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**CARACTERIZAÇÃO DA MATÉRIA ORGÂNICA NATURAL NO ESTUÁRIO DO
RIO JAGUARIBE EM DIFERENTES ESTAÇÕES CLIMÁTICAS EM ANOS DE
SECA PROLONGADA**

FORTALEZA

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PROLONGADA

Tese apresentada ao Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciências Marinhas Tropicais da Universidade Federal do Ceará, como requisito parcial à obtenção do título de Doutora em Ciências Marinhas Tropicais.

Orientadora: Profa. Dra. Rozane Valente Marins.

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Aprovada em: ____ / ____ / ____.

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A Deus.

À minha família, Avanatan, Marcos, Luciene,
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Aos meus amigos.

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“O Rio Jaguaribe é uma artéria aberta

por onde escorre

e se perde

o sangue do Ceará.

O mar não se tingem de vermelho

porque o sangue do Ceará

é azul ...”

Demócrito Rocha

RESUMO

Este trabalho avaliou como os fatores hidrodinâmicos e sazonais afetaram os fluxos, teores e origem da matéria orgânica natural (MON) no estuário do rio Jaguaribe, além da sua interação com metais dissolvidos, medidos por ICP MS. O período estudado foi de acentuada redução do aporte de água doce causada pela escassez de chuva e controle artificial do rio por barragens, levando o estuário a condições de hipersalinidade, em 2016. A composição isotópica ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ e $\delta^{15}\text{N}$) e análises de fluorescência da MON mostraram que ela foi oriunda preponderantemente de fontes terrestres. No entanto, a contribuição da MON marinha também foi relevante, aumentando em anos mais secos devido à maior intrusão salina no estuário. Em concordância com a caracterização isotópica, o carbono orgânico dissolvido (COD) foi composto preponderantemente por substâncias húmicas e não mostrou correlação com a atividade biológica, provavelmente por ser refratário. Contudo, a diminuição não conservativa do COD e da aromaticidade da MON, representada pela absorvância UV específica em 254nm (SUVA), com o aumento da salinidade sugere que essa MON é quimicamente ativa. A matéria orgânica verdadeiramente dissolvida (<1 kDa) foi a principal fração de COD, correspondendo a $80 \pm 2\%$. Observou-se uma redução no tamanho das partículas de MON com a mistura estuarina promovida provavelmente pela decomposição da MON. Os metais Cr, Fe, V, Al, Cu e Ni apresentaram correlação significativa com o COD e redução com o aumento da salinidade. A concentração da MON foi fortemente controlada pela hidrodinâmica estuarina, aumentando com o tempo de residência e o percentual de água doce. Entretanto, a redução do aporte de água doce para o estuário resultou em fluxos de carbono para o oceano inferiores aos esperados para a região tropical. A zona de mistura estuarina comportou-se como retentora de carbono durante a seca e como exportadora na estação chuvosa. É possível que estes resultados sejam um prognóstico das alterações ambientais estuarinas no clima tropical semiárido, resultantes da diminuição do aporte fluvial e maior intrusão marinha em cenário de mudanças climáticas globais.

Palavras-chave: carbono, isótopos estáveis, ultrafiltração, aromaticidade.

ABSTRACT

This work evaluated how seasonal and hydrodynamic factors affected the fluxes, contents, and origin of natural organic matter (NOM) in the Jaguaribe River estuary, as well as its interaction with dissolved metals, measured by ICP MS. The period was characterized by a strong reduction in freshwater input to the estuarine region caused by rainfall shortages and artificial river control by dams, leading the estuary to hypersalinity conditions in 2016. The isotopic composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$) and fluorescence analyzes of NOM showed that it originates mainly from terrestrial sources. However, the contribution of marine NOM was also relevant, increasing in drier years due to increased saline intrusion into the estuary. In agreement with the isotopic characterization, the dissolved organic carbon (DOC) was composed mainly of humic substances and showed no correlation with the biological activity, probably due to its refractory nature. However, the non-conservative decrease in COD and NOM aromaticity, represented by specific UV absorbance at 254 nm (SUVA), with increasing salinity suggests that this MON was chemically active. Truly dissolved organic matter (<1 kDa) was the main fraction of DOC, corresponding to $80 \pm 2\%$. A reduction in NOM particle size was observed with the estuarine mixture, probably promoted by the decomposition of MON. Cr, Fe, V, Al, Cu and Ni presented a significant correlation with DOC and a concentration reduction with the increase of salinity. MON concentrations were controlled by the estuarine hydrodynamics, increasing with residence time and freshwater percentage. However, the reduction of freshwater input to the estuary resulted in carbon flows to the ocean lower than expected in tropical regions. The estuarine mixing zone behave as a carbon retainer during the drought and as an exporter in the rainy season. These results may be a prognostic of the environmental changes in the estuaries under semiarid tropical climate regions due to the decrease of the riverine inflow and high marine intrusion in a scenario of global climate change.

Keywords: carbon, stable isotopes, ultrafiltration, aromaticity.

LISTA DE FIGURAS

Figura 1	Ciclo Global do Carbono (Fonte:www.globe.gov/project/carbon). Unidade: Petagramas (Pg) = 10^{15} g. Estoques: Pg. Fluxos: Pg ano ⁻¹	19
Figura 2	Processos naturais e antropogênicos que alteram o aporte de carbono fluvial para a plataforma continental	20
Figura 3	Fontes e processos biogeoquímicos na zona de mistura estuarina	21
Figura 4	Variação dos tamanhos da matéria orgânica particulada e dissolvida e dos compostos de carbono em águas naturais. AA, aminoácidos; CHO carboidratos; AF, ácidos graxos; HC, hidrocarbonetos; AH, ácidos hidrofílicos; MOPF, matéria orgânica particulada fina; MOPMF, matéria orgânica particulada muito fina; MOPG, matéria orgânica particulada grossa. Fonte: (Adaptada de Eatherall, Naden e Cooper (1997))	23
Figura 5	Location of the study area and the sampling station at the fixed point (FP).....	37
Figura 6	Monthly rainfall averages and standard deviations between 1980 and 2009 and monthly averages in 2012, 2014 and 2015 (FUNCEME, 2015)	39
Figura 7	Location of the maximum turbidity zone (MTZ)	40
Figura 8	Temporal variation of (A) salinity and (B) Chl- <i>a</i> concentrations in the dry and rainy seasons	44
Figura 9	Temporal variation of (A) POC, (B) DOC and (C) DIC concentrations in the dry and rainy seasons	47
Figura 10	Principal Components Analysis (PCA) for (A) rainy and (B) dry seasons of the salinity, pH, Chl- <i>a</i> , RT, FWP, DOC, DIC and POC.....	48
Figura 11	Temporal variation of (A) $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, (B) $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and (C) POC:Chl- <i>a</i> concentrations in the dry season	49
Figura 12	Model SIAR for Particulate Organic Carbon considering two sources of organic material during the 2012 and 2015 tidal cycles (25%; 75% and 95% represented by different bars)	52

Figura 13	Fluxes of (A) POC (B) DOC and (C) DIC through cross-section of MTZ of Jaguaribe river estuary for rainy and dry season. Positive values = importation; negative values = exportation	56
Figura 14	Study area, sampling stations, monthly rainfall averages with standard deviations between 1980 and 2009, and monthly averages in 2016 and 2017 (FUNCEME, 2017).....	67
Figura 15	Distribution of (a-c) salinity, (d-f) SPM and (g-i) Chl- <i>a</i> in the Jaguaribe River estuary.....	72
Figura 16	Spatial distribution of (a - b) POC and (c - e) DOC in different seasons in the Jaguaribe River estuary.....	73
Figura 17	Linear trend between salinity and (a) DOC in March and December 2016, (b) TDN in December 2016 (c) DOC in June 2017 and (d) TDN in Jun2017 in the Jaguaribe River estuary.....	74
Figura 18	(a) $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -POC and (b) $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC variation with salinity in the principal Chanel of the Jaguaribe River estuary in December 2016 and June 2017.....	76
Figura 19	(a) Linear trend between Σ_8 and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in December 2016 and Jun2017 and (b) S/V vs. C/V scatter plot. Numbers refer to the sampling site labels.....	81
Figura 20	Relation (a) $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ vs $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and (b) C:N ratio vs $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of POM (triangles), DOM (squares), sedimentary OM (circles) of the Jaguaribe River estuary during hypersaline (opened markers) and positive (filled markers) conditions.....	83
Figura 21	Study area and sampling stations.....	99
Figura 22	Tidal and salinity variation in the Jaguaribe River estuary. Numbers and letters refers to the samples from temporal and spatial sampling respectively	103
Figura 23	Contour plots of three components (C1 – C3) of CDOM from the Jaguaribe River estuary identified using the PARAFAC model. Excitation (solid lines), emission loadings (dotted lines) of each contour plot	104

Figura 24	Concentrations of (a) POC and (b) DOC plotted against salinity with conservative mixing line calculated from fluvial and marine end-members. Numbers and letters refers to the samples from temporal and spatial sampling respectively	105
Figura 25	Variation of the (a) a ₂₅₄ (b) SUVA and (c) three components of DOM with salinity. Numbers and letters refers to the samples from temporal and spatial sampling respectively.....	107
Figura 26	Size distribution of total organic carbon in the column water of the Jaguaribe River estuary with salinity variation	109
Figura 27	Cluster analysis of the dissolved metals, salinity and DOC in the Jaguaribe River estuary.....	112
Figura 28	(a) Distribution of the truly dissolved metals and colloidal size distribution of (b) Li (c) Rb, (d) Sr, (e) Mo, (f) V, (g) Cu with salinity variation in the Jaguaribe River estuary.....	113

LISTA DE TABELAS

Tabela 1 – Composição isotópica do carbono e nitrogênio das principais fontes de MON em estuários.....	25
Tabela 2 – Propriedades de fluorescência dos fluoróforos identificados em ambientes marinhos	27
Tabela 3 – Síntese das campanhas de amostragem	34
Tabela 4 – Minimum, maximum and mean values of salinity (S), temperature (T), water flow (Q _f), total water volume (TV), freshwater percentage (FWP), residence time (RT).....	46
Tabela 5 – Spearman correlation of salinity (S), water flow (Q _f), freshwater percentage (FWP) and residence time (RT) with particulate organic carbon (POC), dissolved organic carbon (DOC), dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), chlorophyll a (Chl-a) concentrations and POC, DOC and DIC fluxes (T _{POC} , T _{DOC} and T _{DIC}) in the Jaguaribe River estuary ($\alpha = 0.01$). Bold values are significant correlation at $p < 0.01$	48
Tabela 6 – Anthropogenic pressures, water discharges and carbon concentrations in tropical estuaries.....	53
Tabela 7 – Isotopic carbon and nitrogen composition of end-members of the Jaguaribe River estuary	75
Tabela 8 – DOC, Li, Rb, Sr, Mo, V and Cu recovery (%) in each cartridge to each sample	101
Tabela 9 – Ranges, averages and standard deviation of dissolved metals concentrations from the Jaguaribe River estuary	111
Tabela 10 – Matrix correlation between dissolved metals, salinity and DOC.....	111

SUMÁRIO

1	INTRODUÇÃO	14
2	REFERENCIAL TEÓRICO.....	18
2.1	Importância da matéria orgânica natural no meio ambiente.....	18
2.2	Origem e composição da matéria orgânica em estuários.....	20
2.3	Partição geoquímica da MON.....	22
2.4	Composição isotópica da MON.....	23
2.5	Lignina.....	25
2.6	Fluorescência molecular da MOD.....	26
2.7	Interação da MON com metais em estuários.....	28
2.8	Estuário do rio Jaguaribe.....	30
3	HIPÓTESE E OBJETIVOS.....	32
3.1	Hipótese.....	32
3.2	Objetivo geral.....	33
3.3	Objetivos específicos.....	33
4	ESTRATÉGIA DE AMOSTRAGEM.....	33
5	RESULTADOS E DISCUSSÃO.....	35
5.1	CARBON FLUXES IN A TROPICAL SEMIARID ESTUARY DURING SEVERE DROUGHT YEARS.....	35
5.1.1	Introduction	36
5.1.2	Materials and methods.....	38
5.1.2.1	<i>Study area</i>	38
5.1.2.2	<i>Sampling</i>	41
5.1.2.3	<i>Analytical techniques</i>	42
5.1.2.4	<i>Assessment of the carbon discharge</i>	43
5.1.2.5	<i>Statistical analyses</i>	44
5.1.3	Results.....	44
5.1.3.1	<i>Hydrology and water chemistry</i>	44
5.1.3.2	<i>Hydrochemistry and biogeochemical controls of OM and DIC concentrations</i>	45
5.1.3.3	<i>C:N ratios, $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$ values</i>	50
5.1.4	Discussion.....	51

5.1.4.1	<i>Organic matter sources</i>	51
5.1.4.2	<i>Controls of organic matter and DIC interannual variations</i>	53
5.1.4.3	<i>Carbon flux at the estuarine interface</i>	55
5.1.5	Conclusions.....	57
5.1.6	References.....	58
5.2	ORGANIC MATTER SOURCES IN A HYPERSALINE ESTUARY FROM THE BRAZILIAN SEMIARID REGION	64
5.2.1	Introduction.....	66
5.2.2	Materials and methods.....	68
5.2.2.1	<i>Study area</i>	68
5.2.2.2	<i>Sampling and sample processing pre-analyses</i>	68
5.2.2.3	<i>Analytical techniques</i>	69
5.2.3	Results.....	71
5.2.3.1	<i>Hydrochemical variables</i>	71
5.2.3.2	<i>Behavior of organic matter</i>	73
5.2.3.3	<i>Discrimination of end-members</i>	75
5.2.3.4	<i>Isotopic composition of organic matter</i>	76
5.2.3.5	<i>Lignin phenols</i>	77
5.2.4	Discussion.....	78
5.2.4.1	<i>Effects of drought and dams on the estuarine hydrochemistry of the Jaguaribe River</i>	78
5.2.4.2	<i>Behavior of dissolved and particulate organic matter</i>	80
5.2.4.3	<i>Sources of organic matter in the Jaguaribe River estuary</i>	81
5.2.5	Conclusions.....	85
5.2.6	References.....	86
5.2.7	Supplementary material.....	92
5.3	CHARACTERIZATION OF THE ESTUARINE ORGANIC MATTER AND ITS INTERACTION WITH METALS ISOLATED USING CROSS- FLOW ULTRAFILTRATION	95
5.3.1	Introduction	96
5.3.2	Materials and methods.....	98
5.3.2.1	<i>Study location and sampling strategy</i>	98
5.3.2.2	<i>Cross-flow ultrafiltration treatment</i>	100

5.3.2.3	<i>Metal analyses</i>	101
5.3.2.4	<i>Measurements of Chl-a, organic carbon and optical properties</i>	101
5.3.3	Results and discussion	102
5.3.3.1	<i>Tidal variation in the Jaguaribe River estuary</i>	102
5.3.3.2	<i>Characterization of fluorescent components and Chl-a</i>	103
5.3.3.3	<i>Variation of the organic matter, optical properties and dissolved metals in the salinity gradient</i>	104
5.3.3.4	<i>Size distributions of OM with estuarine mixing</i>	107
5.3.3.5	<i>Dissolved metals</i>	108
5.3.4	Conclusions	112
5.3.5	References	112
5.3.6	Supplementary material	116
6	CONCLUSÃO GERAL	117
7	REFERÊNCIAS ADICIONAIS	118

1. INTRODUÇÃO

A zona costeira (ZC) representa apenas 8% da superfície terrestre (CROSSLAND et al., 2005), porém é um importante contribuinte no balanço global de carbono devido aos seus fortes gradientes e fluxos de matéria e energia, tanto em direções latitudinal como longitudinal, que promovem elevada produtividade primária, mineralização e sedimentação da matéria orgânica (BAUER et al., 2013; CAI, 2011). A interação entre os domínios continente e oceano caracteriza a ZC como um conjunto de ecossistemas únicos com elevada concentração de energia, sedimentos e nutrientes.

Na região tropical, o fluxo fluvial de carbono para o oceano é de 0,53 PgC ano⁻¹, sendo 0,21 PgC ano⁻¹ (40%) de carbono inorgânico dissolvido (CID), 0,14 PgC ano⁻¹ (25%) de carbono orgânico dissolvido (COD), 0,05 PgC ano⁻¹ (10%) de carbono inorgânico particulado (CIP) e 0,13 PgC ano⁻¹ (25%) de carbono orgânico particulado (COP) (HUANG et al., 2012). É estimado que o fluxo fluvial global de carbono orgânico dissolvido (COD) para o oceano seja de aproximadamente 0,19 PgC ano⁻¹ (1 Pg = 10¹⁵ g) (DAI et al., 2012), levando em consideração a taxa de remoção de 10% de COD pelos estuários, a estimativa é reduzida para 0,17 PgC ano⁻¹. Como o fluxo de COD depende preponderantemente da vazão fluvial, os maiores fluxos de COD correspondem à América do Sul com 0,08 PgC ano⁻¹, que possui as maiores descargas fluviais (DAI et al., 2012).

Entretanto, as incertezas dessas estimativas estão relacionadas às mudanças sazonais e à amostragem desproporcional espacialmente, pois estas abordam majoritariamente rios de grande porte, como o Amazonas, Orinoco, Congo e Niger (HUANG et al., 2012; WU et al., 2013), que são menos vulneráveis aos fatores naturais (sazonalidade) e antrópicos quando comparados a rios de menor porte. Logo, faz-se necessário o aumento de estudos em rios de menor porte, principalmente frente às mudanças climáticas globais que somada ao rápido desenvolvimento da economia e da população têm alterado o fluxo de carbono através desses ambientes (HUNG; HUANG, 2005; MOORE et al., 2013; OURSEL et al., 2013; STANLEY et al., 2012; WORRALL; BURT; ADAMSON, 2004).

Os estuários são ecossistemas da zona costeira de grande relevância para a compreensão do Ciclo Global de Carbono (CGC), pois estabelecem a principal conexão entre os dois maiores reservatórios de carbono da superfície terrestre, o oceano e o continente (ATEKWANA; TEDESCO; JACKSON, 2003; CAI, 2011). Eles atuam como reatores biogeoquímicos, promovendo a remoção do carbono de origem terrestre da coluna d'água através da mineralização microbiana (31%) e de processos de mistura (69%) (HE et al., 2010),

1 além da fixação do carbono atmosférico em biomassa fitoplanctônica através da fotossíntese
2 (ZHAI; DAI, 2009).

3 A qualidade da matéria orgânica natural (MON) está intimamente relacionada a
4 sua origem (autóctone ou alóctone) (FINDLAY; SINSABAUGH, 2003) e possui um papel
5 determinante no comportamento do carbono estuarino. Em um estuário tropical de pequeno
6 porte, por exemplo, o COD apresentou comportamento conservativo em períodos de grande
7 fluxo fluvial devido a preponderância de COD de origem terrestre com baixa reatividade.
8 Enquanto que durante a seca, a produtividade biológica e a degradação do COD conferiu a ele
9 comportamento não conservativo (WU *et al.*, 2013).

10 Em estuários do semiárido brasileiro, a estimativa de fluxo de carbono é
11 desafiadora devido à grande variabilidade das vazões fluviais (CAMPOS *et al.*, 2000),
12 causada pela forte influência da sazonalidade e das barragens construídas ao longo do curso
13 do rio para abastecimento humano (DIAS *et al.*, 2011). Como exemplo, o estuário do rio
14 Jaguaribe é controlado artificialmente por barragens existentes ao longo do seu percurso, que
15 normalizam o aporte de água doce para o estuário, com vazões na ordem de 20,4 a 350 m³s⁻¹
16 até a zona da foz do rio. Como consequência, tem sido observada a intrusão salina, mudanças
17 nas características hidrológicas e maior retenção de materiais (MARINS *et al.*, 2003; DIAS;
18 MARINS; MAIA, 2009; LACERDA *et al.*, 2013).

19 O controle artificial dos rios pelas barragens provoca a alteração do fluxo de
20 contaminantes e causa efeitos similares ao congelamento das águas de rios de regiões polares
21 (LACERDA *et al.*, 2012). Durante a estação seca, os fluxos de contaminantes são
22 minimizados devido ao Tempo de Residência (TR) das águas estuarinas ser relativamente
23 mais elevado, podendo chegar a vários dias. Enquanto que durante o período de maior
24 descarga fluvial, esses fluxos são mais intensos e o TR das águas estuarinas são menores,
25 gerando maior exportação de contaminantes para a zona costeira adjacente (DIAS *et al.*,
26 2011). Dessa forma, é muito provável que este processo também afete o destino e os fluxos de
27 carbono no estuário do rio Jaguaribe visto que seu comportamento é fortemente controlado
28 pelas marés (LACERDA; MARINS; CAVALCANTE, 2017).

29 Maiores TR em estuários intensificam o processamento de carbono orgânico, pela
30 atividade autóctone fitoplanctônica (LEBRETON *et al.*, 2016), assim como a interação da MO
31 com metais. No estuário do rio Jaguaribe o aumento do tempo de residência fornece uma
32 condição ideal para o acúmulo de material particulado em suspensão (MPS), nutrientes e
33 carbono que podem contribuir para a ocorrência do processo de eutrofização e floculação no
34 estuário (DIAS *et al.*, 2016). Além disso, atividades antropogênicas são fontes significativas

1 de metais traço (Cu e Hg) (LACERDA et al., 2011; LACERDA; SANTOS; MADRID, 2006),
2 nutrientes e provavelmente MO (ESCHRIQUE et al., 2010; MARINS et al., 2011) para o
3 estuário do rio Jaguaribe. Mesmo localizado em uma área rural, o inventário de fontes de
4 nitrogênio e fósforo apontam que fontes antropogênicas superam em pelo menos uma ordem
5 de grandeza as fontes naturais, destacando-se entre as antrópicas a aquicultura seguida de
6 águas residuais e a pecuária (LACERDA et al. 2008).

7 A MON pode controlar a mobilidade e biodisponibilidade de metais através da
8 formação de complexos metálicos (MOUNIER et al., 2011), sejam eles importantes para a
9 produção primária, como o cálcio, ou nocivos à biota, como o mercúrio. A associação entre a
10 matéria orgânica dissolvida (MOD) e metais depende do metal, das características da MO e
11 das condições físico-químicas do ambiente como força iônica, pH e competição com outros
12 cátions (BRULAND; LOHAN, 2003; LOUIS; PERNET-COUDRIER; VARRAULT, 2014).
13 A matéria orgânica coloidal é conhecida por “blindar” os metais, por estarem mais sujeitos a
14 remoção por floculação e/ou sedimentação durante grandes mudanças nos processos de
15 mistura do que esta fração orgânica (WILKINSON; LEAD, 2007). Entretanto, isso está mais
16 ligado a fatores como a labilidade do metal, que está condicionada a fonte da MON, destino
17 (tamanho) do coloide orgânico, polaridade da MON e às condições do meio (LUAN;
18 VADAS, 2015) do que a fração por si só.

19 Dessa forma, acredita-se que a qualidade da MOD, e sua associação com os
20 metais ao longo do gradiente de salinidade, tenha sido responsável pelo aumento das
21 concentrações de Hg nas ostras do estuário do rio Jaguaribe dentro de um curto espaço de
22 tempo (13 anos) (RIOS et al., 2016), mostrando níveis tão alto quanto áreas metropolitanas. E
23 também à maior biodisponibilidade de mercúrio em organismos da região estuarina do que na
24 fluvial do estuário do rio Jaguaribe (MOURA; LACERDA, 2018).

25 Com períodos de chuvas cada vez menores e mais intermitentes, a ação da onda
26 de maré no estuário do rio Jaguaribe tem causado modificações neste importante ecossistema,
27 como a formação de novas ilhas (GODOY; MEIRELES; LACERDA, 2018) e avanço da
28 colonização de manguezais (GODOY; LACERDA, 2015; MAIA et al., 2006), mostrando que
29 as alterações hidrodinâmicas podem alterar o transporte de materiais na interface continente-
30 oceano. Nesse cenário, as concentrações de carbono orgânico podem reduzir, assim como a
31 fonte (marinha versus terrestre) e a qualidade da MON podem ser modificadas. Tudo isso
32 altera não apenas a reatividade OM, mas também o funcionamento do estuário como um todo,
33 devido ao seu papel fundamental no processo biogeoquímico como produção bacteriana,
34 organização da rede trófica, complexação de metal e ciclagem de carbono (SHIN et al.,

1 2016a; VAZQUEZ et al., 2011). Logo, este trabalho apresenta-se como um elo entre estudos
2 relacionados à mobilidade dos metais e a presença destes na biota do estuário do rio
3 Jaguaribe, visto que a matéria orgânica natural é um importante carreador geoquímico de
4 metais.

5 O primeiro capítulo contém a presente introdução da tese. O segundo apresenta o
6 referencial bibliográfico sobre a matéria orgânica natural em estuários. O terceiro capítulo traz
7 a hipótese científica e os objetivos do trabalho. O quarto corresponde a um resumo da
8 metodologia de amostragem ao longo dos anos de 2015 a 2018, nas estações seca e chuvosa.
9 O quinto corresponde aos resultados desta tese em forma de três artigos: o primeiro submetido
10 e aceito com revisões a serem feitas para a revista *Frontiers in Earth Science*, onde foram
11 avaliados a influência de processos hidrodinâmicos e biológicos sobre o comportamento do
12 carbono no estuário do rio Jaguaribe em três campanhas de amostragem temporal (Capítulo
13 5.1); o segundo é o artigo submetido para a revista *Regional Studies in Marine Science*, no
14 qual são identificadas as principais fontes de carbono para o estuário do rio Jaguaribe durante
15 três amostragens espaciais (Capítulo 5.2); o terceiro um manuscrito em processo de
16 submissão, no qual foi avaliada a interação da matéria orgânica com metais traço em
17 diferentes tamanhos moleculares, utilizando a técnica de ultrafiltração seguida de análises de
18 fluorescência da matéria orgânica de metais em ICP-MS (Capítulo 5.3). O sexto capítulo trata
19 das conclusões e considerações finais e o sétimo às referências bibliográficas adicionais.

20 Estes estudos foram realizados em parceria com o Laboratório de Ciências
21 Ambientais da Universidade Estadual do Norte Fluminense Darcy Ribeiro (UENF) e com o
22 Institut Méditerranéen d'Océanologie (MIO) da Université de Toulon. Na UENF foram
23 realizadas as análises dos fenóis de lignina dissolvidos e da composição elementar e isotópica
24 do carbono orgânico dissolvido, particulado e sedimentar do estuário do rio Jaguaribe. No
25 MIO foram realizadas medidas da fluorescência da matéria orgânica dissolvida e análises em
26 ICP-MS de metais dissolvidos em amostras do estuário do rio Jaguaribe.

27

28

2. REFERENCIAL TEÓRICO

2.1. Importância da matéria orgânica natural no meio ambiente

A matéria orgânica (MON) é uma mistura heterogênea de moléculas derivadas da decomposição biológica e da atividade metabólica de organismos (FINDLAY; SINSABAUGH, 2003), apresentando diferentes tamanhos, funcionalidades, idade e origem (alóctone e autóctone). A MON é ubíqua em ambientes marinhos e desempenha papel importante em processos biogeoquímicos e ambientais, como ciclagem de carbono e nutrientes, fornecimento de energia para consumidores e controle da qualidade da água (SANTINELLI; NANNICINI; SERITTI, 2010a; WANG et al., 2007; YANG et al., 2016).

O carbono (C) é o principal constituinte da MON. A capacidade que ele possui de formar uma imensa variedade de compostos, atrelada às suas diversas propriedades, faz dele o principal elemento químico responsável pela manutenção da vida. O carbono está presente em todas as moléculas orgânicas em elevada proporção, sendo um dos átomos mais abundantes da biomassa dos organismos, correspondendo a 50% da massa seca dos seres vivos. O C apresenta-se como moeda energética dos organismos e das células, estando presente em vários processos como a produção primária a transferência de energia e matéria entre os componentes da teia alimentar e os estoques da biomassa nos ecossistemas aquáticos (ESTEVES, 1988; KILLOPS; KILLOPS, 2005).

Atualmente o carbono tem sido reconhecido como peça chave no funcionamento do planeta, pois a sua presença nos principais reservatórios do planeta (oceano, continente e atmosfera) permite a interconexão desse sistema e regulação do clima global. Na atmosfera, o C encontra-se principalmente na forma inorgânica, que é o dióxido de carbono (CO₂) (CHIANG; KOUTAVAS, 2004; FALKOWSKI et al., 2000). Nos últimos anos tem sido observado que as atividades antrópicas têm causado um incremento das concentrações de CO₂ na atmosfera, que por sua vez tem causado o aumento da temperatura média global (IPCC, 2014). Como esse incremento é a causa primária das mudanças climáticas globais, o interesse pelo estudo do ciclo do carbono tem sido crescente.

O ciclo global do carbono consiste na movimentação desse elemento entre os principais compartimentos da terra (Figura 1) (DEGENS; ITTEKKOT, 1987). Essa movimentação pode ser rápida, como através da respiração e fotossíntese, ou lenta, como no caso o carbono oriundo o intemperismo das rochas, transporte e deposição carbonática (escala geológica) (FALKOWSKI, et al., 2000). Mesmo possuindo fluxos com diferentes magnitudes, o estoque de carbono nos reservatórios era constante, pois eles ocorriam de forma equilibrada.

Entretanto, a partir da era industrial, a injeção de CO₂ antropogênico na atmosfera tem perturbado esse equilíbrio. Os oceanos têm atuado como importantes mitigadores dos efeitos das emissões humanas de CO₂, pois os oceanos têm agido como sumidouros de cerca de 26% das emissões humanas de CO₂ (QUÉRÉ et al., 2018).

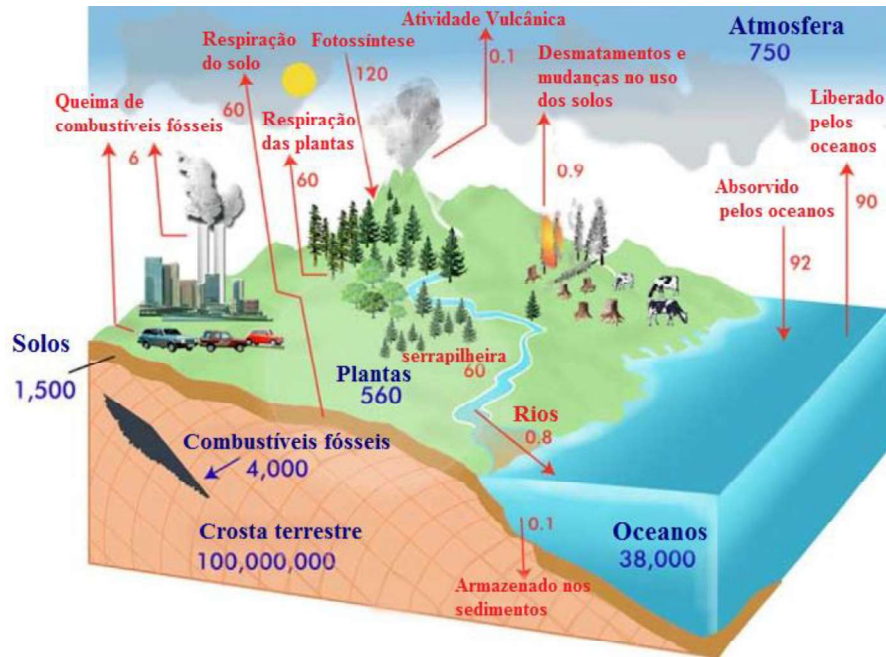
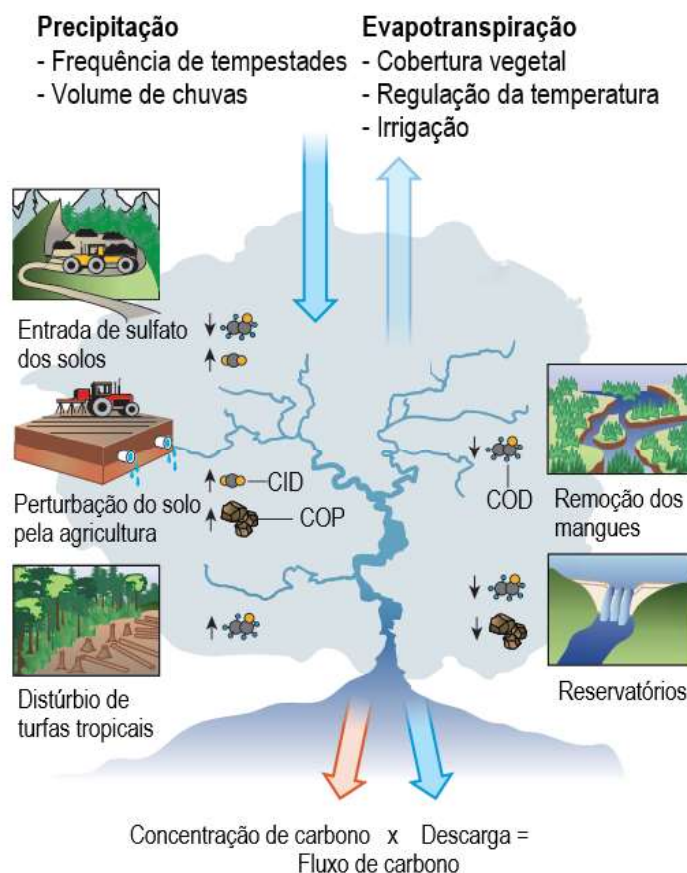


Figura 1 - Ciclo Global do Carbono (Fonte: www.globe.gov/project/carbon). Unidade: Petagramas (Pg) = 10¹⁵g. Estoques: Pg. Fluxos: Pg ano⁻¹

As mudanças no uso dos solos também têm promovido a liberação de CO₂ para atmosfera através do desflorestamento, assim como aumentado o aporte de C para os rios (Figura 2) (BAUER et al., 2013). Contudo, ao mesmo tempo que os seres humanos estão aumentando o transporte fluvial de materiais através da erosão dos solos, eles estão diminuindo este fluxo para a zona costeira através da retenção de sedimentos nos reservatórios (HEDGES et al., 1994) e a retenção os fluxos hídricos na construção e grandes reservatórios. Isso promove déficit sedimentar, redução de aporte de nutrientes e consequentemente redução da produtividade primária na zona costeira (Figura 2).

1 Os estuários são vias desse transporte, e são ambientes bastante produtivos e
 2 dinâmicos. Além disso, são caracterizados por um forte gradiente físico-químico, atrelado às
 3 atividades biológicas, que dependendo das condições da maré, descarga fluvial e atmosfera
 4 sofrem variações no espaço e no tempo. Logo, o comportamento do carbono introduzido nos
 5 estuários depende das propriedades biogeoquímicas do carbono e das características
 6 particulares de cada estuário (DAI et al., 2000).



7 **Figura 2** - Processos naturais e antropogênicos que alteram o aporte de carbono fluvial para a
 8 plataforma continental.

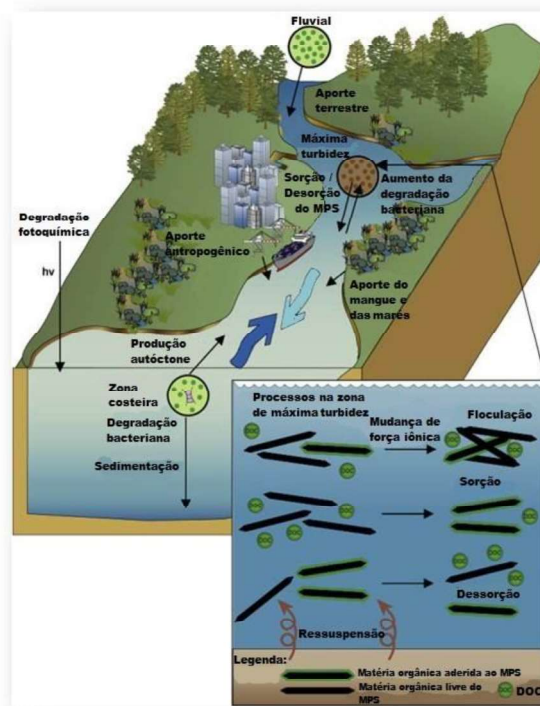
9

10 2.2. Origem e composição da matéria orgânica em estuários

11 A matéria orgânica natural (MON) estuarina é composta de materiais orgânicos de
 12 origem alóctone e autóctone. A MON autóctone corresponde aos detritos originados dos
 13 processos de produção primária e decomposição dos organismos aquáticos in situ, enquanto
 14 que a MON alóctone origina-se de processos de lixiviação dos solos e dos detritos de origem
 15 terrestre (Figura 3) (BAUER; BIANCHI, 2011).

16 Os compostos de origem autóctones são relativamente mais lábeis por possuírem
 17 maiores concentrações de nitrogênio, sendo compostos principalmente por aminoácidos,

1 proteínas e lipídeos. Já a MO de origem alóctone é mais refratária, contém baixo teor de
 2 nitrogênio e pode representar a maior fonte de matéria orgânica dissolvida para os
 3 ecossistemas aquáticos, sendo composta principalmente pelos ácidos húmicos e fúlvicos.
 4 Geralmente, possuem baixa relação C:N devido às altas concentrações de substâncias
 5 húmicas.
 6



7 **Figura 3** - Fontes e processos biogeoquímicos na zona de mistura estuarina.

8

9 Existem, também as fontes antrópicas, que são oriundas da emissão de efluentes
 10 orgânicos e disposição inadequada de resíduos sólidos. A MON antrópica é classificada como
 11 alóctone, mas geralmente possui propriedades similares às da MON autóctone, como a sua
 12 labilidade.

13

14 A caracterização da MON estuarina é bastante complexa devido à grande mistura
 15 de materiais e às diferentes etapas de degradação. Existem duas classes de MON em
 16 ambientes aquáticos: uma com natureza bem definida; como os aminoácidos, os carboidratos,
 17 ácidos orgânicos, ligninas, celulose e etc; e o humo, que é de natureza heterogênea poli
 18 funcional e com diferentes graus de polimerização. Devido a sua importância no metabolismo
 19 dos organismos, os compostos não húmicos encontram-se em baixas concentrações nos
 20 estuários (~20% da MON). Já os compostos húmicos, por serem refratários, tendem a
 acumular-se nesses ambientes e permanecerem lá por vários anos (mais de 50% da MON)

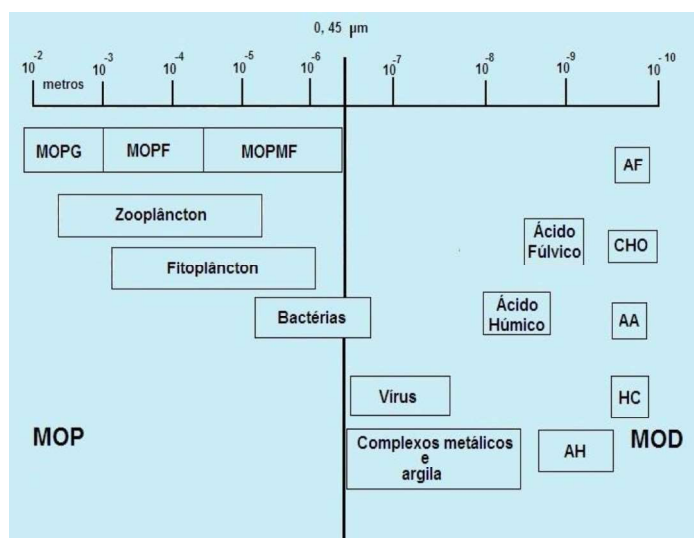
1 (FINDLAY; SINSABAUGH, 2003). Os compostos húmicos caracterizam uma etapa
2 intermediária da MON entre os processos de decomposição e mineralização. Como esses
3 processos são relativamente lentos, o humo desempenha um papel importante, pois possui
4 propriedades químicas que o faz interagir com a biota ou com outros parâmetros ambientais.

6 **2.3. Partição geoquímica da MON**

7 A MON em ambientes aquáticos pode ser separada em três domínios: particulado,
8 coloidal e dissolvido. A matéria orgânica particulada (MOP) ou o carbono orgânico
9 particulado (COP) correspondem às partículas retidas em filtros com porosidade entre 0,22 e
10 0,45 μm . As concentrações de carbono orgânico dissolvido (COD) variam de
11 aproximadamente 40 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ na água do mar (HANSELL et al., 2009) até de 5000 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$
12 em pântanos. Nas águas costeiras (estuários, lagoas), os valores típicos de água superficial
13 variam de 100 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ a 500 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. Em rios o COD varia de 250 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ a 800 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$
14 (FINDLAY; SINSABAUGH, 2003).

15 A matéria orgânica coloidal (MOC) ou carbono orgânico coloidal (COC) é
16 definido como macromoléculas ou agregados que têm limites de tamanho entre 1 nm e 1 μm .
17 Enquanto a matéria orgânica verdadeiramente dissolvida ou carbono orgânico
18 verdadeiramente dissolvido corresponde a moléculas menores que 1 kDa (WILKINSON;
19 LEAD, 2007). Historicamente, a separação das fases particulada e dissolvida tem sido feita
20 através da filtração utilizando filtro de 0,22 a 0,45 μm (EATHERALL; NADEN; COOPER,
21 1998). A etapa de filtração também é utilizada para reduzir a complexidade da amostra e
22 preservar a fase dissolvida através da remoção da maioria dos microrganismos (FINDLAY;
23 SINSABAUGH, 2003). Entretanto, a fração coloidal encontra-se misturada com a dissolvida,
24 pois a separação de ambos não é possível por meio da filtração convencional (Figura 4).

25 A técnica da ultrafiltração é utilizada para a separação e determinação da
26 composição das frações coloidais e dissolvidas, proporcionando um cenário dos processos de
27 partição geoquímica e mecanismos associados ao transporte de metais nos ecossistemas
28 aquáticos (WILKINSON; LEAD, 2007). Este método permite o processamento de grandes
29 volumes de amostra sem adição de reagentes (EYROLLE; CHARMASSON, 2000), sendo
30 eficiente para isolar e concentrar materiais coloidais e dissolvidos em águas fluviais,
31 estuarinas e marinhas (BABIARZ et al., 2003; DAI et al., 1998; YI et al., 2014). O
32 fracionamento físico ocorre pela diferença de peso molecular em fluxo tangencial mediante da
33 ultrafiltração, possibilitando detecção e concentração compostos orgânicos e inorgânicos em
34 baixas concentrações em ambientes aquáticos (HEDGES et al., 1994).



1

2 **Figura 4** - Variação dos tamanhos da matéria orgânica particulada e dissolvida e dos compostos de
 3 carbono em águas naturais. AA, aminoácidos; CHO, carboidratos; AF, ácidos graxos; HC,
 4 hidrocarbonetos; AH, ácidos hidrofílicos; MOPF, matéria orgânica particulada fina; MOPMF, matéria
 5 orgânica particulada muito fina; MOPG, matéria orgânica particulada grossa. Fonte: (Adaptada de
 6 Eatherall, Naden e Cooper (1997)).

7

8

9 A abundância e as características da MON variam entre os diferentes
 10 compartimentos ambientais. Os coloides orgânicos representam de 30 a 40% da MOD (<0.22
 11 µm) nos oceanos do mundo, sendo quase metade compostos por carboidratos (WILKINSON;
 12 LEAD, 2007). Contudo, a variação do tamanho da partícula está fortemente relacionada às
 13 condições ambientais e as fontes. XU; GUO, (2017) observaram que a MON era composta
 14 principalmente por partículas de baixo peso molecular (<1kDa) tanto em ambiente fluvial,
 15 lacustre como marinho, correspondendo a cerca de 60%, 70% e 76% da MON nesses
 16 ambientes respectivamente. Estudos utilizando ultrafiltração observaram que as substâncias
 17 húmicas em águas costeiras estão distribuídas principalmente na fração <1 kDa (MOPPER et
 18 al., 1996; YI et al., 2014), enquanto que proteínas e carboidratos mostram-se mais
 19 relacionados à frações maiores, embora encontradas principalmente na faixa <10 kDa (XU;
 20 GUO, 2017)(STOLPE et al., 2014).

20

21 **2.4. Composição isotópica da matéria orgânica natural**

22

23

24

O carbono da matéria orgânica natural é uma mistura de dois isótopos estáveis,
 ^{12}C e ^{13}C . Na Terra as abundâncias relativas de ^{12}C e ^{13}C são 98,89% e 1,11%,
 respectivamente. Os compostos de carbono de origem biológica são relativamente

1 enriquecidos com o isótopo mais leve, enquanto o isótopo mais pesado é retido nas principais
2 formas de carbono inorgânico (carbonato, bicarbonato e dióxido de carbono) (KILLOPS;
3 KILLOPS, 2005).

4 A razão isotópica de uma amostra é normalmente expressa por valores de δ (com
5 unidades de permil ou ‰) em relação ao padrão, e sua forma geral pode ser representada por:

$$6 \quad \delta^{13}\text{C} (\text{‰}) = \left[\left(\frac{^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}}{^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}} \right)_{\text{amostra}} / \left(\frac{^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}}{^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}} \right)_{\text{padrão}} - 1 \right] \times 10^3$$

7 A aplicação de isótopos estáveis para avaliar as fontes e a ciclagem da matéria
8 orgânica em estuários tem sido amplamente utilizada, principalmente para distinguir entre as
9 contribuições alóctone e autóctone (BAUER; BIANCHI, 2011) (Tabela 1). A composição
10 isotópica do carbono ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) é ideal para a identificação de origem, pois é menos afetada pelos
11 processos diagenéticos e biológicos. Enquanto que a razão C:N e a assinatura isotópica do
12 nitrogênio ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$) são modificadas pelos mesmos, sendo mais adequadas para a avaliação do
13 processamento da MON no meio ambiente (MIDDELBURG; HERMAN, 2007).

14 A composição isotópica tem sido usada para avaliar processos de eutrofização
15 através de pressões antropogênicas (ABREU et al., 2006), consequências da mudança da
16 cobertura vegetal na bacia de drenagem do estuário (REZENDE et al., 2010), dieta alimentar
17 de organismos (ABRANTES et al., 2014; BEZERRA et al., 2015) e despejos de efluentes
18 urbanos (BARROS et al., 2010).

19 Em estuários dominados por marés, a distribuição e a origem da MOP são
20 governadas primariamente pela dinâmica do material particulado em suspensão (MPS)
21 (MIDDELBURG; HERMAN, 2007). Nos estuários túrbidos, a assinatura isotópica do
22 carbono é constante ao longo do estuário devido à intensa mistura entre as fontes que
23 uniformizaram os valores de $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. Já os estuários com MPS baixo ou intermediário,
24 apresentaram valores de $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ bastante variáveis: empobrecidos na zona de rio, enriquecidos
25 na zona costeira e intermediários na zona de mistura (MIDDELBURG; HERMAN, 2007). O
26 tempo de residência e a descarga fluvial também são determinantes para o controle da MON
27 nos estuários. Em ambientes com curto tempo de residência, a contribuição autóctone é
28 pequena devido à rápida exportação de carbono dificultar a ciclagem do mesmo no estuário
29 (BIANCHI et al., 1997). Enquanto que em estuários com elevado tempo de residência (~1
30 ano), o fitoplâncton autóctone é dominante, sendo observada apenas uma pequena influência
31 de MON continental durante o período chuvoso (LEBRETON et al., 2016).

32 Contudo, a determinação das fontes e a compreensão dos processos
33 biogeoquímicos que controlam a MOD estuarina são bastante difíceis em estuários, porque o
34 MON é proveniente de múltiplas origens e se alteram com o tempo (LEBRETON et al.,

1 2016). Nos casos onde MOP e/ou MOD exibem comportamento não conservativo, devido a
 2 processos biogeoquímicos (produção de fitoplâncton e respiração bacteriana) e dinâmica
 3 sedimentar complexa durante a mistura estuarina, a razão isotópica torna-se mais complexa de
 4 avaliar. Além disso, a sobreposição das assinaturas isotópicas ocorre frequentemente (LU et
 5 al., 2014; YE et al., 2018), como pode ser observado na Tabela 1 a sobreposição da assinatura
 6 isotópica das plantas C₃ com o fitoplâncton fluvial, por exemplo. Por isso, muitos estudos
 7 combinam outras ferramentas como, medidas de fluorescência (YA; ANDERSON; JAFFÉ,
 8 2015), radiocarbono e biomarcadores (por exemplo, fenóis de lignina e lipídios) para
 9 determinar fontes de carbono em sistemas costeiros (RALISON et al., 2008; RAYMOND;
 10 BAUER, 2001; SPENCER et al., 2009).

11

12 **Tabela 1-** Composição isotópica do carbono e nitrogênio das principais fontes de MON em
 13 estuários.

Fonte	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$	Referência
Plantas C₃	-26 a -30	-2 a +5	BIANCHI; BAUER, 2011
Plantas C₄	-12 a -14	3 a 7	BIANCHI; BAUER, 2011
Fitoplâncton fluvial	-28.4 a -32.6	5 - 8	YE et al., 2017
Fitoplâncton marinho	-18 a -24	6 - 9	BIANCHI; BAUER, 2011
Solos	-23 a -27	2,6 a 6,4	BIANCHI; BAUER, 2011
Esgoto doméstico	-30 a -22,7	-2.5 a -0,9	WANG et al., 2004

14

15 **2.5. Lignina**

16 A lignina é um composto polifenólico de alto peso molecular proveniente quase
 17 que exclusivamente de plantas vasculares. Além disso, a lignina constitui de 20% a 30% de
 18 tecido vegetal vascular (KIRK; FARRELL, 1987), ficando atrás apenas da celulose como o
 19 biopolímero mais abundante (BROWN, 1969). Dentre os diversos marcadores de matéria
 20 orgânica terrestre, a lignina destaca-se por ser um biomacropolímero encontrado
 21 exclusivamente em plantas vasculares (GÖNI & HEDGES, 1992). Além disso, a
 22 mineralização da lignina é mais lenta do que a de outros biopolímeros (HATCHER et
 23 al., 1995), sendo um marcador ideal e específico para plantas vasculares, ou um indicador de

1 matéria orgânica terrestre em ambientes marinhos (HEDGES; MANN, 1979). Dessa forma, a
 2 lignina tem sido uma ferramenta bastante utilizada para avaliar o aporte de MON alóctone
 3 para os oceanos e ambientes costeiros (BIANCHI et al., 2009; DITTMAR; KATTNER, 2003)
 4 e verificar mudanças nas fontes MOD com variação nas condições hidrológicas (SPENCER et
 5 al., 2008).

6 Através da oxidação alcalina, com óxido de cobre, a molécula de lignina é
 7 quebrada em onze principais fenóis, que são separados em quatro grupos: p-hidroxil (p),
 8 vanilil (V), siringil (S) e cinamil (C) (HEDGES; ERTEL, 1982). A soma de 6, 8 ou 11 desses
 9 fenóis corresponde ao aporte de matéria orgânica terrestre para o meio. Oito fenóis de lignina
 10 (dois fenóis de cinamil "C", três fenóis de siringil "S" e três fenóis de vanilil "V") foram
 11 medidos para avaliar fontes vegetais de matéria orgânica dissolvida. Estes rendimentos de
 12 fenol são convencionalmente representados como Λ_8 (mg por 100 mg de carbono
 13 orgânico) e Σ_8 (a soma dos oito fenóis principais normalizados para o volume da amostra).

14 Com relação à lignina, as gimnospermas são compostas quase inteiramente por
 15 monômeros de vanilil, enquanto as angiospermas possuem siringil e vanilil. As razões S/V e
 16 C/V são usadas para distinguir fontes de MON derivadas de vários componentes de plantas
 17 terrígenas (BLAIR; ALLER, 2012). A relação S/V diferencia as angiospermas ($S/V > 0$) das
 18 gimnospermas ($S/V = 0$) e a razão C/V distingue o tipo de tecido, lenhoso ($C/V = 0$) dos não-
 19 lenhosos ($C/V > 0$). Entretanto, a diagênese pode alterar as proporções, pois os fenóis de
 20 cinamil e siringil são mais afetados do que o vanilil (TAREQ; TANAKA; OHTA, 2004).
 21 Então, o Índice de Vegetação de Fenol da Lignina (LPVI) (Tareq et al., 2011, 2004) é
 22 utilizado para identificar a fonte da vegetação.

$$23 \quad LPVI = [S(S + 1) / (V + 1) + 1] \times [C(C + 1) / (V + 1) + 1]$$

24 onde V, S e C são expressos em% do Λ_8 . O LPVI leva em conta a
 25 heterogeneidade da planta e a sequência digenética dos grupos fenólicos.

26 A razão entre as forma ácidas e aldeídicas dos fenóis do grupo vanilil e siringil
 27 $(Ac/Al)_{v,s}$ é um proxy do grau de oxidação da lignina durante a diagênese. Razões abaixo de
 28 0,3 são típicas de tecidos frescos. Enquanto que $(Ad/Al)_{v,s}$ acima de 0,4 indicam MO
 29 degradada, e acima de 0,6 são consideradas altamente degradadas. Altas proporções
 30 $(Ad/Al)_{v,s}$ (~ 1.2) também são indicativas do processo de lixiviação.

31

32 **2.6. Fluorescência Molecular da MOD**

33 A matéria orgânica dissolvida (MOD) nas águas naturais apresenta propriedades
 34 óticas. Uma subfração da MOD apresenta propriedade da fluorescência quando absorve radiação

1 ultravioleta e é atribuída à presença da matéria orgânica dissolvida colorida (MODC). Os compostos
 2 húmicos são os principais responsáveis por este fenômeno visto que eles representam de 70 a 85% da
 3 MOD em ambientes aquáticos. Nos primeiros trabalhos sobre o tema, a fluorescência era
 4 frequentemente utilizada para quantificação da MOD (SIERRA et al., 1996). Contudo, com o
 5 aprimoramento da técnica, como o uso de correções dos espectros e ferramentas estatísticas
 6 (BALCARCZYK et al., 2009; LUCIANI et al., 2009), essa propriedade tem sido utilizada para
 7 caracterizar a matéria orgânica dissolvida nos ambientes aquáticos. As substâncias húmicas
 8 fluorescem entre 430 e 540 nm por uma excitação de 340 – 360 nm, enquanto que as proteínas
 9 fluorescem no domínio 270 - 280 por uma excitação entre 300 – 340 (STEDMON; MARKAGER,
 10 2005). A Tabela 2 resume as propriedades de fluorescência dos fluoróforos identificados e citados por
 11 Coble (2007).

12
 13 **Tabela 2** - Propriedades de fluorescência dos fluoróforos identificados em ambientes
 14 marinhos.

Componente	Nome do pico	Ex/Em	Número do pico	Fonte	Pico
Tirosina, tipo proteína	B	275/305	8	autóctone	γ
Triptofano, tipo proteína	T	275/340	7	autóctone	δ
Desconhecido	N	280/370			
Ácido húmico	A	260/400-460	4	ácido fúlvico, autóctone, húmico terrestre	α'
Ácido húmico	A	260/400-460	1	ácido húmico, alóctone, húmico terrestre	α'
Ácido húmico	A	260/400-460	3	ácido húmico, alóctone, húmico terrestre	α'
Ácido húmico marinho	M	290-310/370-410	6	antropogênico de águas residuais e agricultura	β
Ácido húmico	C	320-360/420-460	5	terrestre, antropogênica, agricultura	α
Pigmento	P	398/660			
Ácido húmico		250 (385)/504	2	ácido fúlvico, terrestre, autóctone	

1 Esta técnica é altamente sensível e seletiva, fácil de usar e necessita de pequeno
2 volume de amostra (COBLE, 2007; FELLMAN et al., 2009). Em geral, a fluorescência da MOD
3 possui um amplo espectro de excitação entre 250 e 400 nm e amplo espectro de emissão 350 a 500
4 nm. O mapeamento detalhado das propriedades de fluorescência da MOD produz matrizes de
5 emissão de excitação (MEE) construídas pela junção dos espectros de emissão e excitação,
6 que são adequados para técnicas de análise de dados multivariada, como PARAFAC (LIN et
7 al., 2016; SHIN et al., 2016a; XU; GUO, 2017). Através da decomposição de um conjunto de
8 MEEs, a análise de PARAFAC quantifica o número significativo de componentes
9 fluorescentes independentes.

10 O PARAFAC modela dados tridimensionais usando a seguinte equação, montada
11 minimizando a soma dos quadrados dos resíduos (ϵ_{ijk}).

$$12 \quad X_{ijk} = \sum_{f=1}^F a_{if} b_{jf} c_{kf} + \epsilon_{ijk}, \quad i = 1, \dots, I; \quad j = 1, \dots, J; \quad k = 1, \dots, K$$

13 X_{ijk} é um elemento da matriz tridimensional com dimensões I, J e K. Na análise
14 das MEEs, os números X_{ijk} são a intensidade da fluorescência da amostra i medida em
15 comprimento de onda de emissão j e comprimento de onda de excitação k . O termo final ϵ_{ijk}
16 representa os sinais não explicados (resíduos contendo ruídos e outras variações não
17 modeláveis). O resultado do modelo são os parâmetros a , b e c . Idealmente, representam,
18 respectivamente, a concentração, o espectro de emissão e o espectro de excitação dos
19 fluoróforos fundamentais (STEDMON; RASMUS, 2008). A equação é idêntica à da
20 fluorescência de uma mistura de fluoróforos assumindo que eles se comportam de acordo com
21 a lei de Lambert-Beer e que não há interações entre eles. Se existem F fluoróforos na mistura,
22 o sinal mensurado é a soma da contribuição de cada um (LUCIANI et al., 2008).

23 Como se trata de uma amostra complexa e desconhecida, não se sabe o número
24 significativo de espécies fluorescentes na amostra. Então, previamente à modelagem com o
25 PARAFAC, utiliza-se a análise de variância residual, core consistency diagnostic
26 (CONCORDIA) para determinar o número de componentes apropriados para esse conjunto de
27 dados.

29 **2.7. Interação da MON com metais em estuários**

30 Elementos traço são caracterizados por possuírem concentrações menores que 1
31 mg L^{-1} em águas naturais (GAILLARDET; VIERS; DUPRE, 2003). A abundância de metais
32 traço em rios depende de sua abundância na crosta continental e da sua mobilidade durante o
33 intemperismo e transporte. A crosta terrestre é a fonte final de elementos traço em corpos

1 hídricos, que chegam ao estuário, principalmente, carregados pelo material particulado.
2 Elementos traço atingem os estuários principalmente por meio do intemperismo das rochas,
3 deposição atmosférica e atividades antropogênicas.

4 A contaminação dos corpos hídricos por metais traço desperta grandes
5 preocupações porque eles são importantes poluentes ambientais e possuem longo tempo de
6 residência em sedimentos e organismos. Os estuários funcionam como filtros de metais, no
7 transporte entre o continente e o oceano, promovendo sua precipitação devido ao intenso
8 gradiente físico-químico e à quantidade de partículas (YANG; VAN DEN BERG, 2009). Além
9 disso, nos ecossistemas aquáticos, esses elementos podem sofrer transformações químicas que
10 os tornam ainda mais nocivos ao ambiente. Um exemplo é a complexação do mercúrio (Hg),
11 formando uma neurotoxina (metil mercúrio), que é facilmente incorporada pelos organismos e
12 consequentemente biomagnificada na cadeia trófica (BEZERRA et al., 2015). Embora os
13 estuários estejam sujeitos à contaminação por metais traço através de processos naturais, as
14 atividades antrópicas têm se mostrado a principal forma de entrada de metais em corpos
15 hídricos. Dentre elas, destaca-se: a mineração, atividades industriais, urbanização, agricultura
16 e carcinicultura (LACERDA et al., 2011; OLIVEIRA; MARINS, 2011).

17 Os metais-traços chegam ao estuário, principalmente, associados ao material
18 particulado em suspensão e/ou dissolvidos na coluna d'água (GAILLARDET; VIERS;
19 DUPRE, 2003). A partição geoquímica dos metais é determinante para o transporte dos
20 mesmos e é modificada pelo intenso gradiente físico-químico, gerado pela mistura entre água
21 doce e marinha. Os principais fatores são: especificidade e concentração do metal, força
22 iônica, pH, oxigênio dissolvido, concentração e características do material em suspensão
23 (WANG et al., 2017). Em estuários, o metal associado a partículas tende a sedimentar através
24 dos processos de adsorção e floculação, diminuindo sua mobilidade no sistema. Entretanto, a
25 remobilização dos sedimentos pelas marés e atividades antrópicas podem causar a
26 remobilização desses metais, que podem ligar-se à MOD aumentando também sua
27 biodisponibilidade (LACERDA; MIGUENS, 2011). Na fração dissolvida, o metal pode
28 adsorver-se na superfície dos colóides por forças eletrostáticas. Tanto os colóides orgânicos
29 como inorgânicos estão envolvidos na adsorção não específica (OLIVEIRA; MARINS, 2011).
30 A matéria orgânica coloidal (MOC) é muito reativa devido à sua alta área de superfície
31 específica e abundância de sítios ativos que podem contribuir para o processo de ligação com
32 o metal (FANG et al., 2015b; LOUIS et al., 2009). Além disso, a MOC intermedia as
33 mudanças entre a fração verdadeiramente dissolvida e a particulada, por meio do processo de
34 mistura, como floculação, agregação e desagregação (GIANI et al., 2005; XU et al., 2018).

1 Em águas estuarinas metais como o cobre (Cu), mercúrio (Hg) e zinco (Zn), por exemplo,
2 encontram-se principalmente ligados a colóides orgânicos (LUAN; VADAS, 2015; SIMPSON
3 et al., 2014; WANG et al., 2017). Enquanto que, metais como Pb e Zn podem ter alta
4 afinidade por colóides inorgânicos ricos em ferro (LUAN; VADAS, 2015).

5 A avaliação da variação das concentrações do metal com a variação da salinidade
6 indica a ocorrência de processos biogeoquímicos durante a mistura estuarina. Elementos com
7 baixa reatividade apresentam comportamento conservativo, variando linearmente com a
8 salinidade, ou seja, sofrem apenas diluição ou concentração (dependendo do metal) sem
9 sofrerem alterações em suas formas químicas. Enquanto que, metais mais reativos, sofrem
10 processos de adição ou remoção da coluna d'água de forma não linear através de reações
11 químicas e biológicas, apresentando comportamento não conservativo (OLIVEIRA;
12 MARINS, 2011).

14 **2.8. Estuário do rio Jaguaribe**

15 O estuário do rio Jaguaribe localiza-se no litoral nordestino do Brasil, no Estado
16 do Ceará, com 633 km de extensão e uma bacia de drenagem de 72.043 km². O semiárido
17 brasileiro é marcado por um forte regime de chuvas sazonais, controlado pela Zona de
18 Convergência Intertropical (ZCIT). O deslocamento sazonal da ZCIT para o sul promove a
19 ocorrência de chuvas no nordeste brasileiro, enquanto seu retorno ao norte causa uma seca
20 intensa durante o inverno e a primavera austral. Em anos de forte El Niño, o deslocamento
21 para o sul é ainda mais intenso, reduzindo a aridez na região. Na zona costeira, a pluviosidade
22 anual varia de 400 a 2000 mm; com média de 912,7 mm nos últimos 30 anos (FUNCEME,
23 2017).

24 O semiárido brasileiro é caracterizado por baixa (<700 mm ano⁻¹) e concentrada
25 (4-5 meses) precipitação com a prevalência de evaporação (1.900 mm ano⁻¹) sobre a entrada
26 de água doce durante a maior parte do ano (SCHETTINI; VALLE-LEVINSON;
27 TRUCCOLO, 2017). A sazonalidade regional é definida por dois períodos diferentes em
28 termos de precipitação: a estação chuvosa (janeiro a maio) e a estação seca (junho a
29 dezembro), geralmente sem qualquer precipitação de agosto a novembro. Esta região tem sido
30 apontada como uma das mais afetadas pelas mudanças climáticas globais (ALMAGRO et al.,
31 2017; KROL; BRONSTERT, 2007; ZHANG et al., 2017) com cerca de 20% de redução na
32 precipitação anual nos últimos 50 anos. anos (GODOY; LACERDA, 2014, 2015).

33 Durante o período de estudo, a precipitação anual esteve sempre abaixo da média

1 histórica devido ao efeito do evento El Niño, que promoveu a seca mais severa já registrada
2 no semiárido nordestino entre 2012 e 2016 (Marengo et al., 2017) (Figura 2). Como resultado,
3 o Castanhão, que é o maior reservatório construído na bacia do Rio Jaguaribe com cerca de
4 6,7 bilhões de m³ de capacidade de armazenamento de água (SANTOS et al., 2017),
5 testemunhou redução de sua cota de armazenamento de cerca de 85% em novembro de 2011
6 para cerca de 4% em outubro 2017, devido à ausência de chuvas na bacia do reservatório
7 (DNOCS, 2017; SANTOS et al., 2017).

8 As descargas de água doce caíram de 60/130 m³s⁻¹ para 20 m³s⁻¹ após a
9 construção das principais represas do rio Jaguaribe (DIAS; MARINS; MAIA, 2013). Como a
10 água é um recurso escasso, várias barragens foram construídas ao longo dos rios para
11 melhorar a disponibilidade de água e regular seu fluxo (KROL e BRONSTERT, 2007),
12 resultando em uma pequeno aporte de água doce e material fluvial para o estuário e o oceano
13 (DIAS; CASTRO; LACERDA, 2013; MOLISANI et al., 2013), como pode ser observado
14 através da formação da pluma estuarina apenas em episódios de chuvas intensas (Dias et al.,
15 2013a). Além disso, o estresse hídrico favorece a intrusão marinha e consequentemente a
16 colonização do estuário por novas áreas de mangue (GODOY; MEIRELES; LACERDA,
17 2018), bem como a erosão das margens (MARINS et al., 2003).

18 Outra consequência relevante do balanço hídrico negativo é o aumento do tempo
19 de residência (TR) da água do mar no estuário (DIAS et al., 2016), pois promove uma
20 condição ideal para o acúmulo de material particulado em suspensão (SPM), nutrientes e
21 carbono que podem potencializar o processo de eutrofização e floculação no estuário (DIAS
22 et al., 2016). O maior tempo de permanência na água do mar também pode levar o estuário à
23 condição hipersalina, que pode reduzir a produção de MON pela atividade biológica
24 (PINCKNEY; PAERL; BEBOUT, 1995; SOUZA et al., 2003), alterar as propriedades
25 químicas da matéria orgânica dissolvida (MOD) e seu comportamento (CATALÁN et al.,
26 2013; MENDOZA; ZIKA, 2014).

27 A foz do rio é cercada por aproximadamente 7,29 km² de manguezal (GODOY;
28 LACERDA, 2014; GODOY; MEIRELES; LACERDA, 2018) incluindo novas áreas de
29 colonização que correspondem a 0,29 km². Os manguezais são grandes fornecedores de
30 carbono orgânico terrestre para águas costeiras (BIANCHI; BAUER, 2011; PRASAD;
31 RAMANATHAN, 2009; SAKHO et al., 2015), principalmente em regiões, como o NE do
32 Brasil, onde a vegetação dominante (Caatinga, vegetação arbustiva seca) tem baixa produção
33 de biomassa vegetal e os solos são pobres em matéria orgânica (MENEZES et al., 2012). No
34 entanto, em alguns ambientes hipersalinos, a MON derivada dos organismos marinhos possui

1 maior contribuição do que os derivados de manguezais, devido à alta influência da água do
2 mar (RAY; SHAHRAKI, 2016).

3 Entre as fontes de atividades antrópicas locais, a carcinicultura é fonte potencial
4 de MON para o estuário do rio Jaguaribe devido a três fatores principais: (1) é a principal
5 atividade econômica desenvolvida nas proximidades do estuário (mais de 3.000 ha de
6 fazendas de camarão); suas emissões de nutrientes superam as naturais e (3) estão próximas
7 das margens, despejando seus resíduos diretamente na água estuarina (LACERDA et al.,
8 2008; MARINS et al., 2011). Além disso, o estuário abriga também áreas urbanas de tamanho
9 médio, com uma população total de aproximadamente 119.000 habitantes. Fortim, Aracati e
10 Itaiçaba possuem baixas taxas de esgotamento sanitário adequado, correspondendo à 2,1%,
11 4,5% e 3,8% respectivamente (IBGE, 2019).

12 Em síntese, mudanças ambientais têm ocorrido nesse ambiente como reflexo das
13 pressões antrópicas e condições climáticas (El Niño e mudanças climáticas inclusive), dentre
14 elas destaca-se a eutrofização, supressão do manguezal pela atividade de carcinicultura e
15 simultânea expansão do manguezal devido à forte intrusão salina causada pelo aumento do
16 nível do mar e redução do fluxo fluvial. Visto a importância da matéria orgânica na regulação
17 dos processos biogeoquímicos e as modificações que estão ocorrendo neste estuário, acredita-
18 se que o transporte e a dinâmica da MO esteja sendo continuamente alterada e que isto esteja
19 acontecendo em outros estuários semiáridos também.

20

21 **3. HIPÓTESE E OBJETIVOS**

22

23 **3.1 HIPÓTESE**

24 Com a intensificação das secas e o aumento das demandas de água doce para
25 atividades humanas, o estuário do Rio Jaguaribe está sob estresse hídrico crescente,
26 resultando na redução dos fluxos de materiais para o oceano, e na variação do tempo de
27 residência das águas estuarinas. Desta forma, é esperada a consequente modificação da
28 qualidade da matéria orgânica estuarina e, que os processos que governam a mistura e o
29 destino do carbono no estuário do rio Jaguaribe sejam diferentes dos estuários clássicos. Além
30 disso, a ampla variabilidade climática da região e a crescente pressão antrópica sobre as
31 vazões da bacia de drenagem podem estar reduzindo os fluxos de carbono para o estuário. Em
32 relação a influência do tempo de residência, espera-se que com seu aumento a associação dos
33 metais com a matéria orgânica seja favorecido, aumentando a biodisponibilidade desses
34 contaminantes.

1 **3.2 OBJETIVO GERAL**

2 Avaliar os fluxos e o comportamento do carbono no estuário do rio Jaguaribe.
3 Investigar as concentrações e caracterizar a matéria orgânica natural, bem como sua interação
4 com os metais ao longo do gradiente de salinidade do estuário do rio Jaguaribe em diferentes
5 condições de maré e estações climáticas.

7 **3.2.1 Objetivos específicos**

- 8 a. aplicar diferentes técnicas analíticas (fluorescência molecular, absorvância e
9 fenóis de lignina) para caracterização da MON (**Capítulos 5.1, 5.2, 5.3**).
- 10 b. quantificar os teores de COD, COP, CID e Clorofila (Chl-*a*) na zona de
11 máximo turbidez no estuário do rio Jaguaribe (**Capítulo 5.1**);
- 12 c. avaliar a influência dos parâmetros hidrodinâmicos e da sazonalidade sobre o
13 comportamento do carbono (**Capítulo 5.1**);
- 14 d. quantificar os teores de COD, CID, COP e Chl-*a* ao longo do gradiente de
15 salinidade do estuário do rio Jaguaribe (**Capítulo 5.2**);
- 16 e. avaliar as diferentes origens de matéria orgânica natural ao longo do gradiente
17 de salinidade estuarino (**Capítulo 5.2**);
- 18 f. estudar a interação da matéria orgânica natural com metais ao longo do
19 gradiente de salinidade estuarino (**Capítulo 5.3**);
- 20 e. avaliar a mobilidade geoquímica do carbono orgânico e dos metais na água do
21 estuário (**Capítulo 5.3**);

23 **4. ESTRATÉGIA DE AMOSTRAGEM**

24 Foram realizadas um total de sete campanhas de amostragem no estuário do
25 rio Jaguaribe dentro do período de 2012 e 2018 durante os períodos de seca e chuva,
26 somando conhecimento preliminar (Cavalcante, 2015) sobre o carbono na região estuarina
27 às avaliações feitas durante este projeto de doutorado. Na Tabela 2 foi feito um resumo
28 das principais informações referente a cada campanha.

29 Nas primeiras três campanhas (Tabela 3), foram realizadas amostragens
30 eulerianas na zona de máxima turbidez do estuário, cujos objetivos específicos incluíram
31 medidas dos teores de COD, CID, COP e Chl-*a*, a influência dos parâmetros
32 hidrodinâmicos e da sazonalidade sobre o comportamento do carbono, caracterizando
33 parcialmente a origem do carbono (objetivos específicos a, b, c) que resultaram no
34 capítulo 5.1.

1 Posteriormente, outras três campanhas lagrangeanas foram realizadas para
2 avaliar a origem e o comportamento da MON ao longo do gradiente de salinidade
3 estuarino, com resultados expressos no capítulo 5.2.

4 Por fim, na última campanha foi feita uma amostragem lagrangeana para
5 avaliar as características óticas da MOD, partição geoquímica e sua interação com os
6 metais, com resultados expressos no capítulo 5.3.

7
8 **Tabela 3** - Síntese das campanhas de amostragem.

	DATA	ABORDAGEM	CAPÍTULO	PARÂMETROS AVALIADOS
1*	Set/2012			Salinidade, pH, temperatura, Chl- <i>a</i>
2**	Mai/2014	Euleriana	5.1	COP, COD, CID, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
3*	Jul/2015			TR, vazão, percentual de água doce
4*	Mar/2016			Salinidade, pH, temperatura, Chl- <i>a</i> . MPS,
5**	Dez/2016	Lagrangeana	5.2	COP, COD, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, fenóis de lignina,
6*	Jun/2017			nitrogênio particulado e dissolvido
7**	Abr/2018	Lagrangeana	5.3	Salinidade, pH, temperatura, Chl- <i>a</i> , COD, POC, Fluorescência-MOD, ultrafiltração, metais dissolvido (ICP-MS)

9 *campanhas realizadas na estação seca

10 **campanhas realizadas na estação chuvosa

11

5. RESULTADOS E DISCUSSÃO

5.1. CARBON FLUXES IN A TROPICAL SEMIARID ESTUARY DURING SEVERE DROUGHT YEARS

ABSTRACT

This study assesses the seasonal and hydrodynamic factors controlling carbon budgets and fluxes in the maximum turbidity zone (MTZ) in a tropical semiarid estuary under extreme drought, the Jaguaribe River estuary in northeast Brazil. Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and particulate organic carbon (POC) concentrations increased with residence time and freshwater volume. The Stable Isotope Analysis in R (SIAR) of POC and the absence of correlation between DOC and Chl-*a* indicated that organic matter was predominantly terrestrially derived. Stable isotope ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$) ratios of POC suggested mangrove as important POC source. Dissolved inorganic carbon concentrations reflected the seasonal variability of the semiarid climate, being higher in the dry season due to the concentrating effect caused by the negative water balance. The reduced freshwater supply to the estuary resulted in carbon fluxes smaller than expected for a tropical region. Therefore, the MTZ behaved as a retainer of carbon during the dry season and as an exporter only in the rainy season. The expected intensification of droughts in NE Brazil by climate changes associated with anthropogenic activities in the watershed will enhance carbon retention and contribute to a continuous degradation of the estuary through eutrophication.

Key Words: Dissolved inorganic carbon, Dissolved organic carbon, Particulate organic carbon, mangrove, Jaguaribe River estuary.

1 **5.1.1. Introduction**

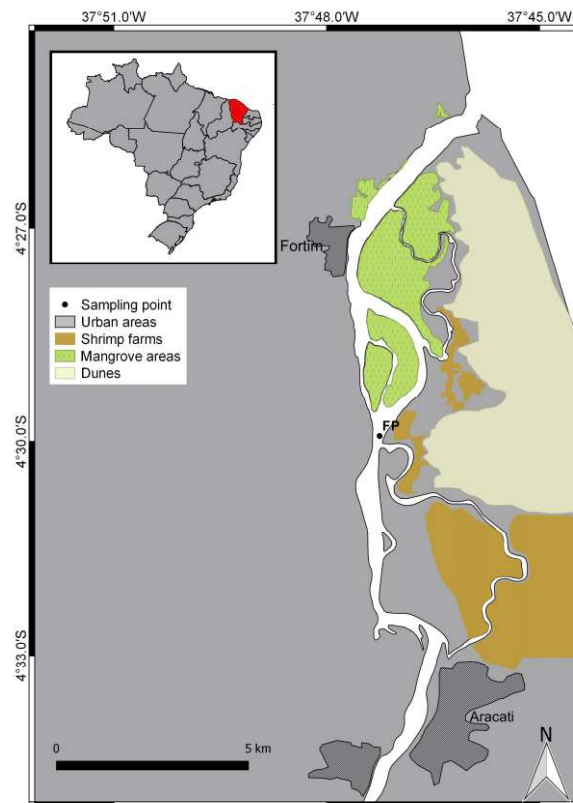
2 Carbon plays an essential role in the function of the planet as the primary source
3 of energy to food chains and as the main regulator of the Earth's climate (HOFMANN et al.,
4 2011). Semiarid ecosystems, somewhat neglected as a major player in the carbon cycle, are
5 being considered important contributors to the global carbon cycle and may even dominate
6 the inter-annual variability in regions strongly controlled by the El Niño–Southern Oscillation
7 (ENSO) (ZHANG et al., 2017). The Brazilian semiarid zone is affected by El Niño, which
8 strengthens further droughts in the region, increasing its vulnerability to climatic changes
9 (MARENGO et al., 2017). This region is considered one of the areas most affected by climate
10 change through the reduction of annual rainfall (CHIANG; KOUTAVAS, 2004; LACERDA;
11 GODOY; MAIA, 2010). In addition, several dams were built in semiarid river basins to
12 mitigate the effects of water scarcity (KROL; BRONSTERT, 2007). This is characteristics of
13 the Jaguaribe River, the largest in Brazil completely inside of the semiarid region where more
14 than 170 water reservoirs were built to assure water supply to agriculture, local human
15 settlements and Fortaleza City (~ 3.6 million of inhabitants) (MARENGO et al., 2017;
16 MARINS et al., 2002).

17 The result of extended droughts and river damming is the reduction of freshwater
18 input and higher seawater intrusion in the Jaguaribe River estuary (DIAS; MARINS; MAIA,
19 2009) (Figure 5), mainly during the dry season when the saline intrusion reaches about 34 km
20 inland, which provides ideal conditions for the retention of nutrients and suspended
21 particulate material (SPM) (DIAS et al., 2016), triggering eutrophication and flocculation of
22 organic matter (OM) in this area. Besides, significant changes in this major ecosystem, such
23 as the formation of new islands (GODOY; LACERDA, 2013) and the rapid expansion of
24 mangroves (GODOY; LACERDA, 2015), have been observed. The incoming tide brings
25 suspended particulate material (SPM) to the middle estuary (MARINS; DIAS, [s.d.]) from
26 the erosion of mangrove soils, resuspension of bottom sediments and transport of marine
27 sands (LACERDA; MARINS, 2002). In estuaries without significant influence of river
28 discharges; as for example a mangrove tidal creek in Sepetiba Bay, SE Brazil; DOC and POC
29 concentrations and fluxes are primarily dependent on tidal net water fluxes (REZENDE et al.,
30 2007).

31 Mangrove ecosystems are major suppliers of terrigenous organic carbon to coastal
32 waters (BIANCHI; BAUER, 2011; PRASAD; RAMANATHAN, 2009; SAKHO et al., 2015),
33 mainly in regions like the NE Brazil, where the dominant vegetation (Caatinga, the dry
34 tropical forests) has low plant biomass and soils are poor in OM (MENEZES et al., 2012).

1 However, in some hypersaline environments, the marine-derived OM is more important than
 2 the mangrove-derived due the high seawater influence (RAY; SHAHRAKI, 2016). Apart from
 3 mangroves, local anthropogenic sources, such as shrimp farm, which is the most important
 4 economic driver of the estuary, may also contribute to carbon fluxes. Shrimp farms, in
 5 particular, is of high environmental relevance due to their high nutrient emission, higher than
 6 the natural one; their location surrounding the estuary and their effluents being released
 7 directly into tidal creeks (LACERDA et al., 2008; MARINS et al., 2011).

8



9 **Figure 5** - Location of the study area and the sampling station at the fixed point (FP).

10

11 Carbon transport from land to the ocean through estuaries is key to the
 12 understanding of the global carbon cycle because these land-ocean boundaries display
 13 complex biogeochemical processes and strong physicochemical gradients that can modify the
 14 carbon fate in a relatively short time scale (days). The maximum turbidity zone (MTZ) is
 15 relevant to the understanding of the carbon dynamic of several estuaries, due to the high
 16 freshwater residence time (RT) and the intensification of biogeochemical processes, such as
 17 flocculation, sorption/desorption, and organic carbon mineralization (ABRIL et al., 2002;
 18 BATTIN et al., 2009; FISHER; HAGY; ROCHELLE-NEWALL, 1998; GU; ZHANG; JIANG,

1 2009). The MTZ normally acts as a carbon retainer, reducing the transport of materials in the
2 continent-ocean interface due to the mineralization of the labile riverine organic matter, the
3 dilution of riverine organic-rich materials (ABRIL et al., 2002) and the settle down of
4 particles under low discharges conditions (GU; ZHANG; JIANG, 2009).

5 This characteristic hydrodynamic of the Jaguaribe River estuary have been
6 observed to play a fundamental role over some transported materials such as SPM and
7 mercury (Hg), for example (LACERDA et al., 2013). It has been reported the blocking of the
8 Hg flow to the ocean during the dry season, which increases Hg residence time in the estuary.
9 Contrariwise, river flow is relatively high during the rainy season and Hg is efficiently
10 exported to the coastal zone, reducing its RT in the estuary. The long water RT in the estuary
11 favors Hg complexation with dissolved organic matter (DOM), resulting in higher
12 bioavailability as demonstrated by biomonitors (COSTA; LACERDA, 2014). This interaction
13 attests the importance of organic matter as a geochemical carrier of toxic metals. Thus,
14 understanding the carbon dynamics in semiarid estuaries could also contribute to the
15 assessment of the estuary's environmental quality.

16 With ongoing intensification of droughts due to climate change and increasing
17 freshwater demands for human activities, the Jaguaribe River estuary is under growing hydric
18 stress that has reduced the fluxes to the ocean. Then, it is expected that the decreased
19 freshwater inflow is reducing the riverine OM contribution to the estuary as well the carbon
20 export to the ocean. On the other hand, the high marine intrusion might favor the input of the
21 marine and mangrove OM in the estuary. Then, the aim of this study is to evaluate seasonal
22 variations of DOC, POC, and dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) discharge from the drainage
23 basin to the Jaguaribe River estuary and their behavior during three semidiurnal tidal cycles in
24 different years. In addition, the study aims to quantify the relative contribution of marine and
25 non-marine carbon sources to the estuary.

26 27 **5.1.2. Materials and methods**

28 **5.1.2.1. Study area**

29 The Jaguaribe River is in the northeastern equatorial region of Brazil, in the State
30 of Ceará, with 633 km of extension and a drainage basin of 72,043 km², being the largest
31 contributor of fluvial waters to the Atlantic Ocean in about 860 km of coastline, between
32 Cabo do Calcanhar and the Parnaíba River Delta (Figure 5). In this region, where the trade
33 winds of both hemispheres join, the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) regulates the

1 climate. The seasonal displacement of the ITCZ southward promotes the occurrence of rains
 2 in the Brazilian northeast, while its return to the north causes an intense drought during the
 3 austral winter and spring.

4 The Brazilian semiarid is characterized by low ($<700 \text{ mm year}^{-1}$) and concentrated
 5 (4-5 months) precipitation with the prevalence of evaporation ($1,900 \text{ mm year}^{-1}$) over rainfall
 6 during most of the year (SCHETTINI; VALLE-LEVINSON; TRUCCOLO, 2017). The
 7 regional seasonality is defined by a short season from January to May and a large dry season
 8 from June to December, usually without any precipitation whatsoever from August to
 9 November. This region has been pointed out as one of the most affected by global climate
 10 change (ALMAGRO et al., 2017; KROL; BRONSTERT, 2007; ZHANG et al., 2017), with
 11 about 20% reduction in annual rainfall in the past 50 years (GODOY; LACERDA, 2014,
 12 2015). During the three years study period, annual rainfall was always below the historical
 13 average (Figure 6). As result, the Castanhão, which is the biggest reservoir built in the
 14 Jaguaribe River watershed with about 6.7 billion m^3 of water storage capacity (SANTOS et
 15 al., 2017), witnessed a volume reduction from about 85% in November 2011 to about 3.9% in
 16 October 2017, due to the absence of rain in the reservoir's basin characterizing one of the
 17 longest drought periods observed in the region (DNOCS, 2017; SANTOS et al., 2017).

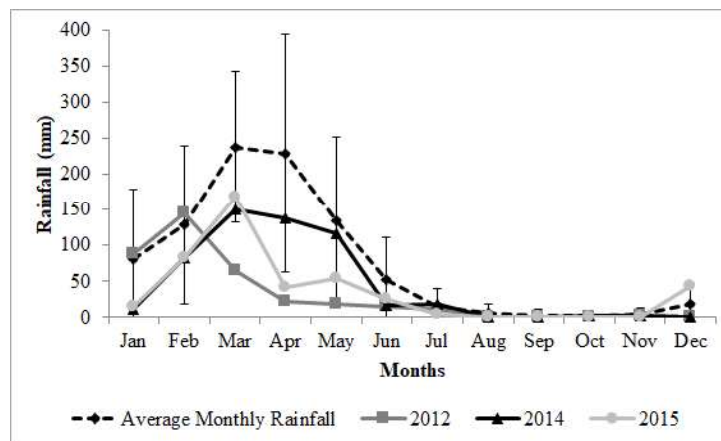


Figure 6- Monthly rainfall averages and standard deviations between 1980 and 2009 and monthly averages in 2012, 2014 and 2015 (FUNCEME, 2015).

18 The river mouth is surrounded by approximately 7.29 km^2 of mangroves
 19 (GODOY; LACERDA, 2014; GODOY; MEIRELES; LACERDA, 2018) including recent
 20 areas of mangrove colonization that cover 0.29 km^2 . The estuary also harbors over 3,000 ha of
 21 shrimp farms, as well as medium-size urban areas with a total population of about 119,000
 22 inhabitants. A previous study (ZOCATELLI et al., 2007) of the isotopic composition of

1 sediments from the Jaguaribe River estuary pointed to natural and anthropogenic sources of
 2 organic matter in the principal channel and the secondary tributaries of river. Such materials
 3 include sediments from erosive processes, organic matter leached from mangroves and from
 4 shrimp farms discharges.

5 Tides are semidiurnal, with an average tidal wave period of 12 hours and 50
 6 minutes. The estuary's wave propagation curve was estimated using daily water level data
 7 provided by the Brazilian Hydrography and Navigation Department, for the port of Areia
 8 Branca-Termisa (RN), and showed a 2-hour delay relative to that datum (DIAS; MARINS;
 9 MAIA, 2009). The mixture of fluvial and coastal water follows a longitudinal gradient of
 10 salinity modulated by tides during the dry season and by high fluvial discharges during the
 11 rainy season when advection transports this mixture to the inner continental shelf (DIAS;
 12 CASTRO; LACERDA, 2013). In the dry season of 2012, longitudinal sampling of the
 13 suspended matter showed that the location of estuarine MTZ (Figure 7) was the same in
 14 previous years (DIAS et al., 2016; MARINS et al., 2011), being established as fixed sampling
 15 station to all campaigns performed in this study (Figure 5). MTZ depth vary from 2.4 m in
 16 ebb tide to 5.5 m in flood tide.

17

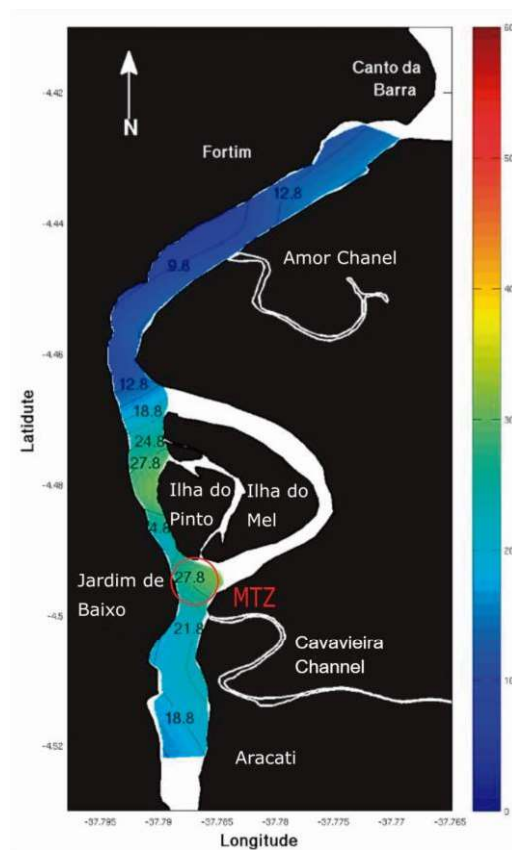


Figure 7 - Location of the maximum turbidity zone (MTZ).

18

1 5.1.2.2. *Sampling*

2 Given its relevance, three sampling campaigns were conducted at the MTZ of the
3 estuary, two during the dry season (September 2012 and July 2015) and one in the rainy
4 season (May 2014), all at spring tide. The average monthly precipitation of the campaigns
5 was 0, 5 and 116 mm in September 2012, July 2015 and May 2014, respectively. Since July
6 2015, a strong negative ENSO occurred with increasing intensity in September and October
7 (ALIZADEH-CHOOBARI, 2017; YEOMAN; JIANG; MITSCH, 2017).

8 Water collection and hydrochemical measurements were collected, every hour, in
9 a fixed point of MTZ (Figure 5), in subsurface depth (0.5 m) during a tidal cycle of 13 hours
10 (in each campaign). In the field, dissolved oxygen and pH were measured with a portable YSI
11 (model 85/100 FT) multiparametric probe, while salinity and temperature were measured with
12 a compact temperature and depth probe (Compact CTD model AST D687; JFE Advantech
13 Co., Ltd. Nishinomiya, Hyogo Japan), with a 15 Hz data acquisition frequency. The CTD was
14 used as a standalone unit, and the data were stored in the device's memory. After the CTD was
15 pulled from the water, the data were downloaded and subjected to an initial quality control
16 procedure. Inconsistent data due to systematic and random errors were deleted, and these data
17 gaps were filled using linear interpolation such that only the profiles with a level of
18 interpolation of $\leq 5\%$ were included in the analysis. During pre-processing of the CTD data,
19 spurious data were detected and excluded based on a maximum rate of change of each
20 variable; values exceeding this limit were excluded. We used a Gaussian filter to fill the gaps
21 left by the removal of inconsistent data. After the pre-processing, we evaluated the profiles at
22 0.5-m depth intervals from the surface to the bottom, and values that differed from the
23 average by more than 3 times the standard deviation of each block were eliminated (EMERY;
24 THOMSON, 2001).

25 Hourly water sample were sampled in duplicates, a total of 26 samples in each
26 campaign for the analyses of DOC, DIC, POC and Chl-*a*. Water samples were filtered with
27 pre-combusted (at 450°C, 12h) GF/F Whatman fiberglass filters with a 0.7 μm mesh for
28 further analysis of DOC, DIC, POC and isotopic composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$) of POM
29 (particulate organic matter). Chlorophyll *a* (Chl-*a*) was quantified in samples retained in AP40
30 fiberglass filters until saturation. It was not possible to evaluate the POC from the rainy
31 season campaign of May 2014, due to loss during transport to the laboratory. The filtered
32 water samples and the filters were kept under refrigeration according to storage protocols until
33 their testing in the lab (GRASSHOFF; KREMLING; EHRHARDT, 1999). Mangrove leaves
34 (*Rhizophora mangle* and *Avicennia Shaueriana*) were collected to measure its isotopic

1 composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$). After being washed, frozen and lyophilized, the plant samples were
2 milled using a knife mill.

3 4 **5.1.2.3. Analytical techniques**

5 DOC and DIC were measured with a Hyper TOC Analyzer (Thermo Fisher
6 Scientific, Delft, Netherlands), according to the manufacturer. For determination of DOC,
7 samples were acidified with HNO_3 (10%) and purged with an inert gas (O_2) to remove
8 inorganic carbon. Next, the organic carbon remaining in the acidified sample (HNO_3) was
9 oxidized by the UV- persulphate (UV_NPOC) photo-oxidation method. The oxidation product
10 (CO_2) of DOC was carried by ultrapure O_2 gas to the non-dispersive infrared analysis detector
11 (NDIR) and then quantified. DIC was measured by the 18% nitric acid oxidation (UV_DIC)
12 methodology that employs acidification of the sample to convert dissolved inorganic carbon
13 in CO_2 before sending it to infrared non-dispersive detectors to measurement. Standards used
14 to prepare mixed calibration curves were potassium hydrogen phthalate, calcium carbonate
15 and hydrogen calcium carbonate, which were diluted to a concentration series adequate for
16 each analysis. The detection limit was 11.63 and 11.42 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ for DOC and DIC
17 respectively.

18 Chl-*a* was extracted from filters in acetone 90% overnight and quantified using a
19 spectrophotometer (JEFFREY; HUMPHREY, 1975). The DOC, DIC and Chl-*a* results were
20 represented by the average of sampling duplicates (Coefficient of Variation <10%) to each
21 hour of the tidal cycle.

22 The elemental and isotopic compositions C and N in the suspended particulate
23 material and leaves were determined using a Flash 2000 elemental analyzer, with a Conflo IV
24 combined to a Delta V Advantage mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific IRMS). The
25 analytical control was performed by sampling replicates (Coefficient of Variation <10%) and
26 certified standards (Elemental Microanalysis Protein Standard) resulting in a 95% precision.
27 The SIAR model (*Stable Isotope Analysis in R*) was used to calculate the mixture of carbon
28 sources.

29 30 **5.1.2.4. Assessment of the carbon discharge**

31 Hourly instant current velocities were measured every hour with an ADCP
32 (Sontek/YSI) with a 1500 MHz frequency, towed on a boat moving across the estuarine MTZ,
33 perpendicularly to the water flow, to integrate the entire river section. The equipment was
34 programmed for a 5-second burst interval with 0.25 m cells each, at depths between 6 and 7

1 meters in the rainy season and 3 to 4 meters in the dry season. The transported volume (T_v) or
 2 discharge (Q_f) in the mean area of the transversal section ($A=A(x, Z)$) was calculated:

$$3 \quad T_v = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \left[\frac{1}{A} \iint_A \vec{v} \cdot \vec{n} dA \right] dt$$

4 Where $\vec{v} = \vec{v}(x, Z, t)$ is the velocity vector, \vec{n} is the vector normal to section A; T is
 5 the time interval of a full tidal cycle; x is the horizontal distance of the section; and Z is the
 6 depth (MIRANDA; CASTRO; KJERFVE, 2002). Freshwater percentage in the transported
 7 volume and water residence time were calculated according to MIRANDA, CASTRO AND
 8 KJERFVE (2002) and JONGE, (1992), based on the flows measured in the transversal
 9 section.

10 The salinity average of the estuarine system was calculated assuming a mixing of
 11 marine (V_p) and continental (V_f) water volumes in a semidiurnal tidal cycle, when the entire
 12 volume is removed from the system during the ebb tide. Therefore, for the purpose of
 13 conservation of mass (volume) we used:

$$14 \quad S = \frac{V_p}{(V_p + V_f)} S_0$$

15 Where S is the estuary's mean salinity (g.kg^{-1}) during flood and ebb tides,
 16 assuming that it is well mixed, and S_0 is the seawater salinity of the adjacent oceanic region
 17 (FEISTEL, 2003; LUKETINA, 1998; MIRANDA; CASTRO; KJERFVE, 2002).

18 The freshwater fraction (V_{fw}) was calculated:

$$19 \quad V_{fw} = \frac{V_f}{(V_p + V_f)}$$

20 The flushing time (T_D) and the Residence Time (RT) represent the time in which
 21 one water particle remains within the estuarine system during the flood and ebb tides.
 22 According to Ketchum (1950), the T_D for liquid volumes and the RT of the water in an
 23 estuarine system are the ratio between the volume of freshwater (V_{fw} , m^3) and the discharge
 24 (Q_f , $\text{m}^3 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$) in the MTZ:

$$25 \quad RT = \frac{V_f}{Q_f}$$

26 The DOC, DIC and POC flows were obtained according to the following
 27 equation:

$$28 \quad T_{XC} = \iint_A \varphi \vec{v} \cdot \vec{n} dA = \iint_A \varphi \cdot u dA = \overline{\varphi u} A$$

29 where T_{XC} is the discharge of carbon fractions [$\text{kg} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$], u is the integrated average
 30 velocity in the water column ($\text{m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$), φ is the average concentration of carbon geochemical
 31 fractions to each hour, DOC, POC and DIC ($\text{mg} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$), and A is the average area of the section
 32 transversal to the direction of the flow (m^2). This methodology has been successfully applied

1 to this estuary (DIAS et al., 2016; DIAS; MARINS; MAIA, 2013b).

3 5.1.2.5. *Statistical analysis*

4 Spearman correlation coefficients were calculated using a raw data matrix to
5 explore possible correlations among variables for each campaign separately. Principal
6 component analysis (PCA) was performed for the rainy and dry seasons separately to describe
7 the relationships between salinity, pH, FWP, RT, DIC, DOC, POC and Chl-*a*. The hourly
8 samples were taken as cases, and the parameters as variables. A correlation matrix was created
9 (data were normalized by z scores) for extracting the eigenvalues and eigenvectors.
10 Thereafter, the principal components were obtained by multiplying an eigenvector by the
11 original correlated variables. A t-test was applied to evaluate differences of DOC and DIC
12 averages between the sampling campaigns.

14 5.1.3. Results

15 5.1.3.1. *Hydrology and water chemistry and Chl-*a**

16 Salinity varied between 5.5 and 36.3 g.kg⁻¹ (Figure 8A). Salinity exhibited strong
17 seasonal variations, with higher salinity during the dry season relative to the wet season. The
18 thermohaline indexes proposed by Dias et al. (2013a) for the Jaguaribe River estuary and the
19 adjacent continental shelf were applied to this salinity range to characterize the water masses
20 occurring in the estuary. The measured salinities were typical of coastal waters (34.5 - 36) in
21 the dry season and typical of estuarine waters in the rainy season (Table 4).

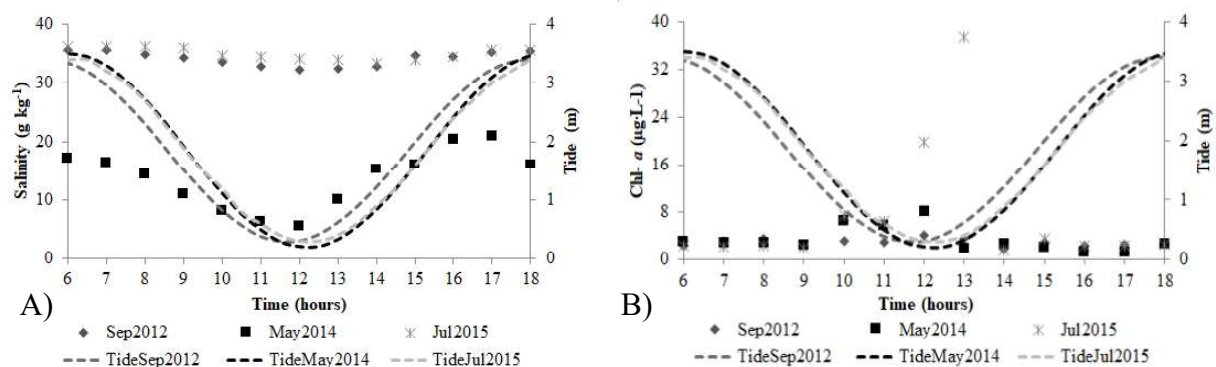


Figure 8 - Temporal variation of (A) salinity and (B) Chl-*a* concentrations in the dry and rainy seasons.

23
24 Instantaneous water discharges measured in the Jaguaribe River estuary ranged
25 from 7 to 877 m³.s⁻¹ (Table 4) similar to previous studies (DIAS et al., 2011; DIAS;

1 MARINS; MAIA, 2009). A bidirectional flux in the MTZ was observed during both seasons
2 demonstrating a relevant influence of tides in the system, mainly in the dry period. Flood tide
3 flows were greater than ebb tide ones in the dry season, but very similar in the rainy season,
4 indicating greater saline intrusion into the estuary during dry seasons (Table 4).

5 The total water volume (TV) in the Jaguaribe River estuary varied between $1.6 \times$
6 10^5 and 2×10^7 m³. The average volume was very similar between tides, except in September
7 2012, when the average TV was one order of magnitude greater during the flood period (Table
8 4) indicating a net entrance of marine water. Freshwater RT and the freshwater fraction of the
9 total volume (FWP) in the estuary were extremely low in the dry season due to extensive
10 drought conditions, ranging from 8 to 44 min and from 0.5 to 11.8%, respectively (Table 4).
11 During the 2014 rainy season, there was a 10-fold increase of RT and FWP (158 to 316 min
12 and 42.5 to 84.9% respectively). In both seasons, the higher RT and FWP for each tidal cycle
13 occurred at low tide, when discharge and marine influence were lower.

14 Chl-*a* concentrations varied from 1.2 to 37.5 $\mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$, displaying a constant pattern
15 most of the time, but showed a peak when solar irradiation was most intense (around midday)
16 in May 2014 and July 2015 campaigns and this matched with the tidal change from ebb to
17 flood tide (Figure 8B). Mean Chl-*a* concentrations were 2.8 ± 0.6 (1.7 to 4.1), 3.0 ± 2.1 (1.2 to
18 8.0) and 7.0 ± 10.0 (1.6 to 37.5) $\mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$ in September 2012, May 2014 and July 2015
19 respectively. The highest Chl-*a* concentration was observed at midday in July 2015.

21 5.1.3.2. *Hydrochemistry and biogeochemical controls of OM and DIC concentrations*

22 POC concentrations varied from 41.2 to 261.4 $\mu\text{mol.L}^{-1}$ (Figure 9A), with mean
23 values of 57.6 ± 8.1 $\mu\text{mol.L}^{-1}$ and 84.1 ± 62.2 $\mu\text{mol.L}^{-1}$ for the 2012 and 2015 campaigns,
24 respectively. Although POC was not determined in the rainy season, a previous sampling in
25 the MTZ in the rainy season of 2016 (unpublished results of author) showed similar
26 concentrations ($68.5 \mu\text{mol.L}^{-1}$) to these observed in the earlier two campaigns, suggesting no
27 significant seasonal difference. The similarity between seasons results from the extended
28 drought period from 2012 to 2016. The POC concentrations were practically constant during
29 the tidal cycle in September 2012. In July 2015, at the change of the tide, about four times
30 increase in POC (261.6 μM) happened as observed to Chl-*a*.

31

32

Table 4 - Minimum, maximum and mean values of salinity (S), temperature (T), water flow (Qf), total water volume (TV), freshwater percentage (FWP), residence time (RT).

	S (g.kg ⁻¹)	T (°C)	Qf (m ³ s ⁻¹)		TV (10 ⁵ m ³)		FWP (%)		RT (min)	
			Ebb	Flood	Ebb	Flood	Ebb	Flood	Ebb	Flood
September 2012	32.2 - 35.7 (34.2±1.3)	27.3 - 29.5 (28.3±0.6)	7 - 48 (31±18.1)	27 - 267 (160±79.5)	1.6 - 11 (6.8±4.0)	6.1 - 60 (36±17.7)	2.2 - 11.8 (6.4±3.7)	2.7 - 11.2 (6.2±3.5)	8 - 44 (24±13.8)	10 - 42 (23±13.1)
May 2014	5.5 - 21 (13.7±5.1)	29.7 - 30.6 (30.3±0.3)	92 - 335 (232±80)	73 - 389 (244±125)	21 - 75 (50±17.9)	16 - 87 (55±27.9)	52 - 83 (64.8±12.0)	42.5 - 84.9 (59.4±16.5)	197 - 309 (241±44.6)	158 - 316 (222±61.4)
July 2015	33.1 - 36.3 (34.5±1.0)	27.1 - 29.1 (28.1±0.8)	70 - 552 (316±195.5)	181 - 877 (411±257.0)	16 - 120 (71±43.6)	40 - 200 (92±57.4)	0.5 - 6.3 (2.9±2.5)	2.2 - 8.2 (5.3±2.5)	2 - 23 (11±9.3)	8 - 31 (20±9.4)

1 DOC concentrations varied from 34.6 to 614.9 $\mu\text{mol.L}^{-1}$, with mean values of $429.7 \pm$
 2 $125.2 \mu\text{mol.L}^{-1}$, $419.1 \pm 96.6 \mu\text{mol.L}^{-1}$ and $130.9 \pm 60.3 \mu\text{mol.L}^{-1}$ for the 2012, 2014 and 2015
 3 campaigns, respectively. DOC concentrations did not show a clear seasonal pattern. There were
 4 no differences between DOC concentrations in the first two campaigns ($p > 0.01$), but DOC
 5 concentrations in July 2015 were more than three times lower than those observed in May 2014
 6 ($p < 0.01$) and Sep 2012 ($p < 0.01$). The temporal variability of DOC increased in the ebb tide and
 7 a decreased in the flood tide. As well as POC, DOC concentrations were higher during the change
 8 of tide (Figure 9A and 9B). DOC was the dominant fraction of TOC concentrations during the
 9 dry season, ranging from 46 to 91%, with mean values of 87 and 61% of TOC in the 2012 and
 10 2015 campaigns, respectively.

11

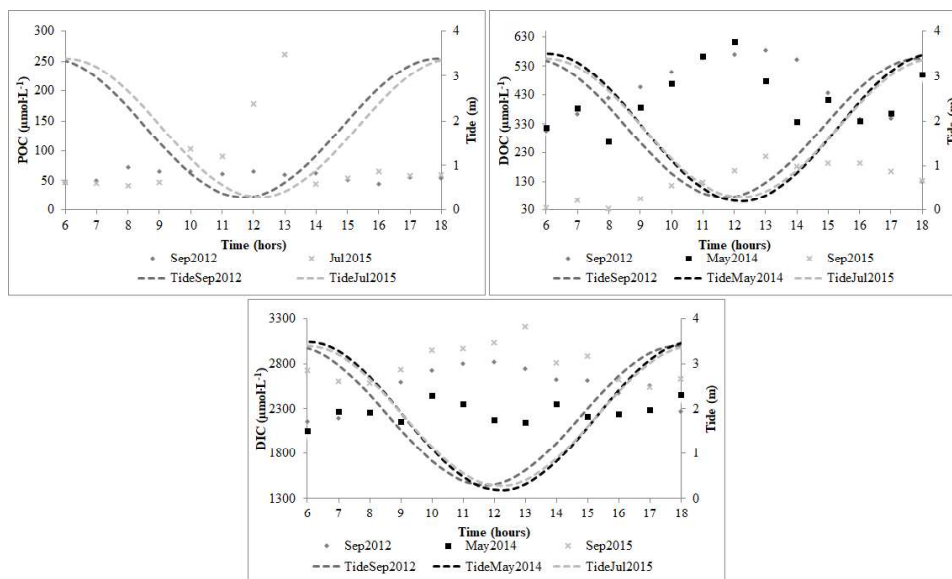


Figure 9 - Temporal variation of (A) POC, (B) DOC and (C) DIC concentrations in the dry and rainy seasons.

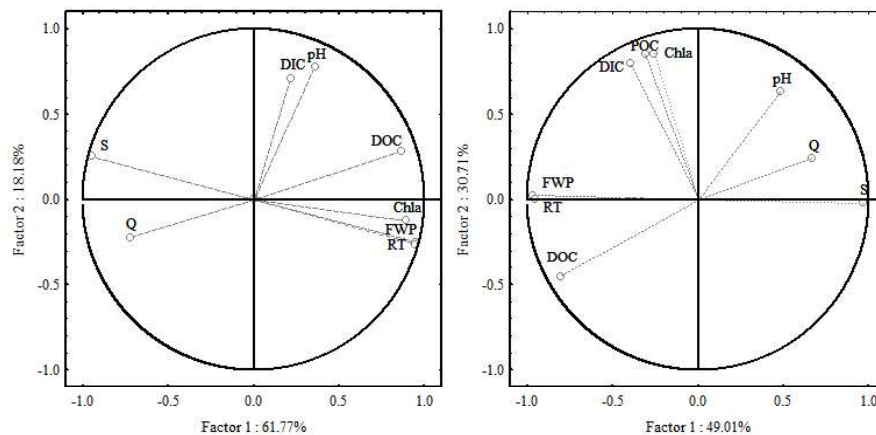
12

13 DIC concentrations varied from 2,057 to 3,217 $\mu\text{mol.L}^{-1}$, and mean values of $2,558 \pm$
 14 $212 \mu\text{mol.L}^{-1}$, $2,264 \pm 113 \mu\text{mol.L}^{-1}$ and $2,796 \pm 197 \mu\text{mol.L}^{-1}$ for the 2012, 2014 and 2015
 15 campaigns, respectively. DIC concentrations were very variable, being statistically different
 16 among the three campaigns ($p < 0.01$ for the three t-test for DIC variability), with higher
 17 concentrations in 2015. Tides notably influenced DIC concentrations in 2012 and 2015 (dry
 18 season), but not in the 2014 rainy season, showing a seasonal dependence (Figure 9C).

19

20 Results of PCA to dry and rainy seasons were represented in Figures 6A and 6B. The
 21 factors 1 and 2 explain about 80 % of the data variance to both seasons. The PCA revealed that
 22 estuarine hydrodynamic and biological component control OM dynamics in the Jaguaribe River
 23 estuary during the rainy season (Figure 10A). Factor 1 explains 61.77% of the data variance. It is
 24 dominated by S, FWP, TR, Chl-*a* and DOC, revealing that DOC covaried inversely with salinity
 25 and positively with FWP, RT, and Chl *a*. DIC was related only to pH, and they dominated the
 26 factor 2 of the PCA, which explains about 18.18% of the variance. During the dry season, Factor
 27 1 explained 49.09% of the data variance. It is dominated by S, FWP, TR and DOC, revealing that
 DOC covaried inversely with salinity and positively with FWP, RT. POC, Chl-*a* and DIC

1 dominated factor 2, explaining 30.71% of data variability.
2



3 **Figure 10** - Principal Components Analysis (PCA) for (A) rainy and (B) dry seasons of the
4 salinity, pH, Chl-a, RT, FWP, DOC, DIC and POC.

5
6 The results of the PCA and the Spearman correlation analysis (Table 5) were
7 consistent in most part of the relations. DOC concentrations were shown to be positively
8 correlation with the FWP and RT, whereas the DOC concentrations were strongly and inversely
9 correlated with salinity in both seasons. POC presented significant positive correlation with Chl-
10 a. However, in Table 5 no significant correlations were found between Chl-a and DOC in rainy
11 season and POC correlated positively with FWP and RT and negatively with salinity. Besides,
12 DIC shown negative correlation with salinity.
13

Table 5 - Spearman correlation of salinity (S), water flow (Q_f), freshwater percentage (FWP) and residence time (RT) with particulate organic carbon (POC), dissolved organic carbon (DOC), dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), chlorophyll a (Chl-a) concentrations and POC, DOC and DIC fluxes (T_{POC} , T_{DOC} and T_{DIC}) in the Jaguaribe River estuary ($\alpha = 0.01$). Bold values are significant correlation at $p < 0.01$.

		S	Q_f	FWP	RT	Chl a	DOC	DIC	POC
Rainy season (n=13; p<0.01)	Chl a	-0,670	-0,434	0,670	0,670	1,000			-
	DOC	-0,621	-0,456	0,621	0,621	0,335	1,000		-
	DIC	-0,016	-0,247	0,016	0,016	0,137	0,192	1,000	-
	T_{DOC}	0,313	0,857	-0,313	-0,313	-0,390	-0,033	-0,192	-
	T_{DIC}	0,566	0,984	-0,566	-0,566	-0,495	-0,440	-0,170	-
Dry season (n=26; p<0.01)	Chl a	-0,385	-0,345	0,387	0,375	1,000			
	DOC	-0,713	-0,641	0,708	0,716	0,252	1,000		
	DIC	-0,522	0,059	0,523	0,515	0,543	-0,026	1,000	
	POC	-0,503	-0,354	0,506	0,498	0,686	0,312	0,565	1,000
	PN	-0,601	-0,454	0,606	0,597	0,780	0,420	0,570	0,938
	T_{DOC}	-0,135	0,638	0,128	0,153	-0,093	0,073	0,068	-0,078
	T_{DIC}	0,446	0,994	-0,448	-0,437	-0,325	-0,646	0,095	-0,326
T_{POC}	0,340	0,911	-0,341	-0,331	-0,086	-0,617	0,240	-0,074	

1 5.1.3.3. C:N ratios, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values

2 The C:N ratio of the SPM was between 5.9 and 12.5, with similar mean
 3 values of 10.5 and 10.2 for the 2012, and 2015 campaigns, respectively. There was no
 4 clear trend in C:N ratios during tide variation. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature ranged from -28.9 to -
 5 25‰ ($-27.0\text{‰} \pm 1.1$), $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values seem to be directly correlated to the tidal cycle
 6 (Figure 11A and 11B). The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ isotopic composition of the SPM ranged from 2.2 to
 7 6‰ ($4\text{‰} \pm 1.0$) but seems to be independent from the ebb and flow tides (Figure 11B).
 8 The POC:Chl-*a* ratio varied from 83.6 to 447.6, with similar averages of 254.6 and
 9 232.9 for the 2012, and 2015 campaigns, respectively. Low values (<200) occurred
 10 mainly in low tide in July2015 (Figure 11C).
 11

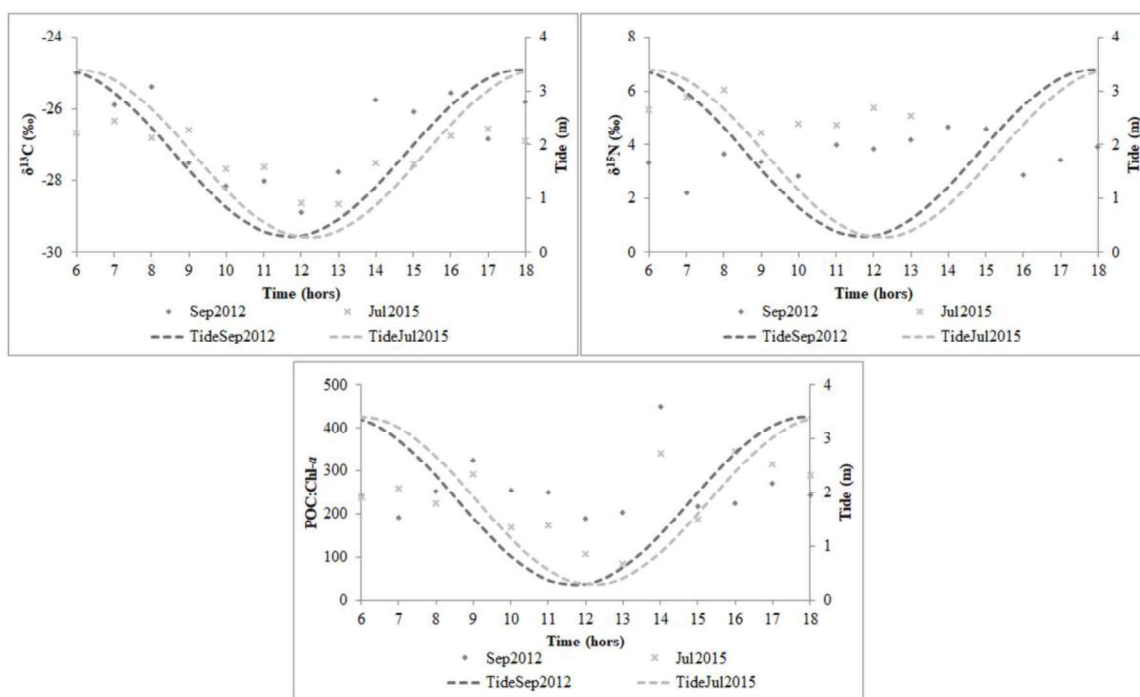


Figure 11 - Temporal variation of (A) $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, (B) $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and (C) POC:Chl-*a* in the dry season.

12

13 In relation to tides, carbon concentrations normalized by weight, in the SPM
 14 were similar between flood and ebb tide ($0.64 \pm 0.34\%$ and $0.67 \pm 0.34\%$, respectively)
 15 as well as for the carbon isotopic composition and C:N molar ratio ($-27.1 \pm 1.18\text{‰}$, 10.1
 16 ± 1.6 and $-26.8 \pm 0.94\text{‰}$, 10.5 ± 1.7 , respectively). On a volumetric basis, the POC
 17 contribution to the total organic carbon (TOC) was higher in the 2015 tidal cycle,
 18 representing 39%, while in 2012 it represented 13%. In relation to tides, the POC
 19 contribution was similar between ebb and flood during the dry periods ($\sim 30\%$). The

1 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values of mangroves leaves were of -28.9‰ and 5.5‰ for *Avicennia*
2 *shaueriana* and -27.6‰ and 3.3‰ for *Rhizophora mangle* respectively, ranging in an
3 interval set for C_3 plants (REZENDE et al., 1990; VILHENA et al., 2018).

4 5 **5.1.4. Discussion**

6 The Jaguaribe River estuary experiences a decrease in freshwater input
7 caused by the decrease of the annual rainfall in the region, an effect of climate changes,
8 strengthened by river damming (DIAS; MARINS; MAIA, 2009; GODOY; LACERDA,
9 2013). Droughts have caused a fragmentation of the longitudinal hydrological
10 continuum in the Jaguaribe River at ~36 km of the estuarine mouth in the dry season,
11 characterizing the system temporarily as a tidal creek. Consequently, the supply of
12 sediments from the watershed to the estuary and the SPM transport to the coastal zone
13 have decreased (DIAS et al., 2016; DIAS; MARINS; MAIA, 2013b). On the other
14 hand, the seawater intrusion has increased in the estuary, favoring the occurrence of
15 marine geochemical processes and salt accumulation in the estuary (DIAS et al., 2016).
16 The sampling period corresponded to a severe drought in the region, it is expected a
17 decrease of carbon fluxes through the estuary and a large input of marine and
18 mangrove-derived OM.

19 20 **5.1.4.1. Organic matter sources**

21 In the dry and rainy seasons, the strong positive correlations between DOC
22 and RT and FWP showed that DOC variability was strongly related to the estuarine
23 dynamics and associated with continental waters. This is expected for the rainy season
24 when a substantial freshwater input occurred in the estuary, but not so much for the dry
25 season when salinity was typically of coastal waters and varied little. During flood and
26 high tide, the DOC concentrations were lowest. On the other hand, DOC concentrations
27 were highest during the ebb and low tide, showing the strong influence of tides on the
28 estuarine flushing and DOC concentrations, as well as POC, FWP and RT. The
29 maximum DOC concentrations in ebb tide might be a result of the higher supply of OM
30 from tidal creeks in ebb tide (REZENDE et al., 1990, 2007) as well as the release of
31 mangrove-derived DOC to the water column through tidal pumping of pore water
32 (KRISTENSEN et al., 2008). DOM fluorescence observed in the Jaguaribe River
33 estuary, during a campaign also performed in May 2014, supports the predominance of

1 allochthonous DOM sources composed by humic substances (CAVALCANTE et al.,
2 2016). The non-correlation between DOC and Chl-*a* suggests weak phytoplankton
3 contribution to DOM during the dry and rainy seasons and the dominance of terrestrial
4 sources in both seasons. In the rainy season, the PCA showed that DOC and Chl-*a* were
5 driven by estuarine hydrodynamics.

6 Overall, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signal of OM derived from continent and ocean are
7 distinct, with more enriched $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in the marine OM (-23‰ to -18‰) than in the
8 terrestrial (-30‰ to -25‰) and freshwater phytoplankton (-28‰ to -32‰) (BAUER,
9 2002; YE et al., 2017). In the Jaguaribe River estuary, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -POM average was -
10 $27\pm 1.1\text{‰}$ pointing to the predominance of continental sources. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ is an efficient tool
11 to differentiate marine organic matter, but it is weak to distinguish fluvial phytoplankton
12 against continental OM sources due to their close carbon isotopic signature (GUO et al.,
13 2015). Then, POC:Chl-*a* can be used to elucidate doubts between terrestrial and
14 autochthonous source (SAVOYE et al., 2012). The majority of POC:Chl-*a* ratios from
15 Jaguaribe River estuary were above 200 (Figure 11C), indicating that POC was
16 predominantly detrital or degraded material (BIANCHI et al., 1997). POC:Chl-*a* ratios
17 below 200 occurred in high tide when marine phytoplankton contribution was higher,
18 and at the turning of tide in Jul 2015. The depleted $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values associated with low
19 POC:Chl-*a* ratios in July 2015 was indicative of freshwater phytoplankton as a POM
20 source.

21 However, the little freshwater volume ($<12\%$) and high salinity in the
22 estuary, during the dry season, avoids freshwater phytoplankton from upstream regions.
23 Therefore, the phytoplankton contribution to $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -POC values is probably originated
24 from the shrimp farm since the dominants phytoplankton species from ponds (diatoms
25 and *Pseudanabaena cf limnetica*) (CASÉ et al., 2008) were also founded in the riverine
26 zone of the Jaguaribe River (LACERDA et al., 2018; MOLISANI et al., 2013). Then,
27 the phytoplankton derived from shrimp pounds might have $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values as depleted as
28 the riverine. Since it was not possible to differentiate fluvial phytoplankton against
29 continental OM sources through isotopic analyses, it was employed a two end-member
30 mixing model to assess the relative contributions of marine and non-marine POM to the
31 Jaguaribe River estuary. The non-marine source corresponds to the continental
32 component (vegetation, soils and sediments) and fluvial phytoplankton. The isotopic
33 composition of carbon and nitrogen in these two sources were: non-marine: $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ $-27.9 \pm$
34 1.4‰ ; $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ $5.9 \pm 1.7 \text{‰}$ and marine: $-21.0 \pm 0.8 \text{‰}$; $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ $6.0 \pm 0.8 \text{‰}$ (BEZERRA et

1 al., 2015; REZENDE et al., 1990). The SIAR isotope model emphasizes the
 2 contribution of non-marine organic matter (94%; ranging from 87 to 98%) when
 3 compared to marine (6%; ranging from 2 to 12%) (Figure 12).

4

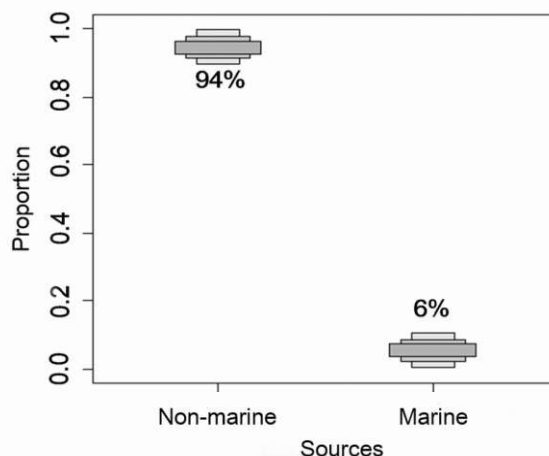


Figure 12 - Model SIAR for Particulate Organic Carbon considering two sources of organic material during the 2012 and 2015 tidal cycles (25%; 75% and 95% represented by different bars).

5

6 The SPM generated in the higher portion of the basin are trapped in the
 7 Castanhão dam, being liberated only when its floodgates are opened (GODOY;
 8 LACERDA, 2014). The reduction of sediment supply is magnified during intense
 9 droughts condition because the estuary became disconnected from the fluvial continuum
 10 at Itaiçaba city. Then, during the dry season, the SPM originates mainly from the
 11 estuary itself and soils of the lower portion of the watershed (GODOY; LACERDA,
 12 2014). As mangroves are the predominant vegetation at the estuary vicinity, they are
 13 probably the principal OM source to the estuary. As can be seen through the similarity
 14 between the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values of POC average and mangrove leaves. This
 15 significant allochthonous POC source is possibly linked with the rapid expansion of
 16 mangrove areas. Rezende *et al.* (1990) showed the mangrove as a significant POC
 17 source to the estuary, varying from 16 to 100% of the total organic carbon flux in a
 18 mangrove creek, and that this contribution was very dependent on tidal amplitude.
 19 Therefore, the results obtained so far in the Jaguaribe River in the current circumstances
 20 are very compatible with other regions characterizing the system, at the moment, as a
 21 tidal creek.

22

23

5.1.4.2. Controls of organic matter and DIC interannual variations

Concentrations of DOC and POC in the Jaguaribe River estuary were typical of estuaries dominated by tides (MIDDELBURG; HERMAN, 2007) and under similar climate and anthropogenic pressures (Table 6). However, these DOC values were more than 50% lower than those reported to the year 2004 to the Jaguaribe River estuary by Mounier et al. (2018). The DOC reduction might be associated to the low terrestrial carbon fluxes as a result of drought and river damming (VAZQUEZ et al., 2011; YU et al., 2011). The lowest DOC concentrations, during the 2015 campaign, had already been measured in the estuary, but only in the estuarine mouth where it is more diluted by seawater (Zocatelli *et al.* 2007). The distinct DOC values in this campaign showed the vulnerability of Jaguaribe River estuary to changes in freshwater supply.

Table 6 - Anthropogenic pressures, water discharges and carbon concentrations in tropical estuaries.

Estuary (County)	Qf (m ³ s ⁻¹)	Anthropic pressures	DOC (μmol.L ⁻¹)	DIC (μmol.L ⁻¹)	POC (μmol.L ⁻¹)	Reference
Wanquan River (China)	69 - 336	Aquaculture. Urbanization Industry Damming	75 – 203	-	25 – 158	WU et al., (2013)
Yellow River (China)	600 - 693	Agriculture Damming	217 – 258	2.816 – 3.634	-	GU et al. (2009)
Tsengwen River (Taiwan)	0 - 130	Agriculture Damming	100 - 680	-	30 - 660	HUNG; HUANG, (2005)
Betsiboka River (Africa)	271	Aquaculture. Deforestation	41.6 – 125	-	41.6 – 167	RALISON et al., (2008)
Paraíba do Sul River (Brazil)	-	Agriculture. Livestock Farming. Industry. Urbanization	100 – 558	-	-	KRÜGER et al., (2003)
Jaguaribe River (Brazil)	7 - 877	Damming Aquaculture	35 - 615	2.057 - 3.217	41 - 261	This study

DIC concentrations in the Jaguaribe River estuary were similar to those observed in estuaries of the largest rivers in the world, as the Pearl River estuary (GUO et al., 2008; JIAO et al., 2008; ZHAI; YAN; QI, 2017) (Table 6). In estuaries, DIC is

1 controlled mainly by the mineralogy of the drainage basin, freshwater discharge and
2 weathering intensity (GUO et al., 2008). Besides of low weathering rates, the drainage
3 basin mineralogy of the Jaguaribe River is basically composed by silicates (GODOY,
4 2011; MARINS et al., 2011), that are more resistant to weathering in relation to
5 carbonates minerals, then this two factors were not the cause of the high DIC levels in
6 the estuary. However, the balance of precipitation and evaporation has significant
7 influence in the DIC concentrations in the estuaries under dry climate (CAI et al., 2008).
8 Generally, the high freshwater discharge in the wet season results in a dilution of DIC
9 concentrations (GUO et al., 2008), while high evaporation rates increase DIC
10 concentrations in estuaries (CAI et al., 2008). Therefore, the high DIC concentrations in
11 the Jaguaribe River estuary were probably result of the evaporative process, similarly to
12 a coastal lagoon under Mediterranean climate (DELGADILLO-HINOJOSA et al.,
13 2008). The negative correlation between salinity and DIC (Table 5) occurred due to the
14 DIC dilution by seawaters during the dry season. DIC concentrations reflected the
15 seasonal rainfall variability, being higher during the dry season due to the concentrating
16 effect by the high evaporative water loss and the dilution by higher freshwater
17 discharges in the rainy season, as discussed above.

18 19 **5.1.4.3. Carbon flux in the estuarine interface**

20 In drought periods, estuarine waters presented higher salinity than the
21 adjacent ocean because of the low freshwater input, the intense evaporation and the
22 stronger influence of the tides. In the two campaigns conducted during the dry season,
23 flood tides prevailed in the estuary and, therefore, the hydraulic push generated by the
24 sea was more intense. Such feature resulted in the retention of POC, DOC and DIC in
25 the MTZ (Figure 13A, 13B and 13C), thus exporting none of them. In this season POC,
26 DOC and DIC fluxes were controlled mainly by estuarine discharges.

27 During the rainy season, however, the tidal DOC and DIC fluxes were very
28 similar between both tides (Figure 13A, 13B and 13C), with average DIC fluxes one
29 order of magnitude higher than DOC fluxes. The MTZ of the estuary exported 2×10^4
30 and 1.4×10^5 tons.year⁻¹ of DOC and DIC to the downstream region in the rainy season,
31 respectively. DOC and DIC fluxes were also driven by estuarine discharges and not by
32 their concentrations. Probably, POC exportation had happened in the rainy season, since
33 that MPS and elements associated to it, such as Hg, are exported in the rainy season
34 (DIAS; MARINS; MAIA, 2013; LACERDA et al., 2013).

1 Estuarine water discharges have a central control in DIC, DOC and POC
2 fluxes. Then, it is expected that the gradual reduction of riverine inflow in the Jaguaribe
3 River estuary, by climatological and anthropogenic factors (YU et al., 2011), will
4 further decrease the carbon export capacity by Jaguaribe River. DOC fluxes in the dry
5 season were one order of magnitude greater than in the rainy season, indicating that
6 retention is higher than exportation, suggesting OM accumulation occurs in the estuary
7 during years of low riverine discharge. These factors raise a concern about the
8 environmental quality of the estuarine body because they strengthen the conditions
9 favoring eutrophication processes, which was already been observed in the last
10 campaign of this study.

11 The DOC, POC and DIC fluxes in the Jaguaribe River estuary were below
12 the average for tropical rivers, as estimated by Huang *et al.*, (2012), because the
13 estuarine environment acts like a geochemical barrier promoting the retention of
14 materials. These low fluxes of DOC through the Jaguaribe River estuary contribute to
15 explain the low DOC levels (mean value of $48.5 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) measured in the surface
16 waters of its adjacent continental shelf (CARVALHO et al., 2017). Similarly, the carbon
17 fluxes also decreased after the construction of dams in a semiarid estuary in China (the
18 Yellow River estuary). The Yellow River's DOC, DIC and POC fluxes were 3.39×10^4 ,
19 3.38×10^5 and $7.0 \times 10^4 \text{ ton}\cdot\text{year}^{-1}$ in the dry season, and 3.04×10^4 , 3.57×10^5 and 1.59
20 $\times 10^5 \text{ ton}\cdot\text{year}^{-1}$ in the rainy season, respectively (GU; ZHANG; JIANG, 2009). The low
21 carbon exportation from the MTZ of the Jaguaribe River estuary can also be related to
22 the decreasing rainfall levels in the Brazilian Northeast region promoted by ENZO
23 event like was observed in the Orinoco River (MORA et al., 2014).

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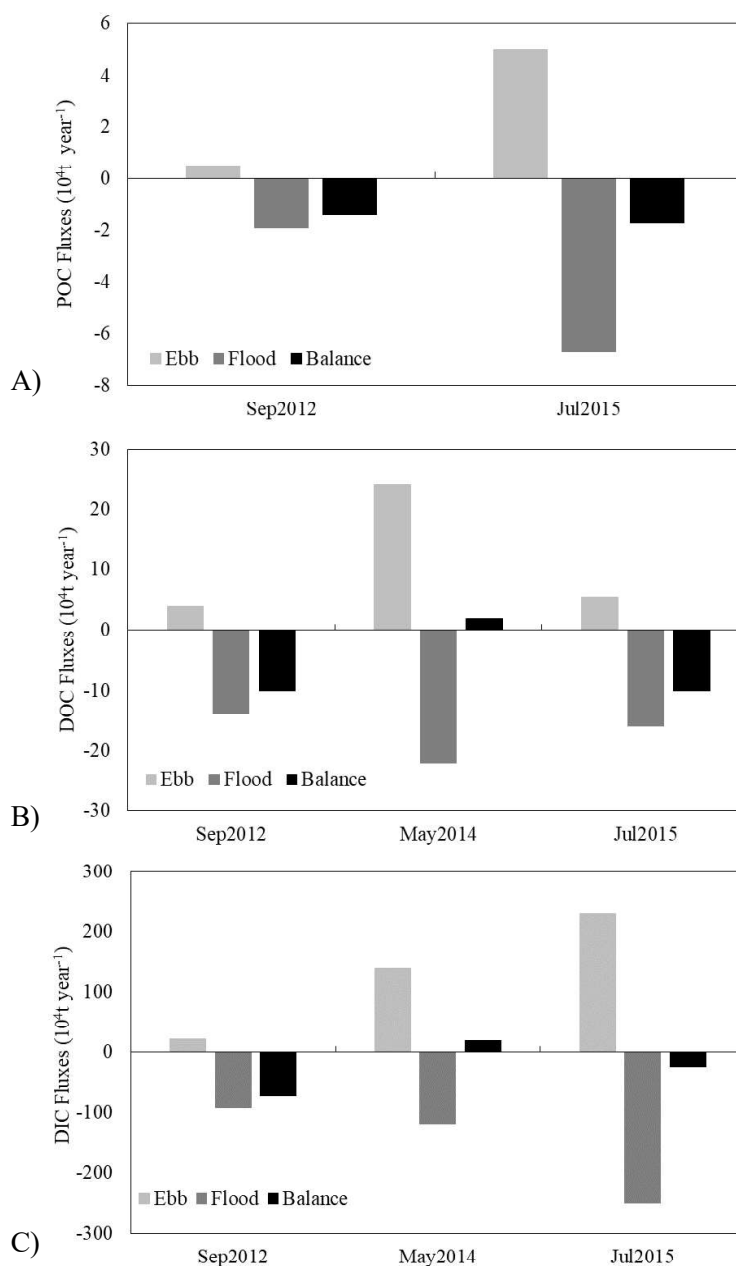


Figure 13 - Fluxes of (A) POC (B) DOC and (C) DIC through cross-section of MTZ of Jaguaribe river estuary for rainy and dry season. Positive values = importation; negative values = exportation.

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3 5.1.5. Conclusions

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The carbon behavior and fluxes in the Jaguaribe River estuary was strongly related to the hydrodynamic parameters such as the residence time, discharge and freshwater percentage. The estuarine OM was preponderantly continental-derived and mangroves might be the main OM source to the estuary. However, the phytoplankton activity showed significant influence on the POM dynamic in the dry season that was probably linked to aquaculture activity. DIC concentrations reflected the seasonal

1 variability of the semiarid climate, being higher in the dry season due the concentrating
2 effect caused by the negative water balance. DOC and DIC concentration were
3 significantly distinct between the sampling campaigns due to the high interannual
4 variability of semiarid region.

5 The decrease of freshwater discharges by river damming and droughts
6 affected the carbon transport through the Jaguaribe River estuary. In the monitored dry
7 seasons, the Jaguaribe River estuary's MTZ was a retainer of organic matter and DIC,
8 while during the rainy season it was an exporter. The DIC and DOC flux was lower than
9 expected for a tropical river but like other Chinese and South American rivers suffering
10 the influence of the construction of reservoirs and decreasing precipitation associated
11 with climate change. Projections pointing to intensification of climate change along the
12 northeastern coast of Brazil tend to reduce carbon fluxes in the region's estuaries, as
13 observed in this study, and may strongly influence the functioning of estuarine
14 ecosystem.

15

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17

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20

21 **Author Contributions**

22

23 MC and FD performed the sampling campaigns. MC performed Chl-*a*, DOC and DIC
24 experiments under the supervision of RM. CR was responsible for POC and isotopic
25 analyses. FD and MC calculated the hydrodynamics parameters and carbon fluxes. MC
26 produced the graphics. The manuscript was written under the lead of MC, with the
27 contribution of RM, FD, and CR.

28

29 **Conflict of Interest Statement**

30 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial
31 or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

32

33

34 **5.1.6. References**

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5.2. ORGANIC MATTER SOURCES IN A HYPERSALINE ESTUARY FROM THE BRAZILIAN SEMIARID REGION

ABSTRACT

This study evaluated the sources, behavior and quality of organic matter (OM) in a semiarid estuary, NE Brazil, under a sharp decrease of freshwater input due to the rainfall scarcity and river damming. The influence of El Nino brought severe drought to the region, leading to the occurrence of hypersaline conditions in the Jaguaribe River estuary and the absence of seasonal variation on suspended particulate material and OM concentrations. The quantification of carbon sources, using the mixing model Stable Isotope Analysis in R (SIAR), showed that terrigenous OM was the dominant source to the estuary. However, dissolved lignin phenols concentrations diminished when the estuary was under hypersaline conditions due to the relative lower fluvial supply and leaching of soils. The marine sources contribution was also relevant to the OM bulk, principally when the estuary was under hypersaline conditions. Besides, an augment of the marine contribution to the estuarine OM with the permanence of drought was observed when compared with a previous study. With the ongoing increase of the freshwater demands for human consumption and the reduction of rainfall in the semiarid region, it is possible that this modification is intensified not only in this estuary but in other semiarid estuaries.

Key-words: organic matter, drought, hypersaline estuary, stable isotopes, dissolved lignin phenols, Jaguaribe River estuary

1 Highlights:

- 2 - El Niño caused the reduction of freshwater, suspended material and organic
3 matter supply to the northeastern estuary, Brazil.
- 4 - Marine intrusion controlled the terrestrial OM delivery to the estuarine waters.
- 5 - Observed highest concentrations of organic matter and chlorophyll a in the creek
6 impacted by shrimp farms.
- 7 - Lignin phenols showed high degradation of terrestrial organic matter
- 8 - The stable carbon isotopic composition reflects the increase of organic matter
9 derived from the sea in the estuary due to the drought intensification.
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1 **5.2.1. Introduction**

2 Freshwater flux is crucial in delivering continental organic matter (OM) to
3 estuaries (HEDGES; KEIL; BENNER, 1997; LEE et al., 2017) besides of to balance
4 tidal inputs of saltwater and marine organic matter (LEBRETON et al., 2016). However,
5 estuaries from Brazilian semiarid coast are undergoing shapely decrease of freshwater
6 input due to the effects of climate and anthropogenic pressures (KROL; BRONSTERT,
7 2007; SCHETTINI; VALLE-LEVINSON; TRUCCOLO, 2017). Droughts are natural
8 phenomena in the semiarid Brazilian because of the insufficiency and unpredictability
9 of precipitation. Beyond that, they are intensified by meteorological events (El Niño and
10 anomalously warm tropical North Atlantic) and climate change (MARENGO et al.,
11 2017). Since water is a scarce resource, several dams were constructed along the rivers
12 to improve water availability and regulate their flow (CAMPOS et al., 2000), resulting
13 in a reduced amount of freshwater reaching the estuary, strong marine intrusion and
14 consequent colonization of the estuary with mangrove (GODOY et al., 2018). This
15 hydric stress reduces the contribution of riverine material to the estuary (DIAS;
16 MARINS; MAIA, 2013; MOLISANI et al., 2013) and consequently to the ocean, as can
17 be observed through the formation of estuarine plume only in episodes of intense
18 rainfall (DIAS; CASTRO; LACERDA, 2013). Besides, this hydric stress favors bank
19 erosion by tides (MARINS et al., 2003).

20 In the Jaguaribe River estuary, located in NE Brazil, carbon fluxes are low
21 in comparison to other tropical rivers due to its low freshwater discharge and
22 consequently strong choking effect imposed by tides. The drought intensification in this
23 region seems to have caused a decline of DOC concentrations in the estuary
24 (CAVALCANTE, 2015).

25 Another important output of the negative water balance is the increase of
26 seawater residence time (RT) in the estuary (DIAS et al., 2016). It provides an ideal
27 condition for the accumulation of suspended particulate material (SPM), nutrients and
28 carbon that can enhance eutrophication and flocculation processes in the estuary (DIAS
29 et al., 2016). The longer seawater residence time can also lead a hypersaline condition,
30 that can reduce OM production via biological activity (PINCKNEY; PAERL; BEBOUT,
31 1995; SOUZA et al., 2003), change chemical properties of dissolved organic matter
32 (DOM) and its behavior (CATALÁ et al., 2013; MENDOZA; ZIKA, 2014).

33 With ongoing environmental changes, less precipitation and more
34 modifications in the hydrology are expected. In such a scenario, OM concentrations can

1 be reduced as well as its source (marine vs. terrestrial) and quality can be changed. All
2 this alters not only OM reactivity but also the estuary functioning as a whole due to its
3 key role in the biogeochemical process as bacterial production, trophic web
4 organization, metal complexation and carbon cycling (SHIN et al., 2016b; VAZQUEZ
5 et al., 2011).

6 The identification of OM sources in estuaries is difficult due to the mixing
7 of several sources and their modifications caused by biogeochemical process. Stable
8 isotope ratios of carbon and nitrogen ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$) provide information regarding sources
9 and turnover of OM in estuaries (GUO et al., 2015; YE et al., 2018). Although $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ is
10 used to trace estuarine organic matter sources, it is not always appropriate. As in cases
11 in which the differences among end-members are small or if isotopic signature
12 alterations during diagenesis and food-chain processing are significant
13 (MIDDELBURG; HERMAN, 2007). Still, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ is a proper tool to identify estuarine
14 organic matter processing. Overall, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signal of OM from continent and ocean are
15 distinct, with more enriched $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values for OM derived from marine phytoplankton
16 (-23‰ to -18‰) than for terrestrial-derived OM (-30‰ to -25‰) (BAUER, 2002).

17 POC/Chl-*a* ratios have been used as an indicator of OM source (LEBRETON et
18 al., 2016; REZENDE et al., 2010). POC/Chl-*a* values above 200 suggest that detrital
19 forms of organic matter are dominant and values below that, it indicates that
20 phytoplankton derived OM dominates (CIFUENTES; SHARP; FOGEL, 1988;
21 SAVOYE et al., 2012). Lignin is a stable phenolic macromolecule restricted to vascular
22 plants and absent in all other living organisms (HEDGES; KEIL; BENNER, 1997), thus
23 lignin oxidation products are being efficiently used to trace and calculate the relative
24 contribution of vascular plant inputs in estuarine systems (HEDGES; KEIL; BENNER,
25 1997; SPENCER et al., 2009; WARD; RICHEY; KEIL, 2012).

26 This work contributes to the improvement of the knowledge on the impacts of an
27 intense drought period caused by the El Niño event and the effects of marine intrusion
28 over the estuarine organic matter geochemistry.

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1 5.2.2. Materials and methods

2 5.2.2.1. Study Area

3 The study took place in the Jaguaribe River estuary, located within the
 4 Northeastern coast of Brazil (Fig. 14), that is marked by a strong seasonal rainfall
 5 regime. The annual rainfall coastal zone ranged from 400 to 2000 mm, with an average
 6 of 912.7mm, during the past 30 years (FUNCEME, 2017). Rainy events start in January
 7 (81mm) and extend to June (52mm), with the highest rainfall in March (238mm). The
 8 scarcity of rain extends from July (16mm) to December (19mm), and between August
 9 and November frequently no precipitation is observed.

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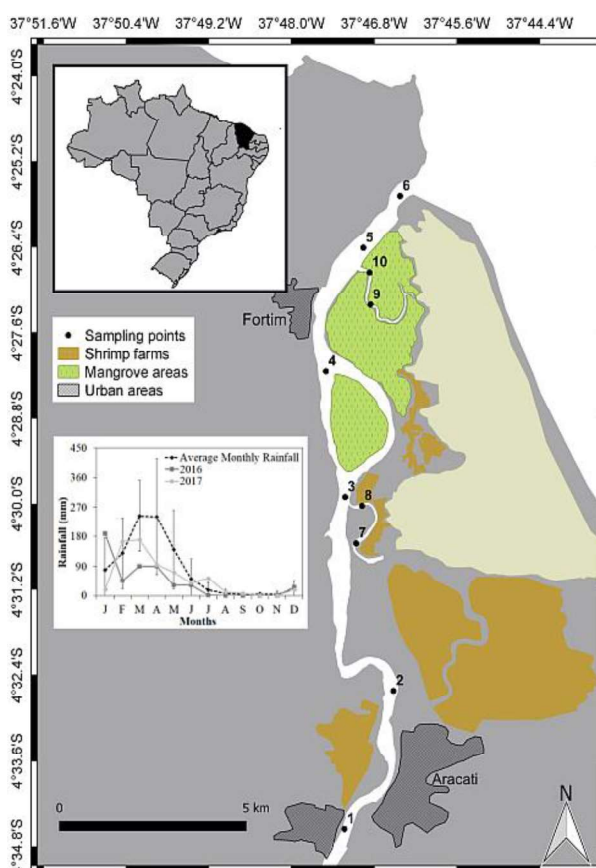


Fig.14. Study area, sampling stations, monthly rainfall averages with standard deviations between 1980 and 2009, and monthly averages in 2016 and 2017

The study years were drier, with a mean annual rainfall of 506.6 in 2016 and 650.2 mm in 2017, due to the effect of the El Niño event that promoted the most severe drought ever recorded in the semiarid region Northeast Brazil between 2012 and 2016 (MARENGO et al., 2017) (Fig. 14). Principally during the year 2016 (ALIZADEH-CHOOBARI, 2017; YEOMAN; JIANG; MITSCH, 2017), occurring a reduction of 62%

1 of precipitation in March when compared with the historical average for this month
2 (238 mm).

3 The tidal regime is semidiurnal and meso-tide, with maximum amplitude
4 reaching 3.0 m (DIAS et al., 2011). Freshwater discharges dropped from 60 - 130 m³s⁻¹
5 to 20 m³s⁻¹ after the built of major dams of the Jaguaribe River (DIAS; MARINS;
6 MAIA, 2013). The temporal variability of the freshwater volume in the estuary reflects
7 in the water RT, that is longer in the dry than the rainy season, reaching extremes values
8 of 0.5 and 13 days respectively.

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10 5.2.2.2. *Sampling and sample processing pre-analyses*

11 Sampling campaigns were carried out in the Jaguaribe River estuary at
12 spring tide, two in the rainy season (March 2016 and June 2017) and one in the dry
13 season (December 2016). The composed precipitation 15 days before each campaign
14 were 57.5, 0 and 59.4 mm in March 2016, December 2016 and June 2017, respectively.
15 Six sampling stations were distributed along the principal channel, two in the tributary
16 tidal creeks Cumbe Chanel (CC) and two in the Amor Chanel (AC) (Fig. 14). The
17 Cumbe Chanel is heavily impacted by shrimp farms because they discharge their
18 effluents directly in it (ESCHRIQUE et al., 2010; LACERDA; SANTOS; MADRID,
19 2006). Whereas, the Amor Chanel is surrounded by a well-preserved mangrove area.

20 A portable YSI multiparametric probe (model professional plus) was used to
21 measure salinity, temperature and dissolved oxygen and a portable pH meter (Metrohm)
22 to measure pH in situ. Bottom sediments and subsurface water were sampled during all
23 campaigns in duplicate with a van Veen sampler and an acrylic Van Dorn bottle,
24 respectively. The fraction of freshwater (f) in each station was calculated from salinity
25 (S), where 35.5 corresponded to the salinity in the oceanic end-member (FRY, 2002):

$$26 \quad f = (35.5 - \text{measured salinity})/35.5$$

27 In addition, end-members samples from soil fluvial plains and mangrove,
28 fluvial bank tree leaves (*Copernicia prunifera*) and mangrove leaves (*Rhizophora*
29 *mangle* and *Avicennia shaueriana*), grasses (*Paspalum sp*), herbs (*Sesuvium*
30 *portulacastrum*) and algae (*Ulva fasciata*), were also collected and characterized to
31 investigate their influence as a carbon source to the estuary.

32 Immediately after sampling, water samples were filtered through pre-
33 combusted (at 450°C, 12h) Whatman GF/F filters with a 0.7 µm mesh to collect
34 suspended particles for further analysis of particulate organic carbon and particulate

1 nitrogen (POC, TPN) and its isotopic composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$) besides suspended
2 particulate material (MPS). After filtration, between 1 and 2 L of samples were
3 acidified, to pH 2 (HCl 32%, p.a.), and DOM was isolated from the water according to
4 the solid-phase extraction (SPE) (DITTMAR et al., 2008). After DOM extraction, the
5 cartridges were desalted (0.01 mol L^{-1} HCl), dried with N_2 , and immediately eluted with
6 40 mL of methanol. The elutes were stored at -16°C in the glass ampoules until further
7 analyses of isotopic composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$) and dissolved lignin phenols.
8 Chlorophyll *a* (Chl-*a*) was quantified in samples retained in AP40 fiberglass filters until
9 saturation, extracted in acetone, and quantified using a spectrophotometer, according to
10 ISO 10260 (1992) protocol.

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12 **5.2.2.3. *Analytical techniques***

13 DOC concentrations from March 2016 campaign were measured, at the
14 Coastal Biogeochemistry Laboratory (Ceará), by UV-persulphate oxidation method with
15 a HiperTOC Analyzer, according to the manufacturer (THERMO). The DOC results of
16 December 2016 and June 2017 were acquired, at Environmental Science Laboratory
17 (Rio de Janeiro), by the high-temperature catalytic oxidation method on an automated
18 TOC analyzer (Shimadzu TOC 5000). The detection limit was $11 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ and $4 \mu\text{mol}$
19 L^{-1} respectively. DOC data reported the mean of three replicate injections, for which the
20 coefficient of variance was $<7\%$. DOC analyses from December 2016 were performed
21 in the both laboratories to evaluate if the results were statistically different between
22 them. The t-test showed no statistical difference in DOC results between them ($p>0.05$).

23 Prior to elemental and isotopic organic carbon and nitrogen analysis, the
24 filters were treated in silver plates with HCl vapor to remove carbonates, sediments
25 were weight ($\sim 10\text{mg}$) and acidified with 1 mol L^{-1} HCl in silver capsules to remove
26 carbonates. Plants samples were weight ($\sim 1.0 \text{ mg}$) in tin combustion capsules. The
27 stable carbon isotopic composition of SPE-DOM was determined following the Seidel
28 et al. (2015) protocol.

29 All elemental and isotopic analyses were made using a Flash 2000 elemental
30 analyzer, with an interface ConFlo IV, combined to a Delta V Advantage mass
31 spectrometer (Thermo Scientific IRMS). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values were expressed in
32 per mil (‰) relative to the PDB standard and atmospheric N_2 respectively. The
33 analytical control was performed by sampling reproductions (Coefficient of Variation
34 $<10\%$) and certified standards resulting above 98% recovering.

1 The mixing model SIAR (Stable Isotope Analysis in R) with three end-
2 members was used to quantify the relative proportions of different sources in POM,
3 DOM and sedimentary OM from the Jaguaribe River estuary based on their $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$.
4 This is a Bayesian mixing model developed by Parnell et al., (2010), that provides the
5 probability density distributions, mean proportion and credibility intervals (25%, 75%
6 and 95%) for each source added to the model, incorporating uncertainty linked to
7 elemental concentrations, isotopic signatures and fractionation. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ marine
8 corresponded to a published isotopic value for marine DOM from the Fortaleza shelf (-
9 22.03‰; CARVALHO et al., 2017) and the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ to an average POM samples from the
10 plume of the Jaguaribe River (6.3‰). $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ from C_3 plant detritus were the
11 average isotopic composition of C_3 plants measured in this study (Table 7) (-28.5‰ and
12 4.9‰). $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of OM sediment-derived were the average isotopic composition
13 of C_3 plants measured in this study (Table 7) (-24.2‰ and 5.4‰)

14 Dissolved lignin phenols were analyzed using the cupric oxide oxidation,
15 and trimethylsilyl derivatives were quantified by capillary gas chromatography (GOÑI;
16 HEDGES, 1990; HEDGES; MANN, 1979). Eight lignin phenols (two cinnamyl phenols
17 “C”, three syringyl phenols “S” and three vanillyl phenols “V”) were measured to
18 evaluate vascular plant sources of dissolved organic matter. These phenol yields are
19 conventionally represented as lambda (Λ_8 ; mg per 100 mg of organic carbon) and Σ_8
20 (the sum of the eight major phenols normalized to the sample volume). Beyond
21 calculation of S/V, C/V and acid/aldehyde ratios, the Lignin Phenol Vegetation Index
22 (LPVI) (TAREQ; KITAGAWA; OHTA, 2011; TAREQ; TANAKA; OHTA, 2004) was
23 used to identify vegetation source. The LPVI considers the plant heterogeneity and the
24 digenetic sequence of the phenolic groups.

25

26 **5.2.3. Results**

27 **5.2.3.1. *Hydochemical variables***

28 The salinity along the main channel of the Jaguaribe River estuary varied
29 between 25.1 and 40.2 gkg^{-1} , with mean of 38.2 gkg^{-1} in March 2016, 36.9 gkg^{-1} in
30 December 2016 and 26.4 gkg^{-1} in June 2017. The estuary presented hypersalinity in
31 both campaigns performed in 2016, with salinity higher than from adjacent coastal
32 water, which varies between 34.5 and 36 gkg^{-1} (CARVALHO et al., 2017). Besides, the
33 estuary presented an inverted salinity gradient during these campaigns, with the salinity
34 increasing landward (Fig. 15a, 15b and 15c). However, the reduction of the salinity,

1 mean of 26.4 gkg^{-1} , and reestablishment of the estuary positive salinity gradient in June
2 2017 showed that these characteristics are not permanent.

3 The freshwater percentage was very low, varying between 0 and 29% with
4 an average of 0% in March 2016 and December 2016, and 26% in June 2017. The
5 secondary channels showed salinity higher than the principal channel in the campaigns
6 performed in 2016. While in June 2017, the salinity averages of the secondary channels
7 were lower (Fig. 15c).

8 The temperature ranged between 27.6°C and 30.8°C , with mean values of
9 30.7°C , 29.7°C and 29.3°C in March 2016, December 2016 and June 2017 respectively.
10 The dissolved oxygen varied from 2.4 to 6.7 mgL^{-1} , showing mean concentrations of
11 4.0, 5.3 and 5.5 mgL^{-1} in March 2016, December 2016 and June 2017 respectively. The
12 pH ranged from 7.4 to 8.0, with averages of 7.7, 7.8 and 7.6 in March 2016, December
13 2016 and June 2017 respectively.

14 SPM concentrations generally varied between 3.3 and 14.3 mgL^{-1} in the
15 estuary (Fig. 15d, 15e and 15f) main channel with an average of 7.6 mgL^{-1} . They were
16 similar to those observed by Dias et al. (2013a) in the dry season, without exhibit
17 seasonal variability ($p>0.05$). However, the spatial MPS distribution showed
18 significantly higher concentrations in the Cumbe channel (mean value of 29.6 mgL^{-1})
19 and Amor channel (mean value of 13.9 mgL^{-1}), than in the main channel (mean value of
20 7.6 mgL^{-1}) ($p<0.05$).

21 Chl-*a* concentrations were relatively low in the estuary proper ($0.4 - 8.4$
22 μgL^{-1}), but high in the Cumbe Channel where values like 35.8 and $58.8 \mu\text{gL}^{-1}$ were
23 measured. Chl-*a* showed a positive correlation with SPM in December 2016 and March
24 2016 ($r=0.53$, $p<0.05$), but in June 2017 there was no correlation between them
25 ($p>0.05$).

26 Similarities among the campaigns were analyzed using multivariate cluster
27 analysis (Fig. S1), considering the parameters evaluated in all of them (hydrochemical
28 parameters, Chl-*a*, and SPM). Two groups were identified: The Group 1 included the
29 March 2016 and December 2016 campaigns, when the estuarine waters presented
30 hypersalinity; and the Group 2 corresponded to June 2017. The groups differed from the
31 others by relative low salinity values in the campaign performed in June 2017 ($p<0.05$,
32 Wilcoxon test). Then, Spearman correlation coefficients were calculated using a raw
33 data matrix to explore possible correlations among variables for each group separately.

34

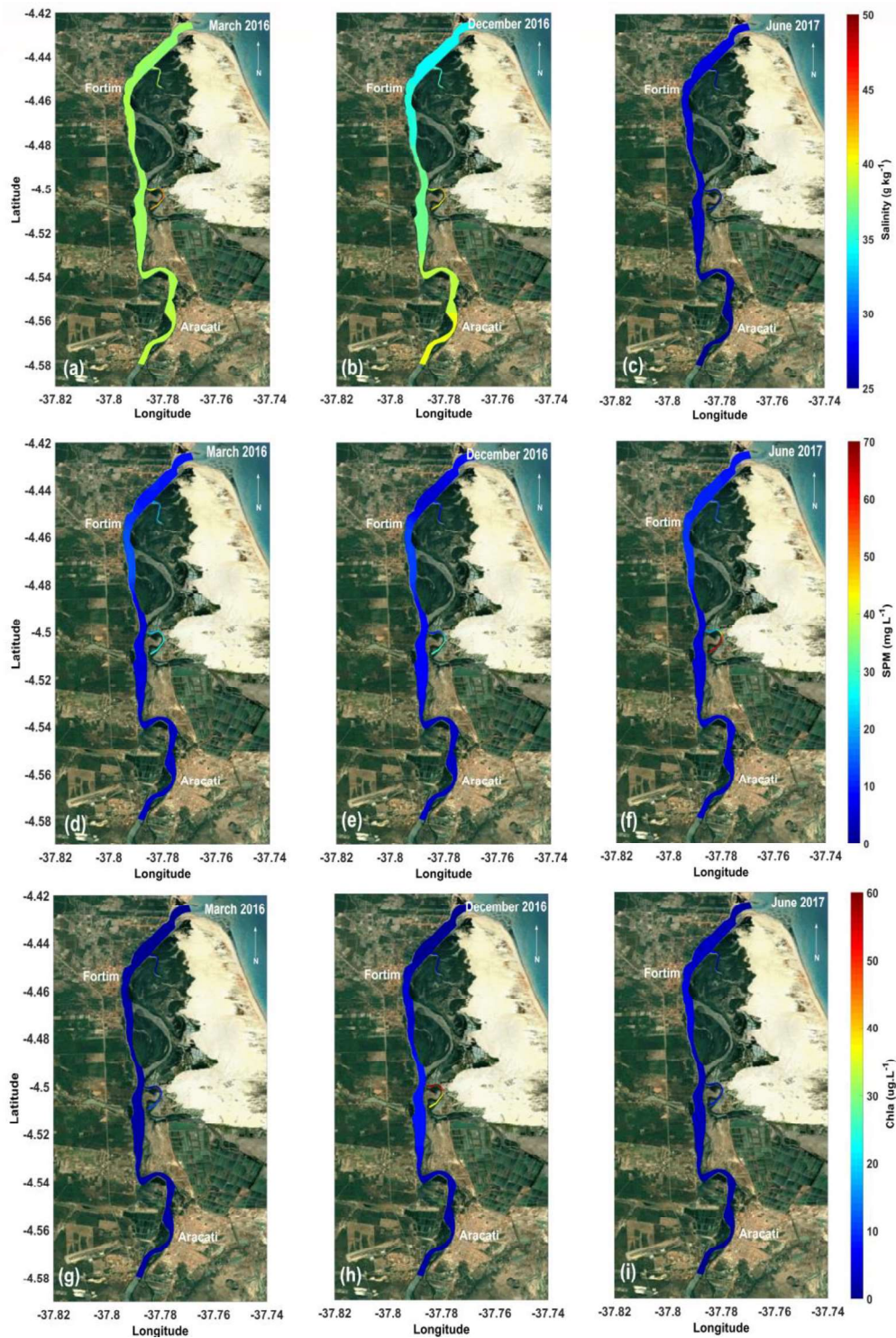


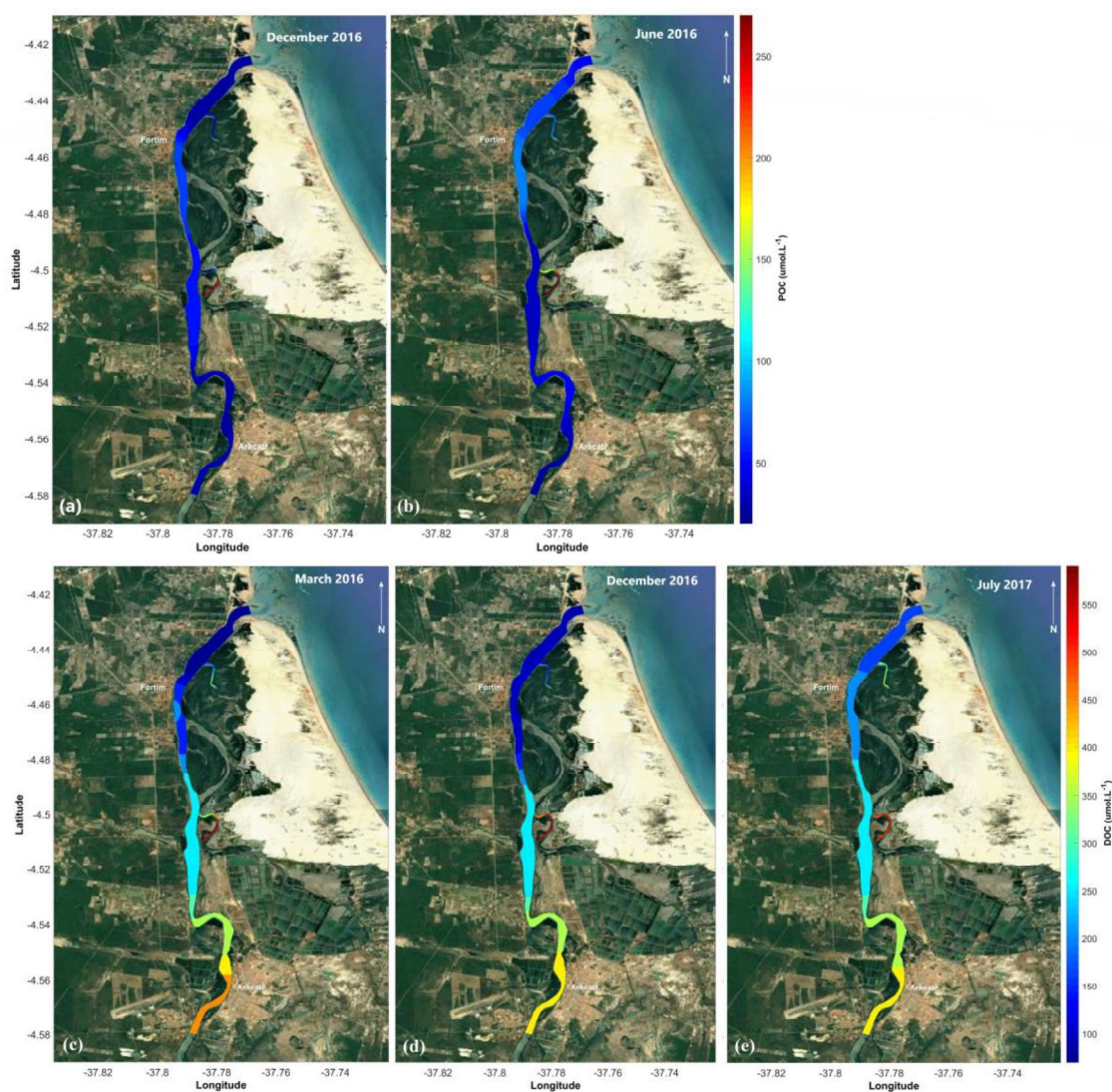
Fig. 15. Distribution of (a-c) salinity, (d-f) SPM and (g-i) Chl-a in the Jaguaribe River estuary.

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1 5.2.3.2. Behavior of organic matter

2 POC concentrations varied between 27.4 and 80.9 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ and the TPN
 3 from 2.3 to 8.5 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ in the main estuary. The POC (Fig. 16a and 16b) and TPN
 4 trends along the salinity gradient were practically constant, but with distinctly higher
 5 levels at Cumbe Channel in December 2016 and June 2017. POC did not correlate with
 6 Chl-*a* in any campaign ($p > 0.05$). POC/Chl-*a* suggested a predominantly detritus origin
 7 (values above 200) (Guo et al., 2015; Lebreton et al., 2016), ranging from 83.8 to 990.1
 8 with mean values of 217.1 ± 112.2 and 399.7 ± 244.3 in December 2016 and June 2017
 9 respectively. The POC/Chl-*a* values below 200 corresponded to samples with enriched
 10 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values, suggesting a higher contribution from marine phytoplankton.
 11



12

13

Fig.16. Spatial distribution of (a - b) POC and (c - e) DOC in different seasons in the Jaguaribe River estuary.

1 Concentrations of DOC ranged from 70.8 to 589.9 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ and of TDN from
 2 9.4 to 57.1 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ in the estuary. There was no significant temporal difference in
 3 DOC (Fig. 16c – 16e) and TDN levels ($p>0.05$), but spatially, with higher
 4 concentrations in the Cumbe channel ($p<0.05$)).

5 DOC and TDN levels displayed a linear trend with salinity despite the
 6 hypersaline conditions, but always decreasing seaward (Fig. 17a – 17e). DOC was the
 7 dominant form of organic carbon pool in the water column, representing between 63
 8 and 95 % of the total organic carbon (TOC) in column water. DOC presented a slight
 9 correlation with Chl-*a* ($r = 0.55$; $p<0.05$) during the hypersaline period.

10

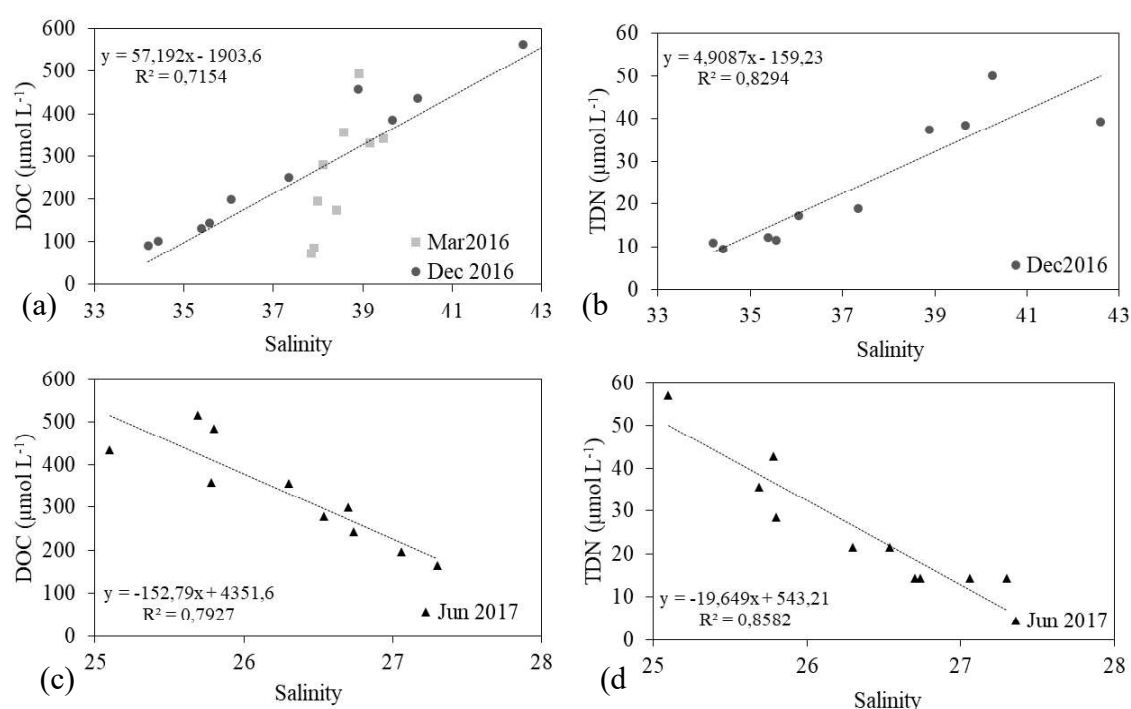


Fig. 17. Linear trend between salinity and (a) DOC in March and December 2016, (b) TDN in December 2016 (c) DOC in June 2017 and (d) TDN in Jun2017 in the Jaguaribe River estuary.

11

12 Bottom sediments from the estuary showed relatively low organic carbon (OC)
 13 (0.1 – 1.9%) and total nitrogen (TN) (0.02 – 0.26%) contents, and did not vary
 14 temporally ($p>0.05$) (Fig. S2). The (C:N)_a ratios ranged from 4.7 to 18.8, with averages
 15 of 8.4 ± 1.6 , 9.3 ± 2.1 and 8.8 ± 2.8 in March 2016, December 2016 and June 2017,
 16 respectively.

1 5.2.3.3. Discrimination of end-members

2 The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of C_3 plants leaves were the most depleted among the end-
 3 members and ranged in the interval set for the C_3 vegetation (REZENDE et al., 1990;
 4 VILHENA et al., 2018) (Table 7). $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values in mangrove leaves are between 4 and
 5 6‰ (RAY et al., 2015; VILHENA et al., 2018) as observed to *A. shaueriana*, but *R.*
 6 *mangle* presented a more depleted signal (Table 7). Grasses and herbs showed more
 7 enriched $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values among the end members (Table 7).

8 The macroalga *Ulva fasciata*, collected in June 2017, showed enriched $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
 9 and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values (Table 7). For marine end member, it was used literature data of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -
 10 DOM (-22.0‰) from the adjacent continental shelf (isobaths of 70 m) of the Jaguaribe
 11 river estuary (CARVALHO et al., 2017).

12

Table 7 - Isotopic carbon and nitrogen composition of end-members of the Jaguaribe River estuary.

	Type	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (‰)	(C:N) _a
<i>Avicennia shaueriana</i>	C_3 plant	-28.9	5.5	20.7
<i>Rhizophora mangle</i>	C_3 plant	-27.6	3.3	34.8
<i>Copernicia prunifera</i>	C_3 plant	-29.7	5.7	26.8
Leguminous	C_3 plant	-27.6	5.2	23.5
<i>Ulva fasciata</i>	Macroalga	-18.5	5.9	35.4
Fluvial-marine sediment		-24.4	4.8	11.0
Mangrove sediment		-24.0	6.0	9.5
<i>Paspalum sp</i>	C_4 grass	-12.9	--	--
<i>Paspalum sp</i>	C_4 grass	-13.4	--	--
<i>Sesuvium portulacastrum</i>	Aizoaceae	-14.0	--	--

13

14 The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values from fluvial plains and mangrove sediments were more
 15 enriched than C_3 vegetation (Table 7), probably due to the grass contribution to OM
 16 with less depleted $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ organic carbon (AITKENHEAD; MCDOWELL, 2000), as well,
 17 the advanced stage of OM decomposition (EHLERINGER; BUCHMANN;
 18 FLANAGAN, 2000; KRISTENSEN et al., 2008). Besides, they showed C:N ratios
 19 below from the expected for terrestrial sources (C:N>12) that suggest intense
 20 mineralization. In contrast, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values reflected well the contribution from C_3
 21 vegetation (Table 7).

22

23

5.2.3.4. *Isotopic composition of organic matter*

The values of POC- $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ranged from -25.3‰ to -22.1‰ for samples collected in December 2016 and -27.3 to -21.5‰ in June 2017. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -POC during hypersaline conditions had more enriched values ($-23.5\pm 1.1\text{‰}$) than POC collected in June 2017 ($-24.7\pm 2.0\text{‰}$), showing statistical differences between the December 2016 and the June 2017 campaigns ($p < 0.05$). $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -POC was more variable in this last campaign. The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ -TPN values varied from 4.7 to 6.2‰ ($5.6\pm 0.5\text{‰}$) and of 5.2 to 6.6‰ ($5.8\pm 0.4\text{‰}$) in December 2016 and June 2017, respectively. The (C:N)_a ratios ranged from 8.1 to 13.2 (10.4 ± 1.9) and 7.9 to 13.1 (10.4 ± 1.5).

The distribution of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC showed a similar pattern as $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -POC, ranging from -24.1 to -22.4‰ ($-23.3\pm 0.6\text{‰}$) and from -24.9 to -23.1‰ ($-24.2\pm 0.5\text{‰}$) in December 2016 and June 2017 respectively. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC was more enriched in December 2016 campaign than in June 2017. The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ -TDN values were of 2.1 to 4.3‰ ($2.7\pm 0.6\text{‰}$) of 3.6 to 5.6‰ ($4.6\pm 0.6\text{‰}$) in December 2016 and June 2017, respectively. The (C:N)_a ratios ranged from 11.8 to 19.2 (14.6 ± 2.3) and 17.9 to 22.0 (19.9 ± 1.6). The isotopic composition of DOC and DTN were statistically different between the campaigns ($p < 0.05$).

In June 2017, the stable carbon isotopic signature of DOM and POM increased linearly with salinity, along the principal channel, due to the marine contribution with enriched $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -OM. While in December 2016, they decreased non-linearly with salinity (Fig. 18a and 18b). In other words, the more enriched values were observed at the sampling stations closest to the sea, indicating inputs of marine OM (-22.0‰) by the tides, which dominate the estuarine circulation.

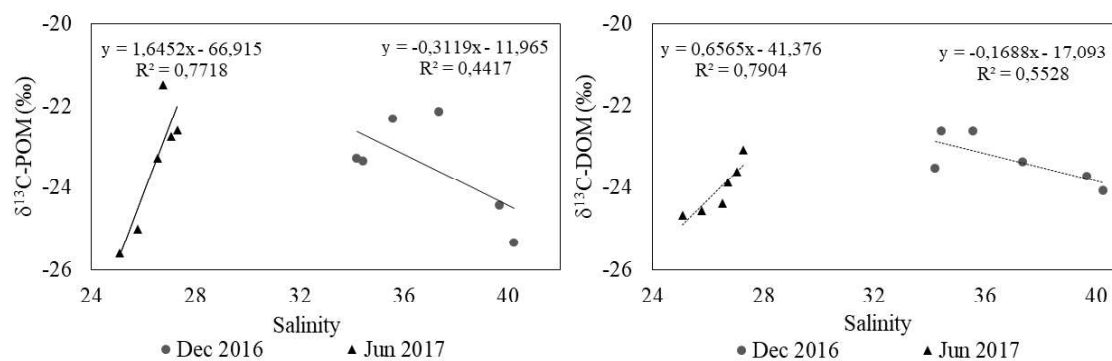


Fig. 18. (a) $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -POC and (b) $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC variation with salinity in the principal Channel of the Jaguaribe River estuary in December 2016 and June 2017.

1 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures of sedimentary organic carbon varied from -26 to -21.2‰,
 2 with averages of -24.5 ± 0.8 , -25.0 ± 0.8 and -23.9 ± 1.4 ‰ and the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ranged from 1.8 to
 3 6.2‰, with averages of 4.1 ± 1.6 ‰, 4.0 ± 1.5 ‰ and 3.4 ± 1.4 ‰ in March 2016, December
 4 2016 and June 2017, respectively. Sediments displayed $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values increasing seaward
 5 until station 5, and depletion of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$.

7 **5.2.3.5. Lignin phenols**

8 Lignin concentrations (Σ_8) and carbon-normalized yields (Λ_8) are presented
 9 as the sum of three vanillyl phenols (V), three syringyl phenols (S), and two cinnamyl
 10 phenols (C). In the dissolved form, Σ_8 ranged from 2.1 to $50.4 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ (mean = $22.5 \pm$
 11 $16.3 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) (Table S1) and Λ_8 ranged from 0.6 to 2.1 ($\text{mg (100 mg OC)}^{-1}$) (mean = 1.0
 12 ± 0.3 ($\text{mg (100 mg OC)}^{-1}$) in the Jaguaribe River estuary. Σ_8 exhibited highest
 13 concentrations in June 2017 (mean = $33.7 \pm 9.2 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) than in December 2016 (mean =
 14 $11.2 \pm 13.9 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) period (Table S1). While the Λ_8 temporal variation showed higher
 15 concentrations in December 2016 than in June 2017, 1.2 ± 0.4 and 0.8 ± 0.1 (mg (100
 16 mg OC)^{-1}) respectively. Σ_8 presented a strong positive correlation with DOC ($r = 0.718$;
 17 $n = 20$).

18 Dissolved syringyl/vanillyl (S/V) phenol ratios in the Jaguaribe River
 19 estuary ranged from 0.77 to 1.49 and dissolved cinnamyl/vanillyl (C/V) ratios from 0.56
 20 to 1.91, with averages of 1.1 ± 0.2 and 1.1 ± 0.3 respectively. The ratios of vanillic acid
 21 to vanillin (Ad/Al)_v ranged from 0.54 to 4.36 and the syringic acid to syringaldehyde
 22 ratios (Ad/Al)_s from 0.73 to 1.85, with averages of 2.3 ± 0.7 and 1.2 ± 0.3 respectively
 23 (Table S1). The C/V, S/V, (Ad/Al)_v, and (Ad/Al)_s ratios did not show any significant
 24 temporal trends. LPVI values were between 483 and 3004, with average of $1,586 \pm 629$.

25 The relative contribution of vascular plant-derived material to organic
 26 matter pools can be assessed by the Λ_8 of lignin mg 100 mg OC^{-1} . Λ_8 for sediment were
 27 of 1.26 and 1.38 and Σ_8 0.18 and $0.17 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ respectively (Table S1). Syringyl and
 28 principally cinnamyl phenols more susceptible to diagenetic processes than vanillyl
 29 (WARD; RICHEY; KEIL, 2012). The S/V and C/V ratios were lower in sediments
 30 when compared with vegetation. As LPVI takes into account the diagenetic sequence of
 31 phenolic groups (TAREQ; KITAGAWA; OHTA, 2011), it was used to differentiate the
 32 types of plants that are contributing to OC. The LPVI values were 1,500 and 4,700 for

1 fluvial-marine and mangrove sediment respectively, suggesting an angiosperm leaf
2 source (TAREQ; KITAGAWA; OHTA, 2011).

3 4 **5.2.4. Discussion**

5 **5.2.4.1. *Effects of drought and dams on the estuarine hydrochemistry of the*** 6 ***Jaguaribe River***

7 The salinity distribution observed in June 2017 was characteristic of a
8 positive estuary (fluvial waters spread seaward), even with a weak salinity gradient (Fig.
9 15a). Whereas in the campaigns performed in 2016, the reduction of freshwater supply
10 and the stronger marine influence led the Jaguaribe River estuary to hypersaline
11 conditions (SANTOS et al., 2017). Besides, the higher seawater RT in the estuary
12 during the dry season favors the concentration of salts in estuarine waters (DIAS et al.,
13 2016). Lacerda et al. (2013) paradoxically compared it with water freezing in rivers
14 draining into the Arctic. During the dry season, the river flows at estuary mouth are
15 blocked and the residence time of continental runoff is longer. Whereas during the
16 periods of higher river discharges, this residence time is shorter.

17 Hypersaline conditions are a frequent feature in estuaries from this and other
18 semiarid regions (Delgadillo-Hinojosa et al., 2008; Schettini et al., 2017). At the same
19 time, this result was unexpected for the rainy season campaign (March 2016), thus
20 revealing the unpredictability of rainfall in the region and, consequently, the
21 vulnerability of the environmental quality of the estuary. Based on the cluster analysis,
22 it was considered two scenarios: positive (June 2017) and hypersaline (March 2016 and
23 December 2016) estuary.

24 Schettini et al. (2017) related the anthropogenic stress in three estuaries
25 from the semiarid Brazilian region. They were: the Cocó estuary that receives a large
26 discharge of sewage; the Pacoti estuary that is the more conserved among them; and the
27 Pirangi estuary that presents hypersalinity produced by the negative water balance and
28 by river damming. The average concentration of SPM in the Jaguaribe river estuary
29 (this work) was similar to the Pirangi estuary ($\sim 15 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$) and three times higher than
30 the Cocó and Pacoti. The high concentrations of SPM in the Pirangi estuary were
31 associated with tidal erosion and its retention capacity (SCHETTINI; VALLE-
32 LEVINSON; TRUCCOLO, 2017).

33 During the dry season or periods of low freshwater discharge, tides are the
34 main controller of the SPM supply through the resuspension of bottom sediments and

1 erosion of estuarine margins in the Jaguaribe River estuary. While in periods of high
2 fluvial flow, the SPM comes predominantly from the drainage basin through the
3 leaching of the soils (DIAS et al., 2016). In this work, the absence of correlation
4 between SPM concentration and phytoplankton biomass in the rainy season suggests
5 that terrestrial sources were predominant over in situ algal production. However, a
6 slight correlation between SPM and Chl-*a* showed phytoplankton contribution to SPM
7 during the dry season.

8 In years of regular rainfall, it is possible to observe seasonal variability of
9 SPM and nutrient concentrations in the Jaguaribe River estuary. Higher SPM
10 concentrations (79% higher) during the rainy than in the dry season already were
11 observed in the Jaguaribe River estuary previously (DIAS; MARINS; MAIA, 2013).
12 Therefore, the low temporal variability of SPM observed in this work seems to be an
13 integrated result to the scarcity of rain and retention of reservoirs (MARENGO et al.,
14 2017; MOLISANI et al., 2013).

15 16 17 **5.2.4.2. Behavior of dissolved and particulate organic matter**

18 SPM, DOC, POC, TDN and TPN did not show temporal variability,
19 probably due to the reduced transport of terrestrial material in the estuary during
20 drought conditions. This effect of drought and dams over carbon amount has been
21 noticed in other rivers and estuaries (MORA et al., 2014; VAZQUEZ et al., 2011; YU et
22 al., 2011). DOC and POC concentrations measured in this work were similar to those
23 found in others tropical estuaries affected by river damming (GUO et al., 2015;
24 SCHILLER et al., 2015; VAZQUEZ et al., 2011) and hypersaline estuaries and coastal
25 lagoons (CATALÁ et al., 2013; DELGADILLO-HINOJOSA et al., 2008; YA;
26 ANDERSON; JAFFÉ, 2015).

27 Lacerda et al. (2008) estimated that anthropogenic nitrogen emissions were
28 more than one order of magnitude higher than natural sources in the Jaguaribe River
29 estuary, being the aquaculture the main responsible for this. This activity releases part
30 of its effluent directly at the Cumbe Channel (stations 7 and 8) (Fig.14), which can be
31 the reason of the high carbon, nitrogen, SPM and Chl-*a* levels in this channel. Besides,
32 high concentration of N-ammonium in the estuarine region next to Aracati city (Fig.14)
33 is related to OM decomposition probably derived from the input of domestic and shrimp
34 farming effluents (ESCHRIQUE et al., 2010).

1 In the Jaguaribe River estuary, changes in the salinity did not result from the
2 mixing of fresh and marine waters in campaigns performed in 2016, but of a negative
3 water balance and inverse circulation. Besides, the sampling at salinity zero was not
4 possible in any campaign because the estuary became disconnected from the fluvial
5 continuum due to the complete diversion of the river at Trabalhador dike (~36 km of
6 estuarine mouth). All this makes the use of traditional mixing classification
7 inappropriate for this system. Nevertheless, the linear positive relationship between
8 DOC with salinity (Fig. 18) indicates that the oceanic dilution of hypersaline waters
9 caused a positive trend between salinity and DOC and salinity in 2016, similar to the
10 observed in June 2017, but with the opposite sign.

11 DOC/POC ratios presented a wide range between 1.7 and 15.9
12 demonstrating the DOC importance in organic carbon balance studies in the Jaguaribe
13 River estuary. The DOC/POC ratios exhibited a decrease with SPM augmentation ($y =$
14 $74.49x^{1.389}$; $R^2 = 0.881$) (Fig. S3), as observed by Abril et al. (2002) in estuarine
15 systems. The exponential drop of the DOC/POC ratio with SMP augmentation reflected
16 the occurrence of repartitioning reactions of OM in the estuary, which reduce DOC
17 concentration and consequently its geochemical mobility. He et al. (2010) attributed the
18 microbial degradation (31%) as the principal process controlling the DOC removal, but
19 that other processes, such as flocculation, aggregation and adsorption on to the SPM
20 (69%) were also relevant, especially in the mixing zone.

21 The OC concentrations in surface sediments at the Jaguaribe River estuary
22 were low. Similar to mangrove sediments from estuaries under dry climate conditions
23 like Somone (0.30-3.90%), Senegal, and Betsiboka estuaries (0.5–1.1%) (RALISON et
24 al., 2008; SAKHO et al., 2015), and from southeastern Brazil (FRAGOSO et al., 2018).

25 The enriched $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC values at the continental shelf under influence of
26 Jaguaribe River (CARVALHO et al., 2017) indicates low exportation of terrestrial OM.
27 Then, the low storage of OM in sediments and the low OM exportation during dry
28 periods, points to a significant OM processing in the Jaguaribe River estuary. Silva,
29 (2016) showed that the Jaguaribe River estuary acts as a CO_2 source to the atmosphere
30 and that it is linked to the trophic state in the estuary, revealing the OM mineralization
31 is an important process in the CO_2 flux in semiarid estuaries.

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1 5.2.4.3. Sources of organic matter in the Jaguaribe River estuary

2 The dissolved lignin concentrations (Σ_8) in the Jaguaribe River estuary were
 3 similar to those from a pristine tropical river, the Epulu (SPENCER et al., 2010), during
 4 its hydrological regime of intermediary and post-flush and to the Congo River (Spencer
 5 et al., 2009). The highest Σ_8 occurred in June 2017, the period of higher inputs of
 6 freshwater in the Jaguaribe River estuary (Fig. 19a), as it was observed in other tropical
 7 rivers (Spencer et al., 2010, 2009). The Σ_8 were higher at stations from the upstream
 8 region (1, 2 and 3) and secondary channels (Fig. 19a). The strong correlation between
 9 DOC and Σ_8 showed the relevance of terrestrial sources to DOM.
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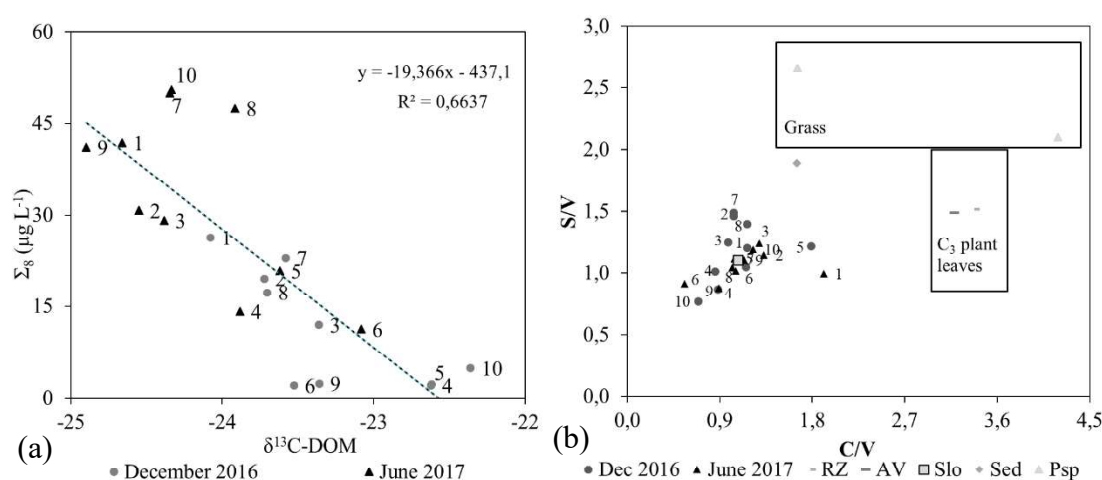


Fig. 19. (a) Linear trend between Σ_8 and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in December 2016 and Jun2017 and
 (b) S/V vs. C/V scatter plot. Numbers refer to the sampling site labels

11
 12 The S/V and C/V ratios are used to distinguish sources of OM derived from
 13 several terrigenous plant components. The S/V ratio differentiates angiosperms ($S/V > 0$)
 14 from gymnosperms ($S/V = 0$) and the C/V ratio distinguishes the tissue type, woody
 15 ($C/V = 0$) from non-woody ($C/V > 0$) (HEDGES; MANN, 1979; JEX et al., 2014). The
 16 S/V and C/V ratios of dissolved lignin phenols, from the Jaguaribe River estuary,
 17 corresponded to intervals of angiosperm leaves (JEX et al., 2014).

18 Besides, the S/V ratios in the dissolved fraction were like those of C₃ plant
 19 leaves sampled next to the estuary (Fig. 19). However, the C/V ratios were lower in the
 20 DOM possibly due to the loss of cinnamyl phenols, since it is the most affected group
 21 by diagenetic degradation (Fig. 19a) (TAREQ; TANAKA; OHTA, 2004). The LPVI
 22 values of the dissolved lignin phenols were also inserted in the interval for non-woody
 23 angiosperms (378 – 2,782) (TAREQ; TANAKA; OHTA, 2004). Since the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of

1 grasses and C₃ trees are very distinct from each other (Table 7), $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ can be used to
2 distinguish between lignin sources. The stable carbon isotope signature of DOM ranged
3 between -24.9 and -22.4‰ and presented a positive linear relation with Σ_8 , suggesting a
4 non-significant contribution of grasses compared with C₃ plants (REZENDE et al.,
5 2010).

6 In order to define the sources of organic matter in the Jaguaribe River
7 estuary, it was plotted $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ against (C:N)_a and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (Fig. 20a and 20b). Fig. 20a
8 indicates the C₃ plant detritus, sediments and marine OM as the main sources of OM in
9 the estuary. The intermediate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -POC values (between -26 and -24 ‰) are common in
10 tidal estuaries with intermediate turbidity due to the extensive mixing of sources
11 (MIDDELBURG; HERMAN, 2007), being the dominance of terrestrial organic matter.
12 It was not possible to clearly observe anthropogenic inputs through Cumbe Channel in
13 this work, probably due to the similarity of the isotopic signal between anthropogenic,
14 as shrimp farm effluents (YOKOYAMA et al., 2002) and sewage (BARROS et al.,
15 2010), and natural sources. The isotopic composition of freshwater phytoplankton is
16 very similar with the terrestrial OM (YE et al., 2017), but the POC/Chl-*a* ratios were
17 above 200 in the depleted $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ samples indicating the predominance of non-living OM.
18 POC/Chl-*a* ratios below 200 were found only in samples with enriched $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values,
19 which corresponds to marine phytoplankton.

20 The low (C:N) ratios of the estuarine OM, compared with C₃ plant leaves,
21 reinforces the occurrence of the diagenetic process (Fig. 20b). The (C:N)_a ratio
22 followed this growing order: sediments < particulate < dissolved. It means that the
23 dissolved material is more reworked than the particulate and sediment (BAUER;
24 BIANCHI, 2011), in other words, more degraded and refractory material, clarifying the
25 strong hydrological control over the DOC behavior (CAVALCANTE, 2015). (Ad/Al)_v
26 ratio is a proxy of oxidation of terrigenous OM. (Ad/Al)_v ratios below 0.3 are typical of
27 fresh tissues. While (Ad/Al)_v ratios above 0.4 indicate degraded OM, as humic
28 substances, and higher than 0.6 is considered highly degraded. High (Ad/Al)_v ratios
29 (~1.2) are also indicative of the leaching process. The (Ad/Al)_v and (Ad/Al)_s ratios
30 showed that the dissolved lignin, and consequently terrigenous DOM from the
31 Jaguaribe River estuary, was derived from intense microbial degradation and leaching
32 process (JEX et al., 2014).

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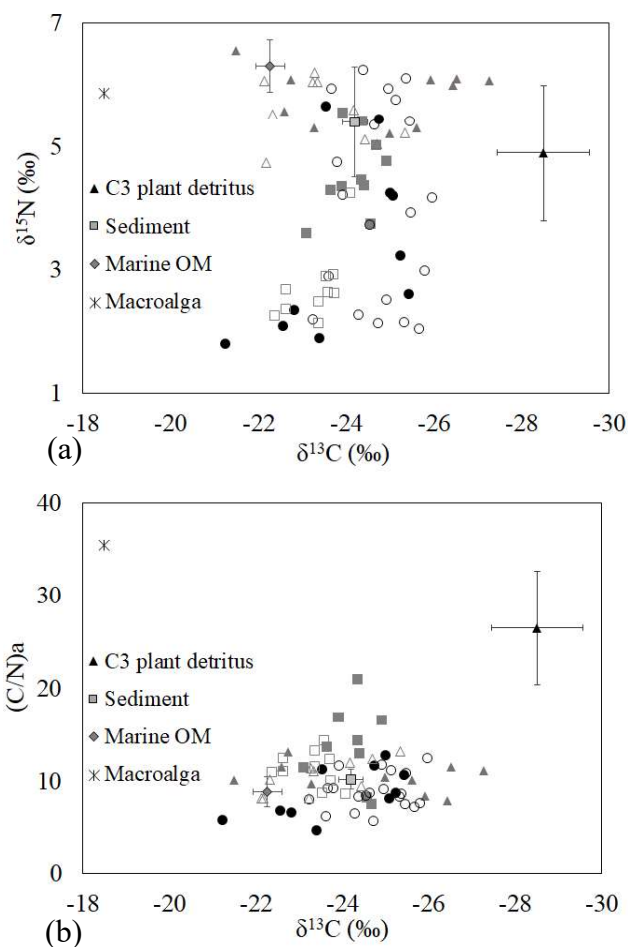


Fig. 20. Relation (a) $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ vs $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and (b) C:N ratio vs $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of POM (triangles), DOM (squares), sedimentary OM (circles) of the Jaguaribe River estuary during hypersaline (opened markers) and positive (filled markers) conditions.

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The presence of freshwater in the estuarine body in June 2017 did not alter nitrogen and carbon concentrations in the column water, but it shifted $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -POC values, indicating temporal variability of in OM sources. In December 2016, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOM and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -POM values were more enriched than in June 2017 and the correlations between Chl-*a* and SPM, TPN and DOC reveal the higher influence of the marine source to the estuarine organic matter in this period. The highest Σ_8 and more depleted $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of POM, DOM and sedimentary OM in June 2017 than in December 2016 indicated the higher contribution of continental sources, mainly sediments and C_3 plants. Besides, the high positive correlation of POC and TPN with SPM in June 2017 suggests that particulate OM was primarily governed by SPM dynamic and consequently by continental runoff and tidal erosion. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -POC average

1 values in June 2017 were around -24‰ that is suggestive of the soils and sediments
2 contribution to the OM pool (WANG; CHEN; GARDNER, 2004; YE et al., 2018).

3 The quantitative evaluation of marine and terrigenous components of OM is
4 required for a better understanding of estuarine OM cycling. The SIAR model suggested
5 that the contribution of terrestrial inputs to POM, DOM and sedimentary OM varied
6 from 67 – 79%; 62 – 72% and 69 – 31%, respectively. Marine DOM varied from 21 –
7 33%; 28 – 38% and 19 – 31% to POM, DOM and sedimentary OM, respectively (Fig.
8 S4). Based on this, the terrestrial-derived OM acted as the dominant source in the
9 Jaguaribe River estuary in both seasons (Fig. S4). Marine DOM contribution to the
10 column water increased when the estuary was under hypersaline conditions due to the
11 prominent seawater intrusion. The marine-derived POM inputs calculated in this study
12 were significantly higher than those founded previously (6%) for the Jaguaribe River
13 estuary (author's unpublished data), probably due to the increase of marine intrusion as
14 an effect of droughts intensification through the years. These results showed the impact
15 of the reduction of freshwater over carbon nature, improving its reactivity and
16 bioavailability.

17 Organic matter is an effective metal carrier and its quality influences metal
18 complexation capacity (LOUIS et al., 2009; LOUIS; PERNET-COUDRIER;
19 VARRAULT, 2014). The present study supports the “Arctic Paradox” (LACERDA et
20 al., 2013) because it shows the higher OM lability in the estuary during the dry season
21 that may improve mercury reactivity during this season. Besides, the high
22 bioavailability of OM in the dry season helps to explain why Moura and Lacerda (2018)
23 measured higher Hg concentrations in organisms captured in estuarine than in the
24 fluvial zone of the Jaguaribe River.

25 The organic matter from the Jaguaribe River estuary was mainly derived
26 from C₃ plant debris and sediments. As the low storage of water in the reservoirs keeps
27 their gates closed, trapping the material supply from upper stream regions (DNOCS,
28 2017; MOLISANI et al., 2013), the terrestrial OM inputs to the estuary come
29 preponderantly from estuarine region that is dominated by mangroves (DIAS et al.,
30 2016; GODOY; LACERDA, 2014). Decreased flow from reservoirs can also trigger
31 erosive processes in mangroves from the Jaguaribe River estuary (GODOY;
32 MEIRELES; LACERDA, 2018) that is an ecological and socioeconomic concern
33 because its degradation can result in a huge release of carbon into the atmosphere in the
34 form of greenhouse gases (PENDLETON et al., 2012).

1 **5.2.5. Conclusion**

2 The severe droughts caused a dramatic reduction of freshwater inputs in the
3 Jaguaribe River estuary, leading the system to hypersaline conditions and reducing the
4 supply of SPM and OM to the estuary.

5 Overall, terrestrial OM acted as the dominant source to the OM pool in the
6 estuary during rainy and dry seasons. As the rainfall rates were low and consequently
7 the continental runoff, the tides were the chief controller of terrestrial OM delivery to
8 the estuarine waters. The influence of marine sources was also relevant to OM bulk
9 principally during the periods when the estuary was under hypersaline conditions.
10 Besides, high concentrations of OC and nutrients in the Cumbe channel were probably
11 linked to shrimp farm activity.

12 The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -POC values founded in this work were significantly more enriched
13 than those from 2014 and 2015, indicating the improvement of marine contribution to
14 the estuarine OM with the permanence of drought. The SIAR model showed an increase
15 from 6% to 38% of marine-derived OM in the Jaguaribe River estuary due to the
16 augmentation of seawater influence because of the drought intensification in the last six
17 years.

18 With the ongoing increase of the freshwater demands for human
19 consumption and the reduction of rainfall in the semiarid region, it is possible that this
20 modification is intensified not only in the Jaguaribe River estuary but in other semiarid
21 estuaries. Besides, these results observed in the Jaguaribe estuary may serve as a
22 prognostic of the effects on the increase the sea level in the geochemistry of the
23 estuarine OM of other world rivers.

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5.2.6. Reference

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1 **5.2.7. Supplementary material**

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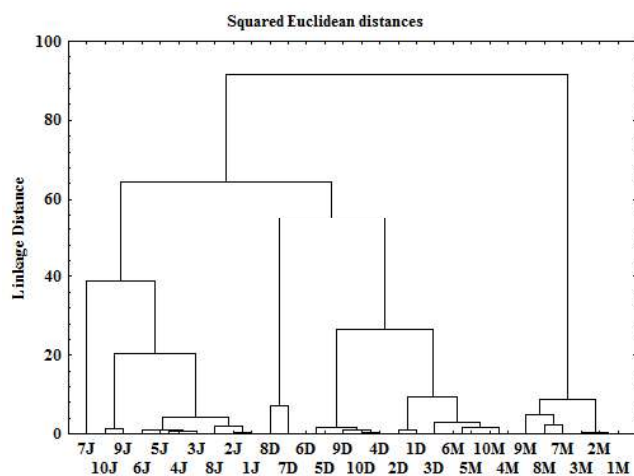


Fig. S1. Cluster analysis of the sampling stations in the Jaguaribe River estuary in March 2016 (M), December 2016 (D) and June 2017 (J).

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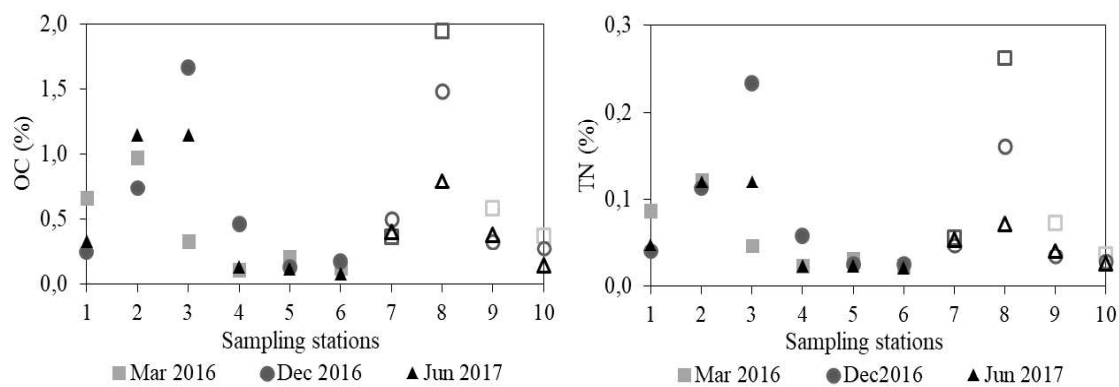


Fig. S2. Spatial variation of (a) OC and (b) TN in the bottom sediment of the Jaguaribe River estuary in different sampling campaigns.

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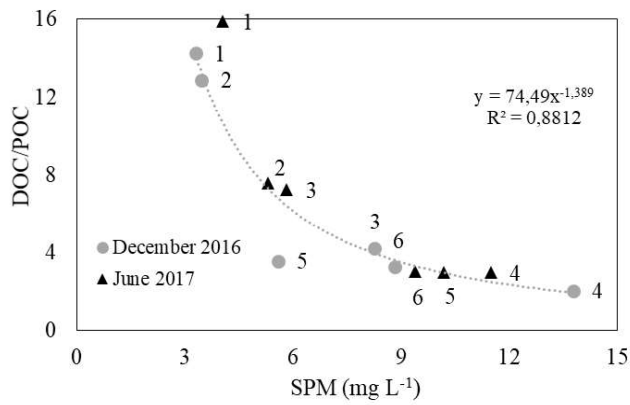


Fig. S3 - Plot of DOC/POC ratios versus suspended matter load (SPM) for the Jaguaribe River estuary. Numbers refer to the sampling site labels

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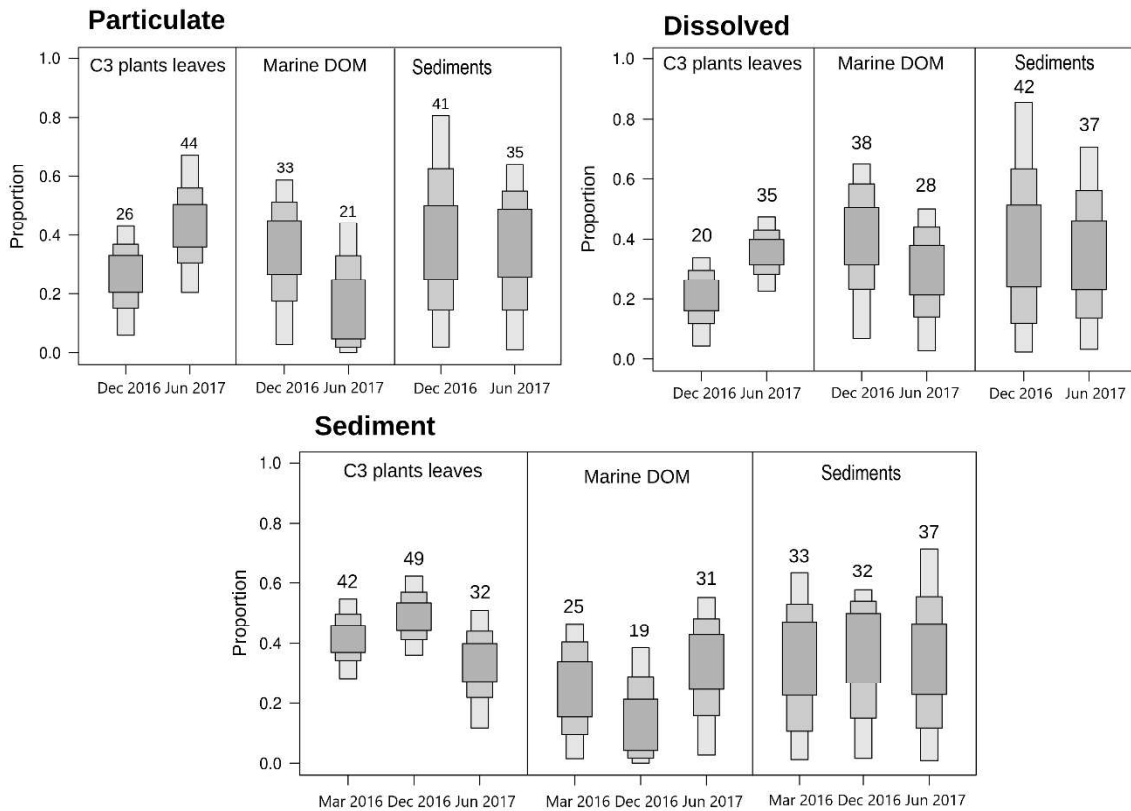


Fig. S4. Model SIAR for particulate dissolved and sedimentary organic matter considering three sources of organic material in three sampling campaigns in the Jaguaribe River estuary (25%; 75% and 95%, represented by different bars).

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Table S1. Organic matter composition of DOM and end members from Jaguaribe River estuary.

	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)	Ac/Al_V	Ac/Al_S	S/V	C/V	λ_8	Σ_8 ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	$LPVI$
<i>D1</i>	-24.08	2.47	1.04	1.20	1.17	0.78	26.38	1,802
<i>D2</i>	-23.72	2.35	1.23	1.46	1.04	0.83	19.62	1,946
<i>D3</i>	-23.36	3.02	1.31	1.25	0.98	0.98	12.03	1,506
<i>D4</i>	-22.62	2.09	0.73	1.01	0.86	1.27	2.13	980
<i>D5</i>	-22.62	2.24	0.83	1.22	1.78	1.34	2.30	3,004
<i>D6</i>	-23.53	0.97	1.00	1.05	1.15	1.02	2.12	1,495
<i>D7</i>	-23.58	2.19	1.39	1.49	1.03	2.14	23.00	1,976
<i>D8</i>	-23.71	2.13	1.23	1.40	1.16	1.14	17.31	2,156
<i>D9</i>	-23.36	0.54	0.84	0.87	0.88	0.92	2.45	835
<i>D10</i>	-22.36	4.36	1.14	0.77	0.69	1.38	4.95	520
<i>J1</i>	-24.66	2.30	1.10	1.00	1.91	0.82	41.87	2,460
<i>J2</i>	-24.55	2.26	1.27	1.15	1.33	0.70	30.77	1,989
<i>J3</i>	-24.39	2.22	1.58	1.24	1.29	0.91	29.18	2,106
<i>J4</i>	-23.88	3.10	1.85	0.88	0.89	0.63	14.20	863
<i>J5</i>	-23.62	2.61	1.57	1.11	1.04	0.77	20.86	1,425
<i>J6</i>	-23.08	2.78	1.82	0.91	0.56	0.91	11.30	483
<i>J7</i>	-24.35	2.26	1.31	1.12	1.05	0.80	49.89	1,438
<i>J8</i>	-23.92	2.47	1.08	1.05	1.03	0.83	47.45	1,288
<i>J9</i>	-24.90	2.09	1.55	1.11	1.14	0.80	41.15	1,571
<i>J10</i>	-24.33	2.10	1.13	1.19	1.22	0.71	50.45	1,890
End-members								
<i>R.mangle</i>	-27.62	2.37	1.50	1.52	3.38	1.68	7.98	7,346
<i>A.Shaueriana</i>	-28.93	2.35	1.80	1.49	3.18	4.40	9.57	6,814
<i>Mangrove sediment</i>	-24.00	1.64	1.05	1.10	1.08	1.26	0.18	1,467
<i>Fluvial-marine sediment</i>	-24.40	1.33	0.74	1.89	1.66	1.38	0.17	4,693
<i>Paspalum sp</i>	-12.90	1.59	0.62	2.66	4.19	18.27	18.27	18,472
<i>Paspalum sp</i>	-13.40	11.93	0.44	2.10	3.87	10.23	10.23	12,729
<i>S. potulacastrum</i>	-14.00	7.81	0.13	0.66	1.99	5.98	5.98	1,423

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5.3. ESTUARINE ORGANIC MATTER CHARACTERIZATION AND INTERACTION WITH METALS ISOLATED USING CROSS-FLOW ULTRAFILTRATION

ABSTRACT

Characterization and size distribution of organic matter (OM) in the Jaguaribe River estuary were evaluated using ultrafiltration and fluorescence spectroscopy. Besides, dissolved metals concentrations were obtained by ICP-MS analyses to evaluate the characteristics of dissolved organic matter (DOM) and its interaction with trace metals. The Jaguaribe River is the most important river of Ceará. It is located predominantly in the rural area of Brazil NE, but the Hg concentrations in oysters and sediments reached levels as high as metropolitan sites in this region suggesting that geochemical processes increase Hg bioavailability. The DOC concentrations observed during the rainy season of 2018 were 70% lower than the values of 2004, showing the impact of an extended drought period in the equatorial region of Brazil over the DOC sources to the Jaguaribe river estuary. The three fluorophores, identified by PARAFAC, showed that the estuarine DOM was preponderantly composed by terrestrial-derived humic compounds. DOM had a high degree of aromaticity, but the decrease with salinity suggests that labile aromatic compounds were removed from column water during estuarine mixing. The truly dissolved DOM (< 1 kDa) was the major fraction of DOM (80 ± 2 %), while the colloidal OM (> 1 kDa) comprised 6 ± 1 %. The percentage of truly dissolved and colloidal organic matter concentrations increased with salinity while the percentage of POC decreased, demonstrating a reduction in the OM particle size with increasing salinity. Besides, removal of the OM, during estuarine mixing, occurred more specifically when salinity values were between 3 and 7 g kg⁻¹. Since the chromophoric dissolved organic matter (CDOM) and fluorescent DOM decreased with salinity increase, the photochemical degradation can be a relevant process in organic matter removal and as well as particle reduction. Some metals (Cr, Fe, V, Al, Cu, and Ni) showed significant correlation with DOC and non-conservative reduction with salinity increase, pointing that DOM size and environmental conditions were the main drivers of metal availability in the Jaguaribe River estuary.

Key-words: PARAFAC, partitioning, aromaticity and organic matter

1 5.3.1. Introduction

2 Trace metals contamination is a serious concern in the aquatic systems because
3 they are major environmental pollutants and have long-term accumulation in sediments
4 and organisms. Estuaries work as metals filters in the ocean-land transport, promoting
5 their deposition due to the intense physicochemical gradient and quantity of particles
6 (YANG; VAN DEN BERG, 2009). Metal speciation and consequently its fate, transport,
7 bioavailability and toxicity in the estuaries is tightly relate to organic matter dynamic
8 (SIMPSON et al., 2014) and environmental conditions (pH, ionic strength and
9 competition with other cations) (LOUIS et al., 2009). Due to its role in binding and
10 stabilize metals and pollutants in estuaries (WANG et al., 2017), efforts to access
11 information about the composition and partitioning of organic matter, in the dissolved,
12 colloidal and particulate phases, has increased over the last years (STOLPE et al., 2010,
13 2014; XU; GUO, 2017; ZHOU; GUO, 2015).

14 The dissolved organic matter (DOM) is a heterogeneous mixture of molecules
15 derived from biological decomposition and metabolic activity of organisms (FINDLAY;
16 SINSABAUGH, 2003), presenting different sizes, functionalities, age and origin
17 (allochthonous and autochthonous). DOM is ubiquitous in marine environments and
18 plays important role in biogeochemical and environmental processes, such as the carbon
19 and nutrients cycling, energy source to consumers and water quality (SANTINELLI;
20 NANNICINI; SERITTI, 2010b; WANG et al., 2007; YANG et al., 2016). The isolation
21 and separation of aquatic colloids are typically preceded by filtration of samples through
22 1 - 0.2 μm pore-size filters (WILKINSON; LEAD, 2007). Cross-flow ultrafiltration has
23 been widely used to fractionate DOM into different size and molecular weight fractions
24 (WANG et al., 2017; WILKINSON; LEAD, 2007; XU; GUO, 2017), such as reverse
25 osmosis (LOUIS et al., 2009) and flow field–flow fractionation (STOLPE et al., 2014).
26 The high molecular weight (HMW) fraction is usually referred to as colloidal organic
27 matter (COM) and is defined as macromolecules or aggregates that have size between 1
28 nm to 1 μm , while the low molecular weight (LMW) corresponds to molecules smaller
29 than 1 kDa (WILKINSON; LEAD, 2007). COM is very reactive due to its high specific
30 surface area and abundance of complexing sites that can contribute to the metal binding
31 process (Fang et al., 2015; Louis et al., 2009). In estuarine waters, for example, metals
32 such as copper (Cu), iron (Fe), mercury (Hg) and zinc (Zn) have been shown to be
33 mostly in the colloidal form (LUAN; VADAS, 2015; SIMPSON et al., 2014; WANG et

1 al., 2017). Besides, COM intermediate partitioning changes between the true dissolved
2 solution and the particulate phase, through mixing processes such as flocculation,
3 aggregation, and disaggregation (GIANI et al., 2005; XU et al., 2018; YI et al., 2014a).

4 The characterization of DOM forecast the complexation capacity of this
5 geochemical carrier and the metal relation with the DOM different fractions improve the
6 understanding of the carbon effects over the metal cycle. Fluorescence spectroscopy has
7 been widely used to characterize the nature of the part of the chromophoric dissolved
8 organic matter (CDOM), the component of DOM that absorbs light over a wide range of
9 ultraviolet and visible wavelength, by measuring the fluorescent dissolved organic
10 matter (FDOM). This technique is highly sensitive, selective, easy of use, and needs
11 small samples (Coble, 2007; Fellman et al., 2010). The detailed mapping of the FDOM
12 properties produces excitation-emission matrices (EEM) built by the merging excitation
13 and emission wavelength domains, which are suitable for multivariate data analysis
14 techniques such as PARAFAC ("Parallel Factor Analysis") (LIN et al., 2016; SHIN et
15 al., 2016b; XU; GUO, 2017). Through the decomposition of a set of EEMs, the
16 PARAFAC analysis quantifies the significant number of independent fluorescent
17 components.

18 In 2004, DOC and POC concentrations ranged from 586 to 1.716 and 83 to 273
19 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ respectively along the salinity gradient of the Jaguaribe River estuary, showing
20 marked seasonal variability with relatively high concentrations during the dry season
21 (MOUNIER et al., 2018). Besides, organic carbon concentrations decreased towards the
22 sea and with rising tide due to the dilution process. PARAFAC has identified two
23 components of CDOM in the Jaguaribe River estuary, peaks A and C, which correspond
24 to humic acids. The authors attributed the variation in the intensity ratio of these peaks
25 to the increased contribution of younger organic matter in higher salinity.

26 The Jaguaribe River estuary is located in the rural area of NE Brazil, without
27 significant sources of metals (OLIVEIRA; MARINS, 2011). However, the Hg
28 concentrations in oysters and sediments increased surprisingly within the post 13 years
29 due to the remobilization from soils and sediments by regional environmental changes
30 (RIOS et al., 2016), showing levels as high as some metropolitan sites. Besides, Moura
31 and Lacerda, (2018) observed that Hg concentrations in tissues of organisms from the
32 estuary marine-influenced portion were higher than those from the fluvial portion,
33 pointing to the importance of hydrodynamic variables (DIAS; MARINS; MAIA, 2013)
34 in controlling the hydrochemistry and Hg bioavailability (LACERDA et al., 2013). It

1 was hypothesized that the DOM quality and the influence of hydrodynamic parameters
2 determine the association between DOM and metals, being the key parameter of the
3 impact on the biota in the Jaguaribe River estuary. The aim of this study was to evaluate
4 DOM quality and its interaction with trace metals in the Jaguaribe River estuary. It was
5 performed through the quantification of dissolved and particulate organic carbon (DOC,
6 POC), characterization of OM by CDOM determination and the aromaticity index,
7 molecular fluorescence and its correlations with metals (Al, Fe, Cu, Ni, Pb, Cr, Sn, Sr,
8 Rb, Li, Mo, U, V) measured by ICP MS.

10 **5.3.2. Materials and methods**

11 **5.3.2.1. Study location and sampling strategy**

12 The Jaguaribe River estuary is located within the Northeastern coast of Brazil
13 (Figure 21). The annual rainfall coastal zone ranged from 400 to 2000 mm, with an
14 average of 912.7mm, during the past 30 years (FUNCEME, 2017). The Brazilian
15 semiarid climate is marked by a strong seasonal rainfall regime. The field campaign was
16 carried during the rainy season, in April 2018. This year, the system was recovering
17 from a severe drought caused by climate events (El Niño and anomalously warm
18 tropical North Atlantic) that lasted 6 years (MARENGO et al., 2017).

19 Aquaculture, urban, and rural activities are significant sources of nutrients and
20 probably organic matter (Eschrique et al., 2010) to the Jaguaribe River estuary.
21 Emission factors of nitrogen and phosphorus points that anthropogenic sources surpass
22 the natural sources in at least one order of magnitude (LACERDA et al., 2008), being
23 highlighted the aquaculture followed by wastewater and husbandry. Shrimp farming
24 presents high emission factors for Cu and Hg per unit of area to the Jaguaribe River
25 estuary, but contributes with relatively small annual discharges when compared to other
26 sources (LACERDA et al., 2011; LACERDA; SANTOS; MADRID, 2006). However,
27 shrimp farm emissions are directly disposed into estuarine waters and the major part of
28 the Hg present in effluents from shrimp farming occurs as dissolved species (COSTA et
29 al., 2013).

30 The tidal regime is semidiurnal and meso-tide, with maximum amplitude
31 reaching 3.0 m (DIAS et al., 2011). Freshwater discharges dropped from 60/130 m³s⁻¹ to
32 20 m³s⁻¹ after the built of major dams of the Jaguaribe River (DIAS; MARINS; MAIA,
33 2013). As a consequence of low freshwater supply, the tidal intrusion landward in the

1 Jaguaribe River estuary (DIAS et al., 2016) has caused several impacts as: retention of
 2 contaminants (LACERDA et al., 2013), mangrove expansion (GODOY; LACERDA,
 3 2014, 2015), reduction of sediment from watershed (DIAS et al., 2016; DIAS;
 4 MARINS; MAIA, 2013b), high saline conditions (DIAS et al., 2016; MARINS et al.,
 5 2003).

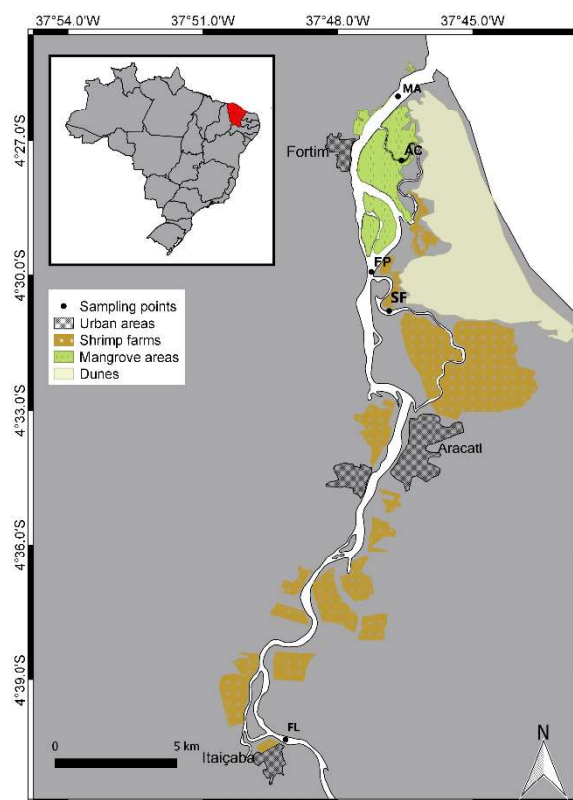


Figure 21 - Study area and sampling stations

Five sampling stations were distributed in the estuary (Figure 21) to collect the water samples and to measure the hydrochemical parameters. The sampling stations corresponded to the fluvial (FL), marine (MA), mangrove (AC) and shrimp farm (SF) end-members and a fixed point (FP) in the estuary's maximum turbidity zone. The SF station was located at the Cumbe Chanel that is heavily impacted by shrimp farms since they discharge their effluents directly into it (COSTA et al., 2013). Whereas, the AC point was in the Amor Chanel that is surrounded by a well-preserved mangrove area. A temporal sampling was performed to evaluate the tidal influence in the organic matter quality and its interaction with trace metals, in a fixed point (FP) at the middle estuary (Figure 21). Every hour and a half, for 9 hours (from 8 am to 5 pm), water samples were taken in a fixed point (FP) at the middle estuary (Figure 21). These samples were

1 numbered from 1 to 7, following the temporal order of sampling.

2 A portable YSI multiparametric probe (model professional plus) was used to
3 measure salinity, temperature and dissolved oxygen and a portable pH meter (Metrohm)
4 to measure pH in situ. Subsurface water (0.5 m) was sampled with an acrylic Van Dorn
5 bottle, totaling 11 water samples. Immediately after sampling, water samples were
6 filtered through pre-combusted (at 450°C, 12h) and acid-washed glass microfiber filters
7 Whatman with a 0.45 µm mesh to collect suspended particles for further analysis of
8 particulate organic carbon and particulate nitrogen (POC, PN) and suspended particulate
9 material (MPS). After filtration, 200 mL samples were conserved by the addition of
10 sodium azide (NaN₃) (1mM final concentration, so typically 200µL of 1M NaN₃ in
11 200mL) in the fridge, avoiding biological development and further OM alteration until
12 posterior chemical analyses in the laboratory. Chlorophyll *a* (Chl-*a*) was quantified in
13 samples retained in AP40 fiberglass filters until saturation.

14 The tidal curve was plotted based on data provided by Diretoria de Hidrografia e
15 Navegação do Brasil for the Areia Branca-Termisa (RN) port. They corresponded to
16 three values of water level for the day of sampling (two at high tide and one at low tide),
17 taking into account the 3-hour delay of the gravity wave between the Areia Branca -
18 Termisa (RN) port and the interior of the Jaguaribe estuary calculated by Dias (2007).

19

20 **5.3.2.2. *Cross-flow ultrafiltration treatment***

21 Three extra subsurface water samples (20 L each sample) with different salinities
22 were pumped from the fixed point (Figure 21) during the high (8 am), slack (9:30 am)
23 and low (11 am) tide that corresponded to points 1, 3 and 5 respectively. The
24 fractionation of colloidal and dissolved phases of these samples was performed by
25 ultrafiltration method. A pre-filtration of samples with a 0.45 µm filter to obtain the bulk
26 samples. The fractionation of the DOM and dissolved metals were achieved sequentially
27 using a tangential flow filtration system (Pellicon 2 - Millipore). The cartridges used
28 had a porosity of 0.1 µm, 10 kDa and 1 kDa molecular weight cut-off.

29 The material retained in these cartridges were concentrated to a volume of
30 approximately 200 mL, resulting in three COM fractions to each sample (>0.1 µm, >10
31 kDa and > 1 kDa). At the end of the experiment, seven sub-samples were obtained from
32 each sample: one bulk, three concentrated, and three permeate samples.

33 The concentration factor of the ultrafiltration (Fc) is the ratio between the

1 volumes of permeate (V_p) and retentive (V_r) to each membrane (Table S1). Permeate
 2 solutions were saved (200 mL) to verification of the efficiency of the ultrafiltration
 3 system by a mass balance of DOC (Table 1) and metals. The recoveries (%) in the
 4 ultrafiltration process can be calculated as follows:

$$5 \quad R (\%) = [(C_p \times V_p) + (C_r \times V_r)] / [C_b \times V_b] \times 100,$$

6 where C_b , C_p , and C_r represent DOC and metals concentrations in the bulk,
 7 permeate, and retentate respectively. V_b , correspond to the volume of the bulk sample.

Table 8 - DOC, Li, Rb, Sr, Mo, V and Cu recovery (%) in each cartridge to each sample

	DOC			-			-		
Sample	1	3	5	-	-	-	-	-	-
0.1 μ m	99.8	96.5	96.8	-	-	-	-	-	-
10kDa	85.5	87.6	92.9	-	-	-	-	-	-
1kDa	108.5	107.2	100.9	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Li			Rb			Sr		
Sample	1	3	5	1	3	5	1	3	5
0.1 μ m	93.7	96.7	94.9	96.9	98.0	94.7	97.6	98.4	98.2
10kDa	68.2	94.4	93.8	64.4	95.5	93.8	63.0	96.6	96.6
1kDa	142.0	92.3	92.3	93.9	96.4	93.5	94.1	95.6	95.9
	Mo			V			Cu		
Sample	1	3	5	1	3	5	1	3	5
0.1 μ m	97.4	95.6	97.3	83.6	85.9	95.8	128.6	102.7	138.1
10kDa	69.5	95.1	96.9	58.4	96.2	97.3	83.2	78.2	115.7
1kDa	95.3	95.0	95.9	78.1	96.3	99.1	113.5	93.0	123.6

8

9 The cartridges were washed with H_3PO_4 (0.1N) solution and 30L of Milli-Q
 10 water among the ultrafiltered samples, to remove possible traces of samples and to
 11 neutralize the pH of the cartridges. In the concentration step of the fractions, ultrapure
 12 water was added continuously until the conductivity was below 100 $\mu S \cdot cm^{-1}$, for the
 13 removal of excess salts that could harm the further analyzes.

14

15 5.3.2.3. *Metal analyses*

16 Metals (Li, Rb, Sr, Mo, U, Sn, Pb, Cu, Ni, Fe, Al, V and Cr) concentrations in
 17 the bulk samples were determined by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry
 18 (ICP-MS, Laboratory MIO-Marseille). Samples were diluted (2 times) with acidified
 19 Milli-Q water to avoid the effect of salt concentrations. Indium (In) was used as an
 20 internal standard for quality control.

1 **5.3.2.4. Measurements of Chl-*a*, organic carbon and optical properties**

2 Chlorophyll *a* (Chl-*a*) and pheophytin was quantified in samples retained in
3 AP40 fiberglass filters until saturation, extracted in acetone, and quantified using a
4 spectrophotometer, according to ISO 10260 (1992) protocol.

5 DOC was measured using oxidation in a catalytic Pt bed at 650°C with an
6 automated TOC analyzer (Shimadzu TOC 5000). For the determination of DOC,
7 samples were earlier acidified with HNO₃ (10%) and purged with an inert gas (O₂) to
8 remove inorganic carbon. Next, the organic carbon remaining in the acidified sample
9 (HNO₃) was processed. The oxidation product (CO₂) of DOC was carried by ultrapure
10 O₂ gas to the non-dispersive infrared analysis detector (NDIR) and then quantified. The
11 accuracy of analyze was 98% using phthalate calibration. DOC data reported the mean
12 of three replicate injections, for which the coefficient of variance was <2%. Prior to
13 elemental organic carbon and nitrogen analysis in the particulate material, the filters
14 were treated in silver boats with HCl vapor to remove carbonates. POC and PN analyses
15 were made using a Flash 2000 elemental analyzer (Thermo Scientific IRMS). The
16 analytical control was performed by the certified soil reference material (Thermo
17 Scientific, Germany), resulting in above 94% of precision.

18 The UV absorption spectra were measured from 240–800 nm at medium speed
19 on a double beam UV-1800 (Shimadzu) in 1 cm quartz. Milli-Q water was used as a
20 reference. The absorption coefficient of CDOM, a_{254} , was calculated as $a(\lambda) =$
21 $2.303A(\lambda)/L$, where A is the absorbance, λ is the wavelength at 254nm and L is the cell
22 length in meters. The specific ultraviolet absorbance (SUVA) is the aromaticity index of
23 OM, used as a proxy for DOM reactivity and composition. SUVA is defined as the ratio
24 between UV absorbance at $\lambda = 254$ nm and DOC concentration (mg L⁻¹) (Weishaar et al.
25 2003).

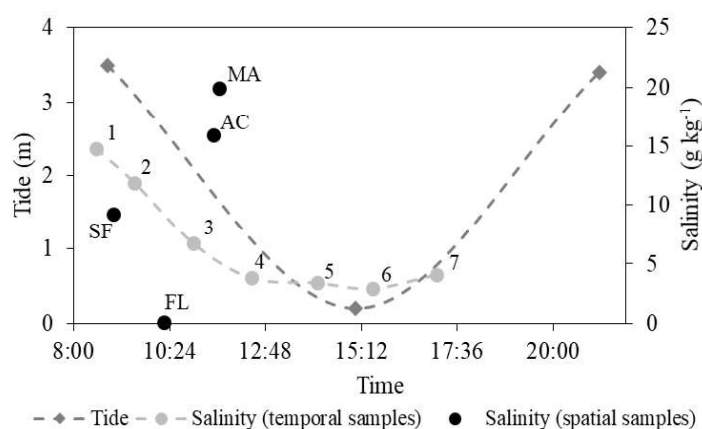
26 Fluorescence spectra of DOM samples were acquired on a HITACHI F 4500
27 spectrofluorometer (Triad Scientific) to spatial and temporal bulk samples. Fluorescence
28 excitation–emission matrices (EEM) were constructed by scanning the excitation
29 wavelengths from 250 to 500 nm and emission wavelengths from 250 to 700 nm, both
30 with at 5-nm intervals and a scanning speed of 240 nm min⁻¹. Rayleigh and Raman
31 physical diffusion of light were numerically removed by the method proposed by Zepp
32 et al. (2004). The EEMs were modeled with PARAFAC using MATLAB and the N-way
33 toolbox for MATLAB (Stedmon and Bro, 2008). The analysis of residual variance core

1 consistency diagnostic (CONCORDIA) was used to determine the number of
 2 components before the EEMs decomposition into individual components by PARAFAC
 3 analysis. The fluorescence of each component was represented by the maximum
 4 fluorescence F_{max} (RU, Raman units) (Stedmon and Markager, 2005; Kowalczyk et al.,
 5 2009).

7 5.3.3. Results and discussion

8 5.3.3.1. *Tide variation in the Jaguaribe River estuary*

9 The tide presented minimum and maximum peaks of 0.2 and 3.5 m respectively.
 10 The salinity varied from 2.9 to 14.8 $g\ kg^{-1}$, reflecting the tidal variation during the
 11 temporal sampling (Figure 22). Salinity decreased during the ebb tide, with the
 12 minimum value occurring at low tide. The spatial sampling was performed in the ebb
 13 tide as well as most of the temporal sampling, except points 6 and 7.



14
 15 **Figure 22** - Tidal and salinity variation in the Jaguaribe River estuary. Numbers
 and letters refers to the samples from temporal and spatial sampling respectively.

16 5.3.3.2. *Characterization of fluorescent components*

17 Three fluorescent components were identified using the PARAFAC model with
 18 CONCORDIA of 84.4%. They were compared to fluorophores from estuarine
 19 environments (COBLE, 2007; PARLANTI et al., 2000; STEDMON; MARKAGER,
 20 2005). In these works, it was possible to observe that the differentiation between protein
 21 and humic-like DOM is done easier through emission wavelength, which is higher than
 22 370 nm to humic-like DOM and lower than 370 nm to protein-like DOM. The
 23 component 1 (C1) presented a fluorescence peak at an excitation/emission wavelength

1 at 315 nm/420 nm, similar to the marine humic-like Peak M defined by Coble (1996) in
 2 seawater. However, with the increased amount of studies it was observed this peak has
 3 also been found in terrestrial sources (COBLE, 2007; STEDMON; MARKAGER,
 4 2005) and microbial humic substances (OSBURN et al., 2012; STEDMON;
 5 MARKAGER; BRO, 2003). Component 2 (C2) was composed of two separate
 6 excitation peaks, the first (265 nm/ 465 nm) and the second (365 nm/465 nm), which
 7 were within the range for terrestrial humic compounds analyzed by Stedmon and
 8 Markager, (2005) in estuarine waters. The component 3 (C3) was also composed by two
 9 separate excitation peaks, the first (285/ 510) and the second (405/510), that resembled
 10 a combination of humic-like fluorophores (A and C) derived from terrestrial source
 11 (COBLE, 2007) (Figure 23).

12

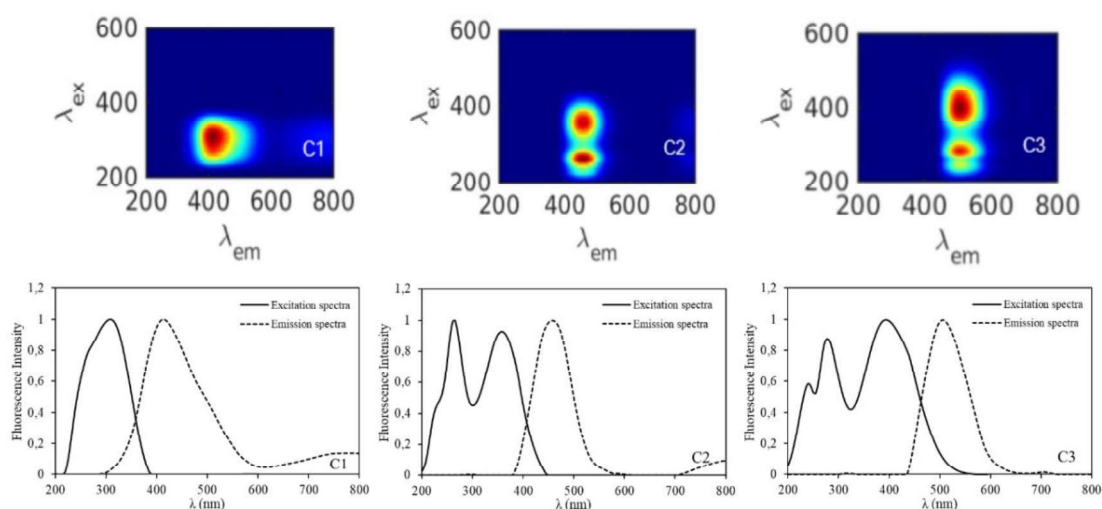


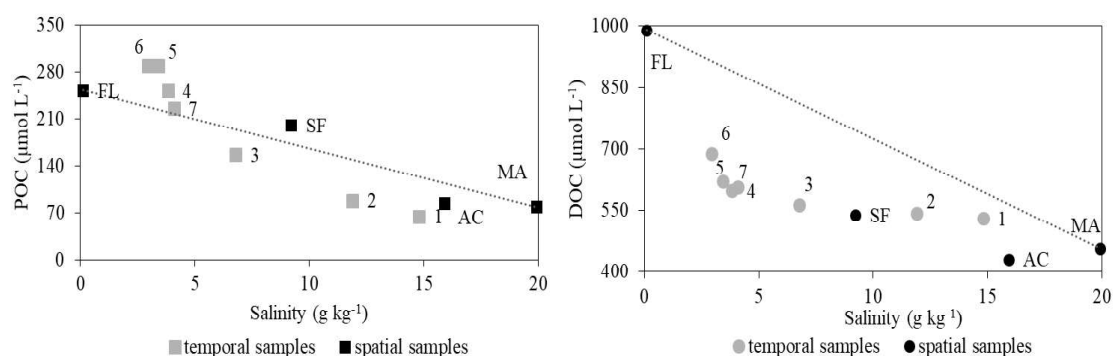
Figure 23 - Contour plots of three components (C1 – C3) of CDOM from the Jaguaribe River estuary identified using the PARAFAC model. Excitation (solid lines), emission loadings (dotted lines) of each contour plot.

13

14 5.3.3.3. *Variation of the organic matter, optical properties and dissolved metals* 15 *in the salinity gradient.*

16 In the spatial sampling, the highest POC and DOC concentrations occurred in
 17 the fluvial region (Figures 24a and 24b), as observed in 2004 by Mounier et al. (2018),
 18 but with DOC concentration 70% lower comparatively. It might have been a result of
 19 the intense drought in the region lately (Marengo et al., 2017). However, the DOC and
 20 POC concentrations in the estuary mouth were similar to those of the Amor (AC)
 21 channel, indicating the influence of this channel in the mouth since the sampling took

1 place at ebb tide. The Cumbe Channel (SF) presented higher concentrations than AC
 2 and similar to the fixed point (1-3) with similar salinity values (Figures 24a and 24b).



11 **Figure 24** - Concentrations of (a) POC and (b) DOC plotted against salinity with
 12 conservative mixing line calculated from fluvial and marine end-members. Numbers
 13 and letters refers to the samples from temporal and spatial sampling respectively.

14 The theoretical conservative mixing lines were plotted using the respective
 15 concentrations found between the marine and riverine end-members. POC
 16 concentrations were between 56.0 and 289.9 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, with an average of 180.4 ± 88.5
 17 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. DOC concentrations in bulk samples varied from 430.9 to 990.0 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$,
 18 with an average of $597.0 \pm 149.1 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. POC and DOC concentrations presented a
 19 non-conservative decrease along the estuarine salinity gradient (Figures 24a and 24b).
 20 Besides, DOC showed constant concentrations in salinities between 7 and 15 g kg^{-1}
 21 during the ebb tide (Figure 22). The behavior of POC and DOC indicates that their
 22 dynamics were not controlled only by marine dilution (MOYER et al., 2015), but by
 23 biogeochemical processes, as precipitation, adsorption/desorption and microbial and
 24 photodegradation.

25 The temporal variability of DOC did not present significant correlation with Chl-
 26 *a* ($r = 0.099$; $p < 0.05$). However, POC showed a significant positive correlation with
 27 Chl-*a* ($r = 0.667$; $p < 0.05$), indicating the contribution of phytoplankton to the
 28 particulate OM dynamic.

29 CDOM (a_{254}) varied from 40.1 to 132.9 (m^{-1}), with average of $56.5 \pm 26.4 (\text{m}^{-1})$.
 30 The strong relationship between DOC and CDOM ($r = 0.948$, $p < 0.01$) showed that
 31 CDOM is a representative fraction of the DOM in the Jaguaribe River estuary, as
 32 observed in others estuaries (WANG et al., 2004).

1 SUVA₂₅₄ varied from 6.2 to 7.2 m⁻¹/(mg-C/L), with an average of 7.7 ± 1.4
2 m⁻¹/(mg-C/L), in the Jaguaribe River estuary. SUVA₂₅₄ values above 3 m⁻¹/(mg-C/L)
3 indicate an high degree of aromaticity and unsaturation of the DOM that reflect
4 environments with high terrestrial inputs. While lower values indicate low aromaticity
5 and higher relative abundances of autochthonous DOM, being 1.8 m⁻¹/(mg-C/L)
6 described as algae and bacterial derived OM (ROSARIO-ORTIZ; SNYDER; SUFFET,
7 2007) and ocean samples 0.6 m⁻¹/(mg-C/L) (WEISHAAR et al., 2003). The high
8 SUVA₂₅₄ values measured at station 10 was due to the contribution of the mangrove
9 forest to the OM to this channel in the ebb tide (Figure 21).

10 Normally, CDOM and SUVA₂₅₄ decrease with salinity in estuaries. Some of
11 them present conservative behavior related to the dilution by marine waters (WANG et
12 al., 2014). While others show a non-conservative behavior caused by photodegradation,
13 flocculation and/or precipitation (DIXON et al., 2014; GUO et al., 2007; YAMASHITA
14 et al., 2010). In the Jaguaribe River estuary, CDOM and SUVA₂₅₄ decreased with
15 salinity non-conservatively during the temporal sampling (Figures 25a and 25b),
16 indicating that the DOM suffered changes with the tide dynamics. The decrease of
17 SUVA₂₅₄ indicates a reduction of terrestrial inputs, related to the marine contribution
18 (ROSARIO-ORTIZ; SNYDER; SUFFET, 2007), but also the degradation of labile
19 aromatic compounds by photobleaching and/or flocculation (DIXON et al., 2014). The
20 higher CDOM concentrations in freshwater than in estuarine waters indicates that the
21 DOM is more reactive in freshwater (YI et al., 2014a). Since OM from freshwater was
22 more susceptible to photodegradation, the mixing of fluvial and seawater favors OM
23 degradation due to the less turbidity in the marine waters and consequently higher light
24 penetration (GUO et al., 2012). Then, the non-conservative behavior and reduction of
25 CDOM and SUVA₂₅₄ in the Jaguaribe River estuary show the relevance of tides in the
26 process as photooxidation and flocculation to the DOM cycling in this estuary.

27 The three components, identified by PARAFAC, were present along all estuary
28 and showed higher concentrations in the freshwater (Figure 25c). The fluorescence
29 intensity of C1 and C2 were similar among them in estuarine waters. C1 had the highest
30 fluorescence intensity in estuarine water, but C2 was the most intense at fluvial end-
31 member. C3 presented the lowest fluorescence values in all salinity gradient.

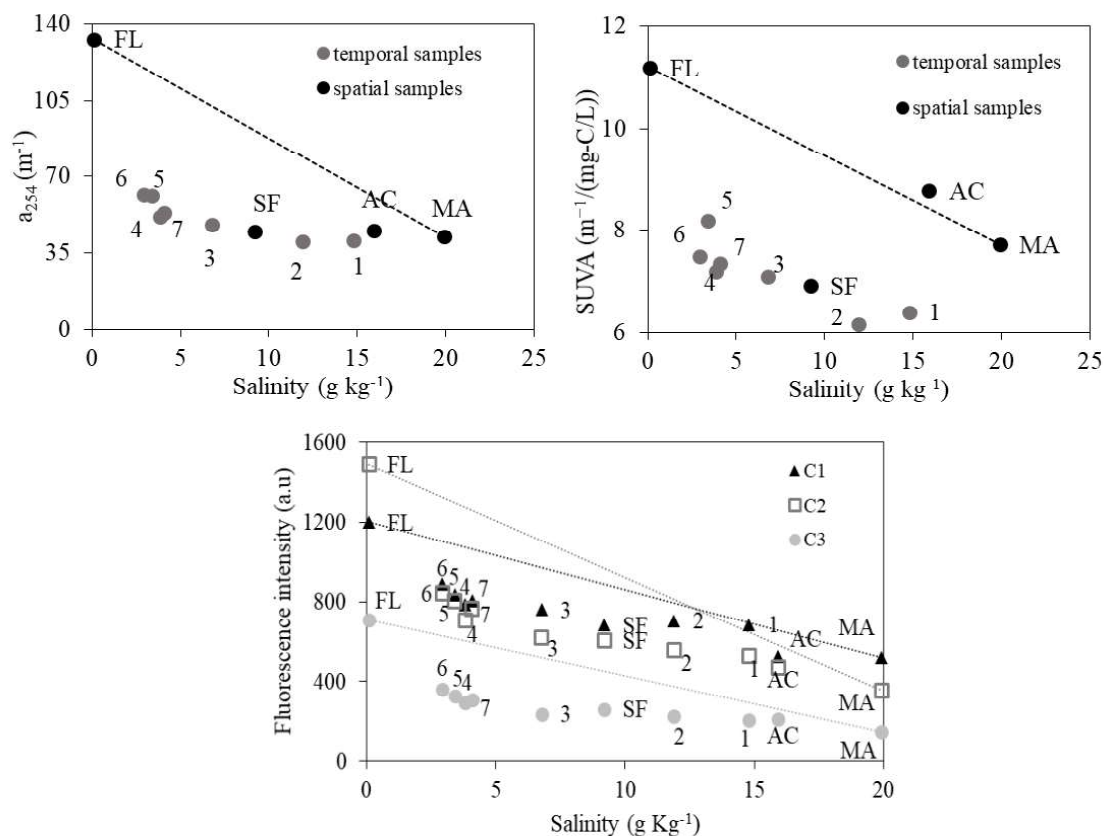


Figure 25 - Variation of the (a) a_{254} (b) SUVA and (c) three components of DOM with salinity. Numbers and letters refers to the samples from temporal and spatial sampling respectively.

1

2 A non-conservative decrease was observed in the fluorescence intensity of the
 3 components with the increase of salinity (Figure 25c). This behavior was similar to the
 4 OM components terrestrial-derived (peaks II, III and IV) from the Piauí River estuary,
 5 located at NE Brazil, while the fluorophore marine-derived (peak I) increased (COSTA
 6 et al., 2011). The fluorescence intensity of terrestrial OM normally decreases with
 7 estuarine mixing (OSBURN et al., 2012; WANG et al., 2017; YI et al., 2014a) as result
 8 of the dilution, photobleaching, adsorption and flocculation process (COBLE, 2007;
 9 GUO et al., 2007, 2012; WANG et al., 2014). Then, the fluorescence and SUVA₂₅₄
 10 results confirm the terrestrial origin of the OM in the Jaguaribe River estuary during the
 11 rainy season. However, the terrestrial inputs are probably reduced during the dry season
 12 due to the reduced fluvial supply in this season (DIAS et al., 2016), resulting in a
 13 distinct dynamics of the DOM because of its greater lability.

14

15

16

1 5.3.3.4. *Size distributions of OM with estuarine mixing*

2 The POC ($> 0.45 \mu\text{m}$) ranged from 10.9 to 31.8 % of the OM in the
3 Jaguaribe River estuary and DOC ranged from 89.1 to 68.2 %. The dominant fraction of
4 DOC was the <1 kDa LMW-DOM (Figure 26b), ranging from 474.4 to 544.2 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$
5 (average of $505.9 \pm 35.4 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) that corresponds to 57.6 to 77.6 % of the total
6 organic matter (TOM) and between 80.5 and 85.3% of the DOM. The colloidal OM
7 (COM) (>1 kDa) concentrations ranged of 25.8 to 39.3 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, with an average of
8 $32.9 \pm 4.9 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ that corresponded to 4.5 ± 1.0 % of the TOM and 5.7 ± 1.0 % of the
9 DOM. Most of the DOM was similar to DOM in the Jiulong River Estuary, where
10 DOM was preponderantly derived from soil leaching (YI et al., 2014a). Mangroves
11 might have been important contributors to the estuarine DOM in the Jaguaribe River,
12 considering that the highest DOC concentrations were observed at low tide (Figure
13 24b), when the DOM contribution derived from the mangrove through tidal pumping is
14 higher (BOUILLON et al., 2007; REZENDE et al., 2007). However, the percentage of
15 COM in the Jaguaribe River estuary was much lower than observed worldwide (DUAN;
16 BIANCHI, 2006; GUO et al., 2009; STEPHENS; MINOR, 2010; XU; GUO, 2017).

17 The reduction of POC and the increase of LMW-DOM and COM with salinity
18 increase (Figure 26a) indicate a reduction in OM particle size along the salinity
19 gradient. In a negative freshwater estuary (China), the OM size reduced with salinity.
20 This reduction was caused mainly by physical mixing, followed by photochemical and
21 microbial degradation, disaggregation, and repartitioning. The disaggregation process
22 converts organic aggregates into smaller size fractions as a consequence of the ionic
23 strength increased by the estuarine mixing (XU et al., 2018). Another relevant process
24 was the photodegradation, as discussed previously, that can increase the LMW fraction,
25 remove the CDOM (XU et al., 2018). Another relevant process was the
26 photodegradation, as discussed previously, that can increase the LMW fraction, remove
27 the CDOM (XU et al., 2018) and produce dissolved inorganic carbon (GUO et al.,
28 2012) through the break of COM. The optical properties of the DOM and of its size
29 change suggest photodegradation has an important driver in the OM cycling in the
30 Jaguaribe River estuary.

1

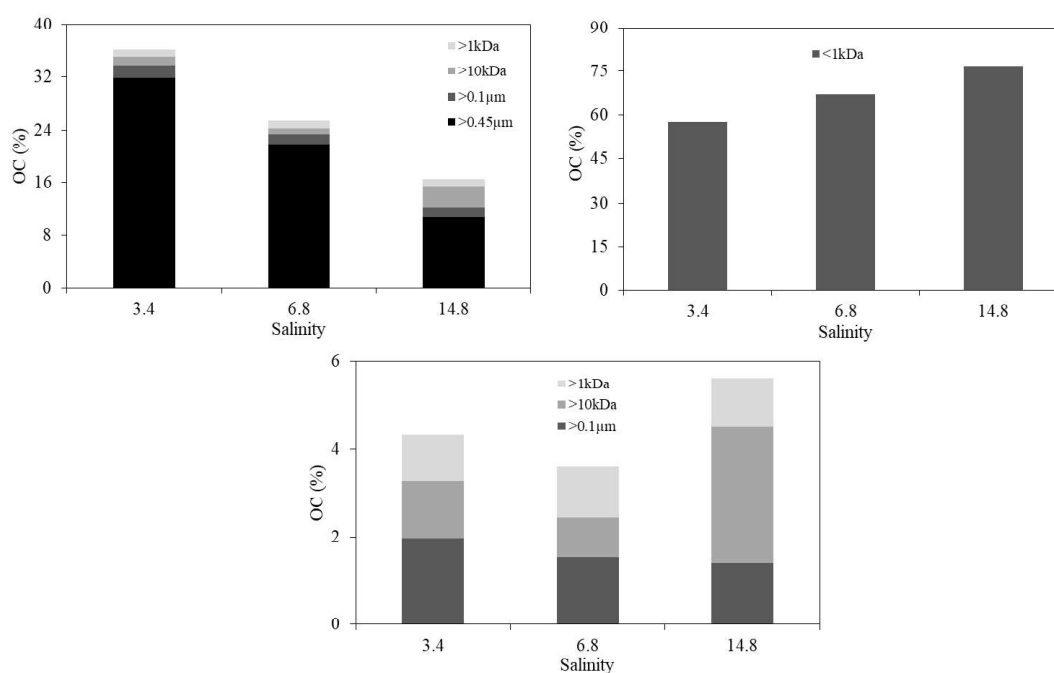


Figure 26 – Size distribution of total organic carbon in the column water of the Jaguaribe River estuary with salinity variation.

2

3 The sum of the COM fractions presented an increasing tendency with salinity,
 4 but a reduction (~27%) was observed in an intermediary salinity 6.8 g kg⁻¹ (Figure 26c),
 5 reflecting the behavior of the DOM in bulk samples. Besides, the conversion of COM in
 6 LMW with the salinity increasing, as mentioned above, COM removal at salinity 6.8 g
 7 kg⁻¹ might have been strengthened by flocculation that is commonly reported to
 8 salinities below 10 g kg⁻¹ (COBLE, 2007).

9

10 5.3.3.5. *Dissolved metals*

11 Dissolved metals concentrations were presented in Table 9. The concentration
 12 order of the metals in the Jaguaribe River estuary was Sr > Al > Rb > Fe > Li > Mo > U
 13 > V > Cu > Ni > Pb > Cr > Sn. The concentrations of U, Sn, Pb, V, Cr, Fe, Ni, Al and
 14 Cu measured in the Jaguaribe River estuary were within the range for world river waters
 15 (GAILLARDET; VIERS; DUPRÉ, 2013). However, the concentrations of Li, Rb, Sr,
 16 and Mo were above the range for world river water (GAILLARDET; VIERS; DUPRÉ,
 17 2013), because the estuarine region receives a large contribution of seawater that is rich
 18 in these elements (BRULAND; LOHAN, 2003).

1 Table 10 shows metals relationships with DOC and salinity and inter-element
2 correlation. Besides, similarities among dissolved metals, salinity and DOC were
3 evaluated using multivariate cluster analysis. Two groups were clearly recognized
4 (Figure 27). Group 1 comprising salinity, Li, Rb, Sr, Mo, U, Pb and Sn and Group 2
5 including DOC, Cr, Fe, V, Al, Cu, and Ni. The Group 1 was arranged in two small
6 groups differed mainly by the similarity with salinity: one group containing salinity, Li,
7 Rb, Sr, Mo and U, and the other Pb and Sn. Table10 shows a positive correlation
8 between Li, Rb, Sr, Mo, and U with salinity. Moreover, they showed conservative
9 mixing behavior (Figure S1). The clustering of Li, Rb, Sr, Mo and U occurred because
10 they present a similar behavior, since they belong to the trace metal groups with high
11 and moderated mobility (GAILLARDET; VIERS; DUPRÉ, 2013). Then these metals
12 are found in high concentrations in seawater (BRULAND; LOHAN, 2003). While Pb
13 and Sn were not significantly correlated with salinity, presenting a non-conservative
14 decline with salinity (Figure S1). Group 2 clustered the variables negatively associated
15 with salinity (Table 10). Besides, in this group, the metals were separated into small
16 groups following their relationship with DOC and their reactivity. The metals with
17 greater association to DOC (Fe, V, and Cr) were separated from the others, as can be
18 seen in Table 10. The groups also reflected their mobility, Cr, Fe, V are classified as
19 metals with low mobility, Ni and Cu as moderate lability and the Al is among the most
20 immobile elements (GAILLARDET; VIERS; DUPRÉ, 2013).

Table 9 - Ranges, averages and standard deviation of dissolved metals concentrations from the Jaguaribe River estuary.

Group	Li ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	Rb ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	Sr ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	Mo ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	Sn ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	Al ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	U ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	V ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	Cr ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	Fe ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	Ni ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	Cu ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	Pb ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)
Group 1	1.81 - 73.99	3.20 - 95.39	176.1 - 5578.83							0.70 - 7.12	0.27 - 3.09	0.06 - 0.21	0.01 - 4.55
	34.22 \pm 24.87	40.51 \pm 31.55	2669.28 \pm 1831.87							3.35 \pm 2.11	1.18 \pm 0.94	0.12 \pm 0.06	0.44 \pm 1.36
Group 2	Al ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	V ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	Cr ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	Fe ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	Ni ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	Cu ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)							-
	0.97 - 805.54	2.08 - 4.99	0.06 - 0.92	0.68 - 410.97	0.47 - 2.2	0.34 - 2.91							
	75.21 \pm 242.23	3.05 \pm 0.79	0.16 \pm 0.25	39.95 \pm 123.06	1.20 \pm 0.49	1.24 \pm 0.73							

Table 10 – Matrix correlation between dissolved metals, salinity and DOC

	Li	Rb	Sr	Mo	Sn	Pb	U	Al	V	Cr	Fe	Ni	Cu	DOC	S
Li	1														
Rb	0.990	1													
Sr	0.990	1	1												
Mo	1.000	0.990	0.990	1											
Sn	-0.072	-0.045	-0.045	-0.073	1										
Pb	-0.363	0.309	0.309	-0.364	0.664	1									
U	0.990	0.982	0.982	0.99	-0.054	-0.372	1								
Al	-0.809	-0.746	-0.746	-0.809	0.464	0.746	-0.8	1							
V	-0.909	-0.918	-0.918	-0.909	-0.027	0.273	-0.9	0.609	1						
Cr	-0.881	0.927	0.927	-0.882	0.027	0.246	-0.89	0.554	0.882	1					
Fe	-0.845	-0.863	-0.863	-0.846	-0.009	0.336	-0.854	0.554	0.973	0.9	1				
Ni	-0.818	-0.863	-0.863	-0.812	-0.191	0.109	-0.854	0.509	0.755	0.818	0.727	1			
Cu	-0.772	-0.709	-0.709	-0.773	0.1	0.5	-0.8	0.8	0.591	0.509	0.527	0.682	1		
DOC	-0.981	-0.973	-0.973	-0.982	0.073	0.291	-0.964	0.764	0.891	0.854	0.809	0.809	0.773	1	
S	-0.99	1.000	1.000	0.991	-0.046	-0.309	0.982	-0.746	-0.912	-0.927	-0.836	-0.864	-0.709	-0.973	1

3 The metals clustered with DOC also exhibited a non-conservative behavior, probably
 4 being regulated by the OM in the estuary. However, this interaction is worrying, because while
 5 DOM-metal association can stabilize toxic metals through their precipitation to bottom
 6 sediments, it can also make the contaminants available to the biota (MACHADO et al., 2016).

7 The metals were distributed mainly in the truly dissolved phase (<1 kDa), as well as the
 8 DOM (Figure 28a), corresponding to more than 90% of the bulk sample to each metal. The trace
 9 metals in the total colloidal phase (>1 kDa) varied from 3.5 to 7.3 % (Figure 28b-g). Some metals
 10 (eg.: Cu, Pb, and Cd) are normally associated with colloids in estuarine environments (WAELES
 11 et al., 2008). Metal partitioning depends on the competition between ligands with high and low
 12 molecular weight. In the Jaguaribe River estuary, the small concentration of COM may have
 13 influenced the low concentration of metals in the colloidal phase.

14

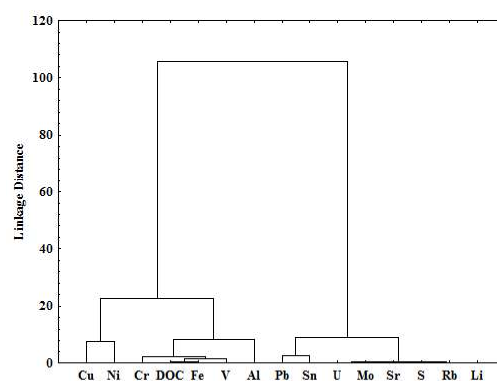


Figure 27 - Cluster analysis of the dissolved metals, salinity and DOC in the Jaguaribe River estuary.

15

16 The partitioning of metals concentration between filtration classes were practically
 17 constant with salinity variation in the dissolved phase (< 1 kDa), showing a slight increase at
 18 salinity 6.8 g kg⁻¹ (Figure 28a). Li, Rb, Sr, and Mo were practically constant with salinity
 19 variation in the colloidal fraction, showing a slightly decreasing trend in Sn and Mo percentages
 20 with salinity. However, the percentage of colloidal V and Cu decrease at salinity 6.8 g kg⁻¹
 21 (Figure 28f-g), as observed to the COM, indicating that these metals were regulated by OM.
 22 Then, these metals were probably removed from column water by flocculation. The colloidal size
 23 distribution of metals varied with salinity, reducing at high tide. The largest colloidal size
 24 percentage (>0.1 μm) reduced at salinity 6.8 g kg⁻¹, while the >10 kDa and >1 kDa increased at
 25 salinity 6.8 (except the Cu >1 kDa that decreased at salinity 6.8 g kg⁻¹).

26 In the Jaguaribe River estuary, the DOM was composed predominantly of humic
 27 substances that have a strong complexing capacity with metals (Fang et al., 2015; Yang and Van
 28 Den Berg, 2009). Besides, the DOM was preponderantly in the truly dissolved phase (<1kDa)
 29 that is the OM form with higher mobility. Therefore, metals positively related to DOM (Cu, Ni,
 30 Fe, Cr, V) also have high mobility. Different from expected, the DOM sources are the same along
 31 the fluvial and estuarine region of the Jaguaribe River estuary, during the rainy season. Then, the
 32 OM size and environmental variables that control the reactivity of OM, very probably, were the
 33 main drives of metal bioavailability in the Jaguaribe River estuary, since the LMW-DOM

34 increased in the estuarine region and DOM partitioning was controlled by environmental
 35 variables.
 36

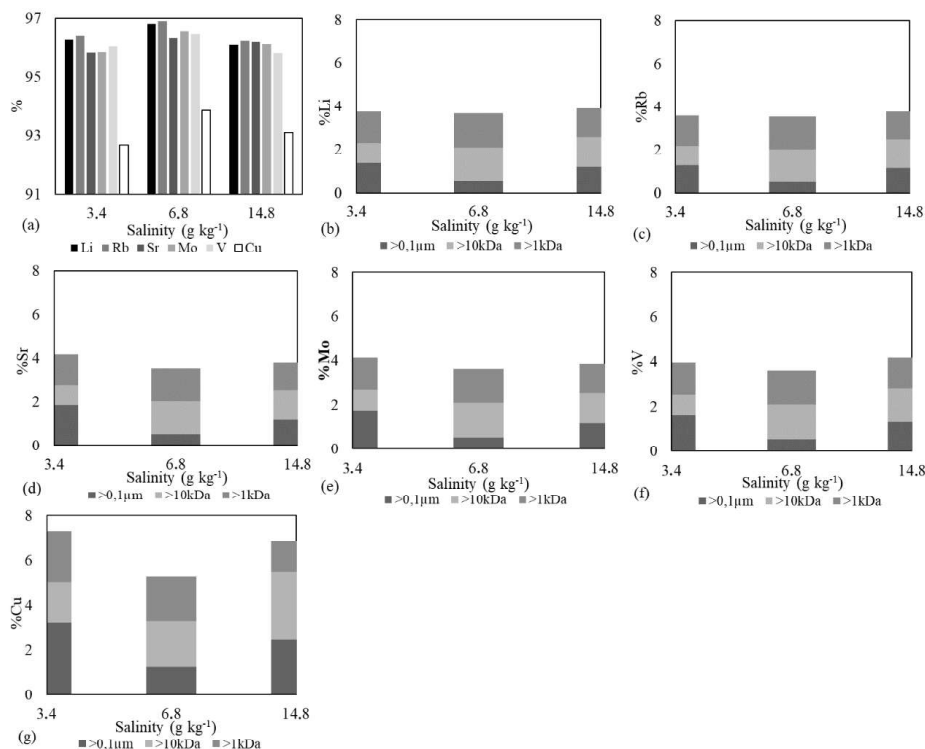


Figure 27 - (a) Distribution of the truly dissolved metals and colloidal size distribution of (b) Li (c) Rb, (d) Sr, (e) Mo, (f) V, (g) Cu with salinity variation in the Jaguaribe River estuary.

37

38 5.3.4. Conclusion

39 The PARAFAC analyses identified three DOM fluorophores derived from terrestrial inputs
 40 and composed by humic and fulvic acids, while the correlation between POC and Chl-*a* showed a
 41 significant contribution of phytoplankton to the POM. The cluster analysis showed the relationship
 42 between DOM and some trace metals (Cu, Fe, Cr, V), indicating that they were associated and that
 43 DOM regulated their dynamic. The reduction of metals (Cu and V) associated with colloidal phase and
 44 COM at mesohaline salinity pointed to the flocculation and stabilization of these contaminants. However,
 45 DOM and trace metals were preponderantly in the truly dissolved fraction (<1 kDa), suggesting their high
 46 mobility in the Jaguaribe River estuary. The relationship between DOM and Cu and Cr in this
 47 fraction is very worrying due to the high toxicity of these elements to the organisms. Although
 48 the source of the OM has not changed along the salinity gradient or with the tide at the fixed
 49 point, its reactivity and the relationship between DOM and metals changed. In addition,
 50 geochemical processes, such as photo and/or microbial degradation and flocculation of OM, had
 51 a great influence on the OM partitioning and consequently on the mobility of trace metals.

52

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- 261 **5.3.6. Supplementary material**
- 262

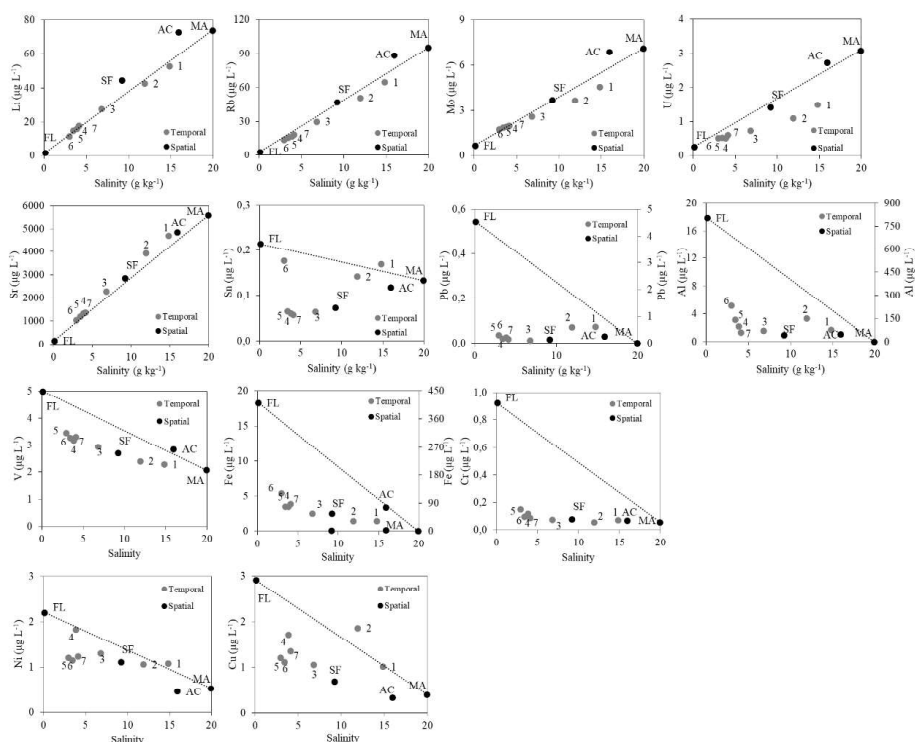


Figure S1- Concentrations of dissolved metals plotted against salinity with conservative mixing line calculated from fluvial and marine end-members.

263

Table S1 - Concentration factor in each cartridge to each sample.

Sample	Concentration factor ²⁶⁴		
	1	3	5
0.1µm	90.9	90.9	76.9
10kDa	75.1	75.1	108.2
1kDa	76.0	76.0	266

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271 6. CONCLUSÃO GERAL

272 As secas e o barramento do rio Jaguaribe promoveram uma diminuição dramática
273 do fluxo de água doce e, conseqüentemente, uma forte intrusão salina na região estuarina.
274 Tais fatores levaram o sistema a condições de hipersalinidade e redução dos fluxos de
275 carbono para a plataforma continental. O fluxo de CID e COD, no estuário do rio Jaguaribe,
276 foi menor do que o esperado para um rio tropical, mas semelhante a outros rios chineses e
277 sul-americanos que sofrem influência de barragens e redução da precipitação. De uma forma
278 geral, em estuários clássicos, a exportação (fluxo positivo) de carbono sofre apenas uma
279 redução durante períodos de baixa descarga fluvial. Enquanto que no estuário do rio
280 Jaguaribe, o carbono fica retido (fluxo negativo) durante a estação seca devido ao
281 represamento imposto pelas marés.

282 O comportamento do carbono no estuário do rio Jaguaribe foi fortemente
283 relacionado aos parâmetros hidrodinâmicos, como o tempo de residência, vazão e percentual
284 de água doce. Nas estações secas monitoradas, a zona de máximo de turbidez do estuário do
285 Rio Jaguaribe atuou como retentor de matéria orgânica e CID, enquanto que durante a estação
286 chuvosa atuou como um exportador. Correlações com a Chl-*a* mostraram que a atividade
287 fitoplanctônica tem baixa influencia no comportamento da MOD, porém tem correlação
288 estatisticamente significativa com a fração particulada da MO.

289 As análises isotópicas mostraram que a composição da MO estuarina é
290 predominantemente terrígena, sendo as marés o principal controlador de suas concentrações.
291 As análises de fenóis de lignina dissolvidos e de $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -COD mostraram que a principal origem
292 terrestre de MO para o estuário foram fragmentos de tecidos não lenhosos de plantas C_3
293 encontrados em sedimentos do entorno do estuário. Embora não tenha sido possível
294 discriminar as emissões de fontes antropogênicas das naturais, por meio das análises
295 isotópicas, as elevadas concentrações de MO e nitrogênio no canal da carcinicultura apontam
296 esta atividade como fonte relevante de MO e nutrientes para o estuário. Durante o período
297 estudado, foi observada uma modificação da qualidade da matéria orgânica através do
298 aumento do aporte de MO marinha, proporcionada pelo aumento da intrusão salina, com a
299 intensificação das secas pelo El Niño.

300 Os três fluóforos identificados pelo PARAFAC confirmaram a origem terrestre da
301 MOD no estuário do rio Jaguaribe, na estação chuvosa, e mostraram que ela é composta por
302 ácidos húmicos e fúlvicos. A MOD foi distribuída preponderantemente na fração
303 verdadeiramente dissolvida (<1 kDa). Embora a MOD tenha sido altamente aromática, esta
304 demonstrou ser muito reativa com a variação da salinidade através de seu comportamento não
305 conservativo, causado provavelmente por fotodegradação e desagregação.

306 Através das técnicas de composição isotópica e fluorescência molecular da
307 matéria orgânica de forma isolada, não foi possível avaliar de forma clara a contribuição
308 autóctone da MO no estuário do rio Jaguaribe provavelmente devido à sua baixa concentração
309 e similaridade de sinal com outras fontes, como os solos. A composição isotópica foi mais
310 eficiente na avaliação da contribuição das principais fontes de MO, porém as técnicas ópticas
311 caracterizaram melhor a MO, fornecendo informações sobre fontes, qualidade e idade da MO.

312 A análise de agrupamento e correlações de Spearman indicaram associação entre
 313 MOD e metais traço (Cu, Ni, Fe, Cr, V), sugerindo que a MOD regulou a dinâmica desses
 314 contaminantes, na estação chuvosa. A relação entre MOD e Cu e Cr é muito preocupante
 315 devido à alta toxicidade desses elementos para os organismos e o fato de que a MOD foi
 316 preponderantemente verdadeiramente dissolvida. Embora não tenha sido observada mudança
 317 da fonte da MOD espacial e temporalmente (com a variação da maré) durante a estação
 318 chuvosa, a relação entre MOD e metais ocorreu provavelmente devido à alta capacidade de
 319 ligação dos compostos húmicos com metais. Entretanto, há remoção de matéria orgânica
 320 coloidal e metais (Cu e V) associados a coloides em salinidade intermediária que indicaram
 321 floculação e estabilização de contaminantes neste instante da maré.

322 Embora análises estatísticas indiquem associação entre MO e metais, isto não foi
 323 possível ser avaliado quimicamente sendo necessário realizar análises da capacidade de
 324 complexação da matéria orgânica para melhor compreensão dessa interação e avaliação da
 325 biodisponibilidade dos metais traço. Logo, estudos futuros deverão contemplar uma melhor
 326 interação dos aspectos da degradação da MO pela ação microbiana e/ou fotoquímica.

327

328 7. REFERÊNCIAS ADICIONAIS

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