

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

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24  
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## Abstract

Reproduction is vital for forest resilience under climate change, enabling tree populations to recover from disturbances and migrate. Yet projections of habitat suitability often overlook seed production. For European beech (*Fagus sylvatica*), viable seed production depends on year-to-year variability and synchrony in reproduction (masting). Using data from 341 sites (mean record: 31.7 years), we show that, especially in colder sites, increased frequency of the main reproductive cue is linked to strong declines in masting (CVp decline up to ~54%). This suggests that high latitudes and elevations offer no refuge, countering common assumptions and trends in other demographic processes. Severe disruptions to masting are projected to become the norm, with the greatest reductions (up to ~83%) at colder margins. Masting disruption may threaten forest regeneration and have far-reaching ecological impacts. Monitoring recruitment and testing adaptive forest management in vulnerable areas will be essential to mitigate reproductive constraints on forest resilience.

## Introduction

Under climate change, forests and their carbon sequestering services have become vital in global policies (Steffen *et al.*, 2015; Rockström *et al.*, 2024; Norby *et al.*, 2024). Consequently, the impacts of climate change on forest ecosystems have attracted significant attention, highlighting accelerated disturbance rates, increased mortality, and altered growth patterns (Allen *et al.*, 2010; Bennett *et al.*, 2015; Senf *et al.*, 2018; Forzieri *et al.*, 2022; Hartmann *et al.*, 2022). These efforts have advanced our understanding of how changing climates alter forest dynamics (McDowell *et al.*, 2020; Luysaert *et al.*, 2018; Chakraborty *et al.*, 2024). However, due to logistical challenges in measuring seed production over sufficient timescales, the reproductive capacity of trees in response to climate change remains comparatively understudied (Clark *et al.*, 2021; Bogdziewicz, 2022). Yet, tree reproduction underpins the persistence and resilience of forest ecosystems (Davis *et al.*, 2019; Sharma *et al.*, 2022).

Current range projections under a changing climate are typically based on climate suitability for adult trees, neglecting whether new climates allow successful reproduction (Bykova *et al.*, 2012; Dyderski *et al.*, 2025; Chakraborty *et al.*, 2021). Seed availability is essential for the resilience and regeneration of existing forests, as well as to support their migration in response to climate change (Caspersen & Saprunoff, 2005; Morin *et al.*, 2008; Kroiss & HilleRisLambers, 2015; Sharma *et al.*, 2022). All these processes depend on successful reproduction and collectively determine the nature of future forests (Seidl *et al.*, 2022). Therefore, integrating reproductive dynamics into climate-based forest management strategies is essential to ensure the sustainability of forest ecosystems (Hanbury-Brown *et al.*, 2022).

Importantly, for most temperate tree species, viable seed supply (here, pollinated and unpredated seeds) is not a simple function of total seed production (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2024b). Instead, viable seed production is linked to how variable total seed production is over time. This year-to-year variability, known as masting, is a common reproductive strategy in temperate and boreal forest trees (Pearse *et al.*, 2020; Journé *et al.*, 2023; Qiu

61 *et al.*, 2023). Masting involves the production of large seed crops at irregular, multi-year intervals, synchronised  
62 across individuals and populations (Kelly, 1994; Pearse *et al.*, 2016). Masting enhances pollination efficiency and  
63 reduces pre-dispersal seed predation, thereby increasing the chances of successful seedling establishment (Rapp  
64 *et al.*, 2013; Zwolak *et al.*, 2022; Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2024a). While regeneration also depends on subsequent  
65 factors such as dispersal, establishment, and survival, understanding how masting is changing under climate change  
66 is an essential first step in anticipating reproductive constraints on forest resilience (Hackett-Pain & Bogdziewicz,  
67 2021).

68 Weather variation plays a central role in driving masting (Pearse *et al.*, 2016, 2017). This occurs via weather  
69 cues that regulate and synchronise year-to-year variation in reproduction (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2024b). Changes  
70 in temperature and precipitation regimes can alter the frequency of cues, thereby dampening variability and  
71 desynchronising reproductive effort (Hackett-Pain & Bogdziewicz, 2021; Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2024b). This reduces  
72 the efficiency benefits derived from masting, leading to substantially decreased reproductive success (detailed in  
73 Box 1) (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2024b). Therefore, understanding masting drivers can help identify regions at risk of  
74 declining viable seed production and subsequent recruitment failure, enabling management actions and guiding  
75 research to develop solutions.

76 Advances in understanding masting mechanisms have identified drivers and consequences of its disruption  
77 under climate change (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2024b). However, these studies are limited due to the logistical challenges  
78 of monitoring seed production over decades (Shibata *et al.*, 2020; Clark *et al.*, 2021; LaMontagne *et al.*, 2021; Wion  
79 *et al.*, 2025). Long-term research on European beech (*Fagus sylvatica*) in England has revealed that increasing  
80 summer temperatures lead to reduced inter-annual variation and synchrony in seed production, and ultimately to ~  
81 66% reduction in viable seed supply (Box 1). European beech is an important forest-forming species in Europe,  
82 providing numerous ecosystem services and serving as the continent's third-largest forest carbon sink (Leuschner,  
83 2020; Chakraborty *et al.*, 2024). The growth of beech is declining under warming and drying conditions (del  
84 Castillo *et al.*, 2022; Klesse *et al.*, 2024). Nevertheless, beech is considered a potential "winner" of climate change,  
85 as projections suggest relatively small range contractions compared to other major forest-forming species, with the  
86 potential for colonisation eastward and northward (Dyderski *et al.*, 2025; Hanewinkel *et al.*, 2013; Schueler *et al.*,  
87 2014). However, these forecasts overlook the risks associated with the effects on beech reproduction.

88 Recent work has shown that masting is cued by temperature anomalies whose frequency varies across climate  
89 gradients, raising the possibility that populations are locally adapted to the historical frequency of these cues  
90 (Journé *et al.*, 2024; Foest *et al.*, 2024). This idea aligns with broader phenological theory, which predicts that  
91 organisms should evolve sensitivity to environmental cues that match their local environment (Chevin *et al.*, 2010;  
92 Gienapp *et al.*, 2013). In the case of European beech masting, summer temperature anomalies after the summer  
93 solstice function as the strongest reproductive cue (Journé *et al.*, 2024; Journé *et al.*, 2023), but cueing can vary  
94 spatially due to differences in mean climate conditions. In colder sites, where warm summers are relatively rare,  
95 selection may favour stronger responsiveness. Conversely, in warmer regions where such cues are more common,

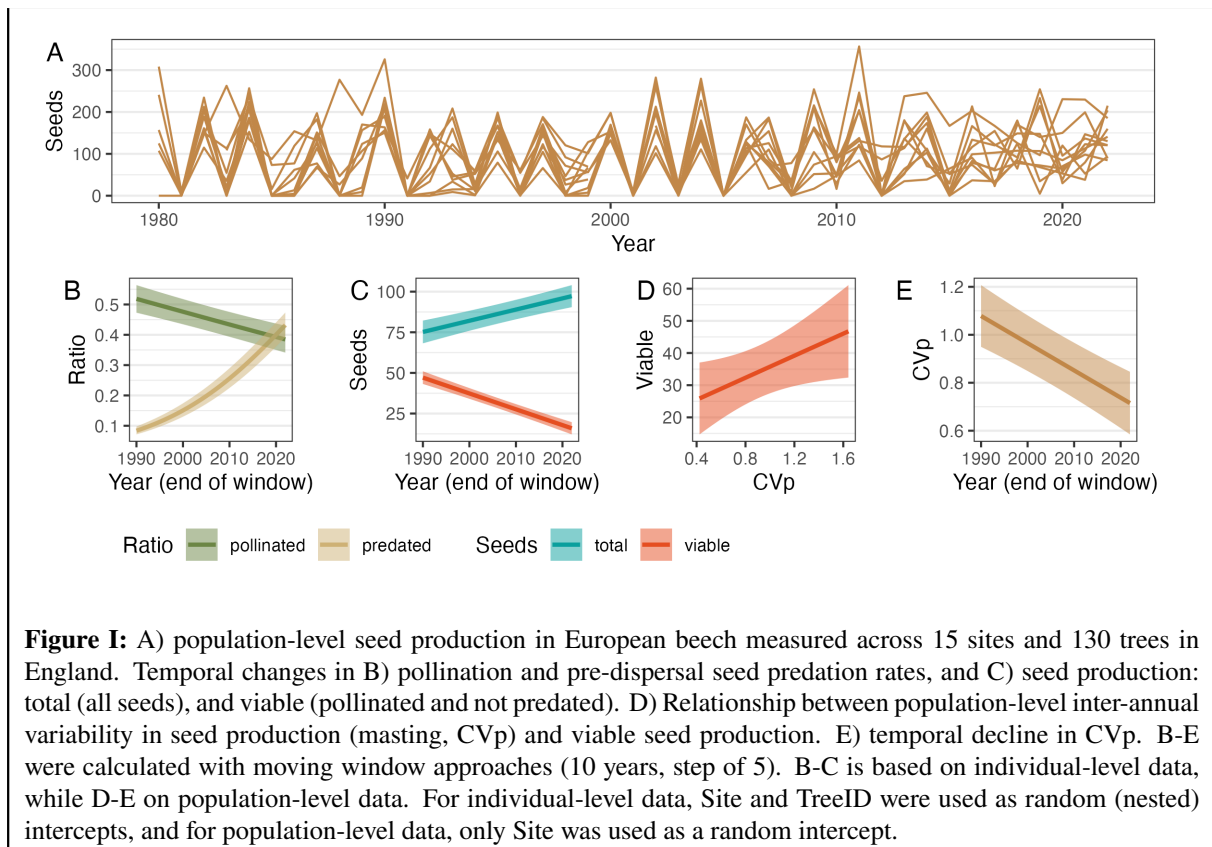
**Box 1: Declining inter-annual variation (CV<sub>p</sub>) in masting leads to a strong decline in viable seed supply.**

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 (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2020). Combined, this results in a decline in population-level inter-annual variation in masting (CV<sub>p</sub>) (Koenig *et al.*, 2003; Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2020), with severe consequences for viable seed production (Fig. IB-D; see Note S1: Methodology).

**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 (Vacchiano *et al.*, 2017; Journé *et al.*, 2024). 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 (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2021). Trees are now experiencing shorter intervals between the environmental signals triggering large reproductive efforts. This depletes tree resources (Kelly *et al.*, 2025; Hackett-Pain *et al.*, 2025), leading to a diminished response to cues and greater variability in individual tree responses (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2021). The result is less pronounced inter-annual variation and reduced seed production synchrony (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2021).

**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 (Zwolak *et al.*, 2022). 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) (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2020). Secondly, it results in a **decline in pollination efficiency**. Synchronised mass flowering enhances cross-pollination among trees (Kelly *et al.*, 2001; Rapp *et al.*, 2013). 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) (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2020).

The combined impact of increased seed predation and decreased pollination efficiency results in a ~66% reduction in viable seed supply (Fig. I) (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2020, 2023). Importantly, at the population level, years of peak seed production correspond to pulses of seedling recruitment (Jensen, 1985; Maringer *et al.*, 2020), 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 (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2024a).



96 selection may favour higher cue thresholds or reduced sensitivity to avoid excessive reproductive effort and resource  
 97 depletion (Hackett-Pain *et al.*, 2025; Kelly *et al.*, 2025). Congruently, some recent studies suggest a potential local  
 98 adjustment of cue responsiveness. For instance, the timing of cue sensitivity is anchored to photoperiod, yet  
 99 populations are triggered by different summer temperatures (Journé *et al.*, 2024). Moreover, while masting is  
 100 responsive to temporal changes in summer temperatures, population-level masting is similar across regions with  
 101 contrasting climates (Foest *et al.*, 2024). Spatial variation in masting–climate relationships, observed in species  
 102 such as *Fagus crenata* and *Pinus edulis*, aligns with this interpretation (Kon *et al.*, 2005; Wion *et al.*, 2020). If  
 103 local adaptation occurs, rapid summer warming could increase cue frequency most dramatically in cold-adapted  
 104 populations, pushing them outside their evolved response range. This could lead to overstimulation and a subsequent  
 105 breakdown of synchronised mast seeding (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2021; Hackett-Pain *et al.*, 2025; Kelly *et al.*, 2025).  
 106 In warmer populations, adapted to more frequent cueing, such disruption may be weaker or absent. This framework  
 107 predicts an interaction between local climate and warming rate, where masting would decline most severely in  
 108 colder regions under rapid summer warming.

109 Here, we analysed an unprecedented dataset of annual seed production from European beech across Poland,  
 110 covering 341 sites monitored for over 30 years (1988–2020). The dataset is based on harvest records. Harvests  
 111 track planting demand and inventory: they are lower in low-planting years or when stocks are full. Since beech  
 112 seeds store poorly, stock carryover is short, prompting frequent collection and higher demand. The annual demand  
 113 (kg of seeds) was recorded, and we can therefore separate effort from production. This makes harvest records one

114 of the few long-term indicators of reproduction across European forests. Building on previous research suggesting  
115 that warming summer temperatures disrupt masting behaviour (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2021; Foest *et al.*, 2024), we  
116 expected that increasing temperatures would be associated with a decline in inter-annual variation in masting  
117 (measured as the coefficient of variation, CV<sub>p</sub>) and a reduction in synchrony among populations. Moreover, we  
118 hypothesised that the sensitivity of CV<sub>p</sub> to summer warming would vary with historic climate. In contrast to  
119 previous studies on the effects of climate change on European beech masting, our extensive and unified sampling  
120 enabled us to establish a quantitative link between masting trends and summer temperatures across large climatic  
121 gradients, while also examining how these relationships vary across space. As a next step, we predicted how the  
122 observed pace of warming translates into masting changes throughout the species range. Furthermore, we projected  
123 future masting dynamics under the intermediate (RCP4.5) and more pessimistic (SSP2.45) IPCC climate scenarios.

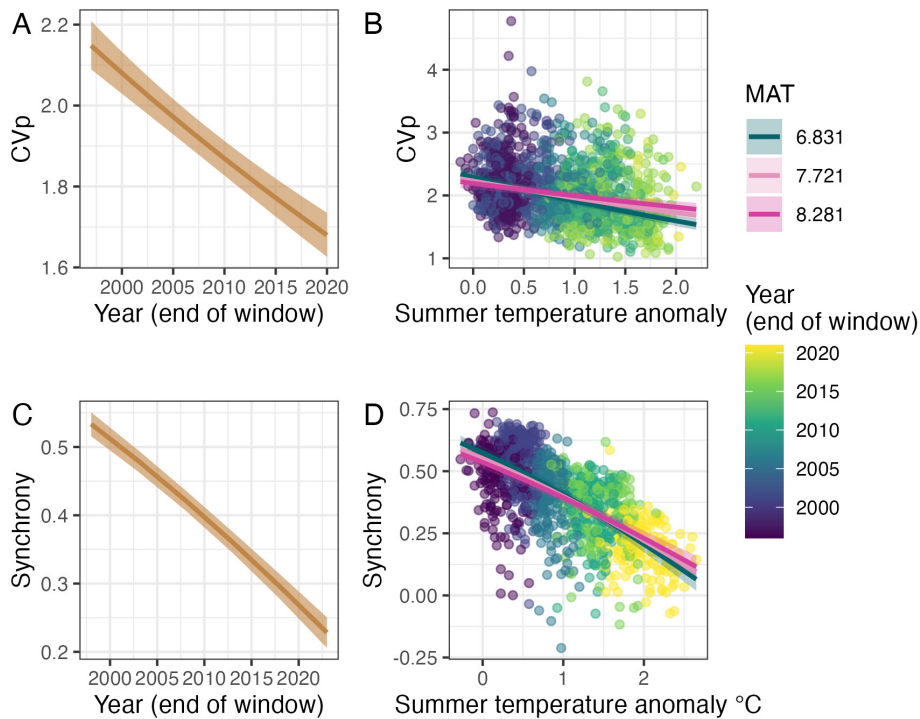
## 124 **Results**

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

130 Other seed production patterns revealed that this decrease in CV<sub>p</sub> was the result of decreased variability, not  
131 increasing mean seed crop size. That is, the long-term mean seed production (smoothed data;  $p = 0.06$ ) as well as  
132 the annual seed crop size (yearly fluctuations) showed negative ( $p = 0.24$ ), yet statistically insignificant trends. We  
133 did observe an increase in seed 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 CV<sub>p</sub> was associated with rising summer (June–July) temperatures, with an estimated average  
135 decline of 0.27 per 1°C at mean seed demand and MAT levels (SEM = 0.002,  $p > 0.001$ , Fig. 1B). The interaction  
136 between summer temperature and MAT was significant, with a larger sensitivity of CV<sub>p</sub> to summer temperatures  
137 in colder sites ( $p < 0.001$ ). At average MAT levels (7.57 °C), a summer temperature increase of 2.20°C above the  
138 baseline period (1960 - 1979) led to a CV<sub>p</sub> decline of 25.98% relative to its estimated baseline value (i.e. CV<sub>p</sub>  
139 when the summer temperature anomaly is zero). In colder sites (10th percentile of MAT = 6.83°C), this decrease  
140 was 32.74%, whereas it was 18.82% in warmer sites (90th percentile of MAT = 8.28 °C) for the same level of  
141 summer warming. The temporal decline in masting (i.e. slopes of  $\ln(\text{CV}_p)$  over time) was also associated with  
142 local baseline climate, i.e., at lower MAT, the decline was stronger (MAT,  $p = 0.01$ ), and the temporal slopes did  
143 not vary with mean annual precipitation (MAP,  $p = 0.32$ ). Congruently, temporal CV<sub>p</sub> declines tended to be larger  
144 at higher elevations ( $p < 0.001$ ).

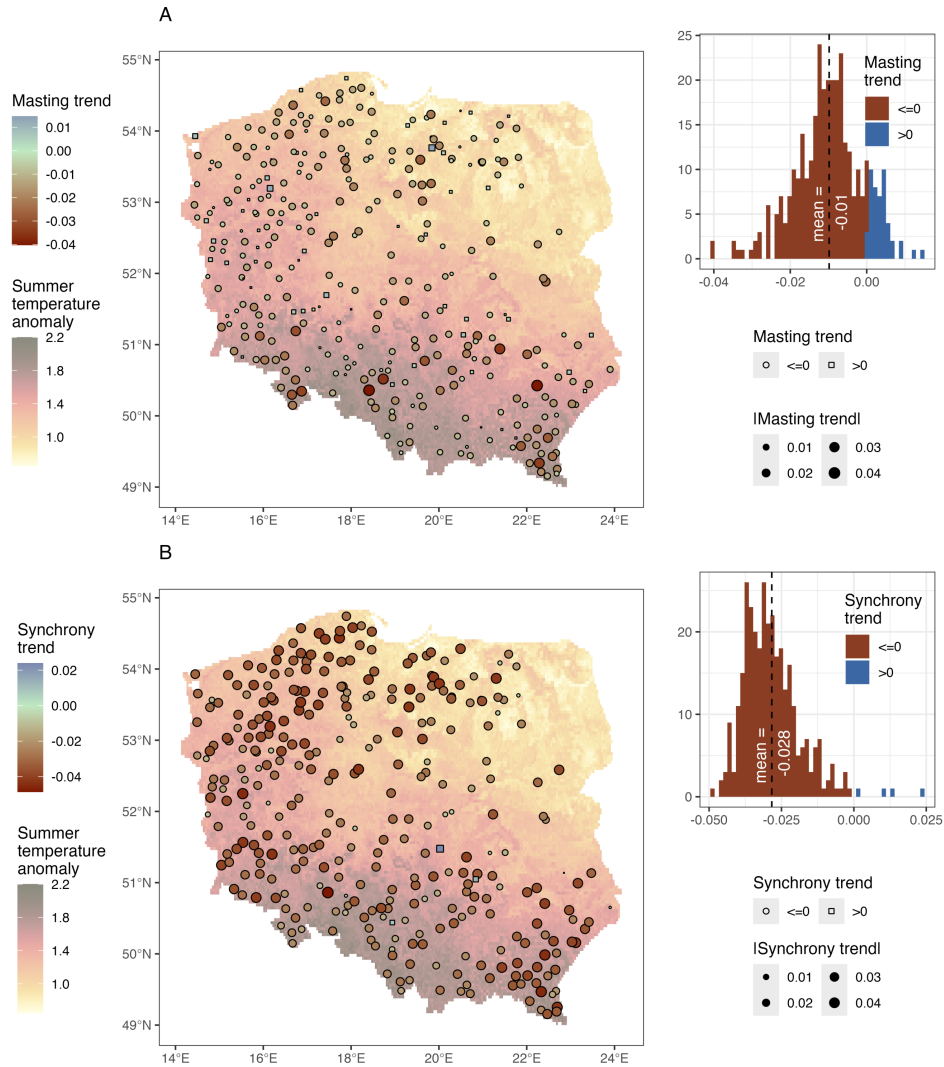
145 The temporal decline in among-site synchrony of masting, calculated as mean cross-correlation of a site with  
146 all other sites in the dataset, was of an even greater magnitude: a 57.24% decline from 0.53 (95% CI = 0.52 –



**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.

147 0.55) in the earliest decade to 0.23 (95% CI = 0.21 - 0.25) (Fig. 1C) to the most recent decade. We observed an  
 148 average annual decrease in synchrony of  $-0.01 \pm 2.02 \times 10^{-4}$  SEM ( $p < 0.001$ ). Synchrony declines over time were  
 149 observed in all but a few sites (Fig. 2B).

150 As in the case of CVp, the decline in synchrony was associated with rising summer temperatures, and the  
 151 effect of summer temperatures on synchrony depended on MAT ( $p = 0.03$ ; 1B). Synchrony declined on average by  
 152  $-0.17$  per  $1^\circ\text{C}$  for mean levels of demand and MAT ( $\pm 0.002$  SEM,  $p < 0.001$ ; Fig. 1D). For the warmest summer  
 153 temperature anomalies ( $2.65^\circ\text{C}$ ) at mean MAT levels, almost complete desynchronisation (mean synchrony = 0.09,  
 154 CI = 0.06 - 0.12) was observed, translating into a 84.09% decline compared to baseline (i.e. anomaly of zero) (Fig.  
 155 1D). In cold sites (10th percentile MAT), this decline was stronger (90.23%) than in warm sites (90th percentile  
 156 MAT), where it was 78.20%.



**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.

157 **Near-ubiquitous disruptions in masting across the species range.** Based on 1) summer tem-  
158 perature trends across the European beech range, and 2) the identified interaction between MAT and summer  
159 temperatures on CVp, we projected zones at risk of masting disruption (i.e., CVp change) under both contemporary  
160 and future climate scenarios (Fig. 3).

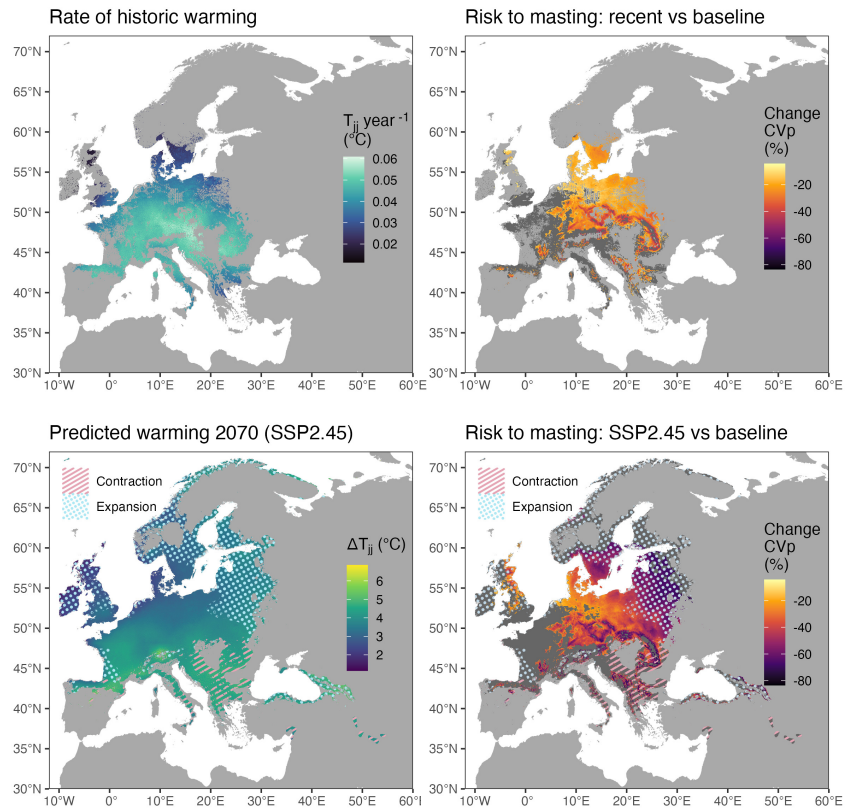
161 The risk of masting disruption is extensive, reflecting widespread recent summer warming. The high-elevation  
162 sites in the southern-central belt of the species range are at the highest risk (-30 – -54 % CVp; ~20% of grid  
163 cell predictions) due to strong temperature increases, and colder mean annual climates. Regions with a projected  
164 20–30% decrease in CVp (36% of grid cells), are scattered across the range. Relatively safer zones which are still  
165 associated with a projected -4—20% decrease in CVp (44% of grid cells), have been predominantly concentrated  
166 in the northern regions of the distribution during the recent past (Fig. 3). No grid cells show projected increases in  
167 CVp.

168 In 2070, according to the RCP4.5 and SSP2.45 projections, the summer temperatures will be higher by >3°C  
169 compared to the baseline across the species range (range RCP 4.5: 1.29–4.84 °C, range SSP2.4: 1.14–6.83 °C). As  
170 is evident from Fig. 3 and Fig.S2, the regions where beech is projected to expand its range (dotted regions) overlap  
171 with regions of high risk of masting disruptions. For the RCP4.5 and SSP2.45 scenarios, 74.70% and 80.87% of  
172 grid cells show decreases of  $\geq 30\%$ , respectively.

## 173 Discussion

174 Using a spatio-temporally extensive dataset, we show that masting in European beech has decreased over time in  
175 response to rising summer temperatures, and that colder sites experience the strongest declines. Our projections  
176 suggest the most pronounced CVp declines are currently concentrated in the mountainous regions across the  
177 species' distribution range. In both the RCP4.5 and SSP2.45 climate change projections — the 'intermediate'  
178 climate change scenarios by the IPCC (Tebaldi *et al.*, 2021) — the entire species range and projected future range  
179 would face a high risk of large reductions in masting, particularly in the north. Therefore, the reproductive strategy  
180 of this key forest-forming species appears extensively compromised by climate change, posing risks to its long-term  
181 persistence and migration ability.

182 The observed decrease of 21.81% in the inter-annual variation of seed production and 57.24% in seed production  
183 synchrony in European beech in Poland over the past three decades serves as a warning of a potential decline in  
184 viable seed supply (Fig. 1, S3). Crucially, UK studies link a comparable decline in masting to a reduction in  
185 viable seed production of over 60% (Box 1) (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2020, 2023). Similarly, a recent analysis detected  
186 a general decline in masting in Europe using data from 50 sites, though without assessing spatial variation (Foest  
187 *et al.*, 2024). These findings underscore the urgent need for studies to address the knowledge gap concerning viable  
188 seed production and its effects on recruitment patterns, which may also depend on subsequent processes (e.g. seed  
189 dispersal, seedling emergence, establishment, survival) in the areas identified here as most at risk of masting decline



**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 (Dyderski *et al.*, 2018). Overlay symbols in the bottom panels show European beech range changes derived from (Dyderski *et al.*, 2025), 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.

190 (Ibanez *et al.*, 2007; Conlisk *et al.*, 2017; Davis *et al.*, 2023). While immediate impacts of masting disruption on  
191 seedling recruitment may be limited, chronic strain on viable seed supply could ultimately alter forest composition  
192 and continuity (Crone, 2001; Ashman *et al.*, 2004). Integrating early warning signals from seed production records  
193 with forest health monitoring - e.g., (Lambers *et al.*, 2002; Rhoades *et al.*, 2024; Astigarraga *et al.*, 2024) - offers a  
194 proactive approach to mitigating future regeneration risks.

195 Our projections of masting dynamics under the IPCC (EmissionsGapReport, 2023) climate scenarios —  
196 RCP4.5 and SSP2.45 for 2070 (2061–2080), with mean warming of +3.3°C and +3.7°C across the current range,  
197 respectively — suggest an uncertain future, with a strong reductions in masting projected across Europe, particularly  
198 at the cold margins. Importantly, this highlights a substantial risk to long-term persistence in beech populations  
199 previously deemed climate change-resilient based on tree growth and species distribution modelling (Klesse *et al.*,  
200 2024; del Castillo *et al.*, 2022; Vacek *et al.*, 2023; Dyderski *et al.*, 2025; Wessely *et al.*, 2024). While the effects of  
201 drought on beech growth and mortality may be buffered in cool sites (Klesse *et al.*, 2024), disruptions to masting  
202 are driven by local warming rates, and exacerbated in colder sites. Our findings indicate that the identification of  
203 these forests as "winners" under climate change may be premature.

204 However, our temporal CVp projections assume that European beech responses to summer temperature cues  
205 and historic mean annual temperatures will remain fixed over time; an assumption that may not hold. This is  
206 particularly relevant given our findings, together with recent empirical work (Journé *et al.*, 2024; Foest *et al.*,  
207 2024), support the hypothesis of local adjustment of cue sensitivities. That is, the “optimal” summer temperature  
208 for triggering masting varies according to local conditions, such as the observed interaction with mean annual  
209 temperature. If local adaptation underlies the observed spatial variation in sensitivity, assisted migration (relocating  
210 populations from warmer regions) could help mitigate masting breakdown under climate change (Chakraborty *et al.*,  
211 2024). Alternatively, if these differences reflect acclimation during early life stages, trees reaching reproductive  
212 maturity after 2060, having developed under warmer conditions, might be partially buffered against reproductive  
213 failure. Further research is needed to evaluate the potential for both adaptation and acclimation to shifting  
214 regimes of environmental cues regulating masting. Moreover, forecasting under climate change inevitably requires  
215 extrapolation, and therefore additional uncertainty. Given the spatially consistent mechanism of beech reproduction  
216 cueing summer temperatures anchored to the solstice (Journé *et al.*, 2024), we consider these projections biologically  
217 grounded. Nonetheless, it remains an open question if current masting–climate relationships hold under continued  
218 warming.

219 The interaction we observe between local climate and summer temperature anomalies, where masting declines  
220 are steepest in colder sites, appear to align with a broader principle: that populations are often locally adapted  
221 to the historical frequency or predictability of key environmental cues (Chevin *et al.*, 2010; Stemkovski *et al.*,  
222 2025). Accordingly, populations’ climate-change sensitivity often depends on local climatic history (Chevin *et al.*,  
223 2010), a pattern increasingly documented across systems. For example, in the tundra cushion plant (*Silene acaulis*),  
224 populations from colder sites begin to experience growth declines under warming at lower temperature thresholds

225 than those from warmer sites (Peterson *et al.*, 2018). Similarly, common poppy (*Papaver rhoeas*) populations from  
226 historically unpredictable rainfall regimes evolved greater drought resilience than those from more stable climates  
227 (Springer *et al.*, 2023). Reef-building corals from historically heat-stressed regions bleached less under subsequent  
228 warming than those from thermally stable areas (Thompson & van Woesik, 2009). Our finding of stronger masting  
229 declines in colder regions thus illustrates a vulnerability: cold-adapted populations may be especially sensitive to  
230 rapid shifts in cue frequency, especially when those shifts outpace the potential for adaptive or plastic responses.

231 Disruptions in masting have significant ecological and practical implications at both local and regional scales.  
232 At the population level, the reduction in CVp likely reflects a combination of diminished inter-annual variability at  
233 the tree level (CVi) and reduced synchronisation among individual trees (Box 1) (Koenig *et al.*, 2003; Bogdziewicz  
234 *et al.*, 2020). These localised changes may affect less mobile seed predators, such as insects, by disrupting their food  
235 supply dynamics and increasing seed predation rates (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2020). This aligns with our observation  
236 that more seeds are produced during low-seeding years, which could prevent seed consumers from experiencing food  
237 shortages. Additionally, since masting triggers cascading effects across the food webs, altering animal community  
238 dynamics and behaviour, changes in masting likely have far-reaching ecological consequences (Bogdziewicz *et al.*,  
239 2024b). Decreased CVp also decreases pollination efficiency (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2020). At the regional level,  
240 decreased masting synchrony has at least three implications. First, large-scale synchrony helps satiating mobile  
241 seed consumers, such as wild boar, by overwhelming their capacity to consume seeds during mast years (Curran  
242 & Webb, 2000; Curran & Leighton, 2000; Ascoli *et al.*, 2021). When synchrony between nearby populations  
243 declines, these consumers can shift between forest patches with available mast, intensifying seed predation and  
244 limiting recruitment (Curran & Leighton, 2000; Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2022). Second, regional synchrony decline can  
245 disrupt food webs and animal migration patterns shaped by synchronised pulses of seed availability (Widick *et al.*,  
246 2025; Szymkowiak & Thomson, 2019; Woodman *et al.*, 2025). Finally, reduced regional synchronisation affects  
247 the supply and demand of seeds for forest nurseries. Forest nurseries rely on seed harvests for reforestation and  
248 restoration projects (Fargione *et al.*, 2021). A decline of viable seed production may lead to shortages, increasing  
249 the cost and logistical challenges of seed collection whilst reducing the availability of genetically diverse material  
250 for planting (Pearse *et al.*, 2021).

251 Our projections of masting changes across the species range are based on summer temperature trends and the  
252 associated shifts in cue frequency that trigger flowering (Box 1). Long-term studies of snow tussocks (*Chionochloa*  
253 *pallens*) and European beech indicate that resource reserves interact with cue frequency to drive masting (Kelly *et al.*,  
254 2025). Specifically, when resource levels are high, even weak temperature cues trigger substantial reproductive  
255 effort, but when resources are depleted, flowering is suppressed despite strong cues (Miyazaki *et al.*, 2014; Kelly  
256 *et al.*, 2025). Rising global temperatures lead to more frequent cues, which in turn causes repeated resource  
257 depletion (Hackett-Pain *et al.*, 2025). Consequently, plants tend to flower more regularly but produce smaller seed  
258 crops, leading to lower CVp (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2021; Kelly *et al.*, 2025). The impact of altered cue frequency  
259 can therefore be modulated by site conditions and resource intake capabilities, though the direction of this effect

260 remains uncertain. For example, limited resource intake may sustain low reproductive outputs despite frequent  
261 strong cues, delaying masting disruption, whereas rapid resource replenishment could lead to more regular seed  
262 production and increased vulnerability to disruption. This interaction may produce more patchy masting responses  
263 to increased cue frequency than those shown in Fig. 3, which predicts the mean decline in masting at the regional  
264 scale.

265 The ecological importance of declines in the CVp hinges on two assumptions: that reduced CVp translates to  
266 a lower viable seed supply, and that seed supply is a driver of regeneration. Although this study does not directly  
267 address these links, a substantial body of evidence indicates that viable seed production is strongly tied to masting  
268 variation, and that seed production is closely associated with individual fitness (Moran & Clark, 2012; Clark  
269 *et al.*, 2021; Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2024a), with persistent supply disruptions leading to recruitment limitation (Clark  
270 *et al.*, 1999; Ashman *et al.*, 2004; Clark *et al.*, 2004; Ohse *et al.*, 2023). Moreover, harvest data from the Polish  
271 State Forest provided rare spatio-temporal coverage to assess climate–masting links, but its dependence on harvest  
272 demand introduces non-biological signals. We incorporated annual demand in our models, to correct for fluctuating  
273 sampling effort. The congruence between the climate-masting links observed here and in other studies of disrupted  
274 masting (Bogdziewicz *et al.*, 2021; Foest *et al.*, 2024) further suggests robustness of the results. Furthermore, our  
275 data do not cover the entire climatic space of the species range; while we sample large parts of the core climatic  
276 distribution, populations in very warm and wet sites remain under-represented and should be targeted in future  
277 research.

278 Our study establishes that rising summer temperatures are linked to a strong decline in inter-annual variation  
279 of seed production and regional synchrony in European beech, especially at the colder margins. These shifts in  
280 reproductive dynamics have consequences for forest regeneration by potentially reducing seedling recruitment,  
281 altering seed predator cycles, and disrupting pollination processes. Projections based on current trends suggest that  
282 declines will occur across the species range, increasing the risk of seed supply shortages to the extent that CVp  
283 declines lead to higher predation and lower pollination, and triggering cascading effects on the ecosystem (Touzot  
284 *et al.*, 2020; Bisi *et al.*, 2018; Tattoni *et al.*, 2021). Additionally, the stronger masting declines at cold edges challenge  
285 the idea of refugia at higher latitudes and elevations. At the same time, considerable variation around our model  
286 predictions suggests that some sites may be less affected than others, offering scope for targeted management. More  
287 broadly, our findings highlight the need to enhance monitoring of regeneration factors influencing forest resilience.  
288 Expanding and sustaining long-term seed and recruitment monitoring networks to understand seed supply effects  
289 on recruitment, and assessing the potential for local adaptation and acclimation, appear as important next steps.

## 290 **Materials and Methods**

### 291 **Studied species**

292 European beech is a major forest-forming species in temperate Europe, with high economic and ecological im-  
293 portance (Leuschner & Ellenberg, 2017). Its main range extends from southern Italy and northern Spain towards  
294 southern Sweden and from Great Britain to Bulgaria, up to 2000 m a.s.l. elevation. Beech is a model masting  
295 species, with seed production characterised by large inter-annual variation and synchrony (Nilsson & Wastljung,  
296 1987; Mund *et al.*, 2020). High flower production is positively correlated with temperatures in summer across the  
297 whole species range, as the period of sensitivity is anchored to the longest day of the year, the summer solstice  
298 (Journé *et al.*, 2024). High seed production is negatively correlated with growth (Hacket-Pain *et al.*, 2018). Masting  
299 disruption, i.e. the decline in inter-annual variation and synchrony of seed production is described in Box 1. The  
300 decline in CVp, increased regularity of reproduction, and resulting persistent resource depletion caused by warming  
301 has led to a decline in growth rate in European beech (Hacket-Pain *et al.*, 2025).

### 302 **Data**

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

313 **Climate, elevation, and species range data** Historical monthly climate data (maximum and minimum  
314 temperature, precipitation sum, 2.5 minute resolution) were obtained from WorldClim v. 2.1 (Fick & Hijmans,  
315 2017). These were used to calculate summer (June-July) temperature anomalies, and average climate (mean annual  
316 temperature [MAT], mean annual precipitation [MAP]). We define the baseline climate as the 1960–1979 period,  
317 which we use both as the reference for calculating anomalies and to estimate long-term mean site conditions.  
318 The summer temperature anomalies were calculated by subtracting the site-level mean of maximum June-July  
319 temperatures during the baseline period from the mean maximum June-July temperature in a focal year. MAT  
320 estimates were obtained by taking the average of the monthly maximum and minimum temperatures for each  
321 year between 1960-1979, and then taking an average. Similarly, MAP was obtained by summing the monthly

322 precipitation, and taking the average of these during 1960-1979. Elevation data, derived from SRTM, were  
323 obtained via WorldClim v. 2.1 (Fick & Hijmans, 2017).

324 To predict masting under future climate conditions in the intermediate future (i.e. 2070, range: 2060-2080),  
325 we obtained climate change projections for the IPCC RCP 4.5 and SSP2.45 scenarios from WorldClim (v. 1.4  
326 and 2.1 respectively (Fick & Hijmans, 2017); 30 second resolution, bilinearly resampled to match historical data  
327 resolution). Following (Dyderski *et al.*, 2018), we averaged three global climate change projections of maximum  
328 June-July temperatures for each scenario, since these reflect low, moderate, and high levels of occurrence changes.  
329 The projections used for RCP 4.5 were HadGEM2-ES, IPSL-CM5A-LR, MPI-ESM-LR, and for SSP2.45 we used  
330 HadGEM3-GC31-LL, IPSL-CM6A-LR, and MPI-ESM1-2-HR. Current and predicted species ranges under the  
331 two scenarios were obtained from (Dyderski *et al.*, 2018, 2025).

## 332 **Data analysis**

333 All models were build in R (v. 4.4.1) using glmmTMB (v. 1.1.10) and validated with DHARMA (v.0.4.7) unless  
334 indicated differently (R Core Team, 2024; Brooks *et al.*, 2017; Hartig, 2024)).

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

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

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

352 **Temporal trends in reproduction** To model temporal changes in annual seed production, we constructed  
353 a Tweedie model with a log-link. Year was included as a predictor of seed harvest size, and the previous year's

354 seed harvest was added to account for negative temporal autocorrelation. We used  $\ln + 1$  transformed seed demand  
355 as an offset, and added site ID as a random intercept.

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

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

367 **Linking environmental variation to reproduction patterns** CVp and synchrony estimates were  
368 regressed against summer temperature anomalies in two models with random slopes for site ID. Summer temperature  
369 effects were allowed to vary with baseline period (1960-1979) MAT and MAP (i.e. summer temperature  $\times$  MAT  
370 + summer temperature  $\times$  MAP). Non-significant terms (MAP, MAP  $\times$  summer temperature) were removed from  
371 the final models. Scaled and centred seed demand was added as a covariate in the Gamma-family log-link model  
372 of CVp, and in the Tweedie distribution with logit-link synchrony model. To report on CVp and synchrony slopes  
373 on the back-transformed scale, we calculated the average of year-to-year differences (slopes) over temperature  
374 anomalies. To further examine the effect of mean annual climate on masting, we firstly constructed versions of  
375 the temporal models of CVp described above using random slopes for site. We then extracted these slopes, and  
376 regressed them against baseline MAT and MAP in a Gaussian model. We ran another Gaussian model regressing  
377 these slopes against elevation.

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

384 Using summer temperature anomalies and baseline MAT, we predicted CVp across the species' range, applying  
385 the previously described model relating CVp to summer temperature anomalies and climate, whilst restricting  
386 predictions to areas with MAT within the sampled range. We then estimated baseline CVp (summer temperature  
387 anomaly = 0) and calculated the percentage change in CVp for each scenario relative to this baseline.

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### 399 **Declaration of interests**

400 No competing interests to declare.

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636 **Supporting Information**

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

639

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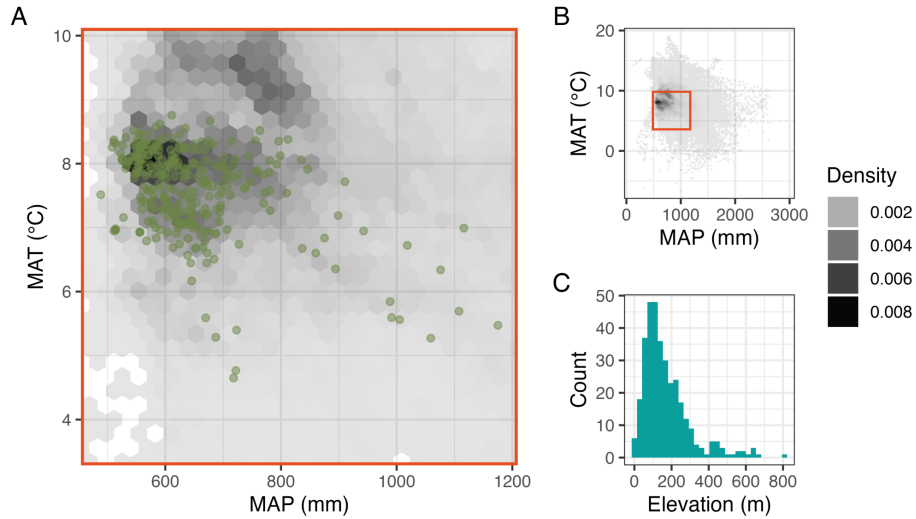
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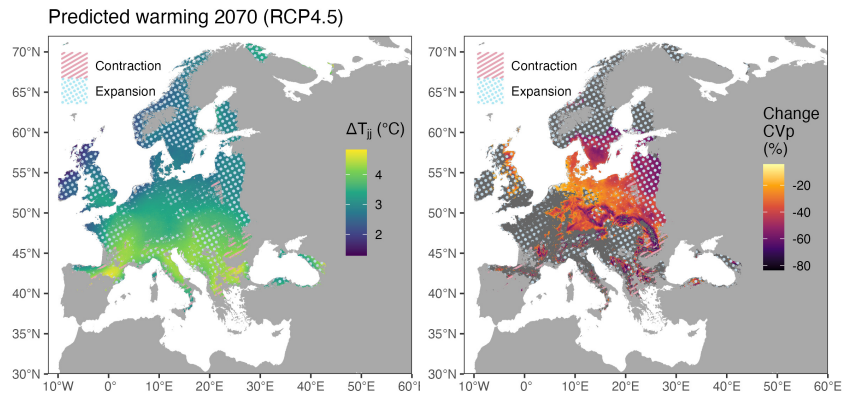
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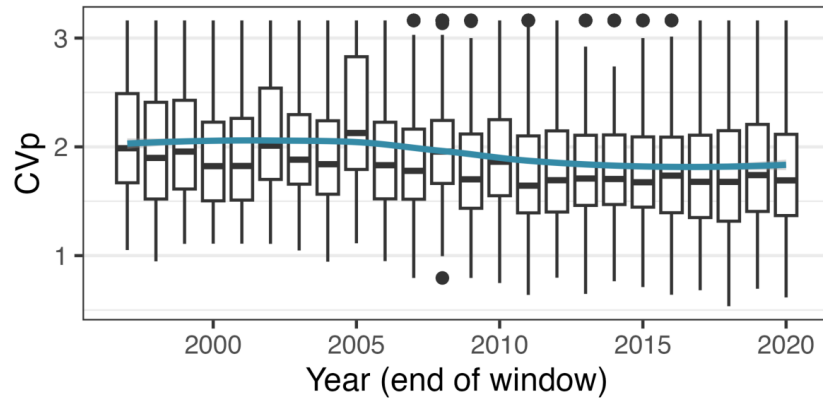
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**Figure S1: Sites cover large climate and elevation gradients** Sampled sites (green points; A), in the context of the climate envelope of the European beech range (B). The extent of (A) matches the orange box in (B). Grey shading at A) and B) shows 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.



**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 (Dyderski *et al.*, 2018), 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.

## 654 **.1 Note S1**

### 655 **.1.1 Methodology**

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 CVp 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 CVp.

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 CVp 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 CVp was tested with a LLM, with viable seeds as  
669 the response, and CVp as the predictor, correcting for tree ID with a random intercept.