

1 **Title:** Methanol and Isoprene Emissions from the Fast Growing Tropical Pioneer Species *Vismia*  
2 *guianensis* (Aubl.) Pers. (Hypericaceae) in the central Amazon Forest

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21

## 22 **Key Points**

- 23 • High light-dependent isoprene emissions were observed from mature *V. guianensis*  
24 leaves in the central Amazon
- 25 • As predicted by energetic models, isoprene emission increased non-linearly with net  
26 photosynthesis
- 27 • High leaf temperatures resulted in the classic uncoupling of net photosynthesis from  
28 isoprene emissions
- 29 • Leaf phenology differentially controls methanol and isoprene emissions

## 30 Abstract

31 Isoprene (Is) emissions by plants represent a loss of carbon and energy resources leading to the  
32 initial hypothesis that fast growing pioneer species in secondary tropical forests allocate carbon  
33 primarily to growth at the expense of isoprenoid defenses. In this study, we quantified leaf  
34 isoprene and methanol emissions from the abundant pantropical pioneer tree species *Vismia*  
35 *guianensis* and ambient isoprene concentrations above a diverse secondary forest in the central  
36 Amazon. As photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) was varied (0 to 3,000  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ )  
37 under standard leaf temperature (30 °C), isoprene emissions from *V. guianensis* increased  
38 without saturation up to 80  $\text{nmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ . A non-linear increase in isoprene emissions with respect  
39 to net photosynthesis (Pn) resulted with the fraction of Pn dedicated to isoprene emissions  
40 increasing with light intensity (up to 2% of Pn). Emission responses to temperature under  
41 standard light conditions (PAR of 1,000  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) resulted in the classic uncoupling of  
42 isoprene emissions ( $T_{\text{opt,iso}} > 40$  °C) from net photosynthesis ( $T_{\text{opt, Pn}} = 30.0\text{-}32.5$  °C) with up to  
43 7% of Pn emitted as isoprene at 40 °C. Under standard environmental conditions of PAR and  
44 leaf temperature, young *V. guianensis* leaves showed high methanol emissions, low Pn, and low  
45 isoprene emissions. In contrast, mature leaves showed high Pn, high isoprene emissions, and low  
46 methanol emissions, highlighting the differential control of leaf phenology over methanol and  
47 isoprene emissions. High daytime ambient isoprene concentrations (11 ppbv) were observed  
48 above a secondary Amazon rainforest suggesting that isoprene emissions are common among  
49 neotropical pioneer species. The results are not consistent with the initial hypothesis and support  
50 a functional role of methanol during leaf expansion and the establishment of photosynthetic  
51 machinery, and a protective role of isoprene for photosynthesis during high temperature  
52 extremes regularly experienced in secondary rainforest ecosystems.

53 **Keywords:** Pioneer species, tropical forest, growth and defense, volatile isoprenoids

54

## 55 1. Introduction

56 Due to its vast territorial expansion, high species diversity, and long growing season, the  
57 Amazon forest in South America is responsible for an estimated 15% of global terrestrial  
58 photosynthesis (Malhi et al., 2008). However, increased deforestation, degradation and natural  
59 disturbances have changed this scenario, exerting strong control on the evolution of atmospheric  
60 CO<sub>2</sub> (Pan et al., 2011; Malhi et al., 2008). A recent analysis of biomass dynamics revealed a long-  
61 term trend of increased mortality-driven shortening of carbon residence times in the Amazon  
62 forest (Brienen et al., 2015). This effect has been attributed to increased climate variability, as  
63 recurrent drought episodes occurred in the region (Phillips et al., 2009; Lewis et al., 2011).  
64 Amazon carbon sink suppression during the intense drought period in 2005 was associated with a  
65 decrease in biomass gain and increased vegetation mortality (Phillips et al., 2009). Changes in  
66 forest turnover rate can directly affect forest composition and structure; the creation of forest  
67 gaps leads to the release of suppressed trees and increased pioneer species recruitment rates

68 (Bugmann, 2001). Tropical forest regrowth has been identified as a strong terrestrial carbon sink  
69 that can partly counterbalance carbon losses by deforestation and forest degradation (Pan et al.,  
70 2011). If tropical forests are becoming more dynamic, gap-phase processes can therefore play a  
71 more central role in determining carbon residence times, which have been described as the  
72 largest uncertainty in terrestrial vegetation responses to climate and elevated CO<sub>2</sub> (Friend et al.,  
73 2014).

74  
75 The classic Neotropical pioneer genera *Vismia* and *Cecropia* dominate large rainforest  
76 disturbance gaps in the Amazon Basin (Chambers et al., 2009) where they help accelerate the  
77 regeneration of secondary forests by influencing forest successional pathways (Uhl et al.,  
78 1988;Vieira et al., 2003;Zalamea et al., 2008). Their success in secondary forests is related to  
79 their ability to maintain high rates of net photosynthesis (Pn) and growth under conditions of full  
80 sunlight, high leaf temperatures, and low nutrient availability, often characteristic of tropical  
81 landscapes impacted by natural (Chambers et al., 2009) and human (Mesquita et al., 2001)  
82 disturbances. Under optimal environmental conditions for photosynthesis, emissions of volatile  
83 isoprenoids by leaves of many plant species can account for a few percent of Pn (Kesselmeier et  
84 al., 2002). However, under stress conditions that diminish Pn but increase isoprene (Is) emissions  
85 such as high leaf temperatures, emissions of Is can account for over 50% of Pn (Jardine et al.,  
86 2014). While investments into Is production remains poorly understood among tropical plants  
87 (Harley et al., 2004), the pattern of the photosynthetic carbon allocation has been discussed  
88 through carbon-nutrient balance and growth-differentiation balance hypotheses (Stamp,  
89 2004;Glynn et al., 2007;Massad et al., 2012). These hypotheses predict the existence of trade-off  
90 between investment in growth *versus* plant defense.

91  
92 Thus, a hypothesis can be considered that fast growing pioneer tree species in secondary forests  
93 do not produce volatile isoprenoids as secondary metabolites and instead dedicate these carbon  
94 and energy resources to primary metabolites for enhanced biomass production and growth or  
95 increased catabolism for energy generation during growth and maintenance respiration.  
96 However, this hypothesis is not well supported in the literature as early successional pioneer  
97 species have been observed with high volatile isoprenoid emission rates (Klinger et al.,  
98 1998;Jardine et al., 2015).

100 An alternative hypothesis that is well supported in the literature is that investment of carbon and  
101 energy resources into Is and monoterpene production and emissions by secondary forest species  
102 protects photosynthesis during abiotic stress including high temperature stress, possibly through  
103 antioxidant and energy/reducing equivalent consumption mechanisms (Vickers et al.,  
104 2009a;Vickers et al., 2009b;Jardine et al., 2012b;Penuelas and Llusia, 2002;Grote et al.,  
105 2014;Loreto and Velikova, 2001). Additional studies revealed possible connections between  
106 volatile isoprenoid emissions and increased photorespiration during high leaf temperatures  
107 (Jardine et al., 2014) and drought stress (Dani et al., 2014). Consistent with these potentially  
108 important functional roles for pioneer species, a leaf and branch survey at four neo-tropical sites  
109 (Harley et al., 2004) suggested that *Vismia guianensis* is an Is producer with a single leaf  
110 emission value of 48  $\mu\text{g C g}^{-1} \text{hr}^{-1}$  reported (or 11  $\text{nmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  assuming a specific leaf area of 20  
111  $\text{m}^2 \text{kg}^{-1}$ ) (Dias-Filho, 1995). A survey of Is emissions from tropical central Africa suggested that  
112 Is emissions are higher in early successional forest communities relative to primary forests  
113 (Klinger et al., 1998). In addition to Is, more recent field studies of *Cecropia sciadophylla* in the  
114 Amazon suggest that not only can a fast growing tropical pioneer tree species emit volatile  
115 isoprenoids, but that leaf emission rates of highly reactive monoterpenes such as cis and trans- $\beta$ -  
116 ocimene were among the highest yet observed from trees globally (Jardine et al., 2015).

117

118 Although volatile isoprenoid emissions are highly species specific, methanol emissions appear to  
119 be a universal feature in plants attributed to the hydrolysis of cell wall methyl esters during  
120 changes in cell wall chemical and physical properties (Fall, 2003;Fall and Benson, 1996). Leaf  
121 methanol emissions have been shown to closely correlate with plant growth rates, especially at  
122 the early stages of leaf development with young leaves consistently observed to be higher  
123 emitters than mature leaves (Hüve et al., 2007;Nemecek-Marshall et al., 1995). In contrast, Is  
124 emission capacity has been reported to increase considerably throughout leaf development in  
125 close connection with photosynthetic capacity (Alves et al., 2014). However, phenological  
126 controls on both methanol and Is emissions have not been studied together in tropical plants.

127

128 As a part of Observations and Modeling of the Green Ocean Amazon (GoAmazon 2014/5)  
129 (Martin et al., 2015), we hypothesized that despite the high carbon and energy costs that could

130 otherwise be used for growth and maintenance, the highly abundant pantropical pioneer tree  
131 species *V. guianensis* dedicates a significant fraction of recent photoassimilated carbon to  
132 volatile isoprenoid emissions, due to their protective properties under abiotic stress. We further  
133 hypothesized that this fraction changes as a function of light intensity due to the well-  
134 documented light suppression of mitochondrial respiration at low light (e.g. the Kok effect)  
135 which results in a large increase in Pn but only a relatively small increase in gross photosynthesis  
136 (Sharp et al., 1984). In addition, recent mechanistic Is emission models suggest that during high-  
137 light conditions where Pn is light-saturated, emissions of Is (and other volatile isoprenoids) may  
138 continue to increase with increasing light due to increased excess available energy and reducing  
139 power for the methylerythritol 4-phosphate (MEP) pathway (Grote et al., 2014). Consistent with  
140 this model, a survey of tropical vegetation revealed strong light-dependent Is emission rates 2-3  
141 times higher than those of temperate species (Lerdau and Keller, 1997). Moreover, tropical  
142 leaves did not demonstrate a light-saturation in Is emissions which continued to increase with  
143 light up to 2,500 mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, the highest PAR fluxes studied (Lerdau and Keller, 1997). Thus,  
144 although biochemical and modeling studies have identified mechanisms expected to cause  
145 significant deviations between a constant linear ratio of volatile isoprenoid emissions and Pn as a  
146 function of light, experimental observations in the tropics are extremely limited to investigate  
147 these processes. Moreover, as laboratory studies have shown the classic uncoupling between net  
148 photosynthesis and Is emissions occurs in tropical plants at high leaf temperatures, little *in situ*  
149 information exists on this phenomenon in the tropics.

150

151 Here we first present new *in situ* observations during 2014 of leaf Is emissions and Pn as a  
152 function of light intensity from *V. guianensis* in the central Amazon together with a reanalysis of  
153 light-dependent monoterpene emissions from *C. sciadophylla* leaves in relation to Pn  
154 (Jardine et al., 2015). Second, we present the results leaf Is emissions and Pn responses in *V.*  
155 *guianensis* as a function of leaf temperature during 2015. Third, by taking advantage of the  
156 rapidly developing leaves of *V. guianensis*, we also test the hypothesis that leaf phenology  
157 differentially impacts methanol versus isoprenoid emissions. Finally, in order to further evaluate  
158 the potential for secondary tropical forests to be important atmospheric sources of isoprene, we  
159 present limited measurements of ambient daytime Is concentrations above a secondary rainforest

160 ecosystem in the central Amazon. We end by discussing the potential physiological roles of  
161 volatile isoprenoids and methanol in secondary tropical rainforest ecosystems.

## 162 **2. Material and methods**

163 In this study, seven individuals of *Vismia guianensis* (Aubl.) Pers., a pioneer tree species from  
164 the Hypericaceae family, were studied in the Reserva Biológica do Cuieiras (ZF2), a primary  
165 rainforest biological reserve located approximately 60 km northwest of Manaus, in the central  
166 Amazon Basin, Brazil. This reserve has an area of primary rainforest of roughly 230 km<sup>2</sup> and is  
167 managed by the National Institute for Amazon Research (INPA). A nearby secondary rainforest  
168 ecosystem (ZF3 reserve), located approximately 105 km northwest of Manaus, was also studied  
169 for ambient concentrations of Is at the top of the canopy (~25 m) as a part of the biological  
170 dynamics of forest fragments project (Gascon et al., 2001) (See **Fig. 1**).

171

### 172 **2.1 Ambient Concentrations of Is above the Secondary Forest Canopy**

173 Six ambient air thermal desorption tube samples (150 ml/min for 15 min) were sequentially  
174 collected at the canopy height of 25 m on a walk up tower at the ZF3 site (coordinates: 02°  
175 23'26.5" S and 59°53'0.7" W) on 23 April 2015 between 11:38-13:18. No samples were  
176 collected on two additional thermal desorption tubes for background analysis. The thermal  
177 desorption tubes were purchased commercially and filled with Quartz wool, Tenax TA, and  
178 Carbograph 5TD adsorbents (Markes International, UK) and analyzed for Is concentrations using  
179 a thermal desorption system interfaced with a gas chromatograph-mass spectrometer system  
180 (GC-MS) at INPA in Manaus, Brazil as previously described (Jardine et al., 2014).

181

### 182 **2.2 Emission Responses to Light**

183 Emission responses to light for *V. guianensis* leaves under constant leaf temperature (30 °C) and  
184 reference [CO<sub>2</sub>] (400 ppm) were collected both in the field on intact branches and in the lab on  
185 detached branches during July of 2014. Field observations of Is emissions and Pn for *V.*  
186 *guianensis* leaves as a function of PAR intensity (0-2000 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) under constant leaf  
187 temperature (30 °C) were based on the coupling of the LI-6400XT with a portable thermal  
188 desorption tube sample collector as previously described (Jardine et al., 2015). Briefly, PAR  
189 values of 0, 100, 250, 500, 1000, 2000 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> were established for 10 min each with a

190 thermal desorption tube sample collected for each light level ( $75 \text{ ml min}^{-1} \times 10 \text{ min}$ ). Blank tubes  
191 were also collected without a leaf in the enclosure at the beginning of the experiment when the  
192 light level was  $0 \text{ } \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . Is emissions were quantified using a thermal desorption GC-MS  
193 as previously described (Jardine et al., 2014). Emission responses to light were collected for two  
194 young and two young-mature leaves from intact branches in the field (one individual). In  
195 addition, light induced emission responses of detached branches (two individuals) were analyzed  
196 in the laboratory using PTR-MS. For these laboratory experiments, an additional light level of  
197  $3000 \text{ } \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  PAR was included to evaluate the saturation of Pn and Is emissions at high  
198 light intensities. Both the GC-MS and PTR-MS systems were calibrated to Is using dynamic  
199 dilution of a commercial compressed gas standard (2.0 ppm Is, Apel-Riemer Environmental).  
200 Monthly GC-MS calibrations through a period that encompassed the July 2014 and 2015 field  
201 experiments (Nov 2013 - July 2015) demonstrated a high precision of Is quantitation by GC-MS;  
202 Is m/z 67 calibration slopes showed a relative standard deviation of 19.2%.

203

### 204 **2.3 Emission Responses to Temperature**

205 Emission responses to temperature for *V. guianensis* leaves under constant PAR ( $1000 \text{ } \mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$   
206  $\text{s}^{-1}$ ) and reference  $[\text{CO}_2]$  (400 ppm) were collected on intact branches and in the field during July  
207 2015. Field observations of Is emissions and Pn for *V. guianensis* leaves as a function of leaf  
208 temperature were conducted using the combined LI-6400XT/GC-MS system as described in  
209 section 2.2. Leaf temperatures (25, 27.5, 30.0, 32.5, 35, 37.5, and 40 °C) were established for 10  
210 min each with a thermal desorption tube sample collected for each temperature ( $50\text{-}75 \text{ ml min}^{-1} \times$   
211 10 min). Blank tubes were also collected without a leaf in the enclosure at the initial temperature  
212 of 25 °C at the beginning of the experiment. Is emissions and Pn were quantified from 5 young-  
213 mature leaves from intact branches in the field (one leaf per individual).

214

### 215 **2.4 Pn combined with Is and methanol emissions as a function of leaf age in *V. guianensis***

216 In addition to being highly abundant in disturbed Amazon secondary forests (Mesquita, 2000), *V.*  
217 *guianensis* was selected because of its high leaf development rates, which produce two new  
218 apposing leaves roughly every month (G. Martins, personal communication). Leaves used were  
219 classified in three stages: young, young-mature, and mature. For all plants, young leaves  
220 occurred at the top of the branch or the first leaf stage, young-mature leaves occurring in the

221 second leaf stage, and mature leaves occurring in the third leaf stage. For each leaf age  
222 experiment conducted during July 2014 in the field laboratory (six total individuals, one  
223 experiment per day), large branches roughly 1 m tall were detached from the tree around noon  
224 and immediately placed and recut in tap water before being transported to the field laboratory  
225 and analyzed for gas exchange within 15 minutes of being cut. Upon arriving in the laboratory,  
226 branches were placed under an LED plant growth light with between 300-600  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$   
227 photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) at branch height. As air temperature of the laboratory  
228 was roughly 25 °C, the PAR and air temperature environment in the laboratory was likely lower  
229 than the natural conditions under which the branch was removed. Leaf gas exchange  
230 measurements were initiated by placing a young leaf (first leaf stage) in the enclosure of a  
231 portable photosynthesis system (LI-6400XT, LI-COR Inc., USA) interfaced with a proton  
232 transfer reaction – mass spectrometer (PTR-MS, Ionicon Analytik, Austria) as previously  
233 described (Jardine et al., 2014). Is and methanol emissions were quantified using the mass to  
234 charge ratios m/z 69 and 33 respectively using PTR-MS, while Pn, stomatal conductance, and  
235 transpiration rates were quantified using the LI-6400XT. For each leaf age experiment, a single  
236 young leaf (first leaf stage), young-mature leaf (second leaf stage), and mature leaf (third leaf  
237 stage) were sequentially placed inside the chamber for 15 min each. Before and after each leaf  
238 measurement, background measurements were collected for several minutes with an empty leaf  
239 chamber. Thus, the time required for each leaf age experiment was roughly one hour beginning  
240 around noon, during July of 2014. These leaf measurements were carried out under constant  
241 PAR flux ( $1000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ), leaf temperature (30 °C), and reference [CO<sub>2</sub>] (400 ppm).

242

### 243 **3 Results and Discussion**

#### 244 **3.1 Ambient Concentrations of Is above the Secondary Forest Canopy**

245 To evaluate for the first time the potential role of secondary forests as source of Is to the lower  
246 tropical troposphere, we measured daytime ambient concentrations of Is at the top of a ~25 m  
247 canopy in the ZF3 rainforest fragment site (Gascon et al., 2001). Daytime ambient Is  
248 concentrations above secondary forest canopy at ZF3 were high (>10 ppb) and increased from  
249 10.0 ppb at 11:38 to 10.9 ppb by 12:30. This was followed by a decrease to 10.5 ppb by 13:03,



250 possibly due to the reduction of light and temperature from afternoon cloud formation. As Is  
251 concentrations from primary forests in the Amazon have been reported between 6-10 ppb  
252 (Jardine et al., 2012b;Karl et al., 2009), these observations are consistent with the idea that  
253 tropical secondary forests represent an important source of Is in the lower troposphere.

254

### 255 **3.2 Emission Responses to Light**

256 In order to investigate the possibility that the highly abundant pantropical pioneer species *V.*  
257 *guianensis* dedicates a significant fraction of Pn to volatile isoprenoid emissions to the  
258 atmosphere, we first conducted controlled light experiments on intact branches in the field using  
259 a new portable photosynthesis and volatile organic compound emission system based on thermal  
260 desorption GC-MS (Jardine et al., 2015). The results show that during the 2014 rainy season in  
261 the central Amazon (13-May-2014), light-stimulation of Pn up to 15  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  in young-  
262 mature leaves were associated with Is emissions which continued to increase with light up to the  
263 maximum PAR intensity (2000  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) where emission rates were 30  $\text{nmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ . These  
264 emission rates are higher than those reported by Harley *et al.*, 2004 of roughly 11  $\text{nmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$   
265 from a *V. guianensis* leaf in the National Forest Tapajós, near Santarém, Brazil (Harley et al.,  
266 2004). This emission rate is similar however, with Is emissions observed by PTR-MS in this  
267 study during the 2014 dry season which ranged from 20-45  $\text{nmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  under standard  
268 conditions of PAR and leaf temperature, and up to 80  $\text{nmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  at maximum PAR fluxes of  
269 3000  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  (see **Fig. 2**).

270

271 Although GC-MS results confirm that *V. guianensis* is a strong Is emitting species, Is collections  
272 on thermal desorption tubes at each environmental light level represent the average emission rate  
273 during each 10 min sample collection. Therefore, to analyze the relationship between Pn and Is  
274 emissions as a function of PAR in greater temporal detail, real-time PTR-MS measurements of Is  
275 emissions were collected simultaneously with real-time Pn measurements (**Fig. 2a**). The PTR-  
276 MS system was installed in the field laboratory and detached branches of *V. guianensis* growing  
277 just outside of the laboratory were utilized. Similar to the GC-MS measurements, *V. guianensis*  
278 showed negligible Is emissions in the dark where Pn was negative (likely due to mitochondrial  
279 respiration and the absence of photosynthesis). Moreover, upon first switching on the light, Pn

280 sharply increased from slightly negative in the dark to around  $5.0 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  at a PAR flux of  
281  $100 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ . With every increase in PAR up to the maximum of  $3000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ , Is  
282 emissions continued to increase without any sign of saturation. In contrast, although Pn also  
283 increased with PAR, it essentially saturated at PAR fluxes above  $2000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ . Thus, when  
284 carbon flux emitted as Is was plotted against Pn, a strong non-linear relationship was observed  
285 (**Fig. 2b**). As Pn increased with PAR, the fraction of Pn dedicated to Is emissions increased up to  
286 1.9%. This non-linear effect could not be explained by an increase in leaf temperature as PAR  
287 increased; throughout the range of PAR values, leaf temperatures remained between  $30 \pm 1 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ .

288  
289 In light of the non-linear relationship between the fraction of Pn dedicated to Is emissions and Pn  
290 for the pioneer species *V. guianensis*, we analyzed previously reported light-dependent  
291 monoterpene data from the abundant pantropical pioneer species *C. sciadophylla* for a similar  
292 non-linear relationship (Jardine et al., 2015). The results of the *C. sciadophylla* reanalysis also  
293 revealed a strong non-linear relationship between the fraction of Pn emitted as monoterpenes and  
294 Pn during controlled light experiments (graph not shown). The fraction of Pn dedicated to  
295 monoterpene emissions continued to increase with PAR up to 1.9% at maximum PAR. Thus,  
296 both *V. guianensis* and *C. sciadophylla* dedicate roughly 2% of Pn to volatile isoprenoid  
297 emissions at  $30 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  leaf temperature and show a strong increase in the fraction of Pn dedicated to  
298 volatile isoprenoid emissions as PAR increases. These observations are consistent with a  
299 growing body of evidence that the fraction of assimilated carbon transformed to volatile  
300 isoprenoids increases with leaf energetic status (including high light and low atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$   
301 concentrations) (Morfopoulos et al., 2014). While not captured by common Is emission  
302 algorithms, the increased allocation of Pn to volatile isoprenoid emissions is captured by  
303 energetic models of Is emissions (Morfopoulos et al., 2014). These observations imply that the  
304 functional roles of volatile isoprenoids are particularly important under high light conditions and  
305 could potentially be explained by a competition between photosynthesis and the MEP pathway  
306 for adenosine triphosphate (ATP) and nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADPH)  
307 generated by the light reactions of photosynthesis (Grote et al., 2014).

308  
309 Under low light conditions, the Benson-Calvin cycle dominates the consumption of ATP and  
310 NADPH resulting in relatively large increases in Pn with a correspondingly small increase in

311 volatile isoprenoid production. In contrast, under light saturated conditions for Pn, excess ATP  
312 and NADPH are consumed by the MEP pathway resulting in a relatively small increase in Pn  
313 with a correspondingly large increase in volatile isoprenoid production. Finally, the Kok effect  
314 may further contribute to this non-linear relationship at low light levels (Sharp et al., 1984). Low  
315 PAR fluxes around the light compensation point for Pn have been shown to partially suppress  
316 mitochondrial respiration which results in a relatively small increase in gross photosynthesis and  
317 a correspondingly large increase in Pn. Thus, at low light levels, this would further contribute to  
318 a relatively large increase in Pn with a correspondingly small increase in Is emissions.

319

### 320 **3.3 Emission Responses to Temperature**

321 A strong uncoupling of Is emissions and Pn was observed as a function of leaf temperature in  
322 each of the *V. guianensis* leaves studied from 5 individuals (**Fig. 3**). For 3 of the 5 leaves, Pn  
323 increased together with temperature and showed a clear optimum temperature of 30-32.5 °C and  
324 decreased at higher temperatures. The other two leaves showed decreases in Pn as temperatures  
325 increased above 25 °C. Thus, a relatively high standard deviation occurred at the lowest leaf  
326 temperature (25 °C) and a clear optimum in Pn between 30-32.5 °C was generally not observable  
327 from the average. Nonetheless, above 30-32.5°C, all 5 leaves showed a strong decrease in Pn.

328 In contrast, Is emissions from all 5 leaves increased with leaf temperatures above 25 °C; Is  
329 emissions continued to increase even while Pn was strongly suppressed up to the highest leaf  
330 temperatures studied (40 °C). Therefore, distinct temperature optima for Pn (30.0-32.5 °C) and Is  
331 (>40 °C) exists for *V. guianensis* leaves. This classic uncoupling has been shown to be  
332 influenced by the use of 'alternate' Is carbon sources including potential extrachloroplastic  
333 substrates (Rosenstiel et al., 2004; Loreto et al., 2004; Karl et al., 2002) as well as the integration  
334 of photorespiratory substrates into the Calvin Cycle and the re-assimilation of internally  
335 produced CO<sub>2</sub> (e.g. respiration, photorespiration) (Jardine et al., 2014; Jardine et al., 2010). At the

336 highest leaf temperature studied (40 °C), 7% of the Pn on average was emitted from *V.*  
337 *guianensis* leaves in the form of Is.

338  
339 Interestingly, *V. guianensis* also produces large quantities of red latex as an herbivore deterrent  
340 (Almeida-Cortez and Melo-de-Pinna, 2006). Although latex, or cis-polyisoprene, is produced  
341 within the cytosol by the mevalonate pathway whereas Is is produced within the chloroplasts by  
342 the MEP pathway, exchange of common intermediates such as isopentenyl diphosphate (IDP)  
343 may occur (Chow et al., 2007). These data build on previous studies in Asia, which demonstrated  
344 that latex producing trees can be strong emitters of volatile isoprenoids (Wang et al., 2007; Baker  
345 et al., 2005).

#### 346 **3.4 Pn combined with Is and methanol emissions as a function of leaf age in *V. guianensis***

347 A well-defined pattern of photosynthesis and Is /methanol emissions was observed according the  
348 leaf age of *V. guianensis* as shown in real-time during two example leaf age experiments (**Fig. 4**)  
349 and as an average of six leaf age experiments (**Fig. 5**). The results show that young leaves had  
350 low Pn rates ( $2.7 \pm 2.2 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) high methanol emissions ( $24 \pm 13 \text{ nmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) but low  
351 to undetectable Is emissions ( $2.1 \pm 0.2 \text{ nmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ). In contrast, young-mature leaves had  
352 high Pn rates ( $12.9 \pm 5.2 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) low methanol emissions ( $3.3 \pm 1.5 \text{ nmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) but  
353 high Is emissions ( $35.7 \pm 9.1 \text{ nmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ). In addition, mature leaves also showed the same  
354 pattern as young-mature leaves with high Pn rates ( $10.6 \pm 5.2 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) low methanol  
355 emissions ( $3.0 \pm 1.1 \text{ nmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) but high Is emissions ( $39.8 \pm 6.0 \text{ nmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ).

356  
357 There is a wide range of morphological characteristic, chemical composition and physiological  
358 activities of leaves depending on the developmental stage of the plant or tissue (Forrest and  
359 Miller-Rushing, 2010; Richardson et al., 2013). In the case of photosynthesis, increased light  
360 harvesting components, electron transport rates, and carboxylation efficiency occur in parallel  
361 with the growth and development of leaves (Reich et al., 2009; Kikuzawa, 1995; Merilo et al.,  
362 2009). The lower Pn rates observed in young *V. guianensis* leaves compared to mature leaves  
363 (**Fig. 5**) is a pattern that is routinely observed in numerous studies (Alves et al., 2014; Reich et al.,  
364 1991). The relationship between photosynthetic activity and leaf development can be explained,

365 in part, by the development of chloroplasts (Massad et al., 2012;Hikosaka, 2003). Previous  
366 studies have confirmed increased levels of amino acids, proteins, nucleic acids and pigments  
367 during leaf development, together with greater rates of carboxylation (Lohman et al.,  
368 1994;Buchanan-Wollaston and Ainsworth, 1997;Egli and Schmid, 1999). Is from *V. guianensis*  
369 leaves observed in this study also followed a similar developmental pattern with that of Pn rates.  
370 This result is consistent with previous observations that in the early stages of leaf growth,  
371 photoassimilates tend to be partitioned towards growth compounds at the expense of defense  
372 compounds (Massad et al., 2012). This behavior can partially be explained by a limitation in  
373 substrate for Is in young leaves because photosynthesis is one of the main processes responsible  
374 for providing the required carbon intermediates, reducing equivalents, and ATP needed to  
375 produce dimethylallyl pyrophosphate (DMAPP) required for Is biosynthesis (Loivamaki et al.,  
376 2007;Sun et al., 2013). On the other hand, the demand for DMAPP is very high during leaf  
377 expansion because this compound is essential for the synthesis of all plant isoprenoids including  
378 photosynthetic pigments (Hannoufa and Hossain, 2012;Domonkos et al., 2013;Eisenreich et al.,  
379 2004;Opitz et al., 2014). Thus, due to the limited availability of DMAPP in young rapidly  
380 expanding leaves, a competition occurs for this substrate such that a larger fraction is allocated  
381 towards photosynthetic pigments (Rasulov et al., 2014). However, once the photosynthetic  
382 machinery is in place, a larger fraction of DMAPP may be dedicated to Is production and  
383 emissions (Rasulov et al., 2014). Once the photosynthetic machinery is established, high Is  
384 production rates may help protect against photoinhibition and photooxidation by consuming  
385 excess energy and reducing equivalents during conditions of light saturation for photosynthesis.  
386 Moreover, the antioxidant properties of Is have been well demonstrated (Jardine et al.,  
387 2012a;Vickers et al., 2009a;Loreto et al., 2001;Affek and Yakir, 2002). Is production lowers  
388 lipid peroxidation, quenches reactive oxygen species, and protects photosynthesis under  
389 oxidative stress (Loreto and Velikova, 2001). Previous studies have demonstrated the protective  
390 role of Is for photosynthesis during high leaf temperature stress (Sharkey et al., 2001) and a  
391 potential antioxidant mechanism was supported by the detection of Is oxidation products for  
392 high-temperature stress (Jardine et al., 2012a;Jardine et al., 2013).

393

394 In contrast to Pn and Is, emissions of methanol from *V. guianensis* leaves were eight times higher  
395 in young leaves than in mature leaves (**Fig. 5**), similar to patterns found in the literature from

396 leaves of mid-latitude trees (Harley et al., 2007;Nemecek-Marshall et al., 1995;Hüve et al.,  
397 2007). Emissions of methanol have been closely associated with leaf growth rates (Hüve et al.,  
398 2007) caused primarily by the expansion of cell walls (Fall, 2003). As a consequence, young  
399 rapidly expanding leaves have consistently been observed to have higher methanol emissions  
400 than mature leaves (Hüve et al., 2007;Nemecek-Marshall et al., 1995). Methanol production is  
401 thought to be initiated during pectin demethylation reactions catalyzed by the enzyme pectin  
402 methylesterase (Bai et al., 2014). In this reaction, the hydrolysis of galacturonic acid methyl  
403 esters strengthens the cell wall while liberating methanol as a by-product (Hüve et al.,  
404 2007;Harley et al., 2007;Bai et al., 2014;Hanson and Roje, 2001). High rates of methanol  
405 emission may be associated with higher catalytic activity of this enzyme (Galbally and Kirstine,  
406 2002;Hüve et al., 2007). In addition to growth processes, high methanol emissions have also  
407 been observed during stress and senescence processes (Cosgrove, 2005, 1999), possibly also  
408 mediated by pectin demethylation reactions during physicochemical changes to cell walls. Thus,  
409 the high methanol emissions from young leaves of *V. guianensis* may be due to both growth and  
410 stress processes.

411

### 412 **3.5 Potential Roles of Volatile Isoprenoids and Methanol in Secondary Tropical Ecosystems**

413 High emission rates of volatile isoprenoids have been observed from dominant central Amazon  
414 pioneer species including *V. guianensis* (this study) and *C. sciadophylla* (Jardine et al., 2015)  
415 as well early successional species in central Africa (Klinger et al., 1998). Although a  
416 systematic survey of pioneer tree species in the tropics is needed, the potential for  
417 widespread occurrence of Is emissions from secondary forest tree species is supported by the  
418 single mid-day set of observations of high ambient Is concentrations (11.0 ppbv) above a diverse  
419 secondary rainforest canopy in the central Amazon. The observations of increased Pn allocation  
420 to volatile isoprenoid emissions as a function of light intensity provides additional support for a  
421 functional role of volatile isoprenoid biosynthesis in minimizing photoinhibition by consuming  
422 excess photosynthetic energy and reducing equivalents (Morfopoulos et al., 2014) as well as  
423 other potential direct and indirect antioxidant activities (Jardine et al., 2012a;Vickers et al.,  
424 2009a;Velikova and Loreto, 2005).

425

426 The non-linear relationship between Is emissions and Pn in *V. guianensis* leaves is consistent  
427 with a suppression of mitochondrial respiration at low light (Sharp et al., 1984) and an increased  
428 dedication of photoassimilated carbon to Is biosynthesis via the methylerythritol 4-phosphate  
429 (MEP) pathway under light saturating conditions of Pn, possibly due to the utilization of excess  
430 available energy and reducing equivalents (Morfopoulos et al., 2014). These observations are  
431 consistent with volatile isoprenoids offering substantial protection to the photosynthetic  
432 machinery against photoinhibition and oxidative damage under stress conditions such as high-  
433 light and leaf temperature environments that are regularly experienced by secondary forests. In  
434 the case of *V. guianensis*, we observed that Is emissions and photosynthesis rates increase  
435 together throughout leaf development while methanol emissions decreased. Although not easily  
436 distinguished in the present data set due to the low temporal resolution of leaf development  
437 observations (roughly monthly resolved ages categorized into young, young-mature, and  
438 mature), Pn has been shown to precede Is emissions in young developing leaves by several days  
439 to several weeks (Monson et al., 1994;Kuzma and Fall, 1993;Grinspoon et al., 1991). Methanol  
440 emission patterns are also consistent to previous observations which have shown strong positive  
441 relationships between leaf expansion rates and methanol emissions (Grinspoon et al., 1991).  
442 Similar observations have been made at the ecosystem scale in a mixed hardwood forest in  
443 northern Michigan, US during the spring growing season where a strong enhancement in  
444 ecosystem emissions of methanol were observed together with an increase in leaf area index  
445 (Karl et al., 2003).

446

#### 447 **4. Conclusion**

448 The findings of this study show that abundant secondary rainforest tree species (e.g. *V.*  
449 *guianensis* and *C. sciadophylla*) contribute high emissions of volatile isoprenoids to the  
450 atmosphere that represent up to 2% of Pn under the standard leaf temperature of 30 °C and up to  
451 7% under 40 °C, the carbon and energy costs notwithstanding. Thus, the hypothesis that fast  
452 growing pioneer tree species in secondary tropical forests do not produce volatile isoprenoids,  
453 and instead dedicate these carbon and energy resources to enhanced growth and respiration  
454 demands, is not supported.

455

456 High emission rates of volatile isoprenoids have been observed from dominant central Amazon  
457 pioneer species including *V. guianensis* (this study) and *C. sciadophylla* (Jardine et al., 2015)  
458 as well early successional species in central Africa (Klinger et al., 1998). Although a  
459 systematic survey of pioneer tree species in the Amazon is needed, the potential for  
460 widespread occurrence of Is emissions from secondary forest tree species is supported by the  
461 single mid-day set of observations of high ambient Is concentrations (11.0 ppbv) above a diverse  
462 secondary rainforest canopy in the central Amazon. The observations of increased Pn allocation  
463 to volatile isoprenoid emissions as a function of light intensity provides additional support for a  
464 functional role of volatile isoprenoid biosynthesis in minimizing photoinhibition by consuming  
465 excess photosynthetic energy and reducing equivalents (Morfopoulos et al., 2014) as well as  
466 other potential direct and indirect antioxidant activities (Jardine et al., 2012a; Vickers et al.,  
467 2009a; Velikova and Loreto, 2005). Together with previous studies, our observations support a  
468 functional role for methanol production during cell wall expansion during growth (Fall, 2003)  
469 and the establishment of photosynthetic machinery and a defense role for volatile isoprenoid  
470 production to help protect this photosynthetic machinery against the abiotic stresses (Vickers et  
471 al., 2009a) that are commonly experienced in secondary rainforest ecosystems.

472

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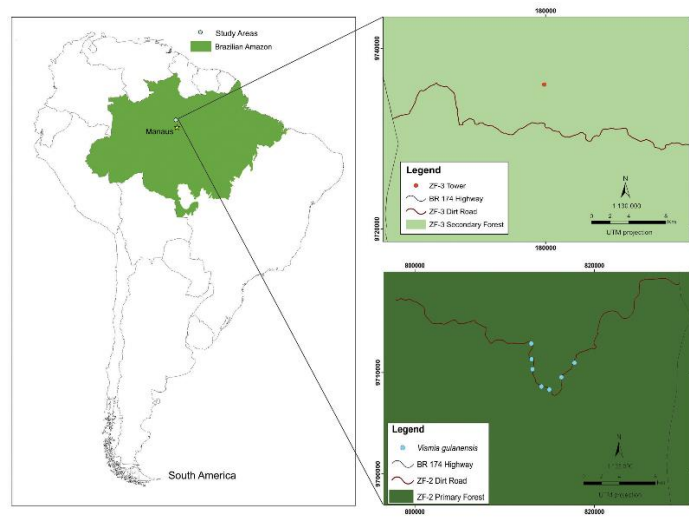
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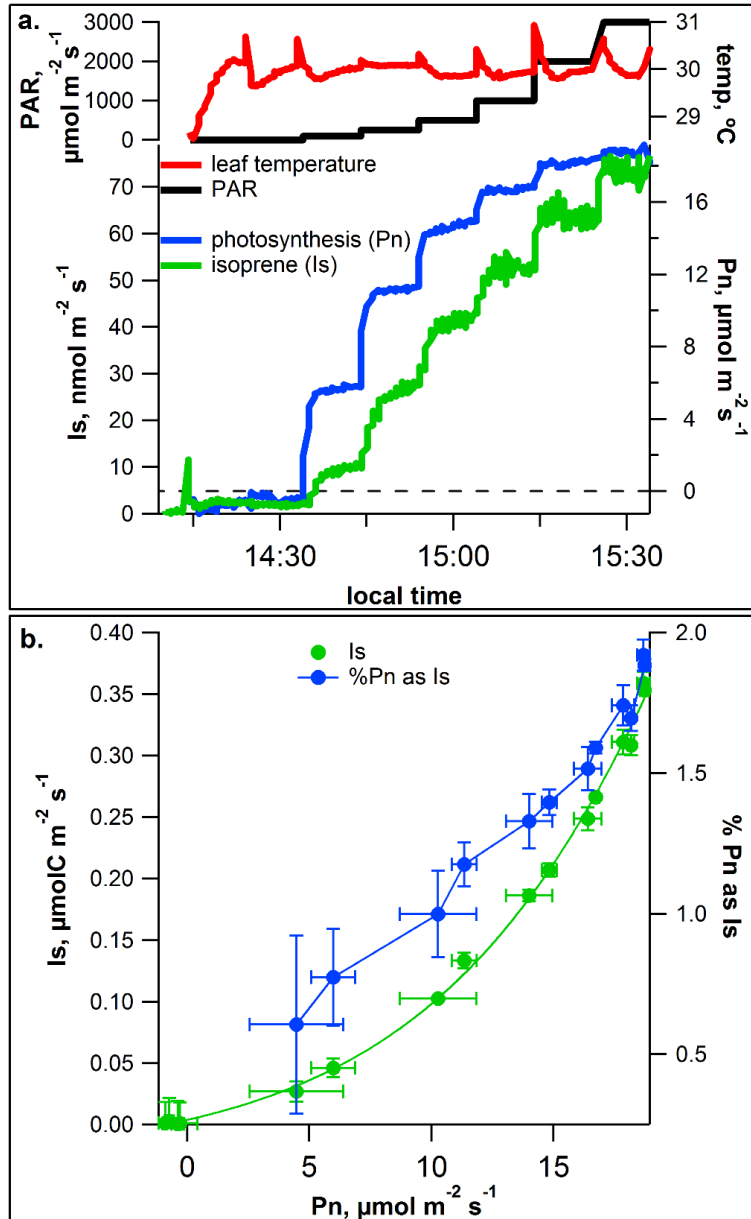
804 **Figures**



805

806 **Figure 1:** Location of the primary forest in the Reserva Biológica do Cuieras (ZF2) and the  
807 secondary forest (ZF3) in the biological dynamics of forest fragments project near Manaus,  
808 Brazil.

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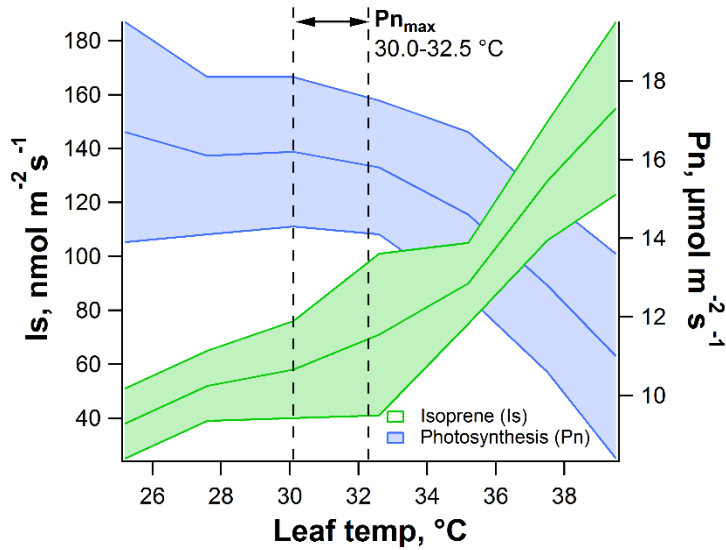
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811 **Figure 2:** Real-time leaf net photosynthesis and isoprene emissions as a function of light  
 812 intensity in the fast growing pantropical pioneer species *V. guianensis*. (a) Example time series  
 813 plot of net photosynthesis (Pn), isoprene emission (Is) together with leaf temperature (temp) and  
 814 photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) during a controlled light experiment under constant  
 815 leaf temperature (30  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  +/- 1  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ). (b) Isoprene emissions expressed in  $\mu\text{molC m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  plotted  
 816 against Pn ( $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ). Also shown is the % Pn dedicated to Is as a function of Pn. Note the  
 817 increase in percentage of net photosynthesis emitted as isoprene as a function of Pn. Pn was  
 818 determinate by a portable photosynthesis system (LI-6400XT, LI-COR Inc., USA) and Is by a  
 819 proton transfer reaction – mass spectrometer (PTR-MS, Ionicon Analytik, Austria).

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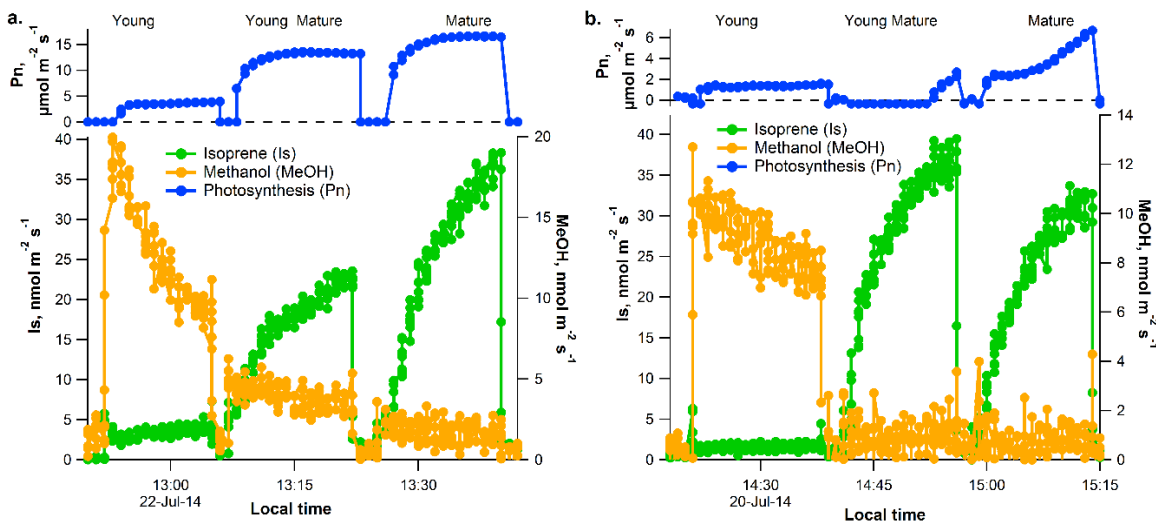
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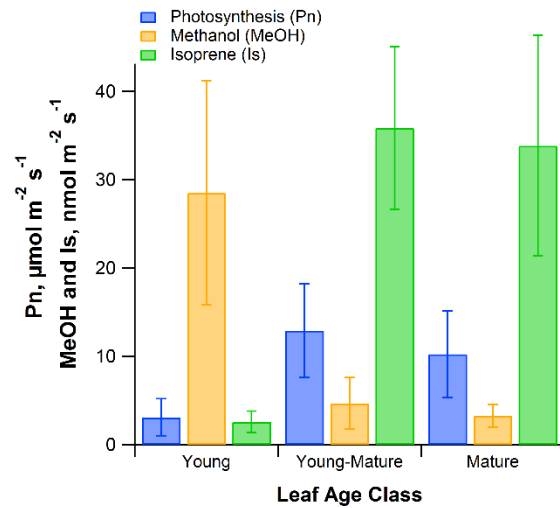


822 **Figure 3:** Average net photosynthesis (Pn) and isoprene emissions (Is) from *V. guianensis* leaves  
 823 as a function of leaf temperature (average  $\pm$  1 standard deviation,  $n = 5$  leaves) under constant  
 824 PAR of  $1000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  and 400 ppm reference  $[\text{CO}_2]$ . Note the decline in Pn and the increase  
 825 in Is with leaf temperature above  $30.0\text{-}32.5 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , where the majority of leaves showed an optimum  
 826 in Pn. Pn was determined with a portable photosynthesis system (LI-6400XT, LI-COR Inc.,  
 827 USA) and Is was determined using thermal desorption GC-MS.

828  
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830 **Figure 4:** Example leaf age experiments of net photosynthesis (Pn, blue circles), methanol  
 831 emissions (MeOH, orange circles) and isoprene emissions (Is, green circles) from two *V.*  
 832 *guianensis* individuals. For each plant shown in **a.** and **b.** a young, young mature, and mature  
 833 leaf were sequentially placed in the leaf enclosure for 15 min each after exposed to laboratory  
 834 conditions following transport from the field. Throughout the leaf age experiments, PAR, leaf  
 835 temperature and reference  $[\text{CO}_2]$  were held constant at  $1000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ,  $30 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  and 400 ppm,  
 836 respectively. Pn was determined by a portable photosynthesis system (LI-6400XT, LI-COR Inc.,  
 837 USA). Is and MeOH by a proton transfer reaction – mass spectrometer (PTR-MS, Ionicon  
 838 Analytik, Austria).  
 839



841

842 **Figure 5:** Average net photosynthesis rates (Pn, blue bars) together with leaf emissions of  
 843 Isoprene (Is, green bars) and methanol (MeOH, orange bars) for six *V. guianensis* individuals.  
 844 For each individual, volatile emissions and net photosynthesis rates were determined from  
 845 young, young-mature, and mature leaves. Error bars represent +/- one standard deviation (six  
 846 individuals, one branch per individual, one young, one young-mature, and one mature leaf per  
 847 branch). Pn was determined by a portable photosynthesis system (LI-6400XT, LI-COR Inc.,  
 848 USA). Is and MeOH by a proton transfer reaction – mass spectrometer (PTR-MS, Ionicon  
 849 Analytik, Austria).