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3 **Impact of mangrove forests degradation on biodiversity and ecosystem**
4 **functioning**

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16 **ABSTRACT**

17 Mangroves are amongst the most productive marine ecosystems on Earth, providing a unique
18 habitat opportunity for many species and key goods and services for human beings.

19 Mangrove habitats are regressing at an alarming rate, due to direct anthropogenic impacts and
20 global change. Here, in order to assess the effects of mangrove habitat degradation on benthic
21 biodiversity and ecosystem functioning, we investigated meiofaunal biodiversity (as proxy of
22 benthic biodiversity), benthic biomass and prokaryotic heterotrophic production (as proxies
23 of ecosystem functioning) and trophic state in a disturbed and an undisturbed mangrove
24 forests. We report here that disturbed mangrove area showed a loss of 20% of benthic
25 biodiversity, with the local extinction of four Phyla (Cladocera, Kynorincha, Priapulida,
26 Tanaidacea), a loss of 80% of microbial-mediated decomposition rates, of the benthic
27 biomass and of the trophic resources. The results of this study strengthen the need to preserve
28 mangrove forests and to restore those degraded to guarantee the provision of goods and
29 services needed to support the biodiversity and functioning of wide portions of tropical
30 ecosystems.

31

32 **INTRODUCTION**

33 Mangrove ecosystems are of great ecological and economic importance¹. They cover
34 15,000,000 ha (2), with high biomass and economic values³. These forests, at the land-sea
35 interface, provide food, breeding grounds and nursery sites for a variety of terrestrial and
36 marine organisms, including many commercial species and juvenile reef fish^{4,5}. Mangrove
37 forests are highly productive ecosystems with rates of primary production equal to those of
38 tropical humid evergreen forests⁶. They accumulate carbon in tree biomass, and most of this
39 carbon is lost by decomposition and export to adjacent ecosystems⁷. Mangroves play also a
40 key role in human sustainability and livelihoods, being heavily used for food, timber, fuel and
41 medicine^{8,9}. They offer protection from catastrophic events, such as tsunamis, tropical
42 cyclones and tidal bores and can dampen shoreline erosion^{6,10}.

43 Despite their importance, mangroves are disappearing at a global loss rate of 1–2% per
44 year¹¹, and the loss rate reached 35% during the last 20 years^{4,12}. Climate changes (sea level
45 rise and altered rainfalls) and human activities (urban development, aquaculture, mining, and
46 overexploitation of timber, fish, crustaceans and shellfish) represent major threats for
47 mangrove habitats¹³⁻¹⁶.

48 Habitat loss is typically associated with a loss in terms of biodiversity¹². Theoretical
49 ecology predicts that biodiversity can influence ecosystems' functioning, although outputs of
50 correlative investigations and manipulative experiments have provided contrasting results¹⁷.
51 The relationships between biodiversity and functioning of marine ecosystems are most often
52 positive¹⁸, so that biodiversity loss could result in a reduction of the ecosystem functioning
53 and, consequently, of the ecosystems' capacity to provide goods and services to humans¹⁹⁻²².
54 This is particularly evident in tropical ecosystems, such as mangroves, which host an
55 important fraction of coastal biodiversity and are among those that will experience the
56 earliest emergence of the impacts of global changes²³. Sea level rise represents the main

57 concern considering their tidal nature, but also changes in temperature, salinity, and increases
58 in greenhouse gas concentrations need to be considered^{3,10}. It has been reported that also
59 changes in precipitations and thus in soil water content and salinity, can lead to variations in
60 mangrove species composition and growth¹⁰.

61 In mangrove systems, a large proportion of the algal and leaf biomass are processed by
62 searimid crabs, important keystone engineers in many forests^{24,25}. In addition, in both
63 sediments and tidal waters, organic matter and energy flow is funnelled through a highly
64 diverse, actively growing, microbial loop and subsequently transferred to higher trophic
65 levels through detritivorous, bacterivorous, and deposit feeders inhabiting the benthos^{25,26}.
66 Thus, a biodiversity loss in marine benthic biodiversity, whatever the phylum considered,
67 could cause a variably reduction of ecosystem functions²⁶.

68 Meiofauna are characterized by high abundance, species richness, short generation time
69 and sensitivity to variations in environmental conditions^{26,27}. In mangrove ecosystem,
70 meiofaunal organisms play key ecological roles: i) accelerating re-mineralization of organic
71 matter and thus nutrient regeneration, ii) stimulating prokaryotic activity and iii) sustaining
72 mangrove food web²⁸⁻³⁰. All these characteristics, along with their direct contact with
73 sediments as permanent members of the benthos, make them a potential tool for detecting
74 rapid and unequivocal reaction of benthic assemblages to environmental changes.

75 In the present study, we investigated the effects of mangrove habitat degradation on
76 trophic state and food availability, on biodiversity and on ecosystem processes by comparing
77 an undisturbed with a disturbed mangrove forests (Fig. 1). We used meiofaunal biodiversity
78 as a proxy of the overall benthic biodiversity, and benthic biomass and prokaryotic
79 heterotrophic production (i.e., prokaryotic C incorporation) as proxies of ecosystem
80 functioning. We hypothesised that disturbed mangrove area displays a lower biodiversity and
81 altered ecosystem processes when compared to the undisturbed one.

82 RESULTS

83 Data on environmental variables (salinity, grain size) and on meiofaunal richness of taxa are
84 reported in Table 1. In both mangrove systems, the redox potential discontinuity (RPD) level
85 is ca. 2 cm below the sediment surface. The results of the PERMANOVA tests revealed the
86 presence of significant differences between disturbed and undisturbed mangroves in most
87 investigated variables (Table 2, 3, 4).

88

89 *Sedimentary variables*

90 The results of the PERMANOVA carried out between the two mangroves revealed the
91 presence of significant differences for quantity and quality of organic matter (OM) (Table 2).
92 The sedimentary concentrations of chlorophyll-a and total phytopigments were significantly
93 higher in the undisturbed mangrove than in the disturbed one (PERMANOVA, $P < 0.01$; Fig.
94 2; Table 2). Chlorophyll-a was four times lower in the disturbed forest ($3 \pm 1 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$) than in
95 the undisturbed one ($12 \pm 2 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$), whereas phytopigments were five times higher in the
96 sediments of the undisturbed area ($58 \pm 11 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$) than in the sediments of the disturbed one
97 ($11 \pm 7 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$). In the undisturbed mangrove, total phytopigments picked at site B (80 ± 36
98 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$) and were lower at site C ($44 \pm 30 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$). In the sediments of disturbed forest,
99 concentration of phytopigments ranged from $3 \pm 1 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ at site A to $26 \pm 15 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ at site C.
100 The quantity of sedimentary organic matter, in terms of proteins, carbohydrates, lipids, were
101 significantly higher in the sediments of undisturbed mangrove than in the disturbed one
102 (PERMANOVA $P < 0.001$; Supplementary figure S1). The concentrations of biopolymeric C
103 was five times higher in the undisturbed ($26 \pm 1 \text{mg g}^{-1}$) than in the disturbed forest ($6 \pm 4 \text{mg}$
104 g^{-1}) (PERMANOVA, $P < 0.001$; Fig. 3; Table 2). In the undisturbed area, biopolymeric C
105 ranged from $28 \pm 3 \text{mg g}^{-1}$ at site A to $24 \pm 10 \text{mg g}^{-1}$ at site C. Whereas, in the disturbed

106 area, sedimentary concentrations of biopolymeric C varied from $0.4 \pm 0.1 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$ at site A to
107 $15 \pm 4 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$ at site C (Supplementary Table S1).
108 In both the undisturbed and disturbed mangroves, carbohydrate carbon represented the major
109 fraction of biopolymeric C, but at different extend, accounting on average for 68 and 42%, in
110 undisturbed and disturbed mangroves, respectively. Protein carbon represented on average
111 21% in the undisturbed forest and 42% in the disturbed one. Lipids accounted at a similar
112 percentage in both the areas, representing on average 9 and 8% of biopolymeric C, in the
113 undisturbed and disturbed forests, respectively. Protein fraction of biopolymeric C was
114 double in the disturbed than undisturbed mangrove area and values of the protein to
115 carbohydrate ratio were four times significantly higher in the sediments of disturbed
116 mangrove than in those of the undisturbed one (PERMANOVA, $P < 0.001$; Table 2).

117

118 ***Faunal diversity and assemblage structure***

119 Data on meiofaunal abundance, richness of taxa and taxonomic composition are shown in
120 Figures 4a,b. Meiofaunal abundance was significantly higher in the sediments of undisturbed
121 mangroves ($2684 \pm 1132 \text{ ind. } 10\text{cm}^{-2}$) than in the sediments of disturbed ones (1614 ± 441
122 $\text{ind. } 10\text{cm}^{-2}$) (PERMANOVA, $P < 0.05$; Fig. 4a; Table 3). In the undisturbed mangrove area,
123 the total number of meiofaunal individuals was higher at site B ($4893 \pm 1572 \text{ ind. } 10\text{cm}^{-2}$)
124 than at site A ($1148 \pm 401 \text{ ind. } 10\text{cm}^{-2}$) and C ($2012 \pm 389 \text{ ind. } 10\text{cm}^{-2}$). In the disturbed
125 forest, the highest value of meiofaunal abundance was recorded in sediments at site C (2266
126 $\pm 1651 \text{ ind. } 10\text{cm}^{-2}$), whereas the lowest one was found at site B ($775 \pm 402 \text{ ind. } 10\text{cm}^{-2}$)
127 (Supplementary Table S2).

128 Overall, 14 taxa have been identified in the two sampling areas, and PERMANOVA tests
129 revealed that the richness of meiofaunal taxa was significantly higher in the sediments of
130 undisturbed mangrove (13 taxa) than in those of disturbed area (10 taxa) (PERMANOVA,

131 $P < 0.05$; Fig. 4b; Table 3). In both areas and at all sites, nematodes were the dominant taxon
132 (76 and 78% in the undisturbed and disturbed mangroves, respectively), followed by
133 copepods (18 and 20%) and ostracods (2% in both areas). The contribution of all other
134 identified taxa (acarins, amphipods, cladocerans, isopods, kinorinchs, oligochaetes,
135 tanaidaceans, tardigrades, priapulids larvae, pycnogonids, polychaetes) varied from 0 to 11%
136 of the total meiofaunal abundance (Fig. 4b). Amphipods, isopods, oligochaetes, polychaetes,
137 tardigrades were encountered in both sampling areas. Cladocerans, kinorinchs, priapulids
138 larvae, tanaidaceans occurred exclusively in the undisturbed mangrove area, whereas
139 pycnogonids were observed only in the sediments of disturbed one, at site B.

140 The taxonomic composition of meiofaunal higher taxa did not significantly vary between the
141 two mangroves (PERMANOVA, ns; Table 3). Nevertheless, the results of the pairwise tests
142 showed that the meiofaunal assemblages significantly changed between sites sampled in the
143 undisturbed mangroves (Supplementary Table S2). The taxonomic composition of rare
144 meiofaunal taxa (i.e., excluding nematodes and copepods) varied significantly between the
145 sediments of the undisturbed and disturbed mangroves (PERMANOVA, $P < 0.01$). This has
146 been confirmed also by the Multi-Dimensional Scaling (MDS) plot and the results of the
147 Canonical Analysis of Principal Coordinates (CAP) analyses (Fig. 5a,b).

148 The SIMPER analysis revealed that the highest dissimilarity in the meiofaunal assemblage
149 occurred among sites in the undisturbed mangrove (52%) than that among the two forests
150 (49%). Whereas, the meiofaunal beta diversity of rare taxa was higher between the two
151 sampling forests (78%) and lower values were found comparing sites among the same
152 sampling area (37% in the disturbed forest and 53% in the undisturbed one). Variations in
153 ostracods and polychaetes abundance were responsible for the observed percentage
154 dissimilarity, as also shown in the plots of canonical analysis of principal coordinates (Fig.
155 5b).

156 ***Biomasses and processes***

157 Prokaryotic biomass was significantly higher in the undisturbed area ($17 \pm 3 \mu\text{gC g}^{-1}$) than in
158 the disturbed one ($5 \pm 2 \mu\text{gC g}^{-1}$). In the undisturbed forest, prokaryotic biomass showed the
159 highest value at site B ($21.2 \pm 0.6 \mu\text{gC g}^{-1}$) and the lowest at site A ($12 \pm 1 \mu\text{gC g}^{-1}$). In the
160 disturbed mangrove area, prokaryotic biomass showed lower values in sediments at site A
161 ($2.6 \pm 0.3 \mu\text{gC g}^{-1}$) and higher values in sediments at site C ($8.1 \pm 0.4 \mu\text{gC g}^{-1}$)
162 (Supplementary Table S3). Prokaryotic heterotrophic production (PHP) were significantly
163 higher in the undisturbed mangrove ($7 \pm 1 \mu\text{gC g}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$) than in the disturbed one (1.4 ± 0.4
164 $\mu\text{gC g}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$) (PERMANOVA, $P < 0.001$; Fig. 6a,b; Table 4). In the undisturbed mangrove area,
165 PHP values varied from 3.8 ± 0.8 to $10 \pm 2 \mu\text{gC g}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$, at site C and A, respectively. In the
166 disturbed mangrove, values of PHP ranged from 0.5 ± 0.2 to $2.2 \pm 0.1 \mu\text{gC g}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$, at site A
167 and C, respectively (Supplementary Table S3).

168 Meiofaunal biomass showed double values in the sediments of the undisturbed forest ($604 \pm$
169 $154 \mu\text{gC } 10 \text{ cm}^{-2}$), than in the disturbed one ($364 \pm 8 \mu\text{gC } 10 \text{ cm}^{-2}$), but they did not
170 significantly vary (Fig. 6c; PERMANOVA, ns). In undisturbed mangrove, values of
171 meiofaunal biomass ranged from $360 \pm 147 \mu\text{gC } 10 \text{ cm}^{-2}$ in sediments at site C to 888 ± 339
172 $\mu\text{gC } 10 \text{ cm}^{-2}$ in sediments at site B. In the disturbed forest, meiofaunal biomass varied from
173 $351 \pm 161 \mu\text{gC } 10 \text{ cm}^{-2}$ in sediments at site B, to $377 \pm 189 \mu\text{gC } 10 \text{ cm}^{-2}$ in sediments at site
174 C.

175

176 **DISCUSSION**

177 **Effect of habitat degradation on trophic state and food availability**

178 In the present study, we found significant differences between the undisturbed and disturbed
179 mangrove areas in terms of quantity and quality of sedimentary organic matter. In the
180 sediments of undisturbed mangrove, the concentration of biopolymeric carbon and total

181 phytopigments, which fall within the range of previous studies^{26,31,32}, were ca 5 times higher
182 than those reported for the sediments of disturbed mangrove area. Our results provide
183 evidence that the main component of OM in mangrove habitat was represented by
184 carbohydrates that usually dominate in all vegetated systems, representing up to 66% of
185 organic carbon in plants^{26,33}. The values of components of organic matter (i.e., proteins,
186 carbohydrates and lipids) as well as the indicators of freshly produced autotrophic biomass
187 (i.e., chlorophyll-a and phaeopigments), which could be the basis of the benthic food webs
188 and sustain the trophic guild of detritus feeders, were several times higher in the sediments of
189 undisturbed mangrove than in those of the disturbed one. The higher proteins:carbohydrates
190 ratio found in the disturbed area could be driven by complex interactions with environmental
191 conditions and biological processes constraining the degradation of proteins. Indeed, it has
192 been recently demonstrated that some labile compounds (i.e., proteins or sugars) can persist
193 not for weeks but for decades because of the requirement of co-metabolism with missing
194 compound, or the presence of microenvironmental conditions that restrict the access (or
195 activity) of enzymes³⁴. Our results clearly indicate that the degradation of the mangrove
196 habitat determined a collapse of the ability of these systems to produce OM. Although this
197 finding was expected, we are now in the position to provide direct evidence that the ability to
198 store organic material in surface sediments was reduced by ca 80% in the disturbed forest
199 when compared to the undisturbed one.

200

201 **The effects of mangrove habitat degradation on biodiversity**

202 Mangrove sediments usually host a significantly lower meiofaunal abundance when
203 compared to the adjacent soft bottoms systems^{26,30,35}. These differences are generally related
204 to the huge organic enrichment leading to the confinement of the fauna in the top few
205 oxygenated mm of the sediments³⁶. In the present study the lower meiofaunal abundance and

206 diversity we found in the disturbed area cannot be explained by oxygen availability (since the
207 sediments of disturbed mangrove displayed similar oxygen penetration in the sediments) and
208 were likely linked to the extreme conditions (higher temperatures and irradiation)
209 characterizing the disturbed area as well as to the lower organic matter availability.
210 Moreover, we here report that meiofaunal diversity (in terms of higher taxa) was significantly
211 lower in the disturbed than in the undisturbed mangrove sediments. The dissimilarity between
212 the undisturbed and disturbed sampling areas was related to the loss, in the latter, of
213 Cladocera, Kynorincha, Priapulida and Tanaidacea, which are known to be sensitive to the
214 changes determined by habitat loss³⁷. Some of these taxa, indeed, display habitat preference
215 for the vegetated systems and the colonization /utilization of vegetal debris³⁷. Kynorincha
216 have been also suggested as sentinel of impact, as they disappear in altered or contaminated
217 sediments^{38,39}.

218 In addition, the undisturbed mangrove area was characterised by a higher spatial variability
219 (as indicated by higher beta diversity found among sites). This finding reflects the presence
220 of several types of substrates, even at smaller spatial scale (tens of cm), such as bare
221 sediments at different decomposition stages, leaf litter and biotic surfaces (e.g., aerial roots,
222 pneumatophores), which lead to the presence of different microenvironments, supporting a
223 more diverse fauna^{40,41}. Such a variability at small spatial scale is common in soft bottom
224 ecosystems, which are typically characterized by high variability in environmental variables,
225 even at the scale of few centimetres⁴². Overall these findings suggest that habitat degradation
226 led to an average reduction of ca 40% of the abundance of individuals and, at the level of
227 higher taxa, a loss of biodiversity of ca 20%.

228

229

230

231 **Effects of habitat degradation on ecosystem processes**

232 In the present study, we utilised 3 main proxies of ecosystem functioning: prokaryotic
233 biomass, heterotrophic production and meiofaunal biomass, which reflect the ability of the
234 system to perform organic matter degradation and to convert primary production in
235 biomass²⁰. In the disturbed mangrove area, the values of prokaryotic biomass were three
236 times lower than those observed in the undisturbed one. Similarly, prokaryotic heterotrophic
237 production was 5 times lower in the sediments of disturbed mangroves. Meiofaunal biomass
238 reflects the accumulation of organic detritus, the concentrations of labile organic compounds
239 and of vegetal biomass (expressed as concentration of total phytopigments). Higher values of
240 meiofaunal biomass were observed at all sites sampled in the undisturbed area.
241 Such differences suggest that disturbed sediments can lose ca 80% of their potential to
242 degrade/utilise carbon resources and ca 40% of faunal biomass, when compared to
243 undisturbed ones.

244

245 **Conclusions**

246 Overall, our results indicate that the sediments of disturbed mangroves, when compared to
247 undisturbed ones, were characterized by altered biogeochemical cycles and a different
248 diagenesis of the organic matter, as pointed out by the significant decrease of sedimentary
249 organic carbon, the potential of OM degradation by microbial metabolism, biomass and
250 biodiversity of meiobenthic assemblages. Since meiofaunal biomass is the main target for the
251 feeding of juvenile reef fishes that are particularly abundant in all mangrove systems^{37,43},
252 these findings indicate that mangrove degradation could have important consequences also on
253 neighbouring ecosystems and functions. Our study highlights the need of further
254 understanding the effects of anthropogenic and natural stressors on mangrove ecosystems.
255 Additional efforts are also needed to manage human activities within mangrove catchment, to

256 conserve and sustainably use mangroves and, in case of habitat loss, to restore such important
257 ecosystems, in order to ensure the provision of goods and services, and related ecological and
258 economic benefits they provide.

259

260 **METHODS**

261 ***Study area***

262 This study has been conducted in a small archipelago located at latitude 1°45' N (Fig. 1;
263 Table 1). The investigated equatorial region hosts different marine ecosystems spanning from
264 mangrove forests to seagrass meadows. The archipelago is impacted by different
265 anthropogenic activities including destructive fishing (e.g., blast fishing and poison fishing)
266 and kind of exploitation of the natural resources. Human impacts in the last years have
267 determined the rapid degradation of wide portions of the mangroves of the island, while other
268 remain pristine and were selected for a comparison (Supplementary Study area).

269

270 ***Sampling strategy***

271 Two sampling areas were compared in this study. The first one is represented by an
272 undisturbed mangrove forest, located distant from human settlements. It was dominated by
273 *Rhizophora sp.*, while *Sonneratia alba* and *Bruguiera spp.* were less abundant. The
274 undisturbed area of study was supplied with salt/brackish water from the tide. Some scuba
275 diving and few fishing activities were observed, but there was no evidence of disturbance
276 occurring and the mangroves were not affected. The disturbed area was located near to a local
277 village and characterized by desiccated and dead mangroves. It was dominated by red
278 mangroves, as the undisturbed forest. The disturbed area was affected by anthropogenic
279 activities, i.e., tree cutting, housing settlement, sewages and fishing activities. In both
280 sampling areas, three sites (A, B, C) were selected according to a stratified random sampling

281 design (Fig. 1, Table 1). All sediment samples have been collected by using Plexiglas manual
282 cores (inner diameter 3.6 cm). At each site in each mangrove area, three replicate sediment
283 samples were collected for organic matter and prokaryotic analyses and three replicates were
284 collected for meiofaunal analyses. Most of sampling sites presented comparable
285 characteristics in terms of grain size (mud-sand and sand-mud; Table 1) and sedimentary
286 vertical profile in terms of the depth of the RPD level (ca. 2-3 cm). All sediment samples for
287 the determinations of OM, meiofaunal and prokaryotic assemblages were stored at -20°C
288 until the analyses in the laboratory, whereas samples for the determination of prokaryotic
289 heterotrophic production were immediately incubated as described below. Despite the storage
290 at -20 °C, all the identified organisms, including the soft-body individuals, resulted well-
291 preserved. In addition, freezing did not damage the morphological features used to recognise
292 organisms at the higher taxonomic levels (order, class or phylum) to which we identified
293 them.

294

295 *Sedimentary organic matter*

296 Once at laboratory, sediment samples were analysed for OM biochemical composition in
297 terms of phytopigment (chlorophyll-a and phaeopigments), protein, carbohydrate and lipid
298 contents. Proxies of primary organic material associated with primary producers, namely
299 chlorophyll-a and phaeopigments were analysed fluorometrically⁴⁴. Chlorophyll-a and
300 phaeopigment concentrations were summed up and reported as total phytopigment (CPE)
301 concentrations. Total phytopigment contents were utilized as an estimate of the organic
302 material of algal origin, including the living (chlorophyll-a) and senescent/detrital (i.e.,
303 phaeopigments) fractions and converted into C equivalents^{33,45}. Protein, carbohydrate and
304 lipid contents were determined spectrophotometrically^{33,45}. The concentrations were
305 converted to C equivalents and their sum referred as biopolymeric C, BPC^{33,45}.

306 The percentage contributions of chlorophyll-a to biopolymeric C concentrations and the
307 values of the protein to carbohydrate ratio were then used as descriptors of ageing and
308 nutritional quality of OM in the sediment³³. The percentage contribution of total chlorophyll-
309 a to biopolymeric C is an estimate of the freshness of the organic material deposited in the
310 sediment: since photosynthetic pigments and their degradation products are assumed to be
311 labile compounds in a trophodynamic perspective, the lower their contribution to sediment
312 organic C the more aged the organic material⁴⁶. Since N is the most limiting factor for
313 heterotrophic nutrition and proteins are N-rich products, the protein to biopolymeric C and
314 the protein to carbohydrate ratios are indicative of the nutritional value of the organic
315 matter^{33,46}.

316

317 *Prokaryotic abundance and biomass*

318 Total prokaryotic abundance was determined by epifluorescence microscopy⁴⁷. Sediment
319 samples were treated three times for 1 min by ultrasounds (Branson Sonifier 2200, 60W)
320 after addition of 0.2 µm pre-filtered tetrasodium pyrophosphate solution at a final
321 concentration of 5 mM, then properly diluted before filtration onto 0.2 µm pore-size
322 Nuclepore black filters (Whatman). Each filter was then stained with 20 µl of SYBR Green I
323 (Sigma Chemicals, previously diluted 1:20 with 0.2 µm pre-filtered Milli-Q water), washed
324 twice with 3 ml sterilized Milli-Q water and mounted onto microscope slide. Filters were
325 analyzed using epifluorescence microscopy (Zeiss Axioskop 2MOT, magnification 1,000×).
326 At least 20 microscope fields and 400 cells were respectively observed and counted for each
327 filter⁴⁸. Prokaryotic abundance was expressed as cells per g of dry sediment, after desiccation
328 at 60 °C for 24 h⁴⁵. Prokaryotic biomass was determined based on cell size, converted into
329 bio-volume, assuming 310 fg C µm³ as a conversion factor, following standard inter-
330 calibration with Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM)^{45,48,49}.

331 ***Prokaryotic Heterotrophic Production***

332 $^3\text{[H]}$ -leucine incorporation method was used for the determination of PHP, according to the
333 procedure previously described^{45,48,50}. Sediment samples were added with 0.2- μm pre-filtered
334 seawater, containing $^3\text{[H]}$ -leucine (68 Ci mmol^{-1} ; final 0.5-1.0 μM), then incubated in the
335 dark, at *in-situ* temperature. To define the linearity and the saturation level of the $^3\text{[H]}$ -leucine
336 incorporation, time-course experiments over 6 h and concentration-dependent incorporation
337 experiments (from 0.05 μM to 5.0 μM leucine) were also carried out. Blanks (n=3) for each
338 sediment sample were added with ethanol immediately before $^3\text{[H]}$ -leucine addition. After
339 incubation, samples were supplemented with ethanol (80%), centrifuged, washed again two
340 times with ethanol (80%), and the sediment was re-suspended in ethanol (80%) and filtered
341 onto polycarbonate filters (0.2 μm pore size; vacuum $<100 \text{ mm Hg}$). Afterward, each filter
342 was washed four times with 2 ml of 5% TCA, then transferred into a Pyrex tube containing 2
343 ml of NaOH (2M) and incubated for 2 h at 100°C . After centrifugation at $800 \times g$, 1 ml of
344 supernatant fluid was transferred to vials containing the appropriate scintillation liquid. A
345 liquid scintillation counter (PerkinElmer-Packard Tri-Carb 2100 TR) was used to measure the
346 incorporated radioactivity in the sediment samples^{48,50}. The prokaryotic heterotrophic
347 production was calculated by equation (1):

348 Prokaryotic heterotrophic production = $\text{LI} \times 131.2 \times (\% \text{Leu})^{-1} \times (\text{C/protein}) \times \text{ID}$ (1)

349 where: LI is the leucine incorporation rate ($\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$), 131.2 is the molecular weight of
350 leucine, %Leu is the fraction of leucine in a protein (0.073), C/protein is the ratio of cellular
351 carbon to protein (0.86), and ID is the isotope dilution, assuming a value of 2.

352

353 ***Meiofaunal abundance, taxon diversity and biomass***

354 Each sediment sample was treated with ultrasound (for 1 min 3 times, with 30 s intervals) to
355 detach organisms from the grain particle surface and, then, carefully and gently sieved

356 through a 1000- μm and a 20- μm mesh net to retain the smallest organisms. The fraction
357 remaining on the latter sieve was re-suspended and centrifuged three times with Ludox HS 40
358 (final density of 1.18 g cm^{-3})⁵¹. Subsequently, sediment samples have been carefully checked
359 to search for remnant organisms. After staining with Rose Bengal (0.5 gL^{-1}), all specimens
360 were counted and classified per taxon, under a stereomicroscope, using a Delfuss cuvette²⁶.
361 Meiofaunal taxa representing <1% of the total meiofaunal abundance were defined as rare
362 taxa⁵². Meiofaunal biomass was assessed by bio-volumetric measurements of all retrieved
363 specimens. Nematode biomass was calculated from their biovolume, using the Andrassy's⁵³
364 formula ($V = L \times W^2 \times 0.063 \times 10^{-5}$, in which body length, L, and width, W, are expressed in
365 μm). Body volumes of all other taxa were derived from measurements of body length (L, in
366 mm) and width (W, in mm), using the formula $V = L \times W^2 \times C$, where C is the conversion
367 factor specific for each meiofaunal taxon, used to convert $L \times W^2$ to body volume, according
368 to models relating body dimensions and volume⁵⁴. Each body volume was multiplied by an
369 average density of 1.13 g cm^{-3} to obtain the biomass. The carbon content was considered to
370 be 40% of the dry weight⁵⁴.

371

372 ***Statistical analyses***

373 To assess differences between the two mangrove areas and sites, we applied uni- and
374 multivariate distance-based permutational analyses of variance (PERMANOVA). All the
375 statistical analyses were carried out using the same sampling design, considering two factors
376 as main sources of variance: *Area* (fixed, two levels: undisturbed and disturbed mangroves)
377 and *Site* (fixed, three levels: A, B, C, nested in *Area*).

378 Univariate distance-based permutational analyses of variance (PERMANOVA) were used to
379 assess the variability in the OM compounds contents, total meiofaunal abundance and
380 biomass, prokaryotic biomass and heterotrophic production^{55,56}. The variability in the

381 biochemical composition and nutritional quality of OM, taxonomic composition of
382 meiofaunal communities were assessed using distance-based permutational multivariate
383 analyses of variance (PERMANOVA). The analyses were carried out on Euclidean distances
384 (for organic matter, prokaryotic and meiofaunal abundance and biomass) or Bray–Curtis
385 similarity matrices (for meiofaunal taxonomic composition) of previously normalized (OM)
386 or untransformed (faunal) data, using 999 permutations of the residuals under a reduced
387 model. Bray-Curtis distance matrix was used for meiofaunal taxonomic composition, because
388 for differences in community structure and composition, the semi-metric Bray–Curtis
389 measure⁵⁷ of ecological distance is preferred over metric measure⁵⁵, like Euclidean distance<sup>57-
390 61</sup>. Significant differences were investigated using *a posteriori* pair-wise test. P values in the
391 PERMANOVA and pairwise tests were obtained from Monte Carlo asymptotic distributions,
392 because of the restricted number of unique permutations⁶².

393 To visualize differences between areas in the meiofaunal community, Multidimensional
394 scaling (MDS) and bi-plots after a CAP were prepared⁶³.

395 To assess the percentage of dissimilarity⁶⁴ in the meiofaunal assemblage composition among
396 the sampling areas for (i) higher taxa and (ii) rare taxa and to identify the meiofaunal taxa
397 most responsible for the observed differences, SIMPER analyses were carried out. A ranked
398 matrix of Bray–Curtis similarities, was used as input for the SIMPER tests.

399 The PERMANOVA, MDS, CAP, SIMPER analyses were performed using the routines
400 included in the software PRIMER 6+^{65,66}.

401

402 **Data Availability**

403 All data generated and analysed during this study are included in this published article and its
404 Supplementary Information file.

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565

566 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

567 R.D. conceived the idea; L.C. e R.D. designed sampling design; L.C. and B.G. collected the
568 samples; L.C., E.R., M.L.M., E.R., S.G. analysed the data; L.C. and R.D. drafted the
569 manuscript. All authors contributed critically to the drafts and gave final approval for
570 publication.

571

572 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

573 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

574 **CAPTIONS OF FIGURES**

575 **Figure 1. Sampling area and the location of the two investigated mangroves:** Undisturbed
576 Mangrove (UM) and Disturbed Mangrove (DM). Reported are sites (A, B, C) sampled
577 within each mangrove area. The map was generated using Google Earth Pro (version
578 7.3.0.3832, 32-bit), <https://earth.google.com> (Map Data: Google, 2017 DigitalGlobe;
579 Google, 2017 TerraMetrics; Google, 2017 CNES / Airbus), and modified using Microsoft
580 Power Point (version 16.0.8201.2200, 32-bit).

581

582 **Figure 2. Total phytopigments.** Reported are the concentrations of phytopigments in
583 undisturbed and disturbed mangrove areas. Reported are also average values of
584 Undisturbed Mangrove (UM) and Disturbed Mangrove (DM) \pm standard error.

585 **Figure 3. Biopolymeric carbon.** Reported are the concentrations of biopolymeric carbon in
586 undisturbed and disturbed mangrove areas. Reported are also average values of
587 Undisturbed Mangrove (UM) and Disturbed Mangrove (DM) \pm standard error.

588 **Figure 4. Meiofaunal assemblages.** Illustrated are meiofaunal abundance (a) and taxonomic
589 composition (b) with the number of higher taxa found in the sediments of undisturbed and
590 disturbed mangroves. Reported are also average values of Undisturbed Mangrove (UM)
591 and Disturbed Mangrove (DM) \pm standard error.

592 **Figure 5. Taxonomic composition of rare meiofaunal taxa.** MDS ordination plot (a) and output
593 of canonical analysis of principal coordinates (CAP) (b) illustrating the differences in the
594 composition of meiofaunal assemblages (excluding nematodes and copepods) in the
595 sediments of the two investigated areas.

596 **Figure 6. Ecosystem processes.** Illustrated are prokaryotic biomass (a), prokaryotic
597 heterotrophic production ($\mu\text{gC g}^{-1}\text{d}^{-1}$) (b) and meiofaunal biomass (c) in undisturbed and
598 disturbed mangrove areas. Reported are also average values of Undisturbed Mangrove
599 (UM) and Disturbed Mangrove (DM) \pm standard error.

600

601

602 **Table 1.** Area, site, salinity, grain size, meiofaunal richness of taxa in the sediments of the
603 undisturbed and disturbed mangroves.

604

Area	Site	Salinity	Grain size	Meiofaunal taxa richness
				n
Undisturbed	A	32	Sand-mud	12
	B	30	Mud-sand	7
	C	28	Mud-sand	8
Disturbed	A	33	Sand-mud	8
	B	30	Mud-sand	7
	C	25	Very fine sand	6

605

606 **Table 2.** Output of the PERMANOVA analysis carried out to test for differences in total
 607 phytopigments, biopolymeric carbon, percentage of chlorophyll-a to biopolymeric carbon and to
 608 phytopigments, percentage of proteins to biopolymeric carbon, protein to carbohydrate ratio and
 609 biochemical composition of organic matter between undisturbed and disturbed mangrove areas
 610 (df = degrees of freedom; MS = mean square; Pseudo-F = F statistic; P(MC) = probability levels
 611 obtained from Monte Carlo asymptotic distributions). *** = P<0.001; ** = P<0.01; ns = not
 612 significant.

613

Variable	Source	df	MS	Pseudo-F	P(MC)
Phytopigments	Area	1	9,05	21,15	**
	Site (Area)	4	0,70	1,65	ns
	Residual	12	0,43		
Biopolymeric C	Area	1	12,42	93,43	***
	Site (Area)	4	0,75	5,62	**
	Residual	12	0,13		
Chlorophyll-a to biopolymeric C %	Area	1	5,91	81,05	***
	Site (Area)	4	2,55	35,01	***
	Residual	12	0,07		
Chlorophyll-a to phytopigments %	Area	1	4,05	10,70	**
	Site (Area)	4	2,10	5,57	**
	Residual	12	0,38		
Protein to biopolymeric C %	Area	1	7,65	67,36	***
	Site (Area)	4	2,00	17,60	***
	Residual	12	0,11		
Protein to carbohydrate ratio	Area	1	5,90	96,43	***
	Site (Area)	4	2,59	42,37	***
	Residual	12	0,06		
Biochemical composition	Area	1	43,77	28,80	***
	Site (Area)	4	5,75	3,78	**
	Residual	12	1,52		
	Total	17			

614

615

616

617 **Table 3.** Output of the PERMANOVA analysis carried out to test for differences in total
618 meiofaunal abundance, richness of higher taxa, taxonomic composition between undisturbed and
619 disturbed mangrove areas (df = degrees of freedom; MS = mean square; Pseudo-F = F statistic;
620 P(MC) = probability levels obtained from Monte Carlo asymptotic distributions). ** = P<0.01; *
621 = P < 0.05; ns = not significant.

622

Variable	Source	df	MS	Pseudo-F	P(MC)
Abundance	Area	1	5,16E+06	4,35	*
	Site (Area)	4	6,64E+06	5,60	**
	Residual	12	1,19E+06		
Richness of higher taxa	Area	1	8,00	6,26	*
	Site (Area)	4	4,94	3,87	*
	Residual	12	1,28		
Composition as higher taxa	Area	1	1527,60	1,51	ns
	Site (Area)	4	2768,10	2,74	**
	Residual	12	1010,50		
Composition as rare taxa	Area	1	9352,90	5,51	**
	Site (Area)	4	4453,10	2,62	**
	Residual	12	1697,30		
	Total	17			

623

624

625

626 **Table 4.** Output of the PERMANOVA analysis carried out to test for differences in prokaryotic
627 biomass and heterotrophic production between undisturbed and disturbed mangrove areas (df =
628 degrees of freedom; MS = mean square; Pseudo-F = F statistic; P(MC) = probability levels
629 obtained from Monte Carlo asymptotic distributions). *** = P<0.01.

630

Variable	Source	df	MS	Pseudo-F	P(MC)
Prokaryotic biomass	Area	1	13,38	824,49	***
	Site (Area)	4	0,86	52,72	***
	Residual	12	0,02		
Heterotrophic production	Area	1	10,12	135,72	***
	Site (Area)	4	1,50	20,04	***
	Residual	12	0,07		
	Total	17			

631