

# The impact of Hurricane Michael on longleaf pine habitats in Florida

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## Abstract

The longleaf pine (*Pinus palustris*) ecosystem of the North American Coastal Plain (NACP) is a global biodiversity hotspot. Disturbances such as tropical storms play an integral role in ecosystem maintenance in these systems. However, altered disturbance regimes as a result of climate change may be outside the historical threshold of tolerance. Hurricane Michael impacted the Florida panhandle as a Category 5 storm on October 10th, 2018. In this study, we estimate the extent of Florida longleaf habitat that was directly impacted by Hurricane Michael. We then quantify the impact of Hurricane Michael on tree density and size structure using a Before-After study design at four sites (two wet flatwood and two upland pine communities). Finally, we identify the most common type of tree damage at each site and community type. We found that 39% of the total remaining extent of longleaf pine habitat was affected by the storm in Florida alone. Tree mortality ranged from 1.3% at the site furthest from the storm center to 88.7% at the site closest. Most of this mortality was in mature sized trees (92% mortality), upon which much of the biodiversity in this habitat depends. As the frequency and intensity of extreme events increases, management plans that mitigate for climate change impacts need to account for large-scale stochastic mortality events in order to effectively preserve critical habitats.

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## 30 1. Introduction

31 Disturbance plays an integral role in maintaining ecosystem structure and functioning (1,2). However, many  
32 ecological disturbances are expected to change as the climate changes (3), altering the frequency, intensity, duration,  
33 and timing of events (4). Shifting disturbance regimes due to climate change pose a threat to the conservation of  
34 biodiversity as species experience conditions outside their historical norms (5–7). In forest and savanna ecosystems,  
35 disturbances can include fire, hurricanes, extreme wind events, insect outbreaks, exotic plant invasions, or drought,  
36 among many others (1).

37 Longleaf pine (*Pinus palustris* Mill.) forests and savannas provide critical habitat for numerous endangered  
38 species of animals such as the red-cockaded woodpecker (*Picoides borealis*), gopher tortoise (*Gopherus*  
39 *polyphemus*), and the indigo snake (*Drymarchon corais couperi*) as well as many endangered plants such as the  
40 American chaffseed (*Schwalbea americana*), Florida skullcap (*Scutellaria floridana*), and Harper’s beauty  
41 (*Harperocallis flava*) (8–11). About 30% of all plant species associated with longleaf pine habitat are endemic to the  
42 region (12). Yet, the range of longleaf pine has been reduced to <3% of its historical extent (13). Florida, and more  
43 specifically the Florida Panhandle, is one of the most important strongholds of endangered longleaf pine habitat  
44 (14,15) containing 51% and 31%, respectively, of all the remaining longleaf pine ecosystem (16,17).

45 Longleaf pine habitats in the Panhandle of Florida are located within the North American Coastal Plain  
46 (NACP) global biodiversity hotspot (12). The NACP borders the Gulf and Atlantic coast, which is subject to  
47 frequent storm events (12). Over the course of a century, the entire range of the NACP will have experienced at least  
48 one major hurricane (Category 3 and above) (18–20). There have been numerous studies assessing damage to forests  
49 in the NACP after major storm events (e.g., Gresham et al. 1991; Xi et al. 2008; Johnsen et al. 2009; Kush and  
50 Gilbert 2010; Dyson and Brockway 2015). Longleaf pine trees have been found to have lower mortality than other  
51 species when exposed to hurricane force winds (23,24,26–28). Species that evolved within the coastal plain have  
52 been shown to have lower mortality than species whose evolutionary range extends beyond the coastal plain region,  
53 possibly due to strong selection pressure from frequent exposure to high wind storms over their lifetime (23,27).  
54 However, as the climate changes, high wind storm events such as hurricanes and tornadoes will increase in strength  
55 and/or frequency, outside of the system’s historic norms (4,29–31).

56 Management of longleaf pine ecosystems is generally aimed at conserving and expanding the extent of  
57 mature, open-canopied habitat maintained by frequent fire (17,32). The highest quality stands are considered to be

58 mature forests with a frequent enough fire regime to promote regeneration of longleaf and maintain a highly  
59 biodiverse understory – estimated at <0.5% of its historical coverage (13). These systems have ranging tree basal  
60 areas between <100 to 300+ trees·ha<sup>-1</sup> (33) and require frequent fire (1-5 year return interval) (11,13,34,35). Canopy  
61 gaps promote a biodiverse understory (36) and allow for recruitment and regeneration of longleaf pine (37). These  
62 gaps in the canopy produced by fallen trees allow for greater light penetration and colonization by shade-intolerant  
63 species (19,38). Most successful recruitment of longleaf pine requires patches in the canopy to be opened up by  
64 disturbances such as fire, wind, or rain events (37,39).

65         Hurricanes may contribute to necessary gap dynamics by removing older, rotten trees and other species that  
66 may be crowding out the understory (1,19,27,39–41). While gap dynamics driven by storm events play an important  
67 role in maintaining these open-canopied habitats, the potential for hurricanes of increasing strength to occur over the  
68 next century (4,29,30) combined with the lack of remaining habitat (12,14) could lead to severe damage and  
69 potentially permanent losses of remnant stands of an already vulnerable system. The resilience of each stand will  
70 depend on localized conditions including the availability of a seed source and active habitat management that allows  
71 establishment and survival of longleafs (7). The loss of mature trees and severe damage to the understory may  
72 impede natural regeneration, alter the fire regime, increase the chance of invasive species establishment, and provide  
73 favorable conditions for insect outbreaks (3,4,42–45).

74         On October 10<sup>th</sup>, 2018 Hurricane Michael made landfall in the Florida Panhandle as the first Category 5  
75 storm on record in the region. It was the strongest hurricane to make landfall in the continental U.S. since Hurricane  
76 Andrew in 1992 with maximum sustained winds of 257 km/h and minimum barometric pressure of 919 mb (Beven  
77 II et al., 2019, National Hurricane Center). Here we investigate the impact of Hurricane Michael on four longleaf  
78 pine habitats in the Florida Panhandle through a Before-After assessment (46) of tree density and size structure. We  
79 first determine the extent of longleaf pine habitat in Florida affected by Hurricane Michael. We then classify and  
80 compare longleaf damage (e.g. uprooted, snapped, crown damage) and mortality at each site, and discuss  
81 implications for management and restoration.

## 82 **2. Methods**

### 83 **2.1 Hurricane Coverage and Extent of Impacted Habitat**

84         Data on the storm track and wind extent was obtained from the National Hurricane Center. Hurricane force  
85 winds extended outward from the storm center for 75 km and tropical storm force winds extended 280 km (47).

86 Using ArcMap 10.6.1, we created buffers around the storm track for hurricane and tropical storm force winds. We  
87 then overlaid the buffers on longleaf pine habitat coverage within Florida obtained from the Longleaf Pine  
88 Ecosystem Geodatabase (LPEGDB) (<https://www.fnai.org/longleafgdb.cfm>). The LPEGDB is a publicly available  
89 geodatabase with extensive data on the distribution and ecological condition of longleaf pine habitat in Florida.  
90 Pinelands were identified using aerial images, data provided by agencies, field surveys, and parcel data. Pinelands  
91 were then classified by longleaf pine occurrence as “known”, “expected”, “potential”, or “pinelands other than  
92 longleaf”. “Known” habitat has been confirmed through field surveys, “expected” are expected to be longleaf  
93 dominated based on historical vouchers, natural community type, and/or presence of red-cockaded woodpeckers,  
94 and “potential” are identified as having a community type that may be suitable for longleaf but there are no records  
95 of presence and further assessment is needed (16). We then extracted the area of known, expected, and potential  
96 longleaf habitat within the hurricane force and tropical storm force wind buffers to determine the extent of habitat  
97 impacted by the storm within Florida.

## 98 **2.2 Site Description**

99 In the summer of 2018, pre-Hurricane Michael, we surveyed several ‘exemplary’ longleaf pine reference  
100 sites (48) throughout the state of Florida to assess longleaf pine density, age and size structure. Four of these initially  
101 surveyed sites were in the path of Hurricane Michael and are the focus of the Before-After assessment in this study.  
102 The Florida Natural Areas Inventory (FNAI) selected individual sites to serve as reference sites based on canopy  
103 structure, regeneration, and overall groundcover quality, relative to pre-Columbian conditions. The longleaf pine  
104 community reference sites are well managed (with active fire management), exemplary representations of their  
105 respective community types and are mostly comprised of second-growth stands of naturally occurring longleaf pine  
106 (16,48). The four sites in this study represent two different natural community types, wet flatwoods (WF) and  
107 upland pine (UP), ranging between 2 and 85 km away from the center of the storm (Fig 1). The two WF sites were  
108 in St. Marks National Wildlife Refuge (NWR) (85 km from center of storm) and Apalachicola National Forest (NF)  
109 (35 km from center of storm). The two UP sites were in Joe Budd Wildlife Management Area (WMA) (56 km from  
110 center of storm) and Apalachee Wildlife Management Area (WMA) (2 km from center of storm). Apalachee WMA  
111 (SUO-57197, Florida Fish and Wildlife Conservation Commission), Joe Budd WMA (SUO-57198, Florida Fish and  
112 Wildlife Conservation Commission), and St. Marks NWR (SUP FF04RFSM00-2018-0013, U.S. Fish and Wildlife  
113 Service), granted permitted access to perform field research. No permit was required for access to the Apalachicola

114 NF site (Kelly Russell, Forest Supervisor, National Forests in Florida, United States Department of Agriculture).  
115 **Fig 1** Map of study sites and storm coverage. The four study sites in the Florida Panhandle in the path of Hurricane  
116 Michael include: Apalachee WMA, Joe Budd WMA, Apalachicola NF, and St. Marks NWR. The “known” longleaf  
117 pine habitat is extracted from the LPEGDB (Florida Forest Service and Florida Natural Areas Inventory, 2018)

118 Longleaf pine stands are generally monotypic, with no other species making up the dominant canopy. The  
119 systems are largely open canopy, with an herbaceous, grass dominated understory (40,49,50). Frequent seasonal fire  
120 is an integral part of this ecosystem and may be the most important process in maintaining ecosystem structure and  
121 assemblage (12,51–54). Longleaf pines have a unique life history with a “grass stage” where saplings do not put on  
122 any vertical growth for anywhere between 1-20 years (55), one of their many adaptations to fire (56). The wet  
123 flatwoods sites are more savanna-like than the upland pine sites with a very open canopy and widely spaced pine  
124 trees. The upland pine sites have trees that are closer together and include a midstory of infrequent oaks (*Quercus*  
125 spp.). In contrast to WF sites, UP sites are dry, well drained, and have a greater distance between the water table and  
126 the surface (49). These differences in soils and hydrology may affect their response to high wind events (57,58).

### 127 **2.3 Pre- and Post-Hurricane Field Surveys**

128 Prior to the hurricane, sites were surveyed in April and May of 2018. Field surveys of tree density, life-  
129 stage, and size structure were conducted using modified variable area transects (59). A baseline transect was  
130 extended 40 meters and divided into 8 cells (4 on each side, each 10 m wide and variable in length) to make a plot.  
131 Within each cell, data on the closest 5 living trees were recorded, including GPS location, diameter at breast height  
132 (dbh), and distance to the furthest tree, for a maximum of 5 trees per cell or a maximum search distance of 20 m per  
133 cell. The number of plots varied from 2-5 depending on the size of the stand, to capture a representative sample of  
134 each site. Trees were classified into 5 possible size classes based on their life stage and dbh: grass stage, juveniles  
135 (<15 cm dbh), younger mature (15-30 cm dbh), mature (30-45 cm dbh), or older mature (45+ cm dbh).

136 Post-hurricane surveys were conducted in November and December of 2018, within 3 months of the storm,  
137 using the same variable area transect methodology. Plots were relocated using GPS. Although transect placement  
138 matching prior surveys was not exact, the variable-area transects are designed to capture representative density  
139 estimates for the site. During post-hurricane surveys, additional information was recorded, including the status of the  
140 tree (living or dead) and any visible damage. Post-hurricane surveys were conducted two ways. First, a survey of  
141 remaining living trees was conducted for the Before-After assessment of tree density. Second, a survey of all trees

142 (living and dead) was conducted to determine the density of dead trees as well as percent mortality. Living and dead  
143 trees were classified into the following damage groups: no visible damage, minor damage (such as needle loss,  
144 broken, or fallen branches), partially uprooted, uprooted, snapped, or moderate to major crown damage, for which  
145 percent canopy loss was also recorded (canopy loss of >50%, >75%, or >90%). Trees that were partially uprooted,  
146 uprooted, snapped, or had canopy loss of 75% or greater were considered dead for our mortality assessment. Canopy  
147 loss of 75% or greater included damage to the main stem and majority needle loss. Canopy loss of 90% included  
148 damage to the main stem and total needle loss. Only trees that died as a result of the storm were included in the  
149 survey. Those that looked diseased prior to the storm or had signs of decay inconsistent with other trees were not  
150 included. Grass stage individuals were classified as living or dead but were excluded from the damage  
151 classification. Grass stage individuals were considered dead when there was visible death to the apical meristem  
152 (usually crushed and/or black-brown).

153 We quantified the effect of the hurricane on tree density in two ways. First, we compared densities in pre-  
154 and post-hurricane surveys, and second, we directly estimated mortality by comparing the density of living and dead  
155 trees post-hurricane. For the former, we estimated densities of pre- and post-hurricane trees by size class using  
156 generalized linear mixed effects models, where site and the interaction between site and survey (i.e., before vs. after)  
157 were fixed parameters and sample plot within site was a random effect. To estimate mean longleaf pine mortality at  
158 each site, we used a generalized linear mixed-effects model allowing mortality estimates to vary randomly among  
159 sample cells within plots. In the density estimates, plots were used as the random effect because not every size class  
160 was represented in every cell, whereas in the mortality estimates, mortality was aggregated across size classes, and  
161 cells within plots were the random effect. We also report per capita mortality observations by size class at each site  
162 (determined as number of observed dead trees over the total number of trees per size class). The grass stage was  
163 excluded from mortality estimates because their deaths could not be directly attributed to the hurricane.

### 164 **3. Results**

#### 165 **3.1 Hurricane Coverage and Extent of Impacted Habitat**

166 Within the Florida Panhandle, the storm impacted between 533,000 to 1,043,000 hectares of longleaf pine  
167 habitat. Tropical storm force winds impacted a total of 533,000 “known” longleaf pine habitat. An additional 15,000  
168 ha of “expected” longleaf and 495,000 ha of “potential” longleaf were within the tropical storm force winds (280 km  
169 buffer). Hurricane force winds (75 km buffer) impacted 114,000 ha of “known” longleaf pine habitat. An additional

170 4,000 ha of “expected” longleaf and an additional 54,000 ha of “potential” longleaf were within the hurricane force  
 171 winds buffer.

## 172 3.2 Wet Flatwoods (WF)

### 173 3.2.1. St. Marks National Wildlife Refuge

174 St. Marks NWR, the site furthest from the storm center (85 km), had the least amount of damage recorded.  
 175 This site had the highest density of grass stage individuals, 236 (SE = 85) and 234 (SE = 49) trees·ha<sup>-1</sup> pre- and post-  
 176 hurricane respectively (Table 1). Mature trees were only represented by the younger mature size class (15-30 cm  
 177 dbh). Overall tree density (including grass and juvenile stage) decreased by 0.6% from 331 (SE = 76) to 329 (SE =  
 178 40) trees·ha<sup>-1</sup>. Mature tree density did not show a significant decrease (from 71 (SE = 17) to 81 (SE = 18)). Only the  
 179 juvenile size class showed a significant decrease (from 24 (SE = 9) to 14 (SE = 9)) (Table 1). The overall mean tree  
 180 densities were similar pre-and post-hurricane (Fig 2). This site had the lowest estimated mortality of 1.3% (95% CI:  
 181 0.12 – 5.6%) (Table 2). All trees that died were snapped (Table 2) and in the younger mature size class (Fig 3).

182 **Table 1.** Density assessment of longleaf pine trees Before-After Hurricane Michael

	Pre-hurricane				Post-hurricane			
	St. Marks NWR (WF)	Apalachicola NF (WF)	Apalachee WMA (UP)	Joe Budd WMA (UP)	St. Marks NWR (WF)	Apalachicola NF (WF)	Apalachee WMA (UP)	Joe Budd WMA (UP)
Grass Stage	236 (85)	42 (13)	63 (32)	2 (2)	234 (49)	45 (18)	<b>10 (7)</b>	2 (2)
Juveniles (<15 cm dbh)	24 (9)	17 (9)	19 (6)	19 (7)	<b>14 (9)</b>	18 (10)	<b>5 (2)</b>	<b>17 (5)</b>
Younger Mature (15-30 cm dbh)	71 (17)	26 (10)	14 (5)	71 (14)	81 (18)	37 (10)	2 (2)	82 (13)
Mature (30-45 cm dbh)	0	22 (7)	62 (8)	144 (19)	0	12 (6)	<b>2 (2)</b>	102 (16)
Older Mature (45+ cm dbh)	0	0	26 (5)	11 (4)	0	0	<b>3 (2)</b>	21 (8)
Overall Mature Tree Density	71 (17)	48 (9)	102 (10)	225 (23)	81 (18)	50 (10)	<b>8 (4)</b>	206 (21)
Overall Living Tree Density	331 (76)	108 (25)	184 (30)	246 (24)	329 (40)	113 (18)	<b>23 (9)</b>	224 (21)
Dead Tree Density					4 (4)	9 (0)	128 (5)	7 (3)
Percent Change in Mature Tree Density					14.1%	4.2%	-92.2%	-8.4%
Percent Change in Overall Density					-0.6%	4.6%	-87.5%	-8.9%

183 Values are reported in trees·ha<sup>-1</sup> with standard error in parentheses. Post-hurricane densities with a significant  
 184 decrease from pre-hurricane densities per size class and overall at p-value < 0.01 are bolded. Pre-hurricane surveys  
 185 only included living trees. Percent change in mature tree density includes the younger mature, mature, and older  
 186 mature size classes. Percent change in tree densities are different from our mortality estimates (Table 2) because  
 187 mortality estimates were obtained using a mixed-effects model that weights density data from each cell in the



188 variable-are transects for a site level mean.

189 **Fig 2. Pre- and Post-Hurricane Tree Density and Observed Tree Mortality**

190 a. Histograms of pre- and post- hurricane living tree densities from each cell in all transects show the most dramatic  
 191 change in tree density at Apalachee WMA, whereas other sites show less change or no detectable change. Group  
 192 means of living tree density are indicated by dashed lines. Each site is scaled on a different x-axis for clearer  
 193 visualization.

194 b. Histograms of observed tree mortality show densities of dead trees from each cell in all transects at all sites post-  
 195 hurricane. The mean overall dead tree densities are indicated by dashed lines

196 **Table 2.** Damage Classification and Mortality

	<b>St. Marks NWR (WF)</b>	<b>Apalachicola NF (WF)</b>	<b>Apalachee WMA (UP)</b>	<b>Joe Budd WMA (UP)</b>
No Visible Damage	56 (93.3%)	29 (51.8%)	12 (8.3%)	128 (82.6%)
Minor	0	18 (32.1%)	4 (2.8%)	19 (12.3%)
Partially Uprooted	0	2 (3.6%)	6 (4.1%)	0
Uprooted	0	7 (12.5%)	46 (31.7%)	0
Snapped	4 (6.7%)	0	70 (48.3%)	7 (4.5%)
Canopy Loss >50%	0	0	1 (0.7%)	1 (0.6%)
Canopy Loss >75%	0	0	4 (2.8%)	0
Canopy Loss >90%	0	0	2 (1.4%)	0
Estimated Mortality	1.3% (0.12 - 5.6%)	8.4% (1.8 - 23.2%)	88.7% (78.8 - 96.0%)	3.1% (0.7 - 8.1%)

197 The damage classification included both living and dead trees and did not include grass stage individuals. Values are  
 198 reported in trees·ha<sup>-1</sup> followed by the total percentage from each site. Trees were classified as follows: no visible  
 199 damage, minor damage (minor visible damage such as needle loss or fallen branches), partially uprooted, uprooted,  
 200 snapped, or minor to major crown damage including canopy loss of >50%, >75%, or >90%. Estimated site level  
 201 mortalities included all size classes and were determined in the generalized linear mixed effects model. 95%  
 202 confidence intervals are presented in parentheses. Trees that were partially uprooted, uprooted, snapped, or had  
 203 canopy loss of 75% or more are included in the total estimated mortality.

204 **Fig 3. Percent mortality relative to overall mortality within each size class of longleaf pine at four sites.**

205 Size classes are as follows: juveniles (<15 cm dbh), younger mature (15-30 cm dbh), mature (30-45 cm dbh), or  
 206 older mature (45+ cm dbh)



### 207 **3.2.2 Apalachicola National Forest**

208 Apalachicola NF was closer to the storm center than St. Marks NWR at 35 km away. This site experienced  
209 slightly higher mortality and had a higher density of damaged trees than St. Marks NWR (Table 2). The site had  
210 trees in all size classes except the largest size class (45+ cm dbh). Overall tree density (including grass and juvenile  
211 stage) increased by 4.6% from 108 (SE = 25) to 113 (SE = 18) trees·ha<sup>-1</sup>. Overall and mature tree density at  
212 Apalachicola NF did not show significant decreases (from 102 (SE = 25) to 113 (SE = 18) trees·ha<sup>-1</sup> and from 48  
213 (SE = 9.0) to 50 (SE = 10) trees·ha<sup>-1</sup>, respectively) (Table 1). Estimated mortality was 8.4% (95% CI: 1.8 – 23.2%).  
214 All trees that died were uprooted or partially uprooted (Table 2). Mortality across size classes shows greater  
215 mortality in larger size classes; up to 14% in the younger mature size class and 33% in the mature size class (Fig 3).

### 216 **3.3 Upland Pine (UP)**

#### 217 **3.3.1 Joe Budd Wildlife Management Area**

218 Joe Budd WMA is situated 56 km away from the storm center. At this site, trees were found in all size  
219 classes, including older mature trees. This site experienced greater overall loss in tree density than the WF sites but  
220 had less mortality than Apalachicola NF (WF). Overall tree density (including grass and juvenile stage) decreased  
221 by 8.9% from 246 (SE = 24) to 224 (SE = 21) trees·ha<sup>-1</sup>. Mature tree density decreased by 8.4% from 225 (SE = 23)  
222 to 206 (SE = 21) trees·ha<sup>-1</sup> (Table 1). Only the juvenile size class showed a significant decrease (from 19 (SE = 7) to  
223 17 (SE = 5)). All trees that died were snapped and there was 3.1% (95% CI: 0.7 – 8.1%) mortality (Table 2). Across  
224 size classes, relative mortality was higher in the mature size class (10%) than in other size classes (0%) (Fig 3).

#### 225 **3.3.2 Apalachee Wildlife Management Area**

226 Apalachee WMA is located 2 km away from the center of the storm and was the most severely impacted by  
227 the storm (see Figure 4). All size classes were represented at the site, including older mature trees. Overall tree  
228 density (including grass and juvenile stage) decreased by 87.5% from 184 (SE = 30) to 23 (SE = 9) trees·ha<sup>-1</sup>.  
229 Mature tree density decreased by 92.2% from 102 (SE = 10) to 8 (SE = 4) trees·ha<sup>-1</sup>. Grass stage individuals were  
230 also severely impacted, entirely missing from most cells. The density of grass stage individuals decreased from 63  
231 (SE = 32) to 10 (SE = 7) trees·ha<sup>-1</sup> (Table 1). All size classes had a significant decrease in density (p-value <0.01)  
232 except the younger mature class. Total estimated mortality at the site was 88.7% (95% CI: 78.8 – 96.0%). Almost all  
233 trees at this site had some amount of visible damage and tree death was most commonly by snapping (48.3%) (Table  
234 2). However, surviving longleafs were almost entirely grass stage and juvenile trees, and mortality increased

235 towards the mature size class (98%), which then dropped at the older mature size class (50%; Fig 3).

236 **Fig 4** Apalachee WMA. Pre-hurricane, July 7<sup>th</sup>, 2018 (top, image: C. Anderson) and post-hurricane, December 1<sup>st</sup>,  
237 2018 (bottom, image: N. Zampieri)

## 238 **4. Discussion**

### 239 **4.1 Extent of Hurricane Michael's impact in Florida**

240 The Florida Panhandle is a stronghold for the longleaf pine system, with more connected, protected  
241 longleaf pine habitat than anywhere else in its range (16,17). Considering that the total range of longleaf pine habitat  
242 is 1.4 million ha (17), our results show that 39% and 8% of all remaining longleaf pine habitat experienced tropical  
243 storm and hurricane force winds, respectively, in Florida alone. Given the estimates that also include expected and  
244 potential longleaf habitat, the total extent impacted by at least tropical storm force winds could be up to 1,043,000  
245 ha (76% of all remaining habitat), and up to 172,000 ha (13% of all remaining habitat) impacted by hurricane force  
246 winds. These estimates provide a baseline to assess longleaf pine conditions because varying degrees of habitat  
247 integrity and vulnerability to storm damage and climate change exist within this range. Understanding the extent of  
248 habitat impacted by one storm event highlights the importance of conserving habitat over a broad range since  
249 unexpected losses could be high in areas affected by extreme events such as Hurricane Michael.

### 250 **4.2 Density and mortality of longleaf post-Hurricane Michael**

251 Our surveys show a gradient of little to severe damage of longleaf pine habitats due to Hurricane Michael  
252 depending on their distance from the storm center (Fig 1 and 2). Apalachee WMA, an upland pine site closest to the  
253 path of Hurricane Michael, experienced longleaf mortality of 88.7%, predominantly in mature size classes (Figures  
254 3 and 4). Mature trees had 98% mortality, similar to other catastrophic hurricanes. After Hurricane Hugo (Category  
255 4, 1989), second-growth stands of longleaf in South Carolina had 95% adult tree mortality (60). Hurricane Kate  
256 (Category 3, 1985) resulted in over 20% mortality of adult longleaf from an old-growth stand, with effects  
257 continuing for at least 5 years post-hurricane (39). The significant loss of mature trees reduces the current extent of  
258 mature habitat, on which many critically endangered species depend (11). While the remaining juveniles could  
259 represent the potential for recovery, this depends on substantial efforts to remove fallen trees and debris, managing  
260 potential pests and invasive species establishment, in addition to maintaining fire (see Section 4.3). Even then,  
261 recovery could take decades for juveniles to reach mature size classes (Figure 4). At St. Marks NWR, Joe Budd  
262 WMA, and Apalachicola NF, tree loss was much lower (1.3, 3.1, and 8.4% mortality, respectively) and similar to

263 background mortality rates driven by lightning (39,50,61). These lower rates of mortality are reasonable for  
264 maintaining open canopy gap dynamics (7,37,39). At St. Marks NWR and Apalachicola NF, the standard errors  
265 around mean tree densities were high. Thus, the apparent increase in densities is due to high variability across cells  
266 at these sites because mortality was identified at all sites.

267 Although mortality was not nearly as high at St. Marks NWR, Joe Budd WMA, or Apalachicola NF sites  
268 compared to Apalachee WMA, snapped, uprooted, and minor damage were still apparent at these sites. The natural  
269 communities examined in this study – wet flatwoods and upland pine – differ in community structure, hydrology,  
270 and soil type (49) that likely play a role in the type of tree damage caused by high wind events. WF sites have a  
271 hydroperiod which causes them to be inundated for parts of the year, and the water table is relatively close to the  
272 surface (49). Trees in these systems may develop a shorter taproot and are therefore less stable (62). These trees may  
273 be more likely to be uprooted in high wind events. In contrast, upland pine sites are dry, well drained, and have a  
274 greater distance between the water table and the surface. Trees in these systems develop deeper taproots in order to  
275 reach the water table, which may also provide greater structural support in high wind events (39,49,62). These trees  
276 are more likely to snap or have damage to the crown than to uproot. Trees that are uprooted cause soil disturbance  
277 that may facilitate the establishment of invasive nonnative species (1,44,45). These trees also remain greener for  
278 longer than snapped trees since their roots may still be in contact with the water table (1,4,42,43). Snapped trees  
279 create less soil disturbance but increase the amount of dead biomass on the ground that dries more rapidly than an  
280 uprooted tree, which can create hazardous fire conditions (11). Due to the differing community characteristics, we  
281 expected more trees in WF sites to be uprooted than to experience snapping or crown damage. Our damage  
282 classification (not including grass stage individuals) generally corroborated our expectations, except in the case of  
283 St. Marks NWR (WF). This site was the furthest from the storm center (85 km) and experienced low mortality  
284 overall (1.3%). In our sample, dead trees were snapped. At the other WF site (Apalachicola NF), all dead trees were  
285 uprooted or partially uprooted. At the UP sites, as expected, trees were more likely to be snapped than uprooted. All  
286 the trees that died at Joe Budd WMA (56 km away) were snapped and at Apalachee WMA the most common cause  
287 of mortality was snapping (55%), followed by uprooting (36%).

288 The relationship between size classes and mortality showed that in general, mortality increased towards the  
289 mature size class, and then decreased in the older mature size class when those size classes were present. Older  
290 mature trees were the least represented in the study, only found at the UP sites. At Apalachee WMA and at Joe Budd

291 WMA, mortality was highest in mature individuals and decreased in the older mature class by 50-100% (Fig 3). The  
292 surviving individuals in the older mature class could have traits that have enabled their survival thus far and  
293 therefore are more resilient to high winds (e.g. a deeper taproot, less lower branches contributing to structural  
294 imbalance, or differences in wood density) (41,57,63). Mortality was always higher in the mature size class than in  
295 the juvenile and younger mature size-classes. In a study of hurricane-induced mortality of longleaf pines in South  
296 Carolina, similar results were found with lower mortality (<20%) in juvenile-younger mature size classes than in  
297 mature size classes, which had up to 95% mortality. At an old-growth stand in Georgia and at a stand of south  
298 Florida slash pine (*Pinus elliotii* var. *densa*) hurricane induced mortality was also higher in the larger size classes  
299 (39,64). High mortality in the mature size class can affect regeneration potential after disturbances – fewer mature  
300 trees of reproductive age means fewer opportunities for recruitment.

301 Since longleaf pines are the dominant and often the only canopy species in these systems, their mortality is  
302 important for creating gaps in the canopy (37,39). Currently, lightning is considered to be the primary cause of  
303 mortality in longleaf pines and therefore is seen as the main driver of gap dynamics (61,65,66). However, Platt and  
304 Rathbun (1992) found that the rate of mortality due to hurricanes exceeded that of lightning strikes when  
305 considering a longer timeframe (e.g., 10 years) at an old-growth site. In another study in Florida, lightning mortality  
306 of longleaf pine was found to be 2.94 trees·ha<sup>-1</sup>·10 years<sup>-1</sup> (61), whereas results from our study found mortality of  
307 between 8-129 trees·ha<sup>-1</sup> (Table 2), 2-44 times higher, occurring during just one extreme storm event. In addition,  
308 our estimates of mortality are conservative, since trees with minor damage or canopy damage may experience  
309 delayed mortality due to storm related injuries (4,39). In the Florida Panhandle alone, there have been 10 major  
310 hurricanes to make landfall since 1851 (67). Given the average return interval for a hurricane in the Florida  
311 Panhandle of 9-13 years (20), or 1 major hurricane every 2 years for the entire U.S. coastline (20), it is possible that  
312 historically hurricanes may have played a more important role in maintaining the population dynamics of longleaf  
313 pines than lightning at longer temporal scales.

#### 314 **4.3 Implications for management and restoration**

315 For longleaf pine habitats affected by Hurricane Michael, active fire management will be critical to  
316 restoration (51–53,68). In all instances where trees were killed, by snapping or uprooting, the increased biomass on  
317 the ground contributes to fuels for fire and at a fine-scale change fire behavior by creating microsites that burn at  
318 hotter temperatures for longer amounts of time (69). In order to reintroduce fire to some of the more heavily

319 damaged sites, low impact timber salvage will be necessary to remove dangerous fuel sources and open up the  
320 understory to promote fire contiguity while minimizing impact to the soil and understory (70,71). In sites where the  
321 mature trees are significantly reduced, such as Apalachee WMA, natural regeneration may no longer be possible and  
322 restoration should include planting of seedlings (22,60).

#### 323 **4.4. Conclusion**

324 The current rate of loss of biodiversity and ecosystem services is unprecedented and is accelerating due to  
325 multiple interacting human stressors (72). In the NACP, storms of increasing strength and frequency pose a  
326 significant threat to the longleaf pine ecosystem and the numerous species that depend on it. Here we show that  
327 Hurricane Michael resulted in varying mortality on longleaf pines in the Florida Panhandle with the most severe  
328 impact resulting in catastrophic losses (92%) of mature canopy trees. This study focuses on the impact of Hurricane  
329 Michael in Florida, but the storm impacted most states within the NACP, all containing critical longleaf pine habitat.  
330 The increasing frequency of extreme stochastic events requires updating restoration and management plans for  
331 critical habitats (6). Managers and policy-makers attempting to mitigate climate change impacts need to account for  
332 potential unexpected losses and have contingency plans for responding to extreme disturbance events. Meeting  
333 current conservation targets will likely require protecting a larger extent of habitat than currently considered. The  
334 remaining extent of longleaf pine ecosystems exist in varying degrees of habitat integrity (16) and even protected  
335 high quality habitat is ecologically vulnerable to climate change. Moving forward, we must consider the  
336 implications of changing disturbance regimes due to anthropogenic climate change on the ecology of critical  
337 habitats.

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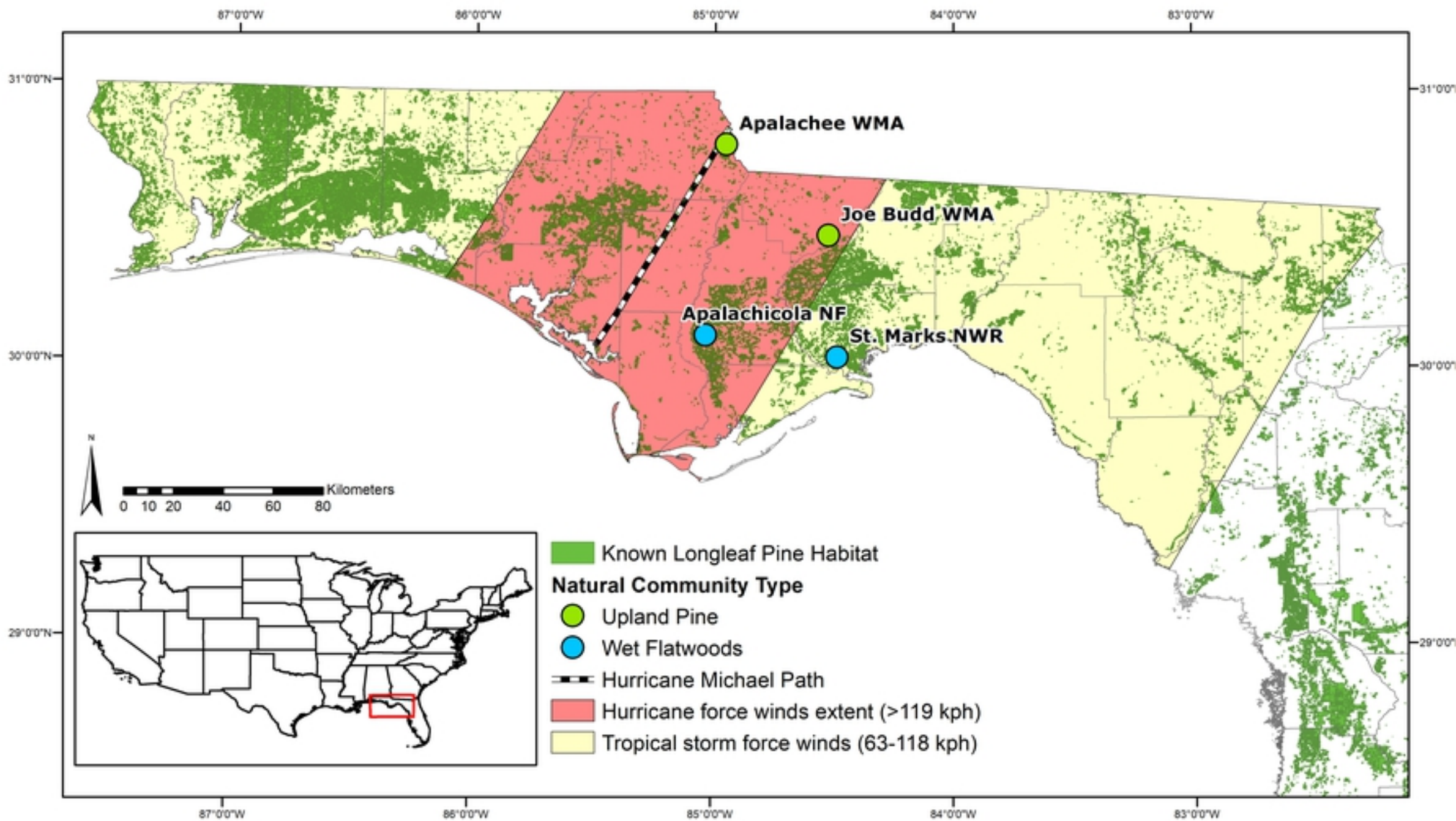


Fig1

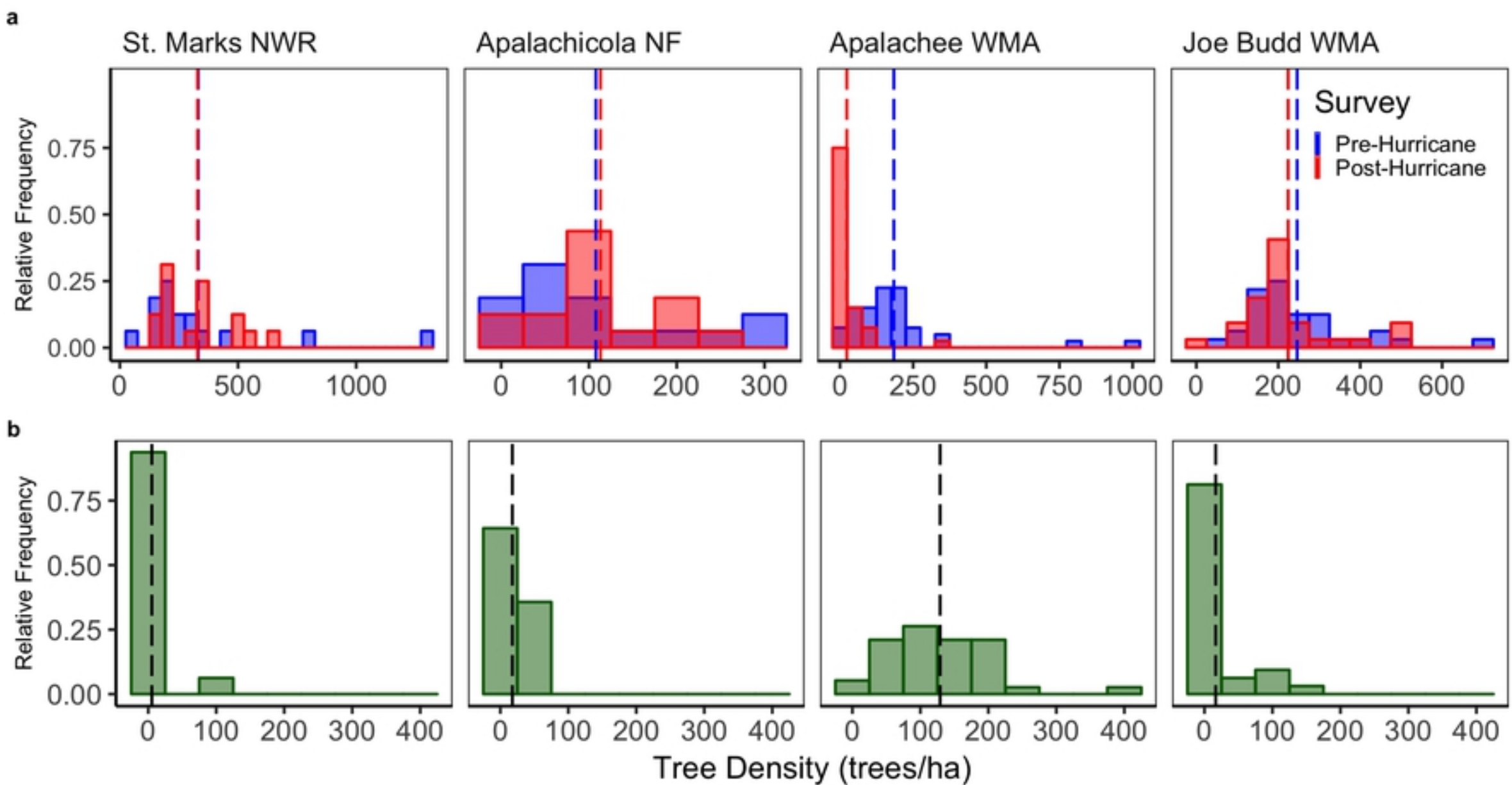


Fig2



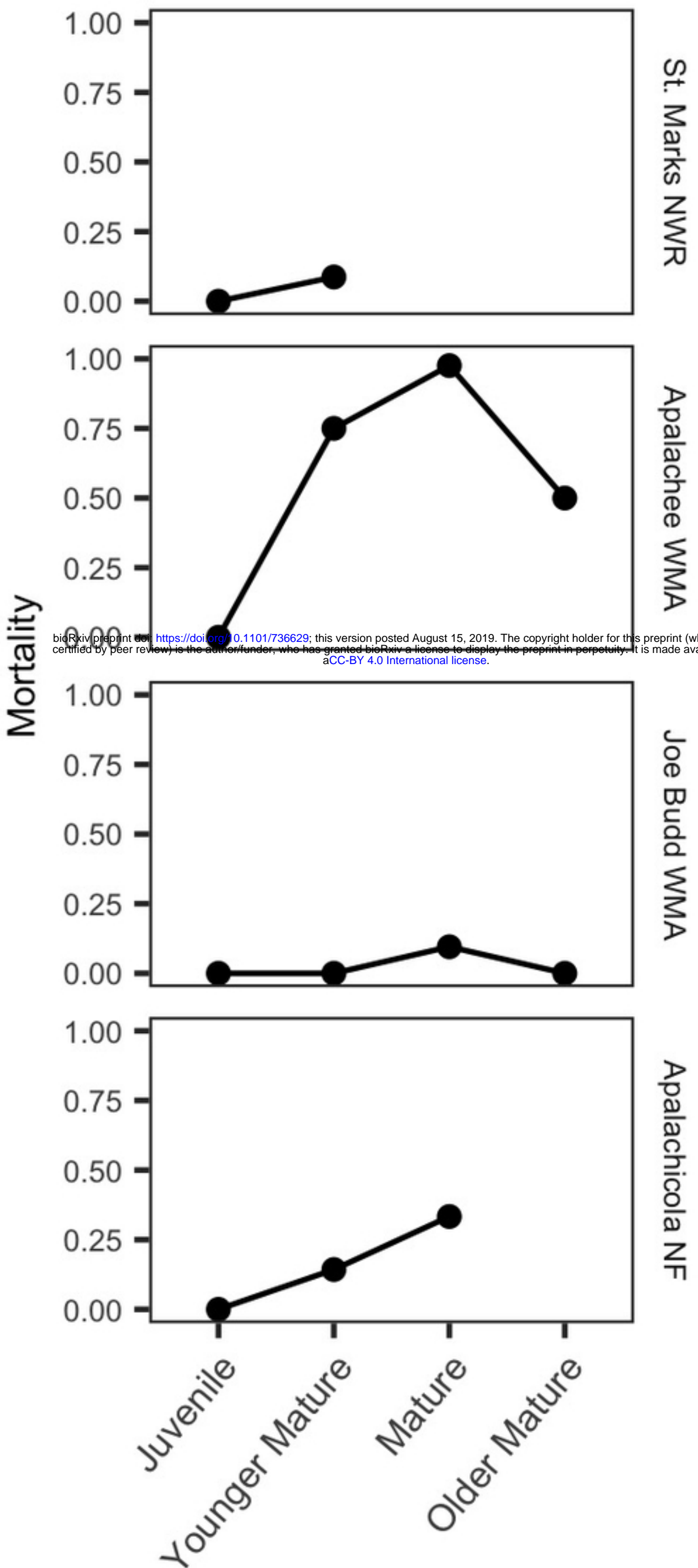


Fig3



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Fig4