

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 isoprene  
34 and methanol emissions from the abundant pantropical pioneer tree species *Vismia guianensis* and  
35 ambient isoprene concentrations above a diverse secondary forest in the central Amazon. As  
36 photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) was varied (0 to 3,000  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) under standard leaf  
37 temperature (30 °C), isoprene emissions from *V. guianensis* increased without saturation up to 80  
38  $\text{nmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ . A non-linear increase in isoprene emissions with respect to net photosynthesis (Pn)  
39 resulted with the fraction of Pn dedicated to isoprene emissions increasing with light intensity (up  
40 to 2% of Pn). Emission responses to temperature under standard light conditions (PAR of 1,000  
41  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) resulted in the classic uncoupling of isoprene emissions ( $T_{\text{opt,iso}} > 40$  °C) from net  
42 photosynthesis ( $T_{\text{opt,Pn}} = 30.0\text{-}32.5$  °C) with up to 7% of Pn emitted as isoprene at 40 °C. Under  
43 standard environmental conditions of PAR and leaf temperature, young *V. guianensis* leaves  
44 showed high methanol emissions, low Pn, and low isoprene emissions. In contrast, mature leaves  
45 showed high Pn, high isoprene emissions, and low methanol emissions, highlighting the  
46 differential control of leaf phenology over methanol and isoprene emissions. High daytime  
47 ambient isoprene concentrations (11 ppbv) were observed above a secondary Amazon rainforest  
48 suggesting that isoprene emissions are common among neotropical pioneer species. The results  
49 are not consistent with the initial hypothesis and support a functional role of methanol during leaf  
50 expansion and the establishment of photosynthetic machinery, and a protective role of isoprene for  
51 photosynthesis during high temperature extremes regularly experienced in secondary rainforest  
52 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 Amazon  
57 forest in South America is responsible for an estimated 15% of global terrestrial photosynthesis  
58 (Malhi et al., 2008). However, increased deforestation, degradation and natural disturbances have  
59 changed this scenario, exerting strong control on the evolution of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> (Pan et al.,  
60 2011;Malhi et al., 2008). A recent analysis of biomass dynamics revealed a long-term trend of  
61 increased mortality-driven shortening of carbon residence times in the Amazon forest (Brienen et  
62 al., 2015). This effect has been attributed to increased climate variability, as recurrent drought  
63 episodes occurred in the region (Phillips et al., 2009;Lewis et al., 2011). Amazon carbon sink  
64 suppression during the intense drought period in 2005 was associated with a decrease in biomass  
65 gain and increased vegetation mortality (Phillips et al., 2009). Changes in forest turnover rate can  
66 directly affect forest composition and structure; the creation of forest gaps leads to the release of  
67 suppressed trees and increased pioneer species recruitment rates (Bugmann, 2001). Tropical forest

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

73

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

90

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

98

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

116  
117 Although volatile isoprenoid emissions are highly species specific, methanol emissions appear to  
118 be a universal feature in plants attributed to the hydrolysis of cell wall methyl esters during changes  
119 in cell wall chemical and physical properties (Fall, 2003;Fall and Benson, 1996). Leaf methanol  
120 emissions have been shown to closely correlate with plant growth rates, especially at the early  
121 stages of leaf development with young leaves consistently observed to be higher emitters than  
122 mature leaves (Hüve et al., 2007;Nemecek-Marshall et al., 1995). In contrast, Is emission capacity  
123 has been reported to increase considerably throughout leaf development in close connection with  
124 photosynthetic capacity (Alves et al., 2014). However, phenological controls on both methanol  
125 and Is emissions have not been studied together in tropical plants.

126  
127 As a part of Observations and Modeling of the Green Ocean Amazon (GoAmazon 2014/5) (Martin  
128 et al., 2015), we hypothesized that despite the high carbon and energy costs that could otherwise  
129 be used for growth and maintenance, the highly abundant pantropical pioneer tree species *V.*

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

149  
150 Here we first present new *in situ* observations during 2014 of leaf Is emissions and Pn as a function  
151 of light intensity from *V. guianensis* in the central Amazon together with a reanalysis of light-  
152 dependent monoterpene emissions from *C. sciadophylla* leaves in relation to Pn (Jardine et  
153 al., 2015). Second, we present the results leaf Is emissions and Pn responses in *V. guianensis* as  
154 a function of leaf temperature during 2015. Third, by taking advantage of the rapidly developing  
155 leaves of *V. guianensis*, we also test the hypothesis that leaf phenology differentially impacts  
156 methanol versus isoprenoid emissions. Finally, in order to further evaluate the potential for  
157 secondary tropical forests to be important atmospheric sources of isoprene, we present limited  
158 measurements of ambient daytime Is concentrations above a secondary rainforest ecosystem in the  
159 central Amazon. We end by discussing the potential physiological roles of volatile isoprenoids and  
160 methanol in secondary tropical rainforest ecosystems.

161 **2. Material and methods**

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

170

171 **2.1 Ambient Concentrations of Is above the Secondary Forest Canopy**

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

180

181 **2.2 Emission Responses to Light**

182 Emission responses to light for *V. guianensis* leaves under constant leaf temperature (30 °C) and  
183 reference [CO<sub>2</sub>] (400 ppm) were collected both in the field on intact branches and in the lab on  
184 detached branches during July of 2014. Field observations of Is emissions and Pn for *V. guianensis*  
185 leaves as a function of PAR intensity (0-2000 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) under constant leaf temperature (30  
186 °C) were based on the coupling of the LI-6400XT with a portable thermal desorption tube sample  
187 collector as previously described (Jardine et al., 2015). Briefly, PAR values of 0, 100, 250, 500,  
188 1000, 2000 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> were established for 10 min each with a thermal desorption tube sample  
189 collected for each light level (75 ml min<sup>-1</sup> x 10 min). Blank tubes were also collected without a  
190 leaf in the enclosure at the beginning of the experiment when the light level was 0 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. Is  
191 emissions were quantified using a thermal desorption GC-MS as previously described (Jardine et

192 al., 2014). Emission responses to light were collected for two young and two young-mature leaves  
193 from intact branches in the field (one individual). In addition, light induced emission responses of  
194 detached branches (two individuals) were analyzed in the laboratory using PTR-MS. For these  
195 laboratory experiments, an additional light level of  $3000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  PAR was included to  
196 evaluate the saturation of Pn and Is emissions at high light intensities. Both the GC-MS and PTR-  
197 MS systems were calibrated to Is using dynamic dilution of a commercial compressed gas standard  
198 (2.0 ppm Is, Apel-Riemer Environmental). Monthly GC-MS calibrations through a period that  
199 encompassed the July 2014 and 2015 field experiments (Nov 2013 - July 2015) demonstrated a  
200 high precision of Is quantitation by GC-MS; Is m/z 67 calibration slopes showed a relative standard  
201 deviation of 19.2%.

202

### 203 **2.3 Emission Responses to Temperature**

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

213

### 214 **2.4 Pn combined with Is and methanol emissions as a function of leaf age in *V. guianensis***

215 In addition to being highly abundant in disturbed Amazon secondary forests (Mesquita, 2000), *V.*  
216 *guianensis* was selected because of its high leaf development rates, which produce two new  
217 apposing leaves roughly every month (G. Martins, personal communication). Leaves used were  
218 classified in three stages: young, young-mature, and mature. For all plants, young leaves occurred  
219 at the top of the branch or the first leaf stage, young-mature leaves occurring in the second leaf  
220 stage, and mature leaves occurring in the third leaf stage. For each leaf age experiment conducted  
221 during July 2014 in the field laboratory (six total individuals, one experiment per day), large  
222 branches roughly 1 m tall were detached from the tree around noon and immediately placed and

223 recut in tap water before being transported to the field laboratory and analyzed for gas exchange  
224 within 15 minutes of being cut. Upon arriving in the laboratory, branches were placed under an  
225 LED plant growth light with between 300-600  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  photosynthetically active radiation  
226 (PAR) at branch height. As air temperature of the laboratory was roughly 25 °C, the PAR and air  
227 temperature environment in the laboratory was likely lower than the natural conditions under  
228 which the branch was removed. Leaf gas exchange measurements were initiated by placing a  
229 young leaf (first leaf stage) in the enclosure of a portable photosynthesis system (LI-6400XT, LI-  
230 COR Inc., USA) interfaced with a proton transfer reaction – mass spectrometer (PTR-MS, Ionicon  
231 Analytik, Austria) as previously described (Jardine et al., 2014). Is and methanol emissions were  
232 quantified using the mass to charge ratios  $m/z$  69 and 33 respectively using PTR-MS, while Pn,  
233 stomatal conductance, and transpiration rates were quantified using the LI-6400XT. For each leaf  
234 age experiment, a single young leaf (first leaf stage), young-mature leaf (second leaf stage), and  
235 mature leaf (third leaf stage) were sequentially placed inside the chamber for 15 min each. Before  
236 and after each leaf measurement, background measurements were collected for several minutes  
237 with an empty leaf chamber. Thus, the time required for each leaf age experiment was roughly one  
238 hour beginning around noon, during July of 2014. These leaf measurements were carried out under  
239 constant PAR flux ( $1000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ), leaf temperature (30 °C), and reference  $[\text{CO}_2]$  (400 ppm).

240

### 241 **3 Results and Discussion**

#### 242 **3.1 Ambient Concentrations of Is above the Secondary Forest Canopy**

243 To evaluate for the first time the potential role of secondary forests as source of Is to the lower  
244 tropical troposphere, we measured daytime ambient concentrations of Is at the top of a ~25 m  
245 canopy in the ZF3 rainforest fragment site (Gascon et al., 2001). Daytime ambient Is  
246 concentrations above secondary forest canopy at ZF3 were high ( $>10$  ppb) and increased from  
247 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,  
248 possibly due to the reduction of light and temperature from afternoon cloud formation. As Is  
249 concentrations from primary forests in the Amazon have been reported between 6-10 ppb (Jardine  
250 et al., 2012b; Karl et al., 2009), these observations are consistent with the idea that tropical  
251 secondary forests represent an important source of Is in the lower troposphere.



252

### 253 **3.2 Emission Responses to Light**

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

267

268 Although GC-MS results confirm that *V. guianensis* is a strong Is emitting species, Is collections  
269 on thermal desorption tubes at each environmental light level represent the average emission rate  
270 during each 10 min sample collection. Therefore, to analyze the relationship between Pn and Is  
271 emissions as a function of PAR in greater temporal detail, real-time PTR-MS measurements of Is  
272 emissions were collected simultaneously with real-time Pn measurements (**Fig. 2a**). The PTR-MS  
273 system was installed in the field laboratory and detached branches of *V. guianensis* growing just  
274 outside of the laboratory were utilized. Similar to the GC-MS measurements, *V. guianensis* showed  
275 negligible Is emissions in the dark where Pn was negative (likely due to mitochondrial respiration  
276 and the absence of photosynthesis). Moreover, upon first switching on the light, Pn sharply  
277 increased from slightly negative in the dark to around  $5.0 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  at a PAR flux of  $100 \mu\text{mol}$   
278  $\text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ . With every increase in PAR up to the maximum of  $3000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ , Is emissions  
279 continued to increase without any sign of saturation. In contrast, although Pn also increased with  
280 PAR, it essentially saturated at PAR fluxes above  $2000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ . Thus, when carbon flux  
281 emitted as Is was plotted against Pn, a strong non-linear relationship was observed (**Fig. 2b**). As  
282 Pn increased with PAR, the fraction of Pn dedicated to Is emissions increased up to 1.9%. This

283 non-linear effect could not be explained by an increase in leaf temperature as PAR increased;  
284 throughout the range of PAR values, leaf temperatures remained between 30 +/- 1 °C.

285  
286 In light of the non-linear relationship between the fraction of Pn dedicated to Is emissions and Pn  
287 for the pioneer species *V. guianensis*, we analyzed previously reported light-dependent  
288 monoterpene data from the abundant pantropical pioneer species *C. sciadophylla* for a similar non-  
289 linear relationship (Jardine et al., 2015). The results of the *C. sciadophylla* reanalysis also revealed  
290 a strong non-linear relationship between the fraction of Pn emitted as monoterpenes and Pn during  
291 controlled light experiments (graph not shown). The fraction of Pn dedicated to monoterpene  
292 emissions continued to increase with PAR up to 1.9% at maximum PAR. Thus, both *V. guianensis*  
293 and *C. sciadophylla* dedicate roughly 2% of Pn to volatile isoprenoid emissions at 30 °C leaf  
294 temperature and show a strong increase in the fraction of Pn dedicated to volatile isoprenoid  
295 emissions as PAR increases. These observations are consistent with a growing body of evidence  
296 that the fraction of assimilated carbon transformed to volatile isoprenoids increases with leaf  
297 energetic status (including high light and low atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations) (Morfopoulos et  
298 al., 2014). While not captured by common Is emission algorithms, the increased allocation of Pn  
299 to volatile isoprenoid emissions is captured by energetic models of Is emissions (Morfopoulos et  
300 al., 2014). These observations imply that the functional roles of volatile isoprenoids are  
301 particularly important under high light conditions and could potentially be explained by a  
302 competition between photosynthesis and the MEP pathway for adenosine triphosphate (ATP) and  
303 nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADPH) generated by the light reactions of  
304 photosynthesis (Grote et al., 2014).

305  
306 Under low light conditions, the Benson-Calvin cycle dominates the consumption of ATP and  
307 NADPH resulting in relatively large increases in Pn with a correspondingly small increase in  
308 volatile isoprenoid production. In contrast, under light saturated conditions for Pn, excess ATP  
309 and NADPH are consumed by the MEP pathway resulting in a relatively small increase in Pn with  
310 a correspondingly large increase in volatile isoprenoid production. Finally, the Kok effect may  
311 further contribute to this non-linear relationship at low light levels (Sharp et al., 1984). Low PAR  
312 fluxes around the light compensation point for Pn have been shown to partially suppress  
313 mitochondrial respiration which results in a relatively small increase in gross photosynthesis and

314 a correspondingly large increase in Pn. Thus, at low light levels, this would further contribute to a  
315 relatively large increase in Pn with a correspondingly small increase in Is emissions.

316

### 317 **3.3 Emission Responses to Temperature**

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

325 In contrast, Is emissions from all 5 leaves increased with leaf temperatures above 25 °C; Is  
326 emissions continued to increase even while Pn was strongly suppressed up to the highest leaf  
327 temperatures studied (40 °C). Therefore, distinct temperature optima for Pn (30.0-32.5 °C) and Is  
328 (>40 °C) exists for *V. guianensis* leaves. This classic uncoupling has been shown to be influenced  
329 by the use of 'alternate' Is carbon sources including potential extrachloroplastic substrates  
330 (Rosenstiel et al., 2004;Loreto et al., 2004;Karl et al., 2002) as well as the integration of  
331 photorespiratory substrates into the Calvin Cycle and the re-assimilation of internally produced  
332 CO<sub>2</sub> (e.g. respiration, photorespiration) (Jardine et al., 2014;Jardine et al., 2010). At the highest  
333 leaf temperature studied (40 °C), 7% of the Pn on average was emitted from *V. guianensis* leaves  
334 in the form of Is.

335

336 Interestingly, *V. guianensis* also produces large quantities of red latex as an herbivore deterrent  
337 (Almeida-Cortez and Melo-de-Pinna, 2006). Although latex, or cis-polyisoprene, is produced  
338 within the cytosol by the mevalonate pathway whereas Is is produced within the chloroplasts by

339 the MEP pathway, exchange of common intermediates such as isopentenyl diphosphate (IDP) may  
340 occur (Chow et al., 2007). These data build on previous studies in Asia, which demonstrated that  
341 latex producing trees can be strong emitters of volatile isoprenoids (Wang et al., 2007; Baker et al.,  
342 2005).

### 343 **3.4 Pn combined with Is and methanol emissions as a function of leaf age in *V. guianensis***

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

353  
354 There is a wide range of morphological characteristic, chemical composition and physiological  
355 activities of leaves depending on the developmental stage of the plant or tissue (Forrest and Miller-  
356 Rushing, 2010; Richardson et al., 2013). In the case of photosynthesis, increased light harvesting  
357 components, electron transport rates, and carboxylation efficiency occur in parallel with the  
358 growth and development of leaves (Reich et al., 2009; Kikuzawa, 1995; Merilo et al., 2009). The  
359 lower Pn rates observed in young *V. guianensis* leaves compared to mature leaves (**Fig. 5**) is a  
360 pattern that is routinely observed in numerous studies (Alves et al., 2014; Reich et al., 1991). The  
361 relationship between photosynthetic activity and leaf development can be explained, in part, by  
362 the development of chloroplasts (Massad et al., 2012; Hikosaka, 2003). Previous studies have  
363 confirmed increased levels of amino acids, proteins, nucleic acids and pigments during leaf  
364 development, together with greater rates of carboxylation (Lohman et al., 1994; Buchanan-  
365 Wollaston and Ainsworth, 1997; Egli and Schmid, 1999). Is from *V. guianensis* leaves observed in  
366 this study also followed a similar developmental pattern with that of Pn rates. This result is  
367 consistent with previous observations that in the early stages of leaf growth, photoassimilates tend  
368 to be partitioned towards growth compounds at the expense of defense compounds (Massad et al.,

369 2012). This behavior can partially be explained by a limitation in substrate for Is in young leaves  
370 because photosynthesis is one of the main processes responsible for providing the required carbon  
371 intermediates, reducing equivalents, and ATP needed to produce dimethylallyl pyrophosphate  
372 (DMAPP) required for Is biosynthesis (Loivamaki et al., 2007;Sun et al., 2013). On the other hand,  
373 the demand for DMAPP is very high during leaf expansion because this compound is essential for  
374 the synthesis of all plant isoprenoids including photosynthetic pigments (Hannoufa and Hossain,  
375 2012;Domonkos et al., 2013;Eisenreich et al., 2004;Opitz et al., 2014). Thus, due to the limited  
376 availability of DMAPP in young rapidly expanding leaves, a competition occurs for this substrate  
377 such that a larger fraction is allocated towards photosynthetic pigments (Rasulov et al., 2014).  
378 However, once the photosynthetic machinery is in place, a larger fraction of DMAPP may be  
379 dedicated to Is production and emissions (Rasulov et al., 2014). Once the photosynthetic  
380 machinery is established, high Is production rates may help protect against photoinhibition and  
381 photooxidation by consuming excess energy and reducing equivalents during conditions of light  
382 saturation for photosynthesis. Moreover, the antioxidant properties of Is have been well  
383 demonstrated (Jardine et al., 2012a;Vickers et al., 2009a;Loreto et al., 2001;Affek and Yakir,  
384 2002). Is production lowers lipid peroxidation, quenches reactive oxygen species, and protects  
385 photosynthesis under oxidative stress (Loreto and Velikova, 2001). Previous studies have  
386 demonstrated the protective role of Is for photosynthesis during high leaf temperature stress  
387 (Sharkey et al., 2001) and a potential antioxidant mechanism was supported by the detection of Is  
388 oxidation products for high-temperature stress (Jardine et al., 2012a;Jardine et al., 2013).

389  
390 In contrast to Pn and Is, emissions of methanol from *V. guianensis* leaves were eight times higher  
391 in young leaves than in mature leaves (**Fig. 5**), similar to patterns found in the literature from  
392 leaves of mid-latitude trees (Harley et al., 2007;Nemecek-Marshall et al., 1995;Hüve et al., 2007).  
393 Emissions of methanol have been closely associated with leaf growth rates (Hüve et al., 2007)  
394 caused primarily by the expansion of cell walls (Fall, 2003). As a consequence, young rapidly  
395 expanding leaves have consistently been observed to have higher methanol emissions than mature  
396 leaves (Hüve et al., 2007;Nemecek-Marshall et al., 1995). Methanol production is thought to be  
397 initiated during pectin demethylation reactions catalyzed by the enzyme pectin methylesterase (Bai  
398 et al., 2014). In this reaction, the hydrolysis of galacturonic acid methyl esters strengthens the cell  
399 wall while liberating methanol as a by-product (Hüve et al., 2007;Harley et al., 2007;Bai et al.,

2014;Hanson and Roje, 2001). High rates of methanol emission may be associated with higher catalytic activity of this enzyme (Galbally and Kirstine, 2002;Hüve et al., 2007). In addition to growth processes, high methanol emissions have also been observed during stress and senescence processes (Cosgrove, 2005, 1999), possibly also mediated by pectin demethylation reactions during physicochemical changes to cell walls. Thus, the high methanol emissions from young leaves of *V. guianensis* may be due to both growth and stress processes.

406

### 407 **3.5 Potential Roles of Volatile Isoprenoids and Methanol in Secondary Tropical Ecosystems**

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

420

421 The non-linear relationship between Is emissions and Pn in *V. guianensis* leaves is consistent with a suppression of mitochondrial respiration at low light (Sharp et al., 1984) and an increased dedication of photoassimilated carbon to Is biosynthesis via the methylerythritol 4-phosphate (MEP) pathway under light saturating conditions of Pn, possibly due to the utilization of excess available energy and reducing equivalents (Morfopoulos et al., 2014). These observations are consistent with volatile isoprenoids offering substantial protection to the photosynthetic machinery against photoinhibition and oxidative damage under stress conditions such as high-light and leaf temperature environments that are regularly experienced by secondary forests. In the case of *V. guianensis*, we observed that Is emissions and photosynthesis rates increase together throughout leaf development while methanol emissions decreased. Although not easily distinguished in the

431 present data set due to the low temporal resolution of leaf development observations (roughly  
432 monthly resolved ages categorized into young, young-mature, and mature), Pn has been shown to  
433 proceed Is emissions in young developing leaves by several days to several weeks (Monson et al.,  
434 1994;Kuzma and Fall, 1993;Grinspoon et al., 1991). Methanol emission patterns are also  
435 consistent to previous observations which have shown strong positive relationships between leaf  
436 expansion rates and methanol emissions (Grinspoon et al., 1991). Similar observations have been  
437 made at the ecosystem scale in a mixed hardwood forest in northern Michigan, US during the  
438 spring growing season where a strong enhancement in ecosystem emissions of methanol were  
439 observed together with an increase in leaf area index (Karl et al., 2003).

440

#### 441 **4. Conclusion**

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

448

449 High emission rates of volatile isoprenoids have been observed from dominant central Amazon  
450 pioneer species including *V. guianensis* (this study) and *C. sciadophylla* (Jardine et al., 2015)  
451 as well early successional species in central Africa (Klinger et al., 1998). Although a  
452 systematic survey of pioneer tree species in the Amazon is needed, the potential for  
453 widespread occurrence of Is emissions from secondary forest tree species is supported by the single  
454 mid-day set of observations of high ambient Is concentrations (11.0 ppbv) above a diverse  
455 secondary rainforest canopy in the central Amazon. The observations of increased Pn allocation  
456 to volatile isoprenoid emissions as a function of light intensity provides additional support for a  
457 functional role of volatile isoprenoid biosynthesis in minimizing photoinhibition by consuming  
458 excess photosynthetic energy and reducing equivalents (Morfopoulos et al., 2014) as well as other  
459 potential direct and indirect antioxidant activities (Jardine et al., 2012a;Vickers et al.,  
460 2009a;Velikova and Loreto, 2005). Together with previous studies, our observations support a

461 functional role for methanol production during cell wall expansion during growth (Fall, 2003) and  
462 the establishment of photosynthetic machinery and a defense role for volatile isoprenoid  
463 production to help protect this photosynthetic machinery against the abiotic stresses (Vickers et  
464 al., 2009a) that are commonly experienced in secondary rainforest ecosystems.

465

## 466 **Acknowledgements**

467 The data used in this manuscript is available for download for research and educational purposes  
468 at the following web link maintained by Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory  
469 (<https://www.dropbox.com/sh/hr5ucem69m6dbhq/AABIK5QrnfRMg4UhNLWnAJYya?dl=0>).

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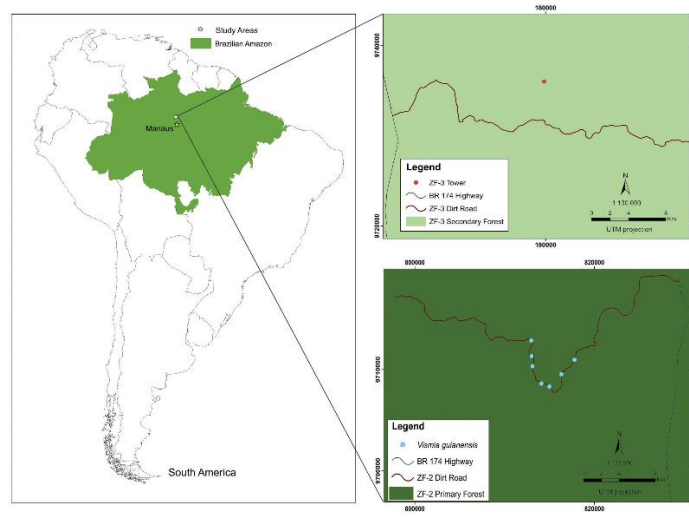
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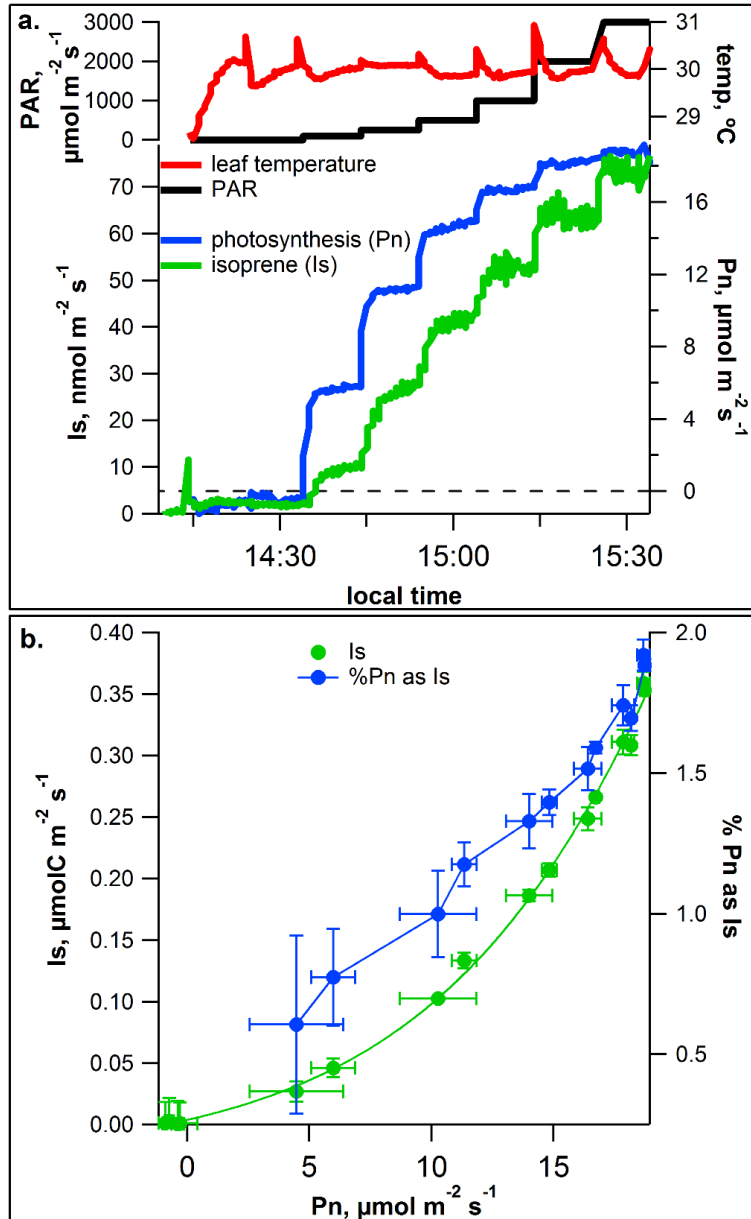
794 **Figures**



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

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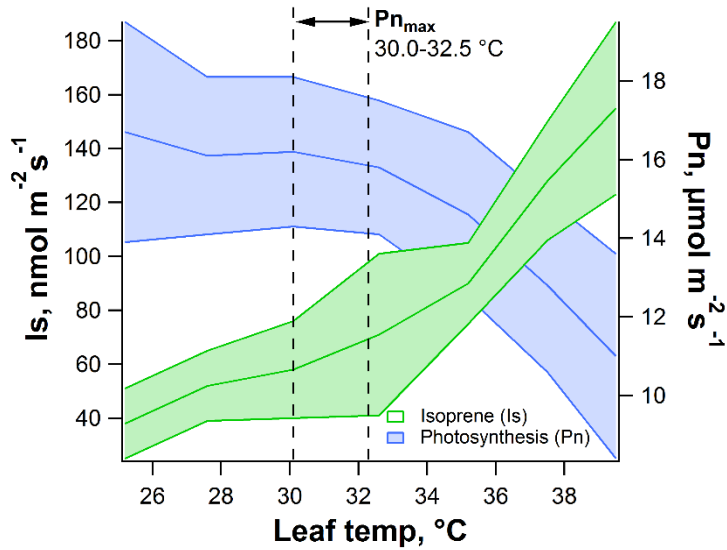
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800 **Figure 2:** Real-time leaf net photosynthesis and isoprene emissions as a function of light intensity  
 801 in the fast growing pantropical pioneer species *V. guianensis*. (a) Example time series plot of net  
 802 photosynthesis (Pn), isoprene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

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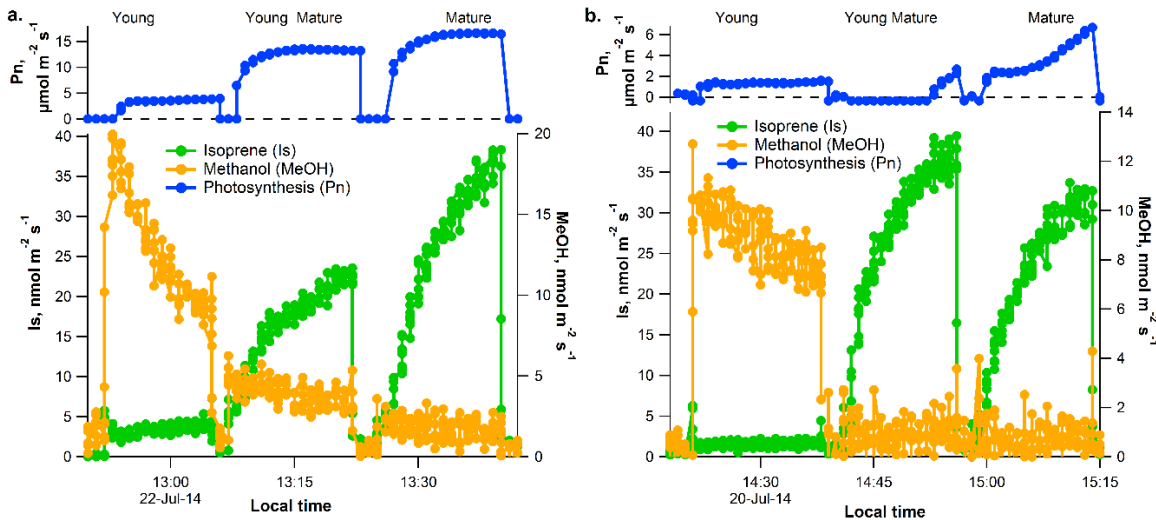
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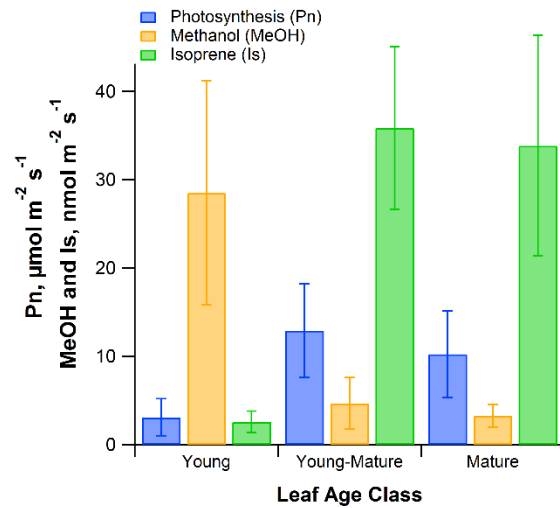


810 **Figure 3:** Average net photosynthesis (Pn) and isoprene emissions (Is) from *V. guianensis* leaves  
 811 as a function of leaf temperature (average  $\pm$  1 standard deviation,  $n = 5$  leaves) under constant  
 812 PAR of  $1000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  and 400 ppm reference  $[\text{CO}_2]$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

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818 **Figure 4:** Example leaf age experiments of net photosynthesis (Pn, blue circles), methanol  
 819 emissions (MeOH, orange circles) and isoprene emissions (Is, green circles) from two *V.*  
 820 *guianensis* individuals. For each plant shown in **a.** and **b.** a young, young mature, and mature leaf  
 821 were sequentially placed in the leaf enclosure for 15 min each after exposed to laboratory  
 822 conditions following transport from the field. Throughout the leaf age experiments, PAR, leaf  
 823 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,  
 824 respectively. Pn was determined by a portable photosynthesis system (LI-6400XT, LI-COR Inc.,  
 825 USA). Is and MeOH by a proton transfer reaction – mass spectrometer (PTR-MS, Ionicon  
 826 Analytik, Austria).  
 827



829

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