- **1** The North Atlantic Oscillation synchronises fruit production in western
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#### 19 Abstract

Weather and its lagged effects have been associated with interannual variability and 20 synchrony of fruit production for several tree species. Such relationships are used often in 21 hypotheses relating interannual variability in fruit production with tree resources or favourable 22 pollinating conditions and with synchrony in fruit production among sites through the Moran 23 effect (the synchronisation of biological processes among populations driven by meteorological 24 variability) or the local availability of pollen. Climatic teleconnections, such as the North Atlantic 25 26 Oscillation (NAO), representing *weather packages*, however, have rarely been correlated with fruit production, despite often being better predictors of ecological processes than is local 27 weather. The aim of this study was to test the utility of seasonal NAO indices for predicting 28 interannual variability and synchrony in fruit production using data from 76 forests of Abies 29 30 alba, Fagus sylvatica, Picea abies, Pseudotsuga menziesii, Quercus petraea, and Q. robur 31 distributed across central Europe. Interannual variability in fruit production for all species was significantly correlated with seasonal NAO indices, which were more prominently important 32 predictors than local meteorological variables. The relationships identified by these analyses 33 indicated that proximal causes were mostly responsible for the interannual variability in fruit 34 production, supporting the premise that local tree resources and favourable pollinating 35 conditions are needed to produce large fruit crops. Synchrony in fruit production between 36 forests was mainly associated with weather and geographical distance among sites. Also, fruit 37 production for a given year was less variable among sites during warm and dry springs 38 (negative spring NAO phases). Our results identify the Moran effect as the most likely 39 mechanism for synchronisation of fruit production at large geographical scales and the 40 possibility that pollen availability plays a role in synchronising fruit production at local scales. 41 Our results highlight the influence of the NAO on the patterns of fruit production across 42 western Europe. 43

44 **Keywords**:

synchrony, seeds, weather

lagged effects, tree

reproduction

#### 46 **1. Introduction**

Production of fruit and seeds is an essential step in the life cycle of plants that allows 47 48 individuals to transmit their genes to the next generation and to colonise new territories. Reproduction, however, has important implications beyond the plant itself, especially if it 49 50 concerns the key species of a community: production of fruit can alter entire ecosystems by 51 producing cascading effects throughout food webs (Elkinton et al. 1996, Ostfeld and Keesing 2000), even affecting the transmission of diseases such as Lyme disease to humans (Ostfeld 52 1997). Different patterns of fruit production can thus have a range of different consequences 53 for ecosystems. 54

Two of the most studied hypotheses attempting to account for interannual variability in fruit 55 production are the resource matching and the pollination efficiency hypotheses. The 56 mechanistic resource matching hypothesis (Norton and Kelly 1988, Sork et al. 1993, Kelly and 57 Sork 2002) suggests that plants produce fruit as a direct response to the available resources 58 (Table 1). The *pollination efficiency* hypothesis (Norton and Kelly 1988, Smith et al. 1990, 59 Koenig and Ashley 2003), however, states that synchronised and intermittent flowering 60 increases the success of pollination in wind-pollinated species because it ensures a high rate 61 62 of successful pollination during years of extensive flowering (Table 1). Both hypotheses can be indirectly related to meteorological variability, because weather can influence both the 63 acquisition of tree resources (e.g. by increased photosynthesis) and environmental conditions 64 associated with effective pollination. 65

Similarly to interannual variability, synchrony in fruit production has also mostly been explained 66 by two hypotheses. Moran's theory (Moran 1953, Ranta et al. 1997) states that synchrony in 67 fruit production is controlled by synchrony in meteorological conditions, which prompt trees to 68 divert resources into reproduction or, mechanistically, to producing more fruit when weather is 69 favourable for acquiring more resources (Table 1). Because meteorological conditions can also 70 71 be spatially synchronous (Koenig 2002), the Moran effect has also been hypothesised to synchronise of fruit production over large geographical areas (Koenig and Knops 2013). The 72 pollen coupling hypothesis (Satake and Iwasa 2002), however, suggests that the available 73 pollen from neighbouring trees can generate synchrony in fruit production among individuals 74

by interacting with the resources available to the trees (Table 1, i.e., extensive maturation of female flowers after a massive pollinating event (when enough pollen is available) would deplete the resources of all trees at the same time, increasing synchronisation of fruit production within the population among years in the long run).

Most studies that have tested these hypotheses have based their conclusions on the 79 relationship between meteorological conditions and interannual variability and synchrony in 80 fruit production, due to the importance of meteorological variability to plant productivity (Sork et 81 al. 1993, Fernández-Martínez et al. 2012, Koenig and Knops 2013). Recent studies have 82 highlighted the possible role of temperature as a meteorological cue (Kelly et al. 2013, Kon 83 and Saito 2015), although another study has suggested that temperature likely acts mainly as 84 a proximal cause for the prediction of fruit crop size (Pearse et al. 2014). In any case, 85 temperature variability would also explain synchrony in fruit production, because changes in 86 temperature occur at wide geographical scales (Koenig 2002). Other meteorological variables 87 (e.g., precipitation or water stress), however, could also be used as meteorological predictors 88 of interannual variability and synchrony in fruit production (Sork et al. 1993, García-Mozo et al. 89 2007, Espelta et al. 2008, Fernández-Martínez et al. 2012). 90

Weather at continental scales is mostly driven by general patterns of atmospheric circulation. 91 Climatic teleconnections can influence weather strongly over very large areas. The El 92 Niño/Southern Oscillation affects the weather of the entire planet (Grove 1998, NOAA 2012), 93 and the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO, the dipole connecting the Icelandic low with the 94 Azores high) strongly affects the Atlantic basins of Europe and North America (Hurrell et al. 95 2002, 2003). Ecosystems may accordingly also be affected by teleconnections (Straile 2002, 96 Menzel et al. 2005, Martínez-Jauregui et al. 2009, Hódar et al. 2011), and some studies have 97 98 suggested that teleconnection indices often predict ecological processes better than local weather (Ottersen et al. 2001, Stenseth et al. 2003, Hallett et al. 2004) because they 99 aggregate meteorological conditions over large spatial scales. The NAO index may thus be an 100 excellent meteorological cue. Nonetheless, the role of such climatic teleconnections, has rarely 101 been explored in studies focused on fruit production (but see Wright et al. (1999)). Additionally, 102 103 most of the published literature exploring the effects of the NAO on ecosystems has focused on the values of the index in winter (Ottersen et al. 2001), which can limit usefulness of the 104

approach, because different biological processes might be influenced by weather in different
 seasons.

Fruit production in some species has been strongly correlated with weather in warm seasons 107 (Sork et al. 1993, Fernández-Martínez et al. 2012, 2015, Kelly et al. 2013, Pearse et al. 2014), 108 for which the winter NAO (NAO<sub>w</sub>) may have little influence. Tree species with contrasting leaf 109 habits (evergreen and deciduous) may be sensitive to meteorological conditions during 110 different seasons. Winter-deciduous species must accumulate enough resources prior to 111 winter for spring leaf unfolding and flowering, so autumn weather likely has some influence on 112 next year's productivity. Winter meteorological variability, however, may play a role in 113 determining plant productivity during the next year, because evergreen species preserve their 114 leaves during the winter. Exploring the effects of the NAO index for other seasons may also 115 116 provide interesting results and even improve the prediction capacity of the models.

We tested the ability of seasonal NAO indices to predict interannual variability in fruit 117 production by constructing statistical models, including local meteorological (temperature and 118 119 precipitation) variables and NAO indices for the previous autumn, winter, spring, and summer 120 seasons, using data from 76 forests of Abies alba, Fagus sylvatica, Picea abies, Pseudotsuga menziesii, Quercus petraea, and Q. robur distributed across Europe. We also identified the 121 environmental variables that could account for synchrony in fruit production among forests 122 within species. Finally, we discuss the plausibility of various hypotheses addressing 123 interannual variability and synchrony in fruit production based on our statistical results. 124

## 125 **2. Materials and methods**

## 126 2.1. Data collection

#### 127 2.1.1. Data for litterfall and foliar nutrient concentration

We downloaded litterfall data from the ICP Forests database (International Co-operative Programme on Assessment and Monitoring of Air Pollution Effects on Forest, operated under the UNECE Convention on Long-range Transboundary Air Pollution, http://icp-forests.net/). The dataset contained information about fruit-production for several forest tree species in Europe for 2002–2010. Fruit litterfall was totalled per plot and year. Because the original data for litterfall was available in units of g of dry weight m<sup>-2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>, we used fruit carbon (C) content data (provided by the same database) to calculate litterfall in units of g C m<sup>-2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup> (as fruit net primary production [NPP]). Although data from 210 forests were available in the database we used only data from 76 single-species forests with time series records of five or more years to ensure that we had reliable records of single-species fruit production suitable for analysis of interannual variation. These selected forests consisted of *A. alba, F. sylvatica, P. abies, Ps. menziesii, Q. petraea,* and *Q. robur* and were distributed over France, Germany, and Luxemburg (Figure 1).

## 141 2.1.2. Meteorological data

We extracted meteorological time series for our forests from the interpolated meteorological 142 data of the MARS unit AGRI4CAST/JRC (http://agri4cast.jrc.ec.europa.eu/), with a resolution 143 of  $0.25 \times 0.25$  degrees (latitude, longitude). This database provided monthly mean 144 temperatures and total precipitation for 2001 to 2010. We also downloaded the NAO index 145 time series for daily data, covering the period from 1 January 1950 to 31 December 2014, from 146 147 the Climate Prediction Center of the National Weather Service (NOAA, http://www.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov/). We then calculated the seasonal NAO indices, temperatures, 148 and precipitation for winter, spring, summer, and autumn. We calculated the winter values as 149 the average (for temperature and NAO) or the sum (for precipitation) of January, February, and 150 March; spring comprised the months of April, May, and June; summer comprised the months 151 of July, August, and September, and autumn comprised the months of October, November, 152 and December. The seasonal NAO indices were standardised  $([x_i - \bar{x}] \cdot SD^{-1})$  for the period 153 1950-2014. 154

#### 155 2.2. Data analyses

## 156 2.2.1. Interannual variability of fruit production

Table 2 summarizes the analyses performed in this study. We evaluated the influence of the seasonal NAO indices on local seasonal weather (temperature and precipitation) by fitting generalised linear mixed models (GLMMs) with the *nlme* R package (Pinheiro et al. 2013), using restricted maximum likelihood (REML) and a Gaussian distribution, where the site was the random factor and the seasonal NAO indices were related to seasonal temperature and precipitation. 163 We assessed the correlations between the seasonal NAO indices and fruit production using Spearman correlations for each site between the seasonal NAO indices and fruit-production 164 time series. We then calculated the average correlations between fruit production and the 165 seasonal NAO indices per species. We next fitted the GLMMs using REML and a Gaussian 166 distribution, where the site was the random factor. We accounted for the effect of the previous 167 fruit crop by also including in the models an autoregressive term for lag 1 (ARMA [1,0], crop 168 169 year i ~ crop year i-1). Saturated models (models including all possible predictors) predicting interannual variability in fruit production included temperature, precipitation, and the NAO 170 indices for the autumn, winter, spring, and summer previous to fruit ripening (e.g. fruit crop 171 year i  $\sim$  autumn temperature year i-1 + winter temperature year i +...). The variables for each 172 model were selected using the *dredge* function in the MuMin R package (Barton 2015) using 173 the best subset model selection and using the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) as the 174 175 measure of model adjustment (the best model had the lowest BIC). We also calculated the variance explained by the fixed factors (marginal variance,  $R^2_m$ ) and by the entire model 176 (conditional variance,  $R^2_{\rm c}$ ) for the final models using the methodology proposed by Nakagawa 177 & Schielzeth (2013), also implemented in the MuMIn R package (Barton 2015) by the function 178 179 *r.squaredGLMM*. The difference between the marginal and conditional variances explained was the variance explained by the random factors. We assessed the importance of the 180 predictors within the models by calculating their  $\Delta$ BICs as the difference between the BIC of 181 the final model and the BIC of the model without the predictor of interest. The higher the  $\Delta BIC$ , 182 the larger the importance of the predictor within the model. Fruit NPP was log-transformed to 183 184 meet the assumptions of normality and heteroscedasticity in the model residuals. We also used mixed models with random slopes to test the effect of the seasonal NAO indices on 185 186 temperature and precipitation, using site as the random factor.

Relationships between fruit production and meteorological variables that can be associated either with successful pollination (supporting the *pollination efficiency* hypothesis) or higher tree productivity (indirectly supporting the *resource matching* hypothesis) would indicate an effect of weather on fruit production by proximal causes. If the relationship between weather and fruit production cannot be correlated with well-established physiological responses (e.g., warm and wet conditions normally increase tree productivity [Fernández-Martínez et al. 2014]), the results may be supporting the role of weather as a cue for fruit production.

#### 194 2.2.2. Synchrony of fruit production among forests

We first tested whether higher variability in meteorological conditions among sites was 195 associated with higher variability in fruit production for a given year. We calculated the annual 196 coefficient of variation (CV = standard deviation  $\cdot$  mean<sup>-1</sup>) amongst sites of seasonal (winter, 197 198 spring, summer, and autumn) temperature and precipitation and of annual fruit production for 199 each species for each of the years with records for more than five forests per species. We then used GLMMs with species as the random factor to determine the significance of the 200 association between the CVs for annual fruit production and weather among sites and the 201 202 seasonal NAO indices. Positive associations between the CVs for annual fruit production and 203 weather would further support the Moran-effect hypothesis, and no association would indicate that other mechanisms, such as pollen coupling, might be involved in synchronising fruit 204 production. 205

We then calculated the degree of synchrony in fruit production among all sites using 206 207 Spearman's correlations ( $\rho$ ) for all sites with data for at least the same five years, and calculated the mean correlation of fruit production per species and among species. We then 208 identified the main controls of synchrony in fruit production among forests within species by 209 first calculating the synchrony  $(\rho)$  for weather (seasonal temperatures and precipitation) among 210 forests of the same species, and used linear models to identify the relationships of synchrony 211 in weather and synchrony in fruit production with geographical distance. The Moran effect 212 213 would be supported if the slope between distance and synchrony in seasonal temperature or precipitation among sites was as high as or higher than the slope between distance and 214 215 synchrony in fruit production among sites (similar slopes using a *t*-test, *P*>0.05). If the slopes 216 differed or fruit production was not spatially synchronous among forests, the results would indicate that the synchrony was at more local scales and thus provide indirect evidence 217 218 supporting the *pollen coupling* hypothesis(Table 1).

We constructed linear models in which the response variable was the synchrony ( $\rho$ ) of fruit production between two forests and the predictor variables were the geographical distance between sites and the correlation between winter, spring, summer, and autumn temperatures and precipitation for the two forests. We next selected the model using the *dredge* function in the MuMin R package (Barton 2015) using the best subset model selection and using BIC as the measure of model adjustment. The best model was then assumed to have the lowest BIC

with all variables significant at the 0.05 level and with no negative coefficients for the meteorological variables (because negative associations between synchrony in fruit production and in meteorological variables would be nonsensical). The percentage of variance explained by the predictors was assessed using the proportional marginal variance decomposition metric *pmvd* from the *relaimpo* R package (Grömping 2007).

Similar to the results for interannual variability, significant relationships between synchrony in 230 fruit production and synchrony in meteorological variables from periods potentially associated 231 with tree productivity would indicate the Moran effect as a result of proximal causes of weather 232 on fruit production. If meteorological variables associated with synchrony in fruit production 233 were also be associated with spring conditions, during pollination, the *pollen coupling* 234 hypothesis would be supported (Table 1). If meteorological predictors of fruit synchrony could 235 not be associated with the pollinating period nor with higher tree productivity, the results would 236 support the Moran effect with weather acting as a cue for the trees. 237

We used the *visreg* R package (Breheny and Burchett 2015) to visualise the regression models using partial plots. All data treatments and analyses were conducted using R (R Core Team 2015).

## 241 **3. Results**

#### 242 3.1. Effects of seasonal NAO on local weather

The seasonal NAO indices were correlated with the weather at our sites (**Figure 2**). Positive NAO<sub>w</sub> phases were correlated with warm and wet winters, and positive spring NAO (NAO<sub>sp</sub>) phases were correlated with warm and dry weather. Positive summer and autumn NAOs (NAO<sub>sm</sub> and NAO<sub>a</sub>, respectively) were correlated with cold and dry weather. The seasonal NAO indices, however, were not significantly correlated, either during the study period (2002– 2010) or for a longer period (1950–2014). The correlations among seasonal NAO phases were generally small and not significant.

## 250 3.2. Interannual variability of fruit production

Both changes in weather and the seasonal NAO indices were individually correlated with fruit production for all tree species (**Table 3**). Fruit crop size in both *Quercus* species and *A. alba*  was negatively associated with the NAO phase of the autumn prior to fruit ripening, whereas
fruit production and NAO<sub>w</sub> were strongly positively correlated for the three coniferous species.
Fruit crop size was positively associated with NAO<sub>sp</sub> in *A. alba*, *F. sylvatica*, and *Q. robur* and
with NAO<sub>sm</sub> in *P. abies* and *F. sylvatica*.

257 GLMM models predicting fruit crop size using local seasonal weather and the seasonal NAO indices also identified a relevant role of the NAO phases in predicting interannual variability in 258 fruit production (Table 4). In addition, the seasonal NAO variables were usually the most 259 important variables identified by  $\Delta$ BIC. The univariate analysis correlated fruit crop size in A. 260 261 alba negatively with NAO<sub>w</sub> and positively with NAO<sub>sp</sub>. The model also identified a significant negative relationship between winter precipitation and fruit production. Based on  $\Delta BIC$ , both 262 NAO variables were similarly important for predicting variability in fruit production and were 263 clearly more important than winter precipitation. Large fruit crops in *P. abies* were associated 264 with rainy winters, dry springs, and dry (NAO<sub>sm</sub><sup>+</sup>, in positive phase) warm summers, with NAO<sub>sp</sub> 265 266 and winter precipitation the most important variables. Fruit crop size for *P. menziesii* was positively correlated with cold and dry autumns (NAO<sub>a</sub><sup>+</sup>), warm and wet winters (NAO<sub>w</sub><sup>-</sup>, in 267 268 negative phase), and warm springs, being NAO<sub>a</sub> the most important variable in the model according to  $\Delta$ BIC. Fruit production in *F. sylvatica*, as for *P. abies*, was positively correlated 269 270 with cold and dry autumns (NAO $_{a}^{+}$  and temperature) but also with dry and warm springs (NAO<sub>sp</sub>) and dry summers. Conversely, *Q. petraea* and *Q. robur* produced larger fruit crops 271 272 after warm and wet autumns. Fruit production in *Q. robur* was also positively correlated with wet summers and cold winters. The best model predicting interannual variability for Q. robur 273 274 did not identify NAO as a significant predictor, but the next model (differing only by 0.76 BIC 275 units from the best model in **Table 4**) included NAO<sub>a</sub> instead of winter temperature. Seasonal NAO indices were thus able to predict the interannual variability of fruit production moderately 276 well for all tree species. 277

## 3.3. Patterns of intra- and interspecific synchrony in fruit production

NAO<sub>sp</sub> was the most highly correlated variable explaining the variability in the CVs for annual fruit production among species **(Figure 3)**. The CV for annual fruit production was negatively correlated with NAO<sub>sp</sub> for all species except *P. menziesii*, and the relationship was statistically significant for *F. sylvatica*, *Q. robur*, and *P. abies* (*P*=0.005, 0.012, and 0.041, respectively). 283 F. sylvatica was the most synchronised species producing fruit, with a mean synchrony among sites of 0.60  $\pm$  0.02. In contrast, synchrony in fruit production among sites was not statistically 284 285 significant for P. menziesii (Table 5, a). A. alba, P. abies, Q. petraea, and Q. robur also had 286 important synchronies in fruit production. Synchrony in fruit production, however, was 287 significantly lower than synchrony in most of the seasonal meteorological variables (temperature and precipitation) for most of the species (Table 5, a). Fruit production in all 288 289 species (except P. menziesii) showed strong spatial correlations with meteorological synchrony (Table 5, b), but the synchrony of fruit production was not strongly spatially 290 dependent using univariate regressions. The slope between synchrony in fruit production and 291 distance between plots was statistically significant only for *Q. robur*, and the slope coefficients 292 293 were very close to zero for some species such as F. sylvatica and Q. petraea (Table 5, b) and were significantly different from most of the distance x weather correlation slopes (t-tests, 294 P<0.05). The slopes between fruit production and distance for A. alba, P. abies, P. menziesii, 295 and Q. robur did not differ significantly (t-tests, P>0.05) from those for most of the weather x 296 297 distance relationships.

Amongst species, synchrony in fruit production decreased considerably compared to withinspecies synchrony, and some combinations were even significantly negatively correlated, such as *F. sylvatica* versus *P. menziesii* and *Q. petraea* (Table 6). Synchrony of fruit production amongst sites was generally similar between leaf types (Table 6; *t*-test, *P*>0.05).

302 Our models correlating synchrony in fruit production with synchrony in meteorological variables indicated that seasonal weather had a limited impact on intraspecific synchrony amongst sites 303 (Table 7). Synchrony of meteorological conditions between sites was only a significant driver 304 of synchrony in fruit production for A. alba (autumn temperature), F. sylvatica (winter 305 precipitation), and Q. petraea (summer precipitation). The only significant relationship for 306 synchrony in fruit production for *Q. robur* was a negative relationship with distance between 307 308 sites, similar to the results of the univariate analyses (Table 5). Synchrony in fruit production 309 for *P. abies* was not significantly correlated with synchrony in meteorological conditions.

## 310 4. Discussion

311 4.1. Teleconnection indices as biological predictors

312 Our results fully support the hypothesis that teleconnection indices are better correlated with biological processes than local weather (Ottersen et al. 2001, Hallett et al. 2004). Fruit 313 production of all species that we considered had statistically significant relationships with 314 seasonal NAO indices (Figure 3, Tables 3 and 4), highlighting the importance of the NAO as 315 a driver of ecological processes through effects on meteorological conditions at large spatial 316 scales (Figure 2). These results are thought to emerge because organisms do not respond to 317 318 single environmental variables but to a combination of variables. The NAO indices are thus good predictors of *weather packages* (i.e. temperature, precipitation, humidity, wind, radiation, 319 or pressure), reducing spatiotemporal variability in meteorological conditions into a single index 320 (Stenseth et al. 2003) influencing weather over continental scales. The utility of the NAO (and 321 322 other teleconnection indices) for characterizing weather packages influencing very large geographical scales make them suitable candidate variables for testing the Moran effect. 323

## 4.2. Controls of interannual variability of fruit production

Our results highlighted a contrasting effect of seasonal NAO indices on fruit production for 325 coniferous and broadleaved species: cone crops in coniferous species were mainly negatively 326 correlated with NAO<sub>w</sub> (i.e., associated to dry and cool winters), but fruit production in 327 328 broadleaved species was positively correlated with NAO<sub>sp</sub> (associated with warm and dry springs) and negatively correlated with NAO<sub>a</sub> (associated with warm and wet autumns) 329 (Tables 3 and 4). Nonetheless, these relationships could be altered by local weather (e.g., the 330 positive correlation between winter precipitation and fruit production for *P. abies* in **Table 4**). 331 332 These differences, in part, reflect differences in the effect of leaf characteristics on when weather influences fruit production. Coniferous species in our study were all evergreen (main 333 effect during winter) and the broadleaved species were all deciduous (main effect during 334 335 spring).

Cold winters may delay the growing season for evergreen species and thus the onset of flowering (Frenguelli and Bricchi 1998, García-Mozo et al. 2002, Stöckli and Vidale 2004). Delays in pollinating periods due to cold meteorological conditions have been previously reported to positively affect fruit production in the evergreen *Q. ilex* (Fernández-Martínez et al. 2012). Additionally, cold winter weather may meet the chilling requirements for conifers to reach complete dormancy (Clancy et al. 1995), as is needed to survive unfavourable environmental conditions. In contrast, higher winter temperatures might entail higher metabolic costs for trees, reducing the amount of reserves available to invest in reproduction. This
 reasoning is in line with the *resource matching* hypothesis, i.e., trees would produce fruit as a
 response to the available resources (Table 1).

Dry and warm spring weather (during pollination), however, can facilitate pollen dispersal, because pollen release to the atmosphere increases with temperature and precipitation removes the pollen (García-mozo et al. 2006, Fernández-Martínez et al. 2012, Kasprzyk et al. 2014). We thus suggest that fruit production in deciduous broadleaved species (and *A. alba,* see **Tables 3 and 4**) was positively associated with the NAO<sub>sp</sub> phase because dry and warm weather facilitates pollen release and therefore the fertilisation of female flowers, supporting the *pollination efficiency* hypothesis **(Table 1)**.

353 Fruit crop size for *Q. petraea*, (and also *Q. robur* and *A. alba*, see Table 3) was correlated with warm and wet autumns. Leaf senescence and the start of dormancy is delayed during warm 354 and wet autumns (NAO<sub>a</sub><sup>-</sup>) because of the strong control that temperature exerts on them 355 356 (Vitasse et al. 2009, Estiarte and Peñuelas 2015). Delayed leaf senescence extends the 357 growing period, which allows trees to accumulate resources immediately after most of the fruit is matured. This additional acquisition of resources (Euskirchen et al. 2006) and tree growth at 358 359 the end of the growing season could be spent during the next spring to enable more intense flowering (Fernández-Martínez et al. 2015). This mechanism would be in line with the resource 360 361 *matching* hypothesis (Table 1).

Dry and cool summer weather (NAO<sub>sm</sub><sup>+</sup>) increased fruit crop size in *P. abies* and *F. sylvatica* 362 (Table 3). Because species characteristic of colder and wetter environments are generally 363 more sensitive to changes in temperature than in water availability (Fernández-Martínez et al. 364 365 2014), high summer temperatures may lead to photoinhibition and stomatal closure and thereby reduce photosynthetic capacity, constraining resources available to allocate to ripening 366 fruit. This reasoning mechanism potentially driven by effects of the NAO<sub>sm</sub> on fruit production 367 368 provide further indirect evidence supporting the resource matching hypothesis for P. abies and 369 F. sylvatica (Table 1).

In short, our results generally indicated proximal causes (weather correlated with increased productivity or better pollinating conditions), likely driven by the NAO, as amongst the most plausible mechanisms explaining interannual variability in fruit production. They also indirectly 373 suggest that the resource matching and pollination efficiency hypotheses may actually function together (Table 1), especially for the broadleaved species studied here, as potential drivers of 374 375 interannual variability in fruit production in European forests. The different mechanisms proposed by each of these two hypotheses are likely required to a certain degree to explain 376 377 the large interannual variability in fruit crops and its synchrony. The relative importance of each mechanism will surely depend on the species under study and on the site characteristics 378 379 (Fernández-Martínez et al. 2012). In addition, the considerable variance explained by the models accounting for interannual variability in fruit production suggests that meteorological 380 variability should be one of the most important factors driving interannual variability and 381 synchrony in fruit production (Fernández-Martínez et al. 2015) 382

## 383 4.3. Controls of synchrony of fruit production

Whether synchrony in fruit production is due to the Moran effect or pollen coupling is usually 384 hard to determine, because both hypotheses generate similar patterns of spatial synchrony 385 and are not mutually exclusive (Liebhold et al. 2004, Koenig and Knops 2013). Some 386 predictions of both hypotheses, however, can help to distinguish between them. Synchrony in 387 fruit production due to *pollen coupling* should not extend more than a few hundred kilometres 388 389 at most, and the Moran effect can easily reach hundreds and even thousands of kilometres 390 (Koenig and Knops 2013). According to this prediction, our results suggest that the Moran 391 effect is responsible for the synchrony in fruit production among European forests, some 392 separated by hundreds of kilometres. This inference, however, cannot completley dismiss the 393 *pollen coupling* hypothesis, because our database consisted of forests and not individual trees, so pollen coupling could still be acting to amplify synchrony at the local scale. 394

395 The anti-synchrony in fruit production between F. sylvatica and Q. petraea (Table 6), two potentially co-existing species, suggests a strategy for avoiding large fruit crops in the same 396 397 years. Although such a strategy would be contrary to the *predation satiation* hypothesis (Silvertown 1980, Espelta et al. 2008) but could reduce interspecific interference in pollination, 398 because most of the pollen reaching female flowers would be from the same species in years 399 of high intraspecifically synchronous reproduction. This hypothetical mechanism would tend to 400 401 support the hypothesis that fruit production is synchronized by *pollen coupling*. Nonetheless, synchrony between non-hybridising species cannot occur by pollen coupling, and we found 402 403 significant synchrony amongst species that do not hybridise (Table 6). This result further supports the synchronization of reproduction through the Moran effect, especially when
 combined with the results from our models suggesting that the seasonal NAO indices are
 common drivers of interannual variability.

The Moran effect also predicts that distance between sites will be similarly related to both 407 synchrony in fruit production and meteorological variables (Koenig and Knops 2013). Our 408 results corroborate with this prediction for A. alba, P. abies, P. menziesii, and Q. robur, thus 409 further supporting the Moran effect as an underlying cause of the patterns we have identified. 410 Our findings for *F. sylvatica* and *Q. petraea*, however, do not support this prediction, because 411 synchrony in fruit production for these species and meteorological variables were differently 412 related to distance (**Table 5**). Interannual variability in fruit production for *F. sylvatica* was also 413 414 linked to dry and warm spring weather, favouring pollen dispersal, so *pollen coupling* likely also plays a role synchronising fruit production in these forests and possibly also in Q. petraea 415 416 forests given the similar relation of synchrony in fruit production and meteorological variables with distance (Table 1). Weather also likely plays a role in synchronising fruit crop sizes 417 418 amongst sites because synchrony in meteorological conditions was correlated with synchrony 419 in fruit production for A. alba, F. sylvatica, and Q. petraea. Our results must be interpreted with 420 care, however, because none of the variables involved in predicting synchrony in fruit 421 production also predicted interannual variability in fruit production and because the synchrony 422 models explained only a small amount of the variance. Nonetheless, the NAO is clearly partially responsible for interannual variability in meteorological conditions over western 423 Europe, and so we infer that 1) the NAO acts as a synchronising agent among sites and 2) the 424 Moran effect is probably the main factor synchronising the fruit production of forests in western 425 426 Europe (Table 1).

Both the Moran effect and the *pollen coupling* hypotheses may thus play a role in synchronising fruit production, but at different levels. Whereas the Moran effect is apparent at continental scales, *pollen coupling* may be restricted to local or nearby regional environments. Moreover, according to our results, evidence for the Moran effect seems to apply to more systems than does evidence for *pollen coupling*.

432 Our results generally highlight that weather packages, such as the NAO index, can improve 433 prediction of ecological processes at wide geographical scales, which is particularly useful for 434 testing the explanatory power of the Moran effect in particular situations. Since weather is likely to affect tree resources and enable favourable meteorological conditions for pollination,
we suggest that the synchronising effect of weather was more likely to be due to proximal
causes driving interannual variability rather than the effect of weather as a cue for tree
reproduction.

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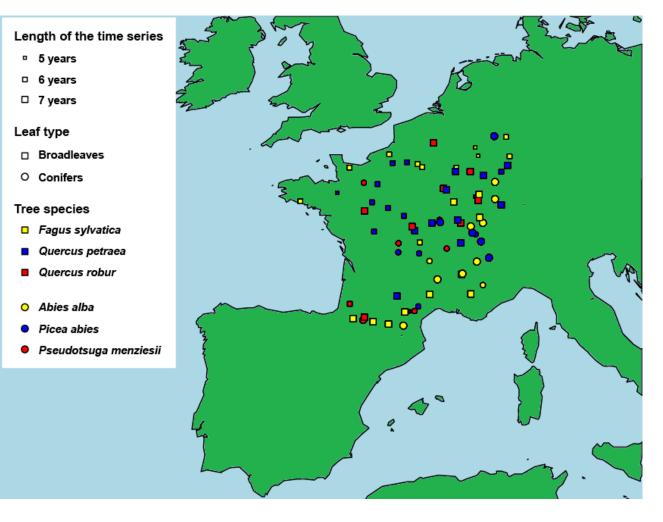
## 546 Figure captions

Figure 1: Map showing the sites used in this study. The sites were located throughout France,Germany, and Luxembourg.

**Figure 2:** Relationships between the seasonal North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) indices and weather for 2002–2010. Positive (+) and negative (-) symbols after NAO indicate positive and negative phases of the index. Values are  $\beta$  weights calculated using generalised linear mixed models with random slopes. All coefficients were significant at the 0.001 level.

**Figure 3:** a) Relationships between the CV of annual fruit production and the spring NAO index for the six species. Thick lines indicate significant relationships at the 0.05 level. b) Partial residuals plot showing the average relationship between the annual CV of fruit production and the spring NAO index amongst species using generalised linear mixed models.

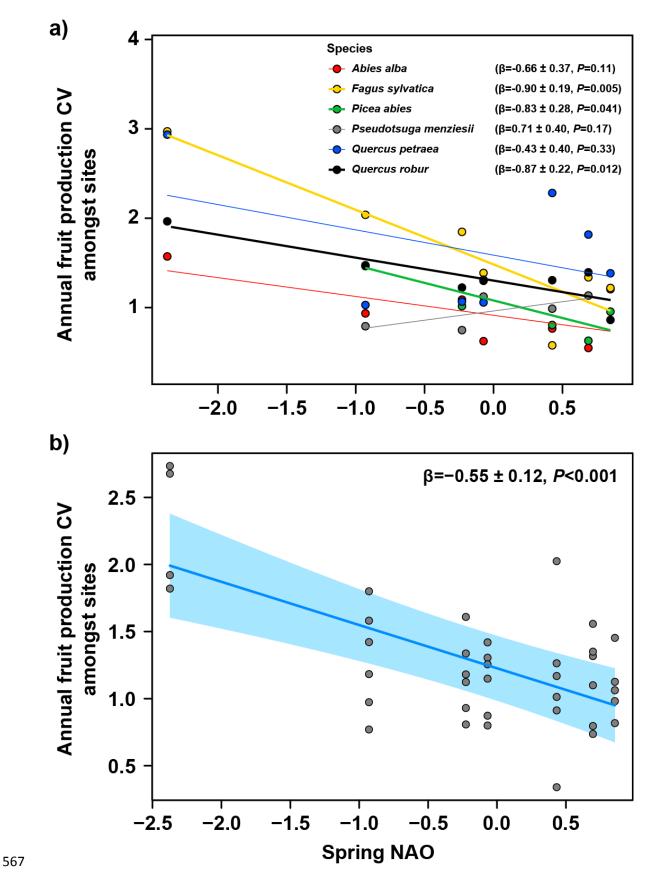
# 559 Figure 1



# **Figure 2**

	Seasonal NAO									
	Winter	Spring	Summer	Autumn						
Precipitation -	0.12	-0.25	-0.19	-0.40						
Temperature -	0.41	0.08	-0.11	-0.06						
NAO⁺ Weather -	warm wet	warm dry	cold dry	cold dry						
NAO <sup>-</sup> Weather -	cold dry	cold wet	warm wet	warm wet						
	βweights									
[										
-(	0.4 -0.3 -0	0.2 -0.1 0.	0 0.1 0.	2 0.3 0.4						

**Figure 3** 



**Table 1:** Summary of the hypotheses discussed in this study for interannual variability and synchrony in fruit production. Our analysis was focused on weather relationships with interannual variability and synchrony in fruit production, so only indirect evidence of the weather relationships supporting or rejecting the hypotheses are presented.

Hypothesis	Summary	Supports	Rejects
a) Interannual variability			
Resource matching	Plants produce fruit as a direct response to the available resources.	Favourable weather for tree productivity is positively correlated with fruit production.	No correlation with weather, or weather cannot be associated with higher tree productivity.
Efficiency of pollination	Synchronised and intermittent flowering increases successful pollination in wind-pollinated	Favourable weather for pollination (e.g. warm and dry springs) is positively correlated with fruit production.	negatively or not correlated with fruit
b) Synchrony			
The Moran effect	Synchrony in fruit production is driven by synchrony in meteorological conditions.	Fruit production amongst sites is correlated with the same meteorological conditions. Non- hybridising species are also synchronised.	Fruit production amongst sites is correlated with different meteorological conditions, or no significant synchrony in fruit production is found amongst sites.
Pollen coupling	Pollen availability from neighbouring trees can generate synchrony in fruit production amongst individuals by interacting with available resources.	Favourable weather for pollination is positively correlated with fruit production. Synchrony occurs within species at the local scale.	Unfavourable weather for pollination is correlated with fruit production. Non-hybridising species are synchronised.

## Indirect evidence

**Table 2:** Summary of the specific aims of the study and the statistical tests performed.

Questions	Analyses
a) Meteorological variability	
Do seasonal NAO indices correlate with seasonal weather at our sites?	Generalised linear mixed models (with site as random factor) correlating seasonal temperature and precipitation with seasonal NAO indices.
b) Interannual variability in fruit produc	ction
Do seasonal NAO indices correlate with ruit production?	Spearman correlations between fruit production and seasonal NAO indices per site.
s fruit production best predicted by local neteorological variability or by seasonal NAO indices?	Generalised linear mixed models per species (with site as random factor) correlating annual fruit production with seasonal temperatures, precipitation, and NAO indices.
c) Synchrony in fruit production	
For a given year, is variability in fruit production amongst sites associated with variability in meteorological conditions or to seasonal NAO indices?	Generalised linear mixed models per species (with site as random factor) correlating annual CV of fruit production amongst sites with annual CV of seasonal temperatures and precipitation and with seasonal NAO indices.
s fruit production (and weather) synchronised across sites within and amongst species?	Temporal synchrony of fruit production, temperature, and precipitation amongst sites is calculated using Spearman correlations (i.e. correlation of time series A vs. time series B).
s synchrony of fruit production and weather between sites spatially dependent?	Linear models correlating synchrony of fruit production and seasonal temperatures and precipitation between sites with geographical distance.
Does synchrony in fruit production between sites depend on synchrony in meteorological conditions and geographical distance?	Linear models correlating synchrony of fruit production with synchrony of seasonal temperatures and precipitation and geographical distance between sites.

**Table 3:** Spearman's correlations between seasonal (autumn, winter, spring, and summer seasons prior to fruit production) NAO indices and fruit production ( $\rho \pm$  standard error) per species and leaf type. The *P* values indicate whether average correlation coefficients differ from 0 (*t*-test). *N* indicates the number of forests per species. Only forests with five or more years of data were used in these analyses. The seasons are indicated by subscripts: w, sp, sm, and a indicate winter, spring, summer, and autumn, respectively.

	<b>NAO</b> <sub>a</sub>		Р		NAOw		Р		NAO <sub>sp</sub>		Р		NAO <sub>sm</sub>		Р		Ν
a) Species																	
Abies alba	-0.34 ± 0.10	ab	0.0031	**	-0.42 ± 0.11	b	0.0007	***	0.45 ± 0.09	ab	0.0003	***	-0.07 ± 0.07	b	0.5433		10
Picea abies	-0.22 ± 0.06	ab	0.0520		-0.42 ± 0.07	b	0.0007	***	0.13 ± 0.15	bc	0.2694		0.27 ± 0.12	ab	0.0141	*	10
Pseudotsuga menziesii	$0.18 \pm 0.25$	а	0.2163		-0.48 ± 0.12	b	0.0026	**	-0.12 ± 0.20	с	0.4400		0.00 ± 0.22	ab	0.9772		6
Fagus sylvatica	0.06 ± 0.07	а	0.4089		0.03 ± 0.08	а	0.7266		$0.61 \pm 0.06$	а	0.0000	***	0.36 ± 0.07	а	0.0000	***	21
Quercus petraea	-0.39 ± 0.08	b	0.0000	***	$0.09 \pm 0.10$	а	0.2810		$0.04 \pm 0.10$	bc	0.6014		-0.06 ± 0.06	b	0.4676		20
Quercus robur	-0.48 ± 0.11	b	0.0001	***	-0.14 ± 0.11	ab	0.2786		$0.34 \pm 0.11$	abc	0.0092	**	-0.04 ± 0.15	b	0.7297		9
b) Leaf type																	
Conifers	-0.18 ± 0.08	а	0.0341	*	-0.43 ± 0.06	b	0.0000	***	$0.20 \pm 0.09$	а	0.0253	*	$0.08 \pm 0.08$	а	0.2900		26
Broadleaves	-0.21 ± 0.06	а	0.0005	***	$0.02 \pm 0.06$	а	0.6490		0.33 ± 0.06	а	0.0000	***	0.12 ± 0.05	а	0.0250	*	50

**Table 4:** Summary of the models predicting fruit production per species. Standardised coefficients are shown as model estimates ( $\beta \pm$  standard error (SE)).  $\Delta$ BIC indicates the variable importance of the predictors and is calculated as the difference of BIC between the entire model and the model without the predictor of interest. Variance explained by the fixed factors ( $R^{2}_{m}$ ) and by the entire model ( $R^{2}_{c}$ ) is also shown. All coefficients were significant at the 0.05 level. The seasons are indicated by subscripts: w, sp, sm, and a indicate winter, spring, summer, and autumn, respectively.

	β±SE	ΔΒΙϹ	<b>R</b> <sup>2</sup> <sub>m</sub>	<b>R</b> <sup>2</sup> <sub>c</sub>
Abies alba				
NAOw	-0.40 ± 0.10	10.81		
<b>NAO</b> <sub>sp</sub>	0.42 ± 0.09	13.59		
Pw	-0.29 <b>±</b> 0.11	0.90		
Model			0.39	0.47
Picea abies				
<b>NAO</b> <sub>sm</sub>	0.31 ± 0.07	11.51		
P <sub>sp</sub>	-0.32 ± 0.12	2.62		
Pw	0.49 ± 0.12	11.41		
T <sub>sm</sub>	0.38 ± 0.18	0.52		
Model			0.26	0.79
Pseudotsuga m	enziesii			
NAOa	0.39 ± 0.10	10.63		
NAOw	-0.29 <b>±</b> 0.11	3.78		
T <sub>sp</sub>	0.57 ± 0.14	4.33		
Model			0.52	0.52
Fagus sylvatica				
NAOa	0.48 ± 0.07	34.37		
<b>NAO</b> <sub>sp</sub>	0.85 ± 0.07	88.22		
P <sub>sm</sub>	-0.22 ± 0.08	3.95		
Ta	-0.16 ± 0.07	0.14		
Model			0.51	0.55
Quercus petrae	a			
NAOa	-0.20 ± 0.08	0.90		
Ta	0.35 ± 0.08	11.89		
Model			0.21	0.21
Quercus robur				
P <sub>sm</sub>	0.30 ± 0.12	1.42		
Ta	0.72 ± 0.16	14.34		
Tw	-0.38 <b>±</b> 0.15	2.45		
Model			0.26	0.28

**Table 5:** a) Average synchrony (average Spearman's correlation of fruit production between sites:  $\rho \pm$  standard error) in annual fruit production (NPP), seasonal temperature (T), and precipitation (P) between sites within species. b) Standardised slopes between synchrony and geographical distance ( $\beta \pm$  standard error). Bold coefficients indicate values that differ from zero at the 0.05 level (*t*-test). *N* indicates the number of pairwise comparisons. The seasons are indicated by subscripts: w, sp, sm, and a indicate winter, spring, summer, and autumn, respectively.

	A. alba	P. abies	P. menziesii	F. sylvatica	Q. petraea	Q. robur
a) Synchro	ny (ρ)					
Fruit NPP	0.36 ± 0.07	0.31 ± 0.08	$0.19 \pm 0.20$	0.60 ± 0.02	0.20 ± 0.04	0.29 ± 0.07
Tw	0.90 ± 0.01	0.89 ± 0.02	0.82 ± 0.02	0.89 ± 0.01	0.96 ± 0.01	0.94 ± 0.01
T <sub>sp</sub>	0.73 ± 0.03	0.70 ± 0.05	0.72 ± 0.07	0.74 ± 0.02	0.85 ± 0.01	0.78 ± 0.03
<b>T</b> <sub>sm</sub>	0.96 ± 0.01	0.95 ± 0.01	0.94 ± 0.02	0.94 ± 0.01	0.96 ± 0.01	0.95 ± 0.01
Ta	0.81 ± 0.02	0.82 ± 0.03	0.73 ± 0.06	0.69 ± 0.02	0.79 ± 0.01	0.85 ± 0.02
Pw	0.71 ± 0.04	0.80 ± 0.03	0.34 ± 0.15	0.44 ± 0.03	0.68 ± 0.02	0.38 ± 0.08
P <sub>sp</sub>	0.62 ± 0.04	0.56 ± 0.07	0.62 ± 0.08	0.53 ± 0.03	0.58 ± 0.03	0.67 ± 0.03
P <sub>sm</sub>	0.56 ± 0.04	0.61 ± 0.07	0.39 ± 0.14	0.42 ± 0.03	0.77 ± 0.01	0.65 ± 0.05
Pa	0.61 ± 0.05	0.74 ± 0.03	0.57 ± 0.13	0.49 ± 0.03	0.68 ± 0.02	0.59 ± 0.04
b) 6 with d	listance					
Fruit NPP	$-0.20 \pm 0.16$	-0.35 ± 0.21	-0.39 ± 0.38	-0.06 ± 0.08	$-0.01 \pm 0.09$	-0.71 ± 0.13
Tw	-0.65 ± 0.13	-0.69 ± 0.16	-0.29 ± 0.39	-0.54 ± 0.07	-0.33 ± 0.08	-0.79 ± 0.12
T <sub>sp</sub>	-0.62 ± 0.13	-0.44 ± 0.20	-0.75 ± 0.27	-0.67 ± 0.06	-0.70 ± 0.06	-0.82 ± 0.11
T <sub>sm</sub>	-0.52 ± 0.14	-0.22 ± 0.22	$-0.06 \pm 0.41$	-0.41 ± 0.07	-0.07 ± 0.09	-0.65 ± 0.14
T <sub>fall</sub>	-0.51 ± 0.14	-0.56 ± 0.19	$-0.02 \pm 0.41$	-0.44 ± 0.07	-0.32 ± 0.08	-0.50 ± 0.16
Pw	-0.86 ± 0.08	-0.45 ± 0.20	-0.75 ± 0.27	-0.58 ± 0.06	-0.21 ± 0.08	-0.68 ± 0.14
P <sub>sp</sub>	-0.75 ± 0.11	-0.31 ± 0.21	-0.03 ± 0.41	-0.35 ± 0.07	-0.37 ± 0.08	-0.04 ± 0.19
P <sub>sm</sub>	-0.41 ± 0.15	-0.67 ± 0.17	-0.54 ± 0.34	-0.36 ± 0.07	-0.47 ± 0.08	-0.61 ± 0.15
P <sub>fall</sub>	-0.79 ± 0.10	-0.64 ± 0.17	-0.30 ± 0.39	-0.58 ± 0.06	-0.60 ± 0.07	-0.79 ± 0.12
N	38	22	8	163	135	30

**Table 6:** Average synchrony (Spearman's  $\rho \pm$  standard error) between sites within and amongst species. Comparisons amongst leaf types and all sites are also shown. Bold coefficients indicate values that differ from zero at the 0.05 level (*t*-test). The number of comparisons is shown in brackets below each coefficient. Only comparisons with five or more years of shared data were used.

	Abies alba	Picea abies	Pseudotsuga menziesii	Fagus sylvatica	Quercus petraea	Quercus robur
Abies alba	<b>0.36 ± 0.07</b> (38)	0.07 ± 0.07 (53)	0.10 ± 0.06 (23)	<b>0.20 ± 0.03</b> (161)	<b>0.12 ± 0.03</b> (116)	<b>0.26 ± 0.03</b> (81)
Picea abies	0.07 ± 0.07 (53)	<b>0.31 ± 0.08</b> (22)	0.02 ± 0.06 (24)	<b>0.08 ± 0.04</b> (130)	<b>0.09 ± 0.04</b> (113)	0.04 ± 0.04 (46)
Pseudotsuga menziesii	0.10 ± 0.06 (23)	0.02 ± 0.06 (24)	0.19 ± 0.20 (8)	<b>-0.10 ± 0.05</b> (65)	-0.07 ± 0.05 (86)	-0.13 ± 0.10 (19)
Fagus sylvatica	<b>0.20 ± 0.03</b> (161)	<b>0.08 ± 0.04</b> (130)	<b>-0.10 ± 0.05</b> (65)	<b>0.60 ± 0.02</b> (163)	<b>-0.12 ± 0.03</b> (279	<b>0.10 ± 0.04</b> (141)
Quercus petraea	<b>0.12 ± 0.03</b> (116)	<b>0.09 ± 0.04</b> (113)	-0.07 ± 0.05 (86)	<b>-0.12 ± 0.03</b> (279)	<b>0.20 ± 0.04</b> (135)	<b>0.28 ± 0.04</b> (97)
Quercus robur	<b>0.26 ± 0.03</b> (81)	0.04 ± 0.04 (46)	-0.13 ± 0.10 (19)	<b>0.10 ± 0.04</b> (141)	<b>0.28 ± 0.04</b> (97)	<b>0.29 ± 0.07</b> (30)

Comparisons amongst leaf types				
Broadleaves	<b>0.17 ± 0.02</b> (845)			
Conifers	<b>0.17 ± 0.03</b> (168)			
All species	<b>0.12 ± 0.01</b> (1830)			

**Table 7:** Summary of the models correlating synchrony ( $\rho$ ) of fruit production between sites with synchrony in meteorological conditions. Coefficients are  $\beta$  weights ± standard error.  $R^2$ indicates the total variance explained by the model. All coefficients were statistically significant at the 0.05 level. Only comparisons with five or more years of shared data were used in the models. The variables of seasonal temperature and precipitation are indicated by T and P, respectively. The seasons are indicated by subscripts: w, sp, sm, and a indicate winter, spring, summer, and autumn, respectively.

	A. alba	P. abies	F. sylvatica	Q. petraea	Q. robur
Distance					-0.71 ± 0.13
Ta	0.45 ± 0.15				
P <sub>w</sub>			0.20 ± 0.08		
P <sub>sm</sub>				0.20 ± 0.09	
R <sup>2</sup>	0.20	-	0.04	0.04	0.50
Comparisons	38	22	163	135	30