

Response to the Editor and Reviewer#3 comments

First of all, we would like to thank the Editor for his constructive comments and suggestions during the course of the revision of this paper, which improve greatly the interpretations and presentation of the manuscript. Following the Editor's suggestion, we have removed those discussions related to the ambient observation of TVOC and inverse modeling using box models. We also deleted the corresponding references, figures, and tables in main text and Supplement. Detailed responses to the Editor and Reviewer#3's comments are presented below.

REVIEWER COMMENT: L43: "they also contribute to air pollution through atmospheric chemistry"

EDITOR SUGGESTION: I suggest changing "they also contribute to" to "they also play a role in"

AUTHOR RESPONSE: Done, thanks!

REVIEWER COMMENT:L64: "Efforts have been also made to measure and simulate BVOC emissions in China", my suggestion is more other studies should be introduced and cited here.

EDITOR SUGGESTION: No further revisions are needed.

REVIEWER COMMENT: L96: please introduce the coverage of the Three Northern Regions Shelter Forest (TNRSF) in the text and in the figure 1. Does it cover the Inner Mongolia and Beijing area? According to public references, the TNRSF covers Inner Mongolia and Beijing. Why the authors say differently?

EDITOR SUGGESTION: I assume the "green" area in Figure 1 is the TNRSF but you should make this clear. In that case it appears that Beijing and inner Mongolia are in the TNRSF but again you should clarify this. Also, you should make it clear that there are areas in the TNRSF zone but they are not (yet) forested areas.

AUTHOR RESPONSE: Yes the TNRSF covers Beijing and Inner Mongolia. In Fig. 1 caption we have listed all provinces and two megacities, Beijing and Tianjin covered by the different regions of the TNRSF. As shown by Figure 1, both Beijing and Inner Mongolia are included in the TNRSF. To clarify this, in the revised paper we add text " **Figure 1** illustrates the TNRSF regions, including 11 provinces and two megacities, Beijing and Tianjin, as highlighted in the figure caption and marked in the figure." (line 98-100). In Fig. 1 caption, we added more details in the coverage of the TNRSF and stated that " many places in this part of the TNRSF, particularly in Gansu, Ningxia, and West Inner Mongolia, are not covered by forest but by shrubs".

REVIEWER COMMENT: L144: PAR was calculated from solar radiation provided by the Big-leaf dry deposition model. Are these PAR values compared with the ground observations at some sites for hourly and daily PAR? What are the calculating errors in TNRSF? Then, what uncertainties would be caused to BVOC emissions?

EDITOR SUGGESTION: No further revisions are needed.

REVIEWER COMMENT: L241: The GreyWolf VOC sensor can only measure TVOC, how authors examine and verify the release of BVOC species from the TNRSF? Based on measurements, the contributions of isoprene to BVOC emissions or to TVOC emissions are vegetation and season dependent, assuming the isoprene emission to be 50% of the TVOC would cause large errors.

EDITOR SUGGESTION: Change "this reactive biogenic VOC species" to "total biogenic VOC species"

AUTHOR RESPONSE: The paragraph with these texts have been deleted in the revised paper.

REVIEWER COMMENT:L263-264:"...suggesting increasing isoprene emissions associated with the expansion of the TNRSF in these regions". Is it the only factor for isoprene emission increasing? How about the roles of other factors, for example, PAR and temperature?

EDITOR SUGGESTION: This is an important point. At a minimum you should address it by including temperature and PAR trends in the figure.

AUTHOR RESPONSE: We did recognized the important role of temperature in isoprene emission. Since this study focused on long-term trend of isoprene emission, we have mentioned the influence of climate change, characterized by changes in mean temperature, on isoprene emission, e.g., lines 76, 89-91, 390-405, and Fig.S5. In the revised paper, following the Editor and Reviewer#3's comments, we replaced Fig. S7a by Fig. S5a which displays the differences of surface temperatures T_{dif} between 1982 and 2012 across the TNRSF (now Fig. S5a), instead of T_{dif} in the Northeast China region only as presented by Fig. S7 in the previous Supplement of the manuscript. Figure 5b presents 30 years trend of SATs from 1982 to 2010 across the Northeast China region of the TNRSF which was used to explain negative trend of isoprene emissions in this part of the TNRSF (Fig. 4b). Corresponding discussions are presented in Discussion section (Section 4, line 386-405). In Section 3.2, we also added a paragraph " As aforementioned in Introduction, in addition to forest expansion, biogenic isoprene emissions are also associated with climate change via changes in mean temperature (Sanderson et al., 2003) and PAR (Guenther et al., 2006, 2012; Situ et al., 2014). Since the influence of climate change on BVOC is beyond scope of this article, we shall not assess detailed associations between climate change (mean temperature) and isoprene emissions from the TNRSF.

Nevertheless, in Section 4, we shall discuss briefly the potential influence of the changes in annual mean air temperature and PAR on long-term trends of biogenic isoprene emissions in the Northeast China region of the TNRSF."

In new Fig. S6, we presented the linear trends of PAR from 1982-2010. We added a new paragraph (line 406-429) to discuss and interpret the trend of PAR. Results suggested that PAR was unlikely to overwhelm the long-term trend of isoprene emissions.

REVIEWER COMMENT:L587: "Since VOCs are major precursor" should be changed to "Since BVOCs are major precursors".

EDITOR SUGGESTION: You should make this change

AUTHOR RESPONSE: Done!

1 **Marked up manuscript**

2 **Three Northern Regions Shelter Forest contributed to long-term**
3 **increasing trend of biogenic isoprene emissions in Northern China**

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19
20 **Abstract**

21 To assess the long-term trends of isoprene emissions in Northern China and the
22 impact of the Three Northern Regions Shelter Forest (TNRSF) on these trends, a
23 database of historical biogenic isoprene emissions from 1982 to 2010 was developed
24 for this region using a biogenic emission model for gases and aerosols. The total
25 amount of the biogenic isoprene emissions during the three decades was 4.4 Tg in
26 Northern China and 1.6 Tg in the TNRSF, with annual emissions ranged from 132,000
27 to 176,000 ton yr⁻¹ and from 45,000 to 70,000 ton yr⁻¹, respectively, in the two regions.
28 Isoprene emission fluxes have increased substantially in many places of the TNRSF
29 over the last three decades due to the growing trees and vegetation coverage,

30 especially in the Central-North China region where the highest emission incline
31 reached to 58% from 1982 to 2010. Biogenic isoprene emissions produced from
32 anthropogenic forests tended to surpass those produced from natural forests, such as
33 boreal forests in Northeastern China. The estimated isoprene emissions suggest that
34 the TNRSF has altered the long-term emission trend in North China from a decreasing
35 trend during 1982 to 2010 (slope=-0.533, $R^2=0.05$) to an increasing trend for the same
36 period of time (slope=0.347, $R^2=0.014$), providing strong evidence for the change in
37 the emissions of biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOCs) induced by the
38 human activities on decadal or longer time scales.

39 **Key words:** Volatile organic compounds, human activities, biogenic emissions,
40 statistical trend

41 **1. Introduction**

42 While trees and plants can efficiently remove pollutants from the atmosphere (Nowak
43 et al., 2006, 2014; Myles et al., 2012; Camporn, 2013; Fenn et al., 2013; Adon et al.,
44 2013; Zhang et al., 2015), they also **play a role in** ~~contribute to~~ air pollution through
45 atmospheric chemistry. It has been widely acknowledged that terrestrial ecosystems
46 release large quantities of reactive biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOCs) into
47 the atmosphere as a significant product of biosynthetic activities of trees and plants
48 (Purves et al., 2004; Zemankova and Brechler, 2010). BVOCs play important roles in
49 tropospheric chemistry, carbon budget, and global climate change (Purves et al., 2004;
50 Nichol and Wong, 2011; Aydin et al., 2014). For example, BVOCs are precursors of
51 surface ozone formation in the presence of nitrogen oxide (NO_x) (Penuelas et al.,

52 2009; Penuelas and Staudt, 2010). It has been shown that VOC emissions from
53 biogenic sources have far exceeded those from anthropogenic sources (Guenther et al.,
54 1995; Aydin et al., 2014).

55 Among the three dominant VOCs (isoprene, monoterpenes, oxygenated
56 compounds) contributing to BVOC emission fluxes, isoprene accounts for 70% of the
57 total BVOC emissions globally (Guenther et al., 2006; Helmig et al., 2013; Aydin et
58 al., 2014) and about 50% in China (Song et al., 2012, Li et al., 2013). In particular,
59 terrestrial plant foliage is thought to be the major source of atmospheric isoprene
60 which releases over 90% of isoprene from global forests (Lamb et al., 1987; Guenther
61 et al., 2006). Extensive investigations have been conducted over the past several
62 decades to assess BVOC emissions and their potential influences on tropospheric
63 chemistry and carbon cycle (Lamb et al., 1987; Ceron et al., 2006; Muller et al., 2008;
64 Chang et al., 2009; Pacifico et al., 2009; Zemankova and Brechler, 2010; Guo et al.,
65 2013; Calfapietra et al., 2013). Efforts have been also made to measure and simulate
66 BVOC emissions in China (Wei et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2009; Song et al., 2012; Li et
67 al., 2013). A recent study by Song et al. (2012) revealed that the annual BVOC
68 emission in Eastern China was 11.3×10^6 t, of which 44.9% was isoprene, followed by
69 monoterpenes at 31.5%, and other VOCs at 23.6%. The study also showed high
70 isoprene emissions in boreal forests in Northeastern China, on Qinling – Ta-Pa
71 Mountains in central China, and in Southern China. Li et al. (2013) estimated the
72 China's total BVOC emission as 42.5Tg in 2003, of which 55% was isoprene
73 emission.

74 BVOC emissions are often thought to be static on decadal or longer time scales
75 because forest coverage from regional to global scales is assumed to be at steady state
76 (Sanderson et al., 2003; Purves et al., 2004). However, there are concerns for the
77 potential impacts of climate change and changes in underlying vegetation coverage on
78 isoprene emissions because leaf level emission intensity depends on biological and
79 meteorological conditions (Turner et al., 1991; Constable et al., 1999; Ashworth et al.,
80 2010; Arneth et al., 2008, 2011). Several modeling studies were conducted to assess
81 the interactions between biogenic isoprene emissions and climate change as well as
82 the human activities (Constable et al., 1999; Sanderson et al., 2003). Using the USDA
83 (the United States Department of Agriculture) Forest Service Inventory Analysis
84 (FIA), Purves et al (2004) estimated decadal changes in BVOC emissions in the
85 Eastern US between the 1980s and 1990s caused by changes in the extent, structure,
86 and species composition of forests. They attributed these changes to human-induced
87 de-forestation and reforestation. Arneth et al. (2008, 2011) compared the responses of
88 the simulated BVOC emissions derived using different models to climate and
89 vegetation changes. They found that increasing forest area could add several tens of
90 percent to future isoprene emissions. Climate change could also exert influences on
91 isoprene emission via the changes in temperature and CO₂. The latter can benefit
92 forest productivity and leaf growth via fertilization effect. Steiner et al (2002)
93 simulated the effect of human induced land use changes due to urbanization and
94 agriculture on BVOC emissions. Their results revealed that the increasing
95 anthropogenic emissions of VOCs subject to urbanization overall enhanced total VOC

96 emissions. Most of the existing studies were carried out using climate models subject
97 to projected climate and land cover change scenarios.

98 The Three Northern Regions Shelter Forest (TNRSF) program in China, also
99 known as ‘the Great Green Wall’, began in 1978 and will terminate in 2050. **Figure 1**
100 **illustrates the TNRSF regions, including 11 provinces and two megacities, Beijing**
101 **and Tianjin, as highlighted in the figure caption and marked in the figure.** The
102 program aims to increase China’s forest coverage from 5% in the 1970s to 15% by
103 2050. By the end of the fourth phase in 2010 of this largest afforestation program in
104 the human history, the vegetation coverage over the TNRSF has already reached
105 12.4% (Wang et al., 2011; Central Government of China, 2012). The program has
106 achieved great successes in mitigating local ecological environment and climate,
107 despite the debates on the effectiveness of the TNRSF in improving the ecological
108 environments in Northern China and negative influences of the program on
109 groundwater storage in arid and semi-arid regions (Pang, 1992; Cheng and Gu, 1992;
110 Parungo et al., 1994; Hu et al., 2001; Zhong et al., 2001; Ding et al., 2005; Liu et al.,
111 2008; Yan et al., 2011; Zheng and Zhu, 2013; Fang et al., 2001; Tan et al., 2007;
112 Zhang et al., 2013). Recently, the TNRSF impact on air quality was also investigated
113 (Zhang et al., 2015), which showed that the increased vegetation coverage in the
114 TNRSF has increased its efficiency in removing air contaminants from the
115 atmosphere as supported by the increased modeled dry deposition velocities and
116 fluxes of sulfur dioxide (SO₂) and NO_x in many places of the region during the past
117 three decades.

118 Given its unique status in large-scale artificial afforestation in the human history,
119 the TNRSF might provide significant insights into understanding of human induced
120 biogenic VOC emissions on a long-term scale. In the present study, a framework
121 combining satellite remote sensing data, a biogenic emission model, and uncertainty
122 analysis was first developed to estimate BVOC emissions in Northern China.
123 Seasonal and annual biogenic isoprene emission inventories were then developed
124 from 1982 to 2010. Finally, the potential influences of the development and expansion
125 of the TNRSF on the long-term trends of the biogenic isoprene emissions were
126 investigated to discern evidence of decadal or longer-term changes in BVOC
127 emissions from large-scale forest restorations induced by the human activities. The
128 newly generated historical isoprene emissions inventories over Northern China will
129 also be useful for assessing past, current, and future air quality and climate issues.

130

131 **2. Methodology**

132 **2.1. BVOC emission model**

133 The MEGAN2.1 (Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature version 2.1)
134 (Guenther et al., 2012) which is an updated version of MEGAN2.0 (Guenther et al.,
135 2006) and MEGAN2.02 (Sakulyanontvittaya et al., 2008), was used here to estimate
136 BVOC emissions in Northern China. This new version includes additional compounds,
137 emission types, and various controlling processes. For BVOC emissions, MEGAN2.1
138 is primarily driven by biological and meteorological factors, including vegetation type
139 with which the emission factors of BVOCs are assigned, -air and leaf temperatures,
140 light, leaf age and leaf area index (LAI), solar radiation/photosynthetically active

141 radiation (PAR), wind speed, humidity, and soil moisture (Guenther et al., 2006; 2012;
142 Pfister et al., 2008; Arneth et al., 2011). MEGAN2.1 was set up over Northern China
143 with a grid spacing of $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ latitude/longitude to produce gridded daily and
144 monthly emission fluxes. Meteorological data used in the MEGAN2.1 employed the
145 6-hourly objectively analyzed data from the $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ latitude/longitude NCEP (National
146 Centers for Environmental Prediction) Final Operational Global Analysis
147 (<http://dss.ucar.edu/datasets/ds083.2/>). These data were then interpolated into the
148 TNRSF grids on the spatial resolution of 0.25×0.25 latitude/longitude. PAR was
149 calculated from solar radiation provided by the Big-leaf dry deposition model (Zhang
150 et al., 2002). Twenty-two land types were used, including an additional crop type
151 which was not specified in the MEGAN2.1. These land types at each model grid were
152 identified using the surface roughness lengths estimated from satellite remote sensing
153 data (Zhang et al., 2015). Guenther et al. (2012) reported the differences in
154 MEGAN2.1 modeled annual isoprene emissions as a result of changing plant
155 functional type (PFT) (24 %), LAI (29 %), and meteorology (15 %) input data. This
156 suggests that LAI is one of crucial variables in the model.

157 ~~—To evaluate the MEGAN2.1 estimated isoprene biogenic emission fluxes, a field~~
158 ~~campaign was conducted to measure total VOC (TVOC) concentrations at several~~
159 ~~sites within and outside the TNRSF (Section 2.4). The monitored TVOC~~
160 ~~concentrations were then converted to TVOC emission fluxes using a box model,~~
161 ~~developed by Guenther et al (1996) which links biogenic VOC emission and~~
162 ~~photochemical reaction with OH radicals and ozone. The model was derived from a~~

163 ~~simplified mixed-layer scalar conservation equation, given by~~

164 ~~$E = z_i L c$, (1)~~

165 ~~where E and c are the emission and concentration in the mixed layer, z_i is the height~~

166 ~~of mixed-layer capping inversion, taken as 1000 m following Guenther et al (1996). L~~

167 ~~is the oxidation rate of VOC subject to OH radical and ozone, defined as $[k_{\text{OH}}, \text{OH}] +$~~

168 ~~$[k_{\text{O}_3}, \text{O}_3]$, where k_{OH} and k_{O_3} are reaction rate constants for OH and O_3 , respectively.~~

169 ~~The rate constants and mean concentrations of OH and ozone are presented in Table~~

170 ~~S1 of Supplementary Materials. Further details are presented in Sections 2.4 and 3.4.~~

171 **2.2. LAI.**

172 LAI data with $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ latitude/longitude resolution from 1982 to 2010 were

173 derived from the satellite remote sensing data of the normalized difference vegetation

174 index (NDVI) for the same period. Detailed descriptions of the procedures generating

175 LAI data for the TNRSF region were presented in Zhang et al (2015).

176 **2.3. Uncertainty analysis.**

177 Although the BVOC emissions model was well established for different vegetation

178 types, there were uncertainties in the estimate of BVOC emission fluxes. Some of

179 these uncertainties are generated from inaccurate emission factors, empirical

180 algorithms, and input data used in the model (Hanna et al., 2005; Guenther et al.,

181 2012). Situ et al showed that, in addition to the emission factors, PAR and

182 temperature also created large uncertainties in the MEGAN model (Situ, et al., 2014).

183 A Monte Carlo technique was used to evaluate uncertainties of modeled isoprene

184 emissions by MEGAN2.1 (Hanna et al., 2005; Guenther et al., 2006, 2012; Situ et al.,

185 2014). In the uncertainty analysis, each input parameter in MEGAN2.1 for isoprene
186 emissions, including LAI, leaf temperature (a function of air temperature), PAR,
187 emission factors, several empirical coefficients related to past leaf temperatures, and
188 solar zenith, was treated as a random variable with a normal distribution. The
189 MEGAN2.1 model for BVOC emissions was run repeatedly 100,000 times at the 95%
190 confidence level based on the coefficients of variation (CV , %) of these input
191 parameters. The Monte Carlo simulations showed that the isoprene emissions reached
192 approximately a normal distribution, ranging from 0.05 to 5.29 micro-mole $m^{-2} h^{-1}$
193 with the variation from 97%-211%. Details for the uncertainty analysis are presented
194 in Supplementary Materials (Table S1, **Fig. S1**).

195 ~~The uncertainty analysis using the Monte Carlo technique was also conducted for~~
196 ~~the box model (Eq. 1). Analogous to the uncertainty analysis for the MEGAN2.1, this~~
197 ~~box model was also run repeatedly 100,000 times at the 95% confidence level based~~
198 ~~on the coefficients of variation (CV , %) for z_i , the measured isoprene concentration~~
199 ~~(C), and the concentrations of OH and O_3 . The CV for these four parameters were~~
200 ~~taken from Guenther et al (1996) (Table S3). The results from Monte Carlo~~
201 ~~simulations showed that the converted isoprene emissions from the measured~~
202 ~~concentrations using Eq. 1 reached approximately a normal distribution, ranging from~~
203 ~~1.2 to 152.9 $\mu g m^{-2} h^{-1}$ with the variation from 98.3% 116.7% (**Fig. S2**).~~

204 **2.4. Ambient VOCs concentrations within and outside the TNRSF.**

205 ~~As part of efforts to understand potential uncertainties in the estimation of isoprene~~
206 ~~emissions from the TNRSF, a field campaign was conducted to measure gas-phase air~~

207 pollutants, particular matter, and persistent organic pollutants in air, foliage, and soil
208 within and outside the TNRSF in the summer of 2015. The first phase of this field
209 study focused on the Central North China region of the TNRSF because this region
210 has been paid the highest attention by the TNRSF program due to its proximity to
211 Beijing and Tianjin, the two megacities in Northern China. Eight monitoring sites in
212 this region were selected, with four of these inside and another four outside the forest
213 (Fig. S3). All these sites are situated in the northwest and northeast of Beijing where
214 the TNRSF program was operated most successfully. Total VOC (TVOC) was
215 measured simultaneously using the GreyWolf TG-502/TG-503 sensors (GreyWolf
216 Sensing Solutions) at each paired sites within and outside the forest but on different
217 days at the selected 4 paired sites. The sampling frequency was set at 1 min. The
218 GreyWolf TG-502/TG-503 instrument uses SEN-B VOC-PPB PID (photoionization
219 detector) sensor (10.6eV lamp, range: 5 to 20,000 ppb) which responds to the vast
220 majority of VOCs with the response time < 1 min. The environmental conditions for
221 sensor operating range from 0 to 90% RH (relative humidity) and from -15° to 60° C.
222 The GreyWolf TVOC sensor adopts two points calibration approach with low point of
223 0 ppb and high point at 7500~9000 ppb, respectively. Standard calibration gas is
224 isobutylene. More details of the GreyWolf TG-502/TG-503 TVOC sensor can be
225 found at the GreyWolf website ([https://www.wolfsense.com/directsense-tvoc-volatile-](https://www.wolfsense.com/directsense-tvoc-volatile-organic-compound-meter.html)
226 [organic-compound-meter.html](https://www.wolfsense.com/directsense-tvoc-volatile-organic-compound-meter.html)). It should be noted that the GreyWolf VOC sensor can
227 only measure TVOC, hence the concentration of individual VOC species is not
228 reported here. Typical tree species planted in this region were selected in the field

229 monitoring program. Among them, poplars (*Populus spp*), a broadleaf tree species,
230 dominated the two forest sites in Langfang and northern Zhangbei County. Poplars
231 has been the major tree species planted across the Central North China region of the
232 TNRSF over the last thirty years. From the late half of the 2000s, due to the death of
233 many poplars in this region, Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris*), which is a coniferous tree
234 species, has been recommended and planted in this region. Scots pine is the major tree
235 species at northern Zhangbei County and Xinglong forest sites. As for the
236 comparative monitoring sites outside the forests, the Langfang site is 500 m away
237 from the forest and located in a corn field, the Zhangbei north and south sites are
238 about 1 km and 600 m, respectively, away from the forest and both are located in a
239 grassland, and the Xinglong site is about 400 m away from the forest and located in a
240 corn field. The sampling was operated in early morning from 6:15—8:15am, and
241 early afternoon from 2:15—4:15 pm with sampling frequency of 1 min. The sampling
242 date was on August 9th, 2015 at the Langfang sites, 10th at the Xinglong sites, 12th at
243 the Zhangbei north sites, and 13th at the Zhangbei south sites. It should be noted that
244 this field measurement program was not aimed to determine the spatial and temporal
245 distributions of isoprene emissions, but instead to examine and verify the release of
246 this reactive biogenic VOC species from the TNRSF.

247 **3. Results**

248 **3.1. Isoprene emission inventory in TNRSF**

249 **Figure 2** shows the TNRSF domain-averaged annual biogenic isoprene emissions
250 (micro-moles m⁻² h⁻¹) aggregated from monthly values. The magnitudes of isoprene

251 emissions estimated in the present study agree with the China's BVOC emission
252 inventory established previously, particularly in the natural forests (Song et al., 2012;
253 Li et al., 2013), as elaborated below. A long-term increasing trend up to 2007,
254 although with fluctuations in certain years, was observed (**Fig . 2**). The emissions in
255 the Central-North region of the TNRSF exhibited the strongest increasing trend with
256 the highest emission increase by 58% over the 30 years period.

257 **Figure S2** illustrates the MEGAN2.1 simulated isoprene emission fluxes across
258 the TNRSF in 1982, the early stage of the TNRSF construction, and 2010, the end of
259 the fourth phase (2001-2010) of the program, respectively. Compared with the
260 emission fluxes in 1982, higher isoprene emissions in the Central-North China region
261 and lower emission fluxes in the Northeast region and Eastern Inner Mongolia region
262 of the TNRSF were identified in 2010. The differences in the biogenic isoprene
263 emissions between 1982 and 2010 were calculated as $E_{dif} = E_{2010} - E_{1982}$. The spatial
264 pattern of E_{dif} (**Fig. 3**) is consistent with the emission fluxes in 1982 and 2010, as
265 shown in **Fig. S2a** and **b**. Positive differences of E_{dif} were observed in the
266 mountainous areas of west Xinjiang, Shaanxi, eastern Gansu provinces, and the
267 Central-North China region, suggesting increasing isoprene emissions associated with
268 the expansion of the TNRSF in these regions.

269 **As aforementioned in Introduction, in addition to forest expansion, biogenic**
270 **isoprene emissions are also associated with climate change via changes in mean**
271 **temperature (Sanderson et al., 2003) and PAR (Guenther et al., 2006, 2012; Situ et**
272 **al., 2014). Since the influence of climate change on BVOC is beyond scope of this**

273 article, we shall not assess detailed associations between climate change (mean
274 temperature) and isoprene emissions from the TNRSF. Nevertheless, in Section 4, we
275 shall discuss briefly the potential influence of the changes in annual mean air
276 temperature and PAR on long-term trends of biogenic isoprene emissions in the
277 TNRSF.

278 **3.2. Isoprene emission trend in the TNRSF and Northern China**

279 Decadal or longer time trends in isoprene emissions over the TNRSF and Northern
280 China can provide some insights into the impact of the large-scale artificial
281 afforestation on BVOC emissions - the knowledge that is needed to address air quality,
282 climate, and ecosystem issues. **Figure 4** illustrates modeled isoprene emission fluxes
283 ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$) in 2000 (**Fig. 4a**), after 20 years construction of the TNRSF,
284 and the slopes (trends) of the linear regression relationship between isoprene emission
285 and the time sequence of 1982 through 2010 (**Fig. 4b**) over Northern China,
286 respectively. High isoprene emissions can be found in the regions extending from
287 northeast Qinghai province to Ta-Pa Mountains, the boreal forest in Northeast China,
288 Central-North China, and Tianshan Mountain and Pamirs in Xinjiang province. The
289 spatial pattern of the estimated emissions in Northeastern China is similar to Song et
290 al.'s results from 2008 to 2010 (Song et al., 2012). They showed high isoprene
291 emissions from the boreal forest in Northeastern China and Qinling – Ta Pa
292 Mountains.

293 The total annual isoprene emission, summed from annual emissions of the model
294 grids that fall within the TNRSF domain, ranged from 45,000 to 70,000 ton yr^{-1}

295 during 1982-2010 for the whole TNRSF (the area encircled by the blue solid line in
296 **Fig. 4**), and from 132,000 to 176,000 ton yr⁻¹ for whole Northern China (**Fig. 4**). This
297 is equivalent to a total emission of 1.6 Tg and 4.4 Tg, respectively, for the two regions
298 during the past three decades from 1982 to 2010. It is worth noting that, although the
299 TNRSF accounts for 59% of the total area of Northern China and 42% of mainland
300 China (Zhang, et al., 2015), it covers almost all arid and semi-arid regions in Northern
301 China. Vegetation coverage in these regions was still sparse after 30 years
302 construction of the TNRSF, and shrubs, instead of trees, are major plant types in the
303 Northwest China region of the TNRSF. The isoprene emissions are considerably low
304 in these regions, as shown by **Figs. 4** and **5**. In addition, as shown by **Fig. 4**, the
305 region of Northern China defined in this study extends virtually to 30°N. Although the
306 isoprene emissions in the TNRSF only accounted for 37% of the total emissions in
307 Northern China, the relatively strong increasing trend (**Fig. 2**) in the TNRSF
308 (slope=0.881, R²=0.335) has reversed the negative trend (slope=-0.533, R²=0.05) of
309 the total annual isoprene emissions in Northern China, which did not take the isoprene
310 emissions in the TNRSF into consideration, to the positive trend (slope=0.347,
311 R²=0.014) from 1982 to 2010 in Northern China, as shown in **Fig. S3**.

312 To highlight the contribution of the TNRSF to the increasing isoprene emissions,
313 the trend of the gridded isoprene emissions over the TNRSF was further investigated.
314 As expected, the estimated monthly emission fluxes showed dramatic seasonal
315 variations with the largest values in summer and the lowest values in winter,
316 consistent with the seasonal changes in LAI over the TNRSF (figure not shown).

317 **Figure 5** presents the gridded trends of the summer biogenic isoprene emissions
318 across the TNRSF from 1982 to 2010. The summer emission fluxes exhibited similar
319 annual pattern to the annual emissions (**Fig. 4b**) but were greater than the annual
320 emissions, as shown by **Fig. 5**. Positive trends of the emissions were observed in the
321 mountainous and surrounding areas of the Junggar Basins (north Xinjiang), eastern
322 Qinghai province in the Northwest China region of the TNRSF, the Central-North
323 China region, and western Liaoning province in the Northeast China region of the
324 TNRSF. These provinces and locations are marked in **Fig. 1**. In particular, the largest
325 positive trends can be observed in the areas north of the two megacities - Beijing and
326 Tianjin. These two megacities have been targeted as key cities to be protected by the
327 TNRSF from sandstorms from the north. Extensive tree planting activities have been
328 promoted to the north of these two megacities (Central Government of China, 2012).

329 **Figure 6** shows the isoprene emissions from 1982 to 2010 averaged over the
330 Northwest China, the Central-North China, and the Northeast China regions of the
331 TNRSF, respectively. It can be identified again that the domain averaged isoprene
332 emissions in the Central-North China region of the TNRSF exhibited a clear
333 increasing trend with the slope of 0.0004 ($R^2 = 0.35$, $p=0.002$). Whereas, statistically
334 insignificant and relatively weak trends of isoprene emissions were found in the
335 Northeast China (slope=0.00003, $R^2=0.032$, $p=0.484$) and Northwest China
336 (slope=0.00009, $R^2=0.27$, $p=0.012$) regions of the TNRSF, respectively. The increase
337 of isoprene emissions over the Central-North China region can be attributed to
338 continuous expansion of forest coverage. Compared with the Central-North region of

339 the TNRSF, the forests in the Northeast China region are mixed with natural forests.
340 These natural forests already reached the steady state before the 1980s, so they would
341 not contribute to the increasing trend of biogenic isoprene emissions. As shown by
342 **Fig. 4b**, the isoprene emissions in most places of Northeast China show almost no
343 trends. The Northwest China region of the TNRSF is arid and semi-arid area with low
344 precipitation. Shrubs, instead of trees, were planted in many places of this part of the
345 TNRSF regions, resulting in low biogenic isoprene emissions.

346 Trends of isoprene emissions were also compared between those within and
347 outside the TNRSF and in natural forests. Three small areas were selected for the
348 comparison, each consisting of 4 grid points, in the Central-North China region of the
349 TNRSF (marked by the red circle in the inner map of **Fig. 1**), a farmland outside the
350 TNRSF (blue circle), and in the boreal forest of Northeast China (the Greater Khingan
351 Mountains, marked by yellow circle in **Fig. 1**), respectively. Trends in annually
352 averaged isoprene emissions from these three small areas are shown in **Fig. 7**.
353 Significant increasing trend is only seen in the area within the TNRSF. The levels of
354 isoprene emissions in the other two small areas were almost uniformly distributed for
355 the last three decades.

356 **3.3. Comparison with the previous emission data**

357 No extensive and direct measurements of BVOC emission across the TNRSF have
358 been ever carried out. Several field campaigns were conducted to measure BVOC
359 emissions in Northern China but these monitoring programs were not typically
360 designated for the TNRSF (Klinger et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2003). Li et al. (2013)

361 established an emission inventory of BVOCs (isoprene, monoterpenes, sesquiterpene
362 and other VOCs) over China using MEGAN2.1 model. Their results showed that
363 annually averaged isoprene emission fluxes ranged from 0 to 22 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ in 2003 in
364 northern Xinjiang, Qinghai, Gansu, and Shaanxi provinces in the Northwest China
365 region of the TNRSF, and western Inner Mongolia. The average isoprene emission
366 fluxes estimated in the present study for the same regions and the same year ranged
367 from 0.01 to 18.2 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$, agreeing reasonably well with Li et al's
368 inventory (2013) also showed high isoprene emission flux in the Central-North China
369 region, including the north of Shanxi and Hebei provinces, Beijing, and the natural
370 (boreal) forest area in Northeast China, ranging from 22 to 880 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$. While the
371 lower limit of their estimated flux agrees well with our lowest emission flux of 20.4
372 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$, the upper limit of their emission flux was 880 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$, a factor of 4
373 higher than our value (122.4 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$) for the same region. Li et al (2013) adopted
374 more locally updated species-specific emission factors and a vegetation classification
375 based on a new vegetation investigation in the late 1990s and early 2000s in China.
376 Their calculation also used hourly and diurnal meteorological (temperature, radiation,
377 winds) data. Our estimated fluxes used the emission factors specified in the
378 MEGAN2.1 (Guenther et al., 2012) and vegetation types classified by the roughness
379 lengths (Zhang et al., 2002, 2015). In addition, our model input daily meteorological
380 data. These different input data to the MEGAN model resulted likely in the difference
381 of the isoprene emission fluxes between Li et al (2013) and our results. Song et al.
382 (2012) simulated BVOC emissions in Eastern China from 2008 to 2010. A portion of

383 their model domain in Eastern China superimposed with the Central-North China and
384 the Northeast China region of the TNRSF defined in our study. The annually averaged
385 isoprene emission fluxes from 2008 to 2010 from Song et al's model simulations
386 ranged from 10 to 100 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ in Inner Mongolia region, and 100-1000 $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ in
387 the north of Shanxi and Hebei provinces, Beijing, and Tianjin, which were higher than
388 our results of 0 to 32.6 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ and 20.4 to 122.4 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$, respectively, in these
389 two regions. Song et al. used MEGAN2.04 model with different emission factors
390 adjusted based on China's principal vegetation species (Song et al., 2012). These
391 could also lead to different biogenic isoprene emissions.

392 ~~3.4. Emissions converted from ambient concentrations~~

393 ~~Figure 8 illustrates measured afternoon (local time 2-4 pm) TVOC levels in the~~
394 ~~atmosphere at the 4 paired monitoring sites in the Central-North China region of the~~
395 ~~TNRSF with sampling frequency of 1 min. Detailed descriptions of these sites and~~
396 ~~sampling procedures are presented in Methodology section, Fig. S3, and Table S4,~~
397 ~~respectively. Higher TVOC air concentrations were observed at all forest sites than~~
398 ~~those sites outside the forests. In particular, the TVOC levels at the southern and~~
399 ~~northern Zhangbei sites within the TNRSF were 3 to 4 times higher than that~~
400 ~~measured in the grassland sites outside the TNRSF, suggesting that the forests made~~
401 ~~significant contributions to the sampled TVOC levels. Using the box model (Eq. 1),~~
402 ~~emission fluxes were converted from the measured TVOC concentrations at the four~~
403 ~~forest sites. Taking the TVOC levels as the box model input (Eq. 1), and assuming~~
404 ~~the isoprene emission to be 50% of the TVOC (Song et al., 2012; Li et al., 2013), we~~

405 obtained the emission fluxes of 32.3, 44.1, 52.9, and 44.1 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ at the Langfang,
406 Xinglong, Zhangbei (North), and Zhangbei (South) sites, respectively. These values
407 agree nicely with the MEGAN2.1 modeled emission fluxes of 36, 41.5, 49, and 47.6
408 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ at the same sites. It is noticed that the box model (Eq. 1) does not take into
409 account the effect of wind speed on the emissions. An effort was also made to use a
410 simplified Gaussian model (Eq. S1) for an area source (Arya, 1999) to convert the
411 measured TVOC concentrations to emissions. Under approximately calm wind
412 conditions ($<0.5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) at the sampling sites and the same assumption of isoprene
413 emission as the half of the TVOC emission, the converted fluxes using this model are
414 about a factor of 2 higher than the MEGAN2.1 estimated fluxes. Results are presented
415 in Supplementary Materials. The potential differences between the MEGAN2.1
416 modeled and converted fluxes from the Gaussian model (Eq. S1 of Supplementary)
417 might be attributed to several causes. Firstly, the TVOC concentrations were
418 measured at a single site within the selected forests in this field campaign which
419 represent typical tree species in the Central North China region of the TNRSF.
420 Whereas, the underlying surface of a model grid square ($27.83 \times 27.83 \text{ km}^2$) is not
421 fully covered by trees but consists of other surface types, such as croplands, bare soils,
422 water surfaces, and towns where BVOC emissions might be lower. In addition, in the
423 simplified Gaussian model (Eq. S1, Supplementary) we choose the fetch $4l=3\text{km}$
424 which is related directly to the magnitude of the converted emission fluxes which was
425 subject to uncertainties. Nevertheless, overall the converted fluxes from the measured
426 TVOC concentrations using the simplified Gaussian model are about the 2-fold of the

427 modeled fluxes, suggesting the reasonable accuracy of the MEGAN model applied in
428 the present investigation.

429 —It is worthwhile to note that anthropogenic VOC might contribute to the ambient
430 concentrations of TVOCs measured at these selected sampling sites. In addition, the
431 emissions and concentration ratios are not identical for all VOCs due to their
432 different reactivity. A VOC can be emitted in relatively low amounts but make a large
433 contribution to the TVOC if it is considerably less reactive than isoprene. Wang et al
434 (2014) collected ambient concentrations of VOCs at 27 sites across Beijing from July
435 2009 to January 2012, including urban, suburban, and rural sites. To identify
436 potential sources of isoprene, they estimated the ratio of isoprene to 1,3-butadiene.
437 While the reactivity for these two VOC compounds was similar, their emission
438 sources differ significantly. Vehicular exhaust was found to be the dominant source of
439 1,3-butadiene in Beijing (Wang et al, 2010) whereas isoprene was largely related to
440 biogenic emissions. Their results showed that the wintertime isoprene/1,3-butadiene
441 was $0.30\text{--}0.34\text{ ppbv ppbv}^{-1}$, characterizing the emission from vehicular exhaust in
442 Beijing (Wang et al. 2010), suggesting that the atmospheric isoprene during the
443 wintertime was emitted mostly from vehicular exhaust. In the warm period (May–
444 September), their measured ratios of isoprene/1,3-butadiene ranged from 16 to 43
445 ppbv ppbv^{-1} , two order of magnitude higher than that in the wintertime, indicating that
446 the summertime isoprene was released from biogenic sources. Considering that our
447 sampling sites (especially the Langfang and Xinglong sites) are close to Beijing and
448 covered by similar tree species to those planted in the suburban and rural areas of

449 ~~Beijing, the results from Wang et al (2014) might be applicable in our cases because~~
450 ~~our measurements were also taken in the summertime (August). In particular, our~~
451 ~~sampling sites are all located in rural areas, far away from traffic, industrial, and~~
452 ~~residential areas, indicating weak influence of the anthropogenic emissions on the~~
453 ~~measured TVOC level, half of which has been hypothesized to be isoprene in the~~
454 ~~present study.~~

455 **4. Discussions**

456 Overall the estimated biogenic isoprene emission fluxes across the TNRSF illustrated
457 an increasing trend from the 1980s onward (**Fig. 2**). The incline trend was most
458 significant in the Central-North region of the TNRSF where most intensive
459 afforestation has been carried out in North China (Zhang and Zhu, 2013), in order to
460 protect the national capital (Beijing) region from dust and sandstorms. The increasing
461 biogenic isoprene emissions can be attributed to the development of the TNRSF. The
462 forest expansion in the TNRSF can be identified by the satellite derived LAI, as seen
463 from **Fig. S4a** and **b**. The linear increasing trend of the LAI across the TNRSF is
464 consistent with the modeled isoprene emission fluxes. The maximum increase (58%)
465 of the isoprene emissions from 1982 to 2010 in the Central-North region of the
466 TNRSF seems to agree well with the model prediction by Arneth et al. (2008, 2011)
467 based on projected land use changes. Their modeling results suggested that increasing
468 forest area could lead to several tens of percent change in biogenic isoprene emissions.

469 As shown above, the significant incline trend of the annual total isoprene
470 emissions in the TNRSF has affected the long-term trend of the emission in Northern

471 China. This implies that the increasing emission trend across the TNRSF could alter
472 the large-scale BVOC emissions not only in the TNRSF, but also in Northern China
473 considering that the TNRSF occupies 59% of Northern China and 42% of whole
474 mainland China. Future impacts of the TNRSF on BVOC emissions may be even
475 stronger with continuous -increase of vegetation coverage till the end of the program
476 in 2050.

477 While BVOC emissions vary on short time scales, the global BVOC emissions
478 are often assumed to change little on a long-term (e.g., decadal) scale (Purves et al.,
479 2004; Sindelarova et al., 2014) considering the steady state of global forests. Since
480 BVOCs can partition onto or form particles in the atmosphere after oxidation, their
481 emissions could affect aerosol formation, cloud condensation nuclei, and climate
482 (Makkonen et al., 2012, Penuelas and Staudt, 2010). Identification of the impact of
483 climate change on -BVOC emissions is not straightforward if regional or global
484 forests reach a steady state. The evidence identified in this study suggested that the
485 human-induced BVOC emissions via large-scale afforestation exert strong influence
486 on long-term BVOC emission and should be taken into consideration in projected
487 climate change scenarios, at least on a regional scale, such as Northern China. As a
488 precursor of secondary organic aerosols and tropospheric ozone, the significant
489 incline of biogenic isoprene emissions also carry significant implications to the air
490 quality in Northern China. Heavy air pollutions in Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (**Fig. 1**) have
491 been widely known nationally and internationally, characterized by year round high
492 levels of fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) and high surface ozone concentrations in the

493 summertime. Chinese government has decided to extend the TNRSF as one of the
494 primary measures to reduce and remove air pollutants from Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei
495 area (Chinese Environmental Protection Agency, 2013). As shown in **Figs. 5** and **6**,
496 the TNRSF in the Central-North region covering a large part of Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei
497 area has already gained the most rapid development as compared to the other two
498 northern regions of the TNRSF (**Fig. 1**), leading to marked incline of isoprene
499 emissions. However, it is not yet clear if and how the extension of the TNRSF could
500 otherwise improve local air quality. Our previous study suggested that the TNRSF
501 played a moderate role in removing SO₂ and NO_x (Zhang et al., 2015). Under the
502 rapidly increasing NO_x emissions in the past decade due to rapidly increasing number
503 of private vehicles in Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei area, it is necessary to assess the
504 interactions between BVOC emissions from the TNRSF and local air quality in this
505 region.

506 In addition to its long-term trend, isoprene emission also exhibited short-term
507 interannual fluctuations, as also observed from **Fig. 2**. Factors causing the fluctuations
508 or interannual changes in the emission fluxes depend on meteorological and
509 biological processes. Afforestation and deforestation often took place during the
510 course of the TNRSF construction due to favorable or unfavorable weather and
511 climate conditions for tree growth. For example, 10% - 50% of trees planted since the
512 late 1970s in the Central-North region of the TNRSF were reported dead since 2007
513 (Zhang et al., 2013; Tan and Li, 2015), causing visible decline of the forest coverage
514 and isoprene emissions in this region after 2007, as shown in **Fig. 2**. The lower

515 isoprene emission in 2010 in the Northeast China region and eastern Inner Mongolia
516 region of the TNRSF as compared with that in 1982 was inconsistent with the
517 increasing trend of the emission. The forest coverage in the Northeast China region
518 did not show considerable change between 1982 and 2010. On the other hand, lower
519 annual temperatures (e.g., by around 1°C) in 2010 than that in 1982 were evident over
520 the Northeast China region of the TNRSF as shown by the differences of annual
521 surface temperatures (SATs, C°) between 1982 and 2010 ($T_{dif}=T_{2010}-T_{1982}$, **Fig. S5a**),
522 which likely caused lower biogenic emissions in 2010 (Purvis et al., 2004; Arneth et
523 al., 2008, 2011). Negative T_{dif} in the Northeast China region of the TNRSF
524 corresponded nicely to negative E_{dif} (**Fig. 3**), indicating the strong association
525 between SATs and isoprene emissions. In addition, compared with the increasing
526 trend of LAI in the Northeastern China region of the TNRSF (**Fig. S4a**), no
527 statistically significant increasing trends of the isoprene emissions are discerned in
528 this region. **Figure S5b** displays the trend of annual SATs in the Northeast China
529 region of the TNRSF from 1982 to 2010. Overall the SATs exhibited a decreasing
530 trend, caused mostly by declining SATs since the late 1990s. Since temperature plays
531 a key role in canopy BVOC emissions (Guenther et al., 2012; Li et al., 2013), the
532 lack of the incline trend of the isoprene emission fluxes in the Northeast China region
533 of the TNRSF might be attributable to the decreasing SAT from the late 1990s.

534 Another environmental factor that may exert the influence on the trend of
535 isoprene emissions is solar radiation/PAR (Situ et al., 2014). Analogous to the
536 response of the BVOC emissions to temperature, increasing radiation could also

537 enhance the isoprene emissions, or vice versa, particularly on daily or monthly basis.

538 To elucidate potential association between the long-term trend of biogenic
539 isoprene emission and PAR, we estimated the trend of the flux of PAR (Guenther et
540 al., 1995) over the TNRSF from 1982 to 2010. Results are shown in **Fig. S6**. Positive
541 trends can be observed in the Northwest China region of the TNRSF (Xinjiang, Gansu)
542 and Inner Mongolia. In contrast to the positive trends of isoprene emissions in the
543 Central-North China region of the TNRSF, PAR fluxes in this region exhibited
544 negative trends. Hu et al (2010) have calculated the long-term changes in PAR in
545 Beijing using a broadband global solar radiation dataset. Their result revealed a
546 significant declining trend of PAR from the late 20th century. They attributed the
547 decrease of PAR to increasing aerosol emissions from large amounts of fossil fuel
548 combustion due to rapid economic development and industrialization in North China,
549 including Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region, in the past several decades. The increase in
550 anthropogenic aerosol particles can both absorb and scatter solar radiation in the
551 atmosphere, contributing to the decreasing PAR. Within and proximate to North
552 China where most heavy industries in China are located, the Central-North China
553 region is the mostly contaminated area in the TNRSF by particulate matter and other
554 air pollutants. Higher aerosol loading to this region was at least partially responsible
555 for the decrease in the trend of PAR. This turns out that, while PAR contributes
556 significantly to daily and monthly changes as well as spatial distribution in biogenic
557 isoprene emissions in the TNRSF, it is unlikely to overwhelm the long-term trend of
558 isoprene emissions.

559 The comparison between the isoprene emission trends and the emissions in
560 2000 in Northern China also carries a significant implication for the human induced
561 BVOC emissions. As shown from **Fig. 4b**, the trend of isoprene emissions from 1982
562 to 2010 over Northern China showed a rather different spatial pattern from its
563 emissions in 2000 (**Fig. 4a**). No significant trends were observed in the boreal forest
564 in Northeastern China, though a larger amount of isoprene was emitted from the
565 forest in this region in 2000. This implies that this natural forest was likely under a
566 steady state from which the biogenic isoprene emissions were not altered on the
567 decadal basis (Sanderson et al., 2003; Purves et al., 2004).

568 Although Qinghai – Ta-Pa Mountains exhibited the highest emissions in 2000
569 (**Fig. 4a**), negative trends of the biogenic isoprene emissions dominated this area,
570 indicating the declining of the emissions over the period of 1982 through 2010. This
571 is consistent with the decreasing vegetation coverage during this period in this region,
572 as shown by the negative trends of the leaf area index (LAI) in Northern China (**Fig.**
573 **S4**). On the other hand, most positive trends of LAI can be identified in the Central-
574 North region and along the foots of Tianshan Mountain in West China (see the areas
575 encircled by the solid blue line in **Fig. 4**). This manifests that the TNRSF exerts strong
576 influences on biogenic VOC emissions, particularly on their decadal variation, though
577 the magnitude of emissions might not be higher than that from natural forests in
578 Northeast China (**Fig. 4a**). Results further imply that the TNRSF is very likely the
579 major source contributing to the increasing biogenic isoprene emissions over the past
580 30 years and many years to come in Northern China. Climate change has been

581 thought also to play an important role in the changes in biogenic emission of isoprene
582 on decadal or longer time scale because it can alter temperature and vegetation
583 coverage (Turner et al., 1991; Sanderson et al., 2003). It is unknown if and to what
584 extent the increasing vegetation coverage and temperature over the TNRSF were
585 induced by climate change. Evidence shows that the human induced afforestation
586 contributed mostly to the increased vegetation coverage over the TNRSF and
587 Northern China (Wang et al., 2011), as shown by **Fig. S4a**, and hence to the increased
588 biogenic isoprene emissions

589 Among the three small areas within the TNRSF, in the farmland, and in the
590 boreal forest of Northeast China (**Fig. 7**), the emission values increased by nearly 5
591 times from 1982 to 2010 in the area within the TNRSF with the slope of 0.0018 ($R^2 =$
592 0.55). On the other hand, no statistically significant increasing trends of biogenic
593 isoprene emissions were found in the farmland and the boreal forest, though the
594 higher emissions were observed in the boreal forest. More interestingly, the biogenic
595 isoprene emissions in the selected small area of the Central-North China region tend
596 to surpass the isoprene emissions in the boreal forest from 2004 onward. This can be
597 partly attributed to rapidly growing forest coverage and higher temperatures in this
598 region as compared to Northeastern China. The large area of foliage trees planted in
599 this region also played a role for relatively high and increasing isoprene emissions as
600 compared with the boreal forests in Northeastern China where coniferous trees are
601 major tree species which release relatively lower isoprene to the atmosphere as
602 compared to broadleaf trees in the selected area in the Central-North China region of

603 the TNRSF (Guenther et al, 2012).

604 **5. Conclusions**

605 Gridded monthly and annual biogenic isoprene emissions in Northern China were
606 modeled for the period of 1982 to 2010 and were then applied to assess the long-term
607 trends of the biogenic isoprene emissions in the TNRSF in order to discriminate the
608 signals of the human activities in decadal and longer-term trends of BVOCs on large
609 spatial scales. Significant impacts of the TNRSF on the BVOC emissions in Northern
610 China were identified during the past three decades. Annual isoprene emissions in
611 many places of the TNRSF region, especially in the Central-North China region,
612 exhibited an inclining trend. The maximum increase in the isoprene emission flux
613 reached 58% between 1982 and 2010, indicating important roles of the human
614 activities on BVOC emissions. The comparison of isoprene emission fluxes among
615 the Central-North China region of the TNRSF, farmland, and the boreal forest in
616 Northeastern China outside the TNRSF revealed that the biogenic isoprene emissions
617 in some areas of the Central-North China region of the TNRSF produced by man-
618 made forests have surpassed the emissions from the natural forests. This suggests that
619 the TNRSF was a main contributor to the decadal or longer-term changes in BVOCs
620 in Northern China. The impact of the TNRSF on BVOC emissions is expected to be
621 stronger in the coming years along with continuous development of the TNRSF
622 program till 2050. Since BVOCs are major precursor of tropospheric ozone, future
623 studies are needed to investigate how the increased BVOCs in the TNRSF contribute
624 to ozone formation, especially in the case of concurrently increasing NO_x emissions in

625 Northern China.

626 **The Supplement related to this article is available online.**

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839 **The Supplement related to this article is available online**

840 **Figures captions**

841 **Figure 1.** The Three Northern Regions Shelter Forest (TNRSF) in Northern China,
842 **defined also by green color in the inner figure (right-lower corner of Fig. 1) and three**
843 **regions of the TNRSF.** The Northwest China region of the TNRSF, defined by grey
844 color, includes Xinjiang, Gansu, the north of Qinghai, Ningxia, West Inner Mongolia,
845 and the north of Shaanxi, **many places in this part of the TNRSF, particularly in Gansu,**
846 **Ningxia, and West Inner Mongolia, are not covered by forest but by shrubs;** The
847 Central-north China region, defined by orange gold color, includes the north of
848 Shanxi and Hebei provinces, Beijing, Tianjin, and Central Inner Mongolia; The
849 Northeast China region, defined by brass color, includes East Inner Mongolia, part of
850 Liaoning, Jilin, and Heilongjiang provinces. Red, blue and yellow circles in the inner
851 figure ~~(right-lower corner of the figure)~~ indicate three small areas in the TNRSF, a
852 farmland, and the boreal forest from which isoprene emission flux are extracted for
853 comparison (see Results and Discussions sections). Two megacities, Beijing and
854 Tianjin in the Central-North China region, are also indicated.

855 **Figure 2.** Domain-averaged annual emission flux (micro-moles $\text{m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$) of isoprene
856 over the TNRSF from 1982 to 2010. Red dot line indicates linear trend of emission
857 fluxes and shading stands for ± 1 standard deviation of emission fluxes.

858 **Figure 3.** Differences of emission flux ($E_{2010} - E_{1982}$, micro-moles $\text{m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$) of isoprene
859 between 1982 and 2010. The emission fluxes in these two years are shown in Fig.
860 S23a and b of Supporting Information

861 **Figure 4.** (a) Gridded annual isoprene biogenic emission (micro-moles $\text{m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$) in
862 2000 over Northern China with spacing $1/4^\circ \times 1/4^\circ$ latitude/longitude; (b) slopes of
863 linear regression relationships between annual mean isoprene emission flux (micro-
864 moles $\text{m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$) and the time sequence (or linear trend) from 1982 to 2010 across
865 Northern China.

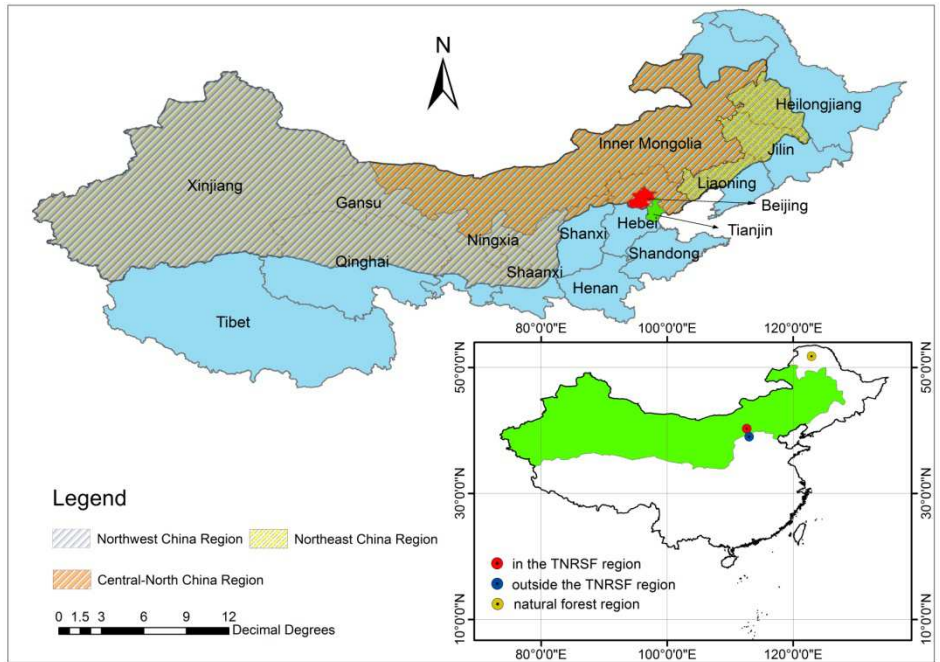
866 **Figure 5.** Slopes of linear regression relationships between summer mean isoprene
867 emission flux (micro-moles $\text{m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$) and the time sequence (or linear trend) from 1982
868 to 2010 across the TNRSF.

869 **Figure 6.** Annual variations of emission fluxes of isoprene averaged over three
870 regions of the Northeast, Central-North, and Northwest China region of the TNRSF.
871 Dotted straight line represent linear trend of isoprene emission fluxes in the Central-
872 North China region.

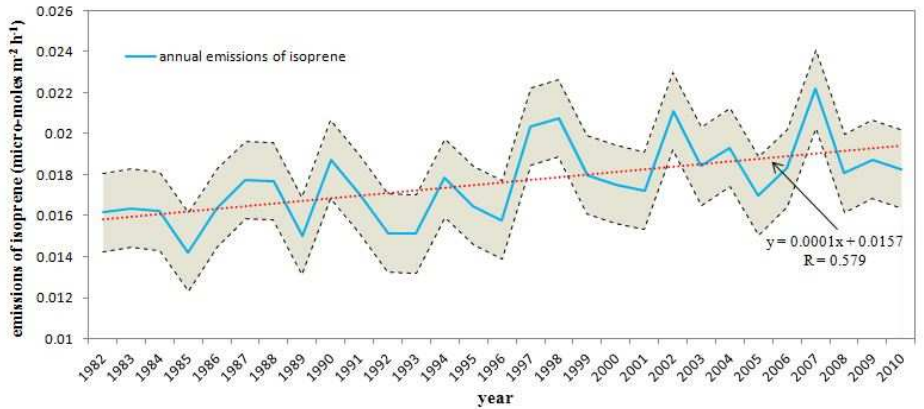
873 **Figure 7.** Annual variation and trend of isoprene emission flux spatially averaged
874 over three small areas in and outside the TNRSF in Central-North China and natural
875 (boreal) forest region as marked in **Fig. 1.** The left-hand-side y-axis scales trend of
876 isoprene emission fluxes in the TNRSF region and boreal forest in Northeast China
877 and right-hand-side y-axis scale emission flux from the farmland outside the TNRSF.

878 ~~**Figure 8.** Measured ambient concentrations of TVOC (mg m^{-3}) with frequency of 1~~
879 ~~min from 2—4 pm local time at 4 paired monitoring sites within and outside the~~
880 ~~TNRSF. (a) Langfang (August 9 2015), (b) Xinglong (August 10 2015); Zhangbei~~

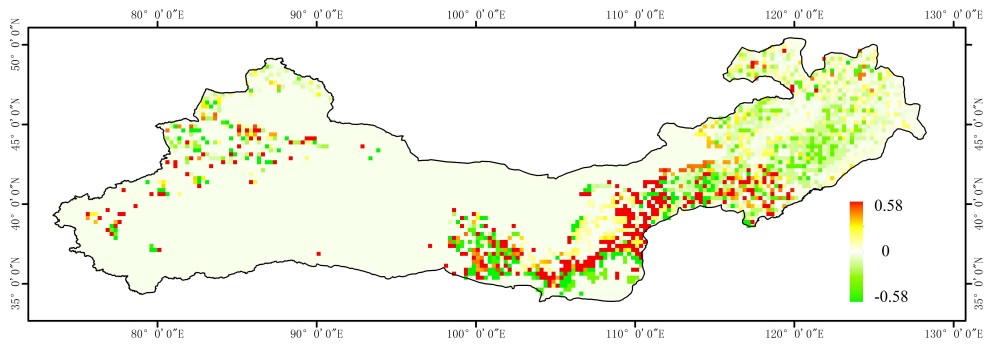
881 (North, August 12 2015), (c) Zhangbei (South, 13 August 2015).
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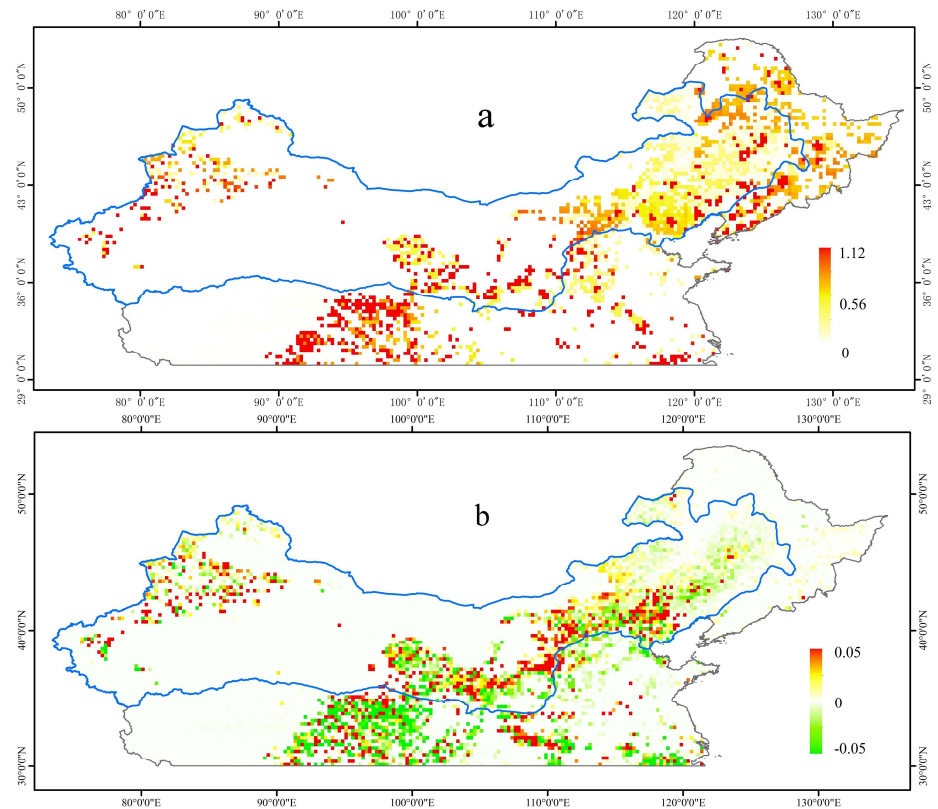
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 885 **Figure 1**
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 888 **Figure 2**
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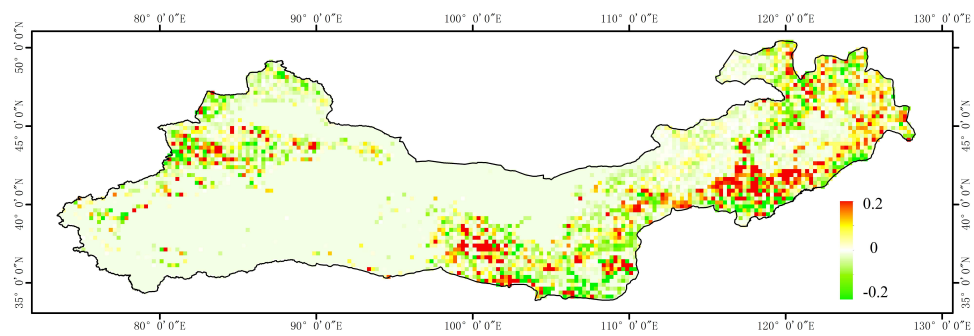


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 891 **Figure 3**
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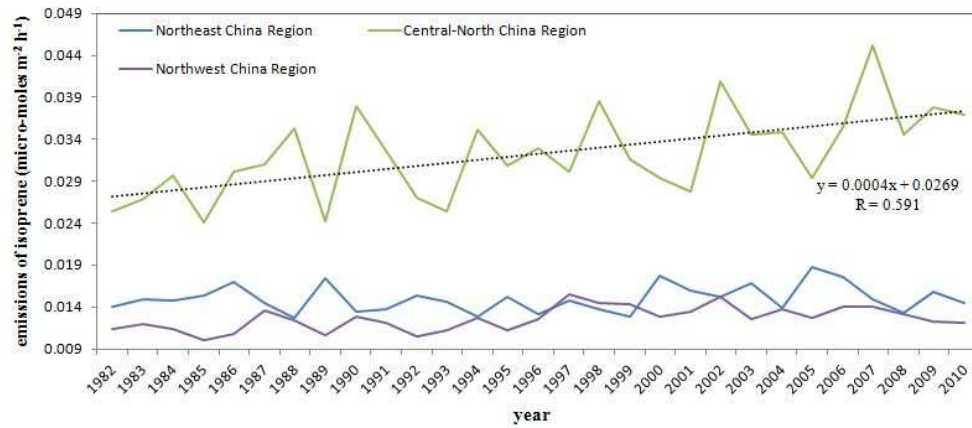
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Figure 4



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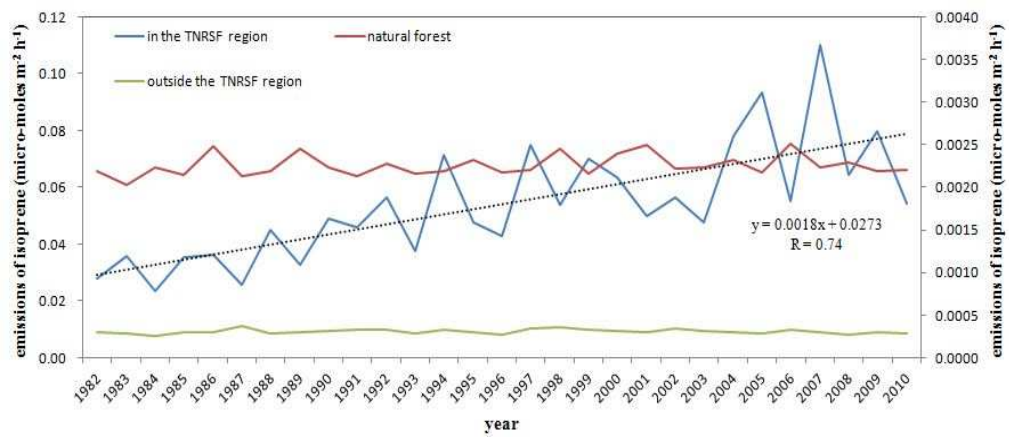
Figure 5



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Figure 6

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Figure 7

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