

The end of boom-and-bust? Observed and projected declines in European beech masting

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20 **Abstract**

21 Reproduction is vital for forest resilience to climate change, as tree populations depend on
22 adequate seed production to recover from disturbances and migrate to more suitable sites.
23 Neglecting reproduction in projections of habitat suitability and range shifts risks overestimating
24 forest resilience to climate change. For many tree species, including European beech (*Fagus*
25 *sylvatica*), viable seed production depends on year-to-year variability in seed output (CVp),
26 known as masting. Analysing data from 328 sites (average record length: 32.7 years), we find
27 that rising summer temperatures in Central Europe are associated with declines in masting. Using
28 the identified relationship between masting and summer temperatures, we project changes in
29 masting across the species range under contemporary and future climates. The risk of masting
30 decline is predicted to be widespread across the species' range, due to ubiquitous summer
31 warming, but the risk is highest in the central belt of the distribution range (~40% decline in
32 CVp). Masting disruption is projected to occur across all populations under future climate
33 scenarios. To mitigate the impacts of disruptions in masting patterns, it is essential to monitor
34 recruitment in these high-risk zones while testing forest management strategies that may mitigate
35 the effects of masting decline. With masting crucial for regeneration, seed consumer population
36 dynamics, and behaviour, its disruption under climate change could have far-reaching ecological
37 impacts.

38 **Introduction**

39 Under climate change, forests, and their carbon-sequestering services have become vital in
40 global policies (1; 2; 3). Consequently, the impacts of climate change on forest ecosystems
41 have drawn significant attention, highlighting accelerated disturbance rates, increased mortality,
42 and altered growth patterns (4; 5; 6; 7; 8). These efforts have advanced our understanding of
43 how changing climates alter forest dynamics (9; 10; 11). However, due to logistical challenges
44 in measuring seed production over sufficient timescales, the reproductive capacity of trees in
45 response to climate change remains understudied (12; 13). Yet, tree reproduction underpins the
46 persistence and resilience of forest ecosystems (14; 15).

47 Current range projections under changing climate are typically based on climate suitability
48 for adult trees, neglecting whether new climates permit successful reproduction (16; 17; 18).
49 Seed availability is essential for the resilience and regeneration of existing forests, as well
50 as for supporting their migration in response to climate change (19; 20; 21; 15). All these
51 processes depend on successful reproduction and collectively determine the nature of future
52 forests. Therefore, integrating reproductive dynamics into climate-based forest management
53 strategies is essential to ensure the sustainability of forest ecosystems (22).

54 Importantly, for the majority of temperate tree species, viable seed supply is not a simple
55 function of total seed production (Box 1). Instead, viable seed production is linked to masting,
56 a common reproductive strategy in temperate and boreal forest trees (23; 24; 25). Masting
57 refers to the phenomenon where long-lived plants produce large seed crops at irregular, multi-
58 year intervals, synchronised across individuals and populations (26; 27). Masting enhances
59 pollination efficiency and reduces pre-dispersal seed predation (Box 1), thereby maximising
60 viable seed production and increasing the chances of successful seedling establishment (28; 29;
61 30). Thus, understanding how masting is affected by climate change is essential for predicting
62 tree reproduction and forest regeneration success (31).

63 Weather variation plays a central role in driving masting (27; 31). This occurs via weather
64 cues which regulate and synchronise year-to-year variation in reproduction (31). Changes
65 in temperature and precipitation regimes can alter the frequency of cues, thereby dampening
66 variability, and desynchronising reproductive effort (32; 31). This reduces the efficiency benefits
67 derived from masting, leading to substantially decreased reproductive success (Box 1) (31).
68 Therefore, understanding masting drivers can help identify regions at risk of declining viable
69 seed production and subsequent recruitment failure, enabling management actions and guiding
70 research to develop solutions.

71 Advances in understanding masting mechanisms have identified drivers and consequences
72 of its disruption under climate change (31). However, these studies are limited due to the
73 logistical challenges of monitoring seed production over decades (43; 12; 44). Long-term
74 research on European beech (*Fagus sylvatica*) in England has revealed that increasing summer
75 temperatures during flower primordia differentiation (June-July) change the frequency of weather

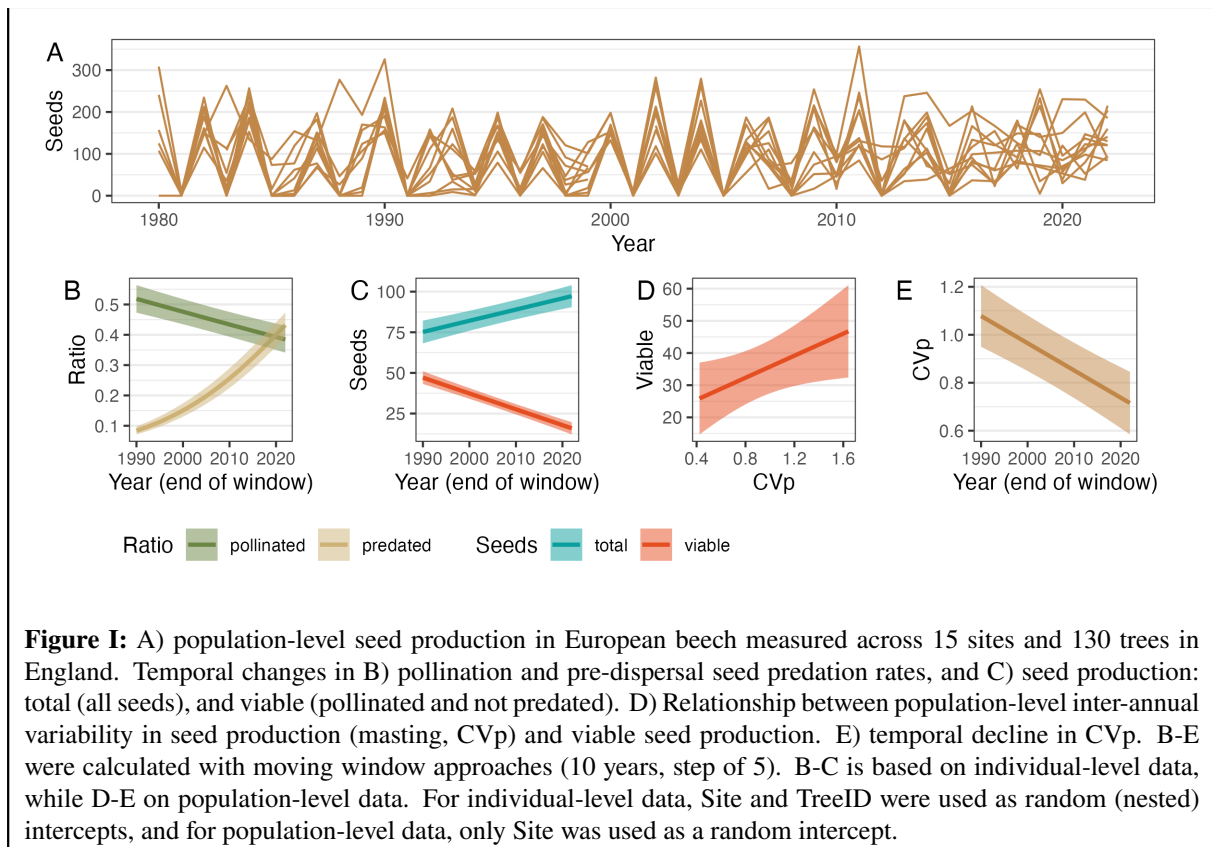
Box 1: Declining inter-annual variation (CV_p) in masting leads to a strong decline in viable seed supply.

A four-decade-long monitoring study of 130 European beech (*Fagus sylvatica*) trees in England has revealed that increasing summer temperatures lead to decreased tree-level inter-annual variation (CV_i) and reduced synchrony (S) in seed production among trees (33). Combined, this results in a decline in population-level inter-annual variation in masting (CV_p) (34; 33), with severe consequences for viable seed production (Fig. IB-D; for methodology, see Note .1)).

Mechanism. Years of high seed production in European beech are triggered by a sequence of temperature cues: a cold summer two years before, and a warm summer one year before seeding (35; 36). This sequence initiates the development of large numbers of flower buds and sets the stage for a large seeding event. However, as summers have warmed, the frequency of warm summer cues has changed fivefold (37). Trees are now experiencing shorter intervals between the environmental signals triggering large reproductive efforts. This depletes tree resources (38; 39), leading to a diminished response to cues and greater variability in individual tree responses (37). The result is less pronounced inter-annual variation and reduced seed production synchrony (37).

Consequences for viable seed supply. This shift in seed production patterns has two major consequences. Firstly, it results in the **disruption of predator satiation**. Masting reduces seed predation by alternating low-seed years, which starve seed predators, and high-seed years, where an overabundance of seeds overwhelms the reduced predator populations (29). As seeds are being produced more consistently each year, the more stable food supply leads to a higher abundance of seed predators. This led to increased pre-dispersal seed predation, from an efficient average of ~8% predation during the 1980s, to ~ 43% in recent years (Fig. I)(33). Secondly, it results in a **decline in pollination efficiency**. Synchronised mass flowering enhances cross-pollination among trees (40; 28). Reduced synchrony and smaller flowering events have led to a decline in fertilisation rates—from 52% at the start of monitoring to 38% in recent years (Fig. I) (33).

The combined impact of increased seed predation and decreased pollination efficiency results in a ~66% reduction in viable seed supply (Fig. I) (33; 41). Importantly, at the population level, years of peak seed production correspond to pulses of seedling recruitment (42), and masting translates to seedling recruitment success at the individual level: individuals characterized by large inter-annual variation and synchrony of seed production produce more seedlings (30).



76 cues triggering high seeding (37; 45), leading to reduced inter-annual variation and synchrony
 77 in seed production. This ultimately caused a ~ 50 – 80% reduction in viable seed supply (41)
 78 (Box 1). European beech is an important forest-forming species in Europe, providing numerous
 79 ecosystem services and serving as the continent’s third-largest carbon sink (46; 11). The growth
 80 of beech is declining under warming and drying conditions (47; 48). Nevertheless, beech is
 81 considered a potential "winner" of climate change, as projections suggest relatively small range
 82 contractions compared to other major forest-forming species, with the potential for colonisation
 83 eastward and northward (17; 49; 50). However, these forecasts overlook the risks associated
 84 with warming effects on beech reproduction.

85 Here, we analysed an unprecedented dataset of annual seed production from European
 86 beech across Poland, covering 328 sites monitored for over 30 years (1988–2021). Building
 87 on previous research suggesting that warming summer temperatures disrupt masting behaviour
 88 (37; 45), we expected that increasing temperatures would be associated with a decline in inter-
 89 annual variation in masting (measured as the coefficient of variation, CVp) and a reduction in
 90 synchrony among populations. Compared to past work on climate change effects on European

91 beech masting, the extensive and unified sampling allowed us to establish a quantitative link
92 between masting trends and summer temperatures over large spatial and climatic gradients.
93 Thus as a next step, we predicted how the observed pace of warming translates into masting
94 changes throughout the species range. Furthermore, we projected future masting dynamics
95 under the intermediate (RCP4.5) and more pessimistic (SSP2.45) IPCC climate scenarios. Our
96 work indicates that beech is experiencing strong disruptions to its reproductive strategy. If, as
97 the literature suggests (33; 41), the observed declines in CV_p are linked to strong reductions
98 in supply of viable seeds, this poses significant concerns for European beech regeneration and
99 calls for urgent attention.

100 **Results**

101 **Rising summer temperatures disrupt masting.** We found a temporal decline in CV_p of
102 34.2%, from an estimated 1.61 (95% CI = 1.51 - 1.71) in the earliest decade (1988-1997) to 1.06
103 (95% CI = 0.99 - 1.13) in the last decade of monitoring (2012-2021) (Fig. 1A). Annually, CV_p
104 declined by 1.73% (95% CI = -1.33 - -2.13%, $p < 0.001$). The decline in CV_p was associated
105 with rising summer (June-July) temperatures, with an estimated decline of 21.31% per 1°C
106 (95% CI = 17.26 - 25.15 %, Fig. 1B). When summer temperatures increased by > 2.13°C above
107 the mean of the baseline period (1960 - 1979), CV_p declined by >40 % relative to its estimated
108 baseline value (i.e. CV_p when the summer temperature anomaly is zero). (Fig. 1B). Spatially,
109 the decrease in CV_p was ubiquitous, with the strongest CV_p declines occurring in the south of
110 Poland where summer temperature increase was most rapid (Fig. 2A). The decline in CV_p was
111 accompanied by an increase in the long-term mean seed production ($\beta = 0.03 \ln(\text{kg}/\text{year}) \pm$
112 0.002 SE , $p < 0.001$), as well as the annual seed crop size ($\beta = 0.02 \ln(\text{kg}/\text{year}) \pm 0.002 \text{ SE}$, $p <$
113 0.001). Additionally, we observed an increase in seed production during low seeding years ($\beta =$
114 $0.06 \ln(\text{kg}/\text{year}) \pm 0.006 \text{ SE}$, $p < 0.001$).

115 The temporal decline in among-site synchrony of masting, calculated as mean cross-
116 correlation of a site with all other sites in the dataset, was of an even greater magnitude: a
117 61.5% decline from 0.27 (95% CI = 0.26 - 0.29) to 0.10 (95% CI = 0.09 - 0.12) (Fig. 1C). We
118 observed an average annual decrease synchrony of $0.008 \pm 3.7 \times 10^{-5} \text{ SEM}$ ($p < 0.001$). As in

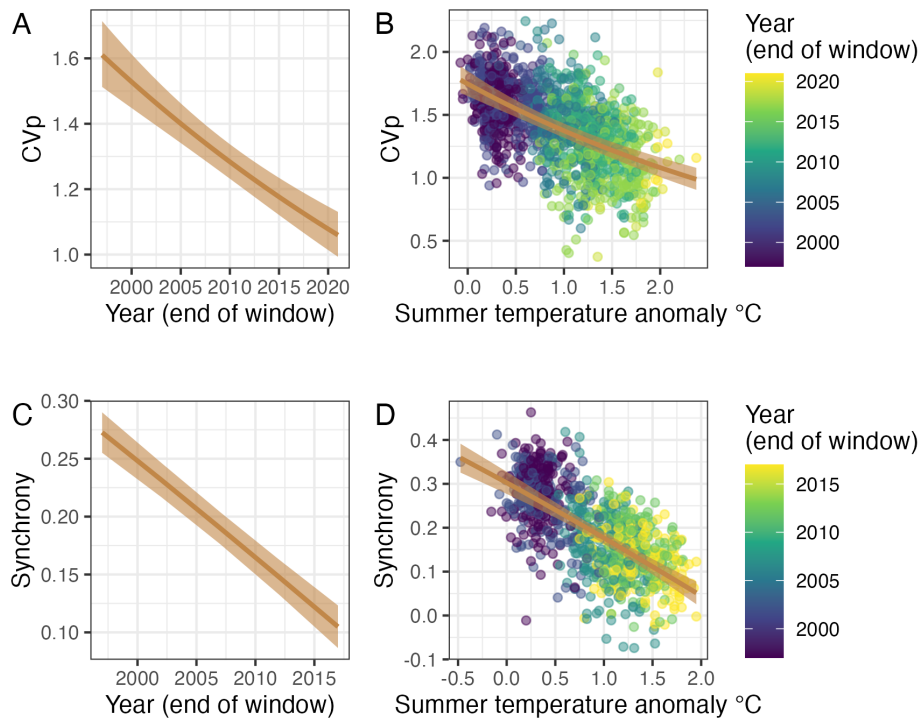


Figure 1: Temporal declines in masting (CVp) and seed production synchrony in European beech, measured across 328 sites (average site-level time series length: 32.7 years), are associated with increasing summer temperatures. Temporal trend in A) masting (CVp) and C) masting regional synchrony. The relationship between B) CVp and D) synchrony and summer temperature (June-July average daily temperature) anomaly. CVp and synchrony are calculated in moving windows (10 years, step size of 10, and 5, respectively), and trend lines and associated 95% confidence intervals are derived from GLMMs (see Methods). The start years for the moving windows were determined differently for CVp and synchrony: they were set at the individual time series level for CVp, while for synchrony, they were determined across all time series. Points at B) and D) are residuals coloured according to the end year of the given window. Summer temperature anomaly is defined as a difference in average summer temperature in a particular window vs baseline, i.e. average maximum summer temperature in 1960-1979. CVp is the coefficient of variation (SD/mean), while synchrony is calculated as the mean Spearman cross-correlation of a site with all other sites.

119 the case of CVp, the decline in synchrony was associated with rising summer temperatures, with
 120 synchrony declining on average by 0.13 per 1°C (± 0.0002 SEM, $p < 0.001$; Fig. 1D). Where
 121 warming was highest (1.95°C), almost complete desynchronisation (mean synchrony = 0.05, CI
 122 = 0.03 - 0.08) was observed (Fig. 1D). A synchrony decline was observed in 91.72% of sites,
 123 with the strongest declines in the south (Fig. 2B).

124 **Masting decline is not buffered by local climate.** The temporal decline in masting (i.e.
 125 slopes of $\ln(\text{CVp})$ over time) was not associated with local baseline climate, i.e. it did not vary
 126 with local mean annual temperatures (MAT, $p = 0.11$) or mean annual precipitation (MAP, $p =$
 127 0.65) (Fig. 3). While CVp declines tended to be larger at higher elevations this effect was not

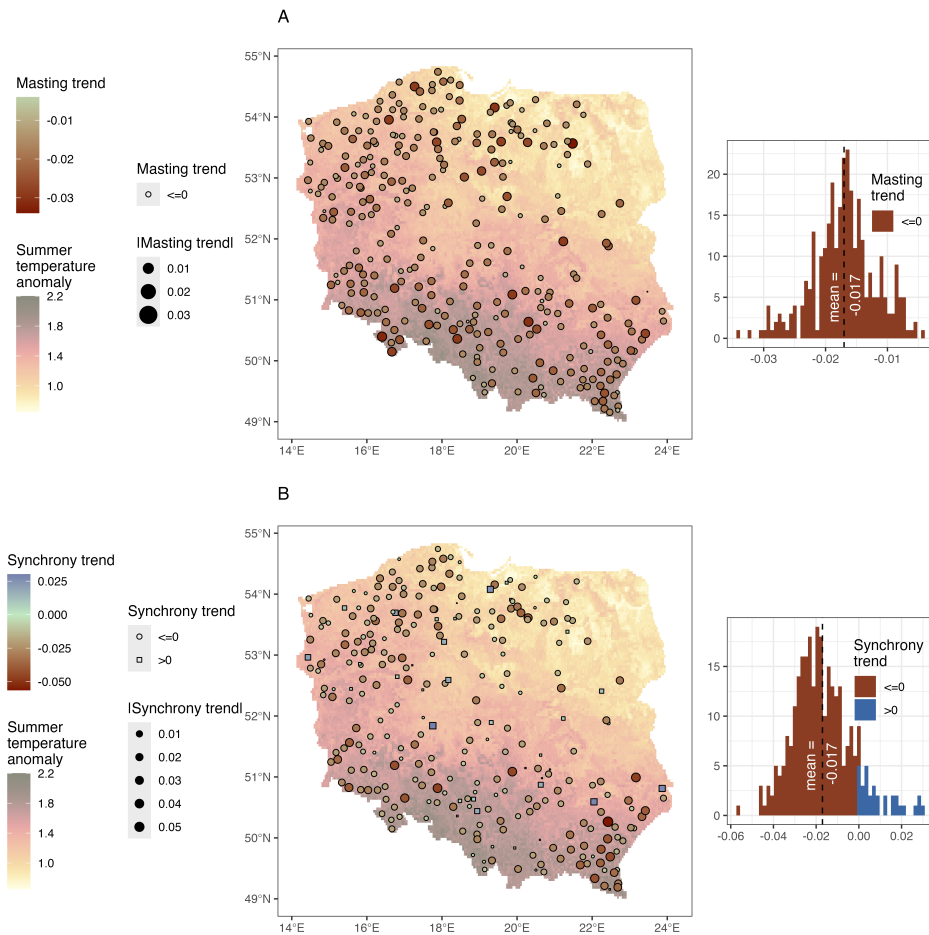


Figure 2: Pervasive decreases in masting(CVp) and seed production synchrony in the context of summer warming. Temporal trends in A) masting (natural logarithm of CVp, where CVp is the coefficient of variation (SD/mean)), and B) masting regional synchrony (mean Spearman cross-correlation) across our sites (points) in Poland. Trends in masting and synchrony were obtained from mixed models using moving window estimates (window size = 10 years, step size of 10, and 5, respectively), with random slopes for sites. Point shape indicates the direction of the trend, and point size is the absolute effect size (i.e. |effect|). Histograms of the random slopes are given next to the maps, with colour showing the direction of the trend. Spatial variation in warming (background colour) is shown as the temperature difference between the last window (window size 10, end-year = 2017) and the baseline summer temperature (average from 1960-1979). See Materials and Methods for details.

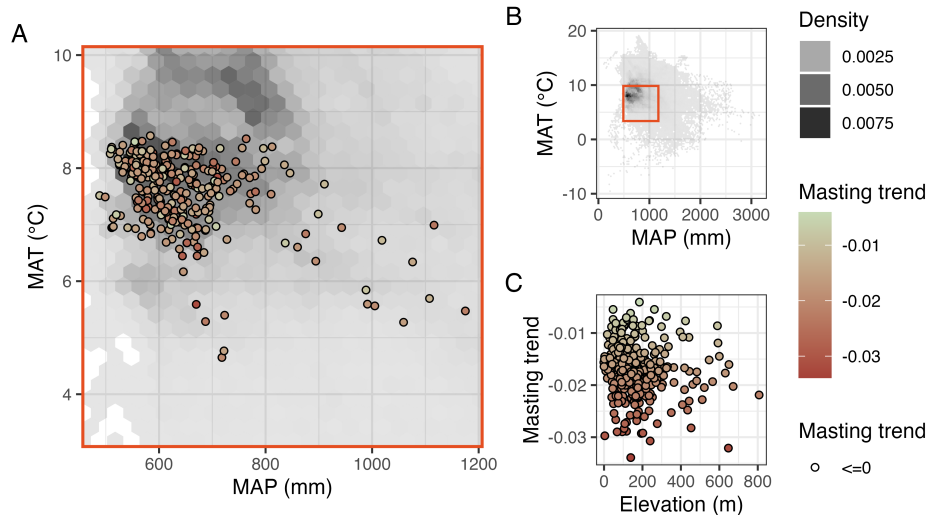


Figure 3: Temporal trends in masting ($\ln(\text{CVp})$) are not associated with local climate and elevation. Sampled sites (points; A), in the context of the climate envelope of the European beech range (B). The extent of (A) matches the orange box in (B). Masting trends were obtained from mixed regression models, with random slopes for sites (i.e. site-level slopes). Grey shading at A) and B) shows the density of WorldClim grid cells across the species range in each part of the envelope, i.e. darker shading represents the most common climate conditions within the species' range, while lighter areas are less frequent. MAT = Mean annual temperature, MAP = Mean annual precipitation. See Materials and Methods for details. Similar outcomes for synchrony are presented in Fig.S1

128 significant ($p = 0.07$, Fig. 3). $\ln(\text{CVp})$ itself also did not vary across baseline MAT ($p = 0.24$)
 129 and MAP ($p = 0.98$) while accounting for summer temperature.

130 **Ubiquitous disruptions in masting across the species range.** Based on 1) summer temper-
 131 ature trends across the European beech range, 2) the identified relationship between CVp trend
 132 and rising summer temperatures, and 3) the lack of local MAT, MAP, and elevation effects on
 133 this relationship, we projected zones at risk of masting disruption under both contemporary and
 134 future climate scenarios (Fig. 4).

135 The risk of masting disruption is extensive, reflecting widespread recent summer warming.
 136 The most significant reductions are projected to result in a $> 40\%$ reduction in CVp, and are
 137 concentrated in the central belt of the species range in Europe (Fig. 4). This region is at highest
 138 risk due to strong recent temperature increase of more than 2°C (comparing 2002-2021 mean
 139 to 1960-79). Regions where summer temperatures have risen less, i.e. by $1.5\text{--}2^\circ\text{C}$, leading to a
 140 projected 30-40% decrease in CVp, include the majority of mainland Europe. Relatively safer
 141 zones ($+ 0.9\text{--}1.5^\circ\text{C}$), which are still associated with a projected 20-30% decrease in CVp, are
 142 concentrated in the outer regions of the distribution, including the UK, Scandinavia, northeastern

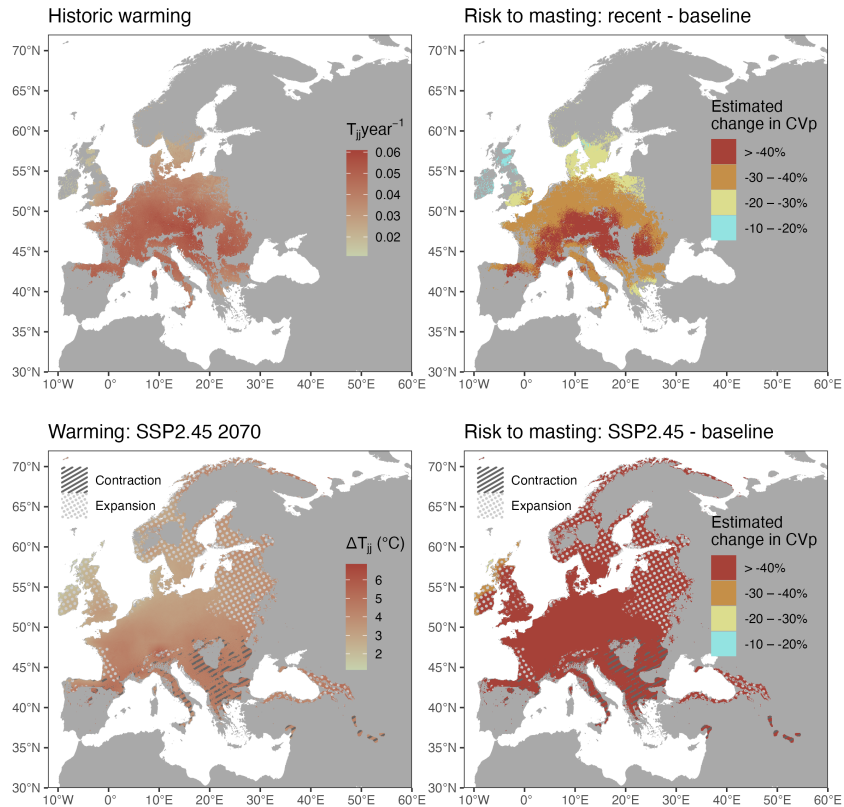


Figure 4: Maps projecting the warming-related change in European beech masting (CVp) across the species range. Left-side panels show summer temperature changes; top: historic warming (the temporal trend in temperature from the baseline (1960-1979) until the most recent time window (end-year 2021)). Bottom: Warming as predicted for 2070 in the SSP2.45 scenario, compared to the baseline. Right-side panels show predicted decreases in CVp derived from the temperature anomalies (Fig. 1B). The current range (coloured region, top panels) was derived from (51). Overlay symbols in the bottom panels show European beech range changes derived from (17), with hashed lines highlighting predicted range contractions, dots marking range expansions, and a transparent symbol overlay indicating range stability. See Fig. S2 for the RCP4.5 results.

143 Poland, and parts of southeastern Europe (Fig. 4). Regions experiencing lower risks (+ 0.4-0.9
 144 °C, 10-20% CVp decline) formed only a small part of the range, mostly in the northern part of
 145 the range.

146 Importantly, our model predictions align with observed patterns of CVp decline reported in
 147 the UK, i.e. outside of our sample, although they appear conservative (observed: 33.6% decline,
 148 predicted: 17-31%). This supports the model's applicability across the species' range.

149 In 2070, according to the RCP4.5 and SSP2.45 projections, the summer temperatures will
 150 be higher by >3°C compared to the baseline across the species range (range RCP 4.5: 1.29
 151 - 4.84 °C, range SSP2.4: 1.14 - 6.83 °C). As is evident from Fig. 4 and Fig.S2, the regions
 152 where beech is projected to expand its range (dotted regions) overlap with regions of high risk
 153 of masting disruptions.

154 **Discussion**

155 Using a spatio-temporally extensive dataset, we show that masting in European beech has
156 decreased over time in response to rising summer temperatures. Bolstered by these findings, our
157 projections suggest the most pronounced CVp declines are currently concentrated in the central
158 belt of the species distribution range. In both the RCP4.5 and SSP2.45 climate change projections
159 — i.e. the 'intermediate' climate change scenarios by the IPCC (52) — the entire species range
160 and projected future range would face a high risk of large reductions in masting. Therefore, the
161 reproductive strategy of this key forest-forming species appears extensively compromised by
162 climate change, posing risks to its long-term persistence and migration ability. We believe this
163 warrants urgent attention, and we outline a roadmap for research and management to support
164 European beech forest resilience (Box 2).

165 The observed decrease of 34.2% in the inter-annual variation of seed production and 61.5%
166 in seed production synchrony in European beech in Poland over the past three decades serves as
167 a warning of a potential decline in viable seed supply (Fig. 1, S3). Crucially, UK studies link
168 a comparable decline in masting to a reduction in viable seed production of over 60% (Box 1)
169 (33; 41). Similarly, a recent analysis detected a general decline in masting in Europe using data
170 from 50 sites, though without assessing spatial variation (45). These findings underscore the
171 urgent need for studies to address the knowledge gap concerning viable seed production and its
172 effects on recruitment patterns in the areas identified here as most at risk of masting decline (Box
173 2). While immediate impacts on seedling recruitment may be limited, chronic strain on viable
174 seed supply could ultimately alter forest composition and continuity (53; 54). Integrating early
175 warning signals from seed production records with forest health monitoring - e.g. (55; 56; 57) -
176 offers a proactive approach to mitigating future regeneration failures.

177 Our projections of masting dynamics under the IPCC (66) climate scenarios — RCP4.5 and
178 SSP2.45 for 2070 (2061–2080), with mean warming of +3.3°C and +3.7°C across the current
179 range, respectively — suggest an uncertain future, with a complete breakdown of masting
180 projected across Europe. Importantly, this highlights a substantial risk to long-term persistence
181 in beech populations previously deemed climate change-resilient based on tree growth and
182 species distribution modelling (48; 47; 17). While the effects of drought on beech growth and

Box 2: Call to action: knowledge gaps.

1. Evaluating the effects of reduced viable seed supply on recruitment patterns

A decline in viable seed supply may increase seed limitation, affecting forest regeneration (19; 58; 59; 21). Even if microsite limitation and disturbances such as herbivory are strong filters of regeneration (60), seed limitation is prevalent in forests (19; 58; 21). *Action Needed:* Identify habitats highly vulnerable to seed shortages for natural regeneration, such as those requiring frequent recovery from disturbance. Critical slowing-down indicators can provide a necessary theoretical and analytical framework (61).

2. Identifying factors that modulate the impact of masting breakdown

The decline in viable seed production due to masting breakdown is greatest in the largest trees (41). Other, so far unidentified, factors might also play important roles. Potential modulators include stand density, forest patch size, and local (micro)climate conditions (62; 63; 64). *Action Needed:* Identify factors that affect seed supply reductions associated with masting disruptions. Understanding these modulators will guide management strategies that can buffer the decline in viable seed production.

3. Assessing the potential for acclimation or adaptation in masting cues

It is unclear whether trees can adjust their masting cues in response to changing climates or if these cues are locally adapted. *Action Needed:* Evaluate the acclimation potential of trees that will mature and reproduce in future climatic conditions. If masting cues are locally adapted, assisted migration of suitable genotypes may be beneficial. Existing provenance trials may provide useful data to inform these efforts.

4. Evaluating seed quality and potential assisted regeneration from seeding

Beech seeds are intermediate (on the orthodox-recalcitrant spectrum), making them sensitive to desiccation and long-term storage (65). *Action Needed:* Establish how the decline in seed quality during storage can be reduced, to increase assisted regeneration success. Evaluate how seed traits and quality markers, such as germination timing, dormancy depth, and oxidative stress, vary across climate change gradients and over time, to identify where storage may be feasible and supplementation may be required.

5. Investigating climate change effects on masting in other forest-forming species

European beech is vulnerable to climate-induced masting disruptions, potentially classifying it as a "loser" species in a changing climate. However, responses of other species are largely unknown, even if theory exists to guide predictions (31). *Action Needed:* Evaluate how climate change affects masting in other major forest-forming species. Identifying potential "winner" or "loser" species will inform forest management and conservation strategies aimed at maintaining reproductive resilience and ecosystem function in the face of climate change.

183 mortality may be buffered by local climate (48), disruptions to masting are driven by local
184 warming rates without local buffering. Even populations in cool and moist regions are at high
185 risk of disruption to their ability to reproduce, and identification of these forests as "winners"
186 under climate change may be premature.

187 However, our temporal CVp projections assume that European beech responses to summer
188 temperature cues will remain unchanged, which may not be accurate. Importantly, although
189 local temporal increases in temperature correlate with local declines in CVp, this relationship
190 does not hold spatially; i.e. CVp does not vary geographically based on local mean temperatures
191 (45). Congruently, we find that nor CVp nor site-level temporal slopes of CVp vary along MAP
192 and MAT gradients. Possibly, populations may be locally adapted, with the "optimal" summer
193 temperature for triggering masting varying according to local conditions (Box 2). In this case,
194 assisted migration — relocating populations from warmer regions — could help mitigate masting
195 breakdown (11). Alternatively, if the observed differences result from acclimation during an
196 early life stage, trees reaching reproductive maturity after 2060, having grown in significantly
197 warmer conditions, might be partially buffered against reproductive failure. Exploring the
198 adaptation and acclimation potential to varying regimes of environmental cues that regulate
199 masting is required (Box 2).

200 The disruptions in masting documented here have significant ecological and practical impli-
201 cations at both local and regional scales. At the population level, the reduction in CVp likely
202 reflects a combination of diminished inter-annual variability at the tree level (CVi) and reduced
203 synchronisation among individual trees (Box 1) (34; 33). These localised changes have impli-
204 cations for less mobile seed predators, such as insects, by disrupting their food supply dynamics
205 and increasing seed predation rates (Box 1). Additionally, since masting triggers cascading
206 effects across the food webs, altering animal community dynamics and behaviour, changes in
207 masting likely have far-reaching ecological implications (31). Decreased CVp also decreases
208 pollination efficiency (Box 1). At the regional level, decreased masting synchrony has at least
209 three implications. First, large-scale synchrony helps satiating mobile seed consumers, such as
210 wild boar, by overwhelming their capacity to consume seeds during mast years (67; 68; 69).
211 When synchrony between nearby populations declines, these consumers can shift between forest

212 patches with available mast, intensifying seed predation and limiting recruitment (68; 70). Sec-
213 ond, regional synchrony decline can disrupt food webs and animal migration patterns shaped by
214 synchronised pulses of seed availability (71; 72; 73). Finally, reduced regional synchronisation
215 affects the supply and demand of seeds for forest nurseries. Forest nurseries rely on seed harvests
216 for reforestation and restoration projects (74). A decline of viable seed production may lead to
217 shortages, increasing the cost and logistical challenges of seed collection whilst reducing the
218 availability of genetically diverse material for planting (75).

219 Our projections of masting changes across the species range are based on summer temperature
220 trends and the associated shifts in cue frequency that trigger flowering (Box 1). Long-term
221 studies of snow tussocks (*Chionochloa pallens*) and European beech indicate that resource
222 reserves interact with cue frequency to drive masting (38). Specifically, when resource levels are
223 high, even weak temperature cues trigger substantial reproductive effort, but when resources are
224 depleted, flowering is suppressed despite strong cues (76; 38). Rising global temperatures lead to
225 more frequent cues, which in turn causes repeated resource depletion (39). Consequently, plants
226 tend to flower more regularly but produce smaller seed crops, leading to lower CV_p (37; 38).
227 The impact of altered cue frequency can therefore be modulated by local site conditions and
228 resource intake capabilities, though the direction of this effect remains uncertain. For example,
229 limited resource intake may sustain low reproductive outputs despite frequent strong cues,
230 delaying masting breakdown, whereas rapid resource replenishment could lead to more regular
231 seed production and increased vulnerability to breakdown. This interaction may produce more
232 patchy masting responses to increased cue frequency than those shown in Fig. 4, which predicts
233 the mean decline in masting at the regional scale.

234 While the harvest data provided by the Polish State Forest offered a unique opportunity to
235 link masting trends with temperature across extensive spatio-temporal gradients, it comes with
236 limitations. For example, harvest rates are influenced by demand, which introduces additional
237 noise into the data. However, we were able to mitigate this by incorporating annual demand
238 information into our analysis. Moreover, the ecological importance of declines in the CV_p
239 hinges on two assumptions: that reduced CV_p translates to lower viable seed supply, and that
240 seed supply is a driver of regeneration. Although our study does not directly address these

241 links, a substantial body of evidence indicates that viable seed production is strongly tied to
242 masting variation (Box 1), and that seed production is closely associated with individual fitness
243 (77; 12; 30), with persistent supply disruptions leading to recruitment limitation (78; 54; 79; 80).
244 Furthermore, our data do not cover the entire climatic space of the species range; while we
245 sample large parts of the core climatic distribution, populations in both warm and wet sites
246 remain under-represented and should be targeted in future research.

247 Our study establishes that rising summer temperatures are linked to a strong decline in
248 inter-annual variation of seed production and regional synchrony in European beech. These
249 shifts in reproductive dynamics have consequences for forest regeneration by potentially reduc-
250 ing seedling recruitment, altering seed predator cycles, and disrupting pollination processes.
251 Projections based on current trends suggest that declines will occur across the species range,
252 increasing the risk of seed supply shortages in zones identified as high risk and triggering
253 cascading effects on the ecosystem. Opportunities remain to enhance European beech forest
254 resilience. Expanding and sustaining long-term seed and recruitment monitoring networks to
255 understand seed supply effects on recruitment, and assessing the potential for local adaptation
256 and acclimation, appear as important next steps (Box 2).

257 **Materials and Methods**

258 **Studied species**

259 European beech is a major forest-forming species in temperate Europe, with high economic and
260 ecological importance (81). Its main range extends from southern Italy and northern Spain to-
261 wards southern Sweden and from Great Britain to Bulgaria, up to 2000 m a.s.l. elevation. Beech
262 is a model masting species, with seed production characterised by large inter-annual variation
263 and synchrony (82; 83). High flower production is positively correlated with temperatures in
264 summer across the whole species range, as the period of sensitivity is anchored to the longest
265 day of the year, the summer solstice (36). High seed production is negatively correlated with
266 growth (84). Masting breakdown, i.e. the decline in inter-annual variation and synchrony of
267 seed production is described in Box 1. The decline in CV_p, increased regularity of reproduction,

268 and resulting persistent resource depletion caused by warming has led to a decline in growth
269 rate in European beech (39).

270 **Data**

271 **Reproduction data** Information on seed production was obtained from Polish State Forests
272 and is based on annual harvest rates by the local forest inspectorates. This dataset provides
273 information on the amount (kg) of seed collected in each district per year. Seeds are collected
274 from the ground by local companies on behalf of the Polish State Forest, and each inspectorate
275 has assigned seed collection sites. In addition to the information on harvest rates, we obtained
276 information on the annual seed demand (kg) which is derived by Polish State Forests based on
277 the area requiring reforestation (such as after logging or disturbances). We obtained data for 448
278 districts (referred to as 'sites'; 14,207 observations), but we subset this to sites measured for at
279 least 10 years, with at least some beech seed harvest. Together, this resulted in time series from
280 328 sites and 10,721 annual observations, with an average length of 32.7 years (range: 10-34).

281 **Climate, elevation, and species range data** Historical monthly climate data (maximum and
282 minimum temperature, precipitation sum, 2.5 minute resolution) were obtained from WorldClim
283 v. 2.1 (85). These were used to calculate summer (June-July) temperature anomalies, and
284 average climate (mean annual temperature [MAT], mean annual precipitation [MAP]). The
285 summer temperature anomalies were calculated by subtracting the site-level mean of maximum
286 June-July temperatures during the baseline period (1960-1979) from the mean maximum June-
287 July temperature in a focal year. Annual MAT estimates were obtained by taking the average of
288 the monthly maximum and minimum temperatures. Annual precipitation levels were obtained
289 by summing the monthly precipitation. Elevation data, derived from SRTM, were obtained via
290 WorldClim v. 2.1 (85).

291 To predict masting under future climate conditions in the intermediate future (i.e. 2070,
292 range: 2060-2080), we also obtained climate change projections for the IPCC RCP 4.5 and
293 SSP2.45 scenarios from WorldClim (v. 1.4 and 2.1 respectively (85); 30 second resolution,
294 bilinearly resampled to match historical data resolution). Following (51), we averaged three

295 global climate change projections of maximum June-July temperatures for each scenario, since
296 these reflect low, moderate, and high levels of occurrence changes. The projections used for RCP
297 4.5 were HadGEM2-ES, IPSL-CM5A-LR, MPI-ESM-LR, and for SSP2.45 we used HadGEM3-
298 GC31-LL, IPSL-CM6A-LR, and MPI-ESM1-2-HR. Current and predicted species ranges under
299 the two scenarios were obtained from (51; 17).

300 **Data analysis**

301 All models were build in R (v. 4.4.1) using glmmTMB (v. 1.1.10) and validated with DHARMA
302 (v.0.4.7) unless indicated differently (86; 87; 88)).

303 **Moving windows** For each time series, we calculated long-term values of reproductive metrics,
304 including the coefficient of variation (CV_p) of seed production, the long-term mean seed crop
305 size, as well as the 25th percentile of seed crop size (representing seed production during
306 low seeding years) with 10-year moving windows. In this approach, the first window of 10
307 observations is used to estimate metrics such as the CV_p, and the window then skips a set
308 number of years (the step size; here, we used 5 years as a default step size) along the time series,
309 after which the estimation of the metric is repeated in each new window. Since time windows
310 can overlap, we checked for temporal autocorrelation in model residuals, and increased the step
311 size where necessary. Step sizes which deviated from the default are specified below alongside
312 the model to which it applies.

313 To calculate temporal changes in regional masting synchrony, we used moving time windows
314 with 10 years length and 5 years step, with the first window always starting in 1988 i.e., the first
315 year of seed production records in our dataset. Within each window, we calculated between-
316 site synchrony of seed production based on pairwise Spearman correlation coefficients for data
317 series that overlapped for at least 5 years. Pairwise correlation coefficients were then averaged
318 at the site level to obtain the average seed production synchrony of a given site in a given time
319 window. Synchrony was subsequently normalised to fall between [0, 1] following the formula
320 $y_i = (y_i + 1)/2$ and back-transformed to a correlation coefficient scale for visualisation according
321 to the equation $y_i = y_i * 2 - 1$.

322 A 10-year moving window approach was also used to calculate long-term estimates of
323 predictor values. Firstly, a long-term estimate of demand of European beech seed was calculated,
324 as this variable was used to correct for variation in sampling effort. We also calculated the long-
325 term mean of the summer temperature anomalies.

326 **Temporal trends in reproduction** To model temporal changes in annual seed production,
327 we constructed a Tweedie model with a log-link. Year was included as a predictor of seed
328 harvest size, and the previous year's seed harvest was added to account for negative temporal
329 autocorrelation. We used $\ln + 1$ transformed seed demand as an offset, and added site ID as a
330 random intercept.

331 We tested temporal trends in long-term reproductive patterns using the moving window
332 approach described in the previous section. Linear mixed models using a Gaussian distribution
333 were used to assess for temporal patterns in \ln -transformed CVp. Predictors were year (i.e.
334 the end-year of the moving window), and a standard-deviation scaled estimate of centred seed
335 demand. Site ID was included as a random intercept. Step size was increased from 5 to 10 years,
336 to avoid temporal autocorrelation. Tweedie distribution models were constructed to test for
337 temporal changes in mean seed production and the 25th quantile of seed production (estimates:
338 step size of 5). These models included year as a predictor, site ID as a random intercept, and the
339 model was offset with $\ln + 1$ transformed estimates of seed demand.

340 We also fitted a GLMM to test for temporal trend in seed production synchrony. The model
341 included mean site-level synchrony in a given time window as a response, site ID as a random
342 intercept, and was fitted with Tweedie distribution and logit link function. To report slopes on
343 the back-transformed scale, we calculated the average of year-to-year differences (slopes) over
344 time.

345 **Linking environmental variation to reproduction patterns** $\ln(\text{CVp})$ and synchrony esti-
346 mates were regressed against summer temperature anomalies in two linear mixed models with
347 random slopes for site ID (step size: 5). Scaled seed demand was added as a covariate in the the
348 Gaussian model of $\ln(\text{CVp})$. A Tweedie distribution with logit-link was used in the synchrony
349 model. To report on synchrony slopes on the back-transformed scale, we calculated the average

350 of year-to-year differences (slopes) over temperature anomalies. To check the effect of mean
351 annual climate, we constructed an additional model of $\ln(\text{CVp})$ to the one described above,
352 where we added mean annual temperature and precipitation as additional predictors. Moreover,
353 for the $\ln(\text{CVp})$ and synchrony models, we also constructed versions of the temporal models
354 described above using random slopes for site instead of a random intercept, to further investigate
355 the spatial diversity of trends. We extracted random slopes from the temporal model of $\ln(\text{CVp})$,
356 and regressed these against climate. Specifically, using Gaussian linear models, we tested if
357 the site-level slopes varied with mean annual temperature and precipitation during the baseline
358 years (1960-1976). Additionally, we constructed a linear model to test if these slopes varied
359 with elevation.

360 **Projections across the species range Warming rates.** To gain insight into spatial diversity in
361 summer warming rates under the climate change scenarios, we subtracted our historic baseline
362 climate (1960-79 average) from each projection. Since our historic baseline climate estimate
363 is based on WorldClim 2.1 but the RCP4.5 projection was based on version 1.4, we accounted
364 for the difference between these two datasets in the RCP4.5 scenario to remove noise related to
365 downscaling differences.

366 **Risk groups.** Using the relationship between temperature anomalies and back-transformed
367 CVp , we estimated the summer temperature anomalies which corresponded to reductions in
368 CVp of 0, 10, 20, 30 and 40% compared to baseline CVp (when the temperature anomaly is 0),
369 to translate warming rates - i.e. temperature differences between our baseline and the climate
370 change projections - into risk groups.

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383

384 **Author Contributions Statement**

385 All authors conceived the study. JJF, MB, JSz, MKD designed the study. JJF, JSz, MB,
386 and MKD designed and conducted the analysis. JJF and MB co-wrote the first draft of the
387 manuscript. All authors contributed to the interpretation of the analysis, revised the draft, and
388 gave final approval for publication.

389

390 **Declaration of interests**

391 No competing interests to declare.

392

393 **Data availability statement**

394 The data supporting the results will be archived in a permanent repository upon acceptance.

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657 **Supporting Information**

658 **The end of boom-and-bust? Observed and projected declines in European beech masting**

659

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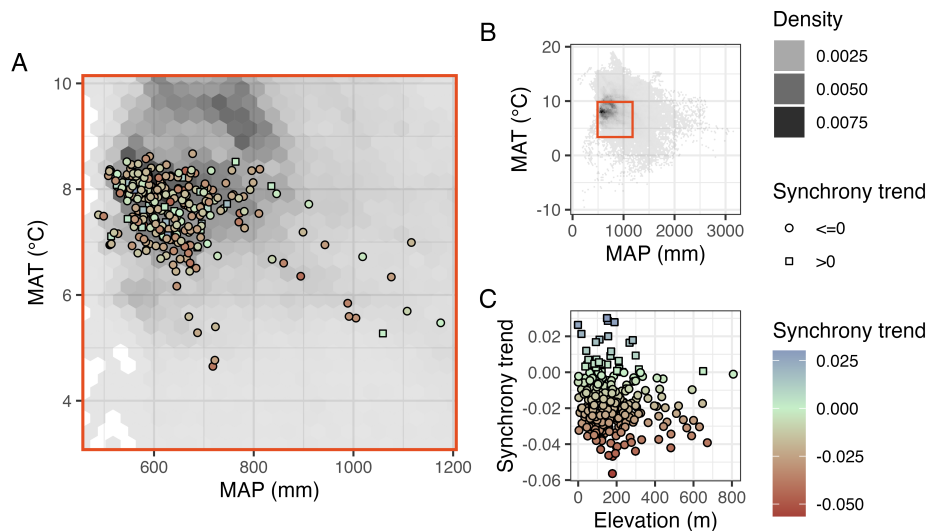


Figure S1: Temporal trends in synchrony are not associated with local climate and elevation. Sampled sites (points; A), in the context of the climate envelope (B). The extent of (A) matches the orange box in (B). Masting trends were obtained from mixed regression models, with random slopes for sites (i.e. site-level slopes). Density shows the density of WorldClim grid cells across the species range in each part of the envelope. The point shape indicates the direction of the trend. MAT = Mean annual temperature, AP = Annual precipitation. See Materials and Methods for details. Similar outcomes for masting ($\ln(\text{CVp})$) are presented in Fig. X.

674 .1 Note S1

675 .1.1 Methodology Box 1: Evidence from the UK

676 The reproductive patterns of UK beech trees were re-analysed using models more closely related to the models
 677 used on the Polish reproductive data. We subset the individual-level EBMS data to trees with at least 10 annual
 678 observations, and for site level estimates of CVp we used only those sites with ≥ 5 trees.

679 Firstly, we used a moving window approach (window length: 10 years, step size: 5 years) to obtain long-term
 680 estimates of the mean of each pattern - i.e. pollination rates (ratio of pollinated to total seed count), pre-dispersal
 681 seed predation rates (ratio of predated to pollinated seeds), the number of total and viable (pollinated and not
 682 predated) seeds, and the CVp.

683 We then constructed (generalised) linear mixed models (i.e (G)LMM) for each pattern. Specifically, for the
 684 models examining the fertilisation and predation ratios over time, we constructed two beta family model with logit
 685 links, using year as the predictor, and adding a random intercepts for tree ID. The predation ratio was linearly
 686 rescaled to a range of 0.0001, 0.9999) to satisfy the beta distribution requirements. The temporal changes in total
 687 and viable seeds, as well as CVp were tested with LLMs, using year as the predictor, and a random intercept for
 688 tree ID. Lastly, the relationship between viable seed number and CVp was tested with a LLM, with viable seeds as
 689 the response, and CVp as the predictor, correcting for tree ID with a random intercept.

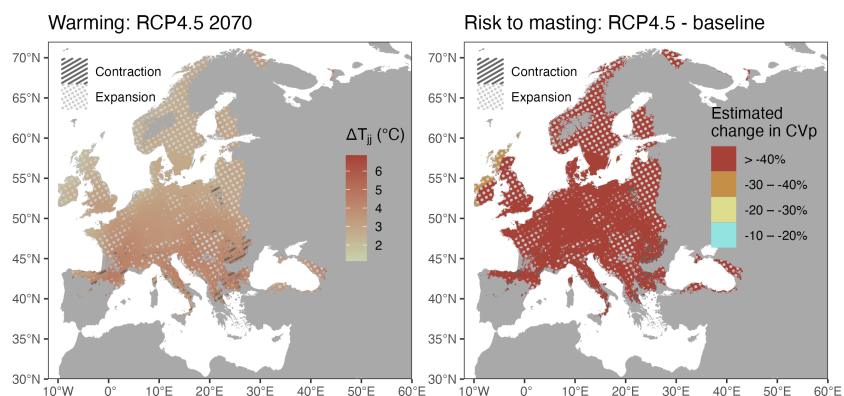


Figure S2: Maps projecting the warming-related change in European beech masting (CVp) across the species range, for the RCP4.5 scenario. The left-side panel shows warming as predicted for 2070 in the SSP2.45 scenario, compared to the baseline. The right-side panels shows predicted decreases in CVp derived from the temperature anomalies, and the decline in CVp associated with increasing summer temperatures (Fig. 1B). Overlay symbols in the panels show European beech range changes derived from (51), with hashed lines highlighting predicted range contractions, dots marking range expansions, and a transparent symbol overlay indicating stability. See Fig. 4 for the results of the SSP2.45 scenario.

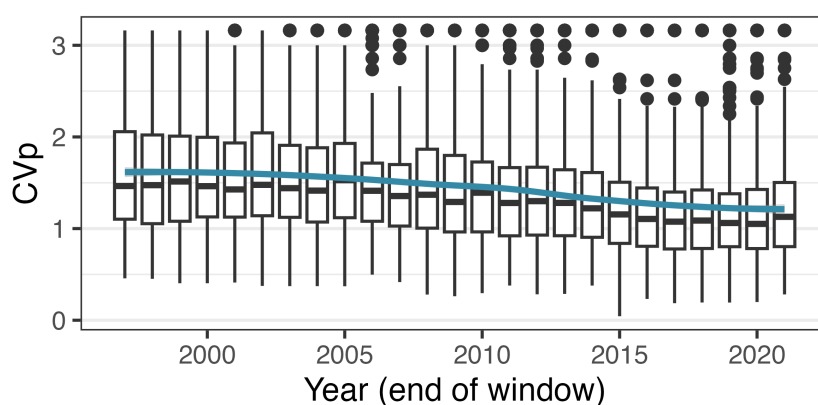


Figure S3: Changes in masting (CVp) over time in the Polish European beech sites. Estimates for each site were derived from 10 year moving windows, using a step size of 1 year. Time is shown as the end-year of this window. A loess regression line is given in blue.