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# ANALYZING CLIMATE RISK TO MARITIME CYPRESS SWAMPS AND PINE SAVANNAS OF THE GULF OF MEXICO COASTAL PLAIN

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

 $\mathrm{in}$ 

The Department of Geography and Anthropology

by Clay Stephens Tucker B.S., Geography, Louisiana State University, 2013 M.S., Louisiana State University, 2015 May 2020 For Louisiana.

## Acknowledgements

No science is done in a silo. The contents of this Dissertation are the result of help, advice, and guidance of no fewer than four dozen people. From field work to editing, the following people made this work better. The reader should recognize that these acknowledgements do not merely show gratitude to those mentioned, but rather they show a list of people who have actively participated in this project in some way.

Certainly the first person to be mentioned here is the person who has spent more than seven years teaching me geography, showing me how science is done, and keeping me on my toes. No other person has participated more in this Dissertation than Jill Trepanier, and she embodies the ideal academic. She consistently teaches 400 undergraduate students per semester, undertakes countless service duties, researches and communicates high-level science, and she has somehow had time to see the completion of eight graduate degrees in five years. She has also taught me that life is not only work. Life is family; life is fun; life is good. Thank you, Jill.

The initial idea of the research in this Dissertation was inspired by a conversation with Kristine DeLong many years ago. She made me realize that trees could tell us about past hurricanes, that the research could be done on the Gulf Coast, and that the resources to complete the research were at LSU. There are not many subjects more interesting to me than past changes in Earth's climate and landscape, and Kristine fostered that passion. Her knowledge and teaching of paleoecology are largely evidenced in the background knowledge of this Dissertation.

Full-time dendrochronologists do not exist at LSU, so I was required to find one elsewhere. Luckily, the nearby University of Southern Mississippi faculty had Grant Harley on staff at the time. He had completed research on subtropical pine trees, and he understood Southeast U.S. climate-tree growth relationships as much as anybody else, but even more so, he had a distinct aptitude for tree-ring science. I have not met another scientist who wants to do his science more than Grant does, and though he has moved further away, every conversation with him makes me want to be a better scientist.

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Field work is a necessary component to the research in this Dissertation. Bill Platt introduced me to my first study site, and he has also been a beacon of knowledge in pine savanna ecology. Ashley Booth, Gilman Ouellette, Kory Konsoer, Tommy Patterson, Jill Trepanier, and Alyssa Crowell all provided valuable skills in the field work for this Dissertation. Additionally, the Doyle's Bayou data were collected as part of a larger citizen science project. Nessie Galliano's eighth-grade students from Our Lady of Mercy School in Baton Rouge, LA collected the Doyle's Bayou data in conjunction with the LSU Coastal Roots program. The leaders of Coastal Roots, Pam Blanchard and Ed Bush, have brought more than 25,000 students in nearly 20 years to plant 180,000+ trees in an effort to restore Louisiana's coast. The entire state is indebted to them. I was lucky enough to participate in the same program with Mrs. Galliano when I was in middle school, and my passion for natural sciences was fostered by her and the Coastal Roots program at that young age.

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The background knowledge for this Dissertation stands upon the teachings of giants. Few scientists study changes in growth of coastal wetland trees. Those few include Matthew Therrell, Jessie Pearl, David Stahle, Lauren Stachowiak, Paul Knapp, Thomas Doyle, Ken Krausse, and Richard Keim. Conversations with these scientists are embedded in the research questions, introductory knowledge, and methodology in this Dissertation. Additionally, though we spent little time together, I have thought frequently about Niranjan Baisakh's (my Dean's Representative) comments on my research. Simply knowing that other plant ecologists care deeply about abiotic stressors encourages tree-ring scientists like myself to continue exploring past environments.

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If a Dissertation ends and begins with an Introduction and a Conclusion, life begins and ends at parenthood. Through failure and success, my parents have never faltered to stand by my side. Susan and Rusty taught me the value of family, the importance of hard work, and the caliber of a person's word. They provided me with a home, they fed me weekly, and they even helped sand a tree core or two. They raised me in a place I will never stop loving, and they did it all without wanting anything in return. No one person has earned more of my respect than the two of them.

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## Abbreviations

The following short abbreviations are used throughout this Dissertation.

- COOP NOAA Cooperative Observer Program
- CPFP Coastal Plain Floristic Province
- CRMS Coastwide Reference Monitoring System
- $\operatorname{CRU}\,\operatorname{TS}$  Climate Research Unit Time Series
- $\mathrm{ENSO}-\mathrm{El}$ Niño-Southern Oscillation
- $\operatorname{GOM}-\operatorname{Gulf}$  of Mexico
- GPS Global Positioning System
- HURDAT NOAA Hurricane Database
- IADF Inter-Annual Density Fluctuations
- ITRDB International Tree-Ring Data Bank
- LSU Louisiana State University
- MRGO Mississippi River Gulf Outlet
- NACP North American Coastal Plain
- $\rm NADEF-North$ American Dendroecological Fieldweek
- NERR National Estuarine Research Reserve
- NOAA National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
- PCP Precipitation
- PDSI Palmer Drought Severity Index
- ppt Parts per thousand
- PRISM Parameter-Elevation Regressions on Independent Slopes Model
- SEA Superposed Epoch Analysis
- $\mathrm{SOI}-\mathrm{Southern}$  Oscillation Index
- ${\it SPEI-Standardized\ Precipitation-Evapotranspiration\ Index}$

## $\rm SS-Storm$ Surge

SURGEDAT - LSU Storm Surge Database

 $\mathrm{TC}-\mathrm{Tropical}$ Cyclone

 $TC_{10}$  — Top-ten Tropical Cyclone

 ${\rm TMAX}$  — Average maximum monthly temperature

TMIN — Average minimum monthly temperature

VPDB — Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite

WS - Wind Speed

## Abstract

As sea levels rise, coastal trees are increasingly stressed by saltwater inundation, and stressed trees are ideal for studying changes in the environment through time. Dendrochronology has been used for more than a century to explain changes in past environments using tree rings. Using ring widths and stable isotopes from coastal trees, the effects of tropical cyclones and freshwater moisture availability are shown in regard to tree growth and ultimately are discussed in terms of change to the environment as a whole. Changes in tree growth as they relate to various climate parameters are measured using superposed epoch analysis, moving-window correlations, and spatial correlations.

Results show that tropical cyclones cause rapid declines in tree growth. In the first two years following large storm surges (>2.0 m), trees reduce growth in the stem as much as 15%, whereas inland urban trees only show major growth declines in years following tropical cyclones with hurricane-force wind speeds (>33 ms<sup>-1</sup>). For coastal trees that do not show strong tropical cyclone signals, drought conditions play a key role in growth declines. For example, tree-ring carbon isotopes show strongest spatial correlations (r>0.5, p<0.05) with precipitation and maximum average monthly temperatures in the early growing season (January–July). Evidence for anthropogenic causes can also be seen in tree rings. Trees near New Orleans, Louisiana declined in growth following the opening of a canal that brought increased saltwater into the region in 1965, and some trees never recovered. Patterns of tree growth, precipitation, and tropical cyclones also match closely with shifts in the El Niño-Southern Oscillation.

Coastal trees inundated by saltwater experience declines in growth following pulses such as drought, tropical cyclones, and anthropogenic disturbances. Future land management of coastal forests should consider changes in freshwater soil moisture availability when projecting changes in the environment. In summary, with accelerating sea-level rise and increasing tropical cyclone intensity, coastal areas can expect to see declines in tree growth.

## Introduction

Since the last glacial maximum, global sea level has risen approximately 125 m Clark and Mix [2002]; Spratt and Lisiecki [2016]; Donoghue [2011]; Bocanegra-Ramírez et al. [2019]. Landscapes have been reclaimed by the sea, and coastal habitats have migrated inland as a result. As the Laurentide ice sheet over North America retreated, many plant communities moved pole-ward Delcourt et al. [1984]. New coastal land formed in the past 7,500 years when sea-level rise slowed and rivers dropped sediment atop the northern Gulf of Mexico (GOM) continental shelf Coleman et al. [1998]. As a biodiversity hotspot, the ecosystem of the North American Coastal Plain (NACP; Figure 1.1) stands to lose hundreds of plant and animal species in the face of any future sea-level rise Noss et al. [2015]. Some studies have assessed future changes of GOM landscapes in South Florida Doyle et al. [2003]; Berger et al. [2008], but changes in the northern GOM are lacking and a previous study recommends more research in the area Doyle et al. [2010].

Researchers have uncovered relationships of the growth of GOM coastal trees to global climate patterns Stahle et al. [1998], destruction from hurricane occurrences Tucker et al. [2017], and relationship to saltwater intrusion Pezeshki et al. [1990]. Storm surges associated with tropical cyclones (TCs) in the GOM can cause coastal waters to rise as much as 10 m in height and travel inland Turner et al. [2006]; Needham and Keim [2012]. Many coastal trees have been susceptible to lack of freshwater availability from resulting saltwater intrusion from the storm surge Pezeshki et al. [1990]; Conner and Askew [1992]; Conner [1994]. Trees reduced growth in years following a TC event and the stress was recorded in the rings Tucker et al. [2017]. Tree-ring records can (1) tell us when a TC likely occurred, and (2) how that TC affected tree growth. Understanding coastal processes and their interaction with trees is key in discovering the full suite of knowledge in the growth rings of coastal trees. The purpose of this Dissertation is to define how TCs, moisture stress, and saltwater intrusion



FIGURE 1.1: The North American Coastal Plain (NACP). The area represented in this figure marks the extent of the region of concern in this Dissertation. The pine savannas and cypress swamps contained within its reaches contain high biodiversity, maintain a myriad of flora and fauna habitat, and support international fisheries, agriculture, and tourism dollars. It is based on a figure from Noss et al. [2015].

affect coastal tree growth and to quantify the occurrence of TCs and sea-level rise using tree-ring data.

#### 1.1 Tree Rings

Dendrochronology, or the science of tree rings, dates back more than a century in the U.S. when A. E. Douglass attempted to correlate tree growth with sunspot activity in arid Arizona Douglass [1909]. For trees to record their environment, they must be stressed in some way, otherwise growth reaches its maximum potential each year, and no environmentally-driven pattern can be discerned from the tree's rings Speer [2010]; Fritts [2012]. With better technology and persistent scientists, tree-ring researchers have reached all corners of the globe: tree rings of vineyard grape bushes in northern California Maxwell et al. [2016], tropical locations in the Andes Mountains of South America where trees usually do not produce annually-separated rings Villalba et al. [1998], and even ancient underwater forests in the GOM Reese et al. [2018].

Florence Hawley was the first American dendrochronologist to bring tree-ring methods east of the Mississippi River to showcase that tree-ring science could work in many different areas Hawley [1937]; Barnes [2010]. Various tree species have been useful in dendrochronological studies in the eastern U.S. since the 1940s when Hawley began research: the growth rings of *Pinus* species have been applied to fire history Lafon and Kutac [2003], climate relationships Harley et al. [2011], archaelogical dating Harley et al. [2017], and disease-spreading insects Patterson and Knapp [2018] among others, and those studies range from the mesic mountains of Virginia to the rocky shores of the Florida Keys. *Taxodium* species are longer-lived than *Pinus* species, but their climate proxy capability has been difficult to analyze for tree-ring scientists Stahle et al. [2012]. *T. distichum* is now the oldest dated species in the eastern U.S. and among the oldest organisms in the world, and they frequently occur in coastal areas Brown [1996]; Stahle et al. [2019]. However, tree-ring studies of the coastal zone are few, because climate is often ideal for growing conditions and does not provide the stress necessary for producing patterns in tree rings. Other tree-ring studies in the coastal zone, including many baldcypress studies, occurred in freshwater wetlands far from saltwater inundation Stahle et al. [1998]; Miller et al. [2006]. A small group of studies have addressed the relationship between saltwater inundation and long-term tree growth Atwater and Yamaguchi [1991]; Yanosky et al. [1995]; Rodgers III et al. [2006]; Doyle et al. [2007]; Trouet et al. [2016]; Tucker et al. [2017]; Pearl et al. [2020].

The first study to analyze TC occurrences using tree-ring analysis was conducted on the barrier islands of Mississippi Stoneburner [1978]. That study showed tree growth and regeneration of barrier island pine forests was driven by the disturbance of TCs, similarly to the growth and reproduction around their inland neighbors to the north. Another study showed similar results: tree growth on the Alabama coast increased following TCs Rodgers III et al. [2006]. However, those studies analyzed only those trees that survived hurricanes and were able to take competitive advantage over the trees destroyed during the TC. Additionally, those studies found spurious lags of growth following TCs, which may have resulted from the stand-wide tree growth average in their analyses.

Methods vary for other early studies in dendrotempestology (*i.e.*, the effects of hurricanes on trees Grissino-Mayer et al. [2010]). For example, Johnson and Young [1992] analyzed treering widths using non-standard dendrochronological techniques. In Puerto Rico, mangrove trees provided researchers with annual growth rings, but due to their high tolerance to TC damage, the tree-ring widths did not correlate to TC occurrences Drew [1998]. Another study focused on heavy metals in baldcypress tree rings, and simply noted that tree growth was lower following hurricanes in 1947 and 1965 Latimer et al. [1996].

Saltwater inundation often leads to reduced tree growth overall, reduced tree regeneration, and eventual loss of coastal forests Pezeshki et al. [1990]; Yanosky et al. [1995]; Conner [1998]; Doyle et al. [2007]. More recent dendrotempestology researchers show that, at the individual level, tree growth was suppressed following TCs for up to six years after saltwater inundation Doyle and Gorham [1996]; Trouet et al. [2016]; Tucker et al. [2017]. Sites for those studies were all in areas where mature trees survived wind damage, and storm surge for each TC inundated the site with saltwater. Thus, saltwater inundation from a storm surge was hypothesized as the reason for growth declines following TCs in those studies.

Though tree growth is affected by changes in water salinity, different types of trees vary in their response to TC characteristics. *Pinus* species are often more resistant to high winds but not resistant to increased flooding from storm surge and rainfall Platt et al. [2000], while hardwood trees respond oppositely to those characteristics Gresham et al. [1991]. *Taxodium* species often respond well to multiple effects of hurricanes, consistent with its high-density, high-flexibility wood structure Doyle et al. [1995]. In this Dissertation, I aim to parse out the complex TC factors affecting coastal tree growth in the northern GOM.

Isotopic analysis of the cellulose in tree rings has also added value to dendrotempestology. Two studies note that a depletion in tree-ring oxygen-18 isotope matched TC precipitation records in inland Georgia and coastal sites in South Carolina and Florida Miller et al. [2006]; Nelson [2008]. Two other chronologies have also successfully shown evidence of TCs in tree-ring oxygen isotopic ratios (personal conversation, Grant Harley and Jessie Pearl). However, the isotopic values of water within a TC have been shown to differ spatially in multiple TCs Good et al. [2014]; Sánchez-Murillo et al. [2019]. Chapter 3 of this Dissertation discusses the results of previous studies in tree-ring carbon isotopic analysis, the processes of carbon isotopic to previous research.

### 1.2 Sea-Level Rise

Long-term research is important for explaining the impacts, consequences, and projections of accelerating sea-level rise. Eustatic (*i.e.*, global) sea-level rise through the past century has approached 1.7 mm per year Church and White [2006]. In coastal Louisiana, that rise is accelerated by natural deltaic plain evolution and anthropogenic modifications, and it often exceeds 11 mm per year in that same time interval Penland and Ramsey [1990]; Blum and Roberts [2009]. A rapid pace of sea-level rise provides an analog laboratory to study how future sea-level rise may affect other coastlines around the globe.

Sea-level changes before the Pleistocene Epoch were due mostly to tectonic activity. However, roughly 3 million years ago, large ice sheets began to form atop continental land in the northern hemisphere that grew and collapsed concurrent with changes in Earth's movement known as Milankovitch Cycles Milankovitch [1920]; Berger [1980, 1988]. Three separate cycles form the basics of Milankovitch cycles: Earth's orbital eccentricity (100,000 year cycle), tilt (41,000 years), and precession (23,000 years). Continental ice sheets expand and contract as a result of high-latitude temperature changes during Milankovitch cycles, and global sealevel rise and temperatures respond to that ice loss/gain Rohling et al. [2009]. In the current interglacial, sea levels have risen about 125 m from approximately 20,000 years ago until 6,000 years ago when sea-level rise slowed Clark and Mix [2002]; Spratt and Lisiecki [2016]; Donoghue [2011]; Bocanegra-Ramírez et al. [2019].

However, in the past 150 years, sea-level rise rates have increased, not due to tectonic or solar forcing, but to the greenhouse gas effect Church and White [2006]. Carbon dioxide and methane, produced by burning fossil fuels, are molecules that efficiently trap longwave radiation and ultimately allow the atmosphere to trap more heat. This effect is seen in the last 50 years of  $CO_2$  data in Hawaii Keeling and Keeling [2017]. A climate reconstruction of Earth's temperatures shows the drastic increase in global temperatures through that period as well (Figure 1.2) Mann et al. [1999].

Modern sea-level rise is concerning because of both the uncertainty of what might come from such rapid warming and the unprecedented nature of its acceleration in the past century. Though plants are responsible for offsetting some elevation loss from sea-level rise, other non-halophytic plants suffer in the face of saltwater intrusion, including most tree species.



FIGURE 1.2: Temperature reconstruction for the last 1,000 years, also known as the "hockey stick figure" because of the rapid acceleration of temperatures at the end of the millennium Mann et al. [1999].

Mangrove trees thrive in saltwater environments by using mechanisms to exclude, exude, and concentrate salts Liang et al. [2008]. Some other non-halophytic tree species can uptake saltwater (*e.g.*, *Taxodium distichum*), and their offspring can germinate in small amounts, but most trees have dramatic reductions in sapflow and water use under increased saltwater conditions Pezeshki [1990]; Conner and Askew [1992]; Yanosky et al. [1995]; Krauss and Duberstein [2010].

As a result of sea-level rise, coastal plant communities will be forced to move inland because of land erosion and, more importantly, because of a lack of adaptations to flooding and saltwater intrusion. Those organisms best adapted to saltwater (*e.g.*, *Spartina alterniflora*) will continue to thrive along the coast and their populations may not be reduced dramatically Nyman et al. [1993]. However, the range of non-halophytic organisms (*e.g.*, *Taxodium distichum*, *Pinus elliottii*, *Quercus* spp.) will be squeezed as the coastline migrates inland in the face of sea-level rise Doody [2004]; Pontee [2013]; Torio and Chmura [2013]. Sea-level rise is an important component to changes of future coastal forests, and few studies address the long-term impacts of saltwater intrusion on trees using their growth rings.

### 1.3 Climate

Climate plays a key role in the environmental factors controlling tree growth. For coastal forested wetlands, the amounts of salt in available soil water can be driven by both TCs and drought conditions.

### 1.3.1 Tropical Cyclones

Tropical cyclones are large storm systems with violent wind and heavy rainfall circulating around a center of low pressure, and they occur in tropical and subtropical locations on Earth. In the 21st century alone, and only including the top 10 costliest hurricanes within the GOM, TCs have caused more than \$400 billion in damage in the U.S. Hebert et al. [1996]; Grinsted et al. [2019]. They are known by different names in each of five ocean basins: hurricanes (Atlantic and Eastern Pacific), typhoons (Western Pacific), and cyclones (Indian and South Pacific). TCs are frequently defined by their wind speeds, as is true for the categories associated with the Saffir-Simpson Hurricane Wind Scale used for Atlantic hurricanes Simpson and Saffir [1974].

Previous studies suggest that the most intense TCs will become more intense with warming temperatures Elsner et al. [2000, 2008]; Trepanier et al. [2017]. Storm surges from TCs in the future will be higher, and as a result, saltwater will stay on coastal landscapes for longer periods of time. Additionally, low-lying, deltaic coastlines will be much more susceptible to increasing TCs than other areas Woodruff et al. [2013]. Both human and ecological landscapes will be affected by future TCs, but our record of those past events is limited. Proxy evidence of TCs will be necessary to explain the ecological ramifications of more intense TCs and to increase our confidence of future TC projections.

Data for Atlantic hurricanes are kept in the HURDAT2 (HURricane DATa) system of the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration Landsea et al. [2015]. For each hurricane, HURDAT2 contains location, maximum sustained wind speed, landfall location, and minimum central pressure for 1851–present. Rainfall for Atlantic hurricanes can be gathered from any one of dozens of COOP weather stations. Storm surge data are available in Louisiana State University's SURGEDAT (SURGE DATa) system for most landfalling Atlantic hurricanes for 1900–present Needham et al. [2013].

#### 1.3.2 El Niño-Southern Oscillation

Global weather patterns have been correlated to changes in the Walker Circulation and the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) of the Pacific Ocean Julian and Chervin [1978]; Andrade Jr and Sellers [1988]; Bove et al. [1998]; Wang et al. [2014]. The Walker Circulation describes the general pattern of Pacific Ocean surface winds traveling from east to west across the basin. As the Walker Circulation reverses (*i.e.*, the 'warm' phase of ENSO, or "El Niño") in the central Pacific Ocean, El Niño conditions in the Pacific shift major atmospheric circulations around the globe, including that of the subtropical jet stream in North America (Figure 1.3). As the North American subtropical jet stream shifts southward during El Niño, winter storms increased and drought conditions improved in the following year for the Southeast U.S. Noel and Changnon [1998]; Mo and Schemm [2008]. If the general Walker Circulation pattern strengthens, the 'cold' phase of ENSO begins, known as a "La Niña." Results from previous researchers show that strong La Niña events have been linked with declines in tree growth in the Southeast U.S. Stahle et al. [1998]; Brienen et al. [2012]. Additionally, some teleconnections of ENSO may not be as strong as others. For example, Mo and Schemm (2008) also noted that El Niño conditions are not as strongly associated with wet years in the southeastern U.S. as La Niña conditions are associated with dry years.

Each chapter of this Dissertation uses indices and measurements of climate data to correlate tree growth to water availability. The most common of those measurements are available through Divisional Climate Data available from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Association (NOAA). An example of those data and where to find them is available in Appendix B. For all data used in this Dissertation, only significant correlations (p<0.05) with those climate data are discussed.

### 1.4 The Gulf Coast

The GOM has changed in size dramatically since the last glacial maximum. Rapid continental ice sheet melting beginning 20,000 years ago caused global sea levels to rise as fast as 40 mm per year Donoghue [2011]. After rapid melting stopped 6,000 years ago, sea level was relatively stagnant. During sea-level stagnation, rivers brought sediment to coasts around the world where they formed river deltas Stanley and Warne [1994]; Milliken et al. [2008]. River systems play an important role in coastal development because they are natural builders of land, and their deltas often sink in the face of sea-level rise Swift [1973]; Kindinger et al. [1994]. Evidence of those changes exists for major river deltas around the world, including northeastern South America Vital and Stattegger [2000], the Indian subcontinent Allison [1998], and northern Africa Milliman et al. [1989] among many others.



FIGURE 1.3: El Niño teleconnections in the U.S. The effects on North American atmospheric circulation and corresponding climate effects from a wintertime El Niño in the Pacific Ocean. This image is available through the website climate.gov available from NOAA.

Deltaic plain formation relies on two important factors: (1) steady sediment supply and (2) stagnant or slow sea-level changes Roberts [1997]; Coleman et al. [1998]. Those previous studies on deltaic developments concentrated on geologic formation, wherein the delta would switch among various lobes as each delta prograded into the sea. Eventually, the river would switch to a new delta. Old deltas, starved of sediment, would sink into the sea under their own weight. In the 1980s, scientists began to discover that some marshes kept up with slow sea-level rise because plants grew as fast as the sea was rising McCaffrey and Thomson [1980]; Nyman et al. [1993]. Both ecology and geology were necessary for explaining coastal landscape change Nyman [2014].

Forty percent of the world's population lives within 60 miles of a coast, and large cities are often located near the mouth of major rivers similar to those described above Small and Nicholls [2003]. The Mississippi River has now experienced centuries of human modification to reduce flood impacts while enhancing the river's capacity for navigation and irrigation Twilley et al. [2016]. In a time of accelerating sea-level rise, resource extraction, and marsh degradation, deltaic coasts around the world are sinking into the sea faster than any other landscape Day Jr and Templet [1989]; Syvitski et al. [2009]. Research providing analogs of past sea-level rise effects will increase confidence of projections for future coastal habitats, and deltaic plains offer a unique natural laboratory where coastal processes are hastened.

Future plans to combat sea-level rise are important to long-term plans like Louisiana's Coastal Master Plan, which intends to invest as much as \$50 billion over the next 50 years through various projects such as marsh creation, structural protection, and river diversions, among others Peyronnin et al. [2013]; Knox [2017]. Field and laboratory studies are essential for determining the right projects in the right places. Louisiana currently has a coast-wide reference monitoring system (CRMS) with nearly 400 CRMS sites that measure a multitude of environmental variables from vertical marsh accretion to changes in plant species Steyer et al. [2003]. CRMS sites were placed spatially in Louisiana to cover the landscape as much

as possible. However, the CRMS data are no older than 15 years. Environmental proxies can help fill in the time gap, and in the form of tree rings, the NACP is not at a loss for data.

From Brownsville, Texas to Key West, Florida, the coastline of the northren GOM remains floristically and geologically similar Noss et al. [2015]. The vast majority of the Coastal Plain Floristic Province (CPFP; Figure 1.1) is comprised of various bottomland habitats that largely include pine savannas interwoven with hardwood/cypress swamps within northsouth running rivers. Cypress trees are the oldest living organisms that live within the CPFP, some of which live for more than 2,500 years Stahle et al. [2019]. Though the oldest *Taxodium* exist in backswamps of major rivers, *Taxodium* in coastal areas can live for more than 500 years (personal observation). While *Taxodium* inhabit river valleys and cutoff swamps with frequent flooding and clay soils, *Pinus* take root in flatter, savanna-like landscapes with sandy, nutrient-poor soils. Those two genera (*i.e.*, *Taxodium* and *Pinus*) are the two most common canopy tree genera in the Southeast U.S. Sorrie and Weakley [2001].

Common plant communities of the northern GOM coast occurring frequently throughout the field work completed for this Dissertation include:

- Pine savanna-brackish marsh at Grand Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve (NERR), Mississippi (Figure 1.4).
- Pondcypress domes at Grand Bay NERR, Mississippi (Figure 1.5).
- Pine forest-beach hummocks at Gulf State Park, Alabama (Figure 1.6).
- Baldcypress swamp at LaBranche Wetlands, Louisiana. (Figure 1.7).
- Degraded baldcypress swamp at LaBranche Wetlands, Louisiana (Figure 1.8).



FIGURE 1.4: Slash pine savanna abutting *Juncus* salt marshes in Grand Bay NERR, Pascagoula, MS. Trees decrease in height as they approach the marsh. Data used in Tucker et al. [2017] and in Chapter 3.



FIGURE 1.5: Pondcypress 'dome' within pine savannas of Grand Bay NERR, Pascagoula, MS. Pondcypress trees often inhabit stagnant-water areas within vast pine savanna ecosystems and provide an important refuge for animals that cannot outrun wildfires. Data used in Chapter 2.



FIGURE 1.6: Slash pine forest near the beach at Lake Shelby, Alabama. Note the proximity of these trees to the human landscape in the form of a multi-level condominium complex – the ultimate connection of data and purpose. Data used in Chapter 4.



FIGURE 1.7: Cypress swamp in the LaBranche Wetlands west of New Orleans. Notice the abundance of freshwater plants: red maple, blue iris, and water hyacinth. Data used in Chapter 4.



FIGURE 1.8: Cypress swamp approximately two miles from Figure 1.7. Note the addition of an important saltmarsh plant, *Spartina patens* indicating higher saltwater inundation at this site. Data used in Chapter 4.

### 1.5 Objectives, Merit, and Impacts

Tucker et al. [2017] confirmed the first step in assessing environmental impacts to the coastal GOM: coastal trees do record TC activity. That result created a suite of new questions including

- Do all tree species tell the same story?
- Can we use advanced methods to provide more information than ring-widths alone?
- What signal remains in different geographic locations?

#### 1.5.1 Intellectual Merit

The research in this Dissertation aims to increase knowledge related to the long-term changes in the environment of GOM coastal forested wetlands using tree growth parameters. As described in detail above, little dendrochronological research has analyzed changes in coastal regions, and coastal regions will change most in the face of sea-level rise. The GOM coastline has some of the highest rates of sea-level rise in the world, making it the "canary in the coalmine" for global coastal change. Ghost forests around the world indicate that saltwater intrusion from sea-level rise is changing the face of coastal ecosystems. Prior to widespread mortality, coastal forests hold knowledge of slow saltwater intrusion in their growth rings.

Finding trees affected by saltwater inundation is key for studying the effects of sea-level rise on tree growth. Coastal forested wetland research requires that the scientist find locations where tidal seawater enters coastal forests. The study sites within this Dissertation are denoted with specific GPS points, descriptions of the landscape, and lists of halophytic plant species in the understory. In addition to careful field methods, less common laboratory methods proved to enhance the signal of coastal processes. For example, trees in this Dissertation were frequently cored more than twice to eliminate problems from rot, and visual crossdating was frequently verified using non-quantitative measures (e.g., ring color).
Advanced tree-ring analysis methods aid coastal research by adding value to traditional techniques. The development of suppression chronologies and superposed epoch analysis reveal TC occurrences better than traditional dendrochronological detrending and correlation methods. Isotopic ratios tend to agree with tree-ring width data, but their correlations with climate data are stronger and more widespread. Finally, new computer programs for dendrochronological analysis (*e.g.*, *dplr*, *TreeClim*) allow the researcher to explore their data more quickly and efficiently. These methods and results are described in detail in the individual research chapters of this Dissertation.

# 1.5.2 Broader Impacts

Global changes in sea level and temperatures will cause coastal flora and fauna to adapt, move, or perish. Human population in those locations will also suffer at the loss of land and habitat concurrent with sea-level rise. Predicting the future of coastal landscapes will require long-term data from the past as an analog for future predictions. Tree-ring research can provide centuries of data of coastal change evidenced in growth rings of trees.

Engineered coasts will require management intervention as sea levels rise. Understanding the effects of surface water changes and soil moisture stress on coastal plants will provide managers with best practices for managing coastal systems. For example, increasing freshwater resources in coastal forested wetlands provides plants respite from saltwater inundation and the ability to migrate upslope during flood events.

Wetlands provide numerous benefits to society, and losing wetlands means losing those benefits. Wetlands store carbon at high rates, they filter and assimilate nutrients in surface waters, they are home to species from nearly all animal phyla, they store flood waters, and they provide free recreation and beauty to humans. Studying coastal wetland history through the lens of tree-rings provides a basis for land management, predictions for future change, and increases their inherent benefits through increased knowledge. All three studies within this Dissertation explore the effect of saltwater, moisture stress, and TCs on tree growth, with a future goal of finding trees old enough to add temporal data to the North American TC record. Chapter 2 explains how *Taxodium ascendens* growth compares to that of their neighboring *Pinus elliottii*. Chapter 3 uses methods in tree-ring isotopes to further explore how trees are affected by moisture stress in coastal locations. Finally, Chapter 4 expands the research on how moisture stress and past TCs are recorded in various tree species in different coastal plant communities.

# Assessing the Use of Maritime Trees for Dendrochronological Analysis

#### 2.1 Introduction

Tree-ring research explores the fundamentals of how trees respond to various environmental factors (*e.g.*, precipitation, temperature, disease, insects, wildfire), and crossdating is possible where trees experience a common stressor Speer [2010]. However, few dendrochronological studies have explored how non-halophytic trees (*i.e.*, trees not adapted to saltwater) are affected by saltwater inundation Ross et al. [1994]; Harley et al. [2015]; Tucker et al. [2017]. Saltwater inundation can affect tree growth by supplanting freshwater in the soil Pezeshki et al. [1990]; Krauss and Duberstein [2010]. Most tree species must then exclude the salt from the water before uptake in the roots Allen et al. [1994]. This process results in less water being consumed by the tree to be later used during photosynthesis, thus creating a stressed tree due to lack of freshwater. The tree cannot grow at normal rates, and the change in growth is recorded in its annual growth rings. Therefore, crossdating should be possible on trees in areas where trees are stressed by saltwater inundation.

Coastal areas experience saltwater inundation from high tides, storm surges, and saltwater intrusion in groundwater as well as aerosolized salt from breaking waves. Most trees occupying those areas are those adapted to saltwater environments (*e.g.*, mangroves). However, many areas around the world are experiencing sea-level rise rates in which inland habitats are inundated by saltwater more than they were previously Church and White [2006]; Hay et al. [2015]. The northern Gulf of Mexico (GOM) coast is experiencing higher-than-average rates of sea-level rise, and in some cases 10 times faster than the global rate (10.4 mm yr<sup>-1</sup> versus 1.2 mm yr<sup>-1</sup>) Penland and Ramsey [1990]; Hay et al. [2015]. As a result, coastal pine savannas and cypress swamps are rapidly changing to coastal marshes and tidal flats, especially in river deltas Blum and Roberts [2009]. Trees in coastal areas show similar growth signals and thus are sensitive to various climate parameters, such as precipitation, temperature, and tropical cyclone (TC) occurrences Harley et al. [2011]; Tucker et al. [2017].

#### 2.1.1 Tree-Ring Research and Site Conditions

The Principle of Site Selection in dendrochronology states it is important for selecting trees that are sensitive to specific climate variables, such as high altitude trees that are temperature sensitive and trees in arid regions that are moisture sensitive Speer [2010]. Trees in areas with long growing seasons and high precipitation often produce complacent growth that does not correlate well with climate variables. The Southeast U.S. has long summers, mild winters, and precipitation in excess of 150 cm. Trees produce wide rings each year in this region because they have ample resources available to them. However, some localized regions, especially in the Southeast U.S. do have conditions that allow for climate-sensitive trees.

Common locations for dendrochronology in the Southeast U.S. include high-elevation Appalachian mountain outcrops Saladyga and Maxwell [2015]; Copenheaver et al. [2017], xeric pine savannas Ford and Brooks [2003]; Knapp et al. [2016]; Patterson and Knapp [2016]; Rother et al. [2018], and fluvial baldcypress swamps Stahle et al. [1985]; Doyle and Gorham [1996]; Stahle et al. [2012]. Appalachian outcrops at high elevations have shorter growing seasons associated with colder annual temperatures. Pine savannas have well-drained soils, and trees in well-drained soils are susceptible to drought conditions because the soil does not store water. Fluvial swamps are directly connected to nearby trees on natural river levees, and streamflow levels drive water availability to riverine trees.

Previous studies have assessed the growth of various pine (*i.e.*, *Pinus*) and cypress (*i.e.*, *Taxodium*) tree species near the GOM and Atlantic Ocean coastlines Rodgers III et al. [2006]; Harley et al. [2011]; Day et al. [2012]. *T. ascendens* and *T. distichum* growing on the northern GOM coast in areas not associated with high riverine input are often located in cypress domes Kurz and Wagner [1953]; Ewel and Mitsch [1978]. Cypress domes are areas

of monocultured stands of *Taxodium* spp. in poorly drained sites that hold water for long periods of time and exclude fire. Fire exclusion and ample water allows trees in the center to grow higher, ultimately producing a domed appearance Ewel [1995]. Poorly drained sites cause trees to produce less biomass and produce smaller stem growth than trees in better drained sites Mitsch and Ewel [1979]. Trees growing in those stressful environments produce micro-rings, numerous locally absent rings, and inconsistent ring growth within one tree, all of which makes visual crossdating difficult. However, some *T. ascendens* sites occur without a dome and without standing water. My previous research at the site used in this study showed that TCs are associated with *Pinus elliottii* growth, whereas this study explores similar techniques on a new species Tucker et al. [2017].

### 2.1.2 Tree Rings and Tropical Cyclones

The northern GOM coastline is home to both a mix of estuarine environments that can support tree growth and to numerous TCs, often making landfall annually Keim et al. [2007]; Trepanier et al. [2015], which makes this region ideal for studying the effects of past TCs on trees. The GOM region is also home to some of the only dendrotempestological studies Rodgers III et al. [2006]; Grissino-Mayer et al. [2010]; Trouet et al. [2016]; Tucker et al. [2017]; Mitchell et al. [2019].

Some studies have shown correlations with tree-ring isotope chemistry and TCs Miller et al. [2006]; Mora et al. [2006], but studies of actual TC rainfall oxygen isotopic ratios show that the rain from different parts of the storm can have different isotopic values Good et al. [2014]; Sánchez-Murillo et al. [2019]. Other studies analyze TCs in tree rings using ring-width chronologies, yet discrete events such as TCs may be clouded by other variables in an averaged growth of many trees [e.g., Rodgers III et al., 2006]. My recent research using trees directly on the coast, analyzed with individual suppression chronologies shows that tree growth decreases following TC events, and the most intense TCs correspond with the largest declines in tree growth Tucker et al. [2017].



FIGURE 2.1: Study area. Red star indicates location of Grand Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve (Grand Bay NERR) along the GOM coast. (b) A zoomed-in view shows Grand Bay NERR proximity to both riverine input and GOM influence. (c) The study site area and a previous study site at Grand Bay NERR are included to show proximity of the site to tidal inlets and coastal marshes.

# 2.1.3 Study Area

Grand Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve (Grand Bay NERR; 30.42°N, 88.42°W) is located adjacent to a major GOM river (Pascagoula River via the Escatawpa River) and is also adjacent to GOM waters via Point Aux Chenes Bay (Figure 2.1). Subtropical climate with hot, wet summers, and cool, dry winters characterize this region. According to the Southern Regional Climate Center (1940–2016), precipitation here exceeds 150 cm and average temperatures in July are 27°C and 10°C in January.

Grand Bay NERR is proximal to both riverine input and tidal influence (Figure 2.1b). Grand Bay NERR is buffered from TC high winds and storm surge by nearby barrier islands, where the inland bays provide a mix of saltwater that enters Grand Bay NERR through tidal inlets (Figure 2.1c). The occurrence of *T. ascendens* in Grand Bay NERR is associated with depressional wetlands, and multiple plant communities comprise the savanna ecosystem at Grand Bay NERR (Figure 2.2). Nearest to the coast, only brackish and salt marshes exist. Further inland the landscape contains pine savannas, cypress swamps, oak groves, and open ponds. Common tree species within Grand Bay NERR include *P. elliottii, P. palustris*,



FIGURE 2.2: General map of the area within the orange square of Figure 2.1c. Trees for this study can be found in the orange circle denoted as "Study Site", which is a depressional wetland of *Taxodium ascendens* trees.

Quercus virginiana, and T. ascendens, with common co-habiting coastal marsh vegetation that includes Juncus roemarianus, Spartina patens, and Cladium jamaicense.

Water collects in low-lying areas to form open ponds and depressional wetlands. *T. ascendens* trees dominate the lowest areas, *Pinus* spp. occupy flat, well drained areas, while *Quercus* spp. grow on ridges (Figure 2.2). Those ecosystem features are consistent with the seepage slope swamps of the northern GOM coast from Big Branch Marsh in Louisiana (30.28°N, 89.94°W) to the Suwannee River in Florida (29.30°N, 83.14°W), and those wetlands support a wide range of niches for some of the highest biodiversity in North America Keddy [2009]; Noss et al. [2015].

In the following sections, I describe the viability of maritime T. ascendens for dendrochronology. The tree-ring data in this study are analyzed against summer temperatures, TABLE 2.1: *Taxodium ascendens* trees sampled for this study with their number assigned during sampling, diameter at breast height (DBH) in inches, and the first reliable year of growth for visual crossdating.

No.	DBH	First Year
7	35.3	1930
9	28.2	1969
13	37.3	1934
22	24.9	1935
26	36.6	1991
28	30.2	1930
29	28.4	1949
31	29.7	1921
33	32.0	1934
34	29.7	1944
35	24.9	1970

growing-season precipitation, and TC occurrences. I conclude with suggestions for future maritime dendrochronological studies especially as they relate to site selection.

#### 2.2 Materials and Methods

Tree-ring data for this Chapter were collected similarly to the data in Tucker et al [2017].

# 2.2.1 Tree Ring Data

On 10–12 March 2018, a total of 37 T. ascendens greater than 10 cm in diameter at breast height were selected for sampling. T. ascendens grow in mono-stands within flooded areas (*i.e.*, depressional wetlands) surrounded by higher, drier areas with P. elliottii. This study site is located 3 km from an open saltwater bay. All trees used in this study had at least some standing freshwater present at the base during fieldwork, and some trees had as much as 10 cm of water present on the ground. All trees sampled were alive at sampling, and green needles were just becoming visible on stems of all trees at the time of fieldwork.

Trees were given a sample number in the field corresponding to the order of sampling, and GPS coordinates and diameter at breast height (DBH) measurements were recorded for each tree (Table 2.1). Two 5.15 mm-diameter samples were taken from each tree using a Haglöf increment borer using traditional sampling techniques Stokes and Smiley [1968], and each

core sample was transported back to the lab using paper straws and a large map storage tube. Tree cores were secured to pre-routed wooden mounts made specifically for tree cores using water-based glue and binder clips, and the glue was allowed to dry for 48 hours before cores were sanded using a succession of finer grit sizes to reveal clear tree-ring boundaries (ANSI 120, 220, 320, 400 grit) Speer [2010]. Tree cores were visually crossdated using the list method Yamaguchi [1991], and total ring widths were scanned at 2400 dpi and measured to the nearest 0.01 mm using the CooRecorder and CDendro softwares Larsson [2014].

To ensure visual crossdating was robust, the computer program COFECHA was used to find any discrepancies in crossdating Holmes et al. [1986]. The number of series needed to produce acceptable signal-to-noise ratio was calculated using the expressed population signal (EPS) method, which is commonly used to assess statistical quality of the mean chronology versus a theoretical noise-free chronology Wigley et al. [1984]. Following crossdating verification, two tree-ring index chronologies were created for further analysis: indexed tree-ring width chronology and a suppression chronology (described below). The computer program ARSTAN was used to create the ring-width index with a 67% spline for the length of each individual series to remove the growth-related trend Cook and Peters [1981]. Three existing tree-ring chronologies were accessed from the International Tree-Ring Data Bank (ITRDB). Those three additional chronologies were selected based on their similarity to the dataset in this study. They are all *Taxodium* chronologies from swamps in the Southeast U.S.

#### 2.2.2 Climate Data

To assess any outstanding climatological factors possibly contained in the tree growth chronologies, three climate variables were used to assess temporal and spatial correlation of the tree-ring data from this study: (1) El Nino Southern Oscillation (ENSO) represented as the Southern Oscillation Index (SOI) NOAA [2018], (2) monthly averaged precipitation, and (3) monthly average temperatures. SOI is the difference in sea-level pressure between Tahiti and Darwin, Australia, and they reflect ENSO variability in Pacific Ocean temperatures known to have global teleconnections. SOI data are available on the National Centers for Environmental Information website via their teleconnections page NOAA [2018]. Precipitation values were accessed for 0.5° grid size from the Climate Research Unit (CRU) Time Series (TS) version 4.01 provided by the UK National Center for Atmospheric Science and University of East Anglia Harris et al. [2014]. Temperature values were accessed for 4 km grid size from the PRISM (Parameter-elevation Regressions on Independent Slopes Model) Climate Group at Oregon State University Daly et al. [1997].

Spatially gridded data sets were preferred for this study because they span the time interval of the chronology used in this study, and the data sets are already fixed for quality control and used in previous studies Salzer et al. [2009]; Preechamart et al. [2018]. Additionally, gridded data products are useful in exploratory studies, because they allow the user to test numerous climate parameters on a single chronology easily. The CRU TS v4.01 data span years 1901–2017 at 0.5° resolution. They are derived from monthly observations of weather stations in land areas across the world. CRU TS v4.01 measurements are used frequently to show large spatial patterns between tree-ring chronologies and regional climate Preechamart et al. [2018]; Huang et al. [2019]; George and Esper [2019]. The PRISM Climate data (4 km resolution; 1895–2017) are also a gridded product, and have been used in numerous tree-ring studies Salzer et al. [2009]; McCullough et al. [2017].

#### 2.2.3 Tropical Cyclones

A tropical cyclone impacting Grand Bay NERR is defined for this study as one with a storm surge recorded no more than 45 km away from the study site, and with wind speeds exceeding 33 ms<sup>-1</sup> within 120 km of the study site. Those values are consistent with previous studies of the size and the widespread effects of TCs Keim et al. [2007]; Needham et al. [2013]; Trepanier and Scheitlin [2014]. Tropical cyclone storm surge data were acquired from the storm surge database SURGEDAT available from the Southern Climate Impacts Planning Program at Louisiana State University Needham and Keim [2012]. Tropical cyclone

Name	Year	Surge Height	Rank	
Unnamed	1947	3.66	3	
Unnamed	1948	1.81	11	
Unnamed	1949	1.33	16	
Brenda	1955	1.83	10	
TS no. $1$	1956	1.42	13	
Hilda	1964	1.40	15	
Betsy	1965	2.24	8	
Camille	1969	4.70	2	
Frederic	1979	3.20	4	
Danny	1985	0.50	19	
Beryl	1988	1.10	17	
Chantal	1989	0.75	18	
Georges	1998	2.90	5	
Isidore	2002	2.08	8	
Bill	2003	1.41	14	
Ivan	2004	2.05	9	
Katrina	2005	7.90	1	
Gustav	2008	2.49	6	
Lee	2011	1.50	12	

TABLE 2.2: Tropical cyclone storm surge data used in this study. Surges in meters are listed as the highest recording for that storm within 45-km radius of Grand Bay NERR.

wind speeds were acquired from the National Hurricane Center HURDAT2 "Best Track" database Jarvinen et al. [1984]; Landsea et al. [2004]; Landsea and Franklin [2013]. Storm surge measurements larger than 2.0 m (19 events) and wind speeds higher than 50 ms<sup>-1</sup> (21 events) were included in the analyses for the period 1928–2014 (Tables 2.2 and 2.3). The TC data are truncated because the statistical analysis used to correlate tree growth and TC occurrence uses a moving window analysis that cannot account for the first three and last three years of tree-ring data. These methods are described in the next section.

A simple ranking system was also created to determine the top 10 most detrimental TCs impacting the study site (Table 2.4). The ranking system aimed to combine the risk of storm surge and high winds from TCs together to determine if tree growth responds to the entirety of a TC differently than just to specific parameters (*i.e.*, surge and wind). TCs from Tables 2.2 and 2.3 are ranked in order of magnitude, with one (1) being the most detrimental. This

Name	Year	Wind Speed $(ms^{-1})$	Rank
Unnamed	1947	48.87	11
Unnamed	1948	35.57	20
Baker	1950	38.58	17
Florence	1953	46.30	14
Flossy	1956	41.15	15
Ethel	1960	41.15	15
Betsy	1965	63.72	4
Camille	1969	72.02	1
Agnes	1972	38.58	17
Carmen	1974	66.87	2
Eloise	1975	58.77	6
Frederic	1979	59.16	5
Andrew	1992	65.48	3
Opal	1995	56.58	7
Danny	1997	36.01	19
Georges	1998	48.87	11
Barry	2001	33.64	22
Ivan	2004	56.58	7
Katrina	2005	56.58	7
Gustav	2008	48.87	11
Ida	2009	33.98	21

TABLE 2.3: Tropical cyclone maximum wind speeds used in this study. Maximum wind speeds in  $ms^{-1}$  are listed as the highest recording for that storm within a 120-km radius of Grand Bay NERR.

ranking was created by adding a ranking of the storm surges and wind speeds for each TC impacting Grand Bay NERR. The lowest rank is considered the most impactful storm for this study.

# 2.2.4 Statistical Analyses

Gridded data products are already tested for quality control and used by previous studies. SOI data were tested for normality using the Shapiro-Wilk test, because it represents n < 50well Wilk and Shapiro [1965]; Razali et al. [2011]. Pearson's product-moment correlation was used to test for relationships between the climate data and the tree-ring chronology because both data sets are n > 30 and are normally distributed. As described previously, the tree-ring

TABLE 2.4: Ranking of the top 10 tropical cyclones  $(TC_{10})$  affecting trees at Grand Bay NERR with their associated storm surge (SS) and wind speed (WS) ranks from Tables 2.2 and 2.3. This ranking is based on the combined ranking of the most detrimental tropical cyclones from Tables 2.2 and 2.3.

Name	Year	SS Rank	WS Rank	Combined Rank	$\mathbf{TC}_{10}$ Rank
Unnamed	1947	3	11	14	5
Flossy	1956	13	15	28	9
Betsy	1965	8	4	12	4
Camille	1969	2	1	3	1
Frederic	1979	4	5	9	3
Danny	1985	19	10	29	10
Georges	1998	5	11	16	6
Ivan	2004	9	7	16	6
Katrina	2005	1	7	8	2
Gustav	2008	6	11	17	8

data introduced in this study were standardized and averaged to compare to climate data sets.

Additionally, I created a suppression chronology for event-based analysis. Previous researchers have found that superposed epoch analysis (SEA) using suppression chronologies produced better results than simple correlations with a master indexed chronology of all tree-ring series Baisan and Swetnam [1990]; Swetnam [1993]; Tucker et al. [2017]. Suppression chronologies note the number or percentage of trees exhibiting a user-defined reduction in growth Trouet et al. [2016]; Tucker et al. [2017]. For this study, the computer program JOLTS, designed at the Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory, was used to produce suppression chronologies. When creating a suppression chronology, the user defines what a suppression is in terms of a percentage reduction in width of subsequent tree-ring years. Then, the user defines the epoch through which the calculation should be run. Tucker et al. [2017] used a conservative value of 15% reduction in growth within a 7-year running mean. Previous researchers have also used the more liberal values of 25% reduction in growth within a 10year running average Trouet et al. [2016]. This study compares the two different methods (conservative vs. liberal) to determine which method is most indicative of physical processes impacting the tree growth.

SEA reveals temporal relationships among time series by comparing statistical windows, or *epochs*, of one variable onto the other. Event years are selected within the range of the original time series. Event years for this study were defined for three different impacts from TCs: (1) storm surge above 2.0 m, (2) wind speeds above 50 ms<sup>-1</sup>, or (3) a compilation of the top ten TCs (TC<sub>10</sub>) in Grand Bay NERR determined from storm surge and wind speed. These values were selected to represent the top 50% ranked storms for 1928–2014. Randomly selected, user-defined epochs are compared to the list of event years through 1000 bootstrapped Monte Carlo simulations. The model also compares these simulations to a series of lag years before and after the event year. Lag years allow the user to see how the event might have changed tree growth through the epoch.

#### 2.3 Results

Taxodium ascendens tree-ring widths for this study were difficult to crossdate, especially in years prior to 2000. However, in an effort to expand the usefulness of this species in the future, the following results show examples and goals of T. ascendens tree-ring research. Though the results here are from a low number of tree cores and from tree-ring data that do not crossdate well, they represent exploratory measures that can be performed on coastal trees in the future.

# 2.3.1 Comparing Taxodium ascendens to Other Tree-Ring Records

Tree-ring data for this study extend from 1921–2016 with a maximum of 21 tree-ring series contributing to master chronologies (Figure 2.3). Not all trees sampled for this study were used for final analysis. Twenty-eight percent of cores sampled in the field were able to be visually crossdated and verified. The remaining 72% were not included in the master chronology due to young age (less than 30 years), damaged cores, high presence of locally absent rings, complacency in growth, and/or poor correlation with the master chronology.



FIGURE 2.3: Comparison of time series of indexed tree-ring data in this study. Ring-width indices are included for Grand Bay NERR *Taxodium ascendens* (black line) and *T. distichum* from the Choctowatchee (yellow), Pearl (blue), and Pascagoula (green) Rivers.
Vertical red bars indicate years of top-ten hurricane occurrence. The gray box indicates the sample size of *T. ascendens* tree-ring series used in this study.

Sample size increases as the year increases because not all trees are the same age and tree recruitment has not occurred in total in one year. Interseries correlations and average mean sensitivities for *T. ascendens* used in this study are r=0.45 and r=0.52 respectively. All individual series contribute positive correlations with the master chronology and the mean sensitivity is above r=0.50.

The individual series crossdate with co-existing species (*P. elliottii*) at Grand Bay NERR Tucker et al. [2017], but they do not correlate with nearby *T. distichum* chronologies from the Choctowatchee, Pearl, and Pascagoula, Rivers accessed via the ITRDB Stahle and Cleaveland [1992] (Figure 2.3). Agreement among all chronologies is the similarity in growth variability from 1980–1992, during which period, growth changes in the same direction each year for the four series, and the magnitude of indexed change is similar. Peaks in growth among series are matched at years 1938, 1960, and 1982. However, reductions in growth never match among all series, and only occasionally between two or three series (*e.g.*, 1985, Figure 2.3).



FIGURE 2.4: Spatial correlation of tree-ring width and average precipitation during the growing season. Precipitation data are averaged over the period April–July for each year. Tree-ring and climate data overlap through the period 1921–2016. The study site is denoted by the black asterisk.

# 2.3.2 Taxodium ascendens Tree Rings and Climate

Taxodium ascendens growth at Grand Bay NERR shows little correlation with ENSO. Only the month of April shows a significant, negative correlation with SOI ( $r \ge -0.23$ , p < 0.05). However, *T. ascendens* tree growth at Grand Bay NERR correlates with growing season precipitation (Figure 2.4). Directly over the study site, averaged April–July rainfall positively correlates with tree growth for the period 1921–2016 (r > 0.4, p < 0.05). Other individual monthly averaged temperatures do not significantly correlate to tree growth at Grand Bay NERR. Therefore, as growing season precipitation increases, tree growth increases. This pattern decreases with distance away from Grand Bay NERR.

Some temperature correlations also exist with T. ascendens tree growth at Grand Bay NERR (Figure 2.5). Temperature correlations with T. ascendens growth at Grand Bay NERR are not similar throughout the year. For averaged monthly maximum temperatures, two months within the growing season show opposite correlations with tree growth: July (negative) and September (positive). When July maximum temperatures are high, T. ascendens tree growth at Grand Bay NERR is more likely to be lower (Figure 2.5a), and when



FIGURE 2.5: Spatial correlation of tree-ring width and maximum temperatures averaged for July (a) and September (b) using data from 1921–2016. The study site is denoted by the black asterisk.

September maximum temperatures are high, T. ascendens tree growth at Grand Bay NERR is more likely to be higher (Figure 2.5b). No other correlations between T. ascendens tree growth at Grand Bay NERR and average temperatures exist.

# 2.3.3 Taxodium ascendens Tree Rings and Tropical Cyclones

*T. ascendens* tree growth at Grand Bay NERR shows similar correlations with TC occurrences to a previous study of the co-existing *P. elliottii* at Grand Bay NERR Tucker et al. [2017]. Following years with TCs producing wind speeds greater than 50 ms<sup>-1</sup> and storm surges greater than 2.0 m, *T. ascendens* tree growth is suppressed in subsequent years (Figure 2.6). As described in Section 2.2.4, two different thresholds were used in the superposed epoch analysis for this study: a conservative 15% reduction in growth within a 7-year window (Figure 2.6a) and a more liberal 25% reduction in growth within a 10-year window (Figure 2.6b). Both analyses show significant suppressions in tree growth in lag year 1 (the year following one of the top ten TCs). Additionally, both analyses show a suppression in growth in lag year 2, but only the more conservative analysis (a) is significant. Analyses were also conducted for TC wind speeds, but no results were significant similar to results found in Tucker et al. [2017].



FIGURE 2.6: Results for superposed epoch analysis for growth suppressions of *Taxodium ascendens* following the top ten most intense TCs affecting the study site. Lag year 0 represents the exact year of TC occurrence. Vertical bars represent the likelihood of suppression for any given lag year, and the horizontal lines represent confidence intervals of 0.95 (dashed) and 0.99 (solid). Results for two user-defined settings are shown here: (a) 15% reduction in growth within a 7-year window and (b) 25% reduction in growth within a 10-year window.

#### 2.4 Discussion

*Taxodium ascendens* at Grand Bay NERR show significant correlations to other nearby tree-ring chronologies, TCs, and summer temperature and precipitation.

# 2.4.1 Taxodium ascendens Dating Potential

For a tree species to be crossdated, the tree must produce clearly defined growth rings that are sensitive to some environmental forcing. After visually crossdating the tree cores for this study and validating that crossdating with COFECHA, 28% of the total cores taken in the field were used in final analysis. As mentioned in the introduction, *T. ascendens* often exists in poor growing conditions (*e.g.*, standing water, low nutrients). Tree cores for this study frequently displayed rot, and rings for numerous ring-width series could not be dated because of physical damage to the tree prior to core collection. Additionally, some trees at Grand Bay NERR are relatively young (less than 30 years old), and trees younger than 30 years did not crossdate with trees older than 50 years because their growth patterns did not match growth patterns in the older trees. However, the final master chronology for this study produced an acceptable interseries correlation (r=0.45).

This study site at Grand Bay NERR may allow for climate sensitivity in T. ascendens rings because of its relatively new change in geomorphology and geology. Neither the Pascagoula River, nor its more proximal tributary the Escatawpa River, currently flow directly through Grand Bay NERR, but prior to the diversion of the Escatawpa River in 1854, riverbeds did wind through the landscape and evidence of rivers are still present in aerial photographs today Kramer [1990]; Schmid [2000]; Hilbert [2006]. An introduction of riverine processes onto this landscape would allow for flowing water and a change in sediment supply, both of which may have made for better growing conditions. Though no trees used in this study extend prior to 1854, the landscape is likely still affected by the riverine processes once dominating its geology. For example, a previous researcher has shown that submarine groundwater discharge is important for controlling localized hydrology that can ultimately control the ecology of a site Kolker et al. [2013]. The trees at Grand Bay NERR may benefit from better drained soils and higher nutrient availability based on submarine groundwater discharge at the site. Grand Bay NERR is not unique in this way, however. Numerous rivers transect the northern GOM coastal landscape, and their deltas may produce similar areas for future dendrochronological research (e.g., Pearl, Mobile-Tensas, Perdido, Escambia, Yellow, Choctowatchee, and Apalachicola Rivers).

#### 2.4.2 Climate-Tree Growth Relationships

Climate-growth relationships are an established resource for dendrochronologists. However, no single climate variable can explain a total year of growth for a tree. Thus, when exploring the dendrochronological viability of a new species, tree growth must be compared to multiple variables to ensure that a tree growth chronology is suitable for analysis. For example, more than 100 years of researchers have shown that at least some tree growth is correlated to rainfall Douglass [1914]; Granato-Souza et al. [2018]. The physical mechanism to explain the relationship is solid: when trees have less moisture available, they produce less growth. Results from this study show a similar process: as precipitation increases, Grand Bay NERR tree growth also increases (Figure 2.4). Though the signal for this trend extends more than 200 km, the strongest signal is seen directly over the study site at Grand Bay NERR. Furthermore, the correlation between tree growth and precipitation is during its growing season (April–July), during which the tree would be actively using water. A lack of correlation to precipitation for other months of the year alludes to annual precipitation dependency as well.

Temperature also plays a role in tree growth. In non-tropical areas where annual temperatures fluctuate, temperature may be one of the factors (others might include daily photoperiod and/or water availability) causing trees to go dormant and stop growing until the following growing season. Higher fall and winter temperatures may allow for the growing season to extend, thus allowing a tree to produce a larger ring for that year. For this study, high maximum temperatures in September (likely near the end of the growing season) correlate with larger ring widths for that given year. Conversely, the average high summer temperatures may cause ring width to be smaller. During respiration when trees are producing biomass, trees must keep themselves cool through evapotranspiration. When temperatures are high, more energy is used for evapotranspiration than for new tissue creation. Additionally, high temperatures mean that any surface or soil moisture normally used by a tree will evaporate more quickly. For this study, high maximum temperatures in July correlate to narrow rings for that given year (Figure 2.5a).

# 2.4.3 Effects of Tropical Cyclones

Similarly to previous studies Doyle et al. [1995]; Conner [1998]; Harley et al. [2012]; Tucker et al. [2017], this study finds that major TC occurrences cause suppression of tree growth. In the first year after a TC, *T. ascendens* reduce growth in the stem by a least 25% (Figure 2.6b). Significant suppressions of at least 15% may also occur for the second year following an event (Figure 2.6a), and previous studies show that trees affected by TCs frequently do not recover to average growth for 2–7 years Doyle and Gorham [1996]; Tucker et al. [2017]. Lack of correlation to TCs with high winds may lead to the conclusion that some coastal trees are more disturbed by storm surge than the entire TC event. *T. ascendens* have shown that freshwater availability is an important factor of growth. Storm surge disrupts the availability of freshwater by adding salts to the surface water, and the salts eventually leach into the ground. Though high winds may remove leaves and damage branches, trees may repair themselves before the growing season ends for that year, or at the latest, the following year.

#### 2.4.4 Potential for Future Coastal Tree-Ring Research

This study is the first of its kind to use T. ascendens in tree-ring-based climate analysis. However, the methods used in this study are not unique to the study locale or the study species. Methods used for analysis are traditional for dendrochronology, but future studies may find the field methods of this study useful. Future coastal dendrochronology should consider the following suggestions:

(1) "Coastal", or "maritime" locations, as defined in this study, pertain to those landscapes located at the interface of land, sea, and air. Without the interaction of all three of those components, trees may not be stressed enough to be climate-sensitive along coastline ecotones. Talking to landowners or accessing tide gauge data is essential in finding locations regularly inundated by saltwater. Additionally, landscapes with higher sea-level rise rates relative to the global rate will contain trees rapidly inundated by saltwater. Those places are often located by or within river deltas, where sediment is compacting and subsiding quickly, thus increasing local sea-level rise rates Blum and Roberts [2009].

(2) A proper knowledge of halophytic flora help to identify the likely commonality of saltwater inundation. Though the majority of plants in a site may not be adapted to saltwater intrusion, the presence of one species may allude to a regular presence of saltwater in the soil. For example, the common understory grass at Grand Bay NERR is *Spartina patens*, a common brackish marsh grass.

(3) Trees growing in coastal wetlands often experience increased rot from various infections aided by hot, humid conditions. Special care should be taken to avoid using core segments when rot is present. In many cases, three cores should be obtained from each tree to account for field errors. Only 28% of tree cores from the field were used in the final analysis of this study, so accessing as many trees as possible is necessary for future analysis.

(4) First-time analysis of new sites and new species should include some obvious correlations if they exist (*e.g.*, precipitation, temperature). KNMI Climate Explorer can be a good first tool for exploring climatological factors of growth at a site Trouet and Van Oldenborgh [2013]. Finding other sources of growth changes can also be useful, and discrete events can be used to explain rapid changes in growth (*e.g.*, tropical cyclones).

# 2.5 Conclusions

The Southeast U.S. and coastal areas have previously been criticized for their ability to produce non-climate-sensitive trees. This study shows that a previously unused species in tree-ring research is useful for climate analyses likely because of its proximity to the coast and interaction with saltwater. Though temperatures on the northern GOM coast are moderated by maritime air and precipitation is plentiful, tree growth is stressed in extreme coastal locations because saltwater inhibits recharge of freshwater in the soil. *T. ascendens* at Grand Bay NERR are sensitive to hot, mid-summer temperatures likely causing increased transpiraton by the plant and thus less growth. Conversely, Grand Bay NERR tree growth is enhanced when high autumn temperatures allow for longer growing seasons. Tree growth at Grand Bay NERR decreases following TC storm surge events when freshwater availability decreases. Site selection is vital when choosing coastal trees for tree-ring research. Incorporating rarely assumed stressors such as saltwater intrusion and inundation may assist in finding new species and new areas of research for tree-ring climate proxy studies.

# Evidence of Moisture Stress from Coastal Tree Rings Using Carbon Isotopes

#### 3.1 Introduction

Sea-level rise causes changes in coastal plant communities, and for coastal forests the change is largely occurring due to saltwater inundation Couvillion and Beck [2013]; Steyer et al. [2013]. The term "ghost forests" refers to coastal forests that die as a result of high soil salinity, and those locations increase in frequency with an increase in sea levels Senter [2003]; Kirwan and Gedan [2019]; Taillie et al. [2019]. Tree growth studies indicate that during periods of saltwater intrusion, growth is stunted in subsequent years, possibly leading to heavy mortality Doyle and Gorham [1996]; Kirwan et al. [2007]; Tucker et al. [2017].

In coastal locations, the definition of soil moisture must also include "freshwater" resources, and freshwater soil moisture resources can change based on two factors: (1) freshwater input (*e.g.*, precipitation, river flow, shallow groundwater fluxes) and (2) presence/absence of seawater salts (*e.g.*, tidal flows, storm surges). The presence of salts in coastal soils forces plants to exclude, exude, or compartmentalize the salt in order to acquire water Liang et al. [2008]. Some plants adapt well to saltwater environments (*e.g.*, mangroves) while many others suffer loss in biomass, height, and/or regeneration Pezeshki et al. [1990]; Pezeshki [1990]; Conner and Askew [1992]; DeLaune et al. [1994]. The long-term effects of saltwater intrusion to maritime forests is important for projections of the effects of sea-level rise and for properly managing coastal systems Doyle et al. [2010]. Tree-ring carbon isotopic analysis provides researchers the ability to further analyze relationships between tree growth and moisture stress Evans and Schrag [2004].

Carbon isotope ratios in tree-ring cellulose are controlled by stomatal conductance between the plant and the source (*e.g.*, atmospheric)  $CO_2$  Francey and Farquhar [1982]; Saurer et al. [1995]; McCarroll and Loader [2004]. Carbon exists as two stable isotopes and one radioactive isotope in the atmosphere (<sup>12</sup>C, <sup>13</sup>C, and <sup>14</sup>C), and trees naturally uptake  $CO_2$  molecules freely and non-discriminantly. When leaf stomata are open to allow free gas exchange, plants prefer to photosynthesize molecules with the lightest isotopes (*i.e.*, <sup>12</sup>C). However, the stomata close to prevent evaporative loss of water in response to moisture stress. When the stomata close, the free gas exchange is lost and the plant must process any available  $CO_2$ within the leaf. Therefore, the plant is enriched with <sup>13</sup>C during times of moisture stress because it does not have the freedom to photosynthesize with only the lightest isotopes. Numerous studies have shown that moisture stress is strongly correlated to tree-ring carbon stable isotopes Leavitt and Lone [1991]; Csank et al. [2016]; Nicklen et al. [2019]. However, few studies have assessed changes in tree-ring carbon stable isotopes in coastal locations.

The majority of coastal studies assessing changes in tree-ring carbon stable isotopes occurred on the Pacific coast of the U.S. Coastal *Sequoia sempervirens* relies on heavy fog throughout the year for sufficient moisture, and their tree-ring carbon isotopes followed fog patterns of the past Roden et al. [2009]; Johnstone et al. [2013]. Coastal trees in those studies showed correlation to growing season fog and drought patterns especially in spring and early summer. Additional researchers have assessed changes in tree-ring carbon isotopes for trees along a transect running inland from the coast in Oregon Roden et al. [2005]. For that study, changes in tree-ring carbon stable isotopes followed precipitation patterns, and in the area of highest precipitation (*i.e.*, the site closest to the coast), <sup>13</sup>C depletion occurred.

Other sites demonstrated that moisture availability is not the sole reason for changes in tree-ring carbon isotopes. *Pseudotsuga menziesii* in coastal Oregon showed that artificial fertilization can also change patterns of tree-ring carbon isotopes, because as the tree receives more nutrients, it requires more water to process those additional nutrients Cornejo-Oviedo et al. [2017]. In Italy, tree-rings with intra-annual density fluctuations (IADFs) within a tree ring caused changes in carbon isotopic ratios De Micco et al. [2007]. Specifically, IADFs were associated with enriched <sup>13</sup>C indicating periods of water stress during the production of the IADF. Following an extensive literature review, I found only one study that explored changes in North American subtropical coastal wetlands Anderson et al. [2005]. That study showed that *Taxodium ascendens* tree-ring carbon isotopes followed different patterns than nearby T. distichum. Precipitation patterns were negatively correlated to T. ascendens tree-ring carbon isotopic values, indicating more stress at times of high water levels, whereas tree-ring carbon isotopes in T. distichum changed depending on levels of salinity in the soil. Trees at the site with higher saltwater intrusion show enrichment of <sup>13</sup>C perhaps explaining that an increase in salts is causing direct moisture stress to trees.

Methods for tree-ring carbon isotopic analysis differ for the aforementioned studies. Due to high cost, additional time for analysis, and destructive sampling, the added value of tree-ring isotopic analysis can become expensive. Therefore, tree-ring isotopic analysis often sacrifices sample resolution for increased knowledge as defined by the researcher. For example, to find isotopic changes within a year, a researcher might choose to limit the number of trees used and the number of years through time to instead concentrate time and money spent on multiple samples within a year Roden et al. [2005]; De Micco et al. [2007]. Other isotopic tree-ring studies rely on pooling multiple years to produce long-term chronologies of environmental proxy data Anderson et al. [2005]; Johnstone et al. [2013].

#### **3.2** Materials and Methods

Because the tree-ring width data for this study have been published in Tucker et al. [2017] and due to small physical samples, I chose to sample whole rings for tree-ring carbon isotopic analysis through a 20-year period that was climatologically heterogeneous (*i.e.*, a period containing drought years, tropical cyclones (TCs), and increased saltwater intrusion) so that differences in tree-ring carbon isotopic values would emerge clearly.

# 3.2.1 Study Area

Grand Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve (Grand Bay NERR) is comprised of salt marsh and pine savanna plant communities and covers 7,284 hectares near Pascagoula, Mississippi Hilbert [2006]. Southern Mississippi has a subtropical climate with hot, wet summers and cool, dry winters. According to the data archived by the Southern Regional Climate Center (1940–2019) for Pascagoula, Mississippi, mean annual precipitation exceeds 150 cm, with more than 500 mm occurring during June–August. Mean January and July temperatures are 10°C and 27°C, respectively.

The most common canopy tree species, *Pinus elliottii* var. *elliottii*, grows as close as one kilometer from open saltwater bays that connect to the Gulf of Mexico (GOM; Figure 3.1). Nearest to the coast, *P. elliotti* grow on slightly elevated lands surrounded by salt marshes and tidal creeks. Other canopy trees at Grand Bay NERR include *Quercus virginiana*, *Magnolia virginiana*, and *Taxodium ascendens*. The most common understory grass nearest to the coast is the halophytic grass *Spartina patens*.

The tree-ring width data for this study were used in a previous study, and four tree cores from that study were used to sample for tree-ring isotopic analysis Tucker et al. [2017]. Three 5.15 mm cores were taken from each tree during summer 2016 using a lubricated Haglöf increment borer (*i.e.*, using beeswax and WD-40), and they were mounted and sanded with progressively finer grit sizes (ANSI 120, 220, 320, 400) to reveal clear ring boundaries in the wood Stokes and Smiley [1968]. The tree cores were visually crossdated that was assessed for quality using the computer program dplr (Appendix B) Bunn [2008]. Each of the final tree cores was measured to produce ring-width series for total, latewood, and earlywood ring widths.

#### 3.2.2 Sampling for Isotopic Analysis

Tree-ring carbon isotope chronologies were formed for four trees (Figure 3.1, numbers 9, 20, 23, and 25). Tree cores were sampled for years 1996–2015 (n=20) because during that period, three hurricanes brought substantial storm surge (>2.5 m) to Grand Bay NERR: Hurricanes Georges (1998), Katrina (2005), and Gustav (2008) Needham and Keim [2012].



FIGURE 3.1: Aerial photo of the study site on a salt panne island and location of trees sampled. Photo colors are exaggerated to discern the different ecosystems present near the coast. Green area depicts the mostly freshwater ecosystem similar to inland pine savannas bordered closely by a fringe of sandy, unvegetated land (grayish-white), all of which is surrounded by salt marsh (unmodified gray color). Numbers indicate the tree number recorded chronologically in the field. Color scale of points denotes age of the tree. Image taken from Tucker et al. [2017].



FIGURE 3.2: Micromill setup used in this study. The larger-scale image (left) shows the general setup with a stereoscope, Dremel tool, and manual sliding stage holding a tree core. Zooming into a similar image (right) shows the milling bit, core holder, and the milled section of tree core 23B used in this study. Note that the tree core is held at an angle because the tree rings within the core are not at a right angle to the core.

For the samples in this study, a manual micromill was used to obtain wood powder from each ring (Figure 3.2). A manual micromill was preferred because ring boundaries were often curved and irregular. The Dremel milling tool was mounted below a stereoscope so the user could see each individual ring to be drilled. The core was mounted into a manual slide stage that allows the core to move in four cardinal directions. The drill bit was often wider than individual tree rings (>1.0 mm), so each ring was milled at 5,000 RPM, not drilled, into a fine powder that was collected into 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tubes. If the ring was larger than the drill bit, the ring was milled using multiple passes parallel to the next ring boundary. After each individual ring was drilled and stored, the work space was cleaned with pressurized air before sampling the next ring. Whole wood stable isotopes have shown to differ from wood cellulose in response to climate parameters, so each sample was processed to obtain  $\alpha$ -cellulose Loader et al. [2003]; McCarroll and Loader [2004]; Gori et al. [2013]. The chemical processing used in this study is a modified version of the Brendel method combined with holocellulose extraction Brendel et al. [2000]; Anchukaitis et al. [2008]. The final chemical processing method used in this study was designed by Adam Csank at the University of Nevada, Reno, and it is described here in more detail.

To first remove lignin from the cellulose, the samples were soaked in a bleaching solution formed from a dilute mixture of sodium chlorite and acetic acid. After a rinse of ethanol and deionized water, sodium hydroxide was added for a limited time to remove holocellulose, and then hydrochloric acid was added quickly to neutralize the matrix before the entire cellulose sample could be consumed. Between each step, samples were centrifuged, and the liquid matrix was removed from the sample before the next chemical addition. A final ethanol rinse was applied to the sample to hasten the drying process prior to weighing.

The remaining  $\alpha$ -cellulose powder was weighed on a microbalance to the nearest  $\mu$ -gram and packed into tin capsules. Samples were sent to the Stable Isotope Facility at the University of California, Davis for  $\delta^{13}$ C using a PDZ Europa 20-20 isotope ratio mass spectrometer coupled with a PDZ Europa ANCA-GSL elemental analyzer (Sercon, Cheshire, UK). Analytical precision was based on repeat analysis of seven internal lab reference materials that were previously calibrated against international reference materials. The mean standard deviation of the lab reference materials replicates (n=49) in this project was 0.06% for  $\delta^{13}$ C. The long term lab standard deviation is 0.2% for <sup>13</sup>C. Mean absolute accuracy for calibrated reference materials was within 0.05% for  $\delta^{13}$ C.

Each tree-ring carbon isotope series normalized because the average  $\delta^{13}$ C varied among trees. Differences in has been noted previouslyMcCarroll and Loader [2004]. The normalized data were averaged to form one averaged  $\delta^{13}$ C chronology to account for any aberrations that one tree may hold. Averaged isotope chronologies created from four trees was common for previous studies Leavitt [2010]; Loader et al. [2013]; Csank et al. [2016].

To ensure that the tree-ring carbon isotopic data were not biased by the Suess Effect, they were also detrended for atmospheric changes in carbon isotopes. The Suess Effect describes the change in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> carbon isotopic ratios due to the increase in fossil fuel burning during the past two centuries Revelle and Suess [1957]; Cain and Suess [1976]; Keeling [1979]. McCarroll and Loader [2004] suggest that when removing the Suess Effect, it is also useful to represent the tree-ring carbon isotopic values as they are related to processes during photosynthesis.  $\Delta^{13}C_{plant}$  represents carbon isotope discrimination, such that

$$\Delta^{13}C_{plant} = \frac{\delta^{13}C_{atmosphere} - \delta^{13}C_{plant}}{1 - (\delta^{13}C_{plant}/1000)}$$

in which  $\delta^{13}C_{atmosphere}$  is the carbon isotopic composition of the atmosphere for that year, and  $\delta^{13}C_{plant}$  is the carbon isotope ratio of the plant measured from the tree rings. Values for  $\delta^{13}C_{atmosphere}$  were obtained from McCarroll and Loader [2004] up until 2004 and from White and Vaughn [2011] up to 2011 White et al. [2011]. Values for 2012–2015 were obtained by extending the curve fitted to the 1950–2011 atmospheric  $\delta^{13}$ C values forward in time.

#### 3.2.3 Climate-Isotope Analyses

SOI data are available on the National Centers for Environmental Information website via their teleconnections page NOAA [2018]. Precipitation values were accessed for 0.5° grid size from the Climate Research Unit (CRU) Time Series (TS) version 4.01 provided by the UK National Center for Atmospheric Science and University of East Anglia Harris et al. [2014]. Temperature and precipitation values were accessed for 4 km grid size from the PRISM Climate Group at Oregon State University Daly et al. [1997]. Additional divisional climate data were downloaded from NOAA for analyses with local monthly averaged data (Appendix A). Tree-ring carbon isotopic values were correlated with various monthly climate data variables using the online program KNMI Climate Explorer and a package from the R statistical programming environment (*TreeClim*) Bunn [2008]; Trouet and Van Oldenborgh [2013]; Team [2014]; Zang and Biondi [2015]. *TreeClim* allows the user to test the stability of any monthly climatic correlation through time using Pearson's product moment correlation (Appendix C). Correlation significance was tested at the 5% level, and response coefficients were bootstrapped 1000 times using random replacements of the initial data. Previous researchers show that the amount of water availability early in the growing season can be an important driver of tree growth Cleaveland et al. [2003]; Stahle et al. [2009]; Tucker et al. [2017]. Therefore, the tree-ring carbon isotopic values were compared to the monthly temporal window of the early growing season (January–June). This time interval also proved to contain the strongest correlations to the tree-ring carbon isotopic data.

KNMI Climate Explorer allows the user to input column-format data and compare those values to various climate indices and parameters. The user can also select the time interval for the analysis and the location of display for the spatial correlation. The CRU TS v4.01 data span years 1901–2017 at  $0.5^{\circ}$  resolution. They are derived from monthly observations of weather stations in land areas across the world. CRU TS v4.01 measurements are used frequently to show large spatial patterns between tree-ring studies and regional climate Preechamart et al. [2018]; Huang et al. [2019]; George and Esper [2019]. The PRISM (*i.e.*, Parameter-elevation Regressions on Independent Slopes Model) Climate data (4 km resolution; 1895–2017) are also a gridded product, and have been used in previous tree-ring analyses Salzer et al. [2009]; McCullough et al. [2017].

#### 3.3 Results

Four Grand Bay NERR *Pinus elliotti* tree cores were analyzed for  $\delta^{13}$ C differences and converted to  $\Delta^{13}$ C data to show patterns of moisture stress for years 1996–2015 (Figure 3.3). Raw data for this study have an average of -24.8‰( $\sigma$ =0.7), and they are similar to  $\delta^{13}$ C values in previous studies of carbon isotopic analysis (Appendix D; *e.g.*, Roden et al., [2005]), so it is assumed that hydrocarbons with similar carbon isotopic values used during field work (*i.e.*, beeswax and WD-40 White et al. [1998]; Kropf et al. [2010]; Schwartz et al. [2013]) and any heat generated by micromilling did not have a substantial effect on carbon isotopes in this study. Each analysis herein includes results for both  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\Delta^{13}$ C values.

The  $\delta^{13}$ C data trend negatively through time, while the  $\Delta^{13}$ C trend positively (Figure 3.3). This opposite trend is expected because the  $\Delta^{13}$ C formula creates positive values for  $\Delta^{13}$ C. Additionally, the  $\Delta^{13}$ C values appear smoothed because the Suess Effect has been removed.

For the two data sets, each individual series agrees with other series in the set. Average interseries correlations are r=0.64 (p<0.05) for  $\delta^{13}$ C values and r=0.43 (p<0.05) for  $\Delta^{13}$ C values. Marked decreases depicting higher moisture stress occur in 1999, 2006, and 2011, while peaks in the data indicating low moisture stress occur in years 2001, 2007, 2010, and 2014. Tree 25 has an average of 1% higher  $\Delta^{13}$ C than the other three trees at the site. Three missing data points (Tree 09, years 2006 and 2007; Tree 20, year 2015) occur due to lack of enough physical sample necessary for chemical processing.

Due to the low number of values in the data sets (n=20), Spearman's rank correlation was used to compare tree-ring carbon isotopic values with the Southern Oscillation Index (SOI). Only SOI values for the month of March are significantly related to tree-ring carbon isotope values (r=-0.47, p=0.04; Figure 3.4). This r value is the same for both  $\delta^{13}$ C values and  $\Delta^{13}$ C values because Spearman's rank correlation ranked each value the same throughout the two series. High SOI values indicate years of strong La Niña conditions, thus this negative correlation means that when  $\Delta^{13}$ C values are low (high moisture stress), La Niña conditions exist. Visual analysis of the short time series shows that the three lowest  $\Delta^{13}$ C values correspond with strong La Niña years (1999, 2006, and 2011). Additionally, weak La



FIGURE 3.3: Time series of carbon isotopes for *Pinus elliotti* 1996–2015.  $\delta^{13}$ C values (a) are included as well as  $\Delta^{13}$ C values (b), which have the Seuss Effect removed. Each tree-ring carbon isotope series is included (red=09, blue=20, yellow=23, and green=25) and the average of all series is plotted in black. Standard error bars are included for analytical precision.



FIGURE 3.4: Time series of Southern Oscillation Index (SOI) and tree-ring carbon isotopes for this study. These values of SOI are for the month of March (gray) compared to  $\delta^{13}$ C (a) and  $\Delta^{13}$ C (b) values (black). Note that the SOI axis in plot b is flipped for ease of comparison with  $\Delta^{13}$ C values.

Niña, normal, and El Niño conditions do not have an associated visual pattern of response with  $\Delta^{13}$ C values.

Tree-ring carbon isotopic values are correlated to CRU TS v4.01 averaged precipitation data for the months February–May at the 0.5° scale (Figure 3.5). Correlation values directly on the location of the site are greater than r=0.5 (p<0.05), and they are opposite but identical for both  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\Delta^{13}$ C values. The months of January and June were also significantly correlated to tree-ring carbon isotopic values, but when including them as additional months in this analysis, the area of correlation decreased slightly. Correlation remains significant throughout the northern GOM coast from the Mississippi River to the Florida panhandle, and the pattern extends further south through the state of Florida.

As an exploratory measure to determine their climate response through time, tree-ring carbon isotopic values for Grand Bay NERR were compared to nearby divisional climate



FIGURE 3.5: Spatial correlation of tree-ring carbon isotope values and precipitation (February–May) 1996–2015. Correlations with both  $\delta^{13}$ C (a) and  $\Delta^{13}$ C (b) values are shown. Red colors indicate positive correlations. The location of the study site is indicated by the black asterisk.

data to determine the relationship between isotopic values and climate parameters through time (Figure 3.6).  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\Delta^{13}$ C values were compared to the annual time interval that was found to be significant in spatial analyses (January–June), and both forms of tree-ring carbon isotope data show similar results. Relationships that were significant include precipitation, maximum average monthly temperature (TMAX), and minimum average monthly temperature (TMIN), the latter two being most stable through time. Precipitation is only significantly stable through the last decade of tree-ring carbon isotopic values (2006–2015) in which the relationship was positive for  $\Delta^{13}$ C, similarly to previous spatial analyses.

Relationships with TMIN were stronger than TMAX, and both variables are negatively correlated to  $\Delta^{13}$ C values. For all moving correlation analyses, correlation weakens and becomes non-significant in the middle of the record. Other annual time intervals were tested, but no other intervals showed stronger relationships than those discussed here. Additionally, no other climate variables tested (see Appendix A) showed stronger relationships than those depicted in Figures 3.5 and 3.6.

# 3.4 Discussion

Previous researchers suggest that tree growth declines at coastal sites because of moisture stress and lack of freshwater resources Doyle et al. [2007]; Raddi et al. [2009]; Tucker



FIGURE 3.6: Moving window correlation of tree-ring carbon isotope values and climate variables 1996–2015. Correlations with both  $\delta^{13}$ C (a) and  $\Delta^{13}$ C (b) values are shown. Each square represents the correlation coefficient for that window of time. The vertical axis represents the monthly window of correlation for each climate variable: total precipitation (PCP), maximum average monthly temperature (TMAX), and minimum average monthly temperature (TMIN). The horizontal axis shows the interval for the window through which the correlation analysis was conducted. Red colors indicate positive correlations, and blue colors indicate negative correlations. A white asterisk indicates statistical significance at p < 0.05.

et al. [2017]. Tree-ring carbon isotopic values are inherently linked to changes in stomatal conductance, which can be affected by moisture stress from soil moisture, precipitation, and high respiration. Results were produced for both  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\Delta^{13}$ C values. However, results are nearly identical for all analyses. Therefore, the discussion of the results will concentrate on  $\Delta^{13}$ C values, because they have been detrended to remove the Suess Effect, and they better represent processes within the tree as noted in Section 3.2.2.

Except for tree 25,  $\Delta^{13}$ C values are consistent among trees used in this study. Additionally, McCarroll and Loader [2004] noote that results of previous studies indicate mean shifts in tree-ring carbon stable isotopic ratios are not uncommon. Local site conditions that may have changed the assimilation of carbon isotopes in tree 25 include exogenous stress other than saltwater intrusion, higher availability of freshwater, or lower competition from other plants. Tree-ring  $\Delta^{13}$ C values for this study follow climatic changes at the site, particularly those climate variables associated with soil moisture (Figure 3.6). Additionally, isotopic values presented here are similar to values seen in other studies (*i.e.*, 15–18‰) Loader et al. [2003];
Nicklen et al. [2019], and the range of values is within normal carbon isotope ranges (1-3%) as presented in Leavitt [2010].

Tree-ring  $\Delta^{13}$ C values have been linked to teleconnections with ENSO globally, and these results agree with those studies Leavitt et al. [2002]; Schöngart et al. [2004]; Brienen et al. [2012]. The results of this study show that strong La Niña events are linked with declines in  $\Delta^{13}$ C values indicating increased moisture stress in the tree. Additionally, little relationship exists with neutral and El Niño conditions. As the Walker Circulation reverses in the central Pacific Ocean, winter storms increase and drought conditions improve in the following year Noel and Changnon [1998]; Mo and Schemm [2008]. More specifically, Mo and Schemm (2008) note that El Niño conditions are not as strongly associated with wet years as La Niña conditions are associated with dry years. Results of this study agree that La Niña years can be an important driver of moisture stress in drought years, while other phases of ENSO may not play as strong of a role in the wetness of the Southeast U.S. The large spatial signal also alludes to the fact that the  $\Delta^{13}$ C values are responding to a larger signal than simply localized precipitation (Figure 3.5).

Results of this study indicate a strong positive relationship between tree-ring  $\Delta^{13}$ C and precipitation at the site and extend into South Florida (Figure 3.5). During the monthly analysis period (February–May), frontal systems are responsible for bringing the majority of the rain occurring in this region during that time of the year Powell and Keim [2015]. A lack of correlation exists during the summer when convective systems dominate rain patterns in the region Mitchell et al. [2019]. Frontal rain early in the growing season is likely an important source of freshwater for these trees. Additionally, this correlation is likely driven by the past 10 years of analysis (2006–2015; Figure 3.6).

Previous work suggests that increased levels of precipitation in South Florida result in increased moisture stress in vegetation due to high water levels Ewe and Sternberg [2002, 2003]. Additionally, *Taxodium ascendens*  $\delta^{13}$ C at a nearby site in South Florida show negative correlations with precipitation Anderson et al. [2005]. *Taxodium ascendens* and *Pinus elliottii*, like those used in this study, typically grow together in similar habitats and environmental conditions Ewel [1995]. The two species may be physiologically responding to similar environmental conditions in different ways. Sandy soils prevalent in pine savannacypress dome environments allow water to percolate quickly, so trees are reliant on frequent precipitation in those systems Ford and Brooks [2003]. Additionally, the hydroperiodicity of flooding may be driving site differences rather than species differences. Trees for this study respond more similarly to the high salinity site in Anderson et al. [2005].

Tree-ring  $\Delta^{13}$ C values in this study also correlate with early growing season temperatures (Figure 3.6). These temperature correlations are likely representative of soil moisture conditions, because temperatures can regulate the loss of water through evaporation from the soil surface and can increase respiration of trees, especially at night Lloyd and Farquhar [2008]. Correlations with TMAX show that high daily temperatures likely cause moisture stress through rapid evapotranspiration, especially during dry spells. Correlations with TMIN show that high nighttime temperatures are likely associated with high respiration rates at night, suggesting that the tree is using more water than usual.

Finally, an increase in evaporation increases the concentration of macro- and micronutrients in the soil. Previous work shows that trees with increased fertilization saw reductions in  $\Delta^{13}$ C Cornejo-Oviedo et al. [2017]. Increased fertilization means the plant can respire more and will ultimately require more water. Recent researchers have shown that hurricane storm surge can increase phosphorous levels in the soil Castañeda-Moya et al. [2020], so the low value of  $\Delta^{13}$ C in 2006 for this study may also suggest that storm surge from an intense 2005 Atlantic Hurricane season (>7.0 m) may have increased nutrients before the drought conditions set in for 2006. Though Hurricane Katrina in 2005 was the largest storm surge on record for this region (Table 2.2), other years of storm surges >2.0 m at this site do not correspond to any substantial spikes in the  $\Delta^{13}$ C (*e.g.*, 1998, 2002, 2008).

### 3.5 Conclusions

Isotopic analysis of coastal tree rings is rare but useful for adding value to coastal dendrochronology. Tree-ring  $\Delta^{13}$ C values in this study show correlations to moisture stress through years 1996–2015. <sup>13</sup>C is most enriched in years following TC storm surges accompanied by drought conditions (*e.g.*, 2006), especially as they relate to ENSO. Spatial correlations for tree-ring  $\Delta^{13}$ C values exist for precipitation directly over the site. The combination of precipitation and high evaporation from higher-than-normal temperatures are both factors of moisture stress at the site.

Tree-ring width of the trees used in this study showed strong correlation to TC occurrences, but  $\Delta^{13}$ C values did not. Additionally, spatial correlations with temperature and  $\Delta^{13}$ C show that tree-ring carbon isotopic analysis can produce a wider spatial signal than ring widths. Tree-ring widths and tree-ring carbon isotopic values for this study and others show connections with ENSO, specifically that La Niña years correlate with moisture stress to trees in the northern GOM. Because TC storm surges may have affected the lowest  $\Delta^{13}$ C value in this study, it is possible that sites with different saltwater intrusion rates may show different results.

Greenhouse studies on the effects of saltwater intrusion to sapling  $\Delta^{13}$ C should be explored to best explain the dessicating effects of saltwater on tree-ring isotopic values. Additionally, future studies in colder coastal regions and in tropical coastal regions should focus on teleconnections from ENSO and also focus on varying drivers of moisture stress (*e.g.*, temperature versus precipitation). Future work should also confirm any intra-annual isotopic fluctuations, and sites with longer-living trees should be prioritized.

# Comparing Growth of Three Tree Species in Relation to Their Distance from the Coastline

### 4.1 Introduction

Long-term loss of coastal wetlands in Louisiana has converted 1,800 mi<sup>2</sup> of land to water for the period 1932–2010 Couvillion et al. [2011]. Since 2006, nearly 400 sites of the the Coastwide Reference Monitoring System (CRMS) have recorded soil, hydrology, and vegetation changes in coastal Louisiana Steyer et al. [2003]; Steyer [2010]. However, other than aerial imagery and niche study sites, little long-term information exists for the effects of northern GOM land loss, tropical cyclones (TCs), and salinity changes on coastal plant flora. However, tree-ring records can provide researchers with long-term proxy data of past environmental changes.

Coastal wetland trees are useful for dendrochronological applications, especially *Taxodium distichum* and *Pinus elliottii*, which can live for hundreds of years Brown [1996]; Stahle et al. [2012]. Previous studies have analyzed the effects of precipitation, temperature, saltwater inundation, and TCs on tree growth of coastal sites Ewel and Parendes [1984]; Doyle et al. [2007]; Harley et al. [2012]; Tucker et al. [2017]. Environmental and climatic factors are important not only to the trees at each site, but also to other mid- and understory vegetation crucial to providing habitat and holding together soils in the face of sea-level rise Atwater and Yamaguchi [1991]; Nyman et al. [2006]. Tree rings can be an important long-term footprint of the environmental conditions affecting an entire habitat Speer [2010].

Moisture stress in coastal trees comes as a result of lack of precipitation, high evapotranspiration, and the influx of salts from seawater. The Palmer Drought Severity Index (PDSI) was developed in 1965 to measure moisture stress, and it has been used extensively to describe patterns in moisture stress (according to Google Scholar, Palmer [1965] has been cited over 5,300 times). Drought indices like PDSI are important to tree growth because they represent the incoming and outgoing water in an ecosystem necessary for plant photosynthesis and respiration Palmer [1965]. Effects of drought have been explored in previous coastal and wetland dendrochronological studies Stahle et al. [1988]; Henderson and Grissino-Mayer [2009]; Harley et al. [2011].

40% of people in the U.S. live in counties or parishes adjacent to coastal systems, and those areas are frequently abound with anthropogenic modification Small and Nicholls [2003]. Some efforts aim to keep the sea at bay while others allow a natural flow of tidal waters. Past researchers have identified numerous anthropogenic sources of tree growth changes in nearcoastal environments Ragsdale and Berish [1988]; Rakowski et al. [2008]. Future change of coastal landcapes relies on past environmental data as an analog for future predictions, and tree-ring data can produce long-term chronologies linked to changes in their environment Doyle et al. [2010]. To assess long-term changes in coastal environments of the northern GOM, I compare tree-ring chronologies of three study sites with differing distance to the coastline.

### 4.1.1 Study Sites

Study site characteristics have proved to be important factors to finding trees that were sensitive to environmental parameters (see Chapters 2 and 3). Therefore, each study site used in this Chapter is mapped and described in detail (Figure 4.1). General climate data were gathered online from the Southern Regional Climate Center (srcc.lsu.edu).

Doyle's Bayou (30.68°N, 91.11°W; Figure 4.2) is a public park in northern East Baton Rouge Parish, Louisiana, more than 80 km from any saline bodies of water. Doyle's Bayou is currently the site of an urban forest restoration initiative to convert local open fields to closed-canopy forest. The tree cores collected at this site were collected through a Louisiana Sea Grant collaborative project (LSU Coastal Roots) initially designed to bring middle- and high-school students into their local environment in hopes of restoring the site Somers [2005]; Karsh et al. [2009]; Coker et al. [2010]. Average summer high (winter low) temperatures are 32.5°C (4.5°C), and average annual total precipitation is 160 cm.



FIGURE 4.1: Location of study sites used in this chapter.



FIGURE 4.2: Location of Doyle's Bayou trees. Numbers indicate the order of tree cores taken in the field.



FIGURE 4.3: Forest structure at Doyle's Bayou. Note the dense midstory blocking light from allowing ground cover to grow.

The bottomland hardwood forest at Doyle's Bayou (Figure 4.3) shades the ground heavily during the growing season when the broadleaf deciduous trees produce leaves. Dominant canopy species include *Quercus nigra*, *Liquidambar styraciflua*, and *Celtis occidentalis*. Common midstory plants include *Carpinus caroliniana* and *Ligustrum sinense* among numerous unidentified vine species.

Gulf State Park (GSP; 30.26°N, 87.64°W; Figure 4.4) covers 6,000 acres located near Orange Beach, Alabama, where three freshwater lakes are surrounded by pine savanna and freshwater wetland plants. At this site, *Pinus elliottii* grow less than 500 meters from the open GOM. Between the trees and the GOM is a beach-dune system often accompanied by large condominium buildings. The nearby freshwater lakes have been used to reconstruct hurricane storm surge for the past 6,000 years using sedimentary records Liu and Fearn [1993]. Liu and Fearn (1993) found that large storm surges producing overwash into the freshwater lakes occurs at least once every 600 years. Modern instrumental records show that, other



FIGURE 4.4: Location of Gulf State Park trees. Numbers indicate the order of tree cores taken in the field.

than southern Florida, nearby Pensacola Beach is the most active landfalling location for major hurricanes in the 20th century in the U.S. Keim et al. [2007]. Average summer high (winter low) temperatures are 32°C (5°C), and average annual total precipitation is 165 cm.

In lines running parallel to the beach, hummocks of higher ground rise above hollow wetlands as relict beach dunes. Pine trees frequently occur on raised hummocks above flooded wetlands (Figure 4.5). Ground cover plants beneath *P. elliottii* included *Morella cer-ifera*, *Baccharis halimifolia*, *Sabal minor*, *Thelypteris palustris*, and the lichen *Usnea florida*. Flooded locations near the lakes also included *Cladium jamaicense* and *Typha* spp. Exposed soil surfaces often indicated the presence of white sand (Figure 4.5).

LaBranche Wetlands (30.00°N, 90.30°W; Figure 4.6) is a privately owned tract of land located west of New Orleans, Louisiana. It is also bordered by the Mississippi River to the south, brackish Lake Pontchartrain to the north, and Bonnet Carré Spillway to the west. The CRMS station number 2830 shows salinity during the mean growing season (May–October) is 0.26 parts per thousand (ppt), but salinity can be as high as 7.0 ppt during hurricane storm



FIGURE 4.5: The hummock-hollow topography at Gulf State Park. Note that the pine savanna plant community grows on higher ground (right), and surface soil is often white sand (foreground).



FIGURE 4.6: Location of LaBranche Wetlands trees. Numbers indicate the order of tree cores taken in the field.

surge inundation. *Taxodium distichum* tree rings at Bonnet Carré spillway nearby have been used to explore the effects of high water inputs during Mississippi River floods Day et al. [2012]. Average summer high (winter low) temperatures are 33°C (7°C), and average annual total precipitation is 163 cm.

*Taxodium distichum* grow in regions of LaBranche Wetlands furthest from Lake Pontchartrain, while halophytic plants grow near the lake indicating its brackish tendencies. Freshwater swamps and brackish marshes intersect and combine in one site used for this study, which is located near the intersection of Interstates 10 and 310 (29.99°N, 90.30°W). For the site labeled "coastal", *T. distichum* trees show signs of growth stress including low stem density, low crown density, lack of regeneration, and low stem diameter (Figure 1.8). Understory vegetation at the coastal site is comprised almost entirely of *Spartina patens* and *Juncus roemarianus*. Plant species richness and diversity is higher in the "inland" site (Figure 1.7). Other tree species include *Nyssa aquatica*, *Acer rubrum* var. *drummondii*, and the non-native *Triadica sebifera*. Common understory species at the inland site include *Sagittaria lancifolia*, *Iris giganticaerulea*, *Hydrocotle* spp., and numerous undefined submerged aquatic vegetation species.

### 4.2 Materials and Methods

Tree-ring data for LaBranche Wetlands, Gulf State Park, and Doyles Bayou were collected in April 2018, May 2018, and January 2019, respectively. The Doyle's Bayou tree cores were collected by citizen scientists from the Coastal Roots program at Louisiana State University Somers [2005]; Karsh et al. [2009]; Coker et al. [2010].

### 4.2.1 Tree-Ring Data

For all three sites, two cores per tree were obtained to reduce within-tree error. Tree cores were mounted to wooden mounts with tracheids in vertical growth position and sanded with successively finer grit sandpaper so that ring boundaries were clearly visible Stokes and Smiley [1968]; Speer [2010]. Each core was visually crossdated at 10X magnification, and cores were scanned and measured to the nearest 0.01 mm using the computer software CooRecorder. Cores that contained missing wood, did not visually crossdate, or were otherwise in poor condition were not included in final analysis. In combination, the computer programs CDendro, COFECHA, and the dplr package in R statistical programming environment were used to assess the quality of visual crossdating. To produce ring-width index chronologies, each tree-ring width series was detrended, and all series from a single site were averaged together. All chronologies used in this study were developed in dplr using interactive detrending. Doyle's Bayou and Gulf State Park trees were individually detrended using a negative exponential spline (method = "ModNegExp" in dplr) because the raw ring widths at those sites exhibited a traditional age-related growth trend. Trees at LaBranche Wetlands were individually detrended using their mean growth value (method = "Mean" in dplr) because they did not express an age-related growth trend, and ultimately because those trees show a relationship with pulse-based river flooding and not long-term climate parameters.

### 4.2.2 Climate-Tree Growth Analyses

Ring-width index chronologies were correlated with various monthly climate data variables using the online program KNMI Climate Explorer and the *TreeClim* package from the R statistical programming environment Trouet and Van Oldenborgh [2013]; Team [2014]; Zang and Biondi [2015]. *TreeClim* allows the user to test the stability of any monthly climatic correlation through time using Pearson's product moment correlation. Correlation significance was tested at p<0.05 level, and response coefficients were bootstrapped 1000 times using random replacements of the initial data. KNMI Climate Explorer allows the user to input column-format data and compare those values to various climate indices and parameters. The user can also select the time interval for the analysis and the location of display for the spatial correlation.

The CRU TS v4.01 data used in KNMI Climate Explorer span years 1901-2018 at  $0.5^{\circ}$  resolution. CRU TS v4.01 data used in this chapter include average maximum monthly temperatures, average minimum monthly temperatures, monthly precipitation totals, and PDSI. They are derived from monthly observations of weather stations in land areas across the world. CRU TS v4.01 measurements have been used in previous research to show large spatial patterns between tree-ring chronologies and regional climate Preechamart et al. [2018]; Huang et al. [2019]; George and Esper [2019]. For use in *TreeClim*, divisional data were downloaded from a NOAA website (*e.g.*, Appendix A). Mississippi River monthly average discharge data for Tarbert Landing span the length of the tree-ring record used in this study,

and they are complete for the entire time interval. These river discharge data are available from the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers website rivergages.com. Periods of analysis are described for each site in the Results section, and only statistically significant correlations (p<0.05) were reported.

### 4.3 Results

Results for this chapter include sites from two different coastal plant community characteristics: a beach pine savanna 500 meters from the GOM (Gulf State Park) and a cypress swamp located atop peat soils (LaBranche Wetlands). Additionally, an urban, inland site (Doyles Bayou, Baton Rouge, LA) is also included for comparison to the coastal sites.

#### 4.3.1 Doyle's Bayou

Eight Quercus nigra tree cores of the available 18 (44%) were successfully crossdated for Doyle's Bayou for years 1973–2018 (Appendix E). Series intercorrelation and average mean sensitivity are r=0.52 and r=0.27, respectively. After detrending, *Q. nigra* at Doyle's Bayou show low variation in growth, except for a peak in 2002 (Figure 4.7). Visually, the 50% spline (red line) follows a 10–12 year pattern, and wavelet analysis confirms that this periodicity has a high power for the data set. However, the period of record for these data limits the statistical significance of this result.

The three lowest growth years occur in 1993, 2006, and 2009. Those years also represent the first year following the passage of three major hurricanes directly over the study site: Hurricanes Andrew (1992), Katrina (2005), and Gustav (2008). Those three hurricanes tracked from the southeastern Gulf of Mexico, and they recurved upon landfall. Two of them (Andrew and Katrina) made an initial landfall in South Florida, and their wind speeds near the site reached 54.0, 41.2, and 43.7 ms<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Figure 4.8). In nearby Lake Maurepas (25 miles to the east), each of those hurricanes also brought storm surge (1.5, 1.6, and 3.0 m, respectively) to the region indicating their power at the time of passage over Baton Rouge.



FIGURE 4.7: Ring-width index (RWI) of Doyle's Bayou Quercus nigra 1973–2018 (gray line). Red line is the 50% spline of the ring-width data within a 5-year moving window. The gray polygon in the background represents the sample depth for that given year. Vertical dashed lines indicate the three largest hurricanes impacting the site (Figure 4.8).

Aside from the three hurricanes corresponding to low growth in the tree-ring record, the Doyle's Bayou Q. nigra show little relationship to climate variables. Only one relationship had significantly strong relationships to growth: summer maximum temperatures. Spatial correlation of PRISM mean maximum monthly temperatures averaged for summer months (June–August) are negatively correlated to tree growth at Doyle's Bayou (Figure 4.9). This relationship is strongest (r>-0.5, p<0.05) near the study site, though the relationship shows correlation throughout the Southeast U.S.

### 4.3.2 Gulf State Park

Twenty *Pinus elliotti* var. *elliottii* tree cores of the available 34 (59%) were successfully crossdated for Gulf State Park (GSP) for years 1921–2017 (Appendix F). Series intercorrelation and average mean sensitivity are r=0.55 and r=0.38, respectively. Expressed population signal remains above 0.85 for years 1928–2017.

Following a peak of growth in the 1920s, tree-ring width is below average during the 1940s and 1950s (Figure 4.10). A twenty-year trend increases during the 1960s and 1970s,



FIGURE 4.8: Tracks of hurricanes impacting Doyle's Bayou (red circle). Tracks are color coded to their wind speed intensity at time of passage over the study site (darkest = most intense). Note that the maximum wind speed at the study site does not match the maximum wind speed of the hurricane at landfall.



FIGURE 4.9: Spatial correlation of Doyle's Bayou ring-width index and TMAX. TMAX is averaged maximum monthly temperatures for months June–August (1973–2018). Blue colors indicate negative correlations. The location of the study site is indicated by the black asterisk.



FIGURE 4.10: Ring-width index (RWI) of Gulf State Park *Pinus elliotti* 1921–2017 (gray line). Red line is the 50% spline of the ring-width data within a 10-year moving window. The gray polygon in the background represents the sample depth for that given year.

and growth drops to its lowest point after 2000. During the 2006 season, growth drops to its lowest point within the entire series and gradually increases until 2017. Years with lowest growth include 1935, 1937, 1963, 2001, 2006, and 2007, while highest-growth years include 1928, 1965, 1970–71, and 1984. Substantial TCs brought >2.0 m storm surge to the site during Hurricanes Betsy (1965), Camille (1969), Frederic (1979), Georges (1998), and Katrina-Dennis (2005). Some, but not all, of those TC years correspond with low growth in subsequent years. However, none of the TC years correspond with a dramatic increase in growth the following year.

Strongest moving window correlations show that GSP tree growth agrees with drought measurements, specifically the Palmer Drought Severity Index (PDSI; Figure 4.11). Significant correlations with PDSI are positive, showing that wetter periods correlate with higher growth. Longest interval of significant correlations with PDSI exist for the current year February, but stronger correlations exist for previous year summers (June, July, August). However, all correlations are significant only for moving windows within years 1951–2017. Additionally, the highest correlations exist when years 1998–2006 are included in the analysis.



FIGURE 4.11: Moving correlation of Gulf State Park tree-ring width and PDSI 1928–2017. Each square represents the correlation coefficient for that window of time. The vertical axis represents the monthly window of correlation for PDSI. "prev" indicates that month for the previous year, and "curr" indicates that month for the current year. The horizontal axis shows the interval for the window through which the correlation analysis was conducted. Red colors indicate positive correlations, and blue colors indicate negative correlations. A white asterisk indicates statistical significance at p < 0.05.

Drought indices are based on calculations of incoming and outgoing water availability, and these two factors are often controlled by precipitation and temperature, therefore the GSP tree-ring widths were also compared to precipitation (PCP) and maximum average monthly temperatures (TMAX; Figure 4.12). Correlations with PCP are largely positive, while correlations with TMAX are negative with the exception of positive correlations early in the period of record with current April. Correlations with TMAX are stronger and last through larger portions of the time interval than PCP.

The most stable relationships with PCP exist for winter months (previous December, January, and February). The stability in TMAX relationship exists for summer months for both previous and current year (June, July, and August). High summer temperatures correspond with lower growth for that given year. Earlier in the record, significant TMAX correlations exist for the month of August. Through the period of record the correlation with TMAX shifts earlier in the year. The strongest correlations with TMAX exist in the years 1977–2017 for June.

### 4.3.3 LaBranche Wetlands

Seventeen Taxodium distichum inland tree cores of the available 32 (53%), and nineteen of the available coastal cores (63%) were successfully crossdated for the LaBranche Wetlands for years 1895–2017 (Appendix H). Series intercorrelation and average mean sensitivity for inland trees are r=0.42 and r=0.57, respectively, and r=0.42 and r=0.51 for coastal trees. The two sites follow similar patterns, but the year-to-year variability is slightly lower in the coastal trees. Expressed population signal remains above 0.85 for years 1932–2017.

Tree-ring series for the LaBranche Wetlands do not show a typical negative exponential growth decrease as seen in many tree species in relation to a geometrically-caused age-related growth trend (Figure 4.13). Many individual tree-ring width series show growth increase in 1930s and 1940s. Older trees (established before 1930) show a trend that is not apparent in younger trees. Additionally, after 1994, all series show a decreased variability.



FIGURE 4.12: Moving correlation of Gulf State Park tree-ring width PCP and TMAX 1928–2017. (a) PCP is the monthly precipitation totals, and (b) TMAX is the averaged monthly maximum temperatures. Each square represents the correlation coefficient for that window of time. The vertical axis represents the monthly window of correlation for the climate variables. "prev" indicates that month for the previous year, and "curr" indicates that month for the current year. The horizontal axis shows the interval for the window through which the correlation analysis was conducted. Red colors indicate positive correlations, and blue colors indicate negative correlations. A white asterisk indicates statistical significance at p < 0.05.



FIGURE 4.13: Raw ring-width index of inland *Taxodium distichum* at LaBranche Wetlands 1910–2018. Each black line represents a series from that site, and they are labelled on the vertical axis.



FIGURE 4.14: Ring-width index (RWI) of LaBranche Wetlands Taxodium distichum for (a) inland and (b) coastal trees 1973–2018 (gray line). Red line is the 50% spline of the ring-width data within a (a) 10-year and (b) 12-year moving window. The gray polygon in the background represents the sample depth for that given year.

The two sites at LaBranche Wetlands span a similar time interval (1911–2017). An abrupt increase in sample size for the inland site (Figure 4.14a) shows that tree sapling establishment occurred rapidly between 1930–1940, whereas the establishment in the coastal site occurred through a longer time interval. Growth does not follow a typical negative exponential agerelated trend. Highest growth rates occur concurrently with highest establishment rates. However, many individual series show growth increases during that period as well, therefore it is assumed that the high growth concurrent with establishment is not due to age-related growth trends. Growth declines through the 1950s and 1960s and hits a low point in 1966 for both sites. Another rapid growth decline occurs through the 1990s with growth falling to its lowest levels in the late 2000s. For both series, growth increases after 2010. Few correlations exist between LaBranche tree growth and environmental factors, but Mississippi River discharge near the site shows a strong relationship (Figure 4.15). In the early part of the record, the (b) inland trees show significant positive correlations to spring river flooding, but this relationship is not stable through time. However, the coastal site shows significant positive correlations to river flooding throughout the record. The correlation shifts from a summer (June/July) in the early part of the record to winter/spring (January/February) later in the record.

### 4.4 Discussion

Plant communities for study sites vary widely, but trees at each site correlate to environmental parameters important to coastal tree growth. At the site furthest from the coast (Doyle's Bayou), Q. nigra growth shows substantial decreases in growth following years of intense TCs. These trees are too far inland (>100 km) to experience any coastal storm surge flooding. However, wind damage likely affected these trees. In previous research, *Quercus* species show substantially more damage evidence from high wind events than coniferous species, and of those species, Q. nigra expresses the most damage Sharitz et al. [1993]; Shirakura et al. [2006]. More specifically, damage during wind events to *Quercus* species was largely the result of limb damage and removal, and largest trees sustained the most damage Gresham et al. [1991]. As limb damage occurs, the tree must first repair its wounds before resuming growth in the stem. At Doyle's Bayou, trees were selected based on their large size, so the trees used in this study were likely heavily affected by high wind speeds from TCs in 1992, 2005, and 2008.

Doyle's Bayou trees are also negatively correlated to summer maximum monthly temperatures, and the large spatial signal shows that weather patterns are likely similar throughout the region (Figure 4.9). Trees from every study site in this Dissertation show a similar relationship. Previous studies have discussed the importance of temperature to moisture stress Wilson and Luckman [2002]; Youngblut and Luckman [2008]; Williams et al. [2013], but few



FIGURE 4.15: Moving correlation of *Taxodium distichum* and Mississippi River discharge at the Carrollton gauge for (a) inland and (b) coastal tree-ring width 1932–2017. Each square represents the correlation coefficient for that window of time. The vertical axis represents the monthly window of correlation for the climate variables. "prev" indicates that month for the previous year, and "curr" indicates that month for the current year. The horizontal axis shows the interval for the window through which the correlation analysis was conducted. Red colors indicate positive correlations, and blue colors indicate negative correlations. A white asterisk indicates statistical significance at p < 0.05.

explored this relationship in the Southeast U.S. Results throughout this Dissertation show that maximum temperatures during the hottest part of the growing season are an important factor driving tree growth in the Southeast U.S.

Largest drops in growth for Gulf State Park *Pinus elliottii* are associated with periods of combined moisture stress and TC occurrences. Previous researchers showed that TCs cause tree growth suppressions in subsequent years Trouet et al. [2016]; Tucker et al. [2017]. After Hurricane Georges in 1998 and Hurricanes Katrina and Dennis in 2005, drought years of 1999–2000 and 2006 occurred. Unlike findings in Tucker et al. [2017], hurricane storm surge measurements alone do not describe other reductions in tree growth at Gulf State Park, but the drop in growth following 2005 is substantially larger than any other drops in growth during the record.

Gulf State Park tree growth shows strong agreement with PDSI in coastal Alabama (r>0.75; Figure 4.11). Correlations are only statistically significant for months of analysis in the previous year PDSI values. Studies have shown that tree growth is frequently correlated to precipitation in the previous fall because the precipitation of the previous year is stored in the ground until the trees need it in the following year's growing season Graumlich [1987]; Henderson and Grissino-Mayer [2009]; Martin-Benito et al. [2013].

Further exploring this relationship shows that both precipitation and temperature are important factors to tree growth at Gulf State Park (Figure 4.12). As postulated in previous studies, tree growth is low in soils with low water-holding capacities (*i.e.*, sandy), and those trees are most sensitive to moisture stress Palik and Pederson [1996]; Stephenson [1998]; Mitchell et al. [1999]; Ford and Brooks [2003]. Additionally, high summer temperatures are an important factor of *Pinus elliottii* at other sites in the Southeast U.S. as well Henderson and Grissino-Mayer [2009]; Harley et al. [2011].

LaBranche Wetlands *T. distichum* agree with previous studies that cypress trees are useful for dendrochronological analysis. However, *T. distichum* in this Dissertation show correlations with specific environmental parameters when other sites do not. The interseries correlation for trees in this study is near the range of previous tree-ring research on T. distichum  $(r\simeq 0.47)$  Stahle et al. [1985]. Many tree-ring series in this study show higher correlations during assessment of crossdating accuracy, though those proved to be spurious during visual reanalysis. Ultimately, non-quantitative measurements (*e.g.*, tree-ring color, false ring presence, density fluctuations) were helpful in final crossdating.

The ring-width series of the two different sites (coastal and inland) show similar patterns of growth, and most individual tree-ring series show high growth variability at a young age, but no age-related exponential growth trend emerged for these trees. Growth of T. *distichum* saplings frequently shows the presence of false-rings, and periodically flooded saplings show more growth variability Young et al. [1993]. Additionally, a common signal in the 1990s may also be responsible for a stabilization of tree growth as seen in Figure 4.13. Future dendrochronological analysis on T. *distichum* should focus on false-ring formation to determine if they correspond to specific environmental factors.

Logging evidence at both LaBranche Wetlands sites is prevalent. Large (>1.5 m diameter) snags and stumps are present, and few trees older than 120 years can be found at the sites. Additionally, the Louisiana cypress logging industry would have been active during the late 1800s when the oldest trees appear at LaBranche Wetlands Bull [1949]; Conner et al. [1986]. Growth peaks in the 1930s may indicate young trees that were rapidly taking advantage of low competition at the time. The slower establishment rate of trees at the coastal site may indicate stressful conditions caused by higher salinity levels similar to results of sapling T. distichum studies of the past Conner [1994]; Allen et al. [1997].

Unlike previous results, the tree growth at LaBranche Wetlands shows no correlations with TCs, but the coastal site shows strong correlations with Mississippi River discharge (Figure 4.15). Correlations exist most consistently with the months just before the growing season (current January–March) when Mississippi River levels are generally at their highest. Correlations for the inland site are weaker and less consistent. Previous researchers show that the trees at a coastal site are likely more stressed by salinity than those further inland Raddi et al. [2009], thus the coastal trees may be responding to Mississippi River discharge more than the inland trees because they are more stressed.

Coastal trees at LaBranche Wetlands likely rely more on annual freshwater river flows to displace saltwater from Lake Pontchartrain. However, the Mississippi River has not been connected to coastal forests since the 1930s when its banks received levees. The LaBranche data support a hypothesis that the Mississippi River and its contents have widespread effects in Southern Louisiana. The massive amounts of freshwater, nutrients, and sediments within the Mississippi River get spread throughout the GOM, affecting all hydrology and landscape changes in the region Walker et al. [1994]; Rabalais et al. [2002]; Walker et al. [2005]. In other words, plant growth is not only affected directly by changes in the river, but also indirectly by changing GOM salinity, coastal sea level, and land loss/gain. The trees at LaBranche Wetlands are connected to this system through the estuarine Lake Pontchartrain.

The Mississippi River-Gulf Outlet Canal (MRGO) was built as an effort to create a more efficient pathway for ship traffic to travel from New Orleans to the GOM Freudenburg et al. [2009]. Construction of the MRGO was completed in 1968, and because of ship wake and wind-induced waves, by 2005 it was four times wider than it was constructed van Heerden et al. [2009]. Salinity levels increased dramatically during that time to nearby estuarine Lakes Pontchartrain and Borgne Tate et al. [2002]. Eventually, the MRGO would be blamed for increasing flood heights during Hurricane Katrina brought about by marsh degredation Day et al. [2007]. In 2009, the MRGO was closed to ship traffic, and salinity levels in Lake Pontchartrain decreased Poirrier [2013].

For the trees in this Dissertation, *T. distichum* begins a sharp decline in growth during the 1960s when the MRGO was being constructed and salinity levels began to rise in Lake Pontchartrain. Additionally, the results in this Dissertation show that after 2009 when the MRGO was closed, tree growth increases, and tree growth reaches a maximum for the entire time interval in 2017 for the inland site (Figure 4.14). A previous study has shown similar effects to trees in nearby Bonnet Carré spillway Day et al. [2012], though that study does not extend to 2009 when recovery likely began.

### 4.5 Conclusions

Tree-ring chronologies in this Chapter show correlations with important coastal climatic processes. High winds from TCs affect *Quercus nigra* likely due to damage to the crown limbs of trees. Precipitation is an important factor to tree growth at all three sites, but high summer temperatures are equally important to controlling moisture stress at those sites. Freshwater resources are crucial to coastal wetland *Taxodium distichum* at LaBranche Wetlands. Nearby Mississippi River flow is an important part of the incoming freshwater, but anthropogenic modifications can also affect tree growth at the site by influencing salinity.

# Conclusions

Results of this Dissertation show that wetland trees in coastal environments have important patterns of growth related to moisture stress, tropical cyclones, and saltwater inundation. The methods used in this Dissertation are generally traditional for tree-ring science, but their application is focused in new areas. Additionally, field methods in these studies have an important impact on analyses between coastal tree growth and environmental controls. The vulnerability of any system (at any scale) is a function of the exposure and sensitivity of that system to any hazardous condition, as well as the ability or capacity of the system to cope with and adapt from the effects of that condition Parry [2002]. Coastal trees are important sentinel species for determining the impact of climatic controls on vegetation and wildlife habitat. This final Chapter discusses major findings, offers suggestions for coastal/wetland land managers, and provides ideas for supplemental work to be completed in the future.

### 5.1 Research Summary

A wide variety of tree species are used for coastal dendrochronology in this study indicating that coastal tree-ring science relies on the influence of abiotic factors (*e.g.*, moisture stress, TCs). Additionally, year-to-year variability (*i.e.*, average mean sensitivity) for each master chronology is higher than most chronologies in the Southeast U.S. Visual crossdating frequently relied on non-quantitative measures (*e.g.*, ring color, intra-annual density fluctuations, earlywood-latewood fade). Therefore, series intercorrelations were low and crossdating verification aided in removing numerous cores whose growth did not match well with its sisters. However, those tree-ring width series used in final master chronologies showed strong correlation to logical environmental parameters (*e.g.*, precipitation, evaporative summer temperatures).

Coastal trees that are sensitive to their environment are often accompanied by mid- and understory plant species that are salt tolerant. On the Gulf of Mexico coastline, those plants frequently include *Spartina patens*, *Baccharis halimifolia*, and *Juncus roemarianus*. Identifying plants before choosing a study site location is crucial to finding locales that are affected by saltwater inundation. In locations where saltwater stress is high, new species (*e.g.*, *Taxodium ascendens*) may show their usefulness to dendrochronology.

At Grand Bay NERR, *T. ascendens* shows similar growth patters to previously published *Pinus elliottii* located nearby. Tropical cyclones are an important factor to tree growth at the site causing trees to suppress growth in years following intense storm surges (>2.0 m). The stressed *T. ascendens* also shows correlation with factors controlling moisture stress, especially during hottest summer months. Maximum July temperatures likely increase evapotranspiration and plant respiration, which reduces water availability at the site. In contrast, warm Septembers at the site are linked to higher growth, likely due to the fact that a warm autumnal season can extend the growing season.

The nearby *P. elliottii* at Grand Bay NERR added to their value by way of tree-ring carbon isotopic analysis. Tree-ring carbon isotopes at Grand Bay NERR show strong correlation with precipitation near the site, and the relationship extends throughout the region and into South Florida. Further exploring the data showed that both temperature and precipitation are likely responsible for moisture stress to these trees. Tree-ring  $\Delta^{13}$ C values varied similarly to that of ENSO during the 20-year period. <sup>13</sup>C is enriched during strong La Niña events, and little relationship exists for neutral or El Niño conditions.

Finally, three different study sites show important implications for climate stress to tree species occupying different habitats. Doyle's Bayou *Quercus nigra* showed substantial decreases in growth following intense tropical cyclone wind speeds near the site. Gulf State Park *P. elliottii* correlated with PDSI, and LaBranche Wetlands *T. distichum* correlated with Mississippi River discharge. All three sites showed that maximum summer temperatures were equally as important as a lack of precipitation for moisture stress on the trees. LaBranche Wetlands also showed evidence of growth declines during increasing salinities near the site caused by anthropogenic modification, and they show evidence of recovery in the last decade during restoration activities.

### 5.2 Management Implications

Previous studies agree that hydrologic connectivity in anthropomorphized systems is an important abiotic factor for coastal vegetation growth Turner and Lewis [1996]; Penland et al. [1996]; Day et al. [2000]; Gosselink [2001]; Nyman [2014]. However, studies of coastal wetland vegetation changes suggest conflicting ideas for coastal restoration. Some studies argue that fragmentation is a large source of coastal wetland loss, and the introduction of surface freshwater diversions weaken belowground biomass of herbaceous vegetation and are detrimental to faunal production Turner and Lewis [1996]; Kearney et al. [2011]. Other researchers indicate that freshwater diversions are not detrimental to faunal production and promote a natural gradient of salinity in coastal waters Lane et al. [1999]; Das et al. [2012]; Nyman [2014]. An additional set of studies argue that coastal wetland loss is not sea-levelrise dependent and coastal marshes can keep up with changing sea level Nyman et al. [2006]; Fagherazzi et al. [2013]; Kirwan et al. [2016]. The results of this study show that freshwater resources (or lack thereof) are the most important drivers of growth to coastal trees, especially those stressed by saltwater inundation. During dry years, coastal forested wetlands suffer from increased salts in the soil. Dry years in the Southeast U.S. frequently occur during La Niña years when TC development is high in the region. Diverting surface waters during La Niña years into coastal forested wetlands impacted by saltwater storm surge may improve growing conditions for those trees.

Future management and projections of coastal forest change should concentrate efforts to provide freshwater resources to wetland trees. Management decisions that may increase freshwater resources in wetland areas include river diversions, marsh creation and restoration, and reduction of greenhouse gases. Additional measures should also be taken to reduce and prevent anthropogenic modifications that may increase the flux of saltwater to inland



FIGURE 5.1: A hypothetical saltwater stress diagram that represents the stress undergone by a coastal tree in times of saltwater inundation. In the normal state (above), the saturated zone of freshwater undulates and can occasionally be pulled upward by large trees. However, in the flooded state (below), denser saltwater displaces the freshwater, and the trees are forced to exclude any salts left after the surge waters recede and/or evaporate.

locations. Canals that run perpendicular to the shoreline may increase saltwater intrusion to inland areas causing undue stress to coastal trees. Impoundments in one area may also cause trapping of saltwater fluxes in other areas.

### 5.3 Future Work

As a result of the studies within this Dissertation, I offer a hypothetical framework indicating the reason coastal trees are sensitive to their environment, and I suggest areas for future research. As noted in Fritts [1976] and Speer [2010], stressed trees are the most likely candidates useful for dendrochronological analysis. Throughout this Dissertation, the effects of saltwater inundation have proven to be stressful to tree growth, and a model of stress is described here (Figure 5.1). In any forested area, trees may wick water to the surface causing undulation in the saturated zone. During storm surge and tidal flow inundation, a freshwater table may be displaced underneath the more dense, saline water. Before trees can wick water again, the displaced freshwater saturated zone needs time to recharge and salts must leach from the saturated zone. This hypothesis is directly related to the freshwater resources that will recharge and leach salts from the soil (*e.g.*, river flow, precipitation, groundwater fluxes). As sea-levels rise, this process will become more frequent and intense. Ultimately, salinity forces trees to be more sensitive to freshwater resources. Therefore, future coastal dendrochronology researchers should focus on areas where saltwater inundation occurs regularly.

Accelerating sea-level rise poses a threat to coastal forested wetlands that cannot withstand saltwater inundation. Maritime dendrochronology can assist projections of coastal vegetation and landscape change by analyzing changes of the past. By studying in areas where relative sea-level rise has been high in the past century, tree ring studies in those regions can provide an analog for other sites where sea-level rise rates will increase. For example, tree-ring data for Mississippi River backswamps can be compared to tree-ring data in Southeast Asia where people rely heavily on estuarine habitats. Additionally, research on coasts where sea-level rise rates are dissimilar to the northern Gulf of Mexico coast may hold insight to changes in different climate change scenarios. For example, trees in the colder Northeast U.S. may be responding to sea-level rise differently since growing seasons are shorter and summer maximum temperatures are lower.

Future work in coastal dendrochronology should also focus on responses to soil moisture. High temperatures during summer months are an important driver of growing season drought, and future climate change scenarios show that global temperatures will continue to warm. Care must also be taken to explain any effects caused by anthropogenic modification. Finding tree species and sites with older trees can provide information of coastal climate stress to pre-industrial levels and will be important for predicting the future effects of rising seas and global temperatures.

Appendix A. Format of Divisional Climate Data

average monthly temperature (TAVG), average minimum monthly temperature (TMIN), average maximum monthly temperhttps://www7.ncdc.noaa.gov/CD0/CD0DivisionalSelect.jsp#. The output indices include precipitation (PCP), ature (TMAX), Palmer drought severity index (PDSI), Palmer hydrological drought index (PHDI), Palmer z-index (ZNDX), modified Palmer drought severity index (PMDI), cooling degree days (CDD), heating degree days (HDD), and standard pre-NOAA divisional climate data (nCLIMDIV) used in this study are available through the online portal located at cipitation indices averaged by months (SPnn).

Below is a two-year example (January 2017–December 2018) for Climate Division 08 (coastal) in the state of Alabama.

TMAX	67.8	72.3	74.3	81	83.3	85.4	90.3	89.2	86.9	80	72.4	62	56.9	73.2	71.9	75.6	87.8	06	91.1	89.4	89	82	66.5	63.6
NIMT	48.1	49.2	52.6	57.6	62.3	70.5	73.3	72.8	67.4	60.1	48.8	43.4	34.9	55.1	49.4	51.1	64.9	72.2	73.4	71.8	72.2	61.7	45.8	45.7
SP24	.76	œ.	.66	.23	.53	1.18	1.17	1.63	1.44	1.8	1.49	1.14	1.1	1.39	.88	.72	.85	.85	.85	.83	1.33	1.44	1.85	2.14
SP12	.38	.31	28	43	.28	1.19	1.07	1.43	1.28	2.41	2.4	1.93	1.08	1.47	1.44	1.43	66.	.08	.2	27	.71	21	4.	1.01
SP09	.19	.13	17	11	.34	1.4	1.48	2.44	1.73	1.97	1.74	2	1.88	1.64	.2	.38	۰. ع	.15	96	52	.36	.44	.56	1.49
SP06	.71	.24	.02	.41	1.28	1.89	.87	1.84	1.88	2.84	2.14	.62	.71	.16	.26	-1.1	61	38	۰. ۱	46	.83	.87	1.33	2.01
SP03	1.54	1.85	.57	-1.13	4.	2.15	1.9	2.2	.05	2.02	.41	6.	-1.67	24	49	18	58	04	05	.1	1.34	1.4	1.57	1.46
SP02	2.51	1.42	-1.43	65	1.09	2.6	1.45	.97	.52	1.17	1.37	-2.11	97	.19	19	65	05	60.	03	.12	1.72	1.37	.69	1.8
SP01	2.28	97	94	.06	1.74	2.27	63	2.02	-1.35	2.35	-2.39	62	62	.87	94	.06	.1	.21	06	.49	1.65	12	1.17	1.85
HDD	288	179	133	21	0	0	0	0	0	24	173	394	603	126	185	98	0	0	0	0	0	14	281	342
CDD	71	61	84	150	244	390	521	496	363	179	41	13	11	104	48	47	350	483	533	484	468	225	14	19
IUMA	2.38	.42	-1.47	-1.52	1.25	3.53	2.23	4.02	2.17	4.84	2.61	1.35	.47	.71	95	-1	-1.35	-1.33	-1.51	5	1.41	.73	1.83	2.96
ZNDX	5.6	-2.14	-2.48	62	3.74	7.23	-1.2	4.63	-1.92	6.53	-2.36	-1.22	87	.65	-2.25	08	62	1	78	6.	3.43	51	2.55	3.96
IUHA	2.38	1.42	-1.47	-1.52	1.25	3.53	2.76	4.02	2.97	4.84	3.55	2.78	2.2	2.19	1.22	1.06	.75	.64	-1.51	-1.05	1.41	1.1	1.83	2.96
PDSI	2.38	71	-1.47	-1.52	1.25	3.53	2.76	4.02	2.97	4.84	79	-1.11	-1.29	94	-1.59	-1.46	-1.51	-1.39	-1.51	<i>с</i> .	1.41	1.1	1.83	2.96
TAVG	58	60.8	63.4	69.3	72.8	78	81.8	81	77.1	70	60.6	52.7	45.9	64.2	60.6	63.3	76.3	81.1	82.2	80.6	80.6	71.8	56.1	54.6
PCP	12.29	2.74	3.02	4.24	9.79	15.42	5.19	12.14	1.78	12.21	.38	3.55	3.08	6.98	ო	4.25	4.26	5.67	6.41	7.38	12.59	2.51	6.79	10.15
earMonth	201701	201702	201703	201704	201705	201706	201707	201708	201709	201710	201711	201712	201801	201802	201803	201804	201805	201806	201807	201808	201809	201810	201811	201812
vision Y	08	08	08	08	08	08	08	08	08	08	08	08	08	08	08	08	08	08	08	08	08	08	08	08
StateCode Di	01	01	01	01	01	01	01	01	01	01	01	01	01	01	01	01	01	01	01	01	01	01	01	01

## Appendix B. R Program Code for the *dplr* Package

The dplr (dendrochronology program library) package in R can perform similar functions to the COFECHA and ARSTAN programs. I have included an example from the Gulf State Park data used in Chapter 4 of this Dissertation. To begin, the user will need to install and require the dplr package.

- > install.packages("dplR")
- > require(dplR)

When tree-ring measurements have been compiled into the traditional 11-column "Tuscon" or "decadal" format, they can be read into R. For simplification in future analyses, I suggest naming the file, in this case grow.rwl.

```
> grow.rwl <- read.tucson(fname = "gsp.txt")</pre>
```

Summary data can be accessed for the data using the function rwl.stats, which will display first and last years, total years and general descriptive statistics for each ring-width series. A segment plot for all series and skeleton plot for each individual series can be displayed as well.

- > rwl.stats(grow.rwl)
  > seg.plot(grow.rwl)
- > skel.plot(grow.rwl[1])

Similarly to the "Run Control Options" in COFECHA using the corr.rwl.seg function, *dplr* allows the user to (1) set the length and lag of the cubic smoothing spline (seg.length and bin.floor), (2) choose if the autoregressive model is applied (prewhiten), and (3) set a critical p-value (pcrit). Other options can be found in Bunn (2008). The function can also plot the series showing where problems might exist in the crossdating.

```
> corr.rwl.seg(rwl = grow.rwl, seg.length = 20,
+ bin.floor = 40, n = NULL, prewhiten = TRUE, pcrit = 0.05,
+ biweight = TRUE, method = c("spearman"), make.plot = TRUE,
+ label.cex = 1, floor.plus1 = FALSE, master = NULL)
```

Finally, the user can acquire the interseries correlations of individual series and mean sensitivity of the master chronology using the following functions. To obtain the interseries correlation for the master chronology, the user simply averages the individual correlations.

```
> interseries.cor(grow.rwl, n = NULL, prewhiten = TRUE,
+ biweight = TRUE, method = "spearman")
> sens1(grow.rwl)
```
The *dplr* package can also be used to detrend tree-ring data using the detrend function. The user can choose to detrend with six options for the method: "Spline", "ModNegExp", "Mean", "Ar", "Friedman", "ModHugershoff". Again, the user can find descriptive statistics of the detrended data as well.

```
> grow.rwi <- detrend(rwl = grow.rwl, method = c('`Spline"),
+ nyrs = NULL, f = 0.5, pos.slope = FALSE)
> rwi.stats(grow.rwi)
```

The user can also interactively detrend similarly to the function in ARSTAN using the function i.detrend. The raw ring widths of each series will be visually displayed along with the same six options for detrending. The user selects the option (1-6) for detrending, and a the next series appears. This process continues until all individual series are interactively detrended.

```
> grow.rwi.int <- i.detrend(rwl = grow.rwl, nyrs = NULL,
+ f = 0.5,pos.slope = FALSE)
```

The detrended data can be built to produce a residual chronology by choosing prewhiten = TRUE or a standardized chronology by choosing prewhiten = FALSE.

```
> grow.crn <- chron(x = grow.rwi, prefix = "GSP",
+ biweight = TRUE, prewhiten = TRUE)
```

Finally, the standardized chronology can be written to a .CSV file and/or plotted. The plots used in this Dissertation were all created using the presets selected in the following code:

```
> write.csv(grow.crn, file = `"GSPstd.csv")
> crn.plot(crn = grow.crn, add.spline = TRUE, nyrs = NULL,
+ f = 0.5, crn.line.col='grey50', spline.line.col='red',
+ samp.depth.col='grey90', samp.depth.border.col='grey80',
+ crn.lwd=1, spline.lwd=2.0, abline.pos=1, abline.col='black',
+ abline.lty=1,abline.lwd=1,xlab="Time", ylab="RWI")
```

## Appendix C. R Program Code for the *TreeClim* Package

The *TreeClim* (tree-climate) package in R allows the user to test for tree growth-climate relationships. We will use the Gulf State Park chronology (grow.crn) from the previous *dplr* example. To begin, the user will need to install and require the *TreeClim* package.

```
> install.packages("treeclim")
```

```
> require(treeclim)
```

After acquiring the package and loading the tree-ring data, read in climate data. *TreeClim* works well with NOAA Climate Divisional Data available online. An example of the divisional data is available in Appendix G.

> climate <- read.csv("AL\_Gulf8\_Climate.csv", header = TRUE)</pre>

Using a favorite spreadsheet manager, format the climate data so that state and division columns are removed and the year/month category is split into separate columns. Create a dataframe with a year, month, and climate variable column. In this example, I use the  $19^{th}$  column variable, which is TMAX.

```
> ym <- climate[,1:2]
> var1 <- climate[19]
> clim <- data.frame(c(ym, var1))</pre>
```

The final step uses the *TreeClim* dcc function to produce moving window correlations similar to Figure 4.12. The dcc function requires that the user input a tree-ring chronology and climate parameters. the selection option allows the user to set the monthly window of correlations between January (1) and December (12). Negative numbers indicate months of the previous year. The example below uses months previous May-current October. The method option allows the user to choose a calculation method: "correlation" or "re-sponse", and the dynamic option allows the user to choose how the correlation is carried out "static", "moving", or "evolving". All figures presented in this Dissertation use "moving". The user can also select the size of the year window and how much to offset the window through the analysis win\_size and win\_offset. Finally, the start\_last function allows the user to start from the earliest year and move forward as is the case of the example below, or to start from the oldest year and move backwards. Additional options are available in Zang and Biondi (2015). Plotting the function will reveal figures similar to Figure 4.12.

```
> resp <- dcc(chrono = grow.crn, climate = clim, selection = -5:10,
+ method = "correlation", dynamic = "moving", win_size = 35,
+ win_offset = 1, start_last = TRUE, ci = 0.05)
> plot(resp)
```

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d13C	-26.09	-26.57	-26.36	-25.85	-25.72	-26.04	-25.95	-26.23	-26.24	-25.16	-25.74	-25.54	-26.10	-26.08	-25.63	-25.23	-25.43	-25.78	-25.28	-25.59
Sample	25GB15	25GB14	25GB13	25GB12	25GB11	25GB10	25GB09	25GB08	25GB07	25GB06	25GB05	25GB04	25GB03	25GB02	25GB01	25GB00	25GB99	25GB98	25GB97	25GB96
d13C	-25.36	-26.34	-25.65	-24.49	-24.08	-25.35	-24.10	-24.16	-24.33	-23.99	-24.80	-24.70	-24.97	-24.46	-24.76	-23.93	-24.25	-24.51	-24.12	-24.36
Sample	23GB15	23GB14	23GB13	23GB12	23GB11	23GB10	23GB09	23GB08	23GB07	23GB06	23GB05	23GB04	23GB03	23GB02	23GB01	23GB00	23GB99	23GB98	23GB97	23GB96
d13C	n/a	-26.63	-25.68	-25.20	-24.40	-25.38	-25.62	-24.68	-24.50	-23.08	-23.64	-23.85	-24.34	-24.37	-24.77	-24.19	-23.43	-23.86	-23.95	-24.31
Sample	20GB15	20GB14	20GB13	20GB12	20GB11	20GB10	20GB09	20GB08	20GB07	20GB06	20GB05	20GB04	20GB03	20GB02	20GB01	20GB00	20GB99	20GB98	20GB97	20GB96
d13C	-25.50	-25.32	-25.32	-24.12	-24.03	-25.06	-23.55	-23.42	n/a	n/a	-23.22	-23.73	-24.17	-23.17	-25.05	-23.52	-23.48	-23.72	-23.60	-24.03
Sample	09GB15	09GB14	09GB13	09GB12	09GB11	09GB10	09GB09	09GB08	09GB07	09GB06	09GB05	09GB04	09GB03	09GB02	09GB01	09GB00	09GB99	09GB98	09GB97	09GB96

Appendix E. COFECHA Output for Doyle's Bayou Quercus nigra	
PROGRAM COFECHA	rsion 6.06P 30798
QUALITY CONTROL AND DATING CHECK OF TREE-RING MEASUREMENTS	COF12K.for
CONTENTS: DILLES: DILLES: DILLES: DILLES: DILLES: DILLES	
<pre>Part 1: Title page, options selected, summary, absent rings by series Part 2: Histogram of time spans Part 3: Master series with sample depth and absent rings by year Part 4: Bar plot of Master Dating Series Part 5: Correlation by segment of each series with Master Part 6: Potential problems: low correlation, divergent year-to-year changes, absent rings, outliers Part 7: Descriptive statistics</pre>	
RUN CONTROL OPTIONS SELECTED VALUE	
<pre>1 Cubic smoothing spline 50% wavelength cutoff for filtering 2 Segments examined are 32 years 50 years lagged successively by 25 years 3 Autoregressive model applied A Residuals are used in master dating series at 4 Series not transformed to logarithms N 5 CORRELATION is Pearson (parametric, quantitative) 6 Contical correlation, 99% confidence level 0.3281 6 Master dating series saved N 7 Ring measurements listed 1234567 9 Absent rings are omitted from master series and segment correlations (Y)</pre>	nd testing
Time span of Master dating series is 1973 to 2018 46 years Continuous time span is 1973 to 2018 46 years Portion with two or more series is 1975 to 2018 44 years	
<pre>************************************</pre>	
ABSENT RINGS listed by SERIES: (See Master Dating Series for absent rings listed by year)	

7	 Yrs 36 44 44 32 35 35 35 35 46	3  Ab	1	
Page		Page		
2019	Time- 1975 1975 1987 1987 1984 1984 1984 1973	2019  Value		
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	1750	1750  ar V:		
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nents 3 SER	1350	1350  Value	0.558 0.595 0.595 0.595 0.595 0.595 0.595 0.592 0.295 0.205 0.295 0.205 0.295 0.205	1.181
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PART 2	1050	1050 PART 3  Year		1973 1975 1975 1975 1977

						17:58 Fri 26 Apr 2019 Page 4	: Year Rel value Year Rel value Year Rel value Year Rel value
1979 -1.581 3	1980 -1.130 3 1981 -0.238 3 1982 0.201 4 1983 -1.136 5	1984 0.715 7 1985 0.540 7 1006 0.463 7	1980 0.403 / 1987 0.197 8 1988 -0.302 8 1989 0.837 8	1990 0.239 8 1991 -0.180 8 1992 0.351 8 1993 -2.455 8 1994 0.266 8 1994 -0.266 8	1996 -0.322 8 1997 1.015 8 1998 -1.146 8 1999 -0.419 8	PART 4: Master Bar Plot:	Year Rel value Year Rel value Year Rel value Year Year Rel value Year Year Year Year Year Year Year Yea

1973----F

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1997	1990	1996a	
1999b       17:58 Fri 26 Apr 2019 Page         17:59 CORRELATION OF SERIES BY SEGMENTS:       17:58 Fri 26 Apr 2019 Page         10:000 Description       17:58 Fri 26 Apr 2019 Page         10:000 Description       107:58 Fri 26 Apr 2019 Page         10:000 Description       107:58 Fri 26 Apr 2019 Page         10:000 Description       107:58 Fri 26 Apr 2019 Page         10:000 Description       1075         10:010 Description       1034         10:010 Description       1075	1990-0-b NT 5: CORRELATION OF SERIES BY SECWENTS: Trelations of 50-year dated segments, lagged 25 years lags: A = correlation under 0.3281 but highest as dated; B = correlation higher at other than dated position equal Series Time-span 1975 equal Secies Time-span 1975 equa Time-span 1975 equal Secies Time-span 1975 equa Time-	199/D 1008-e	
NT 5: CORRELATION OF SERIES BY SEGMENTS:       17:58 Fri 26 Apr 2019 Page         Dirrelations of 50-year dated segments, lagged 25 years       17:58 Fri 26 Apr 2019 Page         Strelations of 50-year dated segments, lagged 25 years       17:58 Fri 26 Apr 2019 Page         A = correlation under 0.3281 but highest as dated; B = correlation higher at other than dated position         A = correlation under 0.3281 but highest as dated; B = correlation higher at other than dated position         A = correlation under 0.3281 but highest as dated; B = correlation higher at other than dated position         A = correlation under 0.3281 but highest as dated; B = correlation higher at other than dated position         A = correlation under 0.3281 but highest as dated; B = correlation higher at other than dated position         A = correlation under 0.3281 but highest as dated; B = correlation higher at other than dated position         A = correlation under 0.3281 but highest as dated; B = correlation higher at other than dated position         A = correlation under 0.3281 but highest as dated; B = correlation higher at other than dated position         A = correlation under 0.3281 but highest as dated; B = correlation higher at other than dated position         A = correlation 0.3281 but highest as dated; B = correlation higher at other than dated position         A = 05A = 1975 2018 .52         A = 06B = 1982 2018 .52	IT:5: CORRELATION OF SERIES BY SEGMENTS:       17:58 Fri 26 Apr 2019 Page 5         Iterations of 50-year dated segments, lagged 25 years       17:58 Fri 26 Apr 2019 Page 5         Lags: A = correlation under 0.3281 but highest as dated; B = correlation higher at other than dated position         ag Series Time_span       1975         103A       1975         2024	1999b	
<pre>rrelations of 50-year dated segments, lagged 25 years ags: A = correlation under 0.3281 but highest as dated; B = correlation higher at other than dated position q Series Time_span 1975 2024 1 03A 1983 2018 .63 2 05A 1985 2018 .43 2 05B 1987 2018 .43 2 05B 1987 2018 .43 2 05B 1987 2018 .59 4 06A 1975 2018 .59 5 06B 1982 2018 .52 6 08A 1984 2018 .56</pre>	rrelations of 50-year dated segments, lagged 25 years ags: A = correlation under 0.3281 but highest as dated; B = correlation higher at other than dated position af Series Time-span 1975 2024 2024 2024 2024 2024 2024 2024 2024	UT 5: CORRELATION OF SERIES BY SEGMENTS:	17:58 Fri 26 Apr 2019 Page 5
94       Series       Time_span       1975         1       2024           1       0.3A       1983       2018       .63         2       0.5A       1975       2018       .63         3       0.5B       1975       2018       .43         3       0.5B       1987       2018       .59         4       0.6A       1975       2018       .59         5       0.6B       1982       2018       .52         6       0.8A       1984       2018       .52	oq Series Time_span 1975 2024 2024 2024 2024 2024 2025	orrelations of 50-year dated segments, lagged 25 years ags: A = correlation under 0.3281 but highest as dated; B = correlation higher at other th	an dated position
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1 03A         1983 2018         .63           2 05A         1975 2018         .63           3 05B         1987 2018         .59           4 06A         1975 2018         .43           5 06B         1982 2018         .52           6 08A         1984 2018         .56	1 03A       1983 2018       63         2 05A       1975 2018       43         3 05B       1987 2018       59         4 06A       1975 2018       49         5 06B       1987 2018       59         6 08A       1975 2018       56         7 08B       1984 2018       56         7 08B       1974 2018       56         7 08B       1973 2018       49         8 09B       1973 2018       49         7 08B       1973 2018       49         8 09B       1973 2018       49         7 08B       1973 2018       49         8 09B       1973 2018       49         7 08B       1973 2018       49         8 09B       1973 2018       49         7 segment correlation       0.52         7 6: POTENTIAL PROBLEMS:       17.58 Fri 26 Apr 2019       Page         7 6: POTENTIAL PROBLEMS:       17.568 Fri 26 Apr 2019       Page		
2 05A 1975 2018 .43 3 05B 1987 2018 .59 4 06A 1975 2018 .49 5 06B 1982 2018 .52 6 08A 1984 2018 .56	2 05A 1975 2018 .43 3 05B 1987 2018 .59 4 06A 1975 2018 .59 6 06B 1982 2018 .52 6 08A 1984 2018 .56 7 08B 1984 2018 .49 8 09B 1973 2018 .49 8 09B 1973 2018 .49 8 09B 1973 2018 .49 7 08B 1973 2018 .49 8 09B 1973 2018 .49 7 08B 1973 2018 .49 8 09B 1973 2018 .49 7 08B 1973 2018 .49 8 09B 1973 2018 .49 8 09B 1973 2018 .49 7 05B 1973 2018 .49 8 09B 1973 2018 .49 7 05B 1973 2018 .49 8 09B 1973 2018 .49 7 05B 1973 2018 .49 8 09B 1973 2018 .56 7 08B 1984 2018 .56 7 08B 1973 2018 .56 7 08B 1973 2018 .56 08B 1984 2018 .56 08B 1973 2018 .57 08 08B 1970 .57 08 08 08 08 08 08 08 08 08 08 08	1 03A 1983 2018 .63	
3 05B 1987 2018 .59 4 06A 1975 2018 .49 5 06B 1982 2018 .52 6 08A 1984 2018 .56	3 05B 1987 2018 .59 4 06A 1975 2018 .49 5 06B 1982 2018 .52 6 08A 1984 2018 .56 7 08B 1984 2018 .48 8 09B 1973 2018 .49 8 09B 1973 2018 .49 v segment correlation 0.52 RT 6: POTENTIAL PROBLEMS: 17:58 Fri 26 Apr 2019 Page 5	2 05A 1975 2018 .43	
4 06A 19/5 2018 .49 5 06B 1982 2018 .52 6 08A 1984 2018 .56	4 06A 1975 2018 .49 5 06B 1982 2018 .52 6 08A 1984 2018 .56 7 08B 1984 2018 .48 8 09B 1973 2018 .49 v segment correlation 0.52 v segment correlation 0.52 r 6: POTENTIAL PROBLEMS: 17:58 Fri 26 Apr 2019 Page 5	3 05B 1987 2018 .59	
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0 USH 1991 2010 1901 1901 0	o 004 1904 2018 .90 7 08B 1984 2018 .48 8 09B 1973 2018 .49 v segment correlation 0.52 RT 6: POTENTIAL PROBLEMS: 17:58 Fri 26 Apr 2019 Page 5		
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	v segment correlation 0.52 RT 6: POTENTIAL PROBLEMS: 17:58 Fri 26 Apr 2019 Page 5		
v seement correlation 0.52	RT 6: POTENTIAL PROBLEMS: 17:58 Fri 26 Apr 2019 Page 5	v sement correlation 0.52	
RT 6: POTENTIAL PROBLEMS: 17:58 Fri 26 Apr 2019 Page		RT 6: POTENTIAL PROBLEMS:	17:58 Fri 26 Apr 2019 Page 5

For each series with potential problems the following diagnostics may appear:

[A] Correlations with master dating series of flagged 50-year segments of series filtered with 32-year spline, at every point from ten years earlier (-10) to ten years later (+10) than dated

[B] Effect of those data values which most lower of Symbol following year indicates value in series	raise correlation is greater (>) on	n with master a r lesser (<) th	series 1an master series	ralue	
[C] Year-to-year changes very different from the me	an change in othe	r series			
[D] Absent rings (zero values)					
[E] Values which are statistical outliers from mean	for the year				
03A 1983 to 2018 36 years					Series 1
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation (0.628) i Lower 2017<-0.039 2012<-0.032 1997<-0.0	s: 21 2000<-0.017	2016>-0.016	1986<-0.013 Hig	ıer 1993 0.075	2009 0.025
05A 1975 to 2018 44 years					Series 2
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation (0.432) i Lower 1977>-0.133 1983>-0.019 1990<-0.	s: 17 1988<-0.017	1981<-0.017	1984<-0.016 Hig	ıer 1993 0.080	1979 0.027
<pre>[E] Outliers 1 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD below 1977 +3.6 SD</pre>	mean for year				
05B 1987 to 2018 32 years					Series 3
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation (0.595) i Lower 1992>-0.059 2012<-0.050 2013>-0.	s: 37 1999<-0.020	2001<-0.018	1990>-0.014 Hig	ıer 1993 0.034	2006 0.033
<pre>[E] Outliers 1 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD below 1992 +3.2 SD</pre>	mean for year				
06A 1975 to 2018 44 years					Series 4
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation (0.489) Lower 2017<-0.063 1977<-0.051 1976>-0.0	s: 50 1990<-0.037	2003<-0.016	2018>-0.013 Hig	ıer 1993 0.044	2006 0.036
06B 1982 to 2018 37 years					Series 5
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation (0.523) i Lower 1990<-0.030 2016<-0.026 1982>-0.0	s: 25 1986<-0.025	1999>-0.018	1988>-0.016 Hig	ler 2006 0.040	2009 0.040
08A 1984 to 2018 35 years					Series 6

					I	וו ר ני		COFFCH /	_ _ _					
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	029 1 	0.211 0.	0.46 (	0.197	0.932	2.423	11.10	4.09	0.493	0	1	46	1973 2018	8 09B
	018 1	0.264 0.	0.65 (	0.228	0.909	4.096	15.67	6.51	0.478	0	1	35	1984 2018	7 08B
	101 3	0.271 -0.	0.55 (	0.309	0.839	2.600	11.60	3.49	0.558	0		35	1984 2018	6 08A
	038 1	0.456 -0.	1.25 (	0.391	0.648	1.934	8.87	3.93	0.523	0		37	1982 2018	5 06B
	010 1	0.362 -0.	0.61 (	0.278	0.615	1.693	8.07	4.41	0.489	, O	·	44	1975 2018	5 202 4 06A
	002 1	0.286 0.	0.61 (	0.256	0.716	1.581	а. 04 7.14	3.90	0.595	>0		32 32	1987 2018	2 05B
	022 1 022 1	0.417 - 0.	0.99	0.323	0.520	2.358	12.47	4.67 E 07	0.628	00	<del>.</del>	36	1983 2018	1 03A 2 0EA
	uto AR orr ()	Std A dev c	Max value	Mean sens	Auto corr	Std dev	Max msmt	Mean msmt	with Master	No. Flags	No. Segmt	No. Years	Interval	Seq Series
	//	Filtered	I//	//	pə.	nfilter	'n	//	Corr					
2019 Page 6	Fri 26 Apr 2	17:58	3281	over 0	series	naster	n with r	relatio	with cor	dated	ghest as 5:	ate hig TISTIC	ments correl CRIPTIVE STA	[*] All seg PART 7: DES
1993 0.034	2009 0.041	Higher	8>-0.010	.6 197	1>-0.01	1 198	8>-0.02	: 7 198	.493) is 02<-0.04	ion ( C 50 2C	correlat 014<-0.0	ct on 6 70 20	series, effe 1982<-0.0	[B] Entire Lower
			series	mother	led by a	t match	'4 no	to 197	rom 1973	ecked f	ot be ch	s canno	art of serie	[*] Early p
Series 8											46 years	7	973 to 2018	09B 1
							' year	ean for ======	) below me	-4.5 SD	DOVE OF 3.0 SD	0 SD al 2012 +3	s 2 3. +3.9 SD;	[E] Outlier 1990
2006 0.058	1993 0.097	Higher	5<-0.014	8 201	3<-0.01	3 201	0<-0.018	: 4 200	.478) is 002<-0.024	ion ( C 38 20	correlat 384<-0.0	ct on 6 03 19	series, effe 1990>-0.1	[B] Entire Lower
Series 7											35 years		984 to 2018	08B 1
2006 0.041	2009 0.061	Higher	0>-0.018	1 201	3<-0.02	5 201	9<-0.02	: 6 198	).558) is 985<-0.03	ion ( C 44 19	correlat 990>-0.0	ct on 6 47 19	series, effe 2005>-0.0	[B] Entire Lower

-5 5 \_

Appendix F. COFECHA Output for Gulf State Park Pinus of	elliottii
PROGRAM COFECHA	Version 6.02P 0
QUALITY CONTROL AND DATING CHECK OF TREE-RING MEASUREMENTS	cofechaOSX_pjk2012.f
File of DATED series: GSP.txt	
CONTENTS:	
<ul> <li>Part 1: Title page, options selected, summary, absent rings by series</li> <li>Part 2: Histogram of time spans</li> <li>Part 3: Master series with sample depth and absent rings by year</li> <li>Part 4: Bar plot of Master Dating Series</li> <li>Part 5: Correlation by segment of each series with Master</li> <li>Part 6: Potential problems: low correlation, divergent year-to-year changes, absent rin</li> <li>Part 7: Descriptive statistics</li> </ul>	igs, outliers
RUN CONTROL OPTIONS SELECTED VALUE	
1Cubic smoothing spline 50% wavelength cutoff for filtering2Segments examined are32 years2Segments examined are50 years lagged successively by3Autoregressive model appliedA Residuals are used in master4Series not transformed to logarithmsN5CORRELATION is Pearson (parametric, quantitative)Critical correlation, 99% confidence level 0.32816Master dating series savedN7Ring measurements listedN8Parts printed12345679Absent rings are omitted from master series and segment correlations (Y)	25 years r dating series and testing
Time span of Master dating series is 1921 to 2017 97 years Continuous time span is 1921 to 2017 97 years Portion with two or more series is 1925 to 2017 93 years	
<pre>************************************</pre>	
ABSENT RINGS listed by SERIES: (See Master Dating Series for absent rings listed	d by year)

		Yrs		87	62	63	75	99 1	ۍ م	64	99	- u	207	0 0 1 1	0 4 7 0	78	86	93	81	81	79		Ab					
		Ind rear	. 710	017	2017	2017	2017	2017	102	102	101/	2 TO	2017	- 10	112	017	2017	2017	2017	2005	2005		No	10	, 12 ;	13 13	1 1 1	ст
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	age	ent																				age	Ą	. <del>.</del>	4 <del>~ 1</del> 4		1 <del>- 1</del> -	H
	d i	00 IQ		= 03B	= 04A	= 04B	= 05A	= 05B	= 07A	= 07B	= 09A		= 10A		- 118 - 118	= 12A	= 12B	= 15A	= 15B	> 16A	> 16B		No A					
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Appendix G. COFECHA Ou distichum	tput for LaBranche Wetlands Inland and	Coastal	Taxodium
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QUALITY CONTROL AND DATING CHECK OF TREE-RIN	IG MEASUREMENTS	COF12K.for	
File of DATED series: Inland.txt			
CONTENTS:			
<pre>Part 1: Title page, options selected, su Part 2: Histogram of time spans Part 3: Master series with sample depth Part 4: Bar plot of Master Dating Series Part 5: Correlation by segment of each s Part 6: Potential problems: low correlat Part 7: Descriptive statistics</pre>	ummary, absent rings by series and absent rings by year series with Master ion, divergent year-to-year changes, absent rings, outliers		
RUN CONTROL OPTIONS SELECTED	VALUE		
<ol> <li>Cubic smoothing spline 50% wavele</li> <li>Segments examined are</li> <li>Segments examined are</li> <li>Autoregressive model applied</li> <li>Series not transformed to logarit</li> <li>Series not transformed to logarit</li> <li>CORRELATION is Pearson (parametri</li> <li>Confide</li> <li>Master dating series saved</li> <li>Master dating series saved</li> <li>Ring measurements listed</li> <li>Parts printed</li> <li>Absent rings are omitted from mas</li> </ol>	ngth cutoff for filtering 32 years 50 years lagged successively by 25 years A Residuals are used in master dating series and .c, quantitative) mce level 0.3281 N 1234567 iter series and segment correlations (Y)	testing	
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(See Master Dating Series for absent rings listed by year)

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2 SD	to 2017 73 years Series 3	High       -10       -9       -8       -7       -6       -5       -4       -3       -2       -1       0       +1       +2       +3       +4       +5       +6       +7       +8       +9       +10	ies, effect on correlation ( 0.350) is: 1966>-0.076 1947<-0.030 1962<-0.022 2011>-0.022 1994<-0.020 1960<-0.019 Higher 2005 0.037 1991 0.036 194 segment: 1966>-0.116 1947<-0.041 1962<-0.031 1994<-0.029 1960<-0.026 1973<-0.025 Higher 1991 0.073 1970 0.043 199 segment: 1965>-0.116 1962<-0.034 1960<-0.038 1973<-0.027 1964>-0.026 1073<-0.070 1973<-0.028	1 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD below mean for year	i to 2017 85 years Series 4	High       -10       -9       -8       -7       -6       -5       -4       -3       -2       -1       0       +1       +2       +3       +4       +5       +6       +7       +8       +9       +10 <td< th=""><th><pre>ies, effect on correlation ( 0.552) is: 1937&lt;-0.035 1968&gt;-0.029 2011&gt;-0.023 1933&gt;-0.020 1978&lt;-0.013 1939&lt;-0.012 Higher 2014 0.029 1975 0.019 082 segment: 1937&lt;-0.069 1968&gt;-0.045 1933&gt;-0.036 1978&lt;-0.024 1957&gt;-0.020 1939&lt;-0.015 Higher 1975 0.046 1951 0.038</pre></th><th>1 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD below mean for year 7 SD</th><th>to 2017 86 years Series 5</th><th>ies, effect on correlation ( 0.567) is: 1968&gt;-0.034 1937&lt;-0.025 1942&lt;-0.024 1936&gt;-0.019 1978&lt;-0.017 1996&gt;-0.016 Higher 1994 0.018 1975 0.015</th><th>2 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD below mean for year 3 SD; 1968 +3.9 SD</th><th>to 2017 94 years Series 6</th><th>11; wh -10 -0 -7 -6 -5 -7 -3 -3 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 +1 +5 +6 +7 +8 +0 +10</th><th>ΛΤ1 21 Ω1 11 Ω1 Ω1 Ω1 Ω1 71 T1 Ω T- 7- 0- <del>1</del>- 0- 1- 0- 6- 0T- Πάτυ</th></td<>	<pre>ies, effect on correlation ( 0.552) is: 1937&lt;-0.035 1968&gt;-0.029 2011&gt;-0.023 1933&gt;-0.020 1978&lt;-0.013 1939&lt;-0.012 Higher 2014 0.029 1975 0.019 082 segment: 1937&lt;-0.069 1968&gt;-0.045 1933&gt;-0.036 1978&lt;-0.024 1957&gt;-0.020 1939&lt;-0.015 Higher 1975 0.046 1951 0.038</pre>	1 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD below mean for year 7 SD	to 2017 86 years Series 5	ies, effect on correlation ( 0.567) is: 1968>-0.034 1937<-0.025 1942<-0.024 1936>-0.019 1978<-0.017 1996>-0.016 Higher 1994 0.018 1975 0.015	2 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD below mean for year 3 SD; 1968 +3.9 SD	to 2017 94 years Series 6	11; wh -10 -0 -7 -6 -5 -7 -3 -3 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 +1 +5 +6 +7 +8 +0 +10	ΛΤ1 21 Ω1 11 Ω1 Ω1 Ω1 Ω1 71 T1 Ω T- 7- 0- <del>1</del> - 0- 1- 0- 6- 0T- Πάτυ
1971 +3.2 SD	04B 1945 to 2017	[A] Segment High -10  1945 1994 315 1950 1999 -117 -	<pre>[B] Entire series, effect ( Lower 1966&gt;-0.076 1945 to 1994 segment: Lower 1966&gt;-0.116 1950 to 1999 segment: Torror 1966&gt;-0.116</pre>	[E] Outliers 1 3.0 SI 1966 +4.2 SD	05A 1933 to 2017	[A] Segment High -10 	[B] Entire series, effect ( Lower 1937<-0.035 1933 to 1982 segment: Lower 1937<-0.069	[E] Outliers 1 3.0 SI 1968 +3.7 SD	05B 1932 to 2017	[B] Entire series, effect ( Lower 1968>-0.034	<pre>[E] Outliers 2 3.0 Sl 1947 +3.3 SD; 196</pre>	06A 1924 to 2017	[4] Segment High -10	

[B] Entire series, effect on co Lower 2000>-0.027 196	orrelation 35>-0.020	( 0.402) is: 1999<-0.019	1942>-0.017	1992<-0.016	1930<-0.014	Higher	1994 0.027	1927 0.018
Lower 1965>-0.040 193	30<-0.027	1974<-0.023	1940<-0.020	1947<-0.017	1929<-0.017	Higher	1927 0.042	1970 0.030
<pre>[E] Outliers 2 3.0 SD abo 1942 +5.4 SD; 1994 +3.</pre>	ove or -4.5	SD below mean	for year					
06B 1937 to 2013 77	years							Series 7
<pre>[B] Entire series, effect on co Lower 1992&lt;-0.036 196</pre>	orrelation 35>-0.033	( 0.388) is: 1942<-0.031	1999<-0.026	1998>-0.025	1991<-0.024	Higher	1994 0.036	2013 0.022
<pre>[E] Outliers 2 3.0 SD abo 1945 +3.9 SD; 1994 +3.</pre>	ve or -4.5 4 SD	SD below mean	for year					
07A 1929 to 2017 89	) years							Series 8
[A] Segment High -10 -9 	-8 -7  .1306	-6 -5 -4  .07 .1102	-3 -2 -1  .0703 .17	0 +1 +  .12 13 .2	2 +3 +4  63815 -	+5 +6  .0515	+7 +8 +  .36*14 .1	9 +10  607
[B] Entire series, effect on co Lower 1946>-0.022 196 1929 to 1978 segment:	orrelation 33>-0.021	( 0.345) is: 1949<-0.016	1933>-0.016	1931<-0.015	1952<-0.015	Higher	2014 0.030	1992 0.029
Lower 1946>-0.041 196	33>-0.039	1933>-0.028	1949<-0.027	1952<-0.027	1931<-0.026	Higher	1975 0.068	1966 0.033
<pre>[E] Outliers 3 3.0 SD abo 1976 +3.0 SD; 1992 +4.</pre>	ove or -4.5	SD below mean 012 +3.3 SD	for year					
07B 1931 to 2017 87	' years							Series 9
<pre>[B] Entire series, effect on co Lower 2013&lt;-0.021 194</pre>	trelation 45<-0.018	( 0.586) is: 2015<-0.013	1974>-0.011	1990>-0.011	1969<-0.009	Higher	2006 0.017	1951 0.012
<pre>[E] Outliers 1 3.0 SD abo 1974 +3.1 SD</pre>	ve or -4.5	SD below mean	for year					
09A 1910 to 2017 108	3 years							Series 10
[*] Early part of series cannot	be checke	i from 1910 to	1923 not ma	tched by anot	her series			
[A] Segment High -10 -9	8	-6 -5 -4	-3 -2 -1	0 + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +	2 +3 +4	+5 +6	+ 8+ 2+	9 +10 
1924 1973 -437 .09 - 1925 1974 -438 .07 -	05 .12 09 .11	.0003 .18* .0001 .15*		0. 07 09 .07 06	2 .1216 - 2 .1414 -	.0602 -		212 215

 ect on correlation (0.349) is: 083 1975<-0.056 1994<-0.033 1951>-0.025 1949<-0.020 1945<-0.014 Higher 1991 0.039 2014 0.030 nt: 123 1975<-0.092 1951>-0.040 1949<-0.031 1945<-0.022 1968<-0.015 Higher 1991 0.091 1970 0.052 nt: 117 1975<-0.085 1994<-0.050 1951>-0.035 1968<-0.014 1999<-0.014 Higher 1991 0.082 1970 0.050	.0 SD above or -4.5 SD below mean for year	7 81 years Series 15	10       -9       -8       -7       -6       -5       -4       -3       -2       -1       0       +1       +2       +3       +4       +5       +6       +7       +8       +9       +10	ect on correlation ( 0.275) is: 055 2016<-0.029 1939>-0.022 1940<-0.020 1969<-0.016 1999<-0.016 Higher 1992 0.038 2006 0.029 nt: 075 1939>-0.034 1940<-0.032 1969<-0.027 1942<-0.024 1981>-0.020 Higher 1951 0.045 1962 0.043 nt:	095 1969<-0.028 1999<-0.028 1981>-0.022 1993<-0.020 1982<-0.019 Higher 1992 0.086 1951 0.035 .0 SD above or -4.5 SD below mean for year 1992 +3.8 SD	7 75 years Series 16	10       -9       -8       -7       -6       -5       -4       -3       -2       -1       0       +1       +2       +3       +4       +5       +6       +7       +8       +9       +10	ect on correlation (0.440) is: 026 1992<-0.022 1969<-0.020 1956<-0.017 1968<-0.016 1986>-0.014 Higher 1975 0.036 2014 0.031 nt: 036 1969<-0.030 1992<-0.030 1986>-0.023 1956<-0.020 1968<-0.019 Higher 1975 0.101 1951 0.021 nt:	040 1992<-0.033 1969<-0.030 1956<-0.020 1968<-0.020 1986>-0.019 Higher 1975 0.077 1994 0.076 .0 SD above or -4.5 SD below mean for year 1994 +3.8 SD
 <pre>1 correlation ( 0.349) is: 1975&lt;-0.056 1994&lt;-0.033 1951&gt;-0 1975&lt;-0.092 1951&gt;-0.040 1949&lt;-0 1975&lt;-0.085 1994&lt;-0.050 1951&gt;-0</pre>	above or -4.5 SD below mean for yea	81 years	-9         -8         -7         -6         -5         -4         -3         -   <	r correlation ( 0.275) is: 2016<-0.029 1939>-0.022 1940<-0 1939>-0.034 1940<-0.032 1969<-0	1969<-0.028 1999<-0.028 1981>-0 above or -4.5 SD below mean for yea +3.8 SD	75 years	-9       -8       -7       -6       -5       -4       -3       -                   25       .10      02      04       .06      02       .08       .1         25      02      09      12       .02       .08       .22       .2	r correlation ( 0.440) is: 1992<-0.022 1969<-0.020 1956<-0 1969<-0.030 1992<-0.030 1986>-0	1992<-0.033 1969<-0.030 1956<-0 above or -4.5 SD below mean for yea +3.8 SD
 <pre>[B] Entire series, effect or Lower 1979&gt;-0.083 1942 to 1991 segment: Lower 1979&gt;-0.123 1950 to 1999 segment: Lower 1979&gt;-0.117</pre>	[E] Outliers 1 3.0 SD 1979 +5.1 SD	14A 1937 to 2017	[A] Segment High -10 -  1937 1986 320 .0 1950 1999 015 .0	[B] Entire series, effect or Lower 1961>-0.055 1937 to 1986 segment: Lower 1961>-0.075 1950 to 1999 segment:	Lower 1961>-0.095 [E] Outliers 2 3.0 SD 1961 +4.9 SD; 1992	15B 1943 to 2017	[A] Segment High -10 - 	[B] Entire series, effect or Lower 1991<-0.026 1943 to 1992 segment: Lower 1991<-0.036 1950 to 1999 segment:	Lower 1991<-0.040 [E] Outliers 2 3.0 SD 1952 +3.3 SD; 1994

16A 1:	931 to 2	2017	87	years	70															Geries	17
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1931 198 1950 1999 1968 201	0 m Q		 07 - 08 15		- 09 - 10	008	1 07 1 04 2 02 0	 001 014 915	 10 29	 11 23 14	 - 251 - 001	102 - 102 -	1001	5	. 33*- . 23	 - 22 - 11 -	. 23		14	-14 -17 -	
[B] Entire Lower 1931 to Lower	series, € 1992<- 1980 se£ 1970>-	effect -0.051 gment: -0.098	on cc 197 195	rrelat 0>-0.0	tion ( )46 ( )35 3	0.31 1994< 1931<-	2) is: -0.036 -0.035	195	37>-0.0 12>-0.0	25 1 34 1	.931<-0	.019	1985. 1957:	>-0.017	7 High I High	er	2005 ( 1935 (	0.052 0.047	20:196	14 0.038 36 0.029	~ ~
1950 to Lower 1968 to	1999 set 1992<- 2017 set	-0.080 -0.080	197	0>-0.0	73	1994<	-0.054	195	0.0-<7	39 1	985>-0	.027	1959	>-0.02	5 High	er er	1991 (	0.041	196	56 0.038	m
[E] Outlier 1970	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	3.0	SD abo	ve or	-4.5	SD be:	low me	an for	year	2					11 2 11	1			2		
FART 7: DES	CRIPTIVE	STATI:	STICS:												16:-	40 T	ue 14	 May 2	2019	Page	
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MEASUREMENTS	
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Coastal.txt File of DATED series:

CONTENTS:

- Title page, options selected, summary, absent rings by series Histogram of time spans
- Master series with sample depth and absent rings by year Part 1: Part 2: Part 3:

  - Bar plot of Master Dating Series Correlation by segment of each series with Master Part 4: Part 5:
- Potential problems: low correlation, divergent year-to-year changes, absent rings, outliers Part 6:
  - Descriptive statistics Part 7:

RUN CONTROL OPTIONS SELECTED

VALUE

Cubic smoothing spline 50% wavelength cutoff for filtering ---

- Segments examined are
- 50 years 50 years lagged successively by 25 years A Residuals are used in master dating series and testing Autoregressive model applied
  - Series not transformed to logarithms 0 m 4 m
- CORRELATION is Pearson (parametric, quantitative)
- Critical correlation, 99% confidence level 0.3281
  - Master dating series saved Ring measurements listed 9~86

118

- Parts printed
- E Absent rings are omitted from master series and segment correlations 1234567

years	years	years
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2017	2017	2017
to	to	to
1895	1895	1897
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Master series 1895 2017 123 yrs \*0\* Total rings in all series 1504 \*F\* 19 \*C\* 1502 \*E\* \*C\* Number of dated series

\*

0.418 \*C\* 0.511 \*H\* 20 \*A\* \* 79.0 \*\*\* Segments, possible problems \*0\* Master series 1895 2017 123 \*F\* Total rings in all series \*E\* Total dated rings checked \*C\* Series intercorrelation ( \*H\* Average mean sensitivity ( \*\*\* Mean length of series \*¥\*

(See Master Dating Series for absent rings listed by year) ABSENT RINGS listed by SERIES:

No ring measurements of zero value PART 2: TIME PLOT OF TREE-RING SERIES:

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Yrs

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17:07 Mon 13 May 2019 Page 5	= correlation higher at other than dated position		
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	ems t serie rlier	h mos value	ent f		liers	w		.13 -	tion 036 054	-4.5	w	tion 045	-4.5
2B	oroble cing	whic] tes	ffer		out	year	۰ ۳	- 80	rela.	re or	year	rrela <sup>.</sup> )<-0.0	re or
- 0 -	ial F r dat	lues	ry di	les)	tica]	68	6   	05 -	n co 1967 1967	abor	48	n co1 1979	abor
0.2 2	otent maste	ta va ear i	es ve	valu	tatis 	2	10	00	ect o 046 nt: 067	.0 SD	2	ect o 063	.0 SD
2017 2017 2017 2017 2013 2013 2013 2017 2017 2017 2017	ith p vith j	se da ing y	chang	(zero	are s	201	i i		eff )<-0. )<-0. )<-0.	с П	201	, eff 1<-0.	۳ 
1950 1956 1951 1951 1935 1909 1953 1953 1953 1953 1953	es wi ons v	thos 110wi	'ear c	ngs (	uich a	0 to	Higt 	1	1975 1975 999 a	2 SI	0 to	ries <sub>.</sub> 1974	. 0 SI
nt co 	seri elati verv	ct of ol fo	-to-y	nt ri	es wh	195	ent 	1999	re se wer to 1 wer	iers 91 +3 =====	197	re se wer	iers 87 +3 ====
09B 10A 110A 113A 114A 114B 115A 115A 15B segmei 6: 1	each Corr	Effe	Year	Absei	Valu		Segm	1950	Enti Lo 1950 Lo	0ut1 19		Enti Lo	0ut1 19
12 13 14 15 15 17 18 18 19 19 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	For [A]	[B]	<u>ວ</u>	9	Ξ	01A	[A]		[B]	[E]	02A	[8]	Ξ

02B 1967 to 2017			Series 3
[B] Entire series, effect on Lower 1993<-0.082 19	.574) is: 38>-0.029 1977<-0.013 2012<-0.013 1984>-	0.010 Higher 2017 0.024	1990 0.023
[E] Outliers 1 3.0 SD al 1988 +3.6 SD	below mean for year		
03A 1895 to 2017 1			Series 4
[*] Early part of series canno	com 1895 to 1896 not matched by another sen	ies	
[A] Segment High -10 -9  1897 1946 5 1900 1949 5 1925 1974 515 .11	-5     -4     -3     -2     -1     0     +1     +2     +3                         -     -     03    04     .30     112     .06     .15       .09    18    12     .04    07     .26     .03     .21       .10    06    08     .20     .08     .31     .14     .01     .25	+4 +5 +6 +7 +8  .14 .37*08 .17 .13 .12 .38*07 .18 .16	+9 +10  20 -12 117 -17 117 -07
[B] Entire series, effect on Lower 1929>-0.022 20 1897 +0.1946 segment:	.386) is: 20<-0.015 1916>-0.013 1927<-0.013 1947<-	0.012 Higher 1944 0.037	2016 0.020
Lower 1929>-0.037 191900 to 1949 segment:	27<-0.026 1899<-0.023 1945>-0.015 1904<-	0.013 Higher 1944 0.087	1900 0.023
Lower 1929>-0.035 1929>-0.035 1929>-0.035 1925 +0.0374 segment:	27<-0.027 1947<-0.026 1904<-0.014 1945>-	0.013 Higher 1944 0.103	1900 0.024
Lower 1929>-0.051 1	47<-0.031 1945>-0.020 1961>-0.016 1968<-	0.011 Higher 1944 0.118	1972 0.032
<pre>[E] Outliers 3 3.0 SD al 1916 +4.7 SD; 1929 +.</pre>	below mean for year +3.7 SD		
03B 1897 to 2017 1			Series 5
[A] Segment High -10 -9	-5 -4 -3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 	+4 +5 +6 +7 +8	+9 +10
1897       1946       1       -       -         1900       1949       6       -       -       -         1925       1974       6       -       26       -       04	10 18 15  25*-09 14 -18 19 -07 02 14 13  25 -04 18 -12 24 -08 -07 02 19  25 -05 -01	.00 .06 .213102 .01 .13 .31*25 .01 .11 .09 .36*32 .24	.05 .01 .09 .03 .0417
[B] Entire series, effect on ( Lower 1938>-0.041 1900 1000 1000 1000 1000 1000 1000 1	340) is: 54>-0.020 1918>-0.016 1946<-0.011 1917>-	0.011 Higher 1944 0.023	2006 0.022
Lower 1938>-0.064 10 Lower 1938>-0.064 10 1000 +0.1010 common+:	18>-0.029 1917>-0.019 1946<-0.019 1899>-	0.018 Higher 1944 0.073	1925 0.055
Lower 1974 segment: Lower 1938>-0.064 19 1975 to 1974 segment:	18>-0.031 1917>-0.020 1931>-0.019 1946<-	0.019 Higher 1944 0.084	1925 0.058
Lower 1938>-0.070 1	39<-0.029 1946<-0.024 1931>-0.021 1943>-	0.021 Higher 1944 0.074	1925 0.070
[C] Year-to-year changes dive 1937 1938 4.3 SD 19	.0 std deviations: 3D		

[E] Outliers 2 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD below mean for year 1938 +5.0 SD; 1964 +3.2 SD		
04B 1926 to 2017 92 years		Series 6
[A] Segment High -10 -9 -8 -7 -6 -5 -4 -3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 +4 +5 +6 +7 		+9 +10 
1926       1975       -5       .10      03       .15      09       .13       .46*06       .17       .05       .06       .40 16       .18       .10      04       .01      06       .07          1950       1999       -5      01      03       .09       .04      06       .03       .21       .28       .28       .04        .28       .07      05       .19       .02       .09          1968       2017       -5      11      21       .01      05       .41*       .06       .15       .16       .21       .21       -       166       .07       -       .06       .07       .05       .09       .09       -       .11       -	06 .0715 .   .02 .0914 . 	1910 0907 
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation (0.326) is: Lower 1992>-0.029 1980>-0.018 1988<-0.016 1974<-0.015 1969>-0.014 1996>-0.014 Higher 1944 0 2000	igher 1944 0.069	1932 0.028
1926 to 1975 segment: Lower 1949>-0.048 1969>-0.044 1974<-0.034 1968<-0.025 1955>-0.017 1973>-0.017 Higher 1944 0	gher 1944 0.177	1932 0.066
<pre>1950 to 1999 segment: Lower 1988&lt;-0.028 1974&lt;-0.024 1969&gt;-0.024 1996&gt;-0.024 1986&gt;-0.021 1968&lt;-0.019 Higher 1994 0</pre>	lgher 1994 0.041	1990 0.023
lses to 2017 segment: Lower 1992>-0.042 1988<-0.027 1980>-0.026 1974<-0.024 1969>-0.019 1968<-0.019 Higher 2006 0	lgher 2006 0.062	2016 0.041
[C] Year-to-year changes diverging by over 4.0 std deviations: 1991 1992 4.3 SD		
[E] Outliers 2 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD below mean for year 1949 +4.4 SD; 1992 +4.1 SD		
05B 1966 to 2017 52 years		Series 7
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation (0.449) is: Lower 1993<-0.063 1970>-0.050 1999>-0.024 1989>-0.019 1979<-0.015 1983>-0.013 Higher 2016 0	igher 2016 0.049	1990 0.035
[E] Outliers 1 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD below mean for year 1999 +3.2 SD		
06B 1950 to 2017 68 years		Series 8
[A] Segment High -10 -9 -8 -7 -6 -5 -4 -3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 +4 +5 +6 +7 	5 +6 +7 +8 	+9 +10 
LOU 1999 I -112 .04 -09 -11 -10 .02 -121 -10 .02 .04 -10 .11 .23* .19 .13 .02 -10 -10 -00 [B] Entire series, effect on correlation ( 0.332) is: Lower 1993<-0.055 1962>-0.034 1964>-0.025 1991<-0.023 1999<-0.023 1975<-0.017 Higher 1990 0	то	2017 0.050
1950 to 1999 segment: Lower 1993<-0.064 1962>-0.042 1964>-0.031 1999<-0.025 1975<-0.019 1991<-0.019 Higher 1990 0	gher 1990 0.181	1968 0.027
[C] Year-to-year changes diverging by over 4.0 std deviations: 1990 1991 -4.1 SD 1993 1994 4.3 SD		

[E] Outliers 2 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD below mean for year 1962 +3.1 SD; 1990 +4.7 SD		
07A 1920 to 2017 98 years		Series 9
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation (0.664) is: Lower 1973>-0.021 1992>-0.013 1975<-0.009 1936<-0.009 1964>-0.008 1942>-0.007 Higher 1944 0.0	r 1944 0.027	1925 0.016
[E] Outliers 1 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD below mean for year 1979 +3.7 SD		
07B 1920 to 2017 98 years		Series 10
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation (0.543) is: Lower 2011>-0.035 1940>-0.012 1941<-0.010 1991<-0.009 1983<-0.009 1938<-0.007 Higher 1944 0.0	r 1944 0.037	1993 0.020
[E] Outliers 3 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD below mean for year 1944 +4.7 SD; 1979 +3.6 SD; 2011 +3.4 SD		
09A 1950 to 2017 68 years		Series 11
[A] Segment High -10 -9 -8 -7 -6 -5 -4 -3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 +4 +5 +6 +7 +8	+0 +1 +8	+9 +10
	0102 .00	.18 .09
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation (0.297) is: Lower 1965>-0.058 1972<-0.045 1974<-0.031 1990<-0.021 1963>-0.018 1957>-0.017 Higher 2017 0.0 1050 + 1000 commonth	r 2017 0.059	1991 0.042
1900 to 1999 segment: Lower 1965>-0.070 1972<-0.060 1974<-0.042 1990<-0.026 1963>-0.023 1957>-0.022 Higher 1991 0.0	r 1991 0.075	1993 0.072
[E] Outliers 1 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD below mean for year 1965 +4.5 SD		
09B 1950 to 2017 68 years		Series 12
[A] Segment High -10 -9 -8 -7 -6 -5 -4 -3 -2 -1 0 +1 +2 +3 +4 +5 +6 +7 +8	+0 +1 +8	+9 +10
	 052107	.05 .02
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation (0.324) is: Lower 1972<-0.085 1965>-0.040 1968<-0.024 2012<-0.020 1971>-0.018 1974<-0.017 Higher 2017 0.0 1050 +0.1000 commont.	r 2017 0.048	1991 0.041
Lower 1972<-0.121 1965>-0.048 1968<-0.034 1974<-0.025 1971>-0.023 1966<-0.019 Higher 1991 0.0	r 1991 0.066	1994 0.052
[C] Year-to-year changes diverging by over 4.0 std deviations: 1971 1972 -4.3 SD		

<pre>[E] Outliers 2 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD bel 1965 +3.4 SD; 1978 +3.4 SD </pre>	slow mean	or year		
10A 1956 to 2017 62 years				Series 13
[A] Segment High -10 -9 -8 -7 -6 - 	-5 -4  1011	-3 -2 -1 0 +1  07 .55*06 .42 07	+2 +3 +4 +5 +6  .04 .0204 .12 .08	+7 +8 +9 +10  .131308 .06
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation (0.511 Lower 1979<-0.057 1967>-0.055 1991<- 1956 to 2005 segment: 1.0wer 1979<-0.074 1967>-0.067 1991<-	.1) is: -0.044	987<-0.017 1956>-0.011 987<-0.021 1975<-0.014	1975<-0.011 Higher 1956>-0.013 Higher	1993 0.051 2006 0.026 1993 0.100 1974 0.026
[E] Outliers 2 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD bel 1967 +3.4 SD; 1993 +3.4 SD	low mean	or year	0	
10B 1951 to 2017 67 years				Series 14
[A] Segment High -10 -9 -8 -7 -6 - 	-5 -4  0803	-3 -2 -1 0 +1  08 .53*03 .24 20	+2 +3 +4 +5 +6  .16 .040212 .08	+7 +8 +9 +10  .0710 .06 .07
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation (0.381 Lower 1979<-0.041 1991<-0.035 1965>- 1951 to 2000 segment: Lower 1979<-0.052 1991<-0.043 1965>-	31) is: 0.031 0.036	976>-0.025 1952<-0.025 976>-0.032 1952<-0.031	1955>-0.022 Higher 1955>-0.029 Higher	1993 0.071 2016 0.048 1993 0.144 1968 0.031
<pre>[E] Outliers 2 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD bel 1993 +3.2 SD; 1995 +3.0 SD</pre>	low mean	or year	,	
13A 1935 to 2017 83 years				Series 15
[A] Segment High -10 -9 -8 -7 -6 - 	-5 -4  06 .23	-3 -2 -1 0 +1  14 .1722 .09  .07	+2 +3 +4 +5 +6  .11 .2327 .13 .01	+7 +8 +9 +10  .05 .120113
[B] Entire series, effect on correlation (0.420 Lower 1944<-0.041 1948>-0.033 1968<- 1935 to 1984 segment: Lower 1948>-0.049 1968<-0.045 1944<-	20) is: (-0.030 (-0.035	953<-0.019 1945<-0.017 974<-0.023 1971>-0.022	1998>-0.017 Higher 1953<-0.022 Higher	1993 0.030 1990 0.029 1979 0.089 1972 0.055
[E] Outliers 1 3.0 SD above or -4.5 SD bel 1948 +3.1 SD	low mean	or year		
14A 1909 to 2013 105 years				Series 16

[A] Segn	ent Hi	igh	-10	6-	° I	-7	9	ب	-4	ņ ņ	2 -1	0	+1	+2	+3 +4	4£	9+	+ 2+	φ.	9 +1(	0					
1909 1925	1958 - 1974 -	မကမ	. 18	16 17	 13 - .10 -	. 13	.17 .31*	321	- 4] - 4] - 4] - 60	9.10 10.1		 12 - .04 -	. 13 . 13 . 13	02	03 .23 02 .25 02 .25	- 11 11 06	14 14	. 13 . 0 . 06 - 2	1 - 12 - 13 - 13							
[B] Enti Lo 1905 1905 1905 1925 Lo	re serié ver 15 to 1958 ver 1974 to 1974 ver 19	es, ef 919>-C 8 segn 919>-0 919>-0 944<-0	fect c .052 ent: .075 ent: .052	n co: 194. 193( 193(	rrela 4<-0. 9<-0.	tion 042 033 043	(0.28) 1939< 1944< 1944<	9) is -0.028 -0.028		16<-0 49<-0	.024 .023 .030	1949<- 1940>- 1949<-	-0.018 -0.020 -0.029	194 194 194	5>-0.016 5>-0.014 7>-0.019	6 Hig 1 Hig 9 Hig	ler ler	1993 0. 1925 0. 1925 0.	050 075 070	1979 1920 1972	0.028 0.034 0.055					
[C] Year 19	-to-year 18 1919	r chan 4.2	iges di SD	verg 1944	ing b 4 194	y ove 5 4	64.0 .9 SD	std de	eviati	:suo																
[E] Out] 19 	iers 19 +3.8	4 SD;	3.0 SI 1920 	) abo	ve or 1 SD; 	-4.5	SD be 947 +3	.2 SD	ean fo	r yea 993 +	r 3.6 SD															
14B	1909 t	to 20	13	105	year	Ø														Sej	ries 17					
[A] Segr  1909	ent Hi  1958	igh  3	-10  .06	 01 0 01	1 30 1 30 1 1 30	7 7 - 03	25   - 25   6	2   2 20   2	- 4	ώ   4. .   ς	2 - 4	0  -04 -	- +1 	+2	+3 +4  36*11	- +5 - 09	9+ - - 08 - 08	+ 7 + +	0   0 -   + -   -	+ 10 - 00 - 00 - 00						
1925	1974 -	- 2	. 06	- 00	.27	.03 -	.23	01 .(	.0	1.3	0*15	.13	.12	. 60	2507	.05	.10	.23 .1	. 00	8 - 0	~					
[B] Enti Lo 1909	re serié ver 15 to 1958	es, ef 911<-0 3 seom	fect c .036 ent:	on co: 194,	rrela 4<-0.	tion 029	1919<	8) is -0.02	: L 19	38<-0	.017	1933>-	-0.013	193	9<-0.013	2 Higl	ler	1993 0.	039	1979	0.025					
1925 1925	wer 15 to 1974	911<-C	.051 ent:	191	9<-0.	031	1938<	-0.02	5 19	33>-0	.024	1946>-	-0.017	194	4<-0.016	6 Hig	ler	1916 0.	068	1932	0.048					
Γo	wer 19	944<-C	.039	193	8<-0.	034	1933>	-0.029	9 19	59>-0	.024	1946>-	-0.022	194	9<-0.02	L Hig	ıer	1932 0.	052	1972	0.051					
[E] Out] 19 ========	iers 21 +3.2 =======	1 SD	3.0 SI	) abo	ve or =====	-4.5	SD be	low m(	ean fo	r yea:	= = 															
15A	1953 t	to 20	17	65	year	ß														Sej	ries 18					
[B] Enti Lo	re serie ver 15	es, ef 993<-C	fect c	201 <sup>0</sup>	rrela 7<-0.	tion 028	1969>	6) is -0.01	10	81<-0	.012	1953>-	-0.012	198	7<-0.01	L Higl	ler	1991 0.	036	2016	0.029					
15B	1956 t	to 20	17	62	year	ß														Sej	cies 19					
[B] Enti Lc	re serie ver 19	es, ef 993<-0	fect c .030	n co: 1992	rrela 2<-0.	tion 016	(0.59	2) is -0.013	19	0->27	.012	1969>-	-0.010	200	8>-0.010	) Hig	ıer	1991 0.	030	2017	0.028					
[E] Out]	iers	1	3.0 SL	) abo	ve or	-4.5	SD be	low me	ean fo	r yea:	ц г															
	ige 6																									
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	lay 2019 Pa																									
	n 13 M	-			2	1	1	0		1	1	1	1	2	2	2	7	-	2	4	1	4		7	!	
	17 Moi	-	De	00 D V		0.003	0.002	-0.003	-0.010	-0.003	-0.004	-0.008	-0.009	-0.002	0.006	0.013	-0.029	-0.022	0.009	-0.007	-0.023	-0.015	0.006	0.022		
4.1 SD	17:(	-	Filter(	2010		0.702	0.909	0.704 -	0.735 -	0.571 -	0.773 -	0.829 -	1.247 -	0.697 -	0.750	0.601	0.610 -	0.772 -	0.897	0.521 -	0.714 -	0.633 -	0.652	0.916		
			// Mow	סוון ביי	AULUE	2.59	2.45	2.18	2.97	2.31	2.84	2.12	5.60	2.57	3.69	1.87	1.62	2.89	3.41	1.33	2.84	1.78	1.62	4.02		
		-	//		A LI A	0.514	0.675	0.572	0.517	0.442	0.506	0.573	0.502	0.484	0.459	0.481	0.472	0.514	0.662	0.408	0.517	0.502	0.528	0.591		
		٦	pe	D T T C T		0.263	0.299	0.546	0.559	0.585	0.456	0.481	0.469	0.640	0.536	0.443	0.473	0.575	0.406	0.818	0.693	0.758	0.420	0.414		
		-	LILTEre C+A			1.304	1.338	1.649	1.405	1.363	1.816	1.457	1.296	1.762	1.565	0.924	0.868	1.470	1.479	1.859	1.860	1.989	1.215	1.825		
		E	un *em	memt		6.69	5.69	7.00	8.00	8.51	10.59	5.44	5.57	8.17	9.72	4.04	3.64	6.67	7.16	7.21	8.55	9.14	4.83	9.15		
			//	memt		2.13	1.78	2.17	1.73	1.62	1.80	1.93	1.62	1.61	1.54	1.54	1.50	1.76	1.70	1.98	1.81	2.05	1.86	2.07		
		τ	Corr i+h	Mactor	Tay set	0.283	0.454	0.574	0.386	0.340	0.326	0.449	0.332	0.664	0.543	0.297	0.324	0.511	0.381	0.420	0.289	0.318	0.626	0.592		
			M.O.	.04 1 a f a	г н дух 	1	0	0	ო	ო	ო	0	-	0	0	-	-	-1	-1	-	2	0	0	0		
			MO	Comt		2	1	2	ഹ	ഹ	ო	7	7	4	4	2	2	2	2	ო	4	4	2	7		
	ISTICS:		MO	Vove V	I EQLS	68	48	51	123	121	92	52	68	<u> 8</u> 6	<u> 8</u> 6	68	68	62	67	83	105	105	65	62		
	RIPTIVE STAT			Tntorio		1950 2017	1970 2017	1967 2017	1895 2017	1897 2017	1926 2017	1966 2017	1950 2017	1920 2017	1920 2017	1950 2017	1950 2017	1956 2017	1951 2017	1935 2017	1909 2013	1909 2013	1953 2017	1956 2017		
1991 +	PART 7: DESCI			Con Corioe	sat jac hac	1 01A	2 02A	3 02B	4 03A	5 03B	6 04B	7 05B	8 06B	9 07A	10 07B	11 09A	12 09B	13 10A	14 10B	15 13A	16 14A	17 14B	18 15A	19 15B		

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## Vita

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