

Climate warming reduces seed mass in European beech through altered resource dynamics and drought

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18 **Abstract**

19 Seed mass is a key life-history trait that influences dispersal, seedling establishment, and plant fitness,
20 yet its long-term response to climate change remains poorly understood. We used two long-term datasets
21 of European beech (*Fagus sylvatica*) from the United Kingdom and the Netherlands (1976-2024) to test
22 whether seed mass has changed over time and whether any decline can be attributed to changing climate
23 or altered resource dynamics. Seed mass declined by 13% over the study period, with a non-linear
24 decrease starting in the mid-2000s. Models of year-to-year variation showed that seeds were smaller in
25 years with lower reconstructed stored resources and in years that were dry during the period of seed filling
26 (May- June). Temporal contribution analysis indicated that the long-term decline in seed mass was driven
27 primarily by declining resource availability, with increasing drought making an additional contribution.
28 Climate warming affects seed size in beech by direct effects of drought on seed development, and indirectly
29 by altering reproductive dynamics and shortening the intervals available for resource recovery between
30 reproductive events. Because seed mass influences dispersal and survival of seeds and seedlings, declines
31 in seed mass are likely to reduce regeneration potential. Our findings identify an indirect pathway by
32 which climate change may weaken forest regeneration.

33 **Introduction**

34 Seed mass is a life-history trait that is strongly linked to plant fitness (Muller-Landau, 2010). While
35 small seeds have a dispersal advantage, larger seeds produce larger seedlings with higher survival,
36 faster early growth, and greater tolerance to environmental stress (Kidson & Westoby, 2000; Baraloto
37 *et al.*, 2005; Muller-Landau, 2010). Because early establishment is a major demographic bottleneck in
38 long-lived plants, variation in seed mass affects recruitment and population dynamics (Turnbull *et al.*,
39 1999; Clark *et al.*, 2007). Importantly, these effects also operate within species: larger seeds from the
40 same species produce seedlings with larger cotyledons, taller hypocotyls, greater first-year biomass, and
41 greater early height (Reich *et al.*, 1994; Muñoz *et al.*, 2014; Pawłowski *et al.*, 2024). Seed mass can also
42 influence interactions with animals, including seed predation and animal-mediated dispersal rates (Lichti
43 *et al.*, 2017; Dylewski *et al.*, 2020). Finally, because seed biomass contributes to resource availability
44 for consumers (Ostfeld & Keesing, 2000; Dri *et al.*, 2025), changes in seed mass can influence their
45 population dynamics. Because seed mass influences multiple stages of regeneration, from dispersal and
46 survival to early seedling performance, environmentally driven variation in seed mass within populations

47 can scale up to affect population dynamics (Clark *et al.*, 2007).

48 Seed mass varies substantially within species, including temporal fluctuations within populations.
49 For example, in valley oak (*Quercus lobata*), mean acorn mass varied from 1.06 to 2.20 g among years
50 (Koenig *et al.*, 2009). In European beech (*Fagus sylvatica*), the mean seed mass among years can vary
51 4-fold (Kondrat *et al.*, 2025). Part of the seed mass variation reflects environmental conditions during
52 seed development (Frenne *et al.*, 2013; Lenzo *et al.*, 2025). Weather conditions such as temperature and
53 precipitation influence the physiological processes that determine seed filling, including photosynthesis
54 and the duration of developmental stages (Frenne *et al.*, 2013). For example, seed mass tends to be
55 greater in warmer conditions and in wetter environments, particularly where precipitation occurs during
56 the months of seed maturation (Gao *et al.*, 2023; Lenzo *et al.*, 2025). The effect of warming on seed
57 size in trees is poorly understood, but experimental warming tends to increase seed size in perennial
58 herbaceous species (WALCK *et al.*, 2011; Zi *et al.*, 2023). Temperature may affect seed mass indirectly
59 through phenology: warmer springs can advance flowering and potentially extend the period of seed
60 development (Frenne *et al.*, 2013; Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2019). Drought during seed filling could affect
61 seed mass as water limitation induces stomatal closure and reduces photosynthesis, limiting resources
62 available for developing seeds, especially during late spring and summer when seeds are actively filling
63 (Hoch, 2005; Han *et al.*, 2020). The effects have been shown in perennial herbaceous species in
64 experimental manipulations (Vázquez-Ramírez & Venn, 2025). However, most work has focused on
65 explaining variation among populations, while year-to-year variation associated with weather remains
66 less well resolved. This temporal weather sensitivity is important because short-term weather effects can
67 translate into directional changes under climate change.

68 Seed mass may also vary with seed number through allocation trade-offs (Smith & Fretwell, 1974;
69 Qiu *et al.*, 2022). Under a fixed reproductive budget, increased seed production is expected to reduce
70 investment per seed (Smith & Fretwell, 1974). In mast-seeding species, however, this expectation
71 is complicated because reproductive allocation can vary strongly among years (Bogdziewicz *et al.*,
72 2025; Ward *et al.*, 2025). In years of high seed production, trees may shift resource allocation toward
73 reproduction, at the expense of storage, growth, or defense (Han *et al.*, 2011; Lauder *et al.*, 2019; Gonzalez
74 *et al.*, 2023), allowing seed number to increase without a decline in seed mass (Kondrat *et al.*, 2025).
75 Such a pattern has been reported in European beech, valley oak, and holm oak (*Quercus ilex*) (Koenig
76 *et al.*, 2009; Roncé *et al.*, 2021; Kondrat *et al.*, 2025). By contrast, lower seed mass in years when seed
77 number was high has been found in Armand's pine (*Pinus armandii*) and Farges' chestnut (*Castanopsis*

78 *fargesii*) (Wang & Ives, 2017; Huang *et al.*, 2021). These contrasting results suggest that trees can buffer
79 the seed size-number trade-off by temporarily increasing reproductive allocation, but that buffering is
80 not universal. Importantly, if climate warming makes high reproductive allocation more frequent, the
81 resources that buffer other functions against increased reproductive investment may be replenished less
82 completely between reproductive events (Hackett-Pain *et al.*, 2025).

83 In addition to short-term weather effects during seed development, seed mass may also vary through
84 longer-term changes in plant resource levels. In mast-seeding species, temporal variation in reproduction
85 is shaped by endogenous resource dynamics (Satake & Iwasa, 2000; Pearse *et al.*, 2016; Kelly *et al.*, 2025).
86 Large reproductive events are typically followed by periods of depleted reserves, during which plants
87 rebuild the carbohydrates and nutrients required for the next reproductive effort (Crone *et al.*, 2009; Sala
88 *et al.*, 2012; Ronc e *et al.*, 2023). Climate warming can disrupt these dynamics, leading to a breakdown of
89 mast seeding characterized by more frequent but smaller reproductive events (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2020;
90 Foest *et al.*, 2025b; Jantzen *et al.*, 2026). Specifically, warming can increase the frequency of weather
91 events that trigger reproduction (weather cues, often high temperature), shortening the intervals available
92 for resource recovery between reproductive events (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2024). Such warming-induced
93 shifts in reproductive allocation in European beech have been associated with reduced secondary growth by
94 28% and indications of nutrient limitation (Hackett-Pain *et al.*, 2025), suggesting that repeated reproduction
95 can constrain resource availability for other vital functions (Lauder *et al.*, 2019). Consequently, if resource
96 pools are replenished less completely between reproductive events, the resources available per seed may
97 decline, leading to reduced investment in individual seeds and, ultimately, lower seed mass.

98 Testing trends in seed mass, including the effects of weather variation and seed production, requires
99 long-term records that include seed traits and number. Such datasets are rare because measuring both
100 seed number and seed mass on the same individuals over decades is logistically demanding and rarely
101 incorporated into long-term monitoring programs. Here, we use two long-term datasets: one from the
102 United Kingdom, including 6 populations and 85 individual trees (1989-2024), and another from the
103 Netherlands, including one population and 74 individuals (1976-2024). Importantly, in both systems,
104 an increased frequency of warm summers that trigger mass flowering has been associated with reduced
105 inter-annual variation in seed production (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2021; Jantzen *et al.*, 2026). In the UK
106 dataset, where measurements of tree growth are also available, these changes in reproductive dynamics
107 and increased frequency of reproductive allocation have been linked to a 28% decline in secondary growth
108 (Hackett-Pain *et al.*, 2025). This provides a mechanistic basis to expect parallel changes in seed mass.

109 If more frequent reproduction leaves insufficient time for trees to replenish stored carbon and nutrients,
110 then the resource pool available for seed filling should progressively decline.

111 Here, we tested for long-term changes in seed mass in European beech. We examined the effects of
112 early spring temperature, which may extend the growing season and increase seed mass, and summer
113 drought during the seed-filling period, which may constrain seed development and reduce seed mass.
114 We also tested whether year-to-year variation in seed mass was associated with internal resource levels
115 reconstructed from long-term seed-production records using the method of Rees *et al.* (2002). Finally,
116 we asked whether the seed mass decline over time can be attributed to changing climatic conditions
117 and altered resource dynamics caused by warming-induced shift in reproductive allocation (Hackett-Pain
118 *et al.*, 2025).

119 **Methods**

120 **Study species**

121 European beech (*Fagus sylvatica* L.) is a major forest-forming broadleaved tree in temperate Europe
122 of high ecological and economic importance (Leuschner, 2020). It is a wind-pollinated, mast-seeding
123 species, characterized by strong inter-annual variation and high synchrony in seed production (Vacchiano
124 *et al.*, 2017; Ascoli *et al.*, 2017). Masting in beech increases reproductive efficiency through economies
125 of scale: large, synchronous flowering improves pollination, while intermittent large crops reduce losses
126 to pre-dispersal seed predators (Nilsson & Wastljung, 1987; Pesendorfer *et al.*, 2024). Moreover, high-
127 seeding years are associated with lower pilferage rates of seeds cached by rodents, which improves
128 germination rates (Zwolak *et al.*, 2016; Mittelman *et al.*, 2024). High-seeding years are also associated
129 with a shift in allocation from radial growth towards reproduction (Hackett-Pain *et al.*, 2015; Nussbaumer
130 *et al.*, 2021).

131 Annual flower production is linked to summer temperature cues, particularly June-July temperature
132 (Journé *et al.*, 2024), and recent warming has increased the frequency of those cues (Bogdziewicz *et al.*,
133 2021; Foest *et al.*, 2024). Both in the UK and the Netherlands, seed production shifted in mid-2000
134 from highly variable and synchronous to more regular and less synchronized (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2020;
135 Jantzen *et al.*, 2026). The reduction in year-to-year variation in seed production and reduced synchrony,
136 termed masting breakdown, is widespread across the species' range and is strongest where summer
137 temperatures have increased most rapidly (Foest *et al.*, 2024, 2025b). As a consequence of reduced

138 inter-annual variation and synchrony, the economies of scale have weakened, which has led to a decrease
139 in pollination efficiency, increased pre-dispersal seed predation rates (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2023; Jantzen
140 *et al.*, 2026), and consequently, a decline in viable seed production by more than 50% (Bogdziewicz *et al.*,
141 2023).

142 **Data**

143 **Seed production** In the UK, seed production was monitored using a timed count beneath the same
144 set of 85 trees, distributed across 6 sites (site details in Packham *et al.* (2008); Bogdziewicz *et al.* (2023)).
145 Shortly after seed fall (late-September or early October), the ground beneath each canopy was searched
146 for seeds for 3.5 minutes. Collected seeds were bagged in the field and later air-dried for at least 24 hours,
147 sorted, and counted in the laboratory. In a validation against quadrat-based ground counts, the timed
148 count showed a strong loglinear relationship with area-based estimates of seed fall ($R^2 = 0.78$) (Foest
149 *et al.*, 2025a). The sample size used here is smaller than in previous studies based on this monitoring
150 program (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2020; Hacket-Pain *et al.*, 2025), because we restricted the analysis to trees
151 for which seed mass data were also available. Mean seed mass was estimated by weighing all viable
152 seeds from each tree (occasionally a random subsample), and dividing by the number of seeds.

153 In the Netherlands, seed production was monitored annually in mid-October at the National Park De
154 Hoge Veluwe (52.038°N, 5.857°E) using the ground-plot method beneath the same set of 74 trees. Four
155 metal quadrats (25 x 25 cm) were placed in a straight line of a fixed direction underneath each tree, with
156 the first square being placed half a meter from the trunk, the outer square underneath the tip of the largest
157 overhanging branch, and the remaining two squares at equal distance in between. All whole and partial
158 seeds were collected within each square, bagged, and labeled. After air-drying for at least 24h, seeds
159 were sorted and counted. Per sample, all sound nuts were weighed together, and a random subset of these
160 nuts was weighed individually to determine the weight per nut. For a detailed description of the Dutch
161 data collection, see Jantzen & Visser (2026).

162 **Climate data** We obtained high-resolution (0.1°) daily climate data for each study site from the
163 E-OBS dataset (Cornes *et al.*, 2018), including mean temperature and precipitation. For each site, we
164 quantified summer (May-June) climatic water balance (CWB), calculated as monthly precipitation sum
165 minus potential evapotranspiration. Potential evapotranspiration was estimated using the Thornthwaite
166 method. In addition, we quantified summer (May-June) vapour pressure deficit (VPD), an alternative

167 drought index measuring atmospheric dryness, calculated from daily mean temperature and relative
168 humidity following Duursma (2015).

169 **Reconstructed stored resources** To estimate annual variation in internal resources available for
170 reproduction, we reconstructed stored resources from long-term seed-production records following the
171 approach of Rees *et al.* (2002) (Fig. S1). For each tree, cumulative seed production was modeled as a
172 function of cumulative time (in years), with time treated as a proxy for cumulative resource acquisition.
173 Annual stored resources were then defined as the residual deviation from the expected cumulative seed
174 production given time, such that positive values indicate greater-than-expected unspent resources and
175 negative values indicate relative depletion. A detailed protocol is included as a supplementary file in
176 (Kelly *et al.*, 2025). We used Tree ID and site ID as random intercept and year as random slope, which
177 allowed fitting a unique intercept for each tree, which estimates stored resources of a tree at the beginning
178 of the monitoring period (Rees *et al.*, 2002). Random slope allowed heterogeneous resource acquisition
179 of individuals over time (Crone *et al.*, 2005; Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2018). Because that data requires long-
180 term observations, we used only trees with at least 10 years of monitoring and no more than 5 missing
181 observations.

182 Note that this approach does not make assumptions on the nature of the limiting resource, i.e.,
183 whether that is carbon, nitrogen, or another limiting resource (Han & Kabeya, 2017). Because cumulative
184 reproduction is on the Y axis, the units of resource reserves are seeds, including the combination of carbon,
185 nitrogen, and other resources required for reproduction in that species (Kelly *et al.*, 2025).

186 **Analysis**

187 **Temporal trend in seed mass** We first tested for long-term changes in seed mass using a generalized
188 linear mixed model (GLMM). Mean seed mass was modeled with a Gamma error distribution and log
189 link. The Gamma distribution was appropriate because seed mass is a continuous, positive variable. Year
190 was included as a smooth term to allow for a nonlinear trend, while tree identity and site were included as
191 random-effect smooths. We also included the interaction term between year and country to test whether
192 trends differ between datasets. That interaction was not significant ($P = 0.29$) and was removed from the
193 model.

194 **Year-to-year variation in seed mass** To test which factors explained year-to-year changes in seed
195 mass, we fitted a GLMM with a Gamma error distribution and log link. Tree identity and site were included

196 as random intercepts. Fixed effects were spring temperature (mean January-April temperature), summer
197 drought during seed filling (May-June), annual tree-level seed production in the focal year, reconstructed
198 stored resources (see below), and country (United Kingdom/Netherlands). Summer drought was tested
199 both as climatic water balance (CWB) and vapor pressure deficit (VPD); results were qualitatively the
200 same (Table S1), and we report CWB in the main text. All continuous predictors were standardized prior
201 to analysis by subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard deviation (z-transformation).

202 We have also tested for temporal trends in the above-listed predictors using Gaussian error, identity
203 link GLMMs. Spring temperature, summer drought, seed production, or reconstructed stored resources
204 (described below) were included as response variables in separate models, while year and country were
205 included as predictors. Site was included as a random intercept in all models, while treeID was additionally
206 included in the models that tested for trends in seed production and reconstructed resource levels. We
207 inspected the model residuals, and if they suggested a non-linear relationship, we fitted a focal predictor
208 using cubic splines.

209 **Trend attribution** To attribute the long-term change in seed mass to its potential drivers, we used
210 the temporal contribution approach of Fernández-Martínez *et al.* (2019). The full year-to-year seed-mass
211 model described above was used to predict annual seed mass across the study period. We then generated
212 predictions in which one predictor at a time was held constant (median), while all other predictors were
213 allowed to vary as observed. The contribution of a given predictor to the temporal change in seed mass
214 was calculated as the difference between the change predicted by the full model and the change predicted
215 when that predictor was held constant. The unexplained difference between the observed temporal change
216 and the sum of predictor-specific contributions was treated as an unknown component, representing the
217 residual temporal (year) effect not accounted for by the predictors included in the model. Uncertainty of
218 contributions was quantified by error propagation.

219 **Results**

220 Seed mass declined over time (Fig. 1A), and temporal contribution analysis indicated that this decline
221 was driven primarily by declining reconstructed stored resources, with an additional negative contribution
222 from increasing summer drought (Fig. 2A).

223 We detected a significant nonlinear temporal trend in seed mass ($F = 10.78$, $P = 0.001$). Model
224 predictions indicated that mean seed mass declined by 13% over the study period, from 0.26 g (95% CI:

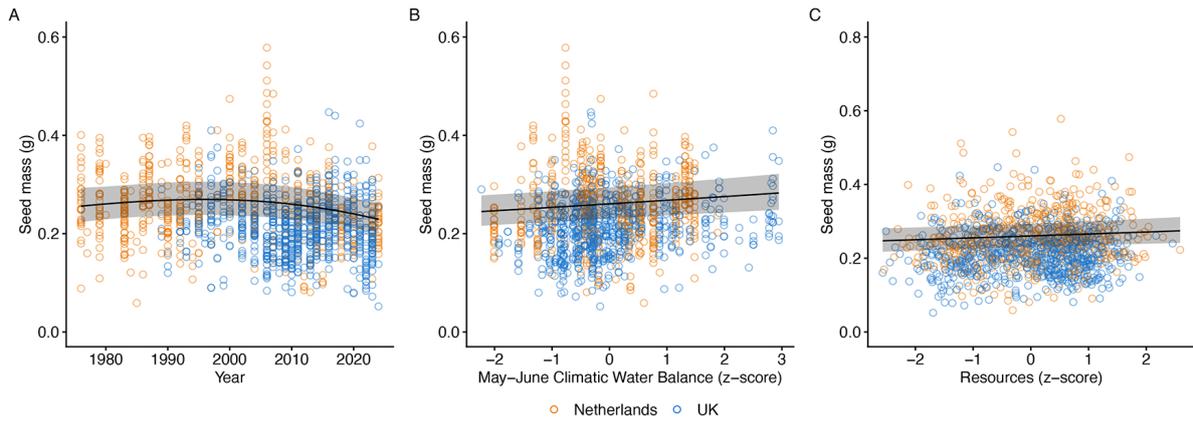


Figure 1: Seeds mass declined over time, was lower in dry years, and was lower when reconstructed resources were low. A) Seed mass over time, B) across summer (May-June) climatic water balance (CWB), and C) across reconstructed resource levels. Prediction lines are derived from a Generalized Mixed Models fitted with a Gamma error distribution and a log link function that included tree ID ($N = 159$ for A, $N = 103$ for B and C) and site ID ($N = 7$ for A-C) as random intercepts. Points show annual, tree-level measurements; colors show region (UK - 1989-2024; and Netherlands - 1976-2024). Resources are reconstructed using individual-level seed production, following the Rees *et al.* (2002) method, see text.

225 0.22-0.29) in 1976 to 0.23 g (95% CI: 0.20-0.26) in 2024 (Fig. 1a). The decline was non-linear, with
 226 seed mass generally stable until mid-2000 (Fig. 1A).

227 The model of year-to-year variation showed that seed mass was higher in years with greater recon-
 228 structed resource level ($\beta = 0.02 \pm 0.008$, $z = 2.64$, $P = 0.008$), corresponding to an estimated 11%
 229 change in seed mass across the observed range of the resource levels (Fig. 1). Seed mass was also higher
 230 in years with higher May-June climatic water balance ($\beta = 0.03 \pm 0.007$, $z = 3.73$, $P < 0.001$), indicating
 231 lower seed mass in drier years and corresponding to an estimated 15% change across the observed climatic
 232 gradient. Seed mass was unrelated to annual seed production ($\beta = 0.006 \pm 0.008$, $z = 0.79$, $P = 0.428$)
 233 and to January-April mean temperature ($\beta = 0.007 \pm 0.007$, $z = 0.97$, $P = 0.335$) (Table S1).

234 Consistent with these associations, temporal contribution analysis showed that declining reconstructed
 235 resources (Fig. 2B) explained the largest share of the long-term decline in seed mass, increasingly dry
 236 May-June conditions made an additional important contribution (Fig. 2), despite the underlying trend
 237 towards aridity being only modest ($P = 0.136$, Table S2). (Fig. 2A, C). In contrast, temporal changes in
 238 annual seed production and January-April temperature had negligible effects on the long-term trend (Fig.
 239 2A). A substantial fraction of the temporal change remained unexplained by the predictors included in
 240 the model (Fig. 2A).

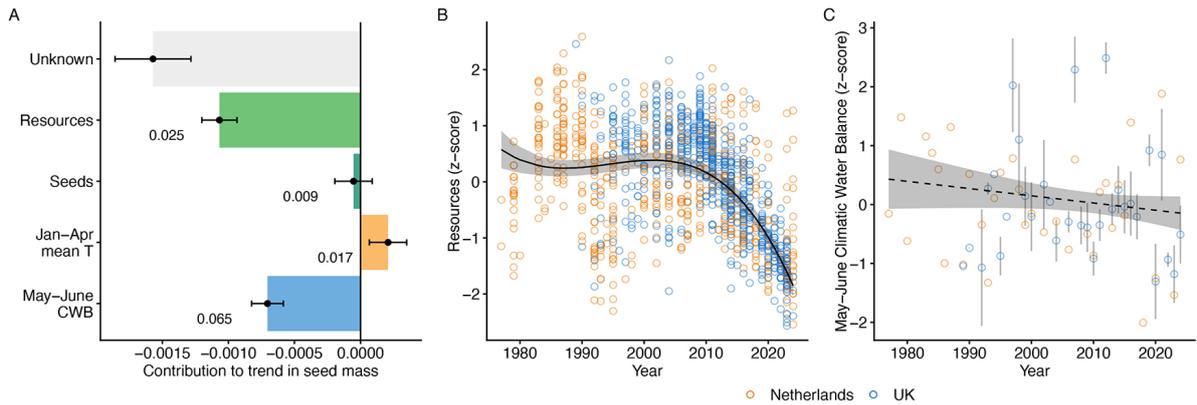


Figure 2: Seed mass decline in beech is associated with shifts in resource dynamics and increasing aridity. A) The analysis, based on 7 sites and 103 trees (1976-2024), indicated that the decline in reconstructed stored resources is the main contributor to the observed decrease in European beech seed mass, with an additional important effect via increasing drought (climatic water balance, CWB). The difference between the modeled contributions and the observed trend was considered an unknown contribution to the temporal variation of annual seed mass. The numbers alongside the bars show the sensitivity of seed mass to predictor changes (see Methods: Trend attribution, note that predictors are z-transformed). Error bars for associated contributions indicate SE. See Methods for information about the methodology used to calculate the contributions. Temporal trends of B) reconstructed resource levels C) summer (May-June) climatic water balance (CWB), with prediction line derived from GLMMs (Table S2). Points at B) show annual-tree level measurements, while at C) site level means and associated SD. Resources are estimated from measured individual-level seed production, following the Rees *et al.* (2002) method, see text

Discussion

Seed mass in European beech declined non-linearly by 13% over the study period, with the decrease emerging in the mid-2000s, and was attributed primarily to reduced estimated resource availability for reproduction, with an additional negative contribution from increasing summer drought. The dominant role of reconstructed resources suggests that the decline in seed mass is a direct response to progressing aridity, as well as an indirect consequence of altered reproductive dynamics under climate warming. In the UK, the same shift in reproductive dynamics has already been linked to reduced secondary growth, indicating that repeated reproduction can deplete the resources available for other functions (Hacket-Pain *et al.*, 2025). Consistent with this timing, other key processes—declines in interannual variation in seed production (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2020; Jantzen *et al.*, 2026) and in growth (Hacket-Pain *et al.*, 2025)—also showed non-linear changes emerging in the mid-2000s. Our findings suggest that seed provisioning is affected in the same way: as recovery intervals shorten, the resource pool available for seed filling declines, resulting in progressively lighter seeds.

Our results indicate that climate warming can affect tree performance indirectly by altering how resources are allocated among demographic functions. In European beech, warmer summers have increased the frequency of the temperature cues that trigger flowering, shifting reproduction from highly

257 variable and synchronized towards a more regular seed production (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2020; Foest
258 *et al.*, 2024; Jantzen *et al.*, 2026). This has direct consequences for reproductive efficiency: pollination
259 efficiency decreases, and pre-dispersal seed predation increases, so viable seed production declined even
260 if total seed output did not (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2023; Foest *et al.*, 2025b; Jantzen *et al.*, 2026). What
261 is more, these effects of increasing summer temperature on reproduction are accompanied by indirect
262 ones. By shortening the recovery intervals between reproductive events, warming alters the temporal
263 distribution of reproductive allocation, depletes stored resources, and has been linked to a 28% decline
264 in radial growth (Hackett-Pain *et al.*, 2025). Our results imply that seed mass declines through the same
265 general pathway. Thus, climate warming appears to be reorganizing resource allocation in beech in
266 ways that reduce not only reproductive efficiency, but also tree growth and offspring provisioning (i.e.,
267 seed size), creating cascading and interlinked demographic effects that would be missed if reproduction,
268 growth, and seed traits were considered in isolation (Lauder *et al.*, 2019; Macias & Redmond, 2025).

269 Lighter seeds are likely to reduce regeneration performance. In beech, seed mass positively affects
270 germination, and heavier seeds are associated with larger seedlings (Muffler *et al.*, 2021; Pawłowski *et al.*,
271 2024). More generally, the effects of intraspecific variation in seed mass on seedling performance are
272 well documented in trees, and available evidence suggests that the advantages of larger seeds are often
273 strongest under stressful conditions. In Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris*), larger seeds increased emergence
274 and initial shoot growth, with these differences stronger under more stressful soil conditions (Castro,
275 1999). In white oaks (*Quercus robur*, *Q. petraea*, *Q. pubescens*), seedlings from heavier acorns were
276 taller, heavier-seeded individuals more often became the dominant competitor, and competition reduced
277 the height of inferior competitors by 40% (Lander Gott *et al.*, 2012). Larger seeds also maintained higher
278 seedling biomass after damage, indicating that seed reserves can buffer early performance under stress
279 (Bartlow *et al.*, 2018). Seed mass may additionally influence animal-mediated dispersal. Scatter-hoarding
280 rodents generally prefer larger, higher-energy seeds, which they cache more often and disperse farther
281 or to safer sites (Lichti *et al.*, 2017). In mixed seed communities, a decline in beech seed mass could
282 place beech at a relative disadvantage relative to larger-seeded heterospecifics. Declining seed mass and
283 increasingly frequent drought are likely to reinforce one another during recruitment, because the benefits
284 of larger seeds tend to be greatest under stress (Castro, 1999; Lander Gott *et al.*, 2012), whereas beech
285 seedlings are themselves drought-sensitive and show reduced growth and lower establishment under
286 drought (Gebauer *et al.*, 2020; Robson *et al.*, 2009).

287 Year-to-year variation in seed mass indicates that offspring provisioning in beech is shaped by drought

288 during seed filling and by the state of internal resources. Seeds were, on average, 15% lighter in dry
289 than in wet years, and they were similarly smaller when reconstructed resource levels were low. By
290 contrast, seed mass was unrelated to seed production in the focal year, suggesting that reduced seed
291 mass does not arise from a seed size-number trade-off. Instead, the effect of resource levels agrees with
292 the assertion that mast-seeding plants accumulate resources to support large reproductive events, which
293 then deplete reserves and constrain reproduction in subsequent years (Satake & Iwasa, 2000; Pearse
294 *et al.*, 2016; Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2025). This interpretation is reinforced by a recent range-wide study
295 in European beech showing that seed mass is not reduced at high seed production, but that seed protein
296 content declines in high-seeding years, implying that nitrogen rather than carbon becomes limiting as
297 reproductive demand increases (Kondrat *et al.*, 2025). Although we lack retrospective measurements of
298 seed nutrient composition, this result suggests an additional consequence of disrupted resource dynamics:
299 repeated reproduction may progressively deplete nitrogen availability more strongly than carbon-based
300 seed biomass.

301 The negative effect of drought has similarly important consequences for regeneration. In dry years,
302 recruitment may be constrained both directly, because water limitation suppresses germination and
303 seedling performance (Gebauer *et al.*, 2020; Robson *et al.*, 2009), and indirectly, because smaller seeds
304 generally produce seedlings that are less buffered against drought stress (Castro, 1999; Pawłowski *et al.*,
305 2024). Future work should test whether seed nutrient composition has changed over time, and quantify
306 the consequences of smaller seeds under drier recruitment conditions. This is especially important now
307 that viable seed production is declining (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2023; Jantzen *et al.*, 2026), while disturbance
308 rates, and thus the need for regeneration, are increasing (Seidl & Turner, 2022; Grünig *et al.*, 2026).

309 One limitation of our study is that we infer changes in internal resource status indirectly, rather
310 than from direct measurements of carbon, nitrogen, or other nutrients in tree tissues. Such data would
311 be invaluable for identifying which resources decline through time and for testing whether warming
312 alters carbon and nutrient pools differently, but it is unsurprising that they are unavailable in monitoring
313 programs initiated in the 1970s or 1980s. Our analysis is also restricted to European beech, because this is
314 one of the few species for which long-term individual-level records of both seed production and seed mass
315 exist. Extending similar analyses to other masting species will be important, because climate warming
316 is altering reproductive dynamics more broadly, but not always in the same direction (Hackett-Pain &
317 Bogdziewicz, 2021). For example, warming-associated changes in weather cues have increased the
318 frequency of reproduction in some species, such as water oak (*Quercus crispula*) (Shibata *et al.*, 2020),

319 whereas in others, such as tawa (*Beilschmiedia tawa*), warming lowered cueing frequency and resulted
320 in long-term reproductive failure (Yukich-Clendon *et al.*, 2023). This suggests that climate change may
321 have contrasting effects on seeding frequency, resource dynamics, and other vital functions across species
322 (Macias & Redmond, 2025). By contrast, the negative effect of dry years on seed mass may prove more
323 general, given the widespread effects of drought on photosynthesis and plant carbon balance (Chuste
324 *et al.*, 2020; Hartmann *et al.*, 2020; Trugman & Anderegg, 2025). Testing whether drought consistently
325 reduces seed mass across species will be especially important, because warming appears to be reducing
326 fecundity more broadly (Foest *et al.*, 2026), and a parallel decline in offspring provisioning would further
327 constrain regeneration.

328 Seed mass is a fitness-related trait that has important effects on recruitment. Using two long-term
329 datasets from European beech, we show that seed mass has declined over recent decades, and that
330 this decline is explained primarily by reduced reconstructed resource availability, with an additional
331 contribution from drought during seed filling. Climate warming can affect tree performance through
332 shifts in resource dynamics that alter investment in each offspring, in addition to its direct effects on
333 growth, mortality, and fecundity. Because seed mass influences dispersal, early seedling growth, and
334 seedling survival (Clark *et al.*, 2007; Lichti *et al.*, 2017; Pawłowski *et al.*, 2024), a sustained decline in
335 seed mass is likely to scale up to reduced regeneration, especially as viable seed production declines
336 and disturbance rates increase (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2023; Foest *et al.*, 2026; Grünig *et al.*, 2026). At the
337 same time, concurrent changes in seed mass and masting dynamics may have complex consequences for
338 seed consumers: smaller seeds reduce energetic rewards, while more frequent but less synchronous seed
339 production can increase the prevalence of empty seeds, potentially leading to food shortages for species
340 that rely on beechnuts, particularly if alternative resources are limited.

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353

354 **Author Contributions Statement**

355 All authors designed the study. CCJ, MEV, AHP, LN, and JF collected and curated the data, CCJ and JS
356 analyzed the data, MB led the writing of the manuscript, and all authors revised the paper.

357

358 **Declaration of interests**

359 No competing interests to declare.

360

361 **Data availability statement**

362 The data and code supporting the results are archived in the Open Science Framework and are available
363 at: https://osf.io/psxje/overview?view_only=27923d63e2f440f0b2d52a4805eba222.

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569 **Supporting Information**

570 **Climate warming reduces seed mass in European beech through altered resource dynamics and**
571 **drought**

572

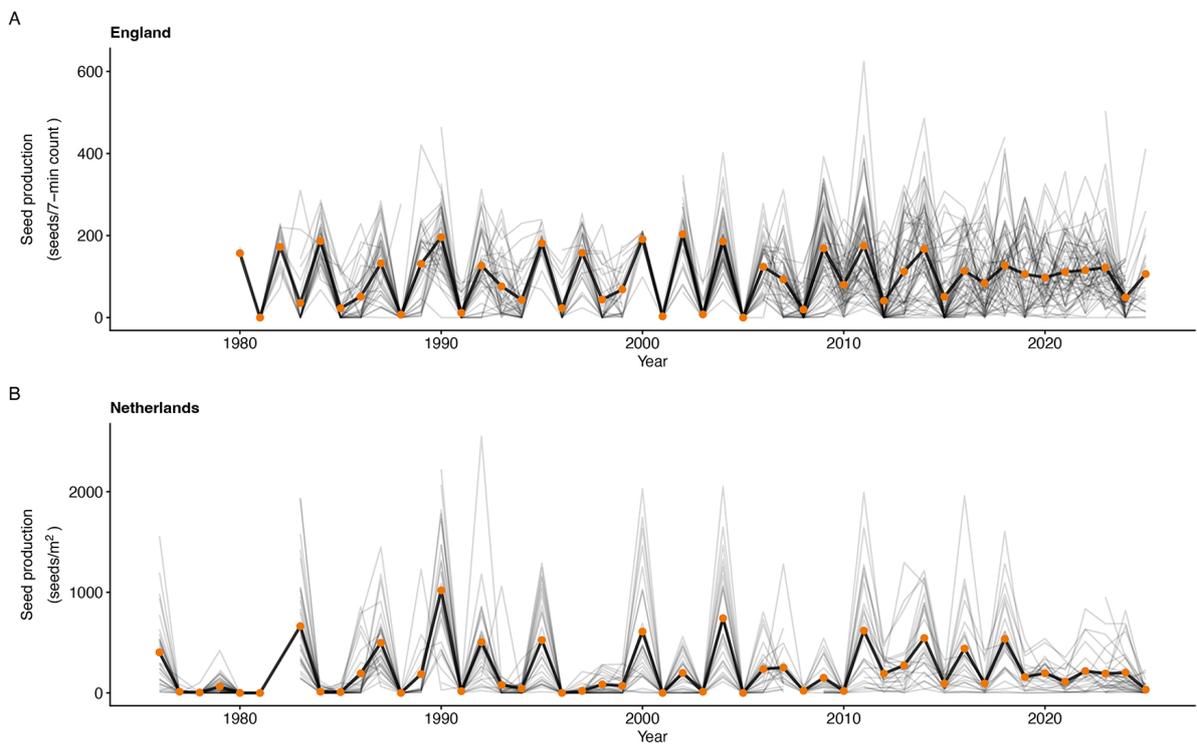


Figure S1: Seed production patterns of European beech in England (A) and Netherlands (B). Each line shows individual tree seed production (England: 85 trees, 6 sites; Netherlands: 74 trees, 1 site), while black thick lines show the country-level means (orange points).

Table S1: Models summary. Results of Generalized Mixed Models testing for the effects of summer (May-June) climatic water balance (Model I) or vapour pressure deficit (Model II), mean January-April temperature, seed production, and reconstructed resource levels on seed mass in European beech. The models were fitted with a Gamma error distribution (log link) and included tree ID (N = 103) and site ID (N = 7) as random intercepts.

Model term	Slope	SE	z	P
Model I				
Intercept	-1.373	0.062	-22.17	<0.001
May-June CWB	0.028	0.007	3.73	<0.001
Country (UK)	-0.199	0.068	-2.92	0.003
Seed production	0.006	0.008	0.79	0.428
January-April mean temperature	0.007	0.007	0.97	0.335
Resources	0.020	0.008	2.64	0.008
Model II				
Intercept	-1.375	0.063	-21.69	<0.001
May-June VPD	-0.024	0.008	-3.24	0.001
Country (UK)	-0.199	0.069	-2.85	0.004
Seed production	0.007	0.008	0.97	0.334
January-April mean temperature	0.011	0.007	1.54	0.124
Resources	0.019	0.008	2.48	0.013

Table S2: Temporal trends in predictors used in temporal contribution analysis. Each row shows a separate model with the year effect on the focal predictor. We used GLMMs, with site ID (all models) or additionally tree ID (resources and seeds model) as random intercepts. The models used a Gaussian error distribution and an identity link.

Predictor	Slope	SE	z	P
May-June CWB	-0.011	0.007	-1.49	0.136
Jan-Apr mean T	0.013	0.007	1.84	0.066
Resources	-0.043	0.002	-18.42	<0.001
Seeds	-0.006	0.002	-2.56	0.010