

1 ~~Piloting novel multi-centennial palaeoclimate records from mainland~~
2 ~~southeast Australia~~ Ring width and blue light chronologies of
3 *Podocarpus lawrencei* from southeastern mainland Australia reveal a
4 regional climate signal.

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16 **Abstract**

17 High-resolution palaeoclimate proxies are fundamental to our understanding of the diverse climatic history of the Australian
18 mainland, particularly given the deficiency in instrumental datasets spanning greater than a century. Annually resolved, tree-
19 ring based proxies play a unique role in addressing limitations in our knowledge of interannual to multi-decadal temperature
20 and hydroclimatic variability prior to the instrumental period. Here we present cross-dated ring-width (RW) and minimum
21 blue-intensity (BI) chronologies spanning 70 years (1929 – 1998) for *Podocarpus lawrencei* Hook.f., the Australian
22 mainland's only alpine conifer, based on nine full-disk cross-sections from Mount Loch in the Victorian Alps. Correlations
23 with climate variables from observation stations and gridded data [across the 1929 - 1998 period](#) reveal a significant positive
24 relationship between RW and mean monthly maximum temperatures in winter throughout central Victoria ($r = 0.62$, $p <$
25 0.001), and a significant negative correlation to winter precipitation ($r = -0.51$, $p < 0.001$). We also found significant negative
26 correlations between RW and monthly snow depth at Spencer Creek in New South Wales ($r = -0.60$, $p < 0.001$). Of the assessed
27 BI parameters, delta blue-intensity (ΔBI ; the difference between early- and late-wood BI) displayed the greatest sensitivity to
28 climate, with robust spatial correlations with mean October to December maximum and minimum monthly temperatures ($r =$
29 -0.43 , $p < 0.001$; $r = -0.51$, $p < 0.001$) and July precipitation ($r = 0.44$, $p < 0.001$), across large areas of northern Victoria. These

30 promising findings highlight the utility of this species for future work. With the very limited availability of suitable long-lived
31 and cross-datable species on the Australian mainland, these results have significant implications for advancing high-resolution
32 palaeoclimate science in southeastern Australia and for improving our understanding of past climate in the region.

33

34 **Plain text summary**

35 Tree-ring records provide a unique window into past climate variability. However, there are few such records from the
36 Australian mainland. We present results from nine cross-sections of an alpine tree species from the Victorian Alps from 1929–
37 1998. The tree ring widths have significant correlations with winter temperature, precipitation and snow depth. The intensity
38 of reflected blue light from the wood surface shows a strong response to growing season temperature and winter precipitation.

39 **1 Introduction**

40 Documentation of climatic variations in the Northern Hemisphere (NH) is notably more comprehensive than that of
41 the Southern Hemisphere (SH). Differences in the distribution of oceans and landmasses, as well as disparities related to
42 cultural and historical development, continue to impair our understanding of SH climate (Villalba, 2000). A complete
43 understanding of the climatic behaviour in a particular hemisphere is not possible without a thorough comprehension of the
44 other (Pittock, 1978). That is, addressing the lack of SH climate knowledge is also a component of understanding NH and
45 global climate.

46 The Australian continent encompasses a vast geographical extent with a diverse range of climate zones (Pittock,
47 2003). Instrumental and historical records of climate variables such as temperature and precipitation rarely extend beyond the
48 start of the twentieth century (Bureau of Meteorology, 2001). Palaeoclimate proxies provide an important extension of the
49 instrumental record, and aid in the development of meaningful assessments of the context of recent climate extremes and the
50 fundamental nature of low-frequency climate variability. Dendroclimatology, the study of tree rings as a source of
51 palaeoclimate proxies, has played an increasingly important role in our understanding of long-term climatic changes. Tree-
52 ring studies have been widely applied, particularly in temperate environments, to produce centennial-scale climate information
53 at annual resolution (*eg.* Villalba et al., 1996; Esper et al., 2002; Cook et al., 2006). However, progress in Australian
54 dendroclimatology has been historically challenging due to the sparse availability of suitable materials and sites (Cook et al.,
55 2006). Materials that exhibit annual growth rings are limited (Heinrich and Allen, 2013), and many do not live to sufficient
56 ages for the development of multi-century records (Ogden 1978, 1981). Suitable environments for the preservation of subfossil
57 material are also lacking in most parts of the Australian continent. Despite these setbacks, efforts to expand our knowledge of
58 the climatic influences on mainland Australian flora are pivotal to understanding the current and future impacts of climate
59 change.

60 The Australian Alps constitute mainland Australia's alpine and subalpine regions. Tree species at their altitudinal
61 threshold, such as those growing in high altitude and/or latitude sites, are typically highly sensitive to variability in climate,

62 and therefore tend to best lend themselves to reconstructions (e.g. Villalba et al., 1994; Frank and Esper, 2005; Larocque and
63 Smith, 2005). Alpine tree species are hence important sources of local palaeoclimate proxies, and reconstructions based on
64 upper elevation sites have revealed a regional climate signature (e.g. Mt. Read, Tasmania; Cook et al. 2000). Long-term
65 reconstructions for mainland Australia that are based on in-situ, annually resolved records (rather than remote proxies) are
66 very limited (O'Donnell et al., 2021, Cullen and Grierson 2008, Allen et al., 2020; notably these are all hydroclimate
67 reconstructions). Given the strong influence of temperature as a limiting growth factor in higher elevation areas, the Australian
68 Alps and Victorian highlands are prime contenders to further validate the regional nature of these signatures back in time.
69 Dendroclimatological studies within the Australian Alps thus far have focused on the widely distributed genus *Eucalyptus*,
70 which exhibits clear annual rings at high elevations due to the strong growth limitation of winter temperatures (Brookhouse et
71 al., 2008; Brookhouse and Bi, 2009). However, frequent mortality of specimens due to recurring fires in eucalypt habitats
72 limits the availability of individuals of adequate age for long-term study. Given that continuous high-quality climate records
73 throughout the Australian Alps seldom extend beyond several decades, exploration of additional climate-sensitive species with
74 greater longevity and less affected by fire would be beneficial.

75 At high elevation, fire rarely penetrates into rock-scrub environments. Due to the protection these environments offer
76 from fire, the age of vegetation growing within scree slopes can greatly exceed that of surrounding communities
77 (Schweingruber, 1992). In the alpine environments of New South Wales, Victoria, rock-scrub sites often support pure stands
78 of *Podocarpus lawrencei* Hook f. (Williams et al., 2008). In these locations, *P. lawrencei* occurs as a procumbent shrub and
79 may attain an age of >500 years (Costin et al., 2000). Analysis of *P. lawrencei* revealed well defined, annual growth rings and
80 highly sensitive latewood bands, suggesting a promising opportunity for dendroclimatological study (Schweingruber, 1992).
81 However, attempts to generate chronologies for dendroclimatological analysis have been limited. *Podocarpus lawrencei*
82 exhibits highly eccentric (lobate) radial growth behaviour, with rings frequently affected by, or completely lost to, wedging.
83 These abnormalities make dating of core samples difficult, necessitating the collection of entire stem cross-sections. While the
84 destructive nature of collecting full cross-sections normally prevents their acquisition, sample materials became available
85 following widespread fires in 2002/03 in the Australian Alps. The severity of these fires meant previously protected stands of
86 fire-sensitive *P. lawrencei* were killed, allowing collection of full-disk cross-sections from multiple sites and an initial
87 investigation into their dendroclimatological potential (McDougall et al., 2012).

88 Although dendroclimatology has traditionally relied upon ring-width (RW) data, an array of alternative tree-ring
89 proxies also offer insights to climate histories. Maximum latewood density (MXD), for instance, represents the greatest density
90 in cell walls formed at the latest stage of the growing season (Schweingruber et al., 1988). Maximum latewood density has
91 been widely used as a robust tree-ring proxy for growing-season temperature, particularly in the NH summer (e.g. Briffa et al.,
92 1988; D'Arrigo et al., 2000; Davi et al., 2003). However, the considerable cost and effort associated with generating MXD
93 chronologies has hindered their development and utilisation, especially in regions of the world in which dendroclimatology is
94 uncommon. The blue intensity (BI) technique – a recently developed approach that quantifies the intensity of blue light
95 reflected from a wood surface (McCarroll et al., 2002) – offers a cheaper and efficient surrogate for MXD (Björklund et al.,

96 2014; Wilson et al., 2014). Several experimental studies have demonstrated a strong, negative relationship between BI and
97 MXD, and sample preparation and generation of BI data can be performed at comparatively low expense (Campbell et al.,
98 2007, 2011; McCarroll et al., 2002; Björklund et al., 2014).

99 Although application of the BI method has been largely restricted to NH conifers, Brookhouse and Graham (2016)
100 conducted a preliminary assessment on the suitability of the BI method on *P. lawrencei* specimens from Mount Buller in
101 alpine NE Victoria (37.15°S, 144.44°E). They reported a highly significant correlation between the resulting BI chronology
102 and mean August-April temperature maxima ($r = -0.79$, $p < 0.0001$). The strength of this relationship greatly exceeded that of
103 RW. The BI method, then, may offer a superior source of climate-sensitive chronologies within the Australian Alps. Applying
104 this technique to Australian species may be the key to significantly improving our understanding of interannual to multi-
105 decadal climate variability prior to the instrumental period (Wilson et al., 2021). Together with existing palaeoclimatological
106 studies, an expansion of this work could provide a critical baseline for temperature and hydroclimate prior to the industrial era
107 and major land-use changes following European arrival.

108 This study will report ~~a crossdated~~-*P. lawrencei* RW ~~chronology and BI chronologies~~ based on sampled material from
109 a previously unexplored site (Mt Loch) in the Victorian Alps (Fig. 1). ~~Chronologies of multiple BI parameters will also be~~
110 ~~generated.. This study will then investigate the sensitivity of the RW and BI chronologies to climate variability, and~~This study
111 will further build upon the existing works of McDougall et al. (2012) and Brookhouse and Graham (2016) by investigating the
112 sensitivity of the RW and BI chronologies to climate variability, as well as the spatial signature of these relationships. It will
113 additionally discuss the potential contributions of *P. lawrencei* in the advancement towards building reliable, multi-centennial
114 scale reconstructions for southeastern Australia, and a strong dendroclimatic network throughout the Australian alps.
115

116 [Figure 1 here]

117 2 Methodology and data

118 2.1 Sampling site

119 The fire-killed *P. lawrencei* samples employed in this study were collected from Mt. Loch (36.96°S, 147.16°E) in 2007. Many
120 *P. lawrencei* communities at the Mt. Loch site were subjected to severe disturbance resulting from extensive bushfires
121 throughout the southeast Australian mainland in January, 2003, allowing for the collection of full stem cross-sections. The
122 sample site comprises a steep, south-facing rock-scrée slope at ~1800m elevation (Fig 2a1). The climate at Mt. Loch, indicated
123 by the nearby (<2 km distance) Mt Hotham meteorological station, exhibits strong seasonality in temperature due to its high
124 altitude (Fig. 3a2a), and is characterised by cold winter conditions with consistent July to October snow cover (Wahren et al.,
125 2001; Venn and Morgan, 2007). Such environments host numerous *P. lawrencei* communities throughout the Australian Alps
126 (McDougall et al., 2012; Brookhouse and Graham, 2016). A total of nine stem cross-sections of up to 13 cm in diameter were
127 examined in this study.

128
129
130

[Figure 2 here]

~~[Figure 3 here]~~

131 2.2 Sample preparation

132 A transverse surface of each sample was initially flattened using a belt sander to produce a surface uniformly perpendicular to
133 the tree-ring boundaries. Prior to scanning, resins and other extractives were removed. Because the BI technique relies upon
134 reflected light, staining unrelated to wood formation can alter reflectance and associations with climate data. To overcome
135 these problems, resins and stains that discolour materials are extracted in a process that may exceed 30 hours for each sample.
136 These extraction processes typically rely on soxhlet apparatus and a hazardous extraction solution. Previous analysis of *P.*
137 *lawrencei* (see Brookhouse and Graham, 2016) refluxed radial laths in a soxhlet apparatus and ethanol/toluene solution for up
138 to 42 hours. As an alternative to soxhlet extraction, samples in this study were soaked in pure acetone. This method allows for
139 the preparation of entire disks, which is highly advantageous given the lobate growth behaviour of *P. lawrencei*. Preliminary
140 experiments using acetone treatment for resin removal (Frith, 2009) suggest a minimum required extraction time of 72 hours
141 for partially immersed 5-mm thick *Pinus sylvestris* L. cores. Subsequent applications of the same technique have revealed the
142 majority of extractives are removed from fully immersed samples after just 48 hours of treatment (Rydval et al., 2014).
143 Moreover, ~~as an addition or alternative to standard BI methods, the difference between minimum and maximum BI (Δ BI) the~~
144 ~~heartwood-sapwood colour difference may be addressed by measuring the difference between minimum and maximum BI~~
145 ~~(Δ BI) as an addition or alternative to standard BI methods, which~~ may provide a data source that increases the climate
146 sensitivity of BI data and eliminates the need for extraction.

147 A sub-sample of three discs was used in this study to assess the efficacy of acetone treatment on full cross sections
148 of *P. lawrencei*. Three samples, ranging from 7-13 cm in diameter and approximately 1 cm thick, were submerged in 100%
149 acetone in air-tight glass containers at room temperature for an initial 120 hour period, followed by an additional 48 hours of
150 immersion. Each sample was sanded to a 2000-grit (9.5 - 11.1 μ m) finish after each extraction stage. When the samples surfaces
151 were free of scratches they were scanned on an Epson Perfection V850 Pro scanner using SilverFast Ai professional software,
152 at a resolution of 4800 dots per inch (dpi). An IT8 Calibration Target (IT8.7/2) was used to calibrate the scanner to ensure the
153 comparable reproduction of colours and brightness between scans (Campbell et al., 2011). After experimentation with different
154 soaking times, the remaining six cross-sections were soaked in acetone for the optimal 120 hour period prior to the development
155 of Δ BI, earlywood (EWBI) and latewood BI (LWBI) chronologies.

156 The highly lobate radial growth of *P. lawrencei* and extensive ring wedging (Fig. 3) made it necessary to measure
157 multiple axes of measurement from all samples. Ring-width (RW) measurements were produced using the program
158 CooRecorder™ and visual crossdating was undertaken on CDendro™, with the additional aid of separate microscope
159 magnification of the wood surface and correlation analysis on the Dendrochronology Program Library in R (dplR: Bunn, 2008,
160 2009). Blue intensity reflectance parameters (delta BI (Δ BI), earlywood BI (EWBI) and latewood BI (LWBI)) were measured

161 along the same paths used for our RW measurement. The Mt. Loch RW chronology was then crossdated against a remotely
162 located *P. lawrencei* RW chronology developed by Brookhouse and Graham (2016) from Mount Buller (67 km southwest of
163 the Mt. Loch study site) over a 79 year overlapping period (1906 - 1985, $r = 0.72$), to corroborate our dating.

164
165 [\[Figure 3 here\]](#)

166 **2.3 Chronology development**

167 Measured tree-ring series were detrended to remove sample-level noise prior to chronology estimation. Removing age-related
168 trends within RW series often involves the fitting of a negative exponential function (Hughes, 2011). However, growth
169 eccentricities associated with the lobate nature of growth in *P. lawrencei* means that a more flexible data-adaptive approach is
170 required. Smoothing splines equal to 67% of each RW series' length with a 50% frequency cutoff were applied to each
171 individual chronology in dpLR (Bunn, 2008, 2010). Ring-width indices were calculated as residuals from the fitted curves. Due
172 to trends specific to each individual BI series, **detrending the age-related growth trends of Δ BI, EWBI
173 and LWBI chronologies was undertaken** in the same data-adaptive manner as the RW series. The robust bi-
174 weight mean of the detrended residual series were then calculated to produce the standardised RW and BI chronologies (Cook
175 et al., 1990). The robust bi-weight approach produces a chronology that is relatively unaffected by outliers - an important
176 consideration in the study of *P. lawrencei* given the highly eccentric growth behaviour and strong likelihood of outliers
177 otherwise impacting the common signal (McDougall et al., 2012). We further removed autocorrelation from the tree-ring
178 indices within dpLR. The pre-whitened (RES) chronologies did not differ significantly from the non-prewhitened chronologies,
179 and we therefore used the RES chronologies to assess climate signals in the chronologies.

180 The quality and reliability of the chronologies were assessed using the expressed population signal (EPS), against the
181 generally accepted threshold of > 0.85 (Wigley et al., 1984). Additionally, due to a prevailing increasing trend apparent in the
182 BI RES chronologies, we produced first-differenced BI and RW RES chronologies for use in subsequent analysis with climate
183 data.

184 185 **2.4 Climate analysis**

186 The final chronologies were evaluated against climate data spanning 70 years (1929 - 1998) due to constraints associated with
187 low sample resolution prior to the early 20th century. The relationship between the RW and BI chronologies and minimum and
188 maximum air temperature, precipitation, snow depth and streamflow data [for the current and previous growth years](#) was then
189 explored. Climate-correlation analysis was conducted using observational data from the Bureau of Meteorology (BoM) station
190 in Omeo, 41.8 km southeast of Mt Loch (Fig. [3b2a](#)). Continuous minimum and maximum monthly mean air temperature data
191 from 1879 to 2009 are available at this site, which correlates strongly with the substantially shorter dataset [\(1925 - 1975\)](#)
192 available in Hotham Heights (mean ~~maximum-monthly-annual maximum~~ temperature, $r = 0.87$; mean ~~minimum-monthly-annual~~

193 minimum temperature, $r = 0.71$). It is important to note, however, the significant elevation difference between our study
194 location in Hotham Heights (~1800m) and the Omeo station (685m), and therefore the possible variation in correlative strength
195 of individual months. We further evaluated the sensitivity of our chronologies to mean total monthly precipitation data at
196 Harrietville (Fig. 42b) - the closest station with sufficiently long records (data available from 1884 - 2015). We further
197 examined the relationship between our *P. lawrencei* chronologies and mean monthly snow depth records from 1954 - 2001 at
198 Spencers Creek in NSW (~125 km northeast of Mt. Loch). Correlations with total monthly streamflow from BoM hydrologic
199 reference stations at Mitta Mitta River at Hinnomunjie and Livingstone creek at Omeo were also assessed. See Table 1. for
200 metadata pertaining to BoM observation stations used in this study. In addition to individual station data, we explored
201 relationships with the Australian Gridded Climate Data (Evans et al., 2020), which is a recent revision of the Australian Water
202 Availability Project (AWAP) gridded dataset (Jones et al., 2009). The AGCD extends from 1900 - 2020, with a grid averaged
203 resolution of 0.05 degrees (approximately 5km). We investigated the spatial extent of the relationship between RW and BI
204 chronologies and mean monthly minimum and maximum temperatures and total monthly precipitation across the alpine
205 regions of Victoria and southern New South Wales, and further afield across Victoria. To ensure consistency with the
206 detrending approach for the RW and BI chronologies, we explored the links between interannual differences in both, by
207 applying first differencing to the climate data prior to correlation analysis.

208 [Figure 4 here]

209 —[Table 1 here]

210 3 Results and discussion

211 This study presents nine successfully crossdated *P. lawrencei* specimens (13 individual series). Chronology statistics are
212 reported in Table 2. Given the relatively small sample size, a strong common signal (exceeding the 0.85 EPS threshold)
213 throughout a portion of the resulting RW chronology (Fig. 54) is encouraging. The RW chronology reached a mean EPS of
214 0.86 for the period 1929 - 1998. ~~However, with, suggesting that at least 11 radii are required to achieve sufficient chronology~~
215 reliability. With individual specimen ages ranging from 67 to 327 years, future work with larger sample sizes would allow for
216 the opportunity to utilise this species for climate analysis across multi-centennial time scales. Previous works have developed
217 114 year (McDougall et al., 2012) and 82 year (Brookhouse and Graham, 2016) RW chronologies from 48 and 13 *P. lawrencei*
218 specimens respectively. Additionally, the ability to crossdate our RW chronology with a remotely located Mt. Buller
219 chronology (Fig. 6a5a) (Brookhouse and Graham, 2016) demonstrates the spatial coherence in the sensitivity of this species
220 to climate variables throughout southeast Australia. Such findings highlight the possible utility of *P. lawrencei* in the
221 development of a strong dendroclimatic network throughout the Australian Alps.

222
223 [Table 2 here]

224 [Figure 54 here]

[Figure 65 here]

3.1 Temperature correlations

The RW chronology shows increased variability from the 1900's, with particularly narrow rings observed in the 1950's and 60's (Fig. 5a). With regard to observation station data, the RW chronology response to mean monthly maximum temperatures from Omeo reveals positive, statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) correlations with the current ~~growth season~~ year winter (June, July and August) and October and November in particular, and a strong, negative response to June to November temperature maxima of the previous growth season (Fig. 7a6a). Additionally, sensitivity of RW to mean minimum monthly temperatures at Omeo is dominated by statistically significant, ~~negative~~ positive correlations with October of the current period and September of the previous period, as well as negative (statistically significant) correlations with previous growth season March to May minimum temperatures (Fig. 7b6b). The ability of ~~the our~~ *P. lawrencei* RW chronology ~~developed in this study to capture select~~ to capture temperature signals during some months of ~~the~~ growing season ~~temperatures~~ is consistent with previous dendroclimatological analysis of this species, demonstrating air temperature ~~as is~~ a dominant limiting growth factor (McDougall et al., 2012; Brookhouse and Graham, 2016). The influence of temperature throughout the growing season has previously been extensively documented as a primary control on the growth of coniferous species in high altitude and high latitude environments (eg. D'Arrigo et al., 1992; Brookhouse and Bi, 2009; Nishimura and Lovoque, 2011; Rydval et al., 2018). Concerning the strong, inverse relationship of the RW chronology to temperature of the previous growth season, similar response patterns have been found in other species such as lower elevation *Lagarostrobos franklinii* (Buckley et al., 1997) and the widespread *Phyllocladus aspleniifolius* (Allen et al., 2001) in Tasmanian, and high elevation New Zealand *Libocedrus bidwillii* (Palmer and Xiong, 2004). This may be related to a depletion of carbohydrate and nutrients reserves following a favourably warm growing season and accelerated growth rates.

[Figure 76 here]

Following the strong, positive correlation between RW and local temperature maxima during winter months, we investigated the spatial signature of this relationship. The RW response to the AGCD was also dominated by a statistically significant, positive correlation with mean June to August maximum temperatures ($r = 0.62$, $p < 0.001$), encompassing a broad extent of central Victoria (Fig. 8a7a). This response is consistent with previously documented alpine *P. lawrencei* chronologies (McDougall et al., 2012; Brookhouse and Graham, 2016). McDougall et al., (2012) reported a strong positive relationship between RW and winter maximum temperatures, and a negative response to mean and maximum monthly snow depth. Given the inverse relationship between winter temperature and snowfall, winter temperatures are suggested to reflect the magnitude of winter snow depth and persistence of spring snow cover, which imposes significant impacts on vegetation growth (Kudo, 1991; Halter, 1998; Brookhouse et al., 2008). Snow cover is postulated to be a major determinant of the length of the phenology

258 and growing season of alpine vegetation (Kudo, 1991). With regard to Australian alpine flora, this sensitivity is consistent with
259 documented responses of *E. pauciflora* to winter snow cover (Brookhouse et al., 2008). The timing of growth initiation in
260 boreal and temperate environments is largely defined by temperature (Creber and Chaloner, 1984), with many coniferous and
261 deciduous species experiencing cessation in root growth at soil temperatures below 2 - 4°C (Halter, 1998). Persistent spring
262 snow cover due to cooler winter conditions delays the initiation of cambial activity (essential for the formation of wood cells)
263 and sustains such low soil temperatures, resulting in a shorter growing season and therefore a narrower growth-ring (Vaganov
264 et al., 1999; Kirilyanov et al., 2003). Additionally, considering the acute prostrate growth of *P. lawrencei* communities and the
265 likelihood of stands being buried by snow throughout winter, extended spring snow cover also presents a direct impediment
266 to wood production by delaying the commencement of photosynthesis (McDougall et al., 2012). Conversely, warm winter
267 temperatures are expected to accelerate snowmelt in spring, resulting in an earlier onset of photosynthesis and cambial
268 activation for *P. lawrencei*.

269 The Δ BI chronology developed in this study is most notably negatively correlated (~~with statistical significance~~) with
270 mean maximum temperatures in October, November and December of the current growth season (November and December
271 correlations are statistically significant; Fig. ~~7e6c~~). Taking the averaged temperature maxima of these months produced a
272 significantly strengthened correlation with the Δ BI chronology (Fig. ~~6bA1~~; Fig. 7b: $r = -0.43$, $p < 0.001$). This response is
273 comparable to the only previously constructed BI chronology for *P. lawrencei* by Brookhouse and Graham (2016), whereby
274 averaged August to April temperature maxima revealed the strongest BI-temperature relationship. Moreover, Δ BI displayed a
275 ~~substantially stronger response to mean monthly minimum temperatures throughout the same~~ significant, positive relationship
276 with October - January mean monthly minimum temperatures of the previous growth year (Fig. 6d) as well as a strong negative
277 response to minimum temperature throughout the current growth year October to December period (Fig. ~~6e7c~~: $r = -0.51$, $p <$
278 0.001).

279
280 [Figure ~~87~~ here]

281
282 ~~The~~ Given that BI is negatively correlated with MXD, the negative response of ~~the our~~ Δ BI chronology to maximum
283 and minimum temperatures throughout October to December is consistent with many previous studies demonstrating that
284 temperature of the growing period is the dominant climate parameter influencing latewood density (eg. D'Arrigo et al., 2000;
285 Davi et al., 2003; Kaczka et al., 2017; Blake et al., 2020). The anatomical basis for wood density lies in the average amount
286 and size of cell wall material within the tracheids (Vaganov et al., 2006). During the growth season, tracheid size reduces, and
287 density thereby increases, between earlywood and latewood formation (Rathgeber et al., 2006; Cuny et al., 2014). An
288 investigation into the interannual variability of wood density and specific contributions of anatomical attributes in NH conifers
289 by Björklund et al., (2017) found earlywood and latewood density to be primarily influenced by tracheid size and cell wall
290 dimensions respectively. ~~Given that~~ Since BI is an established proxy measure of density, and assuming that it is recording
291 similar variations in these structural anatomical properties (and that such responses are consistent between hemispheres), the

292 BI data in *P. lawrencei* may likewise reflect changes in tracheid size and wall dimensions. Future studies of BI in *P. lawrencei*
293 incorporating the exploration of interannual variations of these anatomical properties could confirm this. Such work could
294 further our understanding of the physiological controls on the BI-density relationship, particularly as it relates to some SH
295 species in which density variations have been noted to behave differently to what is typically observed in NH conifers (Blake
296 et al., 2020).

297

298 **3.2 Precipitation, snow depth and streamflow correlations**

299 Correlation analysis with precipitation data revealed a strong negative relationship between RW and June to November and
300 May precipitation of the current growth season, as well as a particularly strong positive response to precipitation in November
301 of the previous season (Fig. 9a8a). Additional correlations with AGCD most notably exhibited a significant negative
302 relationship between RW and ~~meantotal~~ June to August precipitation across southern Victoria and high altitude regions (Fig.
303 ~~40a9a~~). Significant negative correlations between the RW chronology and mean snow depth at Spencers Creek are also evident
304 from June to October (Fig. ~~4410~~). This response is consistent with that observed in *P. lawrencei* RW from Mt. Blue Cow and
305 Schlinks Pass in NSW (McDougall et al., 2012), and reflects the spatial coherence of snow depth throughout the Australian
306 alpine region. Such results further demonstrate the previously discussed impact of temperature maxima on the persistence of
307 spring snow cover, and the consequent limitation on *P. lawrencei* radial growth. Additionally, given the significant contribution
308 of snow melt during winter and spring to the soil moisture balance in the Australian Alps (Costin et al., 1961), we postulate
309 that the positive response of RW to monthly snow depth of the previous growth season (~~Fig. 9~~) is related to excess moisture
310 availability providing optimum growth conditions the following growth year.

311 Relationships between BI and snow depth were non-significant (data not shown). However, the Δ BI chronology
312 exhibited particularly strong positive correlations with July ~~meantotal~~ monthly precipitation (Fig. 9b8b; Fig. ~~40e9b~~).
313 Assessments of the dendroclimatic potential of Δ BI for hydroclimatic reconstruction have thus far been limited. Notably,
314 however, Seftigen et al., (2020) recently reported an increase in the explained variance of a warm season, Δ BI-based
315 precipitation reconstruction of nearly 20 percentage points (to 55%), relative to the predictive skill of the RW-based
316 reconstruction. The strong response of RW and Δ BI in *P. lawrencei* to precipitation, as demonstrated in this study, hence
317 emphasises the potential to improve the coverage of high resolution, moisture sensitive proxy records in the Australian
318 continent. This would present an opportunity to produce new robust multi-century precipitation reconstructions for southeast
319 Australia.

320 Tree-ring based reconstructions of additional hydrological parameters such as streamflow can provide valuable
321 insights to water resource managers and planners, particularly considering the confined range of observational records. In this
322 study, we therefore also conducted a preliminary evaluation of a potential *P. lawrencei* tree ring-streamflow relationship. The
323 lack of streamflow gauge datasets of comparable length to the *P. lawrencei* chronologies limited overlapping records to 43
324 years (1955 - 1998) for Mitta Mitta River, and just 26 years (1968 - 1994) for Livingstone Creek. Nonetheless, Δ BI exhibited

325 a particularly strong positive response to the current growth season June to March streamflow at Livingstone Creek and with
326 current season July streamflow at Mitta Mitta River (Fig. ~~A1~~A2). Correlations between the RW chronology and streamflow
327 data at Livingstone Creek were non-significant. However, significant negative (positive) responses of RW to current (previous)
328 growth season streamflow in June and November at Mitta Mitta River are apparent (Fig. ~~A1~~A2). Whilst some strong
329 correlations are present, the inconsistency of results across sites requires further explanation.

330
331 [Figure ~~98~~ here]

332 [Figure ~~109~~ here]

333 [Figure ~~110~~ here]

335 3.3 Limitations and future prospects

336 It is important to first note the necessity of full stem cross-sections for accurate dating of *P. lawrencei* due to highly eccentric
337 growth behaviour and frequent ring-wedging. Whilst the destructive sampling method required to obtain such cross-sections
338 may not always be justified or permissible (February and Stock, 1998; McDougall et al., 2012), ample opportunity exists for
339 further collection of fire-killed *P. lawrencei* stands throughout the Australian Alps, given the frequency of large-scale fire
340 activity in recent decades.

341 Both RW and BI chronologies in this study were inherently challenged by a limited sample size of just nine stem
342 cross-sections. Earlier dendroclimatological studies of *P. lawrencei* by McDougall et al. (2012) and Brookhouse and Graham
343 (2016) produced chronologies based on 48 and 13 samples respectively. Whilst the Δ BI data produced in this study presented
344 a relatively strong common climate signal, multiple BI chronologies reported in previous works have highlighted the
345 requirement of a greater sample size to achieve comparable interseries correlations to MXD (eg. Wilson et al., 2014; Blake et
346 al., 2020). It is therefore likely that the common signal strength of the *P. lawrencei* BI chronologies would increase
347 substantially with the incorporation of additional series, particularly on longer time scales.

348 Tree-ring parameters are known to comprise a considerable degree of non-climatic variance at lower frequencies
349 (Cook, 1985; Esper et al., 2005; Fonti et al., 2009; Björklund et al., 2020). Blue intensity chronologies in particular have
350 displayed stronger responses to temperature at high frequencies, yet generally poorer portrayals of low-frequency trends when
351 compared to RW (eg. Rydval et al., 2014; Wilson et al. 2021). Samples in this study consist of a vast range of ages. Whilst the
352 smoothing spline method of detrending aims to preserve the majority of the resolvable low frequency variance (Cook et al.,
353 1995), the extent to which this approach impacts the expression of low frequency variance requires further exploration with
354 longer *P. lawrencei* chronologies.

355 Whilst correlation analysis between RW and BI chronologies and climate variables in this study has empirically
356 highlighted the strength of the *P. lawrencei* growth response to climate, a more detailed understanding of physiological
357 mechanisms is required to further establish the causality of these relationships. Given the limited study of the

358 dendroclimatological properties of *P. lawrencei* thus far, and our relatively rudimentary understanding of the BI-density link,
359 further sampling and physiological investigation is warranted. This would allow for better interpretation of RW and BI data,
360 and improve upon an already encouraging expression of the climate signal.

361 Despite earlier quite pessimistic assessments of the Podocarpus genus for dendroclimatological purposes (Dunwiddie,
362 1979; February and Stock, 1998), due in part to limited sample availability (in the absence of fire-killed specimens) the strength
363 of the observed correlations presented in this study of just nine samples are promising with regard to the future analysis of this
364 species. The BI method appears to offer a promising additional proxy to RW for *P. lawrencei*, as in other SH species in which
365 the climate signal of BI parameters has been explored (Blake et al., 2020; Wilson et al., 2021). The ongoing development and
366 application of the BI method in *P. lawrencei*, particularly for longer, multi-centennial scale chronologies may help significantly
367 improve our understanding of past climatic changes in the SH, given the valuable position annually resolved, tree ring-based
368 proxies hold in palaeoclimatology.

369

370 **4 Conclusion**

371 Despite inherent challenges due to growth abnormalities, this study has presented crossdated *P. lawrencei* RW and BI
372 chronologies on the order of 70 years for climate analysis (with individual (non-crossdated) series dating back to 1676), based
373 on nine fire-killed specimens from Mt. Loch in the Victorian Alps. Ring-width measurements displayed the strongest responses
374 to mean winter temperature maxima and snow depth, analogous to that demonstrated by high altitude *E. pauciflora*
375 communities. The Δ BI parameter exhibited a greater sensitivity to climate than earlywood or latewood BI, presenting a
376 particularly strong relationship with temperature and precipitation in the current growing season. This study offers encouraging
377 results, particularly those pertaining to RW, for the increased utilisation of *P. lawrencei* in Australian dendroclimatology. With
378 ongoing efforts to further reduce the limitations of the BI parameter and develop the most appropriate detrending methods, as
379 well as the incorporation of anatomical analysis, the BI method also offers an important opportunity in Australian
380 dendroclimatology. Given the known longevity of individual *P. lawrencei* specimens, the temporal extension and increased
381 utilisation of *P. lawrencei* chronologies from the Australian Alps may help to provide an important perspective on climate
382 change in the region. A detailed dendroclimatological network of this species could contribute meaningfully towards
383 improving palaeoclimate data coverage in the Southern Hemisphere.

384

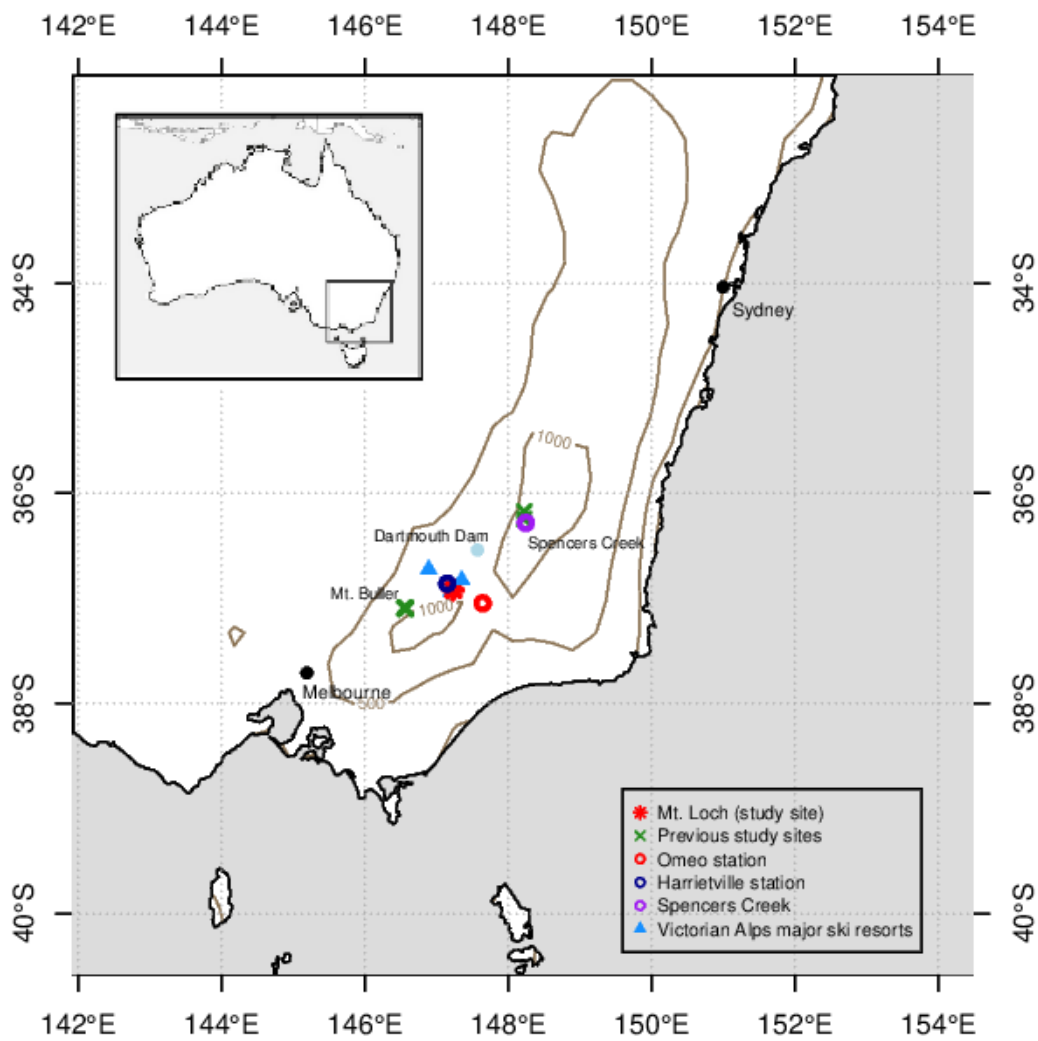


Figure 1

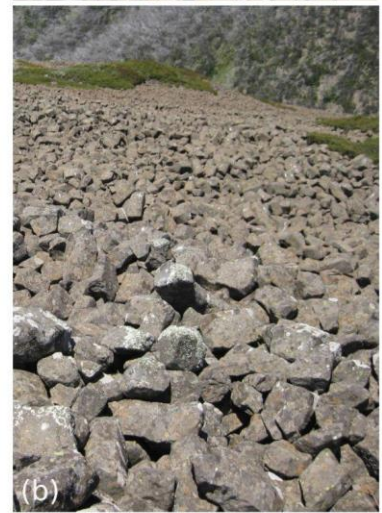
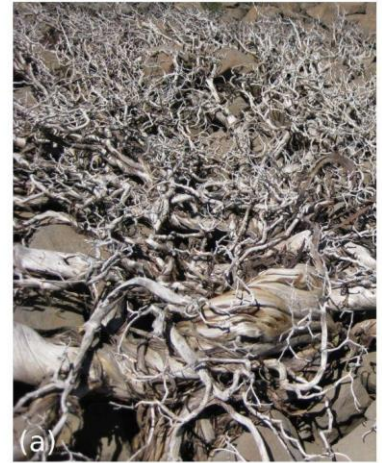
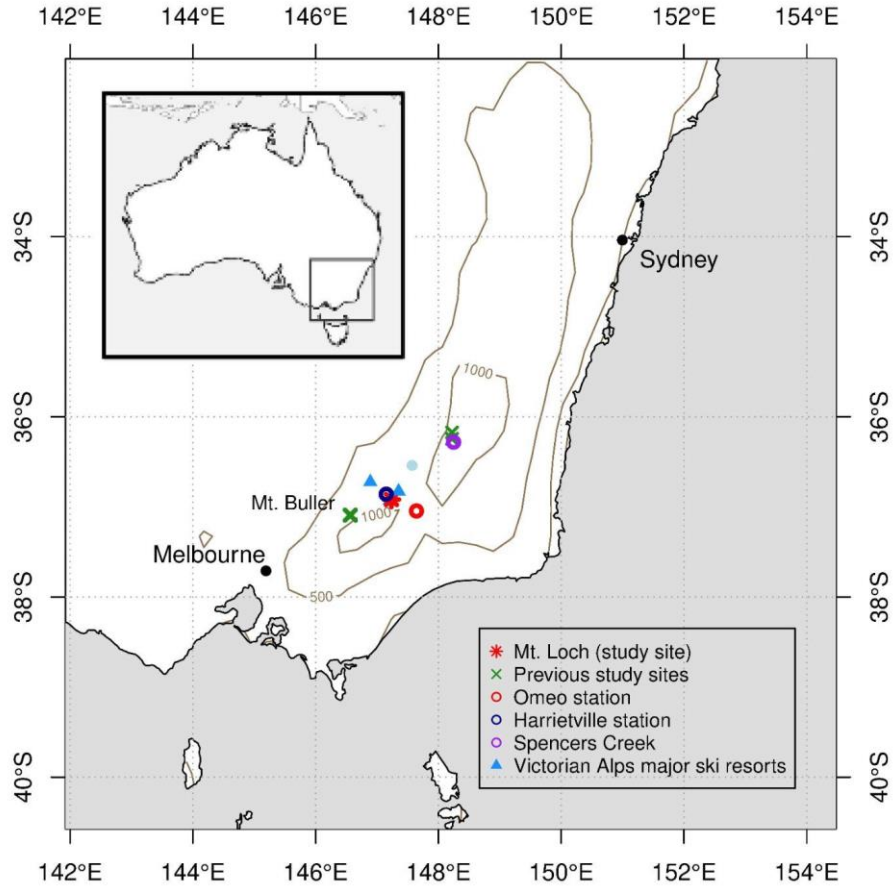


Figure 1: Left: Location of Mt. Loch sample site and main meteorological stations, and *P. lawrencei* study sites from previous works (Mt. Blue Cow and Schlinks Pass: McDougall et al., 2012, Mt. Buller: Brookhouse and Graham, 2016).

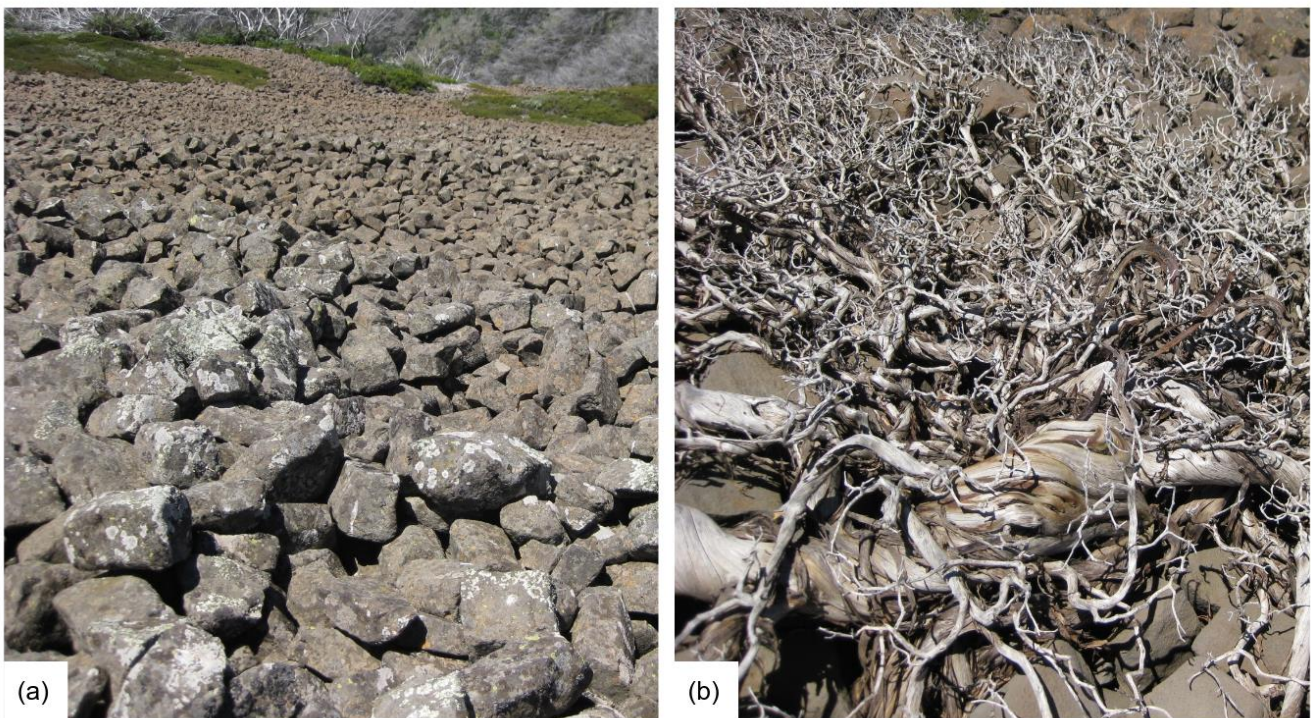


Figure 2: (a) Right: (a) Highly prostrate growth of fire-killed *P. lawrencei* stands from the same locality. (b) Mt. Loch boulder field on rock scree slope, from which samples for this study were collected. (c) Highly prostrate growth of fire-killed *P. lawrencei* stands from the same locality. Images taken by Matthew Brookhouse (ANU).

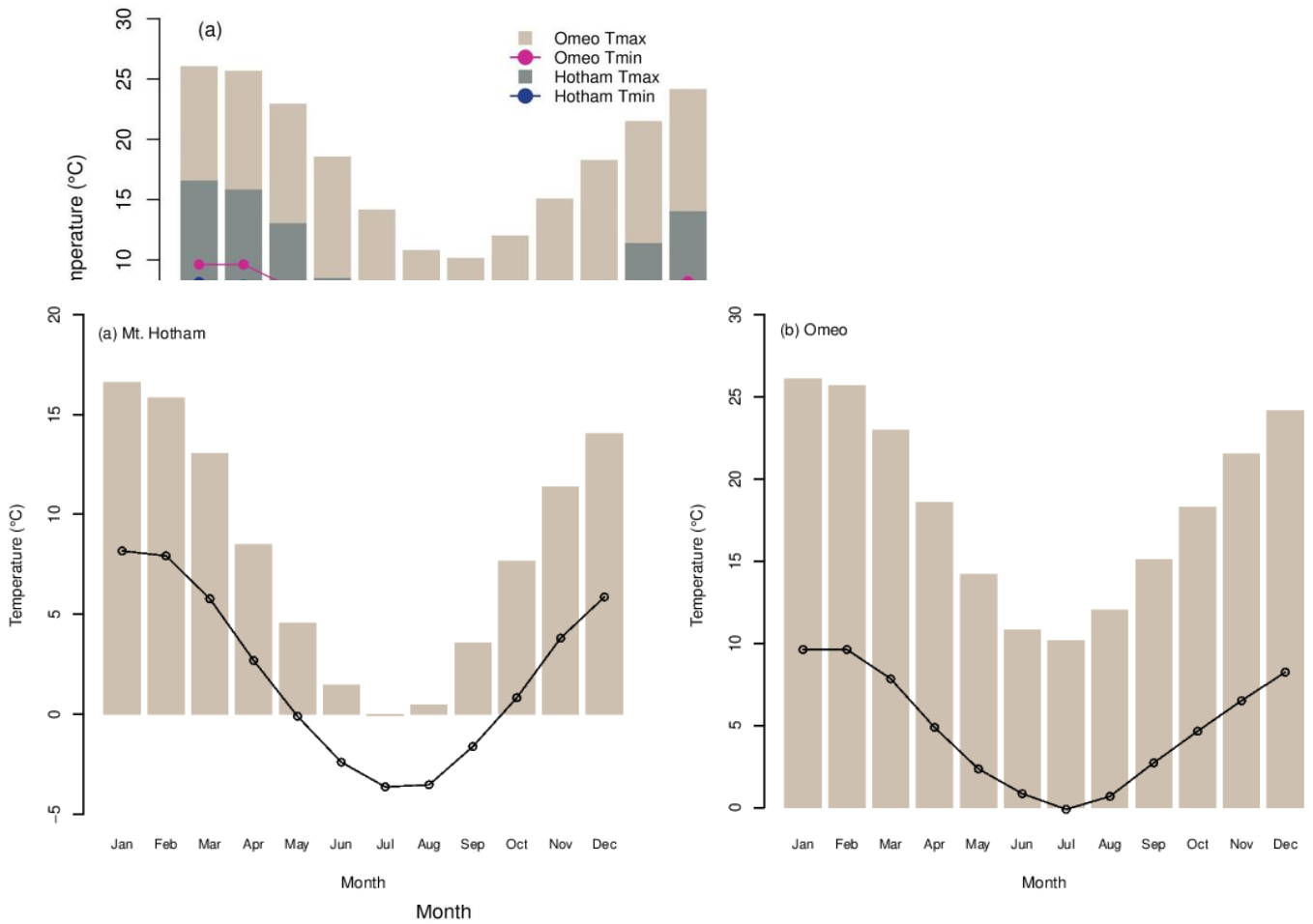


Figure 32: (a) Mean monthly maximum (shaded bars) and minimum (open circles) air temperature at (a) Omeo and Mt. Hotham and meteorological stations. (b) Omeo meteorological stations.

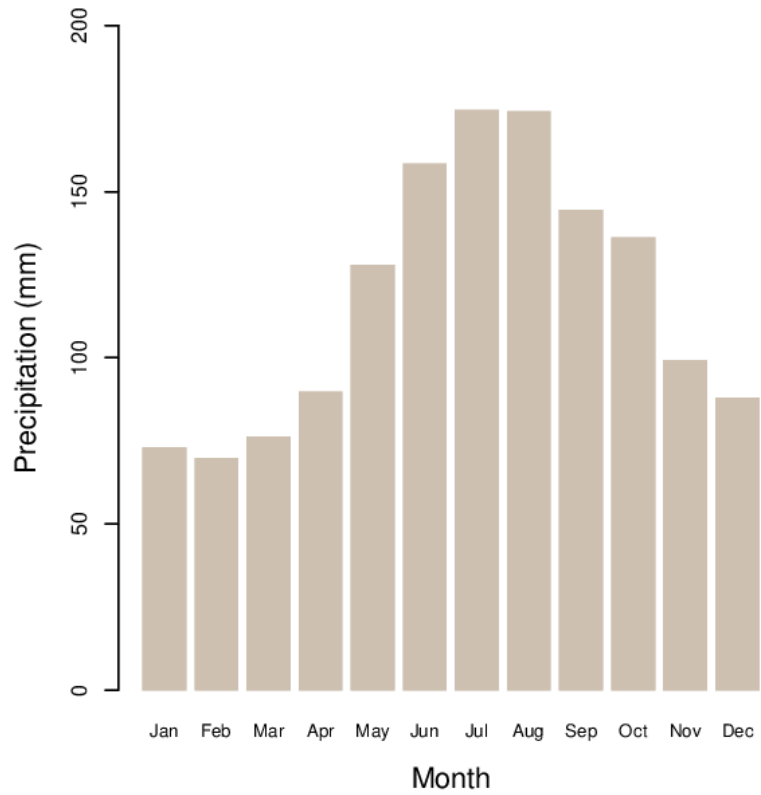


Figure 4: Mean monthly precipitation at Harrietville meteorological station.



Figure 3: *P. lawrencei* specimen from Mt. Loch, demonstrating typical lobate growth behaviour and ring wedging.

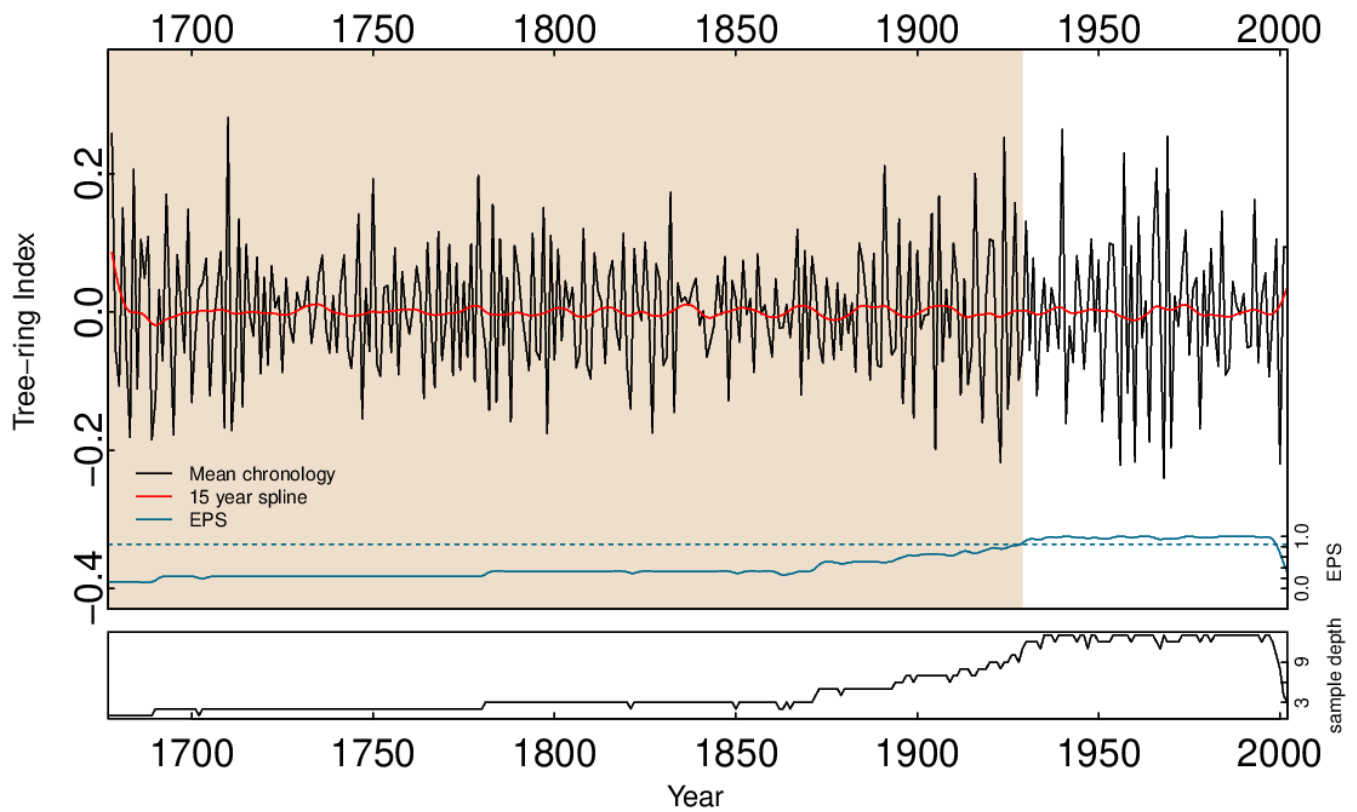
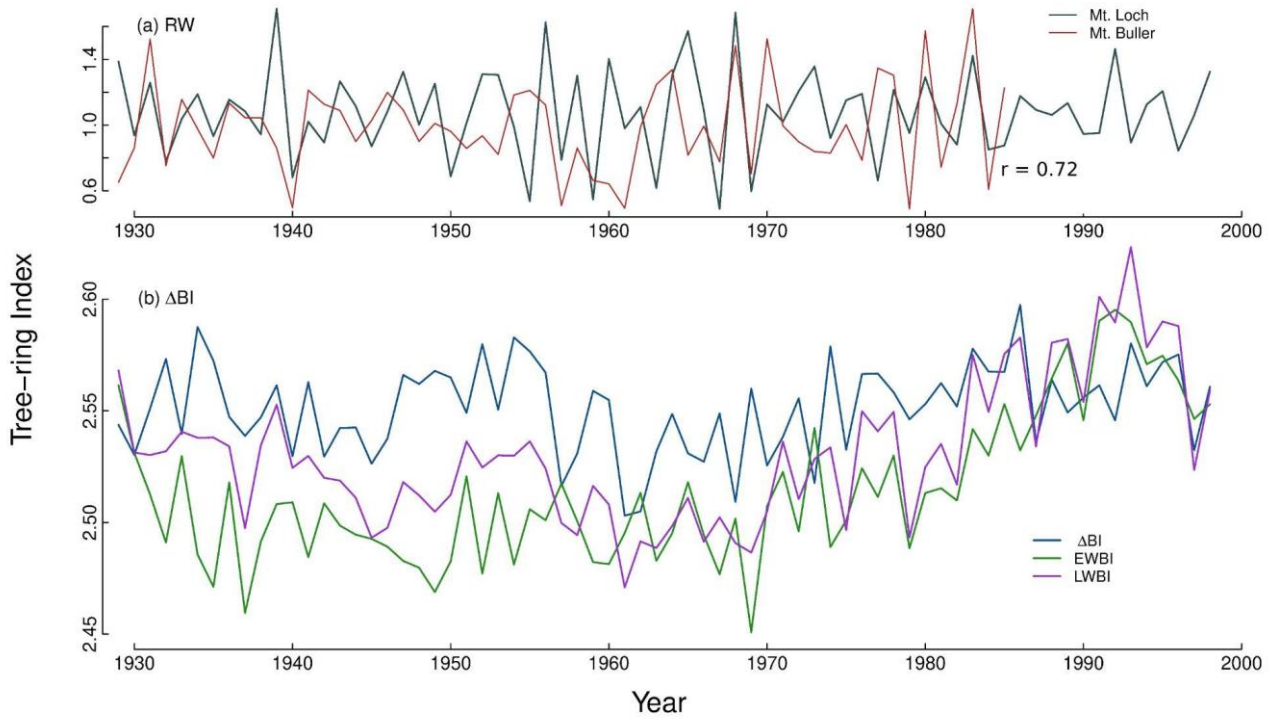


Figure 54. Full mean ring width chronology (1676 - 2002) based on 13 Mt. Loch *P. lawrencei* series from 9 samples (13 individual series), with 30 year spline and two standard errors (top panel), and with concurrent sample resolution (bottom panel). Expressed Population Signal (EPS) is denoted by the solid blue line (top panel), with the 0.85 threshold (dashed horizontal line).



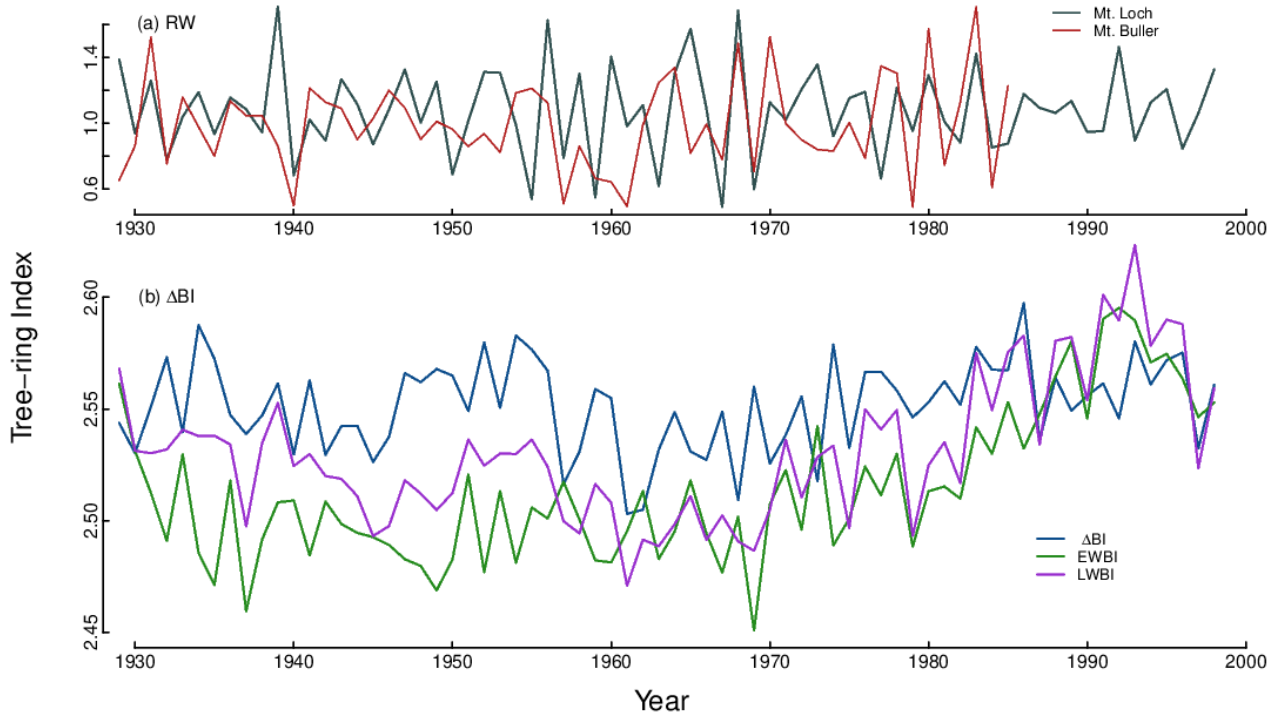
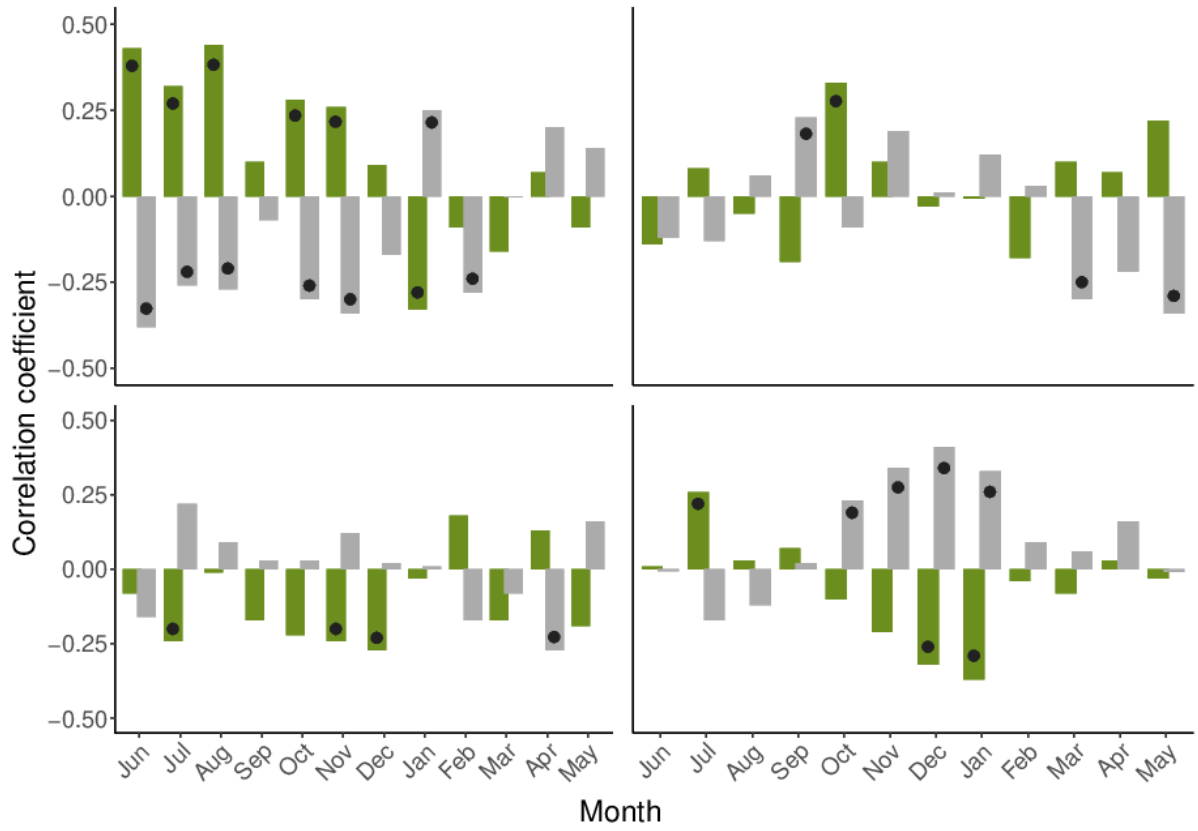


Figure 5. (a) Detrended *P. lawrencei* ring width (RES) chronologies for Mt. Loch (this study) and Mt. Buller (Brookhouse and Graham 2016) and (b) earlywood and latewood BI chronologies, with the derived Δ BI parameter, for the 1929 - 1998 period.



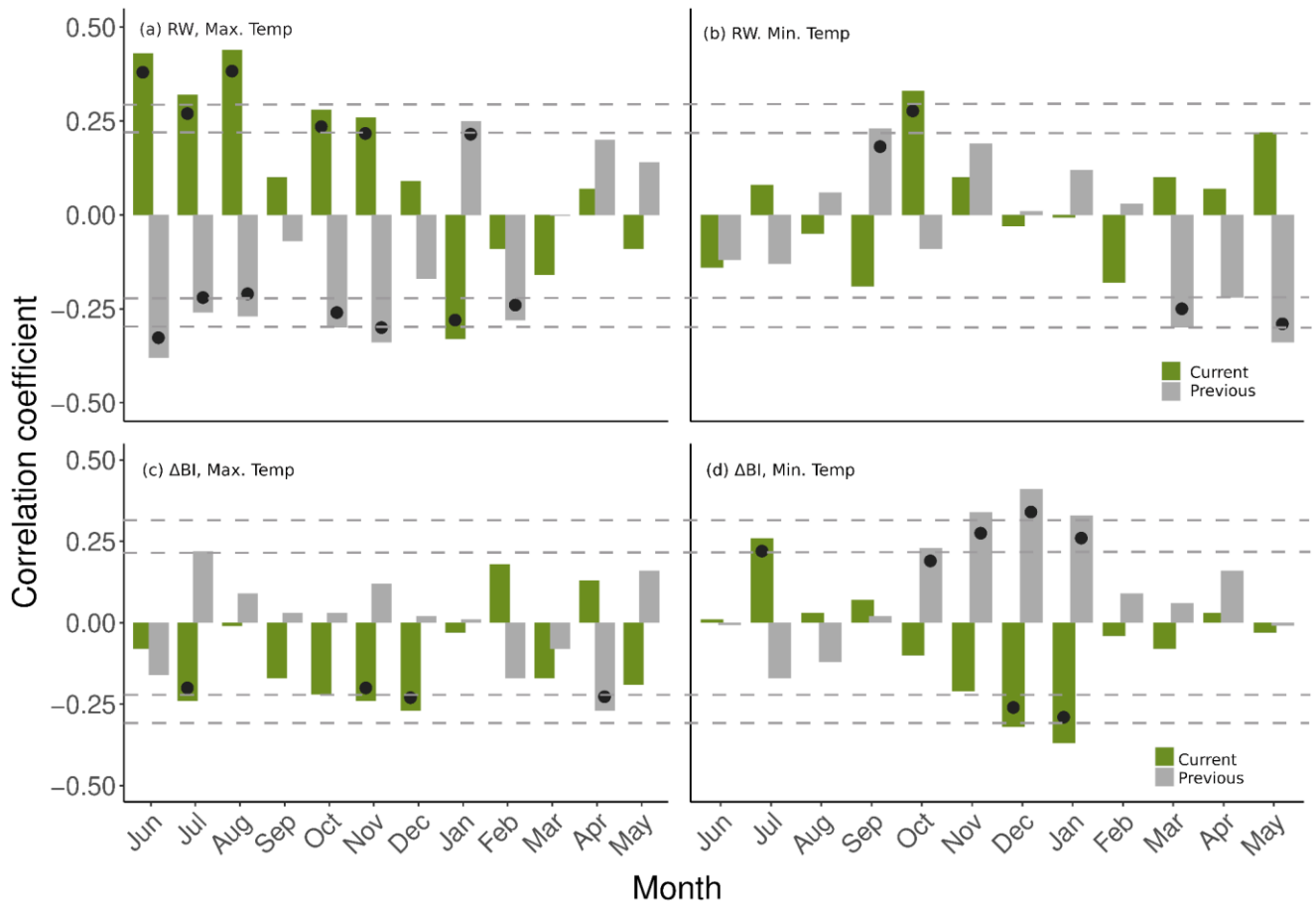


Figure 76. Correlations between RW and Δ BI chronologies and mean minimum and maximum monthly temperature data from Omeo observation station across the period 1929-1998, for both the current and previous growth season/year. Black dots indicate statistical significance ($p < 0.05$), and dashed horizontal lines, with increasing distance from the x-axis, indicate 0.05 and 0.01 significance levels. Radial growth of *P. lawrencei* occurs in summer months (approximately November - March).

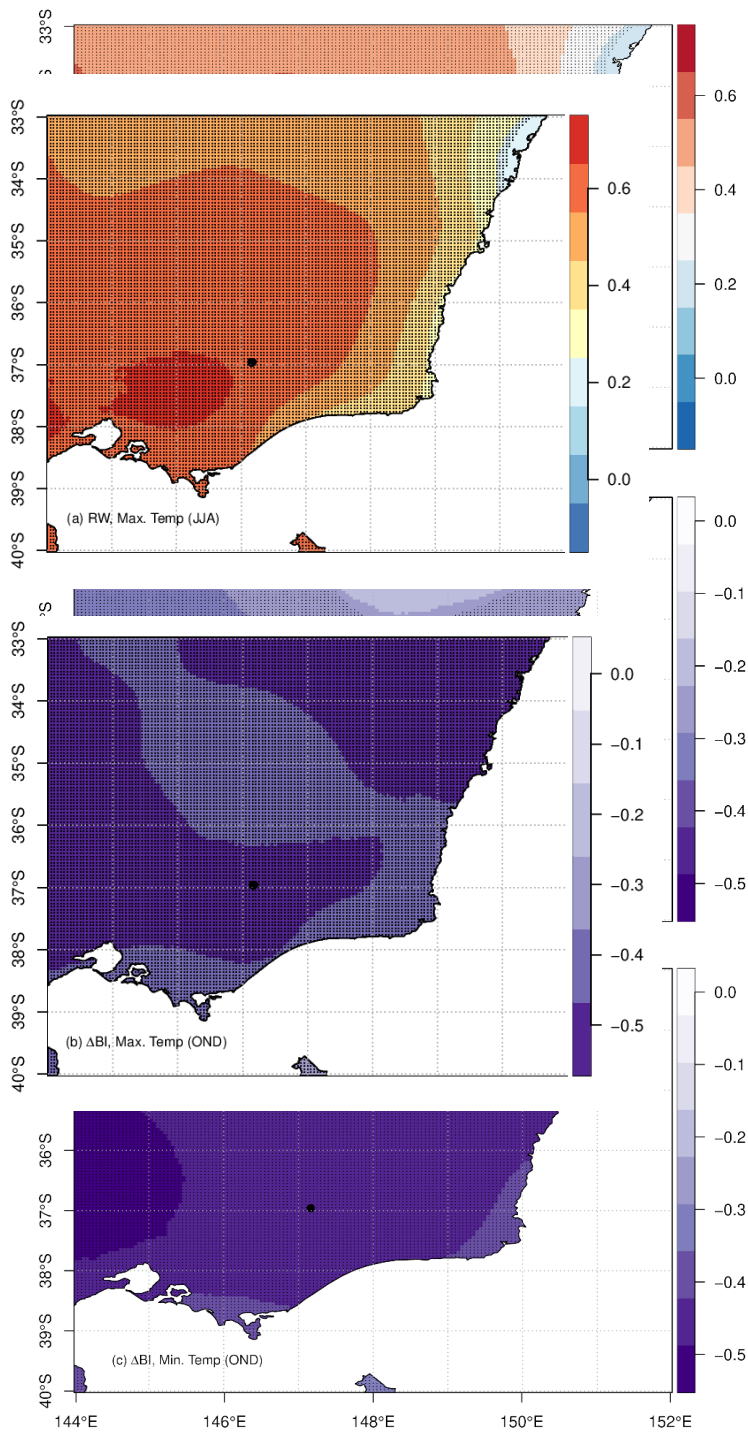
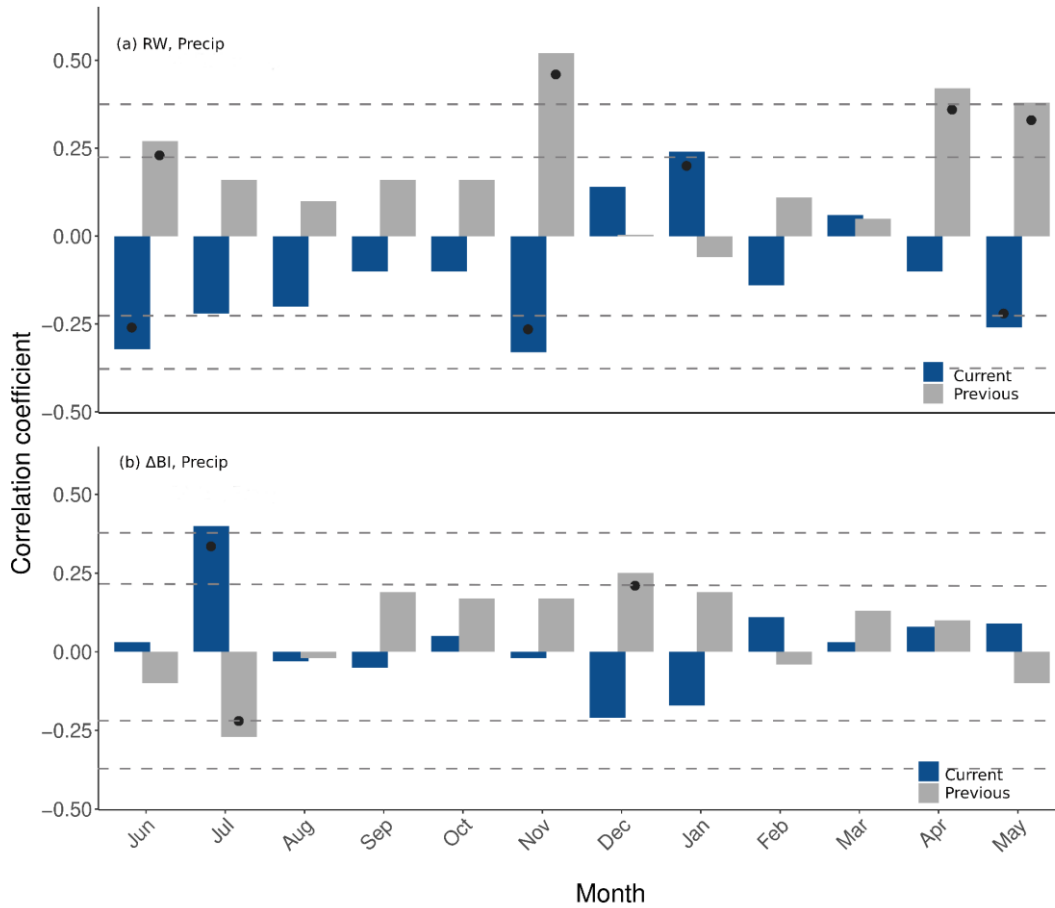
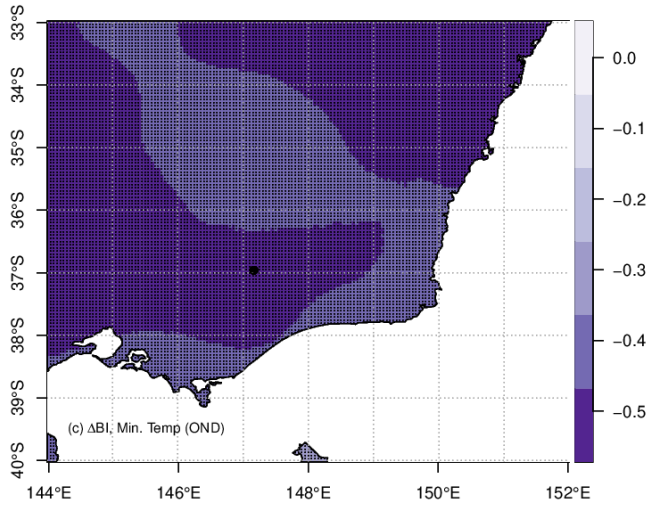


Figure 87: RW and Δ BI chronology correlations with AGCD mean monthly ~~temperatures data~~ temperature for 1929 - 1998 period. (a) RW correlation with mean June, July and August (winter) maximum temperatures, (b) Δ BI correlation with mean October, November and December maximum temperatures and (c) Δ BI correlation with mean December minimum temperature. Shaded areas represent statistically significant correlations ($p < 0.05$) and study site location is marked by black dot.



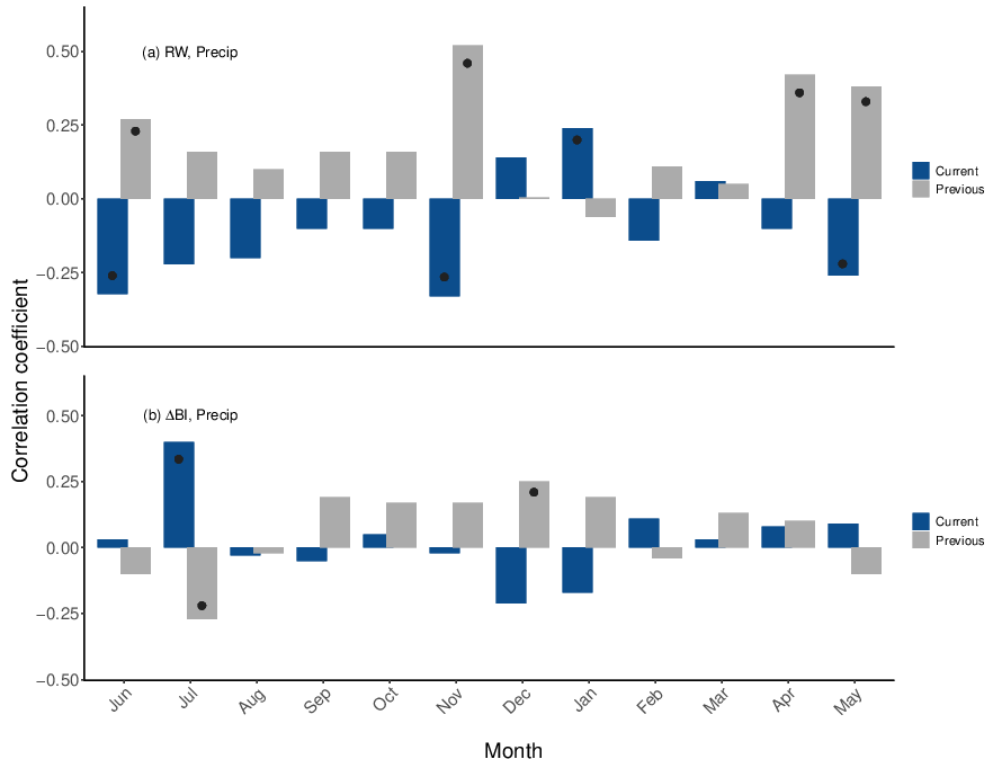


Figure 98: Correlations between ~~RW~~ and (a) RW and (b) Δ BI chronologies and ~~mean~~total monthly precipitation data from Harrietville observation station across the period 1929-1998, for both the current and previous growth season. Black dots indicate statistical significance ($p < 0.05$).

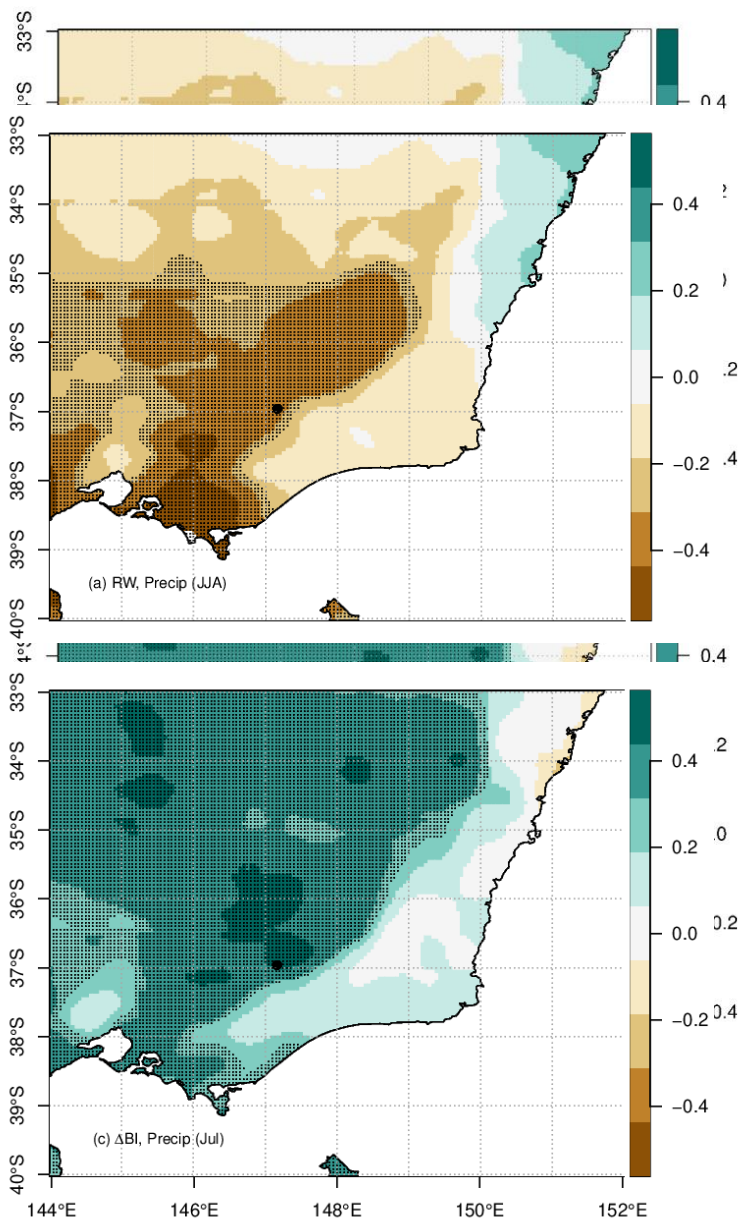


Figure 109: RW and Δ BI chronology correlations with AGCD meantotal monthly precipitation data for 1929 - 1998 period. (a) RW correlation with mean June, July and August (winter) total precipitation, (b) Δ BI correlation with meantotal July precipitation. Shaded areas represent statistically significant correlations ($p < 0.05$) and study site location is marked by black dot.

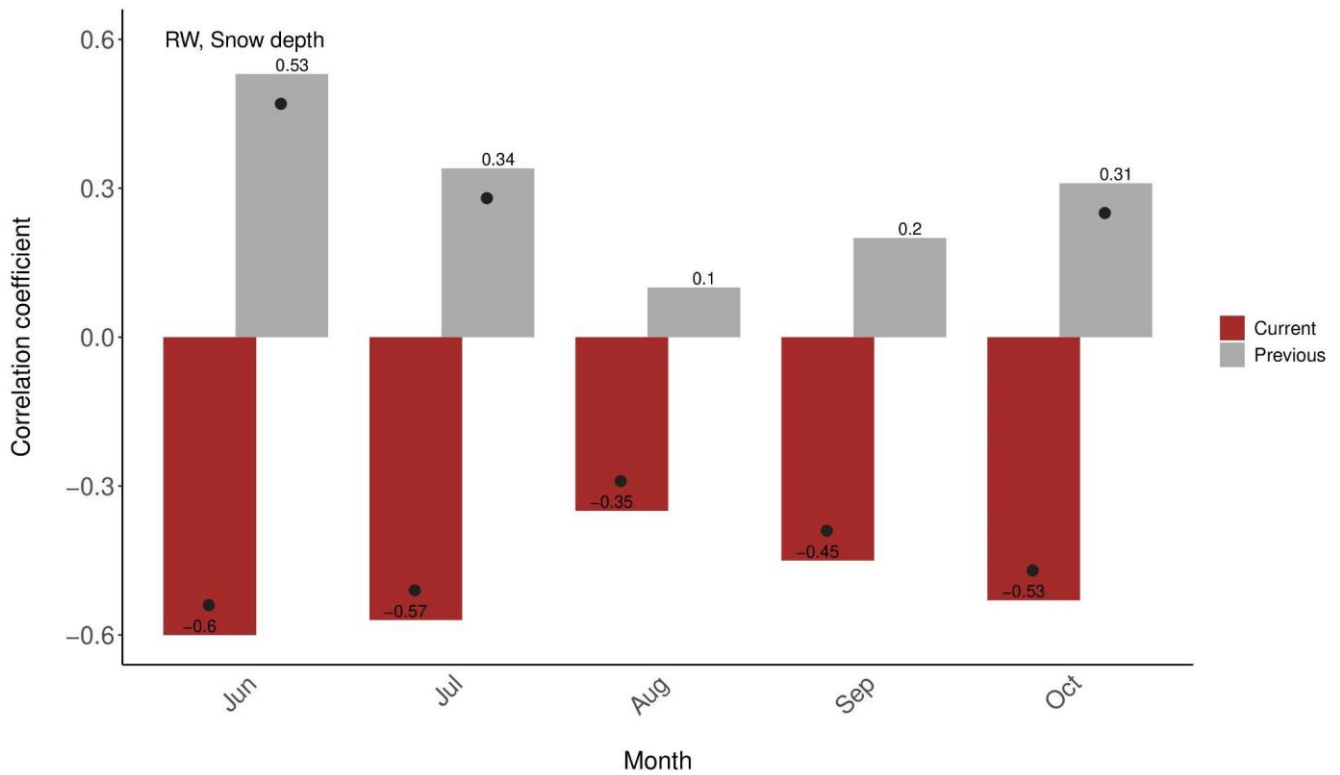
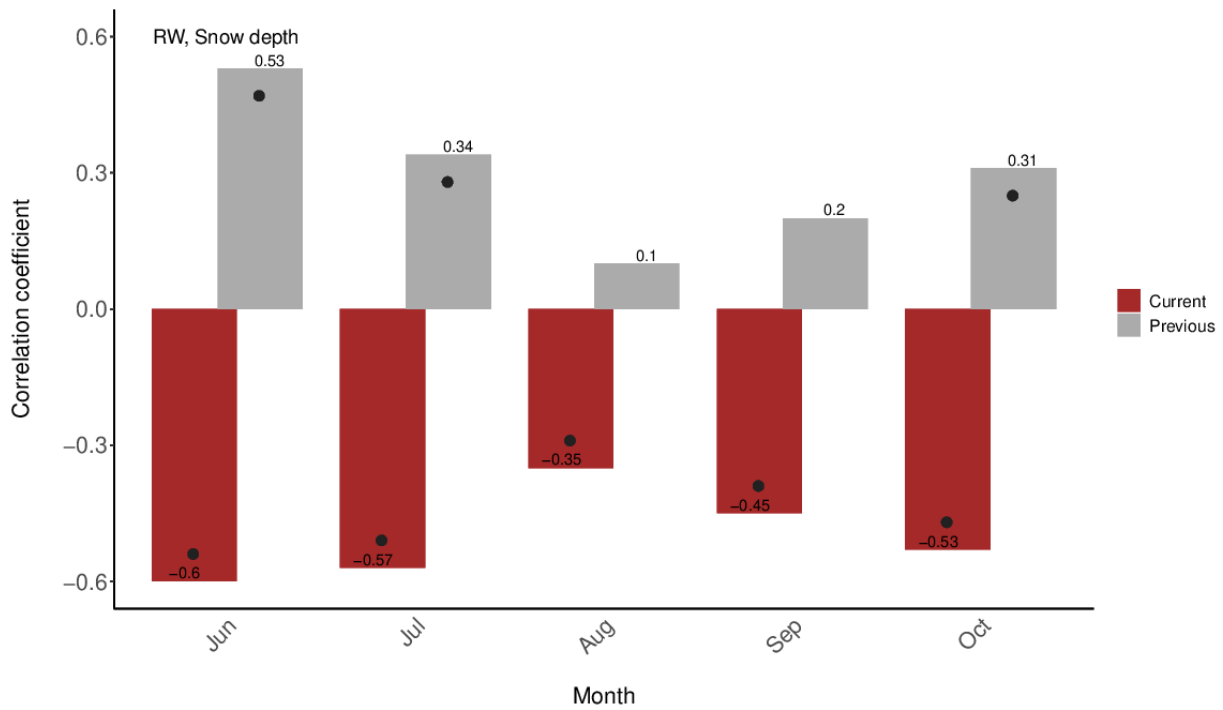


Figure 1110: Correlations between the *Mt. LoehP. lawrencei* RW chronology and mean monthly snow depth at Spencers Creek, for the period 1954 - 1998. Black dots indicate statistical significance.

Station name	Station number	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation	Period of record	Variable(s)
Omeo Comparison VIC	083025	37.10°S	147.60°E	685 m	1879 - 2009 (130 years)	Mean monthly maximum and minimum temperature (°C)
Mount Hotham VIC	083085	36.98°S	147.13°E	1849m	1990 - 2021 (31 years)	Mean monthly maximum and minimum temperature (°C)
Harrietville VIC	083012	36.89°S	147.06°E	396m	1884 - 2015 (131 years)	Total monthly precipitation (mm)
Livingstone Creek at Omeo	401209	37.11°S	147.57°E	691 m	1968 - 1994 (26 years)	Total monthly streamflow (m ³ /s)
Mitta Mitta River at Hinnomunjie	401203	36.95°S	147.61°E	544 m	1931 - 2021 (90 years)	Total monthly streamflow (ML)

Table 1. Bureau of Meteorology instrumental station metadata.

Chronology statistic

RES RW Chronology

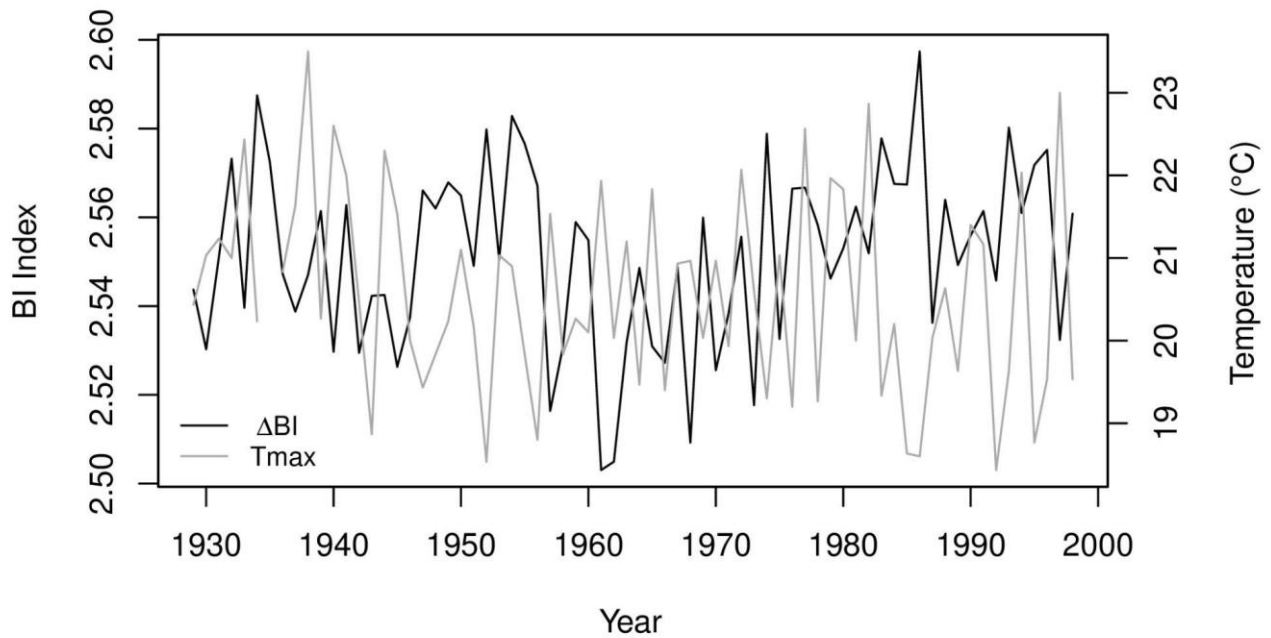
Chronology length (span)

70 years (1929 - 1998)

<u>Number of trees</u>	<u>9</u>
<u>Number of radii</u>	<u>13</u>
<u>Mean interseries correlation</u>	<u>0.293</u>
<u>Mean sensitivity</u>	<u>0.286</u>
<u>Expressed population signal</u>	<u>0.86</u>

Table 2. Statistics of RES ring-width chronology for *P. lawrencei*.

Appendix



Appendix

Figure A1: *P. lawrencei* Δ BI chronology and mean October - December maximum temperature at Omeo observation station, for 1929 - 1998 period.

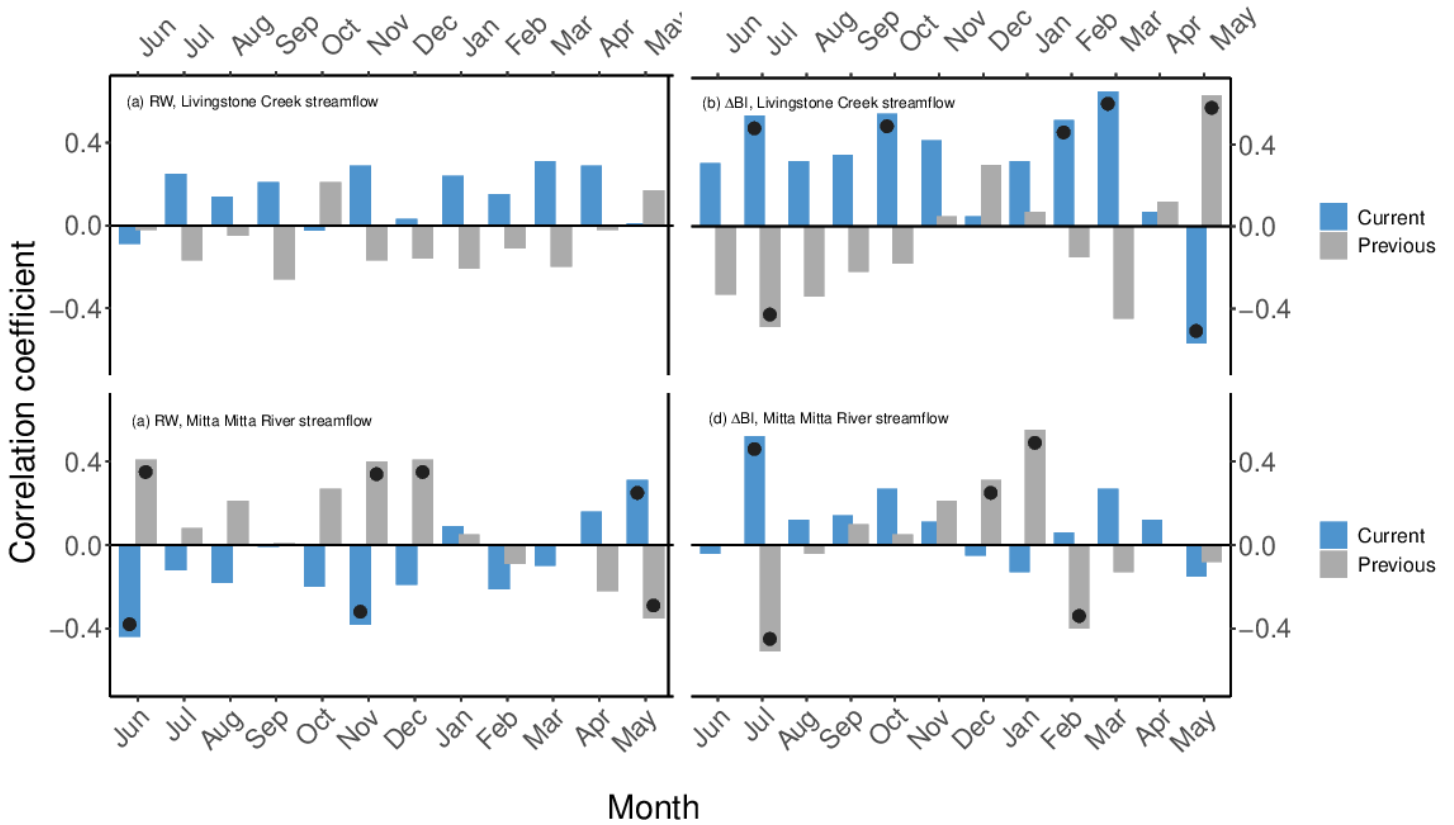


Figure 4A2: Correlations between RW and Δ BI chronologies and total monthly streamflow (m^3/s) at Livingstone Creek at Omeo for 1968 - 1994 period, and total monthly streamflow (ML) at Mitta Mitta River at Hinnomunjie across 1955 - 1998 period. Black dots indicate statistical significance ($p < 0.05$).

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Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Author contribution

J.O. undertook all of the cross dating, measurements, and climate analysis, and took the lead role in writing the manuscript. B.H. conceived and developed the project, provided supervision, mentoring and equipment, and guided the climate analysis. M.B. provided the samples, conceived the study of the location and species and advised on the interpretation of the analysis. K.A. guided the dendrochronological analysis and interpretation. All authors contributed significantly to the manuscript.

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