

Growth decline in European beech associated with temperature-driven increase in reproductive allocation

Andrew Hacket-Pain*¹, Jakub Szymkowiak^{2,3}, Valentin Journé³, Maciej K. Barczyk³, Peter A. Thomas⁴, Jonathan G.A. Lageard⁵, Dave Kelly⁵, Michał Bogdziewicz*³

¹Department of Geography and Planning, School of Environmental Sciences, University of Liverpool, Liverpool, United Kingdom.

²Population Ecology Research Unit, Institute of Environmental Biology, Faculty of Biology, Adam Mickiewicz University, Uniwersytetu Poznańskiego 6, 61-614 Poznan, Poland.

³Forest Biology Center, Institute of Environmental Biology, Faculty of Biology, Adam Mickiewicz University, Uniwersytetu Poznańskiego 6, 61-614 Poznan, Poland.

⁴School of Life Sciences, Keele University, Staffordshire ST5 5BG, United Kingdom.

⁵Department of Natural Sciences, Manchester Metropolitan University, Manchester M1 5GD, United Kingdom.

⁶School of Biological Sciences, University of Canterbury, Christchurch, New Zealand

*corresponding author: Andrew.Hacket-Pain@liverpool.ac.uk; michalbogdziewicz@gmail.com

Classification

Biological sciences: Ecology

Key words

Climate change, Tree demography, Tree growth, Tree rings, Mast seeding

24 **Abstract**

25 Climate change is impacting forests in complex ways, with indirect effects arising from interac-
26 tions between tree growth and reproduction often overlooked. Our 43-year study of European
27 beech (*Fagus sylvatica*), showed that rising summer temperatures since 2005 have led to more
28 frequent seed production events. This shift increases reproductive effort but depletes the trees'
29 stored resources due to insufficient recovery periods between seed crops. Consequently, annual
30 tree ring increments have declined by 28%, dropping from a stable average of 1.60 mm y⁻¹
31 between 1980 and 2005 to 1.16 mm y⁻¹ thereafter. Importantly, this growth decline occurred
32 without an accompanying trend in summer drought, indicating that altered reproductive pat-
33 terns—not moisture stress—are driving the reduction. This creates a "perfect storm": increased
34 reproductive effort drains resources, viable seed output falls due to the loss of mast-seeding
35 benefits via pollination and lower seed predation, and the ongoing growth decline reduces
36 current carbon uptake and future reproductive potential. These compounding factors threaten
37 the sustainability of Europe's most widespread forest tree. Our findings unveil a critical yet
38 underrecognized indirect mechanism by which climate change endangers forest ecosystems,
39 emphasizing the need to consider interactions between demographic processes when assessing
40 species vulnerability to climate change.

41 **Significance Statement**

42 Climate change effects on forest growth and reproduction are widely reported, but indirect
43 effects from their interactions are rarely demonstrated. In a 43-year study of European beech
44 (*Fagus sylvatica*), rising summer temperatures led to more frequent seed production (masting)
45 which unexpectedly also increased total reproductive investment. This increased reproductive
46 effort depletes stored resources, causing a 28% reduction in annual growth rates, even without
47 increased drought stress. Diminished growth will further reduce future reproductive potential,
48 creating a negative feedback loop. This "perfect storm" of decreased growth and reduced viable
49 seed output threatens the sustainability of Europe's most widespread forest tree. Our findings

50 reveal a novel indirect mechanism by which climate change endangers forests, highlighting the
51 need to consider interactions between demographic processes when assessing species sensitivity
52 to climate change.

53 **Introduction**

54 The influence of climate change on global forest demographics is now evident, often character-
55 ized by increased mortality rates (Senf *et al.*, 2018; Hartmann *et al.*, 2022), shifts in growth rates
56 (del Castillo *et al.*, 2022), and changes in fecundity (Redmond *et al.*, 2012; Bogdziewicz *et al.*,
57 2023). While the direct impacts of climate on these metrics have been extensively examined, the
58 interaction between demographic rates suggests the possibility of indirect effects (Clark *et al.*,
59 2014, 2021). For instance, mortality rates can increase when extreme weather events coincide
60 with reproductive phases that deplete plant reserves (Lauder *et al.*, 2019; Corona *et al.*, 2022).
61 This is particularly pertinent for species that mast, i.e. forgo regular reproduction in favor of
62 concentrating seed production into sporadic, large-scale events, resulting in strong resource
63 depletion (Sala *et al.*, 2012; Han & Kabeya, 2017; Lauder *et al.*, 2019). For example, in the tree
64 *Distylium lepidotum*, masting depletes stored starch, resulting in slower regrowth or increased
65 susceptibility to dieback following drought conditions (Nakamura *et al.*, 2021). Consequently,
66 alterations in reproductive patterns due to climate change, which are now increasingly docu-
67 mented (Hackett-Pain & Bogdziewicz, 2021; Foest *et al.*, 2024), may indirectly affect mortality
68 and growth rates. These indirect effects remain largely unexplored, primarily due to the scarcity
69 of long-term data on both seed production and subsequent impacts on growth or mortality (Clark
70 *et al.*, 2021). Nonetheless, acknowledging their existence is essential. These indirect effects can
71 shape trends in demographic rates, even without the expected changes in climatic conditions
72 that are known to directly influence these rates.

73 Weather effects on growth are typically understood in terms of photosynthesis and wood
74 formation processes, yet weather also affects resource allocation, such as between growth and
75 reproduction (Norton & Kelly, 1988; Lauder *et al.*, 2019; Leuschner, 2020). In masting plants,

76 allocation to reproduction can vary dramatically between years; for example, in European beech
77 (*Fagus sylvatica*), allocation to fruit production can vary 34-fold among years, from 508 g
78 m⁻² y⁻¹ to 15 g m⁻² y⁻¹, which negatively correlates with growth allocation (Müller-Haubold
79 *et al.*, 2015). In years of high seed production, more carbon may be invested in reproduction
80 than aboveground growth (Genet *et al.*, 2009; Müller-Haubold *et al.*, 2013). Besides resource
81 trade-offs, indirect effects such as the replacement of leaf buds with flower buds also affect
82 growth (Müller-Haubold *et al.*, 2015; Vergotti *et al.*, 2019). These processes might exacerbate
83 whole-tree shortages in carbon supply during high seed years, especially in the early growing
84 season when carbon demand is high (Mund *et al.*, 2020).

85 The strong links between masting and weather render masting potentially sensitive to climate
86 change (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2024). For instance, masting in Japanese oak (*Quercus crispula*)
87 is correlated with warm springs, resulting in shortened intervals between mast years from a
88 4-year cycle to a 2-year cycle as temperatures rise (Shibata *et al.*, 2020). In European beech,
89 masting is triggered by summer temperature cues (Vacchiano *et al.*, 2017; Journé *et al.*, 2024).
90 Elevated summer temperatures in recent decades have increased the frequency of weather cues,
91 leading to more frequent initiation of reproduction, and dampening interannual variability of
92 masting; a trend now detected across Europe (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2021; Foest *et al.*, 2024).
93 In principle, masting only affects how a constant reproductive allocation (RA, the fraction of
94 all plant resources devoted to reproduction) is distributed among years to increase reproductive
95 efficiency (Kelly, 2020), but it is possible that changing cue frequency might also lead to changes
96 in RA. To the extent that changed reproductive investment limits resources allocated to growth,
97 such disrupted temporal allocation to reproduction has the potential to impact growth patterns
98 and long-term growth trends (Leuschner, 2020). However, the indirect effects of climate change
99 on growth, through effects on reproduction, have not yet been investigated.

100 Beech is considered a highly drought-sensitive species, and defoliation, dieback and mortality
101 responses to recent severe summer droughts have raised concerns about the species' long-term
102 future under climate change (Geßler *et al.*, 2007; Leuschner, 2020; Buras *et al.*, 2020). In
103 addition to the response to individual extreme droughts, growth declines are occurring across
104 the species distribution, driven by increased summer aridity, with stronger declines at drier sites

105 (del Castillo *et al.*, 2022; Weigel *et al.*, 2023). Nonetheless, while the link between European
106 beech masting and interannual variation in growth is well established (Müller-Haubold *et al.*,
107 2015; Hacket-Pain *et al.*, 2018), the potential for longer-term changes in masting to influence
108 growth trends remains untested (Leuschner, 2020). In this study, we explore the potential
109 effects of warming-driven disruptions in masting patterns on radial growth using populations of
110 European beech (*Fagus sylvatica*) in which seed production has been monitored annually for 43
111 years (1980 - 2022).

112 To untangle how the coupled growth-reproduction system has responded to climate warming,
113 we cored 57 individuals in which seed production has been monitored as a part of the English
114 Beech Mast Survey since 1980 (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2020b). Tree rings offer annual measures of
115 radial tree growth. They are widely used to study long-term changes in growth patterns (Jump
116 *et al.*, 2006; del Castillo *et al.*, 2022), and allow us to match individual-level seed production data
117 with growth variation. We first tested how tree-level annual growth rate, as measured by tree
118 ring increments, is correlated with tree-level seed production in the current and previous year,
119 and with summer drought. Seed production in the previous year was included as strong masting-
120 driven depletion of resources could produce a carry-over effect and reduce growth the following
121 year (Hacket-Pain *et al.*, 2017). Next, we evaluated the temporal trends in growth and attributed
122 the trend to variations in seed production and drought, all in the context of changes in tree
123 size. We predicted that more regular reproduction caused by a warming climate (Bogdziewicz
124 *et al.*, 2020b, 2021) will reduce growth through the existence of a trade-off between masting and
125 growth, even if the UK is not currently experiencing increasing summer drought due to climate
126 change (Environment Agency, 2023). To better evaluate the impact of reproduction on each
127 tree's remaining resources (including nitrogen, which is important for reproductive resource
128 dynamics: (Abe *et al.*, 2016)), we estimated net plant resources each year following Rees *et al.*
129 (2002). For each tree, this estimated unspent resources as that year's residual from a regression
130 of cumulative seed production against time (a proxy for cumulative resource gain), thereby
131 integrating the impact of all recent reproduction. Next, we tested for the temporal change in
132 the negative association between radial growth and summer temperatures in the preceding year.
133 That correlation arises through indirect effects, as high summer temperatures trigger masting the

134 following year, diminishing growth (Hackett-Pain *et al.*, 2018; Leuschner, 2020). As warming
135 has reduced the sensitivity of seed production to summer temperatures (Bogdziewicz *et al.*,
136 2021), we expected that to translate into weaker effects of summer temperatures on growth
137 increments.

138 **Results**

139 Despite no change in summer drought (May-July water deficit) over the most recent four decades,
140 European beech annual radial growth has declined by 28%. During the period 1980-2005,
141 estimated growth rate was a relatively stable average of 1.6 mm per year, but this progressively
142 declined to 1.16 mm per year by 2022 (Fig 1), after accounting for the effect of increasing tree
143 size over the study period. The onset of this growth decline coincided with the timing of the shift
144 in European beech masting at our site, which changed state to more regular and less synchronized
145 reproduction ("masting breakdown") as a result of warming temperatures (Fig. S1) (Bogdziewicz
146 *et al.*, 2020b, 2023). Concurrently, and in agreement with UK Environment Agency analysis
147 of summer precipitation and hydrological records, we detected no trends in summer drought,
148 as measured as the ratio of precipitation to potential evapotranspiration (P-PET) for the period
149 May-July (Fig. S2, Table S1).

150 As expected, masting was an important driver of high-frequency growth variation, with
151 narrower growth rings following high-seed years (Fig. 2). Summer drought and allocation to
152 reproduction combined to determine annual radial growth, which included a lagged effect of the
153 previous year's reproduction on growth. Growth was reduced most strongly when high seeding
154 co-occurred with drought (Fig. 2). For example, in years when seeding failed, the estimated
155 growth rate was 2.2 mm y⁻¹, but less than 1 mm y⁻¹ when mast years co-occurred with drought.
156 The effect of seed production on growth ($\beta = -0.10$, SE = 0.03) was similar to that of drought (β
157 = 0.13, SE = 0.03) during the pre-breakdown period (1980-2005). While the effect of drought
158 on growth remained largely unchanged over the last four decades, the effect of the current and
159 previous year reproduction of growth has decreased in the last two decades (post-breakdown,
160 2006-2022) (Fig. 2).

161 Trend attribution analysis showed that the beech growth decline was explained mainly by

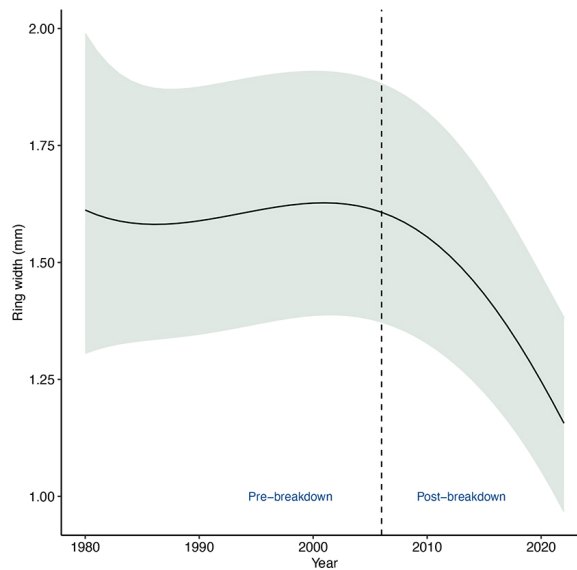


Figure 1: Decline in European beech growth over the last four decades A) Estimated annual tree ring increments; estimate derived from a generalized additive mixed model that included tree ID ($N = 57$) and site ($N = 7$) as random intercepts, and year and tree DBH (diameter at breast height) as predictors. Shading shows a 95% confidence interval. The dashed vertical line shows the year 2006, at which masting at our populations changed the state into more regular and desynchronised seed production, called "masting breakdown" (Fig. S1).

162 allocation to reproduction (Fig. 3). Allocation to seed production was the only significant
 163 contributor to the trend in annual growth rate, with the sensitivity of growth to increasing
 164 allocation to reproduction -0.002 (mm y^{-1} ring increment reduction per additional seed counted).
 165 In turn, consistent with a lack of trend in drought, summer water deficit was not a contributor to
 166 growth trends (Fig. 3).

167 Reconstruction of tree-level stored resources from seed production data, following the method
 168 of Rees *et al.* (2002), indicates that more frequent reproduction associated with masting break-
 169 down has led to progressive resource depletion (Fig. 4). In the first two decades of monitoring,
 170 mean stored resources fluctuated stably above zero (bin averages: 14.2 - 21.7). However, fre-
 171 quent and greatly synchronized low-seed years (Fig. S1) in the 2002-2006 period appear to
 172 have caused an initial increase in stored resources ($\bar{x} = 84.6$). After 2006, when more frequent
 173 weather cues caused plants to flower more often and less in synchrony, resources progressively
 174 declined, with negative averages recorded in 2012-2016 ($\bar{x} = -34.5$) and 2017-2022 ($\bar{x} = -39$)
 175 (Fig. 4, Fig. S3). That analysis suggests that a change in seed production pattern to more
 176 regular masting depleted plant resources due to insufficient recovery periods between seed crop
 177 production.

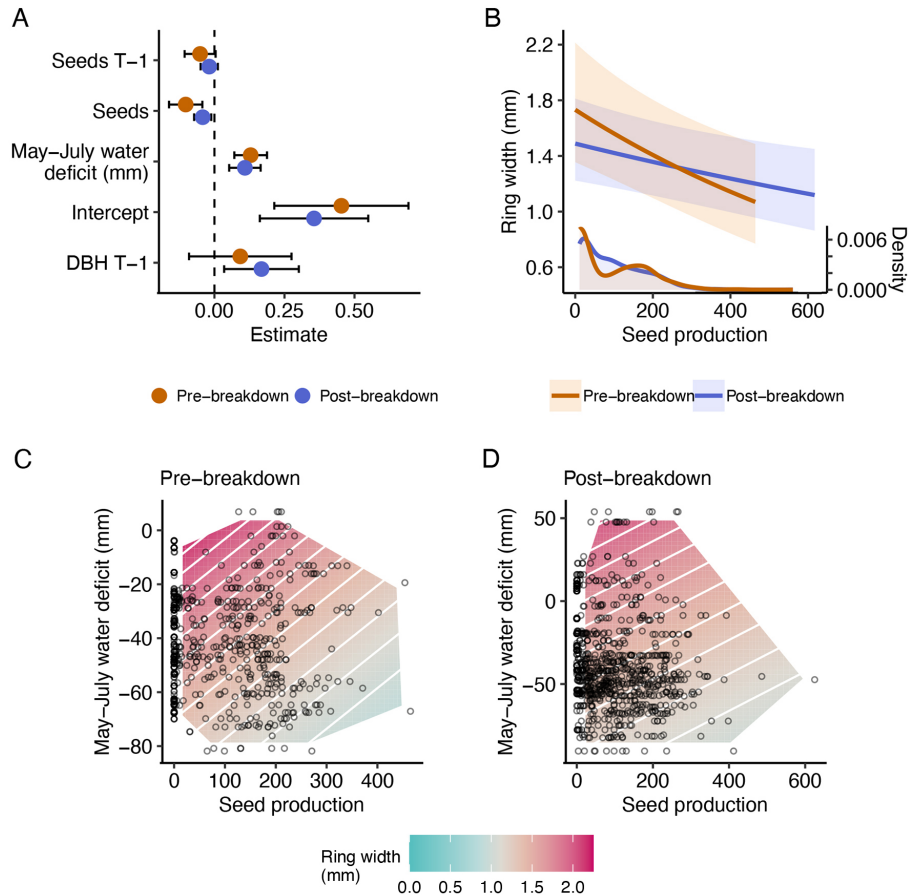


Figure 2: High-frequency variation in growth rate is related to summer drought and allocation to reproduction. A) Effect sizes of lagged seed production, production in the current year, summer drought, and previous year DBH on annual growth rates. Slopes and associated standard errors are estimated with a GLMM model with Gamma family error distribution that included tree ID ($N = 57$) and site ($N = 7$) as random intercepts. B) Relationship between the tree ring width and seed production pre-2006 (red) and post-2006 (blue); estimates and associated 95% CI are derived from the same model as presented at A). The inset density plot shows the distribution of observations. Surface plots at C) and D) show estimated growth rates across combinations of current-year seed production and summer water deficit, with the convex hulls defined by observations (black points). Predictions are derived from the same GLMM model as slopes presented at A). The y-axis range at D) may suggest that post 2006 period was less dry compared to before 2006, but we detected no trends in summer water deficit (Table S1), and that shift in y-axis range is largely driven by unusually wet 2007 (Fig. S2).

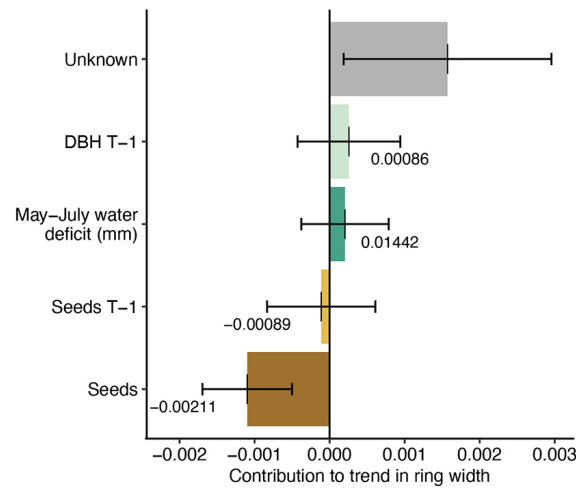


Figure 3: Contribution of the predictor variables to European beech growth trend. The analysis, based on 7 sites and 57 trees (1980–2022), indicated that change in patterns of seed production is the main contributor to the observed decrease in European beech annual growth rate (tree ring increments). The difference between the modeled contributions and the observed trend was considered an unknown contribution to the temporal variation of annual growth. The numbers alongside the bars show the sensitivity of ring width to predictor changes (see Methods: Trend attribution). Error bars for associated contributions indicate standard errors. See Methods for information about the methodology used to calculate the contributions.

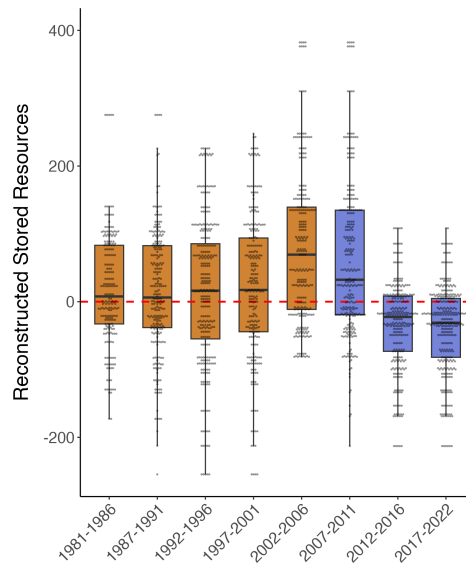


Figure 4: Temporal decline after 2006 in the reconstructed stored plant resources suggests an increase in relative reproductive allocation post-breakdown (blue bins). Resources are estimated from individual-level seed production data, following the Rees *et al.* (2002) method, see text. Boxplots are based on tree-level averages in each bin (shown as swarmed grey points), while the non-binned data is presented in Fig. S3. Resources in 2002-2006 and in 2007-2011 were significantly higher than in all other groups, while in 2012-2016 and 2017-2022 were significantly lower than in all other groups. Colors show periods before (red) and after (blue) 2006, when masting changed the state to less interannually variable and synchronized reproduction ("masting breakdown"; Fig. S1).

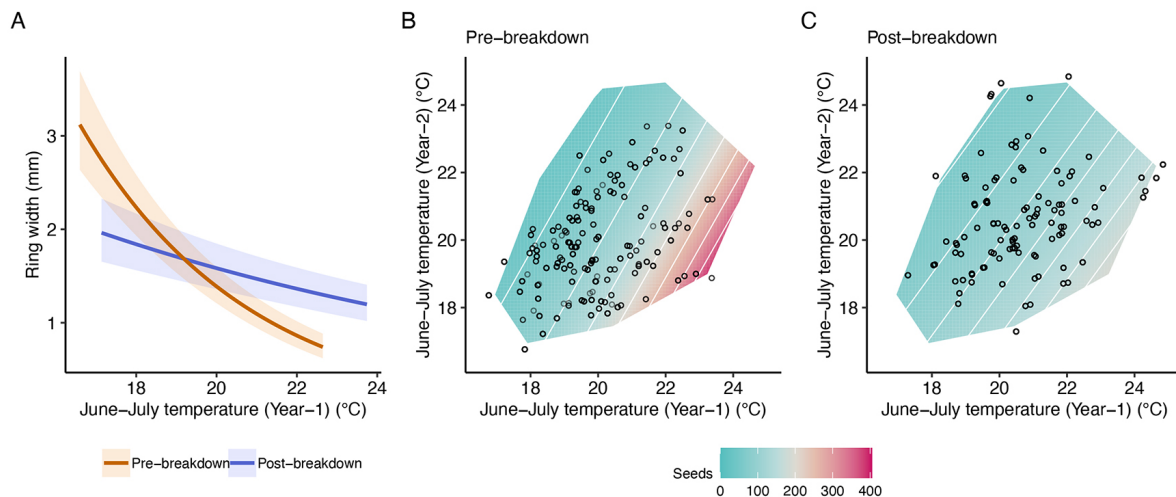


Figure 5: Weakening sensitivity of annual growth rate to previous year summer temperatures mirrors the similar pattern in association between seed production and summer temperatures. A) Association between annual tree ring increments and June-July mean max temperatures in the previous year, predicted for the period before (red) and after (blue) 2006, when masting changed the state to less interannually variable reproduction. Prediction lines are derived from a GLMM model with tree ID ($N = 57$) and site ($N = 7$) as random intercepts, shading shows associated 95% confidence intervals. Surface plots at B) and C) show estimated seed production across combinations of summer (June-July) temperatures one (T1) and two years (T2) before seed fall, with the convex hulls defined by observations (black points). Predictors are derived from zero-inflated negative binomial GLMM with tree ID and site used as random intercepts.

178 The strength of the relationship between growth and the previous year's summer temperature
 179 declined by two-thirds over time, with effect size -0.33 ($SE = 0.02$) before 2006, and -0.12 ($SE =$
 180 0.02) after that year (Fig. 5A). Annual growth was estimated as 2.7 mm for temperatures below
 181 $18\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ in the pre-breakdown period, which is reduced by 30% to 1.91 mm in the post-breakdown
 182 period. At the same time, at a temperature of $22\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, growth was estimated as 0.85 mm, which
 183 increased 1.6-fold to 1.36 mm (Fig. 5A). This is consistent with the observation that warming has
 184 broken the link between seed production and previous years' summer temperature (Fig. 5B,C),
 185 and a weakening of the relationship between growth and seed production (Fig. 2A,B). Cool
 186 summer temperatures in the previous year are no longer strongly associated with seeding failure
 187 (Fig. 5C), when growth is highest. Pre-2006, seed production was largely concentrated in years
 188 that followed a sequence of cold and hot summers ((Fig. 5B). Post-breakdown (2006-2022),
 189 seed production was weakly associated with previous summer temperatures (Fig. 5C).

190 Discussion

191 Evidence gathered in this study indicates that climate-driven shifts to more frequent reproduc-
192 tion may explain the observed decline in European beech growth rate. Consequently, we show
193 a previously unidentified and indirect mechanism for climate change-driven growth decline
194 in European beech, that may be operating covertly alongside a direct drought-driven decline
195 already reported in other populations (Jump *et al.*, 2006; del Castillo *et al.*, 2022). The role
196 of reproduction in mediating the response of growth to warming is consistent with the pro-
197 posal of Leuschner (2020) that shifts in allocation to reproduction may contribute to reported
198 growth responses to nitrogen deposition in Europe. It is also consistent with an observation
199 that under experimentally-induced drought, holm oak (*Quercus ilex*), strawberry tree (*Arbutus*
200 *unedo*), beech and spruce (*Picea abies*) maintain fecundity at the expense of reduced growth
201 (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2020a; Hesse *et al.*, 2021). In our case, growth decline occurs despite
202 no long-term trend in summer drought stress, because climate warming changes the temporal
203 allocation of resources to reproduction. While this can explain the recent growth decline in the
204 absence of increased summer drought stress in UK beech forests, we suspect that this driver may
205 also be contributing to the reported growth declines across Europe (del Castillo *et al.*, 2022),
206 where consistent warming-driven changes in masting are also occurring (Foest *et al.*, 2024).
207 A priority for future research is understanding how the reproduction-driven growth decline
208 mechanism reported here operates in conjunction with increases in summer drought stress.

209 Growth decreased in our populations because reproductive effort increased. Typically,
210 variations in masting — the allocation of seeds across years — are assumed not to affect the
211 long-term mean reproductive allocation (RA; Kelly (2020)). However, changes in RA are seldom
212 tested, particularly in masting species, due to high interannual and interindividual variability.
213 Previous studies on the English Beech Mast Survey initially reported a recent increase in mean
214 seed production (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2020b), but this was later attributed mainly to a gradual
215 increase in tree sizes over time (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2021). Our method that estimates an
216 individual plant's reserves based on its cumulative seed production is more sensitive because
217 it is less affected by short-term variability and allows the effects of large seed crops to persist
218 over several years. Hence, the observed decrease in plant reserves from higher reproductive

219 investment post-breakdown plausibly explains the growth declines. Importantly, our findings
220 provide a rare demonstration in a mast-seeding tree that changes in the frequency of weather
221 cues can alter both the temporal pattern of reproduction and the mean level of investment
222 (RA). Although increased RA under climate change was initially considered a potential issue
223 (McKone *et al.*, 1998), resource-based models Satake & Iwasa (2000); Rees *et al.* (2002) later
224 suggested that changes in RA were unlikely. Our results challenge this notion, highlighting a
225 novel mechanism by which climate change can impact tree growth through altered reproductive
226 strategies.

227 Shifting allocation to reproduction is an important contributor to the observed decline in
228 growth, despite the weakening of the growth-reproduction trade-off. Post masting breakdown,
229 the positive growth response to low-to-medium seed production (0-150 seeds) weakens compared
230 to the pre-breakdown period, i.e. years of low seed production are no longer associated with such
231 a large positive growth response. We interpret this as a consequence of increasingly resource-
232 limited conditions, caused by more frequent reproduction. Strong depletion of carbon and other
233 nutrients in association with masting is widely documented (Sala *et al.*, 2012; Han & Kabeya,
234 2017; Ronc  *et al.*, 2023), and fruit removal experiments in trees prove that reproduction depletes
235 resources (Sala *et al.*, 2012; Ronc  *et al.*, 2023). We hypothesize that more frequent reproduction
236 is depleting internal resource reserves, inhibiting the strong positive growth response to low seed
237 production. This effect is not offset by the corresponding dampening of growth response to peak
238 seed production because high seed production years are rare, particularly post-breakdown.

239 The transition in masting patterns toward more consistent reproduction, and the weaker
240 effects of seed production on growth, paralleled a diminishing correlation between growth and
241 the previous summer temperature. This lagged correlation is ubiquitous in European beech
242 tree ring chronologies, and results from an indirect effect of summer temperature-cued masting
243 and a growth-reproduction trade-off (Piovesan & Schirone, 2000; Hacket-Pain *et al.*, 2018).
244 The correlation is typically stronger in older or larger trees Hacket-Pain *et al.* (2016), probably
245 because investment in reproduction increases with age (Genet *et al.*, 2009; Pesendorfer *et al.*,
246 2020). In contrast, we found the opposite trend. The decline in correlation over time resulted
247 from the weakening of the growth reproduction trade-off, combined with the reduced sensitivity

248 of seed production to summer temperatures. These effects are likely due to shortened intervals
249 between seeding events, limiting the accumulation of reserves for substantial seeding efforts
250 (Rees *et al.*, 2002; Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2021). Our findings align with this narrative; historically,
251 a strong association between summer weather and masting led to predictable and synchronized
252 peak seed production years following warm summers, accompanied by significant negative
253 growth anomalies. However, currently, such warm summers are less reliably linked to high seed
254 production, resulting in less predictable growth responses. That suggests that the breakdown in
255 masting is linked to “signatures” in tree-ring chronologies, i.e. weakened correlations between
256 growth and previous summer temperatures, which might help identify effects described here
257 even in the absence of direct monitoring of both seed production and growth.

258 The indirect effects of altered reproductive patterns on growth rates can vary depending on the
259 reproductive biology of the species under consideration. In European beech, and other species
260 where masting is triggered by high temperatures (Fernández-Martínez *et al.*, 2017; Zamorano
261 *et al.*, 2018; Pesendorfer *et al.*, 2020), warming which exceeds the capacity of the species to
262 adapt or acclimate could potentially amplify annual allocation to reproduction and decrease
263 its inter-annual variation (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2024; Foest *et al.*, 2024), resulting in declining
264 radial growth. Conversely, in species where reproduction is stimulated by low temperatures
265 or suppressed by high temperatures, warming may reduce the frequency of high-seed years,
266 enabling higher investment in growth. For instance, in *Beilschmiedia tawa*, reduced frequency
267 of low winter and summer temperature cues resulted in reproductive failure in warmer sites
268 (Yukich-Clendon *et al.*, 2023). On the other hand, masting in other species like North American
269 conifers seems to be largely insensitive to weather trends, which could render their reproductive
270 patterns resistant to climate change (LaMontagne *et al.*, 2021). Consequently, as the climate
271 warms, reproduction frequency may decrease or increase, depending on the masting mechanisms
272 in operation (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2024), with potentially predictable responses of growth. The
273 growth response to a change in reproductive allocation will also depend on the strength of
274 trade-offs between seed production and growth (Thomas, 2011; Patterson *et al.*, 2023). Tree
275 ring measurements offer the potential to reconstruct growth patterns in populations in which
276 seed production has been monitored for decades (Hackett-Pain *et al.*, 2022), opening the avenues

277 for testing these hypotheses.

278 In summary, the breakdown of masting within our populations correlates with a decline in
279 growth, even without concurrent trends in summer aridity (del Castillo *et al.*, 2022). This reveals
280 a previously unrecognized indirect pathway by which climate change can influence growth
281 trends — through its effect on tree reproduction. The documented decline in growth presents
282 a concerning scenario for European beech populations, which now face a cascade of negative
283 effects under warming temperatures. Declining growth indicates reduced vitality, reduced
284 future reproduction due to smaller plant size, lower carbon uptake, increased vulnerability to
285 future climate extremes, and could serve as a precursor to dieback and mortality (Dobbertin,
286 2005; Gillner *et al.*, 2013; Neycken *et al.*, 2022). Moreover, despite increased reproductive
287 effort, the breakdown in masting means the trees actually produce fewer viable seeds. Reduced
288 flowering synchrony and decreased interannual variability lead to higher seed predation and
289 decreased pollination efficiency, resulting in up to an 80% decrease in viable seed production
290 (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2020b, 2023). While life history theory predicts that long-lived plants should
291 avoid reproduction that lowers survival (Obeso, 2002; Thomas, 2011), an abruptly changed
292 environment may render the regulation of reproduction maladaptive, with broad consequences
293 for demographic rates. Thus, European beech faces a "perfect storm" under climate change:
294 lower growth, lower carbon uptake, higher flowering effort, and lower viable seed production,
295 all at a time when robust regeneration and carbon uptake are crucial for forests across Europe.

296 **Materials and Methods**

297 **Study system and data collection**

298 European beech is a major forest-forming species in temperate Europe, with high economic
299 and ecological importance (Leuschner & Ellenberg, 2017). Beech is a model masting species,
300 with seed production characterized by large interannual variation and synchrony (Nilsson &
301 Wastljung, 1987; Mund *et al.*, 2020). High seed production negatively correlates with above-
302 ground productivity (Müller-Haubold *et al.*, 2013, 2015; Hackett-Pain *et al.*, 2017). Across the
303 species range, annual growth is mainly driven by early summer moisture availability (Dorado-

304 Liñán *et al.*, 2022; Weigel *et al.*, 2023).

305 The English Beech Mast Survey was established in 1980, with seed production sampled
306 at 15 sites across England annually (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2023). The ground below each tree
307 was searched for seeds for 7 minutes, and the collected seeds were later sorted and counted
308 in the laboratory. Our past studies on these beech populations have shown that interannual
309 variability and among-trees synchrony of beech seed production declined by $\tilde{30}\%$ over the past
310 four decades, which includes less frequent reproductive failures (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2020b).
311 The state of masting changed abruptly after 2005, the last highly synchronized year. Post-
312 2005, masting switched to more regular and less synchronized reproduction, termed "masting
313 breakdown" (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2021). Interannual variation of seed production associated
314 with masting increases reproductive efficiency through reduced seed predation and improved
315 pollination efficiency (Kelly, 1994; Pearse *et al.*, 2016). Consequently, masting breakdown
316 decreased pollination efficiency and increased seed predation, reducing viable seed production by
317 50-80%, depending on tree size (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2023). Trend attribution analysis suggested
318 that temperature that rose $\sim 1^\circ\text{C}$ over the last four decades was responsible (Bogdziewicz *et al.*,
319 2020b). Proximally, the masting breakdown is caused by increased frequency of weather cues
320 that trigger flowering (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2021). Recurrent cueing increased the fraction of
321 years when flowering is triggered, which has led to less frequent failures and more regular
322 reproduction (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2020b, 2021), a trend now reported over the majority of
323 European beech range (Foest *et al.*, 2024).

324 In 2022, we cored 57 trees across 7 sites. Cores were extracted using an increment corer,
325 at 1.3m above ground level, and perpendicular to any slope to avoid tension wood. 1-2 cores
326 were sampled per trees, air-dried, and then prepared using standard dendrochronological meth-
327 ods. Polished cores were imaged using a flatbed scanner, and ring width was measured using
328 CooRecorder v9.8.1 (Maxwell & Larsson, 2021).

329 We extracted daily weather data for each site from the corresponding 0.1° grid cell of the
330 E-OBS dataset (Cornes *et al.*, 2018). The summer water deficit was calculated as $P - PET$,
331 with P standing for precipitation and PET for potential evapotranspiration, summed from May
332 1st to July 31st del Castillo *et al.* (2022); Weigel *et al.* (2023). Evapotranspiration PET was

333 calculated based on the Thornthwaite equation (Thornthwaite, 1948) using the R package SPEI
334 (Beguería & Vicente-Serrano, 2017).

335 **Data analysis**

336 **Trends in annual growth.** We have started our analysis by testing for the temporal trends in
337 annual tree ring increments in sampled trees. To this end, we have fitted a generalized linear
338 mixed model (GLMM) that included tree ID (N = 57) and site (N = 7) as random intercepts.
339 We used the Gamma family error and log link. Tree ring chronologies typically contain low-
340 frequency trends associated with changes in tree size and competition. All our sampled trees
341 were reproductively mature and at least canopy co-dominant when first added to the mastig
342 survey, so we did not statistically detrend ring width. Instead, our model included year and tree
343 diameter at breast height (DBH) in the year prior to growth as predictors. The year effect was
344 fitted with a B-spline to allow for non-linear trends.

345 **High-frequency variation in growth increments.** To test for the relationship between annual
346 tree ring increments, summer drought, and seed production, we have fitted a GLMM, with a
347 Gamma family error term and log link. Tree ID and site ID were used as random intercepts, while
348 drought (May-July water deficit), seed production in the current year (T), and seed production
349 in the previous year (T-1), and tree size (DBH) in the previous year (T-1) were used as fixed
350 effects.

351 **Trend attribution analysis.** To attribute the temporal trends in annual tree ring increments to
352 its possible drivers, we used the temporal contribution method (Fernández-Martínez & Maspons,
353 2019; Pesendorfer *et al.*, 2020). First, using the tree ID and site as the random intercepts, we
354 modeled annual growth as a function of drought (May-July water deficit), seed production
355 (current and past, T and T-1), and tree size. We then used the full model to predict the change
356 in ring increments during the study period (1980–2022). We first calculated the observed trend
357 (slope estimate \pm standard error of the slope estimate) in our data using GLMMs with random
358 intercepts. We then calculated the trend predicted by the full model and the trends predicted
359 by the same model but maintaining the predictors constant one at a time (for example, drought

360 is held constant, using the mean values per site, while all other predictors change according
361 to the observations). The difference between the trend predicted by the full model and when
362 one variable was controlled was the contribution of that predictor variable to the change in the
363 response variable. The difference between all individual contributions and the observed trend
364 was considered to be unknown contributions. Finally, we calculated the average ring width
365 sensitivities to predictor changes by taking the differences between the full model trend and the
366 trends from the models with the predictors held constant, and dividing it by the trends of the
367 predictor variables. All errors were calculated using the error-propagation method (Fernández-
368 Martínez & Maspons, 2019).

369 **Reconstructing stored resources** To estimate how change in masting patterns affected rel-
370 ative allocation to reproduction, we reconstructed individual tree stored resources from seed
371 production data, following the approach developed by Rees *et al.* (2002). In short, this analysis
372 includes fitting a linear model of cumulative reproduction (summed seed count) vs cumulative
373 years (as a surrogate of resource acquisition over time). We used generalized linear mixed mod-
374 els (GLMMs) implemented via the ‘lme4’ package (Bates *et al.*, 2015) with plant ID and site
375 ID as random intercept and year as random slope. The random effect structure allowed fitting a
376 unique intercept for each plant which estimates stored resources of a plant at the beginning of
377 the monitoring period (Rees *et al.*, 2002), while random slope allowed heterogeneous resource
378 acquisition of individuals over time (Crone *et al.*, 2005). Because that analysis requires long-
379 term, continuous observations, we used a subset of trees from the English Beech Mast Survey
380 that have been monitored for at least 30 years ($N = 56$).

381 To test whether estimated stored resources, and therefore relative allocation to reproduction,
382 have changed over time, we have binned the stored resources into 5-year-long bins, and calculated
383 the tree-level mean for each bin. That was done to smooth over the large year-to-year variation
384 associated with masting (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2020b, 2023). We adjusted the bins to have 2006
385 as one of the bin borders; in consequence, the first and last bins have 6 years. The differences
386 among bins were tested with an LMM model that included tree and site ID as random intercepts.

387 **Growth and seed production sensitivity to weather cues.** We tested for the temporal change
388 in the association between radial growth and summer temperatures in the preceding year with
389 a Gamma family, log link GLMM model. The model included tree ID and site ID as random
390 intercepts and the previous year's mean maximum summer (June-July) temperature as a fixed
391 effect and tree size (DBH) as a covariate. A similar model was constructed for seed production.
392 Here, we used zero-inflated negative binomial GLMM with log-link, and two fixed factors: seed
393 production in the previous year (T-1) and two years before seed fall (T-2). That is because the
394 relationship between the T1 summer temperature is conditional on the T2 summer temperature;
395 cold T2 summer enhances the response to T1 temperature (Vacchiano *et al.*, 2017; Journé *et al.*,
396 2024). In addition, we included individual-level seed production in T1 as a covariate. Both
397 models (with growth and seeding as a response) were fitted to two data subsets; 1980 - 2005,
398 and 2006-2022. 2006 is the year when European beech masting at our site changed state to more
399 regular and less synchronized reproduction (Fig. S1) (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2020b, 2023).

400 **Acknowledgements**

401 This study was supported by the Polish National Science Centre grant 2019/35/D/NZ8/00050.
402 We acknowledge The National Trust (Killerton House and Gardens), Pebblebed Heaths Con-
403 servation Trust, Natural England, The Nettlebed Estate, Urban Green Newcastle and Newcastle
404 City Council, and Brighton and Hove City Council for providing permission to collect tree-ring
405 material. We thank Sam Egan, Charlie Knowles and Joep Van Dormolen for help with incre-
406 ment coring and sample preparation, and the Arboriculture Department of Brighton and Hove
407 Council also assisted in retrieving samples. We are grateful to J.R. Packham and G.M Hilton
408 who established the beech mast survey in 1980, and the various field assistants who have helped
409 with the survey over the last five decades.

410

411 **Author Contributions Statement**

412 AHP, MB, JSz, DK designed the study, AHP, JL and PT collected the tree ring samples, AHP
413 measured the samples, JSz ran the analysis, all authors contributed to the data interpretation,
414 AHP and MB wrote the first draft of the manuscript, all authors revised the text.

415

416 **Declaration of interests**

417 No competing interests to declare.

418

419 **Data availability statement**

420 The data supporting the results are available at

421 **References**

422 Abe, T., Tachiki, Y., Kon, H., Nagasaka, A., Onodera, K., Minamino, K. *et al.* (2016). Pa-
423 rameterisation and validation of a resource budget model for masting using spatiotemporal
424 flowering data of individual trees. *Ecology Letters*, 19, 1129–1139.

425 Bates, D., Mächler, M., Bolker, B.M. & Walker, S.C. (2015). Fitting linear mixed-effects models
426 using lme4. *Journal of Statistical Software*, 67.

427 Beguería, S. & Vicente-Serrano, S. (2017). Spei: Calculation of the standardised precipitation-
428 evapotranspiration index. *R package version 1.7*.

429 Bogdziewicz, M., Fernández-Martínez, M., Espelta, J.M., Ogaya, R. & Penuelas, J. (2020a).
430 Is forest fecundity resistant to drought? results from an 18-yr rainfall-reduction experiment.
431 *New Phytologist*, 227, 1073–1080.

432 Bogdziewicz, M., Hacket-Pain, A., Kelly, D., Thomas, P.A., Lageard, J. & Tanentzap, A.J.
433 (2021). Climate warming causes mast seeding to break down by reducing sensitivity to
434 weather cues. *Global Change Biology*, 27, 1952–1961.

435 Bogdziewicz, M., Kelly, D., Ascoli, D., Caignard, T., Chianucci, F., Crone, E.E. *et al.* (2024).
436 Evolutionary ecology of masting: mechanisms, models, and climate change. *Trends in*
437 *Ecology Evolution*, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2024.05.006>.

438 Bogdziewicz, M., Kelly, D., Tanentzap, A.J., Thomas, P., Foest, J., Lageard, J. *et al.* (2023).
439 Reproductive collapse in european beech results from declining pollination efficiency in large
440 trees. *Global Change Biology*, 29, 4595–4604.

441 Bogdziewicz, M., Kelly, D., Thomas, P.A., Lageard, J.G.A. & Hacket-Pain, A. (2020b). Climate
442 warming disrupts mast seeding and its fitness benefits in european beech. *Nature Plants*, 6,
443 88–94.

444 Buras, A., Rammig, A. & Zang, C.S. (2020). Quantifying impacts of the 2018 drought on
445 european ecosystems in comparison to 2003. *Biogeosciences*, 17, 1655–1672.

446 Burnham, K.P., Anderson, D.R. & Huyvaert, K.P. (2011). Aic model selection and multi-
447 model inference in behavioral ecology: Some background, observations, and comparisons.
448 *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology*, 65, 23–35.

449 del Castillo, E.M., Zang, C.S., Buras, A., Hacket-Pain, A., Esper, J., Serrano-Notivoli, R. *et al.*
450 (2022). Climate-change-driven growth decline of european beech forests. *Communications*
451 *Biology*, 5.

452 Clark, J.S., Andrus, R., Aubry-Kientz, M., Bergeron, Y., Bogdziewicz, M., Bragg, D.C. *et al.*
453 (2021). Continent-wide tree fecundity driven by indirect climate effects. *Nature Communi-*
454 *cations*, 12, 1242.

455 Clark, J.S., Bell, D.M., Kwit, M.C. & Zhu, K. (2014). Competition-interaction landscapes for
456 the joint response of forests to climate change. *Global Change Biology*, 20, 1979–1991.

457 Cornes, R.C., van der Schrier, G., van den Besselaar, E.J. & Jones, P.D. (2018). An ensemble
458 version of the e-obs temperature and precipitation data sets. *Journal of Geophysical Research:*
459 *Atmospheres*, 123, 9391–9409.

460 Corona, C., Leeper, A.C. & LaMontagne, J.M. (2022). Differential defoliation and mortality of
461 white spruce and balsam fir by eastern spruce budworm. *Forest Ecology and Management*,
462 508, 120042.

463 Crone, E.E., Polansky, L. & Lesica, P. (2005). Empirical models of pollen limitation, resource
464 acquisition, and mast seeding by a bee-pollinated wildflower. *American Naturalist*, 166,
465 396–408.

466 Dobbertin, M. (2005). Tree growth as indicator of tree vitality and of tree reaction to environ-
467 mental stress: A review. *European Journal of Forest Research*, 124, 319–333.

468 Dorado-Liñán, I., Ayarzagüena, B., Babst, F., Xu, G., Gil, L., Battipaglia, G. *et al.* (2022). Jet
469 stream position explains regional anomalies in european beech forest productivity and tree
470 growth. *Nature Communications*, 13.

471 Environment Agency (2023). Annex to the review of the research and scien-
472 tific understanding of drought. [https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/
473 review-of-the-research-and-scientific-understanding-of-drought](https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/review-of-the-research-and-scientific-understanding-of-drought). Environ-
474 ment Agency, Bristol.

475 Fernández-Martínez, M. & Maspons, J. (2019). Tempcont: Temporal contributions on trends
476 using mixed models. *R Package version 0.1.0*.

477 Fernández-Martínez, M., Vicca, S., Janssens, I.A., Espelta, J.M. & Peñuelas, J. (2017). The north
478 atlantic oscillation synchronises fruit production in western european forests. *Ecography*, 40,
479 864–874.

480 Foest, J., Bogdziewicz, M., Ascoli, D., Pesendorfer, M., Cutini, A., Nussbaumer, A. *et al.* (2024).
481 Widespread breakdown in masting in european beech due to rising summer temperatures.
482 *Global Change Biology*, 30, e17307.

483 Genet, H., Bréda, N. & Dufrêne, E. (2009). Age-related variation in carbon allocation at tree
484 and stand scales in beech (*fagus sylvatica* l.) and sessile oak (*quercus petraea* (matt.) Liebl.)
485 using a chronosequence approach. *Tree Physiology*, 30, 177–192.

486 Geßler, A., Keitel, C., Kreuzwieser, J., Matyssek, R., Seiler, W. & Rennenberg, H. (2007).
487 Potential risks for european beech (*fagus sylvatica* l.) in a changing climate. *Trees - Structure
488 and Function*, 21, 1–11.

489 Gillner, S., Rüger, N., Roloff, A. & Berger, U. (2013). Low relative growth rates predict
490 future mortality of common beech (*fagus sylvatica* l.). *Forest Ecology and Management*, 302,
491 372–378.

- 492 Hacket-Pain, A. & Bogdziewicz, M. (2021). Climate change and plant reproduction: trends
493 and drivers of mast seeding change. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B*, 376,
494 20200379.
- 495 Hacket-Pain, A., Foest, J.J., Pearse, I.S., LaMontagne, J.M., Koenig, W.D., Vacchiano, G. *et al.*
496 (2022). Mastree+: Time-series of plant reproductive effort from six continents. *Global*
497 *Change Biology*, 28, 3066–3082.
- 498 Hacket-Pain, A.J., Ascoli, D., Vacchiano, G., Biondi, F., Cavin, L., Conedera, M. *et al.* (2018).
499 Climatically controlled reproduction drives interannual growth variability in a temperate tree
500 species. *Ecology Letters*, 21, 1833–1844.
- 501 Hacket-Pain, A.J., Cavin, L., Friend, A.D. & Jump, A.S. (2016). Consistent limitation of growth
502 by high temperature and low precipitation from range core to southern edge of European
503 beech indicates widespread vulnerability to changing climate. *European Journal of Forest*
504 *Research*, 135, 897–909.
- 505 Hacket-Pain, A.J., Lageard, J.G. & Thomas, P.A. (2017). Drought and reproductive effort
506 interact to control growth of a temperate broadleaved tree species (*fagus sylvatica*). *Tree*
507 *Physiology*, 37, 744–754.
- 508 Han, Q. & Kabeya, D. (2017). Recent developments in understanding mast seeding in relation
509 to dynamics of carbon and nitrogen resources in temperate trees. *Ecological Research 2017*
510 *32:6*, 32, 771–778.
- 511 Hartmann, H., Bastos, A., Das, A.J., Esquivel-Muelbert, A., Hammond, W.M., Martínez-Vilalta,
512 J. *et al.* (2022). Climate change risks to global forest health: Emergence of unexpected events
513 of elevated tree mortality worldwide. *Annual Review of Plant Biology*.
- 514 Hesse, B.D., Hartmann, H., Rötzer, T., Landhäusser, S.M., Goisser, M., Weigl, F. *et al.* (2021).
515 Mature beech and spruce trees under drought – Higher C investment in reproduction at the
516 expense of whole-tree NSC stores. *Environmental and Experimental Botany*, 191.
- 517 Journé, V., Szymkowiak, J., Foest, J., Hacket-Pain, A., Kelly, D. & Bogdziewicz, M. (2024).

518 Summer solstice orchestrates the subcontinental-scale synchrony of mast seeding. *Nature*
519 *Plants*, 10, 367–373.

520 Jump, A.S., Hunt, J.M. & Penuelas, J. (2006). Rapid climate change-related growth decline at
521 the southern range edge of *fagus sylvatica*. *Global Change Biology*, 12, 2163–2174.

522 Kelly, D. (1994). The evolutionary ecology of mast seeding. *Trends in Ecology Evolution*, 9,
523 465–470.

524 Kelly, D. (2020). Nutrient scarcity cannot cause mast seeding. *Nature Plants*, 6, 760–762.

525 LaMontagne, J.M., Redmond, M.D., Wion, A.P. & Greene, D.F. (2021). An assessment of
526 temporal variability in mast seeding of north american pinaceae. *Philosophical Transactions*
527 *of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 376, 20200373.

528 Lauder, J.D., Moran, E.V. & Hart, S.C. (2019). Fight or flight? potential tradeoffs between
529 drought defense and reproduction in conifers. *Tree Physiology*, 39, 1071–1085.

530 Leuschner, C. (2020). Drought response of european beech (*fagus sylvatica* l.)—a review.
531 *Perspectives in Plant Ecology, Evolution and Systematics*, 47, 125576.

532 Leuschner, C. & Ellenberg, H. (2017). Beech and mixed beech forests. *Ecology of Central*
533 *European Forests: Vegetation Ecology of Central Europe*, 1, 351–441.

534 Maxwell, R.S. & Larsson, L.A. (2021). Measuring tree-ring widths using the coorecorder
535 software application. *Dendrochronologia*, 67.

536 McKone, M., Kelly, D. & Lee, W. (1998). Effect of climate change on mast-seeding species:
537 frequency of mass flowering and escape from specialist insect seed predators. *Global Change*
538 *Biology*, 4, 591–596.

539 Mund, M., Herbst, M., Knohl, A., Matthäus, B., Schumacher, J., Schall, P. *et al.* (2020). It is not
540 just a ‘trade-off’: indications for sink- and source-limitation to vegetative and regenerative
541 growth in an old-growth beech forest. *New Phytologist*, 226, 111–125.

- 542 Müller-Haubold, H., Hertel, D. & Leuschner, C. (2015). Climatic drivers of mast fruiting in
543 european beech and resulting c and n allocation shifts. *Ecosystems*, 18, 1083–1100.
- 544 Müller-Haubold, H., Hertel, D., Seidel, D., Knutzen, F. & Leuschner, C. (2013). Climate
545 responses of aboveground productivity and allocation in *fagus sylvatica*: A transect study in
546 mature forests. *Ecosystems*, 16, 1498–1516.
- 547 Nakamura, T., Ishida, A., Kawai, K., Minagi, K., Saiki, S.T., Yazaki, K. *et al.* (2021). Tree
548 hazards compounded by successive climate extremes after masting in a small endemic tree,
549 *distylium lepidotum*, on subtropical islands in japan. *Global Change Biology*, 27, 5094–5108.
- 550 Neycken, A., Scheggia, M., Bigler, C. & Lévesque, M. (2022). Long-term growth decline
551 precedes sudden crown dieback of european beech. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*,
552 324, 109103.
- 553 Nilsson, S.G. & Wastljung, U. (1987). Seed predation and cross-pollination in mast-seeding
554 beech (*fagus sylvatica*) patches. *Ecology*, 68, 260–265.
- 555 Norton, D.A. & Kelly, D. (1988). Mast seeding over 33 years by *dacrydium cupressinum* lamb.
556 (*rimu*) (*podocarpaceae*) in new zealand: The importance of economies of scale. *Functional*
557 *Ecology*, 2, 399–408.
- 558 Obeso, J.R. (2002). The costs of reproduction in plants. *New Phytologist*, 155, 321–348.
- 559 Patterson, T.W., Greenberg, C.H. & Hacket-Pain, A. (2023). Acorn production, climate, and
560 tree-ring growth of five oak species in southern appalachian forests. *Forest Ecology and*
561 *Management*, 546, 121310.
- 562 Pearse, I.S., Koenig, W.D. & Kelly, D. (2016). Mechanisms of mast seeding: resources, weather,
563 cues, and selection. *New Phytologist*, 212, 546–562.
- 564 Pesendorfer, M.B., Bogdziewicz, M., Szymkowiak, J., Borowski, Z., Kantorowicz, W., Espelta,
565 J.M. *et al.* (2020). Investigating the relationship between climate, stand age, and temporal
566 trends in masting behavior of european forest trees. *Global Change Biology*, 26, 1654–1667.

- 567 Piovesan, G. & Schirone, B. (2000). Winter north atlantic oscillation effects on the tree rings of
568 the italian beech (*fagus sylvatica* l.). *International Journal of Biometeorology*, 44, 121–127.
- 569 Redmond, M.D., Forcella, F. & Barger, N.N. (2012). Declines in pinyon pine cone production
570 associated with regional warming. *Ecosphere*, 3, art120.
- 571 Rees, M., Kelly, D. & Bjørnstad, O.N. (2002). Snow tussocks, chaos, and the evolution of mast
572 seeding. *American Naturalist*, 160, 44–59.
- 573 Roncé, I.L., Dardevet, E., Venner, S., Schönbeck, L., Gessler, A., Chuine, I. *et al.* (2023).
574 Reproduction alternation in trees: testing the resource depletion hypothesis using experimental
575 fruit removal in *quercus ilex*. *Tree Physiology*, 43, 952–964.
- 576 Sala, A., Hopping, K., McIntire, E.J., Delzon, S. & Crone, E.E. (2012). Masting in whitebark
577 pine (*pinus albicaulis*) depletes stored nutrients. *New Phytologist*, 196, 189–199.
- 578 Satake, A. & Iwasa, Y. (2000). Pollen coupling of forest trees: Forming synchronized and
579 periodic reproduction out of chaos. *Journal of Theoretical Biology*, 203, 63–84.
- 580 Senf, C., Pflugmacher, D., Zhiqiang, Y., Sebald, J., Knorn, J., Neumann, M. *et al.* (2018).
581 Canopy mortality has doubled in europe’s temperate forests over the last three decades.
582 *Nature Communications*, 9, 1–8.
- 583 Shibata, M., Masaki, T., Yagihashi, T., Shimada, T. & Saitoh, T. (2020). Decadal changes in
584 masting behaviour of oak trees with rising temperature. *Journal of Ecology*, 108, 1088–1100.
- 585 Thomas, S.C. (2011). *Age-Related Changes in Tree Growth and Functional Biology: The Role*
586 *of Reproduction*, pp. 33–64.
- 587 Thornthwaite, C. (1948). An approach toward a rational classification of climate. *Geographical*
588 *Review*, 38, 55–94.
- 589 Vacchiano, G., Hacket-Pain, A., Turco, M., Motta, R., Maringer, J., Conedera, M. *et al.* (2017).
590 Spatial patterns and broad-scale weather cues of beech mast seeding in europe. *New Phytol-*
591 *ogist*, 215, 595–608.

- 592 Vergotti, M.J., Fernández-Martínez, M., Kefauver, S.C., Janssens, I.A. & Peñuelas, J. (2019).
593 Weather and trade-offs between growth and reproduction regulate fruit production in european
594 forests. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 279, 107711.
- 595 Weigel, R., Bat-Enerel, B., Dulamsuren, C., Muffler, L., Weithmann, G. & Leuschner, C. (2023).
596 Summer drought exposure, stand structure, and soil properties jointly control the growth of
597 european beech along a steep precipitation gradient in northern germany. *Global Change*
598 *Biology*, 29, 763–779.
- 599 Yukich-Clendon, O.M.M., Carpenter, J.K., Kelly, D., Timoti, P., Burns, B.R., Boswijk, G. *et al.*
600 (2023). Global change explains reduced seeding in a widespread new zealand tree: indigenous
601 tūhoe knowledge informs mechanistic analysis. *Frontiers in Forests and Global Change*, 6,
602 1172326.
- 603 Zamorano, J.G., Hokkanen, T. & Lehtikoinen, A. (2018). Climate-driven synchrony in seed
604 production of masting deciduous and conifer tree species. *Journal of Plant Ecology*, 11,
605 180–188.

606 **Supporting Information**

607 Hackett-Pain et al. Growth decline in European beech associated with temperature-driven
608 increase in reproductive allocation.

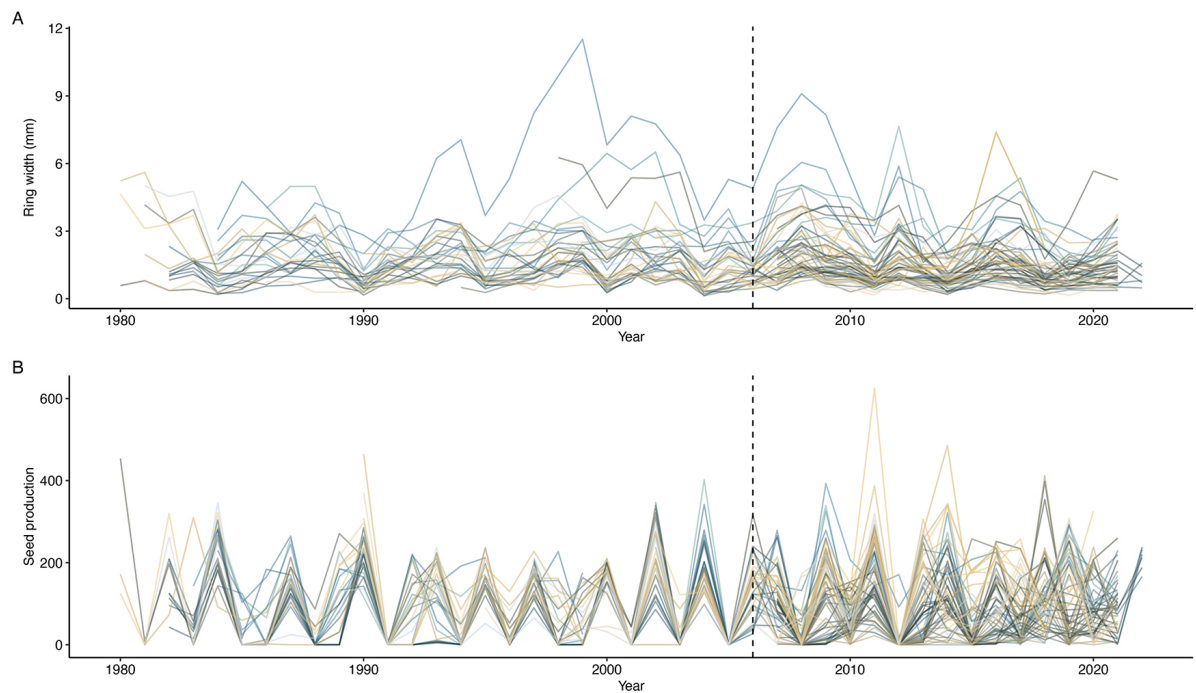


Figure S1: Individual-level temporal patterns of A) growth rates as measured by tree ring increments and B) seed production, measured across 7 sites and 57 trees. Each line shows one tree. The dashed vertical line shows the year 2006, at which masting at our populations changed the state into more regular and desynchronised seed production, called "masting breakdown".

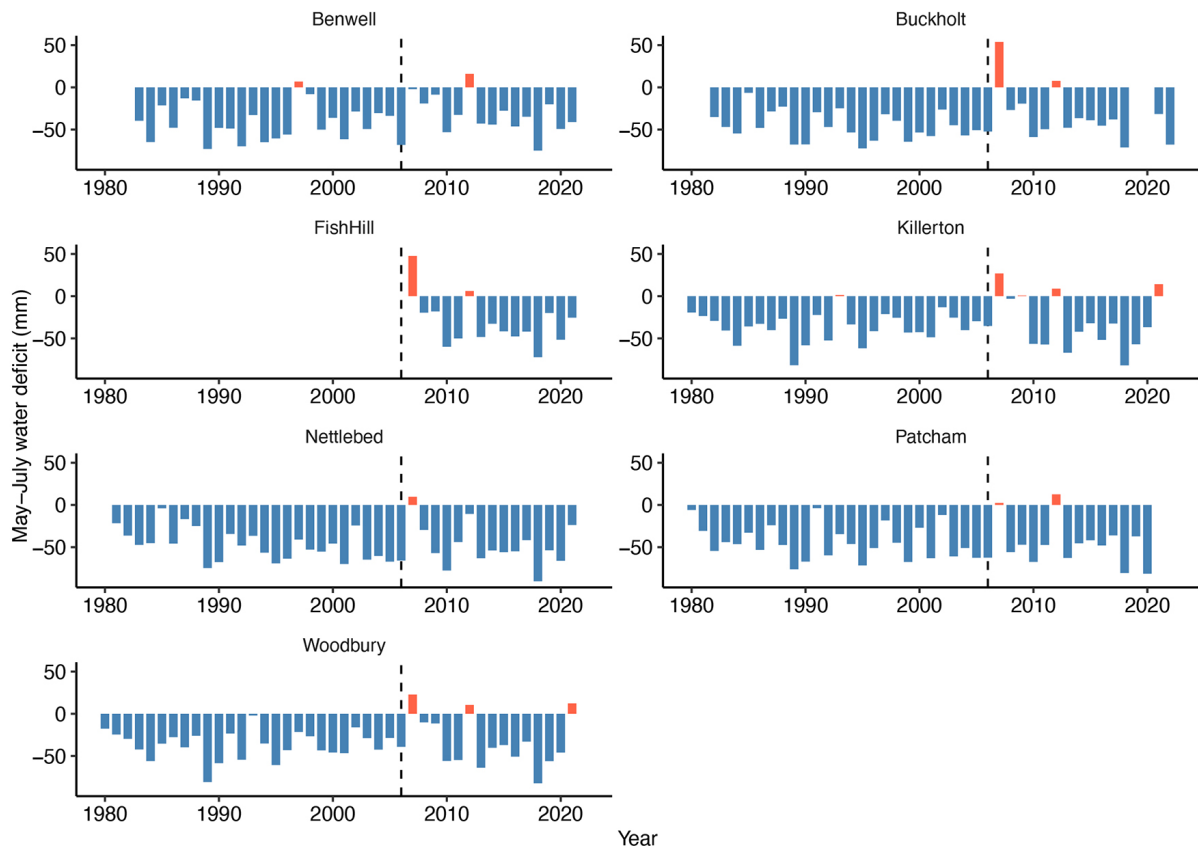


Figure S2: Annual variation in May-July water deficit (mm) at 7 study sites as measured by the difference between precipitation and potential evapotranspiration ($P - PET$). The bars are colored blue for drought and red for wet conditions. The dashed vertical line shows the year 2006, at which masting at our populations changed the state into more regular and desynchronised seed production (Fig. S1). Range of annual observations is trimmed to the observations of growth rates and seed production for each site.

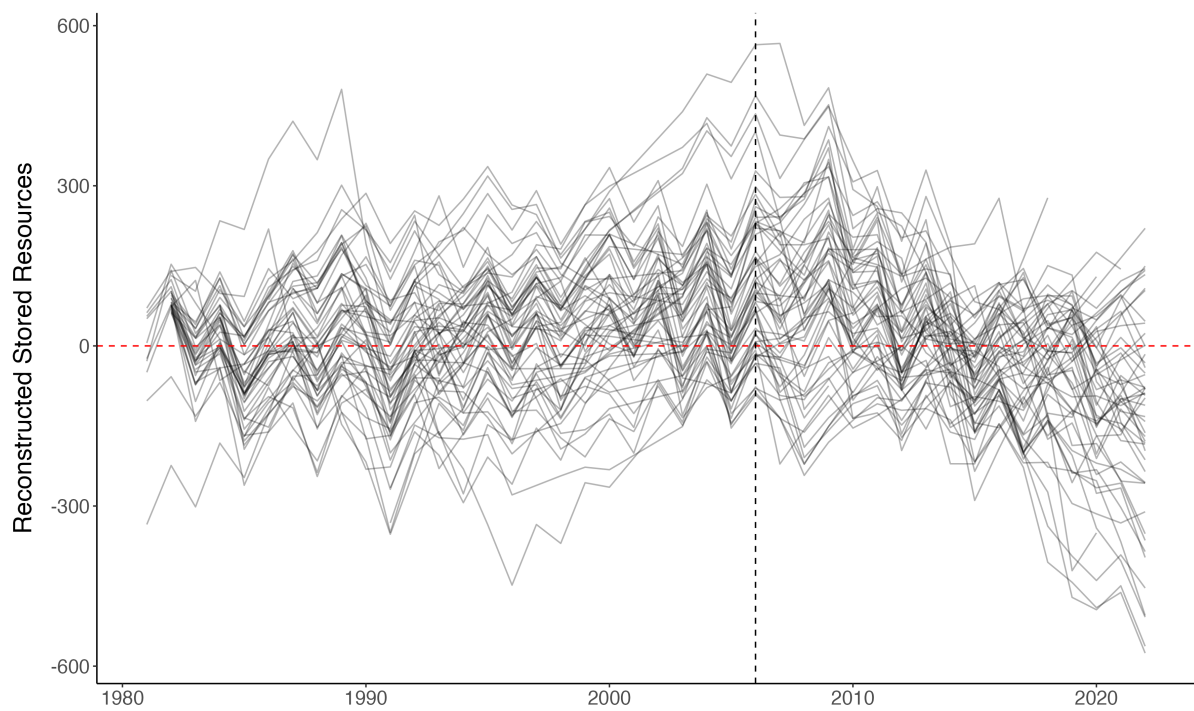


Figure S3: Temporal variation in the reconstructed stored resources. Each line shows one tree ($N = 51$). Resources are estimated from individual-level seed production data, following the Rees *et al.* (2002) method. In short, these are residuals of the linear relationship between cumulative seed production and cumulative time. The horizontal dashed line highlights 0, while the vertical year 2006, i.e. the year when masting changed the state to more regular and less synchronized reproduction (see Fig. S1).

Table S1: Results of model selection based on Akaike Information Criterion for models testing the temporal trends in May-July water deficit. We tested for the temporal trends using a set of GLMMs, with each model including water deficit as a response and site as a random intercept. The null model was intercept-only model and assumed no temporal trend in water deficit. In the other models, we included ranked year as a predictor fitted either as a linear effect (i.e., assuming linear trend) or via natural cubic spline to test for non-linear trends. Moreover, in the subset of trend models we included also the AR(1) covariance structure to account for a possible temporal autocorrelation of the water deficit time series. The models were fitted using water deficit data trimmed to the years with observations of growth rates and seed production at each site, and compared using Akaike Information Criterion following (Burnham *et al.*, 2011). Note that in the models that included the year effect, and which scored relatively well ($\Delta = 1.9$), the year effect was not significant ($p > 0.7$)

Model	AICc	Δ AICc	weight
null model (intercept-only)	2371.0	0.0	0.537
non-linear trend	2372.9	1.9	0.205
linear trend	2372.9	1.9	0.205
linear trend + AR(1)	2377.0	6.0	0.027
non-linear trend + AR(1)	2377.0	6.0	0.027