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# DENDTROTEMPESTOLOGY: IDENTIFYING THE STATISTICAL RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HURRICANES AND TREE GROWTH IN THE PINE SAVANNAS OF COASTAL MISSISSIPPI

A Thesis

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 Master of Science

in

The Department of Geography and Anthropology

by Clay Stephens Tucker B.S., Louisiana State University, 2013 December 2015

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#### ABSTRACT

Coastal trees in the Gulf of Mexico region are impacted by high winds, heavy precipitation, and storm surge from hurricanes. This study attempts to establish the relationship between pine trees in Grand Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve (GBNERR), Mississippi, U.S.A. and hurricanes that impacted that area in the last 80 years. Indexed ring widths are analyzed against hurricane high winds and storm surge records. In this study, I find tree growth is significantly ( $p \le 0.05$ ) reduced the year after a hurricane. Suppression chronology analysis assesses the relationship of delayed or lagged effects of hurricanes on tree growth and finds tree growth is stunted for three years following the top ten ranked storms impacting this site. Additionally, earlywood tree growth, which forms in spring months, is also significantly related to the Palmer Drought Severity Index. This study shows that trees are resilient to hurricanes, and I hypothesize that they survive by concentrating growth on crown repair thus reducing growth in the stem, or trunk of the tree. This research can be used to expand knowledge on coastal restoration efforts, the effects of climate change on maritime forests, and is a step forward in producing longer chronologies of hurricane occurrences.

#### **1. INTRODUCTION**

On August 29, 2005, Hurricane Katrina made landfall near Bay St. Louis, Mississippi. The storm produced wind speeds in excess of 53 ms<sup>-1</sup> and a storm surge of 8.2 m in Gulfport, MS (Burton and Hicks 2005; Knabb et al. 2005). The property damage from Hurricane Katrina totaled \$108 billion, at least 1,833 people died, and the events proceeding the hurricane displaced more than half of the residents of New Orleans, Louisiana (Knabb et al. 2005). This represents the deadliest hurricane since the 1928 Okeechobee Hurricane and the costliest natural disaster in United States hurricane history. Planning for and prediction of future hurricanes is essential for the protection of lives and property (Knabb et al. 2005). The Gulf of Mexico coast provides a suitable area for improving knowledge of the economic importance of coastal wetlands (Barbier et al. 2013).

Predictions of future events have been based on return periods, or the likelihood of an event occurring. Return periods are empirically based on the occurrences found in historical data. Keim et al. (2007) presents a good example of return periods of hurricane occurrences in the North Atlantic. Return periods for that study were calculated by dividing the number of hurricanes by the number of years of the hurricane record. For example, St. Petersburg, Florida received two major hurricanes within the 105-year record and is expected to experience wind speeds of greater than or equal to 50 ms<sup>-1</sup> once every 52 years. Though this is a useful statistic, the available data record used for analysis includes only 105 years of data (1901 – 2005). To strengthen the confidence of this return period estimate, more robust statistics can be applied or the period of record can be lengthened.

Extreme value statistics are a robust form of analysis used to produce return periods that estimate the frequency of hurricanes and their associated climatic variables beyond the known

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period of record (Elsner et al. 2012; Trepanier et al. 2015). Proxy records are used to reconstruct past climate to increase the amount of climate data known beyond human-written records. Dendroclimatology uses tree rings as a proxy for past climate. Trees are susceptible to precipitation and temperature changes and other environmental forcings, and they record this information in annual growth bands (Douglass 1909, 1944). Dendrochronology relies on seven principles. One of these principles is the Principle of Limiting Factors (Speer 2010). A limiting factor, also known as a stressor, is an environmental component that limits primary or secondary growth of a tree from year-to-year. The largest limiting factor of growth for trees is water (Loomans 1993). If a tree receives adequate amounts of water, it grows well. Other stressors include lack of sunlight, temperature, insect infestation, and competition from other plants, to name a few (Douglass 1909; Fritts 1976). Particularly for this study, a stressor of trees along the Gulf of Mexico Coast is saltwater and its effects (e.g. increased evaporation, decreased soil moisture, and mineral accumulation in the plant) (Conner et al. 1997; Pezeshki et al. 1990). This study explores the effects of hurricanes on trees and if tree rings can be used as proxies for past hurricanes.

In the following section of this thesis, past studies in hurricane climatology using different proxies are reviewed. Next, field methods specific to this study are explained, including use of coastal pine trees for dendrochronological research, and statistical methods specific to this study. Different statistical methods are compared and contrasted. Lastly, relationships between tree growth and hurricane characteristics are discussed, along with possible explanations for this relationship.

#### **1.1 Literature Review**

Dendroclimatology is the study of past climate using trees, usually using growth patterns assessed through annual growth rings. Trees form growth bands each year that are affected by many variables such as water and nutrient availability (Douglass 1909; Fritts 1976). This allows dendroclimatology to be effective in determining annual, and often seasonal, climate forcings (e.g., Briffa 2000; Fritts 1976; Speer 2010). Evidence of precipitation variability (e.g., Therrell et al. 2006), global teleconnections (e.g., Therrell 2011), wildfire occurrences (e.g., Harley et al. 2012a), flooding regimes (e.g., Smith et al. 2013; Stahle et al. 2003), and hurricane occurrences (e.g., Miller et al. 2006) have been found through the use of dendroclimatology.

Tree rings have been used widely for reproducing both climatic and terrestrial forcing for tree growth and response (Briffa 1995; Fritts 1976; Therrell 2011). Growth bands provide a rich source of high-resolution paleoclimatic data (Briffa 2000; Speer 2010). Trees can supply seasonal data because they form two separate growth bands during a year. During the beginning of the typical growing season (March – May, for southeast U. S. pine species), the growth band portion known as the "earlywood" grows less densly than the growth bands that form during the late growing season (June – October), also known as "latewood" (Byram and Doolittle 1950; Jackson 1952; Langdon 1963).

The driving force for this research is to study the effects of hurricanes on the Gulf of Mexico coastal landscape. This study will assess these effects in two ways: (1) by increasing knowledge on hurricane occurrences in the known record thus improving hurricane frequency analyses, and (2) by increasing the amount of knowledge of hurricane impacts on coastal forest ecology. By increasing our knowledge of damage done by hurricanes, we can better protect humans and their property for future hurricane occurrences.

Paleotempestology, a term coined by Dr. Kam-biu Liu at Louisiana State University (LSU), is the study of past hurricane occurrences (Murnane and Liu 2004). Some hurricane occurrences are recorded as far back as 1,000 years ago, however, those records are from China and contain

few quantitative records of the storms (Louie and Liu 2004). Some hurricanes are recorded by ships during the Colonial Era as far back as the 1500s, but the written record for landfalling hurricanes in the Atlantic Basin extends back until the 1700s when newspapers became popular in the United States (Boose 2004; Mock 2004). Several proxy methods are now used to reconstruct hurricanes before that record. These studies include, but are not limited to, corals (Kilbourne et al. 2011), sediments (Hesp and Short 1999; Liu and Fearn 1993, 2000), speleothems (Frappier et al. 2007; Knabb et al. 2005), and, most recently, trees (Miller et al. 2006).

Hurricane effects on coastal ecology are debated. First, the sedimentation processes cause by hurricane storm surge are not yet well understood (Tornqvist et al. 2007; Turner et al. 2006). This sedimentation directly affects the nutrients available to the ecosystem and the substrate on which plants can grow. Numerous studies examine the direct effects of hurricanes on the total coastal pine savanna ecosystem (Batista and Platt 2003; Curtis 1942; Doyle et al. 1995; Platt et al. 2002). Some of these studies note that a hurricane occurrence is not completely detrimental to coastal forests. They are noted as a "disturbance" and not a total "catastrophe", wherein a disturbance happens more frequently, does not completely reset the ecosystem, and rather acts to weed out weaker specimens allowing the strong to thrive. In other words, these coastal pine trees are well adapted to coastal ecosystems and instead of large amounts of tree mortality, the trees are defoliated and roots are starved of oxygen. The tree must then concentrate on repairing itself rather than expanding its stem. Trees not stressed by coastal processes may not respond the same to these hurricanes. With less densely packed rings, the tree stem is more susceptible to uprooting and snapping from wind (Doyle et al. 1995).

More importantly for this study, a few studies examine the effects of hurricanes on coastal tree growth. One such study shows that tree growth actually increased following a hurricane occurrence (Rodgers III et al. 2006). The explanation for this was that the hurricane was so damaging that when the weakest trees died during the hurricane, those trees that did survive took advantage of the lack of competition. However, this result is contradictory to previous studies in a few ways. First, the trees used in Rodgers III et al. (2006) were the largest trees in the stand. These would not have been the trees to take advantage of the lack of competition because they would not have been affected by competition initially. Second, it has been noted that the largest trees are the most affected by high winds (Curtis 1942; Doyle et al. 1995; Earley 2004; Francis and Gillespie 1993). High winds are expected to affect growth because of loss of limbs and leaves. Instead of the tree concentrating energy on stem growth, it must first repair itself. This means that the trees used in that study would have been the most negatively affected by hurricanes. Finally, this result does not follow principles of fresh water availability to the trees. During these hurricanes, salt water from the storm surge inundate the area, and Rodgers III et al (2006) did not analyze the effects of storm surge. Salt water tolerance for these trees is low and likely detrimental to tree growth (Conner et al. 1997; Pezeshki et al. 1990). As partial motivation for this study, it is assumed that the effects of data manipulation during statistical processing of the raw tree ring widths affected the results of the Rodgers et al. (2006) study.

#### **1.2 Research Objectives**

The Mississippi Gulf Coast is an active region for hurricanes (Keim et al. 2007). The five most economically impactful, socially remembered, and highest magnitude hurricanes in the past 70 years made landfall near Pascagoula, MS and include the 1947 Hurricane, Hurricane Camille (1969), Frederic (1979), Georges (1998), and Katrina (2005). These hurricanes created storm surges that impacted numerous forested areas along the northern Gulf of Mexico Coast, including the Pearl River Wildlife Management Area, Grand Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve, and

Weeks Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve. This combination of coastal forests and frequent intense hurricanes provides a place to study the relationships between hurricanes and tree growth.

No method has yet been described as a "best practice" for studying relationships between trees and hurricanes. This study furthers the knowledge for the relationship between hurricanes and tree growth to one day improve the known record of hurricanes in future studies. A master chronology of tree growth is formed from slash pine trees growing within three kilometers of the Gulf of Mexico in southern Mississippi. It is expected that the trees in this area will grow less the year immediately following a hurricane because most hurricanes make landfall in this area after the growing season of the trees. Less than normal (mean) tree growth is expected because of winddamaged branches and leaves, and salt-water inundation from storm surge. Research objectives are as follows:

- 1.) Find an efficient field method for identifying trees most affected by hurricanes.
- 2.) Analyze growth rings for their relationship to hurricanes.
- 3.) Analyze growth rings for their relationship to annual climate.

Correlating these tree proxy data with known hurricane occurrences allows for expansion in dendrotempestology, the study of tropical storms using tree rings. Field methods and data used in this study are new to both dendrochronology and hurricane climatology, and these methods can be applied to future dendrotempestological research. If a relationship exists between tree growth and hurricane occurrence, then trees older than the historical hurricane record can be used to extend the current hurricane record. Additionally, damage from hurricanes can also be better understood if one hurricane variable correlates better to low tree growth than another. Lastly, experimental design is important to this research. Likely, trees closest to the coast will be affected by storm surge, and trees further inland will be more affected by wind. After a relationship is found, dendrotempestology can expand into these deeper topics.

#### 2. DATA AND METHODS

## 2.1 Study Area

The North American Coastal Plain (NACP) is a geologically similar landscape that stretches from southern Texas along the Gulf of Mexico to New England adjacent to the Atlantic Ocean (Figure 1) (Noss et al. 2014). The NACP is comprised of fluvial and marine sediments deposited in the last 60 million years and covers over 1 million km<sup>2</sup>. It contains more than 1,800 endemic species of vascular plants and is recognized as a biodiversity hotpot (Noss et al. 2014).



Figure 1: A map of the North American Coastal Plain comprised of the Coastal Plain Floristic Province and the Geological Coastal Plain The NACP is home to a similar climatic landscape and is considered humid subtropical according to the Köppen climate types. In general, it receives plenty of precipitation and few days with freezing temperatures. This makes the NACP a prime location for forest growth. Hurricanes also occur in this area frequently. This means that many coastal locations in the NACP would be prime areas for the study of dendrotempestology.

Trees for this study are found in a pine savanna/salt marsh habitat in coastal Mississippi in a reserve known as the Grand Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve (GBNERR) (Figure 2). Pine tree species are well studied in respect to tree-climate relationships (Henderson and Grissino-Mayer 2009; Platt 1999). GBNERR lies in an area heavily impacted by hurricanes in the past century (Keim et al. 2007).



Figure 2: A map showing Grand Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve in red.

GBNERR is one of 28 stations around the United States used to monitor coastal and estuarine resources. GBNERR is located near the center of the NACP in coastal Mississippi. It is a unique pine savanna/salt marsh habitat covering 7,284 hectares of southern Mississippi (Hilbert 2006). Though pine trees are ubiquitous throughout GBNERR, pine trees closest to the coast grow on areas known as salt panne islands. Personal, visual analysis of the landscape reveals that the pine trees growing close to the coast only grow on the highest lands capable of supporting a fresh water table. Often, it appears that the lowest grounds are ancient tidal creeks and relict riverbeds.

Any plants growing on the islands suffer from periodic saltwater inundation, and as the islands sink and shrink from saltwater inundation and sediment compaction, the flora disappear. Figure 3 shows the dynamic morphology of salt panne islands: the island at the top left (1) is still relatively healthy as compared to (2), whose vegetated area has shrunken significantly. Island (3) is completely void of vegetation and is now a salt bed due to high salinity levels in the soil. Dead trees and tree stumps can be found in places where the soil has completely bleached showing that vegetation dies near the edges of salt pannes. These salt pannes are similar to the forest resource islands described in the Everglades National Park in southern Florida (Ross and Sah 2011).

GBNERR was established as a National Estuarine Research Reserve in 1999 as a result of the Coastal Zone Management Act of 1972 (Hilbert 2006). Before this time, a small homestead existed at the northern end of the NERR. National buy-backs of the land to be set as a NERR were begun in 1993. Some private holdings still remain within the main boundaries o GBNERR: three temporary housing establishments used as fishing camps, a boat launch, a small number of permanent houses, and a firing range. However, since the mid-1900s, much of Grand Bay has been undisturbed by human activity. This makes GBNERR a suitable area for ecological studies.



Figure 3: An image showing the different stages of a salt panne island at the southern end of the pine savannas in GBNERR: (1) is a healthy, vegetated salt panne, (2) is vegetated, but degraded from stage 1, and (3) is now void of vegetation. The inset is the boundaries of GBNERR with this site in green.

Unfortunately, many of the trees in GBNERR do not exceed 100 years old (pre-1920s). Therefore, extending the known record with this area is not possible, but the relationship can be established. Aerial photographs from 1942 show little vegetation in this area (Figure 4a). Additionally, aerial photographs from 1952 show an increase of trees in the area as compared to the 1942 photographs. These images also show the contrast between areas with and without trees. The trees are much darker than the rest of the landscape. Most of GBNERR did not have large pine trees present during this time. This could be the result of two possible factors: (1) at this time

GBNERR was more of a grassland than a pine forest and that with time, vegetation became denser, and/or (2) logging and turpentine industries had a dramatic effect at GBNERR (Platt 1998). Turpentine drip pans (used to extract resin from trees, which was distilled to create products such as turpentine, soaps, and candles) have been found in various places around GBNERR (personal observation). A few trees cored at GBNERR contain areas within the rings (ca. 1915) of narrow ring widths and darkening of tree rings due to high resin production, two indicators of turpentine-activity stress (Grissino-Mayer et al. 2001).



Figure 4: Historical images of GBNERR, courtesy of the Cartographic Information Center at LSU. Figure 4a was taken in 1942. Figure 4b was taken in 1952. The white dotted line is the Mississippi-Alabama state line for reference. The red arrows point at a similar location in each image. In 4b, the red arrow points at a group of newly grown trees not present in 4a.

Two species of pine tree can be found at GBNERR: *Pinus elliottii* var. *elliottii* (slash pine) and *Pinus palustris* (longleaf pine), the former being more common. Few other canopy tree species

exist in GBNERR and the most common are *Taxodium ascendens* (pond cypress), *Acer rubrum* (red maple), *Magnolia virginiana* (sweetbay magnolia), *Nyssa biflora* (swamp tupelo), and the invasive *Triadica sebifera* (Chinese tallow).

The most common grass in GBNERR is *Spartina patens* (salt marsh hay). Though fires are an important part of pine savanna habitats (Glitzenstein et al. 1995), since GBNERR was a homestead for many decades, fire has not been prevalent in the area evidenced by a lack of fire scars found in the tree cores used in this study. The understory shrubs (most commonly gallberry (*Ilex coriaceai*), wax myrtle (*Myrica cerifera*), and swamp titi (*Cyrilla racemiflora*)) are overgrown due to the lack of fire. Other species, found more commonly in salt marshes, are also common across GBNERR, especially in low lying areas such as deserted riverbeds, tidal estuaries, and intermittently-flooded bogs. These species include, but are not limited to, *Juncus roemerianus* (black needlerush), *Typha latifolia* (broadleaf cattail), and *Cladium jamaicense* (sawgrass) (Brown 2007).

#### 2.2 Tree Ring Field and Laboratory Methodology

An initial analysis by this study found trees closest to the coast showed signs of sensitivity in their growth rings when compared to inland trees. Figure 5 shows two cross sections from trees at GBNERR. The top cross section was taken from a tree near the coast and the bottom cross section was taken approximately 1 km inland. The coastal cross section dates to 1922 and is 30 cm in diameter. The inland cross section dates to 1962 and is 56 cm in diameter, thus the coastal tree is older and smaller. For this reason, tree cores were obtained from trees closest to the coast where they receive the most stress.



Figure 5: Cross sections from a tree nearest to the coast (top) and further inland (bottom). The inland tree grows nearly three times more per year than the coastal tree.

Figure 6 shows the location of the 30 trees cored for this study. Older trees are desirable for this study to find the relationship with tree growth with as many hurricanes in the record as possible. Trees were chosen for their large size and aged appearance (flat tops, knotted trunks, curved branches, and lack of smaller canopy branches (Pederson 2010)). 90 cores were recovered from 30 trees using a 16-inch Haglof increment borer at breast height (1.3 m) in June 2015. Three cores were extracted at 90°, 180°, and 270° bearing around the stem from each tree for proper crossdating techniques (Stokes and Smiley 1968). Cores were placed in paper straws and labeled using consecutive tree numbers and the abbreviated method of species naming (e.g. *Pinus elliottii* 

= PIEL). Table 1 has a list of the trees, their diameter at breast height (DBH), and their latitude and longitude.



Figure 6: A map of the site used in this study with locations of the cored trees in green. The inset is the boundaries of GBNERR with this site in green.

Crossdating is especially important for insuring proper dating of each year of the tree ring chronology and for insuring accurate annual resolution (Speer 2010). Accurate crossdating is necessary for analyzing tree rings to climate. All cores were glued and mounted into wooden core mounts and sanded using sandpaper in a succession of increasing grit sized (ANSI 120, 220, 320, and 400) (Stokes and Smiley 1968). The cores were visually crossdated using the list method, scanned and measured using the computer software WinDENDRO to the nearest 0.001 mm, and

assessed for quality crossdating using the computer program COFECHA (Grissino-Mayer 2001;

Holmes 1983; Yamaguchi 1991).

Tree	Tree	DBH	Latitude	Longitude
Number	Species	(inches)		
1	PIEL	16.0	30.401333	-88.412194
2	PIEL	13.6	30.401472	-88.412111
3	PIEL	14.2	30.401167	-88.412361
4	PIEL	15.5	30.401806	-88.412250
5	PIEL	15.3	30.400917	-88.412472
6	PIEL	14.6	30.400972	-88.412833
7	PIEL	12.9	30.401917	-88.412556
8	PIEL	14.3	30.401917	-88.413056
9	PIEL	14.6	30.402028	-88.414139
10	PIEL	13.1	30.401833	-88.414306
11	PIEL	14.1	30.400750	-88.413472
12	PIEL	10.3	30.400444	-88.414250
13	PIEL	12.1	30.400417	-88.414500
14	PIEL	10.8	30.400528	-88.414917
15	PIEL	11.5	30.400417	-88.415083
16	PIEL	17.8	30.400944	-88.413139
17	PIEL	14.2	30.400972	-88.413278
18	PIEL	16.0	30.401028	-88.413167
19	PIEL	13.3	30.401722	-88.413972
20	PIEL	20.1	30.401722	-88.414194
21	PIEL	13.9	30.400833	-88.415111
22	PIEL	14.0	30.401222	-88.414694
23	PIEL	18.1	30.401306	-88.414500
24	PIEL	16.9	30.401222	-88.414361
25	PIEL	18.2	30.401417	-88.414306
26	PIEL	11.6	30.400667	-88.414194
27	PIEL	17.1	30.401417	-88.412444
28	PIEL	12.8	30.401417	-88.412722
29	PIEL	13.6	30.401722	-88.412611
30	PIEL	10.9	30.401861	-88.412694

Table 1: List of the trees shown with field number, species (PIEL = *Pinus elliottii*), diameter at breast height in inches (DBH), and location.

Trees are biological organisms, and as such, they do not all grow at the same rate even in the same environmental setting. Trees must follow similar patterns before they can be analyzed against climate parameters. To determine the intercorrelation in a group of tree cores (also known as series), measurements are assessed for quality using the computer program COFECHA, a program designed specifically to output a series intercorrelation from measured raw tree-ring widths. If the trees grow following a similar pattern, the series intercorrelation will be 100%, or 1.0. A desirable intercorrelation for a master chronology is above 0.4 (Holmes et al. 1986).

To achieve the highest series intra- and intercorrelation possible and best possible master chronology for climate analysis, then optimal tree cores (e.g. cores with bark, cores without breaks in the wood, cores with limited false or missing rings, etc.) should be used. To ensure that trees respond similarly at an individual level, an intracorrelation analysis was performed on each tree core. Tree core A was analyzed against tree core B for each tree. If a tree core shows a negative correlation with its partner tree core, this means that the tree is growing completely differently on the two sides of the tree. The average intracorrelation for trees used in this study was r = 0.747. This suggests the trees are growing similarly on both sides. Forty-five tree cores representing 15 trees were chosen to be used in COFECHA.

After the raw ring width measurements were crossdated, a master, or indexed, chronology was formed for total, latewood, and earlywood ring widths using the computer program ARSTAN (Holmes et al. 1986). Tree-ring widths decrease naturally over time because as the tree's circumference increases with each year, and the volume of wood produced typically stays the same ideally, then the diameter of the tree that year must decrease each subsequent year (Fritts 1976). ARSTAN allows the user to define and detrend this growth trend for each series interactively. The best fit for the trees used in this study was a 67% detrending spline, a commonly used detrending

method in dendrochronology (Cook and Kairiukstis 1990; Holmes et al. 1986). A 67% spline is used to remove growth effects in each series. This spline removes the trend found using a moving window sized at 67% of each series' age.

ARSTAN also calculates the expressed population signal (EPS) which assesses the statistical quality of the mean chronology versus a theoretical noise-free chronology and is commonly used in proxy analysis (DeLong et al. 2007; Wigley et al. 1984). Ultimately, the higher the interseries correlation (r) of a sample, the fewer series (N) are needed for further comparative analyses. An arbitrary value of  $\geq 0.85$  was determined to be acceptable for increasing the signal-to-noise ratio (Briffa 1995; Wigley et al. 1984). For this study (r = 0.677), the amount of records needed to keep EPS  $\geq 0.85$  is approximately N = 3. The master chronology used in this study is sufficient for analysis to 1930. Prior to 1930, there are too few series to accurately assess the relationship between tree growth at this site to climate data.

#### 2.3 Climate Data

The GBNERR region has a subtropical climate with hot wet summers and cool dry winters. The closest site to GBNERR analyzed by the study of Keim et al. (2007) is Dauphin Island, AL, approximately 32 km away. The return period for major hurricanes at Dauphin Island is 21 years. According to the data archived by Southern Regional Climate Center, average annual precipitation (1940 – 2014) is over 1500 mm, more than 500 mm in June to August alone. The average January temperature is 10.2°C while the average July temperature is 27.4°C. Due to low-pressure fronts passing north of GBNERR, winds most commonly come from the south, often bringing warm, moist air (and, in turn, afternoon thunderstorms) during summer, known as a "Gulf Return" pattern (Muller 1977).

Though annual climate is an important quality for tree growth, the hypothesis for this study is that years with intense hurricanes will cause low growth in trees. It is expected that the largest magnitude hurricanes will affect trees the most. One way to measure the magnitude of hurricanes is by the size of their storm surge. SURGEDAT is a hurricane storm surge database operated by Drs. Harold Needham and Barry Keim at LSU. The SURGEDAT database includes storm surge estimates as far as the 1880s for the Atlantic Hurricane Basin (Needham and Keim 2012; Needham et al. 2013).

A 45 km radius was chosen because this circle represents the area of a large metropolitan area (Needham 2014). Factors that may influence the flooding caused by hurricanes include, but are not limited to, wind, rainfall, atmospheric pressure, bathymetry, waves, river flow, and tides (Irish et al. 2008). Therefore, the magnitude of a storm surge at landfall can change dramatically with increasing distance from the center of its associated hurricane. A storm surge must be called a "storm tide" because it includes both the hurricane-induced surge and tide levels (Needham 2014). Occasionally, tides can be removed from the data, and in that case, a surge is provided. Table 2 includes hurricane storm surges from SURGEDAT recorded for all storms within a 45 km radius of GBNERR. It includes the storm name, its year of occurrence, measurement location, magnitude, and rank among the other storm surges.

Since the largest storm surges will affect tree growth the most, the five largest storm surges are listed here. Hurricane Isaac would be the fourth largest record. However, these trees were cored in 2015, and there are only two full years of growth following that event (2013 and 2014). Therefore, any delayed or sustained suppression is likely not yet recorded, so it is omitted in this top five list. The top five, in order from largest to smallest are (1) Hurricane Katrina, 2005, 7.9 m,

(2) Hurricane Camille, 1969, 4.7 m, (3) the Unnamed Hurricane of 1947, 3.66 m, (4) Hurricane Frederic, 1979, 3.20 m, and (5) Hurricane Georges, 1998, 2.90 m.

High winds caused by hurricanes are also expected to have an impact on the growth of trees. The National Hurricane Center (NHC) supplies a hurricane database (HURDAT) that includes weather observations for hurricanes as far back as 1851. HURDAT contains maximum wind speeds (knots), central air pressure (millibars), dates, and latitude and longitude for U. S. land-falling hurricanes (Jarvinen et al. 1984).

Table 2: Hurricanes that produced a recorded storm surge within a 45 kilometer radius of GBNERR. Surges are listed as the maximum surge record within the radius. \*Hurricane Isaac is not included in the rank because it occurs at the end of the tree-ring series.

Name	Month/	Latitude	Longitude	Distance from	Surge Height	Rank
	Year			GBNERR	( <b>m</b> )	
				(km)		
Unnamed	9/1947	-88.88	30.39	47.29	3.66	3
Unnamed	9/1948	-88.93	30.39	47.29	1.81	11
Unnamed	9/1949	-88.88	30.39	42.98	1.33	16
Brenda	8/1955	-88.93	30.39	47.29	1.83	10
TS #1	6/1956	-88.88	30.39	42.83	1.42	13
Hilda	9/1964	-88.85	30.38	40.17	1.40	15
Betsy	9/1965	-88.56	30.34	12.11	2.24	8
Camille	8/1969	-88.39	30.41	9.50	4.70	2
Frederic	9/1979	-88.32	30.40	12.78	3.20	4
Danny	8/1985	-88.25	30.38	17.70	0.50	19
Beryl	8/1988	-88.88	30.39	42.98	1.10	17
Chantal	8/1989	-88.88	30.39	42.98	0.75	18
Georges	9/1998	-88.52	30.34	7.84	2.90	5
Isidore	9/2002	-88.85	30.38	40.28	2.08	8
Bill	7/2003	-88.85	30.38	40.29	1.41	14
Ivan	9/2004	-88.56	30.36	11.99	2.05	9
Katrina	8/2005	-88.55	30.35	11.30	7.90	1
Gustav	9/2008	-88.51	30.35	6.73	2.49	6
Lee	9/2011	-88.87	30.40	42.10	1.50	12
Isaac	8/2012	-88.42	30.48	14.59	4.11	*

Best-track storm positions from HURDAT are noted at 6-hourly intervals. Some inherent issues exist with the database that has changed its record keeping with time: accuracy in the early part of the record (Landsea et al. 2004) and intensity inaccuracies (Landsea and Franklin 2012). However, these are not major issues for this study. First, the trees used in this study do not predate the issues encountered for hurricanes occurring between 1851 to 1910. Second, while intensity likely plays a role in the effects on coastal trees, it is assumed that small differences in wind speeds are likely not to have a large effect on annual tree growth.

This study uses the maximum wind speed measurement for each hurricane passing within 120 km of GBNERR from HURDAT between 1940 to 2014 (Table 3). This distance was chosen because it is half of the radius of maximum hurricane strength winds ( $\geq$  33 ms<sup>-1</sup>) (Keim et al. 2007). These hurricane strength winds are defined in the Saffir-Simpson hurricane wind scale (SSHWS), a commonly used scale used to define hurricane intensities. The SSHWS was created in 1969 to standardize the vocabulary used to describe hurricanes (Simpson and Saffir 1974). It divides hurricanes into five categories by wind speed with increasing intensities: (1) 33 – 42 ms<sup>-1</sup>, (2) 43 – 49 ms<sup>-1</sup>, (3) 50 – 58 ms<sup>-1</sup>, (4) 58 – 70 ms<sup>-1</sup>, and (5)  $\geq$  70 ms<sup>-1</sup>. A major hurricane is defined as category 3 or higher.

Wind speeds, driven mostly by pressure gradients, can remain similar in a much larger radius than storm surge within a hurricane. For example, Keim et al. (2007) note that the radius of hurricane force winds in a major hurricane can extend as much as 240 km. The maximum winds recorded for each hurricane within the record were found using the computer program R For Statistical Computing (Elsner and Jagger 2013; R Development Core Team 2011). For this study, hurricanes that tracked at any point within 120 km within GBNERR were counted. The highest

wind speed for each hurricane was then recorded. Table 3 includes these wind speeds, year of occurrence, measurement location, magnitude, and rank among all the wind speeds.

Often, more than one hurricane would occur in a given year. When this occurred, the maximum wind speed used was either (1) an average of the maximum wind speeds for all hurricanes affecting the site that year (if all maximum wind speeds were within 10 ms<sup>-1</sup> of each other), or (2) the maximum wind speed of all hurricanes that year. This decision is the result of the assumption that one strong hurricane will exacerbate or outweigh any effects of a much smaller hurricane. For example, in 2005, Hurricane Dennis produced wind speeds of 33 ms<sup>-1</sup> at GBNERR. Two months later, Hurricane Katrina produced wind speeds of 56 ms<sup>-1</sup> in GBNERR. It is assumed that any damage caused by Dennis was overshadowed by Katrina. It is also assumed in this study that compound effects from multiple hurricanes in one year is not as important as the fact that a hurricane impacted the site. Thus, only one hurricane was included per year.

The five highest wind speeds at GBNERR in order from largest to smallest are as follows: (1) Hurricane Camille, 1969, 72.02 ms<sup>-1</sup>, (2) Hurricane Carmen, 1974, 66.87 ms<sup>-1</sup>, (3) Hurricane Andrew, 1992, 65.48 ms<sup>-1</sup>, (4) Hurricane Betsy, 1965, 63.72 ms<sup>-1</sup>, and (5) Hurricane Frederic, 1979, 59.16 ms<sup>-1</sup>. Two of these five hurricanes (Camille and Frederic) were also in the top five largest storm surges at GBNERR.

The goal of this study is to determine the relationship between hurricanes and tree growth. However, tree growth is not only determined by hurricanes. Annual climate is also very important for the growth of these trees. The Palmer Drought Severity Index (PDSI) is commonly used for climate analysis and tree growth (Meko et al. 1993; Stockton and Meko 1975) because it takes into account precipitation, evapotranspiration, and soil moisture conditions (Alley 1984; Palmer 1965), all of which are important to tree growth. To analyze these parameters, the PDSI computational method uses precipitation and temperature measurements to calculate evapotranspiration and groundwater recharge rates because precipitation provides water and the evaporative effects of high temperatures remove water (Alley 1984). When precipitation is high and temperature (evaporation) is low, the PDSI value is positive (phase) because there is a net positive balance in the water budget. PDSI is in a negative phase when precipitation is low and temperature is high.

To determine any effects of annual climate on the tree growth at GBNERR, monthly PDSI data were retrieved for years 1940 – 2014 from the National Climatic Data Center (NCDC) website for Climatic Division 10 of Mississippi that represents the three coastal counties of Mississippi including Hancock, Harrison, and Jackson Counties (Karl and Koss 1984). GBNERR lies in Jackson County, MS.

In the following chapter, both the indexed chronology and raw ring widths will be compared to these climatic variables (hurricane storm surge, hurricane winds, and monthly PDSI). Various statistical methods will be used to best determine the relationship between hurricanes and tree growth, all the while assuming that these coastal physical processes involved will cause tree growth to decrease following a hurricane.

Name	Month/ Year	Latitude	Longitude	Maximum Wind Speed (ms <sup>-1</sup> )	Rank
Unnamed	8/1940	28.70	-90.63	40.21	17
Unnamed	9/1947	29.40	-89.00	48.87	11
Unnamed	9/1948	29.28	-90.40	35.57	22
Baker	8/1950	29.40	-88.20	38.58	18
Florence	9/1953	28.7	-87.00	46.30	14
Flossy	9/1956	30.00	-87.50	41.15	15
Ethel	9/1960	29.10	-88.90	41.15	15
Betsy	9/1965	28.72	-89.67	63.72	4
Camille	8/1969	29.40	-89.00	72.02	1
Agnes	6/1972	28.29	-85.70	38.58	18
Carmen	9/1974	28.70	-90.80	66.87	2
Eloise	9/1975	29.48	-86.56	58.77	6
Frederic	9/1979	29.70	-88.00	59.16	5
Elena	9/1985	29.70	-87.30	54.01	10
Florence	9/1988	28.70	-89.30	36.01	20
Andrew	8/1992	28.71	-90.79	65.48	3
Opal	10/1995	29.00	-87.70	56.58	7
Danny	7/1997	29.70	-89.0	36.01	20
Georges	9/1998	28.80	-88.30	48.87	11
Barry	8/2001	30.02	-86.22	33.64	24
Ivan	9/2004	28.90	-88.20	56.58	7
Katrina	8/2005	29.90	-86.90	56.58	7
Gustav	9/2008	28.80	-90.30	48.87	11
Ida	11/2009	28.77	-88.70	33.98	23
Isaac	8/2012	28.90	-89.40	36.01	*

Table 3: Hurricanes that produced a hurricane force wind speeds within a 120 km radius of GBNERR. Surges are listed as the maximum surge record within the radius. \*Hurricane Isaac is not included in the rank because it occurs at the end of the series.

#### 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The first goal of this study is to assess the relationship between the indexed master chronology to hurricane characteristics similar to Rodgers III et al. (2006). These methods will later be compared to methods using raw ring widths and a suppression chronology. To assess the relationship between tree-ring width and hurricanes characteristics, correlation tests and linear regression models are used. Data are analyzed for normality, and the time series of storm surge and wind are discussed. For the first part of these results, only the total ring width chronology is used so that the results of this study can be compared to the results of Rodgers et al. (2006).

#### **3.1 Indexed Chronology and Hurricanes**

The final chronology for the total ring width was formed for years 1909 - 2014 (106 years), using 30 dated series with a series intercorrelation (*r*) of 0.677 and mean sensitivity of 0.437. A final chronology was also created for latewood (*r* = 0.613) and earlywood (*r* = 0.655) for the same time span and the same number of dated series. Figure 7 depicts the indexed chronologies with the number of series for each year for total (green), latewood (red), and earlywood (blue) ring widths. The number of trees increases with year because trees live for a finite amount of time. Therefore, old trees are uncommon relative to young trees. A quick recruitment of trees in the 1950s and 1960s is present in this record shown by increases in the number of series used in Figure 7 during those time periods.



Figure 7: Number of cores per year used in this study (black bars) with an overlay of the indexed chronologies used in this study. Total ring width is in green, latewood in red, and earlywood in blue.

The master chronology used in this study visually shows decreases following substantial hurricane occurrences (Figure 8). Figure 8 is the GBNERR master chronology for (a) total ring widths, (b) latewood, and (c) earlywood plotted with major hurricanes that impacted the site. On figure 8, major hurricanes (windspeeds  $\geq 50 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ ) are plotted as vertical lines for comparison. Upon further inspection of the total ring width index and hurricane occurrences (Figure 8a), in most instances, the ring width decreases after a major hurricane. Large decreases in growth directly follow large hurricane years (e.g. 1965, 1969, and 2005). Smaller decreases in growth follow smaller hurricane occurrences (e.g. 1985, 1995, and 2008). Two years of low growth do not correspond with major hurricane occurrences (the late 1980s and 1999/2000). However, the late 1980s were accompanied with numerous smaller hurricane occurrences, and 1998 experienced one hurricane that tracked close to GBNERR (Hurricane Georges).


Figure 8: Final (a) total, (b) latewood, and (c) earlywood tree-ring master chronology indices used in this study. Major hurricanes occurring at GBNERR are plotted as vertical lines.

To begin assessing the relationship between specific hurricane variables and tree growth, storm surge and wind values used in this study are shown in Figure 9a and c, respectively. No significant trend is found in the storm surge or wind speed data, but a horizontal mean line is included to visually differentiate the larger events from the smaller ones. The average storm surge height is 2.51 m and the average hurricane wind speed is 48.55 ms<sup>-1</sup>.

Figures 9b and d show the master chronology of total ring width plotted with the storm surge and wind speeds, respectively. The largest events coincide with large decreases in the index, especially if a year has both a large wind and large storm surge recorded (e.g. 1969, 1998, and 2005). However, when smaller storms (below the mean value) are compared to the index, it is more difficult to assess a pattern or relationship between growth and hurricane variables due to the influence of other effects. Some interesting results stem from a comparison among the effects of surge versus the effect of winds. Some of the largest wind records (above the mean value of records) occur in the mid-1970s and none of those correspond with similarly large storm surges during the same period. Additonally, the index does not show large decreases in growth during this period, and in fact, increases in growth are seen that correspond with the mid-1970s and the late  $21^{st}$  century. As noted in a previous section, the latest part of the hurricane record (2012 - 2014) cannot be analyzed against multiple years of growth, because only two full years of growth follow 2012. Therefore analyzing the latest part of the index (2012 - 2014) is misleading because those years of analysis have not yet happened.

The study of Rodgers III et al. (2006) notes the index may be sensitive to the frequency of hurricanes and not just to largest events or nearest events. Periods with numerous storm surge and high wind events include the 1980s and the 2000s. These times also experience decreases in growth. However, the late 1990s also experience a decrease in growth that does not coincide with numerous hurricane events, and instead coincides with a single event (Hurricane Georges, 1998). Though growth decreases, a perfect pattern in this record is difficult to determine. Therefore, it is necessary to asses this relationship statistically.



Figure 9: Time series of (a) storm surge and (b) wind speeds used in this study with the mean value of each plotted as a horizontal line. Storm surge and wind are compared with the GBNERR tree-ring width used in this study for comparison.

# 3.2 Pearson's r Correlation and Linear Regression Models

Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was used to analyze the strength of these relationships. Pearson's r was used for this study because the dependent variable is normally distributed, a linear relationship can be defined between the dependent and independent variables, outliers are minimal, and the data are closely homoscedastic. Homoscedasticity describes a set of variables that have a finite variance. This can be displayed as quantile-quantile (q-q) plots. Figure 10, shows the q-q plots and histograms of the indexed chronology (10a and 10b), the storm surge records (10c and 10d), and the wind speed records (10e and 10f) used in this study. The quantile quantile plots (Figures 10a, 10c, and 10e), are graphical methods for comparing the distributions of two datasets. The true data points are compared to theoretical data points with an assumed distribution. If the data follow the theoretical data, the points will fall along a straight line when

linearly related. The histogram plots (Figures 10b, 10d, and 10f) show the frequency of values occurring in the dataset. A 'normal' distribution is characterized by the majority of data occurring near the mean value of the data.

After detrending was applied to the tree-ring chronology in ARSTAN, the data is normally distributed (e.g. theoretical quantiles match sample quantiles (Figure 10a), and the majority of indexed widths occur near the median of the data and decrease toward each end (Figure 10b)). Though the storm surge values are not normally distributed, they do follow an expected pattern with a single peak (Figure 10d). The highest amount of values are biased toward the lower magnitude events and taper off as the magnitude increases. However, the maximum wind histogram (Figure 10f) shows multiple peaks. This is likely due to the fact that the wind values have been applied to a threshold to incorporate only the most extreme wind speeds. This differs from the storm surge threshold that includes all surge events from zero to nearly eight meters. An extreme wind is expected to be different from that of an extreme storm surge value. Storm surge has such a low threshold because any amount of saltwater inundation is considered extreme for the tree, whereas the tree frequently experiences wind.



Figure 10: The q-q plots and histograms of the (a and b) tree-ring index, (c and d) storm surge and (e and f) wind speed records used in this study.

Significant results for this study were those results that passed the 95<sup>th</sup> percentile confidence interval ( $p \le 0.05$ ). Four years of growth are compared to the hurricane variables: the same year as hurricane occurrence plus the following three consecutive years. This is done to assess when, if any, the decrease in growth occurs. Similar to Rodgers et al. (2006), no relationship was found to be significant. However, as noted previously that decreases in growth seem to correspond with the larger events. Pearson's r was then used to determine if the largest events have any effect on the indexed chronology. Those storm surge and wind events greater than the mean were then analyzed against the GBNERR index. Table 4 shows results for Pearson's r for the indexed chronology versus the larger (a) storm surge and (b) wind values. A significant relationship was found between storm surge and the following year of growth. The relationship is moderately strong and negative (r = -0.604).

a (storm surge)				b (wind speeds)			
Test	df	r	<i>p</i> -value	Test	df	r	<i>p</i> -value
Same Year	9	0.377	0.253	Same Year	11	0.169	0.581
1 Year Lag	9	-0.604	0.049	1 Year Lag	11	0.397	0.179
2 Year Lag	9	-0.107	0.755	2 Year Lag	11	0.330	0.270
3 Year Lag	9	-0.123	0.736	3 Year Lag	11	0.311	0.301

Table 4: Degrees of freedom (df), correlation coefficients (*r*), and *p*-values for tests using ring width versus storm surge (a) and wind speed (b) values above the mean.

Linear regression models were created to model the relationship of the larger storm surges and the indexed chronology (Figure 11). This result confirms that growth decreases following a hurricane occurrence and provides a reason to continue the path of determining the relationship.

## 3.3 Suppression Chronology Formation and Testing

Using a master chronology can be difficult when attempting to compare tree growth to climate parameters. To form that master chronology, first, a detrending curve is applied to the data to remove the growth trend. Then the individual series are normalized so that they fit a standard range of values to be compared to another dataset in the future, and finally are averaged together to produce one master chronology. These statistical data manipulation processes can transform the data in a way that removes a climate signal that was once present in the data.



Figure 11: Linear regression models created to model the relationship between hurricane storm surge and indexed tree-ring width. (a) the same year of growth as hurricane occurrence, (b) the hurricane occurrence with the following year of growth, (c) growth two years after, and (d) growth three years after. Only (b) is significant and contains a line of best fit for comparison.

Other statistical processes can be used to assess tree-ring data that do not unnecessarily manipulate the data. For this study, the computer program JOLTS was used to identify when canopy disturbances occurred in this site (Holmes 1999). JOLTS is commonly used in tree-fire studies for describing a release of growth in trees, however, it can also be used for suppressions of growth (Brose and Waldrop 2010; Lafon and Speer 2002). For this study, the best canopy disturbances were identified using a running mean of six years (four years before and two years after) on the raw ring width measurements on each individual tree core. When a 15% decrease in growth occurred, a suppression was marked in JOLTS. The final 'suppression chronology'

contains two columns: one with the year of suppression and one with the percentage of trees showing a suppression in that year. This suppression chronology was compared to hurricane parameters using the computer program EVENT that uses superposed epoch analysis (SEA) to describe a relationship (Holmes et al. 1986).

SEA is a statistical method used to resolve noise problems in data (Gannon 2012). Monte Carlo simulations are used to form a large number of expected values simulated from the observed values. The suppression chronology used in this study is analyzed against (a) the top ten hurricane occurrences at the site based on the combined lowest 10 rankings in Tables 2 and 3 (n = 10), (b) the higher half of surges in Table 2 (those above the mean) (n = 6), and (c) the larger half of wind speeds in Table 3 (n = 10). The higher half of storm surge and wind event records will be denoted as "high storm surge events" and "high wind events" respectively.

Figures 12, 13, and 14 show the results for the SEA analysis from this study for total, latewood, and earlywood ring widths, respectively. These variables are plotted against the departures from the mean Monte Carlo simulation results. This graphical method of mapping significance has been used in dendrochronological studies (Harley et al. 2011). The suppression chronologies created in this study were used for analysis, but for ease of comparison, direction of growth is plotted. The vertical bars represent the likelihood of growth being suppressed as related to the mean growth (horizontal bar). If a bar extends above the mean, growth was suppressed for that year. If the bar extends below the mean, growth was released that year. The dotted lines are the 95<sup>th</sup> percentile confidence intervals; the solid lines beyond the dotted lines are the 99<sup>th</sup> percentile confidence intervals. The SEA used in this study includes analysis of three years before and after the year of hurricane occurrence.

For example, Figure 12a shows a small release in growth 3, 2, and 1 years before a year of hurricane occurrence, a suppression the year of, and 1 and 2 years after a hurricane occurrence, and finally a release in growth the third year after a hurricane occurrence. The only significant result in Figure 12a is the suppression of growth the year directly after a hurricane occurrence, depicted by the vertical bar that year extending below the mean and reaching the 95<sup>th</sup> and 99<sup>th</sup> percentile confidence bounds. A similar result is found in Figure 12b where only those hurricanes with high storm surges were compared against the suppression chronology. No significance is seen in Figure 12c, in which hurricanes with high wind speeds were compared against the suppression chronology.

Figures 13 and 14 show similar results for latewood and earlywood, respectively. Above average growth precedes the year of a hurricane with decreases in growth the year of and the following year of a hurricane occurrence. Again, the only significant results are the decrease in growth one year after a hurricane occurrence, and these results are only significant in total (Figures 13a and 14a) and latewood (Figures 13b and 14b) ring width.

Though some *Pinus* species in the warmest areas of South Florida can grow all year long (75% of growth occurring February – August), the end of latewood growth for most southern pine species occurs in late September during the peak hurricane season (Harley et al. 2012b). Therefore, it is expected that the year of recorded storm surge would not affect that same year of tree-ring width. Additionally, it is expected that growth would be suppressed after the year of a hurricane occurrence and possibly be suppressed a number of years following the occurrence.



Figure 12: SEA of total tree ring width suppressions versus (a) top 10 ranked hurricane occurrences used in this study, (b) storm surge records above the mean, and (c) wind records above the mean. The vertical bars represent a decrease (below the mean) or increase (above the mean) in the likelihood of suppressed growth that year. The dotted and solid black lines represent the 95<sup>th</sup> and 99<sup>th</sup> percentile confidence bounds respectively.



Figure 13: SEA of latewood tree ring width suppressions versus (a) top 10 ranked hurricane occurrences used in this study, (b) storm surge records above the mean, and (c) wind records above the mean. The vertical bars represent a decrease (below the mean) or increase (above the mean) in the likelihood of suppressed growth that year. The dotted and solid black lines represent the 95<sup>th</sup> and 99<sup>th</sup> percentile confidence bounds respectively.



Figure 14: SEA of earlywood tree ring width suppressions versus (a) top 10 ranked hurricane occurrences used in this study, (b) storm surge records above the mean, and (c) wind records above the mean. The vertical bars represent a decrease (below the mean) or increase (above the mean) in the likelihood of suppressed growth that year. The dotted and solid black lines represent the 95<sup>th</sup> and 99<sup>th</sup> percentile confidence bounds respectively.

## 3.4 Testing for Climate Relationships with Tree Growth

The final objective of this study is to determine if any relationship to annual climate can be determined with the tree-ring dataset used in this study. PDSI was used for analysis in this study because it is commonly used for paleoclimate analysis and because it takes into account precipitation, evapotranspiration, and soil moisture conditions (Alley 1984; Meko et al. 1993; Palmer 1965; Stockton and Meko 1975). Table 5 contains the results for Pearson's *r* Coefficient analysis for the suppression chronology developed for this study and monthly PDSI values for the NCDC Climatic Division 10 for Mississippi.

Total ring width (TRW), earlywood ring width (ERW), and latewood ring width (LRW) suppression chronologies were analyzed against average annual PDSI, growing season months (March – October) PDSI, earlywood season months PDSI (March – June), and latewood season months PDSI (July – October). Those tests significant at ( $p \le 0.05$ ) are in bold. All relationships are negative, meaning that suppressions of growth decrease when PDSI increases, or is in a positive phase. This means that growth decreases during dry periods and increases during wet periods. TRW is significant only with respect to latewood season PDSI (p = 0.043) in any test, and it is suggestive ( $p \le 0.1$ ) with respect to averaged full growing season PDSI (p = 0.099). LRW is not significant with respect to any test, but is suggestive with latewood season averaged PDSI (p = 0.093). Interestingly, ERW is significant in every test, with the highest correlation with full growing season PDSI (r = -0.225).

Table 5: Results for Pearson's Correlation Coefficient $(r)$ for tree-ring width suppression
chronologies and PDSI. Significant results are in bold.

Test	df	r	<i>p</i> -value
Total Ring Width (TRW) and Annual PDSI	104	-0.154	0.115
Earlywood Ring Width (ERW) and Annual PDSI	104	-0.217	0.025
Latewood Ring Width (LRW) and Annual PDSI	104	-0.092	0.350
TRW and Full Growing Season PDSI	104	-0.161	0.099
ERW and Full Growing Season PDSI	104	-0.225	0.020
LRW and Full Growing Season PDSI	104	-0.101	0.300
TRW and Earlywood Season PDSI	104	-0.098	0.318
ERW and Earlywood Season PDSI	104	-0.208	0.033
LRW and Earlywood Season PDSI	104	-0.022	0.826
TRW and Latewood Season PDSI	104	-0.197	0.043
ERW and Latewood Season PDSI	104	-0.206	0.035
LRW and Latewood Season PDSI	104	-0.164	0.093

In summary, visual assessment of the indexed chronology determined that tree growth decreases following major hurricane occurrences, following large storm surges (those above the mean for GBNERR during 1909 – 2014), and following large wind events (those above the mean). Pearson's r and linear regression models show that growth does decrease significantly the year following storm surge occurrences using an indexed chronology of total ring width. Raw ring widths were used to form a suppression chronology that was compared to top 10 ranked storms used in this study, large storm surges, and large wind events. Significance was found for all of those variables for both total and latewood ring widths, but not for earlywood ring width. Finally, the suppression chronologies were compared to PDSI in which LRW was not significant in any test, TRW was significant only with latewood season PDSI, and ERW was significant in all PDSI tests.

#### 4. CONCLUSIONS

The goal of dendrotempestology is two-fold: (1) to explain any ecoclimatological relationship between tree growth and hurricane occurrences and, if that is successful, (2) attempt to reconstruct hurricane occurrences before the current known record using trees older than the record. This study analyzes part one in which the viability of coatal trees is assessed for climate relationships. Trees in the southeastern United States receive plenty of rain and warm temperatures and because of this lack of limiting factors (i.e., stressors), the trees are not sensitive to climate. This study shows that extreme coastal locations closest to the ocean contain trees with sufficient stressors that cause the trees to be sensitive to climate. This represents another step toward reconstructing climate using Gulf of Mexico coastal trees.

Few studies been completed in this effort to explain the effects of hurricanes on trees. Some studies attempt to find this relationship using stable isotopes and tropical cyclone rainfall at the inland location of Valdosta, Georgia (Miller et al. 2006; Nelson 2008). Studies have explored the effects of hurricanes on tree growth, with some showing a decrease in tree growth from crown damage and defoliation (Doyle and Gorham 1994), while others show an increase in tree growth due to lack of competition from damaged and downed trees (Rodgers III et al. 2006). The combination of storm surge and high winds, which are greatest on the seaward edge, are detrimental to the growth of a coastal tree. However, these detriments do not cause large mortalities because the trees are specially adapted to hurricane characteristics. Speculations for these adaptations include densely-packed rings for a stronger stem, adaptations in root spread to reach freshwater, and damaging fire suppression from lack of leaf accumulation.

This study was largely compared to the early study of Rodgers III et al. (2006), which was in close proximity, throughout the research process. That study found using an indexed chronology showed an increase in growth for Weeks Bay, Alabama pine trees. Their explanation for an increase in growth was that hurricanes cause mortality in the stand and those trees that survived took advantage of the lack of competition for resources. They also found that using only an indexed chronology was not an effective way of analyzing this relationship because there was no significance in the result. It is possible that the statistical manipulations involved with creating a master index chronology mask or remove any signal from hurricane disturbances.

For this study, only a one-year lag saw significance with the indexed chronology and storm surge records only. This study found a different result seen in Rodgers III et al. (2006) which found a slight increase following a hurricane occurrence. Another issue may lie within the two different tree stands themselves. The trees may actually be responding differently to hurricane disturbance. In Weeks Bay, high mortality may follow a hurricane occurrence, and thus trees may increase in growth following a hurricane, whereas in Grand Bay, the tree stand may be adapted to withstand hurricanes, and instead of dying, they survive and must grow less in the stem in order to repair crown damage. A final issue may lie within the field methods used in the two studies. This study uses only trees close to the coast (within 2 km). Possibly, Rodgers III et al. (2006) study used trees further inland that do not respond the same to hurricanes.

A suppression chronology (percentage of trees suppressed per year) was formed in which raw ring widths were used to identify suppressions in individual trees. This method is commonly used in dendrochronology to detect disturbance regimes in a tree stand. It is often used in fire-tree reconstructions in which releases of growth follow the destruction of a stand-wide forest fire. A suppression chronology is favorable in disturbance studies because it uses raw ring widths from each individual tree for analysis so that tree growth is not detrended, averaged, or standardized. The results from the suppression chronology support the results from the master index chronology suggesting that the master index chronology in this study was not influenced by detrending and normalization. Multiple statistical methods are desirable for assessing the true nature of a physical relationship. Studies that rely on a single statistical test do not have the robust assessment and their results may contain false positives.

Suppressions were seen to be significant with respect to TRW and LRW in the year following a hurricane occurrence, large storm surge, or high wind event. However, ERW was not significant. This coincides with the idea that trees are damaged by hurricanes, but are adapted enough to survive through the disturbance and thus must repair and concentrate growth on the crown rather than growth at the stem. Simply from this analysis, it does not make sense that TRW and LRW only are suppressed and not ERW because ERW the following year is the first growth to occur after a hurricane, thus it should be significantly suppressed as well.

LRW decreases during the year of hurricane occurrence. This makes sense because peak hurricane season occurs before the end of the growing season. Therefore, I believe that crownconcentrated growth and repair occurs before the growing season ends, thus causing a decrease in growth to the stem. ERW does experience its largest decrease in growth the year following a hurricane. This may be an artifact of individual growth in trees. Though growth decreases standwide, some trees may be able to recover more quickly than others due to specific variables on individual trees.

Though ERW was not significant ( $p \le 0.05$ ) with hurricane variables, ERW was significant with every PDSI significance test. This means that when a tree experiences drought, it grows less in the earlywood season of growth. This may explain that for the trees closest to the coast, drought affects how well trees are able to begin growth the following year. For a physical explanation, this makes sense because it is likely that the trees closest to the coast have a shallow freshwater table and access to freshwater is dependent on a year-by-year basis. If the shallow water table is not replenished the year before, then water availability is heavily affected because the availability is already low.

For explanations of how a hurricanes affects growth for multiple years, the three years of tree growth before and after a hurricane occurrence were explored. The only significant result was with one year following a hurricane, but it is useful to explore other results and attempt to find physical reasons for growth patterns. TRW and LRW experienced increases in growth for all three years prior to a hurricane occurrence. This may mean that before a hurricane occurrence (and after the previous hurricane occurrence), stem growth is on a steady increase. This may mean that the tree is slowly transitioning from crown-repair growth to full stem growth.

TRW and LRW also experience a decrease during the year of hurricane occurrence and the two years after a hurricane occurrence followed by an increase in growth three and four years after a hurricane occurrence. This coincides with previous research stating that trees need three to seven years to recover a crown-stem balance in growth following a hurricane (Doyle and Gorham 1994). This could be true for this study site, or possibly because hurricanes are so frequent in the study site trees never reach a full balance in growth and are in constant repair mode. This may be detrimental to the trees as a larger-than-normal hurricane may destroy the weakest trees. This may explain why very few trees are present in the stand older than 80 years and why trees closest to the coast grow at nearly half the rate of trees inland (see Figure 5)

The suppression chronology showed that fewer suppressions were found in the early part of the record (prior to 1960) than the later part. This is in part an artifact of the data used. Not all trees began growth at the exact same time. However, percentage of suppressions also decreased in the early part of the record. This is likely due to the fact that most of the trees used in this study were much smaller trees during that time period. Small trees are much less affected than large trees during a high wind because the small trees are protected by the large trees (Curtis 1942; Doyle et al. 1995). The results of this study support that previous research.

### 4.1 Summary

Many of the results of this study were compared to Rodgers III et al. (2006). Showing different results for the hurricane-tree growth relationship than another study only strengthens the need to further the research on this topic and produce better results for the field. In the future, it would be useful to compare the results of this study to other areas along the hurricane-affected Gulf of Mexico coast using pine trees nearest to the coast in areas such as Weeks Bay NERR, Apalachicola NERR, and Eglin Airforce Base. This research may also be applied to other species such as cypress and oaks in South Louisiana.

This study provides a new stressor to the arsenal for dendroclimatology. This study shows that growth in trees nearest to the coast is sensitive to climate. If this is true for other trees nearest to the coast that are much older than those trees in GBNERR, reconstructions for precipitation, drought, and climate teleconnections such as ENSO may be available in the tree-ring record. This opens up a whole new area previously unused for dendrochronological applications. Future studies could explore this relationship with respect to water resources in the Gulf Coastal Plain of the United States.

Age-structure studies may also be useful for past tree disturbances. As previously noted, many of the trees at GBNERR are less than 80 years old. This may be in part due to human activity at GBNERR (e.g. logging and turpentine industries), but different age classes may be present at GBNERR that are formed by a disturbance regime. The combination of human, fire, and hurricane disturbances may affect recruitment and establishment of trees at GBNERR. For example, in this study it appears that many trees are recruited in the 1950s and 1960s. This could be caused by a lull in hurricane frequencies in the 20<sup>th</sup> century due to the Atlantic Multi-decadal Oscillation (AMO). Future studies could find different establishment rates of trees at GBNERR and compare those rates to other forested sites along the Gulf of Mexico coastline.

In conclusion, this research provides support to much of the previous research done with tree growth and mortality rates. This study shows that some coastal pine trees area adapted to hurricane variables, and instead of perishing during the hurricane, they repair themselves and grow significantly less in the stem the following year. The intellectual merits of this study include (1) the use of new statistical methods for disturbance ecology (2) the discovery of the relationship between hurricanes and tree growth, and (3) an exploration of the resiliency of trees to hurricane variables. The broader impacts of this study include (1) a step forward in potentially increasing the length of the record of hurricanes, thus increasing the confidence of future hurricane occurrences and keeping people out of harm's way, (2) a description of the effects of climate during a documented rapid change in global climate, (3) recommendations for future knowledge gained from coastal forest disturbance ecology, and (4) an identification of the hurricane damage to trees useful for coastal wetland conservation.

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### APPENDIX

These are the raw tree-ring width measurements used in this study placed into the Tucson (decadal) format for convenience in applications to commonly used tree-ring software programs, such as COFECHA, ARSTAN, and EVENT. The measurements were taken to 0.001 mm precision in the computer program WinDENDRO. Included are the total ring width (**TRW**), latewood ring width (**LRW**), and earlywood ring width (**ERW**) measurements. The series are listed with the site first (2GB, or GBNERR, second phase) and the tree number and core side second (2A, or second tree cored, first core taken). If the tree core is listed as 'S', then that core was taken from the southern side (180° bearing) of that tree.

### TRW

2GB2A 1939 2759 2GB2A 1940 4763 3364 2865 2387 2442 4323 3786 4997 1530 1854 2GB2A 1950 409 1075 1963 2157 1559 2313 3096 2504 2237 2485 2GB2A 1960 2707 2521 1969 2279 3263 3446 1969 753 1252 3566 2GB2A 1970 2879 1928 1425 1761 547 1399 1423 2630 2614 2631 2GB2A 1980 292 660 3083 2598 373 751 950 2197 655 393 2GB2A 1990 472 1605 923 684 1000 1414 2119 1134 1648 222 2GB2A 2000 222 952 1591 939 774 1472 213 299 229 695 2GB2A 2010 295 212 265 212 127 -9999 2GB2S 1938 4329 3373 2GB2S 1940 5741 3509 2790 2421 2185 2843 3018 3925 838 1798 2GB2S 1950 230 533 1152 1588 1106 1565 2273 2103 1541 2468 2GB2S 1960 1798 2082 1324 1837 3629 3397 1520 1076 1178 2521 2GB2S 1970 1548 1380 1273 1408 329 1073 1180 1905 1955 2401 2GB2S 1980 1255 1404 3716 4255 1479 1645 1082 1778 1652 1739 2GB2S 1990 1308 2579 2825 1756 2093 1544 2833 1418 1905 1016 2GB2S 2000 487 1989 2474 2029 1985 2115 510 254 632 426 2GB2S 2010 166 363 693 806 612 -9999 2GB4A 1909 1476 2GB4A 1910 546 1390 371 1364 1836 1469 2031 2580 1449 669 2GB4A 1920 1561 1199 1199 2402 1665 1876 2171 1748 2298 1431 2GB4A 1930 2603 3068 2643 2817 3118 4134 4116 3018 3954 2982 2GB4A 1940 2956 2444 2026 2790 2646 3241 0 421 1258 917 2GB4A 1950 379 526 498 687 338 825 846 973 931 1206

2GB24B 2010 458 1044 523 380 1035 -9999 2GB24S 1972 5870 13099 7232 3641 9829 7000 9029 4682 2GB24S 1980 5839 5076 6032 9014 6654 1690 4120 4947 1247 1782 2GB24S 1990 2562 5734 4799 5248 3273 3211 2711 2144 2214 1434 2GB24S 2000 1524 2358 2877 1369 1583 1202 441 675 1267 825 2GB24S 2010 454 540 689 532 663 -9999 2GB25A 1968 7299 9658 2GB25A 1970 2600 4100 5965 4825 1707 9033 6578 8413 7627 8360 2GB25A 1980 8458 6681 9751 8326 2443 5105 4825 5270 1063 4141 2GB25A 1990 4442 5250 5525 4985 4546 4034 4109 2762 3170 1661 2GB25A 2000 1893 2850 3136 2524 2185 2273 688 930 1777 1627 2GB25A 2010 1206 2055 1704 2265 1019 -9999 2GB25B 1970 3604 4605 5754 6681 3148 6008 5480 7258 5334 4626 2GB25B 1980 4608 4774 6084 5967 1503 4741 3682 4169 850 2520 2GB25B 1990 3357 5982 5438 5018 2653 3391 4033 2635 3429 2007 2GB25B 2000 1695 1962 2254 2207 1903 1817 359 381 1543 1884 2GB25B 2010 1053 1438 1100 951 660 -9999

## LRW

2GB2B 1939 2297 2GB2B 1940 4573 1798 1606 1254 973 1138 1652 2527 863 1311 2GB2B 1950 316 253 422 993 465 1714 1347 1311 698 1142 2GB2B 1960 1227 1182 676 698 1328 2304 1364 1065 794 2113 2GB2B 1970 1877 1444 773 1707 231 884 632 1283 1324 1434 2GB2B 1980 114 965 1883 4541 883 986 780 1813 1032 884 2GB2B 1990 377 2139 1405 670 1109 1272 1124 571 463 392 2GB2B 2000 109 1130 1374 1126 246 1131 94 96 171 111 2GB2B 2010 51 67 316 282 94 -9999 2GB2S 1938 1102 1001 2GB2S 1940 3328 1282 1056 1336 1061 1328 1562 2131 607 1003 2GB2S 1950 125 387 677 731 542 990 1293 1207 872 1401 2GB2S 1960 1024 988 631 1035 1814 2420 669 760 547 1334 2GB2S 1970 1192 586 543 766 123 908 870 1325 957 1524 2GB2S 1980 364 838 2213 2399 708 1041 520 920 1108 1367 2GB2S 1990 736 1754 2003 1059 1291 867 1552 571 1079 296 2GB2S 2000 169 1354 1311 1036 1183 1163 235 108 212 299 2GB2S 2010 0 130 274 341 193 -9999 2GB4A 1909 790 2GB4A 1910 162 786 247 819 781 501 1270 1290 814 84 2GB4A 1920 714 590 315 927 569 232 834 831 1096 610 2GB4A 1930 1439 1650 803 1343 1517 1961 1921 1499 2019 1396 2GB4A 1940 1225 1348 612 1247 1460 1894 0 169 899 337 2GB4A 1950 147 232 159 1 127 550 465 486 317 507 2GB4A 1960 296 878 296 1055 591 422 148 360 169 697
2GB25A1970177688519372206866529030263619393237912GB25A19803619247451304225120534272229219565726912GB25A19901645276230322101232116091896120311818762GB25A200011421480175115711265123638056986610782GB25A201066711909941255271-99992GB25S19711158207320291601425530164794266038072GB25S198031272375562146791129393628254480103228162GB25S19901412340930242814359833862453143715019512GB25S200074356817731479118484623336044410762GB25S2010800117915601195335<-9999</td>335-9999

ERW

## VITA

Clay Stephens Tucker is a seventh generation native of Baton Rouge, Louisiana. He received his bachelor's degree from Louisiana State University in 2013. He has worked with a number of facilities on campus involving coastal research including a research assistantship at the Coastal Sustainability Studio, a teaching assistantship in the Department of Geography and Anthropology, and a graduate research assistantship for the South Central Climate Science Center. Clay has presented research at the Annual Meeting for the Association of American Geographers and the Annual Meeting for the Southeastern Division of the Association of American Geographers. He is a co-author on a published paper in the peer-reviewed journal PLOSOne.

His interests in coastal studies stem from growing up with his family and friends in South Louisiana. He will receive his Master's Degree in December 2015 and plans to begin his Doctorate at LSU upon graduation.