University of São Paulo "Luiz de Queiroz" College of Agriculture

Dendrochronology and dendroclimatology of tropical tree species from southeastern Peruvian Amazon

Leif Armando Portal Cahuana

Thesis presented to obtain the degree of Doctor in Science. Area: Forest Resources. Option in: Forest Products Technology

Piracicaba 2022 Leif Armando Portal Cahuana Forestry and Environment Engineer

Dendrochronology and dendroclimatology of tropical tree species from southeastern Peruvian Amazon

versão revisada de acordo com a Resolução CoPGr 6018 de 2011

Advisor: Prof. Dr. MARIO TOMMASIELLO FILHO

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my mother, **Emperatriz Cahuana Aguilar**, for her love and for instilling in me since I was a child to pursue my goals. To my wife, **María Esther Villavicencio Paucarpura**, for her love and unconditional support throughout this process, and finally, to my two sons, **Leif Leonardo** and **Kaiki Adriel**, who were my motivation and strength to move forward in this challenge. Mention to all of them that it is also their achievement.

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RESUMO

Dendrocronologia e dendroclimatologia de espécies arbóreas tropicais do sudeste da Amazônia peruana

As florestas tropicais da América do Sul possuem uma alta biodiversidade, porém sua extensão e suas próprias características tornam sua conservação muito complicada, isso acontece em todos os países que a compõem e o Peru não é alheio a essa realidade, por isso são necessárias pesquisas voltadas para a conservação de suas florestas e que auxilia o manejo florestal sustentável, minimizando seus impactos, com informações técnicas e científicas de acordo com sua realidade. O estudo dos anéis de crescimento por meio da dendrocronologia é uma importante ferramenta para auxiliar com informações que auxiliam no manejo florestal de forma rápida e econômica. É por isso que o objetivo principal é analisar as espécies tropicais da floresta amazônica no sudeste do Peru para estudos dendrocronológicos e dendroclimáticos, para os quais foi realizado primeiro uma história da arte da dendrocronologia no Peru, a fim de ter uma ideia clara dos avanços e dos desafios dessa ciência no país, então foi analisado o potencial dos anéis de crescimento de 34 espécies florestais para estudos dendrocronológicos na região de Madre de Dios (MDD), região de tríplice fronteira com clima sazonal, realizado a partir de uma amostragem por espécie, então, por fim, foi estudada a dendrocronologia de seis espécies de MDD, onde foram coletadas um total de 181 árvores das seis espécies e 04 amostras para cada árvore. De maneira geral, o procedimento consistiu em secar as amostras em temperatura ambiente, em seguida lixar-polir e por fim digitalizar as secões transversais para medir os anéis de crescimento, caracterizar e construir as cronologias das espécies estudadas. Os resultados obtidos são: há um artigo de revisão que mostra o estado da arte da dendrocronologia no Peru e, entre outras coisas, são levantados desafios futuros. Sobre o potencial dos anéis de crescimento de 34 espécies, 82% apresentaram anéis muito visíveis e moderadamente visíveis (28). Com relação ao estudo dendrocronológico das seis espécies, foram obtidas estatísticas aceitáveis e foi possível construir três cronologias de mais de 200 anos, as espécies foram influenciadas pelo clima local (precipitação) na estação chuvosa e com as anomalias do mar de TSM temperatura dos oceanos Pacífico e Atlântico, destacando a influência do fenômeno El Niño no crescimento das espécies. Esses resultados destacam a necessidade de entender como as espécies florestais estão lidando com as mudanças climáticas nas florestas tropicais. Esse conhecimento é fundamental para aplicá-lo ao manejo florestal e à conservação das florestas tropicais.

Palavras-chave: Madre de Dios, Anéis de crescimento, El Niño, Espécies longevas, Florestas tropicais

ABSTRACT

Dendrochronology and dendroclimatology of trees of tropical tree species from southeastern Peruvian Amazon

The tropical forests of South America have high biodiversity, however their extension and their characteristics make their conservation very complicated, this happens in all the countries that comprise it and Peru is no stranger to this reality, so research is required oriented to the conservation of its forests and that helps sustainable forest management, minimizing its impacts, with technical and scientific information according to its reality. The study of growth rings through dendrochronology is an important tool to help with information that helps manage forests quickly and economically. That is why the main objective is to analyze the tropical species of the Amazon rainforest in Southeast Peru for dendrochronological and dendroclimatic studies, for which a history of the art of dendrochronology in Peru was first carried out, to have a clear idea of the advances and the challenges of this science in the country, then the potential of the growth rings of 34 forest species was analyzed for dendrochronological studies in the Madre de Dios region (MDD), a tri-border region with seasonal climate, carried out from a sample by species, then, finally, the dendrochronology of six MDD species was studied, where a total of 181 trees of the six species and 04 samples for each tree were collected. In general, the procedure was to dry the samples at room temperature, then sanded-polished and finally scanned the crosssections to measure the growth rings, be characterized and build the chronologies of the species studied. The results obtained are: there is a review article that shows the state of the art of dendrochronology in Peru and, among other things, future challenges are raised. About the potential of the growth rings of 34 species, 82 % presented very visible and moderately visible rings (28). Regarding the dendrochronological study of the six species, acceptable statistics were obtained and it was possible to build three chronologies of more than 200 years, the species were influenced by the local climate (precipitation) in the rainy season and the anomalies of the SST sea temperature of the Pacific and Atlantic oceans, highlighting the influence of the El Niño phenomenon on the growth of species. These results highlight the need to understand how forest species are coping with climate change in tropical forests. This knowledge is key to applying it to forest management and the conservation of tropical forests.

Keywords: Madre de Dios, Growth rings, El Niño, Long-lived species, Tropical forests

RESUMEN

Dendrocronología y dendroclimatología de espécies arbóreas tropicales del sudeste de la Amazonía peruana

Los bosques tropicales de América del Sur, presentan una alta biodiversidad sin embargo su extensión y sus características propias hacen que su conservación sea muy complicada, esto sucede en todos los países que la conforman y el Perú no es ajena a esta realidad, por lo que se requiere investigaciones orientadas a la conservación de sus bosques y que ayude al manejo forestal sostenible, minimizando sus impactos, con información técnica y científica acorde a su realidad. El estudio de los anillos de crecimiento a través de la dendrocronología es una herramienta importante para auxiliar con informaciones que ayuden al manejo de los bosques de una manera rápida y económica. Es por ello que se plantea como objetivo principal analizar las especies tropicales de la selva Amazónica del Sureste del Perú para estudios dendrocronológicos y dendroclimáticos, para ello primero se realizó una historia del arte de la dendrocronología del Perú, para tener una clara idea de los avances y de los retos de esta ciencia en el país, luego se analizó el potencial de los anillos de crecimiento de 34 especies forestales para estudios dendrocronológicos en la región de Madre de Dios (MDD), región trifronteriza con clima estacional, realizado a partir de una muestra por especie, seguidamente, finalmente se estudió la dendrocronología de seis especies de MDD, donde se colectaron en total 181 árboles de las seis especie y 04 muestras por cada árbol. De manera general el procedimiento fue secar las muestras a temperatura ambiente, posteriormente, lijados-pulidos y finalmente escaneados las secciones transversales para medir los anillos de crecimiento, ser caracterizados y construir las cronologías de las especies estudiadas. Los resultados que se tienen es: se cuenta con un artículo de revisión que muestra el estado del arte de la dendrocronología en el Perú y entre otras cosas se plantean los retos futuros. Sobre el potencial de los anillos de crecimiento de 34 especies, el 82 % presentaron anillos muy visibles y moderadamente visibles (28). Referente al estudio dendrocronológico de las seis especies, se consiguieron estadísticos aceptables y se logró construir tres cronologías de más de 200 años, las especies tuvieron influencia del clima local (precipitación) en la estación lluviosa y con las anomalías de la temperatura del mar SST del océano Pacífico y Atlántico, destacando la influencia del fenómeno El Niño en el crecimiento de las especies. Estos resultados ponen de manifiesto la necesidad de comprender como las especies forestales están afrontando el cambio climático n los bosques tropicales. Este conocimiento es clave para aplicarlo al manejo forestal y a la conservación de los bosques tropicales.

Palabras claves: Madre de Dios, Anillos de crecimientos, El Niño, Especies longevas, Bosques tropicales

1. GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Tropical forests are the refuges of biodiversity, presenting innumerable direct and indirect ecosystem services, and providing benefits for the well-being of humanity (Aguirre et al., 2021; Edwards et al., 2019; Lakerveld et al., 2015) also, Tropical forests play an important role in the climate system where evaporation and condensation are engines of global atmospheric circulation, contributing to the cycle of carbon, water, etc. (Malhi et al., 2008; Marengo et al., 2018). Tropical and subtropical terrestrial ecosystems play an important role throughout the world as carbon sinks because they absorb more carbon than they emit. It is currently estimated that terrestrial ecosystems sequester approximately 30% of global CO₂ annually, where gross absorptions and emissions in tropical forests are four times higher than in temperate and boreal forests combined (Fan et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2021) and to mitigate global climate change the management of these carbon sinks is an important tool (Chisholm et al., 2013).

However, these tropical forests are fragile, small changes in their function and structure could have consequences on global biodiversity, carbon cycle and climate (Malhi et al., 2002), research shows that they are having variations in precipitation and temperature, for example, it is reported that since 1980 the Amazon basin has warmed 0.5 °C and that during the dry season it presents stronger warming over the southeast of the Amazon (Jiménez-Muñoz et al., 2016) it is exacerbated in tropical forests due to synergies and interactions with other threats such as anthropogenic activities that result in fragmentation in their ecosystems, as a consequence of the process of the economic integration of the Amazon, based mainly on the use of renewable natural resources and not renewable sources, such as logging, deforestation, mining, shifting cultivation, etc. (Malhi et al., 2002; Marengo et al., 2018; Nobre et al., 2016; Qin et al., 2017). In addition to all these risks suffered by tropical forests, there are external events that have direct and indirect consequences on Amazonian ecosystems such as the El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) phenomenon in the tropical Pacific, as well as surface temperature anomalies. of the Sea (SST) of the Pacific and Atlantic oceans, inducing dry or flood anomalies (Sulca et al., 2018) and a series of climatic, anthropogenic and climatic anomaly combinations that affect tropical forests in diversity, distribution, composition, structure and its resilience (Deb et al., 2018; Jiménez-Muñoz et al., 2016; Marengo and Espinoza, 2016).

One way to evaluate the influence of local climate and global environmental variables in tropical forests is through the growth rings of trees, these studies in tropical forests have existed for more than 120 years where the annuality of the growth rings of tropical species (Worbes, 2002), using it to know the growth past, to know what the relationships of growth with the environment are and to reconstruct the climate (Mariaux, 1967; Détienne, 1989; Layme et al., 2018; Aragão et al., 2022). However, these studies of tree growth rings are still scarce in tropical forests, given that there are more than 40,000 species of tropical trees in the world (Slik et al., 2015) and South America, for example, reports 6,727 tree species (Cardoso et al., 2017) but studies show that only 220 to 230 species of tropical trees have been confirmed in all continents and climatic zones with annual formation and growth (Brienen et al., 2016; Schöngart et al., 2017) that is, we only know 0.6% of the tropical species that form confirmed annual growth rings, although in recent decades the study of growth rings in tropical forests has spread rapidly, there is a knowledge gap very wide and in need of narrowing it.

Therefore, it is necessary to carry out more studies of tropical tree species that mark growth rings and/or those that do not, since this information will help researchers and help them save time and money (Groenendijk et al., 2014). Some studies have analyzed tropical tree species in the world, showing the potential of the anatomy of growth rings (distinction, type of marking, etc.), in addition to seeking to build chronologies and validate them using carbon 14 techniques (Brienen et al., 2009; Groenendijk et al., 2014; Islam et al., 2018; Lisi et al., 2008). Peru has few

studies on the potential of growth rings (Beltrán and Valencia, 2013; Marcelo-Peña et al., 2020), even more, knowing its high biodiversity and types of climate urges the need to know both tree species tropical that form annual growth rings and with the same importance, those that do not form annual rings. Where different methodologies can be applied, from classic and basic studies on the anatomy of wood oriented to growth rings (Beltrán and Valencia, 2013; Marcelo-Peña et al., 2020), cambial marking (Lisi et al., 2008), X-ray densitometry (Tomazello et al., 2008), autofluorescence (Godoy et al., 2019), blu intensity (Buckley et al., 2018), among other methodologies that have the purpose of analyzing and verifying the annuality of the growth rings in tropical forests.

In this sense, Peru, a tropical South American country, stands out for having the second largest area of tropical native forests (and the fourth for forest plantations) in the American continent, and for hosting incredible biodiversity (Pitman et al., 2002; Vásquez et al., 2018; Wittmann et al., 2006). 84 of the 117 world life zones are present in the country (Asner et al., 2017; Brack, 2004; Cossío et al., 2014; P. Oliveira et al., 2007). Where studies on dendrochronology were carried out in Peru (Crispín et al., 2022; Pereyra, 2011; Rodríguez et al., 2005) but little is known about all the studies carried out, their advances, limitations and challenges, the few references we have about the history of dendrochronology in Peru are general (Rodríguez et al., 2005; Tomazello et al., 2009) and it is a priority to make the state of the art of dendrochronology in Peru and generate a base of general data of these studies including all the information (degree thesis, master's degree, doctorate, article in journals indexed in international databases and articles in other journals indexed in other databases) that may show their real status and be the scientific basis to project the results later studies.

On the other hand, El Niño-Southern Oscillation originates in the Tropical Pacific Ocean, which is an ocean-atmospheric phenomenon with unusual warm (El Niño) and cold (La Niña) fluctuations, which occurs in centuries from 2 to 7 years directly related to the Pacific trade winds and their strength, where through atmospheric teleconnections it influences climate variability and brings impacts throughout the world (McPhaden et al., 2006; Sulca et al., 2018). Where El Niño together with the Sea Surface Temperature (SST) of the Pacific and Atlantic oceans modify the path of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) in South America, being able to intensify the rains or interrupt them, for example, the displacement in the austral summer causes the ITCZ to be located further to the southeast of the continent where low pressure brings a rainy summer and the displacement of the ITCZ further north (Central America) results in a drier winter in South America due to high pressure (Jimenez et al., 2019; Marengo and Espinoza, 2016; Sulca et al., 2018). In this sense, several studies have shown the influence of the El Niño-Southern Oscillation and the Sea Surface Temperature (SST) on the growth of tropical trees through the study of growth rings (Aragão et al., 2022; Felfili et al., 2018; Menezes et al., 2022) and in Peru this kind of studies have also been carried out but on the coast and highlands of the country (Layme et al., 2018; Requena et al., 2020; Rodríguez et al., 2005), but in the Peruvian jungle there is no research on this subject, being this area of the country where the forestry is carried out, which is why it is necessary to investigate the influence of El Niño-Southern Oscillation and Sea Surface Temperature (SST) on the growth of commercial tropical species.

In addition, it is necessary to apply dendrochronological techniques to species that are highly threatened in the tropical forests of South America and it is possible to visualize growth rings so that the results can be applied to SFM. Among the endangered species of flora included in 2020 in Appendix II of the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Fauna and Flora (CITES), are Cedrela spp., Swietenia humulis, Swietenia macrophylla and Swietenia mahagoni (CITES, 2020), species that belong to the botanical family Meliaceae, which are characterized by presenting a high value in tropical forests, due to their excellent technological properties and beauties, where S. macrophylla has been listed since 2002 in Appendix II CITES, where the intention is that their trade does not harm their populations in natural ecosystems (Grogan et al., 2008), since they have been intensively exploited since the 70s and 80s, which generated a very significant impact on their natural populations in tropical forests (de Oliveira et al., 2020; Degen et al., 2013; Estrada et al., 2016; Sebbenn et al., 2012).

1.1. Outline of the thesis

In this doctoral thesis, we study the dendrochronology and dendroclimatology of tropical tree species from southeastern Peruvian Amazon, of the department of Madre de Dios is located in the triple border of the country, limited to Acre (Brazil) and Pando (Bolivia), this department is considered the biodiversity capital of Peru, due to its high rates of biological diversity (Foster et al., 1994) and considered a biodiversity hotspot (Myers et al., 2000; Olson and Dinerstein, 2002). All samples were collected from commercial trees from forestry concessions (slices/wedges) granted by the Peruvian state, conservation concessions (cores), and wooden cubes provided by the Xiloteca of the Universidad Nacional Amazónica de Madre de Dios. The main objective of this thesis is to analyze the tropical species of the Amazonian forest of Southeast Peru for dendrochronological and dendroclimatic studies.

This doctoral thesis aims to answer the main questions:

- 1) What is the state of the art in dendrochronology in Peru?
- 2) What are the anatomical and density characteristics of tree growth ring boundaries for the 34 species studied?
- 3) What are the growth rates and trajectories for the subset of trees for the 6 species studied?
- 4) Is it possible to construct the chronologies of the trees for the 6 species studied with acceptable statistics?
- 5) Is the growth of the trees of these 6 species correlated with the local climate?
- 6) Is the growth of the trees of these 6 species correlated with the sea surface temperature of the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans in species with the El Niño phenomenon?

We address these questions using 222 trees of 34 species from 18 botanical families with different phenological behaviors, anatomical structures, ages, densities, and growth strategies. For this, three chapters were developed to achieve the main objective:

In chapter 1 he made the history of art on dendrochronology in Peru from its beginnings to the present. To this end, a database of studies on dendrochronology in Peru was systematized and generated by compiling information from different sources: scientific articles electronically indexed in Scopus, Web of Science and Scielo; other academic articles not present in these indexes; and 51 online repositories from Peruvian universities containing bachelor's, masters and doctoral theses. It is one of the first investigations that shows the history of the art of dendrochronology in Peru, which will serve as the basis for further investigations on growth rings of tropical species.

In chapter 2 he evaluated the dendrochronological potential of 34 forest species growing in a tropical moist forest. For this, I relied on the macroscopic anatomy of the growth rings, and their presence and distinction; In addition, we use X-ray densitometry techniques to identify the limits of the growth rings. In a subset of six species, I analyze the growth rates and trajectories throughout the life of these species. The growth rings of 09 forest species are described for the first time.

In Chapter 3, you used the species from the subset from Chapter 2 to construct chronologies, relating growth to local climate and global climate variations. For this, we worked with 188 trees of 06 forest species. This thesis reports for the first time the construction of chronologies and the relationships with the local/global climate

of 03 species, in addition, it is highlighted that the 06 species were influenced by the climatic phenomenon El Niño. Finally, I make the final considerations of the thesis.



1.2. Graphical abstract

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2. THIRTY-FOUR YEARS OF DENDROCHRONOLOGICAL STUDIES IN PERU: A REVIEW OF ADVANCES AND CHALLENGES

Abstract

The development of tree ring chronologies of tropical trees allows to reconstruct the environmental history of the Neotropics on extensive temporal and spatial scales. This review provides an historic overview and state-of -the-art overview of dendrochronological studies in Peru, a megadiverse country in its flora, types of climate and ecosystems. We reviewed all available information on dendrochronological studies by assessing scientific articles in indexed, and non-indexed journals as well university thesis repositories. Dendrochronological studies began in the late 1980s and have botanically involved 18 families, 32 genera and 49 tree species. The most studied families have been Fabaceae (15 studies), Meliaceae (11), Rosaceae (05), and Bignoniaceae (03), and the most studied genera were *Cedrela* (12), *Polylepis* (07) and *Prosopis* (06). The development of chronologies was mainly applied in climatic reconstructions, forest conservation and management. We identify underrrepresentations or sampling gaps regarding climatic and geographic complexity. The high diversity of Peru constitutes a natural laboratory to develop tree-ring studies to better understand the growth and functioning of tropical tree species, their interaction with climate, and to derive climate reconstructions during the last centuries. This review aims to contribute to the direction of future dendrochronological studies in Peru.

Keywords: climatology, forest management, tropical trees, tree-ring

2.1. Introduction

The study of tree rings has been widely used in temperate regions to understand tree growth and to reconstruct climate. In the tropics, in spite of more than one hundred years of tree-ring studies (Worbes, 2002), for long it was believed that trees did not form annual growth rings, at least to the degree of distinctness as is observed in most species in temperate climates. From the 1950s onwards, there was an increase in tropical tree ring research (Worbes, 2002) showing that many of them form annual growth rings triggered by seasonal variations in the climate (Koriba, 1958; Mariaux, 1967; Détienne and Mariaux, 1975; Brienen et al., 2006; Groenendijk et al., 2014). The fact that many tropical species form annual rings makes it possible to build chronologies that allow reconstructing environmental history for different biomes (Brienen et al., 2016; Zuidema et al., 2022). For this reason, tropical dendrochronology is currently in the spotlight, providing answers about the impact of climate change on tree growth (Groenendijk et al., 2015; Islam et al., 2018; van der Sleen, Groenendijk, Vlam, et al., 2015), allowing the reconstruction of the climate in the main atmospheric regulators of the planet (Ljungqvist et al., 2020; Granato-Souza et al., 2019; Schofield et al., 2016), understanding the dynamics of forests in the long term (Bergeron et al., 2002; Metsaranta and Lieffers, 2009; Vlam et al., 2017), projecting scenarios for the conservation and use of timber resources (Angoboy et al., 2020; Fu et al., 2020), among other applications. Despite advances in tropical dendrochronology, only a small fraction of tropical tree species have been studied and huge tropical land areas and biomes remain virtually unexplored dendrochronologically (Brienen et al., 2016; Schöngart et al., 2017; ter Steege et al., 2015). Therefore, it is important to review the existing studies, identifying the quality of the species for dendrochronological studies and identifying the areas that are viewed as priority to extend explorations and data generation in the Neotropics (e.g., Zuidema et al. 2022).

Here we present a review on the state-of-the-art of tree-ring studies in Peru. This South-American country stands out for having the second largest area of tropical native forests (and fourth in forest plantation) on the American continent, and for harboring incredible biodiversity (Pitman et al., 2002; Vásquez et al., 2018; Wittmann et al., 2006). A 84 out of the 117 world life zones are present in the country (Asner et al., 2017; Brack, 2004; Cossío et al., 2014; Oliveira et al., 2007). This high biodiversity combined with the country's relatively small size reinforces the great potential of Peru as an ideal country to advance dendrochronological studies in the tropics.

Our main objectives are to *i*. establish an historical overview of Dendrochronology in Peru; *ii*. identify the species investigated, the characteristics of the constructed chronologies, and the geographic and environmental coverage of these studies; *iii*. analyze the applied dendrochronological approaches; and *iv*. provide suggestions and directions for future dendrochronological studies in Peru. This study thus presents a qualitative and quantitative inventory of the chronologies available for Peru and their spatial and temporal coverage. With it, we hope to reveal the country's potential for dendrochronological studies, and to identify knowledge gaps to be filled for the improvement of dendrochronology in the region.

2.2. Material and Methods

The database of dendrochronological studies in Peru was built by collecting information from different sources: scientific articles electronically indexed in Scopus (www.scopus.com), Web of Science (www.webofscience.com), and Scielo (www.scielo.br); other non-indexed academic articles; and 51 online repositories of Peruvian universities containing undergraduate, master, and doctorate theses. We considered sources of "grey" literature (theses and publications in non-indexed journals) as these that may provide important information of new species and study areas. These studies are thus not formally peer-reviewed. Yet, there are many difficulties (cultural, financial, linguistic, etc.) for academics in developing countries to publish their studies that are not necessarily related to the quality of the work. Excluding these sources would strongly reduce our sapling size and thus also the representativity of tree-ring studies in Peru.

We used the following keywords: "Dendrochronology", "Dendroecology", "Dendroclimatology", "Growth rings", "Peru" and considered all publications available up to june 2022. All publications were read, analyzed, systematized and we only considered those studies that presented a constructed chronology, regardless of the number of trees used and their intercorrelation level. We systematized information on the study species, botanical family, type of sample (increment core or cross-sectional discs), the number of trees and number of radii sampled, number and percentage of intercorrelated individuals, the period covered by the chronology, total chronology length (years), average of the within-tree intercorrelations (intercor), average of the between tree intercorrelations (Rbar), Expressed Population Signal (EPS), climate type, geolocation, and the department in Peru where the study was realized and in which repository are the samples currently kept? We subsequently used this database to explore the historical panorama, the approaches, and the characteristics of the chronologies and to know the species already investigated, where the investigations have been carried out and the coverage of the environmental envelope (precipitation and temperature). Finally, we examined studies that applied tree-rings to answer applied questions related to forest management in the country.

2.3. Results and Discussion

We were able to find a total of 45 publications (Table 1), consisting mostly of grey literature: theses (53%), articles published in non-indexed journals (9%) and publications from journals indexed in SCOPUS, Web of Science, and Scielo formed 38% of the publications reviewed here. Surprisingly, only 20% of theses results were published in indexed journals. In this context, scientific information on dendrochronological research in Peru remains mainly in the repositories of Peruvian universities.

2.3.1. Track record and historic overview

The first report published in Peru on the growth rings of Peruvian forest species was made by Andreas Schwyzer in 1988 (Tomazello et al., 2009), who compiled some unpublished results and indicated possibilities for dendrochronological investigations of three arboreal species (*Chorisia* sp., *Amburana cearensis*, and *Cedrela* sp.) and a shrub species (*Myrciaria dubia*), making the first inferences about applying tree-ring analyses to forest management in the Peruvian Amazon (Schwyzer, 1988). These studies argued the annual nature of the growth rings, with the consequent possibility of developing dating and growth measurement studies with applications in the management of timber species. In the late 1980s, the first attempts to apply dendroclimatology in Peru were carried out by the University of Piura in collaboration with the Geophysical Institute of Peru and the University of Colorado in the University of these studies was to detect El Niño-Southern Oscillation events from signals revealed by tree rings (Rodríguez et al., 2005; UC, 2016). Despite the start in the 1980s, the first dendrochronology laboratory in Peru was installed in 2001 at the University of Piura (Rodríguez et al., 2005). The first chronology validated with dendrochronological parameters in Peru was carried out 17 years ago, where the incidence of El NIÑO events was related to the growth of forests on the north coast of the country (Rodríguez et al., 2005). Since 2004, the number of publications has increased considerably, as observed in Fig. 1a.



Figure1. Cumulative number of dendrochronological studies in Peru (left panel) and the temporal coverage of these chronologies (right panel).

Several teaching and research initiatives on growth rings organized at Peruvian universities were fundamental for the development of dendrochronology in the country. For instance, the inclusion in 2007 of a dendrochronology course as part of the Forests and Forest Resources Management Master's degree in of the La Molina National Agrarian University. This course focused on the basic aspects and fundamentals of dendrochronology, such as, sample collection, data processing and interpretation. The course was taught for several years in collaboration with the Escola Superior de Agricultura Luiz de Queiroz of the Universidade de São Paulo in Brazil and resulted in master's theses that evaluated the potential of Peruvian species for dendrochronological studies (Campos, 2009; Melo, 2010; Becerra, 2011; Huaman, 2011; Schipper, 2011). Another institution that taught courses related to dendrochronology was the Universidad de Piura, where mainly undergraduate theses on dendrochronology were produced (Ancajima, 2017; Córdova, 2003; Flores, 1994; Martinez, 2002; Ortiz, 2019), the Universidad Nacional del Central Perú, where undergraduate theses were also generated (Beltran 2011; Inga 2011; Pereyra 2011; Ramirez 2018; Valencia 2011), and more recently also the Universidad Continental, the Universidad Nacional Amazónica de Madre de Dios and the Universidad Nacional de Jaén have also organized courses, often in collaboration with researchers from Brazil, Argentina, and Colombia.

2.3.2. Taxonomic coverage

In total, the reviewed studies included 18 botanical families, 32 genera and 49 species. Among all families studied, four comprise the largest number of investigations, being: Fabaceae (15 studies), Meliaceae (11), Rosaceae (05), and Bignoniaceae (03). It is worth noting that Fabaceae is the most studied family, with 15 investigations covering 11 species. In general, Fabaceae species are known to have distinct growth rings by the presence of a marginal parenchyma band (InsideWood 2004). In addition, Fabaceae is a family with a wide distribution, occurring in a diversity of habitats, having several genera and species (Lewis et al. 2005), and showing locally abundant populations (Caiafa and Martins). These particular conditions expands sampling possibilities in large areas of the Neotropics. In relation to the most considered genera in this survey, it is mentioned Cedrela (12), Polylepis (07) and Prosopis (06), with 45 researches. The genus Cedrela is one of the most studied in South America. Its species form well distinct rings marked by a semiring porosity and the presence of a marginal parenchyma, whose annual formation has been proven by studies of cambial activity (Marcati et al. 2006), X-ray densitometry (Albuquerque et al. 2016), carbon isotopes (13C) (Anholetto 2013), Oxygen isotopes (18O) (Brienen et al. 2012) and 14C dating validation (Baker et al. 2017; Hammerschlag et al. 2019; Santos et al. 2021, 2020). The species Cedrela odorata has a potential longevity of 308 years (Tomazello et al 2009) and Peru is considered the center of the diversity of this genus, with 10 of the existing 17 species present in the country (Pennington and Styles 2010). In addition, the genus Cedrela has four species of restricted distribution, considered endemic in the country (C. kuelapensis, C. molinensis, C. longipetiolulata, and C. weberbaueri) (SERFOR, 2020). The dendrochronological potential and wide distribution of Cedrela give this genus an important role to extend tree ring studies in the country. The derived information would also serve as an important input for the management and protection of this species, intensely exploited for the high quality of its wood.

2.3.3. Chronology characteristics

The chronologies reviewed varied in their temporal coverage between 10 and 414 years (Table 1). Among the species with the highest longevity, *Polylepis tarapacana* (414 years), *Apuleia leiocarpa* (255 years), *Hymenaea oblongifolia* (235 years), *Dipteryx odorata* (233 years), *Cedrela odorata* (213 years), and *Juglans neotropica* (205 years) stand out (Table 1). These results corroborate other studies that demonstrate the longevity potential of tropical trees, with maximum ages of 207 years (Brienen et al., 2016), 186 years (Locosselli et al., 2020) and 214 (Groenendijk et al. 2014) being reported.

The highest intercorrelations of the 49 species studied in dendrochronology is in the northern coast portion of Peru (Fig. 2), where the correlations range between 0.34 to 0.85. This region is strongly affected by the El Niño phenomenon (Guzman et al., 2020; Sulca et al., 2018; Takahashi, 2004). which through its positive warm phase (dry, El Niño) and the negative phase (wet, La Niña) produce rainfall anomalies along the northern coast of Peru and southern Ecuador, impacting the groundwater recharges, the natural regeneration and expansion of the seasonally dry tropical forests (Pécastaing, 2020).

As water availability is the limiting factor in these arid and semi-arid ecosystems, ENSO triggers an extraordinary response in plant productivity tree and shrub recruitment, and expansion of woody cover (Holmgren et al., 2006). For example, the growth reaction of *Prosopis pallida* in northern Peru (Piura) was of significant increase to the precipitation that occurred in ENSO years (Holmgren et al. 2006). Fig. 2 show that the correlation with precipitation is higher in the drier sites, while correlation with temperature is lower in the more humid sites. These results give an idea of areas with important potential for dendroclimatic reconstructions in the country.

The level of intercorrelation between species varies, indicating species with highly synchronous growth over time and species in which this synchronism is low or non-existent (Table 1). Among the highest mean values of inter-tree correlation, *Bursera graveolens* (mean r = 0.70), and the genera *Polylepis* (r = 0.58) and *Cedrela* (r = 0.45) species stand out. These last two genera are noteworthy due to the potential longevity of their species (*Polylepis* = 414 years; *Cedrela* = 213 years) (Table 1). In general, the lowest correlations are linked to the climate of the tropical forest (Af), where we highlight the species of the botanical families Lauraceae and Fabaceae with low synchronisms, for example, *Apuleia leiocarpa*, which is one with the longest observed longevity (255 years), but from low to null synchronism (r = 0.04) (Table 1). Although the cambial activity studies indicate that *A. leiocarpa* forms annual rings (Brandes et al., 2015), the low reported synchronism can be induced when considering samples taken in the sector of the buttresses of the stem or the low sample size analyzed in the only reference available for this species (Portal, 2017).

Species	Botanical family	WOSA	SAIN	SraIN	CRIN	CRPE	CRLE (yr)	Int	Rbar/ EPS	CLIM	Dep	Reference
Loxopterygium huasango*	Anacardiaceae	Stump	5	4	3(60%)	1970-2005	36	0.67		BWh	Lambayeque	Rosero (2011)
Loxopterygium huasango*	Anacardiaceae	Stump	4	4	3(75%)	1956-2003	47	0.51		BWh	Lambayeque	Rosero (2011)
Guatteria hyposericea	Annonaceae	Core	17	2	13(76%)	1979-2015	37	0.42		Am	Junín	Zegarra (2018)
Alnus acuminata	Betulaceae	Core	45	2	22(48%)	1968-2013	46	0.26		Cwb	Junín	Requena (2015)
Handroanthus serratifolius	Bignoniaceae	Stump	7	4	7(100%)	1880-2006	126	0.36		Af	Madre de Dios	Jenkins (2009)
Jacaranda copaia	Bignoniaceae	Core	10	4	10(100%)	1984-2018	34	0.36		Af	Madre de Dios	Portal et al. (2020)
Jacaranda copaia	Bignoniaceae	Core	17	2	13(76%)	1991-2015	25	0.52		Cwb	Junín	Zegarra (2018)
Bursera graveolens*	Burseraceae	Core	11			1967-2001	34	0.85		BWh	Piura	Rodríguez et al. (2005)
Bursera graveolens*	Burseraceae	Core	19			1953-2001	48	0.72		BWh	Piura	Rodríguez et al. (2005)
Bursera graveolens*	Burseraceae	Core	43			1964-2001	37	0.74		BWh	Piura	Rodríguez et al. (2005)
Bursera graveolens*	Burseraceae	Stump	5	4	4(80%)	1952-2005	54	0.59		BWh	Lambayeque	Rosero (2011)
Bursera graveolens*	Burseraceae	Stump	4	4	3(75%)	1947-2005	59	0.61		BWh	Lambayeque	Rosero (2011)
Cordia alliodora	Cordiaceae	Core	7			2003-2015	13	0.59		Af	Madre de Dios	Mamani (2018)
Cordia alliodora	Cordiaceae	Core	7	4	7(100%)	2003-2015	13	0.59		Af	Madre de Dios	Portal et al. (2021)
Cordia iguaguana	Cordiaceae	Stump	15	3	13(86%)	1987-2015	28	0.60		Aw	Cajamarca	Marcelo et al. (2019)
Escallonia myrtilloides*	Escalloniaceae	Stump	19		11(58%)	1940-2015	76	0.45	0.54/0.93	Cwb	Junín	Requena et al. (2021)
Escallonia myrtilloides*	Escalloniaceae	Stump	12		9(75%)	1961-2015	56	0.44	0.36/0.87	Cwb	Junín	Requena et al. (2021)
Amburana cearensis	Fabaceae	Stump	10	2	10(100%)	1866-2013	147	0.36		Af	Madre de Dios	Portal (2017)
Anadenanthera colubrina	Fabaceae	Stump	12	3	9(75%)	1950-2009	59	0.41		Aw	Cajamarca	Marcelo et al. (2019)
Apuleia leiocarpa	Fabaceae	Stump	7	2	7(100%)	1759-2013	255	0.04		Af	Madre de Dios	Portal (2017)
Cedrelinga cateniformis*	Fabaceae	Core	15	2/3	8(53%)	1924-2007	83	0.56		Af	Loreto	Campos (2009)
Cedrelinga cateniformis*	Fabaceae	Core	20	2/3	14(70%)	1975-2007	33	0.69		Af	Loreto	Campos (2009)

Table 1. Basic information of the dedrochronological studies carried out in Peru. Means of acronyms: species name and family, WOSA = Wood sample type (core, stump) SAIN =Sampled individuals; SrIN = Sampled radii per individual; CRIN = Crossdated individuals; CRPE = Crossdated period; CRLE = Crossdated length; Int = Intercorrelation; CLIM =Climate type (Koppen); Dep = Department. Gray rows are the indexed scientific articles (Scopus, Web of Science).

Tabl	le 1	(continued)	
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Species	Botanical family	WOSA	SAIN	SraIN	CRIN	CRPE	CRLE (yr)	Int	Rbar/ EPS	CLIM	Dep	Reference
Cedrelinga cateniformis	Fabaceae	Stump	30	2	20(66%)	1943-2017	75	0.34		Af	Madre de Dios	Zavala and Rodríguez (2018)
Dipteryx odorata	Fabaceae	Stump	8	2	8(100%)	1781-2013	233	0.03		Af	Madre de Dios	Portal (2017)
Hymenaea courbaril	Fabaceae	Stump	6	4	6(100%)	1876-2006	130	0.50		Af	Madre de Dios	Jenkins (2009)
Hymenaea courbaril	Fabaceae	Stump	16	3/4	14(87%)	1845-2008	163	0.34		Af	Madre de Dios	Huaman (2011)
Hymenaea oblongifolia	Fabaceae	Stump	8	2	8(100%)	1778-2013	235	0.32		Af	Madre de Dios	Portal (2017)
Myroxylon balsamum	Fabaceae	Stump	10	4	10(100%)	1914-2006	92	0.35		Af	Madre de Dios	Jenkins (2009)
Myroxylon balsamum	Fabaceae	Stump	10	2	10(100%)	1888-2013	126	-0.06		Af	Madre de Dios	Portal (2017)
Prosopis pallida	Fabaceae	Stump	54		33(66%)	1965-2001	37	0.41	/0.92	BWh	Piura	López et al. (2006)
Prosopis pallida*	Fabaceae	Stump	10			1908-2002	94	0.48	/0.85	Cwb	Áncash	López et al. (2006)
Prosopis pallida*	Fabaceae	Stump	5			1977-2001	24	0.30	/0.68	BWh	Ica	López et al. (2006)
Prosopis pallida*	Fabaceae	Stump	95			1965-2001	36	0.42	/0.92	BWh	Piura	López et al. (2006)
Prosopis pallida	Fabaceae	Stump				1908-2003	95	0.53		Cwb	Áncash	Rodríguez et al. (2005)
Prosopis pallida*	Fabaceae	Stump	10			1963-2014	51	0.34	/0.84	BWh	Piura	Salazar et al. (2018)
Prosopis pallida*	Fabaceae	Stump	11			1964-2014	50	0.49	/0.86	BWh	Piura	Salazar et al. (2018)
Prosopis pallida*	Fabaceae	Stump	10			1970-2014	44	0.44	/0.81	BWh	Piura	Salazar et al. (2018)
Prosopis sp.*	Fabaceae	Stump	10	2	10(100%)	1963-2014	51	0.34		BWh	Piura	Ancajima (2017)
Prosopis sp.*	Fabaceae	Stump	14	2	11(78%)	1964-2014	50	0.49		BWh	Piura	Ancajima (2017)
Prosopis sp.*	Fabaceae	Stump	10	2	10(100%)	1970-2014	44	0.44		BWh	Piura	Ancajima (2017)
Prosopis sp.	Fabaceae	S/c				1991-2001	10			BWh	Piura	Evans and Schrag (2004)
Prosopis sp.	Fabaceae	Stump	12			1908-2002	95	0.68		Cwb	Áncash	Ghezzi and Rodríguez (2015)
Prosopis sp.	Fabaceae	Core	130			375 y 120 CalBC	63	0.53		Cwb	Áncash	Ghezzi and Rodríguez (2015)
Prosopis sp.	Fabaceae	S/c		26 y 11			121	0.54		BWh	Áncash	Ortiz (2019)
Tachigali vasquezii	Fabaceae	Core	9	4	9(100%)	1977-2015	38	0.28		Af	Madre de Dios	Portal (2019)
Juglans neotropica	Juglandaceae	Core	18	2/4		1805-2009	205	0.47		Cwb	Junín	Inga and del Valle (2017)
Juglans neotropica*	Juglandaceae	Core	20		15(75%)	1972-2018	47	0.34		Cfb	Amazonas	(Egües, 2021)
Juglans neotropica*	Juglandaceae	Core	19		15(79%)	1980-2018	39	0.48		Cfb	Amazonas	(Egües, 2021)
Tectona grandis	Lamiaceae	Core	31	4	18(58%)	1985-2009	25	0.51		Cwb	Junín	Zuñiga (2012)
Beilschmiedia tovarensis	Lauraceae	Core	2	4	2(100%)	1948-2015	68	0.17		Af	Madre de Dios	Macedo (2018)
Nectandra reticulata	Lauraceae	Stump	10	2/3	8(80%)	1909-2011	102	0.70		BSh	Huánuco	Navarro and Zevallos (2015)

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Table 1	(continued)
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Species	Botanical family	WOSA	SAIN	SraIN	CRIN	CRPE	CRLE (yr)	Int	Rbar/ EPS	CLIM	Dep	Reference
Ocotea bofo	Lauraceae	Core	2	4	2(100%)	1915-2015	101	0.14		Af	Madre de Dios	Macedo (2018)
Ocotea ovalifolia	Lauraceae	Core	2	4	2(100%)	1943-2015	73	-0.11		Af	Madre de Dios	Macedo (2018)
Ceiba pentandra	Malvaceae	Stump	5	4	5(100%)	1927-2006	79	0.46		Af	Madre de Dios	Jenkins (2009)
Guazuma crinita	Malvaceae	Core	20	4	20(100)	1990-2016	27	0.24		Af	Madre de Dios	Dávila (2020)
Cedrela angustifolia	Meliaceae	Core	6		2(40%)	1924-2016	93	0.56		Cwb	Junín	(Acevedo, 2018)
Cedrela fissilis	Meliaceae	Core	20			1986-2017	32	0.50		Af	Madre de Dios	Huamán (2019)
Cedrela fissilis	Meliaceae	Core	20	4	17(85%)	1986-2017	32	0.50		Af	Madre de Dios	Portal et al. (2021)
Cedrela kuelapensis	Meliaceae	Core	12	2	8(66%)	1974-2015	41	0.47		Aw	Cajamarca	Marcelo et al. (2019)
Cedrela montana	Meliaceae	Core	20			1920-2010	90	0.33		Af	Ucayali	Castañeda et al. (2013)
Cedrela nebulosa	Meliaceae	Core	13			1883-2015	133	0.47	0.43/0.91	Cwb	Junín	Layme et al. (2018)
Cedrela nebulosa	Meliaceae	Core	13		11(81%)	1960-2016	57	0.49		Cwb	Junín	(Acevedo, 2018)
Cedrela odorata	Meliaceae	Core	9	2/4		1890-2012	123	0.41		Cwb	Junín	Inga and del Valle (2017)
Cedrela odorata	Meliaceae	Stump	5	4	5(100%)	1942-2006	64	0.47		Af	Madre de Dios	Jenkins (2009)
Cedrela odorata	Meliaceae	S/c	46	2/4	27(58%)	1803-2009	213	0.45		Cwb	Junín	Pereyra (2011)
Cedrela odorata	Meliaceae	Stump	15	4/5	11(73%)	1825-2006	181	0.49		Af	Madre de Dios	Schipper (2011)
<i>Cedrela</i> sp.	Meliaceae	Core	21		12(57%)	1900-2016	117	0.41		Cwb	Junín	(Acevedo, 2018)
Swietenia macrophylla*	Meliaceae	Core	7	2	5(71%)	1926-2005	80	0.46		Af	Madre de Dios	Rosero (2009)
Swietenia macrophylla*	Meliaceae	Core	13	2	8(61%)	1884-2005	122	0.41		Af	Madre de Dios	Rosero (2009)
Pinus muricata	Pinaceae	Core	35	3/4	34(97%)	1991-2011	10	0.51		Aw	Cajamarca	Domínguez (2014)
Pinus patula	Pinaceae	Core	35	3/4	34(97%)	1991-2011	10	0.51		Aw	Cajamarca	Domínguez (2014)
Pinus patula	Pinaceae	Core	35	3/4	34(97%)	1991-2011	10	0.51		Aw	Cajamarca	Ortega (2014)
Pinus radiata	Pinaceae	Stump	7	3	7(100%)	1977-2004	27	0.68		Aw	Cajamarca	Melo (2010)
Podocarpus glomeratus	Podoarpaceae		80	1/2		1925-2013	88			Cwb	Apurimac	Villacorta et al. (2016)
Polylepis flavipila	Rosaceae	Stump	35			1951-2016	65			ΕT	Lima	Camel et al. (2019)
Polylepis pepei	Rosaceae	Stump	17	3/4		1870-2006	137	0.65	/0.89	BSk	Cusco	Jomelli et al. (2012)
Polylepis rodolfo-vasquezii	Rosaceae	S/c	50		39(78%)	1859-2015	157	0.51	0.32/0.95	Cwb	Junín	Requena et al. (2020)
Polylepis rodolfo-vasquezii*	Rosaceae	S/c	50	2	40(80%)	1881-2016	135	0.58	0.31/0.82	Cwb	Junín	(Vidal, 2020)
Polylepis rodolfo-vasquezii*	Rosaceae	S/c	169	2	121(72%)	1921-2016	95	0.52	0.29/0.89	Cwb	Junín	(Vidal, 2020)

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Polylepis rugulosa	Rosaceae	Stump	23	3/4		1940-2005	66	0.51	/0.90	BWk	Arequipa	Jomelli et al. (2012)
Polylepis subsericans	Rosaceae	Stump	15	3/4		1892-2006	115	0.64	/0.90	Cwb	Cusco	Jomelli et al. (2012)
Polylepis tarapacana	Rosaceae	Stump	43		30(70%)	1602-2015	414		0.36/0.92	BWk	Tacna	Crispín et al. (2022)
Esenbeckia cornuta	Rutaceae	Stump	15	3	14(93%)	1993-2014	21	0.56		Aw	Cajamarca	Marcelo et al. (2019)
Zanthoxylum rhoifolium	Rutaceae	Core	10	4	10(100%)	1985-2017	32	0.42		Af	Madre de Dios	Colina (2019)
Pourouma minor	Urticaceae	Core	17	2	12(70%)	1988-2015	28	0.37		Cwb	Junín	Zegarra (2018)

(*) Species were studied by the same author at different sites.

2.3.4. Spatial distriution of the chronologies

In general, the chronologies are widely distributed throughout the country in different geographical coverages (Fig 2). However, it is possible to identify regions with a higher concentration of studies and also unexplored spots (Fig. 2). It should be noted that a gap is observed in the regions where there is a greater water deficit. Precisely these regions subject to hydrological stress, with consecutive months of precipitation below 60 mm, are important for dendroclimatic studies of seasonally dry forests (Worbes, 1999). In several areas there is still no development of dendrochronologies: Tumbes, San Martín, Huancavelica, Ayacucho and Puno. Therefore, studies should be increased in these departments to expand the frontiers of dendrochronological knowledge in Peru.



Figure 2. Map of Peru showing the intercorrelation value between tree-ring time series (circles) and rainfall seasonality (background gradation color calculated WorldClim data; Fick and Hijmans, 2017). The dotted line rectangle shows the area of influence of the El Niño 1 + 2 phenomenon on the north coast of Peru. Right, graphs of the intercorrelation of the studies of the growth rings vs precipitation (above) and vs temperature (below).

2.3.5. Spatial distribution of the chronologies

The climatic type that includes the highest percentage (34.1%) of dendrochronological studies correspond to the tropical rainforest (type Af; Fig. 3). The total area covered by these forests in Peru amounts to 69 million ha (ca. 60% of the country), distributed in coastal, highland, and tropical rainforest regions. These forests cover the largest extension of the forested area of the country (94%), which implies that, from a geographical coverage perspective, these forests area underrepresented in dendrochronological studies. Part of these tropical forests are subjected to commercial exploitation of native timber species, so there is a great availability of wood disc samples that facilitate obtaining chronologies with better data quality.

The subtropical highland climate (type Cwb) is the second type of climate with the largest number of studies (25.8%), followed by warm desert climate (type BWh) with 21.2% and tropical savanna climate (type Aw) with 9.3% (Fig. 3). Subtropical highland climate and warm desert climate types are found along the country's coast. These are regions under strong influence of the El Niño Southern Oscillation phenomenon (ENSO) (Rodríguez et al. 2005). Trees growing under such climate types generally show high dendrochronological potential (Aragão et al. 2019), allowing reconstructions of ENSO events. Considering the studies carried out to date and the diversity of climatic types in Peru, there is a need to increase efforts in the expansion of chronologies towards climatic areas that are dendrochronologically underrepresented.



Figure 3. Distribution of dendrochronological studies carried out in Peru in relation to the Köppen climate-type classification (REF).

The distribution of dendrochronological studies in Peru covers almost all climatic types, although with differences in representation. In terms of mean annual precipitation (MAP, mm yr-1) there is an acceptable number of studies above 1000 mm yr-1, that is, the wettest portion of the Peruvian climate (the density curve of the network -grey line- above the density curve that represents the climatic envelope of Peru, orange line; Fig. 4), however, below this level of precipitation, studies are scarcer (Fig. 4). In relation to the mean annual temperature (MAT, °C), the largest number of tree ring studies has been carried out in the warmest part of the Peruvian climate (areas with MAT above 20°C). The analysis shows that tree ring studies have focused preferentially on warmer, wetter climates (climate type Aw discussed above), suggesting that future studies should be expanded to cooler/drier areas.



Figure 4. Tree ring studies (grey area) considered in this review related to precipitation (MAP) and temperature (MAT) for Peru (orange area). The upper panel shows MAP density plots and the right one corresponding to MAT; the central panel shows a 2D density plot of the combined envelopes. Black dots represent individual chronologies (i.e., site × species combinations) and orange-color intensity the density distribution of the total envelope.

2.3.6. Approaches and applications of tree-ring studies

The approaches of the studies varied, with chronologies mainly applied on the potential of species for climate-growth and climate reconstructions, and also on the use of tree rings for forest management and conservation. In several studies validation of the results was also performed with complementary analysis using stable isotopes (e.g., Inga and del Valle, 2017) and radiocarbon dating (e.g., Barçante Ladvocat Cintra et al., 2019). Two studies stand out on the potential of growth-ring analyses of several tree species. The first one was carried out in the Amazon forest in Central Peru (Satipo and Chanchamayo provinces), evaluating the potential of 80 forest species from 28 botanical families they found that 30% of the studied species presented dendrochronological potential (Beltran, 2011). The second is a study carried out in four departments of Peru (Cajamarca, Junín, and Ucayali), evaluating the potential of 183 forest species from 45 botanical families they found that 23% of the studied species presented easily distinguishable ring boundaries and 33% showed moderately distinguishable boundaries (Marcelo et al., 2020). These studies are significant contributions to the study of growth rings in the country, forming the basis for other dendrochronological studies in Peru. Many of the chronologies built had the intent to detect effects of ENSO on tree growth variability. ENSO events are ocean-atmospheric phenomenon that occur in the tropical Pacific region and have strong effects on the climate of the northern and central coastal regions of Peru. Two coastal departments, Tumbes and La Libertad did not register ENSO related research in scientific journals, highlighting unexplored potential areas of research. and Both regions present dry forests, that will have trees that probably are very responsive to climate. Tumbes province is also home to the largest extension of mangroves in the country, these

are crucial coastal forests and several studies have already shown the potential of tree-ring studies in mangroves (Maxwell et al., 2018; Menezes et al., 2013).

2.3.6.1. Forest management and the applications of dendrochronology

Growth rates of trees vary strongly between species, affecting the age that trees attain minimum cutting diameters set by forest legislation (Schöngart et al., 2017). Also, growth rates of trees of the same species can vary strongly between sites, but this variability is often ignored in the timber management of tropical forests (Ligot et al., 2019). Tree-ring analyses can be used to obtain accurate tree growth data and can thus be applied as a practical tool to correctly managing production forests (e.g., Groenendijk et al., 2017). So far, few studies in Peru have applied tree rings for this purpose despite the use of several commercially important species in many of the reviewed studies (e.g., *Apuleia, Cedrela, Cedrelinga, Handroanthus, Hymenaea, Swietenia*, etc.). The installation and monitoring of permanent sampling plots "PPM" is mandatory in the Peruvian forest and wildlife legislation (Ley Forestal y de Fauna Silvestre N° 29763, 2015), but forest management can profit largely from the inclusion of dendrochronological methodologies, as the growth data is obtained quickly and covers the lifespan of trees. For species that show visible growth rings, tree-ring derived growth data can thus complement plot derived data (such as recruitment and mortality). Economic stimuli, such as discounts on exploitation fees, could be granted to forest concessions holders that provide woody material to universities or research institutions for dendrochronological studies.

2.3.6.2. ¹⁴Carbon and stable isotopes

Constructed chronologies can be validated using the decay of the radioactive carbon ¹⁴C. In the tropics, the peak in atmospheric ¹⁴C caused by above ground nuclear tests (the bomb-peak curve, Worbes and Junk, 1989) is often used to check the correct dating of the tree rings (e.g. Groenendijk et al., 2014). Few studies on Peruvian species have applied this method, such as, for example, *Cedrela odorata* and *Juglans neotropica* in the Junín and Ucayali departments (Inga and del Valle, 2017) and *C. odorata* in the Madre de Dios department (Ballantyne et al., 2011). In both studies, the annuity of the growth rings of these species was demonstrated by ¹⁴C. Studies combining ring-width chronologies with stable isotope analyses (e.g. of the ¹³C carbon isotope, or ¹⁸O oxygen isotope) are scarce in Peru. These studies can be used to enhance climatic reconstructions (Brienen et al., 2012) or allow them in the absence of growth synchrony in ring widths (van der Sleen et al., 2015b), to assess effects of atmospheric and climatic changes on tree growth (van der Sleen et al., 2015a), or to better understand the growth and physiology of tropical trees (Brienen et al., 2022). In Peru, these analyses were performed focused on climatic signals, and only species for two species: *Prosopis* sp., (δ^{18} O) in the north of the country (Piura) (Evans and Schrag, 2004) and *Cedrela odorata* (δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C) in the northern (Loreto) and southern (Madre de Dios) parts of the Peruvian Amazon (Cintra et al., 2019). Due to the multiplicity of applications that isotope studies allow, these studies should be more widely applied along the Peruvian climate and vegetation types.

2.4. Conclusions

As a tree species mega-diverse country and along its environmental gradients, Peru is positioned to become an important center for the development of dendrochronological studies, allowing the exploration of important questions related to the ecology and evolution of tropical forests (Marcelo-Peña et al., 2020). Due to its position near the tropical Pacific Ocean, the Peruvian forests are also strategic for understanding and reconstruction the of the El Niño Southern Oscillation temporal dynamics through tree-ring research.

The number of dendrochronological studies in Peru has been increasing rapidly in the last years, especially considering the short history of these studies in the country: the first explorative studies occurred a little over 30 years ago and the first validated chronology was published only 17 years ago. Currently, chronologies have been developed for 49 tree species from 18 botanical families, which are related to a variety of phytophysiognomic and climatic types. In this sense, the teaching of the discipline in research institutes and universities has been the key to sowing new research groups to further consolidate dendrochronological studies in the country. However, there are still challenges to strengthen dendrochronological research in Peru, including the financing of research programs, the implementation of other methodologies (e.g. stable-isotopes), and the possibilities of exchange programs.

Broadly, knowledge about tree growth and climate sensitivity of tropical trees is urgently needed to improve forest management practices, the design of conservation policies, and derivation of paleoclimatic information. The high degree of endemism in the country's flora, amplitude of biomes and climatic conditions of Peru constitutes a challenge for the implementation of these topics, where dendrochronology is positioned as a relevant contributor.

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3. POTENTIAL FOR TREE-RING ANALYSIS OF 34 TREE SPECIES FROM THE PERUVIAN AMAZON

Abstract

The Amazon is the largest tropical forest in the world with mega biodiversity that requires basic ecological information of the native species that compose it to apply to sustainable forest management. However, this kind of information is scarce and only a few decades old, for this dendrochronology in the tropics is an important tool that can help us quickly, cheaply, and cover the entire life of the species. Here we evaluate the dendrochronological potential of 34 species from the Peruvian Amazon. We evaluated growth ring markers through wood anatomy and X-ray densitometry. We also determined the growth rates and trajectories of a subset of 6 species. Species with highly differentiated and moderately differentiated growth rings are 28 species. Only 6 species had difficulties in delineating growth rings by X-ray densitometry. The species subset showed strong ontogenetic patterns in growth rates and growth trajectories throughout the lifetime of all six species. These results highlight the importance of conducting studies of the dendrochronological potential in native tropical species. This knowledge is key to carrying out more complex studies in dendrochronology and that can help the forest management of tropical forests.

Keywords: X-ray densitometry, Tree-ring analysis, Tropical wet forest, Madre de Dios, Diameter growth rates, Growth trajectory

3.1. Introduction

The Amazon is the largest tropical forest in the world, being a bastion of global biodiversity (Edwards et al., 2019), with 14,003 South American tree species registered (Cardoso et al., 2017). In addition, tropical forests accumulate 40 to 60% of the carbon contained in the world's terrestrial vegetation (Qin et al., 2017). Amazon deforestation and land clearing is a huge problem that got exacerbated by the COVID pandemics spurring illegal logging and threatening forest ecosystems. (Brancalion et al., 2020; Golar et al., 2020). This pressure for tropical forests and the demand for wood makes it vital to take action to carry out sustainable forest management since the remaining tropical forests are increasingly valuable for global biodiversity and the ecosystem services associated with it (Edwards et al., 2019).

The study of growth rings in tree species of tropical forests helps us understand the past, current situation and future projections of tropical forests (Rozendaal and Zuidema, 2011; Worbes and Fichtler, 2010), in times of change climate change, this knowledge is essential to manage these global carbon sinks (Zuidema et al., 2022). In the last two decades, various investigations have been carried out on tropical dendrochronology, covering basic aspects to much more complex and global aspects where the growth rings in tropical forests are allowing us to build long-term chronologies and we are knowing the oscillations of the ages of tropical trees (Crispín et al., 2022; Locosselli et al., 2020). This knowledge of the longevity of tropical species helps us to perform climate reconstructions (Boninsegna et al., 2009; Ljungqvist et al., 2020; van der Sleen et al., 2015), in addition, tree ring analysis can be used as a tool to obtain precise and long-term growth without the need for chronologies to apply this analysis in forests (Groenendijk et al., 2014; Schöngart, 2010; Vlam et al., 2017). Several studies have applied tree-ring data to measure the growth rates and growth trajectory of native tropical tree species to aid in forest management practices (Barbosa

et al., 2018; Brienen et al., 2006; Groenendijk et al., 2014). With these data, the ideal length of the extraction cycle can be calculated by species (e.g., Schöngart, 2008), or future wood yields can be projected to simulate wood productivity under different management scenarios (e.g., Brienen et al., 2016; Groenendijk et al., 2014; Rozendaal and Zuidema, 2011). In addition, carbon and oxygen isotopes have been used more frequently as proxies that allow the reconstruction of paleoclimatic variables and are helping our knowledge about the responses of tropical trees to climate change (Baker et al., 2015; Cintra et al., 2019; van der Sleen et al., 2015). There are also validations of the chronologies using carbon 14 (e.g., Groenendijk et al., 2014; Inga and del Valle, 2017; Santos et al., 2021), finally, there is the analysis of the growth rings oriented to the chemical analysis that It has a high annual resolution that allows the analysis of nutrients, contaminants present, etc. being a proxie more derived from the growth rings (Aguilera-Betti et al., 2020; Hietz et al., 2015; Poussart et al., 2006).

Based on everything that can be addressed with the study of the growth rings of tropical trees, it is necessary to carry out more studies of the tropical tree species that mark growth rings and/or those that do not, since this information will help researchers and save them time and money (Groenendijk et al., 2014). Where different methodologies can be applied, from classic and basic studies on the anatomy of wood oriented to growth rings (e.g., Beltrán and Valencia, 2013; Marcelo-Peña et al., 2020), cambial marking (e.g., Lisi et al., 2008; Mariaux, 1967), X-ray densitometry (e.g., Tomazello et al., 2008), autofluorescence (e.g., Godoy et al., 2019), blu intensity (e.g., Buckley et al., 2018), among other methodologies whose purpose is to help in the analysis and thereby verify the annuality of the growth rings in tropical forests.

Of the methods mentioned above, X-ray densitometry allows obtaining the variation profile of wood density in the radial direction (pith-bark) (Portal et al., 2019; Tomazello et al., 2008), having a high resolution (readings obtained in distances in microns) of the apparent density in the growth rings on an annual or intera-annual basis and until having the apparent density of the initial wood and late wood within a growth ring (De Mil et al., 2018; Gaitan et al., 2019; Pagotto et al., 2017). That is why X-ray densitometry can help in the identification of growth ring boundaries and false rings in tropical tree species and has been used in several climatology and dendrochronology studies (Jacquin et al., 2017; Tomazello et al., 2008).

To apply tree-ring analyses on new tropical locations, a first essential step is finding species with visible growth rings and then assessing their potential for tree-ring studies (e.g., Groenendijk et al., 2014). A macroscopic description of the ring-boundary types is essential (e.g., Fichtler and Worbes, 2012) and anatomical thin sections can be used to improve these descriptions (e.g., Aragão et al., 2019). Inter- and intra-annual variations in wood density along radial cross-sections, obtained by X-ray densitometry (Pagotto et al., 2017; Portal et al., 2019), can be combined with the macroscopic and anatomical descriptions to improve ring-boundary definition in tropical species (Gaitan et al., 2019; Pagotto et al., 2017; Quintilhan et al., 2021).

Here we present an evaluation of the tree-ring analysis potential of 34 species from the Madre de Dios region in the Peruvian Amazon. We describe the growth ring boundaries of the 34 species macroscopically and with the aid of X-ray densitometry. On a subset of 6 species we measured rings of 10-27 individuals to determine growth rates and growth trajectories. We address the following questions: (a) what are the anatomical characteristics of the growth-ring boundaries of the 34 studied species? (b) For how many species can X-ray densitometry aid in the ring identification? and (c) What are the growth rates and growth trajectories of the subset of species?

We address these questions using 34 tree species of the Peruvian Amazon from different botanical families. We describe the macroscopic anatomy of the growth-ring boundaries together with the density variations

associated with them. Finally, we describe the growth rates and growth trajectories for 6 commercially exploited tree species.

3.2. Materials and Methodology

3.2.1. Study area

The wood samples come from two Amazon forest sites in the Madre de Dios region in south-eastern Peru: the "CORPFOREST" and "Rodal Semillero Tahuamanu" concessions granted by the Peruvian state, located in the province of Tahuamanu in the Madre de Dios region (Figure 1). The region is characterized by humid tropical forests. These samples were obtained from the Xiloteca of the National Amazonian University of Madre de Dios -UNAMAD, said region (9 ° 57 'and 13 ° 20', south latitude, 68 ° 39 'and 72 ° 31') presents a great diversity of flora, fauna, ecosystems, etc., denominated as the capital of Peru's biodiversity by Law No. 26311 from 1994 to the present (Foster et al., 1994) and important for global conservation considered as a biodiversity hotspot (Myers et al., 2000). According to the Köppen classification, it has three types of climate: Tropical humid (Af), Tropical dry forest (Aw) and Tropical monsoon (Am)(Köppen, 1948); the weather is seasonal where the average annual precipitation is 2500 mm and with a dry season of 3 months between june - august with precipitation less than 100 mm and an average annual temperature of 25°C (Araujo et al., 2011), with 84.2% annual average relative humidity (Sánchez-Cuervo et al., 2020).



Figure 1. Location of the study areas in the Madre de Dios region (grey area on the map) in Peru Site 1 (light blue star) is the CORPFOREST S.R.L. forest concession and Site 2 (green star) is the "Rodal Semillero Tahuamanu" conservation concession. The climate diagram (cf. Walter and Lieth, 1960) is also shown: the red line shows the average temperature, the yellow area represents the dry months (temperature > precipitation line), the blue area represents the humid months, and the dark blue area represents super-humid months (>100mm precipitation). The lower two rows show macroscopic images of the tangential wood surface to indicate the ring boundaries of the 6 studied species (triangles indicate growth ring limits).

3.2.2. Selected species

We performed a screening of a larger set of 34 native forest species (one tree per species) from 19 botanical families (Table 1). We worked with wood blocks of 5x5x5 cm to describe the tree-ring structures and perform subsequent analyses. Each sample has a corresponding botanical identification deposited in the Alwyn Gentry herbarium of the same university. On a subset of six species, we collected a larger number of samples and measured tree rings for 10-27 individuals to obtain lifetime growth rates and trajectories for these species. This subset of species was collected in three different forest concessions granted by the Peruvian state, located in the Madre de Dios region. Four species were collected in 2020 in the forest management unit of the company Corporación Forestal Tres Fronteras S.R.L. "CORPFOREST S.R.L." (11 ° 16'S; 69 ° 39W): *Jacaranda copaia* (Aubl.) D. Don. (Bignoniaceae), *Hura crepitans* L. (Euphorbiaceae), *Myroxylon balsamum* (L.) Harms (Fabaceae) and *Drypetes* sp. (Putranjivaceae). These four species were chosen because they present anatomically visible ring boundaries, have commercial value and were being felled in the study area in 2020 (annual felling plot No. 19).

For these species, we randomly selected 10-11 felled individuals and collected radial cross-sections (disks) from the end of the first log (at approximately 9 m height above the ground) to avoid growth deviations caused by buttress roots (cf. Granato-Souza et al. 2019). Each disk was sectioned in four 5cm-wide planks to facilitate transportation, handling and storage. The other two species, *Swietenia macrophylla* and *Cedrela odorata* (both Meliaceae), were collected in 2015 in the "Rodal Semillero Tahuamanu" conservation concession (11° 12′S; 69° 27′W). These species were selected because they are valuable species with a high commercial value and are included in Appendix II of the Convention on International Trade in Threatened Wild fauna and flora species "CITES". For these species, we randomly selected 18-27 individuals and collected four radial increment cores (5.15mm diameter, and max. 40cm length) at a height of approximately 1.30 m from the soil. For *C. odorata*, we increased the sampling with 7 discs collected in the Madre de Dios region that were already present in the Wood Anatomy and X-ray Densitometry Laboratory of the University of Sao Paulo at the "Luiz de Queiroz" College of Agriculture USP/ESALQ in Piracicaba – Brazil. All samples were transported and processes at the USP/ESALQ laboratory.

3.2.3. Sample processing and growth ring classification

Increment cores were glued to wooden holders and we sanded the tangential crosssections of all samples with increasingly finer sandpaper (grit from 80 to 1200 grains/cm²) to visualize and describe the anatomical ringboundary markers (Granato et al., 2019; Marcelo-Peña et al., 2019). Sanded samples were digitized with an EPSON Expression 11000XL scanner at 1200 dpi resolution, and images were saved in ".tif" format.

With the sanded cross-sectional samples, the cross-sections (supplementary material) were characterized at the macroscopic level according to IAWA (1989) and we classified the distinction and the type of marking of the growth rings of the 34 forest species (Fig. 2) following the classification proposed by Marcelo-Peña et al. (2020) with four growth-ring distinctiveness: A) highly distinct, B) moderately distinct, C) poorly distinct, D) indistinct or absent, and with five growth-ring boundary types: A) change in thickness of the fiber wall, B) change in thickness of the fiber wall and marginal parenchyma, C) marginal parenchyma, D) semi-porous and marginal parenchyma and E) marginal parenchyma and phloem.

3.2.4. Determination of apparent density by X-ray

To obtain X-ray density profiles for each of the 34 species, we extracted a subsample of ca. 2 mm thickness from the 5x5x5 cm blocks with the help of a band saw. These samples (slices) were then stored in a climatic chamber for 24 hours at 20°C and 60% relative air humidity, until the wood reached12% humidity. Faxitron X-Ray equipment, model LX-60, 5.9 kV, was used to obtain the X-ray profiles for each sample. Samples were placed in the irradiation chamber of the Faxitron together with a cellulose acetate calibration wedge. Images of the cross-sections of each species were digitally radiographed at high resolution (approximately 513 dpi), using the Faxitron version DX 1.0 software. Images were captured using an X-ray exposure time of 33 seconds and saved in .jpg format. Subsequently, the xRing package of the statistical software R was used to extract densitometric data from X-ray images (Campelo et al., 2019). We calibrated each image with the cellulose acetate wedge that had eight known different thicknesses and a known density of 1.274 g/cm³ (Quintilhan et al., 2021). We computed the bulk wood density values of each cross-sectional sample using the calibrated images and the known thickness of each sample.

Data on the density profiles were extracted from the xRing to tables and we produced graphs of each profile using Microsoft Excel software. Radial density profiles were subsequently placed as an overlay on the scanned samples (Figure 2). With the superposed graphs we performed a qualitative classification of the potential to use X-ray densitometry to identify the growth-ring limits: A) good potential, B) regular potential, and C) no potential.

3.2.5. Growth patterns and ages to achieve minimum cutting diameters

On our subset of 6 species, we measured the width of the growth rings in scanned ".tif" images using the Cybis CooRecorder software version 7.8 (Larsson, 2014) along four radii per tree. The wood samples did not present holes or rots in the pith, however there were missing rings in some samples due to the mechanical processing of the samples. We computed average annual diameter increments by multiplying the average growth rates of all radii by two. We then calculated cumulative diameters (in cm) per age by adding each subsequent ring for each individual (plus an eventual missing distance to the pith). For each species we describe their lifetime diameter growth patterns, that is, average, minimum and maximum growth rates (cm/year), ontogenetic trends in growth, and differences between individuals in diameter growth rates and ages to reach minimum logging diameters (Figure 2).



Figure 2. The graphic sequence of the analysis performed on the samples of the 34 species studied.

3.3. Results

We briefly describe the growth rings of all species (Table 1) and provide further details in the supplemental material, providing further descriptions of the growth-ring delimitations at the macroscopic level and

the support of X-ray densitometry to identify growth rings (Appendix A). We compare our results with relevant information from the literature and provide our evaluation of the potential of each species for dendrochronology.

3.3.1. Tree-ring structures and distinctness of ring boundaries by X-ray densitometry

Of the 34 forest species, 38% (i.e., n = 13) presented highly distinct growth rings, 44% (n = 15) presented moderately distinct growth rings, 15% presented poorly distinct rings (n = 5) and finally, 3% presented indistinct or absent growth rings (n = 1). Regarding the type of anatomical ring boundary, 56% of the species (n = 19) presented changes in the thickness of the fiber walls, 21% (n = 7) presented fiber-wall thickness changes combined with marginal parenchyma, 12% (n = 4) presented marginal parenchyma, 6% (n = 2) presented semi ring porosity combined with marginal parenchyma, and 3% (n = 1) presented marginal phloem (Table 1).

The six subset species showed highly distinct growth rings, visible by the naked eye and/or with the help of a 10x magnification magnifying glass. Three of these species had thick-walled latewood fibers delimiting growth rings together with differences in vessel diameters (*J. copaia*, *M. balsamum* and *H. crepitans*), two species had growth rings delimited by marginal parenchyma only (*Drypetes* sp., *S. macrophylla*) and one species presented semi-porous growth rings together with marginal parenchyma (*C. odorata*) (Figure 1). We were able to observe false rings in all the studied species, formed by variations in the tonality of the fibrous areas (in *J. copaia*, *M. balsamum* and *H. crepitans*), or as confluent axial parenchyma bands with numerous fine irregular cells, of more subdued color, and often discontinuous (*Drypetes* sp., *S. macrophylla* and *C. odorata*).

Table 1. List of the 34 studied Peruvian Amazon forest species, ordered by their respective families. Provided are: leaf habit; growth-ring distinctness (HD = highly distinct; MD = moderately distinct; PD = poorly distinct; Ioa = indistinct or absent); ring-boundary type (FWT = changes in fiber-wall thickness, FWT-MP = change in fiber-wall thickness combined with marginal parenchyma, MP = marginal parenchyma, SRP-MP = semi-ring porosity combined with marginal parenchyma, MpH = marginal phloem), potential for X-ray densitometry to aid growth-ring boundary identification (GP = good potential, RP = regular potential, NP = no potential); and reference studies on growth rings of the species.

Family	Scientific name	Leaf habit	Uses of woods	Growth ring boundary distinctness	Anatomical boundary descriptor	Densitometry potential	Growth ring study reference	
Annonaceae	Rollinia pittieri Saff.	Semideciduos	Has no known uses	HD	FWT	GP		
	Aspidosperma macrocarpon Mart.	Deciduous	Flooring, enterior	HD	FWT	GP	Marcelo et al. (2020)	
Apocynaceae	Aspidosperma subincanum Mart. Ex A. DC.	Deciduous	Flooring, parquet	HD	FWT	RP	Marcelo et al. (2020)*, Mendivelso et al. (2013)* Lidio; Villalba (2020)*	
Bignoniaceae	Jacaranda copaia (Aubl.) D. Don	Deciduous	Plywood, veneer	HD	FWT	GP	Marcelo et al. (2020), Portal et al. (2020)	
Burgoragoao	Dacryodes peruviana (Loes.) H.J. Lam	Evergreen	Simple carpentry	PD	FWT	RP		
Duisciaceae	Tetragastris altissima (Aubl.) Swart	Evergreen	Florring, heavy packing	MD	FWT-MP	GP		
Combretaceae	Terminalia catappa L.	Deciduous	Plywood, veneer	MD	FWT	GP	Marcelo et al. (2020)*, Fichtler et al. (2010)*	
Euphorbiaceae	Hevea brasiliensis (Willd. Ex A. Juss.) Mull. Arg.	Semideciduos	Plywood, veneer	MD	FWT	GP	Ohashi, et al. (2001)	
	Hura crepitans L. Amburana cearensis (Allemao) A.C. Sm.	Semideciduos	Carpentry, plywood	MD	FWT	GP	Groenendijk et al. (2015), Marcelo et al. (2020)	
		Deciduous	Decorative veneer	HD	FWT-MP	GP	Paredes et al. (2015), Godov et al. (2021)	
Fabacaeae	Andira surinamensis (Bondt) Splitg. Ex Pulle	Evergreen	Flooring, enterior	MD	FWT	NP		
	Apuleia leiocarpa (Vogel) J. F. Macbr.	Deciduous	Flooring, parquet	MD	FWT-MP	GP	Brandes et al. (2015), Marcelo et al. (2020)	
	Dipteryx micrantha Harms	Semideciduos	Flooring, parquet	MD	FWT-MP	RP	Schöngart et al. (2017), Marcelo et al. (2020)	
	Myroxylon balsamum (L.) Harms	Semideciduos	Flooring, parquet	MD	FWT-MP	RP	Lisi et al. (2008), Marcelo et al. (2020)	
	Ormosia paraensis Ducke	Evergreen	Florring, veneer	HD	FWT	NP		
	Schizolobium parahyba (Vell.) S.F. Blake	Deciduous	Paneling, light packing	HD	FWT-MP	GP	Latorraca et al. (2015), Brienen et al. (2015)	
	Tachigali sp.	Semideciduos	Paneling, veneer	HD	FWT	GP	Brienen, Zuidema (2005)*	
Lauraceae	Ocotea bofo Kunth	Evergreen	General carpentry	HD	FWT	RP	Marcelo et al. (2020), Reis, Oliveira (2017)	
	Guazuma ulmifolia Lam.	Deciduous	Paneling, laminates	MD	FWT	GP	Barbosa et al. (2018)	
Malvaceae	Ochroma pyramidale (Cav. ex Lam.) Urb.	Evergreen	Acoustic insulation	MD	FWT	GP		
	Apeiba tibourbou Aubl.	Evergreen	Boards, light packing	PD	MP	RP		
	Ceiba lupuna P.E. Gibbs & Semir	Deciduous	Paneling, light packing	MD	MP	RP	Barbosa et al. (2018)*, Vasconcellos et al. (2019)*	
	Matisia cordata Bonpl.	Evergreen	Paneling, light packing	MD	FWT	GP	Marcelo et al. (2020)	
Meliaceae	Swietenia macrophylla King	Evergreen	Luxury furniture, decorative veneer	HD	MP	GP	Dünisch et al. (2003)	
	Cedrela odorata L.	Deciduous	Luxury furniture, decorative veneer	HD	SRP-PM	GP	Inga, Del Valle (2017)	
	Cedrela fissilis Vell.	Deciduous	decorative veneer	HD	SRP-PM	GP	Pereira et al. (2018)	
Moraceae	Clarisia racemosa Ruiz & Pav.	Semideciduos	Decorative veneer	MD	FWT-MP	RP	Schöngart et al. (2017), Marcelo et al. (2020)	
Myristicaceae	Virola sp.	Evergreen	Paneling, veneer	MD	FWT	GP	Schöngart et al. (2017), Marcelo et al. (2020)	
Putranjivaceae	Drypetes sp.	Evergreen	Flooring, beams	HD	MP	RP	Marcelo et al. (2020)*	
Petiveriaceae	Gallesia integrifolia (Spreng.) Harms	Semideciduos	Boards, shutter boards	MD	Mph	GP	Marcelo et al. (2020)	
Proteaceae	Roupala montana Aubl.	Deciduous	Decorative veneer	IoA		NP		
Rubiaceae	<i>Calycophyllum spruceanum</i> (Benth.) Hook. F. ex K. Schum.	Semideciduos	Flooring, steps	PD	FWT	GP	Marcelo et al. (2020)	
Sapotaceae	Manilkara bidentata (A. DC.) A. Chev.	<i>nilkara bidentata</i> (A. DC.) A. Evergreen F.		PD	FWT	RP	Schöngart et al. (2017), Marcelo et al. (2020)	
Vochysiaceae	Erisma uncinatum Warm.	Evergreen	Beams, decorative veneer	PD	FWT	NP	Marcelo et al. (2020)*	

The gray rows are the species that do not have studies on growth rings.

In Figure 3 we illustrate the types of anatomical ring-boundaries found in this study (and in the Supplementary Material details for all the species) with their corresponding X-ray apparent wood density profiles superposed. Apparent wood density by X-ray densitometry aided the ring-boundary delimitation for most species (Table 1), with wood density in general increasing at the end of each growth year (Fig. 3). When the growth rings are

wide, the density profiles of the wood allow the delimitation of the growth rings, while when the growth rings are narrow the apparent density profiles sometimes do not allow a clear differentiation, despite that such rings are present. Six species presented no apparent density variations associated with the ring boundaries. Two of these species, Andira surinamensis and Ormosia paraensis, presented abundant aliform and confluent parenchyma unrelated to the delimitation of the rings, that confounded the density profiles. Three other species, Apeiba tibourbou, Gallesia integrifolia, and Erisma uncinatum, presented parenchyma in wide bands that resulted in density variations (between the parenchymal tissue and the fibers) also unrelated to the boundaries of the growth rings of these species. Finally, for Roupala montana, the growth-ring boundaries were unclear or absent both macroscopically as well as in the density profiles, possibly influenced by the abundant scalariform parenchyma.



Figure 3. Growth-ring boundaries types of the studied species with a superposed radial X-ray density profile. A: change in fiber wall thickness (e.g., *Aspidosperma macrocarpon*). B: change in fiber wall thickness with marginal parenchyma (e.g., *Amburana cearensis*). C: marginal parenchyma (e.g., *Swietenia macrophylla*). D: semi-porous wood with marginal parenchyma (e.g., *Cedrela fissilis*). E: marginal phloem (e.g., *Gallesia integrifolia*). F: indistinct or absent (e.g., *Roupala montana*).

3.3.1. Growth rates and growth trajectories of the subset of species

Growth rates varied strongly between the subset species: between 0.35 mm per year for *Dypetes* sp. and 0.99 mm per year for *J. copaia*, (Table 2). Maximum ages differed between species: individuals of two species did not reach ages over 100 years (*J. copaia* and *M. balsamum*), four species reached ages over 100 years (*Drypetes* sp., *H. crepitans, C. odorata* and *S. macrophylla*), and one species (*H. crepitans*) reached ages over 250 years. The subset of species showed strong ontogenetic patterns in growth rates and growth trajectories throughout the life of the six species. Regarding the growth patterns, they also varied between species, with *H. crepitans*, it showed a fairly constant growth rate over time (Figure 4), only at the end it showed a greater trend; the species *Drypetes* sp. and *M. balsamum* showed low growth rates in their juvenile phase, which increase as a function of age and decrease again for older trees, the *C. odorata* species showed high growth rates throughout its life, concerning *S. macrophylla* in its juvenile phase showed high growth rates, this being a species that demands light, however, it is observed that it was restricted to it for approximately 30 years, after having a greater growth, also understanding that they were collected in primary forests.

Table 2. Growth characteristics and chronology of four commercial species from a tropical humid forest in Peru. The following are provided: number of trees (and series in parentheses); Minimum cutting diameter (MCD); growth of the average diameter of the population; age range; Span: start and end of the measured rings.

Species	# Tres (series)	MCD (cm)	Age at MCD (year)	Diameter growth (cm/year, ±SD)	Age range (min- max)	Span
Jacaranda copaia	10 (24)	41	44	0.99 ± 0.29	24-67	1952-2018
Myroxylon balsamum	11 (36)	41	66	0.59 ± 0.16	57-92	1927-2018
<i>Drypetes</i> sp.	11 (24)	41	100	0.35 ± 0.12	64-131	1888-2018
Hura crepitans	11 (28)	60	116	0.45 ± 0.16	44-275	1744-2018
Cedrela odorata	27 (47)	65	83	0.64 ± 0.12	37-184	1832-2015
Swietenia macrophylla	18 (58)	75		0.47 ± 0.18	32-134	1882-2015

Growth rates also varied within the six species, which induced variation in the ages of individuals to reach the minimum cutting diameter (MCD). Individuals of the six species reached MCD on average after 44 -116 years (note that MCD varies between species; Table 2). The lowest average age to reach MCD of 55 years was found in *J. copaia*, while it takes, the *H. crepitans* 175 years to reach its MCD (Fig. 5, Table 2). Age to reach MCD also varied between individuals within species: in *J. copaia*, the fastest individual reached the MCD in only 35 years and the slowest-growing individual in 61 years. For *Hura crepitans*, these ages to reach MCD varied between 80 and 248 years. We were unable to compute ages to reach MCD for sampled trees (using increment corers) that had not yet reached the 75cm MCD of the species. By extrapolating the growth curve for the species, we estimate that *S. macrophylla* trees should take over 110 years to reach their MCD in the region.



Figure 4. Diameter growth rates vs. cambial age of the subset species. Light-colored lines represent the individual tree diameter growth values, darker colored lines show average growth rates. The dashed lines show the growth rates of each species in the Peruvian Amazon established by law.



Figure 5. Growth trajectory throughout the life of the subset species. Each lighter-colored line shows the growth trajectory over the life of an individual sample. The dashed horizontal lines indicate the minimum cut diameters (MCD) and the diagonal lines show the growth rates of each species.

3.4. Discussion

We determined the potential of the growth rings for tree-ring analyses of 34 forest species of a tropical humid forest in Peru, describing the clarity and type of growth-ring boundaries and the associated wood density profiles. Growth rings were visible in 28 out of the 34 studied tree species. For a subset of six species, we measured the growth rings of 10-27 trees. Tree ages and growth rates varied significantly between and within species, implying that different species reach the MCD at different ages, with consequences for species-specific management decisions.

3.4.1. Tree-ring boundaries and application of X-ray densitometry

For most of the 34 tree species, there are anatomical descriptions of the wood (Acevedo and Kikata, 1994), the growth rings and the annuality of the formation of the growth rings have been studied for several of them

or for species from the same genera (Aragão et al., 2022; Barbosa et al., 2018; Marcelo-Peña et al., 2020; Schöngart et al., 2017). This is the first time that the potential for analysis of the growth rings of 8 species is described (Table 1).

Of the 34 forest species, 56% presented fiber-wall thickness changes in the latewood. The same type of growth ring boundary was found for 25% and 39% of the species in other studies in humid and dry tropical forests in Peru (Beltrán and Valencia, 2013; Marcelo-Peña et al., 2020). These types of ring growth limits can be induced by the phenological behavior of perennial or semi-deciduous species, when growth rings are present they are often defined by changes in fiber wall thickness (Bauer et al., 2020).

X-ray densitometry aided in the delimitation of the limits of the growth rings in 28 of the 34 species (i.e., in 82%). The types of anatomical markers that show density variations are fiber-wall thickness changes, presence of marginal parenchyma, the combination of the two and the semi-ring-porou swood. Similar patterns were reported and described in other investigations (De Mil et al., 2018; Gaitan et al., 2019; Jacquin et al., 2017; Pagotto et al., 2017; Tomazello et al., 2008). X-ray density can thus be a valuable tool to aid tropical tree-ring studies, but this tool does not aid ring-boundary identification in species that present a lot of parenchymal tissue (e.g., *A. surinamensis*, *O. paraensis*, *A. tibourbou*, *G. integrifolia* and *E. uncinatum*).

3.4.2. Growth-ring data and application in forest management

Forest management in Peru is carried out using a polycyclic forest concession system. Forests belong to the state, but the use of the resources is granted to companies for a contract period of 40 years (Ley Forestal y de Fauna Silvestre N° 29763 y sus reglamentos, 2015). Cutting cycles of 20 years are being applied in the country (Ley N° 29763), allowing companies to carry out two commercial uses in the same cut plot. In polycyclic logging systems, the MCD, the intensity at which a species is exploited (i.e., the percentage of trees above MCD that are exploited) and/or the duration of cutting cycles can be adapted to ensure a specific species is not overexploited (Groenendijk et al. 2017). The MCD applied is pre-established for a group of ~45 species and ranges from 38 to 75 cm, while for all other tree species a general MCD of 41cm is used. To ensure species are not overexploited, future logging harvests are projected to determine ideal MCDs and harvest intensities per species. For these projections, a reference diameter growth value of 0.5 cm/year is used for all species (Ley Forestal y de Fauna Silvestre N° 29763 y sus reglamentos, 2015). We showed that growth of the studied species varies considerably from this standard, both in average value as well as over the lifespan of trees. For three species growth rates were lower than the reference value: for Drypetes sp. 30% lower, for H. crepitans 10% and for S. macrophylla 6%. On the other hand, three species showed higher growth rates than the reference value: M. balsamum 18% higher, C. odorata 28% higher and J. copaia 98%. Using a standard growth rate for all species over the entire lifespan of trees to project the sustainability of future timber harvests ignores the large variations in growth between and within species. These differences between legally established growth rates and actual growth rates can lead to the species being under or overexploited, highlighting the importance of measuring species-specific precise growth rates for each harvested species (Groenendijk et al., 2014).

Comparing the growth of the species of the subset, for the species *J. copaia* the results are higher than those found by Portal et al. (2020) at 0.80 cm/year, the annual growth of the species *S. macrophylla* and *C. odorata* was higher than that found by Dünisch et al. (2003) found 0.35 cm/year and 0.30 cm/year for the specific case of *S. macrophylla* inferior compared with the studies of Shono (2006); Susatya and Yansen (2016) that found 0.69 and 0.67 cm/year respectively, for the species *M. balsamum* coincides with the data found by Lisi et al. (2008) of 0.60 cm/year,

for the other two species (*H. crepitans* and *Drypetes* sp.) no information was found. The differences that can be found with the other studies are based on the years evaluated, the type of forest and the ecological factors that influence the growth of the species typical of each place, in addition to other environmental factors.

Growth rates also varied strongly within species. These differences are commonly found in (tropical forest) tree species and indicate persistent differences in tree growth between individual trees, leading to the agediameter relationships of each species being fan-shaped (Groenendijk et al., 2014). Incorporating these persistent growth differences is crucial to obtaining realistic projections of future timber yields (Groenendijk et al., 2017; Rozendaal et al., 2010). In general, incorporating these persistent growth differences leads to higher projections in future timber yields (Brienen and Zuidema, 2007; Rozendaal et al., 2010). Tree-ring derived data provide realistic growth rates that incorporate these persistent growth differences and should be more widely applied to project future timber yields to aid in the sustainable use of tropical forests (Brienen et al., 2006; Brienen and Zuidema, 2007; Groenendijk et al., 2017; Rozendaal et al., 2017; Rozendaal et al., 2010). Accurate projections of future yields do not only depend on the growth data and other ecological and reproductive aspects of each tree species need to be monitored to achieve long-term forest management of forests (Groenendijk et al., 2014; López and Villalba, 2015; Sebbenn et al., 2008). Yet, tree-ring studies can relatively quickly provide accurate growth rates that are species specific, incorporate ontogenetic patterns in growth as well as persistent differences in growth between individuals and thus have a strong potential to be applied in projections to improve tropical forest management.

In conclusion, we confirm the potential of 34 forest species for tree-ring studies in a tropical moist forest in the eastern Amazon of Peru. Over 80% of the studies species studied formed distinct rings and X-ray densitometry helped defining growth-ring boundaries. Growth data from these species can be used to better understand the ecology and growth behavior of tropical tree species. Dendrochronological analyses can be performed to understand climatic influences on tree growth and considering the longevity of some of the studied species, can be used to reconstruct climate over centennial scales. These type of studies help us to better understand the functioning and ecological processes of tropical forests as well as to identify functional strategies of tropical tree species. Complemented with other ecological information, tree-ring derived growth data can be also be applied to improve forest management practices in these crucial forests. We show the potential of tree-ring studies to contribute to the understanding and conservation of tropical forests in the Amazon forest in the Madre de Dios region in south-eastern Peru considered a biodiversity hotspot

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Appendix. Supplementary material

- 1. Botanical Family
- 2. Name of the species (Botanical family)
- 3. Potential for tree ring analysis from Peru:



4. Growth ring boundary distinctness

• Highly distinct; moderate distinct; poorly distinct; indistinct or absent.

5. Anatomical boundary descriptor

 Change in fiber wall thickness; change in fiber wall thickness combined with marginal parenchyma; marginal parenchyma; semi-ring porosity combined with marginal parenchyma; marginal parenchyma phloem.

6. Description of growth rings and wood (IAWA hardwood codes):

Growth Rings: (1) Growth ring boundaries distinct; (2) Growth ring boundaries indistinct or absent. Vessels – Porosity: (3) Wood ring-porous; (4) Wood semi-ring-porous; (5) Wood diffuse-porous. Vessel arrangement: (6) Vessels in tangential bands; (7) Vessels in diagonal and/ or radial pattern; (8) Vessels in the dendritic pattern. Vessel groupings: (9) Vessels exclusively solitary (90% or more); (10) Vessels in radial multiples of 4 or more common; (11) Vessel clusters common. Tyloses and deposits in vessels: (56) Tyloses common: (58) Gums and other deposits in heartwood vessels. (75) Axial parenchyma is absent or extremely rare. Apotracheal axial parenchyma: (76) Axial parenchyma diffuse; (77) Axial parenchyma diffuse-in-aggregates. Paratracheal axial parenchyma: (78) Axial parenchyma lozenge-aliform; (82) Axial parenchyma wasicentric; (80) Axial parenchyma aliform; (81) Axial parenchyma lozenge-aliform; (82) Axial parenchyma bands more than three cells wide; (86) Axial parenchyma in narrow bands or lines up to three cells wide; (87) Axial parenchyma reticulate; (88) Axial parenchyma scalariform; (89) Axial parenchyma in marginal or in seemingly marginal bands. Storied structure: (118) All rays storied; (119) Low rays storied, high rays non-storied. Cambial variants: (134) Included phloem, diffuse. Silica: (159) Silica bodies present. (192) Wood of commercial importance. Specific gravity: (193) Basic specific gravity low, <= 0.40; (194) Basic specific gravity medium, 0.40-0.75; (195) Basic specific gravity high, >= 0.75. Odor: (203) Distinct odor.

7. Sampling with increment cores

• Low or medium density wood; High or very high-density wood.

8. X-ray densitometry, for the identification of the growth ring boundary

• Good potential; regulate potential; no potential.



Annonaceae

Rollinia pittieri Saff.

Growth ring boundary distinctness

• Highly distinct

Anatomical boundary descriptor

• Change in fiber wall thickness

Description of growth rings and wood (IAWA hardwood codes):

• 1, 5, 7, 9, 88, 119, 193.

Sampling with increment cores

• Low or medium density wood

X-ray densitometry, for the identification of the growth ring boundary

Good potential

















Fabaceae Andira surinamensis (Bondt) Splitg. Ex Pulle Growth ring boundary distinctness • Moderate. Anatomical boundary descriptor Change in fiber wall • Density (Kg/m³) thickness Description of growth rings and wood (IAWA hardwood codes): • 1, 5, 7, 11, 58, 82, 83, 119, 192, 194. Sampling with increment cores High or very high-density • wood. X-ray densitometry, for the identification of the growth ring boundary • No potential. Fabaceae Apuleia leiocarpa (Vogel) J. F. Macbr. Growth ring boundary distinctness • Moderate. Anatomical boundary descriptor Change in fiber wall thickness combined with marginal parenchyma. Description of growth rings and Density (Kg/m³) wood (IAWA hardwood codes): 1, 5, 7, 11, 58, 81, 83, 118, • 159, 192, 195. Sampling with increment cores High or very high-density • wood. X-ray densitometry, for the identification of the growth ring **boundary** • Good potential





Fabaceae

Schizolobium parahyba (Vell.) S.F. Blake.

Growth ring boundary distinctness

• Highly distinct

Anatomical boundary descriptor

• Change in fiber wall thickness combined with marginal parenchyma.

Description of growth rings and wood (IAWA hardwood codes):

• 1, 5, 7, 9, 79, 82, 83, 119, 192, 194.

Sampling with increment cores

• Low or medium-density wood

X-ray densitometry, for the identification of the growth ring boundary

• Good potential.







Malvaceae Ochroma pyramidale (Cav. ex Lam.) Urb.

Growth ring boundary distinctness

• Moderate.

Anatomical boundary descriptor

• Change in fiber wall thickness

Description of growth rings and wood (IAWA hardwood codes):

• 1, 5, 7, 9, 76, 77, 119, 192, 193.

Sampling with increment cores

• Low or medium-density wood

X-ray densitometry, for the identification of the growth ring boundary

• Good potential





Malvaceae

Ceiba lupuna P.E. Gibbs & Semir.

Growth ring boundary distinctness

• Moderate.

Anatomical boundary descriptor

• Marginal parenchyma.

Description of growth rings and wood (IAWA hardwood codes):

• 1, 5, 7, 9, 76, 77, 89, 119, 192, 193.

Sampling with increment cores

• Low or medium-density wood

X-ray densitometry, for the identification of the growth ring boundary

• Regulate potential.




Meliaceae Swietenia macrophylla King Growth ring boundary distinctness 1200 Highly distinct • 1000 Anatomical boundary descriptor Marginal parenchyma 800 Description of growth rings and 600 wood (IAWA hardwood codes): Density (Kg/m³) 1, 5, 7, 10, 58, 79, 89, 118, 192, 400 194. Sampling with increment cores 200 Low or medium-density wood • 0 X-ray densitometry, for the identification of the growth ring boundary Good potential •





Myristicaceae

Virola sp.







Rubiaceae

Calycophyllum spruceanum (Benth.) Hook. F. ex K. Schum.





Vochysiaceae

Erisma uncinatum Warm.

Density (Kg/m³)

Growth ring boundary distinctness

• Poorly distinct.

Anatomical boundary descriptor

• Change in fiber wall thickness

Description of growth rings and wood (IAWA hardwood codes):

• 1, 5, 7, 9, 56, 85, 119, 192, 194.

Sampling with increment cores

• Low or medium-density wood

X-ray densitometry, for the identification of the growth ring boundary

• No potential.



4. LONG TERM RING WIDTH CHRONOLOGIES OF SIX SPECIES AND THEIR ASSOCIATIONS WITH CLIMATE AND ATMOSPHERIC VARIABLES IN SOUTHWESTERN AMAZON

Abstract

Tropical humid forests are refuges for biodiversity and regulators of the local and global climate, however, they are fragile and vulnerable o climate change, anthropogenic actions of deforestation or pests., that's why it is necessary to know their dynamics, the longevity of their species and the relationships and influence of the climate on their growth, which is can be achieved with studies of growth rings. In this work, we evaluate the dendrochronological potential of six species in the tropical humid forest in the southern Amazon of Peru - Jacaranda copaia, Myroxylon balsamum, Drypetes sp., Cedrela odorata, Swietenia macrophylla and Hura crepitans, we verify the influence of the local climate and with the teleconnections of the Pacific and Atlantic oceans in the radial growth of the six species. The limits of the growth rings were characterized, where the anatomical descriptors showed that J. copaia, M. balsamum and H. crepitans were characterized by thick-walled posterior wood fiber and Drypetes sp., C. odorata, S. macrophylla were characterized by the marginal parenchyma, additionally C. odorata rings are semi-porous, six chronologies with good statistics were constructed, facilitated by the distinction and marking of the growth rings with chronologies of a little more than half a century to a little more than two and a half centuries the species H. crepitans with 274 years the most extensive chronology built in Peru to date. Regarding the influence of the local climate, our results show that there is no factor in the dominant radial growth of the species, except for Drypetes sp. and C. odorata that according to linear multiple regression precipitation had a strong influence, on teleconnections El Niño 3 (J. copaia), Southern Oscillation-SOI (M. balsamum), Eastern Asia-EA (S macrophylla) and Tropical South Atlantic-TSA (H. crepitans). Our results reveal the department of Madre de Dios in the Peruvian Amazon as an area with great potential for studies of growth rings and long-lived species, and provide valuable information on the influence of local climate and teleconnections on the radial growth of species. This vegetation suffers the changes in the temperature of the oceans and therefore its future growth will be compromised according to the advance of the climatic change. In this way, protecting and guaranteeing the maintenance of this vegetation is of paramount importance to guarantee carbon storage and storage, essential for the reduction of climate change.

Keywords: Tropical humid forest, Dendrochronology, Dendroclimatology, Long-lived species, Treering, El Niño events

4.1. Introduction

Tropical forests are the refuges of biodiversity, presenting countless direct and indirect ecosystem services, providing benefits to the world's human well-being (Aguirre et al., 2021; Edwards et al., 2019; Lakerveld et al., 2015) and evaporation and condensation on these forests are engines of global atmospheric circulation (Malhi et al., 2008). However, these tropical forests are under pressure, being susceptible to multiple disturbances, both environmental and anthropic, and may lead to a collapse in the future (Qin et al., 2017). For example, large-scale deforestation in recent decades has decreased the ability of these forests to remain a carbon sink in the long term (Exbrayat et al., 2017; Hubau et al., 2020; Pan et al., 2011; Quéré et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2021) and until the COVID-19 pandemic stimulated illegal logging of these forests (Brancalion et al., 2020; Golar et al., 2020).

Tropical forests are also affected by global environmental variables such as the influence of El Niño/La Niña and SST anomalies in the tropical Pacific and Atlantic, Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation-AMO, Tropical Southern Atlantic-TSA, Western Hemisphere Warm Pool–WHWP (J. Marengo et al., 2018). Droughts or floods in the Amazon region are usually explained as a result of the combined effect of the anomalous circulation associated

with changes in the SST of the tropical Pacific and Atlantic oceans (Jimenez et al., 2019; Sulca et al., 2016), these variables global environmental factors influencing the growth of native tropical trees. These large-scale droughts and El Niño events are intensifying both in terms of intensity and frequency, generating direct implications for the vulnerability of tropical forests and long-term carbon stocks (Wigneron et al., 2020). For example, during El Niño-influenced years the growth of tropical trees that have strong positive responses to precipitation was stimulated (Zuidema et al., 2022). On the other hand, tropical forests that dominate the decadal variability of terrestrial carbon uptake are more effective in mitigating climate change (Zhang et al., 2018). However, the tropical forest carbon sink has peaked, is saturated and is in continuous decline (Hubau et al., 2020).

One way to evaluate the influence of local climate and global environmental variables in tropical forests is through the growth rings of trees, these studies on tropical forests have existed for more than 100 years and the annuality of the growth rings of tropical species (Worbes, 2002). Using it to know the growth past, know what the relationships of growth with the environment are and to reconstruct the climate (Mariaux, 1967; Détienne, 1989; Layme, Ferrero, Palacios, et al., 2018; Aragão et al., 2022). However, these studies of tree growth rings are still scarce in tropical forests, given that there are more than 40,000 species of tropical trees in the world and in South America, for example, 6,727 tree species are reported (Cardoso et al., 2017). But studies show us that only 220 to 230 species of tropical trees have been confirmed in all continents and climatic zones with annual formation (Brienen et al., 2016; Schöngart et al., 2017) with a gap in the Knowledge very broad and need for shortening.

Added to this is the fact that tropical forest trees grow on average twice as fast compared to trees in temperate and boreal forests, and live significantly less, with average growth between 186 years (Locosselli et al., 2020) and a maximum of 500-600 years (Brienen et al., 2016; Schöngart et al., 2017). Despite this, little is known about the growth dynamics of these forests and long-term studies capable of understanding the climatic past to predict their future are still scarce (Locosselli et al., 2020). Studying this biodiversity of long-lived species, the types of growth strategies in several different tropical species gives us an idea of the growth of the vegetation to interpret which are strategies to survive the environmental pressures that this type of vegetation suffers is vital to help the conservation of tropical forests (Rozendaal et al., 2020; Zuidema et al., 2020).

Tropical forest species, according to their functional strategies, face environmental variation in different ways, depending on their resilience capacity (Singh and Fetzer, 2022; Staal et al., 2018). The availability of water and high temperatures are environmental factors that can promote these different responses, limiting the increase in the number of groups of species (Malhi et al., 2008). For example, climate change potentially increases mortality, likely due to climate-induced physiological stress and its interactions (Zhou et al., 2013). Dendroclimatology studies allow the identification of the most affected species and the search for conservation solutions that reduce this impact (Mendivelso et al., 2014).

The department of Madre de Dios, located in southeastern Peru on the triple border with Brazil and Bolivia, has a Tropical Humid Forest that is an important ecoregion for global conservation, considered a biodiversity hotspot (Myers et al., 2000; Olson and Dinerstein, 2002). However, in the 1980s the Peruvian government promoted agricultural expansion in the Peruvian Amazon (Alvarez and Naughton-Treves, 2003; Puzzi et al., 2019). Madre de Dios has also experienced changes in land cover due to various anthropic actions such as road paving, deforestation, migratory agriculture, urban expansion and, mainly in the last two decades, gold mining, which has become an important factor in land degradation and heavy metal contamination, which is bringing serious consequences for the conservation of biodiversity in this part of Peru (Markham and Sangermano, 2018; Sánchez-Cuervo et al., 2020). It is because of that that we evaluated the dendrochronological potential of six species in the Amazon of Madre de Dios. We characterize the limits of the growth rings, then we construct the chronology, of the species and determine the climatic response of the radial growth of the species with precipitation and temperature (local) and with the teleconnections of the Pacific and Atlantic oceans (large-scale). The annual growth rings of the six species studied and their longevity should be useful to reconstruct the past climate in southeastern Peru through dendroclimatology.

4.2. Methodology

4.2.1. Study area

We collected samples of trees located in the tropical humid forest in the eastern Amazon of Peru, in the region of Madre de Dios "MDD" that is located in the triple border of the country, bordering Acre (Brazil) and Pando (Bolivia). (Fig. 1). MDD is considered the biodiversity capital of Peru, due to its high levels of biological diversity (Foster et al., 1994), where the species of *Cedrela odorata* L., *Cedrela fissilis* Vell., *Cedrela longipetiolulata* Harms (SERFOR, 2020), *Swietenia macrophylla* King, *Bertholletia excelsa* Bonpl., among other species of economic and ecological interest. However, despite being a department of interest for world conservation (Myers et al., 2000), there are problems such as illegal logging, land use ownership and mainly the deforestation as a result of gold exploration (Puzzi et al., 2019; Román et al., 2015). According to the Köppen classification, it has three types of climate: Tropical humid (Af), Tropical monsoon (Am), and Tropical dry forest (Aw), where the study covered species in (Am and Aw) (Köppen, 1948); the average annual precipitation is around 2400 to 2600 mm and there is a dry season of 3 months between June and August with an average monthly rainfall of less than 100 mm and an average annual temperature of 24 to 25°C (Araujo et al., 2011), with an average annual relative humidity of 84.2% (Sánchez-Cuervo et al., 2020), the soils are of Pleistocene or Holocene origin and are classified as Ultisol (Quesada et al., 2010).



Fig. 1. Location of the study area, in the Madre de Dios region (green area). The study areas are marked with stars of different colors corresponding to the collection sites of the six species studied. In addition, climatic diagrams are provided for the period 1901 - 2019 (Walter and Lieth, 1960), where the gray lines show mean monthly temperatures, the black lines the mean precipitation and the dotted area show with indicating the dry season (precipitation < temperature) and the black area rainy season (>100 mm month⁻¹).

4.2.2. Sample collection and preparation

Discs of six tree species were cut at the top level of the first log (6 m) of felled trees, to minimize the influence of the roots (Granato, Stahle, et al., 2019). The samples were collected for trees of *J. copaia*, *M. balsamum*, *Drypetes* sp., *H. crepitans*, *S. macrophylla* and *C. odorata*, 25, 26, 24, 11, 29 and 19 discs respectively (For more details see Appendix Table A1). Additionally to this collection, 18 *S. macrophylla* trees and 29 *C. odorata* trees with four radii per tree were collected by 5.15 mm increment bores (Haglof type). *Jacaranda copaia* (Aubl.) D. Don. (Bignoniaceae), *Myroxylon balsamum* (L.) Harms (Fabaceae), *Drypetes* sp. (Putranjivaceae) and *Hura crepitans* L. (Euphorbiaceae) were collected in the Forest Management Unit "UMF" of the company Corporación Forestal Tres Fronteras S.R.L. *Swietenia macrophylla* King. and *Cedrela odorata* L. both from the Meliaceae family were collected in two places, the conservation concession "Rodal Semillero Tahuamanu", and the forest concession of the Native Community of Bélgica with FSC forest certification.

Four radii/samples (10 cm width and 5 cm thickness) from each disc were cut and transported to the Wood Anatomy and Tree-Ring Laboratory, ESALQ, University of Sao Paulo (LAIM/ESALQ/USP) to be air dried. The radial samples were polished gradually with sandpaper (from 80 to 600 grains inch⁻²) until tree rings were visible. Each cross-section was scanned at 1200 dpi resolution with an Epson Expression 10000XL scanner in ".tif" format.

4.2.3. Tree-ring chronologies

The growth rings were identified according to Brienen et al., (2016) and IAWA (1989), and a visual cross between the samples was carried out later, the series of annual ring width (RW) in the synchronized samples was measured from the cortex to the pith with a resolution of 0.01 mm using CDendro and CooRecorder ® software (Cybis Electronic, 2013). The COFECHA software (Holmes, 1983), was used for quality control of tree ring width measurements (Brienen and Zuidema, 2005; Locosselli et al., 2019). Species chronology was constructed using ARSTAN software (Cook, 1985; Holmes, 1983). We performed a cubic spline with a 50% frequency response cutoff and 32 years of segment length, to eliminate the growth trends of the correctly dated series. We calculated a series of dendrochronological statistics to show us the quality of the chronologies, the intercorrelation between the growth ring width series for each tree and between trees of the same species using the COFECHA software, average correlations between standardized series (Rbar) and the express population signal (EPS) using the ARSTAN software. For the calculations of climate-growth correlations, we assume that an EPS equal to or greater than 0.80 is adequate for tropical species (Mendivelso et al., 2014; Menezes et al., 2022).

4.2.4. Dendroclimatic analysis

To quantify the associations between the radial growth of the six species studied and the climate, correlation functions were used (Blasing et al., 1984). The climatic variables were compared with the interannual variations of the radial growth during a common period between the records: 1901-2019 for the precipitation and monthly local temperature; 1950-2019, 1970-2019 for the analysis of total annual precipitation and precipitation in the months with the highest correlation, 1952-2019 for El Niño (1.2, 3, 3.4, 4), Southern Oscillation-SOI, Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation- AMO, Oceanic Niño-ONI, Tropical Northern Atlantic-TNA, Tropical Southern Atlantic-TSA, North Tropical Atlantic-NTA, Eastern Asia-EA, Western Hemisphere Warm Pool-WHWP.

As the growth in a given year could be influenced by the climatic conditions during the previous year, the comparisons extended from January in the previous growing season to December during the current growth, a temporary window of 16 months (Layme, Ferrero, Palacios-Lazaro, et al., 2018; López et al., 2022). To evaluate which climatic factors and which months were determining factors in the radial growth of the six species, multiple linear regression models were determined to generate a linear model in which the value of the dependent variable (tree growth) was determined based on a set of independent variables (climatic factors), adjusted R2 was used to estimate the predictive strength of the regression model (Locosselli et al., 2013; Menezes et al., 2022; Nogueira et al., 2019). Also, we evaluated the influence of sea surface temperature (SST) with the master chronology through HadISST1 1.0° spatial correlations, to identify which ocean regions have an effect on local tree growth using the database KNMI-Climate Explorer https://climexp.knmi.nl/start.cgi (Trouet and Van Oldenborgh, 2013). Monthly analyzes were performed, but moving averages of up to 5 months were also performed, to consider the possible delays in the radial growth responses of the trees and autocorrelations of the data, we constructed spatial correlation maps for the six species studied (Aragão et al., 2019; Land et al., 2017; Menezes et al., 2022).

To carry out the analysis with the local, total annual precipitation and in the months of greatest correlation, a climatic reconstruction had to be carried out because the precipitation and temperature records of the study area provided by the National Service of Meteorology and Hydrology of Peru – SENAMHI was from 1998 to the present and contained a series of gaps in its data, it was decided to reconstruct the local precipitation with the

meteorological stations closest to the study area with data from the National Water Agency (ANA) of Brazil (http://www.snirh.gov.br/hidroweb/apresentacao) from the states of Acre and Rondonia border near the study area, in addition to data from the CRU TS v.4 (Harris et al., 2013) and of the city of Puerto Maldonado, said reconstruction included the stations of CRU, Rondonia, Brasileia, Rio Branco and Puerto Maldonado, said reconstruction was also validated through the KNMI-Climate Explorer https://climexp.knmi.nl/start. cgi (Trouet and Van Oldenborgh, 2013) (see appendix Fig. B2). For analysis with El Niño, SOI, AMO, ONI, TNA, TSA, NTA, EA and WHWP were obtained from the North American Monitoring Agency (NOAA; https://psl.noaa.gov/data/climateindices/ list/). Proxy-climate analyzes (correlation) and multiple linear regression models were performed using RStudio software (RStudio Team, 2015) using the treeclim statistical package (Zang and Biondi, 2015).

4.3. Results

4.3.1. Characterization of ring boundaries and chronologies

The growth rings of the six species studied were visible to the naked eye or with a 10x magnification loupe. Three species had thick-walled latewood fiber growth rings and differences in vessel diameters (*J. copaia*, *M. balsamum*, *H. crepitans*); three had growth rings delimited by the marginal parenchyma (*Drypetes* sp., *S. macrophylla*) and additionally presented a semicircular porosity (*C. odorata*) (Fig. 2). The six species presented false rings (intra-annual growth zones). For *J. copaia*, false rings were slightly marked by variations in their discontinuous density, in addition, the rings near the pith were poorly marked in all the trees *M. balsamum* some areas in the heartwood were poorly marked and made it difficult to identify as it is dark red wood and the rings due to variation in color density were also dark, in the case of *Dryptes* sp., *C. odorata* and *S. macrophylla* they presented marginal parenchyma divisions, in addition to *Drypetes* sp., showed confluent parenchyma with a tendency to form discontinuous lines (false continuous growth bands) mainly in the first two decades of tree life. When we analyze the growth rings, we distinguish traumatic resin channels in *C. odorata* and S. macrophylla repeatedly associated with their limits.

The chronology length is 67, 92, 131, 231, 237 and 274 years for *J. copaia*, *M. balsamum*, *Drypetes* sp., *C. odorata*, *S. macrophylla* and *H. crepitans*, respectively (Table 1). Intercorrelations ranged from 0.43 to 0.49, above the critical correlation of 0.3281 with a confidence level of 99% established by COFECHA. While the Rbar varied from 0.18 to 0.22 and the EPS from 0.80 to 0.94 (Fig. 3).



Fig. 2. Macroscopic cross-sectional images for species with ring boundaries marked by fiber wall thickness and marginal parenchyma from the tropical humid forest Southern Amazon región. Ring boundaries are marked by black triangles.

Table 1. Chronologies statistics for six species from Southern Amazon región. COR = average of the correlation between the series. Rbar = inter-series between the correlation trees. EPS = express population signal. Minimum and maximum age. Span = Start and end year of the chronology.

Species	# Tres (series)	s COR	Rbar	EPS	Age range (mim-max)	Span
Jacaranda copaia	23 (47)	0.49	0.18	0.87	24-67	1952-2019
Myroxylon balsamum	24 (50)	0.45	0.21	0.90	57-92	1927-2019
Drypetes sp.	22 (42)	0.45	0.19	0.89	64-131	1888-2019
Cedrela odorata	52 (124)	0.48	0.22	0.94	37-231	1787-2018
Swietenia macrophylla	34 (96)	0.46	0.20	0.90	32-237	1781-2018
Hura crepitans	11 (28)	0.43	0.20	0.80	44-274	1744-2018



Fig. 3. Dated single ring width index series (gray lines); medium index standard series (colored lines) and depth of samples (red dashed lines).

4.3.2. Climate-tree growth relationship

We found a significant positive relationship between the chronologies of the growth rings of the six species and the total annual rainfall *J. copaia* (r = 0.41; p < 0.0001), *M. balsamum* (r = 0.33; p < 0.0001), *Drypetes* sp. (r

= 0.38; p < 0.0001), *C. odorata* (\mathbf{r} = 0.43; p < 0.0001), *S. macrophylla* (\mathbf{r} = 0.40; p < 0.0001), and *H. crepitans* (\mathbf{r} = 0.23; p < 0.0001) (Fig. 4). The reconstruction of the local precipitation data during the months with the highest correlations with the growth of the trees of the six species were compared with the interannual growth variations for the period from 1970 to 2019, the six species being positively related to the precipitation during the season current growing season for *J. copaia* (September to April; \mathbf{r} = 0.40; p < 0.0001), *M. balsamum* (November to February; \mathbf{r} = 0.44; p < 0.0001), *Drypetes* sp. (September to March; \mathbf{r} = 0.38; p < 0.0001), *C. odorata* (September to February; \mathbf{r} = 0.46; p < 0.0001), *S. macrophylla* (November to February; \mathbf{r} = 0.48; p < 0.0001) and *H. crepitans* (October to April; \mathbf{r} = 0.31; p < 0.0001) (Fig. 4), showing that the growth of the six species is influenced by rainfall in the rainy season in the tropical humid forest of Madre de Dios.



Fig. 4. Temporal relationship between standard chronologies and total annual precipitation for six species in the Southern Amazon región. Tree ring width chronology (colored lines), total annual precipitation = TAP (black line), precipitation by months = PREC (dashed line), tree ring index = TRI. Pearson correlations @ provided for the years 1970–2019.

The correlation analysis between the monthly precipitation and the chronologies of the six species showed a positive and significant influence on the rainy season *J. copaia* February, September, October and November (current year); p < 0.0001, *M. balsamum* October and November (previous year) and December (current year); p < 0.0001, *Drypetes* sp. November (previous year) and January (current year); p < 0.0001, *C. odorata* February, March and November (current year); p < 0.0001, *S. macrophylla* January and October (current year); p < 0.0001 and

H. crepitans October and November (previous year) and February and October (current year); p < 0.0001 (Fig. 5). The analysis of the monthly temperature and the chronologies of the six species showed a negative and significant influence on *Drypetes* sp. July (current year); p < 0.0001, *C. odorata* September (current year); p < 0.0001, *S. macrophylla* September (previous year); p < 0.0001 and *H. crepitans* March (current year); p < 0.0001. The radial growths of the six species are positively associated with the precipitation in the rainy season of the previous and current year but inversely with the temperature showing significant negative relationships, however, M. balsamum was the only species that presented a significant correlation with the temperature in April (current year) and finally, *J. copaia* showed no correlation with temperature (Fig. 5). Using multiple linear regressions, we identified that the rainfall in March, April, August, September, October, November and December (previous year) and January, March, April, May, August, October and December (current year) were the months strongest determinants of growth (Appendix Table A3).



Fig. 5. Pearson's correlation coefficient for the relationship between the ring-width indices and the climatic variables (temperature and precipitation), the period of the analysis is in the lower right part of each species. The light gray vertical box includes the rainy months in the study area. The abbreviated months of the previous year (lowercase) and those of the current year (uppercase). A significance level of 0.05.

4.3.3. Atmospheric sensitivity

A global spatial correlation pattern was observed between tree ring chronologies and sea surface temperature (SST) anomalies (Fig. 6).

The correlation maps of the chronologies of the six studied species with the global sea surface temperature (SST) showed that the Equatorial Pacific Ocean affects the growth of the studied species, being the main area of the oceanic (Fig. 6). The species *M. balsamum* and *H. crepitans* presented higher correlation coefficients in

larger areas of the SSTs of the tropical Pacific Ocean (Fig. 6), and for the species *J. copaia* and *C. odorata* the correlations were weaker (Fig. 6). In general, the correlations with the El Niño index corroborated the correlation maps of the six species, presenting negative correlations for the six species. The El Niño index was a factor that significantly affected tree growth observed in the multiple linear regressions (Fig. 6; Table 2). There were also relations with SOI, AMO, ONI, TSA, EA, and WHWP confirmed by multiple linear regression analyzes (see Appendix Table A4).



Fig. 6. Spatial correlations between the chronologies of the growth ring width index and the monthly sea surface temperatures (SST) in the Pacific and Atlantic oceans of the 6 species in the eastern Amazon of Peru. The 5-month periods with the highest correlations are shown. Colors indicate Pearson's correlation coefficients. The spatial correlation map of the species *J. copaia* shows the areas of occurrence of SST anomalies: El Niño, Southern Oscillation-SOI, Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation-AMO, Tropical Southern Atlantic-TSA, North Tropical Atlantic-NTA, Eastern Asia-EA and Western Hemisphere Warm Pool-WHWP. The analyses were performed using the KNMI Climate Explorer (http://climexp.knmi.nl).

Species	Variables	b±SE	R^2	Species	Variables	b±SE	R^2
J. copaia	El Niño 3		0.29	29 C. odorata El Niño		Niño 3.4	0.21
	Intercept	3.8813 ± 1.4001 **			Intercept	3.9208 ± 1.8936 *	
	El Niño 3 FEB	$0.1963 \pm 0.0567 ***$			El Niño 3.4 AUG	$-02452 \pm 0.0983^{*}$	
	El Niño 3 APR	-0.2061 ± 0.0523 ***			El Niño 3.4 OCT	$0.4601 \pm 0.1595^{**}$	
	El Niño 3 feb	-0.2792 ± 0.0828 **			El Niño 3.4 NOV	$-0.2962 \pm 0.1301*$	
	El Niño 3 mar	0.3095 ± 0.1004 **			El Niño 3.4 feb	$-0.0718 \pm 0.0331*$	
	El Niño 3 aug	-0.1380 ± 0.0416 **			El Niño 3.4 jul	$0.2311 \pm 0.0998*$	
	Ell	Niño 3.4	0.19		El Niño 3.4 sep	$-0.1927 \pm 0.0819*$	
	Intercept	6.1341 ± 1.4643 ***					
	El Niño 3.4 JAN	$0.3006 \pm 0.0824 ***$					
	El Niño 3.4 MAR	-0.3499 ± 0.0951 ***					
	El Niño 3.4 aug	-0.1351 ± 0.0633 *					
M. balsamum	Ell	Niño 1.2	0.13	S. macrophylla	El Niño 1.2		0.23
	Intercept	$1.2068 \pm 0.5147 *$			Intercept	$1.1903 \pm 0.5009 *$	
	El Niño 1.2 APR	-0.1268 ± 0.0453 **			El Niño 1.2 jul	-0.2381 ± 0.0625 ***	
	El Niño 1.2 MAY	0.1233 ± 0.0395 **			El Niño 1.2 aug	$0.2529 \pm 0.0771^{**}$	
	El Niño 3.4		0.18		El Niño 1.2 nov	0.2265 ± 0.0944 *	
	Intercept	$-2.0129 \pm 0.8930 *$			El Niño 1.2 dec	$-0.2293 \pm 0.0907*$	
	El Niño 3.4 FEB	-0.2877 ± 0.0887 **					
	El Niño 3.4 MAR	0.3926 ± 0.1085 ***					
Drypetes sp.	p. El Niño 4		0.14	H. crepitans	El Niño 1.2		0.17
	Intercept	1.0339 ± 0.0493 ***			Intercept	1.4283 ± 0.5075 **	
	El Niño 4 NOV	$0.2591 \pm 0.1272 *$			El Niño 1.2 may	0.0824 ± 0.0298 **	
	El Niño 4 DEC	-0.2633 ± 0.1273 *			El Niño 1.2 aug	-0.1189 ± 0.0327 ***	

Table 2. Result of the multiple regression analysis for the chronology of each species (dependent variable) and the values of the global (El Niño) environmental variables monthly. $R^2 = coefficient of determination$.

b = multiple linear regression coefficient, SE = standard error, significance levels are indicated as (* p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01 and *** p < 0.001). acronym for months with lowercase letters (previous year), an acronym for months with capital letters (current year). Acronym for months: uppercase = current year, lowercase = previous year.

4.4. Discussion

This is one of the first evaluations of dendrochronological potential in the tropical moist forest of the department of Madre de Dios in the eastern Amazon of Peru. The six species studied form annual rings and we found good delimitation of the growth rings, acceptable statistics and the variations in radial growth of the species are associated with precipitation and with anomalies in sea surface temperature (SST), we highlight a strong influence of the El Niño phenomenon on our species. Several investigations were carried out on the Bolivian Amazon (Pando) border with Peru (Madre de Dios) where they not only showed the annuality and potential of the species, but also became a reference in dendrochronology studies in the tropics (Brienen and Zuidema, 2006), and since the climate and diversity of forest species in the department of Madre de Dios are similar, and with the results, we confirm the potential of these species for dendroclimatological studies in these tropical forests.

4.4.1. Tree-ring boundaries and dendrochronology potentiality

We observed different growth ring boundary types for the six species (Fichtler and Worbes, 2012; Schöngart et al., 2017), the visibility and type of growth rings agree with descriptions from other studies of the same species or other species of the same genus (Dünisch et al., 2002; López et al., 2012; Portal et al., 2020; Menezes et al., 2022; Rebollar et al., 1993; Lisi et al., 2008). Of the six species studied, three species (*M. balsamum*, *Drypetes* sp. and *H. crepitans*) the construction of their chronologies are presented for the first time, since in other investigations their potential was only described based on the marking of the limits of the growth rings (Lisi et al., 2008; López et al., 2012; Schöngart et al., 2017). For the species *J. copaia* there was a chronology (Portal et al., 2020) and with our study, we corroborate its potential, finally, although *C. odorata* and *S. macrophylla* are species widely studied in tropical dendrochronology, it is important to continue studying them because they are threatened species and are found in Appendix II of the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Fauna and Wild Flora (CITES, 2020).

4.4.2. Chronology building

It was important to carry out a correct anatomical characterization of the limits of the growth rings and the false rings of the six species that helped in the construction of the chronologies (Schöngart et al., 2017; Worbes and Fichtler, 2010), the characteristics of false rings in tropical species have also been reported in other investigations (Brienen et al., 2016; Brienen Zuidema, 2005; Dünisch et al., 2002), these problems are common and must be taken into account, they can result from occasional short-duration rainy (dry season) and drought (rainy season) events that are common in humid tropical forests (Schöngart et al., 2002; Worbes, 1995).

The statistics of the chronologies that we used to evaluate the quality of the growth ring data indicate that the trees of the six species have a common signal in the growth trees (Brienen and Zuidema, 2005; López et al., 2022), where *J. copaia* presented higher correlations between series within the tree (0.49). It is a very widespread pioneer tree in the Peruvian Amazon with fast growth and has a deciduous leaf habit (Maués et al., 2008), this phenological characteristic associated with the anatomy of the limits of the growth rings helps to explain their correlation between the series (Stahle et al., 1999). Of all the species studied, the species *C. odorata* presented the highest correlation between series between the trees (0.22) and expressed population signal (0.94), although the EPS threshold for non-tropical species is 0.85 (Wigley et al., 1984). We highlight that all the species presented an expressed population signal \geq 0.80 being well reproduced, which demonstrates the potential of the six tropical species for studies in dendroclimatology (Mendivelso et al., 2014; Venegas-González et al., 2018).

The diversity of species studied, with different phenological behaviors (Reynel et al., 2003), characteristics of the growth rings (Marcelo-Peña et al., 2020), basic density (low to very high) of the wood (Acevedo and Kikata, 1994), dendrochronological statistics, we observed that they behave differently, using different functional strategies to face climate change (Singh and Fetzer, 2022; Staal et al., 2018).

4.4.3. Growth and climate correlations

The six species studied presented variations in their radial growth determined by local precipitation, correlating in a significantly positive way during the rainy season both in the previous year and in the current year of growth, this limitation of growth is due to the availability of water during the wet season in tropical forests, is consistent with our findings (Brienen and Zuidema, 2005; Pereira et al., 2018; Zuidema et al., 2022). Where variations

in precipitation influence radial growth patterns of tropical trees and induce the formation of annual rings (Brienen et al., 2016; Schöngart et al., 2007; Worbes and Schöngart, 2019).

The phenology of the six species studied helps to understand how tropical trees cope with the dry season, for example, the species *J. copaia, M. balsamum, C. odorata, S. macrophylla* and *H. crepitans* have their flowering in the dry season and fruiting in the middle or at the end of the dry season and the beginning of the rainy season (Reynel et al., 2003). In addition, the species *J. copaia, C. odorata, S. macrophyllas* and *H. crepitans* use a strategy of adaptation to the dry season through the fall of its leaves (Kallarackal et al., 2013; Reynel et al., 2003), this physiological strategy of acting against water stress and reducing the radial growth of trees in the dry season seca is frequent in tropical forests (Angoboy et al., 2021; Fétéké et al., 2016; Millar et al., 2007).

4.4.4. SST teleconnections

The climate in South America is strongly dependent on SST patterns in the Pacific and Atlantic (Haylock et al., 2006; Nobre and Shukla, 1996) and any climate change will have collateral effects on vegetation (Pereira et al., 2017). For example SSTs anomalies and asymmetric wind stress relative to the equator is the dominant mode of interannual variability in large-scale anomalous rainfall patterns over South America, where the maximum precipitation point is in southern Amazonia It occurs in the austral summer due to the southern migration of the Intertropical Convergence Zone, which is the physical cause (Marengo et al., 2018; Nobre and Shukla, 1996). In addition, the droughts and floods in the Amazon can be explained as a result of the combined effect of the anomalous circulation associated with changes in the SST of the tropical Pacific and Atlantic oceans (Marengo and Espinoza, 2016) for the aforementioned that the radial growth of the six species studied was also positively and/or negatively influenced by Pacific and Atlantic Ocean SST anomalies. The influences of SSTs on the growth of tropical species in South America have already been shown in other studies (Aragão et al., 2022; Granato et al., 2019; Layme et al., 2018; Menezes et al., 2022).

We highlight the El Niño phenomenon that had a significant influence that affected the growth of the six species studied, mainly in the rainy season and that according to research on the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) in the forests of South America shows precipitation deficits. widespread over the Amazon during the austral summer (Jimenez et al., 2019) and that reductions in precipitation in the Amazon are associated with surface warming in the central and eastern equatorial Pacific and that it occurs in El Niño events or the opposite during La Niña (Sulca et al., 2018). Finally, the diversity of species studied acquires various adaptation mechanisms over time that make them resilient and adapt to their forest ecosystem to face various climatic changes (Singh and Fetzer, 2022).

Finally, one of the first chronologies with multispecies for this part of the Peruvian Amazon is presented, which presented sensitivity for local and global climatic variables, future studies should evaluate the influences of these micro and macro climatic variables due to climate change in the tropics, being that for other regions it was observed that as of 1980 there is an increase in air temperature during the dry season over the southeast of the Amazon and that it is bringing changes in the structure of our forests, it is for this reason that understanding the functional strategies of the forest species will be important to apply it in the conservation and forest management of tropical forests (Jimenez et al., 2019; Marengo et al., 2018; Zuidema et al., 2022).

We conclude that working with diverse tropical species, the six species presented distinct growth rings and annual formations for the six species studied in the southeastern Amazon of Peru, revealing their potential for dendrochronology in the tropics. The local precipitation influences the radial growth of the species, mainly in the rainy season in a positive way, being the limiting factor of growth for these species. The growth rings were also influenced by the global macroclimate due to the surface temperature of the Atlantic and Pacific seas, specifically the influence of the El Niño phenomenon on the growth of the six species. Finally, as three of the species had longevity greater than 200 years, this work enables studies of local climatic and macro-climate reconstruction through climatic changes in this part of Peru, as well as studies of different ecological responses of tropical species to dry conditions.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix. Supplementary material

Table A1. Tree species selected for dendrochronological analysis. Average diameter at breast height (DBH). Commercial Height (CH). Minimum Cutting Diameter (MCD). Conservation status (LC= Least Concern; VU= Vulnerable; NE= Not Evaluated). Type of the ring boundary (FWT= change in fiber wall thickness, MP= marginal parenchyma, SRP-MP= semi ring porosity combined with marginal parenchyma). Conservation status is consulted in the IUCN database.

Species	Family	DBH (cm)	CH (m)	MCD (cm)	Conservation status	Leaf habit	Type of boundaries	Previous tree-ring study?
Jacaranda copaia	Bignoniaceae	78	18	41	LC	Deciduous	FWT	Yes ^a
Myroxylon balsamum	Fabaceae	61	18	41	LC	Semideciduos	FWT	No
<i>Drypetes</i> sp.	Putranjivaceae	73	17	41	NE	Evergreen	MP	No
Swietenia macrophylla	Meliaceae	92	20	75	VU	Deciduous	MP	Yes ^b
Cedrela odorata	Meliaceae	63	18	65	VU	Deciduous	SRP-MP	Yes ^b
Hura crepitans	Euphorbiaceae	100	16	60	LC	Semideciduos	FWT	No

^a (Portal et al., 2020)

^b (Dünisch et al., 2003)



Fig. B1. False rings in the six tropical species. For species with thick-walled latewood fiber growth rings and differences in vessel diameters (*J. copaia, M. balsamum*, and *H. crepitans*), faint false rings or difficulties in observing certain regions are observed. For species with marginal parenchyma growth rings (*Drypetes* sp., *C. odorata* and *S. macrophylla*) growth rings are observed by dividing the marginal or discontinuous parenchyma.

Validation of the quality of the precipitation data between the CRU TS4.05 precipitation versus the reconstruction of the local precipitation of the study area.

Our analysis between CRU TS4.05 precipitation (Harris et al., 2013) versus local precipitation reconstruction of CRU, Rondonia, Brasileia, Rio Branco and Puerto Maldonado (Fig. B2). They indicate the strong correlations between the rainy season (November-May) precipitation in the study area (Fig. B2 A) and the low correlation between the dry season (June-August) precipitation in the study area (Fig. B2 B). Analyzes were performed using KNMI Climate Explorer (http://climexp.knmi.nl).



Fig. B2. Spatial correlations between CRU TS4.05 precipitation versus local precipitation reconstruction between the years 1901-2019. A) Spatial correlation for the rainy season of the study area. B) Spatial correlation for the dry season of the study area.

Table A2. Characteristics of the clean chronologies of the six commercial tree species selected in the eastern Amazon of Peru for analysis with the local climate (precipitation and temperature). The number of trees and the number of series are included in parentheses. COR = average of the correlation between the series. Rbar = interseries between the correlation trees. EPS = express population signal. Age. Span = Start and end year of the chronology.

Species	# Tres (series)	COR	Rbar	EPS	Age	Span	
Jacaranda copaia	16 (23)	0.47	0.19	0.81	67	1952-2019	
Myroxylon balsamum	14 (28)	0.45	0.25	0.70	70	1948-2018	
<i>Drypetes</i> sp.	17 (31)	0.43	0.16	0.85	131	1888-2019	
Cedrela odorata	32 (60)	0.46	0.20	0.98	199	1819-2018	
Swietenia macrophylla	18 (30)	0.43	0.23	0.70	133	1885-2018	
Hura crepitans	06 (12)	0.37	0.18	0.72	274	1744-2018	
Species	Variables	b±SE	\mathbb{R}^2	Species	Variables	b±SE	\mathbb{R}^2
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J. copaia	Precipitation		0.15	C. odorata	Precipitation		0.37
	Intercept	0.9574 ± 0.0883 ***			Intercept	1.3711 ± 0.1201 ***	
	Prec. OCT	0.0010 ± 0.0003 **			Prec. APR	-0.0007 ± 0.0003 *	
	Prec. nov	$0.0008 \pm 0.0003 *$			Prec. MAY	-0.0016 ± 0.0005 **	
Drypetes sp.	Precipitation		0.28	-	Prec. DEC	-0.0013 ± 0.0003 ***	
	Intercept	$0.8962 \pm 0.1287 ***$			Prec. dec	$0.0008 \pm 0.0003 *$	
	Prec. JAN	0.0008 ± 0.0003 **		S. macrophylla	Precipitation		0.21
	Prec. MAR	-0.0007 ± 0.0003 *		1.5	Intercept	0.9325 ± 0.0540 ***	
	Prec. APR	-0.0008 ± 0.0003 *			Prec. AUG	-0.0016 ± 0.0006 *	
	Prec. OCT	-0.0008 ± 0.0003 *			Prec. aug	0.0021 ± 0.0006 **	
	Prec. apr	$0.0007 \pm 0.0003 *$		H. crepitans	Precipitation		0.26
	Prec. oct	0.0011 ± 0.0004 **			Intercept	0.9675 ± 0.1243 ***	
					Prec. mar	0.0008 ± 0.0003 **	
					Prec. aug	-0.0016 ± 0.0006 *	
					Prec. sep	-0.0015 ± 0.0006 *	

Table A3. Results of the multiple regression analysis for the chronology of each species (dependent variable) and the values of the local (precipitation) environmental variables monthly. $R^2 = coefficient$ of determination.

b = multiple linear regression coefficient, SE = standard error, significance levels are indicated as (* p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01 and *** p < 0.001). acronym for months with lowercase letters (previous year), an acronym for months with capital letters (current year). Acronym for months: uppercase = current year, lowercase = previous year.

Species	Variables	b±SE	R ²	Species	Variables	b±SE	\mathbb{R}^2
J. copaia	AMO		0.07	C. odorata	AMO		0.18
	Intercept	0.9799 ± 0.0238 ***			Intercept	0.9033 ± 0.0283 ***	
	AMO NOV	0.7528 ± 0.3413 *			AMO OCT	1.0768 ± 0.3024 ***	
	AMO DEC	-0.8109 ± 0.3551 *			AMO NOV	-1.2366 ± 0.3336 ***	
	ONI		0.24		ONI		0.07
	Intercept	0.9666 ± 0.0213 ***			Intercept	0.9558 ± 0.0263 ***	
	ONI JAN	$0.0926 \pm 0.0361 *$			ONI feb	-0.6205 ± 0.2903 *	
	ONI MAY	-1.1722 ± 0.2659 ***			ONI mar	$1.2287 \pm 0.5787 *$	
	ONI JUN	1.7668 ± 0.4264 ***			ONI apr	-0.6129 ± 0.2995 *	
	ONI JUL	-0.7484 ± 0.2113 ***		S. macrophylla	TSA		0.08
	EA		0.08		Intercept	0.9714 ± 0.0246 ***	
	Intercept	0.9546 ± 0.0253 ***			TSA FEB	0.3078 ± 0.1443 *	
	EA JAN	0.5223 ± 0.2529 *			TSA MAR	-0.3089 ± 0.1356 *	
	EA FEB	-0.5993 ± 0.2648 *			EA		0.26
M. balsamum	SOI		0.33	-	Intercept	0.9709 ± 0.0274 ***	
	Intercept	0.9574 ± 0.0188 ***			EA mar	-0.4977 ± 0.1853 **	
	SOI FEB	-0.0509 ± 0.0230 *			EA may	1.4206 ± 0.6461 *	
	SOI APR	-0.0584 ± 0.0172 **			EA jun	-1.6937 ± 0.7599 *	
	SOI apr	-0.0403 ± 0.0155 *			EA aug	2.4975 ± 0.7436 **	
	SOI may	0.0653 ± 0.0208 **			EA sep	-2.3933 ± 0.6675 ***	
	SOI nov	0.0853 ± 0.0284 **			EA nov	1.4316 ± 0.5353 **	
	AMO		0.10		EA dec	-0.7820 ± 0.3731 *	
	Intercept	0.9690 ± 0.0213 ***			WHWP		0.18
	AMO JAN	$-0.3485 \pm 0.1522 *$			Intercept	0.9643 ± 0.02 36 ***	
	AMO NOV	0.3446 ± 0.1292 **			WHWP JUN	$0.0887 \pm 0.0247 ***$	
	ONI		0.17		WHWP JUL	-0.0651 ± 0.0231 **	
	Intercept	0.9763 ± 0.0200 ***		H. crepitans	TSA		0.28
	ONI MAR	-0.5547 ± 0.1966 **			Intercept	0.9527 ± 0.02438 ***	
	ONI APR	1.1984 ± 0.4047 **			TSA JAN	$0.3961 \pm 0.1766 *$	
	ONI MAY	-0.5581 ± 0.2177 *			TSA FEB	-0.2825 ± 0.1348 *	
<i>Drypetes</i> sp.	TSA		0.16	-	TSA JUN	-0.2683 ± 0.1239 *	
	Intercept	0.9581 ± 0.0245 ***			TSA JUL	0.3629 ± 0.1403 *	
	TSA MAR	0.1886 ± 0.0624 **			TSA nov	$0.3281 \pm 0.1272 *$	
	TSA mar	-0.1729 ± 0.0620 **			TSA dec	-0.4685 ± 0.1633 **	
	WHWP		0.12		WHWP		0.12
	Intercept	$0.9625 \pm 0.0242 ***$			Intercept	$0.9650 \pm 0.0259 ***$	
	WHWP APR	0.1053 ± 0.0365 **			WHWP sep	$0.0610 \pm 0.0230 *$	
	WHWP MAY	-0.0904 ± 0.0324 **			WHWP oct	-0.0698 ± 0.0241 **	

Table A4. Result of the multiple regression analysis for the chronology of each species (dependent variable) and the values of the global (Southern Oscillation-SOI, Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation-AMO, Oceanic Niño-ONI, Eastern Asia-EA, Tropical Southern Atlantic-TSA and Western Hemisphere Warm Pool-WHWP) environmental variables monthly. $R^2 = coefficient of determination.$

b = multiple linear regression coefficient, SE = standard error, significance levels are indicated as (* p<0.05; ** p<0.01 and *** p<0.001). acronym for months with lowercase letters (previous year), an acronym for months with capital letters (current year). Acronym for months: uppercase = current year, lowercase = previous year.

Correlations between chronologies of the six species studied.

To observe and compare the similarities of the six forest species of the Peruvian Amazon in radial growth, we made correlations of their standard chronologies. For this, we used a correlation matrix organized hierarchically by the level of significance (less than 5%), correlating all the species in a common period (1952), for the three young species (*J. copaia, M. balsamum, Drypetes* sp.) in a common period (1952) and finally for three species with greater longevity (*C. odorata, S. macrophylla, H. crepitans*) for the common period of 1787. We used the corrplot package (Friendly, 2002), through the RStudio software (RStudio Team, 2015)



Fig. B3. A) Pearson correlations are organized hierarchically between the standard chronologies of the species of the South Amazon. A) For the six species in a common period (1952). B) For the 3 young species in a common period (1952). C) And for the three longest-lived species in a common period (1787). Colored frames represent a significant ratio of 95%.

5. FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

Through the analysis of the growth rings of tree species growing in a tropical humid forest in the southeast of the Peruvian Amazon, this doctoral thesis contributes to the dendrochronological and dendroclimatic knowledge of native species, helping to reduce the gaps in knowledge of growth rings in tropical forests.

Firstly, the state of the art of dendrochronology in Peru was carried out, which allowed compiling, systematizing, analyzing and making inferences about the knowledge accumulated from the beginning (end of the 1980s) to the present day. Analyzing not only scientific articles but also theses deposited in the various repositories of Peru and the world, allowed us to have a real overview of the progress and limitations of the study of growth rings in the country.

Subsequently, the potential of the growth rings of 34 forest species from the eastern Amazon of Peru was analyzed for dendrochronological studies, analyzing the macroscopic anatomy, growth rings, and delimitation of the growth rings by X-ray densitometry. In addition, it was used a subset will evaluate the trajectory and growth rate of 06 forest species. This allows scientific information on tropical species to be applied in more specific studies on dendrochronology.

Finally, using the subset of 06 species (J. copaia, H. crepitans, Drypetes sp., M. balsamum, C. odorata and S. macrophylla), the chronologies were constructed and the associations with climatic and atmospheric variables were made. This allowed the construction of chronologies for the first time of 03 species (H. crepitans, Drypetes sp., M. balsamum), where 03 species had ages greater than 200 years (C. odorata and S. macrophylla, H. crepitans), in addition, all the species showed correlations with the local precipitation in the rainy season and an influence of the El Niño phenomenon was also found in the growth of the 06 forest species.

Future studies that can be addressed with the information generated are i) use the measurements of the growth rings of the 06 species (*J. copaia, H. crepitans, Drypetes sp., M. balsamum C. odorata and S. macrophylla*) and apply them to forest management, determining, for example, the cutting cycle of these species, ii) using the 03 longest-lived species (*C. odorata and S. macrophylla, H. crepitans*), to carry out the climatic reconstruction in this part of Peru.

It is evident that the study of growth rings in the tropical humid forest of the department of Madre de Dios considered the capital of biodiversity in Peru, is feasible and the results of this doctoral thesis show great potential for studies in dendrochronology and dendroclimatology in Madre de Dios.