

1 **The Consequences of Regulated Trimming and Hurricane Stressors on Secondary Growth,**  
2 **Wound Wood Production, and Chlorophyll Content of Black mangroves (*Avicennia***  
3 ***germinans*).**

4  
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8 Abstract:

9 In the State of Florida, mangrove trees are protected by the *1996 Mangrove Trimming and*  
10 *Preservation Act*. The Act states that most trimming of mangroves must be permitted, must  
11 adhere to ANSI A300 pruning standards, and must be overseen by qualified mangrove trimmers.  
12 ANSI A300 are the generally accepted industry standards for tree care practices developed by the  
13 Tree Care Industry Association and written by a committee called the Accredited Standards  
14 Committee (ASC) A300. To date, a quantitative analysis of mangrove stress reactions to  
15 regulated trimming techniques has not been performed. The goal of this research was to monitor  
16 and assess health, structure, and growth of black mangroves (*Avicennia germinans*) when  
17 exposed to repeated trimming as described by Florida Administrative Code. Physiological  
18 indicators of tree stress, including chlorophyll content, leaf water pressure, and the formation of  
19 wound wood, were recorded for trees receiving one of two ANSI compliant trimming  
20 techniques: top trims and window trims. Indicators for trimmed trees were compared to  
21 measurements taken from unpruned trees, as well as abiotic stressors such as hurricane damage,  
22 and soil accretion. The data suggest proper cut location, trimming aspect ratio, and total biomass  
23 removal < 30% in a 12 month period resulted in no significant reduction in chlorophyll

24 production under normal growing conditions. However, chlorophyll data analysis did indicate  
25 that trimmed trees may have experienced more stress from hurricanes than untrimmed trees. Soil  
26 accretion greater than mangrove pneumatophore level caused total plant necrosis. Regulated  
27 mangrove trimming does not appear to reduce the health of *A. germinans* during normal growing  
28 conditions but trimmed trees do experience more stress than untrimmed trees during hurricanes.

29

### 30 ***1. Introduction***

31 Mangrove communities dominate approximately two thirds of the Florida coastal shoreline  
32 where they provide valuable habitat and ecosystem services. Benefits provided by healthy  
33 mangrove communities include shoreline stabilization, water purification, fisheries habitat, and  
34 storm buffering (Ewel, Twilley, and Ong 1998). Because mangroves exist on the boundary  
35 between terrestrial and marine environments, they play a critical role in wave energy mitigation,  
36 which enables upland habitats to establish stable soils and plant communities (Ewel, Twilley,  
37 and Ong 1998; Odum and McIvor 1990). Mangroves provide a first line of defense against storm  
38 surges. Research has shown that a well developed mangrove forest can attenuate up to 99% of  
39 normal wind generated wave energy (Massel, Furukawa, and Brinkman 1999). Even unhealthy,  
40 sparse mangrove forests can attenuate up 87% of normal wave energy (Massel, Furukawa, and  
41 Brinkman 1999). Studies have shown that coastal flooding from Hurricane Wilma in South  
42 Florida in 2005 would have penetrated 70% further inland without the storm surge mitigation  
43 provided by a 6-30 km area of established mangroves (Romañach et al. 2018). Loss of human  
44 life during the 1999 cyclone that targeted Orissa, India was significantly reduced because of  
45 mitigated flooding from mangroves (Barbier 2016). When viewed in context of all of the

46 ecosystem benefits derived from mangrove communities it is clear that preservation of  
47 mangroves should be a priority for coastal urban areas.

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49 In 1996, at the time of the ratification of the Mangrove Trimming and Preservation Act (MTPA),  
50 Florida had an estimated 550,000 acres of mangrove forests, but due to decades of coastal  
51 development, many areas have lost most of their functional mangrove communities (*Mangrove*  
52 *Trimming and Preservation Act* 1996). Lake Worth has lost more than 86% of historic mangrove  
53 populations (FLDEP 2017) while Tampa Bay, one of the ten largest ports in the United States,  
54 has lost more than 44% of its mangroves and coastal wetlands over the last hundred years  
55 (FLDEP 2017). In terms of monetary value, a study of stored carbon in the Everglades National  
56 Forest estimated the total value of its old growth mangrove forest at \$2-\$3.4 billion dollars  
57 (Jerath et al. 2016). This study focused on stored legacy carbon and used ecogeomorphic and  
58 socioeconomic attributes, among other metrics to generate its value (Jerath et al. 2016). This  
59 places the total carbon value of mangrove forests in Everglades National Park higher than that of  
60 a boreal, temperate, or tropical forest (Jerath et al. 2016).

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62 Prior to 1996, Florida's mangroves did not have significant legislative protection, which  
63 ultimately allowed for significant mangrove habitat loss in areas of Florida (FDEP 2017). The  
64 MTPA set in place a state regulated series of permits and exemptions that allowed for certain  
65 trimming practices to take place. To minimize stress and maintain good plant health, the MTPA  
66 used the current American National Standards Institutes (ANSI) guidelines for arboricultural  
67 practices as a framework for trimming mangroves. Many Best Management Practices guidelines  
68 have been produced by state and local agencies detailing the processes and benefits of trimming

69 mangroves per the MTPA guidelines but to date no experimental research has been conducted on  
70 actual mangroves quantifying the reactions of the regulated trimming. In short, it has been  
71 expected that adhering to ANSI standards and following the trimming requirements set forth by  
72 the MTPA would result in an acceptable level of stress to mangroves.

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74 Mangroves are well adapted to grow in environments with both frequent changes in soil  
75 hydrology and high levels of soil dissolved salts, mostly sodium and chloride ions from ocean  
76 water (Baskin and Baskin 1998; Karim and Karim 1993). *A. germinans* is able to overcome  
77 persistent inundation by use of specialized adventitious aerial root structures known as  
78 *pneumatophores* which are able to grow and persist vertically at the mean local high-tide  
79 level(Baskin and Baskin 1998; Odum and McIvor 1990; Yabuki 2004). Pneumatophores, like the  
80 rest of the root structure, use lenticels for respiration that allows mangroves to maintain  
81 sufficient gas exchange during periods of inundation such as rising and high tide (Yabuki 2004).  
82 *A. germinans* regulate internal vascular ionic concentration by excreting salt through glands on  
83 individual leaflet surfaces (Baskin and Baskin 1998; Odum and McIvor 1990). *A. germinans* has  
84 been documented maintaining xylem sap concentration at 1/7 salt water (Odum and McIvor  
85 1990), allowing plants to grow in soils that with salt concentrations >80 ppt (Baskin and Baskin  
86 1998; Odum and McIvor 1990).

87 *A. germinans* reproduce through production of propagules (Baskin and Baskin 1998; Simpson et  
88 al. 2017). These structures are seeds which undergo embryonic development while attached to  
89 the parent plant(Baskin and Baskin 1998; Odum and McIvor 1990). This adaptation is a useful  
90 reproductive strategy for plants that grow in inundated soils with persistently high levels of  
91 dissolved salts(Baskin and Baskin 1998; Odum and McIvor 1990; Simpson et al. 2017). In north

92 Florida the propagules are also produced biannually (Spring and Fall) in response to spring tides,  
93 possibly for greater dispersal.

94 The goal of this research was to quantify the reaction of mangroves to repeated trimming stress  
95 as allowed by the MTPA, where it was hypothesized that mangroves trimmed within MTPA  
96 limits will remain healthy and vigorous during normal growing conditions.

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## 98 **2. Material and Methods**

### 99 *2.1. Study Site*

100 A section of mangrove forest located on property managed by the University of Florida Whitney  
101 Laboratory for Marine Bioscience (Whitney Lab) was the chosen site for this study  
102 (29°40'16.32"N, 81°12'52.53"W) (Fig. 1). The Whitney Lab is situated on the Intracoastal  
103 Waterway in North East Florida, an area dominated mostly by *A. germinans* due to persistent  
104 cold temperatures during the winter months (Cavanaugh et al. 2014; Simpson et al. 2017). The  
105 mangrove study plots were located on the landward side of a barrier island, which is protected  
106 from surf activity and breaking waves. The regional tide was diurnal and had a range of 0-4.5  
107 feet above mean sea level (NOAA 2018).

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### 109 *2.2 Trimming Methodology*

110 All trimming and measurements were made over an 18-month period beginning July 2016 and  
111 ending January 2018. During this time the research mangrove stand was divided into four  
112 adjacent plots consisting of six individual trees. Two plots were designated as untrimmed  
113 mangrove control plots, and two plots were trimmed per MTPA guidelines. One trimmed plot  
114 was reduced in vertical height via vertical reduction trimming or “top trimmed”, and the second

115 trimmed plot was internally thinned or “window trimmed”. Window trimming is a method  
116 whereby the interior and lower foliage is systematically removed while retaining the upper and  
117 lower canopy, a method that is used mostly with taller trees where canopy reduction is not a  
118 viable option, still allowing for visibility through the canopy (FLDEP 2015). All trimming  
119 followed ANSI A300 methods for proper tree work. All reduction cuts were made back to  
120 appropriate aspect-ratio subordinate branches large enough to assume a new terminal branch  
121 lead. In order to preserve the branch collar intact, one stem of the opposite stem branch union  
122 was removed back to the node on herbaceous portions of the stem or branch collar on lignified  
123 portions of the stem (Fig 2). No more than 30% total canopy biomass was removed from any tree  
124 at one trimming event. Biomass was calculated by measuring the height and width of individual  
125 tree canopies to generate a total canopy area.

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### 127 *2.3 Chlorophyll Content*

128 Leaf chlorophyll content was measured in field using the CCM 200-PLUS Chlorophyll Content  
129 Meter (Opti-Sciences, Hudson, NH). Chlorophyll content meters operate by transmitting infrared  
130 light at discrete wavelengths to determine light absorption by the chlorophyll pigments in plant  
131 tissues. These measurements are then used to calculate a chlorophyll content index (CCI) value  
132 that is proportional to the chlorophyll content value in the sample. CCI readings were taken six  
133 times over an 18-month period, with two samples taken from each tree: one from the outer  
134 canopy near the apical meristems and another from the interior, shaded canopy. Both readings  
135 were averaged to produce one overall chlorophyll reading per tree. All chlorophyll  
136 measurements were made during a window of 1.5 hours before and after solar noon in order to  
137 minimize the effect of temporal variations in chlorophyll levels.

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#### 139 *2.4 Secondary Growth*

140 Circumferential trunk expansion was also measured six times over the study period, using a  
141 standard forestry diameter caliper to determine trunk diameter. Due to the natural decurrent  
142 growth pattern of *A. germinans*, standard diameter at breast height (DBH), or 4.5 feet from  
143 substrate level, measurement was not always possible. When standard DBH measurements were  
144 not possible, modified DBH measurements were taken at the smallest trunk circumference below  
145 the lowest branch and above the basal trunk flare. Occurrence and development of wound wood  
146 formation was also monitored at each trimming cut site.

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#### 148 *2.5 Statistical Data Analysis*

149 All statistical analyses were performed using the program R (ver. 1.0.136). Chlorophyll content  
150 measurements were analyzed for differences in trimming treatments (top trim vs. window trim)  
151 and the control group. Two major stochastic events occurred during the study period, Hurricane  
152 Matthew in October 2016, and Hurricane Irma in September 2017. These storms destroyed one  
153 control plot and inflicted physical damage to most of the remaining trees in the study. Additional  
154 chlorophyll readings were taken within 30 days of each hurricane event, creating clear points at  
155 which additional tests on chlorophyll content could be performed (i.e. comparing readings taken  
156 before and after hurricane events), in an attempt to control for possible physiological effects of  
157 the hurricanes on remaining trees. Differences in trimming treatments were analyzed for  
158 statistical significance ( $\alpha=0.05$ ) using ANOVA tests, with Tukey Post-Hoc tests performed to  
159 determine pairwise differences between treatment groups. This same statistical methodology was  
160 applied to the circumferential data collected for treatment groups, using ANOVA to test for

161 differences between treatments and t-tests to analyze trunk growth within each group (i.e.  
162 comparing values recorded at the end of the study to baseline measurements).

163

### 164 **3. Results**

#### 165 *3.1 Chlorophyll Analysis*

166 The mean chlorophyll content for treatment groups over the entire study period was 69.02 CCI  
167 (st.dev.=14.89) for window trimmed trees, 73.19 CCI (st.dev.=17.84) for top trimmed trees, and  
168 71.50 CCI (st.dev.=17.18) for control trees. Data for chlorophyll readings were subset by  
169 collection periods coinciding, with periods within the study pre-hurricane post-Matthew and  
170 post-Irma. Mean chlorophyll readings taken before the onset of hurricanes were 59.45 CCI  
171 (st.dev.=13.97) for window cut treatment, 65.54 CCI (st.dev.=15.22) for top cut treatment, and  
172 55.38 CCI (st.dev.=12.46) for the control group (Fig 3). Mean chlorophyll readings taken after  
173 onset of Hurricane Matthew were 76.83 CCI (st.dev.=12.97) for window treatment, 81.28 CCI  
174 (st.dev.=18.34) for top cut treatment, and 78.08 CCI (st.dev.=12.69) for control treatment group  
175 (Fig 4). Mean chlorophyll readings taken after onset of Hurricane Irma were 64.74 CCI  
176 (st.dev.=9.57) for window cut treatment, 64.21 CCI (st.dev.=10.02) for top cut treatment, and  
177 84.03 CCI (st.dev.=14.43) for the control group (Fig 5). ANOVA tests showed no significant  
178 differences between treatments in the period before (p-value=0.21, F-value=1.62, df=2) or after  
179 hurricane Matthew (p-value=0.65, F-value=0.43, df=2). Chlorophyll content between groups was  
180 significantly different in the period after hurricane Irma (p-value=0.01, F-value=5.74, df=2), and  
181 post-hoc analysis revealed significant differences in CCI between the top trim group versus the  
182 control group (p-value=0.02), and the window trim group versus the control group (p-  
183 value=0.03).



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### 185 *3.2 Circumferential Trunk Expansion*

186 All three treatment groups had measureable gains in DBH during the study period, with mean  
187 increases in diameter measuring 1.88cm (st.dev.=0.48) in the window cut group, 0.81 cm  
188 (st.dev.=0.53) in the top cut group, and 1.09cm (st.dev.=0.54) in the control group (Fig 6).

189 Baseline DBH measurements for treatment plots were statistically significant at the start of the  
190 study, precluding further comparison of trunk circumference between treatment groups. Mean  
191 increases in DBH within groups, indicating trunk growth, were not statistically significant.

192

### 193 *3.3 Effects of Trimming*

194 On trimming cuts made to younger, more herbaceous portions of the stem, axillary buds at the  
195 base of the node developed to reestablish the original opposite branch formation (Figure 2).

196 Axillary bud development was not observed on trimming cuts made to older, more lignified  
197 portions of the stems. Development of external wound wood on cuts made to older, lignified  
198 wood was not detected on any cut site during the study period.

199

### 200 *3.4 Leaf Water Pressure*

201 The initial study design of this project called for leaf water potential analysis through the use of a  
202 Pump Up Chamber Leaf Water Potential Meter (PMS Instrument, Albany, OR). Collecting leaf  
203 water potential measurements on *A. germinans* proved ineffective due to the high soluble salt  
204 content present in the xylem and possibly phloem vascular tissue. Because *L. racemosa* employ  
205 the same method of processing soluble salt within their vascular tissue, water potential readings  
206 may also prove ineffective as a metric for health for this species. However, it is expected that due

207 to the ability to exclude salt through osmotic pressure, use of a leaf water potential meter would  
208 be appropriate for use on *R. mangle*.

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#### 211 **4. Discussion**

212 Due to its relative tolerance to cold *A. germinans*, rather than *Rhizophora mangle* or  
213 *Laguncularia racemosa*, was the most abundant mangrove species in North Florida (Cavanaugh  
214 et al. 2014). The observations made during this study were limited to *A. germinans* and similarly,  
215 conclusions are limited to this single species. Living on fringe of their subtropical range, North  
216 Florida mangroves are on average smaller than the mangroves growing in South Florida  
217 (Saenger and Snedaker 1993). Smaller mangroves may have less insulating capabilities around  
218 the critical meristems and may also exhibit different physiologic responses to storms due to the  
219 variations in wind loading and canopy buffering capacity. As mangroves in North Florida  
220 become more established and increase in size, their reaction and tolerance to stressors may  
221 change as well.

222 Deposited materials from storm movement interfered with root soil and gas exchange resulting in  
223 eventual death of the trees. One of the two designated control plots was destroyed by hurricane  
224 induced soil accretion thus reducing the number of control trees by 50%, five months after the  
225 commencement of the study.

226

227 Carotenoids, which comprise part of the chemical composition of chlorophyll, are part a known  
228 chemical stress response mechanism in plants (Havaux 1998; Zhang et al. 2012). As a group they  
229 are thought to play at least 5 roles in plant chemical stress responses. At a cellular level

230 carotenoids harvest light, aid in photoprotection during periods of intense solar radiation,  
231 scavenge singlet oxygen which photodegrades cells, dissipate excess metabolic energy, and  
232 provide structural cellular support (Frank and Cogdell 1996; Frank 1999). When plants are  
233 exposed to environmental stressors such as changes in light, temperature, or physical stress,  
234 certain classes of carotenoids help stabilize oxidative membrane damage within plant cells  
235 (Havaux 1998; Zhang et al. 2012). Changes in chlorophyll levels found in mangroves may be  
236 attributed to fluctuated carotenoid levels as a result of hurricane stress. This theory may be  
237 explored through the use of mass spectrometry isolation of specific leaf chemical constituents.  
238 Unfortunately the unpredictable and stochastic nature of hurricanes presents a realistic limitation  
239 to such research. Regardless, the chlorophyll content results of this research project suggest a  
240 link between the chemical responses to physical and environmental stressors and the need for  
241 further investigation.

242

243 The lack of statistically significant growth within each group is indicative of the environmental  
244 stressors mangroves encounter in the northern extent of their natural range. Persistent cold  
245 encountered during the winter months, compounded with extreme weather events such as  
246 hurricanes would reduce a plant's ability to produce statistically significant secondary growth in  
247 a twelve month growing season. Due to the high metabolic requirement of wound wood  
248 production, this would also explain the lack of observable wound wood on the trimmed  
249 mangroves. The temporal parameters for development of reaction wood, and wound wood are  
250 not currently known for North American mangroves. A study design with a longer observation  
251 period may yield positive results for wound wood manifestation of trimmed North American  
252 mangroves.

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Reduction trimming on larger mangroves may help create a more compact structure which has been shown to create more wind resistant trees (Gilman, Masters, and Grabosky 2008; Gilman, Jason Miesbauer, and Masters 2015) but most mangroves do not reach the large size that would be benefit from reduction trimming. Therefore trimming smaller mangroves is structurally unnecessary and reduces the overall biomass to a degree that may allow the trees to be more affected by hurricane level stressors without positively affecting structure. Allowing mangroves to remain untrimmed, thus maintaining their natural balance of photosynthetic biomass, is ultimately the most beneficial method of mangrove management. This research suggests that allowing a longer period of recovery time between trimming sessions (24 mos vs. 12 mos) would allow for mangroves with more dense canopies that would be more resistant to hurricane stressors (Gilman, Masters, and Grabosky 2008; Gilman, Jason Miesbauer, and Masters 2015). Any method of plant management that reduces stress will ultimately ensure a plant that is more resistant to pests, trimming, disease, and the environment.

#### Acknowledgements

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355 **Figures**

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**Figure 1. Study site location at University of Florida Whitney Laboratory (Wh) in St Johns County, Florida, United States.**

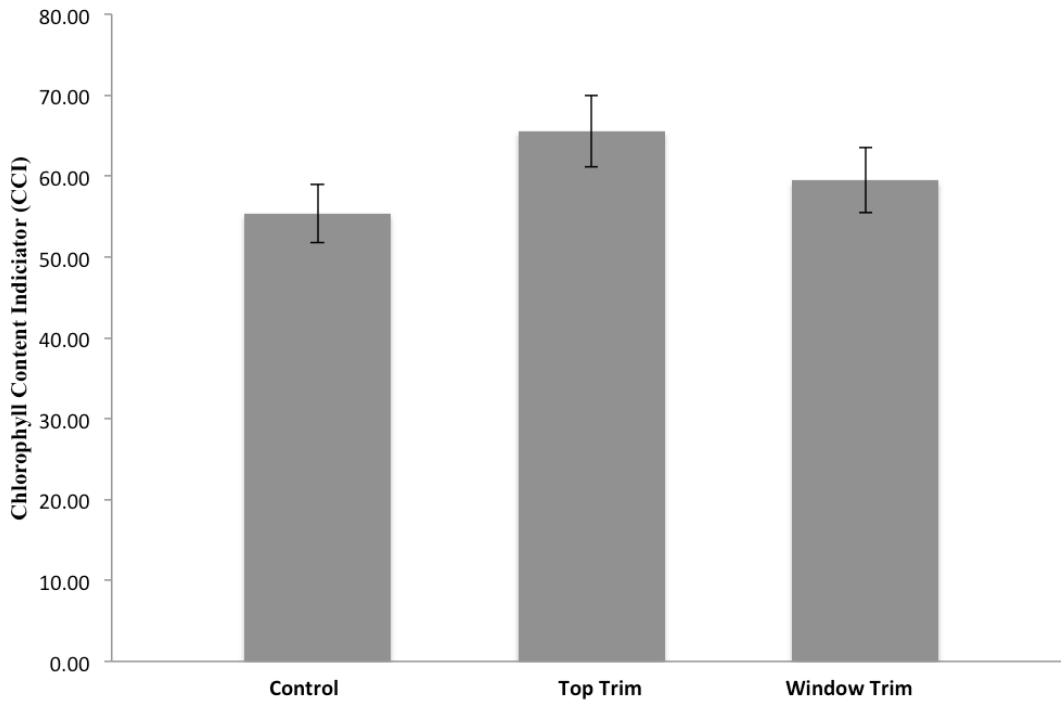


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368 **Figure 2. Axillary bud reestablished opposite leaf structure of the cut stem within the**

369 **study period. A fresh reduction cut is visible above the new stem.**



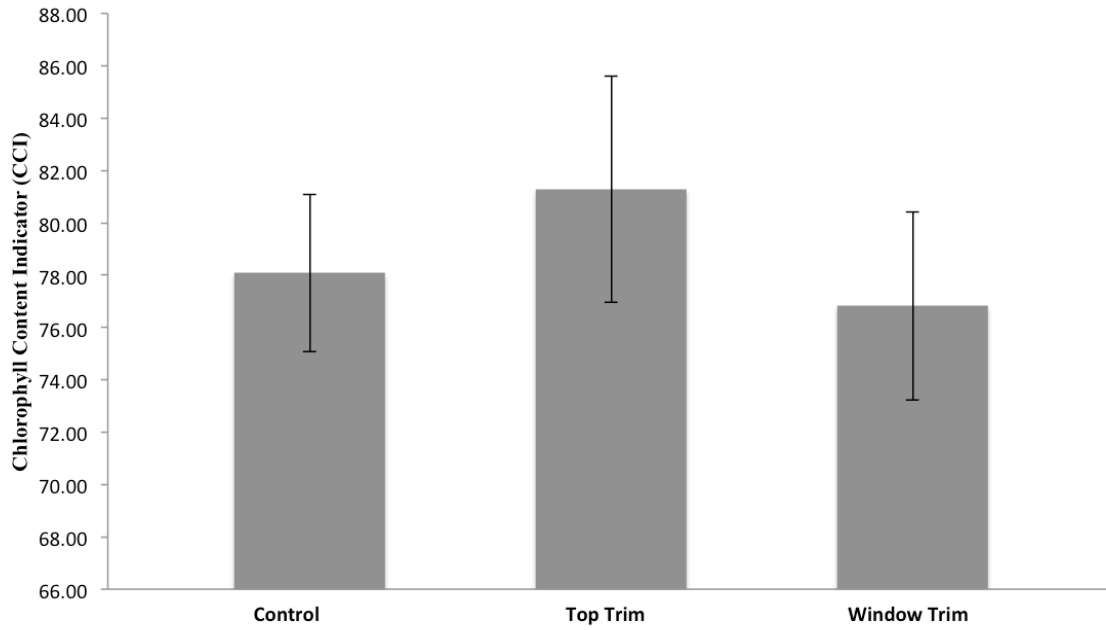


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371 **Figure 3. Chlorophyll levels pre-hurricanes.**

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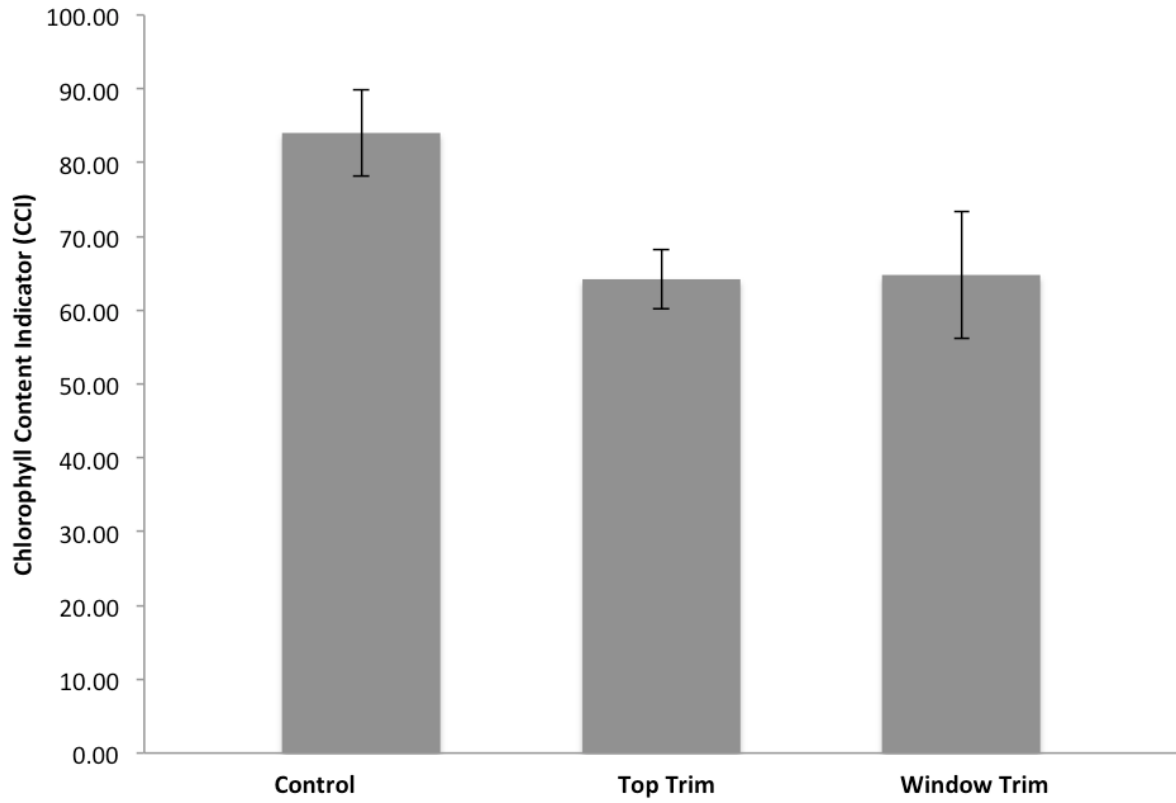
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375 **Figure 4. Chlorophyll levels post Hurricane Matthew (2016).**

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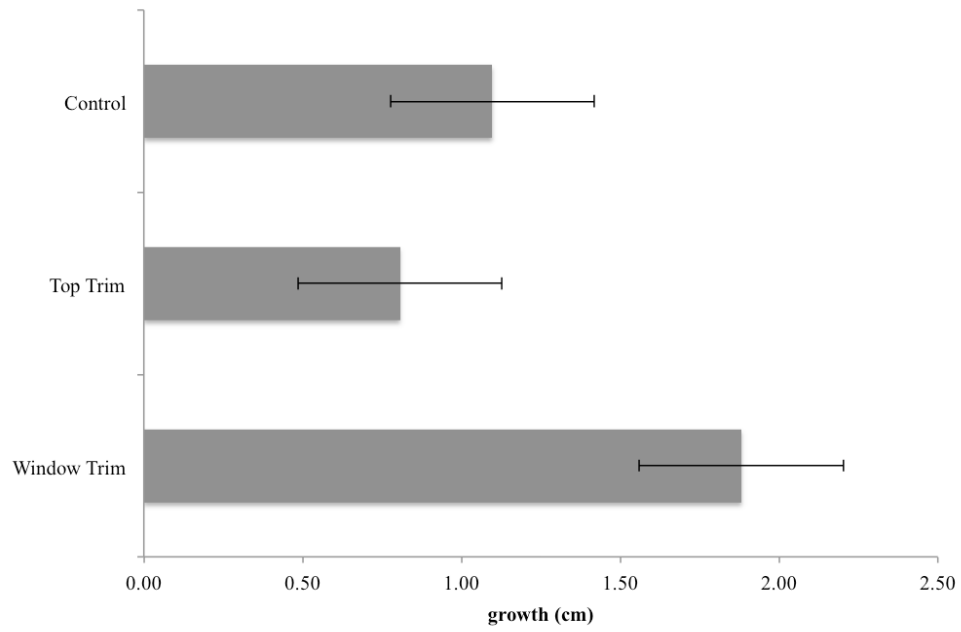


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378 **Figure 5. Chlorophyll levels post Hurricane Irma (2017).**

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383 **Figure 6. Average circumferential expansion during study period.**