

See(d)ing the seeds - toward weather-based forecasting of annual seed production in six European forest tree species

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Abstract

1. Ecological forecasting is essential for addressing climate change adaptation and mitigation. In reforestation and habitat restoration, seed production forecasting will support planning and resource allocation, providing benefits for wildlife management and public health.

2. We hind- and forecast seed production using statistical models based on weekly weather and high-resolution seed data of six European tree species recorded in two Austrian old-growth forest sites. Using a sliding-window approach and model selection, we model annual reproduction for three coniferous (Silver fir, European larch, Norway spruce) and three broadleaved species (Sycamore maple, European beech, European ash). We investigate the change of explained variance with decreasing time before seed rain and evaluate hindcasting proficiency as well as the potential forecast horizon based on quantitative and categorical measures useful to stakeholders in the tree seed sector.

3. Most models show unbiased but partly imprecise predictions with a broad range in explained variance (0.15 to 0.93) in the year prior to seed rain. Nevertheless, within this timeframe, hindcasting seed rain above 10% of the long-term maximum, a threshold relevant to practitioners, works well for all species. Previous seed rain explains a large proportion of the variation in seed rain of fir, ash, and maple.

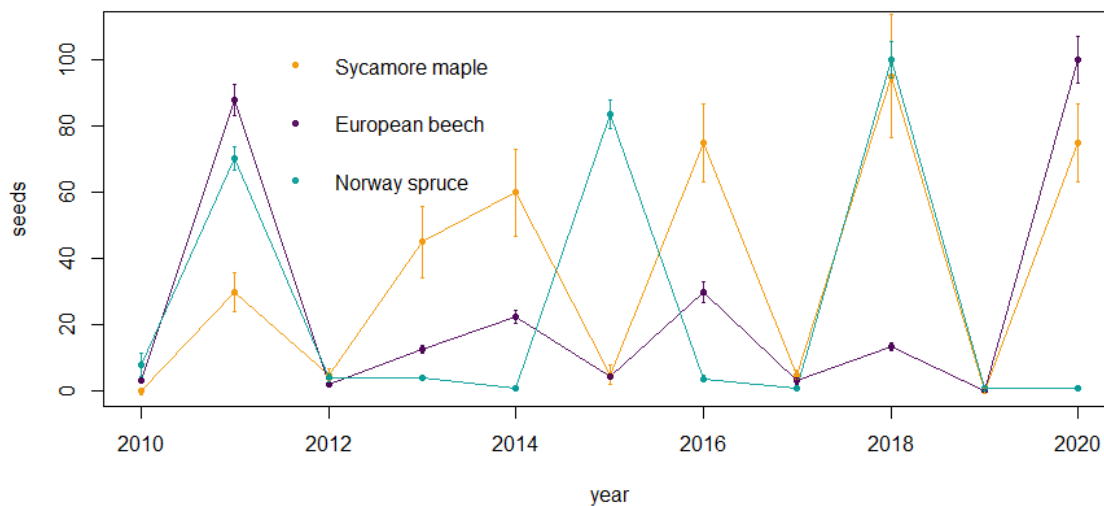
4. We forecast seed rain for 2022 to 2025 for all six species. Regarding categorical one-year-out predictions, results for 2022 and 2023 were mostly correct for beech, maple and larch, mixed for spruce and fir, and incorrect for ash.

5. *Synthesis and Applications:* Seed production is predictable with a promising degree of accuracy for most studied species one year in advance. This holds value for seed harvesters, nurseries, forest and wildlife managers, and may also inform seed orchard management and public health risk anticipation. Seed forecasts will help address seed scarcity and thus support climate change adaptation and mitigation. Future efforts should prioritise species based on seed storability and support the harvesting of rare species. Understanding reproductive strategies and their responses to climate change points the way forward. Further collaboration with user groups and implementing multi-level seed monitoring schemes will allow for tailoring further seed forecasts that transform the field.

Key Words: ecological forecasting; masting; seed production; forest restoration; mast seeding; forest reproductive material; tree seeds;

1 Introduction

2 Ecological forecasting has the potential to become a critical tool in supporting climate
3 change adaptation and mitigation (Dietze *et al.* 2024), for example in reforestation and
4 habitat restoration where uncertainty about annual seed production of target species results in
5 logistical challenges or even project failures (Whittet *et al.* 2016, Jalonen *et al.* 2018, Pearse
6 *et al.* 2021). Such projects often require large amounts of seeds within a short time frame,
7 which can pose a challenge since reproduction by many perennial plant species is strongly
8 variable in time with high spatial synchrony (see Fig. 1).



9 Figure 1: Standardised mean seed rain of Sycamore maple (Zöbelboden), European beech (Rothwald) and
10 Norway spruce (Rothwald). Bars denote standard error.

11 This reproductive strategy termed *masting* results in occasional high seed production
12 years interspersed by years of low or absent seed crops (Kelly 1994, Pesendorfer *et al.* 2021).
13 Combined with the varying capacity to store surplus seeds to meet future demand, this
14 behaviour may result in seed scarcity for restoration and afforestation efforts - especially for
15 recalcitrant species with a short viability period (Burkart 2018, Konrad *et al.* 2023). As seed
16 harvesting is labour- and time-intensive, predicting seed crops would support planning and
17 resource allocation within the seed, forestry and restoration sectors (Pearse *et al.* 2021, Kettle

18 *et al.* 2010). Furthermore, as climate change may lead to a breakdown in masting patterns
19 (Foest *et al.* 2024) and an increase in the prevalence of biotic pests (Ciceu *et al.* 2024), the
20 issue of seed (non-)availability has become a matter of urgency (Hazarika *et al.* 2021).

21 Seed production also plays an important role in wildlife management (Elliott & Kemp
22 2016) and public health risk anticipation (Rubel & Brugger 2020, Bregnard *et al.* 2021), as it
23 drives interannual variation in a range of community and ecosystem-wide processes in forests
24 (Jones *et al.* 1998, Levine & Murrell 2003, Nopp-Mayr *et al.* 2012, Michaud *et al.* 2024).
25 For instance, forecasting acorn crops or failures could reduce the potential for human-bear
26 conflicts in Japan (Oka *et al.* 2004), aid planning of release time for endangered seed-
27 dependent animals (Fidler *et al.* 2008), and provide earlier anticipation of peak infection risk
28 for tick-borne diseases (Rubel & Brugger 2020). Therefore, improving our understanding of
29 seed production patterns and developing short-term and long-term predictions of seed
30 production represents a high priority in forest ecology and beyond (Journé *et al.* 2023).

31 Forecasting of ecological time series relies on quantitative or mechanistic models that
32 capture the intrinsic and extrinsic drivers of spatiotemporal variation in the phenomenon of
33 interest, usually based on historical observations (Dietze *et al.* 2017, Lewis *et al.* 2022). In
34 tree seed production, the strong relationship with weather before and during flowering and
35 seed development provides a unique opportunity to develop anticipatory predictions of seed
36 crop size months or even years in advance (Pearse *et al.* 2021). For example, summer
37 temperatures two years before can act as a cue for synchronizing flowering effort in some
38 *Fagus* species (Piovesan & Adams 2001, Vacchiano *et al.* 2017), while spring temperature
39 and precipitation can influence pollination and acorn maturation processes in *Quercus* species
40 (Perez-Ramos *et al.* 2010, Fleurot *et al.* 2023). Therefore, identifying key weather patterns
41 that correlate with seed production allows for hindcasting and subsequent forecasting (Journé
42 *et al.* 2023).

43 While several studies have identified specific time windows and weather patterns
44 which correlate strongly with annual seed production in a given species (Poncet *et al.* 2009,
45 Koenig *et al.* 2015, Bisi *et al.* 2016, Moreira *et al.* 2021), few have explored the cumulative
46 effect of these time windows on the sequential processes that ultimately determine the extent
47 of annual seed production, from bud initiation over flowering and pollination to seed
48 development, fructification, and abscission. This sequential approach provides important
49 information about the predictability of a system (Pennekamp *et al.* 2019) as well as the
50 potential forecasting horizon, the time over which useful forecasts can be made (Petchey *et*
51 *al.* 2015). Transforming earlier studies on correlations of weather and seed production into
52 actual ecological forecasting is thus timely and promising.

53 The utility of a forecast can only be determined from the perspective of potential
54 users, i.e. whether a forecast is accurate, precise, and early enough to generate or modify
55 actions within the tree seed sector. This threshold is typically based on an agreed measure of
56 forecasting proficiency. For instance, the weather forecast horizon is typically a few days
57 ahead, while the forecast horizon for tree seed production is still largely unknown (Journé *et*
58 *al.* 2023). Within the Austrian seed sector, actors have identified the value of a reliable
59 prediction the year before seed rain, but any reliable forecast before summer of the seed
60 harvest year would improve their planning horizon (Gadermayer July 2024, *pers. comm.*).
61 From a biological point of view, this seems realistic for those species that show a strong
62 alternating pattern (e.g. *Abies alba*) or species that exhibit “flower masting”, i.e. those that
63 regulate their seed production mainly by variation in the number of flowers, which is usually
64 determined by cues in the previous growing season (Pearse *et al.* 2016). Conversely, fruit
65 maturation masting species - where the variation in seed production is due to differences in
66 the rate of flowers maturing into seeds - might have a shorter forecasting horizon, as driving
67 factors for variation operate mainly within the seed maturation year. Furthermore, any

68 otherwise reliable prediction may be rendered incorrect by environmental vetoes that occur
69 late in the fruit development cycle, such as extreme drought during the seed maturation phase
70 which leads to fruit abortion (Nussbaumer *et al.* 2020).

71 Recently, Journé *et al.* (2023) used a sequential modelling approach to build
72 hindcasting models for reproduction across 94 European beech (*Fagus sylvatica* L.)
73 populations, in which they investigated how much variance can be explained as the sequence
74 of biologically-relevant weather time windows gets closer to the actual seed production
75 event. They found that the amount of explained variation increases strongly about one year
76 before seed rain, providing a first estimate of a potential forecasting horizon at which
77 meaningful predictions may be formulated. For most tree species, however, the explanatory
78 power of the statistical relationship between weather and seed production, based on additive,
79 sequential models suitable for forecasting, has not been explored.

80 Here, we use long-term, high-resolution data sets on annual seed production (hereafter
81 “ASP”) in six European tree species recorded in two Austrian old-growth forest sites to hind-
82 and forecast seed production based on weather data. In addition, we included temporal
83 autocorrelation with previous ASP data, which is indicative of intrinsic drivers such as
84 resource dynamics (Sork *et al.* 1993, Pearse *et al.* 2016). Specifically, we constructed
85 sequential statistical ASP models for three coniferous species, Silver fir (*Abies alba*),
86 European larch (*Larix decidua*), and Norway spruce (*Picea abies*), and three broadleaved
87 species, Sycamore maple (*Acer pseudoplatanus*), European beech (*Fagus sylvatica*), and
88 European ash (*Fraxinus excelsior*), for some of which the weather correlations with seed
89 production are poorly understood. Using a sliding-window approach and model selection (R-
90 package *climwin*, van de Pol *et al.* 2016, Bailey & van de Pol 2016) based on weekly weather
91 data, we investigate the change of explained variance with decreasing time horizon before
92 seed rain. We developed our models using seed data until 2021 and forecast seed amount for

93 the following four years, including the fall of 2025. Thus, we demonstrate what is possible by
94 using sequential statistical ASP models and explore uncharted terrain by forecasting the
95 upcoming ASP for six temperate European tree species. We aim to lay the foundation for
96 further development of ASP forecasts, including tools designed for use by practitioners, as
97 well as providing a first benchmark for the field.

98 **Methods**

99 Sites

100 We used ASP data from two montane old-growth forest sites in the Northern
101 Limestone Alps in Austria, covering 18 years (Rothwald) and 30 years (Zöbelboden). Despite
102 their proximity (50 km), the sites differ slightly in species composition, climate, and soil
103 properties. For detailed site descriptions, see Supplementary Information.

104 Data

105 Both study sites are equipped with rodent-safe seed traps (detailed description of
106 Rothwald in Gratzner *et al.* 2022). At Zöbelboden, 56 traps are arranged across 14 locations
107 throughout 90 ha. We used data from Zöbelboden covering ASP of *Picea abies*, *Fagus*
108 *sylvatica*, *Larix decidua*, *Acer pseudoplatanus* and *Fraxinus excelsior* from 1994 to 2022,
109 and data from Rothwald for ASP of *Picea abies*, *Fagus sylvatica* and *Abies alba* from 2006
110 to 2023.

111 We used downscaled weather data on air temperature and precipitation from existing
112 datasets or interpolated data from nearby weather-stations using statistical methods in daily
113 resolution. These high-resolution datasets provide more accurate results especially in such
114 mountainous terrain with steep temperature gradients. A detailed description of the method
115 can be found in Lehner *et al.* (2024) and Gadermaier *et al.* (2024).

116 *Data manipulation*

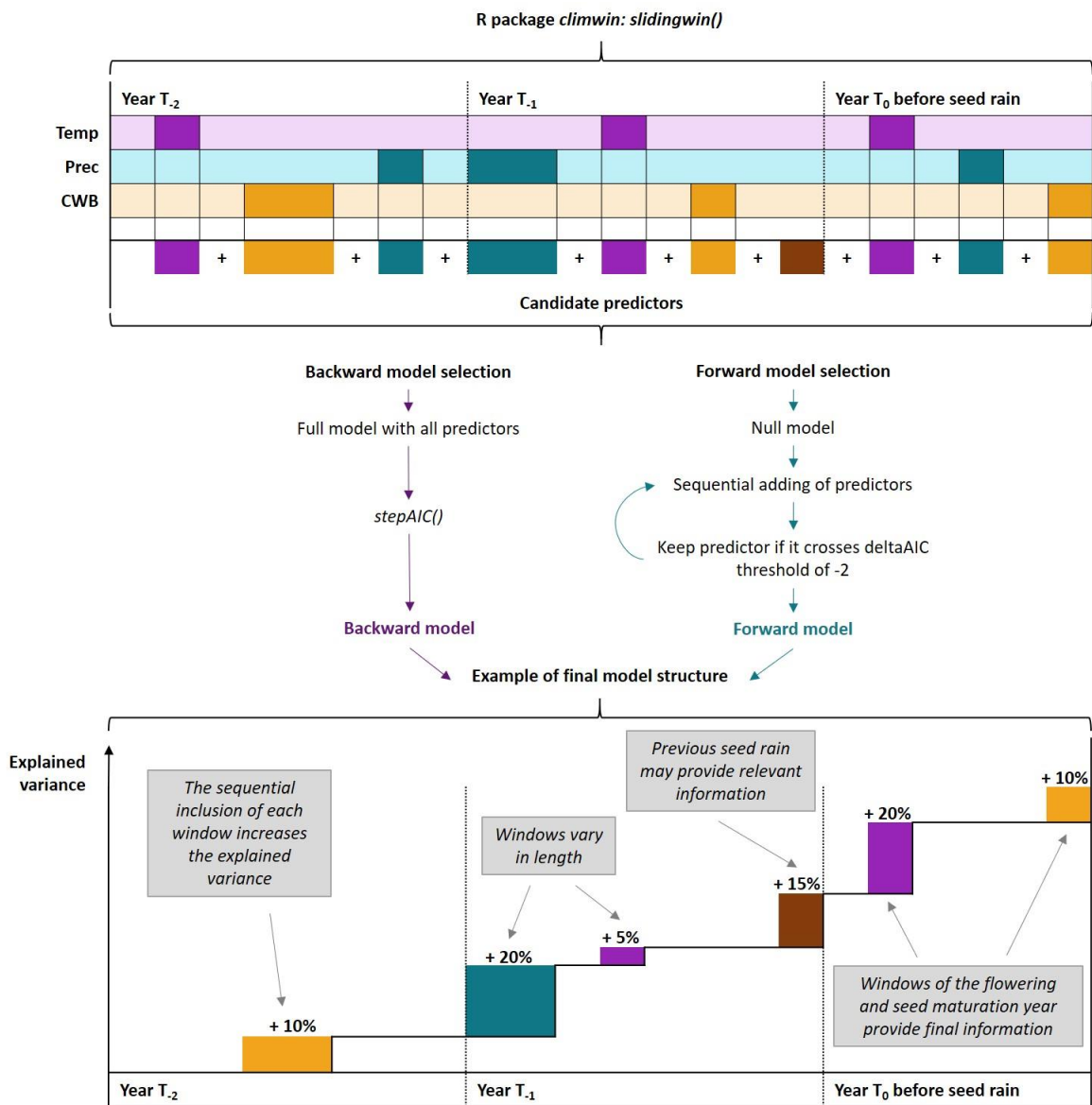
117 First, we calculated the mean annual seed rain/m² per species and site. As the species
118 distribution at Zöbelboden is uneven, we only included traps with cumulative seed rain values
119 above the 10th percentile for each species, in order to exclude spurious seed dispersal events.
120 For Rothwald, we used seed data of spruce and fir from the conifer-dominated basin, and
121 beech seed data from the beech-dominated slopes.

122 We aggregated the daily weather data to mean weekly temperatures and weekly
123 precipitation sums. To incorporate the combined effect of these two factors, we calculated the
124 weekly climatic water balance (CWB) following the Penman-Monteith equation within the
125 R-package *Evapotranspiration* (version 1.16, Guo *et al.* 2022).

126 Data analysis

127 To investigate the relationship between ASP and previous weather conditions, we
128 used a sliding-window approach to model selection, namely the package *climwin* (version
129 1.2.3; Bailey & van de Pol 2016), specifically the function *slidingwin()*, which was designed
130 for investigating correlations of varying-length windows of a given time series to any
131 biological variable of interest (Bailey & van de Pol 2016). *Slidingwin()* uses deltaAIC as
132 measure of comparison to a previously constructed null model (Bailey & van de Pol 2016),
133 with the AIC being a common criterion for the goodness of model fit (Burnham & Anderson
134 2002). Assuming that autocorrelation would play a significant role in ASP variation, we
135 constructed a null model using prior ASP ($seeds_{T-1}$) as a fixed effect.

136 *Slidingwin()* requires a fixed date for the biological variable in question; we chose the
137 first day of week 36 (early September) as seed rain date, corresponding roughly with the time
138 when seed harvest usually commences (Bailey & van de Pol 2016). Although *climwin* has
139 been designed as a model selection tool, it does not allow for constructing sequential additive
140 models. To implement this approach, we used *slidingwin()* to identify relevant time windows,
141 and then modelled their sequential additive effects (Fig. 2). Based on literature, we
142 considered prior ASP and weather windows up to two (three for *Larix decidua*, Haasemann
143 1973) years before seed rain as predictors for subsequent ASP. Note that no prior knowledge
144 of likely weather windows within this time frame was assumed.



145 Figure 2: Schematic depiction of species- and site-specific model building: First, we used *slidingwin()* to identify
 146 the start and end of the candidate weather predictors (Temp = mean weekly temperature, Prec = weekly
 147 precipitation sum, CWB = climatic water balance). We used I) AIC-based stepwise regression for backward
 148 model selection, and II) conservative forward model selection by adding predictors in their natural sequence,
 149 keeping them only if they provided at least an improvement in AIC of -2 over the previous best model (null model:
 150 seeds ~1).

151 To build species- and site-specific versions of the sequential models, we standardised
 152 mean ASP between 0 and 100. Within our ASP time series, assumptions of negative binomial
 153 distribution were verified (Zuur *et al.* 2009), so we fitted negative binomial generalized linear
 154 models using a log link (R-package *MASS*, v. 7.3-53, Venables & Ripley 2002).

155 For backward model selection, we built a full statistical model of all candidate
156 windows for each species and site and then used *stepAIC()*. We allowed for overfitting and
157 collinearity of predictors, as we were explicitly focused on site- and species-specific
158 statistical modelling, rather than hypothesis testing (Dormann *et al.* 2012). Furthermore, to
159 reflect the realistic availability of information for future forecasting application, we
160 conducted a second, conservative approach of forward model selection. Here, we started with
161 a null model of standardised mean ASP ~ 1 and then added the earliest weather predictor that
162 would become available. We assessed whether it improved model fit ($\Delta AIC > 2$),
163 otherwise we dismissed it. We progressed through all predictors, and then used *stepAIC()* to
164 check whether removal of any predictor would further improve the AIC. The resulting model
165 was termed the “forward model”, as opposed to the “backward model” resulting from the
166 backward model selection.

167 We compared the results of both model selection approaches for hindcasting and used
168 two novel approaches of investigating ASP model proficiency with regard to the forecast
169 horizon. Finally, we predicted standardised mean ASP for 2022 to 2025. As the available
170 high-resolution weather data was available until the end of 2023, we were limited in our
171 forecasts to 2024 and 2025.

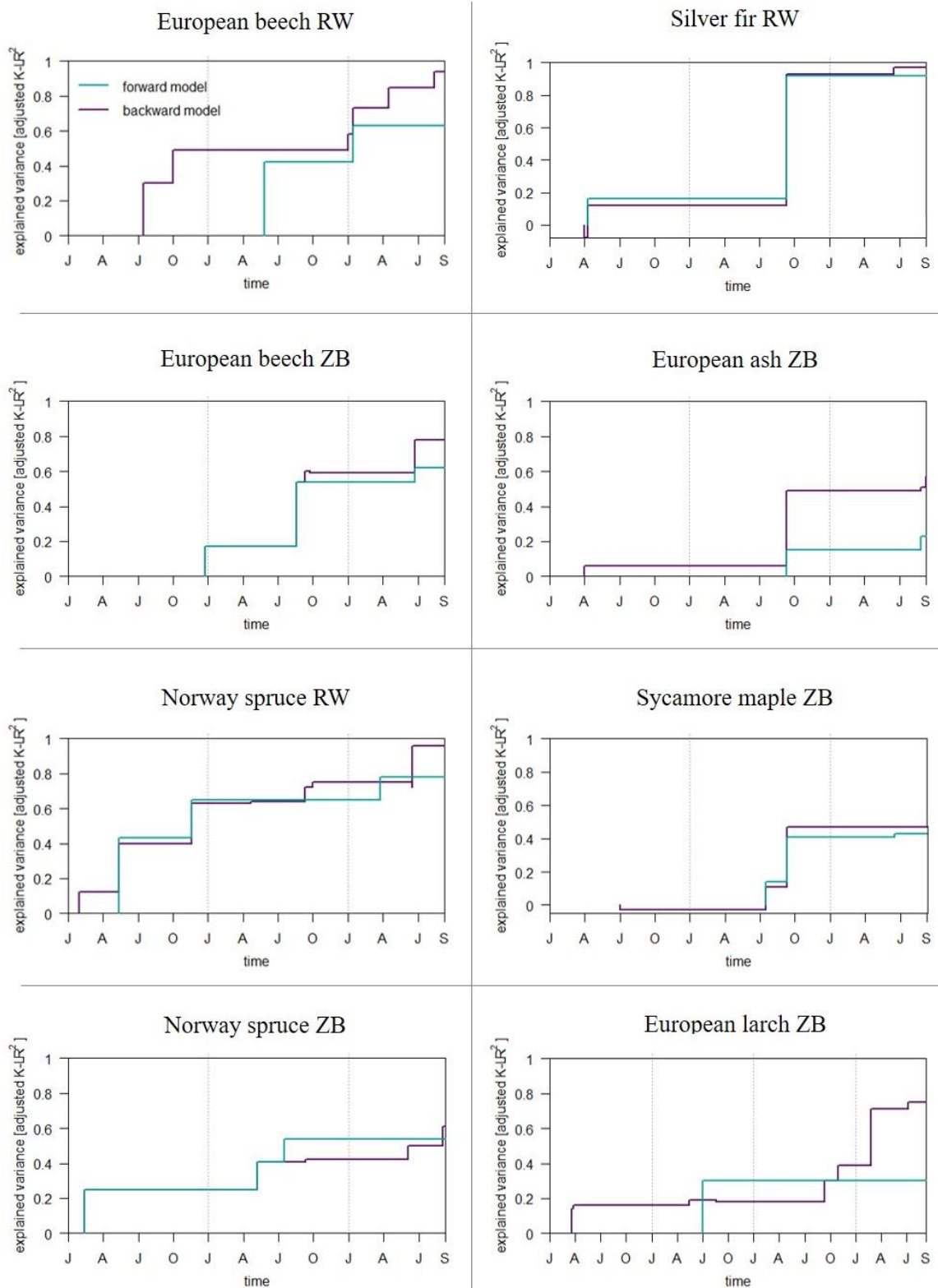
172 All analyses were conducted in R version 2023.03.0+386 (Posit team 2023).

173 **Results**

174 Overall hindcasting performance of models

175 As the period between hindcast and seed rain narrows, the increase in explained
176 variance along the temporal sequence of added model predictors (Fig. 3) reflects a decline in
177 prediction uncertainty. The overall final model performance was higher for backward
178 selected models than for forward selected models. For backward selection, the adjusted
179 Kullback-Leibler R^2 (Cameron & Windmeijer 1997, Zhang 2022) of final models ranged
180 from 0.47 (Sycamore maple Zöbelboden = ZB) to 0.97 (Silver fir Rothwald = RW), while
181 forward selection resulted in a wider range from 0.23 (European ash ZB) to 0.92 (Silver fir
182 RW). Models derived from the shorter ASP time series (RW) resulted in higher R^2 , while
183 model performance of ZB was more diverse.

184 All models except one achieved an R^2 of at least 0.3 [max. 0.93] within the year
185 before seed rain (T-1), indicating sufficient information was available to explain a major part
186 of the total seed rain variation. However, weather predictors of the seed rain year T0 further
187 increased R^2 , especially for beech, spruce and larch (Fig. 3, Table 1).



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Figure 3: Evolution of the adjusted K-L R^2 per added predictor within the final models of the forward (turquoise) and backward (purple) selected models. The right end of the x-axis represents the time of seed rain in early September. Toward the left side of each plot, the dotted vertical lines delimit the previous two years (or three in the case of larch) with every third month abbreviated (first J = January, A = April, second J = June, O = October).

193 Model accuracy and bias

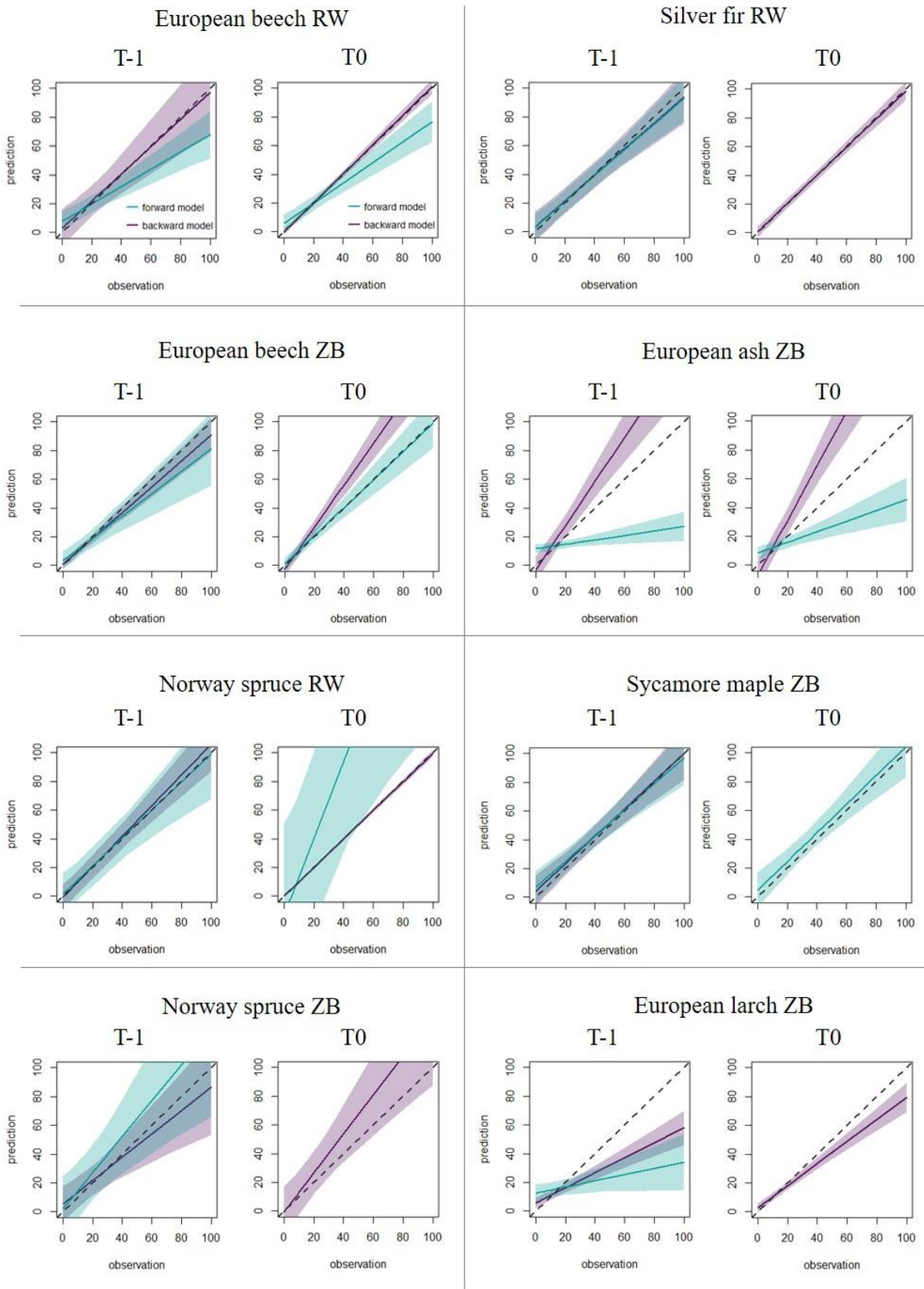
194 Despite the high proportion of explained variance in most models, the RMSE
 195 remained high (from about 20 to 45, see SI). As all seed data are scaled between 0 and 100,
 196 this indicates continuous average prediction errors of 20% to 45%. To examine the
 197 development of model accuracy over time, we assessed the percentage of cases where the
 198 prediction interval (prediction \pm SE) and the observation interval (observation \pm SE)
 199 overlapped along the model sequence (prediction-observation interval coverage, POIC).
 200 Table 1 shows R^2 and POIC of T-1 and T0. An increase in R^2 from T-1 to T0 is mostly
 201 associated with an increase in POIC, and only rarely with a decrease in T0. Thus, we see an
 202 increase in model accuracy as the seed rain approaches that is reflected by the increase in R^2
 203 in Figure 3.

204 Table 1: R^2 and prediction-observation interval coverage [%] of each final forward (“for”) and backward (“back”)
 205 selected model at the end of the year before seed rain (T-1) and at the end of the seed rain year (T0). The absence
 206 of further predictors added in T0 is marked by “-”.

Species and Site	T-1		T0	
	R^2	POI Coverage [%]	R^2	POI Coverage [%]
Beech RW back	0.58	46.7	0.94	66.7
Beech RW for	0.42	46.7	0.63	40
Beech ZB back	0.59	40.7	0.78	37
Beech ZB for	0.54	25.9	0.62	29.6
Spruce RW back	0.75	73.3	0.96	80
Spruce RW for	0.65	33.3	0.78	53.3
Spruce ZB back	0.42	40.7	0.61	44.4
Spruce ZB for	0.54	29.6	-	-
Fir RW back	0.93	80	0.97	86.7

Fir RW for	0.92	46.7	-	-
Larch ZB back	0.39	42.3	0.75	61.5
Larch ZB for	0.3	28.5	-	-
Ash ZB back	0.49	55.6	0.57	63
Ash ZB for	0.15	29.6	0.23	44.4
Sycamore ZB back	0.47	63	-	-
Sycamore ZB for	0.41	55.6	0.43	55.6

207 To clarify whether the remaining inaccuracies are biased in a particular direction, we
208 used prediction-observation plots (Fig. 4) to visualise which models tend to over- or
209 underpredict seed rain. The close alignment of the predicted vs. observed line with the 1:1
210 line in Figure 4 indicates that most models show unbiased, but partly imprecise, predictions
211 already in the year before seed rain (T-1). Some models tend to underpredict seed production
212 in T-1 (forward models for larch, ash and beech). Overall, the most common bias is
213 underprediction in T-1 and minor over- and underprediction in T0. Forward models also tend
214 to have a slightly larger bias than backward models, consistent with Table 1. In T0 models for
215 ash and spruce, the bias varies with model selection approach.



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217 *Figure 4: Linear models depicting the relationship of predictions vs. observations with a 95% confidence interval*

218 *(shaded area) of the forward (turquoise) and backward (purple) selected models, once at the end of the year before*

219 *seed rain (T-1) and once in the year of seed rain (T0). The dotted line represents the 1:1 line.*

220 Model structure and components

221 Previous ASP explains a large proportion of the variation in most models for fir, ash,
222 and maple, and only a small proportion ($< 0.15 R^2$) in most models for beech, spruce and
223 larch. In the forward selected models for spruce and larch, as well as in all RW models for
224 beech, the previous ASP is absent (see SI). Overall, forward selected models suffer less from
225 multicollinearity and are more stable than backward selected models, which were deliberately
226 allowed to be overfitted. Accordingly, forward selected models tend to have a much lower
227 number of predictors. The final model weather predictor types are diverse, although most
228 windows fall in the first half of the calendar years, between late winter and early summer.

229

230 Exploring the potential forecasting horizon

231 The potential forecasting horizon depends on the formulation of a measure of this
232 “usefulness”, which will vary according to the user group. By investigating the change in
233 explained variance (R^2) and prediction-observation interval coverage (POIC), we have
234 provided initial estimates of the quantitative limits of potential forecast horizons for each
235 species.

236 To assess the categorical hindcasting capability of our models, we sorted seed rain
237 data into 3 categories: $\leq 10\%$, $>10\%$ and $>50\%$ of the seed rain maximum. These were
238 informed by opinions from the Austrian tree seed sector, and might represent seed production
239 failures, moderate and bumper seed crops. Most seed years fell into the lowest category and
240 very few into the highest. We compared the T-1 and T0 year predictions of each model
241 selection approach: Hindcasting above 10% of the maximum worked well for all species in
242 the year prior to seed rain. Hindcasting “lows” in T-1 worked well for beech, spruce, fir and
243 ash, while for larch and maple less than two third of the categorical predictions were accurate

244 (Table 2, Fig. 4). In line with R^2 and prediction-observation interval coverage (Table 1), we
 245 see that model accuracy tends to be higher for backward selected models.

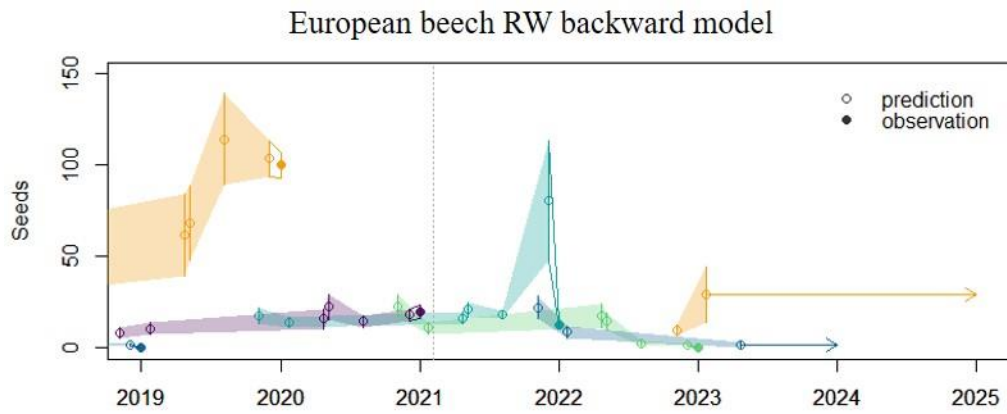
246 Table 2: Proportion of correct (hindcast) predictions of seed amount categories in % of each final forward (“for”)
 247 and backward (“back”) selected model at the end of the year before seed rain (T-1) and at the end of the seed rain
 248 year (T0).

Category	T-1			T0		
	0-10	>10	>50	0-10	>10	>50
Beech RW back	100	88	100	100	100	100
Beech RW for	29	75	50	57	75	100
Beech ZB back	95	71	100	100	86	100
Beech ZB for	95	71	100	95	71	100
Spruce RW back	91	100	100	100	100	100
Spruce RW for	82	100	67	91	100	33
Spruce ZB back	82	80	67	88	80	100
Spruce ZB for	94	90	67	-	-	-
Fir RW back	100	100	100	100	100	100
Fir RW for	100	100	80	-	-	-
Larch ZB back	65	78	50	82	89	50
Larch ZB for	65	78	50	-	-	-
Ash ZB back	83	100	100	100	89	100
Ash ZB for	44	100	0	78	89	0
Sycamore ZB back	56	94	83	-	-	-
Sycamore ZB for	56	94	83	67	94	83

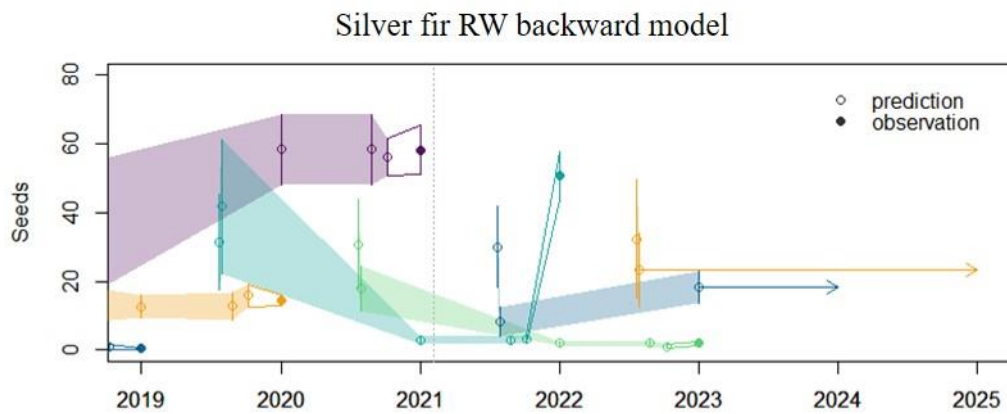
249

250 Forecasting

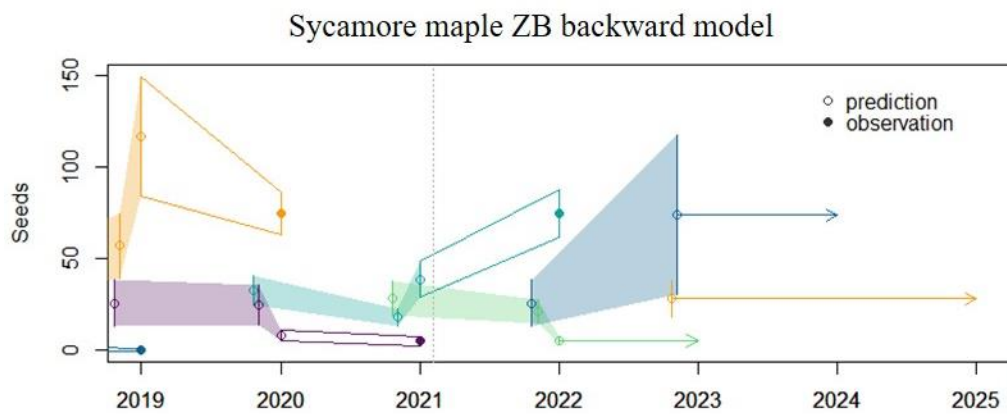
251 Using the most accurate hindcasting models, we forecast seed rain for 2022 to 2025
252 for all six species (Fig. 5). Testing the envisioned forecast horizon, categorical predictions
253 were correct for beech, maple and larch, mixed for spruce and fir, and incorrect for ash one
254 year in advance. Notably, the model for Silver fir, which showed the best overall hindcasting
255 performance, failed to correctly predict ASP when it encountered a pattern of consecutive
256 high ASP years in 2021 and 2022, outside the variation in the training dataset (which
257 contained no instances of consecutive high ASP). Final model predictions (including
258 predictors of the seed year) were mostly categorised correctly in maple, ash and larch, with
259 mixed performance in fir, beech and spruce (for further details, see SI). Forecasts for 2024
260 onwards are currently limited both by seed and weather data and will thus be updated after
261 seed sampling and availability of 2024 weather data.



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264

265 *Figure 5: Sequential backward model predictions for European beech RW, Silver fir RW and Sycamore maple*
 266 *ZB. Empty circles represent predictions with standard error of prediction. Full circles represent actual*
 267 *observations with according standard error. The dotted vertical line marks the boundary between hind- and*
 268 *forecasting. Colours mark individual year predictions of the sequential models.*

269 **Discussion**

270 Annual seed production (“ASP”) in species with high interannual variability and
271 spatial synchrony (masting) is predictable based on weather and previous ASP, with a
272 forecast horizon that holds value for the tree seed sector. We explored the potential for
273 forecasting ASP of six tree species, for only one of which forecasts have been developed
274 previously. Furthermore, ASP of maple and ash has not been studied in relation to weather, to
275 the best of our knowledge. Our results indicate that ASP of some species can be predicted
276 already in the year prior to seed rain. The currently achieved model performance may be
277 beneficial for seed harvesters, nurseries and forest and wildlife managers.

278 Our models are based on correlations of weather and ASP data. While correlations do
279 not imply causation, some may possess biological significance. The majority of the final
280 weather predictors within this study fall between late winter to early summer, consistent with
281 previous studies (Matthews 1955, Moreira *et al.* 2021). However, limited understanding of
282 species-specific physiological processes and their timing hinders the distinction of statistical
283 artefacts and biologically meaningful periods. Here, close monitoring of the species-specific
284 relationship of weather and reproductive phenology would allow for more advanced
285 modelling, i.e. moving from a calendar-based approach to a standardised assignment of a
286 phenological ID (“pheno-id”) to each week, i.e. dating weather windows according to the
287 annual timing of key phenological events, rather than windows fixed to calendar dates. Such
288 models may allow generalised models to be used in the absence of local training data and
289 may help explain the site-specific weather windows we found for spruce and beech,
290 potentially providing further insights into tree reproduction physiology. For our current
291 undertaking, we relied on weekly calendar-id, as the calendar year aligns with the course of
292 both light availability and key solar events to which plants appear to be sensitive, as was
293 recently found for the summer solstice (Journé *et al.* 2024).

294 Previous ASP explains a large part of the variation in models for fir, ash and maple,
295 and less for beech, spruce and larch. This fits previous work showing that high ASP
296 correlates with reduced syrup yield in *Acer saccharum* (Rapp & Crone 2015) and decreased
297 tree ring growth in ash (Bochenek & Eriksen 2010), suggesting that these species may
298 alternately invest in growth and reproduction (resource-switching, Pearse *et al.* 2016).
299 Regarding fir, the first attempt to predict seed rain in 2022 failed due to the previously
300 unobserved occurrence of two consecutive high seed years.

301 A strong dependence on previous ASP may fix the theoretically accomplishable
302 forecasting horizon to 12 months. In reality, high-quality seed production monitoring
303 typically requires several months for full sample measurement and validation, making data
304 latency one of the fundamental challenges in predicting ASP. Combining seed sampling
305 methods with different levels of accuracy to reduce latency is a promising way forward.

306 Establishing new seed monitoring projects and ensuring the future of existing ones
307 may be just in time to understand existing relationships between weather and seed
308 production, and to anticipate their future development. Trees may struggle to adapt to
309 climate change, leading to disruptions in seed production and recruitment, either directly or
310 indirectly (Bogdziewicz *et al.* 2024, Foest *et al.* 2024). The increasing occurrence of
311 environmental vetoes, such as spring frosts or summer droughts (Nussbaumer *et al.* 2020),
312 will inevitably disrupt forecasts. Monitoring these vetoes alongside forecasting and seed
313 sampling is crucial for understanding future vulnerability and recovery, and for building trust
314 with the communities concerned (Bodner *et al.* 2021). Within the tree seed sector, forecasts
315 will mainly inform harvesting activities (in forest stands and orchards) but also seed orchard
316 management actions like pruning, irrigation, and fertilisation.

317 Current practices of observing flowering effort provide valid estimates before seed
318 harvest for flower masting species (Pearse *et al.* 2016). Therefore, a forecast one year in

319 advance has the opportunity for major updates before seed rain: the actual observation of
320 flowering and the weather conditions during flowering, seed formation and seed maturation.
321 This can be incorporated into the forecast communication, both in terms of refining the
322 prediction and its uncertainty. It must be clear what the forecasts are based on and how often
323 they have been correct in the past at the given forecast horizon. Throughout spring,
324 information on flowering effort should be incorporated, and it must be emphasised that rare
325 and localised weather events can disrupt ASP in a particular forest area.

326 Discussions with people working in the tree seed system indicate a preference for
327 categorical forecasts, but we are still working to understand the needs of potential user
328 groups. Different thresholds may determine the individual effort to harvest seed of a given
329 species in a given year, depending on species (market) demand, storability, and seed stocks,
330 individual strategies and economic constraints. For this study, besides exploring the
331 forecasting horizon with a quantitative precision-oriented metric (POIC), we have assumed
332 that the main difference is whether some ($>10\%$) or none ($\leq 10\%$) of the seeds will be
333 available, and whether there is likely to be an exceptionally high seed year ($>50\%$). It can be
334 reasonably argued that each of these predictions would result in different actions and
335 planning behaviour, although some highly demanded and subsidised species are likely to be
336 harvested at similar intensities whether the yield is predicted to be "just above zero" or
337 exceptionally high (Konrad *et al.* 2023).

338 Despite natural limitations, ASP appears to be predictable with a promising, though
339 imperfect, degree of accuracy for most studied species roughly one year in advance. Future
340 forecasting efforts should prioritise species based on lack of storability, coupled with
341 demand, which in turn should be driven by species resilience. Increased harvesting of rare
342 species, regardless of seed storability, seems rational given the need to maintain and increase

343 biodiversity in forest landscapes. Here, seed forecasts will provide an essential part for
344 addressing climate change adaptation and mitigation.

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351

352 **Author contributions**

353 IO and MBP conceived the ideas and designed the study, IO conducted the analysis
354 and wrote the manuscript with critical contributions from MBP, AHP and GG. GG, HK and
355 SS provided data. All authors provided editorial input and gave final approval for publication.

356

357 **Data availability statement**

358 The datasets used in the study will be available at the Dryad repository after
359 publication.

360

361 **Conflict of interest statement**

362 No conflicts of interest are declared.

363

364 **Statement on inclusion**

365 Our study benefits from collaboration with practice-orientated researchers at the
366 Austrian Research Centre for Forests, and from being developed within a larger
367 interdisciplinary project addressing issues with seed supply for forests in Central Europe.
368 Consequently, the development of our forecasting models has been shaped through
369 interactions with foresters and practitioners from the Austrian tree seed sector. For example,
370 earlier versions of this work were presented and discussed at a 2-day workshop with people

371 from harvesting companies, nurseries, orchard owners, the forest management of the Austrian
372 Federal Forests and the Federal Administration in the summer of 2024, and feedback from
373 that workshop has been incorporated into the present manuscript. Whenever relevant,
374 literature published by scientists from the region was cited; efforts were made to consider
375 relevant work published in the local language.

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