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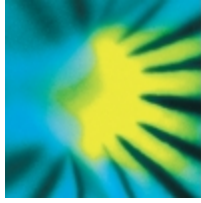
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Linking leaf dark respiration to leaf traits and reflectance spectroscopy across diverse forest types

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61 Summary

- 62 • Leaf dark respiration (R_{dark}), an important yet rarely quantified component of carbon
63 cycling in forest ecosystems, is often simulated from leaf traits such as the maximum
64 carboxylation capacity (V_{cmax}), leaf mass per area (LMA), nitrogen and phosphorus
65 concentrations, in Terrestrial Biosphere Models. However, the validity of these
66 relationships across forest types remains to be thoroughly assessed.
- 67 • Here we analyzed R_{dark} variability and its associations with V_{cmax} and other leaf traits
68 across three temperate, subtropical and tropical forests in China, evaluating the
69 effectiveness of leaf spectroscopy as a superior monitoring alternative.
- 70 • We found that leaf magnesium and calcium concentrations were more significant in
71 explaining cross-site R_{dark} than commonly-used traits like LMA, nitrogen and
72 phosphorus concentrations, but univariate trait- R_{dark} relationships were always weak
73 ($r^2 \leq 0.15$) and forest-specific. Although multivariate relationships of leaf traits
74 improved the model performance, leaf spectroscopy outperformed trait- R_{dark}
75 relationships, accurately predicted cross-site R_{dark} ($r^2 = 0.65$), and pinpointed the factors
76 contributing to R_{dark} variability.
- 77 • Our findings reveal a few novel traits with greater cross-site scalability regarding R_{dark} ,
78 challenge the use of empirical trait- R_{dark} relationships in process models, and emphasize
79 the potential of leaf spectroscopy as a promising alternative for estimating R_{dark} , which
80 could ultimately improve process modeling of terrestrial plant respiration.

81 **Key words:** carbon cycling, gas exchange, leaf mitochondrial respiration, leaf spectroscopy,
82 partial least-squares regression, plant functional traits, transferability

83

84 Introduction

85 Land plant respiration, a major component of the global carbon (C) cycling and vegetation-
86 climate interactions (Wang *et al.*, 2020a), releases ca. 60 Pg C/year to the atmosphere, that is
87 six times higher than human-induced CO₂ emissions (Ciais *et al.*, 2014). About half of C
88 released by plant respiration is derived from leaf dark respiration (R_{dark} – i.e., non-
89 photorespiratory mitochondrial CO₂ release) that takes place during the day and night (Atkin
90 *et al.*, 2007; Huntingford *et al.*, 2017), with the release of CO₂ being coupled to production of
91 energy in the form of adenosine-triphosphate (ATP) and reducing equivalents. Leaf R_{dark} plays
92 an important role in nitrogen (N) assimilation, C skeleton synthesis and the regulation of redox
93 balance (Atkin *et al.*, 2015; Garcia *et al.*, 2022). Because of the strong kinetic response of R_{dark}
94 to temperature, R_{dark} is typically converted to a rate at a standardized temperature, such as 25°C
95 ($R_{\text{dark}25}$), reflecting respiratory capacity (Atkin and Tjoelker, 2003; Atkin *et al.*, 2007; Davidson
96 *et al.*, 2023b). As a result, $R_{\text{dark}25}$ has long been identified as a crucial biochemical parameter
97 in Terrestrial Biosphere Models (TBMs) (Huntingford *et al.*, 2017), and accurate representation
98 of $R_{\text{dark}25}$ in TBMs greatly influences the precision of simulations of terrestrial plant
99 productivity and carbon cycling (Schwalm *et al.*, 2010; Atkin *et al.*, 2015; Butler *et al.*, 2021).
100 However, $R_{\text{dark}25}$ is highly variable, in response to differences in energy demand among
101 contrasting plant species, plant functional groups, ecosystem types, climate, soil conditions,
102 and acclimation (Lambers and Oliveira, 2008; Atkin, 2011; Atkin *et al.*, 2015; Reich *et al.*,
103 2016). Therefore, efficient and accurate characterization of leaf $R_{\text{dark}25}$ across ecosystems –
104 particularly among different forest types – will be crucial if we are to improve representation
105 of plant respiration in TBMs. The ability to rapidly quantify variation in $R_{\text{dark}25}$ is also essential
106 if we are to develop a more thorough mechanistic understanding of the factors that drive $R_{\text{dark}25}$
107 in nature.

108

109 $R_{\text{dark}25}$ is closely intertwined to photosynthetic metabolism through reliance of respiration on
110 substrates from photosynthesis and demands for respiratory products (e.g., ATP) to support
111 maintenance and export processes that are closely linked to photosynthesis (Fan *et al.*, 2021;

112 Fernie *et al.*, 2004). Because Ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (Rubisco) is
113 the largest and most energy demanding enzyme in the photosynthetic process, TBMs
114 commonly assume $R_{\text{dark}25}$ to be proportional to the maximum carboxylation capacity of the
115 enzyme Rubisco standardized to a reference temperature of 25°C ($V_{\text{cmax}25}$) in TBMs (Schwalm
116 *et al.* 2010; Atkin *et al.*, 2015). An example is how $R_{\text{dark}25}$ and $V_{\text{cmax}25}$ are set by a commonly
117 assumed coefficient ($R_{\text{dark}25}:V_{\text{cmax}25}$ ratio=0.015) in several TBMs (Clark *et al.*, 2011; Atkin *et*
118 *al.* 2017; Fan *et al.*, 2021). Alternatively, $R_{\text{dark}25}$ can be extrapolated using its empirical
119 relationships with other relatively easy-to-measure leaf traits, such as leaf-mass-per-area
120 (LMA), leaf N and phosphorus (P) concentrations, which have more extensive spatial coverage
121 (Reich *et al.*, 1998b; Atkin *et al.*, 2015; Rowland *et al.*, 2016; Ren *et al.*, 2023). However, the
122 relationships between $R_{\text{dark}25}$ and leaf traits vary in nature, influenced by multiple biotic and
123 abiotic variables (Wright *et al.*, 2006; Reich *et al.*, 2008; Atkin *et al.*, 2015; O'Leary *et al.*,
124 2017), leading to uncertainties that restrict the fine-scale $R_{\text{dark}25}$ explanations and predictions
125 within and across forest biomes.

126
127 Besides the widely studied leaf economics traits (i.e., $V_{\text{cmax}25}$, LMA, leaf N and P
128 concentrations) that are related to $R_{\text{dark}25}$, other leaf elements might also crucially explain $R_{\text{dark}25}$
129 variability (Atkin *et al.*, 2011; O'Leary *et al.*, 2017; Tcherkez *et al.*, 2024). Magnesium (Mg),
130 a core component of the energy transfer process in leaf respiratory metabolism, plays a crucial
131 role in ATP synthesis and hydrolysis through the Mg-ATP/ADP complex, which can bind up
132 to 50% of the total cellular Mg concentration (Maguire and Cowan, 2002; Cakmak and Yazici,
133 2010; Chen *et al.*, 2018). Manganese (Mn) shares similar ionic radii with Mg, and the two
134 elements can substitute for each other in metal-binding sites, resulting in co-regulation of
135 respiration rates in plants (Bloom & Kameritsch, 2017). Calcium (Ca) can affect leaf
136 respiration processes as it acts as both the signal transduction ion that binds to a variety of
137 respiratory-related carriers (e.g. mitochondrial aspartate/glutamate carrier and ATP-Mg/Pi
138 carrier) (Bhosale *et al.*, 2015; Rueda *et al.*, 2016), and the activator of mitochondrial
139 dehydrogenase (Satrústegui *et al.*, 2007). Potassium (K) can differentially regulate the

140 activities of glycolysis and tricarboxylic acid cycle (TCA) involved in mitochondrial
141 respiration processes (Okamoto, 1967, 1968; Cui *et al.*, 2019). Sulphur (S) in thioredoxin
142 participates in the redox regulation that largely affects plant respiratory function, by binding to
143 respiratory proteins (Balmer *et al.*, 2004; Gelhaye *et al.*, 2004). Despite their importance for
144 respiratory metabolism, little attention has been paid to how variation in R_{dark25} is linked to
145 differences in Mg, Mn, Ca, K and/or S abundance in leaves across terrestrial forest ecosystems.

146

147 Additionally, large-scale surveys of R_{dark25} variability and mechanistic understanding of its
148 driving factors are also greatly limited by traditional R_{dark25} measurement (Garcia *et al.*, 2022),
149 determined by measuring the changing flux rate of oxygen or carbon dioxide concentrations in
150 dark-adapted leaves (Long and Bernacchi, 2003; Coast *et al.*, 2019; Lamour *et al.*, 2021), which
151 is often time-consuming and labor-intensive, and may be limited by canopy access. Therefore,
152 an efficient, rapid and accurate alternative for characterization of R_{dark25} variability remains
153 particularly imperative. Leaf reflectance spectroscopy has shown a substantial potential in
154 multi-scale monitoring of leaf trait variations within and across terrestrial ecosystems (Asner
155 *et al.*, 2016; Fu *et al.*, 2020; Serbin & Townsend, 2020; Lamour *et al.*, 2023; Liu *et al.*, 2024).
156 This potential arises primarily from the strong connection between the emergent continuous
157 leaf reflectance spectrum with respect to solar radiation and a broad suite of underlying leaf
158 structural, biochemical, and nutritional characteristics that drive the reflectance signatures
159 through the interaction of radiation within internal leaf electronic and vibrational absorption
160 properties (Curran, 1989; Elvidge, 1990; Kokaly *et al.*, 2009). By employing statistical
161 modeling methods such as partial least squares regression (PLSR) that harness the full-band
162 leaf reflectance spectra, key signal bands related to target traits can be identified (Ollinger and
163 Smith, 2005; Serbin *et al.*, 2014) and the primary mechanisms underlying spectral predictions
164 can be verified (Chavana-Bryant *et al.*, 2016; Dechant *et al.*, 2017; Meacham-Hensold *et al.*,
165 2019). Accordingly, a multitude of studies has confirmed that leaf reflectance spectroscopy can
166 estimate a wide range of leaf morphological, biochemical to physiological traits. Leaf
167 spectroscopy should also be efficient to estimate R_{dark25} , as it can effectively predict LMA and

168 $V_{\text{cmax}25}$ and empirically estimate leaf nutrient (N, P, K, Ca, Mg, S and Mn) concentrations, all
169 of which are loosely associated with $R_{\text{dark}25}$ (Serbin *et al.*, 2019; Asner *et al.*, 2016; Yan *et al.*,
170 2021; Kothari *et al.*, 2023). Recent studies have indeed revealed the potential capacity of leaf
171 spectroscopy to predict variation in $R_{\text{dark}25}$ in wheat (Coast *et al.*, 2019) and in a tropical forest
172 ecosystem (Lamour *et al.*, 2021). Therefore, we suspect that spectroscopy is likely to be a
173 promising alternative approach for characterizing how $R_{\text{dark}25}$ varies across a large breadth of
174 trait and spectra space and across several terrestrial ecosystems. However, the prior studies of
175 spectra- $R_{\text{dark}25}$ models are constrained to a limited number of species and forest types, and the
176 generalizability of spectra- $R_{\text{dark}25}$ models remains unknown across diverse forest ecosystems.

177

178 The goal of this study was to explore linkages between $R_{\text{dark}25}$ and leaf traits both within and
179 across diverse forest types, and evaluate the performance of leaf reflectance spectroscopy as a
180 more efficient alternative for predicting $R_{\text{dark}25}$. Specifically, we addressed the following two
181 questions:

182 (1) How do the empirical relationships of $R_{\text{dark}25}$ with $V_{\text{cmax}25}$ and with leaf morphological
183 and biochemical traits vary within and across forest types?

184 (2) Can leaf reflectance spectroscopy provide an efficient and robust alternative for
185 predicting $R_{\text{dark}25}$ within and across forest types?

186 To address these questions, we collected a dataset of $R_{\text{dark}25}$, $V_{\text{cmax}25}$, LMA, leaf N, P, K, Ca,
187 Mg, S and Mn concentrations, and leaf reflectance spectra of canopy trees from three different
188 forest sites. These sites are located across a large latitudinal gradient, and include a temperate,
189 mixed needle-/broad-leaved forest, a subtropical evergreen broad-leaved forest, and a tropical
190 evergreen broad-leaved forest, hence achieving a broader comparison of species and forest
191 types than incorporated in previous studies. Through addressing these questions, we hope this
192 work can foster the mechanistic understanding and effective monitoring of $R_{\text{dark}25}$ variability
193 across forest types, and improve the representation of leaf $R_{\text{dark}25}$ in TBMs to better model
194 terrestrial plant respiration and the C cycle.

195

196 **Materials and Methods**

197 **Study sites and plant materials**

198 This study was conducted at three forest sites in China (Fig. 1): (1) Mountain Changbai (CB;
199 42°24'N, 128°06'E), a temperate, mixed needle- broad-leaved forest with a mean annual
200 temperature (MAT) of 2.8°C and a mean annual precipitation (MAP) of 691 mm (He *et al.*,
201 2019); (2) Mountain Gutian (GT; 29°15'N, 118°07'E), a subtropical evergreen broad-leaved
202 forest with a MAT of 15.3°C and a MAP of 1963.7 mm (Ning *et al.*, 2013); and (3)
203 Xishuangbanna (XSBN; 21°47'N, 101°03'E), a tropical evergreen broad-leaved forest with a
204 MAT of 21.8°C and a MAP of 1493 mm (Shen *et al.*, 2018). The three sites are representative
205 of the range of forests found in China, and span a great diversity of biotic (tree species and
206 forest types) and abiotic (temperature, precipitation, and soil properties) conditions (detailed
207 information on soil pH, organic carbon, total nitrogen and total phosphorus are provided in
208 Table S1). This large range in species and abiotic environmental conditions create the
209 opportunity to investigate trait and spectral variation and evaluate more generalizable
210 approaches (Guo *et al.*, 2022).

211

212 In the three forest sites, Chinese Academy of Sciences operates a tower crane that we
213 used/accessed to collect sunlit leaves from the representative canopy trees. The tower crane
214 facilities enabled access to a 1-hectare area of each forest site, and the crane tower was 40 m
215 high at CB, 60 m at GT and 81 m at XSBN. Specifically, 80 trees from 9 dominant canopy tree
216 species in CB (Liu *et al.*, 2023; Yan *et al.*, 2021), 93 trees from 17 dominant canopy tree species
217 in GT (Hu *et al.*, 2005), and 95 trees from 39 dominant canopy tree species in XSBN (Liu *et*
218 *al.*, 2023; Shen *et al.*, 2018) were selected as shown in Table S2. Sunlit branches in the upper
219 canopy of these trees were sampled during the peak growing season (July-August) of 2023.
220 We excised branches from the trees before dawn. The excised branches were immediately put
221 in water and re-cut 10 cm away from the initial cut, ensuring that the branches always immersed
222 during the sampling and measurements. These precautions were taken to avoid xylem
223 embolisms and water stress (Wu *et al.*, 2016) and limit the impact of excision on leaf

224 physiology (Verryckt *et al.*, 2020; Akalusi *et al.*, 2021; Ferguson *et al.*, 2023) and spectral
225 reflectance (Haynes *et al.*, 2024; also see Fig. S1). On each branch, we selected mature leaves
226 to measure leaf gas exchange, leaf reflectance spectra, and leaf morphological and biochemical
227 traits (i.e., LMA and leaf N, P, K, Ca, Mg, Mn, and S concentrations). The statistical results of
228 these measurements are summarized in Table S2. The detailed protocols of measurement are
229 described as follows.

230

231 **Field measurements**

232 *Leaf gas exchange*

233 Branch samples were stored in individual buckets and placed in the shade until used for leaf
234 gas exchange measurements. We used six portable Li-COR gas exchange systems (two LI-
235 6400XTs and four LI-6800s; Li-COR Inc., Lincoln, Nebraska, USA) simultaneously to
236 measure the response of net assimilation rate (A) to intercellular carbon dioxide concentration
237 (C_i) (commonly known as an $A-C_i$ curve) and instantaneous leaf respiration in dark-adapted
238 leaves (R_{dark}) between 6:00 and 17:00 each day. Our previous study has demonstrated that the
239 type of Li-COR gas exchange system did not affect the results (Liu *et al.*, 2023).

240

241 Measurement of $A-C_i$ curves closely followed Rogers *et al.* (2017) and Yan *et al.* (2021) with
242 details shown in Method S1. Measurements of R_{dark} followed established protocols (Lamour *et al.*
243 *et al.*, 2021; Rowland *et al.*, 2016). The leaf was dark-adapted to eliminate the influence of light
244 on leaf respiration (Shapiro *et al.*, 2004) for a period of 25 minutes, with the light source off
245 and a dark cloth positioned on the instrument to avoid diffusion of light inside the chamber.
246 The chamber conditions were set as follows: reference CO_2 concentration at 400 ppm,
247 exchanger temperature set at the outside temperature to prevent the risk of condensation in the
248 instrument, and flow rate at $350 \mu\text{mol s}^{-1}$ to maximize the signal to noise ratio. After the dark
249 adaptation period, CO_2 exchange rates and chamber conditions were checked for stability over
250 a 5-minutes' window before measurements occurred. Once stable, gas exchange was measured
251 every 5 seconds for one minute to constitute one measurement of R_{dark} . To enable temperature-

252 standardized comparisons of respiration rate, we cross-compared two approaches to adjust R_{dark}
253 to a reference temperature of 25°C ($R_{\text{dark}25}$). One method used an inverse Arrhenius equation
254 (Davidson *et al.*, 2023b), while the other method used a temperature-dependent Q_{10} (Tjoelker
255 *et al.*, 2001) based on a known rate at measured temperature (as used in Atkin *et al.*, 2015). We
256 found that $R_{\text{dark}25}$ calculated by these two approaches was almost identical (Fig. S2), therefore
257 chose the widely used method described by Davidson *et al.* (2023b) to calculate $R_{\text{dark}25}$
258 (Bernacchi *et al.*, 2001, 2013; Von Caemmerer, 2013).

259

260 *Leaf reflectance spectra*

261 After completing the gas exchange measurements, we promptly measured the leaf reflectance
262 spectra. A portable handheld contact-type spectrometer QualitySpec Trek (PANalytical,
263 Boulder, Colorado, USA; spectral full-range: 400-2500 nm; spectral resolution: ≤ 3 nm at 700
264 nm, ≤ 9.8 nm at 1500 nm, ≤ 8.1 nm at 2100 nm; sampling interval: 1 nm through the linear
265 interpolation) with a leaf clip was used to measure the spectral reflectance of leaves. At
266 instrument startup, a 99% reflective Spectralon white reference disk (Labsphere Inc., North
267 Dutton, NH, USA) was placed on the outside of the sampling window to calibrate the
268 reflectance. The instrument was also calibrated automatically every half hour during operation
269 using an internal white reference on the inside of the sampling window. Leaf spectral
270 reflectance was calculated following the protocol by Wu *et al.* (2019) and Yan *et al.* (2021).
271 Depending on leaf size, measurements were taken at 3 to 6 different positions on the adaxial
272 side of each leaf, and the average reflectance for each wavelength was calculated as the
273 reflectance spectrum of the leaf. During the collection of spectral data, issues such as spectral
274 response saturation, instrument overheating, and abnormal spectral responses were addressed
275 promptly according to prompts from the Trek instrument and the user manual.

276

277 *Leaf biochemical and morphological traits*

278 Following spectral measurements, the leaves without petiole were sampled for eight
279 morphological and biochemical traits, including LMA, leaf N, P, K, Ca, Mg, Mn and S

280 concentrations. The measurements were performed via protocol in Method S2, and they
281 provided mass-based estimates of elemental concentrations. To make it comparable with the
282 area-based R_{dark25} , we convert them to area-based units for subsequent analysis.

283

284 **Data analysis**

285 *Exploring trait- R_{dark25} relationships within and across forest types*

286 To investigate the relationships between R_{dark25} and other leaf traits within and across the three
287 forest sites, we conducted four analyses. Firstly, to examine the differences in leaf traits across
288 forest types, we employed one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with the least significant
289 difference (LSD) post-hoc test for multiple comparisons. To assess the individual contribution
290 of each trait to the prediction of R_{dark25} within and across forest types, we performed ordinary
291 least squares (OLS) regression and slope tests via R (v.4.3.2, R Core Team, 2013) package
292 *smatr* on the relationships between R_{dark25} and other leaf traits. To rank the relative importance
293 (RI) of each of the eight relatively easy-to-measure traits (i.e. LMA, leaf N, P, K, Ca, Mg, Mn,
294 and S concentrations) in predicting R_{dark25} , the R package *relaimpo* (Wang *et al.*, 2021) was
295 used to analyze based on data from all three forest sites. We explored the collective contribution
296 of the eight relatively easier-to-measure traits to predicting R_{dark25} through multivariate linear
297 regression. Specifically, we employed a multiple linear regressions as: $\text{lm}(R_{\text{dark25}} \sim \text{trait}$
298 $\text{variables})$ to evaluate the predictive capability of these traits for R_{dark25} within and across the
299 forest sites. A backward stepwise regression based on the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)
300 was used to determine whether traits with low relative importance could be excluded from the
301 model. To ensure the validity and comparability, we implemented a repeated double cross-
302 validation (rdCV) (Filzmoser *et al.*, 2009; see the subsequent section on PLSR modeling)
303 consisting of 10-fold cross-validation with 200 repetitions. This method maintains consistency
304 with the validation strategy employed in spectroscopy modeling (Fig. S3).

305

306 *Developing spectral models of R_{dark25} and leaf morphological and biochemical traits*

307 To establish the spectra-trait models, we followed existing protocols (Dechant *et al.*, 2017; Yan
308 *et al.*, 2021; Burnett *et al.*, 2021). We adopted the PLSR method (Wold *et al.*, 2001) in
309 conjunction with a rdCV, implemented using the Python library *scikit-learn* (Pedregosa *et al.*,
310 2011), to develop the spectra-trait models. The PLSR method, similar to principal component
311 analysis (PCA), reduces the number of predictor variables down to a set of orthogonal latent
312 variables (Liu *et al.*, 2023), and accommodates scenarios where the number of predictor
313 variables greatly exceeds the number of response variables (Yan *et al.*, 2021). This enables
314 PLSR to summarize complex spectral data, solve the problem of collinearity of variables, and
315 achieve direct interpretation with linear regression, capturing the relationship between
316 reflectance and physiological traits (Burnett *et al.*, 2021). Given these advantages, PLSR has
317 been extensively applied in spectroscopic and chemometric analyses (Ollinger & Smith, 2005;
318 Serbin *et al.*, 2014, 2019). The rdCV method separates the data repeatedly and randomly
319 through cross-validation procedures into a calibration subset (containing training and test
320 components) and an independent validation subset, and evaluates models were conducted on
321 independent validation subsets generated from numerous possible random splits. This method
322 thereby possesses the advantage of decreasing the odds of good or bad outcomes solely due to
323 chance (Wu *et al.*, 2019). The modeling procedures have been shown by Dechant *et al.* (2017),
324 Yan *et al.* (2021), and Liu *et al.* (2023b), and further modeling details are shown in Method
325 S3, Figs. S3, S4 and S5.

326

327 *Exploring the generalizability of spectra- R_{dark25} relationships under different spectral modeling*
328 *scenarios*

329 To test the generalizability of spectra- R_{dark25} model, we cross-compared PLSR model
330 performance under two modeling scenarios: ‘site-specific’ and ‘cross-site’ scenario, and
331 summarized the model performances in Table 1. In the ‘site-specific’ scenario, the spectra-
332 R_{dark25} model was developed and evaluated using the data from each single forest site only.
333 Each resulting PLSR model was then applied to the left-out data from the two other sites. With
334 the ‘cross-site’ scenario, one spectra- R_{dark25} model was developed and evaluated using full

335 dataset from the three sites. These modeling tests allowed us to assess the generalizability of
 336 spectra- R_{dark25} relationships, and reveal potential scenarios and reasons for the deterioration of
 337 spectra- R_{dark25} relationships.

338

339 *Cross-comparison of field-measured and spectra-modelled R_{dark25} variability in relation to leaf*
 340 *traits*

341 To evaluate the influence of spectral model performance on trait- R_{dark25} relationships and the
 342 drivers of R_{dark25} variability, we explored the relationships between R_{dark25} and values of the
 343 other eight leaf morphological and biochemical traits predicted by the ‘cross-site’ spectral
 344 models. We then cross-compared these relationships with those derived from field
 345 measurements. Furthermore, we analyzed the inter- and intra-specific variation of leaf traits
 346 within each forest site, as well as in predicted values and direct field measurements across all
 347 sites following the method proposed by Guillén-Escribà *et al.* (2021). We used an ANOVA-
 348 based general linear model: $R_{\text{dark25}} \sim \text{trait} + \text{species}$, and partitioned the total variance among
 349 individual leaves by using the percentage of variance explained by the species term to represent
 350 the interspecific components, with the residuals representing the intraspecific components.

351

352 **Results**

353 **Trait- R_{dark25} relationships and the relative importance of leaf traits for predicting R_{dark25}** 354 **across forest types**

355 To investigate our first question regarding trait-based methods for R_{dark25} predictions, we first
 356 analyzed the variations in R_{dark25} , $V_{\text{cmax25}}-R_{\text{dark25}}$ relationships, and leaf morphological and
 357 biochemical traits within and across different forest types. We observed similar R_{dark25} in
 358 tropical and subtropical forest, but significant higher R_{dark25} in temperate forest compared to the
 359 other two forest types ($p < 0.001$) (Fig. 2a). Subsequently, we found that $R_{\text{dark25}}:V_{\text{cmax25}}$ ratio was
 360 0.023 across the three forest sites and exhibited significant differences in these sites ($p < 0.001$;
 361 Fig. 2b), with higher $R_{\text{dark25}}:V_{\text{cmax25}}$ ratio at tropical forest in Xishuangbanna (0.026), followed
 362 by subtropical forest in GT (0.024), and temperate forest in CB (0.019). In addition, we found

363 that LMA and multi-elemental (except Mg) concentrations showed large variability within and
 364 across the three forest sites, with Ca concentration exhibiting the similar trends as R_{dark25} (Fig.
 365 S6). In addition, there were covariations among biochemical traits (Fig. S7).

366

367 To further explore the ability of traits to predict R_{dark25} at our sites, we conducted both univariate
 368 and multiple linear regressions (multiple traits have no collinearity effect on R_{dark25} (VIF<5))
 369 (Figs. 3,4 & Table S3). We found that univariate trait- R_{dark25} relationships were weak ($r^2 \leq 0.13$),
 370 and that the slope and intercept of the linear regression was site dependent (Fig. 3). Both the
 371 univariate and multivariate analyses suggested that the best predictor of R_{dark25} variation was
 372 leaf Mg concentration ($r^2=0.13$, $P<0.001$; RI=23%), followed by leaf Ca ($r^2=0.13$, $P<0.001$;
 373 RI=21%), N ($r^2=0.06$, $P<0.001$; RI=17%), Mn ($r^2=0.06$, $P<0.001$; RI=15%), S ($r^2=0.06$,
 374 $P<0.001$; RI=10%), and P ($r^2=0.06$, $P<0.001$; RI=8%) concentrations (Fig. 3b-c,e-h&4b). Leaf
 375 K concentration ($r^2=0.02$, $P<0.001$; RI=4%) and LMA ($r^2=0.00$, $P>0.05$; RI=2%) were
 376 relatively poor predictors of R_{dark25} across forest types (Fig. 3a&d). Leaf K was removed from
 377 stepwise regression with AIC=22.20. Multiple linear regression models exhibited better R_{dark25}
 378 prediction ($r^2=0.30$; RMSE=0.25 $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) than univariate linear models across forest
 379 types (Figs. 3a-h&4b). In opposite to other nutrients, leaf Mn concentration showed a
 380 significantly negative relationship with R_{dark25} across diverse forest types (Fig. 3g).

381

382 **Leaf reflectance spectroscopy outperforms leaf trait relationships in predicting R_{dark25}** 383 **across forest types**

384 We next examined the question of whether leaf reflectance spectra are sufficient to estimate
 385 R_{dark25} and retrieve the trait- R_{dark25} relationships across forest types. We found that our ‘cross-
 386 site’ spectral models were the most robust for R_{dark25} prediction ($r^2=0.65$, RMSE=0.17 μmol
 387 $\text{CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) and performed better than the multivariate model based on leaf traits ($R^2=0.30$,
 388 RMSE=0.25 $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) (Figs. 4b&5). Meanwhile, the ‘cross-site’ spectral models
 389 captured the variations in all the other leaf traits including LMA ($r^2=0.96$, RMSE=6.78 g m^{-2}),
 390 leaf Mn ($r^2=0.79$, RMSE=0.03 g m^{-2}), Mg ($r^2=0.77$, RMSE=0.04 g m^{-2}), N ($r^2=0.74$,

391 RMSE=0.20 g m⁻²), P ($r^2=0.72$, RMSE=0.02 g m⁻²), Ca ($r^2=0.71$, RMSE=0.21 g m⁻²), K
 392 ($r^2=0.71$, RMSE=0.18 g m⁻²) and S ($r^2=0.70$, RMSE=0.03 g m⁻²) concentrations across forest
 393 types (Fig. S8a-h). The linear relationships between spectrally derived traits and spectrally
 394 derived R_{dark25} were highly consistent with those obtained from field measurements, with
 395 commensurable r^2 , slopes and intercepts for these two types of leaf trait relationships (Fig. S9a-
 396 h). In addition, we found that while the contributions of inter- and intraspecific variation to
 397 R_{dark25} variability were similar between the spectra-modelled and field-measured methods, the
 398 interspecific variation was slightly greater in the spectrally-modeled approach (Fig. 6a-d).
 399 These results verified that leaf reflectance spectroscopy provided an accurate alternative for
 400 inferring R_{dark25} and trait- R_{dark25} relationships across diverse forest types.

401
 402 To further test the generalizability of spectra- R_{dark25} relationships, we cross-compared the
 403 spectra- R_{dark25} models under ‘site-specific’ and ‘cross-site’ scenarios. As shown in Fig. 5 vs.
 404 Fig. 7 and Table 1, the ‘cross-site’ model outperformed ‘site-specific’ models across different
 405 forest types ($r^2=0.65$, RMSE=0.17 $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) (Fig. 5), followed by the ‘site-specific’
 406 XSBN model ($r^2=0.56$, RMSE=0.19 $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) (Fig. 7c), GT model ($r^2=0.28$,
 407 RMSE=0.25 $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) (Fig. 7b), and CB model ($r^2=0.23$, RMSE=0.35 $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2}$
 408 s^{-1}) (Fig. 7a). Importantly, as the number of species or range of R_{dark25} included in the data of
 409 ‘site-specific’ model training subset decreased, the models exhibited worse performance and
 410 increased bias (as indicated by the RMSE and slopes) when applied to predict R_{dark25} for the
 411 sites not involved in the spectral modeling (Fig. 7). These results suggest that an accurate and
 412 transferable spectra- R_{dark25} model could be developed only when sufficient ranges of R_{dark25}
 413 variability and species diversity were encompassed in the PLSR modeling.

414
 415 To untangle the underlying mechanism of the cross-site spectral- R_{dark25} model, we identified
 416 key band for prediction by analyzing the patterns in the PLSR variable importance in projection
 417 (VIP) metrics and coefficients (Fig. 8). Specifically, our ‘cross-site’ spectra- R_{dark25} model
 418 revealed the important bands as follows (VIP>1, Liu *et al.*, 2023): 1) 400-427 nm, 519-575 nm,

419 and 694-700 nm in the visible band; 2) 700-800 nm in the red edge band; 3) 800-924 nm in
420 near infrared band; and 4) short-wave infrared band of 1374-1428 nm, 1645-1672 nm, 1860-
421 1887 nm, 2156-2221 nm, and 2253-2315 nm (Fig. 8a).

422

423 **Discussion**

424 Leaf R_{dark25} , an important, complex but difficult-to-measure eco-physiological trait,
425 significantly contributes to the whole-plant net carbon exchange, and is an important
426 physiological parameter in many TBMs to estimate ecosystem respiration and global carbon
427 cycling (Atkin *et al.*, 2015; Huntingford *et al.*, 2017; Butler *et al.*, 2021; Ren *et al.*, 2023).
428 However, a coherent understanding and efficient monitoring of fine-scale R_{dark25} variability
429 across forest types remain elusive. Here we revealed the relationships of R_{dark25} with usual
430 suspects leaf traits and leaf reflectance spectra across diverse forest types spanning large
431 environmental gradients. We made two important findings. First, we found that leaf Mg, Ca
432 and Mn concentrations were important in explaining R_{dark25} , but the relationships between
433 R_{dark25} and other leaf traits were relatively weak ($r^2 \leq 0.13$) and forest type-specific. Second,
434 leaf reflectance spectroscopy could be used to create a single robust model of R_{dark25} predictions
435 across forest types ($r^2 = 0.65$), with the transferability of the spectra- R_{dark25} model dependent on
436 the trait range and spectral diversity in the trait training data. Taken together, our study expands
437 on the key determinants of R_{dark25} , and highlights the substantial potential of reflectance
438 spectroscopy in fast, reliable and high-throughput monitoring of plant eco-physiological traits
439 and carbon cycling.

440

441 **Variations in R_{dark25} and $R_{\text{dark25}}:V_{\text{cmax25}}$ ratio across diverse forest types**

442 Our results revealed substantial variation in leaf R_{dark25} and the $R_{\text{dark25}}:V_{\text{cmax25}}$ ratios within and
443 across forest types in China spanning large environmental gradients. The observations agree
444 with previous field-based or global-scale synthesis studies regarding the latitudinal pattern of
445 leaf respiratory and photosynthetic traits (Reich *et al.*, 1998b; Wright *et al.*, 2006; Atkin *et al.*,
446 2015). While the large within-site variation may have weakened the effect of climate gradients

447 and makes $R_{\text{dark}25}:V_{\text{cmax}25}$ lower in temperate forests than in tropical forests, which is different
 448 from previous studies (Atkin *et al.*, 2015). This variation may have several possible
 449 explanations, including the thermal acclimation responses of respiratory metabolism,
 450 contrasting species survival strategies and nutrient availability, which all affect the cost of
 451 investments in the respiratory apparatus and the balances between respiratory and
 452 photosynthetic metabolism (Lambers, 1985; Reich *et al.*, 1998a; Atkin & Tjoelker, 2003; Ren
 453 *et al.*, 2023). As a result, despite the strong functional coupling between $R_{\text{dark}25}$ and $V_{\text{cmax}25}$
 454 underpinned by chloroplast-mitochondrion interdependence, the proportionality of the two
 455 traits varies across species types and environmental conditions (Reich *et al.*, 1998b; Atkin *et al.*
 456 *et al.*, 2015). However, despite the dynamic nature of both $R_{\text{dark}25}$ and $R_{\text{dark}25}:V_{\text{cmax}25}$ observed
 457 here and previously, a PFT-specific $R_{\text{dark}25}$ value or constant $R_{\text{dark}25}:V_{\text{cmax}25}$ ratio still remain
 458 widely used in TBMs to simulate plant respiration (Schwalm *et al.* 2010; Clark *et al.*, 2011;
 459 Fan *et al.*, 2021). Our results show that compared to what is in some TBMs, $R_{\text{dark}25}$ at a given
 460 $V_{\text{cmax}25}$ is higher in our forest types ($R_{\text{dark}25}:V_{\text{cmax}25}$ ratio ranging from 0.019 to 0.026) than
 461 commonly assumed (0.015), which means the TBMs would underestimate R_{dark} . Therefore, we
 462 suggest incorporating more flexible parameterization schemes in TBMs to better capture the
 463 variation in large-scale terrestrial respiration, and model the associated carbon fluxes under the
 464 current and changing climate (Kyker-Snowman *et al.*, 2022).

465

466 **Biochemical traits reveal additional sources of leaf $R_{\text{dark}25}$ variability**

467 Leaf trait- $R_{\text{dark}25}$ relationships are widely used to derive $R_{\text{dark}25}$ from other morphological and
 468 biochemical traits, and formulate the empirical equations to facilitate the representation of
 469 $R_{\text{dark}25}$ in TBMs (Atkin *et al.*, 2015; Rowland *et al.*, 2016). Among those traits, LMA, leaf N
 470 and P concentrations are often used, given their important roles in leaf construction costs,
 471 protein turnover, N assimilation, mitochondrial electron transport and glycolysis, which are
 472 functionally inter-dependent with leaf respiratory metabolism (Meir *et al.*, 2001; Tjoelker *et al.*
 473 *et al.*, 2002; Fernie *et al.*, 2004; Turnbull *et al.*, 2005). Our results demonstrated weak ($r^2 \leq 0.06$)
 474 and forest type-specific relationships of $R_{\text{dark}25}$ with these three traits (Fig. 3a-c), which are

475 consistent with previous studies that reported the moderate-to-weak trait- R_{dark25} relationships
476 across different PFTs, growth environments and biogeographical regions (Wright *et al.*, 2006;
477 Reich *et al.*, 2008; Atkin *et al.*, 2015; Wang *et al.*, 2020a). These observed weak and dynamic
478 trait- R_{dark25} relationships within and across sites might be attributed to the differences in
479 nutrient allocation to metabolic versus structural components, distinct species compositions,
480 and the interactions among leaf traits (Millar *et al.*, 2011; Atkin *et al.*, 2015; O'Leary *et al.*,
481 2018; Rowland *et al.*, 2018). Our study, together with previous findings, therefore suggest that
482 there is no single universal scaling relationship accounting for R_{dark25} over large
483 biogeographical extents. In other words, some prevailing relationships between traits and
484 R_{dark25} observed at the global scale has limited predictability at fine-scale. This highlights the
485 uncertainty of leveraging the conventional leaf trait relationships for characterizing cross-site
486 R_{dark25} variability.

487

488 In addition to the aforementioned three leaf traits, we further analyzed multiple leaf
489 morphological and biochemical traits as determinants of R_{dark25} , and found the best predictor
490 of cross-site R_{dark25} variability was leaf Mg concentration, followed by leaf Ca, N, Mn, S and
491 P concentrations, with minor roles of LMA and leaf K concentration (Figs. 3&4). Despite this
492 order, together they control much of R_{dark25} variability. This study quantified the relationships
493 between multiple leaf elemental concentrations and R_{dark25} over a large biogeographical scale,
494 and highlights the important but previously unexpected roles of leaf Mg, Ca, Mn and S
495 concentrations in explaining variability in R_{dark25} . Given the physiological functions of Mg, Ca,
496 and S in mitochondrial activities (Millar *et al.*, 2011; Bhosale *et al.*, 2015; Rueda *et al.*, 2016;
497 Chen *et al.*, 2018; Fratte *et al.*, 2021), this may be the main reason for their positive relationship
498 with leaf dark respiratory flux across forest types. It is worth noting that Mg and Ca, as the two
499 most important elements affecting R_{dark25} , also have strong covariation (Fig. S6), suggesting
500 that there may be a pathway between them connected through respiratory metabolism. In
501 contrast with Mg, Ca and S, Mn was negatively correlated with R_{dark25} (Fig. 3g), which has also
502 been described in previous studies (Li *et al.*, 2010; Takagi *et al.*, 2021). The negative

503 correlation of Mn and Mg shows that there is also a competitive relationship between the
504 utilization of the two elements by leaves not only on cell scale but on a large scale (Fig. S6),
505 resulting in their opposite regulations on leaf respiratory metabolism (Bloom & Kameritsch,
506 2017; Bloom & Lancaster, 2018). The Mn-induced decrease in dark respiration may suggest
507 that the Mn concentrations observed in this study have reached a certain range of toxicity,
508 because excessive Mn inhibits NAD-malic enzyme activity (Takagi *et al.*, 2021) or alter
509 stomatal and leaf anatomical development, causing stomatal dysfunction, and thus inhibit the
510 activities of both carbon anabolism and catabolism (Li *et al.*, 2010). Collectively, all of the
511 examined eight leaf traits jointly contribute to 30% of cross-site R_{dark25} variability, which still
512 leaves a large proportion of unexplained R_{dark25} variance, which might be associated with many
513 other unconsidered factors, such as temperature acclimation, drought, leaf ontogeny,
514 phylogeny, and leaf metabolic traits and metabolic status (Atkin *et al.*, 2009, 2011; Reich *et*
515 *al.*, 2016; O'Leary *et al.*, 2017; Yan *et al.*, 2023). Further studies are thereby needed to reveal
516 the mechanisms underlying the R_{dark25} variability across forest types with the integration of
517 more relevant abiotic and biotic sources.

518

519 **Spectroscopy is an effective alternative for monitoring and understanding cross-site** 520 **R_{dark25} variability**

521 Our results showed that leaf reflectance spectroscopy outperformed traditionally-used leaf trait
522 relationships in predicting R_{dark25} across sites ($r^2=0.65$ vs. 0.30, RMSE=0.17 vs. 0.25 $\mu\text{mol CO}_2$
523 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$; Figs. 4a and 5). To the best of our knowledge, this is the first demonstration of R_{dark25}
524 prediction across forest types using hyperspectral spectra, although previous studies have also
525 shown the efficiency of spectral models in a limited number of species or vegetation types
526 (with relatively few species and limited size of the overall dataset) or of a single species, wheat
527 (Doughty *et al.*, 2011; Coast *et al.*, 2019; Lamour *et al.*, 2021). Our findings of the accurate
528 ($r^2=0.70-0.96$) cross-site spectral modeling of other eight traits also consolidated the recent
529 studies in which leaf reflectance spectroscopy could accurately infer important leaf
530 biochemical, morphological and physiological traits across different plant functional groups

531 and ecosystems (Ely *et al.*, 2019; Nakaji *et al.*, 2019; Kothari *et al.*, 2023). These results
532 therefore reinforce that leaf reflectance spectroscopy offers a viable alternative for monitoring
533 multiple trait dimensions across diverse plant species and growth environments, and can
534 particularly enrich trait databases to fill in the key observational gaps in those difficult-to-
535 measure physiological traits.

536

537 Given the likely lack of direct spectral absorption features by components in the respiratory
538 systems, the spectra- R_{dark25} model may rely on the absorption features that are not causally
539 associated with the target trait, but rather indirectly via other covarying traits such as pigments,
540 leaf structure and water content driving the spectral changes ('constellation effects'; Chadwick
541 and Asner, 2016; Nunes *et al.*, 2017). The identified R_{dark25} -sensitive spectral bands are similar
542 to the findings from a previous study on tropical forests (Lamour *et al.*, 2021) and are often
543 shown to be sensitive to leaf biochemical traits (leaf Mg, Ca, N, Mn, S and P) (Kokaly *et al.*,
544 2009; Osco *et al.*, 2020; Liu *et al.*, 2023; also see Fig. 8). The appearance of similar VIP peaks
545 for leaf traits could be reflective of the shared functional roles. While leaf biochemical traits
546 exhibit similar reflectance patterns to R_{dark25} , their weak explanatory power shown highlights
547 the complexity of these relationships and their potential influence by additional factors.
548 Meanwhile, these identified spectral bands are related to other leaf biochemical and
549 physiological properties. The visible range has been connected with cell pigments; for example,
550 chlorophyll absorbs red and blue light while reflecting green, which gives leaves their
551 characteristic color and is closely linked to leaf nitrogen levels (Ustin *et al.*, 2009; Wang *et al.*,
552 2020b). The red-edge range is associate with chlorophyll, chlorophyll fluorescence and V_{cmax25}
553 (Zarco-Tejada *et al.*, 2000; Yan *et al.*, 2021), while the detected NIR and SWIR bands are
554 tightly associated with water content, lignin, cellulose, and the amount of starch or lipid, which
555 are substrates for respiration (Kokaly *et al.*, 2009; Lamour *et al.*, 2024). These suggest that
556 other unmeasured traits or processes might also participate in the indirect prediction of R_{dark25} ,
557 and spectroscopy may have potential for simultaneously monitoring a full suite of leave traits.
558 However, when comparing observed and spectrally predicted trait relationships, we observed

559 that the r^2 values were generally higher for spectrally predicted relationships (Fig. S9), likely
560 due to the non-independence of the estimates, as both traits and R_{dark25} are derived from spectral
561 measurements. This may indicate that the spectra-modelled trait relationships tend to compress
562 the variation and reduce large residuals, suggesting potential biases in the strength of the
563 estimated trait covariance.

564

565 Another important finding was that the cross-site general spectra- R_{dark25} model can be built
566 only when leaf samples covering sufficient variability in both R_{dark25} and leaf reflectance
567 spectra are incorporated into the model development. This finding is supported by two aspects:
568 1) the spectra- R_{dark25} model under ‘cross-site’ scenario largely outperformed those under the
569 ‘site-specific’ scenario (Figs. 5&7a-c); and, 2) the spectra- R_{dark25} model under the ‘site-specific’
570 scenario showed much higher accuracy for its own forest site in contrast with the other two
571 sites not involved in the model development (Table 1). Previous studies have observed that
572 both leaf reflectance spectra and R_{dark25} change remarkably with ecosystems, plant functional
573 groups, climate conditions and leaf ages (Reich *et al.*, 1998b; Atkin *et al.*, 2015; Smith & Dukes,
574 2018; O’Leary *et al.*, 2023). However, most of these drivers of R_{dark25} are still not sufficiently
575 captured in our study. Notably that most of the variation in spectrally predicted traits appears
576 to be interspecific rather than intraspecific (Fig. 6). This finding underscores the necessity of
577 considering trait variability at larger taxonomic scales when developing spectra-based models
578 (Kothari *et al.*, 2023). Although site-specific models effectively capture variations driven by
579 the local environmental and biological factors of specific forest types (Lamour *et al.*, 2021),
580 they lack the ecological heterogeneity necessary to generalize across greater biogeographical
581 gradients. In cross-site modeling, while some precision at individual sites may be sacrificed,
582 the model’s adaptability across different biogeographic regions is significantly enhanced.
583 These results suggested that a more general and transferable spectra- R_{dark25} model would
584 require significantly broader and more diverse datasets, covering a wide range of leaf traits and
585 spectra across diverse plant functional types and ecosystems (Serbin *et al.*, 2019; Burnett *et al.*,
586 2021; Ji *et al.*, 2024). However, while this step is promising, we still have some distance from

587 being able to rely solely on spectroscopy to predict complex traits like R_{dark25} with high
588 accuracy. Achieving this will likely involve trade-offs, such as accepting some reduction in
589 site-specific precision in exchange for broader applicability. To effectively use spectroscopy at
590 large scales, establishing a robust validation framework is also essential to ensure reliable
591 predictions across diverse ecosystems.

592

593 **Caveats and future directions**

594 This work identifies two important next steps that need to be considered for future advances.

595 First, our study collected leaf samples only from the top-canopy stratum of three typical forest

596 sites at the peak of the growing season, which cover just a small fraction of Earth's vast plant

597 diversity and omit many other important biomes, such as tundra, grasslands, shrublands and

598 wetlands. Therefore, to test the robustness and generalizability of the mechanistic linkages of

599 R_{dark25} to multiple leaf traits (particularly Mg, Ca, Mn and S) and leaf reflectance spectra,

600 additional efforts would be needed to cover broader breadths of leaf trait and spectral variations

601 (Kothari *et al.*, 2023; Ji *et al.*, 2024). Meanwhile, R_{dark25} , leaf traits and reflectance spectra vary

602 remarkably throughout the vertical profiles within the canopy (Ninemets *et al.*, 2015; Lamour

603 *et al.*, 2023), and across seasonal changes with different leaf developmental stages and

604 environmental factors (Chen *et al.*, 2022; Davidson *et al.*, 2023a). Therefore, a comprehensive

605 understanding and spectra-model evaluation of the R_{dark25} across more representative field sites,

606 vertical structural gradients and full growing season are still imperative. The continued

607 combination of traditional leaf gas exchange measurements and reflectance spectroscopy as

608 part of global efforts are needed to further enable the development of generalized spectra- R_{dark25}

609 model that can be applied in broad conditions. This can help incorporate a spectra-based data

610 assimilation module into ecosystem models, and revolutionize the parameterization approach

611 by directly integrating trait information rather than relying on predefined empirical

612 relationships between traits (Fu *et al.*, 2020). Notably, currently a fully open database (Global

613 Spectra Trait Initiative) for leaf-level physiological and spectral data is being assembled to

614 enable the continued development of spectra-trait models
615 (<https://github.com/plantphys/gsti/tree/main>).

616

617 Second, given the sampling difficulties caused by canopy access have limited the measurement
618 of R_{dark25} over large spatial extents, an alternative and rapid remote sensing method based on
619 imaging spectroscopy technology is needed to monitor large-scale R_{dark25} . Canopy spectra can
620 be collected using a range of platforms including unoccupied aerial systems (UAS; Yang *et al.*
621 2022), piloted airborne sensors and spaceborne satellites (Serbin & Townsend, 2020; Liu *et al.*,
622 2024), and it has been demonstrated to be effective in monitoring leaf traits associated with
623 R_{dark25} (e.g., V_{cmax25} , leaf N, P concentrations, and LMA) (Liu *et al.*, 2023). Moreover, as the
624 spectral variability of the canopy monitored by imaging spectroscopy mainly comes from the
625 leaf spectrum (Asner, 1998), understanding the leaf-level spectra- R_{dark25} relationships is
626 beneficial to the spectral modeling and potential vegetation indices developing of R_{dark25} at
627 larger spatial scales (Serbin & Townsend, 2020). Therefore, future studies should explore
628 R_{dark25} using various imaging spectroscopy platforms and try to extend leaf spectral models to
629 canopy and ecosystem scales. This will require the development of appropriate hybrid
630 modelling and validation approaches (Fu *et al.*, 2020). During the upscaling process across
631 different spatial resolutions, issues including the effects of canopy structure (Liu *et al.*, 2023)
632 and environmental noisy (Asner, 1998; Ollinger, 2011; Cimoli *et al.*, 2024) need to be attention.
633 As the community addresses challenges, spectroscopy will further contribute to explanation of
634 more detailed scale-dependent mechanisms and monitoring of terrestrial plant respiration and
635 carbon uptake capacities over large spatiotemporal extents (Serbin *et al.*, 2015; Jetz *et al.*, 2016;
636 Yan *et al.*, 2021; Liu *et al.*, 2024). Our ultimate hope is that by combining field data with
637 cutting-edge remote sensing technology, we will not only expand our understanding of
638 knowledge of plant physiological traits, but also help us better diagnose the role and fate of
639 terrestrial ecosystems under climate change.

640

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653

654 **Competing interests**

655 None.

656

657 **Author contributions**

658 ZY and FW planned and designed the research. FW, NY, TD, WX, GD, and JD performed
659 experiments and conducted fieldwork. FW, and ZY analysed data with inputs from SL, JW,
660 and HW. All authors contributed to interpreting the results. FW drafted the manuscript with
661 constructive input from ZY, and all authors contributed to the manuscript editing.

662

663 **Data availability statement**

664 The data supporting the results of the manuscript can be accessed via the Plant Science Data
665 Center, Chinese Academy of Sciences using the following link: XXXX.

666

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1014 **Supporting information**

1015 The following Supporting Information is available for this article:

1016 **Fig. S1** Comparison of the leaf spectral reflectance from leaves on the tree and excised branch.

1017 **Fig. S2** Cross-comparison of the leaf R_{dark25} derived using the temperature response functions
1018 in Atkin *et al.* (2015) and Davidson *et al.* (2022).

1019 **Fig. S3** Schematic illustration of the repeated double cross-validation (rdCV) method for partial
1020 least squares regression (PLSR).

1021 **Fig. S4** The selection criterion for the optimal number of latent components in the spectral
1022 model of leaf traits under the cross-site scenario.

1023 **Fig. S5** Histogram distribution of the coefficient of determination (R^2) for the PLSR spectral
1024 models over the 200 permutations under the cross-site scenario.

1025 **Fig. S6** Exploring the variabilities of leaf morphological and biochemical traits within and
1026 across forest sites.

1027 **Fig. S7** Pearson correlation analysis of leaf biochemical traits across the three forest sites.

1028 **Fig. S8** Accuracy assessment for the cross-site spectral models of leaf morphological and
1029 biochemical traits.

1030 **Fig. S9** Cross-comparisons between the observed (blue color) and spectra-modelled (red color)
1031 trait- R_{dark25} relationships across the three forest sites

1032 **Table S1** Soil information for the three forest sites in China.

1033 **Table S2** Summary of species, leaf traits and sample size of representative canopy trees across
1034 the three forest sites in China.

1035 **Table S3** Statistical summary of the relationships between R_{dark25} and the eight leaf
1036 morphological and biochemical traits across the three forest sites.

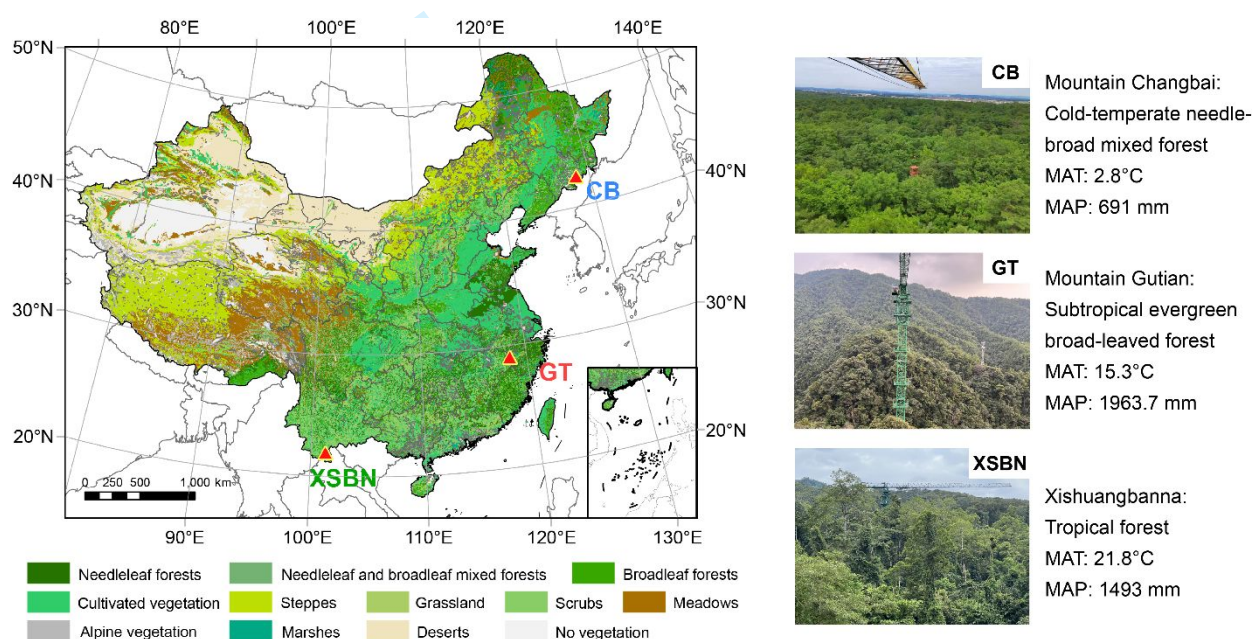
1037 **Method S1** Protocol of $A-C_i$ curves measurement.

1038 **Method S2** Protocol of the measurements of morphological and biochemical traits, including
1039 LMA, leaf N, P, K, Ca, Mg, Mn and S concentrations.

1040 **Method S3** Protocol of PLSR modeling with rdCV.

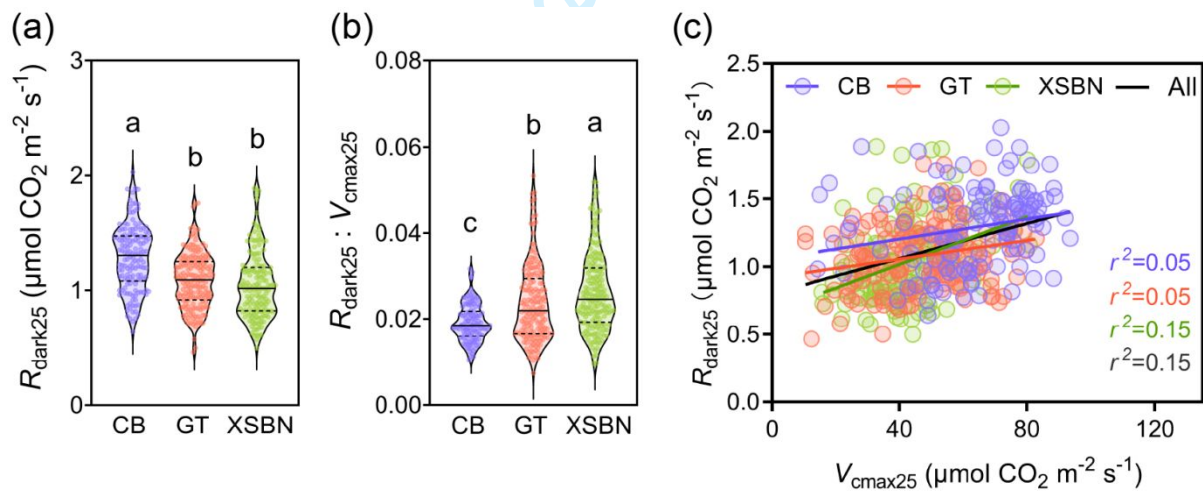
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1042 **Fig. 1** The location and basic information of the three typical forest sites in China. The three
 1043 forest sites span a large latitudinal gradient, including a temperate forest in Mountain Changbai
 1044 (CB), a subtropical forest in Mountain Gutian (GT), and a tropical rainforest in Xishuangbanna
 1045 (XSBN). All the three forest sites have tower crane facilities enabling to access to the sunlit
 1046 canopy leaves. The background shows a map of the 1:1,000,000 scale vegetation distribution
 1047 of China provided by "Environmental & Ecological Science Data Center for West China,
 1048 National Natural Science Foundation of China" (<http://westdc.westgis.ac.cn>). MAT, mean
 1049 annual temperature; MAP, mean annual precipitation.

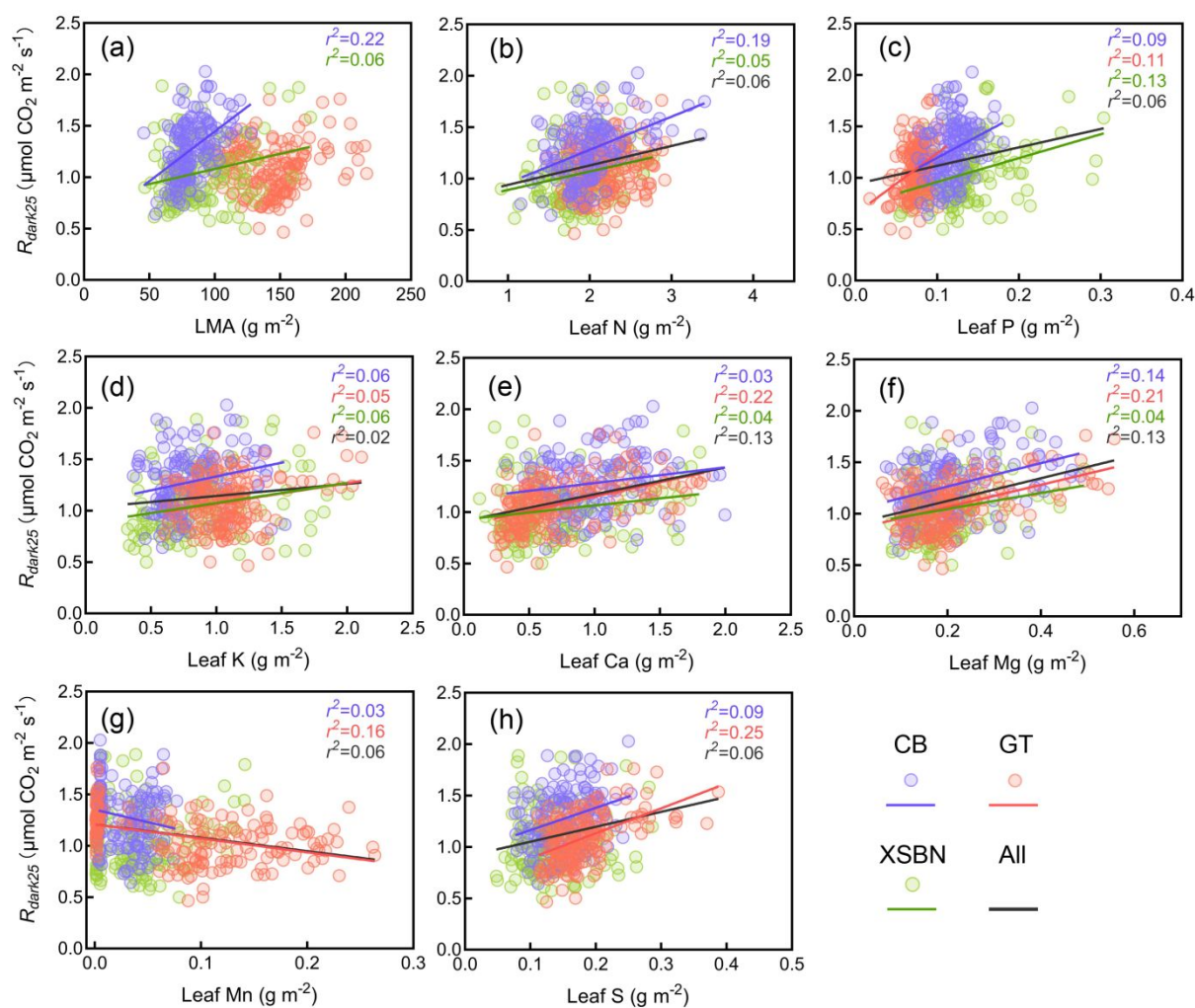


1050

1051 **Fig. 2** The variability of R_{dark25} and its relationship with V_{cmax25} within and across forest sites.
 1052 (a): The differences in R_{dark25} among diverse forest sites. (b): The differences in the ratio of
 1053 R_{dark25} to V_{cmax25} ($R_{\text{dark25}}:V_{\text{cmax25}}$) among diverse forest sites. (c): $R_{\text{dark25}}-V_{\text{cmax25}}$ relationships
 1054 within and across forest sites. These values are gas-exchange measurements. One-way
 1055 ANOVA with the least significant difference post-hoc test was used for the comparisons among
 1056 the three forest sites. Different lower-case letters adjoining the violin plots indicate the
 1057 significant difference ($P<0.05$) among different groups. The fitted lines were determined by
 1058 ordinary least-squares regressions, showing significantly different slopes among the CB, GT,
 1059 and XSBN sites, which represent temperate, subtropical, and tropical forests in China,
 1060 respectively. The black line represents regression fit for all sites. r^2 is the coefficient of
 1061 determination and the relationships are all significant ($P<0.05$).
 1062



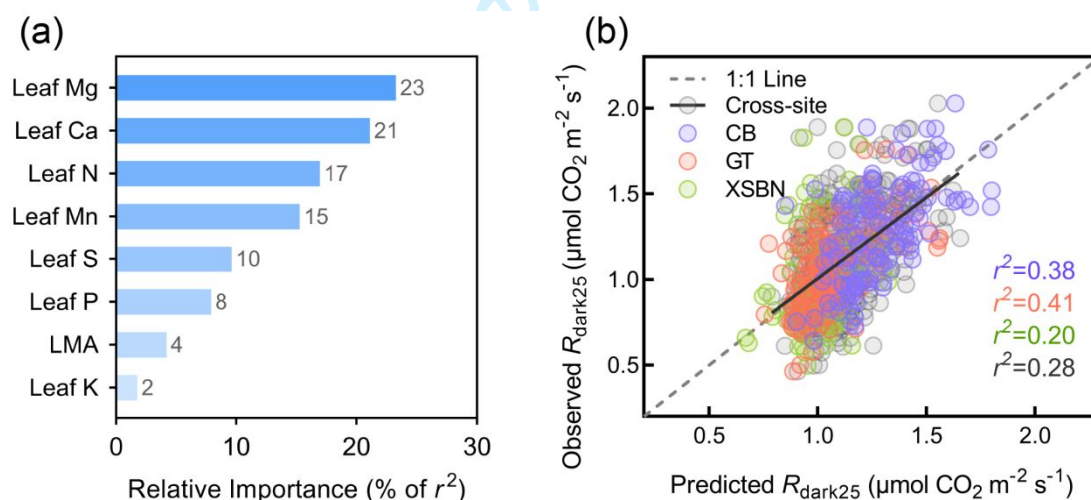
1063 **Fig. 3** The trait- R_{dark25} relationships within and across forest sites. (a-h): Pairwise relationships
 1064 between R_{dark25} and eight leaf traits (i.e. LMA, and leaf N, P, K, Ca, Mg, Mn, and S
 1065 concentration). The fitted lines are determined by the ordinary least squares regression, with
 1066 colored lines representing regression fits for specific sites and black lines representing
 1067 regression fit for all sites. r^2 is the coefficient of determination. All metrics and lines shown are
 1068 statistically significant ($P < 0.05$).
 1069



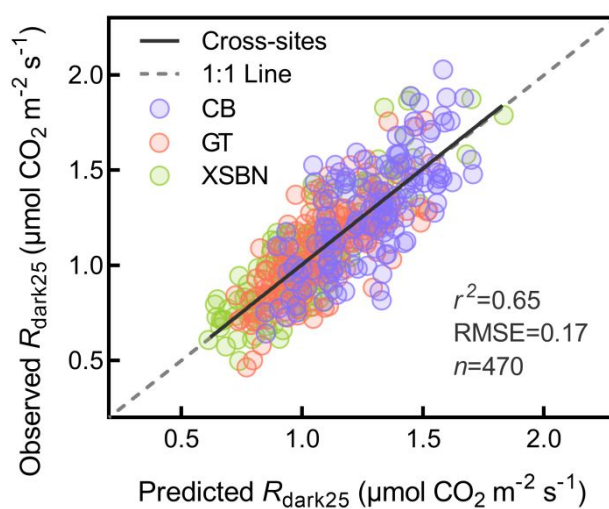
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1071 **Fig. 4** The performance of multiple linear models for predicting R_{dark25} using all the other eight
 1072 easy-to-measure leaf traits as predictor variables, and the relative importance of these predictor
 1073 variables. (a): The relative importance of these traits on R_{dark25} prediction across forest sites,
 1074 derived from their proportions of the explanation of the variance (r^2) indicated by the number
 1075 adjoining the bars. (b): The performance of site-specific and cross-site model using multiple
 1076 leaf traits (i.e. LMA, leaf N, P, Ca, Mg, Mn, and S concentrations) for predicting leaf R_{dark25} .
 1077 The colored circles in the figure represent site-specific predictions (with Mountain CB in purple,
 1078 GT in red, and XSBN in green), the grey circles represent the predictions of the cross-site linear
 1079 mixed-effects model using site as random effects, and black line is the ordinary least squares
 1080 fit of the cross-site model.

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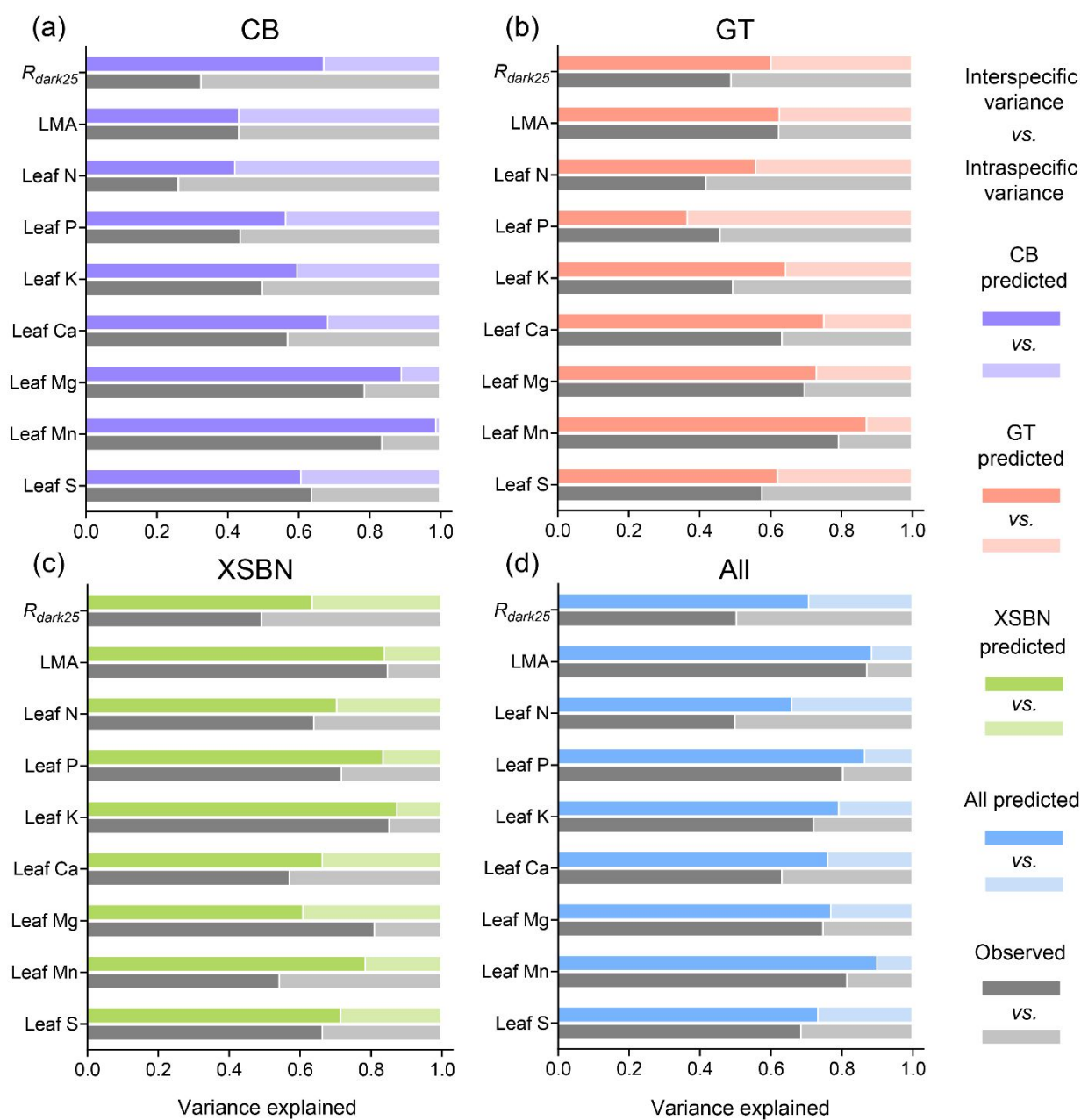


1082 **Fig. 5** Accuracy assessment for the cross-site spectra- R_{dark25} relationship. The cross-site model
 1083 used the whole data set of leaf R_{dark25} and reflectance spectra from the three forest sites, and
 1084 was trained and evaluated using the repeated double cross-validation method. The black line is
 1085 the ordinary least-squares fit; the grey line indicates the 1:1 line. The colored points represent
 1086 the predictions of the cross-site PLSR model for each forest site (with CB in purple, GT in red,
 1087 and XSBN in green). n , sample size; r^2 , the coefficient of determination; RMSE, the root mean
 1088 square of error.



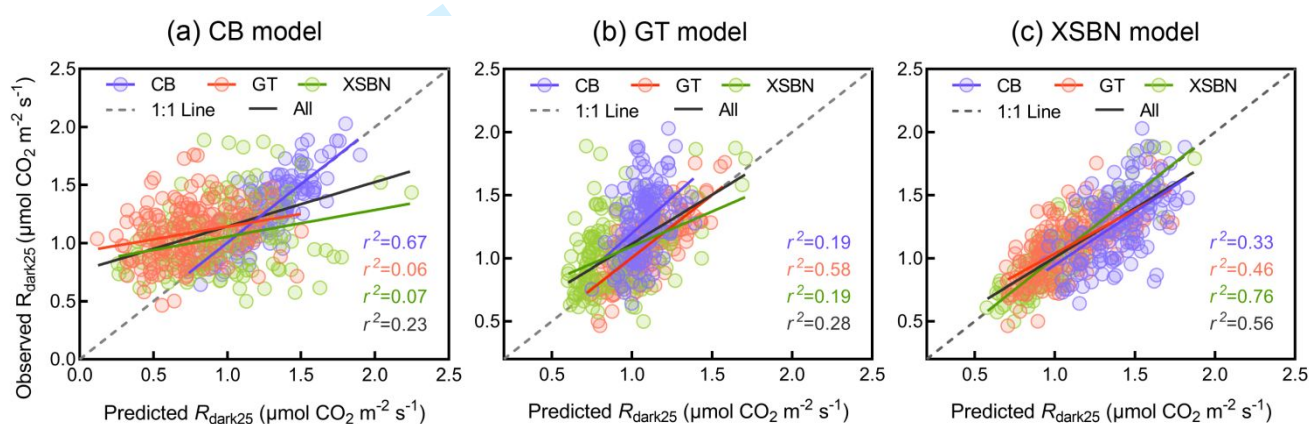
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1090 **Fig. 6** Variance partitioning of leaf R_{dark25} and leaf morphological (i.e. LMA) and biochemical
 1091 (i.e. leaf N, P, K, Ca, Mg, Mn and S concentrations) traits within (a-c) and across forest sites
 1092 (d). The forest sites include the temperate forest in CB, the subtropical forest in GT, and the
 1093 tropical forest in XSBN in China. The total variability for each trait was partitioned into
 1094 intraspecific and interspecific components. The grey bars denote the variance partitioning from
 1095 field-observed leaf traits, while the colored bars indicate the variance partitioning results from
 1096 leaf traits predicted from the cross-site spectra-trait models.



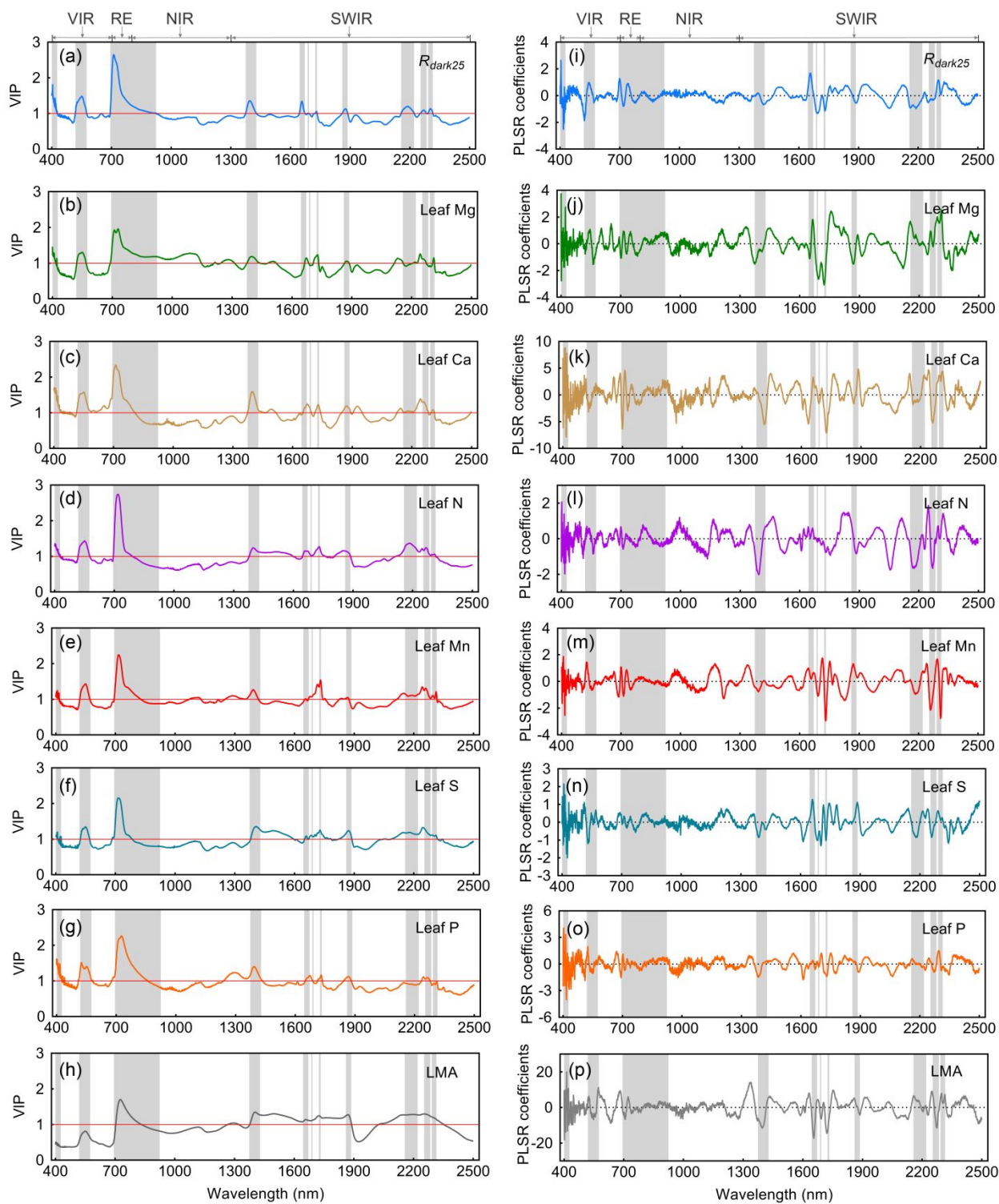
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1098 **Fig. 7** Accuracy assessment for the spectra- R_{dark25} relationship under site-specific modeling
 1099 scenarios. (a): CB model; (b): GT model; and (c): XSBN model. The site-specific models used
 1100 specific data sets of leaf R_{dark25} and reflectance spectra within each of the three forest sites, was
 1101 trained and evaluated using repeated double cross-validation method, and then was applied to
 1102 the other two independent sites. The colored points and lines represent the predictions of the
 1103 PLSR model and ordinary least squares fit for each forest site (with CB in purple, GT in Red,
 1104 and XSBN in green). The number of species in CB model, GT model, and XSBN model are
 1105 10, 16, and 33, respectively.



1106

1107 **Fig. 8** Assessing the contributions of reflectance bands to the spectral models of leaf R_{dark25} ,
1108 and the important R_{dark25} predictors (i.e. leaf Mg, Ca, N, Mn, S and P concentrations following
1109 the order of relative importance in predicting R_{dark25}) and LMA under the ‘cross-site’ scenario.
1110 The left panels (a-h) present the PLSR variable importance in projection (VIP), and the right
1111 panels (i-p) present the PLSR regression coefficients. The mean values and 95% confidence
1112 interval of the PLSR VIP spectrum and regression coefficients were indicated by central-
1113 colored lines and shaded regions, respectively. On the left panel, , the spectral regions with VIP
1114 ≥ 1 are those important for the spectral modeling of R_{dark25} and the important predictors
1115 (Lamour *et al.*, 2021; Liu *et al.*, 2023). The corresponding important spectral bands for R_{dark25}
1116 predictions are identified by the shaded grey regions across all subpanels. VIR, visible range
1117 (450–700 nm); RE, red-edge range (700–800 nm); NIR, near-infrared range (800–1300 nm);
1118 SWIR, shortwave infrared range (1300–2500 nm).
1119



1120

Table 1 Performance of the two types of spectra- $R_{\text{dark}25}$ models: ‘site-specific model’ (trained and evaluated using the data from the single forest site respectively, and then applied to the other two independent sites), and ‘cross-site model’ (trained and evaluated using the data from all the three forest sites). The repeated double cross-validation method was used for training and evaluating all the models. The three diverse forest sites span large latitudinal gradients, including the temperate forest in CB, the subtropical forest in GT, and the tropical forest in XSBN.

Scenarios	Site	$R_{\text{dark}25}$ ($\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$)		
		n	r^2	RMSE
CB model	CB	146	0.67	0.16
	GT	173	0.06	0.46
	XSBN	151	0.07	0.35
	All	470	0.23	0.35
GT model	CB	146	0.19	0.31
	GT	173	0.58	0.15
	XSBN	151	0.19	0.28
	All	470	0.28	0.25
XSBN model	CB	146	0.33	0.25
	GT	173	0.46	0.18
	XSBN	151	0.76	0.13
	All	470	0.56	0.19
Cross-site model	CB	146	0.51	0.20
	GT	173	0.57	0.16
	XSBN	151	0.71	0.16
	All	470	0.65	0.17

Note: $R_{\text{dark}25}$, leaf dark respiration standardized to 25°C; n , sample size; r^2 , the coefficient of determination; RMSE, the root mean square of error.