984 by mangrove establishment on originally unvegetated intertidal flats) have accreted
367 at higher rates than at the adjacent old mangrove sites (already established, based on analysis of remote
368 sensing images, at least before 1984). We expect that the higher volume of tidally supplied sediment input in
369 young sites largely consists of mineral suspended sediments that are relatively low in POC content (Duarte
370 et al. 2004; Saintilan et al. 2013; Alongi, 2014). This is confirmed by our SPM samples, which showed a low
371 POC content of 1.45 to 3.24 %. Higher suspended sediment accretion rates on young mangroves, would result
372 then in a ‘dilution effect’ of the locally produced mangrove organic matter which typically has higher OC
373 content. In line with our findings, other studies have also suggested that the OC stock in mangrove sediments
374 increases linearly with the mangrove forest age as autochthonous C significantly increased in older compared
375 to younger forests (Lovelock et al. 2010; Marchand 2017).

376

377 Additionally, the higher frequency and duration of tidal inundation in the lower-elevated young mangrove
378 sites is expected to promote more tidal currents that could cause export of POC from macroscopic origin
379 (litter of leaves, twigs, and barks that could otherwise have been buried in the system. Furthermore, older
380 mangrove sites generally have a denser tree canopy and root structure than young mangrove sites, which was
381 shown by Alongi (2012) to hinder tidal export of litter from the forest sediment surface. It has also been
382 proposed that the sediments of younger mangroves, with lower surface elevations and more frequent tidal
383 inundations, are more often in less reducing conditions due to daily renewal of electron acceptors (e.g. man-
384 ganese and iron) with tides and oxygen diffusion by the *Avicennia* root systems (Marchand et al. 2004, 2006).
385 These conditions may have also contributed to a faster rate of SOC decomposition in young sites as compared

386 to more prevalent anoxic conditions in older mangrove stands, which may lead to a higher degree of SOC
387 preservation and thus higher SOC stock in older mangrove sediments.

388

389 For all the young sites and Upstream old site, where SOC stocks are lower than the other old sites, the
390 autochthonous contribution of local vegetation to the SOC was estimated to be very low (i.e., 20.7 ± 13 % of
391 the SOC). The allochthonous OC coming from the water column as suspended matter can be considered as
392 the main source of OC found in sediments of these sites. This is supported by the less negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values
393 of the SOC in these areas that ranged between -27.5 and -24.4‰ (Figure 4A-D) and lower C:N ratios of 11.5
394 – 14.9 (Table S2) compared to the other older sites. Generally lower C:N ratios and higher freshwater input
395 of organic matter could indicate faster decomposition, hence resulting in lower SOC contents and stocks
396 (Leopold *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, our data suggest that the majority of the SOC in these sites is not produced
397 from newly fixed CO_2 by the local mangrove vegetation but rather from tidal deposition of material originat-
398 ing from terrestrial, marine or estuarine reservoirs. We observed comparable SOC stocks and contents at the
399 young and old sites of the Upstream zone, as opposed to the lower SOC stocks in young sites compared to
400 old sites of the Intermediate and Downstream zones. This may be to some extent attributed to differences in
401 the successional stages of the vegetation in these different sites: in the intermediate and downstream zones
402 (with higher salinity), the young sites are dominated by smaller trees of *Avicennia germinans* (known as an
403 earlier successional species) and the old sites are grown by high stands of *Rhizophora somoensis* (known as
404 a later successional species); while in the upstream zone (with lower salinity), the vegetation was similar on
405 old and young sites, with mixtures of both *Avicennia* and *Rhizophora* and an understory of freshwater marsh
406 species. Hence this may suggest that young and old sites in the upstream zone are in a similar vegetation
407 successional stage, and therefore may have reached similar SOC stock levels; while in the intermediate and
408 downstream zones, the young sites are in an earlier successional stage, where the SOC has reached yet lower
409 levels as compared to the nearby old sites.

410 Furthermore, the old mangrove sites of the Intermediate, Downstream and Marine sites have lower $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
411 values (-28.1 to -26.5‰) and higher C:N ratios (17.7 – 33.9) compared to the young sites and the Upstream
412 old site. In these sites, it is estimated that more than half (59 ± 8 %) of the SOC is of autochthonous origin
413 indicating that a significant portion of locally produced organic matter is preserved in these areas. Other
414 mangrove forests wherein $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and C:N values of sediments closely match those of the mangrove roots and

415 aboveground vegetation also reported a similar portion of mangrove-derived SOC of 58% (Kristensen et al.,
416 2008). This relatively higher contribution of locally produced carbon to the mangrove SOC could explain
417 why these sites have higher SOC contents and stocks than the young mangrove sites, as the OC content in
418 organic material derived from mangrove vegetation is normally higher than that of the suspended sediments
419 (Figure 5A).

420 Finally, it is important to note the comparable SOC stocks and contents of the young and old sites of the
421 Marine zone. This is clearly due to the high SOC content in the upper 0.20 m of the younger sites which
422 compensate for the lower SOC content deeper than 0.20 m, and which results in similar depth-averaged SOC
423 content as in the older sites (Figure 2). Analyses of the cores showed that a high amount of macroscopic
424 vegetation remains were found in the upper 0.20 m of the young Marine site cores.

425

426 **4.2 | SOC variability along the estuarine land-to-sea gradient**

427 We observed SOC contents and stocks to generally increase from zones with low to high salinity (Figure 2
428 and 3). Similar patterns were found in river-influenced estuarine mangrove forests in the Ganges-Brahmapu-
429 tra Delta in the Indian Sundarbans (Donato *et al.*, 2011), the Pichavaram Mangrove in southeast India (Ranjan
430 *et al.*, 2011) and the Mui Ca Mau National Park in the Mekong Delta, Vietnam (Tue *et al.*, 2014). A potential
431 reason could be the higher input of riverine mineral-rich sediments in the more upstream locations of the
432 delta, resulting in higher mineral sediment accretion rates in the lower salinity zones, and diluting the organic
433 matter content in the mangrove sediments. In addition, we found a strong positive correlation (Pearson's $r=$
434 0.96) between the SOC content and C:N ratios (see Figure S3 and S4) of the mangrove sediments. This may
435 suggest that the higher N contents in the more upstream and young sites may contribute to higher mineral-
436 associated carbon and hence, lower SOC contents and stocks.

437

438 From Upstream to Downstream, the mangrove sediment $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values closely match those of the POC
439 from the estuarine waters, while $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of the local vegetation biomass differ significantly from the
440 sediment $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (Figure 4A-D; Figure 5A and B). This suggests that the SOC in the studied mangroves
441 along the land-to-sea gradient mainly consists of allochthonous sources (estimated at $65 \pm 22\%$), while
442 preservation of locally produced autochthonous OC into SOC is limited. Fairly similar ranges of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (-29.5

443 to -23.9 ‰) and C:N (9 – 26.6) were obtained in the estuarine mangrove of Segara Anakan Lagoon in south-
444 ern Java, Indonesia (Kusumaningtyas *et al.*, 2019; Jennerjahn 2021), where the majority of the organic matter
445 in the mangrove sediment was also concluded to be externally derived. Additionally, a study of Weiss *et al.*
446 (2016) in the Berau estuary in eastern Kalimantan, Indonesia, also found silt loam sediments (similar to the
447 sediment texture found in the Guayas mangroves, Table S6) mainly composed of externally-derived OC
448 which had a bulk density (0.4- 0.7 g cm⁻³) and δ¹³C values (-29.5 to -25.6‰) close to those found in our study
449 (see Table S2).

450 A potential explanation to this observed predominance of externally derived SOC is the tidal range and
451 the quality of the allochthonous and autochthonous organic matter that comes in the Guayas mangrove eco-
452 systems. A study of the contribution of both internal and external inputs of OC in marsh sediments in the
453 Scheldt Estuary, in the Netherlands and Belgium (Van de Broek *et al.*, 2016; Van de Broek *et al.*, 2018),
454 proposed that the burial efficiencies of the different sources of POC are related to their decomposability. For
455 this study area, they suggest that allochthonous POC is composed largely of terrestrial, recalcitrant POC.
456 Consequently, allochthonous POC is expected to decompose relatively slower after burial and remain in
457 sediments for a longer time. In contrast, they argue that the autochthonous POC, derived from local vegeta-
458 tion, is fresh and labile, thus expected to decompose more rapidly than allochthonous recalcitrant POC. Such
459 a difference in the quality of OC sources may potentially explain why there is a lower contribution of autoch-
460 thonous OC in mangrove sediments of our study sites. As the Guayas system has a high tidal range of 3-5 m,
461 this specific environmental condition may allow better drainage of the mangrove sediments during low tides,
462 enabling deeper aeration of sediment profiles, and hence resulting in higher decomposition rates and less
463 preservation of more labile OC from the local vegetation. In addition, we could visually observe that our
464 study site is heavily bioturbated by red crabs (*Ucides occidentalis*) which may aerate the soil and could
465 potentially lead to less preservation of autochthonous organic matter.

466 **4.3 | Downcore variations of organic matter composition**

467 In general, the individual SOC content, δ¹³C and C:N depth profiles (Figures 2 and 4 and Figure S2 and S3)
468 of each site are relatively uniform. This can be potentially explained by the bioturbation effect of red crabs
469 that were abundantly present in the mangrove sampling areas (visible as burrowing holes and small mounds
470 of burrowed material on top of the sediment surface). The active digging and maintenance of burrows by

471 crabs, to escape from predation and from extreme environmental settings (Kristensen, 2007), may be ex-
472 pected to mix the upper column of the mangrove sediments, making the profile almost vertically homoge-
473 nous.

474 The old mangrove sites in the Intermediate, Downstream and Marine zones showed a limited but gradual
475 increase in SOC content (Figure 2B-D) from the top layer down to 60 cm, which is accompanied by downcore
476 increases in OC density (Figure S2). According to Kusumaningtyas *et al.* (2019), such pattern may be an
477 indication of predominance of autochthonous mangrove organic matter in sediments originating from below-
478 ground OC input (i.e. root material). The fact that we find such pattern in old sites, and not in young ones,
479 could further support the finding of higher contribution of autochthonous sources to SOC in our old mangrove
480 sites.

481

482 **4.4 | Implications for management of mangrove forests as carbon sinks**

483 This study estimates that large fractions of the mangrove SOC come from allochthonous sources, which are
484 originating from CO₂ that has been sequestered in other ecosystems (terrestrial, estuarine and/or marine) and
485 transported and deposited in the mangroves. Additionally, these could also be old-aged carbon, already se-
486 questered for a significant amount of time (Van de Broek *et al.*, 2018). This would imply that contemporary
487 carbon capture by the mangrove ecosystem itself, contributes only partly and relatively little to long-term
488 SOC storage. This finding is particularly relevant for budgeting the potential of mangrove ecosystems to
489 mitigate climate change under nature-based mitigation programs such as PES and REDD+ (Yee, 2010; Loca-
490 telli *et al.*, 2014; Nam., 2015). As a consequence, relying on estimates of total SOC stocks in mangroves,
491 may seriously overestimate the contribution of mangroves to contemporary CO₂ sequestration by the man-
492 grove ecosystem itself.

493 We found that older mangroves store larger amounts of SOC than younger mangroves. This may suggest
494 the importance of conservation of especially old-grown mangroves and, while measures to promote the for-
495 mation of new young mangroves are still useful, it may provide less carbon storage on short-term as compared
496 to old mangroves. How long it takes before young mangroves reach SOC contents and stocks similar to old
497 mangroves remains unknown. However, it is important to mention that sediment accretion rates may be
498 higher on young than old mangroves, for reasons discussed above (see 4.1), which could partly compensate

499 for the lower SOC contents of young mangroves, and therefore SOC accumulation rates may be more similar
500 between young and old mangroves.

501 Our results also show that SOC contents and stocks in old mangroves increase from river- to marine-
502 dominated sites. This suggests that conservation and expansion of mangroves in the marine-dominated part
503 of estuaries may be most effective for carbon storage policies. However, sediment accretion rates may be
504 higher in river-dominated sites which could lead to similar SOC accumulation rates with marine-dominated
505 sites. Hence further research on linking sediment accretion and SOC accumulation rates, which were not
506 measured in this study, are imperative to shed light to these uncertainties.

507

508 **5 | CONCLUSIONS**

509 Our findings show strong indications that the age of the mangrove stand as well as its position along the land-
510 to-sea gradient play a vital role in the amount and sources of carbon stored in the mangrove sediments in the
511 Guayas delta (Ecuador). Young mangroves are found to have lower SOC contents and stocks than old man-
512 groves. This may be potentially due to higher mineral-rich sediment inputs on initially lower elevated,
513 younger mangroves, which dilutes the SOC content in the mangrove sediments. A pattern of increasing SOC
514 stocks (and corresponding SOC content) from river- to marine-dominated sites was also found, which may
515 be attributed to a similar dilution effect, where higher riverine mineral-rich sediment inputs lead to lower
516 SOC contents on more river-dominated, lower salinity sites. Based on $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values and elemental C:N ratios,
517 we identified that the SOC of the young mangrove sites is predominantly of allochthonous composition (79
518 $\pm 13\%$) whereas the old sites had only a slight dominance of autochthonous SOC ($59 \pm 8\%$). Finally, our
519 study highlights that only a portion of the SOC stored in mangrove ecosystems is originating from con-
520 temporary CO_2 sequestration by the ecosystem itself, which is particularly relevant to consider when
521 designing and valuing nature-based climate mitigation programs based on mangrove reforestation.

522

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527

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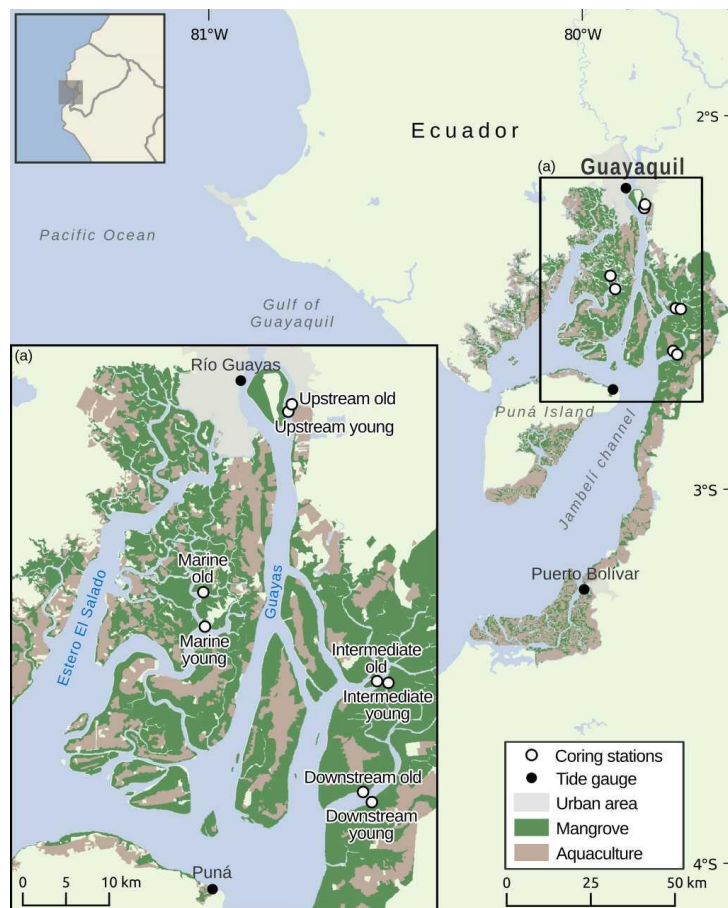
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688 **Figure 1** Map of the Guayas Delta showing the locations of the sampled young and old mangrove systems along
689 an estuarine land-to-sea gradient.

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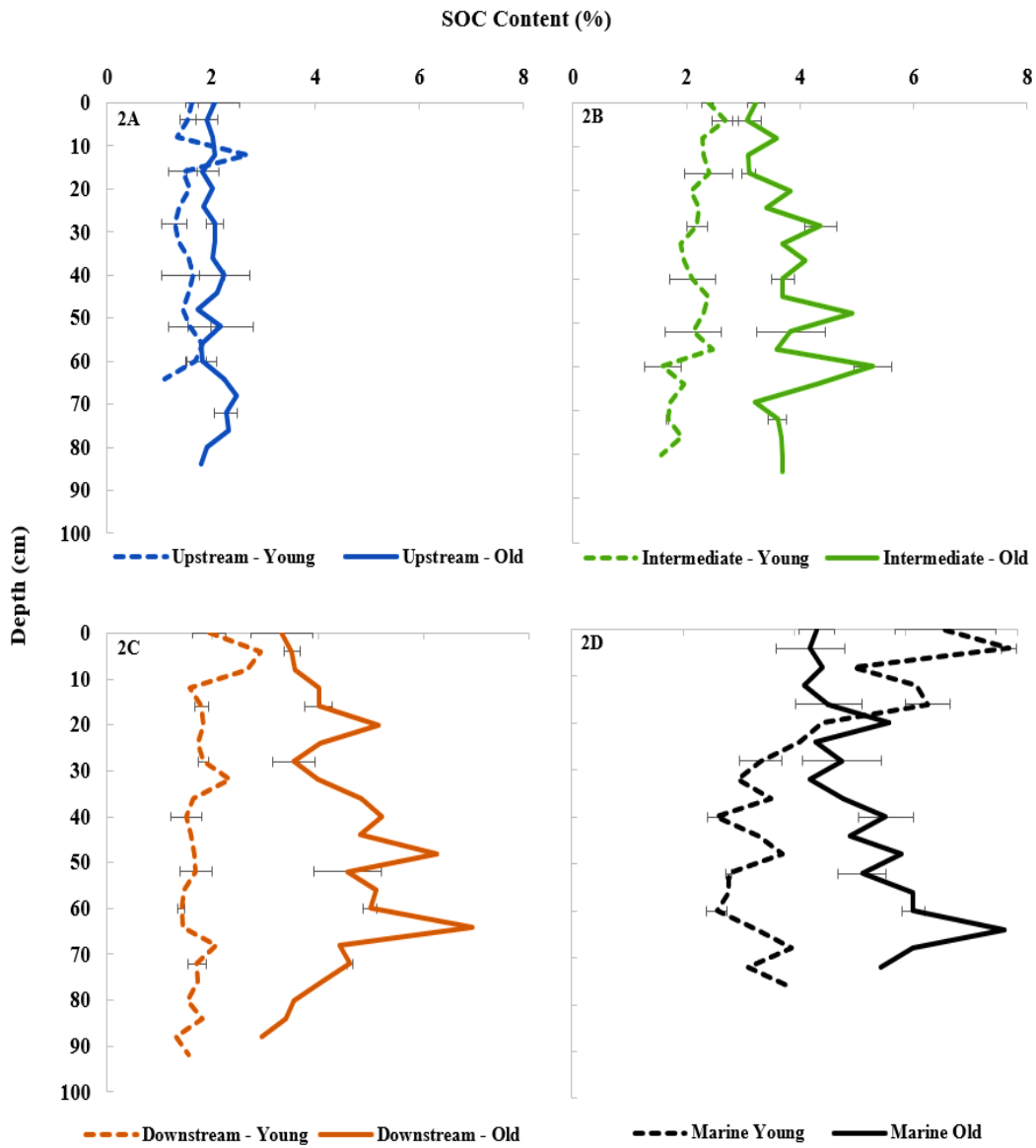
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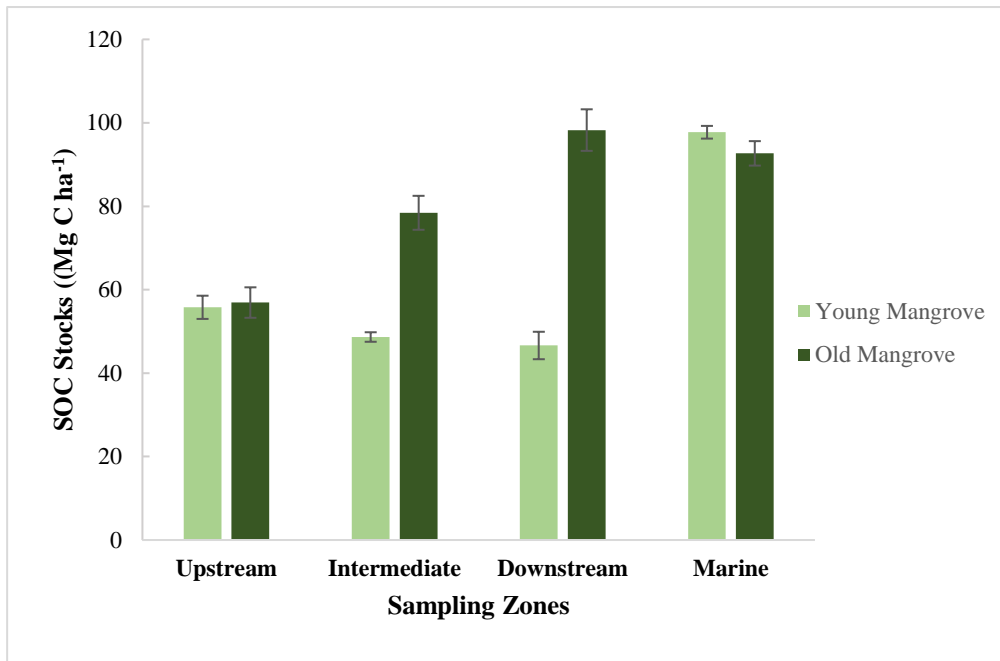
701 **Figure 2** Depth profiles of SOC content (%) for all sites. Fig.2A: Upstream Zone; Fig.2B: Intermediate
 702 Zone; Fig.2C: Downstream Zone; Fig.2D: Marine Zone. Data points show the average OC% of sediment
 703 samples from three replicate cores per site and error bars for specific points represent the standard deviation.

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718 **Figure 3** Total sediment organic carbon (SOC) stocks (Mg C ha⁻¹) for the upper 0.64 m of the vertical
719 sampling profiles. Standard deviation was calculated based on the SOC stocks of three replicate cores per
720 site.

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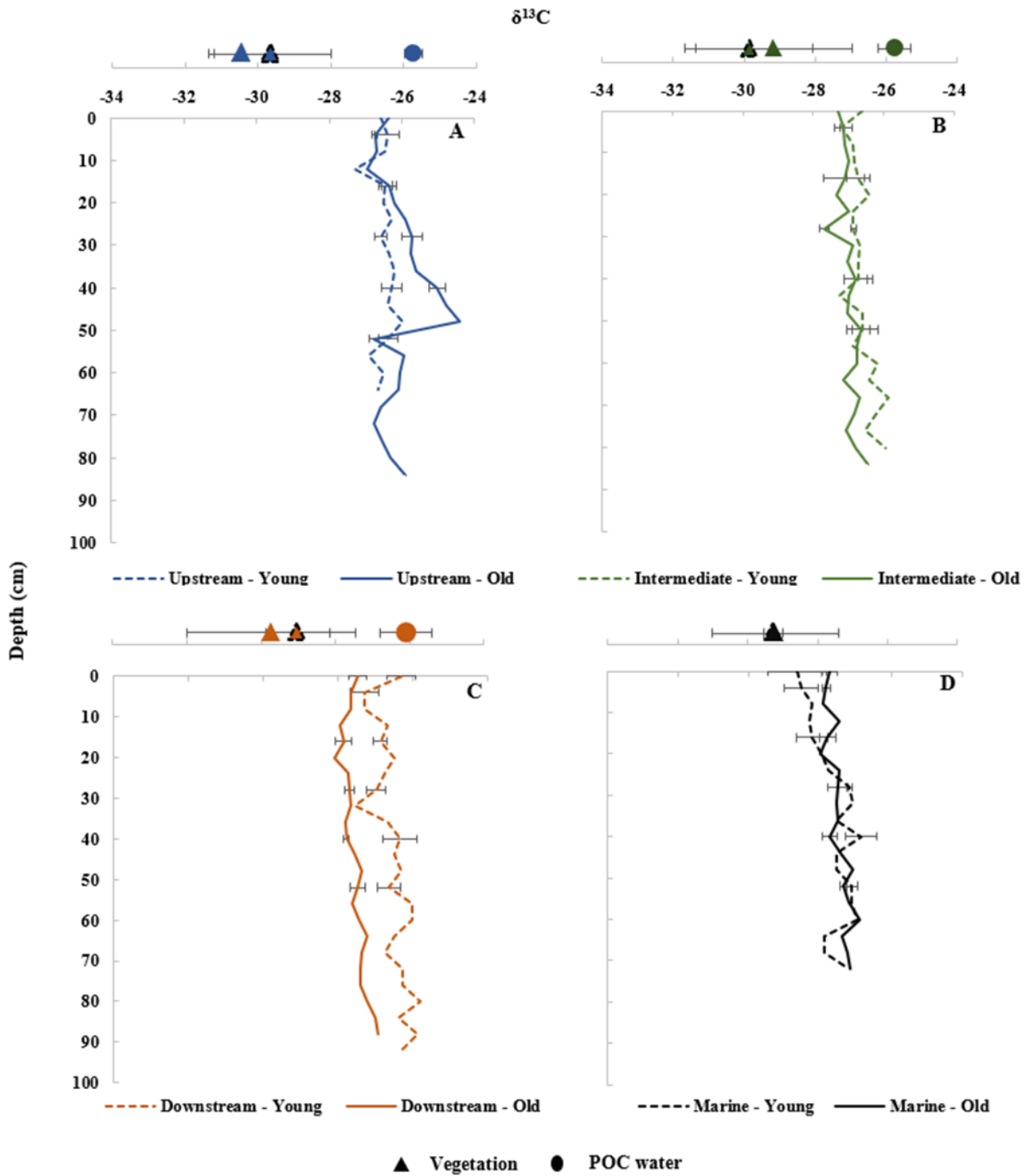
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733 **Figure 4** Depth profiles of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of sediment cores and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of autochthonous above and belowground veg-
734 etation (triangles) and allochthonous POC (circles) of adjacent water bodies for the sites (values are provided
735 in Table S2, S4 and S5). Fig.4A: Upstream Zone; Fig.4B: Intermediate Zone; Fig.4C: Downstream Zone;
736 Fig.4D: Marine Zone. Average POC data in dry and wet seasons (both high and low tides) were used. POC

737 data are considered representative for the water flooding both the adjacent young and old sites in each zone.
738 Vegetation data represent average values for roots, sun-shaded and sun-exposed green leaves, senescent
739 leaves, leaf litter, live twigs, and branches, per young and old site in each zone. No data on POC and vegeta-
740 tion were obtained for the Marine site. Error bars represent the standard deviation of sediment subsamples
741 taken at 0.04m depth increment for the three replicate cores and 8 types of vegetation samples (see Section
742 2.2.) taken per site and 8 POC samples taken per sampling zone.

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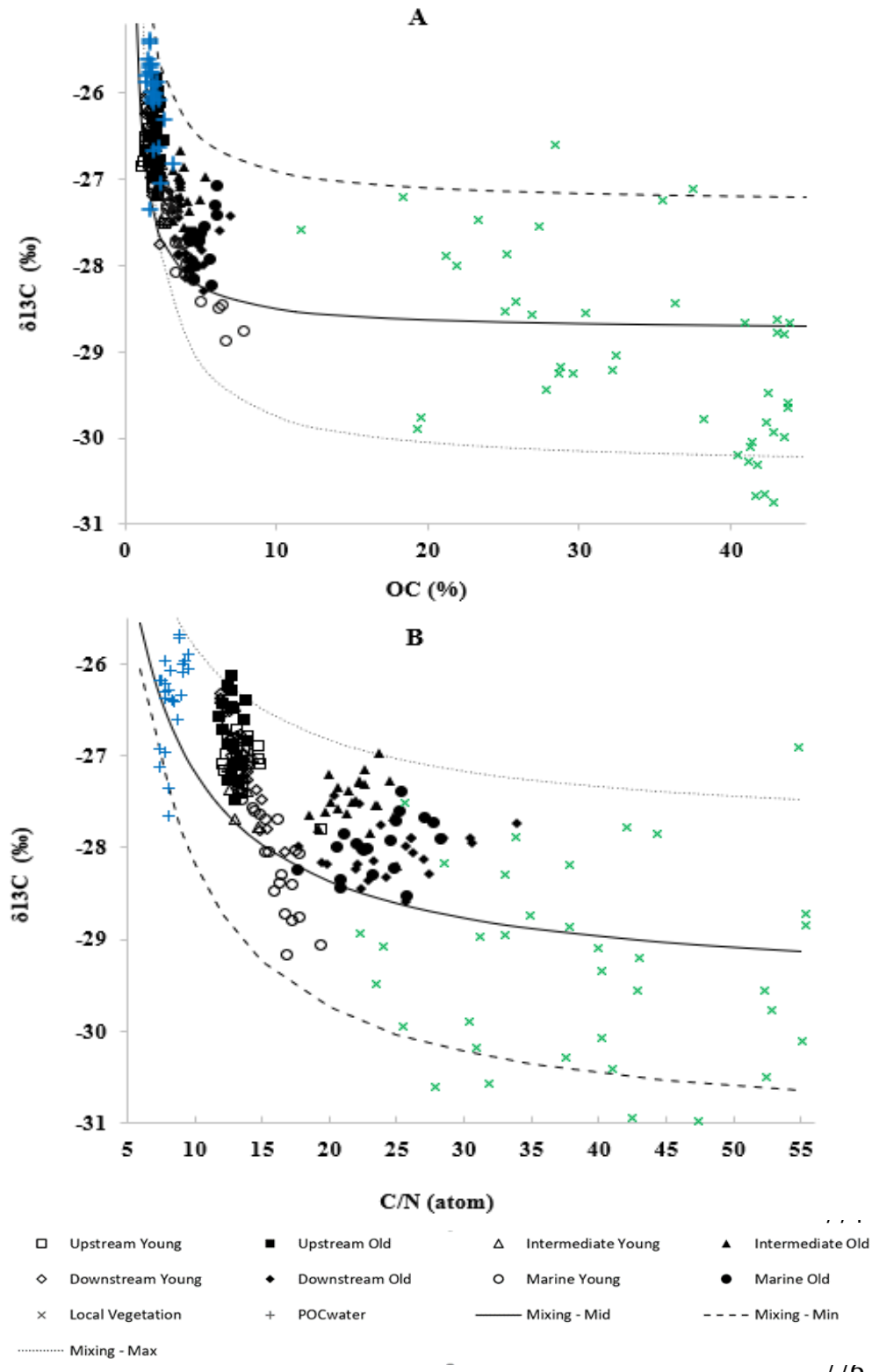
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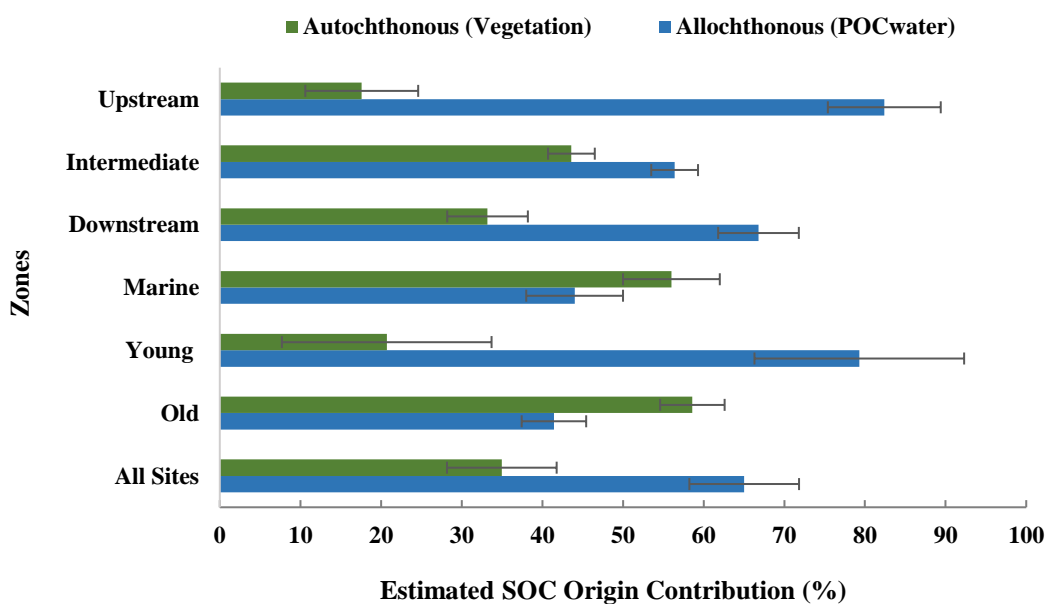
778 **Figure 5 (A)** Stable carbon isotope ratios $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰) versus SOC content (%) and **(B)** $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰) values versus
779 C/N (atom) ratios of all sampled sites. Different curves correspond to different end-member values for the
780 sources (see text for details).

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796 **Figure 6** Estimated contribution (%) of allochthonous and autochthonous origins to the SOC of the study
797 sites. Averages and standard deviations were calculated from three replicate cores per site.

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