

1 No refuge at the edge for European beech as climate  
2 warming disproportionately reduces masting at colder  
3 margins  
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19 **Key words**

20 climate change, masting, fecundity, forest resilience, tree demography

## 21 **Abstract**

22 Reproduction is vital for forest resilience to climate change, as tree populations depend on  
23 adequate seed production to recover demographically from disturbances and migrate to more  
24 suitable sites. Neglecting reproduction in projections of habitat suitability and range shifts risks  
25 overestimating forest resilience to climate change. For many tree species, including European  
26 beech (*Fagus sylvatica*), producing viable seeds depends on the variability of seed production  
27 from year to year (CVp), known as masting. Analysing data from 341 sites (average record  
28 length: 31.7 years), we find that rising summer temperatures in Central Europe are associated  
29 with declines in masting. Crucially, declines are more pronounced in sites with lower mean  
30 annual temperatures, indicating that higher latitudes and elevations may offer no refuge. Using  
31 the identified relationship between masting and climate, we project changes in masting across the  
32 species range under contemporary and future climates. The risk of masting decline is predicted  
33 to be widespread throughout the species range, due to ubiquitous summer warming, but the risk  
34 is highest in colder areas (up to ~54% decline in CVp). Large masting disruptions are expected  
35 to become the norm in future climates, especially at the cold margins, with declines of up to  
36 ~83%. With masting crucial for tree regeneration, and wider consequences including on seed  
37 consumer populations, its disruption under climate change could have far-reaching ecological  
38 impacts. To mitigate the impacts of masting disruptions, monitoring recruitment in vulnerable  
39 areas is vital, combined with testing forest management strategies to mitigate the effects of  
40 masting decline.

## 41 **Significance statement**

42 Forest resilience depends on successful tree reproduction, yet viable seed availability is often  
43 assumed to remain unchanged under climate change. We show that climate warming reduces  
44 masting (inter-annual variability in seed production linked to seed viability) particularly at the  
45 cold margins of European beech. Using data from 341 sites of >30 years, we show rising  
46 summer temperatures drive masting declines most strongly in sites with lower mean annual  
47 temperatures. This challenges the view that higher latitudes and elevations will serve as climate

48 refugia for this important European forest tree. Projections under historic and future scenarios  
49 indicate widespread reproductive disruption, likely threatening forest regeneration and altering  
50 ecosystem dynamics. Incorporating reproductive processes into climate resilience frameworks  
51 and management is crucial.

## 52 **Introduction**

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

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

68 Importantly, for most temperate tree species, viable seed supply is not a simple function  
69 of total seed production (Box 1). Instead, viable seed production is linked to masting, a  
70 common reproductive strategy in temperate and boreal forest trees (23; 24; 25). Masting  
71 refers to the phenomenon where long-lived plants produce large seed crops at irregular, multi-  
72 year intervals, synchronised across individuals and populations (26; 27). Masting enhances  
73 pollination efficiency and reduces pre-dispersal seed predation (Box 1), thereby maximising  
74 viable seed production and increasing the chances of successful seedling establishment (28; 29;  
75 30). Thus, understanding how masting is affected by climate change is essential for predicting

76 tree reproduction and forest regeneration success (31).

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

85 Advances in understanding masting mechanisms have identified drivers and consequences  
86 of its disruption under climate change (31). However, these studies are limited due to the  
87 logistical challenges of monitoring seed production over decades (43; 12; 44; 45). Long-term  
88 research on European beech (*Fagus sylvatica*) in England has revealed that increasing summer  
89 temperatures during flower primordia differentiation (June-July) change the frequency of weather  
90 cues triggering high seeding (37; 46), leading to reduced inter-annual variation and synchrony  
91 in seed production. This ultimately caused a ~ 50 – 80% reduction in viable seed supply (41)  
92 (Box 1). European beech is an important forest-forming species in Europe, providing numerous  
93 ecosystem services and serving as the continent's third-largest carbon sink (47; 11). The growth  
94 of beech is declining under warming and drying conditions (48; 49). Nevertheless, beech is  
95 considered a potential "winner" of climate change, as projections suggest relatively small range  
96 contractions compared to other major forest-forming species, with the potential for colonisation  
97 eastward and northward (17; 50; 51). However, these forecasts overlook the risks associated  
98 with warming effects on beech reproduction.

99 Here, we analysed an unprecedented dataset of annual seed production from European  
100 beech across Poland, covering 341 sites monitored for over 30 years (1988–2020). The dataset  
101 is based on harvest records and includes information on annual seed demand, enabling us  
102 to account for variations in harvesting effort. Building on previous research suggesting that  
103 warming summer temperatures disrupt masting behaviour (37; 46), we expected that increasing  
104 temperatures would be associated with a decline in inter-annual variation in masting (measured as

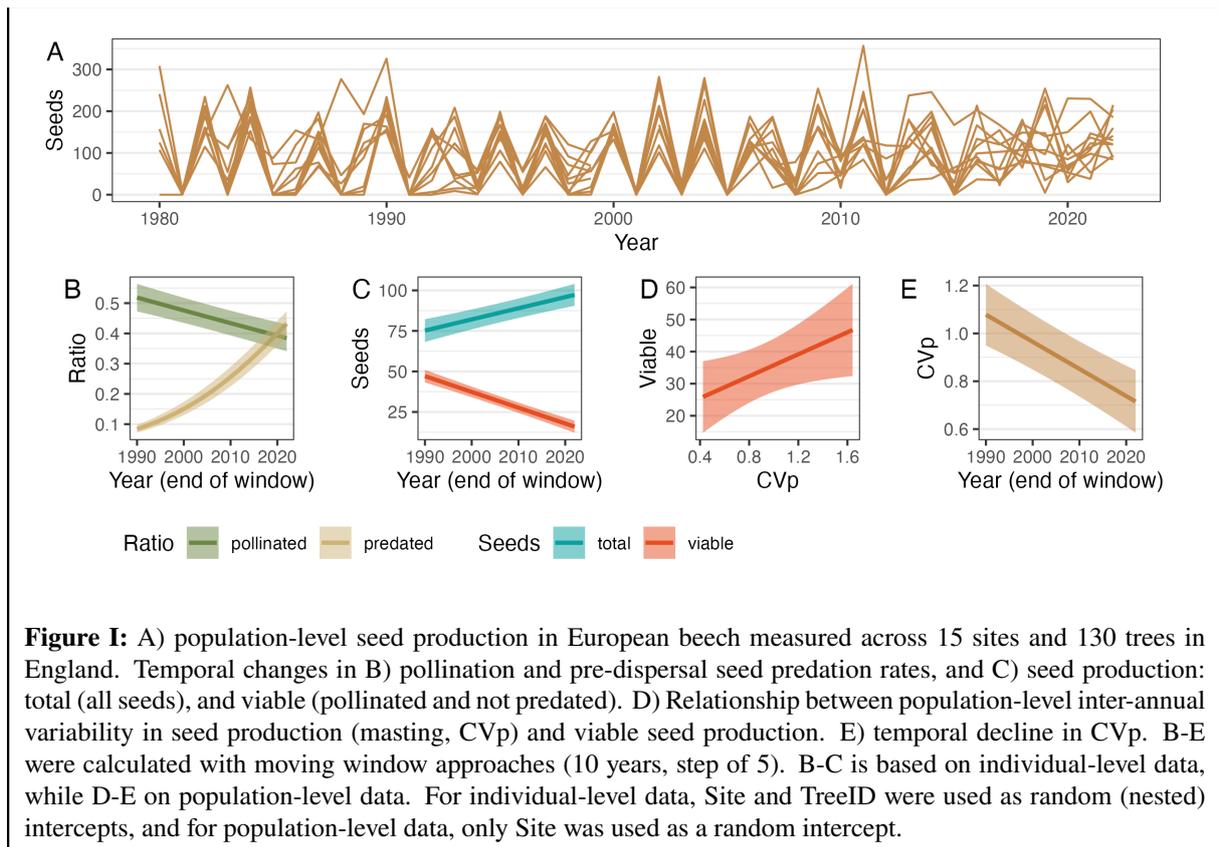
### **Box 1: Declining inter-annual variation (CV<sub>p</sub>) in masting leads to a strong decline in viable seed supply.**

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<sub>i</sub>) 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<sub>p</sub>) (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 pollination 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).



105 the coefficient of variation, CVp) and a reduction in synchrony among populations. Moreover,  
 106 we hypothesised that the sensitivity of CVp to summer warming would vary with baseline  
 107 climate. In contrast to previous studies on the effects of climate change on European beech  
 108 masting, our extensive and unified sampling enabled us to establish a quantitative link between  
 109 masting trends and summer temperatures across large climatic gradients, while also examining  
 110 how these relationships vary across space. As a next step, we predicted how the observed  
 111 pace of warming translates into masting changes throughout the species range. Furthermore,  
 112 we projected future masting dynamics under the intermediate (RCP4.5) and more pessimistic  
 113 (SSP2.45) IPCC climate scenarios.

114 While European beech has been highlighted as one of the few native species with a continued  
 115 potential to continue to provide timber, carbon uptake and storage, as well as high habitat value  
 116 (52), our work indicates that we may need to reassess these projections. That is, beech is  
 117 experiencing strong disruptions to its reproductive strategy, particularly in the colder regions  
 118 which are usually thought of as buffers or climate refugia with continued growth and persistence  
 119 (49; 52). If, as the literature suggests (33; 41), the observed declines in CVp are linked to

120 strong reductions in supply of viable seeds, this poses significant concerns for European beech  
121 regeneration and calls for urgent attention.

## 122 **Results**

123 **Rising summer temperatures disrupt masting.** We found a temporal decline in CVp of  
124 21.81%, from an estimated 2.15 (95% CI = 2.09 – 2.21) in the earliest decade (1988-1997) to  
125 1.68 (95% CI = 1.63 – 1.72) in the last decade of monitoring (2012-2020) (Fig. 1A). Annually,  
126 CVp declined by 1.06% (95% CI = -0.89 – -1.23%,  $p < 0.001$ ). Spatially, the decrease in CVp  
127 was near-ubiquitous, with the strongest CVp declines occurring in the south of Poland where  
128 summer temperature increase was most rapid, and at higher elevations (Fig. 2A).

129 Other seed production patterns revealed that this decrease in CVp was the result of decreased  
130 variability, not increasing mean seed crop size. That is, the long-term mean seed production  
131 (smoothed data;  $p = 0.06$ ) as well as the annual seed crop size (yearly fluctuations) showed  
132 negative ( $p = 0.24$ ), yet statistically insignificant trends. We did observe an increase in seed  
133 production during low seeding years ( $\beta = 0.16 \ln(\text{kg}/\text{year}) \pm 0.03 \text{ SE}$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

134 The decline in CVp was associated with rising summer (June–July) temperatures, with an  
135 estimated average decline of 0.27 per 1°C at mean seed demand and MAT levels (SEM = 0.002,  
136  $p > 0.001$ , Fig. 1B). The interaction between summer temperature and MAT was significant,  
137 with a larger sensitivity of CVp to summer temperatures in colder sites ( $p < 0.001$ ). At average  
138 baseline MAT levels (7.57 °C), a summer temperature increase of 2.20°C above the baseline  
139 period (1960 - 1979) led to a CVp decline of 25.98% relative to its estimated baseline value (i.e.  
140 CVp when the summer temperature anomaly is zero). In colder sites (10th percentile of MAT  
141 = 6.83°C), this decrease was 32.74%, whereas it was 18.82% in warmer sites (90th percentile  
142 of MAT = 8.28 °C) for the same level of summer warming. The temporal decline in masting  
143 (i.e. slopes of  $\ln(\text{CVp})$  over time) was also associated with local baseline climate, i.e. at lower  
144 MAT, the decline was stronger (MAT,  $p = 0.01$ ), and the temporal slopes did not vary with mean  
145 annual precipitation (MAP,  $p = 0.32$ ). Congruently, temporal CVp declines tended to be larger  
146 at higher elevations ( $p < 0.001$ ).

147 The temporal decline in among-site synchrony of masting, calculated as mean cross-

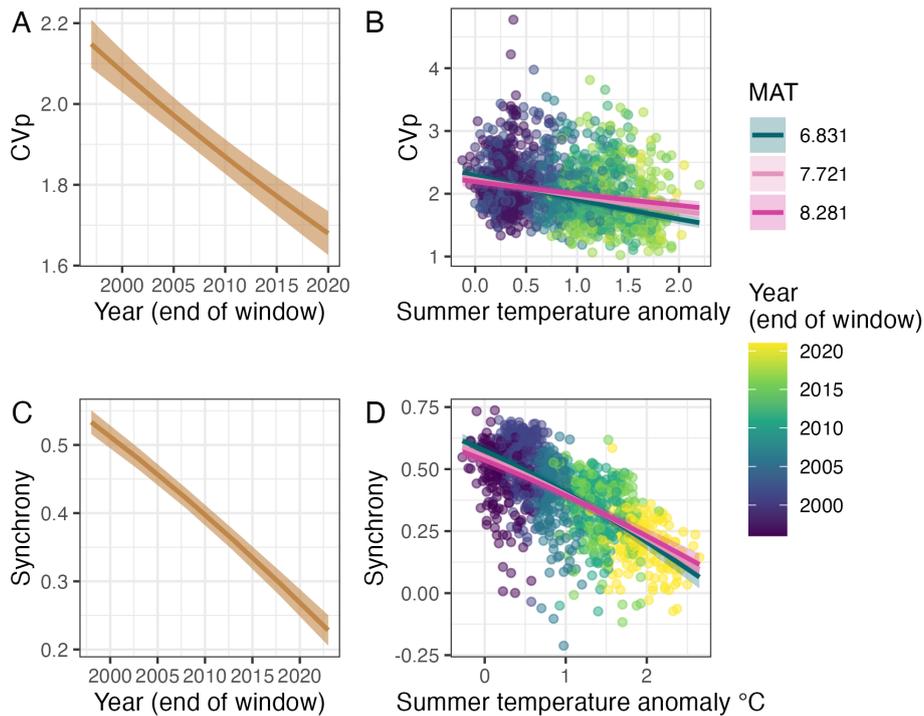
148 correlation of a site with all other sites in the dataset, was of an even greater magnitude: a  
149 57.24% decline from 0.53 (95% CI = 0.52 – 0.55) in the earliest decade to 0.23 (95% CI =  
150 0.21 - 0.25) (Fig. 1C) to the most recent decade. We observed an average annual decrease in  
151 synchrony of  $-0.01 \pm 2.02 \times 10^{-4}$  SEM ( $p < 0.001$ ). Synchrony declines over time were observed  
152 in all but a few sites (Fig. 2B).

153 As in the case of CVp, the decline in synchrony was associated with rising summer temper-  
154 atures, and the effect of summer temperatures on synchrony depended on MAT ( $p = 0.03$ ; 1B).  
155 Synchrony declined on average by -0.17 per 1°C for mean levels of demand and MAT ( $\pm 0.002$   
156 SEM,  $p < 0.001$ ; Fig. 1D). For the warmest summer temperature anomalies (2.65 °C) at mean  
157 MAT levels, almost complete desynchronisation (mean synchrony = 0.09, CI = 0.06 - 0.12) was  
158 observed, translating into a 84.09% decline compared to baseline (i.e. anomaly of zero) (Fig.  
159 1D). In cold sites (10th percentile MAT), this decline was stronger (90.23%) than in warm sites  
160 (90th percentile MAT), where it was 78.20%.

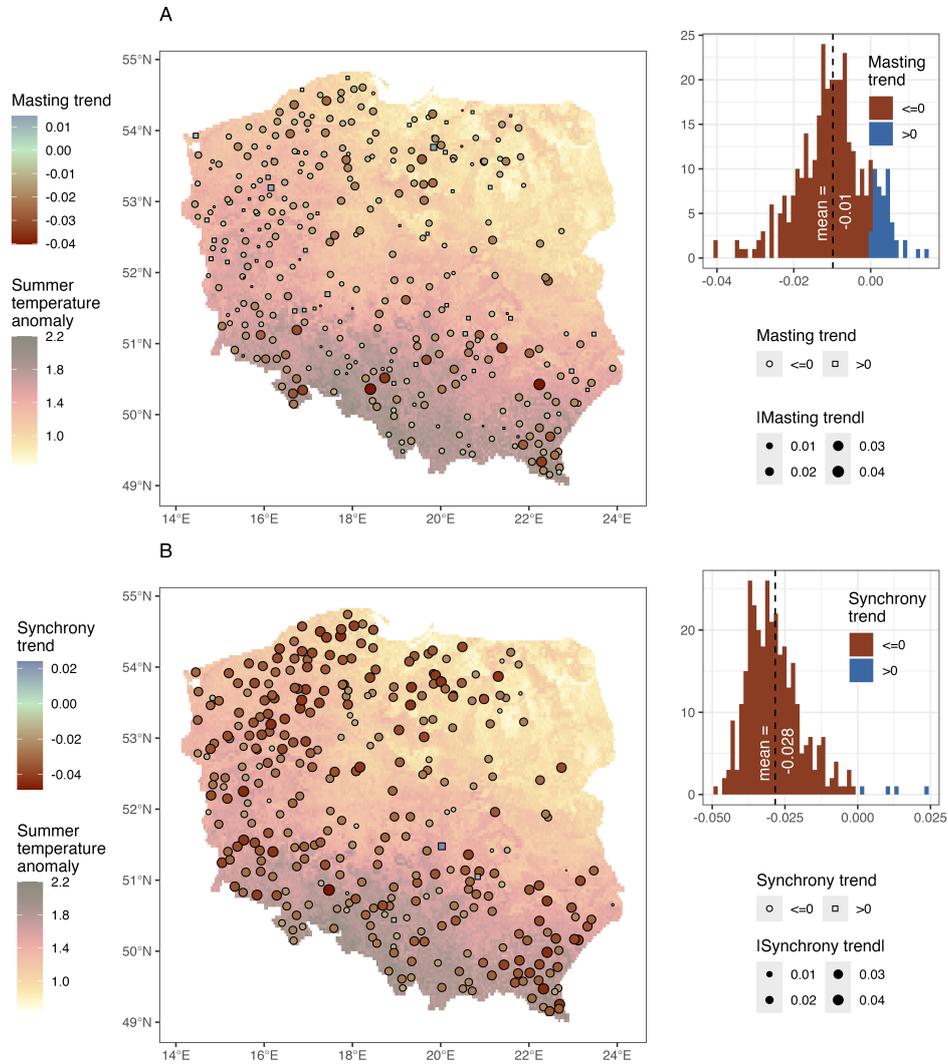
161 **Near-ubiquitous disruptions in masting across the species range.** Based on 1) summer  
162 temperature trends across the European beech range, and 2) the identified interaction between  
163 MAT and summer temperatures on CVp, we projected zones at risk of masting disruption under  
164 both contemporary and future climate scenarios (Fig. 3).

165 The risk of masting disruption is extensive, reflecting widespread recent summer warming.  
166 The largest reductions are projected to result in reductions of up to ~54% in CVp, and are  
167 concentrated in the more mountainous parts of the species range (Fig. 3). The high-elevation  
168 sites in the southern-central belt of the species range are at the highest risk (-30 – -54 % CVp;  
169 ~20% of grid cell predictions) due to strong temperature increases, and colder mean annual  
170 climates. Regions with a projected 20–30% decrease in CVp (36% of grid cells), are scattered  
171 across the range. Relatively safer zones which are still associated with a projected -4—20%  
172 decrease in CVp (44% of grid cells), have been predominantly concentrated in the northern  
173 regions of the distribution during the recent past (Fig. 3). No grid cells show projected increases  
174 in CVp.

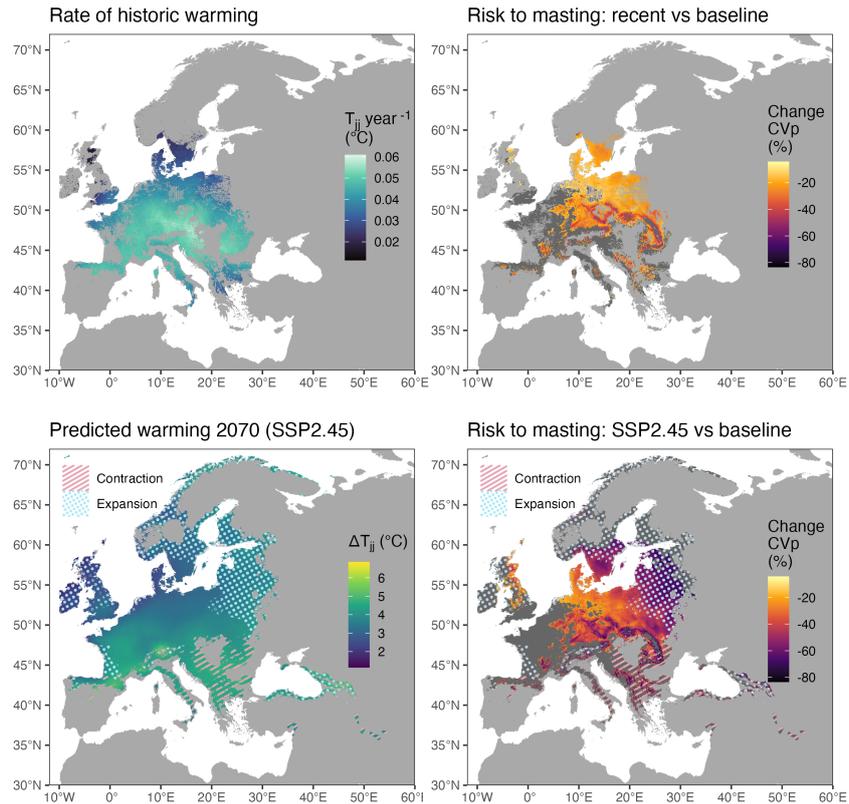
175 In 2070, according to the RCP4.5 and SSP2.45 projections, the summer temperatures will  
176 be higher by  $>3^{\circ}\text{C}$  compared to the baseline across the species range (range RCP 4.5: 1.29–4.84



**Figure 1: Temporal declines in masting (CVp) and seed production synchrony in European beech, measured across 341 sites, 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, where the effects of summer temperatures on CVp and synchrony vary with baseline MAT (average during 1960-1979). Line colour in B) shows the 10th, 50th and 90th percentile of baseline MAT. CVp and synchrony are calculated in moving windows (10 years, step size of 5 years), 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.



**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 5 years), 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: 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 summer temperature anomalies and local mean temperatures (Fig. 1B). The current range (coloured region, top panels) was derived from (53). 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. Dark grey regions indicate areas within the projected species range for which no prediction was generated as they fall outside the MAT range of the observational data. See Fig. S2 for the RCP4.5 results.

177 °C, range SSP2.4: 1.14–6.83 °C). As is evident from Fig. 3 and Fig.S2, the regions where beech  
 178 is projected to expand its range (dotted regions) overlap with regions of high risk of masting  
 179 disruptions. For the RCP4.5 and SSP2.45 scenarios, 74.70% and 80.87% of grid cells show  
 180 decreases of  $\geq 30\%$  respectively.

## 181 Discussion

182 Using a spatio-temporally extensive dataset, we show that masting in European beech has  
 183 decreased over time in response to rising summer temperatures, and that colder sites experience  
 184 the strongest declines. Our projections suggest the most pronounced CVp declines are currently

185 concentrated in the mountainous regions across the species distribution range. In both the  
186 RCP4.5 and SSP2.45 climate change projections — i.e. the 'intermediate' climate change  
187 scenarios by the IPCC (54) — the entire species range and projected future range would face a  
188 high risk of large reductions in masting, particularly in the north. Therefore, the reproductive  
189 strategy of this key forest-forming species appears extensively compromised by climate change,  
190 posing risks to its long-term persistence and migration ability. We believe this warrants urgent  
191 attention, and we outline a roadmap for research and management to support European beech  
192 forest resilience (Box 2).

193 The observed decrease of 21.81% in the inter-annual variation of seed production and 57.24%  
194 in seed production synchrony in European beech in Poland over the past three decades serves as  
195 a warning of a potential decline in viable seed supply (Fig. 1, S3). Crucially, UK studies link  
196 a comparable decline in masting to a reduction in viable seed production of over 60% (Box 1)  
197 (33; 41). Similarly, a recent analysis detected a general decline in masting in Europe using data  
198 from 50 sites, though without assessing spatial variation (46). These findings underscore the  
199 urgent need for studies to address the knowledge gap concerning viable seed production and its  
200 effects on recruitment patterns in the areas identified here as most at risk of masting decline (Box  
201 2). While immediate impacts on seedling recruitment may be limited, chronic strain on viable  
202 seed supply could ultimately alter forest composition and continuity (55; 56). Integrating early  
203 warning signals from seed production records with forest health monitoring - e.g. (57; 58; 59) -  
204 offers a proactive approach to mitigating future regeneration failures.

205 Our projections of masting dynamics under the IPCC (68) climate scenarios — RCP4.5  
206 and SSP2.45 for 2070 (2061–2080), with mean warming of +3.3°C and +3.7°C across the  
207 current range, respectively — suggest an uncertain future, with a complete breakdown of  
208 masting projected across Europe, particularly at the cold margins. Importantly, this highlights a  
209 substantial risk to long-term persistence in beech populations previously deemed climate change-  
210 resilient based on tree growth and species distribution modelling (49; 48; 17; 52). While the  
211 effects of drought on beech growth and mortality may be buffered in cool sites (49), disruptions to  
212 masting are driven by local warming rates, and exacerbated in colder sites. Our findings indicate  
213 that the identification of these forests as "winners" under climate change may be premature.

## **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 natural forest regeneration (19; 60; 61; 21). Even if microsite limitation and disturbances such as herbivory are strong filters of regeneration (62), seed limitation is prevalent in forests (19; 60; 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 (63).

### **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 (micro)climate conditions (64; 65; 66). *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 to what extent 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 (67). *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.

214 However, our temporal CV<sub>p</sub> projections assume that European beech responses to summer  
215 temperature cues and historic mean annual temperatures will remain unchanged, which may  
216 not be accurate. Importantly, although local temporal increases in temperature correlate with  
217 local declines in CV<sub>p</sub>, this relationship does not hold spatially; i.e. mean CV<sub>p</sub> does not vary  
218 geographically based on local mean temperatures (46). Possibly, populations may be locally  
219 adapted, with the "optimal" summer temperature for triggering masting varying according  
220 to local conditions such as the observed interaction with mean annual temperature observed  
221 here (also see Box 2). In this case, assisted migration (relocating populations from warmer  
222 regions) could help mitigate masting breakdown (11). Alternatively, if the observed differences  
223 result from acclimation during an early life stage, trees reaching reproductive maturity after  
224 2060, having grown in significantly warmer conditions, might be partially buffered against  
225 reproductive failure. Exploring the adaptation and acclimation potential to varying regimes of  
226 environmental cues that regulate masting is required (Box 2).

227 Disruptions in masting have significant ecological and practical implications at both local  
228 and regional scales. At the population level, the reduction in CV<sub>p</sub> likely reflects a combination  
229 of diminished inter-annual variability at the tree level (CV<sub>i</sub>) and reduced synchronisation among  
230 individual trees (Box 1) (34; 33). These localised changes may affect less mobile seed predators,  
231 such as insects, by disrupting their food supply dynamics and increasing seed predation rates  
232 (Box 1). This aligns with our observation that more seeds are produced during low-seeding  
233 years, which could prevent seed consumers from experiencing food shortages. Additionally,  
234 since masting triggers cascading effects across the food webs, altering animal community  
235 dynamics and behaviour, changes in masting likely have far-reaching ecological consequences  
236 (31). Decreased CV<sub>p</sub> also decreases pollination efficiency (Box 1). At the regional level,  
237 decreased masting synchrony has at least three implications. First, large-scale synchrony helps  
238 satiating mobile seed consumers, such as wild boar, by overwhelming their capacity to consume  
239 seeds during mast years (69; 70; 71). When synchrony between nearby populations declines,  
240 these consumers can shift between forest patches with available mast, intensifying seed predation  
241 and limiting recruitment (70; 72). Second, regional synchrony decline can disrupt food webs  
242 and animal migration patterns shaped by synchronised pulses of seed availability (73; 74; 75).

243 Finally, reduced regional synchronisation affects the supply and demand of seeds for forest  
244 nurseries. Forest nurseries rely on seed harvests for reforestation and restoration projects (76).  
245 A decline of viable seed production may lead to shortages, increasing the cost and logistical  
246 challenges of seed collection whilst reducing the availability of genetically diverse material for  
247 planting (77).

248 Our projections of masting changes across the species range are based on summer temperature  
249 trends and the associated shifts in cue frequency that trigger flowering (Box 1). Long-term  
250 studies of snow tussocks (*Chionochloa pallens*) and European beech indicate that resource  
251 reserves interact with cue frequency to drive masting (38). Specifically, when resource levels are  
252 high, even weak temperature cues trigger substantial reproductive effort, but when resources are  
253 depleted, flowering is suppressed despite strong cues (78; 38). Rising global temperatures lead to  
254 more frequent cues, which in turn causes repeated resource depletion (39). Consequently, plants  
255 tend to flower more regularly but produce smaller seed crops, leading to lower CVp (37; 38).  
256 The impact of altered cue frequency can therefore be modulated by local site conditions and  
257 resource intake capabilities, though the direction of this effect remains uncertain. For example,  
258 limited resource intake may sustain low reproductive outputs despite frequent strong cues,  
259 delaying masting breakdown, whereas rapid resource replenishment could lead to more regular  
260 seed production and increased vulnerability to breakdown. This interaction may produce more  
261 patchy masting responses to increased cue frequency than those shown in Fig. 3, which predicts  
262 the mean decline in masting at the regional scale.

263 While the harvest data provided by the Polish State Forest offered a unique opportunity to  
264 link masting trends with temperature across extensive spatio-temporal gradients, it comes with  
265 limitations. For example, harvest rates are influenced by demand, which introduces additional  
266 noise into the data. However, we were able to mitigate this by incorporating annual demand  
267 information into our analysis. Moreover, the ecological importance of declines in the CVp  
268 hinges on two assumptions: that reduced CVp translates to lower viable seed supply, and that  
269 seed supply is a driver of regeneration. Although our study does not directly address these  
270 links, a substantial body of evidence indicates that viable seed production is strongly tied to  
271 masting variation (Box 1), and that seed production is closely associated with individual fitness

272 (79; 12; 30), with persistent supply disruptions leading to recruitment limitation (80; 56; 81; 82).  
273 Furthermore, our data do not cover the entire climatic space of the species range; while we  
274 sample large parts of the core climatic distribution, populations in very warm and wet sites  
275 remain under-represented and should be targeted in future research.

276 Our study establishes that rising summer temperatures are linked to a strong decline in  
277 inter-annual variation of seed production and regional synchrony in European beech, especially  
278 at the colder margins. These shifts in reproductive dynamics have consequences for forest  
279 regeneration by potentially reducing seedling recruitment, altering seed predator cycles, and  
280 disrupting pollination processes. Projections based on current trends suggest that declines will  
281 occur across the species range, increasing the risk of seed supply shortages and triggering  
282 cascading effects on the ecosystem. Additionally, the stronger masting declines at cold edges  
283 challenge the idea of refugia at higher latitudes and elevations. Opportunities remain to enhance  
284 European beech forest resilience. Expanding and sustaining long-term seed and recruitment  
285 monitoring networks to understand seed supply effects on recruitment, and assessing the potential  
286 for local adaptation and acclimation, appear as important next steps (Box 2).

## 287 **Materials and Methods**

### 288 **Studied species**

289 European beech is a major forest-forming species in temperate Europe, with high economic and  
290 ecological importance (83). Its main range extends from southern Italy and northern Spain to-  
291 wards southern Sweden and from Great Britain to Bulgaria, up to 2000 m a.s.l. elevation. Beech  
292 is a model masting species, with seed production characterised by large inter-annual variation  
293 and synchrony (84; 85). High flower production is positively correlated with temperatures in  
294 summer across the whole species range, as the period of sensitivity is anchored to the longest  
295 day of the year, the summer solstice (36). High seed production is negatively correlated with  
296 growth (86). Masting breakdown, i.e. the decline in inter-annual variation and synchrony of  
297 seed production is described in Box 1. The decline in CV<sub>p</sub>, increased regularity of reproduction,  
298 and resulting persistent resource depletion caused by warming has led to a decline in growth

299 rate in European beech (39).

## 300 **Data**

301 **Reproduction data** Information on seed production was obtained from Polish State Forests  
302 and is based on annual harvest rates by the local forest inspectorates. This dataset provides  
303 information on the amount (kg) of seed collected in each district per year. Seeds are collected  
304 from the ground by local companies on behalf of the Polish State Forest, and each inspectorate  
305 has assigned seed collection sites. In addition to the information on harvest rates, we obtained  
306 information on the annual seed demand (kg) which is derived by Polish State Forests based on  
307 the area requiring reforestation (such as after logging or disturbances). We obtained data for 448  
308 districts (referred to as 'sites'; 14,207 observations), but we subset this to sites measured for at  
309 least 10 years, with at least some beech seed harvest. Together, this resulted in time series from  
310 341 sites and 10,814 annual observations, with an average length of 31.7 years (range: 13-33).  
311 Fig. S1 illustrates the sites distributed across the species' climate range, along with the sampled  
312 elevation gradient.

313 **Climate, elevation, and species range data** Historical monthly climate data (maximum and  
314 minimum temperature, precipitation sum, 2.5 minute resolution) were obtained from WorldClim  
315 v. 2.1 (87). These were used to calculate summer (June-July) temperature anomalies, and  
316 average climate (mean annual temperature [MAT], mean annual precipitation [MAP]). The  
317 summer temperature anomalies were calculated by subtracting the site-level mean of maximum  
318 June-July temperatures during the baseline period (1960-1979) from the mean maximum June-  
319 July temperature in a focal year. Baseline MAT estimates were obtained by taking the average of  
320 the monthly maximum and minimum temperatures for each year between 1960-1979, and then  
321 taking an average. Similarly, baseline MAP was obtained by summing the monthly precipitation,  
322 and taking the average of these during 1960-1979. Elevation data, derived from SRTM, were  
323 obtained via WorldClim v. 2.1 (87).

324 To predict masting under future climate conditions in the intermediate future (i.e. 2070,  
325 range: 2060-2080), we obtained climate change projections for the IPCC RCP 4.5 and SSP2.45

326 scenarios from WorldClim (v. 1.4 and 2.1 respectively (87); 30 second resolution, bilinearly  
327 resampled to match historical data resolution). Following (53), we averaged three global climate  
328 change projections of maximum June-July temperatures for each scenario, since these reflect  
329 low, moderate, and high levels of occurrence changes. The projections used for RCP 4.5 were  
330 HadGEM2-ES, IPSL-CM5A-LR, MPI-ESM-LR, and for SSP2.45 we used HadGEM3-GC31-  
331 LL, IPSL-CM6A-LR, and MPI-ESM1-2-HR. Current and predicted species ranges under the  
332 two scenarios were obtained from (53; 17).

### 333 **Data analysis**

334 All models were build in R (v. 4.4.1) using glmmTMB (v. 1.1.10) and validated with DHARMA  
335 (v.0.4.7) unless indicated differently (88; 89; 90)).

336 **Moving windows** For each time series, we calculated long-term values of reproductive metrics,  
337 including the coefficient of variation (CV<sub>p</sub>) of seed production, the long-term mean seed crop  
338 size, as well as the 25th percentile of seed crop size (representing seed production during  
339 low seeding years) with 10-year moving windows. In this approach, the first window of 10  
340 observations is used to estimate metrics such as the CV<sub>p</sub>, and the window then skips a set  
341 number of years (the step size; here, we used 5 years as step size) along the time series, after  
342 which the estimation of the metric is repeated in each new window. Since time windows can  
343 overlap, we checked for temporal autocorrelation in model residuals.

344 To calculate temporal changes in regional masting synchrony, we used moving time windows  
345 with 10 years length and 5 years step, with the first window always starting in 1987 i.e., the first  
346 year of seed production records in our dataset. Within each window, we calculated between-  
347 site synchrony of seed production based on pairwise Spearman correlation coefficients for data  
348 series that overlapped for at least 5 years. Pairwise correlation coefficients were then averaged  
349 at the site level to obtain the average seed production synchrony of a given site in a given time  
350 window. Synchrony was subsequently normalised to fall between [0, 1] following the formula  
351  $y_i = (y_i + 1)/2$  and back-transformed to a correlation coefficient scale for visualisation according  
352 to the equation  $y_i = y_i * 2 - 1$ .

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

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

362 We tested temporal trends in long-term reproductive patterns using the moving window  
363 approach described in the previous section. Linear mixed models using a Gaussian distribution  
364 were used to assess for temporal patterns in  $\ln$ -transformed CVp. Predictors were year (i.e.  
365 the end-year of the moving window), and a standard-deviation scaled estimate of centred seed  
366 demand. Site ID was included as a random intercept. Tweedie distribution models were  
367 constructed to test for temporal changes in mean seed production and the 25th quantile of seed  
368 production (estimates: step size of 5). These models included year as a predictor, site ID as a  
369 random intercept, and the model was offset with  $\ln + 1$  transformed estimates of seed demand.

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

375 **Linking environmental variation to reproduction patterns** CVp and synchrony estimates  
376 were regressed against summer temperature anomalies in two models with random slopes for site  
377 ID. Summer temperature effects were allowed to vary with baseline period (1960-1979) MAT  
378 and MAP (i.e.  $\text{summer temperature} \times \text{MAT} + \text{summer temperature} \times \text{MAP}$ ). Non-significant  
379 terms (MAP,  $\text{MAP} \times \text{summer temperature}$ ) were removed from the final models. Scaled and  
380 centred seed demand was added as a covariate in the Gamma-family log-link model of CVp, and

381 in the Tweedie distribution with logit-link synchrony model. To report on CVp and synchrony  
382 slopes on the back-transformed scale, we calculated the average of year-to-year differences  
383 (slopes) over temperature anomalies. To further examine the effect of mean annual climate on  
384 masting, we firstly constructed versions of the temporal models of CVp described above using  
385 random slopes for site . We then extracted these slopes, and regressed them against baseline  
386 MAT and MAP in a Gaussian model. We ran another Gaussian model regressing these slopes  
387 against elevation.

388 **Projections across the species range Warming rates and baseline climate** To analyse spatial  
389 diversity in summer warming rates under climate change scenarios, we gathered climate data  
390 for grid cells within the species' current and future ranges. We calculated summer temperature  
391 anomalies by subtracting the historic baseline (1960–79 average) from each projection. For  
392 the recent past, we used the 2002–2021 summer temperature average, while future scenarios  
393 followed RCP4.5 and SSP2.4. Since the historic baseline was based on WorldClim 2.1 and  
394 RCP4.5 on version 1.4, we adjusted for dataset differences to minimise downscaling noise. We  
395 also calculated baseline MAT (1960–79 average) for all grid cells.

396 Using summer temperature anomalies and baseline MAT, we predicted CVp across the  
397 species' range, restricting predictions to areas where MAT fell within the sampled range. We  
398 then estimated baseline CVp (anomaly = 0) and calculated the percentage change in CVp for  
399 each scenario relative to this baseline.

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412

### 413 **Author Contributions Statement**

414 All authors conceived the study. JJF, MB, JSz, MKD designed the study. JJF, JSz, MB,  
415 and MKD designed and conducted the analysis. JJF and MB co-wrote the first draft of the  
416 manuscript. All authors contributed to the interpretation of the analysis, revised the draft, and  
417 gave final approval for publication.

418

### 419 **Declaration of interests**

420 No competing interests to declare.

421

### 422 **Data availability statement**

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

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636 **Supporting Information**

637 **No refuge at the edge for European beech as climate warming disproportionately reduces**  
638 **masting at colder margins**

639

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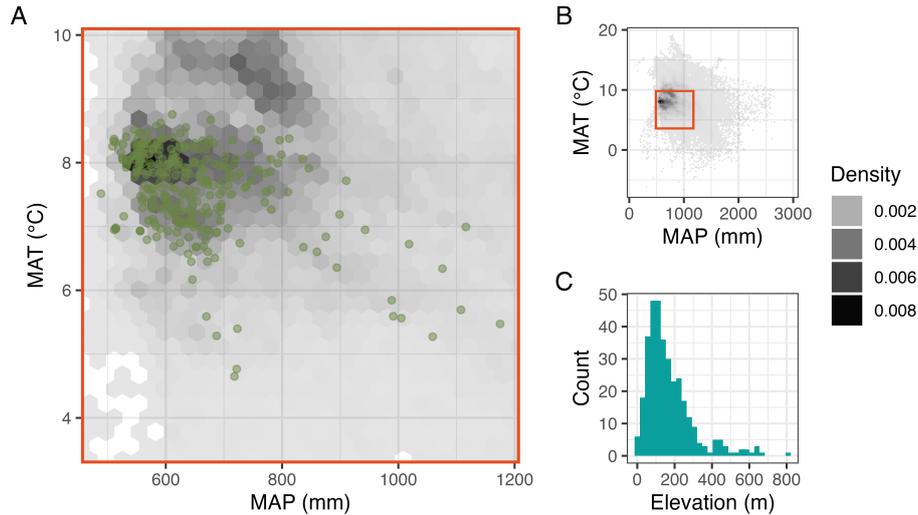
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**Figure S1: Sites cover large climate and elevation gradients** Sampled sites (green points; A), in the context of the climate envelope of the European beech range (B). The extent of (A) matches the orange box in (B). Grey shading at (A) and (B) shows 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. The elevation gradient sampled is shown in (C). MAT = Mean annual temperature, MAP = Mean annual precipitation.

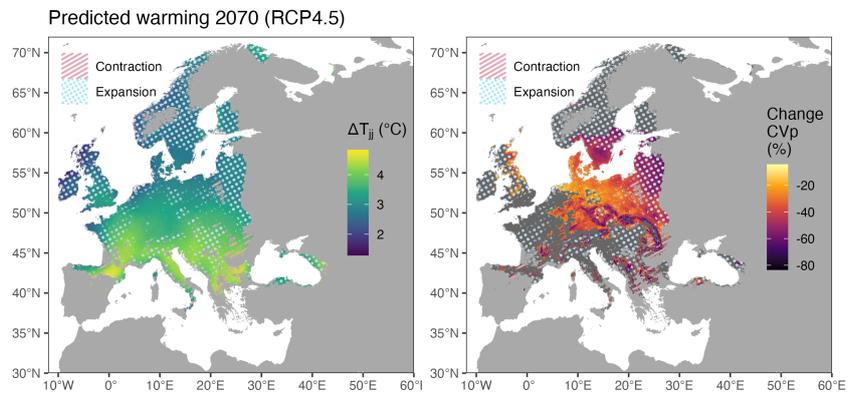
## 654 .1 Note S1

### 655 .1.1 Methodology Box 1: Evidence from the UK

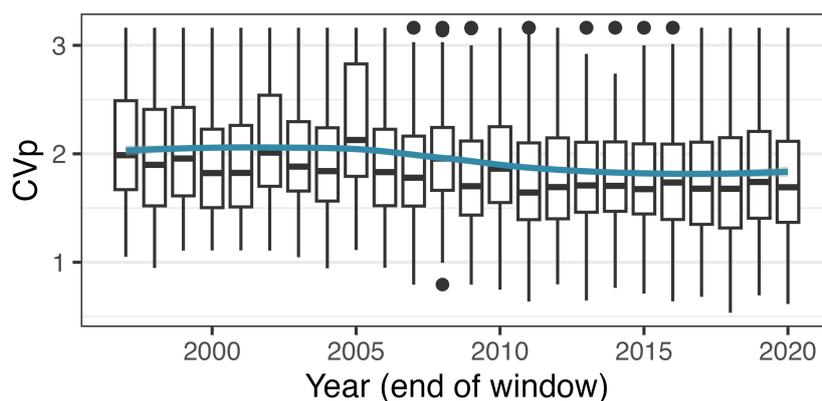
656 The reproductive patterns of UK beech trees were re-analysed using models more closely related to the models  
 657 used on the Polish reproductive data. We subset the individual-level EBMS data to trees with at least 10 annual  
 658 observations, and for site level estimates of CV<sub>p</sub> we used only those sites with  $\geq 5$  trees.

659 Firstly, we used a moving window approach (window length: 10 years, step size: 5 years) to obtain long-term  
 660 estimates of the mean of each pattern - i.e. pollination rates (ratio of pollinated to total seed count), pre-dispersal  
 661 seed predation rates (ratio of predated to pollinated seeds), the number of total and viable (pollinated and not  
 662 predated) seeds, and the CV<sub>p</sub>.

663 We then constructed (generalised) linear mixed models (i.e (G)LMM) for each pattern. Specifically, for the  
 664 models examining the fertilisation and predation ratios over time, we constructed two beta family model with logit  
 665 links, using year as the predictor, and adding a random intercepts for tree ID. The predation ratio was linearly  
 666 rescaled to a range of 0.0001, 0.9999) to satisfy the beta distribution requirements. The temporal changes in total  
 667 and viable seeds, as well as CV<sub>p</sub> were tested with LLMs, using year as the predictor, and a random intercept for  
 668 tree ID. Lastly, the relationship between viable seed number and CV<sub>p</sub> was tested with a LLM, with viable seeds as  
 669 the response, and CV<sub>p</sub> 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 and local mean temperatures (Fig. 1B). Overlay symbols in the panels show European beech range changes derived from (53), with hashed lines highlighting predicted range contractions, dots marking range expansions, and a transparent symbol overlay indicating stability. See Fig. 3 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.