

Globally, tree fecundity exceeds productivity gradients

Valentin Journé¹  | Robert Andrus² | Marie-Claire Aravena³ | Davide Ascoli⁴ |
 Roberta Berretti⁴ | Daniel Berveiller⁵ | Michal Bogdziewicz⁶ | Thomas Boivin⁷ |
 Raul Bonal⁸ | Thomas Caignard⁹ | Rafael Calama¹⁰ | Jesús Julio Camarero¹¹  |
 Chia-Hao Chang-Yang¹² | Benoit Courbaud¹ | Francois Courbet⁷ | Thomas Curt¹³ |
 Adrian J. Das¹⁴ | Evangelia Daskalakou¹⁵ | Hendrik Davi⁷ | Nicolas Delpierre⁵ |
 Sylvain Delzon⁹ | Michael Dietze¹⁶  | Sergio Donoso Calderon³ | Laurent Dormont¹⁷ |
 Josep Maria Espelta¹⁸ | Timothy J. Fahey¹⁹ | William Farfan-Rios²⁰ |
 Catherine A. Gehring²¹ | Gregory S. Gilbert²² | Georg Gratzer²³ |
 Cathryn H. Greenberg²⁴ | Qinfeng Guo²⁵ | Andrew Hacket-Pain²⁶ | Arndt Hampe⁹ |
 Qingmin Han²⁷ | Janneke Hille Ris Lambers²⁸ | Kazuhiko Hoshizaki²⁹ | Ines Ibanez³⁰ |
 Jill F. Johnstone³¹ | Daisuke Kabeya²⁷ | Roland Kays³²  | Thomas Kitzberger³³ |
 Johannes M. H. Knops³⁴ | Richard K. Kobe³⁵ | Georges Kunstler¹  |
 Jonathan G. A. Lageard³⁶ | Jalene M. LaMontagne³⁷ | Theodor Leininger³⁸ |
 Jean-Marc Limousin³⁹ | James A. Lutz⁴⁰ | Diana Macias⁴¹ | Eliot J. B. McIntire⁴² |
 Christopher M. Moore⁴³ | Emily Moran⁴⁴ | Renzo Motta⁴ | Jonathan A. Myers⁴⁵ |
 Thomas A. Nagel⁴⁶ | Kyotaro Noguchi⁴⁷ | Jean-Marc Ourcival³⁹ | Robert Parmenter⁴⁸ |
 Ian S. Pearse⁴⁹ | Ignacio M. Perez-Ramos⁵⁰ | Lukasz Piechnik⁵¹ | John Poulsen⁵² |
 Renata Poulton-Kamakura⁵² | Tong Qiu⁵² | Miranda D. Redmond⁵³ | Chantal D. Reid⁵² |
 Kyle C. Rodman⁵⁴ | Francisco Rodriguez-Sanchez⁵⁵ | Javier D. Sanguinetti⁵⁶ |
 C. Lane Scher⁵²  | Harald Schmidt Van Marle³ | Barbara Seget⁵¹ | Shubhi Sharma⁵² |
 Miles Silman⁵⁷ | Michael A. Steele⁵⁸ | Nathan L. Stephenson¹⁴ | Jacob N. Straub⁵⁹ |
 Jennifer J. Swenson⁵² | Margaret Swift⁵² | Peter A. Thomas⁶⁰ | Maria Uriarte⁶¹  |
 Giorgio Vacchiano⁶² | Thomas T. Veblen² | Amy V. Whipple⁶³ | Thomas G. Whitham⁶³ |
 Boyd Wright⁶⁴ | S. Joseph Wright⁶⁵  | Kai Zhu²²  | Jess K. Zimmerman⁶⁶ |
 Roman Zlotin⁶⁷ | Magdalena Zywiec⁵¹  | James S. Clark^{1,52} 

¹Université Grenoble Alpes, Institut National de Recherche pour Agriculture, Alimentation et Environnement (INRAE), Laboratoire EcoSystemes et Societes En Montagne (LESSEM), St. Martin-d'Heres, France

²Department of Geography, University of Colorado Boulder, Boulder, Colorado, USA

³Universidad de Chile, Facultad de Ciencias Forestales y de la Conservacion de la Naturaleza (FCFCN), Santiago, Chile

⁴Department of Agriculture, Forest and Food Sciences, University of Torino, Grugliasco, TO, Italy

⁵Université Paris-Saclay, Centre national de la recherche scientifique, AgroParisTech, Ecologie Systematique et Evolution, Orsay, France

⁶Department of Systematic Zoology, Faculty of Biology, Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznan, Poland

⁷Institut National de Recherche pour Agriculture, Alimentation et Environnement (INRAE), Ecologie des Forets Meditteranennes, Avignon, France

⁸Department of Biodiversity, Ecology and Evolution, Complutense University of Madrid, Madrid, Spain

- ⁹Universite Bordeaux, Institut National de Recherche pour Agriculture, Alimentation et Environnement (INRAE), Biodiversity, Genes, and Communities (BIOGECO), Pessac, France
- ¹⁰Centro de Investigacion Forestal (INIA-CSIC), Madrid, Spain
- ¹¹Instituto Pirenaico de Ecologia, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Cientificas (IPE-CSIC), Zaragoza, Spain
- ¹²Department of Biological Sciences, National Sun Yat-sen University, Kaohsiung, Taiwan
- ¹³Aix Marseille universite, Institut National de Recherche pour Agriculture, Alimentation et Environnement (IN-RAE), Aix-en-Provence, France
- ¹⁴USGS Western Ecological Research Center, Three Rivers, California, USA
- ¹⁵Institute of Mediterranean and Forest Ecosystems, HellenicAgricultural Organization " DEMETER", Athens, Greece
- ¹⁶Earth and Environment, Boston University, Boston, Massachusetts, USA
- ¹⁷Centre d'Ecologie Fonctionnelle et Evolutive (CEFE), Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique (CNRS), Montpellier, France
- ¹⁸Centre de Recerca Ecologica i Aplicacions Forestals (CREAF), Bellaterra, Catalunya, Spain
- ¹⁹Natural Resources, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, USA
- ²⁰Center for Conservation and Sustainable Development, Washington University in Saint Louis, Missouri Botanical Garden, St. Louis, Missouri, USA
- ²¹Department of Biological Sciences and Center for Adaptive Western Landscapes, University of Northern Arizona, Flagstaff, Arizona, USA
- ²²Department of Environmental Studies, University of California, Santa Cruz, California, USA
- ²³University of Natural Resources and Life Sciences and Institute of Forest Ecology, Wien, Austria
- ²⁴Bent Creek Experimental Forest, USDA Forest Service, Asheville, North Carolina, USA
- ²⁵Eastern Forest Environmental Threat Assessment Center, USDA Forest Service, Southern Research Station, Asheville, North Carolina, USA
- ²⁶Department of Geography and Planning, School of Environmental Sciences, University of Liverpool, Liverpool, UK
- ²⁷Department of Plant Ecology Forestry and Forest Products Research Institute (FFPRI), Tsukuba, Ibaraki, Japan
- ²⁸Department of Environmental Systems Science, ETH Zurich, Switzerland
- ²⁹Department of Biological Environment, Akita Prefectural University, Akita, Japan
- ³⁰School for Environment and Sustainability, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA
- ³¹Institute of Arctic Biology, University of Alaska, Fairbanks, Alaska, USA
- ³²Department of Forestry and Environmental Resources, NC State University, Raleigh, North Carolina, USA
- ³³Department of Ecology, Instituto de Investigaciones en Biodiversidad y Medioambiente (Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones Cientificas y Tecnicas - Universidad Nacional del Comahue), Bariloche, Argentina
- ³⁴Health and Environmental Sciences Department, Xian Jiaotong-Liverpool University, Suzhou, China
- ³⁵Department of Plant Biology, Program in Ecology, Evolutionary Biology, and Behavior, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, USA
- ³⁶Department of Natural Sciences, Manchester Metropolitan University, Manchester, UK
- ³⁷Department of Biological Sciences, DePaul University, Chicago, Illinois, USA
- ³⁸USDA, Forest Service, Southern Research Station, Stoneville, Mississippi, USA
- ³⁹CEFE, Univ Montpellier, CNRS, EPHE, IRD, Montpellier, France
- ⁴⁰Department of Wildland Resources, and the Ecology Center, Utah State University, Logan, Utah, USA
- ⁴¹Department of Biology, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, New Mexico, USA
- ⁴²Pacific Forestry Centre, Victoria, British Columbia, Canada
- ⁴³Department of Biology, Colby College, Waterville, Maine, USA
- ⁴⁴School of Natural Sciences, UC Merced, Merced, California, USA
- ⁴⁵Department of Biology, Washington University in St. Louis, St. Louis, Missouri, USA
- ⁴⁶Department of forestry and renewable forest resources, Biotechnical Faculty, University of Ljubljana, Ljubljana, Slovenia
- ⁴⁷Tohoku Research Center, Forestry and Forest Products Research Institute, Morioka, Iwate, Japan
- ⁴⁸Valles Caldera National Preserve, National Park Service, Jemez Springs, New Mexico, USA
- ⁴⁹USGS, Fort Collins Science Center, Fort Collins, Colorado, USA
- ⁵⁰Inst. de Recursos Naturales y Agrobiologia de Sevilla, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Cientificas (IRNAS-CSIC), Seville, Andalucia, Spain
- ⁵¹W. Szafer Institute of Botany, Polish Academy of Sciences, Krakow, Poland
- ⁵²Nicholas School of the Environment, Duke University, Durham, North Carolina, USA
- ⁵³Department of Forest and Rangeland Stewardship, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, Colorado, USA
- ⁵⁴Department of Forest and Wildlife Ecology, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, Wisconsin, USA
- ⁵⁵Department of Biología Vegetal y Ecología, Universidad de Sevilla, Sevilla, Spain
- ⁵⁶Bilogo Dpto. Conservacin y Manejo Parque Nacional Lanin Elordi y Perito Moreno 8370, San Marten de los Andes, Argentina
- ⁵⁷Department of Biology, Wake Forest University, Winston-Salem, North Carolina, USA
- ⁵⁸Department of Biology, Wilkes University, Wilkes-Barre, Pennsylvania, USA
- ⁵⁹Department of Environmental Science and Ecology, State University of New York-Brockport, Brockport, New York, USA
- ⁶⁰School of Life Sciences, Keele University, Staffordshire, UK
- ⁶¹Department of Ecology, Evolution and Environmental Biology, Columbia University, New York, New York, USA
- ⁶²Department of Agricultural and Environmental Sciences - Production, Territory, Agroenergy (DISAA), University of Milan, Milano, Italy
- ⁶³Department of Biological Sciences, Northern Arizona University, Flagstaff, Arizona, USA
- ⁶⁴Botany, School of Environmental and Rural Science, University of New England, Armidale, New South Wales, Australia

⁶⁵Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute, Balboa, Republic of Panama

⁶⁶Department of Environmental Sciences, University of Puerto Rico, Rio Piedras, Puerto Rico, USA

⁶⁷Geography Department and Russian and East European Institute, Bloomington, Indiana, USA

Correspondence

James S. Clark, Nicholas School of the Environment, Duke University, Durham, NC, USA.

Email: jimclark@duke.edu

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Abstract

Lack of tree fecundity data across climatic gradients precludes the analysis of how seed supply contributes to global variation in forest regeneration and biotic interactions responsible for biodiversity. A global synthesis of raw seed production data shows a 250-fold increase in seed abundance from cold-dry to warm-wet climates, driven primarily by a 100-fold increase in seed production for a given tree size. The modest (threefold) increase in forest productivity across the same climate gradient cannot explain the magnitudes of these trends. The increase in seeds per tree can arise from adaptive evolution driven by intense species interactions or from the direct effects of a warm, moist climate on tree fecundity. Either way, the massive differences in seed supply ramify through food webs potentially explaining a disproportionate role for species interactions in the wet tropics.

KEYWORDS

climate, competition, forest regeneration, seed consumption, species interactions, tree fecundity

INTRODUCTION

Understanding how tree fecundity contributes to global biodiversity and ecosystem function requires estimates of latitudinal trends in seed production. At the community scale, tree fecundity determines the density of competing offspring and the diets of consumers and seed dispersers that depend on seeds and seedlings (Corlett, 2013; Mokany et al., 2014; Terborgh, 1986). Diversity, stem density and growth and mortality rates all show important trends with latitude (Chu et al., 2019; Lewis et al., 2004; Locosselli et al., 2020; Phillips & Gentry, 1994; Stephenson & Van Mantgem, 2005). Fecundity estimates are now available in North America (Clark et al., 2021; Sharma et al., 2021), but unlike growth and mortality rates (Brienen et al., 2020; Stephenson & Van Mantgem, 2005), fecundity estimates have not been compiled from the tropics. At the global scale, a meta-analysis of 18 seedtrap studies in temperate and tropical forests did not find a relationship between seedrain density (seeds per area) and latitude, but the same study suggested that seed mass density might decline with latitude (Moles et al., 2009). If the density of seed mass per area is higher in the tropics than in the temperate zone, does high seed mass density in the tropics come from the fact that tropical trees are simply larger and/or embedded in more productive communities, as assumed in Dynamic Global Vegetation Models (DGVMs) (Fisher et al., 2018; Hanbury-Brown et al., 2022; Krinner et al., 2005; Sitch et al., 2003)? Alternatively, does high seed mass density in the tropics result from greater seed production for a given tree size? Understanding global trends requires estimates of seed production at both the individual tree and the per

area scales. We present a new synthesis that allows us to quantify the fecundity gradient on a global scale and determine that the fecundity gradient is amplified in warm/moist climates beyond what can be explained by tree size or net primary productivity (NPP).

The global meta-analysis that found a possible trend in seed mass multiplied the number of seeds counted in traps by the average seed size for all plant species that were observed at the same latitude (Moles et al., 2009). The authors recognised the approximate nature of these estimates given the seven-order of magnitude range of seed sizes used to obtain the latitude means. In addition to uncertain seed size, counts from seed traps vary widely depending on precise placement of seed traps relative to locations of trees. Where reproduction is counted directly on trees, studies typically report on one to a few species from one to a few sites, and not seed production for all trees in measured plots, as would be needed to place fecundity on a per area basis. Recent compilations of year-to-year mast production recognise additional challenges posed by divergent methods, some yielding a range of indices at the individual or stand scale on relativised or ordinal scales (LaMontagne et al., 2020; Pearse et al., 2020). Unlike previous meta-analyses, we analyse raw data referenced to an individual tree-year, that is, the seed production by each tree in each year, including all trees on inventory plots. By estimating seed production at the tree-year scale (Clark et al., 2019), we quantify both the trends in individual production and in the seed production per area.

The indicators that we evaluate allow us to determine both the gradient in seed productivity of communities and how the gradient in seed productivity is influenced

by individual tree responses. Individual fecundity could vary due to climate through alternative allocation priorities (Figure 1a). Because reproductive effort depends on both seed sizes and numbers (Westoby et al., 1992), and reproductive effort varies with tree size (Qiu et al., 2021), *individual standardised production* (ISP) is defined here relative to tree basal area,

$$ISP_{ij} = \frac{\hat{f}_{ijs} \times g_s}{\text{basal area}_i}, \quad (1)$$

($\text{g m}^{-2} \text{year}^{-1}$). ISP depends on the mass of a seed g_s produced by species s and the estimate of mean seed production $\hat{f}_{ijs}$ for tree i at location j that accounts for the effects of shading by neighbours, and the variation and uncertainty in seed production each year, $f_{ijs,t}$ (see Methods: Uncertainty in ISP and CSP, Equation (4)). ISP is standardised by tree size to isolate the fecundity differences that are unrelated to size. If seed production is determined solely by tree size, as assumed in most ecological models (reviewed in Qiu et al., 2021), then climate effects on tree size still come through the effects of climate on past growth, which, in turn, affects tree size and thus stand structure; even if trees are larger in the wet tropics, ISP could still be constant across the climate gradient because ISP is standardised for size. Departures from this constant response are possible if trees allocate proportionately more or less to fecundity in warm/moist climates (Figure 1).

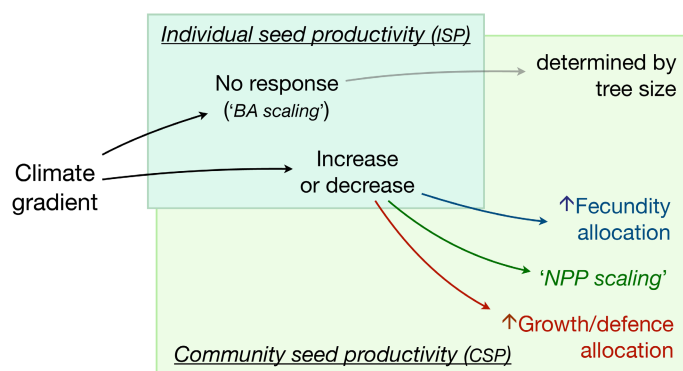
While ISP_{ij} can show how individual allocation changes with climate, *community seed production*, CSP_j , quantifies seed production per area of forest, the starting point both for stand regeneration and the interactions between seeds, seedlings, consumers and dispersers. [We hereafter omit subscripts to reduce clutter.] Like NPP,

CSP is a community property, defined as the seed production summed over all trees on a plot and divided by plot area ($\text{g ha}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$, Methods, Equation 5). CSP might scale as a fraction of NPP, as suggested by some empirical evidence (Vacchiano et al., 2018) and assumed in DGVMs (Fisher et al., 2018; Hanbury-Brown et al., 2022). NPP scaling predicts high CSP in warm/moist climates where NPP is high (Del Grosso et al., 2008) (Figure 1b). It is also possible that intense competition selects for allocation to growth and defences that enhance survival. If so, CSP is expected to show a flatter response to climate than the NPP response to climate ('↑ growth/defence' in Figure 1).

Alternatively, fecundity responses could be amplified beyond what could be explained by the effects of climate on size or NPP ('↑ fecundity' in Figure 1). There are at least two potential causes for fecundity amplification, including (i) reproductive allocation can respond to favourable climates because reproduction is unconstrained by the structural and hydraulic constraints that limit growth responses (King et al., 2009; Koch et al., 2004), and (ii) intense species interactions in the wet tropics amplify selection for reproduction to offset high losses to consumers and enhance the benefits of frugivory (Terborgh, 1986; Harms et al., 2000; Hille Ris Lambers et al., 2002; Schemske et al., 2009; Levi et al., 2019; Hargreaves et al., 2019).

Large data sets are needed to estimate climate effects due to wide variation in seed production. For a given tree, large crop years often exceed intervening years by orders of magnitude (Koenig, 2021; LaMontagne et al., 2020; Mendoza et al., 2018; Vacchiano et al., 2018). Variation between trees also varies by orders of magnitude (Clark et al., 2004; Minor & Kobe, 2019). Seed production further responds to spatio-temporal variation in habitat

(a) Individual and community response



(b) CSP and NPP responses

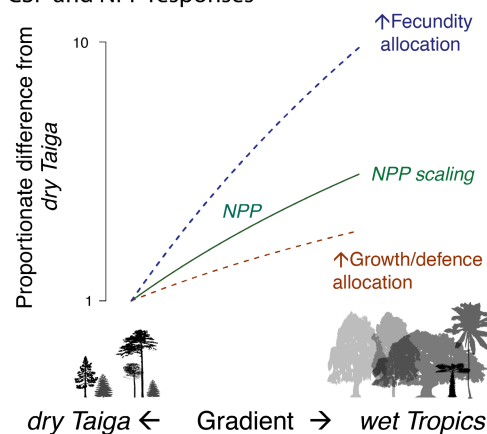


FIGURE 1 (a) Individual seed productivity (ISP, seed mass per tree basal area) might not vary with latitudinal climate gradients, in which case community seed productivity (CSP, seed mass production per forest area) depends on variation in tree size. Alternatively, responses could depend on net primary productivity (NPP), increasing if allocation in warm climates shifts preferentially to fecundity or decreasing if allocation in warm climates shifts to growth and defences. (b) Proportionate differences in fecundity hypothesised for the three scenarios in (a) shown as differences from the climate gradient in NPP. The NPP scaling scenario means that NPP and CSP follow the same proportionate trajectory (green line)

and climate (Bogdziewicz, Fernández-Martínez, et al., 2020; Caignard et al., 2017), including local competition (Clark et al., 2014, 2019). The many sources of variation means that biogeographic trends can only be identified from broad coverage and large sample sizes, while accounting for individual tree condition, local habitat and climate (Qiu et al., 2021).

This synthesis extends the Masting Inference and Forecasting (MASTIF) network (Clark et al., 2021; Sharma et al., 2021) to quantify the climate controls on seed production globally and the extent to which seed-production trends go beyond what can be explained by the effects of tree size and productivity. Data include 12 M observations from 147K mature trees and 251 inventory plots (Figure 2). We summarise climate trends with mean annual temperature and moisture surplus. Model fitting allows for the effects of individual condition and local habitat variation by including tree diameter, shade class and soil cation exchange capacity (CEC), a widely used indicator of soil fertility (Hazelton & Murphy, 2007; Hengl et al., 2017), all of which affect seed production (Materials and Methods).

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Fecundity data

This study uses crop count (CC, on trees) and seedtrap (ST) data (Figure 3) from the MASTIF project. Most observations (99%) come from longitudinal studies, where all trees on a plot (ST) or individual trees (CC) are observed repeatedly. Other CC observations (1%) are obtained opportunistically through the iNaturalist project MASTIF (Clark et al., 2019). All observations provide estimates of ISP, including those on isolated trees. CSP requires seed production from a known area and comes from inventory plots (Table S1). Data include 12,053,732

tree-year observations from 748 species and 146,744 mature individuals.

As in all observational studies, geographic coverage is not uniform. The majority of sites are temperate (98%), while most observations (tree-years, 80%), trees (58%) and species (74%) are tropical. Sample sizes are included in Table S1. Sample locations are shown in Figure 2 and detailed in Figure S1 and Table S1. To assure that results are not dominated by any one site, we show that the same trends dominate when the largest tropical site, Barro Colorado Island (BCI), is removed from the analysis (Figure S4).

For both CC and ST data types, an observation represents a tree-year (a fecundity estimate for one tree in one year). A CC observation includes the number of fruiting structures counted (e.g. individual seeds, cones and fruits) and an estimate of the fraction of the total crop represented by the count (see Model Inference with MASTIF). Where structures bear more than one seed, numbers are scaled by seeds per structure. For example, *Fagus* capsules bear two seeds per capsule, and *Pinus* cones bear from 10 to 200 seeds per cone, depending on species. Seed mass and number of seeds per fruiting structure were taken as an average for the species, obtained from collections in our laboratories, supplemented with the TRY Plant Trait Database (Kattge et al., 2020). A seedtrap (ST) observation includes counts and locations for seed traps on an inventory plot where each tree is measured and mapped. The uncertainty in a tree-year estimate depends on the crop-fraction estimate for CC observations and on the redistribution kernel for ST observations. A beta-binomial distribution for CC data combines uncertainty in the count and in the crop-fraction estimate. For ST observations, the redistribution model ('dispersal kernel') quantifies transport to seed traps, a categorical (multinomial) distribution allows for uncertain seed identification, and a Poisson likelihood allows for variable counts. These data models

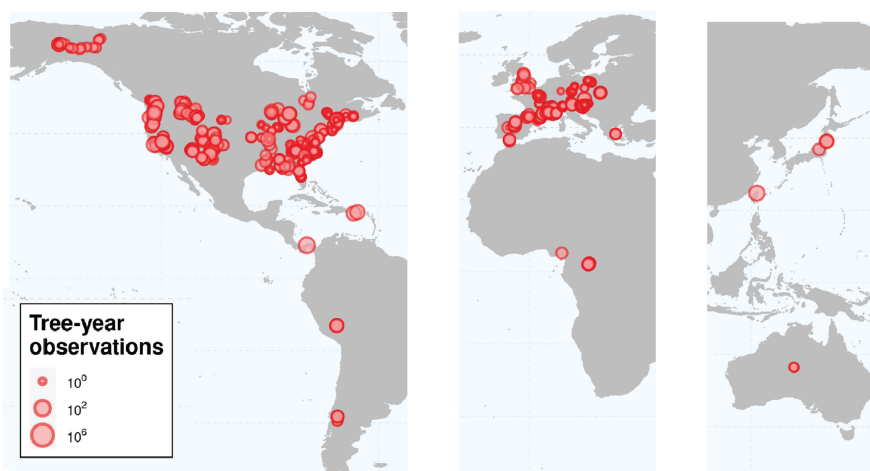


FIGURE 2 MASTIF data summary, with symbol size proportional to observations. The distribution of data is detailed in Figure S1 and in Table S1.

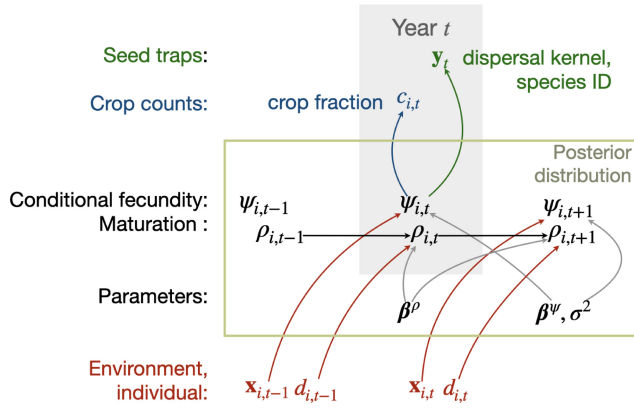


FIGURE 3 The MASTIF model simplified from Clark et al. (2019) to emphasise variables and parameters discussed in the text. A biophysical model for change in fecundity $\psi_{i,t}$ of tree i in year t (a tree-year) is driven by individual tree condition and climate and habitat variables in design vector $\mathbf{x}_{i,t}$ with corresponding coefficients β . Maturation status incorporates tree diameter $d_{i,t}$. The hierarchical state-space model includes process error variance σ^2 and observation error in two data types. A crop count $c_{i,t}$ has a beta-binomial distribution that includes observation error through the estimated crop fraction. A set of seed traps provides a vector of counts $\mathbf{y}_t = y_{1,t}, \dots, y_{n,t}$ that together provide information on tree i through a dispersal kernel. There is conditional independence in fecundity values between trees and within trees over time, taken up by stochastic treatment of $\psi_{i,t}$. There is an additional subscript for location j that is suppressed here to reduce clutter. The full model includes additional elements (see section Model Inference with MASTIF)

link to a common process model for individual fecundity (Figure 3). Stochastic treatment of fecundity absorbs dependence between observation types, between trees and within trees over time. The full model is detailed in Clark et al. (2019) and summarised in the section Model Inference with MASTIF.

Environmental and individual covariates

Predictors for a given tree-year include diameter, crown class, climate, soil and terrain covariates (Table S2). Linear and quadratic terms for diameter allow for changes in fecundity with tree size (Qiu et al., 2021). The crown class assigned to each tree ranges from 1 (full sun) to 5 (full shade), following the protocol used in the National Ecological Observation Network (NEON) and the USDA Forest Inventory and Analysis (FIA) program.

Climate variables include norms and annual anomalies for temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) from the previous year, and moisture surplus (summed monthly precipitation minus evapotranspiration, mm) from the previous and current years. To allow for changes in moisture access with tree size, we included the interaction between moisture surplus and tree diameter. Climate variables were derived from CHELSA (Karger et al., 2017), TerraClimate (Abatzoglou et al., 2018) and local climate monitoring

data where available. TerraClimate provides monthly but spatially coarse resolution (Abatzoglou et al., 2018) through 2020. CHELSA provides high spatial resolution (1 km) but CHELSA is not available after 2016. We used regression to project CHELSA climate forward based on TerraClimate, followed by calibration to local weather data where available. Details are available in Clark et al. (2021).

Cation exchange capacity (CEC), an indicator of soil fertility (Hazelton & Murphy, 2007), was obtained from soilGrid250 (Hengl et al., 2017) and used as the weighted mean from three soil depths, namely 0–5, 5–15 and 15–30 cm, where weights are the reported uncertainty values. Slope and aspect were obtained from the global digital elevation model from the NASA shuttle radar topography mission (Farr et al., 2007) and, for latitudes above 61° , from the USGS National Elevation Dataset (Gesch et al., 2002). Both products have 30-m resolution. The covariates for slope and aspect (u_1, u_2, u_3) constitute a length-3 vector,

$$\mathbf{u}_j = \begin{cases} u_{j,1} = \sin(s_j) \\ u_{j,2} = \sin(s_j) \sin(a_j), \\ u_{j,3} = \sin(s_j) \cos(a_j) \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

for slope s_j , where aspect a_j is taken in radians. These three terms are included as elements of the design vector $\mathbf{x}_{ij,t}$ (Clark, 1990b).

Model inference with MASTIF

The MASTIF model is a (hierarchical) state-space, auto-regressive model that accommodates dependence between trees and within trees over years through a joint analysis detailed in Clark et al. (2019). For each tree i at location j and year t , there is a mean fecundity estimate $\hat{f}_{ij,t} = \hat{\rho}_{ij,t} \hat{\psi}_{i,t}$ that is the product of conditional fecundity $\hat{\psi}$ and maturation probability $\hat{\rho}_{ij,t}$, which is the probability that an individual is in the mature state, $z_{ij,t} = 1$. The model for conditional fecundity is given by $\log \psi_{ij,t} = \mathbf{x}'_{ij,t} \beta^{(x)} + \beta_i^{(w)} + \gamma_{g[i],t} + \epsilon_{ij,t}$, where $\mathbf{x}_{ij,t}$ is the design vector holding climate, soils, local crowding and individual attributes (Table S2), $\beta^{(x)}$ are fixed-effects coefficients, $\beta_i^{(w)}$ is the random effect for tree i , $\gamma_{g[i],t}$ are year effects that are random across groups g and fixed for year t , and $\epsilon_{ij,t}$ is Gaussian error. To approximate the scale of potential synchronicity of masting species, the group membership $g[i]$ for tree i is assigned by species ecoregion (Clark et al., 2019), using the WWF ecoregion classification (Olson et al., 2001). The principal elements of the model are summarised as a directed acyclic graph (DAG) in Figure 3.

Conditional log fecundity ψ is censored at zero to allow for the immature state and for failed seed crops in mature individuals,

$$f_{ij,t}|(z_{ij,t} = 1) = \begin{cases} 0 & \psi_{ij,t} \leq 1 \\ \psi_{ij,t} & \psi_{ij,t} > 1 \end{cases}. \quad (3)$$

This censoring means that seed production requires the potential to produce at least one seed; the Tobit model uses this censoring to allow for discrete zero observations for otherwise continuous response variables (Tobin, 1985). For ISP, fecundity is multiplied by mass per seed and standardised for tree basal area (Equation 1). For CSP, seed mass is summed over trees on an inventory plot and divided by plot area. The uncertainty for both quantities is given in the section Uncertainty in ISP and CSP.

The posterior distribution includes parameters and latent variables for maturation state and tree-year seed production. Posterior simulation uses direct sampling and Metropolis and Hamiltonian Markov Chain (HMC) updates within Gibbs. Model structure and methodology were implemented with R (version 4.0, R Core Team, 2020) and the R package Mast Inference and Forecasting (MASTIF), detailed in Clark et al. (2019).

Uncertainty in ISP and CSP

Mean productivity estimates for an individual, ISP, incorporate year-to-year uncertainty for that tree. Mean productivity estimates for the community, CSP, incorporate tree-to-tree uncertainty for the inventory plot. We included only trees >7 cm in diameter, that is, at least as large as the smallest measured size in inventory data. Individual fecundity for species s at location j is evaluated as

$$\hat{f}_{ijs} = \frac{\sum_t w_{ijs,t} \hat{f}_{ijs,t}}{\sum_t w_{ijs,t}}, \quad (4)$$

where the weight $w_{ijs,t}$ is the inverse of the predictive coefficient of variation for the estimate, $w_{ijs,t} = CV_{ijs,t}^{-1}$. The CV is used rather than the predictive standard deviation, because the mean tends to scale with the variance such that a standard deviation weight would have the undesirable property of down-weighting the important large values while up-weighting the less important low values. ISP combines fecundity from Equation (4) with seed mass and tree basal area in Equation (1).

Community seed production is evaluated from the individual means

$$CSP_j = \frac{n_j}{A_j} \frac{\sum_{is} w_{ijs} \hat{f}_{ijs}}{\sum_{is} w_{ijs}}, \quad (5)$$

where A_j is plot area, n_j is the number of trees and w_{ijs} is the inverse of the coefficient of variation given by the

root mean predictive variance divided by the predictive mean for tree ij s. Because CSP requires plot area, only trees on inventory plots are included in the CSP analysis. Variation in ISP and CSP values were compared across temperature and moisture surplus using regression.

Net primary production

We extracted net primary production (NPP) from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) product MOD17 at 500 m resolution (MOD17A3HGFv006, Running et al., 2004). We merged yearly CSP estimates with NPP from matching site years, which are available from 2000 to 2020. Because seed production data span the interval 1959 to 2020, we used the location-specific mean NPP values for the limited number of earlier years. Because MODIS NPP is influenced by cloud cover, we compared MODIS NPP values with NPP values from DGVMs in the S3 experiment of the TRENDY project (Sitch et al., 2015). For each MASTIF site, we averaged NPP from 11 models (CABLE-POP, CLASSIC, CLM5.0, ISAM, JSBACH, JULES, LPJ-GUESS, LPX, OCN, ORCHIDEE and ORCHIDEE-CNP) and fitted regressions to the same climate variables used for ISP and CSP (temperature and moisture surplus). The two NPP products show similar main effects, but differ in the temperature $\times$ moisture interaction, which is positive for MODIS and negative for the aggregated DGVM. Despite this difference in the interaction term, main effects dominate the response surfaces that show the same trends for both NPP sources (Figure S5). Thus, we included only MODIS results in Figure S6.

RESULTS

Community seed production (CSP) increases 250-fold to a global maximum in the warm, moist tropics, primarily driven by a 100-fold increase in seed production for a given tree size (ISP). ISP and CSP trends with climate align with the geographic trend in NPP (panel c in Figure 4), but ISP and CSP far exceed the NPP response. The flat ISP (seed production per tree basal area) response expected if fecundity scales with tree basal area (Figure 1) contrasts with the observed 100-fold ISP increase along this gradient (Figure 5), verifying the amplification hypothesised in Figure 1b. The NPP scaling assumed in current models (Figure 1b) is likewise dwarfed by the CSP rise in seed supply to consumers (Figure 4b).

Despite large trends in ISP and CSP with temperature and moisture (Figure 5), the latitudinal contribution to fecundity variation is still lower than the contributions of between-tree and the within-tree (over time) variation

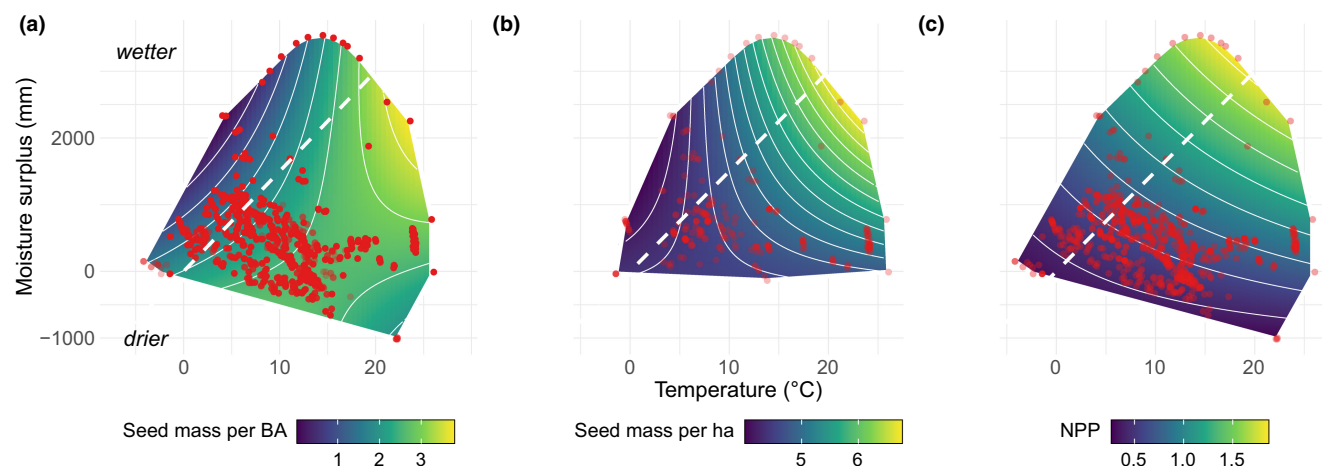


FIGURE 4 (a) Climate responses for (a) ISP (seed production per tree basal area, $\log_{10} \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$), (b) CSP (seed mass per ha forest floor, $\log_{10} \text{ g ha}^{-1} \text{ y}^{-1}$) and (c) NPP ($\text{kg C m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$). Dashed lines indicate the transect from dry taiga to wet tropics in Figure 5. The scales for contours are linear for (c) and $\log_{10}$ for (a) and (b). Convex hulls are defined by observations (red), including individual trees (a, c) and inventory plots (b). Surface predictive standard error are reported in Figure S3. Coefficients are reported in Table S3

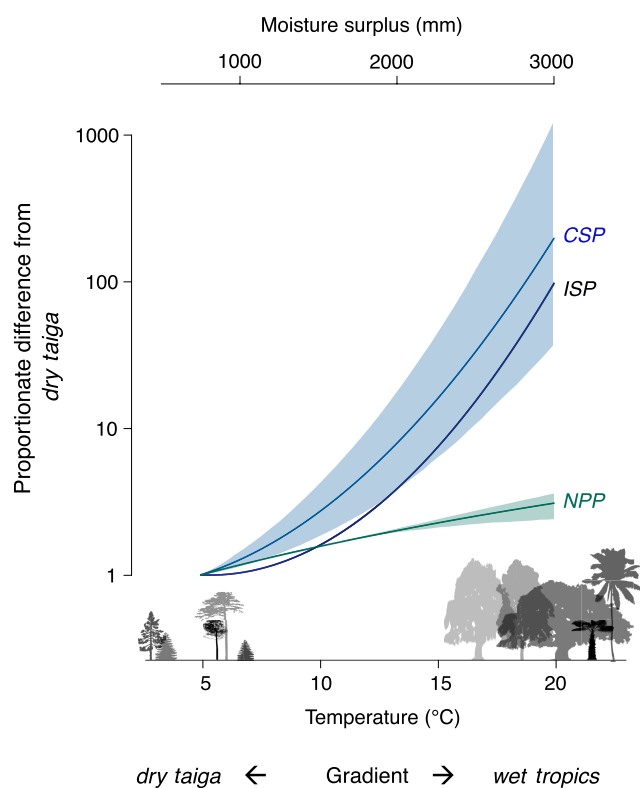


FIGURE 5 Two order of magnitude increases from cold/dry to warm/moist for individual (ISP) and community (CSP) seed production relative to NPP. Curves are sections through surfaces (dashed lines) in Figure 4, with scales for moisture surplus (above) and temperature (below). Curves are in proportion to values in cold, dry conditions. Confidence intervals (95%) are not visible for ISP due to the large number of trees. Confidence intervals are wider for CSP due to limited inventory plots at high temperatures (Figure 2)

(Figure S2). Average seed production for 95% of all trees of a given size varies over five orders of magnitude, with ISP ranging from 0.000025 to 50 g cm^{-2} of basal area

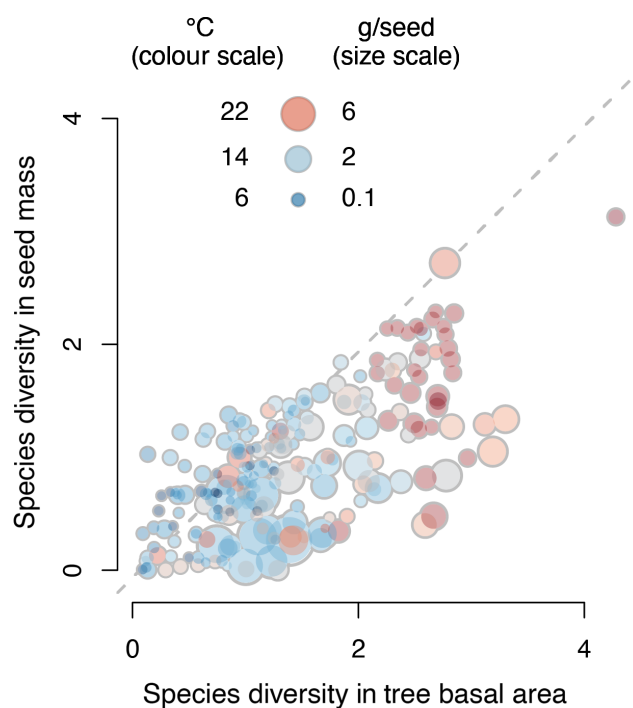


FIGURE 6 Species diversity in seeds (vertical axis) is lower than expected from species diversity in trees (horizontal axis). In both cases, diversity is evaluated from the Shannon index, $-\sum p_s \log p_s$, where p_s is the fraction of species s in basal area (trees) and CSP (seed mass). Each point represents an inventory plot. Except at low tree diversity, points lie almost entirely below the 1:1 line (dashed). The legend at top left shows mean annual temperature (symbol colour) and mass of the average seed (symbol size)

(Figure S7a). Individual variation is matched by that for community seed production, with 95% of CSP values ranging from 50 g to 2500 kg ha^{-1} (Figure S7b). Tree-to-tree variation combines for an increase in ISP to highest values in warm, moist climates (Figure 4a, b) that

is driven more by temperature than by moisture (Table S3); the temperature response is amplified by moisture where temperatures are high (Figure S2c). The fact that the massive geographic trend in Figure 5 can be masked by tree-to-tree and year-to-year variation (these sources are partitioned in Clark et al., 2004) emphasises the importance of large data sets that span broad coverage in individual condition, habitat and climate (Qiu et al., 2021).

Forest productivity does not explain the global fecundity gradient evident at the individual and community levels. The parallel 100- and 250-fold increases for ISP and CSP (Figure 5) to maxima in warm, moist climates (Figure 4) span only a threefold range for NPP. The trends in both ISP and CSP mean that not only do individual trees produce more seed for a given size in the wet tropics, but also that seed abundance is amplified at the community level (Figure 4a, b). [Community-level CSP need not necessarily track ISP responses due to heterogeneous size–species structures associated with local site conditions, past disturbance and competition].

DISCUSSION

The 250-fold latitudinal trend in tree seed production exceeds expectations from previous studies. The possibility that seed production might be highest at low latitudes and that seed production might not be explained by productivity was suggested from mean counts in 18 forest seedtrap studies (Moles et al., 2009). New estimates reported here reflect an extension to large sample sizes, direct inference on seed production by each tree (rather than counts within traps) and use of seed mass for the species (rather than a mean value across all species at the same latitude). With synthetic modelling of 12 M observations on 753 species, we extend the previous discovery of a fecundity hotspot in the warm, moist south-eastern North America (Clark et al., 2021) to a global phenomenon.

Biogeographic trends reported here complement studies that focus on interannual variation or ‘masting’. Temporal variation in climate (Bogdziewicz, Fernández-Martínez, et al., 2020; Caignard et al., 2017; Clark et al., 2014) is of great interest for understanding allocation shifts within individuals over time (Koenig, 2021), but these interactions fundamentally differ from geographic variation in populations subjected to divergent selection histories (Clark et al., 2014). Results here provide a geographic context for variation within species and communities and the variables that control variation.

Improving forest regeneration in DGVMs might shift from the current focus on sharpening estimates of reproduction as a fraction of NPP (Fisher et al., 2018; Hanbury-Brown et al., 2022) to a recognition of how fecundity responses diverge from NPP. Results from

Figure 5 show that the DGVM assumption of fecundity as a simple fraction of NPP misses the key controls at stand and regional scales. Clearly, reproduction is not a residual sink to be filled after growth and other demands are satisfied. Previous understanding shows the assumption of reproduction as a constant fraction of NPP to be unrealistic at the individual scale (fecundity is far more volatile than annual resource capture or growth) (Berdanier & Clark, 2016; Clark et al., 2004, 2014; Sala et al., 2012). The climate trends in Figure 5 show that NPP scaling also does not work as a community-level summary. Fecundity responses to local habitat and regional climate reported here can enter models directly.

Amplified fecundity in warm, moist climates, beyond what could be explained by trends in NPP (Figure 5), may represent a direct climate response or the legacy of adaptive evolution to intense species interactions. By quantifying both individual and community seed productivity (ISP, CSP), we show that the community response is driven primarily by the fact that trees of a given size produce, on average, 100 times the seed mass in the wet tropics. This latitudinal trend in ISP is then amplified to a 250-fold trend in CSP (seed production per area) by the greater abundances of large trees in the wet tropics. Amplification beyond the trend in NPP may result from flexibility in seed production to respond to a longer growing season (Mendoza et al., 2018; Yeoh et al., 2017) well in excess of tree growth, which is limited by mechanical and hydraulic constraints on tree size (King et al., 2009; Koch et al., 2004). At the community scale, NPP is further constrained by the compensatory losses in stand biomass as mortality increases to offset increases in growth (Assmann, 1970; Clark, 1990a). Thus, while NPP increases with warm, wet conditions, the lack of structural constraints on producing more seeds might allow for a disproportionate fecundity response in Figure 1. Alternatively, amplification could also be driven by intense species interactions that select for reproduction to offset high losses to consumers and enhance the benefits of frugivory (Terborgh, 1986; Harms et al., 2000; Hille Ris Lambers et al., 2002; Schemske et al., 2009; Levi et al., 2019; Hargreaves et al., 2019).

Whether amplification occurs as a direct response to climate or as an adaptive response to intense biotic interactions, the density- and frequency-dependent processes involving competition, consumers and seed dispersers have community-wide implications. The two order-of-magnitude climatic and latitudinal trend in seed mass per forest floor area (CSP) has direct implications for density-dependent interactions, which include competition within tree species and frequency-dependent consumers. Elevated seed supply and the offsetting mortality losses affect selective pressure for competitive phenotypes. The bottom-up enrichment of food webs that cascades to higher trophic levels (Levi et al., 2019;

Ostfeld & Keesing, 2000; Rosenblatt & Schmitz, 2016) can increase consumer and disperser densities that, in turn, impose frequency dependence selection on seed and seedling survival (Janzen, 1970). The magnitude of amplification suggests that seed supply intensifies species interactions in the wet tropics.

Frequency-dependent consumer pressures depend on diversity of the seed resource, which is poorly predicted by the standard inventory of trees. Using Shannon entropy [$-\sum_s p_s \log p_s$, where p_s is the fraction of species s in basal area (trees) and CSP (seed mass)], species diversity of both seed productivity and tree basal area is highest in the warm tropics. However, tree diversity exceeds the diversity of the seed resource in warm climates (Figure 6). The lower species diversity for seeds than for trees in warm climates results from the fact that species having modest differences in tree basal area vary widely in fecundity; tendency for a subset of species to dominate seed production reduces seed diversity below that for trees. Conversely, in the cool climates where seeds tend to be small (small, blue symbols in Figure 6), the low diversity that would be estimated on the basis of trees can mask an unexpectedly high seed diversity. Although many studies do not record fecundity for species having the smallest seeds (e.g. Salicaceae), these are also the seeds that are least apparent to many consumers. Omission of these smallest seeds from this study means that values of seed production are underestimates, but still relevant for many consumers. The net effect of overestimating seed diversity in warm climates is important for frequency-dependent processes (Green et al., 2014), such as host-specific seed predation.

Whether the 100-fold biogeographic gradient is driven by biophysical constraints on allocation or adaptive evolution to differing consumer pressures, these results add a new dimension to the understanding of trophic processes that may control latitudinal diversity gradients. If host-specific consumers regulate diversity through density- and frequency-dependent attack, then the strongest impacts are occurring where seed supply can support the highest numbers of consumers. Through shared consumers and frugivores, fecundity of many species can contribute to the selection pressures on competitors and consumers (Bogdziewicz, Kelly, et al., 2020; Whitham et al., 2020). The dramatic biogeographic trend in seed supply sets up the potential for an evolutionary arms race (Dawkins & Krebs, 1979; Gruntman et al., 2017) as selective pressures balance the benefits of producing more seed against the full costs of increased fecundity (Fridley, 2017; Obeso, 2002; Pincheira-Donoso & Hunt, 2015), including diverting resources from growth and defence (Berdanier & Clark, 2016; Lauder et al., 2019). A positive feedback on selection pressure in diverse tropical forests could ensue where species from every major angiosperm clade

enrich functional space and niche overlap. Regardless of whether this arms race has occurred, the trends in stand-level seed rain have profound implications for food web dynamics.

Our results show that climate change impact on tree fecundity will not scale simply with change in productivity. Climate change-induced changes in seed production will come with feedbacks through shared consumers and dispersers (Bogdziewicz, Kelly, et al., 2020). The temperature-tropical gradient in seed production reported here could motivate research into climate effect on seed production, their consumers and dispersers (Hargreaves et al., 2019).

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no competing interests.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

V.J. and J.S.C. performed analyses and co-wrote the paper; J.S.C. designed the study, compiled the MASTIF network and wrote the MASTIF model and software; M.B., B.C., G.K. and T.Q. co-wrote the paper. All authors contributed data and revised the paper.

PEER REVIEW

The peer review history for this article is available at <https://publons.com/publon/10.1111/ele.14012>.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

All data and code supporting our results are archived on the Zenodo Repository at the following link: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6381799>

ORCID

Valentin Journé  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7324-7002>
 Jesús Julio Camarero  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2436-2922>
 Michael Dietze  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2324-2518>
 Roland Kays  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2947-6665>
 Georges Kunstler  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2544-1940>
 C. Lane Scher  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3689-5769>
 Maria Uriarte  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0484-0758>
 S. Joseph Wright  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4260-5676>
 Kai Zhu  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1587-3317>
 Magdalena Zywiec  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5992-4051>
 James S. Clark  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5677-9733>

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

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