

Patterns of fruit production in tropical forests are shifting with negative outnumbering positive trends

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Key Words

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41 **Abstract**

42 The impacts of climate change and anthropogenic disturbance are increasingly evident in
43 the structure and demographics of tropical forests, yet the response of tree reproduction
44 remains poorly understood. As fruit and seed production is the first step in forest recruitment,
45 this gap is critical to understanding tropical forest resilience. Tropical fruits are important in
46 diets of numerous frugivores and are essential resources for local human communities, thus
47 changes in fruit quantity and composition could have cascading effects on ecosystems and
48 the people who depend on them. In this study, we demonstrate that forest fruit production is
49 shifting across tropical sites, with negative species-level trends occurring four times more
50 frequently than positive ones across a network of 17 sites. At two sites in west Africa,
51 community-level fruit production has declined by 25% and 52% in recent decades, and fruit
52 production is also declining in Panama. Nevertheless, trends in fruit production are diverse
53 across sites. While major spatial and temporal gaps in data coverage remain, by leveraging
54 the expanding network of long-term monitoring, collaborative research has the potential to
55 identify current trends in tropical fruit production and their drivers. This will enable robust
56 predictions of future trends and advance our understanding of tropical forest vulnerability to
57 environmental change.

58 Introduction

59 Tropical forests are under increasing pressure, with growing evidence of widespread
60 changes in the structure and demographics of tropical forests, driven by climate change,
61 logging and other land use change (Lewis *et al.* 2004; Hartmann *et al.* 2022; Pisl *et al.*
62 2024). Syntheses have revealed pan-tropical forest trends, but these are strongly skewed to
63 focus on growth, disturbance, and mortality dynamics (Hubau *et al.* 2020; McDowell *et al.*
64 2020; Bauman *et al.* 2022). However, tree reproduction—crucial as the first step to
65 recruitment and determining the future composition and resilience of tropical forests—
66 remains underexplored. Understanding how reproductive processes are changing, and the
67 consequences for recruitment and forest dynamics is now an urgent priority.

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69 Analysis of long-term phenology datasets has enabled substantial advances in
70 understanding of the reproductive phenology of tropical forests, revealing the strong coupling
71 of phenology and weather (Mendoza *et al.* 2017; Sullivan *et al.* 2024). Such links between
72 weather and intra- and inter-annual variation in tree reproduction imply potential sensitivity of
73 fruit production to climate change (Bogdziewicz *et al.* 2024). Direct mechanisms include
74 weather-cued flowering and fruit maturation processes, while indirect drivers influence
75 reproduction via underlying resource constraints (Vleminckx *et al.* 2024). For example,
76 Numata *et al.* (2022) showed that changes in the frequency of low-temperature flowering
77 cues resulted in declines in flowering and fruiting in recent decades in Malaysia. Meanwhile,
78 climate-driven changes in photosynthesis and productivity are proposed as mechanistic
79 drivers explaining reported increases in flower production at Barro Colorado Island (BCI) in
80 Panama (Pau *et al.* 2013; Pau *et al.* 2018) and declines in flower production at Yasuní in
81 Ecuador (Vleminckx *et al.* 2024). Despite wide recognition that these direct and indirect
82 effects on flowering and fruit production are likely to affect tree reproduction in the tropics, no
83 consistent picture has yet emerged of the response of forest tree reproduction.

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85 Long-term shifts in fruit production will have important implications for regeneration dynamics
86 in forests, to the extent that tree regeneration is limited by the production and dispersal of
87 seeds (Connell & Green 2000; De Steven & Wright 2002; Wright *et al.* 2005; Norden *et al.*
88 2007). Effects are likely to be particularly important in the recovery of disturbed or degraded
89 forests (Wijdeven & Kuzee 2000; Qiu *et al.* 2022). Forest restoration is a global priority, and
90 high potential for natural regeneration in the tropics was recently identified (Williams *et al.*
91 2024) but this requires sufficient seed supply (Chazdon & Guariguata 2016). Changes in fruit
92 production will also have wider cascading effects, as tree fruits are also a crucial resource
93 for forest food webs (Matthews *et al.* 2019) and local human communities (Staggemeier *et al.*
94 2017). For example, when forest fruit production declines, the cascading effects on
95 frugivores can be dramatic; an 81% long-term reduction in fruit production was linked with an
96 11% decline in forest elephant body condition in Lopé National Park (Bush *et al.* 2020).
97 Changes in fruit supply, both at the forest community level and via shifts associated with
98 specific plant species, can also change frugivore behaviour, including foraging range or diet
99 (Reyna-Hurtado *et al.* 2018; Matthews *et al.* 2019). They may also increase the risk of
100 negative human-wildlife interactions where conflicts increase over fluctuating or declining
101 resources (Naughton-Treves *et al.* 1998; Ngama *et al.* 2019; Memiaghe 2023).

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103 Several studies have reported temporal trends in tropical forest reproduction (summarised in
104 Table 1), often linking these trends to climate change. The effects, while species- and

105 location-specific, consistently demonstrate strong associations between weather patterns
106 and fruit production. For instance, numerous studies have linked long-term declines in fruit
107 production with concurrent changes in climate. Bush *et al.* (2020) and Lai *et al.* (2024)
108 documented declining fruit production over three decades in Gabon and Nigeria, which
109 coincided with long-term warming and drying. Increases in fruit production were reported in
110 Kibale National Park (Uganda), linked to increasing precipitation (Chapman *et al.* 2005)
111 although in Taï National Park (Côte d'Ivoire) an increase in community-level fruit production
112 occurred alongside declining precipitation (Polansky & Boesch 2013). Similar declines in fruit
113 or flower production have been observed in Puerto Rico (Zimmerman *et al.* 2018) and
114 Southeast Asia (Numata *et al.*, 2022), and western Amazonia (Vleminckx *et al.* 2024).
115 However, other studies indicate stable or gradually increasing trends in fruit or flower
116 production (Clark *et al.* 2013; Pau *et al.* 2018; Pak *et al.* 2023). While these findings suggest
117 that declines in fruit production may be more common, particularly in response to climate
118 change, it remains crucial to assess these trends on a larger scale to gain a clearer
119 understanding of the broader impacts. A complementary focus on understanding the
120 diversity in species-level trends will also shed light on the underlying drivers and likely
121 consequences of changes in fruit production. For example, Zimmerman *et al.* (2018) showed
122 stronger declines in fruit production in large-stature trees in Puerto Rico and Potts *et al.*
123 (2020) linked shifts in fruit production to forest successional processes, while Bush *et al.*
124 (2020) showed fruit production declines were particularly steep in the species important in
125 the diet of forest elephants.

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127 Despite the ongoing uncertainty surrounding fruit production trends across tropical forests,
128 the emergence of long-term datasets (e.g., Adamescu *et al.* 2018; Detto *et al.* 2018; Okimat
129 *et al.* 2024) is beginning to illuminate these patterns. In this study, we synthesise recent data
130 on tropical forest fruit production, integrating publicly available datasets with evidence from
131 the published literature. Our goal is to uncover emerging regional trends and emphasise the
132 growing potential for global research collaboration, which will enhance our ability to predict
133 future trends in tropical forest reproduction.

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Methods

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Data

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Species-level trends in fruit production

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Of the 423 species included on our dataset, we extracted the phylogeny for 224 species from Zanne *et al.* (2014) and tested for a phylogenetic signal in fruit production trend using Pagel's lambda (Pagel 1999), with values close to 0 indicating low phylogenetic signal and values close to 1 suggesting a phylogenetic correlation. We estimated the Pagel's lambda using the *phylosig* function from the R package *phytools* (v1.5) (Revell 2012), and we plotted the phylogenetic tree with the *ggtree* package (v3.8) (Xu *et al.* 2022)

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We extracted plant height and wood density from Díaz *et al.* (2022) for a total of 154 plant species. We ran a phylogenetic regression between fruit production trend and functional traits (plant height and wood density) to account for species relatedness (Revell 2010). Functional traits were log₁₀ transformed. We ran phylogenetic regression using the package *phylolm* (v2.6.2). Linear regression without phylogeny provided similar trends (Supplementary Information 2).

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Analysis of community-level trends, integrating MASTREE+ and other reports

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To estimate community-level trends in reproductive effort from each MASTREE+ site we ran a beta regression model at a site level and extracted the slope. The response in that model was fruit production and year was used as a predictor, while species was included as a random intercept for sites including multiple species. We classified trends as significant if the p-value was less than 0.05, and the direction of the trend (positive or negative) according to the slope value. To enhance geographical representation of trends, we combined these assessments with community-level trends reported in the literature (Table 1). Community-

182 level trends were classified as positive, negative, or non-significant, following the analysis
183 presented in the original source. This enabled us to add 8 additional sites to the 17 sites
184 analysed using data from MASTREE+.

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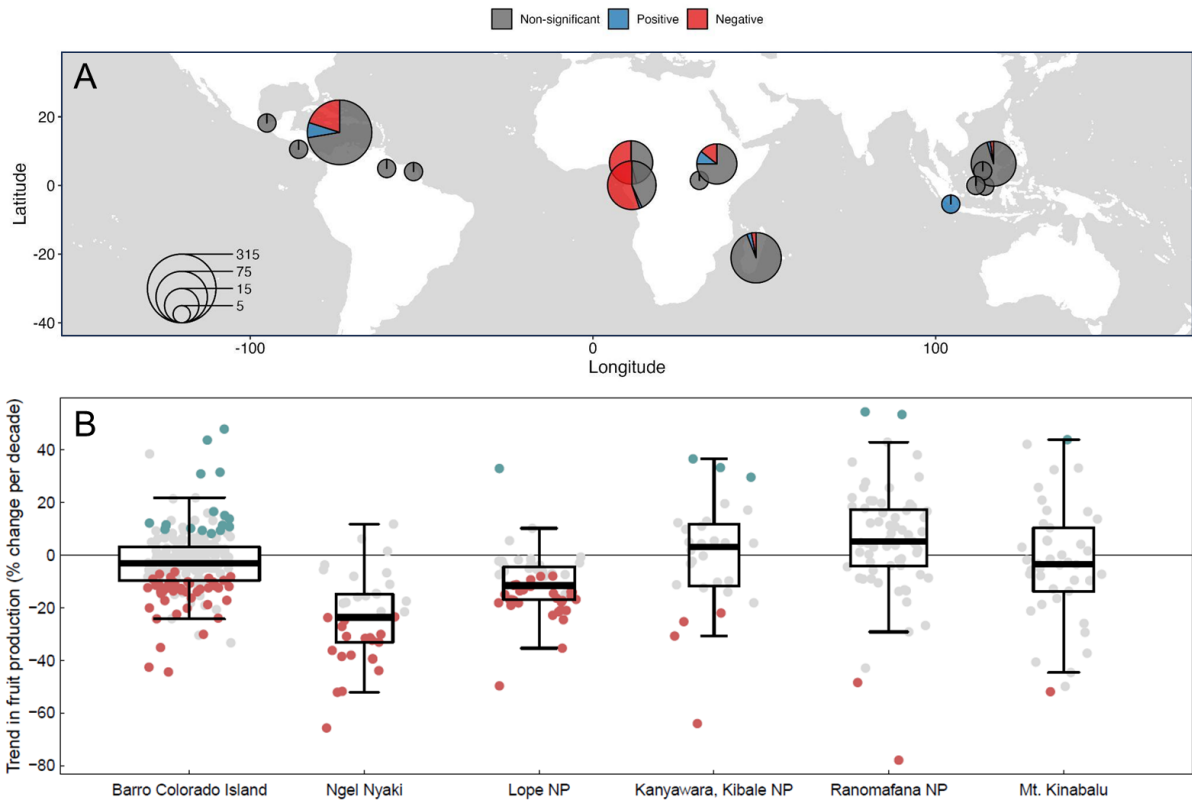
Results

187 Significant negative trends in reproduction were the most striking finding, occurring 4.2 times
188 more frequently than significant positive trends in the species-level analysis, with 22% of
189 species-site trends showing declines compared to just 5% showing increases (Figure 1).
190 Declines, estimated as percentage declines per decade, were $\geq 20\%$ per decade for 13%
191 species-sites, and $\geq 10\%$ per decade for 31% species-sites. Positive trends were less
192 common (increases $\geq 20\%$ and $\geq 10\%$ per decade occurred for 6% and 16% of species-sites,
193 respectively) (Figure 1). While species-level trends were variable within and among sites, the
194 predominance of negative trends underscores a concerning pattern across the tropics.
195 Negative trends dominated at two sites in West Africa: Lopé, Gabon (32/58 species, 55.2%
196 significantly negative) and Ngel Nyaki, Nigeria (20/37 species, 54.1%). Only a single species
197 (*Massularia acuminata*) had a significantly positive trend at Lopé, and none at Ngel Nyaki.
198 Negative trends were also more common than positive trends at BCI, Panama (20.1% v.
199 7.6%), where 13 species had fruit production declines equivalent to $>20\%$ per decade.
200 Positive species-level trends did not dominate at any site represented by multiple species,
201 but three well-replicated sites (Kanyawara, Uganda; Ranomafana, Madagascar; Mt
202 Kinabalu, Malaysia) had approximately even proportions of positive and negative trends, and
203 a dominance of non-significant trends.

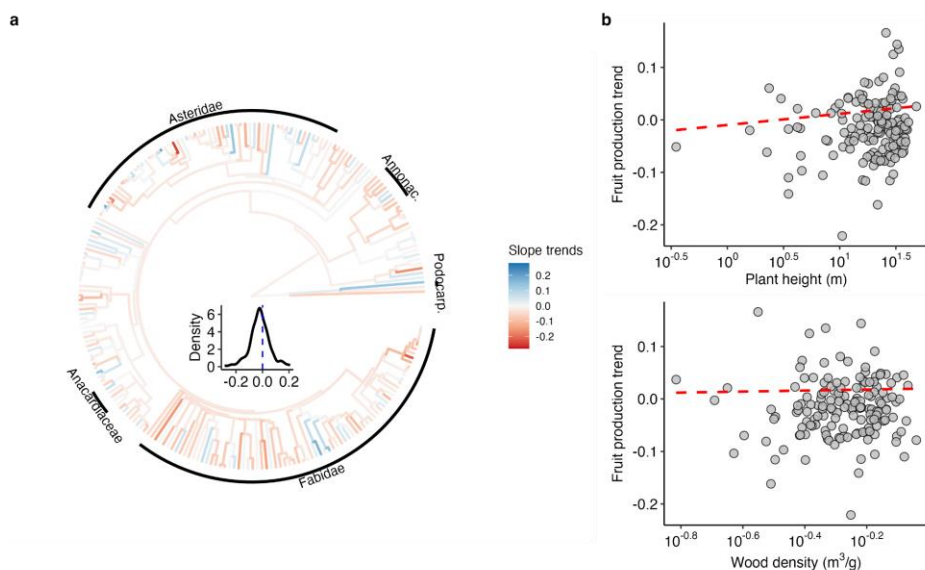
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205 Species-specific trends in reproduction were unrelated to phylogeny and did not correlate
206 with plant height or wood density (Figure 2). It was notable that many species with the
207 strongest declines in fruit production at Ngel Nyaki are associated with savannah habitats
208 (e.g., *Maesa lanceolata* (-65% per decade), *Psychotria succulenta* (-52%), *Trema orientalis* (-
209 52%)). These species have small fleshy fruits and are key species for passive restoration in
210 these Afromontane forests (Jaafar *et al.* 2021). Other species with declining fruit production
211 include understory forest species (e.g., *Zanthoxylum leprieurii*, *Voacanga bracteata*, *Garcinia*
212 *smeathmanii*). *G. smeathmanii* is the most abundant species in Ngel Nyaki forest (Abiem *et*
213 *al.* 2020) and produces abundant large fleshy fruits. Another notable species with declining
214 fruit production is *Anthonotha noldeae* (-36% per decade), whose superabundant immature
215 fruits are a key food of the primates tantalus (*Chlorocebus tantalus tantalus*) and putty-nosed
216 monkey (*Cercopithecus nictitans*), and the Olive pigeon (*Columba arquatrix*). Similarly, at
217 Lopé twelve out of twenty fruit trees identified as important in the forest elephant diet showed
218 a significant decline at the species-level in our analysis, including highly favoured elephant
219 foods such as *Sacoglottis gabonensis* (-35% per decade), *Tetrapleura tetrapetra* (-50%) and
220 *Bobgunnia fistuloides* (-18%) for which elephants are the major (or only) seed dispersers.
221 Species with highly unusual fruiting patterns also feature in the list of significantly declining
222 fruiting species at Lopé, such as *Duboscia macrocarpa* (-25% per decade) which on average
223 exhibits an 18-month fruiting cycle at the individual-level (Bush *et al.* 2017).

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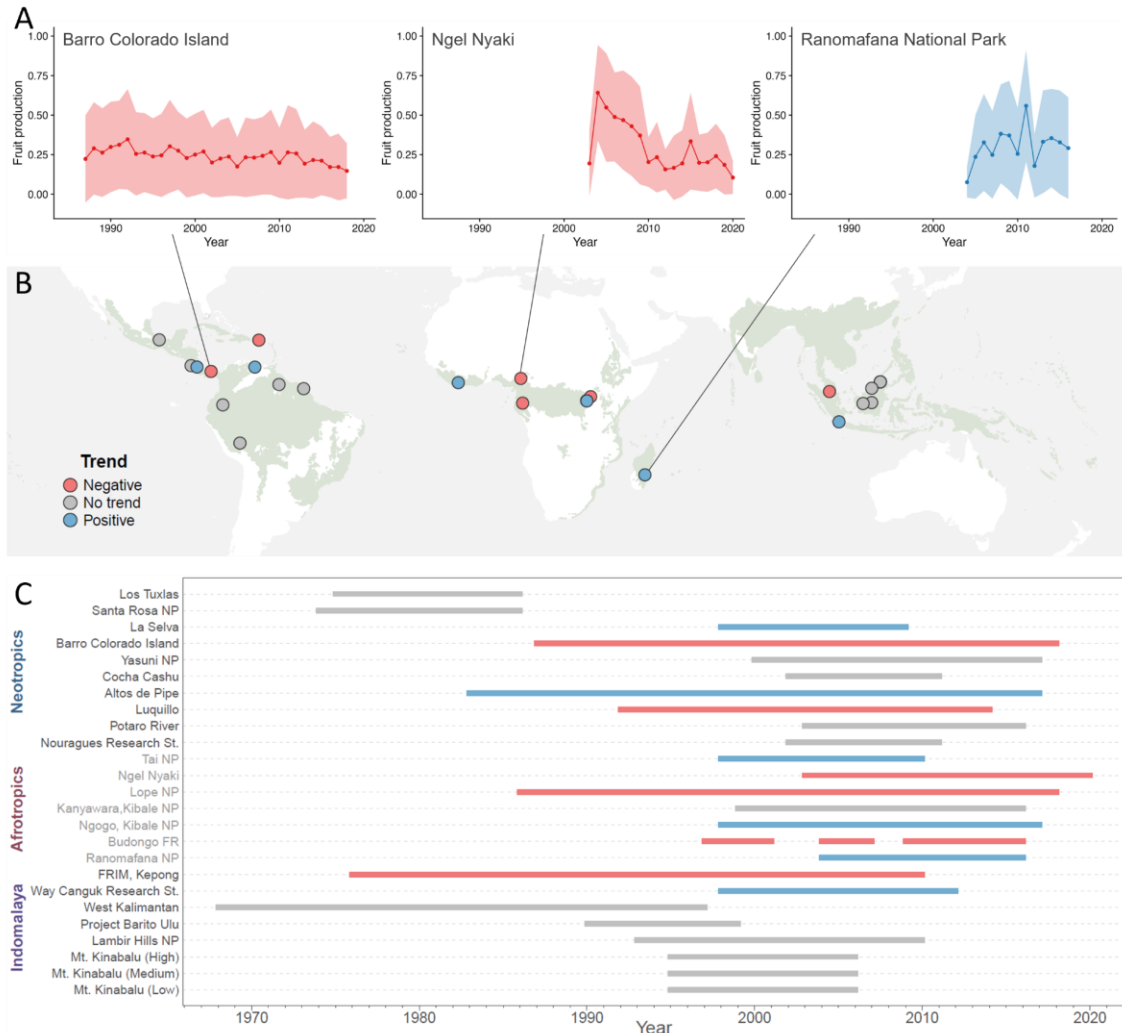


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 226 **Figure 1: Species-level trends in tropical seed and fruit production.** A) Each point represents a site in the
 227 MASTREE+ dataset ($n = 17$ sites), with point size proportional to the number of species. Wedges in the pie chart
 228 correspond to the distribution of non-significant, positive, and negative species-specific trends. The three sites on
 229 Mt Kinabalu, Malaysia have the same coordinates but different elevations; they are combined for this plot, but
 230 underlying data is reported in Supplementary Information 1. B) Species-specific trends for the six sites with
 231 multiple species, expressed as equivalent 10-year percentage change in reproduction. Significant positive and
 232 negative trends are coloured as for A).
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 235 **Figure 2: Species-specific trends in seed and fruit production according to phylogeny and traits.** a)
 236 Absence of phylogenetic signal on seed production trends (Pagel's $\lambda = 7.33e-05$, p -value = 1, $n = 224$ species).
 237 b) Phylogenetic regression analysis includes fruit production trends as response and wood density and plant
 238 height as covariate ($N = 154$ species, adjusted $R^2 = 0.002$). The red dashed line represents non-significant
 239 relationships. Model coefficients and summary are reported in Supplementary Information 2. Regression without
 240 phylogeny provided similar results (see Supplementary Information 2).

241 Community-level fruit production trends reveal a complex regional pattern of decline and
242 variability. The species-level trends at Lopé and Ngel Nyaki in West Africa translated into
243 negative trends in community-level reproduction, indicating a significant decline in fruit
244 production in recent decades (Figure 3). In Lopé, community-level fruit production declined
245 by 26% from 1980 to 2018, while at Ngel Nyaki it declined by 52% from 2003 to 2021 (Figure
246 3). This contrasted with positive trends in fruit production reported at Tai National Park, Côte
247 d'Ivoire, although this site had a shorter record. The Neotropics presented a diverse regional
248 picture: multidecadal records from BCI and Luquillo (Puerto Rico) showed negative trends,
249 while positive trends were found in the 34-year record from Altos de Pipe (Venezuela) and
250 the shorter record from La Selva (Costa Rica). Other sites in the Neotropics exhibited non-
251 significant trends, which were mostly based on shorter time-series (Figure 3). In Indomalaya,
252 the multidecadal record from Forest Research Institute Malaysia (FRIM), Kepong (Malaysia)
253 showed a long-term decline in fruit production, while a positive trend was found in the shorter
254 record from Way Canguk (Indonesia). Other sites showed non-significant trends, including in
255 the high, medium and low elevation plots at Mt. Kinabalu (Malaysia). It is important to note
256 that data from Indomalaya did not extend into the most recent decade, leaving recent trends
257 unexplored.
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Figure 3. Trends in tropical community-level fruit or seed production. Site-specific fruit or seed trends are based on literature reports or community-level trends from the MASTREE+ database (see Table 1). The top panels show community-level trends in fruit production at three example sites. Middle panel shows the distribution of trends across tropical regions. The background map shows the spatial distribution of moist tropical or subtropical forest, from the WWF Terrestrial Ecoregions classification (based on Olson et al., 2001). The bottom panel shows the duration of each study and the trend, with sites ordered by longitude.

Table 1: Community-level tropical forest fruit & seed production trends.

1) Location	2) Study Period	3) Monitored organ	4) Trend reported in original study	5) Trend calculated from MASTREE+	6) Reference
Los Tuxlas, Mexico	1975-1986	Fruit		0	(Martínez-Ramos <i>et al.</i> 1988)
Santa Rosa National Park, Costa Rica	1974-1986	Fruit		0	(Janzen 1989)
La Selva, Costa Rica	1998-2009	Fruit + flower	+1		(Clark <i>et al.</i> 2013)
Barro Colorado Island, Panama	1987-2003	Fruit	0	-1 (1988-2018)	(Wright & Calderón 2006)
	1987-2014	Fruit	-1		(Alfaro-Sánchez <i>et al.</i> 2017)
Yasuni National Park, Ecuador	2000-2017	Seed	0*		(Pak <i>et al.</i> 2023)
Cocha Cashu Biological Station, Peru	2002-2011	Seed	0*		(Pak <i>et al.</i> 2023)
Altos de Pipe, Venezuela	1983-2017	Fruit	+1		(Flores <i>et al.</i> 2023)
Luquillo Experimental Forest, Puerto Rico	1992-2014	Fruit	-1		(Zimmerman <i>et al.</i> 2018)
Potaro River, Guyana	2003-2016	Seed		0	(Henkel & Mayor 2019)
Nouragues Research Station, French Guiana	2002-2010	Fruit		0	(Mendoza <i>et al.</i> 2018)
Taï National Park, Côte d'Ivoire	1998-2010	Fruit	+1		(Polansky & Boesch 2013)
Ngel Nyaki, Nigeria	2003-2021	Fruit	-1	-1	(Lai <i>et al.</i> 2024)
Lopé National Park, Gabon	1988-2018	Fruit	-1	-1	(Bush <i>et al.</i> 2020)
Kibale National Park, multiple sites, Uganda	1990-2002	Fruit	+1	0 (1999-2016)	(Chapman <i>et al.</i> 2005)
Kanyawara, Kibale National Park, Uganda	1998-2013	Fruit	0*		(Chapman <i>et al.</i> 2018)
Ngogo, Kibale National Park, Uganda	1998-2017	Fruit	+1**		(Potts <i>et al.</i> 2020)
Budongo Forest Reserve, Uganda	1993-2016 (discontinuous)	Fruit	-1		(Babweteera <i>et al.</i> 2018)
Ranomafana National Park, Madagascar	2004-2016	Fruit		+1	(Dunham <i>et al.</i> 2018)
Forest Research Institute Malaysia (FRIM) Arboretum, Malaysia	1976-2010	Fruit	-1		(Numata <i>et al.</i> 2022)
Way Canguk Research Station, Indonesia	1998-2012	Fruit†		1	(Winarni <i>et al.</i> 2016)
West Kalimantan, Indonesia	1968-1997	Fruit†		0	(Curran & Leighton 2000)
Project Barito Ulu, Indonesia	1990-1999	Fruit†		0	(Brearley <i>et al.</i> 2007)
Lambir Hills National Park, CBP, Malaysia	1993-2010	Fruit†		0	(Sakai & Itioka 2016)
Mt. Kinabalu (Low), Malaysia	1995-2006	Fruit		0	(Tsuji <i>et al.</i> 2023)
Mt. Kinabalu (Medium), Malaysia	1995-2006	Fruit		0	(Tsuji <i>et al.</i> 2023)
Mt. Kinabalu (High), Malaysia	1995-2006	Fruit		0	(Tsuji <i>et al.</i> 2023)

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Where only the community-level trend from the original source is reported, data is not available in MASTREE+. Where

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community-level trends are available from the original study and from MASTREE+, both are reported. Where the timespan of

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data in MASTREE+ is different from the original study, years are given in parentheses in the 5th column.

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*Based on the presented figure, no formal analysis reported

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**Decline since 2008

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†Data recorded in MASTREE+ at genus or family level only

Discussion

278 Pan-tropical and regional picture of trends in fruit production

279 The community-level fruit production trends across tropical sites are variable, yet a
280 concerning pattern of decline emerges from several long-term monitoring datasets, including
281 those from Lopé and Ngel Nyaki in West Africa, Barro Colorado Island (BCI) and Luquillo in
282 the Neotropics, and FRIM in Indomalaya. Declines in tropical forest flower production have
283 also recently been reported at BCI, western Amazonia and Venezuela, supporting our
284 reported declines in fruit production (Flores *et al.* 2023; Vleminckx *et al.* 2024; Wright &
285 Calderón 2024). These negative trends in tree reproduction could have profound impacts of
286 tropical forest dynamics (McDowell *et al.* 2020). Despite seed production in tropical forest
287 exceeding high latitude forests by two orders of magnitude (Journe *et al.* 2022), seed
288 limitation is considered common (Wright & Calderón 2024), and seed addition experiments
289 have indicated seeds limit seedling recruitment (Clark *et al.* 2013). Impacts of declines in
290 reproduction on seedling establishment might be strongest in rare species, or in species or
291 environments where the seed to seedling transition is already a strong demographic
292 bottleneck (Muscarella *et al.* 2013; Abiem *et al.* 2023). Our results indicate that tropical forest
293 fruit and seed production is changing, potentially as a consequence of climate change, and
294 that neglecting to consider tree reproduction within a framework of ecological resilience
295 (Flores *et al.* 2024) risks incomplete assessment of the ability of tropical forests to persist in
296 a changing environment. For example, major ecosystem shifts in the tropics have almost
297 exclusively been considered through the mechanism of elevated mortality, including via
298 drought, land-use change or other disturbance (Bauman *et al.* 2022; Cano *et al.* 2022; Flores
299 *et al.* 2024). However, our results highlight how changing reproduction could also shape
300 future ecosystem change, driving composition shifts even where mortality-focused
301 assessment indicate high resilience (Flores *et al.*, 2024). Additionally, the response of
302 reproduction could ultimately shape ecosystem resilience to elevated mortality, given that
303 reproduction and subsequent recruitment will shape recovery trajectories (Qiu *et al.* 2022).

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305 While shorter records (<20 years) predominantly show non-significant trends in fruit
306 production, these findings are limited by their duration, and many could be updated if
307 ongoing monitoring data were incorporated. Notably, less than half of the 25 sites in our
308 synthesis include data from the most recent decade, and this data gap is particularly evident
309 in Indomalaya. There is an urgent need for collaborative efforts to update and integrate
310 these records, as well as to expand monitoring to additional tropical locations (Abernethy *et al.*
311 *et al.* 2018). The African Phenology Network offers a valuable model for achieving this
312 (Adamescu *et al.* 2018), which would lead to substantial advances in our understanding of
313 current trends in tropical fruit production, and the broader implications for tropical forest
314 ecosystems.

315

316 Species-level trends in fruit production

317 Community-level trends provided a high-level perspective of trends in tropical fruit production
318 and enabled us to expand the scope of our assessment by including trends from many study
319 sites not included in the MASTREE+ database. Nevertheless, community-level analysis may
320 mask important ecological changes represented by species-level shifts in reproductive
321 performance. The record from Kanyawara (Kibale National Park, Uganda) showed no overall
322 community-level trend, but this could hide ecologically important shifts given that equal
323 numbers of species showed positive and negative trends at this site. For example,

324 Zimmermann *et al.* (2018) reported stronger declines in large-stature trees (a trend we did
325 not detect in our analysis, Figure 2B), while Babweteera *et al.* (2018) reported divergence in
326 trends between species with different life-history strategies. Such analysis might help identify
327 the drivers of changes in reproduction, e.g. the role of successional change (Potts *et al.*
328 2020). Species-specific, rather than community-level trends may also dictate the wider
329 impact of changes in seed and fruit production on frugivores (Bush *et al.* 2020). At both Ngel
330 Nyaki and Lopé, species known to be important food sources for frugivores showed
331 significant declines in fruit production, and at Lopé these changes have already been
332 identified as a likely cause of declining forest elephant body condition (Bush *et al.* 2020).
333 Impacts of declining fruit production on complex plant-frugivore interactions could be
334 profound and have cascading effects on tropical forest functioning (Bascompte & Jordano
335 2007; Berzaghi *et al.* 2018).

336

337 **Unravelling the mechanisms that determine fruit production**

338 Our results, in combination with recent efforts to synthesise tropical phenology records (e.g.
339 the African Phenology Network) show the potential for data synthesis to identify regional
340 trends in tropical forest reproduction. For example, while we found negative trends in two
341 West African tropical forests (Figure 1), these sites vary in climate and species composition,
342 so simple extrapolation to infer regional trends is likely misleading. This risk is well illustrated
343 by contrasting fruit production trends reported at Ngogo and Kanyawara, two sites in Kibale
344 National Park, Uganda, separated by ~10km (discussed in Potts *et al.* 2020). Consequently,
345 to understand the diversity within and between sites indicated in our analysis, and to enable
346 prediction of future trends in tropical fruit production, we urgently need to improve
347 understanding of the mechanisms that regulate tropical tree reproduction (Chapman *et al.*
348 2018; Numata *et al.* 2022; Satake *et al.* 2022; Sullivan *et al.* 2024; Wright & Calderón 2024).
349 These advances will come from fine-scale climate monitoring coupled with detailed
350 phenological observations to identify the cues for flowering and fruit maturation, and the
351 underlying drivers of allocation to reproduction. Advances will benefit from combining
352 traditional visual phenology assessments with molecular phenology (Satake *et al.* 2022).
353 Ideally, this monitoring will be coupled with manipulation experiments (Graham *et al.* 2003;
354 Werkmeister *et al.* 2024). A key objective will be distinguishing the roles of resource
355 acquisition as a driver of reproduction (Pau *et al.* 2018; Vleminckx *et al.* 2024), and weather
356 cues that regulate dynamic allocation of those resources to reproduction (Adamescu *et al.*
357 2018; Bogdziewicz *et al.* 2024; Sullivan *et al.* 2024). The potential role of pollinator network
358 disruption and other interactions also remains poorly understood (Ferreira *et al.* 2020).

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360 Establishing species-specific mechanisms will enable the identification of species whose
361 reproduction is most at risk from climate change (Bogdziewicz *et al.* 2024), and may shed
362 light on the diversity of species-level trends we found over recent decades (see also Lai *et al.*
363 2024). For example, species with strongly seasonal or supra-annual reproduction (e.g.
364 Adamescu *et al.* 2018), governed by weather cues, might show divergent climate-driven
365 trends from species with less variable reproduction where fruit production responses might
366 mirror productivity trends (i.e. resource matching). Where cues are important regulators of
367 reproduction, the response of species will also vary depending on the nature of the cue
368 (Bogdziewicz *et al.* 2024). For example, Numata *et al.* (2022) showed that across 98
369 Dipterocarp species in tropical southeast Asia, more than 50% may use cool temperature
370 cues for flowering, making these species more vulnerable to climate warming compared to
371 the species that use only drought for the initiation for reproduction. Similarly, minimum

372 temperatures are important cues for the reproduction of Afrotropical species, and warming
373 temperatures was predicted to result in less frequent cueing declining in fruit production at
374 Lopé (Tutin & Fernandez 1993).

375

376 **Shortcomings of our analysis**

377 The number of studies reporting long-term observations of tropical forest reproduction is
378 growing but remains small. We attempted to synthesise available data and reported results,
379 but important gaps and limitations remain, particularly due to the heterogeneity of fruit
380 production monitoring methods. For example, our data is based on collection methods that
381 include fruit counts on individual trees, assessments of the proportions of individual trees
382 fruiting (e.g. Potts *et al.* 2020), or fruit counts from litter traps (Wright & Calderón 2024).
383 These methods may not be easily comparable (Parrado-Rosselli *et al.* 2006). Rare species
384 are likely under-sampled, especially where estimates are based on litter traps, or where
385 sampling has focused on species important to frugivore diets (Abernethy *et al.* 2018; Potts *et al.*
386 *al.* 2020). Even when sampling attempts to quantify fruit production of all species, some
387 species may have fruit too small to measure (Wright & Calderón 2024). In our analysis of
388 community-trends, all species were equally weighted, but community-level trends may be
389 determined by the response of dominant species. Wider ecosystem responses may also
390 depend on trends in specific species, e.g., the response of palatable species (Bush *et al.*
391 2020). Further, we used data on annual fruit or seed production, but the timing of fruit
392 production is highly variable between and among tropical sites, and shifting in the timing of
393 fruit production might have substantial ecological effects even in the absence of change in
394 overall quantity (Butt *et al.* 2015; Staggemeier *et al.* 2017).

395 **Conclusion**

396 Detecting the drivers and long-term trends in tropical fruit production is challenging, but
397 emerging data are beginning to shed light on these patterns. Our findings reveal a
398 concerning prevalence of negative trends in tropical forest reproduction, with 4.2-times more
399 species showing declines than increases in fruit production, although negative species-level
400 trends were unevenly distributed among sites. Recent evidence of declines in flower and fruit
401 production from sites in the neotropics provide further evidence of important shifts in tropical
402 forest reproduction. These changes could have profound ecosystem consequences,
403 underscoring the urgency of expanding monitoring efforts to enable more complete
404 assessment of ecosystem resilience. Including additional data from phenological studies will
405 be important for identifying regional trends and understanding their underlying drivers, which
406 remain unclear. Enhancing our mechanistic understanding of fruit production is now a
407 priority. This will aid in attributing current trends and in forecasting the potential impacts of
408 climate change on tropical forests, including in forests where fruit production is not
409 monitored. Progress requires a comprehensive analysis of flowering and fruiting phenology,
410 including molecular approaches, to identify the cues that drive the timing and magnitude of
411 reproductive efforts and the factors that influence the transition from flowers to ripe fruit.
412 Given the evidence of climate-driven shifts in tropical forest productivity, disturbance, and
413 mortality, understanding the response of seed and fruit reproduction must become central to
414 studies of forest dynamics.

415

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436 **Author contribution statement**

437 Conceptualization: AH-P
438 Methodology: all authors
439 Formal Analysis: AH-P, VJ
440 Writing – Original Draft: all authors
441 Writing – Review & Editing: all authors
442 Visualization: AH-P, VJ
443
444

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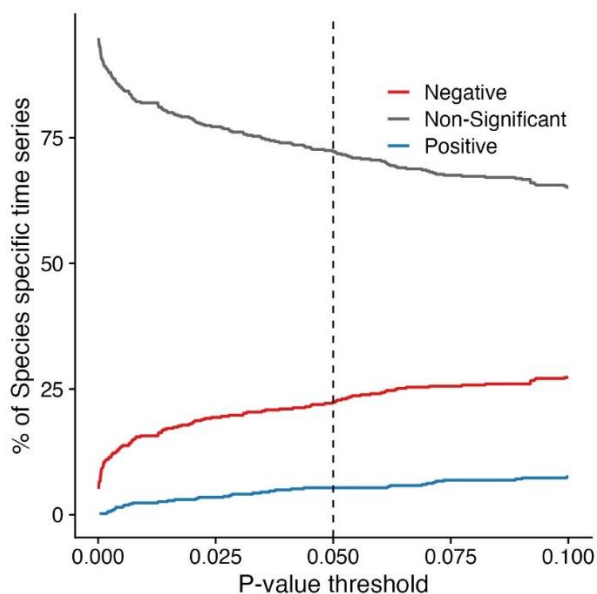
765 **Supplementary Information**

766 **Supplementary Information 1:** Site and species information, including species-specific trends in
 767 annual fruit production. [Hacket-Pain_species_trends_tropical_fruit_production.csv](#)

768
 769
 770 **Supplementary Information 2:** Phylogenetic and linear regression with fruit production trends as the
 771 response (ie the slope) and plant height and wood density as covariates. Plant height and wood
 772 density were log10 transformed in the analysis.
 773

Coefficient	Phylogenetic regression			Linear regression		
	Estimates	Conf. Int (95%)	P-Value	Estimates	Conf. Int (95%)	P-Value
Intercept	-0.01	-0.09 – 0.08	0.871	-0.04	-0.08 – -0.00	0.043
Plant height	0.02	-0.01 – 0.05	0.132	0.02	-0.01 – 0.05	0.126
Wood density	0.01	-0.06 – 0.08	0.791	0.02	-0.05 – 0.08	0.588
Nb. of species	154			182		
R ² / R ² adjusted	0.015 / 0.002			0.014 / 0.003		

774
 775
 776 **Supplementary Information 3:** Proportion changes in the classification of trends of species specific-
 777 time series related to the p-value threshold used to assess statistical significance. In the main text we
 778 reported trends based on a p-value threshold at 0.05 (dashed line).



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783 **Supplementary Information 4.** A list of 20 important fruiting tree species for forest elephants at
784 Lopé National Park (Memiaghe, 2023)
785

Fruiting tree species	Families
<i>Baillonella toxisperma</i>	Sapotaceae
<i>Bobgunnia fistuloides</i>	Fabaceae
<i>Detarium macrocarpum</i>	Fabaceae
<i>Duboscia macrocarpa</i>	Malvaceae
<i>Irvingia gabonensis</i>	Irviaceae
<i>Nauclea diderrichii</i>	Rubiaceae
<i>Sacoglottis gabonensis</i>	Humiriaceae
<i>Uapaca guineensis</i>	Phyllanthaceae
<i>Antidesma vogelianum</i>	Euphorbiaceae
<i>Chrysophyllus africanum</i>	Sapotaceae
<i>Klainedoxa gabonensis</i>	Irviaceae
<i>Mammea africana</i>	Calophyllaceae
<i>Massularia acuminata</i>	Rubiceae
<i>Myrianthus arboreus</i>	Urticaceae
<i>Omphalocarpum procerum</i>	Sapotaceae
<i>Panda oleosa</i>	Pandaceae
<i>Pentadesma butyracea</i>	Clusiaceae
<i>Psidium guineense</i>	Myrtaceae
<i>Tetrapleura tetraptera</i>	Fabaceae
<i>Uvariastrum pierreanum</i>	Annonaceae

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