1 Ring width and blue light chronologies of *Podocarpus lawrencei* from

2 southeastern mainland Australia reveal a regional climate signal.

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14 Abstract

15 High-resolution palaeoclimate proxies are fundamental to our understanding of the diverse climatic history of the Australian 16 mainland, particularly given the deficiency in instrumental datasets spanning greater than a century. Annually resolved, tree-17 ring based proxies play a unique role in addressing limitations in our knowledge of interannual to multi-decadal temperature 18 and hydroclimatic variability prior to the instrumental period. Here we present cross-dated ring-width (RW) and minimum 19 blue-intensity (BI) chronologies spanning 70 years (1929 - 1998) for Podocarpus lawrencei Hook.f., the Australian 20 mainland's only alpine conifer, based on nine full-disk cross-sections from Mount Loch in the Victorian Alps. Correlations 21 with climate variables from observation stations and gridded data across the 1929 - 1998 period reveal a significant positive 22 relationship between RW and mean monthly maximum temperatures in winter throughout central Victoria (r = 0.62, p < 0.6223 0.001), and a significant negative correlation to winter precipitation (r = -0.51, p < 0.001). We also found significant negative 24 correlations between RW and monthly snow depth at Spencer Creek in New South Wales (r = -0.60, p < 0.001). Of the assessed BI parameters, delta blue-intensity (ABI; the difference between early- and late-wood BI) displayed the greatest sensitivity to 25 26 climate, with robust spatial correlations with mean October to December maximum and minimum monthly temperatures (r = 27 -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 28 promising findings highlight the utility of this species for future work. With the very limited availability of suitable long-lived 29 and cross-datable species on the Australian mainland, these results have significant implications for advancing high-resolution 30 palaeoclimate science in southeastern Australia and for improving our understanding of past climate in the region.

31

32 Plain text summary

33 Tree-ring records provide a unique window into past climate variability. However, there are few such records from the

34 Australian mainland. We present results from nine cross-sections of an alpine tree species from the Victorian Alps from 1929–

35 1998. The tree ring widths have significant correlations with winter temperature, precipitation and snow depth. The intensity

36 of reflected blue light from the wood surface shows a strong response to growing season temperature and winter precipitation.

37 1 Introduction

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

44 The Australian continent encompasses a vast geographical extent with a diverse range of climate zones (Pittock, 45 2003). Instrumental and historical records of climate variables such as temperature and precipitation rarely extend beyond the 46 start of the twentieth century (Bureau of Meteorology, 2001). Palaeoclimate proxies provide an important extension of the 47 instrumental record, and aid in the development of meaningful assessments of the context of recent climate extremes and the 48 fundamental nature of low-frequency climate variability. Dendroclimatology, the study of tree rings as a source of 49 palaeoclimate proxies, has played an increasingly important role in our understanding of long-term climatic changes. Tree-50 ring studies have been widely applied, particularly in temperate environments, to produce centennial-scale climate information 51 at annual resolution (eg. Villalba et al., 1996; Esper et al., 2002; Cook et al., 2006). However, progress in Australian 52 dendroclimatology has been historically challenging due to the sparse availability of suitable materials and sites (Cook et al., 53 2006). Materials that exhibit annual growth rings are limited (Heinrich and Allen, 2013), and many do not live to sufficient 54 ages for the development of multi-century records (Ogden 1978, 1981). Suitable environments for the preservation of subfossil 55 material are also lacking in most parts of the Australian continent. Despite these setbacks, efforts to expand our knowledge of 56 the climatic influences on mainland Australian flora are pivotal to understanding the current and future impacts of climate 57 change.

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

73 At high elevation, fire rarely penetrates into rock-scree environments. Due to the protection these environments offer 74 from fire, the age of vegetation growing within scree slopes can greatly exceed that of surrounding communities 75 (Schweingruber, 1992). In the alpine environments of New South Wales, Victoria, rock-scree sites often support pure stands 76 of Podocarpus lawrencei Hook f. (Williams et al., 2008). In these locations, P. lawrencei occurs as a procumbent shrub and 77 may attain an age of >500 years (Costin et al., 2000). Analysis of *P. lawrencei* revealed well defined, annual growth rings and 78 highly sensitive latewood bands, suggesting a promising opportunity for dendroclimatological study (Schweingruber, 1992). 79 However, attempts to generate chronologies for dendroclimatological analysis have been limited. Podocarpus lawrencei 80 exhibits highly eccentric (lobate) radial growth behaviour, with rings frequently affected by, or completely lost to, wedging. 81 These abnormalities make dating of core samples difficult, necessitating the collection of entire stem cross-sections. While the 82 destructive nature of collecting full cross-sections normally prevents their acquisition, sample materials became available 83 following widespread fires in 2002/03 in the Australian Alps. The severity of these fires meant previously protected stands of 84 fire-sensitive P. lawrencei were killed, allowing collection of full-disk cross-sections from multiple sites and an initial 85 investigation into their dendroclimatological potential (McDougall et al., 2012).

86 Although dendroclimatology has traditionally relied upon ring-width (RW) data, an array of alternative tree-ring 87 proxies also offer insights to climate histories. Maximum latewood density (MXD), for instance, represents the greatest density 88 in cells formed at the latest stage of the growing season (Schweingruber et al., 1988). Maximum latewood density has been 89 widely used as a robust tree-ring proxy for growing-season temperature, particularly in the NH summer (e.g. Briffa et al., 1988; 90 D'Arrigo et al., 2000; Davi et al., 2003). However, the considerable cost and effort associated with generating MXD 91 chronologies has hindered their development and utilisation, especially in regions of the world in which dendroclimatology is 92 uncommon. The blue intensity (BI) technique - a recently developed approach that quantifies the intensity of blue light 93 reflected from a wood surface (McCarroll et al., 2002) – offers a cheaper and efficient surrogate for MXD (Björklund et al., 94 2014; Wilson et al., 2014). Several experimental studies have demonstrated a strong, negative relationship between BI and 95 MXD, and sample preparation and generation of BI data can be performed at comparatively low expense (Campbell et al., 96 2007, 2011; McCarroll et al., 2002; Björklund et al., 2014).

97 Although application of the BI method has been largely restricted to NH conifers, Brookhouse and Graham (2016) 98 conducted a preliminary assessment on the suitability of the BI method on *P. lawrencei* specimens from Mount Buller in 99 alpine NE Victoria (37.15°S, 144.44°E). They reported a highly significant correlation between the resulting BI chronology 100 and mean August-April temperature maxima (r = -0.79, p < 0.0001). The strength of this relationship greatly exceeded that of 101 RW. The BI method, then, may offer a superior source of climate-sensitive chronologies within the Australian Alps. Applying 102 this technique to Australian species may be the key to significantly improving our understanding of interannual to multi-103 decadal climate variability prior to the instrumental period (Wilson et al., 2021). Together with existing palaeoclimatological 104 studies, an expansion of this work could provide a critical baseline for temperature and hydroclimate prior to the industrial era 105 and major land-use changes following European arrival.

106 This study will report *P. lawrencei* RW and BI chronologies based on sampled material from a previously unexplored 107 site (Mt Loch) in the Victorian Alps (Fig. 1). This study will further build upon the existing works of McDougall et al. (2012) 108 and Brookhouse and Graham (2016) by investigating the sensitivity of the RW and BI chronologies to climate variability, as 109 well as the spatial signature of these relationships. It will additionally discuss the potential contributions of *P. lawrencei* in the 110 advancement towards building reliable, multi-centennial scale reconstructions for southeastern Australia, and a strong 111 dendroclimatic network throughout the Australian alps.

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[Figure 1 here]

114 2 Methodology and data

115 **2.1 Sampling site**

116 The fire-killed P. lawrencei samples employed in this study were collected from Mt. Loch (36.96°S, 147.16°E) in 2007. Many 117 P. lawrencei communities at the Mt. Loch site were subjected to severe disturbance resulting from extensive bushfires 118 throughout the southeast Australian mainland in January, 2003, allowing for the collection of full stem cross-sections. The 119 sample site comprises a steep, south-facing rock-scree slope at ~1800m elevation (Fig 1). The climate at Mt, Loch, indicated 120 by the nearby (<2 km distance) Mt Hotham meteorological station, exhibits strong seasonality in temperature due to its high 121 altitude (Fig. 2a), and is characterised by cold winter conditions with consistent July to October snow cover (Wahren et al., 122 2001; Venn and Morgan, 2007). Such environments host numerous P. lawrencei communities throughout the Australian Alps 123 (McDougall et al., 2012; Brookhouse and Graham, 2016). A total of nine stem cross-sections of up to 13 cm in diameter were 124 examined in this study.

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[Figure 2 here]

127 2.2 Sample preparation

128 A transverse surface of each sample was initially flattened using a belt sander to produce a surface uniformly perpendicular to 129 the tree-ring boundaries. Prior to scanning, resins and other extractives were removed. Because the BI technique relies upon 130 reflected light, staining unrelated to wood formation can alter reflectance and associations with climate data. To overcome 131 these problems, resins and stains that discolour materials are extracted in a process that may exceed 30 hours for each sample. 132 These extraction processes typically rely on soxhlet apparatus and a hazardous extraction solution. Previous analysis of P. 133 lawrencei (see Brookhouse and Graham, 2016) refluxed radial laths in a soxhlet apparatus and ethanol/toluene solution for up 134 to 42 hours. As an alternative to soxhlet extraction, samples in this study were soaked in pure acetone. This method allows for 135 the preparation of entire disks, which is highly advantageous given the lobate growth behaviour of *P. lawrencei*. Preliminary 136 experiments using acetone treatment for resin removal (Frith, 2009) suggest a minimum required extraction time of 72 hours 137 for partially immersed 5-mm thick *Pinus sylvestris* L. cores. Subsequent applications of the same technique have revealed the 138 majority of extractives are removed from fully immersed samples after just 48 hours of treatment (Rydval et al., 2014). 139 Moreover, the heartwood-sapwood colour difference may be addressed by measuring the difference between minimum and 140 maximum BI (Δ BI) as an addition or alternative to standard BI methods, which may provide a data source that increases the 141 climate sensitivity of BI data and eliminates the need for extraction.

142 A sub-sample of three discs was used in this study to assess the efficacy of acetone treatment on full cross sections 143 of *P. lawrencei*. Three samples, ranging from 7-13 cm in diameter and approximately 1 cm thick, were submerged in 100% 144 acetone in air-tight glass containers at room temperature for an initial 120 hour period, followed by an additional 48 hours of 145 immersion. Each sample was sanded to a 2000-grit (9.5 - 11.1 µm) finish after each extraction stage. When the samples surfaces 146 were free of scratches they were scanned on an Epson Perfection V850 Pro scanner using SilverFast Ai professional software, 147 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 148 comparable reproduction of colours and brightness between scans (Campbell et al., 2011). After experimentation with different 149 soaking times, the remaining six cross-sections were soaked in acetone for the optimal 120 hour period prior to the development 150 of ΔBI , earlywood (EWBI) and latewood BI (LWBI) chronologies.

151 The highly lobate radial growth of *P. lawrencei* and extensive ring wedging (Fig. 3) made it necessary to measure 152 multiple axes of measurement from all samples. Ring-width (RW) measurements were produced using the program 153 CooRecorderTM and visual crossdating was undertaken on CDendroTM, with the additional aid of separate microscope 154 magnification of the wood surface and correlation analysis on the Dendrochronology Program Library in R (dplR: Bunn, 2008, 155 2009). Blue intensity reflectance parameters (delta BI (ΔBI), earlywood BI (EWBI) and latewood BI (LWBI)) were measured 156 along the same paths used for our RW measurement. The Mt. Loch RW chronology was then crossdated against a remotely 157 located P. lawrencei RW chronology developed by Brookhouse and Graham (2016) from Mount Buller (67 km southwest of 158 the Mt. Loch study site) over a 79 year overlapping period (1906 - 1985, r = 0.72), to corroborate our dating.

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[Figure 3 here]

161 2.3 Chronology development

162 Measured tree-ring series were detrended to remove sample-level noise prior to chronology estimation. Removing age-related 163 trends within RW series often involves the fitting of a negative exponential function (Hughes, 2011). However, growth 164 eccentricities associated with the lobate nature of growth in *P. lawrencei* means that a more flexible data-adaptive approach is 165 required. Smoothing splines equal to 67% of each RW series' length with a 50% frequency cutoff were applied to each 166 individual chronology in dplR (Bunn, 2008, 2010). Ring-width indices were calculated as residuals from the fitted curves. Due 167 to trends specific to each individual BI series, detrending the age-related growth trends of ΔBI , EWBI 168 and LWBI chronologies was undertaken in the same data-adaptive manner as the RW series. The robust bi-169 weight mean of the detrended residual series were then calculated to produce the standardised RW and BI chronologies (Cook 170 et al., 1990). The robust bi-weight approach produces a chronology that is relatively unaffected by outliers - an important 171 consideration in the study of *P. lawrencei* given the highly eccentric growth behaviour and strong likelihood of outliers 172 otherwise impacting the common signal (McDougall et al., 2012). We further removed autocorrelation from the tree-ring 173 indices within dplR. The pre-whitened (RES) chronologies did not differ significantly from the non-prewhitened chronologies, 174 and we therefore used the RES chronologies to assess climate signals in the chronologies.

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

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180 **2.4 Climate analysis**

The final chronologies were evaluated against climate data spanning 70 years (1929 - 1998) due to constraints associated with 181 low sample resolution prior to the early 20th century. The relationship between the RW and BI chronologies and minimum and 182 183 maximum air temperature, precipitation, snow depth and streamflow data for the current and previous growth years was then 184 explored. Climate-correlation analysis was conducted using observational data from the Bureau of Meteorology (BoM) station 185 in Omeo, 41.8 km southeast of Mt Loch (Fig. 2a). Continuous minimum and maximum monthly mean air temperature data 186 from 1879 to 2009 are available at this site, which correlates strongly with the substantially shorter dataset (1925 - 1975) 187 available in Hotham Heights (mean annual maximum temperature, r = 0.87; mean annual minimum temperature, r = 0.71). It 188 is important to note, however, the significant elevation difference between our study location in Hotham Heights (~1800m) 189 and the Omeo station (685m), and therefore the possible variation in correlative strength of individual months. We further 190 evaluated the sensitivity of our chronologies to total monthly precipitation data at Harrietville (Fig. 2b) - the closest station 191 with sufficiently long records (data available from 1884 - 2015). We further examined the relationship between our P.

192 lawrencei chronologies and mean monthly snow depth records from 1954 - 2001 at Spencers Creek in NSW (~125 km 193 northeast of Mt. Loch). Correlations with total monthly streamflow from BoM hydrologic reference stations at Mitta Mitta 194 River at Hinnomunjie and Livingstone creek at Omeo were also assessed. See Table 1. for metadata pertaining to BoM 195 observation stations used in this study. In addition to individual station data, we explored relationships with the Australian 196 Gridded Climate Data (Evans et al., 2020), which is a recent revision of the Australian Water Availability Project (AWAP) 197 gridded dataset (Jones et al., 2009). The AGCD extends from 1900 - 2020, with a grid averaged resolution of 0.05 degrees 198 (approximately 5km). We investigated the spatial extent of the relationship between RW and BI chronologies and mean 199 monthly minimum and maximum temperatures and total monthly precipitation across the alpine regions of Victoria and 200 southern New South Wales, and further afield across Victoria. To ensure consistency with the detrending approach for the RW 201 and BI chronologies, we explored the links between interannual differences in both, by applying first differencing to the climate 202 data prior to correlation analysis.

203 204 [Figure 4 here]

[Table 1 here]

205 3 Results and discussion

206 This study presents nine successfully crossdated *P. lawrencei* specimens (13 individual series). Chronology statistics are 207 reported in Table 2. Given the relatively small sample size, a strong common signal (exceeding the 0.85 EPS threshold) 208 throughout a portion of the resulting RW chronology (Fig. 4) is encouraging. The RW chronology reached a mean EPS of 0.86 209 for the period 1929 - 1998, suggesting that at least 11 radii are required to achieve sufficient chronology reliability. With 210 individual specimen ages ranging from 67 to 327 years, future work with larger sample sizes would allow for the opportunity 211 to utilise this species for climate analysis across multi-centennial time scales. Previous works have developed 114 year 212 (McDougall et al., 2012) and 82 year (Brookhouse and Graham, 2016) RW chronologies from 48 and 13 P. lawrencei 213 specimens respectively. Additionally, the ability to crossdate our RW chronology with a remotely located Mt. Buller 214 chronology (Fig. 5a) (Brookhouse and Graham, 2016) demonstrates the spatial coherence in the sensitivity of this species to 215 climate variables throughout southeast Australia. Such findings highlight the possible utility of *P. lawrencei* in the development 216 of a strong dendroclimatic network throughout the Australian Alps.

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- [Table 2 here] [Figure 4 here]
- 219[Figure 4 here]220[Figure 5 here]
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222 **3.1 Temperature correlations**

223 The RW chronology shows increased variability from the 1900's, with particularly narrow rings observed in the 1950's and 224 60's (Fig. 5a). With regard to observation station data, the RW chronology response to mean monthly maximum temperatures 225 from Omeo reveals positive, statistically significant (p < 0.05) correlations with the current year winter (June, July and August) 226 and October and November in particular, and a strong, negative response to June to November temperature maxima of the 227 previous growth season (Fig. 6a). Additionally, sensitivity of RW to mean minimum monthly temperatures at Omeo is 228 dominated by statistically significant, positive correlations with October of the current period and September of the previous 229 period, as well as negative (statistically significant) correlations with previous growth season March to May minimum 230 temperatures (Fig. 6b). The ability of our *P. lawrencei* RW chronology to capture temperature signals during some months of 231 the growing season is consistent with previous dendroclimatological analysis of this species, demonstrating air temperature is 232 a dominant limiting growth factor (McDougall et al., 2012; Brookhouse and Graham, 2016). The influence of temperature 233 throughout the growing season has previously been extensively documented as a primary control on the growth of coniferous 234 species in high altitude and high latitude environments (eg. D'Arrigo et al., 1992; Brookhouse and Bi, 2009; Nishimura and 235 Lovoque, 2011; Rydval et al., 2018). Concerning the strong, inverse relationship of the RW chronology to temperature of the 236 previous growth season, similar response patterns have been found in other species such as lower elevation Lagarostrobos 237 franklinii (Buckley et al., 1997) and the widespread Phyllocladus aspleniifolius (Allen et al., 2001) in Tasmanian, and high 238 elevation New Zealand Libocedrus bidwillii (Palmer and Xiong, 2004). This may be related to a depletion of carbohydrate and 239 nutrients reserves following a favourably warm growing season and accelerated growth rates.

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[Figure 6 here]

243 Following the strong, positive correlation between RW and local temperature maxima during winter months, we 244 investigated the spatial signature of this relationship. The RW response to the AGCD was also dominated by a statistically 245 significant, positive correlation with mean June to August maximum temperatures (r = 0.62, p < 0.001), encompassing a broad 246 extent of central Victoria (Fig. 7a). This response is consistent with previously documented alpine P. lawrencei chronologies 247 (McDougall et al., 2012; Brookhouse and Graham, 2016). McDougall et al., (2012) reported a strong positive relationship 248 between RW and winter maximum temperatures, and a negative response to mean and maximum monthly snow depth. Given 249 the inverse relationship between winter temperature and snowfall, winter temperatures are suggested to reflect the magnitude 250 of winter snow depth and persistence of spring snow cover, which imposes significant impacts on vegetation growth (Kudo, 251 1991; Halter, 1998; Brookhouse et al., 2008). Snow cover is postulated to be a major determinant of the length of the phenology 252 and growing season of alpine vegetation (Kudo, 1991). With regard to Australian alpine flora, this sensitivity is consistent with 253 documented responses of *E. pauciflora* to winter snow cover (Brookhouse et al., 2008). The timing of growth initiation in 254 boreal and temperate environments is largely defined by temperature (Creber and Chaloner, 1984), with many coniferous and

255 deciduous species experiencing cessation in root growth at soil temperatures below 2 - 4°C (Halter, 1998). Persistent spring 256 snow cover due to cooler winter conditions delays the initiation of cambial activity (essential for the formation of wood cells) 257 and sustains such low soil temperatures, resulting in a shorter growing season and therefore a narrower growth-ring (Vaganov 258 et al., 1999; Kirdyanov et al., 2003). Additionally, considering the acute prostrate growth of *P. lawrencei* communities and the 259 likelihood of stands being buried by snow throughout winter, extended spring snow cover also presents a direct impediment 260 to wood production by delaying the commencement of photosynthesis (McDougall et al., 2012). Conversely, warm winter 261 temperatures are expected to accelerate snowmelt in spring, resulting in an earlier onset of photosynthesis and cambial 262 activation for P. lawrencei.

263 The Δ BI chronology developed in this study is most notably negatively correlated with mean maximum temperatures in October, November and December of the current growth season (November and December correlations are statistically 264 265 significant: Fig. 6c). Taking the averaged temperature maxima of these months produced a significantly strengthened 266 correlation with the Δ BI chronology (Fig. A1; Fig. 7b; r = -0.43, p < 0.001). This response is comparable to the only previously 267 constructed BI chronology for P. lawrencei by Brookhouse and Graham (2016), whereby averaged August to April temperature 268 maxima revealed the strongest BI-temperature relationship. Moreover, Δ BI displayed a significant, positive relationship with 269 October - January mean monthly minimum temperatures of the previous growth year (Fig. 6d) as well as a strong negative 270 response to minimum temperature throughout the current growth year October to December period (Fig. 7c: r = -0.51, p < -0.51, p <271 0.001).

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[Figure 7 here]

275 Given that BI is negatively correlated with MXD, the negative response of our Δ BI chronology to maximum and 276 minimum temperatures throughout October to December is consistent with many previous studies demonstrating that 277 temperature of the growing period is the dominant climate parameter influencing latewood density (eg. D'Arrigo et al., 2000; 278 Davi et al., 2003; Kaczka et al., 2017; Blake et al., 2020). The anatomical basis for wood density lies in the average amount 279 and size of cell wall material within the tracheids (Vaganov et al., 2006). During the growth season, tracheid size reduces, and 280 density thereby increases, between earlywood and latewood formation (Rathgeber et al., 2006; Cuny et al., 2014). An 281 investigation into the interannual variability of wood density and specific contributions of anatomical attributes in NH conifers 282 by Björklund et al., (2017) found earlywood and latewood density to be primarily influenced by tracheid size and cell wall 283 dimensions respectively. Since BI is an established proxy measure of density, and assuming that it is recording similar 284 variations in these structural anatomical properties (and that such responses are consistent between hemispheres), the BI data 285 in P. lawrencei may likewise reflect changes in tracheid size and wall dimensions. Future studies of BI in P. lawrencei 286 incorporating the exploration of interannual variations of these anatomical properties could confirm this. Such work could 287 further our understanding of the physiological controls on the BI-density relationship, particularly as it relates to some SH 288 species in which density variations have been noted to behave differently to what is typically observed in NH conifers (Blake

- et al., 2020).
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291 **3.2 Precipitation, snow depth and streamflow correlations**

292 Correlation analysis with precipitation data revealed a strong negative relationship between RW and June to November and 293 May precipitation of the current growth season, as well as a particularly strong positive response to precipitation in November 294 of the previous season (Fig. 8a). Additional correlations with AGCD most notably exhibited a significant negative relationship 295 between RW and total June to August precipitation across southern Victoria and high altitude regions (Fig. 9a). Significant 296 negative correlations between the RW chronology and mean snow depth at Spencers Creek are also evident from June to 297 October (Fig. 10). This response is consistent with that observed in *P. lawrencei* RW from Mt. Blue Cow and Schlinks Pass 298 in NSW (McDougall et al., 2012), and reflects the spatial coherence of snow depth throughout the Australian alpine region. 299 Such results further demonstrate the previously discussed impact of temperature maxima on the persistence of spring snow 300 cover, and the consequent limitation on *P. lawrencei* radial growth. Additionally, given the significant contribution of snow 301 melt during winter and spring to the soil moisture balance in the Australian Alps (Costin et al., 1961), we postulate that the 302 positive response of RW to monthly snow depth of the previous growth season is related to excess moisture availability 303 providing optimum growth conditions the following growth year.

304 Relationships between BI and snow depth were non-significant (data not shown). However, the ΔBI chronology 305 exhibited particularly strong positive correlations with July total monthly precipitation (Fig. 8b; Fig. 9b). Assessments of the 306 dendroclimatic potential of Δ BI for hydroclimatic reconstruction have thus far been limited. Notably, however, Seftigen et al., 307 (2020) recently reported an increase in the explained variance of a warm season, Δ BI-based precipitation reconstruction of 308 nearly 20 percentage points (to 55%), relative to the predictive skill of the RW-based reconstruction. The strong response of 309 RW and ΔBI in *P. lawrencei* to precipitation, as demonstrated in this study, hence emphasises the potential to improve the 310 coverage of high resolution, moisture sensitive proxy records in the Australian continent. This would present an opportunity 311 to produce new robust multi-century precipitation reconstructions for southeast Australia.

312 Tree-ring based reconstructions of additional hydrological parameters such as streamflow can provide valuable 313 insights to water resource managers and planners, particularly considering the confined range of observational records. In this 314 study, we therefore also conducted a preliminary evaluation of a potential *P. lawrencei* tree ring-streamflow relationship. The 315 lack of streamflow gauge datasets of comparable length to the *P. lawrencei* chronologies limited overlapping records to 43 316 years (1955 - 1998) for Mitta Mitta River, and just 26 years (1968 - 1994) for Livingstone Creek. Nonetheless, ΔBI exhibited 317 a particularly strong positive response to the current growth season June to March streamflow at Livingstone Creek and with 318 current season July streamflow at Mitta River (Fig. A2). Correlations between the RW chronology and streamflow data 319 at Livingstone Creek were non-significant. However, significant negative (positive) responses of RW to current (previous)

320 growth season streamflow in June and November at Mitta Mitta River are apparent (Fig. A2). Whilst some strong correlations 321 are present, the inconsistency of results across sites requires further explanation.

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[Figure 8 here] [Figure 9 here] [Figure 10 here]

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327 **3.3 Limitations and future prospects**

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

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

Tree-ring parameters are known to comprise a considerable degree of non-climatic variance at lower frequencies (Cook, 1985; Esper et al., 2005; Fonti et al., 2009; Björklund et al., 2020). Blue intensity chronologies in particular have displayed stronger responses to temperature at high frequencies, yet generally poorer portrayals of low-frequency trends when 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 smoothing spline method of detrending aims to preserve the majority of the resolvable low frequency variance (Cook et al., 1995), the extent to which this approach impacts the expression of low frequency variance requires further exploration with longer *P. lawrencei* chronologies.

Whilst correlation analysis between RW and BI chronologies and climate variables in this study has empirically highlighted the strength of the *P. lawrencei* growth response to climate, a more detailed understanding of physiological mechanisms is required to further establish the causality of these relationships. Given the limited study of the dendroclimatological properties of *P. lawrencei* thus far, and our relatively rudimentary understanding of the BI-density link, further sampling and physiological investigation is warranted. This would allow for better interpretation of RW and BI data, and improve upon an already encouraging expression of the climate signal.

- 353 Despite earlier quite pessimistic assessments of the Podocarpus genus for dendroclimatological purposes (Dunwiddie, 354 1979: February and Stock, 1998), due in part to limited sample availability (in the absence of fire-killed specimens) the strength 355 of the observed correlations presented in this study of just nine samples are promising with regard to the future analysis of this 356 species. The BI method appears to offer a promising additional proxy to RW for *P. lawrencei*, as in other SH species in which 357 the climate signal of BI parameters has been explored (Blake et al., 2020; Wilson et al., 2021). The ongoing development and 358 application of the BI method in *P. lawrencei*, particularly for longer, multi-centennial scale chronologies may help significantly 359 improve our understanding of past climatic changes in the SH, given the valuable position annually resolved, tree ring-based 360 proxies hold in palaeoclimatology.
- 361

362 4 Conclusion

363 Despite inherent challenges due to growth abnormalities, this study has presented crossdated P. lawrencei RW and BI 364 chronologies on the order of 70 years for climate analysis (with individual (non-crossdated) series dating back to 1676), based 365 on nine fire-killed specimens from Mt. Loch in the Victorian Alps. Ring-width measurements displayed the strongest responses 366 to mean winter temperature maxima and snow depth, analogous to that demonstrated by high altitude E. pauciflora 367 communities. The ΔBI parameter exhibited a greater sensitivity to climate than earlywood or latewood BI, presenting a 368 particularly strong relationship with temperature and precipitation in the current growing season. This study offers encouraging 369 results, particularly those pertaining to RW, for the increased utilisation of *P. lawrencei* in Australian dendroclimatology. With 370 ongoing efforts to further reduce the limitations of the BI parameter and develop the most appropriate detrending methods, as 371 well as the incorporation of anatomical analysis, the BI method also offers an important opportunity in Australian 372 dendroclimatology. Given the known longevity of individual P. lawrencei specimens, the temporal extension and increased 373 utilisation of *P. lawrencei* chronologies from the Australian Alps may help to provide an important perspective on climate 374 change in the region. A detailed dendroclimatological network of this species could contribute meaningfully towards 375 improving palaeoclimate data coverage in the Southern Hemisphere.

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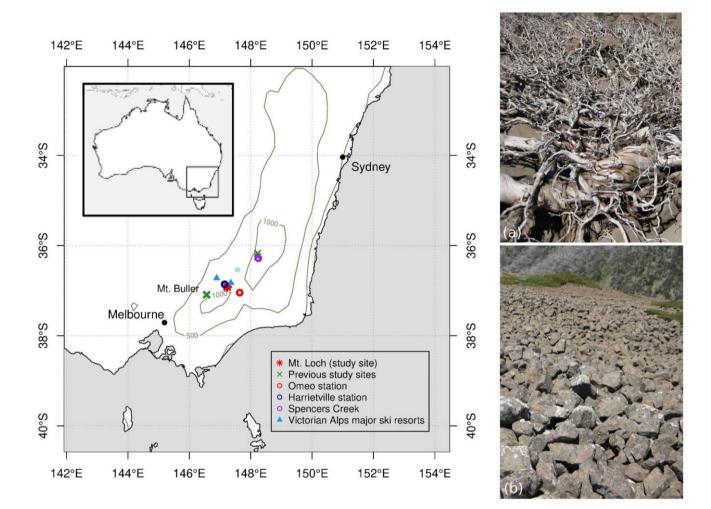


Figure 1: Left: Location of Mt. Loch sample site and main meteorological stations, and *P. lawrencei* study sites from previous works (Mt. Blue Cow and Schlinks Pass: McDougall et al., 2012, Mt. Buller: Brookhouse and Graham, 2016). Right: (a) Highly prostrate growth of fire-killed *P. lawrencei* stands from the same locality. (b) Mt. Loch boulder field on rock scree slope, from which samples for this study were collected. Images taken by Matthew Brookhouse (ANU).

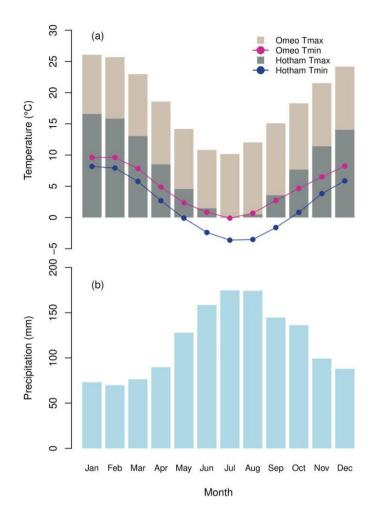


Figure 2: (a) Mean monthly maximum and minimum air temperature at Omeo and Mt. Hotham meteorological stations. (b) Mean monthly precipitation at Harrietville meteorological station.



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

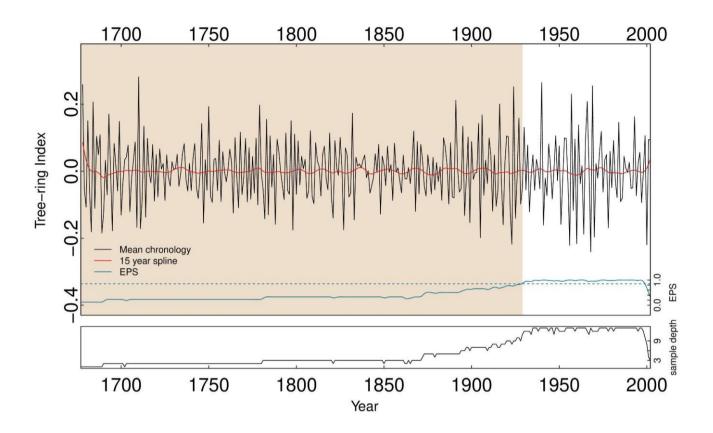


Figure 4. Full mean ring width chronology (1676 - 2002) based on 13 Mt. Loch *P. lawrencei* series from 9 samples (top panel), with concurrent sample resolution (bottom panel). Expressed Population Signal (EPS) is denoted by the solid blue line (top panel), with the 0.85 threshold (dashed blue horizontal line).

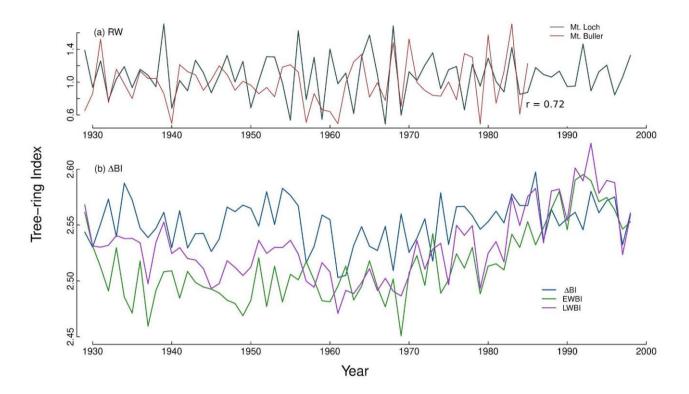


Figure 5. (a) Detrended *P. lawrencei* ring width (RES) chronologies for Mt. Loch (this study) and Mt. Buller (Brookhouse and Graham 2016) and (b) earlywood and latewood BI chronologies, with the derived ΔBI parameter, for the 1929 - 1998 period.

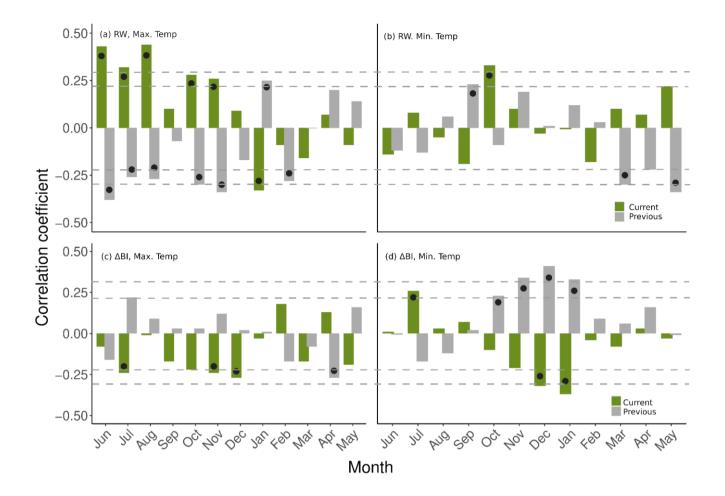


Figure 6. Correlations between RW and Δ BI chronologies and mean minimum and maximum monthly temperature data from Omeo observation station across the period 1929-1998, for both the current and previous growth year. Black dots indicate statistical significance (p < 0.05), and dashed horizontal lines, 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).

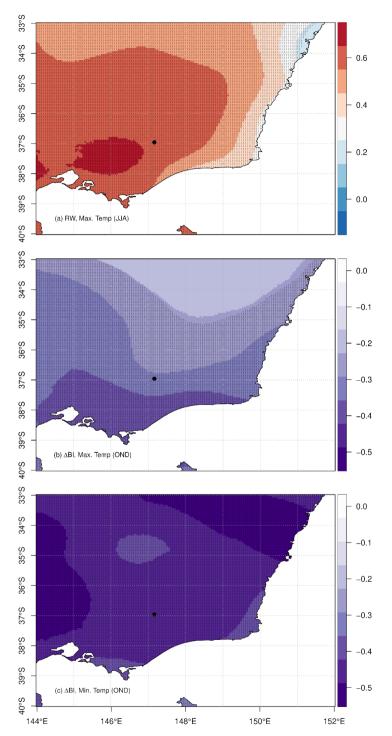


Figure 7: RW and ΔBI chronology correlations with AGCD mean monthly temperature for 1929 - 1998 period. (a) RW correlation with mean June, July and August (winter) maximum temperatures, (b) ΔBI correlation with mean October, November and December maximum temperatures and (c) ΔBI correlation with mean December minimum temperature. Shaded areas represent statistically significant correlations (p < 0.05) and study site location is marked by black dot.

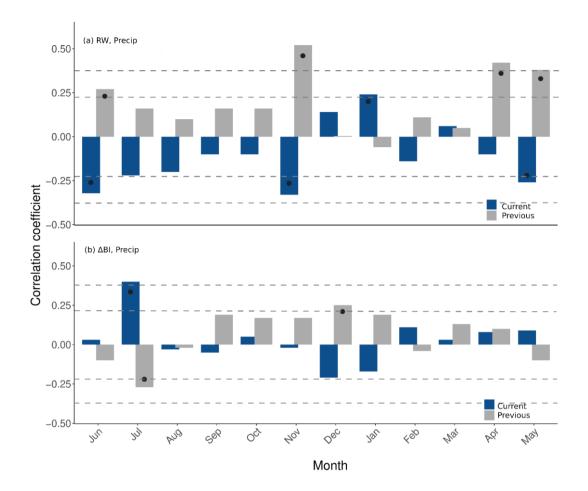


Figure 8: Correlations between (a) RW and (b) Δ BI chronologies and total monthly precipitation data from Harrietville observation station across the period 1929-1998, for both the current and previous growth season. Black dots indicate statistical significance (p < 0.05).

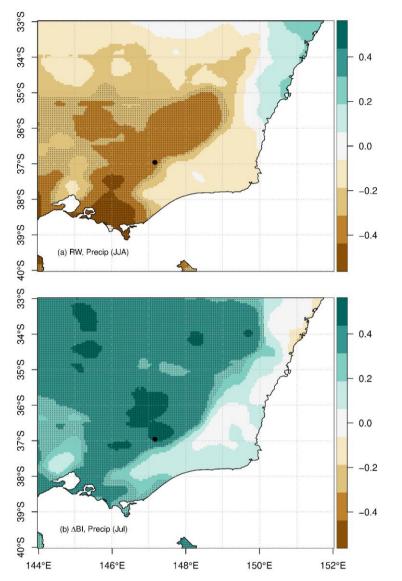


Figure 9: RW and Δ BI chronology correlations with AGCD total monthly precipitation data for 1929 - 1998 period. (a) RW correlation with mean June, July and August (winter) total precipitation, (b) Δ BI correlation with total July precipitation. Shaded areas represent statistically significant correlations (p < 0.05) and study site location is marked by black dot.

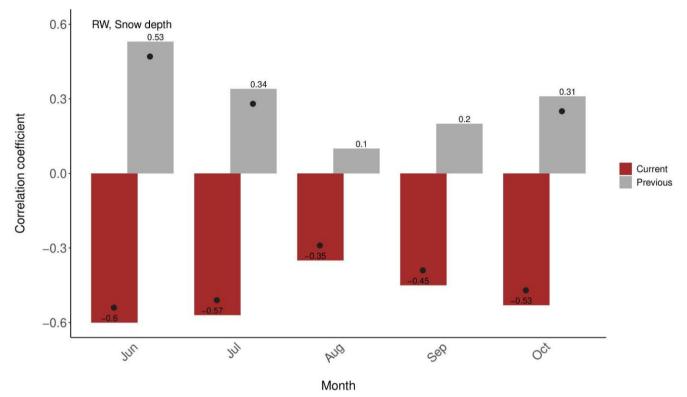


Figure 10: Correlations between *P. lawrencei* RW chronology and mean monthly snow depth at Spencers Creek, for the period 1954 - 1998. Black dots indicate statistical significance.

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.

RES RW Chronology
70 years (1929 - 1998)
)
13
).293
).286
).86
7 7 7

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

Appendix

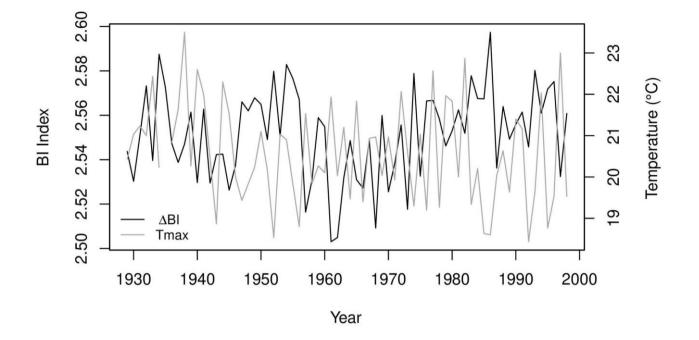


Figure A1: P. lawrencei ΔBI chronology and mean October - December maximum temperature at Omeo observation station, for 1929 - 1998 period.

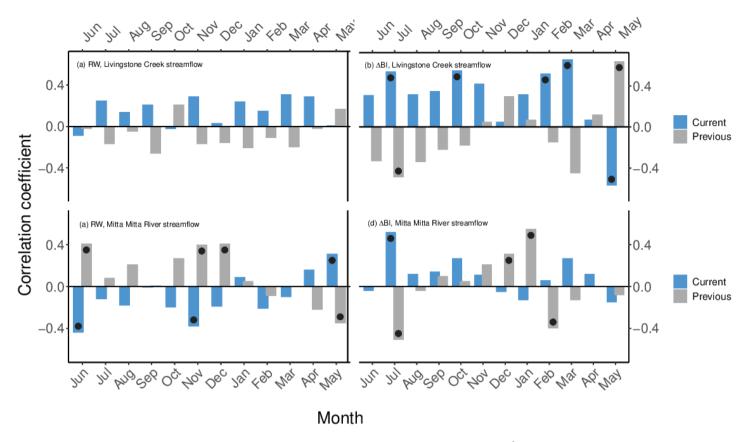


Figure A2: Correlations between RW and Δ BI chronologies and total monthly streamflow (m³/s) at Livingstone Creek at Omeo for 1968 - 1994 period, and total monthly streamflow (ML) at Mitta Mitta River at Hinnomunjie across 1955 - 1998 period. Black dots indicate statistical significance (p < 0.05).

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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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