



**QUEEN'S
UNIVERSITY
BELFAST**

Mid to late Holocene sea-level rise and precipitation variability recorded in the fringe mangroves of the Caribbean coast of Panama

Castañeda-Posadas, C., Correa-Metrio, A., Escobar, J., Moreno, E., Curtis, J. H., Blaauw, M., & Jaramillo, C. (2022). Mid to late Holocene sea-level rise and precipitation variability recorded in the fringe mangroves of the Caribbean coast of Panama. *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology*, 592, Article 110918. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.palaeo.2022.110918>

Published in:

Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology

Document Version:

Peer reviewed version

Queen's University Belfast - Research Portal:

[Link to publication record in Queen's University Belfast Research Portal](#)

Publisher rights

Copyright 2022 Elsevier.

This manuscript is distributed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs License

(<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>), which permits distribution and reproduction for non-commercial purposes, provided the author and source are cited.

General rights

Copyright for the publications made accessible via the Queen's University Belfast Research Portal is retained by the author(s) and / or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing these publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

Take down policy

The Research Portal is Queen's institutional repository that provides access to Queen's research output. Every effort has been made to ensure that content in the Research Portal does not infringe any person's rights, or applicable UK laws. If you discover content in the Research Portal that you believe breaches copyright or violates any law, please contact openaccess@qub.ac.uk.

Open Access

This research has been made openly available by Queen's academics and its Open Research team. We would love to hear how access to this research benefits you. – Share your feedback with us: <http://go.qub.ac.uk/oa-feedback>

1 **Mid to late Holocene sea-level rise and precipitation variability recorded in the fringe**
2 **mangroves of the Caribbean coast of Panama.**

3
4 **Carlos Castañeda-Posadas^{1,2}, Alex Correa-Metrio^{2,3*}, Jaime Escobar^{4,5}, J. Enrique**
5 **Moreno⁵, Jason Curtis⁶, Maarten Blaaw⁷, and Carlos Jaramillo⁵**

6
7 *¹ Posgrado en Ciencias Biológicas, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Coyoacán,*
8 *Ciudad de México 04510, Mexico.*

9 *² Instituto de Geología, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Coyoacán, Ciudad de*
10 *México 04510, Mexico.*

11 *³ Centro de Geociencias, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Juriquilla, Querétaro*
12 *76230, Mexico.*

13 *⁴ Departamento de Ingeniería Civil y Ambiental, Universidad del Norte, Barranquilla,*
14 *Colombia.*

15 *⁵ Center for Tropical Paleoecology and Archaeology, Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute,*
16 *Box 0843-03092, Balboa, Panama.*

17 *⁶ Department of Geological Sciences, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611, United States*
18 *of America.*

19 *⁷ School of Natural and Built Environment, Queen's University Belfast, Belfast BT7 INN, United*
20 *Kingdom.*

21
22 * Corresponding author: acorrea@geociencias.unam.mx

23
24 **Abstract**

25 Throughout the Holocene, two of the most important factors involved in the evolution of tropical
26 coastlines have been fluctuations in sea level and regional climates. The geological record
27 provides insightful realizations of the complex interaction between these two factors, improving
28 our understanding of the evolution of littoral zones. Here we present the sedimentary record of a
29 mangrove swamp located in Punta Galeta, Caribbean coast of Panama. Through the conjunction
30 of geochemical and biological sedimentary indicators, we reconstruct environmental dynamics of
31 the area for the last ~5200 years. Between ~5200 and ~1800 cal yr B.P., the progressive

32 dominance of carbonates and a decrease of mangrove pollen indicate increasing marine influence
33 in the area, probably facilitated by a progressively drier climate. Between 3100 and 1800 cal yr
34 B.P., the embayment was flooded by marine water resulting in a landward migration of
35 mangroves. From ~1800 cal yr B.P. to present, the pollen and organic matter records indicate
36 that mangrove vegetation belt recovered, contributing a large proportion of organic matter to the
37 sediment and advancing the shoreline seaward. The maturation of the mangrove forest has
38 resulted in a progradation process that offsets between 4 and 5 meters of sea level rise occurred
39 through the last ~5000 years. This process was facilitated by the progressive decrease in rates of
40 sea level rise and by increasing sedimentation rates resulting from a higher accumulation of
41 organic matter from the more vigorous vegetation and more terrigenous input associated with
42 higher regional precipitation. The record of Punta Galeta demonstrates that the evolution of
43 fringe mangroves throughout the Holocene has been mostly driven by sea level rise, which
44 effects are potentially offset by erosion during times of high precipitation. Thus, across the
45 Caribbean coast, precipitation regimes have played a pivotal role at defining the structure and
46 function of mangrove communities.

47

48 **Keywords**

49 Mangroves; sea level rise; precipitation variability; Caribbean; pollen analysis; geochemical
50 analysis; Holocene.

51

52 **1. Introduction**

53 Regional coastal dynamics are defined by the differential strength of continental and
54 marine influences that act upon a specific area (Bird, 2011). The local geomorphology and the
55 balance between continental and marine influences define the physiognomy and complexity of
56 the resulting ecosystems, which range from coastal dune fields to exuberant mangrove forests
57 (Alongi, 2020; Ellison, 2004). These ecosystems intermediate the interchange of matter and
58 energy between continental and marine areas and largely define the physiognomy of the
59 coastlines (Alongi, 2020). Continental influences are mostly represented by the input of a
60 mixture of materials of minerogenic and organic origin, transported mostly by rain and wind or
61 produced *in situ*. Thus, these influences are mainly dominated by regional climates and the
62 nature of the depositional environments. Marine influences, on the other hand, manifest through

63 the erosive action of the waves and tides, and the control that sea level exerts on the hydraulic
64 and compositional properties of the coastal soils. Through the Holocene, regional climates of
65 Central America and sea level in the Caribbean have been variable (e.g. Khan et al., 2017;
66 Stansell et al., 2020; Toscano and Macintyre, 2003; Winter et al., 2020), resulting a dynamic
67 coastal landscape where ecosystems have been in a constant process of reconfiguration. Regional
68 precipitation regimes, and thus sediment transport, have varied at time-scales from annual (e.g.
69 interannual variability of the Pacific system, Conroy et al., 2008) to millennial (e.g. the
70 progressive southern displacement of the intertropical convergence zone, ITCZ, Haug et al.,
71 2001). Sea level, on the other hand, has been rising at a progressively lower rate through time,
72 reaching relatively stable levels between ~6000 and 5000 cal yr B.P. (Khan et al., 2017;
73 Lambeck et al., 2014; Toscano and Macintyre, 2003). Thus, the modern landforms and
74 ecosystems are the result of a dynamic evolutive history highly dependent on local and regional
75 conditions.

76 Mangrove forests are probably the most exuberant ecosystem established in the intertidal
77 zone of tropical and subtropical regions, in settings usually protected from the direct action of the
78 waves (Lugo and Snedaker, 1974). Classified among the most productive ecosystems in the
79 world, mangrove forests offer goods and services such as protection of the coastline from
80 extreme weather events, storage of carbon, shelter for marine and terrestrial fauna, among others
81 (Ward et al., 2016). During times of marine transgressive events such as the Holocene, their
82 persistence over a given location largely depends on the input of lithogenic and organic materials
83 offsetting sea level rise (Jaramillo and Bayona, 2000; Soares, 2009), a process facilitated by high
84 precipitation regimes that associate with high erosion rates. Whereas sea level rises, mangroves
85 facilitate terrain accretion and promote progradation processes, which are only possible given a
86 reasonable input of sediments (Woodroffe, 1993). Thus, Holocene dynamics of mangroves
87 provide hints into their response to rising sea level, although the variability of the input of
88 continental can be an important source of variability. In this sense, the development of
89 mangroves along coastal settings characterized by the absence of major tributaries (fringe
90 mangroves, Lugo and Snedaker, 1974) offers a natural laboratory to identify vegetation
91 responses to rising sea level.

92 Fringe mangrove communities have long thrived behind beach ridges and in embayments
93 of the Caribbean (Ellison, 2004). In Panama, Punta Galeta is a good example of a setting

94 protected from the direct effect of the waves inhabited by mangroves since at least 7000 cal yr
95 B.P. (Macintyre and Glynn, 1976). The communities is composed of four mangrove species
96 (*Avicennia germinans*, *Conocarpus erectus*, *Laguncularia racemosa*, and *Rhizophora mangle*),
97 each one adapted to specific conditions of salinity and soil hydric regime, in turn defined by
98 local geomorphology and the spatial structure of the intertidal zone (Ellison, 2004; Lugo and
99 Snedaker, 1974; Sousa et al., 2007). Given the absence of major fluvial discharge into the area,
100 mangrove dynamics through the Holocene have probably been largely dominated by sea level
101 rise. We reconstruct the local and regional environmental history by analyzing geochemical and
102 biological indicators in a sediment core from an embayment. Our main goal is to identify the
103 effects of progressive sea level rise on the composition and structure of local mangrove
104 communities, and the possible modulating role of regional climate. Whereas geochemical
105 indicators provide insights on the environmental setting at local and regional spatial scales,
106 palynological indicators provide independent evidence on local vegetation dynamics.

107

108 **2. Study area**

109 Punta Galeta is located on the Caribbean coast of central Panama, on the eastern side of
110 the Panama Canal. It consists of a small peninsula surrounded by small islands (Fig. 1). The
111 regional basement rock is part of the Gatun Formation, a middle and upper Miocene geological
112 unit composed of massive siltstone to fine sandstone, and tuff, rich in molluscan fauna (Hendy,
113 2013; Woodring, 1957). The regional coastline is covered by deposits of marine carbonates that,
114 in the Galeta coral reef, reach depths of at least 14 m (Macintyre and Glynn, 1976) (Fig. 1).
115 Towards the embayments and behind the beach ridges, mangrove forests and swamps have
116 developed, producing deposits rich in organic matter. The swamps are protected from direct
117 wave action by a fringing reef flat that extends seaward, with its highest elevation in the fore reef
118 and decreasing height landward (Kilar and Norris, 1988). The tidal regime is semidiurnal, with a
119 mean diurnal range of 33.5 cm and a mean annual range of 21.3 cm (Cubit et al., 1986). Mean
120 monthly temperature is relatively constant throughout the year, with an annual mean of 27.2 °C,
121 and a daily temperature range of approximately 5 °C. Mean annual precipitation is ~2920 mm,
122 with the dry season extending from January to mid-April (Fig. 1). The landward limit of the
123 mangrove forests and swamps is determined by higher-elevation terrains occupied by tropical
124 forest (Schmidt, 2008). The canopy of the mangrove forests of Punta Galeta is dominated by

125 *Avicennia germinans* (hereafter *Avicennia*), *Laguncularia racemosa* (hereafter *Laguncularia*),
126 and *Rhizophora mangle* (hereafter *Rhizophora*) (Sousa et al., 2007; Sousa and Mitchell, 1999).
127 These species are distributed according to the tidal influence, forming zones of different canopy
128 composition (Sousa et al., 2007). *Rhizophora* dominates the low intertidal areas, mixing with
129 *Laguncularia* at distances of 10-20 m from the water's edge. *Avicennia* is present in the mid-
130 intertidal areas, creating a canopy that has representatives of all three species. Additionally, there
131 is sparse presence of *Conocarpus erectus* (hereafter *Conocarpus*), mostly found around the
132 beach ridges and the transition zone from mangrove to tropical forest.

133

134 **3. Methods**

135 In October 2018, a 452-cm-long sediment core (GAL18) was retrieved from a mangrove
136 forest in Punta Galeta, Caribbean coast of Panama (9.39°N 79.86°W, Fig. 1). The core was
137 recovered in 1-m-long increments, using a modified Livingstone piston corer (Colinvaux et al.,
138 1999), under a stand of *Avicennia germinans*. After retrieval, the core was sealed and has been
139 stored at ~4 °C for preserving sedimentary evidence. Core sections were longitudinally open, and
140 the material was photographed and described in terms of color, texture, and content of macro
141 rests. Six depths along the core were sampled for radiocarbon dating on organic matter at the
142 ¹⁴CHRONO Centre for Climate, the Environment and Chronology of Queen's University
143 Belfast. Radiocarbon dates were calibrated using IntCal20 (Reimer et al., 2020), expressed in
144 calibrated years before present (cal yr B.P. hereafter), and interpolated using clam to construct an
145 age-depth model (Blaauw, 2010).

146 The core was sampled at 5-cm intervals for geochemical analyses, for a total of 88
147 samples. For this purpose, 3-cm³ subsamples were oven-dried and ground using a mortar and a
148 pestle. Concentrations of major and trace elements were determined using a handheld XRF
149 analyzer, with three repeated measurements per sample, and expressed in ppm. Confidence
150 intervals for each element in each sample were calculated using the mean and standard deviation
151 of the triplicate measurements. Only elements that showed concentrations statistically different
152 from zero and that showed significant variability throughout the record were included in further
153 analyses. Samples were also analyzed for total carbon (TC), total inorganic carbon (TIC), total
154 nitrogen (TN), and carbon and nitrogen isotopes ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$) in bulk organic matter. Total
155 carbon and total nitrogen were measured using a Carlo Erba NA 1500 CNS elemental analyzer.

156 Total inorganic carbon was determined by acidification followed by coulometric titration using
157 an AutoMate Prep Device coupled with a UIC 5014 CO₂ coulometer. Percent total organic
158 carbon was calculated by subtraction of TIC from TC. Subsamples for carbon isotope analysis on
159 bulk organic matter were pretreated with 2N HCl to remove carbonate and later washed with
160 distilled water to remove chloride, prior to isotope measurement. Around 50 mg of carbonate-
161 free sediment was loaded into tin sample capsules for stable carbon isotope measurement.
162 Nonacidified samples were used for nitrogen isotopes. Combustion gases were carried in a
163 helium stream through a Conflo II interface to a Thermo Electron DeltaV Advantage isotope
164 ratio mass spectrometer. Carbon and nitrogen isotope data are reported in per mil (‰) and
165 expressed in standard delta notation. Carbon isotopes ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$) are reported relative to VPDB and
166 nitrogen isotopes are reported relative to AIR. A principal component analysis (Jolliffe, 1986)
167 was used to evaluate relationships among elements through a correlation biplot. Sample scores
168 across the principal components (PC) were used to summarize the total variability of the
169 geochemical record through time. TOC/TN ratios were calculated for each sample aiming to
170 assess relative contributions of terrestrial and aquatic organic matter to the sediment (Meyers,
171 2003).

172 The core was subsampled every ~8 cm for pollen analysis for a total of 54 samples.
173 Samples were prepared using standard techniques (Faegri and Iversen, 1989) and gravimetrically
174 separated for concentrating palynomorphs (Krukowski, 1988). Samples were analyzed under a
175 transmitted light microscope at magnifications of 400x and 1000x. Because of very low pollen
176 concentrations, palynomorphs were counted aiming to a pollen sum of 200 grains, which
177 included pollen of terrestrial plants and spores of *Acrostichum*, as this taxon is considered a
178 component of the vegetation in mangrove communities (Lee et al., 2017). Pollen from aquatic
179 plants was excluded from the pollen sum because they are probably transported from freshwater
180 streams that descend from the area occupied by the tropical forest. Pollen types were identified to
181 the finest possible taxonomic level using available reference pollen collections and specialized
182 literature (Bush and Weng, 2007; Roubik and Moreno, 1991; Willard et al., 2001). All
183 palynomorph abundances were transformed to percentages of the pollen sum.

184

185 **4. Results**

186

187 *4.1 Core stratigraphy and chronology*

188 The core was characterized by two main sections differentiated by their texture and the
189 presence of macrorests (Fig. 2). The lower section, from 452 to 250 cm below lagoon floor (blf
190 hereafter), was characterized by abundant bivalve and gastropod shells, low content of organic
191 matter, and a relatively coarse sediment texture dominated by lime and sand. The upper section,
192 from 250 cm blf to the top of the core, was characterized by abundant vegetal macrorests, high
193 content of organic matter, and a finer sediment texture dominated by lime and clay (Fig. 2).
194 Radiocarbon dates resulted in stratigraphic order, except the sample taken at 331 cm blf that
195 showed an age reversal and was, therefore, excluded from the age-depth model (Fig. 2).
196 According to the age-depth model, the sediment sequence GAL18 spans the last ~5,200 years
197 (Fig. 2). Sedimentation rate showed a general increase towards present, going from ~0.05 cm/yr
198 from ~452 to 320 cm blf, to 0.2 cm/year in the uppermost ~100 cm of the record (Fig. 2).

199
200 Table 1. Radiocarbon and calibrated dates of core GAL18. 95% confidence intervals for
201 calibrated ages are shown in parenthesis.

Laboratory ID	Depth (cm)	¹⁴ C Age	Error	Calibrated age (cal yr BP)
UBA-40771	45	138	23	136 (12-269)
UBA-40772	91	338	22	389 (317-469)
UBA-40773	195	1553	28	1441 (1363-1515)
UBA-40774	311	2269	25	2259 (2162-2340)
UBA-40935	330	892	20	2665 (2583-2737)
UBA-40776	435	4340	28	4908 (4850-4975)

202

203 *4.2 Geochemical analyses*

204 Concentrations of Ca, Cu, Fe, K, Mo, Mn, Rb, S, Sr, Ti, Zn, and Zr, determined by XRF
205 analysis, were significantly different from zero and displayed significant variability through the
206 record (Fig. 3). Mo, Cu, and Rb were characterized by stable concentrations from the bottom of
207 the record to ~500 years cal yr B.P. Thereafter, concentrations increased, reaching a peak around
208 200 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 3). Fe, S, Ti, Zn, and Zr were characterized by relatively low and stable
209 concentrations from the bottom of the record to ~2000 cal yr B.P. These elements showed higher
210 and more variable values from ~2000 cal yr B.P. to the top of the core. K showed a long-term
211 decreasing trend throughout the record, whereas Mn remained stable from the bottom of the

212 record to ~2000 cal yr B.P., when it began to decrease towards present (Fig. 3). Ca and Sr
213 increased from the bottom of the record to ~3100 cal yr B.P., reaching a plateau of maximum
214 concentrations that lasted until ~2000 cal yr B.P. and subsequently decreasing towards present.

215 TC and TN were characterized by low and stable concentrations from the bottom of the
216 sediment core to ~2000 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 3). $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ values were relatively stable (-24.0‰) and
217 less negative from the bottom of the record to ~2000 cal yr B.P., when they started to decrease,
218 reaching their most negative values in the topmost sample (-29.0‰) (Fig. 3). $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ was
219 characterized by values around 2.0‰ between the bottom of the record and ~4000 cal yr B.P.
220 Values increased to ~2.5‰ between 4000 and 1500 cal yr B.P., and thereafter decreased towards
221 present.

222 In the PCA, more than half of the total variance of the dataset was associated with PC1
223 (Fig. 4). The broken-stick model indicates that only the two first principal components were
224 statistically significant, representing 51.1% and 14.9% of the total variance, respectively (Fig. 4).
225 The positive end of PC1 is associated with Ca, Mn, Sr, TIC, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$, whereas the
226 negative end was associated with Cu, Mo, Rb, S, Ti, TN, TOC, and Zr (Fig. 4). PC2 was mostly
227 defined by K and Zr towards the positive end, and Fe and Zn towards the negative end.

228

229 4.3 Palynological analysis

230 Pollen sums varied between 92 and 781 grains per sample (mean = 260, Q1 = 194 and Q3
231 = 293). Samples in which the pollen sum was below the target of 200 grains were mostly from
232 below 330 cm blf. Pollen spectra were characterized by 57 morphotypes, 28 and 29 classified to
233 genus and family levels, respectively. Counts of fern spores other than *Acrostichum* ranged from
234 5 to 65 spores per sample (mean = 26, Q1 = 14 and Q3 = 30), and were represented by the
235 families Lycopodiaceae, Selaginellaceae, Aspleniaceae, Cyatheaceae, Polypodiaceae, and
236 Pteridaceae. The most abundant taxa were *Rhizophora* (mean 36.4%), *Avicennia* (17.6%),
237 *Achrostichum* (11.7%), cf. *Laguncularia* (6.9%), *Polypodium* (4.7%), *Bombacopsis* (4.5%),
238 *Cecropia* (4.3%), *Asplenium* (3.3%), Cyatheaceae (2.2%), Urticaceae-Moraceae (2.0%), Poaceae
239 (1.75%), and Arecaceae (1.6%) (Fig. 5). See full diagram in Appendix 1 of Supplementary
240 Material.

241 In the fossil pollen spectra, mangroves were represented by *Avicennia*, cf. *Laguncularia*,
242 and *Rhizophora*, with sporadic appearances of *Conocarpus* (Fig. 5). *Acrostichum* spores were

243 also an important component of the palynomorph counts, with higher percentages before 2000
244 cal yr B.P. Herbs were mostly represented by Urticaceae-Moraceae, *Chenopodium*, and
245 Amaranthaceae that better represented in samples older than ~3800 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 5). Aquatics
246 were represented by Cyperaceae, *Nymphaea*, and *Polygonum* (Fig. 5). Other herbs such as
247 *Ambrosia* and *Polygala* were more abundant between ~3100 and 1500 cal yr B.P., whereas the
248 last 2000 years were characterized by relatively high abundances of *Mimosa* and Asteraceae
249 (Fig. 5). Trees and shrubs were present throughout the entire record, although their abundances
250 were higher between 3100 and 1800 cal yr B.P. *Alnus* and *Podocarpus* were more abundant in
251 samples older than 3000 cal yr B.P.

252

253 **5. Discussion**

254 Core GAL18 spans the last 5,200 years of the environmental history of Punta Galeta,
255 Caribbean coast of Panama (Fig. 2). Sedimentation rates resulted variable and were punctuated
256 by radiocarbon dates, implying that our age-depth model offers a rough approximation to the
257 temporal structure of the environmental history of the area during the last 5,200 years. Further,
258 the age-depth model must be interpreted in the light of a possible influence of old carbon, an
259 important source of chronological overestimation under environments with high marine
260 influence (Stuiver and Braziunas, 1993). Low sedimentation rates below 311 cm blf (before
261 ~2200 cal yr B.P.) could be reflecting a depositional hiatus previously reported for the area
262 (Schmidt, 2008) that roughly coincides with a drought reported for several coastal sites in the
263 Caribbean and surrounding regions (e.g. Giry et al., 2012; Haug et al., 2001; Stansell et al., 2020;
264 Velez et al., 2014). Differences in sediment composition and sedimentation rates between the
265 lower and upper part of the core reflect concomitant changes of both the depositional
266 environment and regional climatic conditions. Whereas depositional environments in costal
267 settings such as Punta Galeta show high spatiotemporal variability (Woodroffe, 1993), Holocene
268 changes in precipitation regime and human activities have been documented for the region (e.g.
269 Correa-Metrio et al., 2016; Piperno et al., 1991; Toth et al., 2015). In the following sections, we
270 first introduce the interpretation of the proxies analyzed for core GAL18 and then, present an
271 interpretation of the environmental history of the area.

272

273 *5.1 Geochemical indicators*

274 The composition of the sediments of core GAL18 reflects the balance between
275 continental and marine influences that define sediment sources as well as transport and
276 deposition patterns. The continental influence is associated with the input of detrital materials
277 eroded from the catchment basin. Punta Galeta lies on the Gatun Formation, a shallow marine
278 sequence rich in carbonates and in siliciclastic material of volcanic origin (Hendy, 2013; Hidalgo
279 et al., 2011). Thus, in our geochemical dataset, the continental influence is surely represented by
280 lithogenic elements such as Rb, Ti, and Zr, which concentrations reflect the dynamics of the
281 erosive agents (Boës et al., 2011; Rothwell and Croudace, 2015). Carbonates eroded from the
282 basin probably represent a substantial source of TIC and Ca, but the negative association of these
283 elements with lithogenics (Fig. 4) points to marine carbonates as their main source at the coring
284 location. TIC and Ca are strongly correlated with Mn and Sr, and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ (Figs. 3 and 4),
285 reinforcing the interpretation of their association with marine sources as marine organic matter
286 carbon is isotopically heavier (Meyers, 1997; Schneider et al., 2006). High concentrations of Ca,
287 Sr, and TIC accompanied by less negative values of $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ are probably associated with subtidal
288 depositional environments where large amounts of marine carbonates precipitate. Overall, the
289 main variability of the geochemical record was reflected by the trends of two groups of
290 correlated elements: one associated with input of detrital material and the other associated with
291 deposition of marine carbonates (Figs. 3 and 4).

292 Accumulation of organic matter in the sediments is directly reflected by concentrations of
293 TOC (Meyers, 2003). In core GAL18, the positive correlation between concentrations of TOC, S
294 and Mo (Figs. 3 and 4) indicate organic matter that has accumulated under poorly oxygenated
295 conditions that inhibit oxidative processes. Under a reduced depositional environment,
296 concentrations of Mo increase because of its lower mobility (Smedley and Kinniburgh, 2017),
297 whereas bacterial activity favors the accumulation of S (Goldhaber, 2003). High concentrations
298 of Fe and Zn usually indicate oxygen availability (Tribovillard et al., 2006), but these elements
299 can also associate with the organic fraction of the sediment (Dean et al., 1997). Towards the
300 upper part of our record, concentrations of Fe and Zn are in phase with those of TOC and Cu
301 (Fig. 3), suggesting that, in our record, these elements associate with changes in organic matter
302 productivity. The peaks of these elements that characterize the upper part of the record coincide
303 with substantial decreases of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (Fig. 3), which were probably associated with denitrification
304 caused by high bacterial activity under anoxic conditions (Hodell and Schelske, 1998).

305 PC1 indicates that the main mode of variability in core GAL18 is associated with changes
306 in the balance between terrigenous and marine sediments, and thus with the balance between
307 continental and marine influences in the area. While the negative end of the axis reflects
308 substantial input of organic matter and lithogenic elements (mainly Rb, Ti, and Zr), the positive
309 end is defined by elements associated with marine carbonates (mainly Ca, TIC, and Sr).
310 Dominant deposition of terrigenous materials indicated by negative scores along PC1 probably
311 took place under inter to supratidal environments. On the other hand, dominant deposition of
312 marine carbonates indicated by positive scores of PC1 probably took place under inter to
313 infratidal environments. PC2, on the other hand indicates a mode of variability probably
314 associated with the dominant sources of terrigenous material (lithogenic vs. organic) and with
315 oxygen availability in the water column. Whereas the positive end of PC2 was mostly defined by
316 K, Ti, and Zr (Fig. 4), all lithogenic conservative elements (Boës et al., 2011; Rothwell and
317 Croudace, 2015), the negative end was defined by Cu, Zn, and Fe, which associate with organic
318 matter and/or with oxygen availability in the depositional environment (Dean et al., 1997;
319 Tribovillard et al., 2006). The association of these elements with TOC indicates that the negative
320 end of PC2 is more related to the accumulation of organic matter.

321

322 *5.2 Biological indicators*

323 The pollen assemblages deposited in the sediments of Punta Galeta are dominated by
324 local components with mangrove taxa representing more than 40% of the pollen sum, as
325 commonly found in mangrove sediments (Behling et al., 2001; Urrego et al., 2009). This
326 overrepresentation pattern obscures the signal of pollen from trees and shrubs from the
327 surrounding tropical forests, impeding a detailed interpretation of their variability though the
328 record. On the other hand, the geomorphology of Punta Galeta offers very limited space for the
329 formation of back swamps and saltmarshes (Sousa et al., 2007), hindering the development of a
330 clear salinity-driven zonation of herbaceous taxa that characterize well-developed tidal flats
331 (Behling et al., 2001; Urrego et al., 2009). Thus, herbaceous taxa in the sedimentary record of
332 Punta Galeta probably reflect patterns of vegetation disturbance instead of changes in soil
333 salinity. Most of taxa represented in the palynological record are associated with herbaceous
334 vegetation and shrubs and trees from tropical forests, except for *Alnus* and *Podocarpus* that often
335 associate with forests from higher elevations (Marchant et al. 2002). In core GAL18, however,

336 these taxa occurred mostly in abundances below 1.5% probably resulting from long-distance
337 transported pollen (Fig. 5). Overall, the variability of the pollen spectra from core GAL18 mostly
338 reflects local vegetation dynamics. The progressive increase of pollen percentages from all
339 mangrove taxa reflects the invigoration of this vegetation time through time. On the other hand,
340 variability of individual mangrove taxa probably reflects changes in the spatial configuration of
341 the community.

342 Through the last 5200 years, the most important pollen taxa of the mangrove of Punta
343 Galeta have been *Avicennia*, cf. *Laguncularia*, and *Rhizophora*, coinciding with the taxa that
344 dominate the modern canopy of the local mangrove forests (Sousa et al., 2007; Sousa and
345 Mitchell, 1999). The sporadic appearance of pollen of *Conocarpus* coincides with the minor
346 representation of this taxon in the modern vegetation (Schmidt, 2008). Contrastingly, whereas
347 *Acrostichum* is a relatively minor component of the modern forests, it seems to have been better
348 represented from the bottom of the record to ~700 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 5). Given the association of
349 this fern with rather sparse canopies (Medina et al., 1990), it is possible that this time period
350 were characterized by a more sparse mangrove canopy. In fact, from ~5000 to 2000 cal yr B.P.,
351 percentages of *Rhizophora* were relatively low (between ~21 and 32%, Fig. 5), considering the
352 usual over-representation of this taxa in pollen spectra (e.g. Behling et al., 2001; Ramcharan and
353 McAndrews, 2006; Urrego et al., 2009). The coincidence of rising percentages of *Rhizophora*
354 and cf. *Laguncularia* through the last 2000 years likely indicates that the mangrove vegetation
355 that occupies Galeta today is a relatively novel community in the context of the last 5000 years.
356 From 5200 to 5000 cal yr B.P., percentages of *Rhizophora* and cf. *Laguncularia* were relatively
357 high, although the higher abundances of *Avicennia* suggest a mangrove community with a
358 structure different than that of today.

359

360 *5.3 Environmental turnover in Punta Galeta through the last ~5200 years*

361 During the last 5200 years, the environmental variability of Punta Galeta has been largely
362 associated with the marine transgression that has characterized coastal settings during the
363 Holocene. Regional climatic variability at interannual to millennial scale seem to have played an
364 important role at amplifying the effects of sea-level rise on the mangroves of Punta Galeta. Thus,
365 our record provides insights into the response of the shoreline to the rising sea level and the
366 progradation process mediated by the mangrove community, constituting a typical sedimentary

367 parasequence (*sensu* Catuneanu and Zecchin, 2020). The general variability pattern is
368 summarized by the PCA, with PC1 representing the balance between continental and marine
369 influences on the depositional processes, and PC2 indicating the dominating nature of the
370 terrigenous sediments. The palynological record, on the other hand, reflects the local dynamics of
371 the mangrove forests in response to the geomorphological dynamics associated with sea level
372 rise and regional precipitation changes. Based on the geochemical and biological evidence, we
373 divide the history of the area into four main environmental stages. This discretization of the
374 record does not intend to provide a formal chronostratigraphy, but rather to facilitate the
375 interpretation of environmental variability in the area. Stage I (from 5200 to 5000 cal yr B.P.)
376 represents a depositional environment under supra to intertidal conditions covered by a mature
377 mangrove forest. Stage II (from ~5000 to 3100 cal yr B.P.) represents a inter tidal environment
378 submitted to a progressively higher water column, and probably progressively dryer conditions.
379 Rapidly increasing sea level rise and likely lower precipitation led to Stage III, characterized by
380 infratidal conditions that lasted from ~3100 to 1800 cal yr B.P. From 1800 cal yr B.P. to present,
381 the coring site was characterized by a rapid infilling, first with terrigenous materials that probably
382 reflect a precipitation rebound (Stage IV, from ~1800 to 700 cal yr B.P.) followed by organic
383 matter (Stage V, 700 cal yr B.P. to modern).

384 *Stage I.* (~5200 to 5000 cal yr B.P.). The lowermost 200 years of the record were
385 characterized by mangrove pollen percentages above 70%, with equitable representation of
386 *Rhizophora*, *Avicennia*, and cf. *Laguncularia* (Fig. 6), suggesting a well-established mangrove
387 community. The coring site was probably on the distal part of the coastline, which was migrating
388 landward given the progressive sea level rise that has characterized the Caribbean throughout the
389 Holocene (Toscano and Macintyre, 2003). High concentrations of TOC through these 200 years
390 (Fig. 6) indicate a relatively stable substratum with accumulation of organic matter. Percentages
391 of mangrove taxa above 60% (Fig. 6) suggest that the coring site was occupied by a mangrove
392 forest located towards the upper limit of the tidal range. PC1 sample scores indicate an intertidal
393 depositional environment, whereas PC2 indicates high deposition of organic matter that,
394 according to C/N ratios above 20, was mostly derived from terrestrial vegetation (Meyers, 2003;
395 Rovai et al., 2018). Relatively high precipitation that coincides with a more northerly position of
396 the Intertropical Convergence Zone (Haug et al., 2001) probably played a significant role at

397 maintaining a vigorous vegetation. Low concentrations of lithogenics probably result from the
398 high concentration of organic matter in the sediment.

399 *Stage II* (~5000 to 3100 cal yr B.P.). A substantial decrease of mangrove pollen at ~5000
400 cal yr B.P. indicates a sparser mangrove stand. Increasing PC1 scores indicate a progressive
401 increase of marine influence in the area (Fig. 6), whereas decreasing concentrations of
402 lithogenics (Fig. 3) indicate a long-term trend towards drier conditions. Sedimentation rates were
403 exceeded by rates of sea level rise (Fig. 6), resulting in a progressive flooding of the coring site
404 and thus a higher precipitation of marine carbonates. Decreasing concentrations of lithogenics
405 indicate a trend towards drier conditions that coincides with an invigoration of the drying trend
406 reported for the Northern Hemisphere through the Holocene based on the record of Cariaco
407 Basin (Haug et al., 2001; Winter et al., 2020). Mangrove forests responded to this sea level rise
408 process by migrating landward, thus becoming sparser at the coring site. Higher abundances of
409 *Acrostichum* indicate a sparser canopy as this fern usually associates with disturbed mangrove
410 forests (Medina et al., 1990). PC2 indicates that terrigenous sediments were mostly lithogenic,
411 which reflects on the decreasing concentrations of TOC. Less negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ and C/N ratios
412 between 16 and 18 indicate a higher contribution of marine phytoplankton to the organic matter
413 (Meyers and Lallier-vergès, 1999; Meyers, 2003). TOC values are, indeed, similar to those
414 reported for river deltas (Rovai et al., 2018) where substrate is relatively unstable. The deepening
415 of the lagoon together with the more open vegetation probably increased the energetic impact of
416 the tides around the coring location.

417 *Stage III* (~3100 to 1800 cal yr B.P.). Percentages of mangrove pollen ~40% indicate that
418 the forest around the coring site was still sparse (Figs. 5 and 6). This period was characterized by
419 less negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ values that indicate organic matter production was dominated by marine
420 phytoplankton (Meyers and Lallier-vergès, 1999), and C/N ratios below 15 that are characteristic
421 of estuarine systems of brackish water (Rovai et al., 2018). High and stable values of PC1
422 indicate strong marine influence characterized by high concentration of carbonates, most likely
423 deposited under an infratidal environment. According to PC2, the terrigenous fraction became
424 progressively more organic, although high concentrations of Mn and increasing concentrations of
425 Fe and Zn indicate a well oxygenated water column (Tribovillard et al., 2006). These negative
426 PC2 scores are also related to the lowest concentrations of lithogenics throughout the record,
427 which could be indicating a relatively dry regional climate. Dry conditions have been reported

428 for other location in Central America and the western Atlantic during this time (Giry et al., 2012;
429 Stansell et al., 2020; Velez et al., 2014), suggesting a regional driver of precipitation variability.
430 According to evidence from the Galapagos Islands, El Niño events were frequent between ~4000
431 and 1500 cal yr B.P. (Conroy et al., 2008), which probably increased precipitation seasonality in
432 Punta Galeta. This time interval was also reportedly characterized by La Niña-like conditions
433 (Toth et al., 2015), which in Panama result in a higher precipitation variability (Fig. 1C). The
434 conjunction of El Niño and La Niña were likely associated with a higher both seasonality
435 interannual variability of precipitation, offering a plausible scenario for the low deposition of
436 lithogenic elements. Nevertheless, the high uncertainty of our age-depth model precludes definite
437 conclusions on the effect of the ENSO system on the climate and vegetation of Punta Galeta.
438 Additionally, decreasing PC2 scores coincide with a gradual southern displacement of the ITCZ
439 (Haug et al., 2001), which would associate with lower mean annual precipitation (Fig. 6). Higher
440 percentages of *Arecaceae*, *Fabaceae*, and *Malvaceae* (Fig. 5) offer further evidence of a relatively
441 high precipitation seasonality. Increasing percentages of *Ambrosia* suggest anthropogenic
442 influence, widely documented for Central Panama through this time interval (Cooke and Ranere,
443 1992; Piperno, 2006; Piperno et al., 1991), could have acted as an additional source of pressure
444 on vegetation. The evidence suggests that, during this stage, the water column in Punta Galeta
445 reached its maximum levels through the last ~5200 years, leaving the coring site in the subtidal
446 zone. These conditions indicate that rising sea level rates exceeded the accretion rates that were
447 diminished because of the low sediment input from pluvial erosion.

448 *Stage IV* (~1800 to 700 cal yr B.P.). Increasing percentages of mangrove taxa and TOC
449 concentrations indicate a recovery of mangrove vegetation accompanied by a monotonic trend of
450 organic carbon accumulation in the soil (Figs. 5 and 6). The increasing trend of PC1 scores
451 suggest a progressive increase of terrestrial influence (Fig. 6). Higher concentrations of
452 lithogenic elements summarized by the increasing scores of PC2 indicate a rebound of moisture
453 availability, which could be associated with higher sedimentation rates. Even though El Niño
454 events were still frequent (Conroy et al., 2008; Moy et al., 2002), the change in the hydroclimate
455 probably resulted from two main factors, both of them associated with lower seasonality: i) the
456 termination of the La Niña-like conditions (Fig. 6) (Toth et al., 2015), and ii) a decrease of
457 insolation seasonality driven by increasing insolation through the months of higher moisture
458 deficit (January to April, Figs. 1 and 6). This trend towards wetter conditions has also been

459 reported for the Galapagos Islands (Conroy et al., 2008), highlighting the importance of the
460 Pacific system at modulating moisture availability patterns of Central Panama (Correa-Metrio et
461 al., 2016). Sedimentation rates increased over the rate of sea level rise, diminishing the depth of
462 the water column, leaving the coring site in the intertidal zone. The stage represents a seaward
463 progradation the terrain facilitated by increasing sedimentation rates, in turn associated with a
464 higher terrigenous input of sediments and a more vigorous mangrove.

465 *Stage V* (~700 cal yr B.P. to Present). The mangrove vegetation through this stage was
466 characterized by increasing percentages of cf. *Laguncularia* (Fig. 6). This taxon in Galeta
467 represents the transition between the waterfront dominated by *Rhizophora* and the stands of
468 *Avicennia* that dominate the upper inter-tidal areas (Sousa et al., 2007). This stage probably
469 corresponds to the establishment of the modern mangrove forest with a well-developed zonation
470 of taxa. Whereas $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and C/N values suggest that organic matter is mostly contributed by
471 terrestrial plants (Meyers, 2003), the latter values are characteristic of mangrove forests located
472 on carbonate settings (Rovai et al., 2018). The regional vegetation resulted enriched with
473 Annonaceae, Araceae, *Cecropia*, *Machaerium*, and Rubiaceae, suggesting a more diverse forest.
474 Although highly variable, PC1 scores reach their lowest values indicating high terrestrial
475 influence, which, according to PC2 consists mostly of organic matter (Fig. 6). Towards the upper
476 part of the stage, sea level rise rates for the Caribbean and sedimentation rates at Punta Galeta
477 equilibrate, coinciding with the highest accumulation of organic carbon in the soil (Fig. 6).

478

479 **6. Conclusions**

480 The development of mangrove communities is the result of an intricate network of
481 interactions between local and regional factors. In the Caribbean coast of Panama, sea level has
482 defined the baselines for erosion and deposition, whereas regional precipitation has been linked
483 to sedimentary input and vegetation vigor. The interaction between these two main factors
484 defines sediment accumulation and soil accretion, as well as substrate salinity, all of them in turn
485 associated with vegetation composition and structure. The sedimentary record of Punta Galeta
486 demonstrates that the monotonically increasing sea level of the Caribbean has played a major
487 role at defining the establishment of fringe mangroves in the area. According to the geochemical
488 evidence, more than half of the local environmental variability (50.3% of the variance reflected
489 in PC1) has been directly linked to the depositional processes, which reflects the balance the

490 between marine and terrestrial influences. The balance between these two sources of variability
491 defined the spatiotemporal distribution of the mangrove community, which from ~5200 to 1800
492 cal yr B.P. migrated landward, and from 1800 cal yr B.P. to present have led a seaward
493 progradation of the terrain. PC2 reflects a secondary mode of environmental variability reflected
494 in the main composition of the terrigenous fraction of the sediments probably associated with
495 precipitation variability. Through the last 5200 years, there has been a trend towards lower
496 concentrations of lithogenic conservative elements, indicating a trend towards drier conditions
497 and coinciding with the southward displacement of the intertropical convergence zone (Haug et
498 al., 2001). More important, however, has been the variability related to the ENSO system, with
499 high El Niño frequency associated with high precipitation variability. Overall, the establishment
500 and thriving of mangrove forests has been a result of the equilibrium between rates of sea level
501 rise and rates of soil accretion. Well-established mangroves coincided with the highest
502 accumulation of TOC, highlighting the importance of mangrove vegetation for maintaining soil
503 carbon stocks.

504

505 **Acknowledgments.**

506 This study has been performed in partial fulfillment of the requisites of the *Posgrado en Ciencias*
507 *Biológicas*, UNAM, for the Ph.D. degree of C.C.-P. Financial support from UNAM-DGAPA
508 grant IN208819. We are grateful to Luis Gerardo Martínez and Astrid Salgado for their assistance
509 with the XRF analysis, and to Sara Solís for her support with the lab work.

510

511 **References**

- 512 Alongi, D.M., 2020. Coastal ecosystem processes. CRC press.
- 513 Behling, H., Cohen, M.C.L., Lara, R.J., 2001. Studies on Holocene mangrove ecosystems
514 dynamics of the Braganca Peninsula in north-eastern Para, Brazil. *Palaeogeography,*
515 *Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology* 167, 225-242.
- 516 Bird, E.C., 2011. Coastal geomorphology: an introduction. John Wiley & Sons.
- 517 Blaauw, M., 2010. Methods and code for 'classical' age-modelling of radiocarbon sequences.
518 *Quaternary Geochronology* 5, 512-518.

519 Boës, X., Rydberg, J., Martinez-Cortizas, A., Bindler, R., Renberg, I., 2011. Evaluation of
520 conservative lithogenic elements (Ti, Zr, Al, and Rb) to study anthropogenic element
521 enrichments in lake sediments. *Journal of Paleolimnology* 46, 75-87.

522 Bush, M.B., Weng, C., 2007. Introducing a new (freeware) tool for palynology. *Journal of*
523 *Biogeography* 34, 377-380.

524 Catuneanu, O., Zecchin, M., 2020. Parasequences: Allostratigraphic misfits in sequence
525 stratigraphy. *Earth-Science Reviews*, 103289.

526 Colinvaux, P., de Olivera, P.E., Moreno, P.J.E., 1999. Amazon Pollen Manual and Atlas. Harwood
527 Academic Publishers, Amsterdam.

528 Conroy, J.L., Overpeck, J.T., Cole, J.E., Shanahan, T.M., Steinitz-Kannan, M., 2008. Holocene
529 changes in eastern tropical Pacific climate inferred from a Galápagos lake sediment record.
530 *Quaternary Science Reviews* 27, 1166-1180.

531 Cooke, R., Ranere, A.J., 1992. Prehistoric human adaptations to the seasonally dry forests of
532 Panama. *World Archaeology* 24, 114-133.

533 Correa-Metrio, A., Vélez, M.I., Escobar, J., St-Jacques, J.-M., López-Pérez, M., Curtis, J., Cosford,
534 J., 2016. Mid-elevation ecosystems of Panama: future uncertainties in light of past global
535 climatic variability. *Journal of Quaternary Science* 31, 731-740.

536 Cubitt, J.D., Windsor, D.M., Thompson, R.C., Burgett, J.M., 1986. Water-level fluctuations,
537 emersion regimes, and variations of echinoid populations on a Caribbean reef flat. *Estuarine,*
538 *Coastal and Shelf Science* 22, 719-737.

539 Dean, W.E., Gardner, J.V., Piper, D.Z., 1997. Inorganic geochemical indicators of glacial-
540 interglacial changes in productivity and anoxia on the California continental margin. *Geochimica*
541 *et Cosmochimica Acta* 61, 4507-4518.

542 Ellison, A.M., 2004. Wetlands of central America. *Wetlands Ecology and Management* 12, 3-55.

543 Faegri, K., Iversen, J., 1989. *Textbook of pollen analysis*, 4th ed. Wiley, Chichester.

544 Giry, C., Felis, T., Kölling, M., Scholz, D., Wei, W., Lohmann, G., Scheffers, S., 2012. Mid-to late
545 Holocene changes in tropical Atlantic temperature seasonality and interannual to multidecadal
546 variability documented in southern Caribbean corals. *Earth and Planetary Science Letters* 331,
547 187-200.

548 Goldhaber, M.B., 2003. Sulfur-rich sediments, in: Holland, H.D., Turekian, K.K. (Eds.), *Treatise*
549 *of Geochemistry*. Elsevier, pp. 257-288.

550 Haug, G.H., Hughen, K.A., Sigman, D.M., Peterson, L.C., Rohl, U., 2001. Southward migration of
551 the Intertropical Convergence Zone through the Holocene. *Science* 293, 1304-1308.

552 Hendy, A.J., 2013. Spatial and stratigraphic variation of marine paleoenvironments in the
553 middle-upper Miocene Gatun Formation, Isthmus of Panama. *Palaios* 28, 210-227.

554 Hidalgo, P.J., Vogel, T.A., Rooney, T.O., Currier, R.M., Layer, P.W., 2011. Origin of silicic
555 volcanism in the Panamanian arc: evidence for a two-stage fractionation process at El Valle
556 volcano. *Contributions to Mineralogy and Petrology* 162, 1115-1138.

557 Hodell, D.A., Schelske, C.L., 1998. Production, sedimentation, and isotopic composition of
558 organic matter in Lake Ontario. *Limnology and Oceanography* 43, 200-214.

559 Jaramillo, C., Bayona, G., 2000. Mangrove Distribution during the Holocene in Tribugá Gulf,
560 Colombia 1. *Biotropica* 32, 14-22.

561 Jolliffe, I.T., 1986. *Principal Component Analysis*. Springer-Verlag, Berlin.

562 Khan, N.S., Ashe, E., Horton, B.P., Dutton, A., Kopp, R.E., Brocard, G., Engelhart, S.E., Hill, D.F.,
563 Peltier, W., Vane, C.H., 2017. Drivers of Holocene sea-level change in the Caribbean. *Quaternary*
564 *Science Reviews* 155, 13-36.

565 Kilar, J.A., Norris, J.N., 1988. Composition, export, and import of drift vegetation on a tropical,
566 plant-dominated, fringing-reef platform (Caribbean Panama). *Coral Reefs* 7, 93-103.

567 Krukowski, S.T., 1988. Sodium metatungstate; a new heavy-mineral separation medium for the
568 extraction of conodonts from insoluble residues. *Journal of Paleontology* 62, 314-316.

569 Lambeck, K., Rouby, H., Purcell, A., Sun, Y., Sambridge, M., 2014. Sea level and global ice
570 volumes from the Last Glacial Maximum to the Holocene. *Proceedings of the National Academy*
571 *of Sciences* 111, 15296-15303.

572 Lee, S., Jones, E., Diele, K., Castellanos-Galindo, G., Nordhaus, I., 2017. Biodiversity, in: Rivera-
573 Monroy, V.H., Lee, S., Kristensen, Y.E., Twilley, R.R. (Eds.), *Mangrove Ecosystems: a Global*
574 *Biogeographic Perspective*. Springer, New York, NY, USA, pp. 55-86.

575 Lugo, A.E., Snedaker, S.C., 1974. The Ecology of Mangroves. *Annual Review of Ecology and*
576 *Systematics* 5, 39-64.

577 Macintyre, I., Glynn, P., 1976. Evolution of modern Caribbean fringing reef, Galeta point,
578 Panama. AAPG Bulletin 60, 1054-1072.

579 Marchant, R., Almeida, L., Behling, H., Berrio, J.C., Bush, M., Cleef, A., Duivenvoorden, J.,
580 Kappelle, M., de Oliveira, P., de Oliveira-Filho, A.T., Lozano-Garcia, S., Hooghiemstra, H., Ledru,
581 M.-P., Ludlow-Wiechers, B., Markgraf, V., Mancini, V., Paez, M., Preto, A., Rangel, O., Salgado-
582 Labouriau, M.L., 2002. Distribution and ecology of parent taxa of pollen lodged within the Latin
583 American Pollen Database. *Review of Palaeobotany and Palynology* 121, 1-75.

584 Medina, E., Cuevas, E., Popp, M., Lugo, A.E., 1990. Soil salinity, sun exposure, and growth of
585 *Acrostichum aureum*, the mangrove fern. *Botanical Gazette* 151, 41-49.

586 Meyers, P., Lallier-vergès, E., 1999. Lacustrine Sedimentary Organic Matter Records of Late
587 Quaternary Paleoclimates. *Journal of Paleolimnology* 21, 345-372.

588 Meyers, P.A., 1997. Organic geochemical proxies of paleoceanographic, paleolimnologic, and
589 paleoclimatic processes. *Organic Geochemistry* 27, 213-250.

590 Meyers, P.A., 2003. Applications of organic geochemistry to paleolimnological reconstructions:
591 a summary of examples from the Laurentian Great Lakes. *Organic Geochemistry* 34, 261-289.

592 Moy, C.M., Seltzer, G.O., Rodbell, D.T., Anderson, D.M., 2002. Variability of El Niño/Southern
593 Oscillation activity at millennial timescales during the Holocene epoch. *Nature* 420, 162-165.

594 Paton, S., 2019. Monthly summary Galeta Station. The Smithsonian Institution.

595 Piperno, D.R., 2006. Quaternary environmental history and agricultural impact on vegetation in
596 central America. *Annals of the Missouri Botanical Garden* 93, 274-296.

597 Piperno, D.R., Bush, M.B., Colinvaux, P.A., 1991. Paleoecological perspectives on human
598 adaptation in Panama. II: The Holocene. *Geoarchaeology*, 227-250.

599 Ramcharan, E.K., McAndrews, J.H., 2006. Holocene development of coastal wetland at Maracas
600 bay, Trinidad, West Indies. *Journal of Coastal Research* 22, 581-586.

601 Reimer, P.J., Austin, W.E., Bard, E., Bayliss, A., Blackwell, P.G., Ramsey, C.B., Butzin, M., Cheng,
602 H., Edwards, R.L., Friedrich, M., 2020. The IntCal20 Northern Hemisphere radiocarbon age
603 calibration curve (0–55 cal kBP). *Radiocarbon* 62, 725-757.

604 Ropelewski, C.F., Jones, P.D., 1987. An extension of the Tahiti-Darwin southern oscillation
605 index. *Monthly Weather Review* 115, 2161-2165.

606 Rothwell, R.G., Croudace, I.W., 2015. Twenty years of XRF core scanning marine sediments:
607 what do geochemical proxies tell us?, in: Croudace, I.W., Rothwell, R.G. (Eds.), *Micro-XRF*
608 *Studies of Sediment Cores*. Springer Netherlands, Dordrecht, pp. 25-102.

609 Roubik, D.W., Moreno, P.J.E., 1991. Pollen and Spores of Barro Colorado Island. *Monographs in*
610 *Systematic Botany* 36, Missouri Botanical Garden.

611 Rovai, A.S., Twilley, R.R., Castañeda-Moya, E., Riul, P., Cifuentes-Jara, M., Manrow-Villalobos,
612 M., Horta, P.A., Simonassi, J.C., Fonseca, A.L., Pagliosa, P.R., 2018. Global controls on carbon
613 storage in mangrove soils. *Nature Climate Change* 8, 534-538.

614 Schmidt, D.P., 2008. A palynological and stratigraphic analysis of mangrove sediments at punta
615 galeta, panama. University of California, Berkeley, Berkeley.

616 Schneider, R.R., Schulz, H.D., Hensen, C., 2006. Marine carbonates: their formation and
617 destruction, in: Schulz, H.D., Zabel, M. (Eds.), *Marine geochemistry*. Springer, New York, pp.
618 311-337.

619 Smedley, P.L., Kinniburgh, D.G., 2017. Molybdenum in natural waters: A review of occurrence,
620 distributions and controls. *Applied Geochemistry* 84, 387-432.

621 Soares, M., 2009. A conceptual model for the responses of mangrove forests to sea level rise.
622 *Journal of Coastal Research*, 267-271.

623 Sousa, W.P., Kennedy, P.G., Mitchell, B.J., Ordóñez L, B.M., 2007. Supply-side ecology in
624 mangroves: do propagule dispersal and seedling establishment explain forest structure?
625 *Ecological Monographs* 77, 53-76.

626 Sousa, W.P., Mitchell, B.J., 1999. The effect of seed predators on plant distributions: is there a
627 general pattern in mangroves? *Oikos* 86, 55-66.

628 Stansell, N.D., Steinman, B.A., Lachniet, M.S., Feller, J., Harvey, W., Fernandez, A., Shea, C.J.,
629 Price, B., Coenen, J., Boes, M., 2020. A lake sediment stable isotope record of late-middle to
630 late Holocene hydroclimate variability in the western Guatemala highlands. *Earth and Planetary*
631 *Science Letters* 542, 116327.

632 Stuiver, M., Braziunas, T.F., 1993. Modeling atmospheric ^{14}C influences and ^{14}C ages of marine
633 samples to 10,000 BC. *Radiocarbon* 35, 137-189.

634 Toscano, M.A., Macintyre, I.G., 2003. Corrected western Atlantic sea-level curve for the last
635 11,000 years based on calibrated 14 C dates from *Acropora palmata* framework and intertidal
636 mangrove peat. *Coral Reefs* 22, 257-270.

637 Toth, L.T., Aronson, R.B., Cobb, K.M., Cheng, H., Edwards, R.L., Grothe, P.R., Sayani, H.R., 2015.
638 Climatic and biotic thresholds of coral-reef shutdown. *Nature Climate Change* 5, 369-374.

639 Tribovillard, N., Algeo, T.J., Lyons, T., Riboulleau, A., 2006. Trace metals as paleoredox and
640 paleoproductivity proxies: an update. *Chemical Geology* 232, 12-32.

641 Urrego, L.E., Bernal, G., Polanía, J., 2009. Comparison of pollen distribution patterns in surface
642 sediments of a Colombian Caribbean mangrove with geomorphology and vegetation. *Review of*
643 *Palaeobotany and Palynology* 156, 358-375.

644 Velez, M.I., Escobar, J., Brenner, M., Rangel, O., Betancourt, A., Jaramillo, A.J., Curtis, J.H.,
645 Moreno, J.L., 2014. Middle to late Holocene relative sea level rise, climate variability and
646 environmental change along the Colombian Caribbean coast. *The Holocene* 24, 898-907.

647 Ward, R.D., Friess, D.A., Day, R.H., MacKenzie, R.A., 2016. Impacts of climate change on
648 mangrove ecosystems: a region by region overview. *Ecosystem Health and Sustainability* 2,
649 e01211.

650 Willard, D.A., Weimer, L.M., Riegel, W.L., 2001. Pollen assemblages as paleoenvironmental
651 proxies in the Florida Everglades. *Review of Palaeobotany & Palynology* 113, 213-235.

652 Winter, A., Zanchettin, D., Lachniet, M., Vieten, R., Pausata, F.S., Ljungqvist, F.C., Cheng, H.,
653 Edwards, R.L., Miller, T., Rubinetti, S., 2020. Initiation of a stable convective hydroclimatic
654 regime in Central America circa 9000 years BP. *Nature Communications* 11, 1-8.

655 Woodring, W.P., 1957. *Geology and paleontology of Canal Zone and adjoining parts of Panama.*
656 US Government Printing Office, Washington.

657 Woodroffe, C., 1993. Mangrove sediments and geomorphology, in: Robertson, A.I., Alongi, D.M.
658 (Eds.), *Coastal and estuarine studies.* American Geophysical Union, Washington DC, pp. 7-43.

659

660

661 **Figure captions**

662

663 Figure 1. Study area. A. Core site location (red star) and geology of Punta Galeta, Caribbean
664 coast of Panama. B and C. Mean monthly precipitation and standard deviation of monthly
665 precipitation (Data from Galeta Meteorological Station from 1974 to 2020; Paton, 2019); months
666 were classified into El Niño, La Niña, and regular conditions, according to the Southern
667 Oscillation Index (SOI) (Ropelewski and Jones, 1987).

668
669 Figure 2. Core GAL18 from the mangroves of Punta Galeta, Caribbean coast of Panama. From
670 left to right, photographs of the core, schematization of sediment texture, content of macro rests,
671 and depth-age model. The radiocarbon date in red was excluded from the age-depth model.

672
673 Figure 3. The geochemical record of core GAL18 from Punta Galeta, Caribbean coast of
674 Panama. Environmental stages I to V, based on changes in element concentrations, are shown in
675 the column to the right. Indicators are classified according to the interpretation of the record.

676
677 Figure 4. Principal component analysis of element concentrations in core GAL18, Caribbean
678 coast of Panama.

679
680 Figure 5. The pollen record of core GAL18, Punta Galeta, Caribbean coast of Panama. Taxa are
681 grouped by growing habits (after Marchant et al., 2002), and organized according to depths
682 weighted by taxon abundance; only taxa present in five or more samples are shown; occurrences
683 of *Conocarpus* with abundances below 1% are indicated by asterisks. The last column shows
684 sampling effort, indicating number of pollen and/or spores in each category.

685
686 Figure 6. The sedimentary record of Punta Galeta, Caribbean coast of Panama. a) The age-depth
687 model of core GAL18 in the context of the reconstructed sea level for the Caribbean through the
688 last 5200 years; the shaded area is bounded by the estimates of Khan et al. (2017) and Toscano
689 and Macintyre (2003); a modern mean elevation of the coring site of 0.3 m asl is assumed (datum
690 from Sousa et al., 2007). b) Stacked organic and inorganic carbon concentrations of core GAL18.
691 c) Stacked percentages of cf. *Laguncularia*, *Rhizophora*, and *Avicennia*; *Conocarpus*
692 appearances marked by circles. d) PC1 scores of the geochemical record of cores GAL18. e)
693 TOC/TN ratios for core GAL18; the threshold of C/N ratios characteristic of terrestrial vs.

694 marine organic matter is indicated by the dashed line (after Meyers, 2003); the gray band
695 represents the coral reef growth shutdown reported for Las Perlas archipelago, Panamanian
696 Pacific (Toth et al., 2015). f) Content of sand in El Junco record, Galapagos Islands (Conroy et
697 al., 2008). g) PC1 scores of the geochemical record of cores GAL18. h) Ti content in the Cariaco
698 Basin record (Haug et al., 2001). i) Environmental stages identified in the sedimentary record of
699 Punta Galeta. h) Schematic representation of the evolution of the fringe mangrove of Punta
700 Galeta.

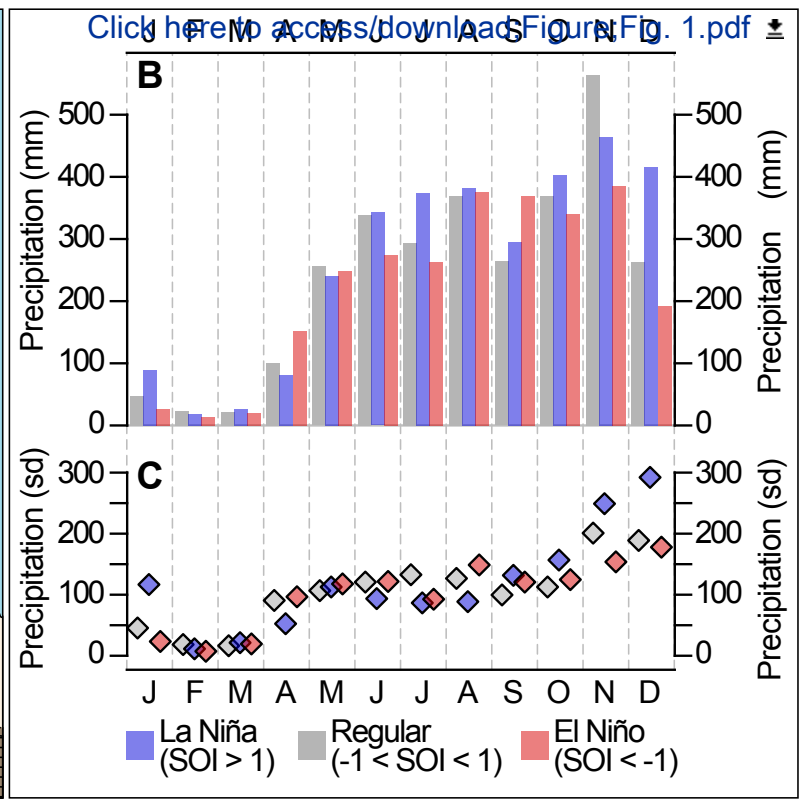
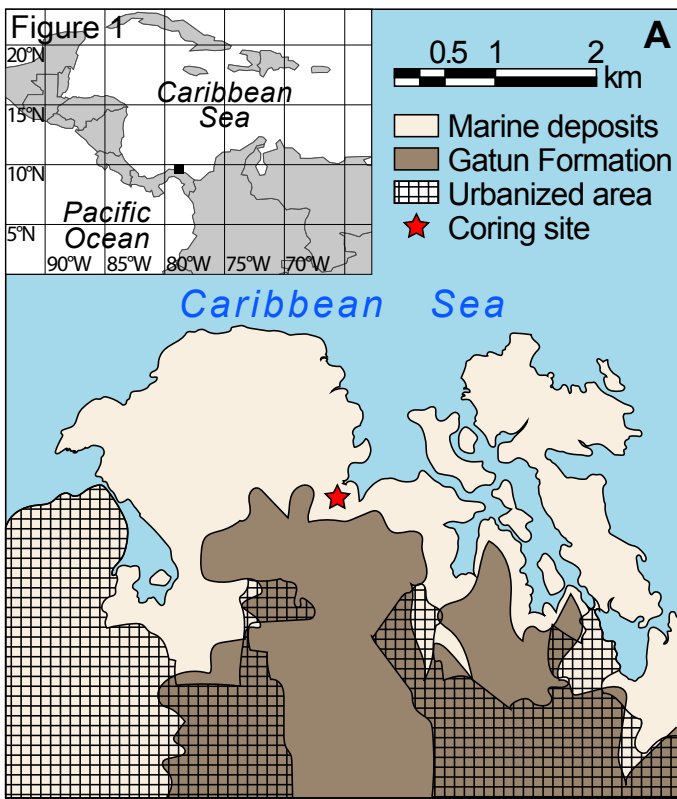
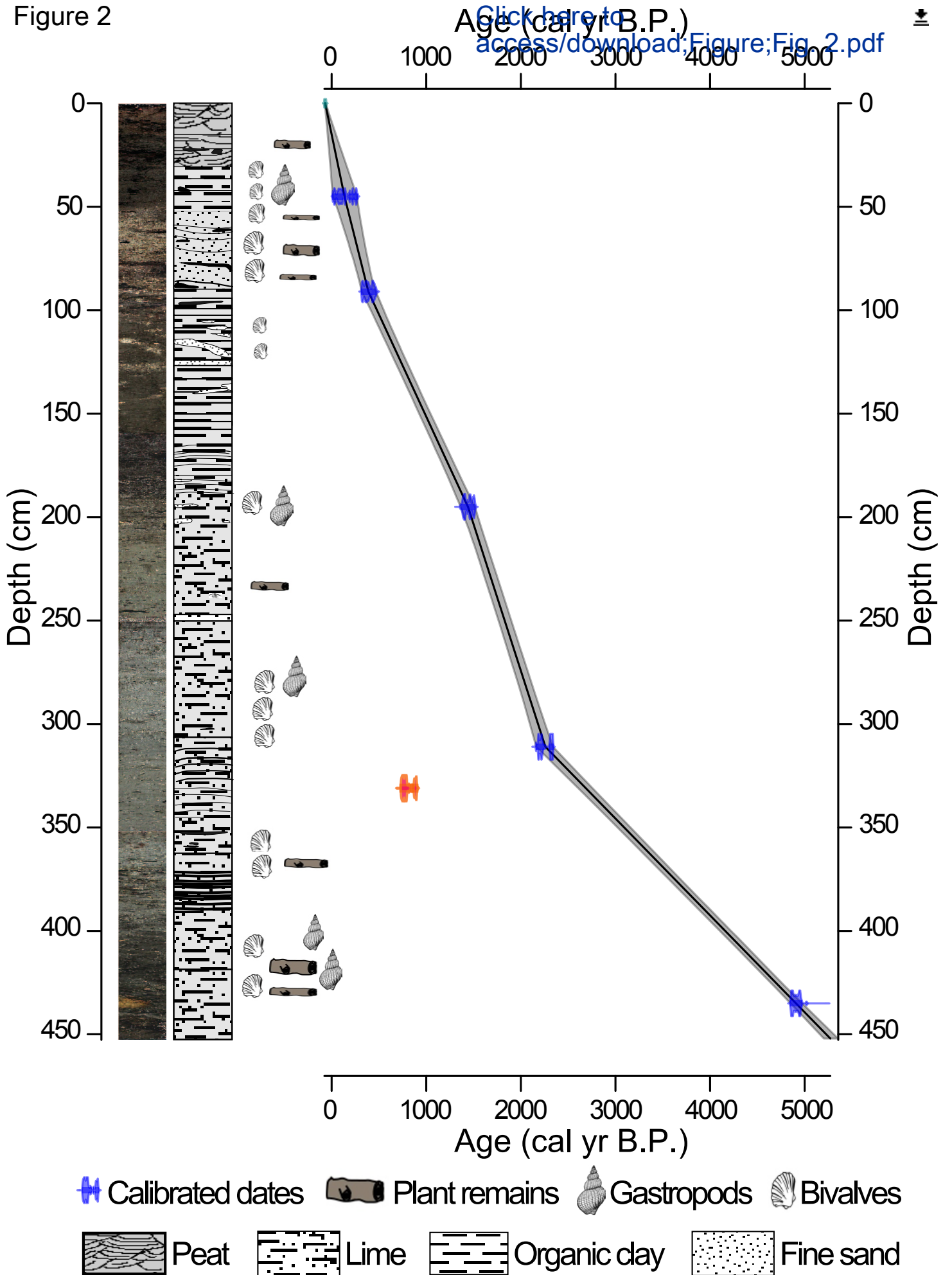


Figure 2



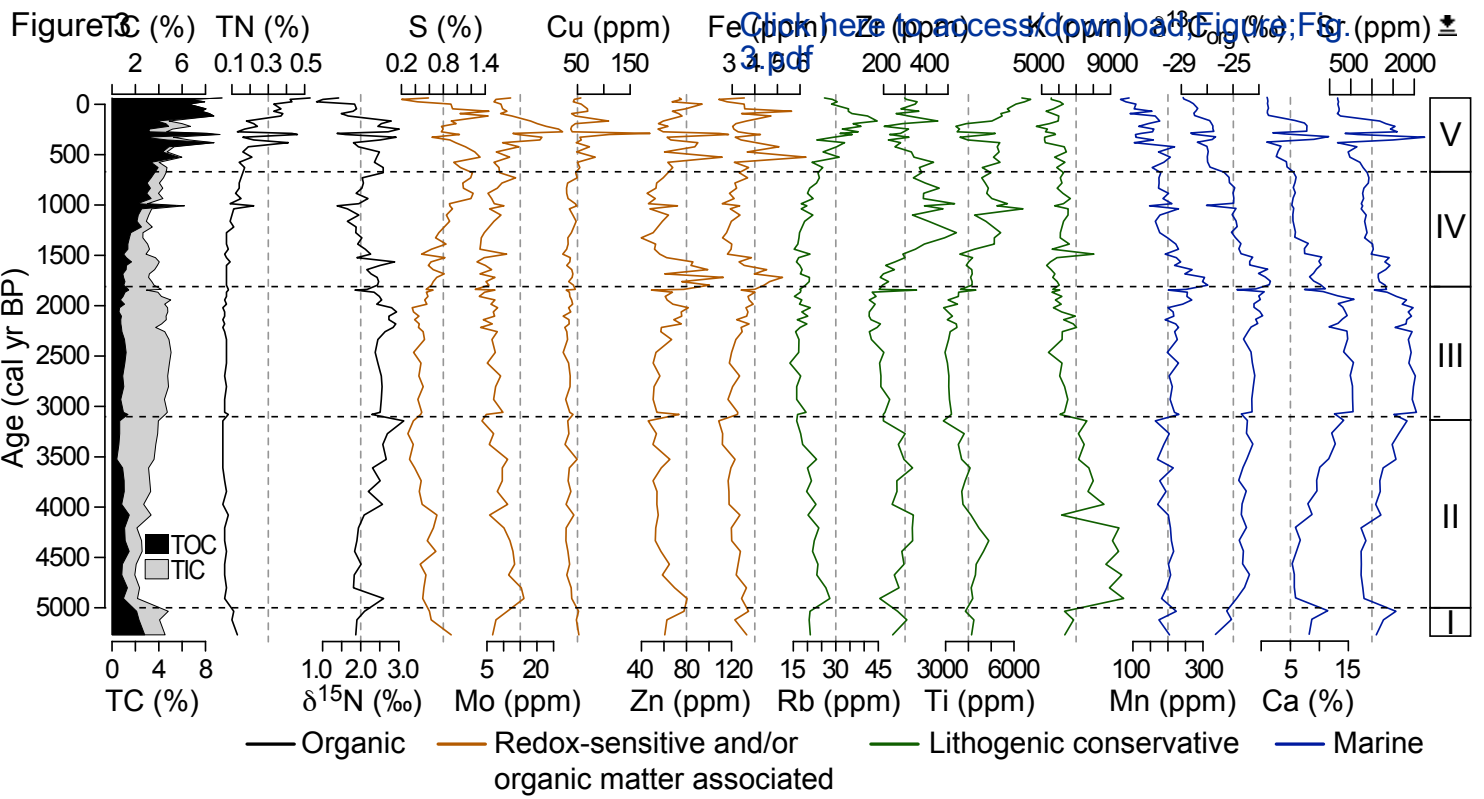


Figure 4

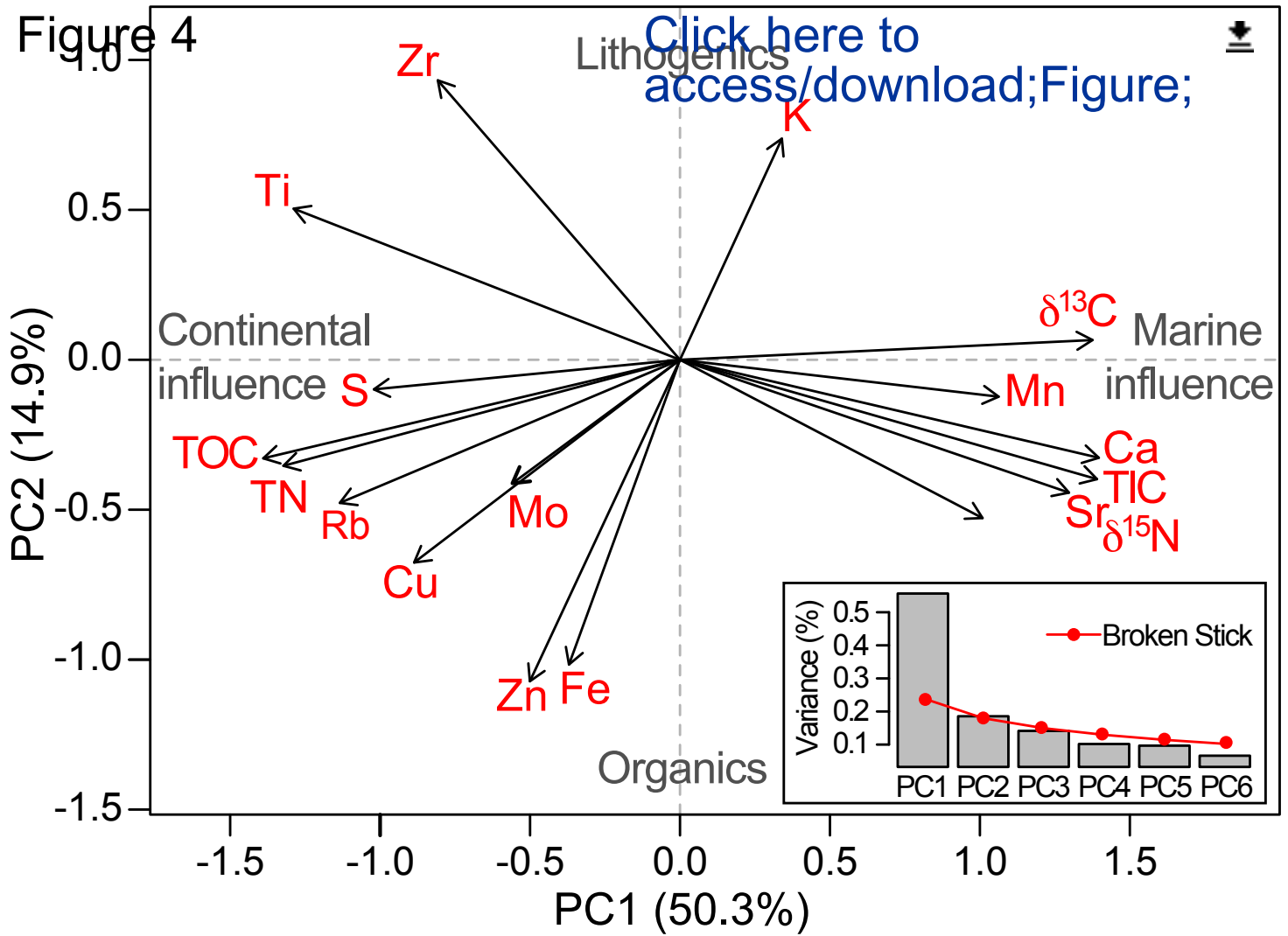


Figure 5

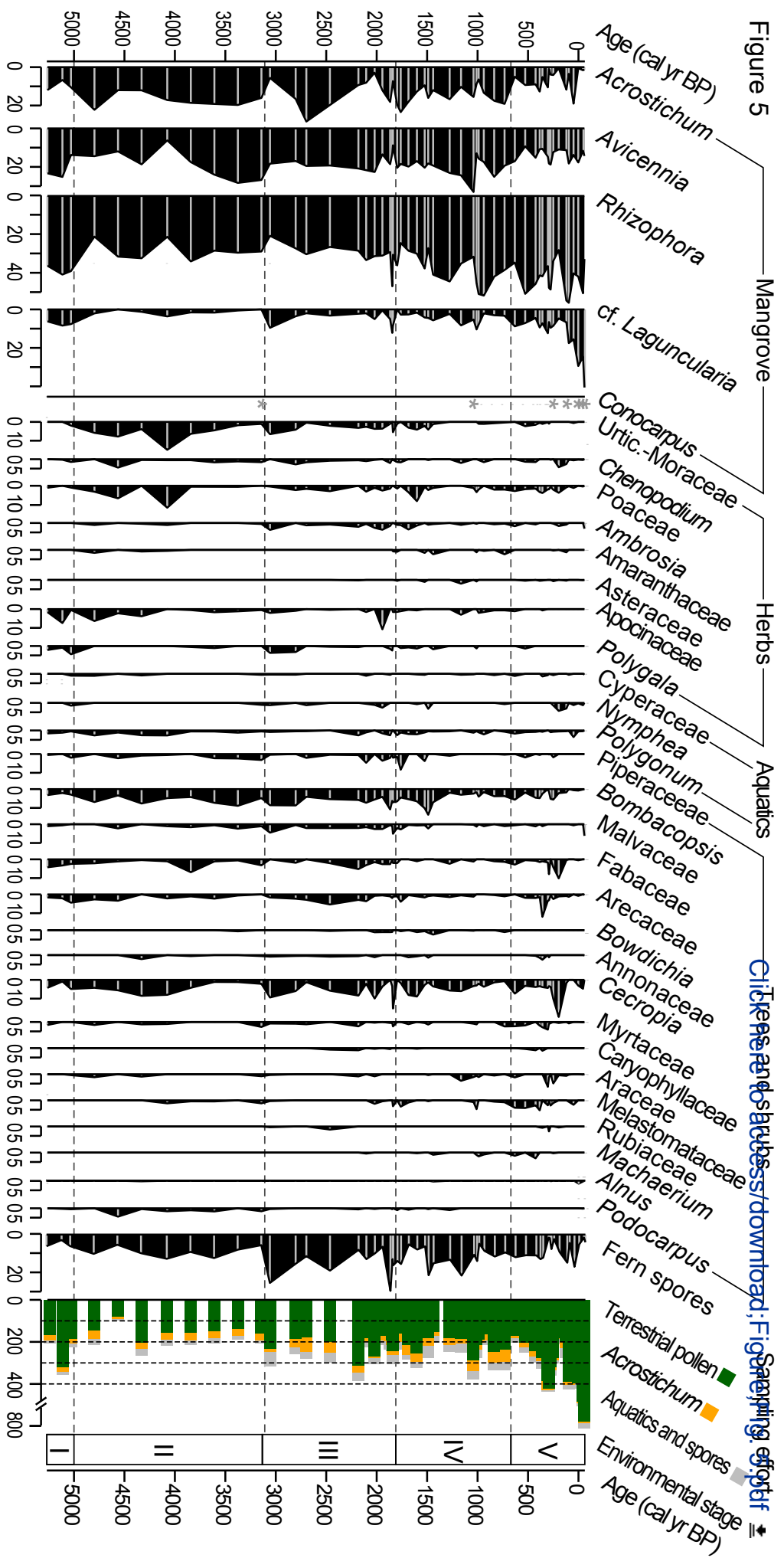


Figure 6 Sea level (m rel. to modern) Carbon Mangrove pollen (%) PC1 (s.d.) CN El Junco sand (%) PC2 (s.d.) Ti (%)

