Mid- and late-Holocene sedimentary process and palaeovegetation changes near the mouth of the Amazon River

José Tasso Felix Guimarães, Marcelo Cancela Lisboa Cohen, Luiz Carlos Ruiz Pessenda, Marlon Carlos França, Clarisse Beltrão Smith and Afonso César Rodrigues Nogueira

Abstract
The integration of sedimentary facies, pollen, spores, carbon and nitrogen isotopes records, C/N ratio and radiocarbon dates allowed the identification of changes in vegetation and the sources of organic matter accumulated on tidal flats near the mouth of the Amazon River during the mid and late Holocene. Data from the margin of Amazon River indicate marine influence related to mangrove presence over a tidal mud flat between 5560–5470 cal. yr BP and 5290–5150 cal. yr BP. Afterward, the mangrove area shrank following the return of more humid conditions and increase of Amazon River discharge. A common reworking process of the tidal flat through the lateral migration of a meandering creek occurred in the study site, with later development of transitional vegetation under freshwater influence. Following the natural vegetation succession under stable climate and hydrological conditions, the expansion of várzea (flooded freshwater vegetation) forests occurred since 600–560 cal. yr BP until the present. Furthermore, regarding the tidal flats located west of the mouth of Amazon River, these stable conditions also allowed the mangrove maintenance over mudflats with deposition of marine organic matter during at least the last 2350–2300 cal. yr BP.

Keywords
Amazonia, C and N isotopes, climate changes, facies analysis, Holocene, palynology

Introduction
Morphological, climatic and hydrological factors have produced the formation of geobotanical units of the Amazonian coastal region leading to the development of a marine-influenced littoral (southeastern coastline), dominated by mangroves and saltmarsh vegetation, and a fluvial sector (northwestern coastline), characterized by várzea (flooded freshwater forests) and herbaceous vegetation (Cohen et al., 2009).

Palaeoenvironmental research in the marine littoral shows mangrove establishment between 7500 and 5100 cal. yr BP (Behling and Costa, 2001; Behling et al., 2001; Cohen et al., 2005) during the Holocene reflecting the postglacial sea-level rise that invaded the coast embayed by rather shallow and broad valleys (Cohen et al., 2005; Souza Filho et al., 2006), while the fluvial littoral presents tidal flat deposits influenced by marine processes during the Holocene with vegetation history characterized by mangrove and várzea expansion/contraction phases (Cohen et al., 2008; Guimarães et al., 2010).

Toledo and Bush (2007) recorded declining abundance of Rhizophora pollen after c. 7000 cal. yr BP, suggesting a weakening of the marine influence and, from 5000 cal. yr BP, the replacement of closed forest elements by open flooded savanna. Those findings indicate reduced discharge from the Amazon River, likely due to a marked decrease in precipitation in the Andes between 8000 and 5000 cal. yr BP.

Several studies indicate that Amazon climate has varied during the Holocene with significant fluctuations in precipitation (e.g. Absy et al., 1991; Behling and Costa, 2000; Desjardins et al., 1996; Ledru, 2001; Pessenda et al., 2001; Van der Hammen, 1974), and possibly, in the river water discharge such as Amazon River and its tributaries (e.g. Latrubesse and Franzinelli, 2002; Maslin and Burns, 2000).

In Amapá littoral, extensive tidal flat deposits developed adjacent to the Amazon River may be more appropriate to investigate vegetation changes related to variations of the Amazon River discharge during the Holocene. However, few palaeoecological studies based on pollen data were performed in this area (Guimarães et al., 2010; Toledo and Bush, 2007).

Considering the techniques applied in this work, the facies analysis is traditionally used to define characteristics of a sedimentary unit that formed under certain hydrodynamic processes and sedimentation environment. Thus, each depositional environment puts its own imprint on the sediment, resulting in a singular facies (e.g. Walker, 1992), while pollen records from vegetated tidal flats tend to represent local vegetation and the strength of the pollen signal from each phytophysiognomy is distance-weighted (e.g. Behling et al., 2004; Cohen et al., 2009; Guimarães et al., 2010).

1Universidade Federal do Pará (UFPA), Brazil
2Centro de Energia Nuclear na Agricultura (CENA), Brazil

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Corresponding author:
José Tasso Felix Guimarães, Programa de Pós-Graduação em Geologia e Geoquímica, Instituto de Geociências, Universidade Federal do Pará (UFPA), Rua Augusto Correas 01, 66075-110, Belém/PA, Brazil.
Email: tasso@ufpa.br
As additional information, carbon and nitrogen isotope ($\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$) and carbon to nitrogen ratios (C/N) can be used, since they can provide data about the origin of organic matter (e.g. Lamb et al., 2006). Thus, an interdisciplinary approach based on facies analysis, isotopic and pollen records may provide better information about process and environment of deposition, and the origin of organic matter preserved in coastal deposits, respectively (Dalrymple and Choi, 2007; Lamb et al., 2006), which is required to isolate the climatic signal from the non-climatic noise and better interpret the main process acting on coastal systems as indications of hydrodynamic regime, river discharge, organic matter sources and vegetation patterns (e.g. Engelhart et al., 2007; Freycon et al., 2009; Horton et al., 2005). This inter-proxy study was applied in order to investigate the sedimentary process, vegetation changes and sources of organic matter accumulated on tidal flats near the mouth of Amazon River during the mid and late Holocene.

**Study area**

**Geological and physiographic setting**

The coastal zone of Amapá in the study area is located in the Marajó basin that is linked to the Gondwana break up and Equatorial Atlantic opening during Jurassic/early Cretaceous (Szatmari et al., 1987). This basin is limited to the south and west by Gurupá and Tocantins arches, respectively.

The regional geology includes Mesoarchean-Devonian Crystalline and Metasedimentary rocks to the western part, and Pleistocene sandstone and conglomerates in the eastern part interpreted as tidal depositional systems (Souza and Pinheiro, 2009). From the Late Pleistocene to Holocene, erosional and depositional processes due to Late Pleistocene and Holocene climatic and sea-level changes, along with tectonic processes, shaped the relief of the Amapá coast, resulting in its current configuration (Lima et al., 1991). Therefore, along the coastal plain adjacent to the Amazon River, extensive north–south trending Holocene terraces composed of sand and mud have developed (Figure 1a, b). The very flat, low-elevation landscape is characterized by flooded areas and both abandoned and active meandering channels (Figure 1b). The coast between Cassiporé and North Cape, which is part of the longest muddy coastline in the world (Figure 1a, b), is strongly influenced by Amazon River discharge (Allison et al., 2000).

Floristic studies of Costa Neto (2004), Costa Neto and Silva (2004), Carvalho et al. (2006) and Costa Neto et al. (2007) described geobotanical and land-use units (Figure 1c, d). For sectors 1 (freshwater influence) and 2 (brackish water influence) (Figure 1c, d and Table 1), a vegetation survey based on qualitative descriptions was carried out. The modern vegetation of Macapá region – sector 1 (Figure 1c) is represented by periodically inundated herbaceous-shrubs field (upland to supratidal zone) and permanently inundated herbaceous field (supratidal zone). The supratidal and intertidal zone are colonized by well-developed ‘várzea’ (flooded freshwater forests). The vegetation of Amapá region – sector 2 (Figure 1d) is characterized by well-developed mangrove forests near the coastline, herbs vegetation (supratidal zone), and ‘várzea’.

![Figure 1. Study site: (a) regional geology of the study area in the Marajó basin (modified from CPRM, 2010 and Costa et al., 2002), (b) elevation map with bottom and surface water salinity, direction of the Amazon River plume and North Brazilian Coastal Current (NBCC) near the Amapá littoral (modified from Vinzon et al., 2008 and Rosario et al., 2009), (c) and (d) geobotanical and land use units of sectors 1 (Macapá) and 2 (Amapá) with sampling sites](image-url)
Climate and hydrology

The regional climate is humid tropical characterized by well-defined dry (September to December) and wet (January to July) seasons, with annual average precipitation and temperature around 3000 mm and 27.5°C, respectively (Bezerra et al., 1990). The mean Amazon River discharge is about 170 000 m³/s (at Óbidos city), with maximum and minimum outflow of 270 000 and 60 000 m³/s (ANA, 2003). The Amazon estuary is classified as semi-diurnal macrotidal (Pugh, 1987), with a tidal range of 4 to 6 m (Gallo and Vinzon, 2005). The structure of the plume is controlled by the North Brazilian Current, which induces a northwestern flow with speeds of 40–80 cm/s over the continental shelf (Figure 1b; Lentz, 1995), strong tidal currents (Beardsley et al., 1995), trade winds and the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ; Lentz and Limeburner, 1995). Consequently, the river discharge and hydrodynamic conditions allow a strong reduction of water salinity along the Amazon River and adjacent coast (Figure 1b; Rosario et al., 2009; Vinzon et al., 2008).

### Table 1. Main plant species identified in the study site

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family and species</th>
<th>Biological form</th>
<th>Macapá (sec. 1)</th>
<th>Amapá (sec. 2)</th>
<th>Vegetation units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aizoaceae</td>
<td>Sesuvium sp.</td>
<td>Herb</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>IF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Anarcadiaceae</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tocipira sp.</td>
<td>Tree</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aquifoliaceae</td>
<td>Tree</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ilex sp.</td>
<td>Tree</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Araceae</td>
<td>Montrichardia sp.</td>
<td>Herb</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arecaceae</td>
<td>Euterpe sp.</td>
<td>Tree</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mauritia sp.</td>
<td>Tree</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avicenniaceae</td>
<td>Avicenia sp.</td>
<td>Tree</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>MG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cabombaceae</td>
<td>Cabomba sp.</td>
<td>Herb</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ceratopteridaceae</td>
<td>Herb</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acrostichum sp.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cobretaceae</td>
<td>Laguncularia sp.</td>
<td>Tree</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>MG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyperaceae</td>
<td>Cyperus sp.</td>
<td>Herb</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sclero sp.</td>
<td>Herb</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Euphorbiaceae</td>
<td>Alchornea sp.</td>
<td>Tree</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Heveo sp.</td>
<td>Tree</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fabaceae</td>
<td>Macrolobium sp.</td>
<td>Tree</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Parkia nitida Miq.</td>
<td>Tree</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heliconiaceae</td>
<td>Heliconis sp.</td>
<td>Herb</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malpighiaceae</td>
<td>Malvagnia sp.</td>
<td>Climber</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malvaceae</td>
<td>Pachira sp.</td>
<td>Tree</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pseudobombax sp.</td>
<td>Tree</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nymphaeaceae</td>
<td>Nymphaea sp.</td>
<td>Herb</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poaceae</td>
<td>Olyra latifolia L.</td>
<td>Herb</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Panicum laxum Sw.</td>
<td>Herb</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Paspalum sp.</td>
<td>Herb</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pontederiaceae</td>
<td>Echhornia sp.</td>
<td>Herb</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rubiaceae</td>
<td>Rubia sp.</td>
<td>Herb</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychotria</td>
<td>Psychotria</td>
<td>Herb</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhizophoraceae</td>
<td>Rhizophora sp.</td>
<td>Tree</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strelitziaceae</td>
<td>Phenakospermum sp.</td>
<td>Herb</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Vegetation units, VF, Varzea forest; IF, Inundated Field; MG, Mangrove.
Materials and methods

**Sampling and facies description**

The sediment cores were sampled from the city of Macapá – sector 1 (freshwater influence), and the city of Amapá – sector 2 (brackish water influence) (Figure 1c, d) using a Russian Sampler with the geographical position of each point determined by GPS (Reference Datum: Sado9). Following the proposal of Walker (1992), facies analysis included descriptions of color, lithology, texture and structures. X-ray radiographs aided the identification of sedimentary structures. The sedimentary facies was codified following Miall (1978). The interpretation of the sedimentological data is also based on clastic tidalite process-response models (after Klein, 1971). Leaves of the most abundant genera were collected to heights of up to 2 m, to identify the carbon isotopic signatures (Table 2). Sediment cores were sampled from tidal flats colonized by ‘várzea’ (sector 1 – MAC core to 2 m depth, 00°04′15″N, 51°02′15″W, ~5–7 m above mean sea level (a.m.s.l.), and 0.3 km from the Amazon River), and mangrove vegetation (sector 2 – AM core to 1 m depth, 02°03′08″N, 50°48′21″W, ~2–4 m a.m.s.l., 15 km away from the coastline and 150 km from the mouth of Amazon River).

**Pollen and spore analyses**

Throughout the sediment cores, 1 cm³ of sediments were picked in 5 cm intervals. One tablet of exotic Lycopodium spores was added to each sample for the calculation of pollen concentration (grains/cm³). All samples were prepared using standard techniques of pollen analysis including acetylation (Faegri and Iversen, 1989). Handbooks of pollen and spores morphology were consulted (Colinvaux et al., 1999; Hesse et al., 2008; Roubik and Moreno, 1991) jointly with the reference collection of the ‘Laboratório de Dinâmica Costeira – UFPA’ to identify of pollen grains and spores. Samples were counted to a minimum of about 300 pollen grains. The total pollen sum only considers pollen grains and excludes algae, microforaminifers, fungal and fern spores. Forty pollen taxa were identified. Pollen and spore data are presented in pollen diagrams as percentages of the total pollen amount. Taxa were grouped into Vegetation units: Mangrove, Inundated field, ‘várzea’ and Transitional/Secondary Forest (TSF). The software Tilia and Tilia Graph were used for the calculation and plotting of pollen diagrams. The pollen diagrams were statistically subdivided into zones of pollen and spores assemblages based on square-root-transformation of the percentage data and stratigraphically constrained cluster analysis by the method of total sum of squares (Grimm, 1987).

### C/N, carbon and nitrogen isotopes

The δ¹³C, δ¹⁵N and elemental C and N (C/N) amounts were analyzed from sediment samples (6–50 mg) taken at 5 cm intervals along the cores. The stable carbon and nitrogen isotopes as well as the total organic carbon (TOC) and nitrogen (TN) were determined at the Stable Isotopes Laboratory of Center for Nuclear Energy in Agriculture (CENA), University of Sao Paulo (USP), using a Continuous Flow Isotopic Ratio Mass Spectrometer (CF-IRMS). Organic carbon and nitrogen are expressed as percentage of dry weight and ¹³C and ¹⁵N results are given with respect to VPDB standard and atmospheric N₂ respectively, using the conventional δ (%) notation. Analytical precision is ± 0.1% and ±0.2‰, respectively.

The organic matter source will be environment-dependent with different δ¹³C, δ¹⁵N and C/N compositions (e.g. Lamb et al., 2006), as follows: The C3 terrestrial plants shows δ¹³C values between −32‰ and −21‰ and C/N ratio > 12, while C4 plants have δ¹³C values ranging from −17‰ to −9‰ and C/N ratio > 20 (Deines, 1980; Meyers, 1994; Tyson, 1995). In C3-dominated environments, freshwater algae have δ¹³C values between −25‰ and −30‰ (Meyers, 1994; Schidlowski et al., 1983) and marine algae around −24‰ to −16‰ (Haines, 1976; Meyers, 1994). In C4-dominated environments, algae can have δ¹³C values ≤16‰ (Chivas et al., 2001). Bacteria have δ¹³C values ranging from −12‰ to ≥27‰ (Coffin et al., 1989). In general, bacteria and algae have C/N ratios of 4–6 and <10, respectively (Meyers, 1994; Tyson, 1995).

Fluvial δ¹³C_POC values result from freshwater phytoplankton (−25‰ to −30‰) and particulate terrestrial organic matter (−25‰ to −33‰). However, marine δ¹³C_POC ranges from −23‰ to −18‰ (e.g. Barth et al., 1998; Middelburg and Nieuwenhuize, 1998). Peterson et al. (1994) found values from marine δ¹³C_POC between −22‰ and −25‰, and freshwater between −26‰ and −32‰. Thornton and McManus (1994) and Meyers (1997) used δ¹⁵N values to differentiate organic matter from aquatic (>10.0‰) and terrestrial plants (<0‰).

### Radiocarbon dating

Five bulk samples of ~2 g each were used for radiocarbon dating (Table 3). The sediment samples were checked and physically cleaned under the microscope. The residual material was then extracted with 2% HCl at 60°C for 4 h, washed with distilled water until neutral pH and dried (50°C). The sediment organic matter was analyzed by Accelerator Mass Spectrometry (AMS) at the Center for Applied Isotope Studies (Athens, Georgia, USA). Radiocarbon ages are reported in years before AD 1950.
Results and discussion

δ¹³C values of vegetation

Within the 15 species collected, which include the most representative vegetation of the study site, the δ¹³C values indicated a predominance of C₃ plants (Table 2). The contribution of C₄ to the δ¹³C signal in sediment is restricted to the *Panicum* sp. (*Poaceae*) and *Paspalum repens* Berg. (*Poaceae*) and CAM plants to *Sesuvium* sp. (*Aizoaceae*) (Ramani et al., 2006).

Radiocarbon date and sedimentation rates

Radiocarbon dating of the MAC core at depths of 200 cm, 145 cm, and 20 cm produced ages of 5560–5470 cal. yr BP, 5290–5150 cal. yr BP and 600–560 cal. yr BP, respectively. Based on the ratio between the depth intervals (mm) and the mean time range, the sedimentation rates of MAC core are about 1.86 mm/yr (200–145 cm), 0.27 mm/yr (145–20 cm) and 0.34 mm/yr (20–0 cm). Two radiocarbon dates from AM core at 100 and 60 cm displayed ages of 2350–2300 cal. yr BP and 1260–1080 cal. yr BP, respectively (Table 3). The sedimentation rates are 0.35 mm/yr (100–60 cm) and 0.51 mm/yr (60–0 cm) (Figure 2).

Sediments deposited on vegetated tidal flats of Marajó Island (0.3–1 mm/yr, Behling et al., 2004), Salinópolis and the town of São Caetano (1.7–5.6 mm/yr, Cohen et al., 2009) and Bragança Peninsula (0.6–0.8 mm/yr, Cohen et al., 2005; 0.2–0.4 mm/yr, Vedel et al., 2006) on northern Brazilian coast presented similar sedimentation rates.

Facies descriptions

The sediment cores consist mostly of bioturbated mud and sand, heterolithic deposits, coarse to fine sands with cross-lamination and massive sand (Figure 2, Table 4). These lithologies are partially organized into a fining upward cycle. Pollen and spore records, δ¹³C, δ¹⁵N and C/N values were added to facies characteristics in order to define four facies associations that represent typical tidal flat settings.

Facies association A (Mangrove/mixed flat). This association occurs in the lowest part of the MAC core from 5560–5470 cal. yr BP until 5290–5150 cal. yr BP, and throughout the AM core from 2350–2300 cal. yr BP until the present (Figure 2). These deposits feature mud with flat lenses of rippled sand (facies H₁ and H₂) that indicate low-energy flow with mud deposition from suspension and periodic sand inflows, mostly through migration of isolated ripples (Reineck and Wunderlich, 1968). Besides these structures,
Table 4. Summary of facies descriptions and sedimentary process in the sediment cores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Facies</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lenticular heterolithic (Hi)</td>
<td>Greenish gray mud with single and connected flat lenses of pale olive, rippled fine to very fine sand.</td>
<td>Low-energy flows with mud deposition from suspension, but with periodic sand inflows through migration of isolated ripples.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wavy heterolithic (Hw)</td>
<td>Greenish gray, wave mud layers in alternation with pale olive, ripple-bedded fine sand layers.</td>
<td>Equal periods of mud and sand deposition from suspension and bedload transport, respectively.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bioturbated mud (Mb)</td>
<td>Light yellowish brown and pale olive mud with many roots, root marks, dwelling structures and diffused fine sands following the root traces and benthic tubes.</td>
<td>Diffused mixture of sediments and alternating colors by intense bioturbation and diagentic process, respectively.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-laminated sand (Sc)</td>
<td>Light olive gray, well sorted, fine to medium sand with current ripple cross-lamination.</td>
<td>Migration of small ripples during low-energy, unidirectional flows.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Massive sand (Sm)</td>
<td>Dark reddish brown and light yellowish brown moderately to poorly sorted, medium to coarse sand and locally angular to subangular ferruginous pebbles.</td>
<td>The massive nature may indicate a rapid sedimentation. In the case of the gravel class occurrence, pebbles are left behind, while sands moved as bedload under relatively high-energy flows.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclined heterolithic (Hi)</td>
<td>Parallel inclined laminae of light gray fine sand and pale olive mud with dip of ~6°.</td>
<td>Lateral accretion with sand and mud deposited during low-energy flows of a small-scale meandering creak.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bioturbated sand (Sb)</td>
<td>Pale olive silty sand with light gray mottles, many roots, root traces in growth position and dwelling structures.</td>
<td>Sediment homogenization and motting by biological activity and diagentic process, respectively.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The AM core presents mud with convolute lamination, many bioturbation features (facies Mb) such as roots, root marks and dwelling structures produced by the benthic fauna. Probably, convolute lamination was produced by localized differential forces acting on a hydroplastic sediment layer, commonly found on mud flats (Collinson et al., 2006).

The pollen assemblages of association A correspond to Zone MAC 1 (Figure 3), AM1 and AM2 (Figure 4). Zone MAC 1 was subdivided in Subzone MAC 1a and MAC 1b. Subzone MAC 1a (5560–5470 cal. yr BP to ~5430 cal. yr BP) is characterized by the predominance of mangrove pollen, mainly constituted by Rhizophora (20–75%). ‘várzea’ pollen of Araliaceae, Arecales, Ilex, Mauritia and Mimosoideae appear with very low percentages (<10%). Even prolific producers of windblown pollen such as Poaceae (Colinvaux et al., 1999) show low values (18–40%). However, Poaceae pollen (40–73%) increases in the Subzone MAC 1b (~5430 to 5290–5150 cal. yr BP). Rhizophora pollen (0–24%) becomes less frequent. Arecales (0–22%), Euphorbiaceae and Mauritia (~10%) are the main representatives of ‘várzea’ pollen.

Zone AM 1 (2350–2300 cal. yr BP to 1260–1080 cal. yr BP) reveals a heterogeneous vegetation assemblage (Figure 4). Inundated field pollen of Poaceae (18–48%), and mangrove pollen of Rhizophora (21–36%) and Avicennia (3–15%) are prevalent. Acrostichum (0–50%) fern is another mangrove indicator (Ng et al., 2002), but presented relatively low values. ‘várzea’ pollen of Euphorbiaceae (0–22%), Pseudobombax (0–10%) and Papilionoideae (2–5%) also showed low values. Subsequently, ‘várzea’ pollen progressively becomes less abundant. Inundated field pollen represented by Poaceae (20–40%), Amaranthaceae (3–10%) and Malpighiaceae (0–10%), jointly with mangrove pollen of Rhizophora (13–49%) and Avicennia (2–22%) exhibited high values, but mangrove pollen decreases towards the end of zone AM 1. Nevertheless, in zone AM 2 (1260–1080 cal. yr BP to modern), mangrove pollen is very well represented by Rhizophora (20–60%) and Avicennia (18–40%). Acrostichum (23–98%) fern reached its highest values in this zone.

The sediment δ13C values ranging between −25.8% and −26.3% suggest the contribution of C3 plants and fluvial Particulate Organic Carbon (POC; −25% to −30%; Barth et al., 1998). The δ15N in the range of 2.1–7.5% suggests a mixture of terrestrial plants (~0%) and aquatic organic matter (>10%; Meyers, 1997; McManus and McManus, 1994). The C/N values (11–20) also indicate a mixture of organic matter from vascular plants and algae (<10 algae dominance and > 12 vascular plants; Meyers, 1994; Tyson, 1995), and the binary diagram between the δ13C and C/N reveals contribution of marine and freshwater Dissolved Organic Carbon (DOC; Figures 5, 6 and 7).

Facies association B (Tidal sand flat). This association B begins around 5290–5150 cal. yr BP in the MAC core (Figure 2). It consists of massive sands (facies Sm) and cross-laminated sand (facies Sc), which record relatively low and high flow energy with current action shaping the bedform, inducing the migration of small sand ripples (Reineck and Singh, 1980). Pollen was not found in the association B, which corresponds to Subzone MAC 2a1 (Figure 3).

The sediment δ13C values ranging between −25.8% and −26.3% suggest the contribution of C3 plants and fluvial Particulate Organic Carbon (POC; −25% to −30%; Barth et al., 1998). The δ15N in the range of 2.1–7.5% suggests a mixture of terrestrial plants (~0%) and aquatic organic matter (>10%; Meyers, 1997; McManus and McManus, 1994). The C/N values (11–20) also indicate a mixture of terrestrial plants (~0%) and aquatic organic matter (>10%; Meyers, 1997; McManus and McManus, 1994). The δ15N values (4.3‰ to 5.4‰) indicate higher aquatic influence than in association A. Furthermore, the C/N values exhibit a reduction to 5.5 and 6.6 (Figure 5), reinforcing the contribution of aquatic materials because of fluvial influence through the relative contribution of phytoplankton (5 to 7; Meyers, 1994; Tyson, 1995). The relationship between δ13C and C/N indicates freshwater algae as the main source of the organic matter accumulated in this facies association (Figure 7).

Facies association C (Small-scale point-bar). This association only occurs in the MAC core (Figure 2). Given calibrated ages below and above association C (5290–5150 cal. yr BP and ~3700 cal. yr BP), a sedimentary gap of 1000 years probably occurred because of the migration of a meandering creek. The association presents erosive base, medium to coarser sands with scattered ferruginous pebbles (facies Sm), which is overlaid by inclined sand and mud (facies Hi). Association C is a product of point-bar lateral accretion within a small-scale meandering creek draining intertidal mudflats, where periodic fluctuations of current...
Figure 3. Pollen diagram of the MAC core

Figure 4. Pollen diagram of the AM core
velocity/direction and water levels inherent to the tidal cycles, allowed sand and mud deposition during periods of high (ebb or flood tidal current) and low (slack water) energy flows, respectively (Thomas et al., 1987). The association C also integrates Subzone MAC 2a1 (Figure 3).

Sediment δ\(^{13}\)C values (−26.4‰ to −28‰) were more depleted in \(^{13}\)C than association B, which is indicative of a greater contribution of fluvial POC. The δ\(^{15}\)N values (3‰ to 4.4‰), suggest a mixture of aquatic and terrestrial organic matter. However, the C/N values (5.8 to 6.6) indicate higher contribution of aquatic organic matter (Figure 5), as well as the relationship between δ\(^{13}\)C and C/N also indicates higher contribution of freshwater algae (Figure 7).

**Facies association D ('Várzea'/transitional vegetation).** The association D only occurs in the MAC core. It presents silty sand (facies Sb) and mud (facies Mb) with many roots, root marks of species with diffuse/fasciculated root systems, fragments of leaves, Oligochaeta tubes and mottling features (Figure 2), which may indicate diagenetic process in a vegetated substrate (e.g. Retallack, 2001).

This association corresponds to Subzone MAC 2a2 and MAC 2b (Figure 3). The Subzone MAC 2a2 (~3700 to 600–560 cal. yr BP) presents TSF and inundated field pollen of Annona and Poaceae (0–50%), Inundated field pollen of Mikania (0–44%), Poaceae (0–40%), Sagittaria (0–35%) and ‘várzea’ pollen of Euphorbiaceae (0–15%), Mauritia (0–43%), Papilionoideae (0–20%) increase toward the top. Polypodium (40–40%) is the only fern found in MAC 2a2. In the Zone MAC 2b (600–560 cal. yr BP to modern), Arecaceae (10–18%), Mauritia (10–20%), Papilionoideae (6–16%), Mascagnia (3–10%) and Poaceae (32–47%) pollen are well correlated to the modern vegetation at the sampling site. The incipient pollen results in the Subzone MAC 2a2 of inundated field (0–62%), TSF (0–60%) and ‘várzea’ (0–50%) suggest that inundated field and other successional vegetation act as pioneers for the stabilization of a new organic horizon for TSF development, until the expansion of ‘várzea’ forests at 600–560 cal. yr BP.

The sediment δ\(^{13}\)C values varied from −25.9‰ to −29‰, the δ\(^{15}\)N from 3.6‰ to 6.9‰ and the C/N values from 5.2 to 11.6. These are indicative of a mixture of terrestrial and aquatic organic matter (Figure 5). The binary diagram of δ\(^{13}\)C and C/N
values reinforces the influence of freshwater DOC and POC (Figure 7).

**Palaeoenvironmental interpretation**

The data suggest mangrove predominance and the accumulation of brackish water organic matter over a tidal mud flat from Macapá littoral around 5560–5470 cal. yr BP (Figure 5). Between 5560–5470 and 5290–5150 cal. yr BP, the data suggests retraction of mangrove and expansion of Arecaceae and herbaceous vegetation followed by an increase in the contribution of freshwater organic matter (Figure 8). Near the study site (~ 8 km), palaeoecological records from Lake Márcio and Tapera revealed the occurrence of mangrove forests between 8060 and 5840 cal. yr BP, and the replacement of mangrove by freshwater vegetation until 5300 cal. yr BP (Toledo and Bush, 2007).

The point bar sequence found in the Macapá site reveals a common reworking process of the tidal flat through the lateral migration of a meandering creek (e.g. Reineck, 1958; Thomas et al., 1987), with later development of transitional vegetation under freshwater influence. Following the natural vegetation succession under relatively stable climate and hydrological conditions, the expansion of ‘várzea’ forests occurred since 600–560 cal. yr BP until the present (Figure 8).

Regarding the littoral of the town of Amapá (150 km away from the mouth of the Amazon River, Figure 1), the mangrove forests have colonized tidal mud flats during the last 2350–2300 cal. yr BP. However, the *Acrostichum* sp. (mangrove ferns) has expanded over the last ~1500 cal. yr BP. This fern tends to invade open areas under relatively less salty water and high rainfall conditions (Medina et al., 1990). Furthermore, the current distribution of freshwater vegetation near the town of Amapá (Figure 1) suggests a continuous colonization of ‘várzea’ vegetation to the detriment of mangrove during the late Holocene.

Despite this fact that this work is restricted to data on depositional environment, palaeovegetation changes and organic matter sources, we consider it appropriate to propose a hypothesis to explain this environmental alteration through palaeoclimatic changes affecting the Amazon River inflow during the Holocene. Thus, after the postglacial sea-level rise, the relative sea level along the Northern Brazilian littoral reached the current sea level.
between 7000 and 5000 yr BP, and did not show significant oscillations during the last 5000 years (Cohen et al., 2005; Souza Filho et al., 2006). However, our data show that after the sea-level rise an increase in fluvial influence occurred along the study site. Today, the Amazon River discharge has a great influence on the salinity gradient along the tidal flats, limiting the mangrove vegetation to the northwestern Amapá littoral closer to the Atlantic Ocean (Guimarães et al., 2010).

The northern Brazilian mangroves are part of a wetland system that extends for almost 480 km and holds one of the world’s largest mangrove areas (Kjerfve and Lacerda, 1993). The continuity of this mangrove littoral is interrupted by the zone influenced by discharge of the Amazon River, where the ‘várzea’ vegetation dominates (Cohen et al., 2008). The mangrove zones are the response to the gradients of tidal inundation frequency, waterlogging, nutrient availability and sediment salt concentrations across the intertidal area (Hutchings and Saenger, 1987; Wolanski et al., 1990). The geomorphic setting of mangrove systems also comprises a range of inter-related factors such as substrate types, coastal processes, sediment delivery, and freshwater delivery, all of which influence the occurrence and survival of mangroves (Semeniuk, 1994). However, an empirical model based on an ecohydrological approach, which allowed the maintenance of this vegetation, and the increase in marine influence in sector 2 (Figure 1d). Afterward, the retraction of mangrove and expansion of freshwater vegetation during the late Holocene indicates the return of more humid climate conditions and rise of Amazon River inflow.

Along the littoral of the town of Amapá, at least during the last 2350–2300 cal. yr BP, the marine influence allowed the maintenance of mangrove vegetation and the increase in Amazon River inflow during the late Holocene was not strong enough to result in the total replacement of mangrove by ‘várzea’ and/or inundated field, such as occurred on the Macapá site after 5290–5150 cal. yr BP.

Several palaeoecological studies in the Amazon region also indicate drier climate during the mid Holocene, and a wet period during the late Holocene (e.g. Absy et al., 1991; Behling and Hooghiemstra, 2000; Bush and Colinvaux, 1988; Bush et al., 2007; Desjardins et al., 1996; Gouveia et al., 1997; Pessenda et al., 1998, 2001; Sifeddine et al., 1994, 2001; Weng et al., 2002).

Conclusion
The tidal flat data analyzed indicate significant vegetation changes. The marine influence and resultant mangrove expansion occurred between 5560–5470 cal. yr BP and ~5430 cal. yr BP. Between ~5430 and 5290–5150 cal. yr BP, the mangrove retreated and freshwater vegetation expanded, which suggests a decrease in marine influence. During the late Holocene, freshwater vegetation developed along the tidal flat from Macapá site. However, on the northwestern Amapá littoral, which lies 150 km away from the mouth of Amazon River, the mangrove forests have colonized part of the tidal mud flats during the last 2350–2300 cal. yr BP. This suggests that marine influence allowed the maintenance of this vegetation, and the increase in fluvial inflow did not result in a complete replacement of mangrove by freshwater vegetation.

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