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13 The effects of local climate on the correlation between weather and seed production differ in
14 two species with contrasting masting habit

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30

31 **Abstract**

32 Many plant species present inter-annual cycles of seed production (mast seeding), with
33 synchronized high seed production across populations in some years. Weather is believed to
34 be centrally involved in triggering masting. The links between meteorological conditions and
35 seeding are well-recognized for some species, but in others consistent correlates have not
36 been found. We used a spatially extensive data set of fruit production to test the hypothesis
37 that the influence of weather on seed production is conditioned by local climate and that this
38 influence varies between species with different life history traits. We used two model species.
39 European beech (*Fagus sylvatica*) that is a flowering masting species, i.e. seed production is
40 determined by variable flower production, and sessile oak (*Quercus petraea*) that is a fruit-
41 maturation masting species, i.e. seed production is determined by variable ripening of more
42 constant flower production. We predicted that climate should strongly modulate the
43 relationship between meteorological cue and fruit production in *Q. petraea*, while the
44 relationship should be uniform in *F. sylvatica*. The influence of meteorological cue on
45 reproduction in fruiting masting species should be strongly conditioned by local climate
46 because the strength of environmental constraint that modulates the success of flower-to-fruit
47 transition is likely to vary with local climatic conditions. In accordance, the meteorological
48 cueing was consistent in *F. sylvatica*. In contrast, in *Q. petraea* the relationship between spring
49 temperature and seed production varied among sites and was stronger in populations at colder
50 sites. The clear difference in meteorological conditioning of seed production between the two
51 studied species suggests the responses of masting plants to weather can be potentially
52 systematized according to their masting habit: i.e. fruiting or flowering.

53

54 Key-words: environmental variability, mast seeding, masting, Moran effect, plant
55 reproduction, seed production

56

57 **Introduction**

58 Masting is characterized by synchronized and highly variable levels of seed production over
59 years within a population or a community (Kelly and Sork 2002). It is a ubiquitous
60 reproductive strategy of plants worldwide that has major cascading effects on ecosystem
61 functioning (Jones et al. 1998, Ascoli et al. 2015, Bogdziewicz et al. 2016, Pearse et al. 2017,
62 Vacchiano et al. 2018). Masting is spatially synchronous, often over large portions of species
63 distributions (Koenig and Knops 1998, Ascoli et al. 2017, Fernández-Martínez et al. 2017a,
64 Vacchiano et al. 2017). The Moran effect (correlated environmental disturbances driving the
65 spatial autocorrelation of ecological phenomena, cf. Koenig 1999) is a major mechanism that
66 can account for large-scale synchrony of reproduction (Koenig and Knops 1998, Kelly and
67 Sork 2002). Specifically, some weather signals (cues) may have large effects on reproduction
68 because selection has favored plants that all respond to the cue in the same way, resulting in
69 high synchrony and individual variability (Kelly et al., 2013, Pearse et al. 2016).

70 Consequently, the correlations between seed production and weather have often been
71 investigated (Crawley and Long 1995, Piovesan and Adams 2001, Kon and Noda 2007, Allen
72 et al. 2012, Koenig and Knops 2014, Fernández-Martínez et al. 2017a, Koenig et al. 2017,
73 Vacchiano et al. 2017). Despite the large effort, consistently linking and predicting the effects
74 of weather on seed production across species has proven to be surprisingly difficult (Crone
75 and Rapp 2014). In particular, consistent and unequivocal links between weather and seed
76 production have not been found in some common and widely studied genera like oaks
77 (*Quercus* spp.), and the specific meteorological correlations vary among species, and even
78 within species among different studies (Sork et al. 1993, Crawley and Long 1995, Lusk et al.
79 2007, Crone and Rapp 2014, Koenig and Knops 2014, Pérez-Ramos et al. 2015, Koenig et al.
80 2016). Conversely, the link is much more consistent across space and time in some other
81 species, such as New Zealand tussock grasses (*Chionochloa* sp.) or European beech (*Fagus*
82 *sylvatica*) (Piovesan and Adams 2001, Rees et al. 2002, Schauber et al. 2002, Kelly et al.
83 2008, 2013, Tanentzap et al. 2012, Vacchiano et al. 2017). Why the correlations between seed
84 production and weather are consistent in some masting species, and how the irregularity in the
85 responses of other species can be systematized, remains unclear.

86 The lively debate that focused on the mechanistic drivers of masting has begun to
87 formulate a theoretical background that may allow us to resolve the puzzling relationship
88 between weather and masting (Kelly et al. 2013, Crone and Rapp 2014, Koenig et al. 2016,
89 Pearse et al. 2016, Pesendorfer et al. 2016, Bogdziewicz et al. 2017b, a). Specifically, masting
90 species can be broadly divided into two groups: flowering masting species and fruit-

91 maturation masting species (Pearse et al. 2016). Even though the division is continuous rather
92 than dichotomous, it may be a useful concept helping us to better understand the impact of
93 weather on plant reproduction. The annual variation in seed production in flowering masting
94 species is largely driven by variable flowering effort (Rapp et al. 2013, Monks et al. 2016,
95 Pearse et al. 2016, Bogdziewicz et al. 2017b). In contrast, the annual variation in flowering
96 effort is less relevant in fruit-maturation masting species, where variation in fruit production
97 is driven by the variable ripening of a more constant flower crop (Espelta et al. 2008, Pérez-
98 Ramos et al. 2010, Pearse et al. 2016, Bogdziewicz et al. 2017b). The theory predicts that the
99 level of synchrony will then depend on the nature of the weather cue and the biological
100 sensitivity of the plant to that signal (Pearse et al. 2016). Here, we further propose that the
101 timing of the cue (i.e. whether it happens before or after flower production) is also relevant.

102 In flowering masting species, selection favored sensitivity to weather signals that
103 trigger flower initiation (Richardson et al. 2005, Smaill et al. 2011, Tanentzap et al. 2012,
104 Kelly et al. 2013). Therefore, in these species, plants are hypersensitive to weather before
105 flowering, and once flowers are initiated, weather is less likely to affect their reproduction
106 (relatively to fruiting masting species). In contrast, fruit-maturation masting species are
107 hypersensitive to weather after flowering, i.e. weather events have strongest influence on fruit
108 production by modulating the success of fruit maturation (Espelta et al. 2008, Koenig et al.
109 2015, Pearse et al. 2016, Bogdziewicz et al. 2017a). Consequently, a large range of weather
110 events can modulate the flower-to-fruit transition, making the responsiveness of the plant to
111 particular weather event more variable. Thus, we hypothesize that in flowering masting
112 species, the effect of weather signal on seeding should be more consistent than in fruit-
113 maturation masting species. In the latter, the link between fruiting and weather should be
114 strongly modulated by local conditions, because these will define the most severe factor
115 limiting the maturation of flowers to fruits (Bogdziewicz et al. 2017a, 2018). For example,
116 drought is the most limiting factor for *Quercus spp.* individuals in dry and dense
117 Mediterranean forests (i.e. coppices), and seed production is strongly correlated with rainfall
118 (Espelta et al. 2008, Pérez-Ramos et al. 2010, Fernández-Martínez et al. 2012, Bogdziewicz et
119 al. 2017a). In contrast, water is less limiting for *Q. petraea* in temperate forests, and seed
120 production is thus correlated with spring temperature that determines flowering synchrony
121 and associated pollination efficiency (the phenology synchrony hypothesis; Koenig et al.
122 2015). Nonetheless, both constraints likely operate in both species, just with different strength
123 (Bogdziewicz et al. 2017a). Thus, similar differences may occur within species and among
124 sites. For example, the strength of the positive correlation between spring temperature and

125 seed production in case of temperate oaks, could be stronger at colder sites, because these
126 sites may have a generally lower average synchrony of flowering (due to frequent cold
127 springs) (Pessi and Pulkkinen 1994, Zhang et al. 2014). Therefore, the positive effect of
128 increased flowering synchrony and associated pollination efficiency should be more important
129 for seed production. If local climate strongly determines the weather influence on
130 reproduction in fruit-maturation masting species, it would explain the apparent inconsistency
131 of results of past studies.

132 To test how the local climate modulated the meteorological cuing of seed production
133 in two species that belong to the two contrasting masting groups described above, we
134 analyzed data for seed production by the sessile oak (*Quercus petraea*) and European beech
135 (*Fagus sylvatica*) at 17 and 19 sites, respectively. *Fagus sylvatica* is a flowering masting
136 species, and *Q. petraea* is a fruit-maturation masting species (Nilsson and Wastljung 1987,
137 Bogdziewicz et al. 2017b, Lebourgeois et al. 2018). In *F. sylvatica*, hot summers a year
138 before seed production increase flower initiation, and seeding consequently correlates
139 positively with the temperatures in the preceding year (Piovesan and Adams 2001, Hackett-
140 Pain et al. 2015, Bogdziewicz et al. 2017b). This relationship is spatially conserved
141 throughout Europe (Vacchiano et al. 2017). In contrast, acorn production in *Q. petraea* often
142 correlates with current spring temperatures (Kasprzyk et al. 2014, Bogdziewicz et al. 2017b,
143 Caignard et al. 2017, Lebourgeois et al. 2018). The mechanism driving masting is likely
144 through phenology synchrony of flowering (Koenig et al. 2015). In warm springs, flowering
145 in trees within a population is synchronized, which produces high pollination efficiency and
146 success of flower-to-fruit maturation (Bogdziewicz et al. 2017b). Conversely, cold springs
147 lead to desynchronized flowering and pollination failure (Koenig et al. 2012, Pesendorfer et
148 al. 2016, Bogdziewicz et al. 2017b). However, while the link between spring temperature and
149 seeding has been often reported, other studies did not confirm this relationship (Crawley and
150 Long 1995, Wesolowski et al. 2015, Fernández-Martínez et al. 2017a). We hypothesize that
151 such inconsistency is caused by variation in local climate. By considering the contrasting
152 masting strategies of these species, we predict that the response of *F. sylvatica* to weather will
153 be similar across climatic gradients. Specifically, warmer summers in the year preceding seed
154 dispersal in *F. sylvatica* will be consistently positively correlated with seed production
155 everywhere. In contrast, the strength of the correlation between spring temperature and seed
156 production in *Q. petraea* will vary with local climate among the sampling sites. The strength
157 of the positive correlation should be particularly stronger at colder sites.

158

159 **Materials and Methods**

160 We obtained data for seed production for *Q. petraea* and *F. sylvatica* from the ICP
161 Forests database (International Co-operative Programme on Assessment and Monitoring of
162 Air Pollution Effects on Forest, operated under the United Nations Economic Commission for
163 Europe (UNECE) Convention on Long-range Transboundary Air Pollution, <http://icp-forests.net/>). We used data for the carbon content of fruit provided by the same database to
164 calculate fruit production per plot and year expressed as fruit net primary production (units of
165 $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$, i.e. average per unit of surface) (Fernández-Martínez et al. 2017a). These data
166 included fruit production at 17 sites for *F. sylvatica* and 19 sites for *Q. petraea*. Seed
167 production was monitored from 2002 to 2008, but the length of the time series differed
168 slightly between the sites (see Figs. S1 and S2 for details). The following analyses were thus
169 based on 95 site-year observations for *F. sylvatica* and 121 site-year observations for *Q.*
170 *petraea*.

172 We extracted climatic data for our study sites from the WorldClim database. This
173 database provides climatic data with a high spatial resolution and contains robust mean
174 monthly climatic data derived from lengthy time series (1950–2000). We used the long-term
175 annual temperature and precipitation means for the study sites as indicators of local climate.
176 We extracted meteorological time series for our forests from the interpolated meteorological
177 data of the MARS unit AGRI4CAST/JRC (<http://agri4cast.jrc.ec.europa.eu/>), with a
178 resolution of $0.25 \times 0.25^\circ$ (latitude \times longitude). This database provided monthly mean
179 temperatures and total precipitation. We used the mean summer temperature (July-September)
180 and mean spring temperature (April-June) for the analysis.

181

182 Statistical analysis

183 We calculated population-level masting metrics, including the coefficient of variation
184 (CV), synchrony between sites (Pearson's correlation coefficients) and lag-1 temporal
185 autocorrelation of seed production. The CV, synchrony, and their corresponding 95%
186 confidence intervals (CIs) were calculated by bootstrap resampling with 1000 replications. To
187 further explore the spatial synchrony, we also computed a Mantel correlograms of
188 reproduction in both species.

189 We tested our predictions in two steps, each repeated for both *F. sylvatica* and *Q.*
190 *petraea*. First, we tested whether the populations of the two species responded to the
191 meteorological cues suggested by previous studies, i.e. fruit production for *F. sylvatica* would
192 be strongly correlated with summer temperature in the year preceding seed fall. In contrast,

193 fruit production in *Q. petraea* should be correlated (at the global, complete data-set level)
194 with spring temperature. We built a linear mixed model, with log-transformed fruit production
195 as a response, study site as a random intercept and meteorological variables (i.e. summer
196 temperature for *F. sylvatica* and spring temperature for *Q. petraea*) as predictors. Second, we
197 explored whether the links between weather and seeding were conditioned by local climate.
198 We calculated Pearson correlations coefficients between (log-transformed) seed production
199 and meteorological variables separately for each study site. We then used the correlation
200 coefficients as response variables in two linear regression models, each with climatic
201 variables, i.e. either mean annual temperature at the site or mean annual precipitation,
202 included as an explanatory variable. We built separate models because these climatic
203 variables were colinear ($r = 0.56$). In case of *F. sylvatica*, we also run analogous analysis but
204 with summer temperature in year T-1 replaced by summer temperature in year T-2, as this is
205 also frequently reported cue for that species (Piovesan and Adams 2001, Vacchiano et al.
206 2017, Hackett-Pain et al. 2018). Results of that analysis are given in the Online Appendix.

207 We used the R lme4 package for the mixed models (Bates et al. 2014). All models
208 were fitted with Gaussian distributions and identity link functions. Model validation by
209 graphical inspection of the residual patterns indicated normality and homoscedasticity. We
210 calculated the R^2 for the linear models and calculated marginal R^2 (i.e. the proportion of
211 variance explained by fixed effects) and conditional R^2 (i.e. the proportion of variance
212 explained by fixed and random effects) for the GLMMs (Nakagawa and Schielzeth 2013,
213 Bartoń 2014).

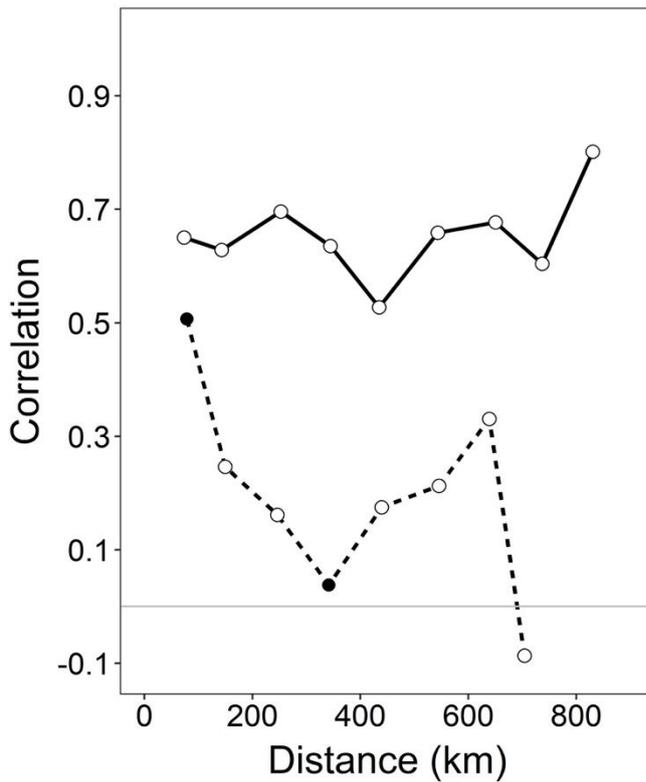
214

215 **Results**

216 Both species and all populations had typical masting behavior. Annual seed
217 production was more variable in *F. sylvatica*, with site-level CV ranging from 1.36 to 2.38
218 (mean = 1.75). *Q. petraea* was less variable (0.80 – 2.37, mean = 1.36). The negative
219 autocorrelation of seed production ranged from -0.77 to -0.22 (mean = -0.40) for *F. sylvatica*
220 and from -0.49 to 0.34 (mean = -0.17) for *Q. petraea*. The among-site synchrony was 0.81
221 (95% CI: 0.68–0.96) for *F. sylvatica* and 0.18 (95% CI: 0.02–0.37) for *Q. petraea*.
222 Furthermore, Mantel correlograms suggested that *F. sylvatica* seed production was
223 consistently highly synchronized among sites at all studied distances (up to 800 km), which
224 was not the case in *Q. petraea* (Fig. 1). Note, however, that most of the correlations were not
225 significant (Fig. 1).

226

227 **Figure 1.**



228

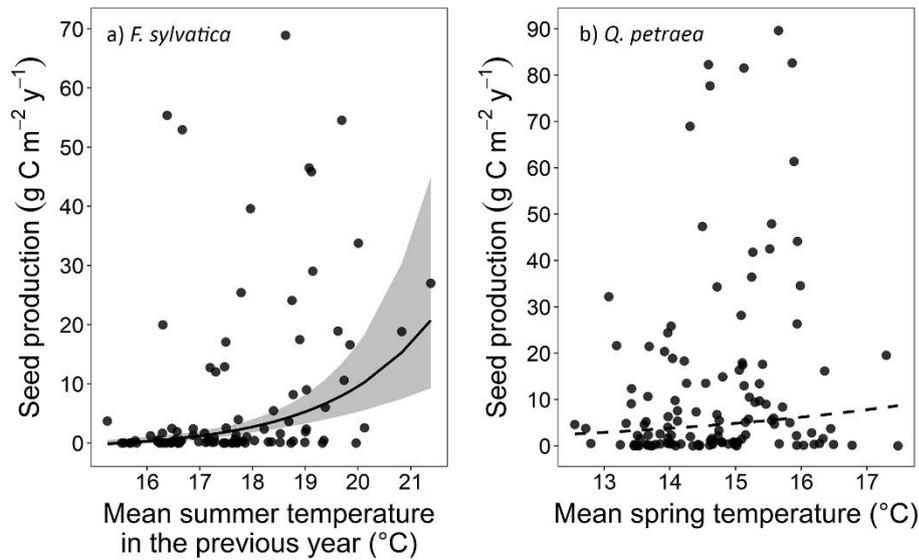
229 **Figure 1.** Mantel correlogram of seed production in *F. sylvatica* (solid line) and *Q. petraea*
230 (dashed line). The horizontal grey line indicates 0 correlation, while filled circles indicate
231 significant correlations.

232

233 *F. sylvatica* seed production was strongly correlated with summer temperatures in the
234 year preceding seed fall ($\beta = 0.52$, 95% CI range: 0.29 – 0.72, $t = 5.48$, $p < 0.001$; Fig. 2A), in
235 accordance with our predictions. The marginal R^2 of the model was 0.24, and the conditional
236 R^2 was 0.31. In contrast, seed production by *Q. petraea* was positively but not significantly
237 correlated with spring temperature ($\beta = 0.20$, 95% CI range: -0.04 – 0.45, $t = 1.63$, $p = 0.10$;
238 Fig. 2B). The marginal R^2 of the model was 0.02, and the conditional R^2 was 0.02.

239

240 **Figure 2.**



241

242

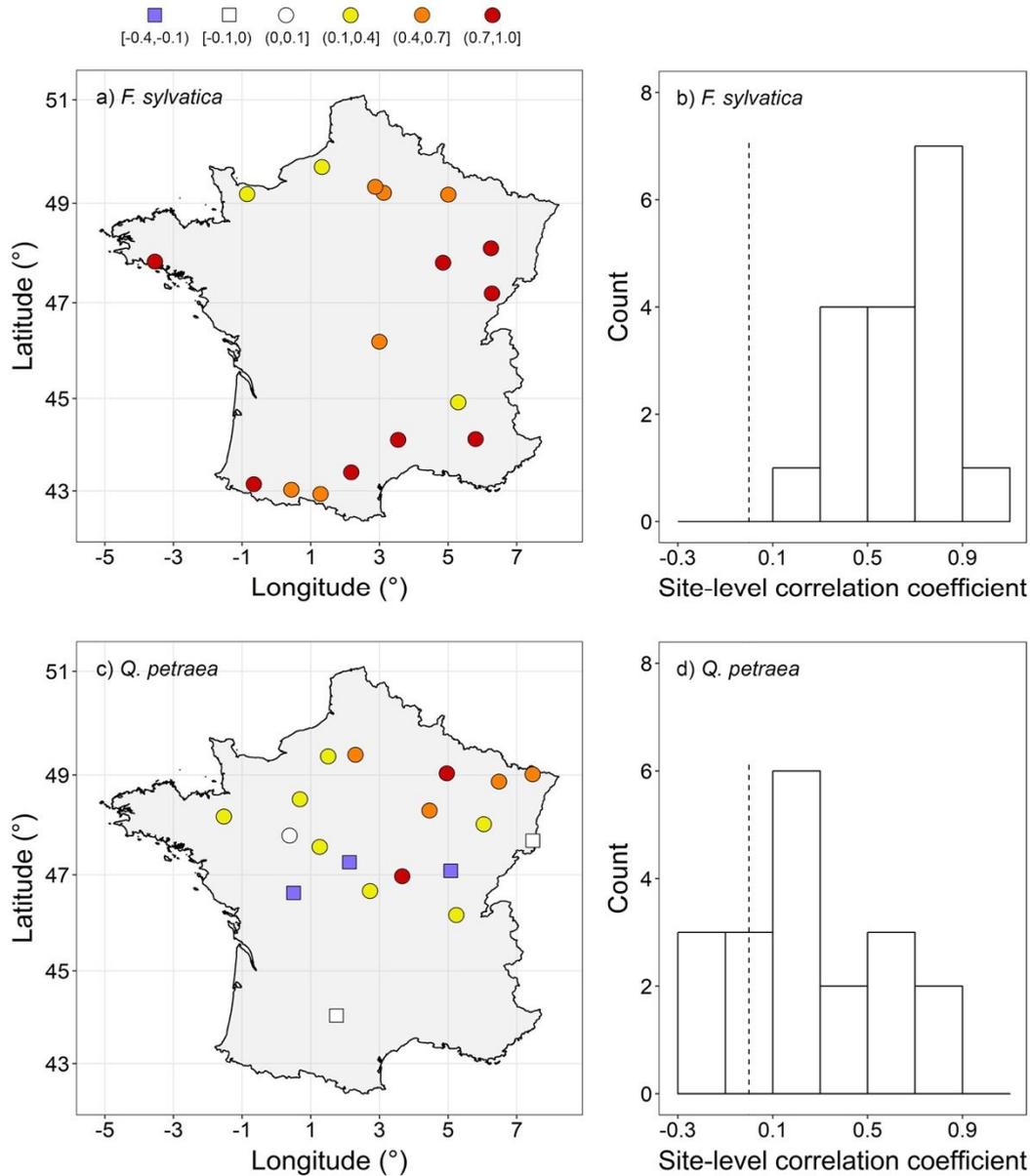
243 **Figure 2.** Relationships between a) seed production and previous summer temperature for *F.*
 244 *sylvatica* and b) seed production and current-year spring temperature for *Q. petraea*. The lines
 245 represent GLMM predictions, and the shaded regions represent 95% confidence intervals. The
 246 dashed line represents a nonsignificant relationship.

247

248 The response of the *F. sylvatica* but not the *Q. petraea* populations to weather was
 249 clearly consistent after the correlations between seeding and meteorological cues had been
 250 decomposed to the site level. All correlations for *F. sylvatica* were positive (range: 0.23–0.92,
 251 mean = 0.64; Fig. 3A, B), while the site-level correlation coefficients for *Q. petraea* ranged
 252 from -0.24 to 0.84 (mean = 0.24, Fig. 3C, D).

253

254 **Figure 3.**



255

256 **Figure 3.** Spatial variation in the response of *F. sylvatica* and *Q. petraea* to meteorological

257 cues. A) and B) site-level Pearson correlation coefficients between log-transformed fruit

258 production and previous summer temperature for *F. sylvatica*. C) and D) site-level Pearson

259 correlation coefficients between log-transformed fruit production and current-year spring

260 temperature for *Q. petraea*. The vertical dashed lines in b) and d) indicate 0 correlation.

261

262 The strength of the correlation between summer temperature of the previous year and

263 seed production for *F. sylvatica* did not differ with either the mean annual temperature of the

264 site ($\beta = -0.01$, 95% CI range: $-0.07 - 0.05$, $t = -0.35$, $p = 0.73$; Fig. 4A) or the mean annual

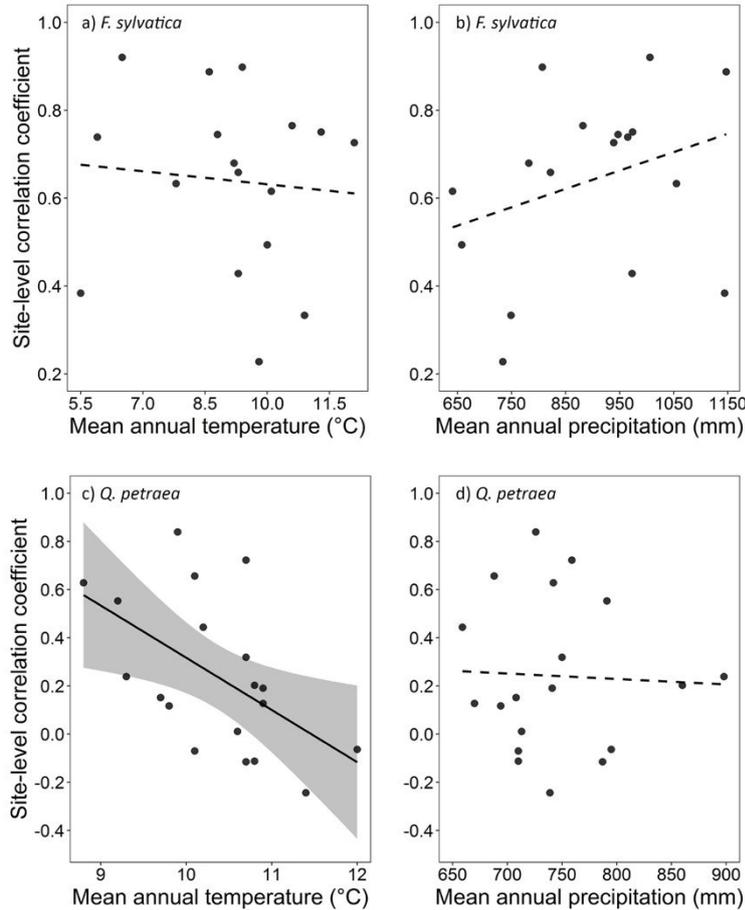
265 precipitation ($\beta = 0.0004$, 95% CI range: $-0.0002 - 0.001$, $t = 1.29$, $p = 0.22$; Fig. 4B). In

266 contrast, the correlation between spring temperature and seed production for *Q. petraea* was

267 weaker at sites with higher mean annual temperatures ($\beta = -0.21$, 95% CI range: $-0.40 - -0.04$,
268 $t = -2.62$, $p = 0.018$; $R^2 = 0.29$; Fig. 4C) with no effects of mean annual precipitation ($\beta = -$
269 0.0002 , 95% CI range: $-0.002 - 0.002$, $t = -0.18$, $p = 0.86$; Fig. 4D).

270

271 **Figure 4.**



272

273 **Figure 4.** Relationships between the site-level Pearson correlation coefficients and mean
274 annual temperature (A and C) and mean annual precipitation (B and C). The lines represent
275 linear model predictions, and the shaded regions represent 95% confidence intervals. The
276 dashed lines represent nonsignificant relationships.

277

278 Discussion

279 The relationship between weather and fruit production for *F. sylvatica* was
280 consistently positive at all 19 sites studied (Figure 3A). In contrast, the relationship between
281 spring temperature and seed production for *Q. petraea* was not significant at the whole
282 database level. Yet, decomposition of this relationship to the site-level, hinted that it was
283 because the relationship largely varied among sites (Figure 3C) and was stronger in
284 populations at colder locations. While certainly further studies are warranted, our results are

285 consistent with the prediction that the climatic modulation of the responses of flowering
286 masting and fruit-maturation masting species to weather should be different. The flowering
287 masting *F. sylvatica* is hypersensitive to weather cue that triggers flowering (Bogdziewicz et
288 al. 2017b), possibly through increased expression of genes involved in floral transition
289 (Miyazaki et al. 2014, Pearse et al. 2016). Thus, the general positive effect of temperature on
290 flower initiation should be less susceptible to varying local climate, and therefore more
291 uniform across sites. In contrast, the key meteorological variable in fruit-maturation masting
292 species favors (or prevents) the transition from flower to fruit. The environmental constraint
293 that modulates this success is likely to vary with local conditions, as we observed in *Q.*
294 *petraea*.

295 The response of *Q. petraea* to spring temperature was stronger at colder sites. Low
296 temperatures during flowering are associated in oaks with desynchronized flowering, because
297 meteorological variability in microhabitats is high in cold springs, which leads to a variable
298 onset of flowering (Koenig et al. 2015, Pesendorfer et al. 2016, Bogdziewicz et al. 2017b).
299 The phenological mismatch among individuals within a population leads to relatively lower
300 pollen availability for each tree and therefore lower pollination success and seed production
301 (Koenig et al. 2012, Bogdziewicz et al. 2017b). Warm springs enhance the synchronization of
302 flowering, allowing high pollination success and lead to high fruit production. We thus
303 believe that this variable background synchronization of flowering (Koenig et al. 2015,
304 Pesendorfer et al. 2016, Bogdziewicz et al. 2017b) is the mechanism responsible for the
305 systematic among-site variation of oaks response to spring weather. The average flowering
306 synchrony is likely lower at cold sites (Pessi and Pulkkinen 1994, Zhang et al. 2014), so
307 pollination success would be a strong constraint on seed production. Consequently, the effect
308 of increased spring temperature on fruits production was clear at these sites. In contrast,
309 pollination success probably affects seed production less at warmer sites, because the
310 synchrony of flowering is generally higher, so the correlations would be weaker. As an
311 indirect support, pollen seasons in *Pinus sylvestris* are longer at northern sites (Pessi and
312 Pulkkinen 1994), and were also found to be shorter at warmer sites in *Betula sp.* (Zhang et al.
313 2014). Nonetheless, the opposite can also be true (e.g. Qiu et al. 2018). Thus, direct tests of
314 that hypothesis are necessary, and can include evaluating the effects of spring temperatures
315 and phenological synchrony on oak seeding across elevations.

316 Spring temperature may also condition acorn production in oaks by different
317 mechanisms, e.g. by modulating the acorn development process (Sork et al. 1993, Koenig and
318 Knops 2014). Spring temperature had a negative influence on seed production in 4 of the 19

319 populations. Trees may respond to meteorological variables in a symmetric, Gaussian-like
320 fashion, with an optimal response (Fernández-Martínez et al. 2017b). The direction of the
321 response (positive/negative) could then depend on the range of the meteorological variable at
322 different sites. If the meteorological cue has a mode below the optimum in one region, then
323 the correlation between the meteorological variable and the response at that site will be
324 positive (Lusk et al. 2007, Fernández-Martínez et al. 2017b). Likewise, if the mode of the
325 meteorological cue is above the optimum at a site, then the correlation between the
326 meteorological variable and the response in that region will be negative. Our sites at which we
327 observed the negative correlations may operate above the environmental optimum for *Q.*
328 *petraea*, e.g. excessively hot springs will lead to flower abortion. *F. sylvatica* probably has a
329 similar optimum, but it may not be as strongly modulated by local climate as for *Q. petraea*
330 due to differences in the life-history traits discussed here. Experimental investigations of the
331 influence of weather on flower and seed development in masting plants are rare (Kon and
332 Noda 2007, Kelly et al. 2008, Pérez-Ramos et al. 2010), but will provide necessary insight
333 into the mechanistic links between weather and seeding variation.

334 The spatial consistency in the response of *F. sylvatica* to weather explains why *F.*
335 *sylvatica* populations were on average 4-times better synchronized than *Q. petraea* (0.81 vs
336 0.18, respectively; for similar result see Nussbaumer et al. 2016). The response of *F. sylvatica*
337 to meteorological cues was spatially uniform, so all populations within a region fluctuated
338 similarly in response to correlated meteorological conditions (see also Fig. 1). The synchrony
339 of reproduction may then be easily scaled up to a continental scale, as shown in Vacchiano et
340 al. (2017). Conversely, each population of *Q. petraea* probably responded more in accordance
341 with its local optimum, which consequently lowered the large-scale spatial synchronization.
342 Spatial synchrony of masting has been intensively studied (e.g. Koenig and Knops 1998,
343 Kelly and Sork 2002, Fernández-Martínez et al. 2017, Vacchiano et al et al. 2017) but why
344 species differ in how well they are synchronized is unclear. We propose that synchrony will
345 differ between flowering and fruit-maturation masting species, with the former having a
346 higher average large-scale synchrony due to spatially conserved meteorological cuing, i.e. a
347 regional pattern more consistent with the Moran effect.

348

349 **Conclusions**

350 The clear difference in meteorological conditioning of seed production between the
351 two species suggests that the responses of masting plants to weather can be systematized and
352 predicted. Meteorological cues in species where annual flowering intensity is the main

353 determinant of seed production should include variables associated with resource acquisition
354 and flower initiation, and be generally similar across species ranges (Richardson et al. 2005,
355 Monks et al. 2016, Vacchiano et al. 2017). Meteorological cues in fruit-maturation masting
356 species, though, could be predicted by considering the likely key environmental constraint (so
357 called ‘veto’ cf. Pearse et al. 2016, Bogdziewicz et al. 2018) to fruit maturation for the
358 particular species and region studies. We note, however, that the differentiation between
359 flowering and fruit-maturation masting species is not distinct but a continuum of species with
360 more or fewer mixed strategies (Montesinos et al. 2012, Abe et al. 2016, Pearse et al. 2016).
361 Accurate predictions will therefore need detailed information of species biology. Our research
362 nonetheless provides new insights into the resolution of apparently inconsistent responses of
363 plant reproduction to meteorological variation. Finally, climate appears to condition the
364 species responses to weather stronger in fruit-maturation masting species. It indicates that
365 these species may be more sensitive to global climate change than flowering masting species.

366

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374

375 **Competing interest statement**

376 Authors declare no competing interests.

377

378 **Literature**

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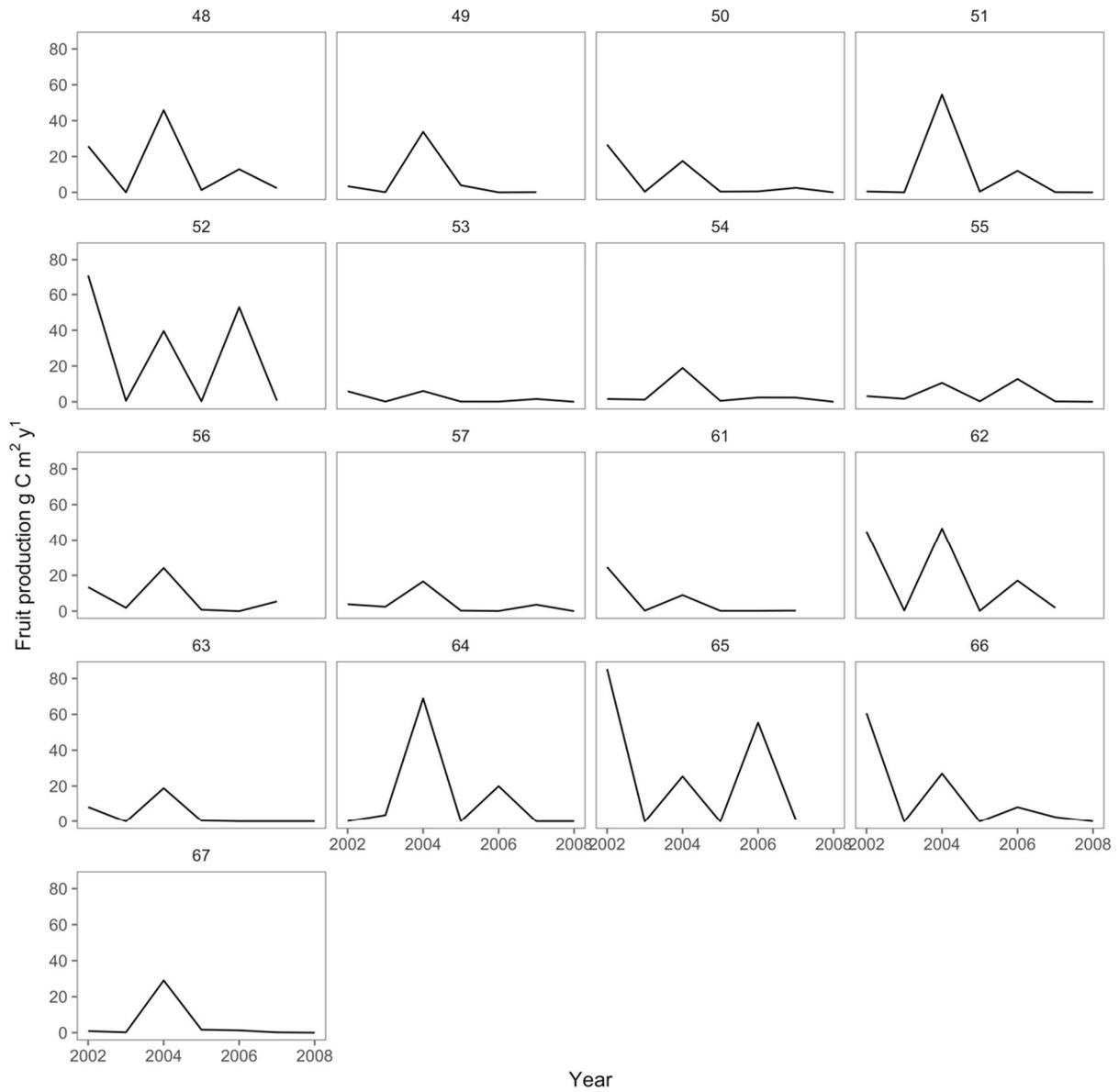
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514 Online Appendix. Bogdziewicz et al. The effects of local climate on the correlation between
515 weather and seed production differ in two species with contrasting masting habit.

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518 Figure 1S. Fruit production time series for *F. sylvatica*. Each plot represents a site.

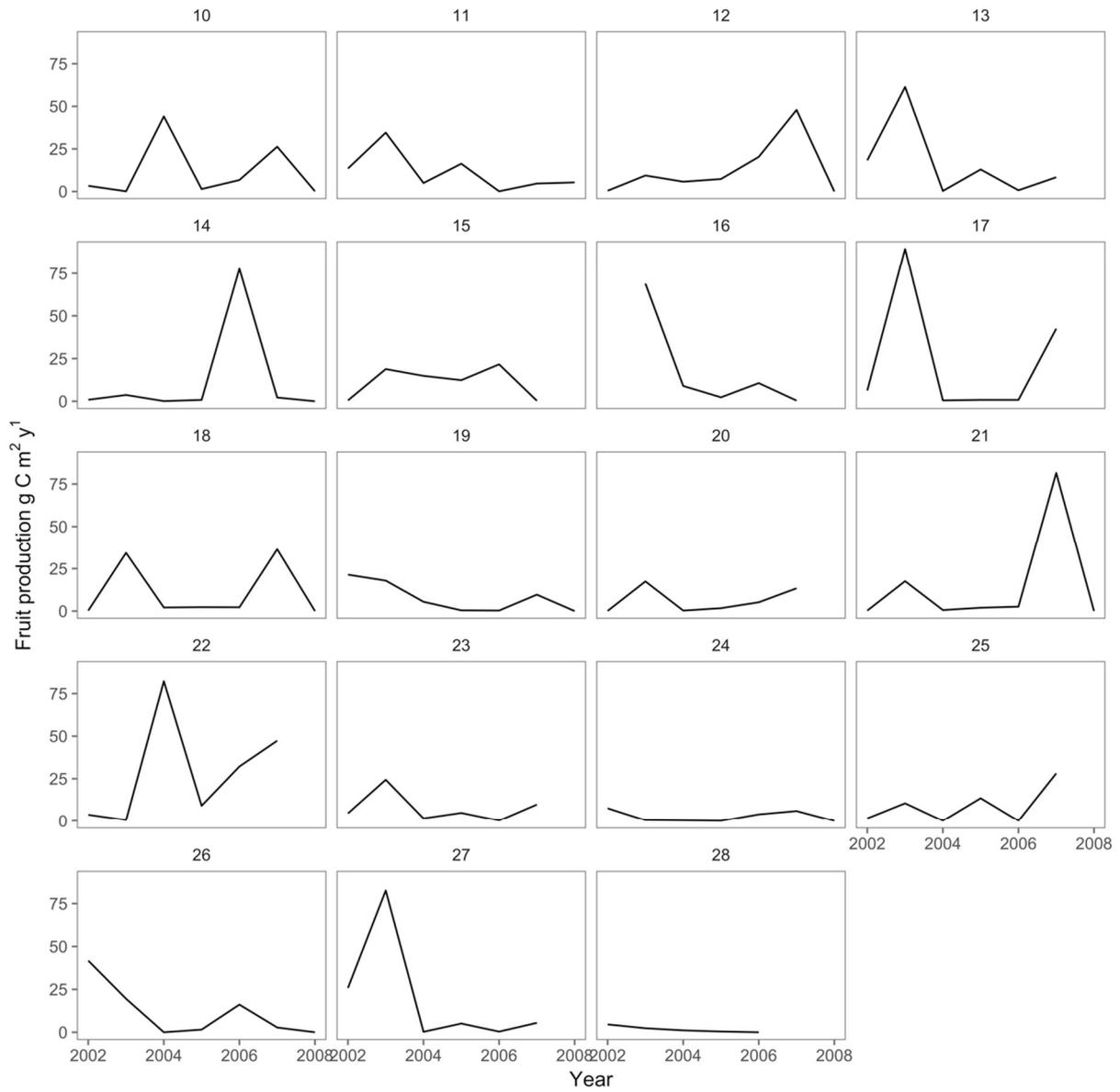


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521 Figure 2S. Fruit production time series for *Q. petraea*. Each plot represents a site.

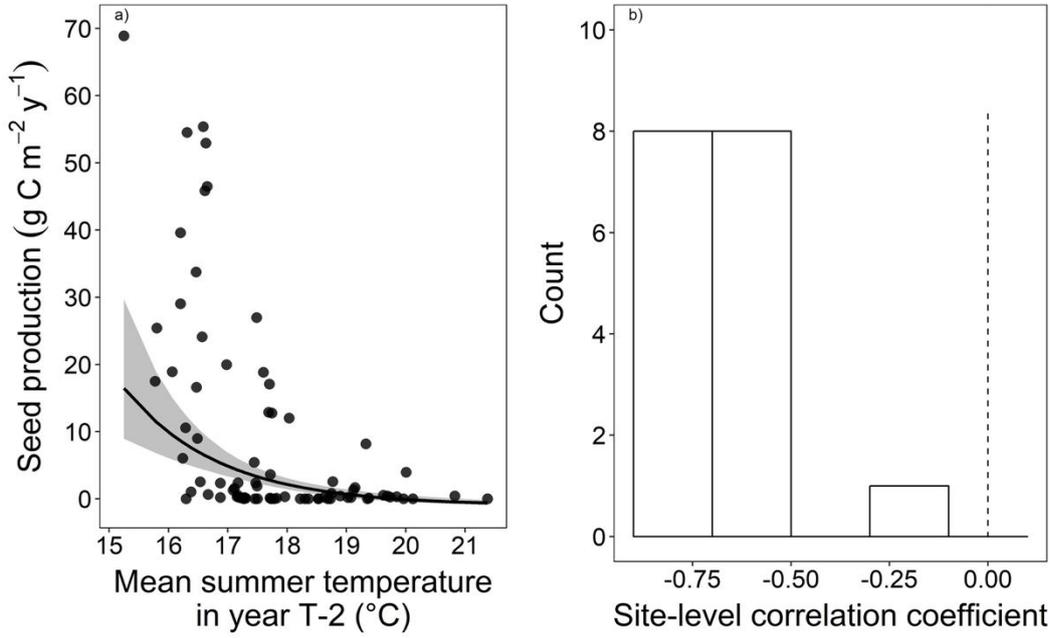
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525 Figure S3. A) The relationship between seed production and mean summer temperature two
526 years before seed dispersal ($\beta = -0.62$, 95% CI range: $-0.82 - -0.42$, $t = -6.13$, $p < 0.001$). B)
527 Site-level Pearson correlation coefficients between log-transformed fruit production and
528 summer temperature two years before seed dispersal. Both figures for *F. sylvatica*.
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