

Canopy-scale flux measurements and bottom-up emission estimates of volatile organic compounds from a mixed oak and hornbeam forest in northern Italy

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Abstract

This paper reports the fluxes and mixing ratios of biogenically emitted volatile organic compounds (BVOCs) 4 m above a mixed oak and hornbeam forest in northern Italy. Fluxes of methanol, acetaldehyde, isoprene, methyl vinyl ketone + methacrolein, methyl ethyl ketone and monoterpenes were obtained using both a proton transfer reaction-mass spectrometer (PTR-MS) and a proton transfer reaction-time of flight-mass spectrometer

1 (PTR-ToF-MS) together with the methods of virtual disjunct eddy covariance (PTR-MS) and
2 eddy covariance (PTR-ToF-MS). Isoprene was the dominant emitted compound with a mean
3 day-time flux of $1.9 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$. Mixing ratios, recorded 4 m above the canopy, were
4 dominated by methanol with a mean value of 6.2 ppbv over the 28 day measurement period.
5 Comparison of isoprene fluxes calculated using the PTR-MS and PTR-ToF-MS showed very
6 good agreement while comparison of the monoterpene fluxes suggested a slight over
7 estimation of the flux by the PTR-MS. A basal isoprene emission rate for the forest of 1.7
8 $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ was calculated using the MEGAN isoprene emissions algorithms (Guenther et al.,
9 2006). A detailed tree species distribution map for the site enabled the leaf-level emissions of
10 isoprene and monoterpenes recorded using GC-MS to be scaled up to produce a “bottom-up”
11 canopy-scale flux. This was compared with the “top-down” canopy-scale flux obtained by
12 measurements. For monoterpenes, the two estimates were closely correlated and this
13 correlation improved when the plant species composition in the individual flux footprint was
14 taken into account. However, the bottom-up approach significantly underestimated the
15 isoprene flux, compared with the top-down measurements, suggesting that the leaf-level
16 measurements were not representative of actual emission rates.

17

18 **1 Introduction**

19 The term volatile organic compound (VOC) describes a broad range of chemical species
20 emitted from natural and anthropogenic sources into the atmosphere. VOCs emitted from the
21 biosphere are commonly termed biogenic VOCs (BVOCs). Of the BVOCs, isoprene is almost
22 certainly the dominant species globally with an estimated annual emission of 535 –
23 $578 \times 10^{12} \text{ g C}$ (Arneth et al., 2008; Guenther et al., 2012). Isoprene, along with larger
24 terpenoids, are the BVOCs that have received the most attention in the literature to date.
25 Although isoprene is the most commonly measured BVOC, global emission estimates of
26 isoprene continue to differ and there are still large uncertainties associated with the emission
27 estimates of many other compounds. For example, annual monoterpene emission estimates
28 vary between 32×10^{12} and $127 \times 10^{12} \text{ g C}$ (Arneth et al., 2008). A better understanding of
29 how emissions change with land cover, temperature, soil moisture and solar radiation is
30 required to constrain model descriptions of the effects of BVOCs on atmospheric chemistry
31 in the past, present and future (Monks et al., 2009).

32

1 BVOCs are a major source of reactive carbon into the atmosphere and as such exert an
2 influence on both climate and local air quality. BVOCs are oxidised primarily by the
3 hydroxyl radical (OH), itself formed by the photolysis of ozone, to form peroxide radicals
4 (RO_2). In the presence of NO_x (NO and NO_2) these RO_2 radicals can oxidise NO to NO_2 ,
5 which may undergo photodissociation leading to the net formation of tropospheric ozone
6 (Fehsenfeld et al., 1992). Tropospheric ozone can then impact human health, forest
7 productivity and crop yields (Royal Society 2008; Ashmore 2005). In addition, BVOC
8 species contribute significantly to the formation of secondary organic aerosol (SOA) in the
9 atmosphere. This affects climate both directly and indirectly by the scattering of solar
10 radiation and by acting as cloud condensation nuclei. The formation of cloud condensation
11 nuclei leads to increased cloud cover and therefore an altering of the Earth's albedo
12 (Hallquist et al., 2009).

13

14 The Bosco Fontana campaign was carried out as a part of the ÉCLAIRE (Effects of Climate
15 Change on Air Pollution and Response Strategies for European Ecosystems) EC FP7 project
16 to study the surface/atmosphere exchange within a semi-natural forest situated within one of
17 the most polluted regions in Europe, and its interaction with air chemistry. During the Bosco
18 Fontana campaign, VOC fluxes and mixing ratios were measured 4 m above the canopy of a
19 semi-natural forest situated in the Po Valley, northern Italy ($45^\circ 11' 51'' \text{ N}$, $10^\circ 44' 31'' \text{ E}$),
20 during June and July 2012. The Po Valley experiences high levels of anthropogenic pollution
21 caused by its proximity to the city of Milan's high levels of industrial and traffic-related
22 emissions of pollutants, intensive agriculture and periods of stagnant air flow caused by the
23 Alps to the north and west and the Apennines to the south (Bigi et al., 2011; Decesari et al.,
24 2014).

25

26 In order to make accurate air quality predictions, precise regional and global models of
27 BVOC emission are necessary. The modelling of BVOC emissions at regional and global
28 scales is generally dependent upon species specific emission factors for the BVOCs of
29 interest (Guenther et al., 2006; Steinbrecher et al., 2009). These emission factors are usually
30 determined by the measurement of BVOC emission at a leaf level and at standard conditions
31 (generally a leaf temperature of 30° C and $1000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ PAR}$). It is, however, important
32 that leaf level BVOC emission factors accurately represent canopy scale emissions. Here we
33 report the fluxes and mixing ratios of a range of BVOCs recorded from mixed mesophile
34 forest at the Bosco Fontana field site. We compare BVOC flux calculation from above

1 canopy eddy covariance measurements using both a proton transfer reaction-mass
2 spectrometer (PTR-MS) and a proton transfer reaction-time of flight-mass spectrometer
3 (PTR-ToF-MS) with isoprene and monoterpene fluxes obtained by scaling up leaf-level
4 emission factors using the MEGAN model to produce a canopy-scale “bottom-up” modelled
5 flux estimate. We further explore the potential of accounting for the spatial tree species
6 distribution for improving the comparison between top-down and bottom-up approaches, in
7 what we believe is the first approach of its type.

8

9 **2 Methods**

10

11 **2.1 Site description**

12 Measurements were taken at a site within the Bosco Fontana natural reserve (45° 11' 51" N,
13 10° 44' 31" E), a 233 ha area of semi-natural woodland situated in the municipality of
14 Marmirolo in the Po Valley. The forest canopy had an average height of approximately 28 m
15 and was principally comprised of *Carpinus betulus* (hornbeam) and three oak species
16 *Quercus robur* (pedunculate oak), *Quercus cerris* (turkey oak) and the introduced *Quercus*
17 *rubra* (northern red oak) (Dalponte et al., 2007). In the centre of the forest there was a cleared
18 area containing a seventeenth century hunting lodge surrounded by hay meadows. The
19 surrounding area was predominantly arable farm land with some pastures to the north and
20 west and a reservoir to the north-west. The city of Mantova lies approximately 5 km to the
21 south east, with the small towns of Marmirolo, Soave and Sant'Antonio approximately 2 km
22 north, 1 km west and 3 km east, respectively. A 42 m measurement tower was situated near
23 the centre of the forest to the south west of the central hay meadows. The measurement tower
24 was ca.760 m from the edge of the forest in the direction of the easterly wind direction that
25 dominated during this measurement period.

26

27 **2.2 PTR-MS and PTR-ToF-MS setup and measurement procedure**

28 In order to record BVOC fluxes and concentrations, both a high sensitivity PTR-MS (Ionicon
29 Analytik GmbH, Innsbruck, described in detail by Blake et al., 2009; de Gouw and Warneke
30 2007; Hansel et al., 1995; Lindinger et al., 1998) and a high resolution PTR-ToF-MS
31 (Ionicon Analytik GmbH, Innsbruck, as described by Graus et al., 2010; Jordan et al., 2009)
32 were used, together with a sonic anemometer (Gill HS, Gill Instruments Ltd, UK). The PTR-

1 MS was equipped with a quadrupole mass analyser and three turbo molecular pumps
2 (Varian). The Silcosteel inlet and internal tubing were heated to avoid condensation of
3 BVOCs onto internal surfaces. The application of PTR-MS to atmospheric measurements has
4 previously been described by Hewitt et al. (2003) and Hayward et al. (2002).

5
6 The sonic anemometer was situated 32 m above the ground on the north-west corner of the
7 tower. This measurement height was chosen due to the fetch restrictions. Fluxes of sensible
8 heat and momentum were compared with a flux measurement at the top of the tower (42 m)
9 and were on average 15% larger for sensible heat and 5% for momentum (Finco et al., in
10 preparation). It is unclear whether this reflects differences in fetch, instrumentation or the
11 effect of measuring within the surface roughness layer, but it is possible that fluxes reported
12 here are slightly overestimated for this reason. The angle-of-attack was uncorrelated with wind
13 direction suggesting that there was no local influence on the wind flow. Both the PTR-MS and the
14 PTR-ToF-MS were housed in an air-conditioned cabin at the base of the tower. The PTR-MS
15 sub-sampled via a ca. 10 cm, 1/8 inch (O.D.) PTFE tube (I.D.: 1 mm, flow rate: 300 ml min⁻¹,
16 residence time: 0.04 s and with a Reynolds number inside the tube of ca. 258, indicating
17 laminar flow but the very short residence time means that this does not provide the limiting
18 factor for the overall response time of the measurement system) from a 1/2 inch O.D. PTFE
19 common inlet line (I.D. 3/8 inch), heated to avoid condensation, which led from ca.10 cm
20 below the sonic anemometer to the cabin. Solenoid valves were used to switch between the
21 sample line and zero air which was generated by passing ambient air through a glass tube
22 packed with platinum catalyst powder heated to 200°C. The PTR-ToF-MS subsampled via a
23 3-way valve from the common inlet line; 0.5 L min⁻¹ was pumped through a 1/8 inch (O.D.)
24 and 1/16 inch (O.D.) capillary (together ca. 20 cm long), with 30 ml min⁻¹ entering the
25 instrument and the remaining flow being sent to an exhaust. The common inlet line had a
26 flow rate of ca. 63 L min⁻¹, giving a Reynolds number of ca. 9700 which indicates a turbulent
27 flow. There was no observable influence of the high flow rate on readings from the sonic
28 anemometer, even during periods of relatively low turbulence. Data from both the PTR-MS
29 and the sonic anemometer were logged onto a laptop using a program written in LabVIEW
30 (National Instruments, Austin, Texas, USA).

31
32 The PTR-MS was operated continuously throughout the measurement campaign with
33 interruptions for the tuning of the instrument and refilling of the water reservoir. PTR-MS
34 settings were controlled so that the reduced electric field strength (E/N , where E is the electric

1 field strength and N the buffer gas density) was held at 122 Td ($1.22 \times 10^{-19} \text{ V m}^{-2}$), with drift
2 tube pressure, temperature and voltage maintained at 2.1 mbar, 45 °C and 550 V respectively.
3 The primary ions and the first water cluster were quantified indirectly from the isotope peaks
4 at m/z 21 ($\text{H}_2^{18}\text{O}^+$) and m/z 39 ($\text{H}_2^{18}\text{O}.\text{H}_2\text{O}^+$), respectively. The inferred count rate of H_3O^+
5 ions over the course of the campaign varied between 1.33×10^6 and 9.00×10^6 counts s^{-1} . O_2^+
6 (m/z 32) was kept below 1 % of the primary ion count throughout the campaign in order to
7 limit ionisation of VOCs through charge transfer reactions with O_2^+ and minimise the
8 contribution of the O_2^+ isotope ($^{16}\text{O}^{17}\text{O}^+$) to m/z 33.

9
10 During PTR-ToF-MS operation the drift tube temperature was held at 60°C with 600 V
11 applied across it. The drift tube pressure was 2.3 mbar resulting in an E/N of 130 Td. A more
12 detailed description of the PTR-ToF-MS operation is provided by Schallhart et al. (2015).

13
14 The PTR-MS was operated in three modes: the instrument measured zero air for 5 min,
15 followed by 25 min in flux mode, 5 min in scan mode and then a final 25 min in flux mode.
16 While in flux mode, 11 protonated masses were monitored sequentially: m/z 21 the
17 hydronium ion isotope, m/z 39 a water cluster isotope and 9 masses relating to VOCs: m/z 33,
18 45, 59, 61, 69, 71, 73, 81 and 137. The mass spectral peaks at m/z 21 and 39 were analysed
19 with a 0.2 s dwell time (τ). For the nine VOC species $\tau = 0.5$ s was used in order to increase
20 the instrumental sensitivity to these masses. This gave a total scan time of 4.9 s and the
21 acquisition of ca. 306 data points in each 25 min averaging period. The response time for this
22 instrument, assessed during previous studies and laboratory tests, is ca. 0.5 s, and dwell times
23 were chosen to match this time in order to minimise overall duty cycle loss due to m/z
24 switching. The uncertainty caused by disjunct sampling was calculated and found to cause a
25 0.17 % error in the flux estimation (see Supplementary Information for details).

26
27 Identification of the compounds observed at each of these masses is complicated by the fact
28 that PTR-MS only allows the identification of nominal masses, therefore it is impossible to
29 distinguish between isobaric compounds. As such there may be more than one compound
30 contributing to each of the measured masses; Table 1 displays the masses monitored and the
31 compounds likely to be contributing to each mass together with the exact masses observed at
32 each unit mass using the PTR-ToF-MS which has much greater mass resolution than does the
33 quadrupole PTR-MS instrument. It was assumed that the dominant contributions at m/z 33,
34 45, 59, 61, 69, 71, 73, 81 and 137 were from protonated methanol, acetaldehyde (ethanal),

1 acetone (propanone), acetic acid (ethanoic acid), isoprene (2-methyl-1,3-butadiene), methyl
2 vinyl ketone (MVK, butenone) and methacrolein (MACR, 2-methylprop-2-enal), methyl
3 ethyl ketone (MEK, butanone), a monoterpene mass spectral fragment and monoterpenes
4 respectively. A further contribution to m/z 71, recently identified, are isoprene hydroxy
5 hydroperoxides (ISOPOOH, Rivera-Rios et al., 2014). However, the concentrations of this
6 intermediate are small if NO_x concentrations are high and therefore are likely to be negligible
7 at this site, where NO_x concentrations were large (Finco et al., in preparation).

8

9 **2.2.1 PTR-MS calibration**

10 The PTR-MS was calibrated using a gas standard (Ionicon Analytic GmbH, Innsbruck)
11 containing 17 VOCs at a mixing ratio by volume of approximately 1×10^{-6} (ca. 1 ppmv). The
12 protonated mass of the VOCs ranged from m/z 31 (formaldehyde, CH_3O^+) to m/z 181 (1,2,4-
13 trichlorobenzene, $\text{C}_6\text{H}_4\text{Cl}_3^+$). Methanol (m/z 33), acetaldehyde (m/z 45), acetone (m/z 59),
14 isoprene (m/z 69), MEK (m/z 73) and the monoterpene α -pinene (m/z 81 and m/z 137) were
15 present in the calibration gas standard, allowing sensitivities to be calculated directly. Due to
16 reduced quadrupole transmission for high masses, monoterpenes were quantified using the
17 fragment ion at m/z 81. For compounds not contained in the gas standard (acetic acid (m/z 61)
18 and MVK and MACR (m/z 71)) empirical sensitivities were calculated. A relative
19 transmission curve was created using the instrumental sensitivities calculated from the
20 masses present in the standard, and from this curve sensitivities for the unknown masses were
21 calculated (Davison et al., 2009; Taipale et al., 2008). Error in calibration using the gas
22 standard was assumed to be below 15 %, whereas relative errors in calibrations using the
23 relative transmission approach are < 30 % (Taipale et al., 2008). The change in instrumental
24 sensitivity from before the campaign to the end of the campaign was +1.9, -2, -2.1, -0.3 and -
25 0.7 ncps ppbv⁻¹ for methanol, acetaldehyde, acetone, isoprene and methyl ethyl ketone
26 respectively.

27

28 **2.2.2 PTR-ToF-MS calibration**

29 Background measurements of the PTR-ToF-MS were made up to three times a day using zero
30 air generated by a custom made catalytic converter. Calibrations were made using a
31 calibration gas (Appel Riemer Environmental Inc., USA) which contained 16 compounds,
32 with masses ranging from 33 to 180 amu. For VOCs not included in the calibration standard,

1 the average instrument sensitivities towards the known C_xH_y , $C_xH_yO_z$ or $C_xH_yN_z$ compound
 2 families were used.

3

4 **2.3 Calculation of volume mixing ratios**

5 Mixing ratios by volume were calculated from data generated using the PTR-MS using a
 6 program written in LabVIEW (National Instruments, Austin, Texas, USA). Mixing ratios by
 7 volume (χ_{VOC}) were calculated from the raw PTR-MS data (in counts per second (cps)) using
 8 a method based on those of Taipale et al. (2008) and Tani et al. (2004).

9

10

$$11 \quad \chi_{VOC} = \frac{I(RH^+)_{norm}}{S_{norm}} \quad (1)$$

12

13 where S_{norm} is the normalised sensitivity and $I(RH^+)_{norm}$ represents the background corrected
 14 normalised count rate (ncps) for the protonated compound R which was calculated as shown
 15 below.

16

$$17 \quad I(RH^+)_{norm} = I(RH^+) \left(\frac{I_{norm}}{I(H_3O^+) + I(H_3O^+H_2O)} \right) \left(\frac{p_{norm}}{p_{drift}} \right)$$

$$18$$

$$19 \quad - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n I(RH^+)_{zero,i} \left(\frac{I_{norm}}{I(H_3O^+)_{zero,i} + I(H_3O^+H_2O)_{zero,i}} \right) \left(\frac{p_{norm}}{p_{drift,zero,i}} \right) \quad (2)$$

20

21 where $I(RH^+)$, $I(H_3O^+)$ and $I(H_3O^+H_2O)$ represent the observed count rate for the protonated
 22 compound R , H_3O^+ and the $H_3O^+H_2O$ cluster, respectively. Subscript zero refers to zero air
 23 measurements, n is the number of zero air measurement cycles and p_{drift} is the drift tube
 24 pressure. The drift tube pressure was normalised to 2 mbar (p_{norm}) and the sum of the primary
 25 ion and first water cluster was normalised to a count rate of 10^6 cps (I_{norm}). The compound
 26 specific limit of detection (LoD) was calculated using the method described by Karl et al.
 27 (2003):

28

$$29 \quad LoD = 2 \times \frac{\sigma_{Background}}{S_{VOC}} \quad (3)$$

30

1 where S_{VOC} is the instrumental sensitivity to the VOC and $\sigma_{Background}$ is the mean background
2 normalised count rate.

3

4 **2.4 Flux calculations from PTR-MS**

5 The 25 min PTR-MS flux files were inspected and incomplete or disrupted files were
6 removed. BVOC fluxes were then calculated using a program also written in LabVIEW,
7 based upon the virtual disjunct eddy covariance technique (vDEC) developed by Karl et al.
8 (2002), also termed continuous flow disjunct eddy covariance (Rinne et al., 2008). This
9 method has been successfully applied in a number of studies (e.g. Davison et al., 2009;
10 Langford et al., 2009; 2010a; 2010b; Misztal et al., 2011; Rinne et al. 2007). This approach
11 allows direct calculation of fluxes of atmospheric constituents, as with standard eddy
12 covariance, yet in this case sampling of scalar concentrations is not continuous. The flux, F_x ,
13 for each compound was calculated using a covariance function between the vertical wind
14 velocity, w , and the VOC mixing ratios, χ :

15

$$16 \quad F_x(\Delta t) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N w'(i - \Delta t / \Delta t_w) \chi'(i) \quad (4)$$

17

18 where Δt is the lag time between the PTR-MS concentration measurements and the vertical
19 wind velocity measurements from a sonic anemometer, Δt_w is the sampling interval between
20 wind measurements (0.1 s), N is the number of PTR-MS measurement cycles in each 25 min
21 averaging period (typically 306 in our study) and primes represent the momentary deviations
22 from the mean concentration or vertical wind speed (e.g. $w = w' - \bar{w}$).

23

24 Variations in temperature, pressure and the performance of the sample line pump can cause
25 small deviations in Δt . Therefore these values were calculated using a cross correlation
26 function between w' and χ' . Lag times were calculated individually for each m/z monitored by
27 the PTR-MS by selecting the absolute maximum value of the covariance function within a 30
28 s time window (MAX method, Taipale et al., 2010). This analysis resulted in a clear isoprene
29 flux but for most masses a high proportion of the data fell below the limit of detection. These
30 data, especially in the case of acetone, showed a significant amount of flux values with the
31 opposite sign, “mirroring” the true flux. These “mirrored” points occur when the measured
32 flux is of comparable magnitude to the total random error of the system (Langford et al.,
33 2015). As the cross-correlation maximum is likely to be an over-estimate when the noise to

1 signal ratio is greater than one, these points were substituted with fluxes calculated using a
2 fixed lag time.

3

4 A histogram of isoprene lag times calculated using the MAX method is displayed in the
5 Supplementary Information showing a clear maximum at 7.5 s. Therefore 7.5 s was chosen as
6 the isoprene fixed lag time and fixed lag times for the other masses were calculated from the
7 isoprene fixed lag time, accounting for the dwell times of the different compounds in the
8 measurement cycle.

9

10 **2.4.1 Flux quality assessment and potential losses**

11 In order to assess the quality of each 25 min flux file, the resultant fluxes were subjected to
12 three quality checks following a two-dimensional coordinate rotation which was applied to
13 correct for tilting of the sonic anemometer (see Table S1 in the Supplementary Information
14 document for summary). Following the criteria of Langford et al. (2010a), data points were
15 labelled if the mean friction velocity (u_*) over the 25 min averaging period was found to be
16 below 0.15 m s^{-1} . Data falling below this threshold predominantly occurred at night when
17 wind velocity reached a minimum. Detection limits for each 25 min flux file were calculated
18 using a method based on that of Wienhold et al. (1994) as applied by Spirig et al. (2005)
19 where the signal of the flux at the true lag is compared to the background noise of the
20 covariance function. The 95th percentile of the covariance function in the lag range 150-180 s
21 was calculated and flux files falling below this value were labelled as having fallen below the
22 LoD. Finally data points underwent a stationarity test as described by Foken and Wichura
23 (1996), which assessed that stability of the flux across the 25 min averaging period, data
24 points found to be generated from periods of non-stationarity were also labelled. Flux files in
25 which all three tests were passed and where only the LoD test was failed were included in all
26 further analysis. Files which failed the LoD test were included to prevent a positive bias
27 being introduced to results. Flux files failing the stationarity check or falling below the u_*
28 threshold were excluded from further analysis.

29

30 The integral turbulence characteristics were assessed using the FLUXNET criteria described
31 by Foken et al. (2004). The turbulence at the Bosco Fontana field site was well developed
32 with 87% of the data in the first three categories, defined by Foken et al. (2004) as suitable

1 for fundamental research. Less than 1% of the data fell into category 9, characterised as data
2 to be excluded under all circumstances.

3

4 The flux losses in the virtual disjunct eddy covariance system were assessed. Loss of flux at
5 frequencies higher than the PTR-MS response time and/or dwell time was corrected for using
6 the method described by Horst (1997). Correction factors in the range 1.01 - 1.23 were
7 calculated and applied to each 25 min flux file with a mean correction of 8.8 %. Rotating the
8 coordinates in order to set the vertical mean vertical wind velocity to 0 for each twenty five
9 minute flux averaging period and block averaging itself act as a high pass flux filter
10 (Moncrieff et al., 2004), leading to the loss of low frequency fluxes. The loss of these low
11 frequency fluxes due to an insufficient averaging period is assessed in the Supplementary
12 Information. Sensible heat flux data were averaged over 50, 75, 100 and 125 minutes before a
13 coordinate rotation was applied and plotted against the sum of two, three, four and five 25
14 minute coordinate rotated flux files, respectively. The gradient of the fitted line between the
15 two fluxes gives an estimate of the flux lost by the use of twenty five minute averaging
16 periods. As is shown in Fig. S2 of the Supplementary Information, eddies with a time period
17 between 25 and 125 minutes carry only an additional 2.8 % of the sensible heat flux.
18 Therefore if we assume that the frequency of VOC and sensible heat fluxes are comparable,
19 1.0-3.6 % of the VOC flux is lost by limiting the averaging period to 25 minutes. This
20 correction has not been applied to the displayed data as it is so small.

21

22 The effect of the measurement tower (situated to the south-east of the sonic anemometer) on
23 flux measurements was assessed in two ways. Firstly, the vertical rotation angle (θ) used to
24 realign the anemometer to achieve zero average w was plotted against wind direction (Fig S4
25 in Supplementary Information). No change in θ was observed when the wind came from the
26 south east, demonstrating that the tower did not affect θ . Secondly, the potential of wake
27 turbulence created by the tower was assessed using the method developed by Foken (2004).
28 The quality of the turbulence within each flux averaging period was assessed by calculating
29 the percentage difference between the measured integral turbulence statistics of the vertical
30 wind velocity and values modelled for an ideal set of conditions. Plotting the percentage
31 difference between the measured and modelled values against wind direction (Fig S4 in
32 Supplementary Information) showed that the tower had little effect on this percentage
33 difference and thus on flux measurements (for a more detailed discussion, see Supplementary

1 Information). Therefore, flux averaging periods during which the wind was coming from the
2 south-east were not systematically excluded from further analysis.

3

4 The percentage of flux averaging periods during which > 25 % of the flux originated from
5 outside the forest area was also assessed by footprint analysis and found to account for 26 %
6 of the data set. As the flux footprint moves with atmospheric stability, fluxes from outside the forest
7 predominantly occurred during night-time conditions when emission rates were very small. Therefore
8 it was not deemed necessary to specifically remove these data prior to further bulk analysis of the
9 dataset, although it is recognised that the u_* filter criterion removed many of these measurements. A
10 more detailed analysis of the effect of the tree species composition within the footprint on measured
11 and modelled fluxes is presented below.

12

13 **2.5 Flux calculations from PTR-ToF-MS**

14 BVOC fluxes were calculated from PTR-ToF-MS data using the eddy covariance (EC)
15 method similar to that described above for the PTR-MS. The PTR-ToF-MS flux analysis
16 differed in that the cross correlation between w' and χ' was calculated using the method
17 described by Park et al. (2013). Whilst in the PTR-MS measurement, the target compounds
18 are predetermined through the measurement cycle, in the PTR-ToF-MS the entire high
19 resolution mass spectrum can be used to search for compounds that carry a flux. PTR-ToF-
20 MS data were analysed using the TOF Analyzer V2.45 as described by Müller et al. (2013)
21 and TofTools (Junninen et al., 2010). An automated flux identification routine was then used
22 to calculate the average of the absolute cross covariance functions during a mid-day period.
23 The maximum value was then automatically selected from the averaged spectrum and
24 checked against the manually selected noise level ($10 \sigma_{noise}$) to determine whether a flux was
25 present.

26

27 The fluxes were filtered using the 70% stationary criteria as presented by Foken and Wichura
28 (1996), as was applied to the PTR-MS data and corrected for loss of high frequency flux
29 Horst (1997). For a more detailed description of the flux calculation from the PTR-ToF-MS
30 see Schallhart et al. (2015).

31

2.6 Leaf level GC-MS measurements

A portable gas exchange system equipped with a controlled-environment 6-cm² broadleaf cuvette (LI6400, Li-COR, Lincoln, USA) was used to measure net photosynthetic rate (A) and stomatal conductance (g_s) at basal conditions of PAR (1000 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$), leaf temperature (30 °C) and a CO₂ concentration (400 ppm) from fully expanded leaves. These conditions were comparable to those observed during the campaign where the average day time temperature was 29 °C. While the cuvette is capable of reproducing ambient light and temperature conditions, unstable environmental conditions below the canopy make it difficult to achieve steady state fluxes. BVOC emission was therefore recorded at basal conditions, to ensure that steady state fluxes could be obtained and to enable comparison between different individual measurements. When A reached a steady-state, the outlet tube from the leaf cuvette was replaced with a Teflon tube, and the air stream exiting from the cuvette was used to sample BVOCs (according to the methodology in Loreto et al., 2001) by adsorbing them onto a silco-steel cartridge packed with 200 mg of tenax (Supelco, PA, USA). Tenax is a very hydrophobic and adsorbent material with high thermal stability generally used for trapping BVOC (Dettmer and Engewald, 2002). The flow rate through the leaf cuvette was maintained at 500 $\mu\text{mol s}^{-1}$, and a subsample of 200 mL min⁻¹ (130 $\mu\text{mol s}^{-1}$) was pumped through the cartridge with an external pump (AP Buck pump VSS-1) for a total volume of 6 L of air. Blank samples of air without a leaf in the cuvette were collected every day before and after the BVOC samplings. Finally the cartridges were sealed and stored at 4 °C until analysis.

The cartridges were analyzed using a Perkin Elmer Clarus 580 gas-chromatograph coupled with a Clarus 560 Mass-Detector and a thermal-desorber Turbo Matrix (Perkin Elmer Inc., Waltham, MA, USA). The gas-chromatograph was equipped with an Elite-5-MS capillary column (30 m length, 250 μm diameter and 0.25 μm film thicknesses). The carrier gas was helium. The column oven temperature was kept at 40 °C for 5 min, then increased with a 5 °C min⁻¹ ramp to 250 °C and maintained at 250 °C for 5 min. BVOC were identified using the NIST library provided with the GC/MS Turbomass software. GC peak retention time was substantiated by analysis of parent ions and main fragments of the spectra. Commercially available reference standards (gaseous standards, Rivoira, Milan, Italy and liquid standards, Sigma Aldrich, Milan, Italy) were used to create the calibration curves and to quantify the emissions. To normalize the BVOC results, the quantities of terpenes collected from the empty cuvette (blanks) were subtracted from the plant emission results.

2.7 Mapping tree species distribution

Tree species distribution data were obtained from Dalponte et al. (2007) who used a combination of Light Detection and Ranging (LIDAR) and hyperspectral data to develop a high resolution tree species distribution map of the Bosco Fontana natural reserve.

The overall accuracy (kappa coefficient) of this species map is particularly high (0.89), considering the number of classes (23) and the number of training samples (20% of the data are used in the training set and 80% in the test set) per class. The LIDAR channels provide relatively sparse information for discriminating between tree species, increasing the overall accuracy of the tree species assignment using the hyperspectral data by only 1 % but the LIDAR data significantly increase the accuracy of understory and underrepresented classes. The kappa coefficient of the main species is also very high (0.88-0.93) showing the effectiveness of this approach for species classification in a very complex forest with 20 different broad-leaves species, some of which, such as *Q. cerris*, *Q. robur* and *Q. rubra*, belong to same genus. For a more detailed discussion of the mapping results and methodology see Dalponte et al. (2007) and Dalponte et al. (2008).

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Meteorological conditions

The measurement campaign at Bosco Fontana ran from 01/06/2012 to 11/07/2012 (41 days) with data recorded using the PTR-MS from the 13/06/2012 to the 11/07/2012. The meteorological conditions recorded at the measurement site during this period are summarised in Fig. 1, times are reported in central European time (UTC + 1) as used throughout this paper. The campaign average flux footprint is displayed in Fig. 2. With the exception of two heavy thunderstorms, the first in the first week of June before measurements began and the second overnight on 6th July, there was no precipitation during the measurement period. During the measurement period ambient temperature varied from a low of 14 °C to a high of 35 °C, with temperatures lowest early in the campaign. Daily photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) peaked within the range 1890-2105 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ and the relative humidity during the campaign varied between 29 and 90 %. Winds were generally easterly or north westerly. For most of the campaign wind speeds were below

1 3.5 m s⁻¹ but peaked at 5.6 m s⁻¹ on 23rd June, with the mean wind speed for the campaign
2 period of 1.6 m s⁻¹.

3

4 **3.2 BVOC mixing ratios and fluxes**

5 BVOC fluxes were recorded at the Bosco Fontana site using both the PTR-MS and the PTR-
6 ToF-MS. Unless stated, the results displayed here were calculated from measurements made
7 using the PTR-MS. Data analysis was carried out with the aid of the R openair package
8 (Carslaw and Ropkins, 2012; R Core Team 2012). For a full discussion of all fluxes and
9 concentrations recorded using the PTR-ToF-MS see Schallhart et al. (2015).

10

11 The mixing ratios of the eight BVOC species measured in flux mode using the PTR-MS are
12 displayed in Fig. 3 and are summarised in Table 2 (for further details, see Fig. S6 of the
13 Supplementary Information). These mixing ratios were calculated using the high frequency
14 flux measurements so the presented mixing ratios are an average over 25 minutes. The
15 mixing ratio LoDs, calculated as described above (Karl et al., 2003; Langford et al., 2009;
16 Misztal et al., 2011) were in the same range as those calculated on previous campaigns
17 (Langford et al., 2009; Misztal et al., 2011) and, with the exception of isoprene where the
18 mixing ratio dropped towards zero at night, the recorded mixing ratios generally remained
19 above their respective LoD.

20

21 Table 3 summarizes the flux data recorded during the Bosco Fontana measurement campaign.
22 Wind speeds decreased at night, leading to a large proportion of the night time data falling
23 below the u_* threshold of 0.15 m s⁻¹. Consequently, average emission fluxes of all eight
24 compounds are reported for the daytime period 10:00-15:00 LT as well as for the whole
25 campaign. Large fluxes of m/z 69 and m/z 81 (assigned to isoprene and monoterpenes
26 respectively) were observed and are shown in Fig. 4. Fluxes of m/z 33, 45, 59, 61, 71 and 73
27 (assigned to methanol, acetaldehyde, acetone, acetic acid, MVK + MACR and MEK,
28 respectively) were also observed, but these fluxes were weaker, leading to a high percentage
29 of fluxes failing the LoD check. However, as is described by Langford et al. (2015), when
30 these flux data are averaged to show the average diurnal cycle, it is appropriate to use a
31 combined LoD value appropriate for the same period rather than the LoD attached
32 specifically to each 25 min flux file. It is, though, essential that each individual flux period be
33 processed carefully to avoid the introduction of a bias due to the use of the MAX method of

1 time-lag identification. The LoD for the mean (\overline{LoD}) decreases with the square root of the
2 number of samples averaged (N).

3

$$4 \quad \overline{LoD} = \frac{1}{N} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N LoD^2} \quad (5)$$

5

6 Therefore, while the flux time series of methanol, acetaldehyde, acetone, acetic acid, MVK +
7 MACR and MEK are not presented here, the campaign average diurnal fluxes are shown
8 (Fig. 5). As discussed above, 25 min averaged flux files flagged as below the LoD were
9 included in these diurnal averages. Flux files falling below the 0.15 m s⁻¹ wind speed
10 threshold were also included to prevent the night time flux being biased high for depositing
11 compounds. For compounds showing emission, night-time fluxes are close to zero anyway
12 and the application has little influence on the results. Data flagged for non-stationarity were
13 excluded. For a more detailed discussion of the fluxes and mixing ratios of each BVOC and
14 comparison made with other temperate and Mediterranean ecosystems, see the
15 Supplementary Information.

16

17 The fluxes of isoprene and monoterpenes calculated using both the PTR-MS and the PTR-
18 ToF-MS instruments are displayed in Fig. 4 and summarised in Table 3. The isoprene fluxes
19 calculated using both instruments show very good correlation ($R^2 = 0.91$, slope 1.3 and
20 intercept 0.17 mg m⁻² h⁻¹). The monoterpene fluxes, calculated using m/z 81 with the PTR-
21 MS and m/z 81.070 with the PTR-ToF-MS show an $R^2 = 0.50$. Three additional mass spectral
22 peaks are observed at m/z 81 in the PTR-ToF-MS: m/z 80.92, 80.99 and 81.03, however
23 statistically significant fluxes from these peaks could not be calculated using the PTR-ToF-
24 MS. Owing to the lower sensitivity of the PTR-MS at m/z 81 and the lower sampling
25 frequency of the disjunct sampling protocol (Rinne and Ammann 2012), the monoterpene
26 flux calculated using this instrument is significantly noisier than the flux calculated using the
27 PTR-ToF-MS.

28

29 PTR-MS and PTR-ToF-MS mass scans were averaged over a ten day period (14th – 24th
30 June). A comparison of these mass scans over the range m/z 33 to 100 at unit mass resolution
31 is displayed in Fig. 6, with masses reported relative to m/z 59 (acetone). A good agreement
32 between the PTR-MS and PTR-ToF-MS is seen for all masses, except for m/z 33 where the
33 PTR-MS gives a significantly higher signal. As both instruments have comparable

1 sensitivities at this mass (11.6 and ca. 10-12 ncps ppbv⁻¹ for the PTR-MS and PTR-ToF-MS
2 respectively) this discrepancy must be the result of interference from another ion at this mass.
3 O¹⁷O⁺ could interfere with the methanol signal at *m/z* 33 but as a significant peak is not
4 observed at *m/z* 34 (O¹⁸O⁺) a large contribution from O¹⁷O⁺ to *m/z* 33 is unlikely. This
5 suggests that there is a greater formation of O₂H⁺ in the PTR-MS than in the PTR-ToF-MS
6 under these particular operation parameters. No major mass spectral peaks are observed in
7 one instrument alone, indicating that there is no artefact formation or unexpected loss of
8 chemical species with either instrument. The mass scans show a much cleaner spectrum than
9 was reported by Misztal et al. (2011) above an oil palm plantation in South-East Asia,
10 suggesting an atmosphere dominated by fewer chemical species at higher concentrations.

12 **3.2.1 BVOC correlations**

13 Scatter plots were used to investigate the relationship between the measured species.
14 Methanol, acetone and MEK (Fig. 7) all showed a shift in the regression of the BVOCs with
15 increasing temperature with two linear groupings observed, one at lower temperature (ca. <
16 20°C) and another at higher temperatures (ca. > 20°C). The change in regression could be a
17 result of either different proportions of BVOCs present in high and low temperature air
18 masses or by two different sources contributing to the mixing ratios (most likely an
19 atmospheric background and a photochemical source at higher temperatures). It is possible
20 that a second compound could contribute to the nominal mass at higher temperatures but as
21 few compounds have been reported to contribute to *m/z* 33 or 59, this seems unlikely.

23 **3.2.2 Short-chain oxygenated BVOCs**

24 A mean methanol mixing ratio of 6.2 ppbv at 4 m above the canopy was recorded over the
25 duration of the campaign, making it the dominant BVOC observed at Bosco Fontana. Large
26 mixing ratios of methanol compared with other VOC species (caused by its low
27 photochemical reactivity) have been reported in urban landscapes (Langford et al., 2009).
28 This suggests that the large methanol mixing ratios relative to other VOCs observed 4 m
29 above the forest at Bosco Fontana may be due to the surrounding agricultural and urban
30 landscape. Mean acetaldehyde, acetone and acetic acid mixing ratios were 3.4, 3.2 and 1.9
31 ppbv at 4 m above the canopy, respectively. Methanol, acetaldehyde and acetic acid mixing
32 ratios all followed similar diurnal cycles (Fig. 3), with mixing ratios remaining stable through
33 the night before a drop in the morning, probably caused by expansion of the planetary

1 boundary layer after sunrise. Then mixing ratios increased again in the late afternoon as
2 emissions accumulated in a shrinking boundary layer. Acetone mixing ratios remained on
3 average stable throughout the day (Fig. 3). This would suggest a day-time source of acetone
4 offsetting the dilution caused by expansion of the planetary boundary layer. As the flux of
5 acetone, where observed, was very small this source must either be photochemical or situated
6 outside the forest.

7
8 The flux of methanol peaked at $0.49 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ with a mean day-time flux of $0.03 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$
9 (Fig. 5). Methanol deposition was observed during the night and mornings followed by a
10 rapid increase in methanol emission in the late morning and peaking in the early afternoon.
11 Bidirectional exchanges of methanol have been reported previously (for example Fares et al.,
12 2012; Karl et al., 2004) with methanol absorption/desorption thought to occur in thin water
13 films within the canopy (Wohlfahrt et al., 2015). The mean morning (06:30-10:30 LT)
14 methanol deposition velocity (V_d) at the measurement height (z_m) was calculated using the
15 relationship (Misztal et al., 2011):

$$17 \quad V_d(z_m) = -\frac{F}{\chi(z_m)} \quad (6)$$

18
19 and was found to be 0.31 cm s^{-1} . The night-time deposition velocity was lower, 0.02 cm s^{-1} ,
20 falling at the bottom end of the $0.02 - 1.0 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ range reported by Wohlfahrt et al. (2015)
21 from a review of eight different north hemisphere sites.

22
23 Acetic acid deposition was also observed in the morning, but any emission flux in the
24 afternoon remained below the limit of detection, even if aggregated into mean diurnal cycles.
25 The mean diurnal acetaldehyde flux is shown in Fig. 5. The flux increased from below the
26 detection limit in late morning to a peak in the early afternoon before dropping again towards
27 zero at night. The flux peaked at $0.44 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ on 29th June and the campaign mean day-
28 time flux was $0.06 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$. As can be seen in Fig. 5, the acetone flux remained below the
29 limit of detection for most of the day with a small positive flux observed in the late afternoon.
30

31 **3.2.3 MVK + MACR and MEK**

32 MVK and MACR are the main products formed following the first stage of isoprene
33 oxidation in the atmosphere (Atkinson and Arey 2003), accounting for ca. 80% of the carbon.

1 MACR can also be directly produced within plants as a by-product in the production of
2 cyanogenic glycosides (Fall 2003) and experimental observation demonstrated that emissions
3 of MVK and MACR increase with temperature stress (Jardine et al., 2012). The mid-day
4 (10:00-15:00 LT) mixing ratios of MVK + MACR at 4 m above the canopy showed a
5 positive correlation with those of isoprene ($R^2 = 0.49$), suggesting that the oxidation of
6 isoprene was responsible for the formation of MVK and MACR.

7
8 The production of MVK and MACR from isoprene at the Bosco Fontana site has been
9 modelled by Schallhart et al. (2015), who estimated that 4 - 27 % of the MVK + MACR flux
10 was formed from isoprene oxidation products. MVK and MACR mixing ratios recorded at
11 4 m above the canopy (Fig. 3) increase in the morning as isoprene concentrations rise, before
12 boundary layer expansion causes them to drop in the middle of the day. The mixing ratios
13 then increase again in the evening as the boundary layer contracts. The flux of MVK +
14 MACR (Fig. 5) peaked in the early afternoon with a mean day-time flux of $0.05 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$.
15 This flux is comparable to the 0.03 and $0.08 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ observed, respectively, by Kalogridis
16 et al. (2014) and Spirig et al. (2005) over European oak and mixed forests.

17
18 MEK may be directly emitted by plants (Fall, 2003) or formed photochemically (Luecken et
19 al., 2012). MEK mixing ratios 4 m above the forest canopy remained stable through the night
20 at ca. 0.6 ppbv before dropping in the morning, probably caused by expansion of the
21 planetary boundary layer, to ca. 0.3 ppbv and rising again in the evening (Fig. 3). A plot of
22 the mixing ratios of MEK against those of acetone reveals a bimodal distribution suggesting
23 two distinct sinks or sources (Fig. 7), the first occurring at lower temperatures (ca. $12\text{-}20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$)
24 with a MEK to acetone ratio of ca. 0.17 and the second at higher temperatures (ca. $20\text{-}34 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$)
25 with a MEK to acetone ratio of ca. 0.06 . A relationship between acetone and MEK has been
26 reported by Riemer et al. (1998) who observed an MEK to acetone ratio of 0.07 at
27 temperatures between 20 and $37 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. This compares well with the observations at Bosco
28 Fontana. This trend was not observed when data were coloured by PAR indicating that the
29 bimodal distribution is not driven by the faster rate of reaction of MEK than of acetone with
30 OH. A low MEK emission flux was observed in the afternoon with a mean day-time flux of
31 $0.02 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$.

32

1 **3.2.4 Isoprene and monoterpenes**

2 Isoprene mixing ratios 4 m above the canopy began to rise in the mid-morning from a night-
3 time zero, peaking in the late afternoon at ca. 2 ppbv before falling again to zero in the late
4 evening (Fig. 3). Isoprene fluxes were not observed at night, but increased in the morning to a
5 peak in the mid afternoon before dropping to zero again in the evening (Fig. 5) with a mean
6 day-time flux of $1.9 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$.

7
8 Isoprene fluxes correlated with leaf temperature (estimated using a method based on that
9 described by Nemitz et al. (2009) and explained in more detail in the Supplementary
10 Information, $R^2 = 0.73$ for an exponential fit), PAR ($R^2 = 0.75$ for an exponential fit) and
11 with sensible heat flux (H) ($R^2 = 0.67$). The relationship between isoprene fluxes and mixing
12 ratios, temperature and PAR is displayed in Fig. 8. Table 4 compares isoprene flux
13 measurements with the fluxes recorded during other field campaigns in the Mediterranean
14 region and the isoprene emission factor under basal conditions. As would be expected, the
15 flux of isoprene is shown to be highly dependent on ecosystem type. The fluxes observed
16 during this measurement period, when normalised to standard conditions, were lower than
17 those observed over woodland dominated by isoprene emitting oak species (Baghi et al.,
18 2012; Kalogridis et al., 2014) due to the lower proportion of isoprene emitting species in the
19 canopy but closer in magnitude to that observed over a mixed pine and oak forest (Fares et
20 al., 2013).

21
22 The campaign mean monoterpene mixing ratio 4 m above the canopy was 0.2 ppbv. The
23 diurnal profile (Fig. 3) shows a night-time mixing ratio of ca. 0.18 ppbv which increases to
24 ca. 0.21 ppbv in the morning remaining stable through the day and dropping again to ca.
25 0.18 ppbv at night. The monoterpene flux (Fig. 5) peaked in the early afternoon with a
26 campaign mean mid-day flux of $0.12 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$. Monoterpene mixing ratios were not
27 significantly correlated with leaf surface temperature or with PAR ($R^2 = 0.11$ and 0.12
28 respectively). However, the flux displayed a correlation with both leaf surface temperature
29 and PAR ($R^2 = 0.44$ and 0.39 respectively).

31 **3.3 Impacts on air quality**

32 The forest at Bosco Fontana provides a large source of BVOCs in a region of predominantly
33 agricultural and urban land use. The oxidation of BVOCs leads to the formation of low
34 volatility organic compounds which in turn contribute to SOA (Ehn et al., 2014). The

1 importance of individual BVOC species to SOA formation is, however, variable, with large
2 and cyclic compounds likely to contribute more to SOA formation (Hallquist et al., 2009).
3 Monoterpenes are known to contribute significantly to SOA formation. The principal
4 monoterpene species observed during this campaign were α -pinene, β -pinene, sabinene and
5 limonene (Table 5). Following ozonolysis of α -pinene and β -pinene, Lee et al. (2006)
6 observed aerosol yields of 41 and 17 % respectively. Aerosol yields of 41 and 17 % were
7 assigned to limonene and sabinene, respectively, due to the placement of C-C double bonds
8 within/or external to the cyclic structure. The average aerosol yield from monoterpene
9 ozonolysis during the campaign may then be calculated based on the proportion of each
10 compound emitted. This gives a ca. 39 % yield of aerosol, contributing ca. $0.38 \mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$ to
11 aerosol (based on the campaign average monoterpene mixing ratio (0.198 ppbv).

12

13 Significant aerosol formation from isoprene has been reported in low NO_x environments
14 (Claeys et al., 2004), however, the high NO_x concentrations at the Bosco Fontana natural
15 reserve (Finco et al., in preparation) make a significant contribution to SOA from isoprene
16 unlikely.

17

18 In the presence of NO_x , BVOCs can facilitate the formation of tropospheric ozone. As the
19 potential for photochemical ozone formation is five times greater from isoprene than from
20 VOCs emitted following urban anthropogenic activity (Derwent et al., 2007; Hewitt et al.,
21 2009), the high isoprene emission observed here will have a significant impact on
22 tropospheric ozone formation in the high NO_x environment at the Bosco Fontana natural
23 reserve and downwind. The emission of isoprene from the Bosco Fontana reserve, together
24 with other forest fragments and poplar plantations with the Po Valley, is likely to have a
25 significant impact upon tropospheric ozone concentrations in the region.

26

27 **3.4 Calculation of isoprene and monoterpene canopy level emission factors**

28 Although other approaches do exist, isoprene fluxes are widely modelled using the Model of
29 Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN, Guenther et al., 2006). MEGAN
30 calculates isoprene fluxes based on the product of an emission activity factor (γ), a canopy
31 loss and production factor (ρ) and a canopy emission factor (ϵ). Therefore, plotting isoprene
32 flux against $\gamma \times \rho$ enables the calculation of a canopy-specific isoprene emission factor (Fig.
33 9), giving value of $1.68 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ at standard conditions ($1000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ PAR and 303 K)

1 for the campaign period. For the purpose of this work, ρ was assumed to be 0.96. This is
2 supported by Schallhart et al. (2015) who found that between 3 and 5 % of isoprene
3 emissions were lost within the canopy at the Bosco Fontana reserve. The emission activity
4 factor, γ , was calculated using the algorithms described by Guenther et al. (2006). Radiative
5 transfer through the canopy was modelled using the model applied by Müller et al. (2008).
6 This model was based on that of Goudriaan and van Laar (1994) and ambient temperature
7 was recorded 4 m above the canopy. The standard light and temperature conditions for
8 MEGAN canopy scale emissions factors are $\sim 1500 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ and 303 K (Guenther et al.,
9 2006). In order to enable direct comparison between the GC-MS data and literature emissions
10 factors, the factor which sets the emission activity to unity at standard conditions (C_{CE}) was
11 increased to 1.42. This gave standard light and temperature conditions of $1000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$
12 and 303 K, respectively.

13

14 The emission factor is lower than those calculated by Kalogridis et al. (2014) and Baghi et al.
15 (2012) from oak (*Quercus pubescens*) dominated forests in southern France (7.4 and 5.4 mg
16 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$, respectively). However, this is to be expected, owing to the high proportion of low or
17 non-isoprene emitting species such as *Carpinus betulus*, *Corylus avellana*, *Sambucus nigra*
18 and *Acer campestre* present in the forest at Bosco Fontana.

19

20 Monoterpene emission from plants may take the form of pool or *de novo* emission. Emission
21 from stored pools is temperature controlled whereas *de novo* is driven by photosynthesis and
22 is therefore controlled by light as well as temperature (Ghirardo et al., 2010). Emission from
23 stored pools was modelled using the monoterpene-temperature relationship described by
24 Guenther et al. (1995), this model correlated well with the observed monoterpene flux (PTR-
25 ToF-MS) giving R^2 value of 0.55. In order to assess the effect of light on monoterpene
26 emission, the residual values from the temperature only model were plotted against PAR
27 (Fig. 10). The residuals displayed a correlation with PAR ($R^2 = 0.45$) indicating that light as
28 well as temperature have a significant impact on monoterpene emissions from the forest
29 canopy and therefore a significant proportion of monoterpene emission represent *de novo*
30 emission. However, in order to accurately assess the contribution of pool and *de novo*
31 emissions to the canopy scale monoterpene flux, a species specific leaf level investigation
32 would be required. A monoterpene canopy emission factor calculated using the MEGAN
33 algorithms, which only simulate *de novo* emission, was found to be $0.14 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$.

34

3.5 Speciated bottom-up isoprene and monoterpene flux estimates derived from leaf-level measurements

Tree species distribution data combined with information on leaf-level isoprene and monoterpene emission rates and meteorological data were used to produce a “bottom-up” estimate of the total canopy level flux. Tree species distribution data were obtained from Dalponte et al. (2007), this tree species distribution map reveals an uneven distribution of isoprene emitting species within the forest canopy, with the two main isoprene emitting species (*Q. robur* and *Q. rubra*) concentrated in the south of the forest.

Leaf-level isoprene and monoterpene emissions from the dominant tree species were recorded using GC-MS (Table 5). Together these species represent 76.6 % of the total vegetation cover. Isoprene emission was dominated by *Q. robur* and *Q. rubra* with *C. avellana* and *C. betulus* the highest monoterpene emitting species. The isoprene emission recorded for both oak species was lower than that previously reported (Karl et al., 2009; Keenan et al., 2009). For species where GC-MS data were not available, literature values were used. Leaf-level emission factors for minor species for which no GC-MS measurements were made were taken from Karl et al. (2009) with the exception *Rubus* sp. (Owen et al., 2001) and *Acer negundo* and *Morus* sp. (Benjamin et al., 1996). Emission factors taken from the literature were converted from $\mu\text{g g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ to $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ using the mean leaf mass to area ratio, $115 \text{ g}_{\text{DW}} \text{m}^{-2}$, reported by Niinemets (1999) from a study of ca. 600 species. The leaf-level emissions data were then scaled up to a canopy level using the MEGAN algorithms (Guenther et al., 2006) and incorporated measured PAR and temperature values averaged over 30 minutes and a single sided leaf area index (LAI, m^2/m^2) of 5.5.

The hyperspectral/LIDAR data of Dalponte et al. (2007) was remapped onto a grid centred on the measurement site, with a resolution of 5 m^2 , providing fractional ground cover by each of the 20 tree species within each grid cell. The contribution of each grid cell to each 25-minute flux measurement was then calculated at 5 m^2 resolution using a high resolution 2-D footprint model based on Kormann and Meixner (2001) similar to that described by Neftel et al. (2008). Finally, the MEGAN algorithm was applied to all plant species using the 25-minute meteorology. The information was combined to provide a bottom-up estimate of the flux that the canopy-scale measurements should have detected, based on the leaf-level data. This footprint and species dependent bottom-up flux estimate showed significantly better agreement with the measured isoprene flux ($R^2 = 0.75$, slope = 0.56) than was observed when

1 the canopy-scale isoprene emission factor calculated above was used ($R^2 = 0.65$, slope =
2 0.76). This demonstrates the large effect an uneven distribution of isoprene sources can have
3 on the above canopy flux, even within what appears to be a uniform canopy, and the benefit
4 for accounting for spatial species distributions in uniform vegetation canopies.

5
6 However, despite capturing the shape of the flux time series, the bottom-up flux
7 underestimated the magnitude of the flux, capturing 56 % of the isoprene flux as measured by
8 vDEC. This could in part be caused by changes in vegetation cover between the tree
9 distribution mapping in 2008 and the flux measurements in 2012. There are anecdotal reports
10 that *Populus* sp. coverage has increased in the understory vegetation but it is unlikely that,
11 despite their high rates of growth, the *Populus* coverage changed significantly in the 4 years
12 between mapping and this campaign. Since 2008, the non-native *Q. rubra* is gradually being
13 removed from the forest. However, this does not explain the discrepancy between the vDEC
14 isoprene flux measurements and the bottom-up flux estimate as the reduction in the number
15 of *Q. rubra* trees should have decreased the flux. Whilst the hyperspectral/LIDAR tree
16 species data for this site provides a unique opportunity for comparing the canopy-scale
17 measurements with a detailed bottom-up estimate, the hyperspectral/LIDAR data only
18 provides information on projected tree species area as seen from above, whilst the flux is
19 regulated by leaf mass and its exposure to radiation. Thus there are uncertainties in the ability
20 of the hyperspectral/LIDAR to detect understorey vegetation and a single conversion factor
21 was used between projected tree area and leaf mass. However, understorey vegetation is less
22 exposed to sunlight reducing its emission. Indeed, the main reason for the underestimate of
23 isoprene flux is probably that the leaf level isoprene emission rate recorded from the leaves
24 sampled at ground level (albeit taken at the edge of sun exposed clearings) are not
25 representative of those at the canopy top. Substituting the measured *Q. robur* and *Q. rubra*
26 emission factors with those reported by Karl et al. (2009) caused the bottom-up estimate to
27 give 130 % of the measured flux and improved the correlation between bottom-up estimates
28 and canopy-scale measurements further.

29
30 The speciated monoterpene flux (calculated using GC-MS data and literature values for
31 species where GC-MS data were not available) also showed good agreement with the above
32 canopy flux ($R^2 = 0.72$) and captured 57 % of the flux. The discrepancy between the
33 magnitude of the speciated monoterpene flux and the above canopy flux could be partially
34 explained by loss of monoterpenes through within canopy oxidation. Schallhart et al. (2015)

1 investigated the flux loss due to chemical degradation using measured concentrations of
2 ozone and NO₂, together with calculated OH and NO₃ concentrations. They found that 5-20
3 % of the monoterpene flux was lost via degradation (in comparison just 3-5 % of the isoprene
4 flux was lost). The bottom-up monoterpene flux estimate may also have been affected by the
5 changes to the tree species distribution in the 4 years between mapping and this campaign, as
6 discussed above, and by deposition of monoterpenes within the forest canopy.

7
8 The contribution of different species to the isoprene and monoterpene fluxes over the course
9 of an example day is shown in Fig. 11. As is shown, the isoprene flux was dominated by *Q.*
10 *robur* but was sensitive to the species composition within the flux footprint. The change in
11 wind direction around 14:00 LT reduced the contribution of *Q. rubra* to the total flux, with
12 the contribution of *Populus × canescens* increasing significantly. The monoterpene flux was
13 predicted to have been dominated by *C. betulus*, the dominant tree species in the canopy at
14 Bosco Fontana. A greater number of tree species contributed to the monoterpene flux, and
15 emissions were therefore much more uniform across the canopy and less affected by changes
16 in wind direction.

17
18 The fit between the above canopy measured isoprene and monoterpene fluxes and the
19 “bottom-up” flux estimate was improved by optimising the leaf-level emission factors, within
20 the constraints displayed in Table 6, using Chi² minimisation as implemented by the solver
21 function in Microsoft Excel. Use of the optimised isoprene and monoterpene emission factors
22 gave good correlations with measured fluxes (R² values of 0.75 and 0.76, respectively). The
23 optimised isoprene and monoterpene emission factors are presented in Table 6 and show a
24 reasonable agreement with literature values (Karl et al., 2009).

26 **4 Conclusions**

27 Direct above-canopy fluxes of methanol, acetaldehyde, acetic acid, isoprene, MVK + MACR,
28 MEK and monoterpenes were calculated using the method of virtual disjunct eddy covariance
29 from mixing ratio data obtained with a PTR-MS above a semi-natural mixed oak and
30 hornbeam forest in northern Italy from June 13th to July 11th 2012. Isoprene was the dominant
31 BVOC emitted with a mean day-time flux of 1.91 mg m⁻² h⁻¹. When normalised to standard
32 conditions (temperature of 30 °C, PAR of 1000 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹) using the MEGAN model
33 (Guenther et al., 2006), a canopy scale emission factor of 1.68 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ was derived.

1 Mixing ratios of VOCs measured at 4 m above the forest canopy were dominated by those of
2 methanol, with a campaign mean mixing ratio of 6.2 ppbv.

3

4 The isoprene fluxes obtained using the PTR-MS/vDEC system showed good agreement with
5 those obtained using a direct eddy covariance (with mixing ratios by volume measured with a
6 fast response PTR-ToF-MS instrument). Monoterpene fluxes recorded using the PTR-MS
7 were noisier and marginally higher than those recorded using the PTR-ToF-MS due to a
8 lower sensitivity and, probably, the inclusion of isobaric compounds. Comparison of mass
9 scan data generated using the PTR-MS and PTR-ToF-MS (m/z 33-100) showed very good
10 agreement with no significant masses observed in one instrument but not in the other.

11

12 Up-scaling leaf-level isoprene and monoterpene emissions to the canopy scale, using a high
13 spatial resolution tree species database and a 2D footprint model, showed significantly better
14 correlation with the measured above canopy fluxes than was obtained using a canopy scale
15 emission factor. Leaf-level isoprene emissions resulted in an underestimate of the above-
16 canopy isoprene flux and this was assumed to be the result of differences in isoprene
17 emission rates from leaves sampled at ground-level and those at the canopy top.

18

19 Overall, the data obtained give confidence in the measurement of biogenic VOC fluxes by the
20 method of virtual disjunct eddy covariance and highlight the importance of using leaf-level
21 emissions data from sun-lit canopy-top leaves when up-scaling leaf-level emissions to
22 produce a “bottom-up” canopy-scale emissions estimate.

23

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24 flux measurements. Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics Discussions, 15, 2577-2613, 2015.

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26 Table 1. Unit masses measured using the PTR-MS during the ÉCLAIRE campaign at Bosco
27 Fontana and the exact masses observed using the PTR-ToF-MS. Where the PTR-MS
28 sensitivity was calculated directly from a compound in the calibration standard this
29 compound is indicated in brackets. At m/z 61 and 71 the sensitivity was calculated from a
30 transmission curve.

Unit mass	Exact mass	Contributing	Formula	PTR-MS
-----------	------------	--------------	---------	--------

(PTR-MS)	(PTR-ToF-MS)	compound(s)		sensitivity (ncps ppbv ⁻¹)
21	21.023	Water isotope	H ₃ ¹⁸ O ⁺	-
33	32.997	Oxygen isotope	O ¹⁷ O ⁺	11.60 (methanol)
	33.033	Methanol	CH ₅ O ⁺	
39	39.033	Water cluster	H ₅ O ¹⁸ O ⁺	-
	44.997	Protonated carbon		
45	45.033	dioxide	C ₁ H ₁ O ₂ ⁺	9.90 (acetaldehyde)
		Acetaldehyde	C ₂ H ₅ O ⁺	
59	59.049	Acetone	C ₃ H ₇ O ⁺	8.82 (acetone)
	59.049	Propanal	C ₃ H ₇ O ⁺	
61	61.028	Acetic acid	C ₂ H ₅ O ₂	8.40 (transmission curve)
	69.0699	Isoprene	C ₅ H ₉ ⁺	
69	69.0699	2-Methyl-3-buten-	C ₅ H ₉ ⁺	3.80 (isoprene)
	69.0699	2-ol fragment	C ₅ H ₉ ⁺	
71	69.0699	Methyl butanal	C ₅ H ₉ ⁺	5.29 (transmission curve)
	71.049	Methyl vinyl	C ₄ H ₇ O ⁺	
71	71.049	ketone	C ₄ H ₇ O ⁺	5.87 (Methyl ethyl ketone)
	71.085	Methacrolein	C ₅ H ₁₁ ⁺	
73		Unknown		5.87 (Methyl ethyl ketone)
	73.026	Unknown	C ₃ H ₅ O ₂ ⁺	
73	73.047	Unknown	Unknown	5.87 (Methyl ethyl ketone)
	73.065	Methyl ethyl	C ₄ H ₉ O ⁺	
73	73.065	ketone	C ₄ H ₉ O ⁺	5.87 (Methyl ethyl ketone)
		Butanal		
81	80.997	Unknown	C ₄ H ₁ O ₂ ⁺	1.59 (α-pinene fragment)
	81.033	Unknown	C ₅ H ₅ O ⁺	
81	81.070	Monoterpene	C ₆ H ₉ ⁺	1.59 (α-pinene fragment)
	81.070	fragment	C ₆ H ₉ ⁺	
137		Hexenal fragment		0.16 (α-pinene)
	137.056	Unknown	Unknown	

137.133

Monoterpenes

$C_{10}H_{17}^+$

1

- 1 Table 2. Summary of the bVOC mixing ratios (ppbv) recorded at 4 m above the forest canopy during the Bosco Fontana measurement campaign
 2 and limits of detection (LoD, ppbv), based on 25-minute averages.

<i>m/z</i>	33	45	59	61	69	71	73	81
Compound	Methanol	Acetaldehyde	Acetone	Acetic acid	Isoprene	MVK+MACR	MEK	Monoterpenes
Max	14.6	3.44	7.31	14.9	4.79	1.95	1.05	0.419
Min	2.13	< LOD	1.18	0.396	< LOD	0.083	0.097	< LOD
Mean	6.16	1.46	3.24	1.92	1.07	0.506	0.454	0.198
Standard deviation	2.52	0.67	0.91	1.09	0.80	0.28	0.21	0.07
Median	5.69	1.30	3.14	1.73	0.934	0.506	0.428	0.199
1 st Quartile	4.19	0.964	2.68	1.22	0.409	0.325	0.311	0.140
3 rd Quartile	7.53	1.87	3.82	2.31	1.53	1.95	0.568	0.245
LOD	0.436	0.712	0.239	0.141	0.167	0.081	0.048	0.067

3

- 1 Table 3. Summary of the BVOC fluxes ($\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$) recorded during the Bosco Fontana field campaign based on 25-minute values. Values in
- 2 brackets cover the campaign period where data is available from both instruments to enable direct comparison (15/06-06/07/2012 and 15/06-
- 3 25/06/2012 for isoprene and monoterpenes, respectively).

<i>m/z</i>	33	45	59	61	69	71	73	81		
Compound	Methanol	Acetaldehyde	Acetone	Acetic acid	Isoprene PTR-MS	Isoprene PTR-ToF-MS	MVK + MACR	MEK	Monoterpenes PTR-MS	Monoterpenes PTR-ToF-MS
Max emission flux	0.492	0.436	0.585	0.328	9.867 (9.867)	9.195 (9.195)	0.641	0.181	0.478 (0.478)	0.609 (0.603)
Max deposition flux	-1.589	-0.335	-0.692	-0.876	-0.238 (-0.238)	-0.305 (-0.305)	-0.457	-0.128	-0.167 (-0.167)	-0.065 (-0.057)
1 st Quartile	-0.032	-0.011	-0.029	-0.044	0.005 (0.005)	0.019 (0.019)	-0.012	-0.012	-0.009 (-0.008)	0.005 (0.001)
3 rd Quartile	0.070	0.053	0.057	0.033	1.624 (1.796)	2.661 (2.661)	0.054	0.024	0.093 (0.101)	0.159 (0.137)
Mean	0.017	0.024	0.016	-0.007	0.961 (1.003)	1.465 (1.465)	0.025	0.009	0.056 (0.060)	0.098 (0.088)
Standard deviation	0.123	0.067	0.098	0.091	1.369 (1.387)	1.911 (1.911)	0.076	0.039	0.108 (0.111)	0.138 (0.134)
Median	0.010	0.013	0.008	0.000	0.168 (0.199)	0.410 (0.410)	0.011	0.005	0.020 (0.021)	0.036 (0.028)

Mean day- time flux (06:00-18:00)	0.033	0.045	0.030	0.001	1.912 (1.978)	2.917 (2.917)	0.049	0.018	0.117 (0.120)	0.206 (0.207)
Standard deviation	0.161	0.082	0.125	0.096	1.401 (1.383)	1.842 (1.842)	0.095	0.050	0.141 (0.129)	0.141 (0.144)
Median day- time flux (06:00-18:00)	0.038	0.044	0.026	0.001	1.635 (1.790)	2.905 (2.905)	0.041	0.014	0.090 (0.099)	0.192 (0.164)

1

1 Table 4. Non-exhaustive summary of isoprene fluxes recorded in the Mediterranean region and the isoprene emission factor under basal
 2 conditions (temperature: 30 °C and PAR: 1000 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$).

3

Ecosystem	Dominant species	Season	Mean day time isoprene flux ($\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$)	Isoprene emission factor under basal conditions ($\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$)	Reference
Mixed oak and hornbeam forest	<i>Carpinus betulus</i> <i>Quercus robur</i>	Summer	2.6	1.7	This study
Oak forest	<i>Quercus pubescens</i>	Spring	2.8	7.4	Kalogridis et al., 2014
Oak forest	<i>Quercus pubescens</i>	Summer	5.4-10.1	5.4	Baghi et al., 2012
Mixed oak and pine forest	<i>Pinus pinea</i> <i>Quercus ilex</i> <i>Quercus suber</i>	Autumn	ca. 0.13	0.61	Fares et al., 2013

4

5

- 1 Table 5. Leaf level isoprene and monoterpene emission ($\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$) recorded using GC-MS from single leaves under basal conditions
 2 (temperature: $30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and PAR: $1000\ \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$). ND signifies not detected.

Tree species	isoprene flux (standard error)	α -pinene flux (standard error)	sabinene flux (standard error)	β -pinene flux (standard error)	limonene flux (standard error)	sum monoterpene flux
<i>Carpinus betulus</i>	2.25×10^{-3} (1.50 $\times 10^{-3}$)	1.07×10^{-2} (6.00 $\times 10^{-3}$)	1.81×10^{-2} (1.36 $\times 10^{-2}$)	5.14×10^{-2} (1.23 $\times 10^{-2}$)	5.83×10^{-1} (2.36 $\times 10^{-1}$)	6.63×10^{-1}
<i>Quercus robur</i>	2.39×10^0 (6.12 \times 10^{-1})	2.81×10^{-2} (1.45 $\times 10^{-2}$)	ND	4.70×10^{-3} (3.08 $\times 10^{-3}$)	2.16×10^{-1} (6.49 $\times 10^{-2}$)	2.49×10^{-1}
<i>Quercus rubra</i>	9.14×10^{-1} (2.02 $\times 10^{-1}$)	ND	ND	7.95×10^{-3} (2.22 $\times 10^{-3}$)	2.34×10^{-2} (7.11 $\times 10^{-3}$)	3.13×10^{-2}
<i>Corylus avellana</i>	4.97×10^{-4} (3.93 $\times 10^{-4}$)	1.30×10^{-2} (8.00 $\times 10^{-3}$)	ND	2.08×10^{-2} (4.80 $\times 10^{-3}$)	7.57×10^{-1} (4.15 $\times 10^{-1}$)	7.90×10^{-1}
<i>Acer campestre</i>	4.40×10^{-4} (3.11 $\times 10^{-4}$)	5.14×10^{-2} (2.95 $\times 10^{-2}$)	ND	2.27×10^{-1} (3.54 $\times 10^{-2}$)	1.07×10^{-1} (1.41 $\times 10^{-2}$)	3.85×10^{-1}
<i>Sambucus nigra</i>	4.09×10^{-3} (3.66 $\times 10^{-3}$)	ND	ND	9.67×10^{-3} (2.69 $\times 10^{-3}$)	2.49×10^{-1} (1.41 $\times 10^{-1}$)	2.59×10^{-1}
<i>Cornus sanguinea</i>	4.00×10^{-1} (4.00 $\times 10^{-1}$)	1.11×10^{-3} (1.11 $\times 10^{-3}$)	ND	1.95×10^{-2} (4.91 $\times 10^{-3}$)	2.28×10^{-1} (1.73 $\times 10^{-1}$)	2.49×10^{-1}

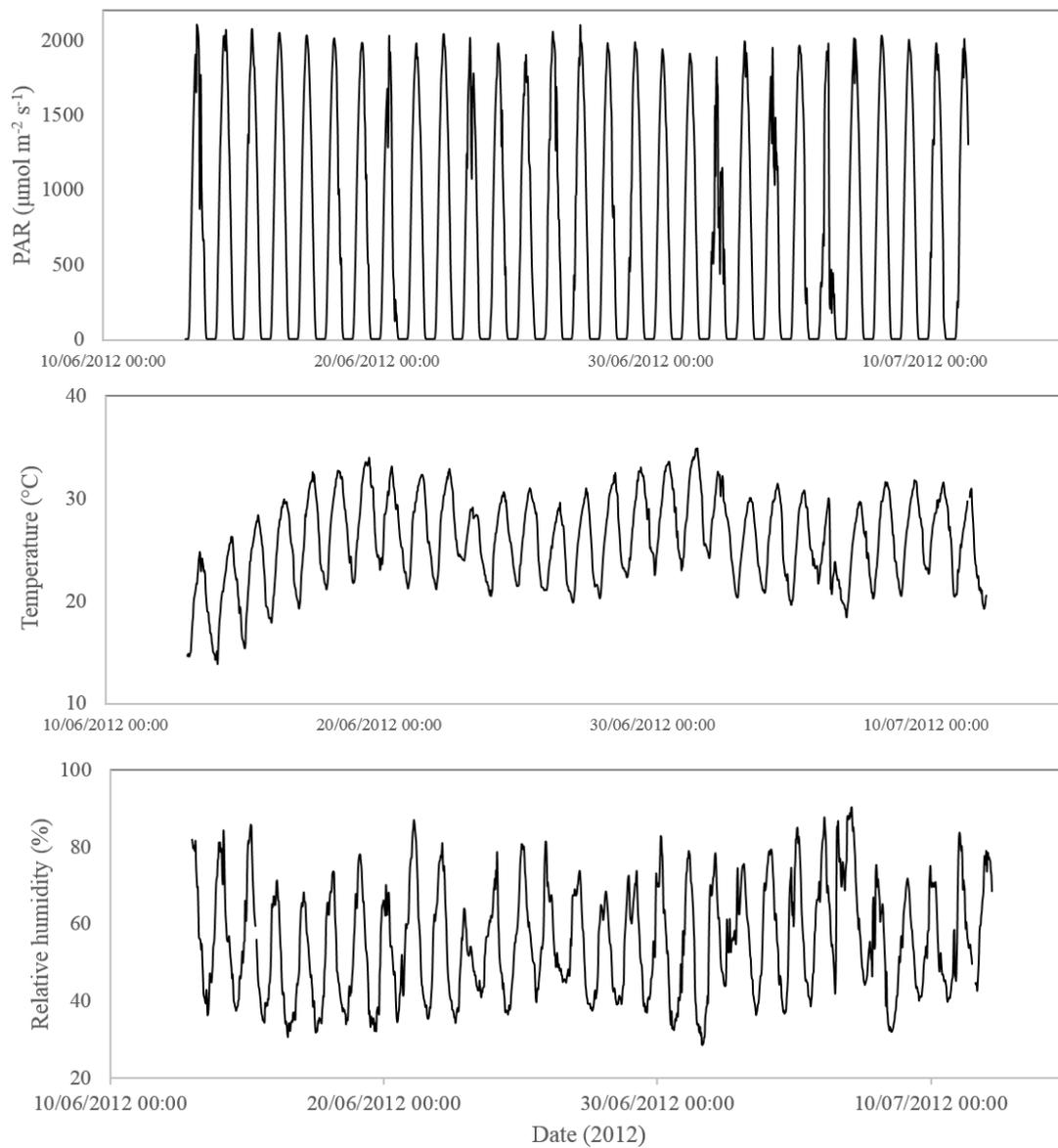
1 Table 6. Species specific isoprene and monoterpene emission factors (for a standard
2 temperature of 30 °C and a PAR value of 1000 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$). Values derived from optimising
3 the leaf level emission factors to give the best fit with the measured above canopy isoprene
4 and monoterpene fluxes within the constraints displayed.

Species	Isoprene emission factor (mg m^{-2} h^{-1})	Isoprene constraint ($\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$)	Monoterpene emission factor ($\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$)	Monoterpene constraint ($\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$)
<i>Acer campestre</i>	0.00	< 1.0	0.15	< 0.50
<i>Acer negundo</i>	0.00	< 1.0	0.33	< 0.64
<i>Alnus glutinosa</i>	0.01	< 1.0	0.22	< 0.50
<i>Carpinus betulus</i>	0.00	< 1.0	0.57	< 0.63
<i>Corylus avellana</i>	0.00	< 1.0	0.23	< 0.50
<i>Fraxinus angustifolia</i>	0.00	< 1.0	0.00	< 0.50
<i>Juglans nigra</i>	0.00	< 1.0	0.12	< 0.50
<i>Juglans regia</i>	0.36	< 1.0	0.15	< 0.50
<i>Morus</i> sp.	0.00	< 1.0	0.19	< 0.50
<i>Platanus hispanica</i>	2.97	< 4.4	0.50	< 0.50
<i>Populus</i> × <i>canescens</i>	10.66	< 16.1	0.29	< 0.50
<i>Populus</i> × <i>hybrida</i>	8.06	< 16.1	0.00	< 0.50
<i>Prunus avium</i>	0.00	< 1.0	0.01	< 0.50
<i>Quercus cerris</i>	0.02	< 1.0	0.07	< 0.50
<i>Quercus robur</i>	7.46	< 16.1	0.19	< 0.50
<i>Quercus rubra</i>	1.38	< 8.1	0.02	< 0.50
<i>Robinia pseudoacacia</i>	1.38	< 2.8	0.01	< 0.50
<i>Rubus</i> sp.	0.00	< 1.0	0.01	< 0.50
<i>Tilia</i> sp.	0.00	< 1.0	0.00	< 0.50
<i>Ulmus minor</i>	0.01	< 1.0	0.01	< 0.50
Grass	0.06	< 1.0	0.06	< 0.15
Not woodland	0.06	< 1.0	0.08	< 0.15
Outside forest	0.06	< 1.0	0.06	< 0.50

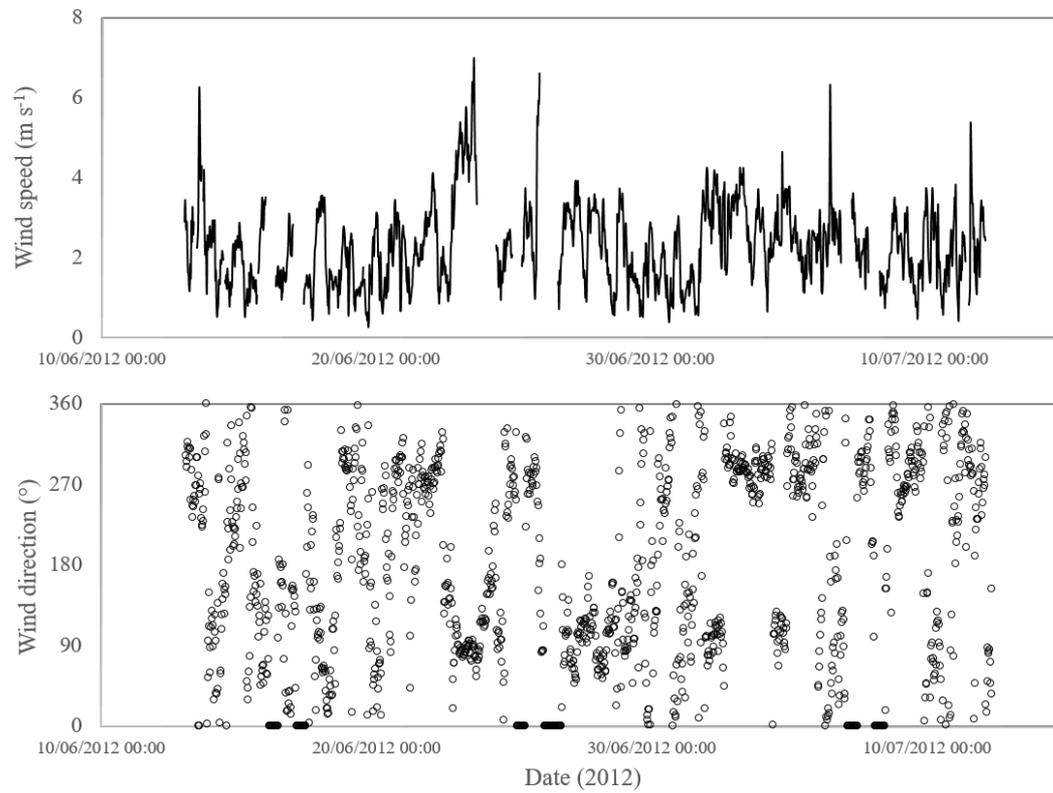
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6

1 Figure 1. Time series of meteorological conditions recorded over the campaign period. From
2 top to bottom: PAR ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$), air temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), relative humidity (%), wind speed
3 (m s^{-1}) and wind direction ($^{\circ}$).



4



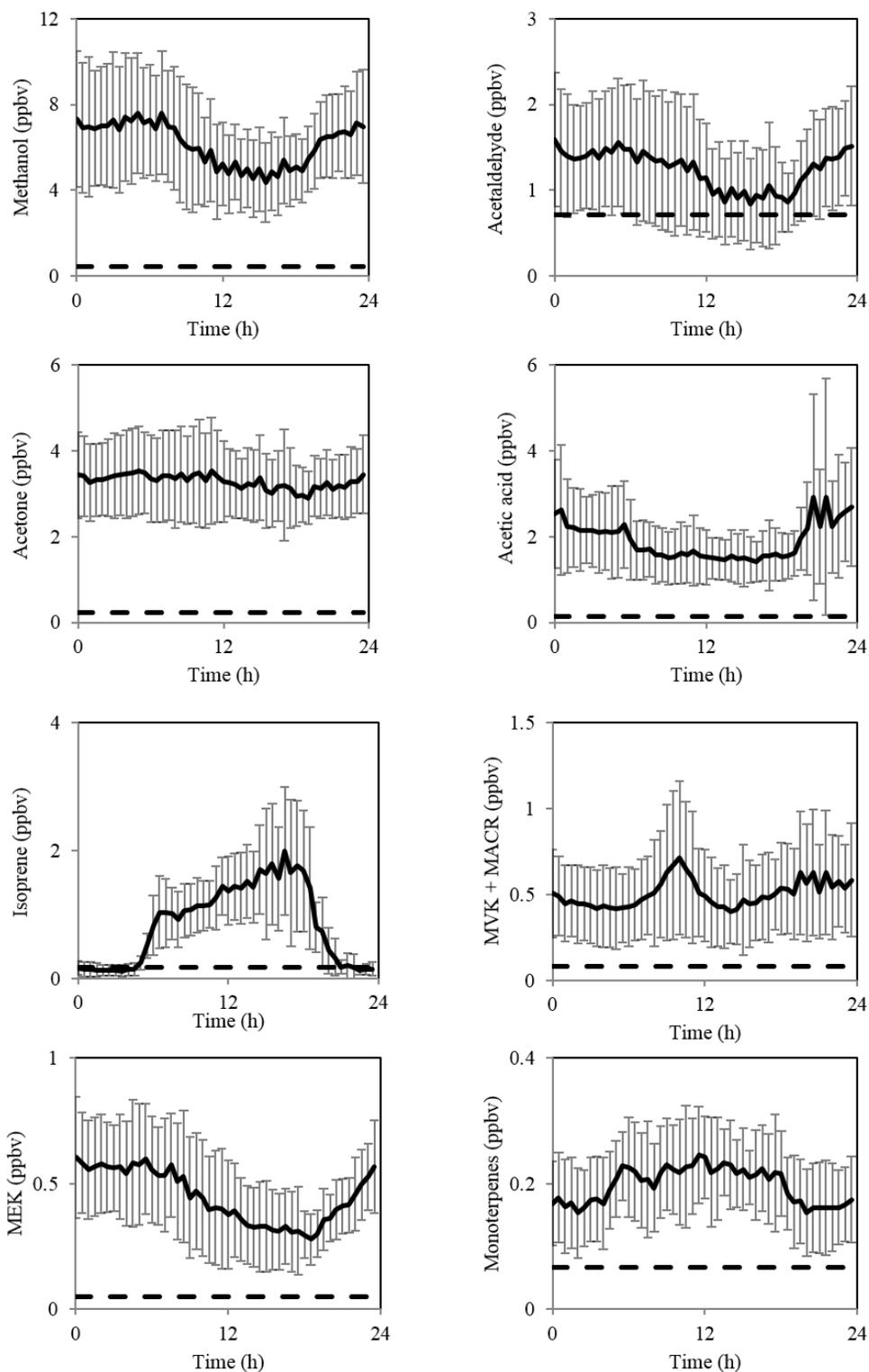
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3 Figure 2 Satellite image (map data © Google 2016) of the field site showing the flux tower
 4 and footprint containing 80 % of the flux measured during the campaign (13/06/2012 –
 5 11/07/2012).



- 1
- 2
- 3

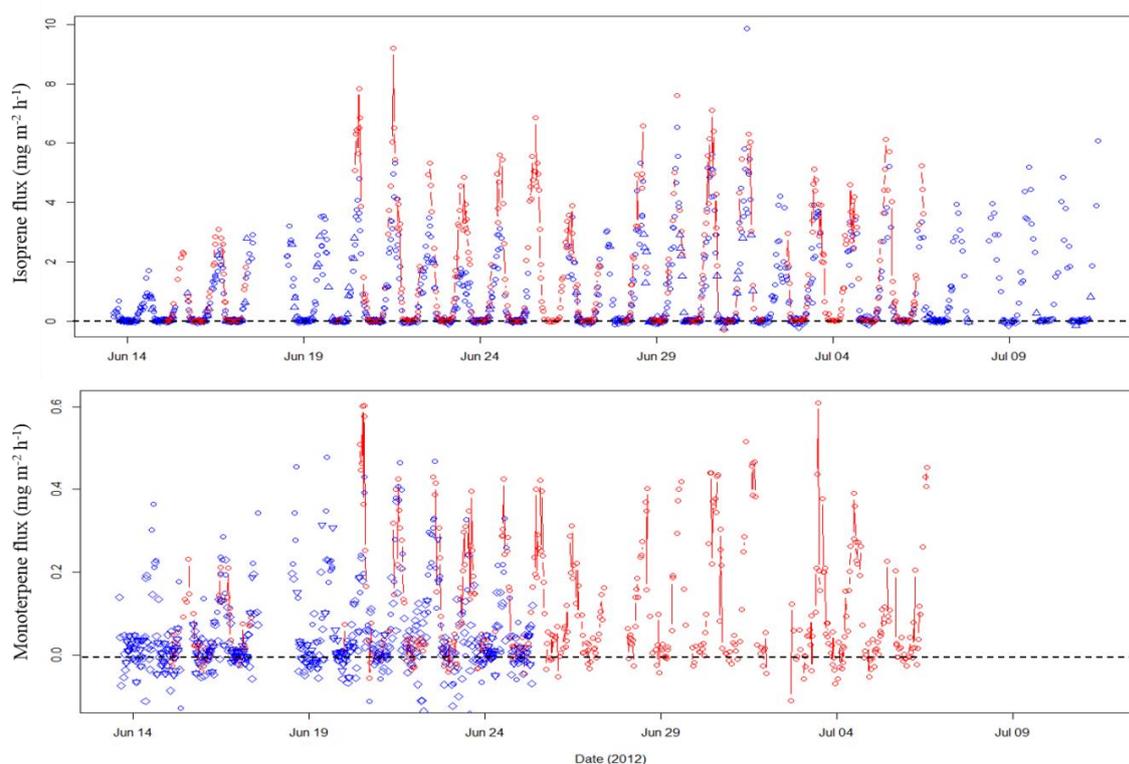
1 Figure 3. Mean 4 m above-canopy diurnal mixing ratios by volume of volatile organic
2 compounds measured during the Bosco Fontana field campaign. Error bars represent one
3 standard deviation from the mean and the dashed line denotes limit of detection.



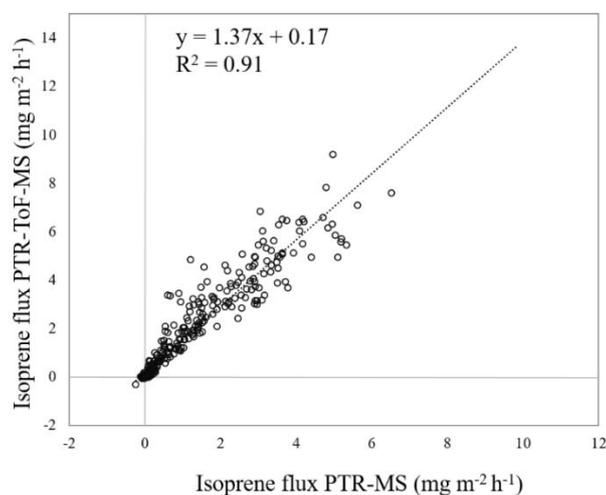
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5

1 Figure 4. Time series of isoprene (top) and monoterpene (middle) fluxes ($\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$)
 2 measured using vDEC. 25 min averaged flux data from the PTR-MS which passed all tests,
 3 fell below the u_* threshold and fell below the LoD are represented by blue circles, triangles
 4 and diamonds respectively. Red circles and lines represent PTR-ToF-MS isoprene and
 5 monoterpene fluxes with 30 min averaged flux files failing the stationarity test removed.
 6 Bottom, scatter plot showing the relationship between isoprene fluxes calculated using PTR-
 7 MS and PTR-ToF-MS.

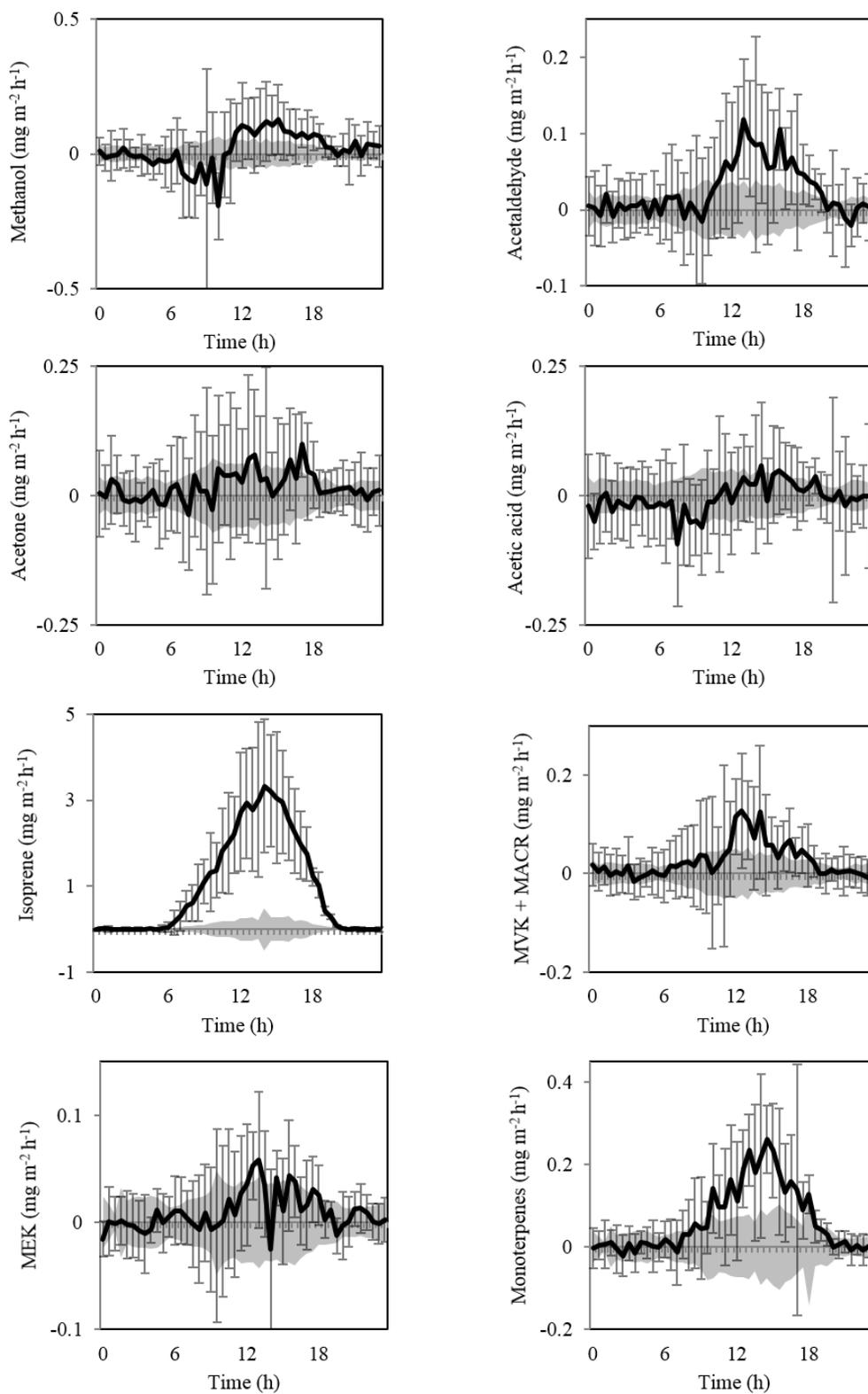


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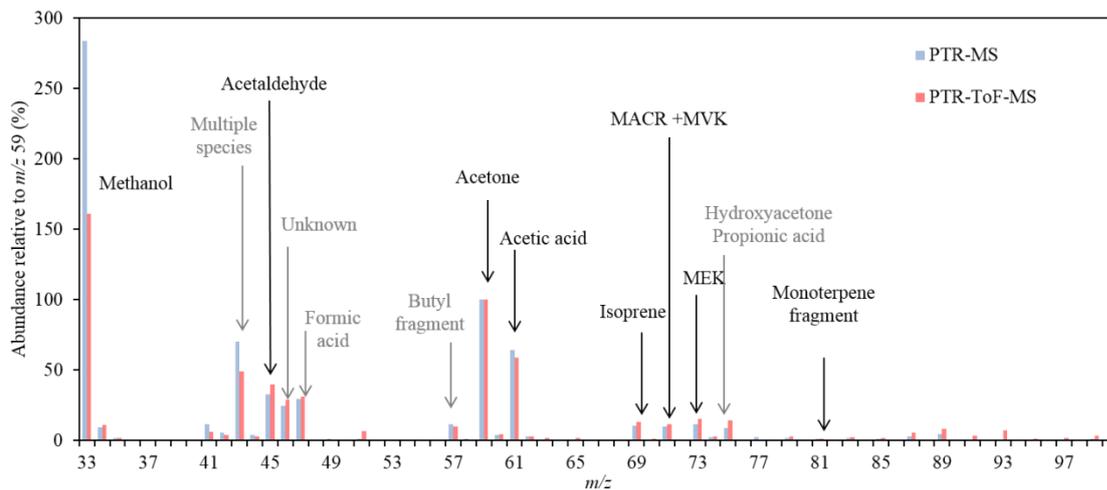
9

- 1 Figure 5. Mean diurnal fluxes of volatile organic compounds measured using vDEC. Shaded
- 2 area represents the limit of detection of the averaged data, and error bars represent one
- 3 standard deviation between days from the mean.



1

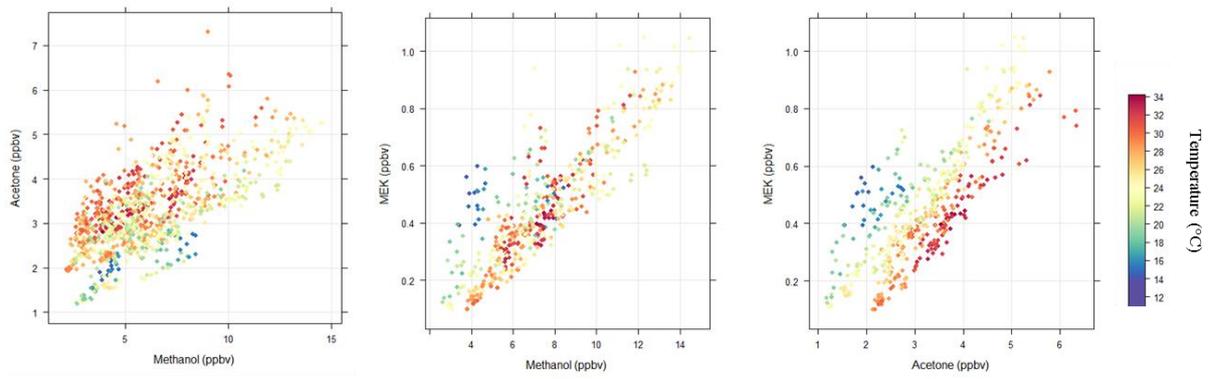
2 Figure 6. Comparison of PTR-MS (blue) and PTR-ToF-MS (red) mass scans relative to m/z
3 59 at unit mass resolution averaged between 14th and 24th June. Compounds recorded in flux
4 mode using the PTR-MS are presented in black with compounds tentatively identified in
5 grey.



6

7

- 1 Figure 7. Scatter plots displaying the relationship between the mixing ratios by volume of
- 2 methanol, acetone and MEK measured 4 m above the canopy, coloured by temperature.



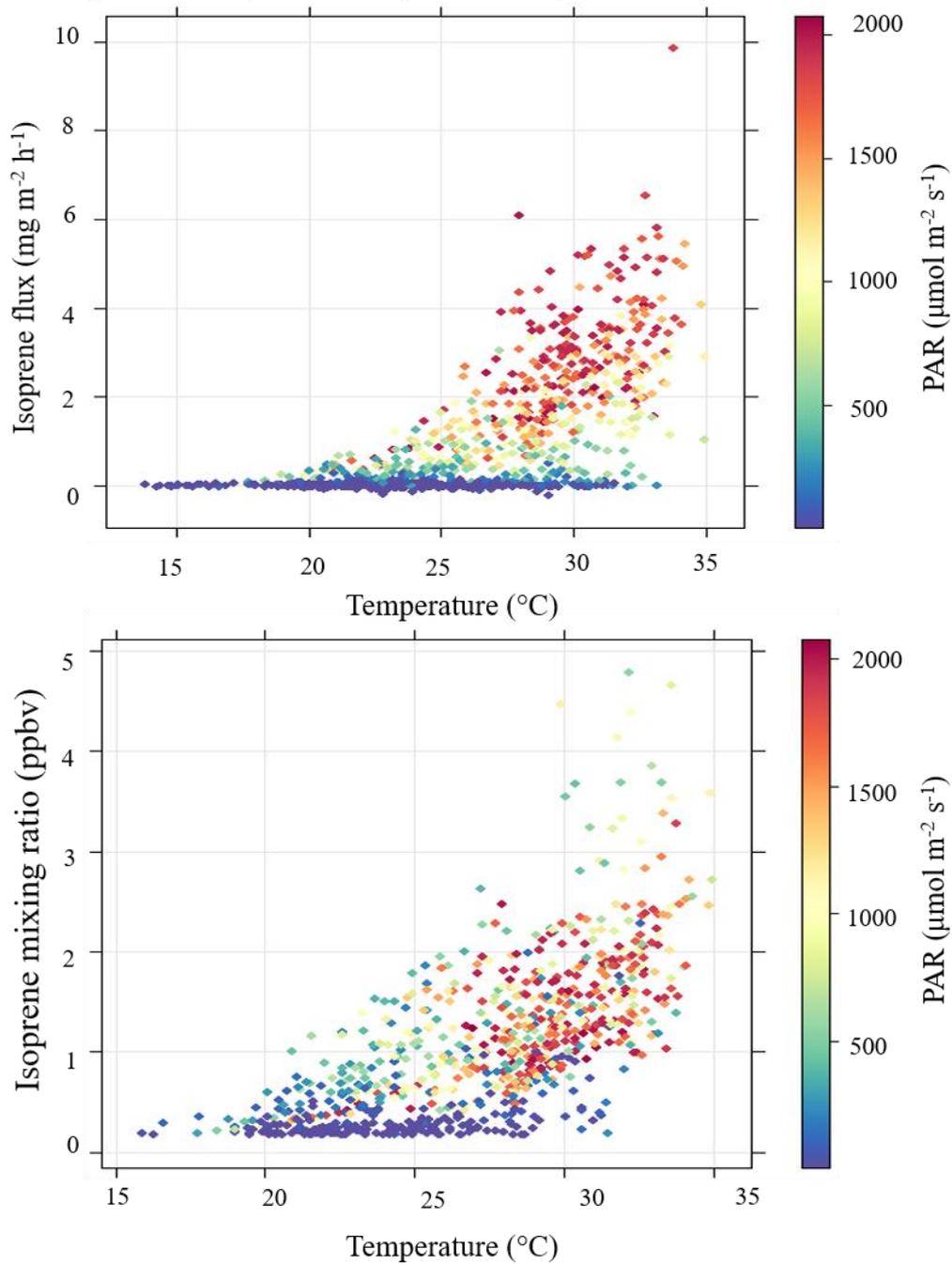
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2 Figure 8. The relationship between temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) and isoprene fluxes ($\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$) and
3 mixing ratios (ppbv), coloured according to the magnitude of photosynthetically active
4 radiation ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$).

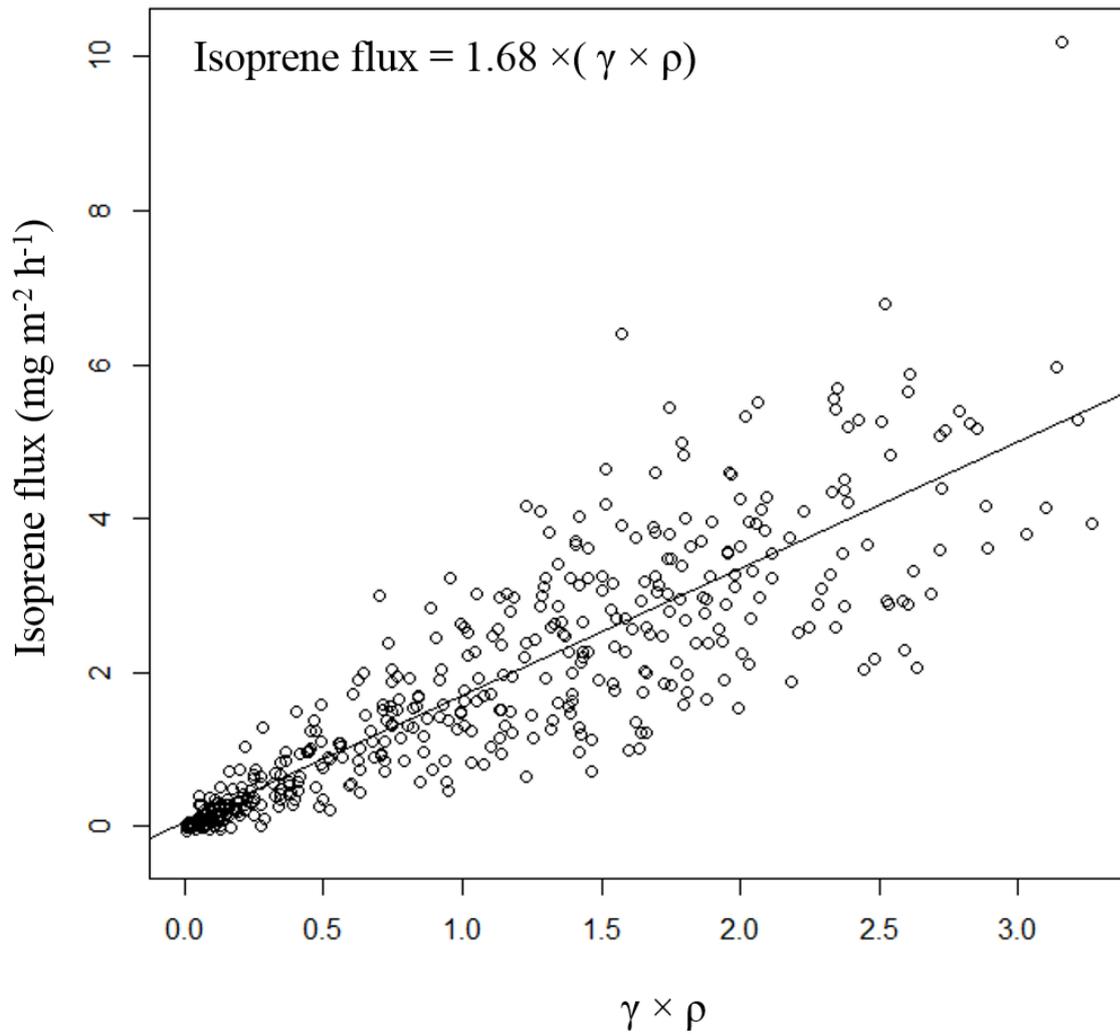
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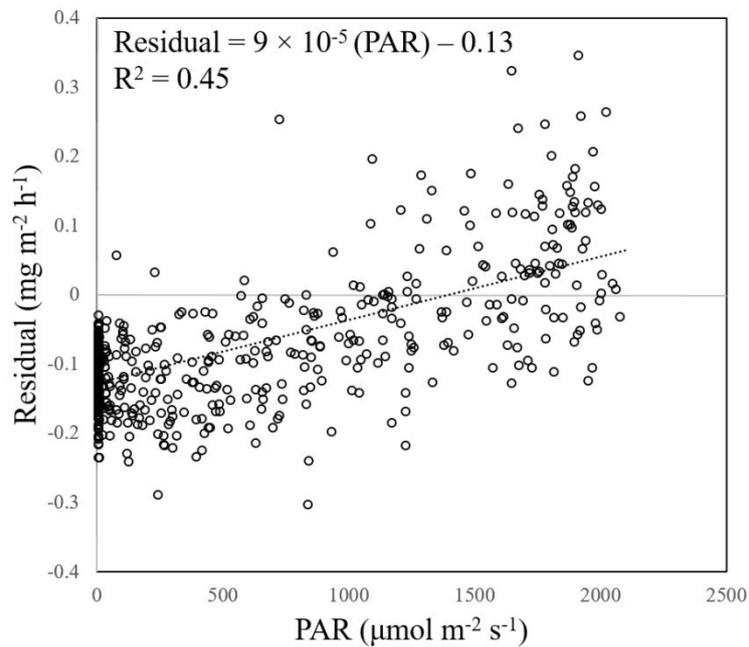
2 Figure 9. Measured isoprene fluxes against the product of γ (emission activity factor, itself
3 the product of the temperature, light and leaf area index activity factors) and ρ (the canopy
4 loss and production factor).



5

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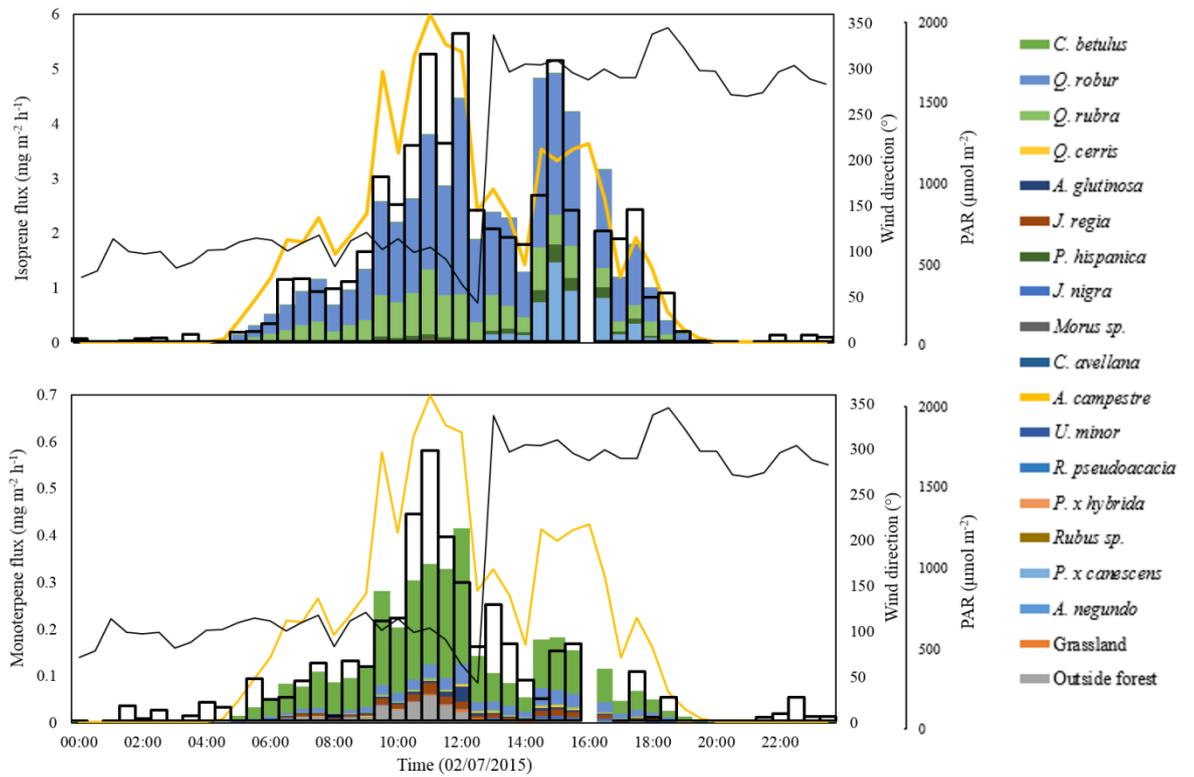
- 1 Figure 10 Plot of the residual values from the temperature only monoterpene emission model
- 2 against PAR, demonstrating that light as well as temperature has a significant impact on
- 3 monoterpene emissions.



4

1 Figure 11 The contribution of individual tree species to the speciated isoprene and
 2 monoterpene flux on the 2nd July 2012. PAR is displayed as a yellow line, wind direction as a
 3 black line and the flux recorded using the PTR-MS as bold black bars.

4



5

