¹ Geography of masting synchrony creates more famines ² than feasts

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22 Abstract

Interannually highly variable and synchronized production of large seed crops by perennial 23 plants, called masting, drives resource pulses and famines with cascading effects on food webs. 24 While the spatial scale of masting synchrony is well documented, it remains unclear how syn-25 chrony differs between years of seed abundance and failure, and how such dynamics extend 26 across species and space. These gaps are important to resolve, as they determine the magnitude 27 and spatial extent of masting effects on food webs. Using a 36-year dataset from 431 sites span-28 ning seven dominant tree species in temperate Europe, we provide evidence that seed failures are 29 more spatially synchronized than mast peaks, indicating that regional coherence in seed produc-30 tion is structured primarily by reproductive failure. Among-species synchrony was localized, 31 suggesting that temperate forests are unlikely to impose region-wide starvation-satiation cycles 32 on mobile seed consumers: a contrast with highly synchronous tropical dipterocarp systems. 33 From an applied perspective, failure years affect seed availability over broad regions, limiting 34 sourcing options for afforestation and restoration, and underscoring the value of spatially explicit 35 masting forecasting. Because mast peaks and failures differ fundamentally in their food web 36 consequences, our findings highlight the need to better understand and anticipate the ecological 37 impacts of synchronized seed scarcity. 38

³⁹ Significance statement

Our study shows that synchronous seed failures, rather than peaks in seed production, dominate 40 regional masting synchrony across temperate tree species. Since reproductive failures are 41 more strongly synchronized over space than mast peaks, the ecological consequences of seed 42 scarcity, such as food web bottlenecks and altered animal movements, may be more extensive 43 and predictable than previously recognized. In contrast, among-species synchrony is limited in 44 spatial extent, implying that generalist seed consumers are unlikely to experience coordinated 45 starvation-satiation cycles across species. These findings highlight the need to reassess the 46 ecological importance of synchronized seed failures and the buffering role of forest diversity in 47 moderating masting-driven resource fluctuations. 48

49 Introduction

When ecological processes fluctuate together across locations, i.e., exhibit spatial synchrony, 50 they shape regional ecosystem dynamics by amplifying resource pulses and shortages (Ostfeld 51 & Keesing, 2000; Earn et al., 2000; Bjørnstad et al., 2002). A major example is mast seeding, 52 a reproductive strategy common in perennial plants that involves occasional, synchronized 53 episodes of large seed production separated by frequent years of scarcity (Journé et al., 2023; 54 Qiu et al., 2023; Kondrat et al., 2025). These spatially correlated fluctuations generate cascading 55 effects across ecological levels through resource pulses and famines (LaMontagne et al., 2020; 56 Ostfeld & Keesing, 2000; Clark et al., 2019). For plants, high-seeding years alter allocation 57 patterns, reducing growth and defense investment, while increasing pollination success and seed 58 predation escape (Kelly et al., 2001; Lauder et al., 2019; Zwolak et al., 2022; Hacket-Pain 59 et al., 2025). For consumers, mast peaks trigger resource pulses that drive outbreaks of rodents, 60 insects, and other seed consumers (Schmidt & Ostfeld, 2003; Gamelon et al., 2017), increase 61 rodent-borne disease risk in humans (Jones et al., 1998; Bregnard et al., 2021), and elevate 62 allergenic pollen levels (Tseng et al., 2020). In contrast, mast failures lead to widespread food 63 scarcity, causing rodent crashes (Zwolak et al., 2018), reproductive failure in insects, birds, and 64 mammals (Ruf et al., 2006; Fidler et al., 2008; Bonal et al., 2010; Cachelou et al., 2022), shifts in 65 animal movement such as emigration of seed predators (Zuckerberg et al., 2020), immigration 66 of birds (Szymkowiak & Thomson, 2019; Maag et al., 2024), and elevated human-wildlife 67 conflict as animals search beyond forests for food (Bautista et al., 2023; Tattoni et al., 2025). 68 The magnitude of these ecological effects depends on masting synchrony, including whether 69 masting synchronizes across species, whether peaks or failures synchronize more strongly, and 70 how far such coherence extends (Woodman et al., 2025; Bogdziewicz et al., 2025). 71

On a proximate level, variation in seed production is commonly driven by weather cues that influence flowering and seed maturation (Kelly *et al.*, 2013; Koenig *et al.*, 2015; Journé *et al.*, 2024). Consequently, the regional synchronization of masting arises from the Moran effect, i.e., spatially correlated fluctuations in environmental drivers of reproduction (Koenig & Knops, 2013; Ascoli *et al.*, 2017; LaMontagne *et al.*, 2020; Wion *et al.*, 2020; Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2021; Reuman *et al.*, 2023). Masting plants often respond non-linearly to weather cues,

with low reproduction across a wide gradient of weather conditions and strong responses when 78 cue values reach favorable levels (Kelly et al., 2013; Fernández-Martínez et al., ????). For 79 example, in European temperate oaks (Quercus robur and Q. petraea), seed production is 80 suppressed below 12°C spring temperatures but rises sharply above that threshold (Schermer 81 et al., 2020). Similarly, European beech (Fagus sylvatica) exhibits a non-linear response to 82 its previous summer temperature cue, with weak responses at low temperatures that increase 83 disproportionately under warmer conditions (Szymkowiak et al., 2024b). Because individuals 84 and populations respond collectively to shared weather cues, spatial synchrony in masting 85 reflects the extent of regional weather synchrony (Bogdziewicz et al., 2023). The nature 86 of weather-seed production relationships shapes synchrony patterns, affecting among-species 87 synchrony (Szymkowiak et al., 2024a; LaMontagne et al., 2024), synchrony of peaks and failures 88 (Szymkowiak et al., 2024b), and the spatial extent of masting coherence (Koenig & Knops, 2013; 89 Bogdziewicz et al., 2023). 90

Co-occurring species may respond to overlapping weather cues, resulting in among-species 91 synchrony within communities (Koenig et al., 2016; Szymkowiak et al., 2024a). In North Amer-92 ican forests, such cross-species synchrony averaged 0.29 (mean Spearman cross-correlation) but 93 varied widely, from strong asynchrony (-0.72) to near-perfect alignment (0.89) (LaMontagne et al., 2024). The extent of community-wide coordination has implications both for plant fit-95 ness and broader ecosystem dynamics. For plants, high among-species synchrony can enhance 96 predator satiation by limiting the availability of alternative seed sources for generalist consumers 97 (Curran & Leighton, 2000; Szymkowiak et al., 2024a). On the other hand, asynchrony can limit 98 competition among seedlings (Shibata et al., 2002). For ecosystems, high community-level 99 synchrony concentrates seed availability into fewer years, potentially amplifying the strength of 100 resource pulses (Yang et al., 2008). Conversely, low synchrony, particularly in species-rich com-101 munities, can distribute seed input more evenly over time, buffering food webs against extreme 102 booms and busts (Clark et al., 2019). However, the spatial scale of among-species synchrony in 103 temperate forests remains poorly understood due to limited broad-scale data, leaving it unclear 104 whether it is local or regional in scope. 105

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Synchrony in ecological processes can be tail-dependent, meaning it differs between high

and low values of the ecological variable, such as between mast peaks and failures. This recently 107 developed concept has revealed that either population crashes or booms often synchronize more 108 strongly than the other, depending on the shape of species-environment relationships (Ghosh 109 et al., 2020). Tail-dependent synchrony has been described across terrestrial and aquatic systems, 110 with key consequences for population dynamics and conservation (Ghosh et al., 2020, 2021; 111 Walter et al., 2022; Ghosh et al., 2025). In mast seeding, tail dependence would result in either 112 seed abundance or seed scarcity synchronizing more strongly across space. This was recently 113 demonstrated in European beech, where synchrony in years of seed scarcity extended up to 1800 114 km, nearly twice as far as the synchrony of mast peaks (Szymkowiak et al., 2024b). Synchrony 115 was higher in the lower tail because reproduction remained uniformly low across a broad range 116 of less favorable climatic conditions (Szymkowiak et al., 2024b). Such asymmetry alters the 117 geography of seed availability, influencing the spatial scale and direction of masting effects on 118 ecological interactions. Yet, the synchrony of extremes has not been systematically investigated 119 only for European beech. The generality of such tail-dependence would indicate an asymmetry 120 in the ecological consequences of masting, with regional-scale seed scarcity exerting stronger 121 and more coherent impacts on food webs than resource pulses. 122

We used a uniquely extensive dataset on seed production from 431 sites across Poland, 123 spanning 36 years (1987-2022) and covering seven dominant forest-forming species: Fagus 124 sylvatica, Quercus robur, Q. petraea, Pinus sylvestris, Abies alba, Picea abies, and Larix 125 decidua. This large-scale, long-term monitoring enables us to quantify both within- and among-126 species synchrony in masting, assess how synchrony decays with distance, and map its spatial 127 structure. We partitioned synchrony into upper and lower tails, allowing comparison of the 128 spatial scale and strength of synchrony in mast peaks and failures. We predicted that tail-129 dependence in masting synchrony will be general, due to the common non-linear relationships 130 between seed production and weather cues in masting trees (Fernández-Martínez et al., ????; 131 Szymkowiak et al., 2024b; Bogdziewicz et al., 2025). Consequently, synchrony in failures 132 should be more spatially extensive across all species. The among-species masting synchrony 133 will be locally relatively high (Szymkowiak et al., 2024a; LaMontagne et al., 2024), but it 134 should quickly decay with distance, as interspecific variation in cues and their phenology will 135

¹³⁶ be amplified with increasing distance among populations (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2023). We also ¹³⁷ predicted that among-species synchrony in masting upper tail (peaks) will be lower than lower-¹³⁸ tail (failure) synchrony, for the same reason, i.e., the species-specific nature of cues will lead ¹³⁹ to more spatially heterogeneous masting peaks. Alternatively, to the extent that masting in ¹⁴⁰ temperate species is commonly linked to spring and summer temperatures, including our model ¹⁴¹ species (Ascoli *et al.*, 2017; Vacchiano *et al.*, 2017; Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2017), interspecific ¹⁴² masting failure synchrony could be relatively high.

Such spatially extensive analysis, covering multiple species, has not been conducted so far, as it requires monitoring of multiple species across multiple sites; data that are logistically demanding to collect and slow to accumulate (Clark *et al.*, 2021). Thus, our results offer the first spatially explicit quantification of tail-dependent synchrony in both intra- and interspecific masting, with direct implications for understanding the dynamics of seed supply in temperate forests.

Results

Regional masting synchrony. The extent of regional masting synchrony differed among the studied species, with the highest synchrony in European beech (mean pairwise Spearman rank correlation across all sites and 95% CI: 0.393, 0.390–0.396, n = 27966), followed by oaks (0.280, 0.279–0.282, n = 73536), fir (0.261, 0.254–0.267, n = 4278), and spruce (0.263, 0.256–0.271, n = 3081) (Fig. 1A). Synchrony was noticeably lower in the remaining two conifers: pine (0.163, 0.161–0.164, n = 72010), and larch (0.178, 0.174–0.182, n = 9453) (Fig. 1A). Note that data for oaks was merged as separate records were only available after 2008.

Failures dominate: tail-dependence in regional masting synchrony is general. Following predictions, in all species, the synchrony of masting failures (lower tail) was higher than synchrony in mast peaks (upper tail) (Fig. 1). On average (i.e., across all distances), the synchrony in the lower tail was 1.7-fold higher than upper tail synchrony in beech (n = 27,808), 2.6-fold higher in oaks (n = 72,393), 2.9-fold higher in spruce (n = 3,076), 8.6-fold higher in fir (n = 4,277), 9.4-fold higher in larch (n = 9,430), and 12.1-fold higher in pine (n = 70,937).



Figure 1: Distance decay and tail-dependence in masting synchrony in the species studied. Distance-decay in A) overall, B) lower tail, and C) upper tail synchrony. The lower tail is seed production below 0.25, while the upper is above 0.25, for annual values scaled within each species-site to between 0 and 1. This categorization follows from the shape of the distribution of the annual values (see Methods). Note that the values of synchrony in tails are slightly lower compared to overall regional synchrony, which follows from categorization into tails and estimation based on partial Spearman correlation. Ribbons indicate 95% confidence intervals. D) and E) Relationship between site-level mean synchrony of seed production in the upper and lower tail in European beech (D) and Scots pine (E), with points size scaled according to tail dependence strength (difference between mean synchrony in the upper and lower tail), and color-coded according to whether the mean falls into stronger upper-or lower-tail synchrony. Analogous figures to D) and E) for other studied species are provided in Fig. S1. The synchrony is based on annual (1987-2022) observations of seed production across 431 sites, but the specific number of sites per species varies due to range differences (see Methods, Data). Note that data for oaks was merged as separate records were only available after 2008.

Looking at the tail-dependence across space, the upper-tail synchrony declined with distance relatively quickly, e.g., synchrony reached 0 at 450 km in beech, 200 km in fir, or about 100 km in larch (Fig. 1C). In contrast, the synchrony in the lower tail was characterized by a lack of (e.g., pine, larch) or very shallow distance-decay (e.g. beech, fir) at the scale observable in our study, and remained relatively stable across the distances of up to 700 km in all species (Fig. 1B).

Mapping these patterns revealed a consistent picture in which mast failures' synchrony was 169 extending evenly over the entire studied region, again for all studied species (Fig. 2 shows beech, 170 while other species are presented in Fig. S2 and S3). In contrast, the synchrony of mast peaks 171 was spatially heterogeneous, resulting in substantial variation in the spatial extent and intensity 172 of pulsed resources (Fig. 2). For example, the three failure years visualized for European 173 beech at Fig. 2 show extensive seed shortage across the vast majority of 237 monitored sites. 174 Conversely, the three peak years show seed pulses scattered over the region (year 1993), or 175 concentrated in the North (year 2004), or South (year 2020). Importantly, this does not mean 176 that region-wide mast years are absent, but that they occur less frequently and with smaller 177 synchrony than region-wide seed failures. 178

Interspecific masting synchrony is largely local. Among-species masting synchrony was moderate within sites, and it quickly decayed with distance. Considering all species pairs together, the mean interspecific synchrony at the local level (within-site) was 0.14 (n = 1628) (Fig. 3), being highest between species pairs such as pine and spruce (0.30, n = 70), pine and larch (0.29, n = 119), and spruce and larch (0.27, n = 35), while lowest within pairs of beech and larch (0.01, n = 109), beech and pine (0.06, n = 191), and fir and pine (0.08, n = 60) (Fig. S4).

Looking at these patterns in space, interspecific masting synchrony reached or was close to 0 at distances lower than 50 km in the majority (66.67%) of species pairs (i.e. 95% CI overlapped with 0; Fig. 4). In some pairs, including fir-beech, fir-oaks, fir-pine, beech-spruce, pine-larch, and pine-spruce, the synchrony remained higher than 0 at distances over 200 km, but was still negligible compared to within-species synchrony.



Figure 2: Maps of masting synchrony in A) lower tail and B) upper tail of seed production in European beech. At A) and B) points show sites scaled according to site-level mean synchrony of seed production within a given tail. The background color of A) and B) shows the geography of synchrony as estimated with a GLMM model, see Table S1 for the model summary. The three panels in the middle row (C, D, E) show three exemplary years dominated by low-tail seed production (1997, 2001, 2012) in European beech, while the bottom row shows three years dominated by peaks (1993, 2004, 2020). Point size is scaled to site-level annual seed production during plotted years, colored according to whether the site-year falls into the lower or upper tail. Maps for other species are provided in the Supplement (Fig. S2 and S3).



Figure 3: Local among-species masting synchrony. Density plots of within-site A) overall, B) lower tail, and C) upper tail synchrony. Plots are based on synchrony (Spearman or, in the case of lower and upper tails, partial Spearman correlation) between all possible pairs of studied species. The vertical solid line indicates the mean value, while the dashed line indicates zero. The synchrony is based on annual (1987-2022) observations of seed production across 431 sites, but the specific number of sites per species varies due to range differences (see Methods). Density plots for individual pairs of species are provided in Fig. S4.



Figure 4: Regional among-species masting synchrony for each species pair, based on Spearman correlation estimated using non-parametric spatial covariance functions. Note that y-axes on the graphs are adjusted to be comparable with Fig. 1A. The vertical dashed line highlights 50km. Ribbons show 95% confidence intervals. The synchrony is based on annual (1987-2022) observations of seed production across 431 sites, but the specific number of sites per species varies due to range differences (see Methods). Regional among-species synchrony separated into tails is provided in Fig. S5.

Low interspecific synchrony of mast peaks and failures Separating interspecific masting synchrony into tails shows that neither mast peaks nor failures are synchronized extensively. Locally, the mean interspecific synchrony in the lower tail was 0.06 (n = 1628), while in the upper tail it equaled 0.04 (n = 1628) (Fig. 3B, C). Regionally, in the vast majority of species pairs, the among-species synchrony of mast failures and peaks was near 0, or was overlapping with 0, at all distances (Fig. S5).

Discussion

Using a uniquely comprehensive dataset spanning 36 years and major forest-forming tree species 197 across more than 700 km of temperate Europe, we provide the first spatially explicit analysis 198 of regional masting synchrony that integrates both intra- and interspecific patterns and ac-199 counts for tail-dependent dynamics (Ghosh et al., 2020; Walter et al., 2022). Following theory 200 (Szymkowiak *et al.*, 2024b), mast peaks are consistently less synchronized than mast failures: 201 failures extend over broad regions and dominate the overall signal of regional coherence. In 202 species such as pine, larch, and spruce, mast peaks are not synchronized beyond 200 km, reveal-203 ing that whole-distribution metrics of synchrony used so far to quantify it (Koenig & Knops, 204 1998; Vacchiano et al., 2017; LaMontagne et al., 2020; Bogdziewicz et al., 2021), obscure 205 important asymmetries in reproductive synchrony. Furthermore, among-species synchrony, 206 though often relatively high within sites (LaMontagne et al., 2024), rarely persists beyond tens 207 of kilometers. These findings challenge the prevailing assumption that mast peaks and failures 208 are equally extensive in space. Thus, the largest-scale ecological impacts of masting may arise 209 not from seed abundance but from its synchronized absence. 210

Tail dependence in masting is general in temperate Europe: in all studied species, mast failures exhibit 1.7 - 12.1-fold higher regional synchrony than mast peaks and show little or no distance decay at distances up to 700 km. This indicates a consistent spatial asymmetry in reproductive dynamics, as seed scarcity synchronizes more strongly and over broader areas than seed abundance. Research so far has largely focused on the effects of pulsed resources generated by mast peaks, leading to extensive documentation of consumer outbreaks, trophic cascades, and associated shifts in species interactions (Ostfeld & Keesing, 2000; Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2025).

The ecological consequences of synchronized seed failure have been comparatively overlooked 218 (Bogdziewicz et al., 2016), although theory emphasizes that famine events are not merely 219 the inverse of resource pulses (Sears et al., 2004). Famine and resource pulses differ in several 220 fundamental ways. Whereas responses to pulsed resources are often graded or show diminishing 221 returns, responses to famine are shaped by nonlinear thresholds (Holt, 2008). Organisms may 222 tolerate low resource availability to a point, beyond which survival or reproduction collapses 223 abruptly (Holt, 2008). Moreover, famine propagates cascading constraints in food webs, not 224 amplification, and restricts trophic energy flow (Sears et al., 2004). Furthermore, famine triggers 225 behavioral shifts, including movement to new habitats, skipping reproduction, or altered foraging 226 strategies (Clark et al., 2019; Maag et al., 2024; Widick et al., 2025). Finally, recovery from 227 famine is delayed, often limited by demographic bottlenecks or resource depletion, making the 228 legacy of scarcity more persistent than that of abundance (Holt, 2008). Our findings highlight 229 an underexplored dimension of masting dynamics and suggest that greater attention should be 230 directed toward the ecological consequences of synchronized seed failure, which may play a 231 more extensive role in shaping food web dynamics than so far recognized. 232

The quantification of the distance decay in among-species masting synchrony, including in 233 masting peaks and failures, shows that it is largely localized. This spatially constrained synchrony 234 implies that high tree species diversity interacts with the limited coherence of masting across 235 species, potentially stabilizing seed supply within forests. Synchrony between pairs like beech 236 and spruce or fir is likely less important for processes such as mammal population dynamics 237 (Sachser et al., 2021). In contrast, low synchrony among large-seeded oaks and beech, below 238 0.1 at all distances, may help stabilize food webs. The low level of interspecific synchrony may 239 also decrease competition between seedlings of shade-tolerant and light-demanding tree species, 240 diversifying temporal regeneration niches. The extent of this buffering effect requires further 241 investigation. For example, both beech and oaks are individually recognized to significantly 242 influence the population dynamics of seed consumers and their predators, yet such insights 243 typically stem from studies focusing on single tree species (Clotfelter et al., 2007; Saitoh et al., 244 2007; Touzot et al., 2020). Our results suggest that it would be worthwhile to systematically 245 explore how the food web effects generated by masting vary across forests ranging from single-246

species dominance to diverse co-occurrence. Such research could investigate whether diverse 247 forests exhibit more stable consumer populations and fewer extreme demographic fluctuations. 248 We argue that the patterns of masting synchrony and their variation among species arise from 249 fundamental differences in the relationships between seed production and weather cues, includ-250 ing in the timing of cue responsiveness across populations. The generality of tail dependence 251 in masting synchrony reflects a general feature of masting species: the non-linear response of 252 seed production to weather drivers (Kelly et al., 2013; Bogdziewicz et al., 2024). Seed output 253 is commonly inhibited or remains low across a broad range of suboptimal cue values, generat-254 ing relatively uniform low reproduction across sites during a broad range of unfavorable years 255 (Szymkowiak et al., 2024b). This buffering effect promotes high synchrony in the lower tail. 256 In contrast, seed production increases sharply once cues exceed species-specific critical values, 257 so small spatial differences in favorable weather lead to large variation in reproductive effort, 258 reducing synchrony during mast peaks (Szymkowiak et al., 2024b). Beyond these nonlinear 259 responses, variation in the spatial scale of synchrony among species is shaped by the degree to 260 which the timing of weather cue sensitivity is conserved across populations (Bogdziewicz et al., 261 2023). European beech exhibits the most extensive regional synchrony because its cue window 262 is anchored to the summer solstice, synchronizing temperature sensitivity across large distances 263 (Journé et al., 2024). In contrast, in species where cue timing shifts with local phenology, akin 264 to flowering or leafing time, synchrony deteriorates with distance more strongly (Bogdziewicz 265 et al., 2023). Finally, we argue that locally, intraspecific synchrony is often high due to shared 266 weather cues (e.g., summer warmth in beech, spruce, pine; c.f. Ascoli et al. (2017)), which 267 generate a degree of interspecific synchrony (Szymkowiak et al., 2024a). Because the functional 268 relationships between cues and reproduction differ between species (Fernández-Martínez et al., 269 ????), interspecific synchrony is lower than intraspecific and declines more steeply with distance. 270 These cue mismatches, when compounded with differences in cue timing, can explain the low 271 regional interspecific synchrony. Testing these hypotheses will require substantial effort, but it 272 offers a promising direction for research. 273

One caveat of our study is that it relies on seed harvest data, which may include noise introduced by seed demand. This likely contributes to the somewhat lower synchrony estimates

we report compared to previous studies. For example, synchrony in beech masting reaches ~ 0.8 276 at low distances and ~0.6 at 300 km in the MASTREE+ analysis by Szymkowiak et al. (2024b), 277 while corresponding values in our study are ~ 0.7 and ~ 0.4 . Similarly, our mean local-level 278 intraspecific synchrony is about half of that observed in a recent study of North American oaks 279 (LaMontagne et al., 2024). These comparisons suggest that the synchrony in seed production 280 may be higher than our estimates imply. However, patterns such as general tail dependence, the 281 contrast between coherent synchrony in failures and more heterogeneous synchrony in peaks, 282 and the limited spatial scale of interspecific synchrony compared to intraspecific synchrony, are 283 unlikely to be affected by this bias. Importantly, the taxonomic and spatial breadth of our dataset 284 remains unmatched in ecological monitoring. Synchrony estimation requires both long-term 285 time series and broad regional coverage, and only a few species, such as European beech or 286 white spruce, have sufficient coverage to support analyses at this scale (LaMontagne *et al.*, 2020; 287 Journé et al., 2024). For other species, data exist but are too fragmented in time or space to 288 permit similar analysis. Even the well-known California oak survey, a cornerstone of research 289 on masting synchrony, spans 10 sites (Koenig & Knops, 2013; Koenig et al., 2017). Thus, no 290 other dataset currently offers the same analytical scope as the one used here. 291

Our study provides a general demonstration of tail-dependent synchrony in masting across 292 multiple species, showing that regional-scale coherence is primarily structured by synchronized 293 reproductive failure rather than seed abundance. The spatial extent and consistency of failures 294 suggest that ecological impacts of seed scarcity, such as trophic bottlenecks, skipped reproduc-295 tion, and altered animal movement, may be more predictable and widespread than previously 296 appreciated. In contrast, the among-species synchrony was moderate and local, as in North 297 American forests (LaMontagne et al., 2024), and regionally low. Thus, mobile, generalist seed 298 consumers are unlikely to experience coordinated starvation-satiation cycles across temper-299 ate forests. This contrasts with tropical systems such as Southeast Asian dipterocarps, where 300 community-wide synchrony appears necessary to aid overwhelming generalist seed predators 301 (Curran & Webb, 2000; Curran & Leighton, 2000) — highlighting a potential divergence in the 302 structure and function of masting between tropical and temperate regions. Our findings also 303 carry applied implications. In failure years, the geographic extent of seed scarcity means that 304

seed collection for restoration or forestry cannot be remedied by shifting locations, highlighting 305 the need for reliable masting forecasts (Journé et al., 2023; Wion et al., 2025; Oberklammer 306 et al., 2025). Our results suggest that forecasting failures across space may be more tractable 307 than forecasting mast peaks, as failure synchrony is more spatially stable. Notably, failures 308 are already more predictable in time (Journé et al., 2023), and our findings support their ex-309 trapolation across large regions. In contrast, spatial forecasts of mast peaks should be treated 310 with caution. Finally, since seed production in mast years is highly sensitive to extreme values 311 of weather cues, masting peaks may be more vulnerable to disruption under climate warming 312 (Szymkowiak et al., 2024b), while failure synchrony is likely more robust. The generality of tail 313 dependence revealed here points to an important next step: testing how climate change alters 314 synchrony in the tails, and thus reshapes the geography of both resource pulses and shortages. 315

Materials and Methods

317 Data

Information on seed production was obtained from the Polish State Forests Masting data 318 and is based on annual harvest rates by the local forest inspectorates. This dataset provides 319 information on the amount (kg) of seeds (or cones, referred to as seeds in the text) collected in 320 each district per year. The data have been collected for silver fir (Abies alba), European beech 321 (Fagus sylvatica), European larch (Larix deciduosa), Norway spruce (Picea abies), Scots pine 322 (Pinus sylvestris), sessile oak (Quercus petraea), and pedunculate oak (Quercus robur) from 323 1987 to 2022. Before 2008, oak harvests were not reported separately by species and records 324 were therefore pooled for the entire time series. Seeds are collected from the ground or tree 325 canopies (depending on the species) by local companies on behalf of the Polish State Forest, and 326 each inspectorate has assigned seed collection sites. We obtained data for 431 districts (referred 327 to as 'sites'). For each species, we have subset the data and used only sites that had less than 328 80% of zero records, which resulted in 237 sites in beech, 384 in oaks, 380 in pine, 79 in spruce, 329 93 in fir, and 138 in larch. 330

J31 Data analysis

Intraspecific masting synchrony. We calculated distance-decay of whole-distribution seed 332 production synchrony using non-parametric spatial covariance functions (Bjørnstad & Falck, 333 2021). First, for each pair of sites for a given species, we calculated a Spearman rank correlation 334 between the (log-transformed) seed production time series. Next, we used the matrices of 335 pairwise Spearman correlations as the response (synchrony variables), explained by the matrices 336 of pairwise geographical distances between sites (Szymkowiak et al., 2024b). To calculate 337 the 95% confidence bands for each function, we used the standard bootstrapping procedure 338 (Bjørnstad & Falck, 2021). 339

Interspecific masting synchrony. We calculated interspecific seed production synchrony us-340 ing Spearman rank correlations for all pairwise species-species combinations. For each seed 341 production series of species *i*, we calculated its synchrony with all (log-transformed) seed pro-342 duction series of species *j* at all sites at which species *i* and *j* co-occurred. Next, we calculated 343 the distance-decay of interspecific masting synchrony for each pair of species. We used non-344 parametric spatial covariance functions, in which the matrix of pairwise synchrony between 345 species *i* and *j* was explained by the matrix of pairwise distances between sites (Bjørnstad & 346 Falck, 2021). 347

348 Tail-dependence in regional masting synchrony.

Categorization of masting into tails. Our framework follows that of Walter *et al.* (2022), 349 modified by Szymkowiak et al. (2024b). Masting lower tail includes annual values of seed 350 production ≤ 0.25 , while upper those > 0.25, for seed production scaled within each species-site 351 to values between 0 and 1. The categorization reflects the distribution of annual values of seed 352 production (Fig. S6). The thresholds are arbitrary in the sense that masting is not a categorical 353 variable. Nonetheless, categorization was tailored to the nature of the data, is biologically 354 justified, and allows the tail-dependence to be analyzed (Ghosh et al., 2021; Walter et al., 2022; 355 Szymkowiak et al., 2024b). 356

Intraspecific tail-dependent masting synchrony. We estimated the regional synchrony in 357 masting tails using a partial Spearman correlation, defined as the portion of the standard Spear-358 man rank correlation arising due to the range of values in the two variables being bounded by 359 tails thresholds (Walter et al., 2022). Pairwise correlations were calculated separately for the 360 lower (≤ 0.25) and upper (> 0.25) tails of the seed production time series. In cases when the 361 annual value of seed production for the two sites falls into opposite tails, that value was included 362 when calculating the partial Spearman correlation in both tails (Szymkowiak et al., 2024b). 363 Thus, if one site experienced a mast peak and the other a year of seed scarcity in the same year, 364 synchrony was reduced in both tails. We calculated pairwise correlations between all pairs of 365 sites for each model species. Note that scaling of the mast data does not affect the correlations 366 calculated via Spearman correlation, as these are calculated on ranked data. 367

We calculated distance-decay of within-tail seed production synchrony using non-parametric spatial covariance functions (Bjørnstad & Falck, 2021). We used the matrices of partial Spearman correlations within the lower and upper tails as the response (synchrony variables), explained by the matrices of pairwise geographical distances between sites (Szymkowiak *et al.*, 2024b). To calculate 95% confidence bands for each function, we used the standard bootstrapping procedure (Bjørnstad & Falck, 2021).

We mapped tail-dependence in masting over the region using generalized linear mixed models, built separately for lower and upper tail synchrony. We included within-tail synchrony scaled between 0 and 1 as a response, while the site's latitude, longitude, and their interaction were included as fixed effects. We fitted the model with the Tweedie distribution and logit link function, and included site ID as a random intercept.

Interspecific tail-dependent masting synchrony. We used partial Spearman correlations to calculate interspecific synchrony of seed production in lower (≤ 0.25) and upper (> 0.25) tails between all pairs of species (Walter *et al.*, 2022). We calculated pairwise correlations in tails between the seed production series of species *i* and *j* at all sites at which both species co-occurred. Next, we used non-parametric spatial covariance functions to calculate the distance-decay of seed production synchrony for each species pair, separately for the lower and upper tails. We included the pairwise within-tail correlation matrices as the response and the pairwise matrices ³⁸⁶ of between-site geographical distances as the explanatory matrices.

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395 Author Contributions Statement

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

399

400 Declaration of interests

⁴⁰¹ No competing interests to declare.

402

Data availability statement

⁴⁰⁴ The data supporting the results will be archived in a permanent repository upon acceptance.

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Supporting Information

- 590 Title
- 591
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Figure S1: Tail-dependence in masting synchrony in the species studied. The panels show relationships between site-level mean synchrony of seed production in the lower and upper tail in (A) Silver fir, (B) European larch, (C) Norway spruce, and (D) oaks, with point size scaled according to tail dependence strength (difference between mean synchrony in the upper and lower tail).





Points show sites with point size scaled according to the site-level mean synchrony of seed production in the lower and upper tails. The color gradient shows the spatial trend of seed production synchrony in a given tail, estimated based on a GLMM model (see Table S1 for model summary).



Figure S3: Maps of masting synchrony in *Abies alba,Larix decidua*, and *Picea abies* **spp.** Points show sites with point size scaled according to the site-level mean synchrony of seed production in the lower and upper tails. The color gradient illustrates the spatial trend of seed production synchrony in a given tail, estimated using a GLMM model (see Table S1 for model summary).



Figure S4: Local among-species masting synchrony. Density plots show the distributions of within-site synchrony, based on Spearman correlations, between all possible pairs of studied species. Vertical dashed lines indicate zeros, while the solid lines indicate pair-level mean synchrony.



Figure S5: Distance dependence of regional among-species masting synchrony for each species pair in lower and upper tails, based on partial Spearman correlation. The synchrony is based on annual (1987-2022) observations of seed production across 431 sites, but the specific number of sites per species varies due to range differences (see Methods).



Figure S6: Categorization of masting into tails. Distribution of annual seed production values scaled within each site to fall between 0 and 1. The vertical solid lines show the categorization of masting into lower (left) and upper (right) tails.

Table S1: Spatial gradients of tail-dependent masting synchrony. The results of generalized linear mixed models testing for spatial trends of seed production synchrony in the lower and upper tails in the studied species. The models included within-tail pairwise synchrony of masting scaled between 0 and 1 as a response, while the site's spatial coordinates and their interaction were fitted as fixed effects. We fitted the models with the Tweedie distribution and logit link function, including site ID as a random intercept. Results are visualized in Fig. 2, Fig. S2, and Fig. S3.

Model term	Lower tail			Upper tail		
	Chisq	d.f.	р	Chisq	d.f.	р
Fagus sylvatica						
Latitude	36.88	1	< 0.001	57.66	1	< 0.001
Longitude	11.17	1	< 0.001	14.55	1	< 0.001
Latitude x Longitude	11.67	1	< 0.001	0.65	1	0.421
Quercus spp.						
Latitude	21.04	1	< 0.001	2.89	1	0.089
Longitude	6.60	1	0.01	15.66	1	< 0.001
Latitude x Longitude	7.50	1	0.006	15.12	1	< 0.001
Pinus sylvestris						
Latitude	2.02	1	0.155	3.45	1	0.063
Longitude	28.49	1	< 0.001	1.05	1	0.306
Latitude x Longitude	0.25	1	0.620	0.48	1	0.487
Abies alba						
Latitude	3.86	1	0.049	23.68	1	< 0.001
Longitude	0.001	1	0.975	1.07	1	0.300
Latitude x Longitude	19.10	1	< 0.001	3.34	1	0.068
Larix decidua						
Latitude	1.18	1	0.278	0.15	1	0.697
Longitude	3.66	1	0.056	8.08	1	0.004
Latitude x Longitude	0.83	1	0.362	2.30	1	0.130
Picea abies						
Latitude	4.10	1	0.043	8.75	1	0.003
Longitude	13.27	1	< 0.001	4.55	1	0.033
Latitude x Longitude	3.27	1	0.071	7.52	1	0.006