

Leaf dry matter content is better at predicting above-ground net primary production than specific leaf area

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49 **Running headline:** LDMC and SLA as predictors of primary production.

50 Summary

51	1.	Reliable modelling of above-ground Net Primary Production (aNPP) at fine resolution is a
52		significant challenge. A promising avenue for improving process models is to include
53		response and effect trait relationships. However, uncertainties remain over which leaf
54		traits are correlated most strongly with aNPP.
55	2.	We compared abundance-weighted values of two of the most widely used traits from
56		the Leaf Economics Spectrum (Specific Leaf Area and Leaf Dry Matter Content) with
57		measured aNPP across a temperate ecosystem gradient.
58	3.	We found that Leaf Dry Matter Content (LDMC) as opposed to Specific Leaf Area (SLA)
59		was the superior predictor of aNPP (R^2 =0.55).
60	4.	Directly measured in situ trait values for the dominant species improved estimation of
61		aNPP significantly. Introducing intra-specific trait variation by including the effect of
62		replicated trait values from published databases did not improve the estimation of
63		aNPP.
64	5.	Our results support the prospect of greater scientific understanding for less cost because
65		LDMC is much easier to measure than SLA.
66		
67		
68	Ke	y-words: Bayesian modelling, ecosystem, global change, measurement error, ecosystem
69	fur	nction, intra-specific variation,
70		
71	Int	roduction
72	Ne	t Primary Production (NPP), defined as the rate at which plants convert CO_2 and water
73	int	o dry matter, is the basis for life on Earth and is a fundamental ecosystem function
74	sup	oporting food production, soil formation and climate stabilisation. An estimated 28.8% of
75	glo	bal NPP (Haberl <i>et al.</i> 2007) is appropriated by humans as food, fibre and fuel with
76	cor	nsumption often spatially far removed from the area of production (Erb et al. 2009).

77 Accurate prediction of NPP is therefore critical to ecological and economic assessments of the links between land-use change, human well-being and impacts on biodiversity and other 78 ecosystem services (DeFries 2002; Haberl et al. 2007). NPP is, however, challenging to 79 80 measure and predict accurately (Cramer et al. 1999; Scurlock et al. 2002; Jung et al. 2007). A way forward is to derive regionally applicable relationships between plant traits and NPP 81 82 thereby providing empirical understanding that can potentially be built into global 83 ecosystem models to improve their performance (Wright et al. 2006; Van Bodegom et al. 84 2012). New empirical predictions of NPP in terms of plant trait abundance also allow 85 process models to be tested at fine resolution across a range of ecosystems. Trait-based ecology has become a unifying strand in global change biology because the 86 87 same sets of key plant traits respond to global change drivers while also driving subsequent 88 effects on ecosystem function (Tateno & Chapin 1997; Suding et al. 2008; Reich 2014). We test the performance of two leaf traits – Leaf Dry Matter Content (LDMC) and Specific Leaf 89 90 Area (SLA) - as predictors of above-ground NPP (aNPP) across a realistically wide 91 productivity gradient using comprehensive measurements of aNPP comprising the full range of plant functional types that dominate temperate ecosystems. Our study seeks to resolve 92 93 an outstanding question concerning the relative merits of each trait as a correlate of soil fertility and ecosystem productivity (Wilson et al. 1999; Hodgson et al. 2011). LDMC and SLA 94 both correlate strongly with nutrient availability but it is not clear which of these is the best 95 96 predictor of aNPP (Wilson et al. 1999; Ordoñez et al. 2009; 2010; Fortunel et al. 2009; 97 Hodgson et al. 2011; Pakeman 2011). Given its repeatedly proven alignment with the soil available nutrients axis, SLA has become the pre-eminent predictive leaf trait (Reich 2014). 98 99 However, the sensitivity of SLA to light availability means that it is not a reliable partial

predictor of soil fertility as irradiance changes during succession. Since primary production reflects the availability of resources that include light and nutrients it could mean that SLA is actually a better predictor of aNPP. To test this relationship requires treating SLA as an effect trait rather than as a response trait where variation in abundance-weighted values are explained by abiotic factors (Hodgson *et al.* 2011).

105

Unlike SLA, LDMC varies independently of leaf thickness (Shipley 1995; Wilson et al. 1999; 106 107 Roche et al. 2004) but is also strongly correlated with resource availability and with relative 108 growth rate (Weiher et al. 1999; Garnier et al. 2004; Fortunel et al. 2009). LDMC has been recommended as a more reliable correlate of soil fertility at least in biomes not subject to 109 severe water limitation (Vendramini et al. 2002). Here we explore the role of SLA and LDMC 110 as predictors of ecosystem function and ask which best predicts aNPP across ecosystems. 111 Since there has been a growing appreciation of the influence of within-species trait variation 112 113 (Albert et al. 2010; Siefert et al. 2015) we also test whether including intra-specific trait variation improves the fitted relationship between traits and aNPP. We investigate the 114 performance of each trait as a predictor of aNPP when species of low abundance are 115 excluded and when plant species abundance-weighted trait values for the dominant species 116 among habitats are based on database values or in situ measurements. 117

Our starting point was to compute abundance-weighted trait values based on published UK
database values. This is the easiest method to apply for constructing trait-derived variables.
However, if locally measured trait-values differ appreciably from database means and
correlate with aNPP then database-derived means will be a poorer predictor of local aNPP.
We tested the importance of intra-specific variation in two ways. First, we substituted mean

123 database trait values for the dominant species in each sampling plot with *in situ* measurements of leaf traits for those species. The two most abundant species were 124 selected to ensure adequate sampling of the species contributing the most biomass to each 125 stand. Secondly, we introduced intra-specific trait variation via its effect on the variance of 126 the abundance-weighted mean trait values. Thus, rather than employing one abundance-127 weighted mean trait value per sampling plot, a prior distribution of values was calculated 128 129 based on repeated draws of trait values for each individual plant species. The distributions 130 of trait values for each species were derived from readily accessible replicated database 131 measurements. We then applied a Bayesian measurement error model that allows the 132 observed values of aNPP to feedback onto the posterior estimates of the abundanceweighted trait values potentially improving the fit between aNPP and trait-based 133 explanatory variable. If successful, this would suggest that better use could be made of the 134 variation in trait values that is readily accessible from databases, rather than just utilising 135 136 trait means.

137

138 In summary we test the following hypotheses:

Abundance-weighted LDMC is a better predictor of aNPP than abundance-weighted
 SLA.

141
2. Estimation of aNPP is improved when trait values for the dominant plant species are
142 based on *in situ* measurements rather than database averages.

143 3. Estimation of aNPP is improved when intra-specific trait variation based on
144 replicated database values is included in the model.

145

146 Materials and Methods

147

148 Study region and sampling locations

149 Fifteen sites were located in the River Conwy catchment in north Wales, UK. The remaining 150 two sites (limestone grassland and upland unimproved hay meadow) were located within the Ingleborough National Nature Reserve in North West England in the upper reaches of 151 the Ribble catchment (Fig. 1; Table 1). The regional climate for all sites is temperate 152 153 maritime (Peel, Finlayson & McMahon 2007). Annual precipitation lies between 1000 and 154 1300 mm at Ingleborough and between 600 and 4700 mm in the Conwy valley. Average 155 daily minimum January temperature across the sites is in the range -1 to 3 °C and average daily maximum July temperatures from 17 to 21 °C (long term annual averages 1981-2010, 156 157 http://www.metoffice.gov.uk/public/weather/climate/#?region=uk). 158 159 Above-ground NPP was measured in 49 vegetation sampling plots through 2013 and 2014.

These plots were nested into 17 sites arranged along a productivity gradient from lowland 160 grasslands intensively managed for agriculture through to montane heath. Within each site, 161 an area of target habitat was selected as a roughly rectangular fraction of the wider habitat 162 of interest. In enclosed land this rectangle was defined by field boundaries. In woodlands 163 and unenclosed habitats a rectangular area was selected to encompass a large area (0.25-1 164 ha) of the target habitat, for example blanket bog, acid grassland and montane heath. 165 Sampling locations within each site were then chosen at random. Together, these sites 166 sample all common habitat and land-use types in Britain and thus were intended to 167 represent the principal plant biodiversity and productivity gradients in NW Europe. 168 169

170

171 Measurement of above-ground Net Primary Production

172

Above-ground NPP (g dry mass m⁻² yr⁻¹) was measured using a variety of methods according 173 174 to the plant functional types present. These types comprised C3 graminoids (Poaceae, 175 Junaceaa, Cyperaceae), broad-leaved and needle-leaved trees, dwarf shrubs, forbs and 176 bryophytes (Table 1). All plots were visited in early January at the start of each measurement year. Any green herbaceous material was removed by clipping to 1 cm 177 vegetation height. Standing litter was, as far as possible, not removed nor disturbed. In 178 179 sheep and cattle-grazed systems (grasslands and mires), livestock exclosures were installed 180 and the vegetation cut twice throughout the growing season; first at estimated peak 181 biomass and a second time to capture late summer and autumn regrowth. These two values 182 were then summed. While this method does not overcome possible issues with negative and positive compensatory growth as a result of grazing, uncertainty over the importance 183 184 and direction of these effects is great and no clearly superior method appears to exist that 185 accounts for these effects whilst also excluding grazers (McNaughton et al. 1996; Pontes et 186 al. 2007).

187

The biomass fractions attributable to functional types within woodland and peatland
ecosystems were measured using differing methods. In peatlands, growth of *Sphagnum*species was measured over two years using the cranked wire method (Clymo 1970; Kivimäki
2011). Peatland graminoids were measured by harvesting annual biomass accumulation in
livestock exclosures over one year using the same methods applied to grazed grasslands.

In woodlands, different methods were used to measure annual production of trees. Leaf
 litter was collected using 20 randomly placed buckets (26cm in diameter) per 200m²

196 sampling plot. These were installed in September before litterfall and visited and emptied every two to four weeks until no leaves were visible in the canopy. Annual woody mass 197 198 increment was measured by combining tree-coring, DBH (tree diameter at 1.3 m height), 199 wood density and tree height measurements. Herbaceous understorey growth was 200 harvested in spring and summer after cutting back in January. Where present, annual production of the bryophyte layer was measured by harvesting the moss mat that had 201 202 grown through coarse plastic meshes of known size pegged securely to the substrate in 203 early January and harvested after one year.

204

205 Measurement of aNPP was carried out using plots of varying dimensions scaled to the size 206 of the plant types present, but then expressed as production per m² across all vegetation 207 types (Table 1). Full details of all the methods used for measurement of aNPP on each site 208 are described in Supplementary Material.

209

210 Plant species abundance

211

In each plot in which aNPP was measured, all vascular plant species and bryophytes were
identified and cover was estimated in intervals of 5 % except for species recorded at ≤1 %
cover which were given a value of 1. Percentage cover was based on horizontal leaf
projection over the plot so that total cover over all species was allowed to exceed 100, for
example, where the understorey comprised a bryophyte layer, a fern layer and a tree
canopy. Only species recorded with ≥5 % cover were used in the calculation of mean
abundance-weighted trait values.

220 Plant traits

222	In situ measurements of SLA and LDMC were carried out by focussing on the dominant
223	vascular plant species in each plot defined as the two species contributing maximum
224	standing biomass in the year of sampling (Table 1). LDMC (g dry mass g ⁻¹ fresh mass) was
225	measured by weighing fresh material consisting of 10 to several hundred mature but non-
226	senescent leaves from different plants depending on leaf size. Leaves were weighed fresh,
227	then dried for 24 hours at 80 °C, and weighed again. SLA (mm ² mg ⁻¹ dry mass) was measured
228	by sampling 10 leaves from different plants. Leaf area was calculated based on scanned
229	photographs analysed using the Image J software v1.46r (http://imagej.nih.gov/). Dry
230	weight was measured as for LDMC (Pérez-Harguindeguy et al. 2013).
231	
232	Database values for SLA and LDMC for all vascular plant species encountered in the sample
232 233	Database values for SLA and LDMC for all vascular plant species encountered in the sample were extracted from LEDA (Kleyer <i>et al.</i> 2008) and ECPE (Grime <i>et al.</i> 2007). Only values for
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Analysis

Mean abundance-weighted trait values (x_{jk}) for SLA and LDMC were computed for each NPP sampling plot *j* within each site *k* as follows; $x_{jk} = \sum_{i} \frac{\tau_{ijk} p_{ijk}}{\sum_{i} p_{ijk}}$ where (p_{ijk}) was either the raw percentage cover or square-root transformed cover value for species *i* in each sample plot *j* within site *k* (e.g. Manning *et al.* 2015). The trait values (τ_{ijk}) for each species *i* in each sample plot *j* and within site *k* were based either on replicated *in* situ measurements on the two plant species with the highest cover in each plot, or mean values of each trait extracted from the databases described above. Two values of the mean abundance-weighted trait (SLA or LDMC) were derived for each plot based on either trait values derived solely from UK databases or supplemented by *in situ* trait measurements for the dominant species in each plot where this value substituted for the database average for those species (Table 1). Abundance-weighted values for SLA and LDMC were used as covariates in regression models designed to test the three hypotheses by determining which model best predicted measured aNPP.

265	
266	Statistical modelling
267	
268	Model building was carried out using the 'Im' and 'Imer' functions in the Ime4 R package
269	(Bates et al. 2015). Initial data exploration and preparation followed the steps outlined in
270	Zuur et al. (2010) and Crawley (2013). We identified outliers using the outlierTest function in
271	the 'Im' R package. The boxcox function in the 'mass' R package was used to assess
272	homogeneity of variance and the nature of any transformation required to aNPP.
273	
274	Tests of hypotheses 1 to 3 were carried out by comparing models where each model was of
275	the form,
276	
277	$y_{ik} = m_{ik} + \gamma_k + \varepsilon_{ik}, \qquad 1)$
278	
279	m _{jk} = a + b.x _{ik} 2)
280	
281	$\gamma_k \sim N(0, \sigma_{\gamma}^2)$
282	
283	$\varepsilon_{ik} \sim N (0, \sigma_{\varepsilon}^{2}).$
284	
285	Where y_{jk} was the natural log transformed aNPP for plot j in site k, x_{jk} was the abundance-
286	weighted trait variable and γ_k was a random intercept for each site k.
287	

288	Model performance was evaluated by likelihood ratio test and the difference in AICc values of the second se	ues
289	between pairs of models. The AICc statistic was used in light of the small sample size	
290	(Burnham & Anderson 2002).	
291		
292	To test whether estimation of aNPP was improved by the inclusion of intra-specific trait-	
293	variation (Hypothesis 3), a Bayesian measurement-error model was constructed in	
294	OpenBUGS ver 3.2.2 rev 1063 (Lunn et al. 2013). We modelled the variation in abundance	ce-
295	weighted trait values in each plot by adjusting equation 2) to become,	
296		
297	$m_{jk}=a+b.z_{jk}$	3)
298		
299	$x_{jk} \sim N(z_{jk}, \sigma_x^2).$	
300		
301	Here, we now assume that the observed abundance-weighted mean x_{jk} is an imperfect	

302 measure of the true abundance-weighted mean z_{jk} with its variance being a function of the distributions of species' trait values contributing to the abundance-weighted trait value for 303 each aNPP plot. These distributions were derived from published replicated database 304 305 measurements of the trait for each species present. The variance of each species trait value is, therefore, likely to be part measurement error and part ecologically meaningful intra-306 specific variation in the trait. Thus, σ_x^2 conveys the variance in the trait-derived predictor of 307 308 aNPP that is attributable to known variation in the trait for each contributing species in each plot. An estimate of σ_x^2 was generated by first calculating the mean and standard deviation 309 of the database measurements for each plant species which had replicate measurements in 310

the database. Then 1000 random draws of trait values were made based on the parameters of each species' trait distribution. At each draw, a new dataset of abundance-weighted trait values was computed for each of the aNPP plots. An estimate of σ_x^2 was then derived by drawing bootstrap samples of increasing size from this dataset until its value stabilised (Fig. S1). Note that this approach implicitly assumes that measurement errors are independent between species and plots. Since we did not derive the trait distributions from measured values from all the species populations within each plot, we cannot directly test this.

318

The fitted Bayesian measurement error model allows feedback from the aNPP data such 319 320 that model fit can potentially be improved. Thus the posterior distribution of the slope b (Equation 3) is also a function of new updated posterior distributions for the abundance-321 322 weighted means that optimise the fit between these and aNPP. Without feedback, the 323 effect of intra-specific variation on the abundance-weighted trait means would simply 324 increase the uncertainty around the estimated slope. Measurement error models with feedback are common in pharmacokinetic studies (see Lunn et al (2009; 2013) for further 325 326 details and discussion).

327

Hypothesis 3 was tested by comparing models with or without intra-specific variation (Equations 2 versus 3). We computed the marginal R² (m) value of Nakagawa & Schielzeth (2014) for each model within our BUGS code. This quantifies the explanatory power of the fixed effects (abundance-weighted trait values) as a proportion of the sum of all the variance components; fixed effects plus random effects plus residual. Tests of the difference in R² (m) between models were carried out by inspecting the 95 % credible interval (2.5 %

and 97.5 % quantiles) of the distribution of differences between 1000 values of R² (m) 334 drawn randomly from the posterior distribution of the variable for each model to see 335 whether or not it contained zero. This was achieved in an R script applied to the converged 336 MCMC output for R^2 (m). 337 338 The percentage variance attributable to the random effect of site was also calculated with 339 340 and without the fixed trait effect. This firstly conveys the amount of variation in aNPP 341 between versus within sites and then estimates the extent to which these differing 342 components of variation in aNPP were explained by the abundance-weighted trait (Crawley 343 2013). 344 Results 345 346 Initial data exploration showed that aNPP should be transformed to achieve normally 347 distributed residuals and a linear response to abundance-weighted traits. The boxcox function (R package MASS) was applied, confirming that a natural log transformation was 348 349 most appropriate. Models were also fitted with either untransformed, or square-root transformed plant species cover values in an attempt to reduce the influence of recording 350 error associated with small differences in % cover. Seven out of eight models based on 351 352 square-root transformed cover had lower AICc values than the respective model with 353 untransformed cover. In three cases, including the final best fitting model, the difference was greater than the rule-of-thumb value of 2 (Table S2). Thus all subsequent modelling was 354 355 performed using abundance-weighted trait variables calculated from square-root 356 transformed cover.

358	Across the 49 plots nested into 17 sites, measured aNPP ranged from 99 g dry mass m ⁻² yr ⁻¹
359	in montane heath to a maximum of 1481 g dry mass m ⁻² yr ⁻¹ in intensively-managed lowland
360	improved grassland (Fig. 2). Overall, 91 % of the variation in aNPP occurred between sites.
361	AICc values for models based on abundance-weighted LDMC were all lower than for models
362	including only SLA (LDMC: 25.6 for a model based on <i>in situ</i> trait measurements for the
363	dominants and 30.7 for a model derived from database values only. SLA: 44.8 for a model
364	based on <i>in situ</i> trait measurements for the dominants and 42.1 for a model derived from
365	database values only) and differed significantly from these models based on likelihood ratio
366	tests. Thus LDMC was the better trait for predicting aNPP and the best model included in
367	situ measurement of LDMC on the dominant species. Hypotheses 1 and 2 were, therefore,
368	supported.
369	
370	When intra-specific variation in LDMC was included, the model with the highest R^2 (m)
371	included in situ trait measurements and the effect of variation in LDMC derived from
372	replicate values in the database. This model explained 55% of the variation in ln(aNPP) with
373	a 95% credible interval of 0.34-0.71, but its R ² (m) value was not significantly different from
374	a model without database-derived intra-specific variation when their differences were
375	bootstrapped. The model with the highest R ² (m) explained 63 % of the within-site,
376	between-plot variation and 34 % of the between-site variation.
377	
378	Discussion

380 LDMC versus SLA?

381

382 We show that LDMC is a superior predictor of aNPP compared to SLA. Our result is novel 383 since we tested SLA and LDMC as *effect* traits across a gradient comprising all major terrestrial ecosystems in the temperate zone. This contrasts with the large number of 384 studies that have explored their role as *response* traits expressing inter- and intra-specific 385 386 trait variation as a function of environmental gradients such as climate and soil conditions. 387 While LDMC was the superior trait, low variance was explained. In particular, abundanceweighted LDMC only explained a relatively small proportion of the between-site variance 388 389 that dominated the dataset. It is possible that other plant species-derived predictors could be usefully included in the analysis to increase explanatory power. Leaf traits exhibit 390 391 differences between plant functional types that are linked to phylogenetically-conserved 392 patterns of biomass allocation (Shipley 1995; Wilson et al. 1999; Wright et al. 2005; Poorter 393 et al. 2012). Therefore, introducing proportional cover of each plant functional type might 394 be worthwhile. However, such categorical units have reduced information content because 395 they do not express continuous variation in plant properties that influence ecosystem function (Van Bodegom et al. 2012). This is especially critical for our study. Because we 396 397 included a range of successional stages across sites and because our sites were located in 398 the oceanic western edge of Europe, the most obvious additional axes of functional 399 variation across our dataset are plant height and bryophyte cover. In forest ecosystems, aNPP may poorly correlate with lower SLA or higher LDMC because lower production per 400 401 mass of leaf is compensated by higher absolute foliage mass (Wright et al., 2005; Garnier et 402 al., 2004). When we included abundance-weighted canopy height alongside abundance-

403 weighted LDMC, it failed to explain significant variation in aNPP (see Supplementary Material; Text S1, Table S1, Fig. S3). Because a number of bryophyte genera, including 404 405 Sphaqnum, are capable of fixing atmospheric nitrogen (Cornelissen et al. 2007), the 406 inclusion of bryophyte cover was also tested as an additional predictor alongside LDMC and 407 SLA but this was also not significant (see Supplementary Material; Text S1, Table S1, Fig. S3). It is quite possible that the addition of climate variables could have explained further 408 409 variation in aNPP. We did not explore this because (a) we expect considerable collinearity 410 between climate and abundance-weighted trait means (e.g. Ordoñez et al 2009) and (b), our 411 principal aim was to explore the ability of each trait to explain variation in aNPP rather than 412 to develop a full, empirical predictive model for aNPP. While an advantage of our study is in the breath of ecosystem variation sampled, this also trades-off against our ability to 413 414 measure and model ecosystem-specific factors and their interactions that are likely to have 415 more fully explained observed aNPP (e.g. Minden & Kleyer 2015).

416

There are a number of possible reasons why LDMC outperformed SLA in our analysis. SLA 417 418 exhibits a plastic response to irradiance via changes in leaf thickness such that values can vary significantly with canopy depth even on the same tree (Hollinger 1989). Thus thin 419 420 shaded leaves have high SLA because they optimise light capture rather than being 421 associated with high soil fertility and therefore higher aNPP (Hodgson et al. 2011). These 422 erroneous SLA signals may well have contributed to the variation in published database values and so to poorer performance of SLA in our analysis of database-derived means. 423 424 However, if intra-specific trait variation is partly an adaptive response to local conditions, 425 then one might have expected LDMC to perform less well because it appears to be

426 somewhat less plastic than SLA across environmental gradients (Siefert et al. 2014; but see Roche et al. 2004). Our result is consistent with other evidence. In a study investigating the 427 428 response of leaf plant traits to cutting frequency and nitrogen supply among temperate 429 grass species, many of which also dominated our grassland samples, Pontes et al. (2007) found that within-species, between treatment-variation in SLA and LDMC was around 14 % 430 and that LDMC but not SLA was correlated with aNPP. Even where significant intra-specific 431 432 variation has been observed, it has proved difficult to explain by abiotic factors (Ordoñez et al. 2009; Laughlin et al. 2012) often ending up as residual variance rather than predicting 433 434 local coupling between trait values and environmental (Albert et al. 2010; Jung et al. 2010). 435 This suggests that we might not expect a major jump in predictive power by including intraspecific variation alongside inter-specific variation especially when derived from replicated 436 437 database measurements rather than *in situ* plant populations.

438

439 Field measurements versus database values

440

441 Our results indeed showed that including *in situ* field measurements increased explanatory power to a greater extent than introducing intra-specific variation via replicated database 442 443 values. In situ measurements ought to be a better physiological reflection of the 444 performance of the particular vegetation stand than database averages, and this was indeed 445 found to be the case. It is likely that the residual error associated with our best model was in 446 part attributable to low in situ trait measurement effort. For example Baroloto et al. (2010) recommended sampling each species at least once in every plot. Even this level of effort 447 448 may under-represent the variation that can occur in trait values between leaves on the

same plant (Shipley, 1995), between individuals of the same species (Albert *et al.* 2010) and
throughout the growing season (Pierce *et al.* 1994; Gunn *et al.* 1999; Jagodziński et al
2016). Thus sampling a few individuals in a site at one point in time may lead to
unrepresentative trait values poorly coupled to prevailing conditions. Evidently our level of *in situ* sampling effort was sufficient to improve model fit even though our best model still
explained just over 55% of the variation in aNPP.

455

456 The extent to which in situ sampling should focus on capturing inter- or intra-specific 457 variation depends upon the relative importance of each source of variation. Intra-specific 458 variation appears to be greater in less species-rich ecosystems and towards the more extreme end of environmental gradients (Huslof et al. 2013; Siefert et al. 2015; Baroloto et 459 460 al. 2010). In the absence of any in situ measurements, trait means must be calculated from 461 existing databases. Cordlandwehr et al. (2013) showed that for less variable traits such as 462 LDMC, database values could satisfactorily approximate ecosystem averages but would be less sensitive to between-patch variation within an ecosystem. Relying solely on database 463 464 measurements may therefore only weakly capture trait-environment relationships (Manning et al. 2015). However, our results indicated that even when derived as database 465 means, LDMC outperformed SLA in prediction of aNPP. 466

467

468 **Conclusions**

469

470 Using finely-resolved plant trait measurements across a representative vegetation

471 productivity gradient, we show that LDMC was the superior predictor of aNPP compared to

472 SLA. Intra-specific variation, as expressed by in situ trait measurements of the two highest abundance species in each plot, led to improved estimation of aNPP but including trait 473 474 variation as expressed in published database trait values did not. Thus, including database-475 derived intra-specific variation and allowing this to improve model fit is not an effective 476 substitute for in situ trait measurements. However, since LDMC is much easier to measure than SLA, our results suggest that for prediction of aNPP, the burden of data collection can 477 478 be reduced significantly, thereby offering the prospect of greater scientific understanding 479 for less cost.

480

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489

490 Author contributions

491 SMS, MM, BE, LM, DJ, JC planned and designed the research. SMS, HG, MM, LM, SR

492 conducted fieldwork and analysed data. SMS, ADB carried out the statistical modelling. All

493 authors wrote the manuscript.

495	Data	accessibility
495	Dala	accessibility

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501	Suppl	ementary	Material
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502 **Figure S1:** Standard deviation of abundance-weighted LDMC values versus bootstrap sample

503 size.

- 504 **Fig S2:** Exploratory plots of abundance-weighted traits against ln(aNPP).
- 505 **Text S1:** Additional modelling of bryophyte cover and canopy height.
- 506 **Table S2:** Comparison of models derived from either square-root transformed or
- 507 untransformed cover data for each plant species in each sampling plot.
- 508 Text S2: Field methods for measuring above-ground Net Primary Production

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Figure 1: Maps showing the sample sites in (a) North West England and (b) North Wales.

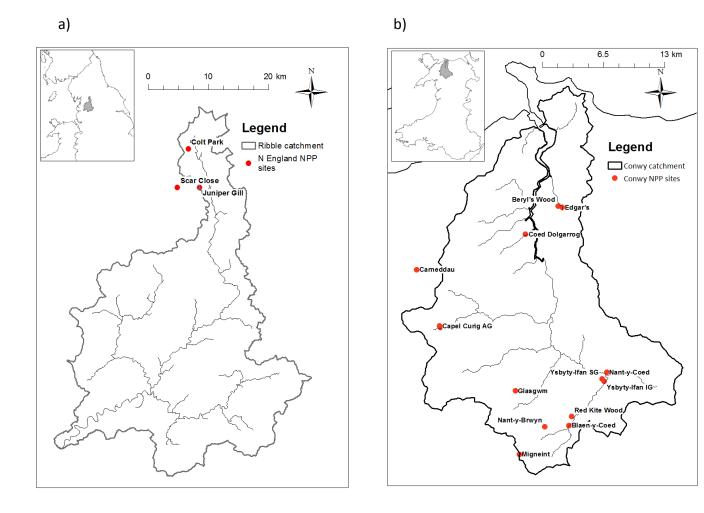


Figure 2: Measured above-ground NPP (aNPP) values across temperate ecosystem types sampled in 2013 and 2014. The median is shown as a black point. Boxes indicate the interquartile range and the whiskers the range of the measurements.

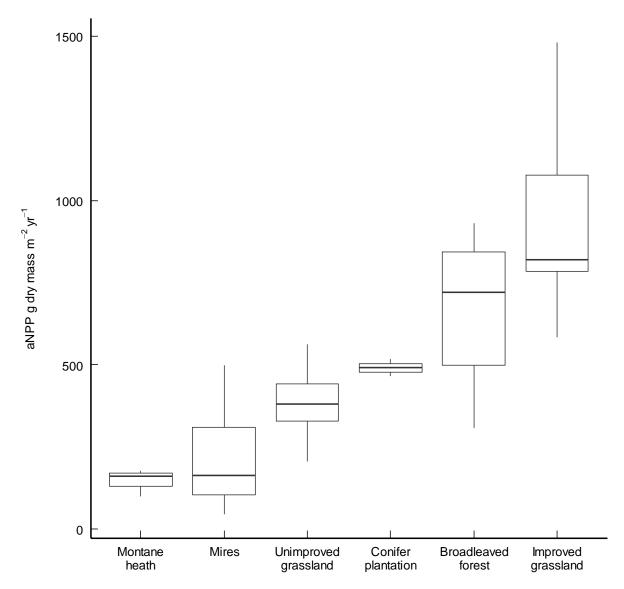


Figure 3: Best fitting model of ln(aNPP) predicted by cover-weighted Leaf Dry Matter Content incorporating the effect of database-derived intra-specific variation and including *in situ* trait measurements. R²(m)=0.55. y=x line is shown.

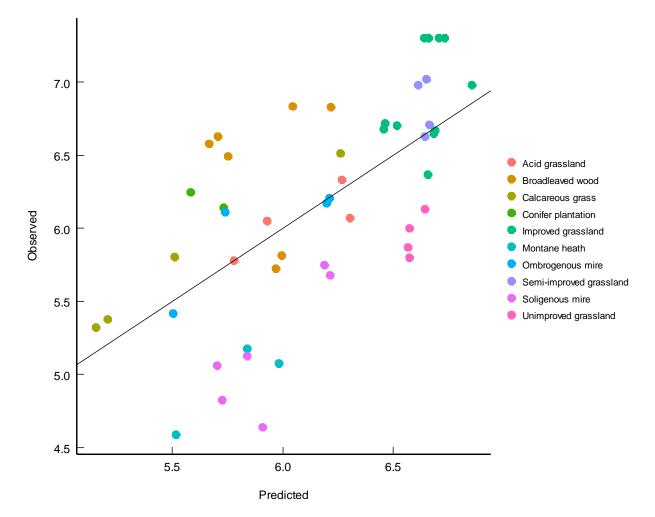


Table 1: Details of study sites and plots in which aNPP was measured. Sampling methods are fully described in Supplementary Material. Nomenclature for vascular plants follows Stace (1997) and Hill *et al.* (2008) for bryophytes.

Site	Habitat type	Mean soil pH (0-15cm)	Management status	Dominant plant species	Number of plots (plot size)	aNPP methods
Beryl's Wood	Broadleaved woodland	4.62	Unmanaged	Quercus petraea/robur, Fraxinus excelsior, Betula pendula	2 (200m ² tree canopy), 3 (1m ² understorey)	Understorey biomass harvest. Bryophyte mesh. Litter buckets. Annual woody increment from tree ring core, tree height & DBH.
Red Kite Wood	Broadleaved woodland	4.19	Unmanaged	Acer pseudoplatanus	1 (200m ² tree canopy), 2 (1m ² understorey)	As above.
Coed Dolgarrog	Broadleaved woodland	3.98	Unmanaged	Quercus petraea/robur	1 (200m ² tree canopy), 2 (1m ² understorey)	As above.
Glasgwm	Conifer plantation	4.2	30 year old Sitka subject to	Picea sitchensis	1 (200m ² tree canopy), 2 (1m ² understorey)	As above.

			past thinning			
Nant-y-Coed	Improved grassland	5.68	Highly intensive cattle grazing. Cattle rotated fortnightly across heavily fertilized paddocks.	Lolium perenne	4 (1m ²)	Two biomass harvests per year.
Blaen-y-Coed	Soligenous mire	4.56	Low intensity sheep grazing with periods unmanaged	Molinia caerulea	2 (1m ²)	As above.
Migneint	Ombrogenous mire	3.82	Last burnt 30+ years ago. Very light sheep grazing.	Sphagnum capillifolium, Eriophorum vaginatum	16 cranked wires among 4 patches of <i>Sphagnum</i>	Wire length measurements over two years.
Nant-y-Brwyn	Ombrogenous mire	4.26	Last burnt 30+ years ago. Very light sheep grazing.	Sphagnum fallax, Juncus effusus	4 (1m ²) 6 cranked wires among 3 patches of <i>Sphagnum</i>	Two biomass harvests per year. Wire length measurements over two years.

Llyn Serw	Ombrogenous mire	3.82	Last burnt 30+ years ago. Very light sheep grazing.	Calluna vulgaris	3 (1m ² in each of 5, 11, 30 year old <i>Calluna</i>)	Total biomass harvest for growth curve construction.
Capel Curig VB	Soligenous mire	4.07	Very light sheep and cattle grazing.	Molinia caerulea, Sphagnum papillosum	4 (1m ²), 12 cranked wires among 4 patches	Two biomass harvests per year. Wire length measurements over two years.
Capel Curig AG	Acid grassland	4.81	Light sheep and cattle grazing.	Deschampsia flexuosa, Nardus stricta	4 (1m ²)	Two biomass harvests per year.
Carneddau	Montane heath	4.40	Light sheep grazing.	Empetrum nigrum, Salix herbacea	3 (0.25m ²)	One biomass harvest per year.
Juniper Gill	Calcareous grassland	7.46	Wild deer and rabbit grazed.	Sesleria caerulea	2 (0.25m ²)	Two biomass harvests per year.
Scar Close	Calcareous grassland	-	Wild deer and rabbit grazed.	Sesleria caerulea, Pteridium aquilinum	2 (0.25m ²)	Two biomass harvests per year.

Colt Park	Unimproved grassland	5.07	Traditional hay meadow; cattle and sheep in spring then shut up for summer hay growth, then aftermath	Trifolium pratense, Anthoxanthum odoratum	4 (0.25m ²)	Two biomass harvests per year.
Hiraethlyn	Improved grassland	4.59	grazed. Intensive sheep grazing.	Lolium perenne, Holcus lanatus	4 (1m ²)	Two biomass harvests per year.
Ysbyty-Ifan IG	Improved grassland	5.67	Intensive cattle and sheep grazing.	Lolium perenne, Poa trivialis	4 (1m ²)	Two biomass harvests per year.
Ysbyty-Ifan SG	Semi- improved grassland	5.58	Intensive cattle and sheep grazing.	Lolium perenne, Holcus lanatus	4 (1m ²)	Two biomass harvests per year.