
Copper isotopes as a tool to trace contamination in mangroves from an urbanized watershed

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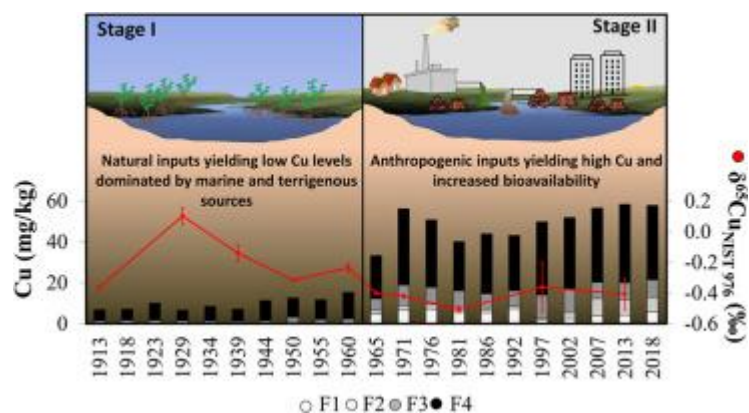
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Abstract :

This study investigates the chronology of copper (Cu) contamination and its stable isotopes within an emblematic Brazilian mangrove impacted by multiple urban and industrial Cu sources, deforestation, and eutrophication. In particular, it tests Cu isotopes as tracers of anthropogenic inputs into an anthropized watershed impacted by multiple sources. To do so, we used multi-isotopic approaches ($\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$), elemental analyses (Al, Ca, Fe, P, Cu, C, and N), and selective and sequential extractions in a ^{210}Pb -dated sediment core. This geochemical "toolbox" allowed identifying two main stages of Cu evolution in the sediment core. In the first stage, before 1965, Cu isotope fingerprints responded to landscape changes, indicating a shift from marine to geogenic dominance due to the remobilization and erosion of terrestrial materials. In the second stage, after 1965, the sediment geochemical profile showed increased Cu total concentrations with a higher bioavailability (as reflected by sequential extraction data) accompanying changes in Cu isotope signatures towards anthropogenic values. The findings evidence that local industrial sources, possibly combined with diffuse urban sources, export Cu into downstream mangroves with a distinguishable isotope signature compared to natural values. This study demonstrates the applicability of Cu isotopes as new environmental forensic tools to trace anthropogenic sources in mangrove sediments. Incorporated into a robust geochemical toolbox that combines inorganic and organic proxies for sedimentary materials, this new tool provides a comprehensive understanding of Cu dynamics in mangrove ecosystems, shedding light on the historical and current sources of Cu.

Graphical abstract



Highlights

- ▶ Chronological survey of a well-constrained Brazilian mangrove core.
- ▶ Cu isotopes respond to shifts from marine to geogenic dominance.
- ▶ Sediments record the evolution of Cu fluxes along periods of urban and industrial development.
- ▶ Mangrove sediments record anthropogenic Cu isotope fingerprint.
- ▶ Anthropogenic inputs yielding increased bioavailability of Cu in mangrove sediments.

Keywords : isotope source tracking, isotope tracer, marine pollution, anthropogenic Cu, Cu solid partition, metal source, metal fate

45 1. Introduction

46 Mangrove sediments effectively trap and accumulate particle-reactive pollutants that
47 are often persistent (Machado et al., 2002a, 2002b; Defew et al., 2005; Tang et al., 2022).
48 Furthermore, anthropogenic forcing can turn such pollutant traps into secondary, legacy
49 sources of contaminants that can affect their surrounding areas and food webs (Harbison,
50 1986; Bastakoti et al., 2019; Lacerda et al., 2022; Queiroz et al., 2022; Tang et al., 2022).
51 As a result, it is worthwhile to develop tools that can discriminate the status of mangrove
52 sediments either as sources or traps of contamination in their surrounding environments.

53 In theory, tracking the stable isotopes of any given trace metal that are unevenly
54 distributed in the critical zone offers a potential solution to this issue, since they can
55 provide information on the cycling of their parent element (Albarède, 2004; Komárek, et
56 al., 2008; Weiss et al., 2008; Wiederhold, 2015; Zhong et al., 2020). Previous studies
57 have shown that trace metal isotopes can effectively quantify sources of contamination in
58 mangrove sediments impacted by a single primary source (Araújo et al., 2017, 2018;
59 Tonhá et al., 2020; Jeong et al., 2023a). However, there is currently no record of the use
60 of trace metal stable isotopes in mangrove sediments affected by multiple anthropogenic
61 sources, which is a common scenario in coastal regions with diverse and changing land
62 uses.

63 Previous studies have successfully used Cu isotopes to assess source apportionment
64 and characterize the combined influences of sources and biogeochemical processes (Petit
65 et al., 2008; Thapalia et al., 2010; El Azzi et al., 2013; Petit et al., 2013; Briant et al.,
66 2016; Araújo et al., 2019b; Briant et al., 2022; Jeong et al., 2023a,b). Thapalia et al. (2010)
67 are perhaps the only ones using Cu isotopes as chronological anthropogenic source
68 tracers. There is a limited number of studies that evaluated the contribution of Cu isotopic
69 tools in coastal areas (Petit et al., 2008; Vance et al., 2008; Petit et al., 2013; Little et al.,
70 2017; Araújo et al., 2019a,b; Ciscato et al., 2019; Briant et al., 2022; Jeong et al.,
71 2023a,b), and only seven dealt with modern sedimentary samples (Little et al., 2017;
72 Araújo et al., 2019a; Araújo et al., 2019b; Ciscato et al., 2019; Briant et al., 2022; Jeong
73 et al., 2023a,b). Jeong et al. (2023a) identified a single anthropogenic source

74 (electroplating industry wastes) imprinting particular Cu isotope signature in mangrove
75 sediments.

76 The application of Cu isotopes in the context of mangrove sediments affected by
77 multiple urban and industrial sources presents certain challenges. First, there is the
78 potential for isotopic fractionation of Cu caused by low-temperature biogeochemical
79 processes (Wang et al., 2021). Second, the geochemical reactivity of sedimentary trace
80 metals in highly productive coastal environments can be elevated due to redox reactions
81 (Clark et al., 1998; Marchand et al., 2006, 2014), leading to significant isotopic
82 fractionation (Huan et al., 2020; 2021), which may overshadow source fingerprints.
83 Finally, isotopic signatures of anthropogenic sources of trace metals can vary widely. In
84 some urban areas it is impractical to assess each anthropogenic source isotopic ratio,
85 making it difficult to differentiate their resulting group from natural sources.

86 Therefore, when considering mangrove sediments under this scenario, it is helpful to
87 combine Cu isotopes with multiple geochemical analyses to aid in the elucidation of
88 source apportionment, as performed in previous geochemical “toolbox” approaches (He
89 et al., 2020; Tonhá et al., 2020, 2021). Proxies include sequential extractions combined
90 with isotopic data, and furthermore, chronologies of the study area are imperative to
91 validate the use of these proxies for reconstructing the environmental changes controlling
92 the metal pollution history.

93 Based on these premises, and with the purpose of advancing the current
94 understanding of the role of mangroves in trace metal cycling, we conducted a series of
95 analyses on a sediment core extracted from a mangrove in the Estrela River basin in Rio
96 de Janeiro, Brazil. The study area is subject to various environmental stressors, including
97 mangrove deforestation (Borges et al., 2006, 2009), high levels of metal contamination
98 (Rebello et al., 1986; Leal & Rebello, 1993; Rangel et al., 2011), and nutrient inputs that
99 lead to eutrophication in most parts of the bay (Soares-Gomes et al., 2016; Fries et al.,
100 2019). The core was dated using ^{210}Pb and subjected to various analyses including multi-
101 isotopic ($\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$), elemental (Al, Ca, Fe, P, Cu, C and N), and partial
102 extractions (BCR method; Tonhá et al., 2020; Rauret et al., 1999). The primary aim of
103 the present study was to reconstruct historical changes on geochemical compositions of
104 mangrove sediments influenced by urban and industrial development while also assessing
105 the suitability of Cu isotopes for use in this context.

106

107 **2. Materials and methods**

2.1. Study Area

Figure 1 shows the sampling point in Guanabara Bay, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil and its surrounding land use. The study area is bordered to the north by an urban agglomeration and to the south by the Guanabara Bay. Deforestation around 1980 is witnessed by residents and revealed by remote sensing data (Borges et al., 2009, 2006).

The sampling point is situated in the Estrela River basin, which discharges into the northwest section of Guanabara Bay. The river separates the southern part of the cities of Magé (to the east) and Duque de Caxias (to the west). The middle part of the hydrographic basin and some lower areas have been highly urbanized, and half of the sewage is untreated before discharging (SNIS, 2020). Unsurprisingly, the sampling location has the second lowest water quality rating in the Bay (Kjerfve et al., 1997; Fries et al., 2019).

The industrialization of the Estrela River hydrographic basin dates back to the 1830s when the Gunpowder Factory, now known as the Brazilian War Material Industry (IMBEL), began operations (AN, 2016). Since then, numerous other industries have been established in the region.

Previous studies reported varying Cu concentrations in sediments from the Estrela River bed. Rebello et al. (1986) found a high concentration of Cu (up to 2,112 mg/kg), while Rangel et al. (2011) found a maximum Cu concentration of 74.5 mg/kg.

Two significant historical events from the 20th century have a highlighted potential of impacting mangrove sediments in the watershed. The first event was the road's opening connecting the cities of Rio and Petrópolis in 1928, which marked a step in the regional economic development (AGEVAP, 2021). The second event was the period of intense industrialization and population growth in the 1960s, corresponding to the worsening of the environmental problem in the Guanabara Bay (Alencar, 1980; Godoy et al., 1998; Monteiro et al., 2012). This unplanned urban development resulted in mangrove deforestation for land reclamation, as observed in the study area.

2.2. Sampling and samples preparation

Sediment samples were collected from a mangrove area at the estuary of the Estrela River using a Cu-clean polyethylene tube. A sedimentary core of 41 cm (-22.7203°N and -43.1961°E) was obtained, and sectioned at 2 cm intervals, with each slice constituting a

141 sample. The sediment samples were then lyophilized, disaggregated, and homogenized
142 by grinding with agate mortar and pestle.

143 A portion of the samples was sieved eliminate the sand ($>63\mu\text{m}$) fraction, for the
144 analysis of total composition of elements including Al, Ca, Fe, P and Cu, and for the study
145 of solid partition using the BCR procedure, and Cu isotopic composition. Sieving aimed
146 to remove larger particles and debris that may affect the accuracy of the results. Non-
147 sieved sediment samples were analyzed for total organic C, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, total N, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$,
148 granulometry, apparent density, and ^{210}Pb .

149

150 **2.3. Cleaning procedures**

151

152 All glassware used for sample preparation underwent a 24-hour immersion in 10%
153 HCl (v/v) and was then rinsed with Milli-Q® water, which was purified through the Milli-
154 Q® purification system (18.2 M.Ohm.cm). Plastic materials used were previously
155 decontaminated with 3% HNO₃ (v/v) and rinsed with Milli-Q® water. Savillex®
156 digestion plasticware (PFA) were washed with detergent and Milli-Q® water,
157 decontaminated in a 50% HNO₃ solution (v/v) by boiling for 1 hour. The bottles were
158 then rinsed and the previous step was repeated, followed by triple rinsing in Milli-Q®
159 water.

160 Resins used for chromatographic separation were washed with Milli-Q® water, left
161 to stand for one night, then washed with 0.5 M HNO₃ and left to stand again for one night.
162 This cycle was repeated three times. Finally, the resin was stored in 0.1M HNO₃ before
163 use.

164

165 **2.4. Analytical Procedures**

166 **2.4.1. Physical characterization: granulometry and dry bulk density**

167

168 Sediments were analyzed for their granulometry using a CILAS 1064 laser
169 granulometer. The size fractions were measured from 0.04 to 500 μm by diffraction, and
170 the data generated were analyzed using GRADISTAT, a package for grain size
171 distribution and statistics. The apparent densities of the sediments were measured to
172 calculate the sediment and Cu flux, and were obtained by dividing the dry weight of the
173 samples by their wet volume:

174

175
$$\rho = \frac{weight_{dry}}{total\ volume} \text{ (Eq. 1)}$$

176

177 Lyophilization (vacuum drying) was used to dry the samples prior to density
178 measurement.

179

180 **2.4.2. Organic matter quality and eutrophication indicators: C, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, N and**
181 **$\delta^{15}\text{N}$**

182

183 The samples were analyzed for organic matter quality and eutrophication indicators,
184 including organic C, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, total N, and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, using a Flash Elemental Analyzer coupled
185 to an IRMS Delta V from Thermo Fisher (Thermo Flash EA 1112). Prior to the analysis
186 of sedimentary organic carbon (C), the samples were decarbonated by adding 1M HCl.

187

188 **2.4.3. Total and partial digestion and elemental analysis**

189 Total digestion of about 100 mg dry sediment aliquots were performed in Teflon
190 Savillex© vials heated on a coated graphite block using multiple-step acid concentrated
191 procedure with HF, HCl and HNO₃. Blanks and certified reference materials (CRM
192 BHVO-1 and MESS-4) were joined to batch samples. Once completed digestion, acid
193 extracts were transferred to Falcon® tubes and diluted to 50 ml with high-purity water.
194 Aliquots of the final extract were split for subsequent analysis of concentrations and
195 isotopes.

196 Total concentrations of Cu, Ca, Al, Fe and P were determined using ICP-OES
197 (Spectrometry of Optical Emission by Inductively Coupled Plasma) at Geoquímica
198 Laboratory at University of Brasília. The measured values were always within 10% of the
199 certified values of the CRM BHVO-1 for considered elements. The solid partition of Cu
200 was evaluated using sequential extractions following the modified BCR extraction
201 procedure proposed by Tonhá et al. (2020) based on the original protocol from Rauret et
202 al. (1999) (Supplementary Material). This procedure allows the quantification of elements
203 in four fractions: F1, the exchangeable and carbonate fraction of sediment particles
204 extracted with 0.11 M acetic acid (HAc); F2, the fraction associated with Fe-Mn
205 oxyhydroxides extracted with a 0.5 M hydroxylamine hydrochloride solution; F3, mainly
206 composed of metals associated with reactive sulfides, authigenic pyrites, and organic

207 matter, extracted with pure H₂O₂ and a 1 M ammonium acetate solution; and F4, assessed
208 by subtracting the results of the first three extractions from the total concentrations.

209 The concentrations of the fractions were determined using ICP-OES
210 (Spectrometry of Optical Emission by Inductively Coupled Plasma) at Geoquímica
211 Laboratory at University of Brasília. The internal control of the sequential extraction
212 method, calculated as $F\% = 100 \times (F1 + F2 + F3 + F4)/(\text{total digestion})$, reached values
213 lower than 90 or larger than 110% for unknown samples and reference material (BCR
214 701). All extractions were performed in three independent replicates, and standard
215 deviation between replicates were lower than $\pm 10\%$. Analytical blanks were made
216 according to the recommendation of Rauret et al. (1999).

217

218 **2.4.4. Cu isotope analyses**

219

220 To prepare samples for isotope analysis, we employed a pre-purification step using
221 an ion exchange chromatography column packed with pre-cleaned BioRad AG MP1 resin
222 to remove matrix interferences following the Souto-Oliveira (2018)'s protocol. Briefly, the
223 resin was cleaned three times with 12 mL of 0.5 mol/L HNO₃ and 8 mL of MilliQ water,
224 and then conditioned with 12 mL of 6 mol/L HCl. Samples were loaded in 1 mL of 7
225 mol/L HCl. Matrix elements were eluted with 1.5 mL of 7 mol/L HCl, and Cu was eluted
226 with 10 mL of 7 mol/L HCl. This step was repeated again to complete Cu purification.
227 Then, the eluted Cu solutions were evaporated to dryness at 120 °C, and a few drops of
228 concentrated HNO₃ were added to break down any possible residue of organic matter,
229 followed by another evaporation to dryness at 120 °C. Finally, the samples were
230 redissolved in 2 mL of 2% (m/m) HNO₃ for instrument analyses. The total procedural
231 blank of Cu was < 3 ng, which is negligible compared with the total Cu sample used in
232 analysis (~1 µg).

233 The Cu isotope analyses were performed in the Multi Collector (MC)-ICP-MS
234 Neptune Plus at CPGeo's Lab (University of São Paulo). Samples were introduced into
235 the spectrometer with a microconcentric PFA nebulizer (50 µL/min flow) coupled with a
236 two-step expansion chamber and a quartz torch and assisted by an automatic sampler
237 (CETAC ASX-100). Data was obtained through 40 cycles of a 4 s integration
238 measurements, with instrumental baseline and peak blank corrections for each measure.

239 The samples run bracketed with our in-house "USP" Cu standard and external
240 normalization and exponential law used for mass bias correction. The in-house "USP"

241 standard is calibrated against the international isotope reference standard for Cu
 242 (NIST/SRM-976). The calibration value of $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{USP/SRM-976}} = 0.17 \pm 0.04\text{‰}$ (2σ , $n=15$)
 243 was used to convert data to the NIST/SRM-976. Thus, final isotope compositions were
 244 expressed as follows

245

$$246 \quad \delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST/SRM 976}}(\text{‰}) = \left(\frac{\frac{^{65}\text{Cu}}{^{63}\text{Cu}_{\text{sample}}}}{\frac{^{65}\text{Cu}}{^{63}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST 976}}}} - 1 \right) * 1000 - 0.17 \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

247

248

249 The calculated $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST/SRM 976}}$ values represent the average and the two standard
 250 deviations ($2s$) of two or three individual measures run in a single analytical session. The
 251 routine precision obtained for individual samples and replicates of reference materials
 252 was generally better than $\pm 0.05\text{‰}$. The MESS-4 analysis yielded a value of $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST/SRM}}$
 253 $_{976} = -0.05 \pm 0.01$ ($2s$, $n = 4$). This value concurs with that from Sullivan et al. (2020) of
 254 $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST/SRM 976}} = -0.09 \pm 0.07\text{‰}$ ($2s$).

255

256 **2.4.5. Enrichment Factors (EF) and flux calculations with ^{210}Pb dating**

257

258 Enrichment Factor is a geochemical index conceived to reduce dilution effects and
 259 thus better estimate anthropogenic contributions.

260 The minimum Cu concentration detected in the present study (6.61 mg/kg, Table 1,
 261 Supplementary Material) is higher than background concentrations for other areas in the
 262 Guanabara Bay (2.3 to 2.7 ± 0.8 mg/kg; Monteiro et al., 2012; Machado et al., 2002;
 263 Rebello et al., 1986; Godoy et al., 1998), yet similar to that from the Jurujuba Cove
 264 (9.0 ± 4.7 mg/kg, Baptista-Neto et al., 2000).

265 The range of Cu background concentrations in Guanabara Bay vary from 2.3 to
 266 9.0 ± 4.7 mg/kg (Rebello et al., 1986; Godoy et al., 1998; Machado et al., 2002; Monteiro
 267 et al., 2012; Baptista-Neto et al., 2000), and the industrial development of the Estrela
 268 River basin is earlier than the period covered by the sediment core. Therefore, enrichment
 269 factors were determined by normalizing the Cu/Al ratio of the Upper Continental Crust
 270 (UCC) (Rudnick and Gao, 2003) as follows:

271

$$Cu\ EF = \frac{\frac{Cu}{Al}^{sample}}{\frac{Cu}{Al}^{(UCC\ average)}} \quad (Eq. 3)$$

273

274 Al is widely used in EF calculation because it is a conservative element that correlates
275 with sediment particle size. It is a major constituent of fine-grained aluminosilicates, with
276 which the bulk of the trace metals associate in natural sediments (Loring, 1991).

277 Cu fluxes to the sediments were calculated from the equation below, where ρ is the
278 apparent density and s is the sedimentation rate, determined after ^{210}Pb dating.

279

$$Cu\ flux = Cu\ concentration \times \rho \times s \quad (Eq. 4)$$

281

282 Sedimentation rates and dating were determined using ^{210}Pb . Excess ^{210}Pb
283 activities are linked to atmospheric deposition and were calculated using the differences
284 between total ^{210}Pb and ^{226}Ra activities (Appleby & Oldfield, 1978). A gamma ray
285 spectrometer equipped with a CANBERRA Ge hyper-pure detector was used to collect
286 data, and the Genie-2000 software was used for interpretation.

287

288 **2.4.6. Statistical analysis**

289 Pearson correlations were performed to evaluate linear relationships between
290 variables. The confidence degree used was the widely accepted and conventional $p < 0.05$.
291 Principal components analysis (PCA) was performed using the STATISTICA© software
292 package to gain an overview understanding of the various parameters evaluated, and their
293 main controlling factors. To compare the isotope data from the present study with
294 literature values, including the central tendency, dispersion, and potential outliers, we
295 provided histograms with theoretical normal distributions.

296

297 **3. Results and discussion**

298 **3.1. Temporal variation of marine and continental proxies**

299

300 Table 1 (Supplementary Material) summarizes all data obtained from the sediment
301 sample analyses, while Figure 2 shows the temporal evolution of the main parameters
302 analyzed in the study, along with historical markers. To establish a robust basis for the
303 further interpretation of Cu parameters, the vertical distributions of Ca/Al, C/N, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, and
304 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ were evaluated beforehand. Ca/Al values were used to access the proportions of

305 marine CaCO_3 and terrestrial materials in the form of Al oxides. The ratio of C/N, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$,
306 and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ assist in interpreting the relative contributions of marine and terrestrial organic
307 matter to aquatic environments, as the elemental and isotopic compositions of organic
308 matter typically preserve source information (Peters et al., 1978; Monteiro et al., 2012;
309 Meyers, 2014; Sanders et al., 2014).

310 The combination of results indicates the presence of three distinct layers along the
311 core (Table 1 and Fig. 2), relating to the marine and continental proxies. The bottom layer
312 is characterized by larger contributions of both organic and inorganic marine-sourced
313 material, as evidenced by high Ca/Al, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values and low C/N. The middle
314 and upper layers present relatively lower and constant values of Ca/Al ratios but differ in
315 terms of organic matter quality proxies. C/N, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ reflect a higher influence of
316 terrestrial/mangrove material in the middle part of the core, and a gradually increasing
317 prevalence of marine organic matter in the upper layers.

318 The transition from marine to terrestrial sedimentary characteristics between the
319 bottom (1910s to 1920s) and middle (1930s to 1950s) layers of the sediment core is likely
320 the result of man-induced alterations near the coastline, such as extensive river dredging
321 in the early 1910s (Britto et al., 2019) and the construction of the Rio-Petrópolis Road in
322 1928 (Fig. 2). Human activities can significantly impact the geomorphology, leading to
323 alterations in the source and properties of the river-borne sediment.

324 The higher clay content in the bottom layers is likely related to the proximity of the
325 site to marine clayey mud flats. The middle layer of the core, which has lower sediment
326 depositional fluxes and clay content, may have been deposited when the material source,
327 e.g., a mud flat that is frequently disturbed by tides and supplies sediments to nearby
328 areas, was further away from the sampling site (Smoak & Patchineelam, 1999). Monteiro
329 et al. (2012) also identified increasing sand contents in the northeastern part of the
330 Guanabara Bay before 1950's, associated with land use changes, such as deforestation, to
331 allow for urban and agriculture growth.

332 The changing organic matter characteristics between the middle (from 1930's to
333 1950's) and the most recently deposited layers (from 1960's to 2010's) likely stems from
334 a transition between terrestrial to eutrophic marine sediments. This is evidenced by the
335 C/N, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values in the upper layer, which are typical for organic matter inputs
336 from algal origin (Peters et al., 1978; Monteiro et al., 2012; Meyers, 2014; Sanders et al.,
337 2014). Eutrophication is further supported by increasing concentrations in P and N along
338 the sediment column.

339

340

3.2 Identifying historical stages of Cu contamination

341

342 Overall, the data indicates an increasing anthropogenic impact over time. Before
343 1965, Cu EF and Cu flux were relatively low and stable. In this period, a slight increase
344 (up to $2 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{year}^{-1}$) coincides with higher terrigenous inputs due to river dredging and
345 the inauguration of the Rio-Petrópolis Road in 1928 (Fig. 2). After 1965, period with
346 eutrophic marine sediments (see Section 3.1), Cu EFs increased up to 3.79 (reached in
347 1971), corroborating with the significant historical contamination identified by previous
348 studies in the Estrela River sediments (Rebello et al., 1986; Rangel et al., 2011). These
349 results reflect the intense industrialization and population growth in the watershed,
350 paralleled by elevated trace metal contamination and eutrophication in the Guanabara Bay
351 after the 1960's (Alencar, 1980; Godoy et al., 1998; Monteiro et al., 2012).

352 Based on this context and intervals of Cu EF along the sedimentary core, two stages
353 of Cu contamination were defined to evaluate the evolution of Cu isotopes and speciation
354 (Fig. 2):

355

- 356 • Stage I – landscape changes (22 – 42 cm below SWI – sediment water
357 interface, 1913 – 1965; Cu EF < 2).
- 358 • Stage II –intense industrialization and urbanization (0 - 22 cm below SWI,
359 after 1965; Cu EF > 2).

360

361 A previous study in Guanabara Bay also identified two analogous phases during the
362 20th century, one of land use change before the 1950's, succeeded by a phase of significant
363 sewage input (Monteiro et al., 2012).

364 Cu enrichment is positively correlated to P and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (Pearson $r = 0.78$ and 0.59 ,
365 respectively, $p < 0.05$ for both), suggesting a possible Cu sourcing into the bay by sewage
366 inputs. However, TOC (%) in the sediments did not significantly change between stages,
367 which would be expected during exclusively untreated sewage contamination. Moreover,
368 the stepwise increase in Cu concentrations, in contrast to the more gradual increase in
369 population (Fig.2), suggests the contribution of Cu emissions from punctual industrial
370 sources. Hence, Cu contamination probably results from a mixing between diffuse urban
371 sources and punctual industrial sources (see Section 2.1), which will be further addressed
372 in Section 3.2. This flux is associated with increasing sediment deposition and Al contents

373 (representative of continental aluminosilicates) during stage II, suggesting land inputs of
374 Cu contaminated particles to the coastal area.

375 The population growth (Fig. 2), and the observed Cu and P data in stage II may have
376 been influenced by two significant societal factors. The first one is the transition to the
377 creation of the State of Rio in 1975 (de Oliveira & Rodrigues, 2009), which increased the
378 integration, and hence development and industrialization of the region. The second factor
379 is the implementation of the 2nd NDP (National Development Plan) in the early 1970s.
380 It was a strategic economic and development plan created by the Brazilian government to
381 guide the country's growth and progress, which promoted the industrialization and
382 economic development in the State of Rio de Janeiro (de Oliveira & Rodrigues, 2009),
383 leading to higher industrial activities, and hence related pollution.

384 Subsequently, a gradual decrease of Cu and P fluxes (and buried levels) could be
385 attributed to the implementation of the National Sanitary Plan (PLANASA) in 1971
386 addressed to improve the capture and treatment of sewage. While there was no reliable
387 information about the sanitation services at the time, it is generally accepted that only
388 about one third of the sewage generated by the population in the hydrographic basin of
389 the Guanabara Bay was treated in 2015, which improved to one half in 2020, according
390 to SNIS (2020).

391 Second-order fluctuations of Cu observed in the core can be explained as described
392 below. The slight decrease in Cu and P concentrations in the 1980's coincides with the
393 deindustrialization of the Rio de Janeiro State caused by the Brazilian economic woes in
394 this period (de Oliveira & Rodrigues, 2009). Likewise, the later increasing values of Cu
395 concentrations and fluxes from the 1990s reflect the impacts of the regrowth of the Rio
396 de Janeiro industry (de Oliveira & Rodrigues, 2009). Notably, the maximum Cu flux (>12
397 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{year}^{-1}$) reached in 2013 is nearly twice the values reported elsewhere for the
398 Environmental Protection Area located in the opposite side of the Guanabara Bay
399 (Monteiro et al., 2012), which strengthens environmental concerns in this area of the
400 Guanabara Bay (Fries et al., 2019).

401

402 **3.3 Inferring anthropogenic and natural Cu sources**

403

404 Both the PCA (Fig. 3) and the plotting of $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ against $1/\text{Cu}$ (Fig. 4) evidence a
405 binary mixing model between natural and anthropogenic sources. The PCA showed two
406 principal components responding for approximately 70% of the dataset total variance.

407 The first component (PC1) reflects relative contributions of natural and anthropogenic
408 Cu. The correlations between Cu EF, F1, F2, and P suggests that anthropogenic Cu is
409 present in more mobile and potentially bioavailable forms. The anticorrelation of $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$
410 with these parameters implies that anthropogenic sources of Cu have a lighter isotope
411 signature than natural sources. Indeed, $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values in the present study are lower than
412 most of the $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values reported in previous studies for pristine sediments, and in the
413 range of industrial sources of contamination (Fig. 5). Moreover, the sediment samples
414 from the anthropogenic stage II were found to be enriched in ^{63}Cu ($\delta^{65}\text{Cu} = -0.42 \pm 0.05\%$)
415 compared to the slightly anthropized sediments from stage I ($\delta^{65}\text{Cu} = -0.15 \pm 0.18\%$; after
416 1928; Fig. 4).

417 Similarly, Jeong et al. (2023b) found coastal sediments from Korea impacted by
418 multiple urban and industrial sources with relatively lower Cu isotope values (0.46‰ in
419 Busan compared to 0.73‰ in Shihwa-Incheon). Authors associated this with the
420 influence of industrial and roadway activities, based on $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ dust from industrial
421 (0.24‰; Jeong et al., 2021a) and urban areas (0.26‰; Jeong and Ra, 2021). Moreover,
422 Jeong et al. (2021a) found road dust with the highest Cu concentrations from industrial
423 areas of Korea with highlighted low $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ value of -0.12‰ (Jeong and Ra, 2021).

424 The plotting of $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ against $1/\text{Cu}$ (Fig. 4) shows a statistically significant
425 correlation (Pearson $r = 0.92$, $p < 0.05$) from the 1930's on, after the inauguration of the
426 Rio-Petrópolis Road. The isotope value of 0.10‰ (1929) is the only within the range of
427 the Upper Continental Crust ($\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{UCC}} = 0.08 \pm 0.17\%$; Vance et al., 2008; Takano et
428 al., 2014; Thompson et al., 2014; Moynier et al., 2017) and pristine modern sediments
429 around the world (0.29 ± 0.37 ; Little et al., 2017; Araújo et al., 2019a; Ciscato et al., 2019),
430 indicating that this sediment is representative of the major natural source in the mixing
431 model.

432 The anthropogenic end-member, which probably integrate multiple sources, was
433 estimated to be $\sim -0.49\%$ by linear extrapolation to the origin (i.e., to $x = 0$) of the linear
434 regression between $1/\text{Cu}$ and $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$. This estimation is constrained to a limited number of
435 samples in the model ($n = 9$), which should be carefully considered. It would be difficult
436 to determine the isotope values of single end-members, since the Estrela River watershed
437 is occupied by multiple punctual sources (see section 2.1), besides diffuse sources from
438 the bay. The presence of industrial sourced material is evident by the ranges of $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$
439 (Fig. 5) and the stepwise increase in Cu concentrations (Fig. 2). Correlations of Cu EF
440 with P and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (see Section 3.2), suggest possible Cu sourcing into the bay by sewage

441 inputs, but to date, there is no record of $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ from domestic sewage. Araujo et al. (2019)
442 found coastal sediments contaminated by diffuse sources tending to negative $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ values
443 (down to -0.79‰). Therefore, the value of $\delta^{65}\text{Cu} \sim -0.49\text{‰}$ reflects the mixing between
444 major punctual industrial sources, and possibly diffuse urban sources.

445 While the shift in Cu isotope values between the 1930's and 1960's is
446 satisfactorily explained by the mixing of isotopically light contaminated land particles
447 and natural UCC-derived sediment, the bottom layer requires a separate evaluation. The
448 sample from 1913 is enriched in ^{63}Cu (-0.36‰), within the range of $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ in the
449 anthropogenic period after the 1960's (stage II; Fig 2). Since Cu concentrations in the
450 pre-anthropogenic period (stage I) are mostly natural, it is natural sources or diagenetic
451 processes that have caused this significant isotopic fractionation.

452 The most straightforward explanation for the isotopic difference between 1913 and
453 1929 relies on the fact that they are characterized by distinct sediment types, driven by
454 coastline changes (see Section 3.2). The bottom layer (1913) exhibits noticeable
455 differences in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and Ca/Al (Fig. 4), indicating the presence of distinct natural sources
456 that control $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$, in the absence of significant anthropogenic influence. The second
457 principal component of the PCA, accounting for 28% of the variation in the data,
458 evidences the control between marine and terrestrial influence in the area (Fig. 3).

459 To summarize, the findings suggest that after the inauguration of the Rio-Petropolis
460 Road, there were increased continental inputs that had specific $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ background values
461 and high Fe contents (Fig. 2), which are typical for tropical soils (Rieuwerts, 2015). Such
462 inputs, accompanied by coastline changes, overshadowed/drowned the ^{65}Cu depleted
463 marine source. With rapid urbanization and industrialization after the 1960's, this natural
464 continental source was mixed with Fe depleted land material, contaminated by
465 isotopically light Cu and further transported to the coastal zone (Fig. 2).

466

467 **3.4 Geochemical partition of anthropogenic Cu: a speciation analysis on** 468 **Cu mobility and bioavailability**

469

470 The most significant change in the geochemical distribution of Cu was observed
471 between Stages I and II, which is dominated by labile forms of anthropogenic Cu (average
472 $F_{4\text{Stage I}} = 81.70\%$; average $F_{4\text{Stage II}} = 65.08\%$). Leal & Rebello (1993) found a similar
473 enrichment of bioavailable Cu in recent sediments from the Estrela River. In other words,
474 anthropogenic Cu from the continent is reallocated within reactive phases in mangroves.

475 A set of various processes such as mineral dissolution, mineral precipitation, compaction,
476 organic matter degradation, and bacterial activity, involved in diagenesis can alter internal
477 Cu distribution among geochemical sediment phases. However, this is unlikely, since
478 particulate matter from the Estrela River, once deposited in the sediments, undergoes only
479 limited transformation (Leal and Rebello, 1993). Indeed, Cu diffusion from sediments to
480 water column through upwelling pore waters in anoxic coastal sediments tend to be low
481 and not substantial to alter the bulk sediments phases. For instance, Rangel et al. (2011)
482 detected nearly depletion of soluble Cu in sediments from the Estrela River. This suggests
483 that diagenetic processes do not drive significant isotopic fractionation in the area, since
484 it requires substantial loss of Cu from the bulk sediments to water or biota. Moreover,
485 previous works show that Cu isotope variability in particulate material tend to be
486 conservative across fluvial estuarine biogeochemical processes, being well described in
487 terms of source mixing models (Petit et al., 2008; Guinoiseau et al. 2018; Araújo et al.,
488 2019a). Finally, the profile of ^{210}Pb in dated sediment layers is consistent with the
489 historical changes in Cu concentrations during the period of industrialization and
490 urbanization of a bay (Alencar, 1980; Monteiro et al., 2012), suggesting the preservation
491 of geochemical records in the mud flats. Anyway, estimates of potential isotope
492 fractionation caused by sorption process do not unsustain a diagenetic effect on bulk
493 sediments from both stages (details the Supplementary Material: Geochemical processes
494 assessed by partitioning of Cu).

495 Finally, It is worth noting that the lowest relative contents of non-mobile Cu (F4 of
496 60%) were observed in 1981, which was accompanied by the lowest $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ of the core (-
497 0.51‰), and relatively low Cu flux ($5.6 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}\cdot\text{year}^{-1}$; Fig 2). We suggest that inputs of
498 isotopically light and more bioavailable anthropogenic Cu, combined with the loss of
499 UCC-derived ^{65}Cu -rich sediments due to deforestation, could be responsible for this
500 observation.

501

502 **4. Conclusions**

503

504 This study demonstrated that Cu isotopes combined with established proxies for
505 organic and inorganic matter in mangrove sediments allow to identify landscape changes.
506 The variation in Cu isotopes observed in the mangrove sediment profile can be explained
507 by the relative contribution of natural and anthropogenic sources. The natural Cu include
508 marine and terrestrial end-members with distinct isotope compositions resulting from

509 underlying biogeochemical processes. The origin of the terrigenous Cu isotope
510 composition is likely attributed to weathering, while the processes that give rise to the
511 marine Cu isotope composition remain unclear.

512 Cu isotopes were found to be valuable tools for tracking anthropogenic inputs into
513 mangrove sediments. This study found that land-derived particles affected by multiple
514 anthropogenic sources in coastal areas present distinguishable Cu isotope compositions.
515 This is a pertinent application to regulate emission policies, particularly in areas under
516 the multiple environmental pressures, such as Guanabara Bay. Solid partition data
517 indicates that anthropogenic inputs increase the proportion of Cu in its labile forms,
518 resulting in higher mobility and bioavailability.

519 In many coastal areas, such as Guanabara Bay, it is challenging to assess each
520 anthropogenic source. Here we show the possibility of differentiating anthropogenic
521 pools, as opposed to natural sources, in complex urban scenarios where the datasets pose
522 logistical and resource limitations. This is also relevant for cases in which sediments were
523 historically contaminated by closed or controlled facilities, preventing the isotope
524 analysis of specific sources. In summary, trace metal stable isotopes can be useful tools
525 for tracing sources when multiple primary sources - both contemporary and legacy -
526 combine into a resultant mixture with distinct isotope signatures. Further studies with
527 complementary compartments, such as porewaters, can help elucidate mechanisms of
528 inter-compartmental transfers and Cu incorporation into by local benthonic fauna.
529 Studying mangrove systems under distinct environmental conditions and degrees of
530 anthropogenic pressure can also provide a more comprehensive view in the role of these
531 ecosystems in Cu cycling. Finally, to enhance the understanding of source apportionment
532 in future studies within this study area, it is recommended to investigate runoff patterns
533 and perform end-member characterization.

534

535 **5. Competing interests**

536 The contact author has declared that neither him nor co-authors have any competing
537 interests or personal relationships that could influence the work reported in this paper.

538

539 **6. Acknowledgements**

540 We thank the anonymous reviewers for valuable suggestions that substantially
541 improved the final version of this study. This study was supported in part by the
542 Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento Pessoal de Nível Superior (CAPES), Brazil (Finance

543 Code 001). J. B. acknowledges the financial support from CAPES (grant number
544 88887.483826/2020-00). W.M. acknowledges the financial support from National
545 Research Council (CNPq-Brazil) and PRINT-UFF-FEEDBACKS grant CAPES (grant
546 number 88887.310301/2018-00).

547

548 **7. References**

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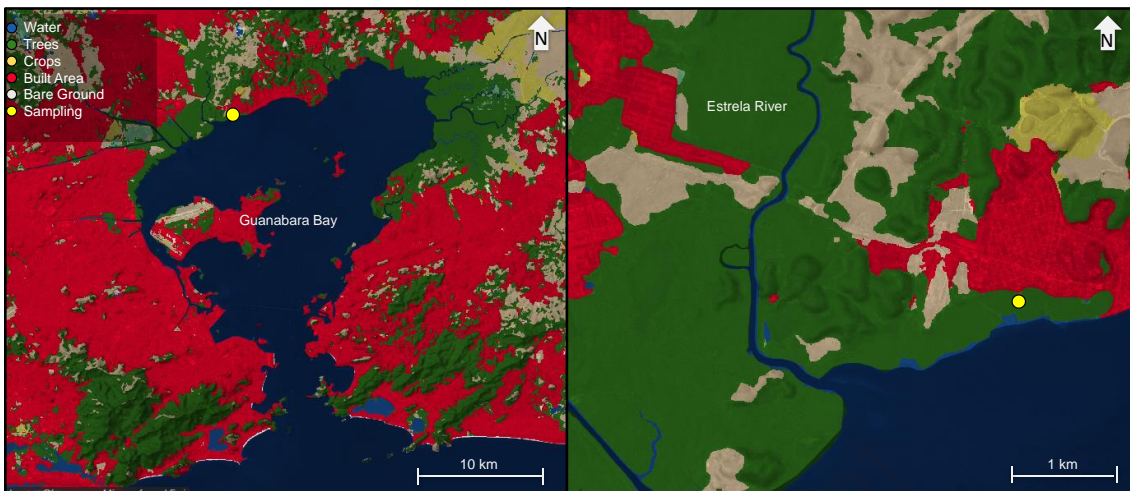
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Figure 1 - Location of the sampling point and land occupation of its surroundings in Guanabara Bay (SE Brazil). Basemap source: Esri (2018)

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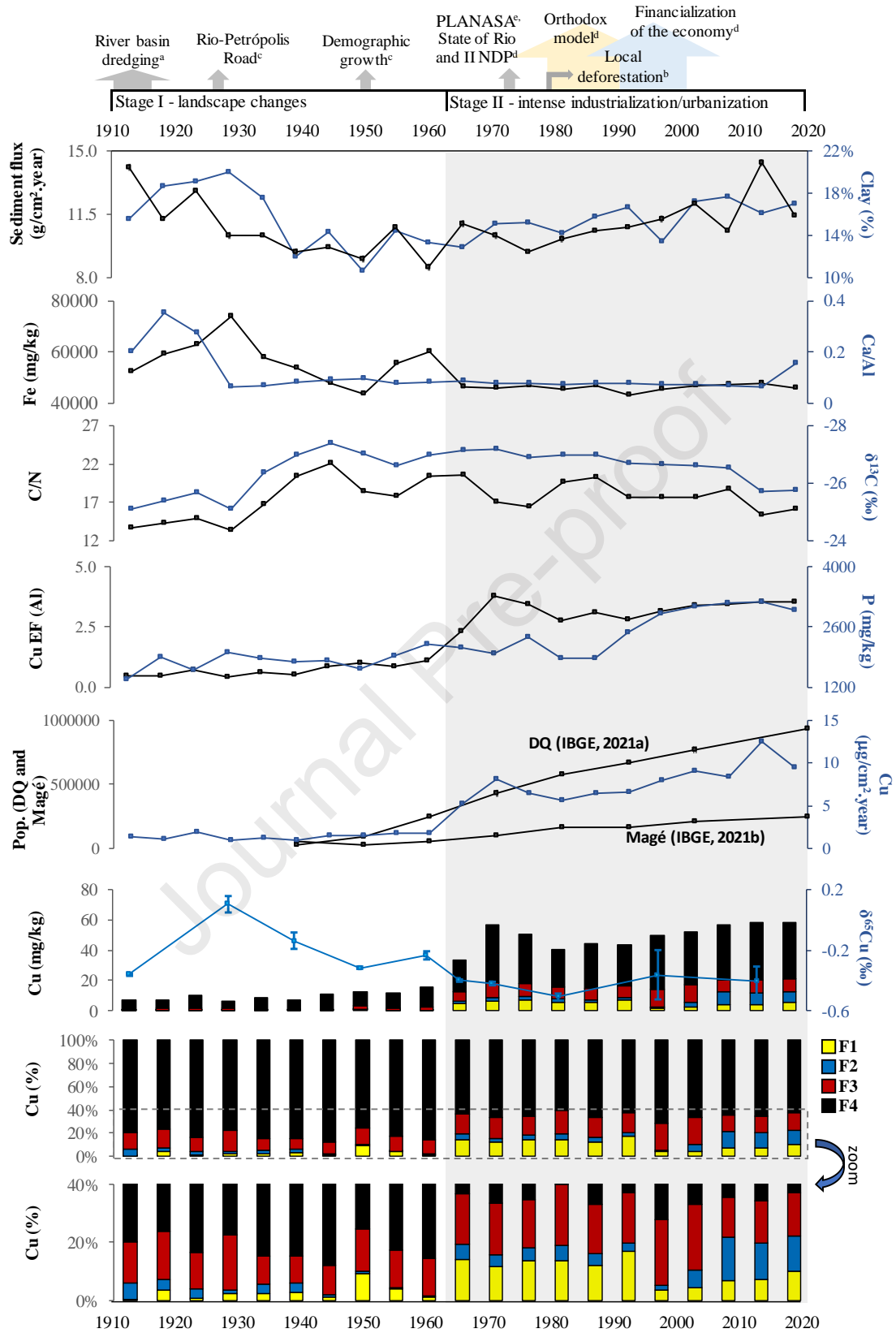
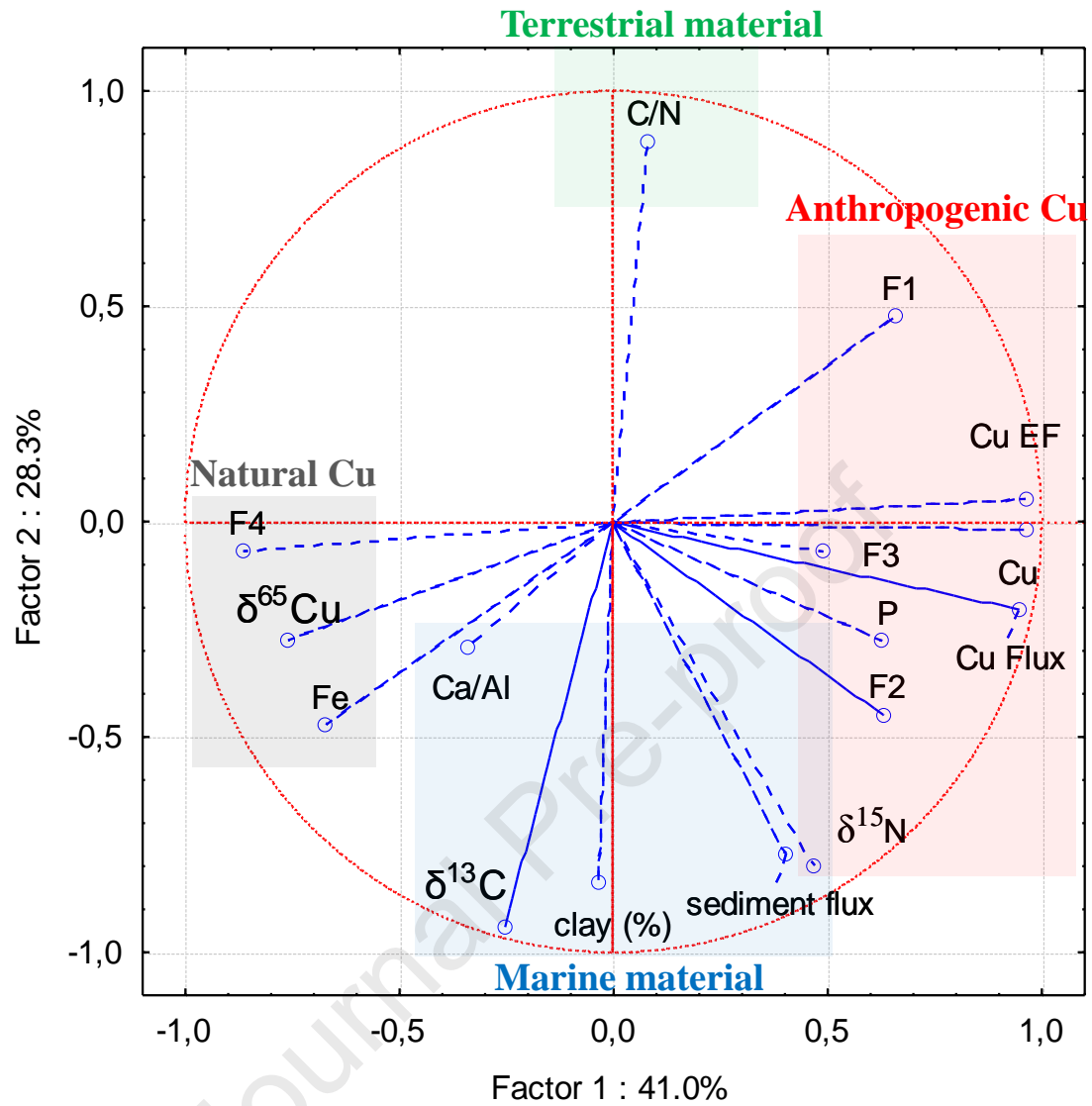


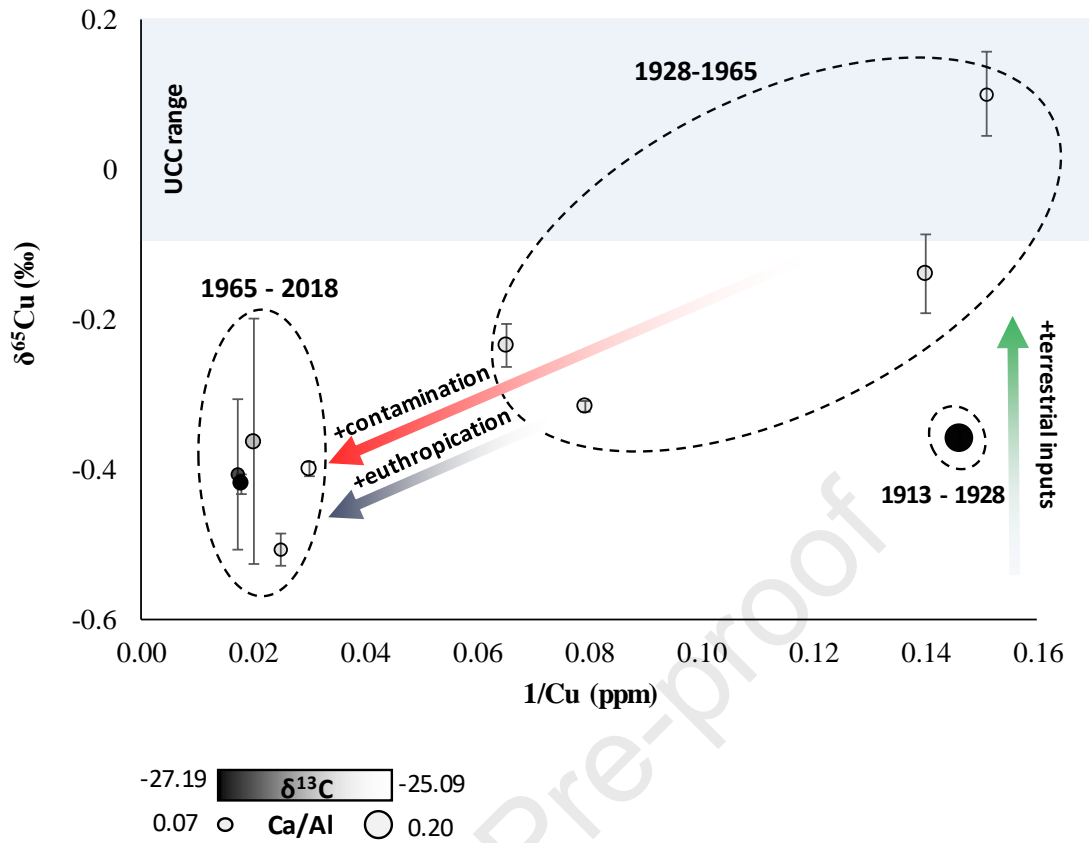
Figure 2 – Historical evolution of the main parameters. ^a Brito et al. (2019); ^b Borges et al. (2009); ^c AGEVAP (2021); ^d de Oliveira & Rodrigues (2009); ^e Lima (2006).



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Figure 3. Principal Components Analyses (PCA) of the geochemical dataset.



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916 Figure 4 - $\delta^{65}\text{Cu} \times 1/\text{Cu}$ (ppm). Gradients of grey refer to the range of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values, while gradients of size

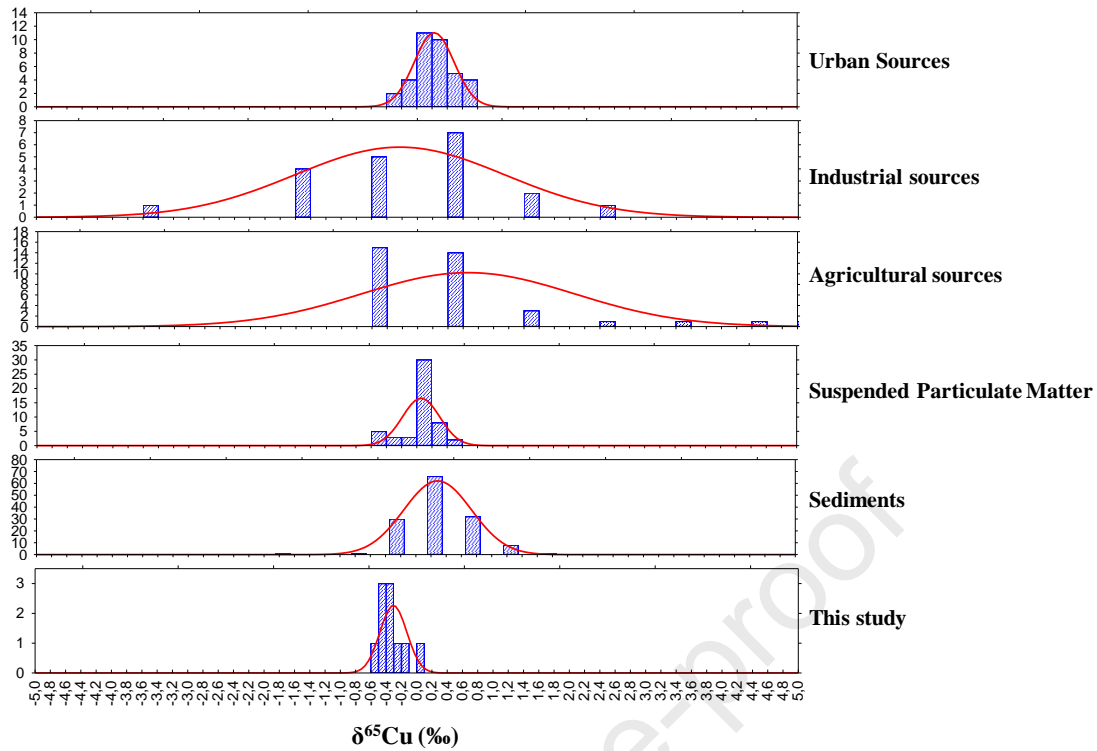
917 refer to the range of Ca/Al values. The red arrow represents increasing anthropogenic contamination

918 between Stage I (after 1928) Stage II. Green arrow: "increased terrestrial inputs"; Red arrow: "increased

919 contamination"; Grey arrow: increased eutrophication". UCC – Upper Continental Crust ($0.08 \pm 0.17\%$;

920 Vance et al., 2008; Takano et al., 2014; Thompson et al., 2014; Moynier et al., 2017).

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Figure 5 – $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ in this work and potential sources. $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ histograms in environmental matrices include the expected normal. Y axis displays the number of observations. Sources: **Agricultural sources** (El Azzi et al., 2013 ; Babicsanyi et al., 2014; 2016 ; Blotevogel et al., 2018), **Industrial sources** (Bigalke et al., 2010 ; Novak et al., 2016; Viers et al., 2018; Xia et al., 2022) ; **Urban sources** (Dong et al., 2017 ; Souto-Oliveira et al., 2018 ; 2019 ; Jeong et al., 2021a) ; **Sediments** (Petit et al., 2008; Thapalia et al., 2010; El Azzi et al., 2013; Babcsányi et al., 2014; Little et al., 2017; Roebbert et al., 2018;; Ciscato et al., 2019 ; Jeong et al., 2023).

Highlights

- Chronological survey of a well-constrained Brazilian mangrove core
- Cu isotopes respond to shifts from marine to geogenic dominance
- Sediments record the evolution of Cu fluxes along periods of urban and industrial development
- Mangrove sediments record anthropogenic Cu isotope fingerprint
- Anthropogenic inputs yielding increased bioavailability of Cu in mangrove sediments

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Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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