

# Reply to Anonymous Referee #1

We thank the reviewer for their thoughtful and constructive comments. We have addressed all comments below, and we believe that the manuscript has improved with their suggestions. Reviewer comments are below (grey italicized), with author responses indented. Changes and additions to the manuscript are included, in bold.

*Riches et al. present a method characterization technique that combines established methods in plant physiology for measuring photosynthesis with established off-line and on-line trace gas measurements. They couple a Licor, Inc. portable photosynthesis system (LI-6800) with two different approaches for measuring plant volatile emissions: adsorbent cartridge sampling followed by off-line thermodesorption GC-MS analysis and on-line trace gas monitoring with a ToF-CIMS using iodide ionization. The paper outlines the approach they used to couple these measurements, characterizes the chemical background of the measurement approach, and present a couple example “case studies” investigating plant volatile emissions as a function of temperature. They also validate the method by comparing CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation measured with the LI-6800 directly with CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation measured with an external CO<sub>2</sub> gas analyzer. The measurement approach and characterization are novel and would help the community address important questions about changing volatile emissions in a changing climate. The paper could be drastically improved with a few moderate revisions focusing on 1) better placing their results in context with other published results and 2) a more thorough analysis of the speciated monoterpene emissions which is data they have but was not presented. These concerns are described in more detail below. If these items are addressed, the paper would more adequately showcase the viability and utility of the measurement approach for addressing some of the major challenges in the field, including a better understanding of climate change effects on emission rates of different monoterpene isomers. I recommend publication after these moderate revisions.*

We appreciate the reviewer’s thorough involvement with the improvement of the manuscript, and their understanding of the importance of a thorough characterization of this measurement approach. We are pleased to address their concerns and comments below.

## MAJOR COMMENTS

*Major1. Authors should indicate somewhere what the rationale was for selecting the plants they used in this study. This discussion should also include information on what is already known about their emissions, and how representative/relevant these plants might be overall. This will help place their results in context with the scientific literature on plant volatile emissions.*

We have expanded upon our rationale and the literature surrounding our plants of interest. Additional details added are described in response to Major3, below.

We have added to the final paragraph of Sec. 2.4: **“Citrus is believed to influence regional atmospheric chemistry due to their VOC emissions (Hodges and Spreen, 2006; Park et al., 2013). As a cocktail-sized, slow-growing plant with large leaves, this species was suitable for laboratory and greenhouse experiments.”**

We have added to the first paragraph of Sec. 5.1: “PPS coupled to a CIMS system to investigate leaf-level organic acid sources **from *Mentha spicata* (spearmint), a culinary herb of economic importance due to the production of its essential oil.**”

We have added to the last paragraph of Sec. 5.1: “Thus, these observations should be considered a case study, rather than emissions ratios to be used in models. **While the terpenoids of the essential oils of spearmint have been investigated (Delfine et al., 2005), stored and emitted compounds may differ. There is a need for studies focusing on the leaf-level emission rate of VOCs, including monoterpenes and formic acid.**”

We have added to the first paragraph of Sec. 5.2.: “Figure 8 shows the temperature response curve of a single leaf on a basil plant (*Ocimum basilicum*), **a popular culinary herb.**”

We have added to the second paragraph of Sec. 5.3.: “We sampled: *Ginkgo biloba* (ginkgo), *Morus alba* (mulberry), and *Juglans regia* (walnut). **These species cover a variety of uses: ginkgo is one of the longest living tree species and is used in dietary supplements (Strømgaard and Nakanishi, 2004), mulberry is a primary food source for silkworms and is used for paper production (He et al., 2013), and walnut is of economic importance as timber (Ares and Brauer, 2004). These three species are considered low emitters of monoterpenes (Benjamin and Winer, 1998); our identification and quantification of their monoterpene emissions highlight the sensitivity of this technique.**”

*Major2. L. 245-251: results showing persistent signal of some compounds and not others are interesting and worthy of presentation in a results section rather than a methods section, particularly since this is a measurement technique development/characterization paper. I would like to see a more detailed presentation of the results from the carryover testing.*

We chose to keep the carryover discussion in Sec. 2.4 to maintain the flow of the manuscript. However, we have replaced the original paragraph summarizing carryover (last paragraph of Sec. 2.4) and have expanded upon carryover results:

**“We observed no carryover of monoterpenes ( $\alpha$ -pinene,  $\beta$ -pinene, limonene, cis- $\beta$ -ocimene, or  $\gamma$ -terpinene) or caryophyllene. The only identifiable plant emissions with observable signal (% of initial, i.e., leaf in chamber) that persisted after the leaf was removed were citral (27%) and 2-ethyl-1-hexanol (92%).**

**We also observed carryover of long-chain acids including palmitoleic acid (49%), pentadecanoic acid (47%), hexadecanoic acid (85%) and oleic acid (88%). Squalene (89%) also had substantial carryover. These compounds could have been introduced via the cuticular wax of leaves (Fernandes et al., 1964) or through human contact. However, these signals appear at retention times between 15 and 17 min, and are thus unlikely to interfere with signals of more volatile species.**

**Volatility likely plays a role in the carryover of compounds. Squalene, citral, and the long-chain acids are lower volatility than the monoterpenes. However, 2-ethyl-1-hexanol is of similar volatility to the monoterpenes, yet persists after the leaf has been removed. Carryover should thus be investigated for specific compounds prior to extensive studies.”**

*Major3. Section 5.1: Please place the CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rates and volatile emission measurements in context with previous studies. Are these high values for plants overall? Low values? Typical for this type of plant in particular?*

We have expanded upon our rationale and the literature surrounding our plants of interest. Additional details added are described in response to Major1, above.

We have added to the second paragraph of Sec. 5.2.: **“The CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation values for this study are within range of values from previous studies (Golpayegani and Tilebeni, 2011).”**

We have added to the third paragraph of Sec. 5.2.: **“Essential oil emissions of monoterpenes are quantified for basil (Tarchoune et al., 2013), however, the leaf-level emission of decanal is understudied, and has not yet been investigated for this species. The range of decanal emissions vary greatly in this study, but our findings suggest that, at high temperatures, decanal may be more strongly emitted than previously found. Our highest emissions at 35 °C are over 200 times greater than emission rates found from canola plants (Wildt et al., 2003). There is need for further study investigating the interspecies differences in aldehyde emissions, in addition to the light and temperature dependencies of decanal emissions.”**

We have restructured Sec. 5.3. to include: **“Previous studies have identified monoterpene emissions in ginkgo (Li et al., 2009), mulberry (Papiez et al., 2009), and walnut (Casado et al., 2008); however, these studies calculate emission rates in units of dry weight. Models that rely on leaf area to calculate monoterpene fluxes must thus account for differences between dry weight and leaf area. Alternatively, emissions collected via this method are already normalized to surface area, and do not require a major conversion.**

Here, limonene emissions from all species were an order of magnitude greater than  $\gamma$ -terpinene, by factors of 10-20 (Fig. 9). **This ratio can change based on genotype; for example, the ratio of limonene to  $\gamma$ -terpinene emissions in different black walnut genotypes range from 4.1:1 to 1:1.7 (Blood et al., 2018).** Monoterpene emission rates from individual leaves varied, though this variance was more notable for  $\gamma$ -terpinene than limonene, **in agreement with previous studies (Blood et al., 2018).** For example, we found that limonene emission rates differed by 24 % between the two mulberry leaves, whereas  $\gamma$ -terpinene differed by 46 %.

Within leaves of a single plant, chamber temperature and subsequent CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rates were similar (<0.5 % difference in assimilation between leaves of the same plant), **and observed CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rates agreed with previous measurements (Pandey et al., 2003; Baraldi et al., 2019; Nicodemus et al., 2008).** This discrepancy in variance between CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation and monoterpene emissions on a single plant highlights the limitation of tying modelled photosynthesis rates to VOC emissions and warrants further investigation. **We focus on two monoterpenes here,** however, this field survey approach to trace gas VOC emissions can provide a species-specific monoterpene emission cassette.”

Major 4. Section 5.3: It is unclear why the authors only present data on two of the monoterpenes they observed. Did all the monoterpene emissions have large variation between leaves and between trees? They have the data, and a more comprehensive analysis of that data is necessary to demonstrate the capability of this measurement approach for conducting the type of comprehensive, speciated terpenoid analysis that the community needs to better understand factors regulating VOC emission rates from plants. Just showing results for two monoterpenes does not accomplish this.

We agree with the reviewer that a more thorough example is necessary to highlight the capabilities of this approach. We have chosen to elaborate on the emissions of one of the leaves, so that we can also highlight the atmospheric implications of these measurements. We have added a Figure 10 and its respective caption, below.

We have added this paragraph to Sec. 5.3: **“We provide an example monoterpene emission cassette. Figure 10 puts those emissions into atmospheric context. We show that, although  $\alpha$ -pinene contributes to 22% of the measured emissions, it only contributes to 7% of overall OH formation and 0.5% of ozone formation. Although  $\alpha$ -terpinene contributes to 20% of the measured emissions, it is the dominating factor in both OH and ozone formation (44% and 98%, respectively). This technique allows for the speciation necessary to understand both the factors which influence emission rates and their subsequent atmospheric impact.”**

We also added this sentence to the last paragraph of Sec. 5.3: **“We further highlight the importance of speciated monoterpene analysis, and this technique’s application for such analyses.”**

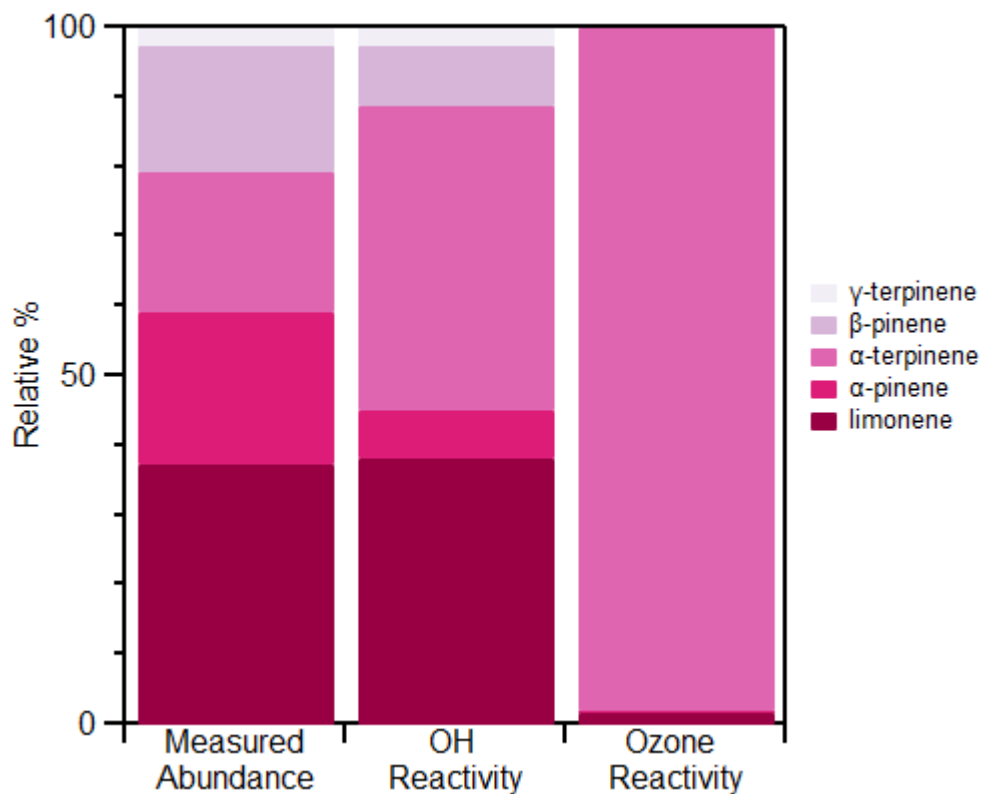


Figure 10. Relative measured abundance of all quantified monoterpenes from Ginkgo Leaf 1 (Fig. 9), and the subsequent relative contribution to both OH Reactivity and Ozone Reactivity. OH and ozone reactivity were calculated using  $k_{OH}$  and  $k_{ozone}$  rate constants from Atkinson (1997).

## MINOR COMMENTS

*Regarding emission rate calculation (equation 5, L. 205): how are they estimating leaf surface area? There are a number of different approaches that often vary depending on type of plant. This should be clarified.*

While there are a number of different approaches for calculating leaf area, all measurements in this manuscript were done with leaves that filled the chamber, resulting in 6 cm<sup>2</sup> of leaf area for each measurement. However, we do acknowledge that other applications may not have this convenience.

We have added the clarifying sentences to the description of equation 5: **“For all measurements in this manuscript, we selected leaves that filled the chamber, for a total measured leaf area of 6 cm<sup>2</sup>. However, this technique is still applicable for leaves that do not fill the chamber due to size or shape; for such leaves, leaf area must be determined separately (e.g., via image processing (Chaudhary et al., 2012), or via calculations based on geometric measurements (Sellin, 2000)).”**

*L. 364-365: “though sample collection and analysis is timely.” Timely means “opportune” or “prompt”. I think the author intends to say something more like time-intensive or labor-intensive.*

We thank the reviewer for their suggestion and have updated the term “timely” to the intended term **“time-intensive”**.

*L. 411: “Temperature response curves can be used”. Temperature “response” of what variable? Assimilation? trace gas exchange? All of the above? Unclear what is being referred to.*

We have clarified that sentence to “Temperature response **of photosynthetic metrics** can be used to compare...”

We have also added the sentence **“Temperature response of trace gases can be used to further investigate the mechanisms by which different compounds are emitted.”** before “Comparing the emission of lesser-studied compounds like decanal...” in the same paragraph.

*L. 412-413: “For example, this study suggests that basil has a higher photosynthetic thermotolerance than mint despite the fact that basil had a lower CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rate.” How so? Can you please elaborate on this referring to specific data in the plots that supports this conclusion?*

We have expanded upon this statement with the addition of another sentence. **“For example, this study suggests that basil has a photosynthetic maxima at temperatures greater than mint (35 °C, Fig 8; 26 °C, Fig. 7, respectively), despite the fact that basil had a lower overall CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rate. At temperatures above the maxima, photosynthesis and plant productivity may be inhibited (Berry and Bjorkman, 1980), suggesting that basil may have a higher thermotolerance than mint. We note that this comparison only considers short-term temperature increases, and further investigations would be necessary to determine the acclimation potential of these plant species to higher temperatures.”**

L. 414: “to that of formic acid or monoterpenes can better inform of the impact and deciding factors”. 2 comments. There is a typo or grammatical error around “can better inform of the impact”. Also, “deciding” doesn’t appear to be an appropriate word choice here. Perhaps “regulating”?

This sentence has been changed to “**Comparing the emission of lesser-studied compounds like decanal to better-studied compounds like formic acid or monoterpenes can improve the understanding of the regulating factors of leaf-level BVOC emissions.**”

L. 437: “These case study data support that leaf emissions”. Typo or grammatical error?

This terminology has been changed to “**This case study supports previous findings that leaf emissions...**”.

Figure 8: decanal emissions, markers and error bars. If you don’t have duplicates to define error bars as standard deviation, I suggest using your analytical error for the error bars. There should be some indication of error, even if it’s the small error introduced from the instrumental analysis.

We thank the reviewer for their observation. We have updated the Figure 8 to reflect instrumental error and have updated the figure caption accordingly.

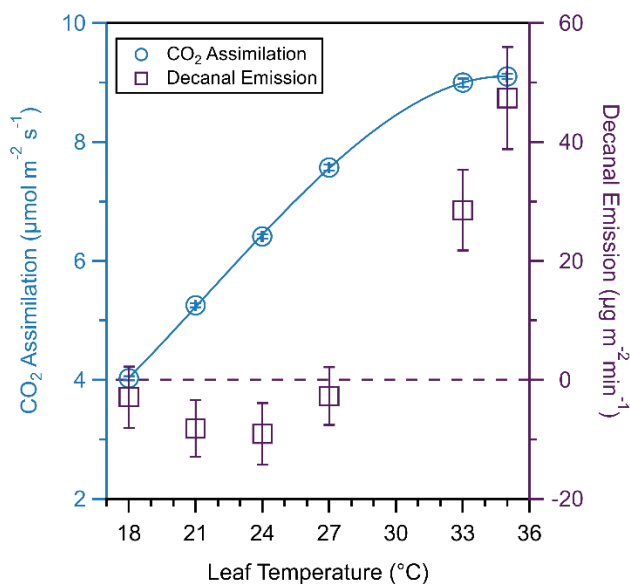


Figure 8. CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation (blue circles) and decanal emission (purple squares) temperature response curve of one basil leaf. CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation is fit to a cubic function. We collected CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation values ten times over 20 minutes and averaged the values; error bars represent the standard deviation of those measurements. **Error bars for decanal emission represent instrumental error.** The dashed line denotes 0 µg m<sup>-2</sup> min<sup>-1</sup> decanal emission.

## Additional References:

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## Reply to Anonymous Referee #2

We thank the reviewer for their thoughtful and constructive comments. We have addressed all comments below, and we believe that the manuscript has improved with their suggestions. Reviewer comments are below (grey italicized), with author responses indented. Changes and additions to the manuscript are included, in bold.

*Riches et al. present photosynthesis and trace gas (volatile organic compound, VOC) measurements made using a portable photosynthesis system (PPS) together with chemical ionisation mass spectrometry (CIMS) and offline analysis of sorbent tubes. PPS has been widely used to sample VOCs at well-defined photosynthetic conditions and this manuscript provides a useful characterisation of the LI-COR LI-6800 both in terms of CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation and measurement of VOCs. I have a number of minor concerns (listed below), with these points addressed I would recommend publication.*

We appreciate the reviewer's appreciation of the characterization of this approach, and their involvement with the improvement of this manuscript. We are pleased to address their concerns and comments below.

### *SPECIFIC COMMENTS*

*1. Concentration is used throughout when referring to mol mol<sup>-1</sup>, this should be mole fraction or mixing ratio.*

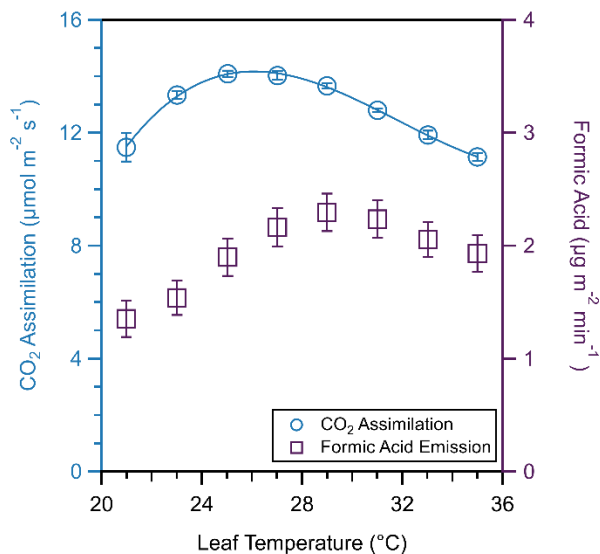
We thank the reviewer for pointing this out. Concentration is indeed technically incorrect (though frequently used!); we have replaced all inappropriate uses of this term to 'mixing ratio'.

*2. Different units for emission factor are used when reporting results from the TOF-CIMS and sorbent tubes (moles and mass). It would be easier for the reader if the same units were used throughout.*

We have converted the formic acid emission rates from nmol m<sup>-2</sup> min<sup>-1</sup> to µg m<sup>-2</sup> min<sup>-1</sup>, and have updated both Figure 7 and in-text discussion of said results accordingly.

Specifically, paragraph three of Sect. 5.1 was updated to reflect this change: "In contrast, formic acid continues to increase above the photosynthesis maximum, with maximum emission (**2.3 µg m<sup>-2</sup> min<sup>-1</sup>**)...".





3. Line 142. Brass fittings are often avoided when working with VOCs, why was a brass hose barb fitting used when all other fittings were stainless steel?

The reviewer is certainly correct that the sparing use of inlets is always important! Different VOCs interact differently with different materials; system loss to such materials should always be investigated. Brass fittings are often used sparingly in multiple studies (e.g., Hewitt et al., 2011), and was convenient for our measurements and its use was kept minimal.

4. Line 147: Is the external pump placed up or downstream of the sorbent tube?

Downstream, so that none of the captured VOCs interact with the pump itself. We have added a clarification to the text: "The external pump (Fig. 2E) is **placed downstream of the tube** and ensures constant flow through the sorbent tube."

5. Line 165: The authors state that the impact of increased flow rates should be investigated for individual species. As a range of species were used in this study, was any effect observed?

There was no effect observed for any of the species over the range of flows investigated in this study, however we acknowledge that different volatile organic compounds have vastly different chemical properties, and increased flow rate may effect such chemical species.

6. Line 191: Most of the TD-GC/MS instrumental methodology is provided in the supplementary information which keeps the manuscript focused on the PPS system. On the whole I appreciate this but would like to see a make and model for the TD-GC/MS in the main text.

We agree that the make and model of the TD-GC/MS is important to include in the manuscript and have added the following sentence to the end of Paragraph 1 in Sect. 2.3:

**"Here we use an autosampler (Ultra-xr, Markes Intl.) and thermal desorption unit (Unity-xr, Markes Intl.) coupled to a gas chromatograph (TRACE 1310, Thermo Scientific) mass**

**spectrometer (TSQ 8000 Evo Triple Quadrupole GC-MS/MS, Thermo Scientific)."**

We have also kept those details in the supplementary materials, to maintain thoroughness of Sect. S2.

*7. Line 209: The sampling protocol set out in section 2.4 focuses mainly on sampling to sorbent tubes. How did this differ for the CIMS?*

We thank the reviewer for pointing out this oversight and have added the following sentences to the end of Paragraph 2 of Sect. 2.4:

**"For CIMS measurements, we collect a system blank from the PPS (no leaf) by sampling the SAM subsample port for at least 5 min (at 1 Hz). After enclosing the leaf in the PPS chamber, we monitor the stability of both photosynthesis and volatile emissions. We typically find that the leaf and detector system requires at least 5 min to stabilize."**

*8. Line 245: Did the authors observe any effect on photosynthesis or VOC emission when keeping a leaf in the chamber for long periods e.g. 8h?*

With leaves in the PPS for extended periods of time, it is still possible to see the effects of the plant's diurnal rhythm. For example, even if a leaf is exposed to constant light and CO<sub>2</sub>, we observe a dip in photosynthesis towards the evening. Likewise, if samples are collected pre-dawn, even after a leaf has established at a constant light and CO<sub>2</sub>, we see an increase in both photosynthesis and monoterpene emissions as the rest of the plant is exposed to such conditions. Because the leaf is still attached to the plant, it is still influenced by the conditions of the plant as a whole. Thus, timing of experiments is important to consider, especially when comparing several leaves of a plant using less time-resolved methods like thermal desorption.

What we do not see is a systematic increase or decrease of photosynthesis and emissions as the plant remains in the chamber for an extended period of time. We have added this sentence to Sect. 2.4: **"We observe no consistent evidence that longer periods in the leaf chamber impact photosynthesis or VOC emission."**

Interestingly, we occasionally (i.e. inconsistently and only on some of the citrus plants) observe, fluctuations in photosynthesis over long periods. These fluctuations vary by up to 3 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation, and can occur at periods on the order of ~10 minutes to ~1 hour. We have excluded data from these periods of time, as they are so inconsistent and we are investigating whether the observations represent plant behavior or are a spurious result from other experimental factors.

*9. Line 268: Does the use of external fans on the PPS impact the rest of the plant?*

We did not observe any effect of the external fans on the rest of the plant. Fans were placed intentionally so as to minimize airflow directed towards the plants, as identified by leaf rustling during a period of otherwise no wind/airflow. To our knowledge, the fan placement had little to no impact on the plants themselves.

*10. Line 310: Is there a temperature dependence in the trace gas background?*

There is a temperature dependence in the trace gas background. For example, formic acid has a temperature dependence in the background. This highlights the importance of regular and

thorough background measurements, especially when establishing temperature and humidity dependence of VOCs, as these parameters effect the entire instrument. We modified the text to read: "The air entering the PPS is ambient, and thus prone to change **throughout the day as sources and sinks vary.**"

11. Line 365: *"timely" is a vague term, could you estimate a time?*

Thank you for catching this. As per Reviewer #1's suggestions, we have changed that word to the intended term, "time-intensive".

12. Line 403: *What were the background decanal concentrations? Was this ambient air or was a VOC scrubber used as recommended in section 4?*

These experiments were conducted prior to the introduction of the VOC scrubber, and thus ambient air was used. We have added the following sentence to the end of the first paragraph in Sect. 5.2: "**Background decanal concentrations in ambient air were  $11 \pm 1$  (average  $\pm$  standard deviation) parts-per-billion.**"

13. Line 361: The authors describe the observations made in section 5 as a case study rather than emissions ratios to be used in models. While this is true I think that if a more detailed description of the plants used was provided (e.g. growth conditions, developmental stage etc.) readers would be able to make more use of the data presented. Perhaps this could be added to the supplementary information.

We are happy to provide more details about the plants used in the supplementary information. We have such added Sect. S4: “Plant growth conditions” to the supplementary materials.

Plant	Scientific Name	Developmental Stage	Grow Location	Diel Temperature Variance	Light Conditions
Basil	<i>Ocimum basilicum</i>	Mature, pre-flowering	Indoors, beside north-facing window	~ 19 – 23 °C	Primarily natural, some fluorescent, standard daylight hours
Mint	<i>Mentha spicata</i>	Mature, pre-flowering	Indoors, beside north-facing window	~ 19 – 23 °C	Primarily natural, some fluorescent, standard daylight hours
Ponderosa Lemon	<i>Citrus limon x Citrus medica</i>	Mature, fruiting	Indoors, greenhouse	~ 17 – 28 °C	Primarily natural, LED supplement, 16 hours of light
Ginkgo	<i>Ginkgo biloba</i>	Mature, 2.1 – 2.7 tall	Outdoors, arboretum	~ 16 – 33 °C	Natural light, standard daylight hours
Mulberry	<i>Morus alba</i>	Mature, 7.6 – 9.1 m tall	Outdoors, arboretum	~ 16 – 33 °C	Natural light, standard daylight hours
Walnut	<i>Juglans regia</i>	Mature, 3.0 – 4.6 m tall	Outdoors, arboretum	~ 16 – 33 °C	Natural light, standard daylight hours

#### TECHNICAL CORRECTIONS

Figure 3: caption refers to “squares, left panel” but the figure shows pentagons

Figure 3 caption adjusted accordingly.

#### Additional References:

Hewitt, C., Langford, B., Possell, M., Karl, T., and Owen, S.: Quantification of VOC emission rates from the biosphere, TrAC Trends in Analytical Chemistry, 30, 937-944, 2011.

# Simultaneous leaf-level measurement of trace gas emissions and photosynthesis with a portable photosynthesis system

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**Abstract.** Plants emit considerable quantities of volatile organic compounds (VOCs), the identity and amount of which vary with temperature, light and other environmental factors. Portable photosynthesis systems are a useful method for simultaneously quantifying in situ leaf-level emissions of VOCs and plant physiology. We present a comprehensive characterization of the LI-6800 portable photosynthesis system's ability to be coupled to trace gas detectors and measure  
10 leaf-level trace gas emissions, including limits in flow rates, environmental parameters, and VOC backgrounds. Instrument contaminants from the LI-6800 can be substantial, but are dominantly complex molecules such as siloxanes that are structurally dissimilar to biogenic VOCs and thus unlikely to interfere with most leaf-level emissions measurements. We validate the method by comparing CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation calculated internally by the portable photosynthesis system to measurements taken with an external CO<sub>2</sub> gas analyzer; these assimilation measurements agree within 1 %. We also  
15 demonstrate both online and offline measurements of plant trace gas exchange using the LI-6800. Offline measurements by pre-concentration on adsorbent cartridges enable detection of a broad suite of VOCs, including monoterpenes (e.g., limonene) and aldehydes (e.g., decanal). Online measurements can be more challenging if flow rates require dilution with ultra-pure zero air. We use high resolution time-of-flight chemical ionization mass spectrometry coupled to the LI-6800 to measure direct plant emission of formic acid.

## 20 **1 Introduction**

Non-methane volatile organic compounds (VOCs) are readily oxidized in the atmosphere and thus impact atmospheric composition, climate and human health. As such, a quantitative understanding of VOC sources is essential for predicting future air quality and climate conditions. VOC oxidation impacts greenhouse gas ~~concentration-mixing ratios~~ by both producing tropospheric ozone and lowering OH radical ~~concentrationsmixing ratios~~, thereby increasing the lifetime of  
25 atmospheric methane (Kesselmeier and Staudt, 1999). Oxidized products of VOC precursors contribute to secondary organic aerosol (Faiola et al., 2018), which impacts climate and human health (Davidson et al., 2005; Pope III and Dockery, 2006). Biogenic emissions from plants dominate the global VOC source (Guenther et al., 1995; Lamarque et al., 2010; Lathièrè et al., 2006); terrestrial ecosystems and the ocean emit 1150 TgC yr<sup>-1</sup> of VOCs globally (Guenther et al., 1995), relative to anthropogenic VOC sources, which account for only 142 TgC yr<sup>-1</sup> globally (Singh, 1995). The most abundant group of

30 biogenic VOCs (hereafter “BVOCs”) are isoprenoids (Kesselmeier and Staudt, 1999), molecules comprised of  $(C_5H_8)_n$  units. Isoprene ( $C_5H_8$ ) contributes to roughly half of global BVOC emissions, while monoterpenes ( $C_{10}H_{16}$ ) and sesquiterpenes ( $C_{15}H_{24}$ ) account for an additional 18% combined (Guenther et al., 2012).

BVOC emissions are affected by a complex combination of factors, including temperature (Tingey et al., 1980; Duhl et al., 35 2008; Tarvainen et al., 2005; Sharkey and Yeh, 2001), soil moisture (Ebel et al., 1995; Ormeño et al., 2007; Sharkey and Loreto, 1993), light (Tarvainen et al., 2005; Sharkey and Loreto, 1993; Owen et al., 2002; Staudt and Seufert, 1995),  $CO_2$  concentration (Wilkinson et al., 2009; Loreto and Schnitzler, 2010), plant developmental stage (Holopainen, 2004; Kim et al., 2005; Zhang and Chen, 2009; Guenther, 1997), mechanical stress (Kaser et al., 2013a; Markovic et al., 2016), and biotic stress (Mauck et al., 2010; Niinemets et al., 2013; Scala et al., 2013). While the effects of some environmental factors, such 40 as temperature, are well-understood, the effects of other factors, such as  $CO_2$  concentration, are less clear. Different VOCs also have different temperature responses, and different plant species have different temperature responses for the same VOC. While most VOC emissions increase exponentially with a linear increase in temperature (Tingey et al., 1990; Peñuelas and Llusà, 2001; Niinemets et al., 2004) before reaching a maximum and rapidly decreasing (Grote et al., 2013), others are not sensitive with temperature (e.g., *cis*- $\beta$ -ocimene) (Loreto et al., 1998). Temperature effects on VOC emissions are 45 included in emission models, typically based on the results of short-term exposure experiments (Guenther et al., 1993; Guenther et al., 2012). Unlike temperature, the effect of changing  $CO_2$  concentrations on BVOC emissions is under debate, even among plants of the same species (Loreto and Schnitzler, 2010). Under elevated  $CO_2$  conditions, some studies observe no change in emissions (Constable et al., 1999; Kainulainen et al., 1998; Räisänen et al., 2008; Rapparini et al., 2003), while others observe a decrease (Scholefield et al., 2004; Sallas et al., 2003; Snow et al., 2003) or increase (Staudt et al., 2001a) in 50 VOC emissions relative to ambient  $CO_2$ . Despite its importance to atmospheric composition, biogenic VOC emission response to environmental change remains poorly understood.

Global emission inventories of BVOCs vary across models (Arneth et al., 2008; Grote et al., 2013). Monoterpenes are treated less consistently than isoprene: the standard deviation of monoterpene emissions across multiple emission models is 55 40% of the mean, compared to 10% for isoprene (Arneth et al., 2008). Emission models that group several VOCs together, such as the monoterpene isomers, may simplify the model, but this approach assumes that emissions are similar across the isomeric class and neglects differences in atmospheric reactivities of compounds. For example, the lifetime for reaction with  $\Theta_3$ -ozone between  $\alpha$ -pinene and  $\beta$ -pinene differ between a few hours to a day (Atkinson and Arey, 2003), which consequently affects the SOA yield (Friedman and Farmer, 2018). Some models use plant photosynthesis to predict VOC 60 emissions (Grote et al., 2013; Grote et al., 2014), though the correlation between plant physiology and VOC emission – let alone the response of these parameters to external environmental stressors – is not well understood. Model limitations are due, in part, to the limited availability of measurements, particularly simultaneous measurements of plant physiology and speciated VOC emissions.

65 VOC emissions are commonly quantified through canopy measurements (e.g., Goldstein et al., 2004; Rinne et al., 2007; Kaser et al., 2013b; Ciccioli et al., 1999) and leaf or branch chamber headspace measurements (e.g., Kessler and Baldwin, 2001; Llusà et al., 2002; Komenda et al., 2001; Guenther et al., 2000). One approach to leaf-level studies couples a portable photosynthesis system (PPS) with a trace-gas analyzer, thus enabling simultaneous physiology and VOC emissions measurements (e.g. Lerdau and Keller, 1997; Brilli et al., 2007; Singaas et al., 1999; Loreto and Velikova, 2001; Geron et al., 2006b; Brilli et al., 2011; Harley et al., 2014). The user can clamp the cuvette of the PPS onto a leaf and thereby control leaf-level parameters such as light wavelength and intensity, leaf temperature, humidity, air flow, and CO<sub>2</sub>. Within the PPS, two infrared gas analyzers (IRGAs) determine the difference in gas concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> and water before and after the leaf cuvette. The system calculates physiological parameters including CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rate (A), transpiration and stomatal conductance (for detailed calculations, refer to LI-COR, 2017). The CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rate refers to the rate of photosynthetic CO<sub>2</sub> uptake into the leaf, transpiration is the rate at which water vapor is released from a leaf, and stomatal conductance is the rate at which CO<sub>2</sub> and water pass through the stomata of a leaf. Diverting the PPS air flow to an external gas analyzer enables users to sample leaf emissions. Emissions analysis can be both *in situ* and real-time if online detection techniques are available, such as proton transfer reaction mass spectrometry (PTR-MS; e.g. Brilli et al., 2011; Brilli et al., 2007; Harley et al., 2014) or portable gas chromatography (e.g., Geron et al., 2006b; Lerdau and Keller, 1997; Singaas et al., 1999; Loreto and Velikova, 2001). However, gas samples can also be collected for offline analysis by thermal desorption gas chromatography mass spectrometry (e.g., Geron et al., 2006b; Harley et al., 2014) and gas chromatography mass spectrometry canister analysis (e.g., Geron et al., 2006a). These PPS-coupled techniques allow users to simultaneously obtain plant photosynthesis metrics and leaf-level VOC emissions.

85 While the PPS-VOC sampling technique has been used for decades, recent developments in PPSs provide new opportunities for leaf-level BVOC emission studies. The expanded ability to control environmental parameters, including leaf vapour pressure deficit, provides ample opportunity to study the connection between plant physiology and emission. However, PPS systems have not been rigorously evaluated in the literature for leaf-level emissions. Here, we characterize the recently developed LI-6800 portable photosynthesis system for leaf-level emissions, quantifying the capabilities and limitations of this method. We investigate the instrumental limits of this approach, including acceptable flow rates and best practices. We demonstrate the utility of this technique for offline measurements using thermal desorption gas chromatography mass spectrometry and online measurements using time-of-flight chemical ionization mass spectrometry.

## 2 Instrumentation

We use a commercial portable photosynthesis system (LI-6800) with a Multiphase Flash™ Fluorometer (LI-COR, Nebraska) for CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O gas exchange measurements. The PPS consists of two major components: the console, which includes the

digital interface and the chemical columns for control of air composition; and the head, which contains the 6 cm<sup>2</sup> leaf chamber and controls leaf temperature. The LI-6800 PPS controls environmental conditions at the leaf level, including: temperature, humidity, light intensity and wavelength, and CO<sub>2</sub>. The PPS also controls air flow and fan speed. As described in the Introduction, the PPS uses IRGAs to detect gas concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub> and water from before (reference, REF) and after (sample, SAM) the leaf chamber. The LI-6800 PPS has ports on both of these sample lines; air collected from the REF subsampling port can be used as a system background for emissions that do not occur within the PPS itself, while air collected from the SAM port is representative of leaf emissions and the system background. In instances where the analytes of interest are only emitted by plant tissue and not by the PPS, measurements taken from the REF port can be used to subtract background from the SAM port samples.

We define our standard operating conditions in Table 1, along with the technical capabilities of the instrument and the acceptable range determined herein. We acquired response curves by altering a single environmental parameter (e.g., temperature), waiting for leaf photosynthesis (i.e. CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation) to stabilize to new conditions, and then collecting gas exchange and VOC measurements. To determine the parameters for photosynthesis stabilization, we monitored a leaf using the PPS for 20 minutes, and determined the natural variability in stomatal conductance and CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation. A standard deviation limit can be set for the stability parameters, but we found the natural variability in our citrus plants changes daily. Therefore, we determined stability using a limit on the slope of stomatal conductance (0.01 mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> min<sup>-1</sup>) and CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation (0.5 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> min<sup>-1</sup>) measurements over a 15 second period. Photosynthesis stabilization took anywhere from 30 seconds to 15 minutes, depending on how close the set environmental conditions were to ambient or prior conditions. Unless otherwise noted, we controlled the LI-6800 input gas stream with a CO<sub>2</sub> scrubber (soda lime, LI-COR 9964-090), dessicant (blue-indicating Drierite, LI-COR 622-04299), humidifier (Stuttgarter Masse, LI-COR 9968-165), and CO<sub>2</sub> (8 g cartridges, LI-COR 9968-227 and Leland 30404). The values for flow rate and chemical conditions are in Table 1; further details on the instrument specifications, including component precision, can be found in the instrument manual (LI-COR, 2017).

Note that the LI-6800 denotes flow in terms of μmol s<sup>-1</sup>. All flows are given in L min<sup>-1</sup>; we performed experiments at 1525 m above sea level and use an air pressure of 0.844 atm for conversion calculations when necessary.

The flow path of the PPS subsampling system is shown in Fig. 1. Ambient air is pulled into the PPS through the air inlet between 1.18 and 2.96 L min<sup>-1</sup> (680-1700 μmol s<sup>-1</sup>), and is then treated for humidity and CO<sub>2</sub>. The bulk flow is automatically calculated by the PPS software to control the user-defined parameter for chamber air flow (described in Table 1). A subsample of this ambient air flows through the REF IRGA and when in use, the REF subsampling port, while the remaining air enters the leaf chamber. Air exiting the leaf chamber is split between the SAM subsampling port and the second SAM IRGA. Air from the SAM and REF IRGAs is removed as exhaust through the main exhaust line. During emissions sampling,



130 the subsampling ports of the PPS can be simultaneously connected to trace gas analyzers, or alternated between a single analyzer with the other subsampling port closed. The air flow drawn out of the subsampling ports vary depending on emission sampling technique, and is described in more detail in Sect. 2.2.

The LI-6800 can be used with both online and offline emission sampling techniques. We use a chemical ionization mass spectrometer (CIMS) and an external CO<sub>2</sub> detector for online sampling, but note that the principles of flow rate control are easily generalized for other trace gas analysis including PTR-MS. We use thermal desorption gas chromatography mass spectrometry for offline analysis. These systems are described in detail below.

## 2.1 Portable Photosynthesis System

The PPS consists of the head (i.e., the device which clamps onto a leaf) (Fig. 2) and the console (i.e., the device which regulates environmental conditions and chemical use). The leaf chamber (Fig. 2A) was left unchanged while trace gas detector manifolds were connected to the SAM and REF subsampling ports (Fig. 2B and 2C, respectively). A 3.175 mm brass hose barb fitting is attached to each of the subsampling ports, followed by a 38 mm piece of flexible tubing (Tygon™, 6.35 mm o.d., 3.175 mm i.d.) that connects to a 1/4" stainless steel tee (Ultra-Torr). On each of the remaining ports (one perpendicular (Fig. 2B<sub>2</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>) and one lateral (Fig. 2B<sub>1</sub>, C<sub>1</sub>)), a 38 mm piece of polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) tubing (6.35 mm o.d., 3.175 mm i.d.) connects to a 6.35 mm perfluoroalkoxy alkane (PFA) fitting. The PFA fittings are capped unless actively used. For sorbent tube sampling, a cap on the lateral port (Fig. 2B<sub>1</sub> for SAM, C<sub>1</sub> for REF) is replaced with a 6.35 mm fitting, and the sorbent tube (Fig. 2D) is fit directly in line. The external pump (Fig. 2E) is placed downstream of the tube and ensures constant flow through the sorbent tube.

150 When subsampling the PPS air for BVOC emissions, an external pump subsamples air through the REF and/or SAM subsampling ports. The external pump ensures constant flow through the BVOC measurement system. The bulk flow through the system ( $F_I$ ) is controlled by an internal pump in the console and any additional pumps used by trace gas analyzers on the REF or SAM subsampling ports. Thus the total air inlet flow is the sum of flows through REF port ( $F_R$ ), SAM port ( $F_S$ ) and the exhaust ( $F_E$ ):

$$155 \quad F_I = F_R + F_S + F_E \quad (1)$$

$F_E$  includes flow from the internal REF and SAM IRGAs. The IRGAs each require at least 0.17 L min<sup>-1</sup> (100 μmol s<sup>-1</sup>) - though a flow above 0.35 L min<sup>-1</sup> (200 μmol s<sup>-1</sup>) is preferential - and the inlet flow can be a maximum of 2.96 L min<sup>-1</sup> (1700 μmol s<sup>-1</sup>). Due to the instrumental limitations of these flows, sampling flows ( $F_R$  and  $F_S$ ) must not reach so high as to interfere with PPS system function. For thermal desorption sampling, where flow rates typically reach 0.2 L min<sup>-1</sup>, samples can simultaneously be collected through both subsampling ports. The instrument will automatically calculate the split of flows between the IRGAs to account for system requirements. While higher flows (e.g., 1 L min<sup>-1</sup>) can be sampled via the subsampling ports, the user will need to manually adjust the flow splits using the digital user interface on the console (LI-

COR, 2017). Using higher flow rates to accommodate sampling from the SAM port will impact the flow through the leaf chamber, and thus the conditions experienced by the leaf tissue. Impact of increased flow rates should be investigated for individual species.

## 2.2 Online measurements : TOF-CIMS

The PPS trace gas sampling scheme described above is well-suited for online trace gas detection. Here, we use two systems: (1) a CO<sub>2</sub> analyzer and (2) a high resolution time-of-flight chemical ionization mass spectrometer (TOF-CIMS; Aerodyne Research Inc. and ToFwerk AG) (Brophy and Farmer, 2015) coupled to iodide reagent ions (Lee et al., 2014) to detect gas-phase formic acid. Details of the TOF-CIMS are in S1.

For external comparison of leaf CO<sub>2</sub> exchange with the internal IRGAs, we use an external CO<sub>2</sub> analyzer (LI-840A, Li-Cor, Nebraska), which was alternately connected to the REF and the SAM subsampling ports. The LI-840A analyzer requires 1L min<sup>-1</sup> of flow.

The TOF-CIMS pulls 1.9 L min<sup>-1</sup>, exceeding the maximum threshold for the PPS subsampling ports. To decrease the flow, we dilute the subsampled air with 2.00 ± 0.05 L min<sup>-2</sup> of ultra-high purity zero air (UZA; Airgas) at the inlet to the CIMS. The diluting flow is controlled by a mass flow controller (MKS Instruments, Mass Flo® Controller, 1179B).

We calculate formic acid emission rates as follows:

$$C_P = C_C * \frac{Q_C}{Q_P} \quad (2)$$

where  $C_P$  is the concentration-mixing ratio of the VOC coming from the PPS (mol mol<sup>-1</sup>),  $C_C$  is the concentration-mixing ratio of the VOC identified by the CIMS (mol mol<sup>-1</sup>),  $Q_C$  is the total flow pulled by the CIMS (L min<sup>-1</sup>), and  $Q_P$  is the flow taken from the PPS subsampling port (L min<sup>-1</sup>). To get  $C_C$ , a calibration is used to convert integrated peak area into concentration; the resulting value is then divided by the time over which the integration occurred.

We then convert the leaf chamber flow ( $Q_L$ ) from L min<sup>-1</sup> to mol min<sup>-1</sup> using:

$$Q_L(\text{mol min}^{-1}) = \frac{Q_L(\text{L min}^{-1}) * P}{R * T} \quad (3)$$

where  $P$  is atmospheric pressure,  $R$  is the gas constant, and  $T$  is air temperature. Using equations 2 and 3, we obtain:

$$E_{VOC} = \frac{C_P * Q_L}{S} \quad (4)$$

where  $E_{VOC}$  is the VOC emission rate (mol m<sup>-2</sup> min<sup>-1</sup>), and  $S$  is the leaf area (m<sup>2</sup>).

### 2.3 Offline detection: sorbent tubes

Thermal desorption (TD) gas chromatography mass spectrometry (GC/MS) is an offline sampling technique commonly used to sample atmospheric volatile and semi-volatile organic compounds (Harper, 2000). This technique pre-concentrates trace gases on sorbent tubes, which are stainless steel or glass tubes of specific dimensions that are filled with adsorbent materials.

195 Different adsorbents target different analytes. Tenax TA is a general adsorbent, which has a sampling range of 7 to 26 carbons (C<sub>7</sub>-C<sub>26</sub>), and is relatively hydrophobic (Dettmer and Engewald, 2002). Other adsorbents, such as carbon molecular sieves (e.g., Carboxen 563) collect smaller molecules (C<sub>2</sub>-C<sub>5</sub>), but are sensitive to atmospheric humidity (Dettmer and Engewald, 2002). As air flows through the sorbent tubes, atmospheric constituents adsorb onto the surface. The tubes are then rapidly heated and the compounds thermally desorbed into an air stream for analysis by GC/MS. Here we use an autosampler (Ultra-xr, Markes Intl.) and thermal desorption unit (Unity-xr, Markes Intl.) coupled to a gas chromatograph (TRACE 1310, Thermo Scientific) mass spectrometer (TSQ 8000 Evo Triple Quadrupole GC-MS/MS, Thermo Scientific).

200

Details of the TD-GC/MS method are in S2. Briefly, we use the TD-GC/MS with Tenax adsorbent cartridges to quantify seven monoterpenes, summarized in Table 2.

205

We calculate leaf-level VOC emissions from the cartridge samples as follows:

$$E_{VOC} = \frac{m_{VOC} \cdot Q_L}{V \cdot S} \quad (5)$$

where  $E_{VOC}$  is the VOC Emission rate (ng m<sup>-2</sup> min<sup>-1</sup>);  $m_{VOC}$  is the mass of the VOC (ng), as determined by the thermal desorption calibration;  $Q_L$  is the flow through the leaf chamber (L min<sup>-1</sup>);  $V$  is the total volume of air sampled with the sorbent tube (L), sampling flow multiplied by sampling time; and  $S$  is the leaf surface area (m<sup>2</sup>). For all measurements in this manuscript, we selected leaves that filled the chamber, for a total measured leaf area of 6 cm<sup>2</sup>. However, this technique is still applicable for leaves that do not fill the chamber due to size or shape; for such leaves, leaf area must be determined separately (e.g., via image processing (Chaudhary et al., 2012), or via calculations based on geometric measurements (Sellin, 2000)).

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### 215 2.4 Sampling protocol

The sampling protocol involves clamping the PPS leaf chamber onto a leaf, waiting for the leaf to adapt to the leaf chamber conditions, collecting trace gas measurements from the SAM and REF subsampling ports, and then either removing the leaf chamber and moving to a new leaf (single emission point), or changing the environmental conditions to investigate leaf-level emissions responses to temperature, light, relative humidity, or CO<sub>2</sub> (Table 1). Photosynthesis may be measured simultaneously at any point in the sampling protocol, and is independent of emission measurements.

220

Once the PPS has undergone its standard warmup ( $\leq 45$  min), we set the PPS to the standard environmental conditions and allow the instrument to equilibrate without a leaf present, with the leaf chamber closed ( $< 15$  min; the further the ambient conditions deviate from standard conditions, the longer the instrument takes to equilibrate). We match the IRGAs to one another (LI-COR, 2017) prior to collecting an emissions measurement, when the  $\text{CO}_2$  or humidity values change, or within an hour since the last match. To collect a system background ('system blank'), we connect a sorbent tube to the SAM subsampling port and use an external handheld pump to sample emissions ( $0.2 \text{ L min}^{-1}$ ; 20 minutes). The tube is then removed and the subsampling port capped. To sample leaf emissions, we enclose a leaf in the PPS chamber and allow the leaf to acclimate at standard conditions (30 seconds to 35 minutes). A sorbent tube and external pump connected to the SAM subsampling port samples the leaf emissions ( $0.2 \text{ L min}^{-1}$ ; 20 minutes). For CIMS measurements, we collect a system blank from the PPS (no leaf) by sampling the SAM subsample port for at least 5 min (at 1 Hz). After enclosing the leaf in the PPS chamber, we monitor the stability of both photosynthesis and volatile emissions. We typically find that the leaf and detector system requires at least 5 min to stabilize.

If there are no internal sources or sinks to the VOCs of interest (or these interactions are quantifiable), gas measurements may be simultaneously taken from both the REF and SAM subsample ports (with flow considerations, as described in Sect. 2.1). With this method, REF measurements provide the background for subtraction from the SAM emissions measurements.

At this point, users may make continuous measurements, survey measurements, or response measurements. A continuous measurement allows for the subsequent measurement of the same leaf tissue at the same environmental conditions (i.e. one leaf throughout the day). A survey measurement allows for the measurement of multiple leaves under one set of environmental conditions (i.e. sampling emissions from multiple leaves on the same plant). Importantly, each time a leaf is physically placed in the PPS chamber, it requires time (30 s – 35 min, depending on environmental conditions) to acclimate. A response measurement allows for the measurement of a single leaf at different environmental conditions (e.g. sampling emissions as a function of temperature).

Leaves must acclimate to new environmental conditions. However, the time required for a leaf to adapt to placement in the chamber or changing environmental conditions is inconsistently reported in leaf-level photosynthesis studies. Some studies allow leaves to acclimate until photosynthesis reaches stability or steady-state (e.g., Bunce, 2008; Domurath et al., 2012), though those terms are often undefined. Some studies use an upper (e.g., Yang et al., 2010) or a lower (e.g., Lang et al., 2013) time limit to allow photosynthesis to reach stability. When exact equilibration times are mentioned, they vary greatly between perturbations and between studies. For emissions measurements, equilibration times of both photosynthesis and BVOC emission must be considered. Using the CIMS, we determined that it takes 10-15 minutes for both photosynthesis and formic acid to reach stability after being clamped or after an environmental change.

255

We investigated the potential for VOCs in the leaf chamber to persist from one experiment to another, after the leaf has been removed, through adsorption on gaskets or chamber surfaces (“carryover”). Carryover can cause spuriously high emission measurements. To investigate carryover, we collected a system blank (no leaf present; SAM port) before introducing a ponderosa lemon (*Citrus limon* x *Citrus medica*) leaf into the chamber for the next 8 hours at varying temperatures. We observe no consistent evidence that longer periods in the leaf chamber impact photosynthesis or VOC emission. Citrus is believed to influence regional atmospheric chemistry due to their VOC emissions (Hodges and Spreen, 2006; Park et al., 2013). As a cocktail-sized, slow-growing plant with large leaves, this species was suitable for laboratory and greenhouse experiments. Immediately after removing the leaf at the end of the day, we collected a second system blank (no leaf present; SAM port).

We observed no carryover of monoterpenes ( $\alpha$ -pinene,  $\beta$ -pinene, limonene, cis- $\beta$ -ocimene, or  $\gamma$ -terpinene) or caryophyllene. The only identifiable plant emissions with observable signal (% of initial, i.e., leaf in chamber) that persisted after the leaf was removed were citral (27%) and 2-ethyl-1-hexanol (92%).

We also observed carryover of long-chain acids including palmitoleic acid (49%), pentadecanoic acid (47%), hexadecanoic acid (85%) and oleic acid (88%). Squalene (89%) also had substantial carryover. These compounds could have been introduced via the cuticular wax of leaves (Fernandes et al., 1964) or through human contact. However, these signals appear at retention times between 15 and 17 min, and are thus unlikely to interfere with signals of more volatile species.

Volatility likely plays a role in the carryover of compounds. Squalene, citral, and the long-chain acids are lower volatility than the monoterpenes. However, 2-ethyl-1-hexanol is of similar volatility to the monoterpenes, yet persists after the leaf has been removed. Carryover should thus be investigated for specific compounds prior to extensive studies.

~~This comparison showed no carryover of cis  $\beta$  ocimene,  $\beta$  pinene or caryophyllene — but 27 % of the initial (i.e. leaf in chamber) observed citral signal persisted after the leaf was removed. Citral is a relatively low volatility compound, highlighting the importance of considering carryover from previous experiments in calculating emissions of lower volatility analytes.~~

## 2.5 Leaf chamber conditions

The PPS control of environmental conditions enables acquisition of short-term response curves for trace gas emissions, which are typically used to parameterize biogenic VOC emissions in atmospheric chemical transport models. Table 1 summarizes the ranges in parameters we find to be feasible for each environmental parameter.

The PPS regulates CO<sub>2</sub> and light well. However, both temperature and humidity regulation in the PPS depend on the balance between ambient and desired conditions. Relative humidity is constrained so as to not reach condensing conditions, so the

290 extent of RH control depends on the temperature of the leaf chamber. For example, when aiming for high PPS temperatures (>30 °C), the PPS can have difficulty simultaneously maintaining high (>50 %) RH. When ambient temperatures are low (<4 °C), the PPS is challenged to maintain RH >35 %. This instrumental challenge occurs because temperature control in the PPS is limited by the heat exchanger; as the heat exchanger approaches dew point, the PPS takes proactive measures and slows the heating or cooling of the system. We find two approaches to deal with PPS temperature/RH problems: (i) temperature may be set independently of humidity, or (ii) temperature may be ramped slowly while humidity is maintained.

295

Of all of the controllable environmental conditions, temperature takes the longest for the PPS to regulate ( $10 \pm 2$  minutes to warm an empty chamber from 33 to 18 °C). Cooling takes twice as long as heating, and introducing a leaf into the chamber increases time necessary to cool by 35 % and time necessary to heat by 26 %. External fans improved the chamber temperature control at higher ambient temperatures, as did placing ice packs beside the air-inlet, around the chemical tubes, 300 beside the leaf chamber, and on the side of the head improves the temperature control.

The LI-6800 also enables direct control of leaf vapour pressure deficit, but achieving a large dynamic range in vapour pressure deficit is subject to the same constraints as simultaneously changing temperature and RH in the PPS.

### 3 Internal PPS versus external CO<sub>2</sub> measurements

305 The LI-6800 PPS internally measures leaf-level CO<sub>2</sub> exchange with the SAM and REF IRGAs as a core measurement, providing CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation ( $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ). Assimilation provides a useful metric of validation against external leaf-level emissions, and we compare leaf-level CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation measured internally by the LI-6800 PPS and externally through the subsampling manifold and an external CO<sub>2</sub> analyzer. Here, we used the CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation of a basil leaf (*Ocimum basilicum*) to verify that the use of an external subsampling port supports the same values as the PPS's internal IRGA systems.

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We connected an external CO<sub>2</sub> analyzer (LI-840A, LI-COR, Nebraska) to the PPS (no leaf) and varied the CO<sub>2</sub> ~~concentration~~ mixing ratio to determine the sensitivity of external CO<sub>2</sub> measurements (using the LI-840A) with the internal LI-6800 CO<sub>2</sub> measurements. The LI-6800 can control CO<sub>2</sub> ~~concentration-mixing ratio~~ in one of two locations: before (REF) or in (SAM) the leaf chamber. First, we compare CO<sub>2</sub> measurements between the internal (LI-6800) and external (LI-840A) CO<sub>2</sub> 315 analyzers. We internally controlled the REF CO<sub>2</sub> ~~concentration-mixing ratio~~ and measured the subsequent CO<sub>2</sub> ~~concentration~~ mixing ratio externally through each subsampling port. We then controlled the SAM CO<sub>2</sub> ~~concentration-mixing ratio~~ and repeated the external measurements. All comparison experiments showed a strong correlation between internal and external CO<sub>2</sub> measurements ( $R^2 > 0.9999$ ). The controlled CO<sub>2</sub> ~~mixing ratio~~~~concentration~~ for both experiments ranged from 0 through 1600 ppm. We found the external CO<sub>2</sub> measurement was 5.5 % higher than the internal measurement, which we

320 attribute to systematic differences in instrument calibration (Fig. 3). We find no evidence of leaks at below-ambient CO<sub>2</sub>  
concentrations mixing ratios.

We then compared CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation (sampling with leaf) between the internal PPS determination and the external  
measurements accounting for observed flows, etc. This external CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation measurement and calculation approach  
325 parallels our coupled PPS+online sampling trace gas measurement, and provides validation of the sampling approach. For  
CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation comparisons, we controlled the SAM CO<sub>2</sub> concentration mixing ratios and monitored the REF CO<sub>2</sub>  
concentration mixing ratios externally. We accounted for the calibration offset between internal and external CO<sub>2</sub> detectors.  
With the external CO<sub>2</sub> analyzer connected to the REF subsampling port and a leaf in the chamber, we set the PPS CO<sub>2</sub>  
concentration mixing ratio to 200, 400, 600, 800, and 1000 μmol CO<sub>2</sub> mol<sup>-1</sup>. The PPS measured photosynthesis 10 times  
330 within 10 minutes while we externally monitored CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations mixing ratios from the REF port (1 Hz).

We calculate CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation (A) as:

$$A = \frac{Q_{L,c} * ([CO_2]_R - [CO_2]_S * \frac{1 - [H_2O]_{R,c}}{1 - [H_2O]_{S,c}})}{S} \quad (6, \text{ adapted from LI-COR, 2017})$$

where Q<sub>L,c</sub> is the flow through the leaf chamber (μmol s<sup>-1</sup>), multiplied by the leak correction factor (unitless, provided by the  
PPS); [CO<sub>2</sub>]<sub>R</sub> and [CO<sub>2</sub>]<sub>S</sub> is the concentration mixing ratio of CO<sub>2</sub> (μmol mol<sup>-1</sup>), as determined by the REF and SAM infrared  
335 gas analyzers, respectively; [H<sub>2</sub>O]<sub>R,c</sub> and [H<sub>2</sub>O]<sub>S,c</sub> are the concentration mixing ratio of H<sub>2</sub>O (mol mol<sup>-1</sup>), as determined by  
the REF and SAM infrared gas analyzers, respectively; S is the leaf area (m<sup>2</sup>). We take [H<sub>2</sub>O]<sub>R,c</sub> and [H<sub>2</sub>O]<sub>S,c</sub> from the LI-  
6800.

340 The internally and externally calculated CO<sub>2</sub> assimilations correlate well (r<sup>2</sup> = 0.97) with 1 % difference between the two  
approaches (Fig. 3).

#### 4 Trace gas backgrounds in the PPS

Background contamination reduces analyte signal accuracy. Co-eluting peaks in a gas chromatogram add additional  
difficulty in determining the exact peak area of a VOC analyte. When a chromatogram features heavy background  
345 contamination from a system, the chromatograms can become busy, challenging untargeted peak identification. Here we  
investigate the background VOCs in the PPS.

The REF port can be measured simultaneously with the SAM port to provide a background measurement of air entering the  
leaf chamber, but not any internal PPS sources of interferences in the leaf chamber.

350

The PPS is made of materials that can emit volatile compounds. While PPS system background may not contribute substantial background signals when using certain targeted analytical techniques (e.g., selected ion monitoring GC/MS), untargeted techniques, such as full scan GC/MS, are susceptible to background interference. TD-GC/MS chromatograms of the PPS (no leaf, 30 °C) revealed substantial background contamination, especially compared to the background of the Tenax tubes themselves (Fig. 4). The total integrated ion counts of identifiable peaks were 49 % higher background from the SAM port versus the REF, highlighting the problem of only using the REF port as a background for VOC analysis. These peak counts are substantially higher (by ~80 %) than the blank Tenax sorbent tube itself. Primary differences in the integrated peak area between SAM and REF are due to the five largest peaks, three of which are siloxanes. Siloxanes are commonly used in consumer products, including textiles, cosmetics, paint, and electronics (Fromme, 2018; Tilley and Fry, 2015), and were 41 % higher in the SAM than REF ports. The other two largest peaks are isobornyl acrylate (a film-forming agent) and n-octyl acrylate (an adhesive and coating component). While unlikely to interfere with leaf VOC emissions, co-elution with these peaks may lead to unidentified emissions in untargeted approaches. As a result of this work, we recommend taking frequent backgrounds from the SAM port to ensure no chamber background interference for analytes of interest.

Figure 5 categorizes the signals from the SAM background by functional groups, highlighting the complexity and potential interferences for biogenic trace gas emission analysis. The large background signals caution against using bulk signal measurements (e.g. total observed carbon, or total observed reactivity) from the PPS without careful background analysis. Instead, targeted approaches like extracted ion chromatography (EIC) are a promising way to exclude spurious background signals. Figure 6 highlights the differences between the full chromatogram (total ion counts) and an EIC, where we selected for monoterpenes. This approach clearly separates leaf-emissions that are not present in the blank, including  $\beta$ -pinene (4.210 min), limonene (5.175 min) and  $\beta$ -ocimene (5.561 min). By minimizing background contamination with EIC, we clearly observe differences between strongly- and weakly-emitting leaves (Fig. 6). Therefore, we recommend an EIC approach for the semi-targeted identification and analysis of monoterpenes and aldehydes.

We investigated three approaches to minimizing the PPS backgrounds. We replaced the Drierite dessicant with silica gel orange (Sigma-Aldrich, 13767-2.5KG-R) and the Stuttgarter Masse humidifier with Perlite (Miracle Gro®, 74278430). We also installed fresh air filters at each chemical column, IRGA and the air-inlet. After each change, we flushed the system with heated air (35 °C at a flow rate of 1300  $\mu\text{mol s}^{-1}$  for 30 minutes) before collecting system blanks under standard conditions, but none of these changes substantially decreased the background signals (Fig. S3).

The air entering the PPS is ambient, and thus prone to change ~~with time~~ throughout the day as sources and sinks vary. While the PPS includes several filters within the system, they do not filter all biogenic hydrocarbons – including monoterpenes. This is a particular problem in greenhouses, where low exchange rates, warm temperatures and large concentrations of plants



385 lead to high ambient biogenic VOC ~~concentrations~~emissions. We investigated the potential to filter monoterpenes from inlet  
air at the Plant Growth Facilities at Colorado State University. We added a home-built charcoal filter (30.5 cm piece of 85  
cm o.d. stainless steel tubing filled with activated charcoal Norit® (Sigma-Aldrich, 29204-500G) and filtered with glass  
wool and stainless steel mesh on either end) to the air inlet of the PPS. This filter completely removed all background  $\alpha$ -  
pinene from 0.04 ppb to below detection limit, but was less effective in subsequent outdoor experiments. As the ambient  
390 concentration of VOCs vary with time of day, we thus recommend both using a charcoal filter and taking simultaneous REF  
and SAM measurements to account for interferences from input air. Alternately, zero air can replace ambient input air at the  
PPS inlet, per manufacturer's instructions (LI-COR, 2017).

## 5 Case studies

Despite these background interferences, the LI-6800 has the potential to investigate plant gas exchange for an array of  
395 molecules with an array of trace gas instrumentation. Here, we provide case studies with both online (5.1; CIMS) and offline  
(5.2, 5.3; TD-GC-MS) analysis. TD offers the benefit in that the sorbent tubes are easily portable, though sample collection  
and analysis is timely~~time-intensive~~. CIMS offers the benefit of online, real-time data acquisition, however the instrument  
itself is less portable and provides no definitive compound identities. These case studies maintained standard conditions  
unless otherwise noted, and each study used different plants. Further information on plant growth conditions can be found in  
400 Sect. S4.

### 5.1 Formic acid emissions

Organic acids account for roughly 25 % of global non-methane VOCs (Khare et al., 1999) and contribute to secondary  
organic aerosol (Yatavelli et al., 2014). Despite their ubiquity, models typically underestimate ambient concentrations of  
formic acid, even the structurally simplest of organic acids, implying a missing source (Paulot et al., 2011; Alwe et al.,  
405 2019). This missing source of formic acid is not soils (Mielnik et al., 2018), but flux studies (Fulgham et al., 2019) and  
vertical gradient measurements (Mattila et al., 2018) suggest a direct ecosystem source. Here we demonstrate the capacity of  
the PPS coupled to a CIMS system to investigate leaf-level organic acid sources from *Mentha spicata* (spearmint), a culinary  
herb of economic importance due to the production of its essential oil (Hussain et al., 2010).

410 We conducted a temperature response curve on a spearmint leaf (~~*Mentha spicata*~~) connected to the PPS with a CIMS  
detector. We performed three temperature response curve replicates, each with temperatures varying from 21 to 35 °C. The  
leaf was acclimated (as described in Sect. 2) at each new temperature for at least 5 minutes, during which time the CIMS  
sampled the REF port to determine the system background. We then simultaneously measured leaf-level emissions of formic  
acid and photosynthetic parameters for 5 minutes.

415

CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation and formic acid emission both varied with temperature for this leaf (Fig. 7). As temperature increases, CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation increases up to a maximum value of 14.2 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> at 26 °C. This CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation follows the expected cubic fit (Yamori et al., 2010). In contrast, formic acid continues to increase above the photosynthesis maximum, with maximum emission (49.92.30 nmol-μg m<sup>-2</sup> min<sup>-1</sup>) occurring at 29 °C. However, we emphasize that this represents a single experiment using the CIMS to demonstrate the utility of coupling the CIMS to the PPS, rather than an extensive or replicated experiment of formic acid emissions. Thus, these observations should be considered a case study, rather than emissions ratios to be used in models. While the terpenoids of the essential oils of spearmint have been investigated (Delfine et al., 2005), stored and emitted compounds may differ. There is a need for studies focusing on the leaf-level emission rate of VOCs, including monoterpenes and formic acid. This case study does demonstrate the potential for the PPS to be coupled to real-time measurements in exploring less-studied BVOCs, such as organic acids, at a leaf level.

## 5.2 Decanal emissions

C<sub>6</sub> – C<sub>10</sub> aldehydes are an understudied class of plant BVOC emissions (Ciccioli et al., 1993; Wildt et al., 2003; Owen et al., 1997). Aldehydes can contribute to free radical formation in the atmosphere through photolysis or reaction with OH radicals (Atkinson, 1986). Decanal (C<sub>10</sub>-aldehyde) is present in atmospheric mixing ratios of ppt<sub>v</sub> to ppb<sub>v</sub> (Ciccioli et al., 1993), and is emitted by plants in response to stress (Wildt et al., 2003). Here, we demonstrate the potential for off-line measurements (i.e. the TD-GC/MS) coupled to the PPS to investigate plant emissions of C<sub>6</sub>-C<sub>10</sub> aldehydes. Figure 8 shows the temperature response curve of a single leaf on a basil plant (*Ocimum basilicum*) in lab, a popular culinary herb (Putievsky and Galambosi, 1999). We collected single sorbent tubes for 20 minutes at each point as we varied temperature by ~3 °C from 18 to 35 °C. The LI-6800 simultaneously measured photosynthesis every 30 seconds. Background decanal concentrations in ambient air were 11 ± 1 (average ± standard deviation) parts-per-billion.

CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation increases over the entire range of temperatures, beginning to stabilize around 33 °C. The CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation values for this study are within range of values from previous studies (Golpayegani and Tilebeni, 2011). A cubic fit to assimilation suggests that 35 °C was the maxima in assimilation, which would decrease at higher temperatures. In contrast to photosynthesis, decanal exhibits bi-directional exchange. As temperature increases, decanal emissions are initially zero or negative (i.e. lower than the background concentration of input air), and then show enhanced uptake with increasing temperature before a turn-over point at which emission rapidly increases. The temperature response is inconsistent with stored pools (Grote et al., 2013), suggesting a more complex biochemical pathway.

The observed uptake of decanal below 27 °C supports the idea of a turnover point and bidirectional exchange of VOCs (Niinemets et al., 2014; Millet et al., 2018). Further investigation of turnover points as a function of varying input air VOC concentrations are warranted. Essential oil emissions of monoterpenes are quantified for basil (Tarchoune et al., 2013), however, the leaf-level emission of decanal is understudied, and has not yet been investigated for this species. The range of

450 decanal emissions vary greatly in this study, but our findings suggest that, at high temperatures, decanal may be more strongly emitted than previously found. Our highest emissions at 35 °C are over 200 times greater than emission rates found from canola plants (Wildt et al., 2003). There is need for further study investigating the interspecies differences in aldehyde emissions, in addition to the light and temperature dependencies of decanal emissions.

455 Temperature response of photosynthetic metric curves can be used to compare the thermotolerance between species or between plants of the same species. For example, this study suggests that basil has a higher photosynthetic thermotolerance maxima at temperatures greater than spearmint (35 °C, Fig. 8; and 26 °C Fig. 7, respectively), despite the fact that basil had a lower overall CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rate. At temperatures above the maxima, photosynthesis and plant productivity may be inhibited (Berry and Bjorkman, 1980), suggesting that basil may have a higher thermotolerance than spearmint. We note that this comparison only considers short-term temperature increases, and further investigations would be necessary to determine  
460 the acclimation potential of these plant species to higher temperatures. Temperature response of trace gases can be used to further investigate the mechanisms by which different compounds are emitted. Comparing the emission of lesser-studied compounds like decanal to that of better-studied compounds like formic acid or monoterpenes can better inform of the impact and improve the understanding of the deciding-regulating factors in leaf-level BVOC emissions.

### 5.3 Monoterpene emissions

465 The PPS-coupled emission sampling method is portable, which we take advantage of in our third case study. While BVOC emission studies often quantify emissions in terms of dry leaf weight, *in situ* measurements enable us to collect data based on leaf area, which is used in many emissions models.

To investigate the difference in limonene and  $\gamma$ -terpinene emissions between plants of different species, we sampled two  
470 shaded leaves of each of three tree species during the summer of 2019 in the Colorado State University Arboretum in Fort Collins, CO. We sampled: *Ginkgo biloba* (ginkgo), *Morus alba* (mulberry), and *Juglans regia* (walnut). These species cover a variety of uses: ginkgo is one of the longest living tree species and is used in dietary supplements (Strømgaard and Nakanishi, 2004), mulberry is a primary food source for silkworms and is used for paper production (He et al., 2013), and walnut is of economic importance as timber (Ares and Brauer, 2004). These three species are considered low emitters of  
475 monoterpenes (Benjamin and Winer, 1998); our identification and quantification of their monoterpene emissions highlight the sensitivity of this technique.

Emissions were taken at 27±2 °C, near-ambient CO<sub>2</sub> (414 ppm), and under saturating light conditions (2000  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ). We simultaneously sampled monoterpene emissions using the sorbent cartridges (30 minute collection) and photosynthesis  
480 (30 second time resolution) at each temperature. Leaf temperature was difficult to regulate in the field. The PPS maintained a

25 °C leaf temperature with ambient temperatures up to 29 °C, but could not keep leaf temperatures below 28 °C when ambient temperatures increased, even with shading and ice packs.

485 Previous studies have identified monoterpene emissions in ginkgo (Li et al., 2009), mulberry (Papiez et al., 2009), and walnut (Casado et al., 2008); however, these studies calculate emission rates in units of dry weight. Models that rely on leaf area to calculate monoterpene fluxes must thus account for differences between dry weight and leaf area. Alternatively, emissions collected via this method are already normalized to surface area, and do not require a major conversion.

Here, limonene emissions from all species were an order of magnitude greater than  $\gamma$ -terpinene, by factors of 10-20 (Fig. 9).  
490 This ratio can change based on genotype; for example, the ratio of limonene to  $\gamma$ -terpinene emissions in different black walnut genotypes range from 4.1:1 to 1:1.7 (Blood et al., 2018). Monoterpene emission rates from individual leaves varied, though this variance was more notable for  $\gamma$ -terpinene than limonene, in agreement with previous studies (Blood et al., 2018). For example, we found that limonene emission rates differed by 24 % between the two mulberry leaves, whereas  $\gamma$ -terpinene differed by 46 %.

495  
Within leaves of a single plant, chamber temperature and subsequent CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rates were similar (<0.5 % difference in assimilation between leaves of the same plant), and observed CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rates agreed with previous measurements (Pandey et al., 2003; Baraldi et al., 2019; Nicodemus et al., 2008). This discrepancy in variance between CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation and monoterpene emissions on a single plant highlights the limitation of tying modelled photosynthesis rates to VOC emissions and warrants further investigation. We focus on two monoterpenes here, however, this field survey approach to trace gas VOC emissions can provide a species-specific monoterpene emission cassette (Fig. 10).

~~but monoterpene emission rates from individual leaves varied, though this variance was more notable for  $\gamma$  terpinene than limonene. For example, limonene emission rates differed by 24 % between the two mulberry leaves, whereas  $\gamma$  terpinene differed by 46 %. This discrepancy in variance between CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation and monoterpene emissions on a single plant highlights the limitation of tying modelled photosynthesis rates to VOC emissions and warrants further investigation. While limited to two monoterpenes here, this field survey approach to trace gas VOC emissions can provide a species specific monoterpene emission cassette.~~

510 We provide an example monoterpene emission cassette. Figure 10 puts those emissions into atmospheric context. We show that, although  $\alpha$ -pinene contributes to 22% of the measured emissions, it only contributes to 7% of overall OH formation and 0.5% of ozone formation. Although  $\alpha$ -terpinene contributes to 20% of the measured emissions, it is the dominating factor in both OH and ozone formation (44% and 98%, respectively). This technique allows for the speciation necessary to understand both the factors which influence emission rates and their subsequent atmospheric impact.

~~These case study data support~~ is case study supports previous findings that leaf emissions can vary between leaves of one tree (Staudt et al., 2001b), between trees of one species (Staudt et al., 2001b), and between trees of different species (Benjamin et al., 1996) – but that trace gas sampling with the PPS is a viable method for investigating these sources of variance. We further highlight the importance of speciated monoterpene analysis, and this technique’s application for such analyses.

## 520 **6 Conclusions**

This study shows the utility of a new PPS system coupled with both on- and off-line analysis for the analysis of leaf-level gas emissions, and the limitation and caveats associated with those measurements. In particular, trace gas measurements with high air flow needs ( $> 1 \text{ L min}^{-1}$ ) must be used carefully. Using an external  $\text{CO}_2$  monitor to calculate  $\text{CO}_2$  assimilation rates, we verify the integrity of the subsampling manifold and provide relevant equations for calculations of plant gas exchange.

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The PPS-coupling system described herein has substantial potential for improving our understanding of plant emissions. For example, different CIMS ionization sources can target different types of organic molecules (e.g. acetate ionization for organic acids vs iodide ionization for oxygenated organics), and different sorbent materials in thermal desorption tubes enable detection of different compounds (i.e. Tenax for monoterpenes vs graphitic carbon for isoprene). However, we emphasize the importance of carefully considering potential contaminants from the PPS itself, and the use of frequent system background measurements through both the SAM port in the absence of a leaf, and the REF port in presence of the leaf. The further potential to control the composition of the airflow into the PPS will enable investigation of compensation points.

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**Table 1. User-defined standard, tested and operating conditions of environmental controls using the LI-6800.**

	Chamber flow ( $\mu\text{mol s}^{-1}$ )	Chamber overpressure (kPa)	Fan speed (rpm)	Relative humidity (%)	Photon Flux Density <sup>c</sup> ( $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ )	Temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )	CO <sub>2</sub> ( $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ )
Standard conditions	500	0.1	10,000	50	750	25	400
Tested conditions <sup>a</sup>	0 – 1475	0.0 – 0.2	3,000 – 14,000	0 – 75%	0 – 3000	10 – 38	0 – 2000
Operating conditions <sup>b</sup>	0 – 1400 <sup>d</sup>	0.0 – 0.2	10,000	0 – 90%	0 – 3000	$\pm 10$ from ambient	0 – 2000 <sup>e</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Provided values indicate the range at which the instrument functioned properly in conditions tested at 1.5 km above sea level, ~0.84 atm (8.6 kPa).

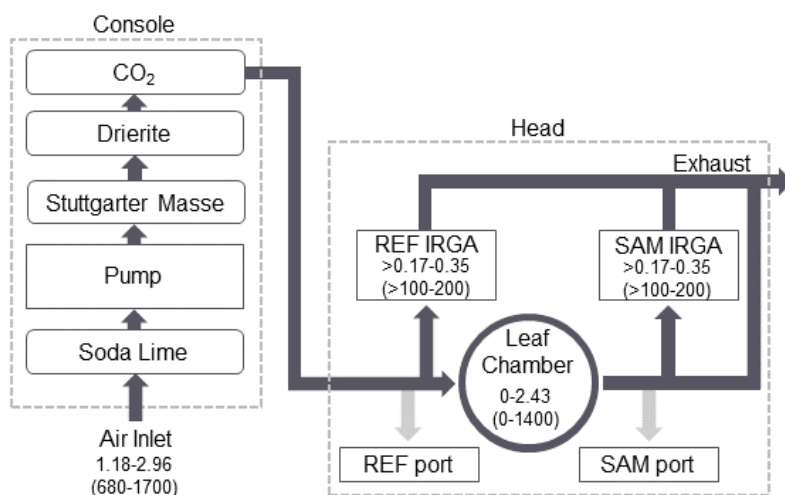
<sup>b</sup> Recommended operating values from (LI-COR, 2017).

795 <sup>c</sup> Saturating light conditions recommended for most uses. Operating range dependent on temperature, values shown are for 25 °C.

<sup>d</sup> At standard ambient temperature (25 °C) and pressure (100 kPa, 0.99 atm).

<sup>e</sup> Exact values limited on bulk flow rate, review (LI-COR, 2017) for further details.

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**Figure 1. Flow chart diagram of air flow through the PPS during emissions sampling. Dashed lines delineate flow through the PPS console and the head. Dark grey lines show the flow through the PPS during photosynthesis measurements. Light grey lines indicate the additional flow path during emissions sampling. Values for flow rate are given in L min<sup>-1</sup>, with μmol s<sup>-1</sup> in parentheses. The order of the chemical treatment of air is shown for the console.**

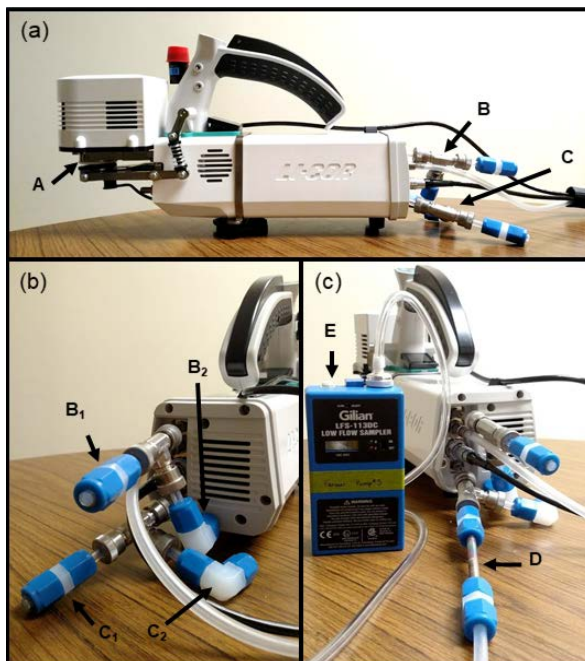


Figure 2. Photograph of the emissions subsampling manifold for the LI-6800. The profile view (a) highlights the leaf chamber (A), SAM subsampling port (B) and REF subsampling port (C). The back view (b), highlights the SAM and REF sampling ports (B<sub>1</sub> and C<sub>1</sub>, respectively) and overflow ports (B<sub>2</sub> and C<sub>2</sub>, respectively). Panel (c) shows an example setup of sorbent tube (D) emission collection with an external pump (E) sampling the REF subsampling port.

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Table 2. Summary of monoterpenes quantified using TD GC/MS.

Compound (C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>16</sub> )	RT <sup>a</sup> (min)	RSD <sup>b</sup> (%)	LOD <sup>c</sup> (ng)	Emission Rate LOD <sup>d</sup> (ng m <sup>-2</sup> min <sup>-1</sup> )
α-pinene	3.716 ± 0.008	8.2	0.137	11.4
β-pinene	4.44 ± 0.01	7.4	0.082	6.8
α-terpinene	5.173±0.008	4.5	0.071	5.9
p-cymene	5.354±0.009	5.6	0.111	9.2
d-limonene	5.47±0.01	3.5	0.054	4.5
γ-terpinene	6.306±0.009	2.4	0.085	7.1
terpinolene	7.35±0.01	2.6	0.050	4.2

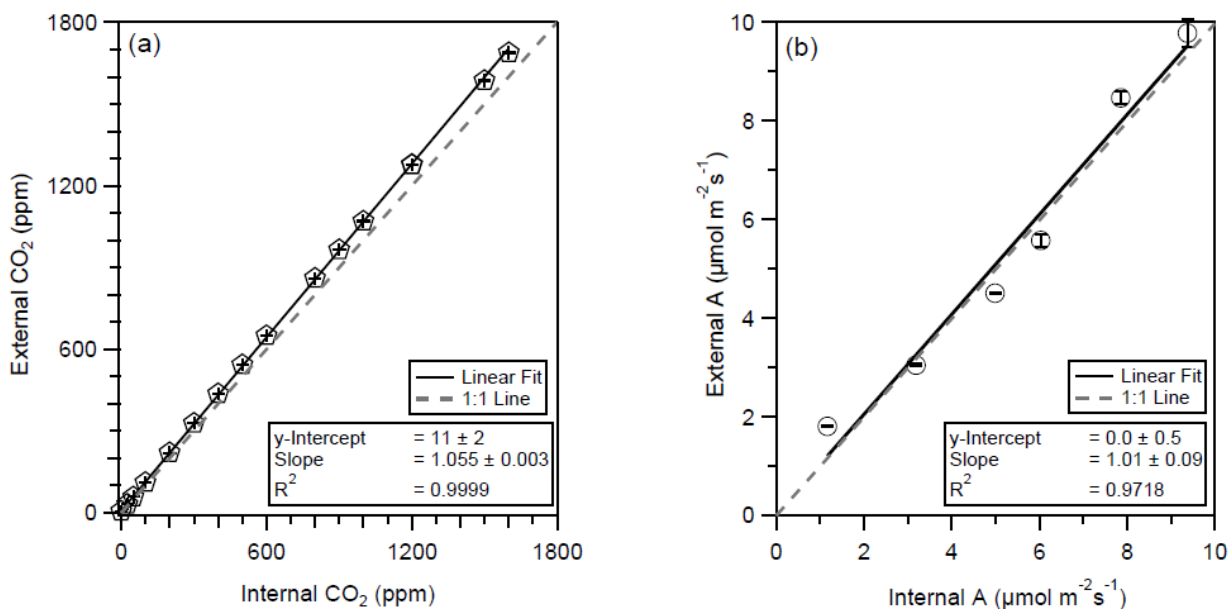
815 <sup>a</sup> Retention time

<sup>b</sup> Relative standard deviation (n=10)

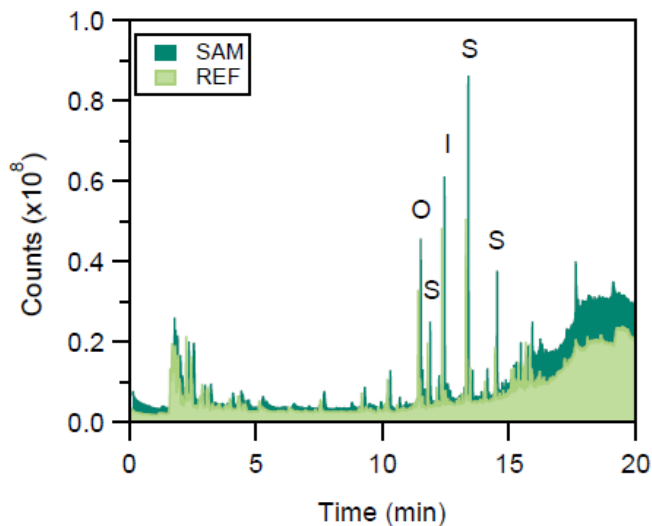
<sup>c</sup> Limit of detection, calculated using the propagation of errors approach (Bernal, 2014)

<sup>d</sup> Based on a 20 min sampling time

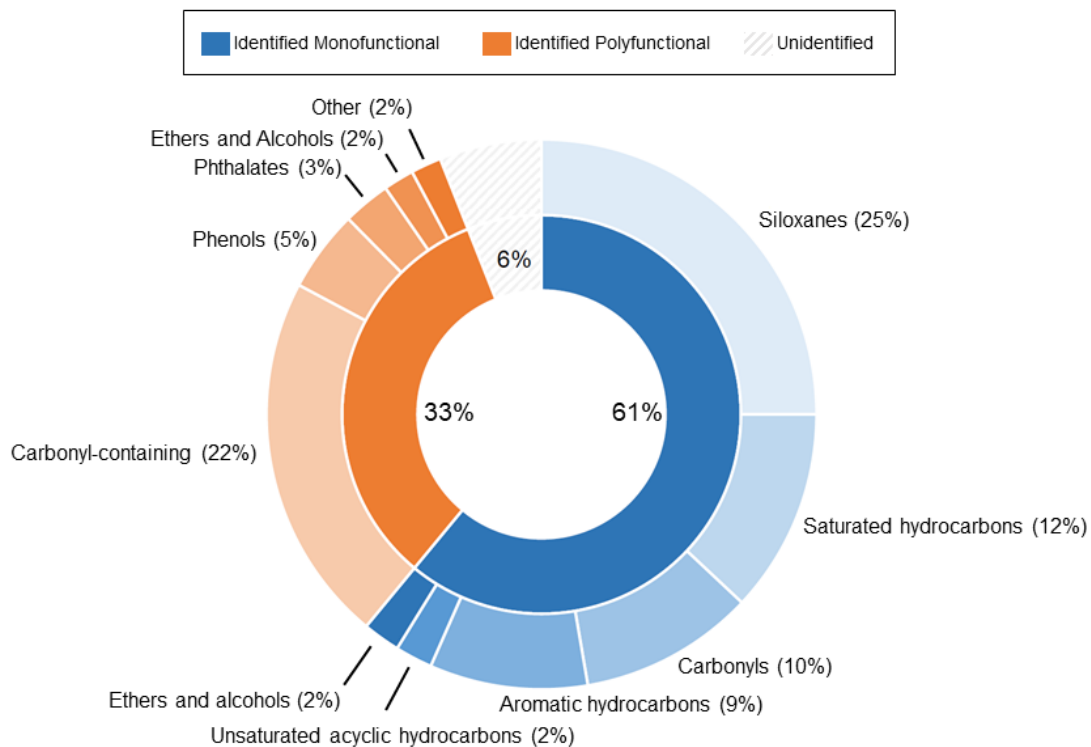
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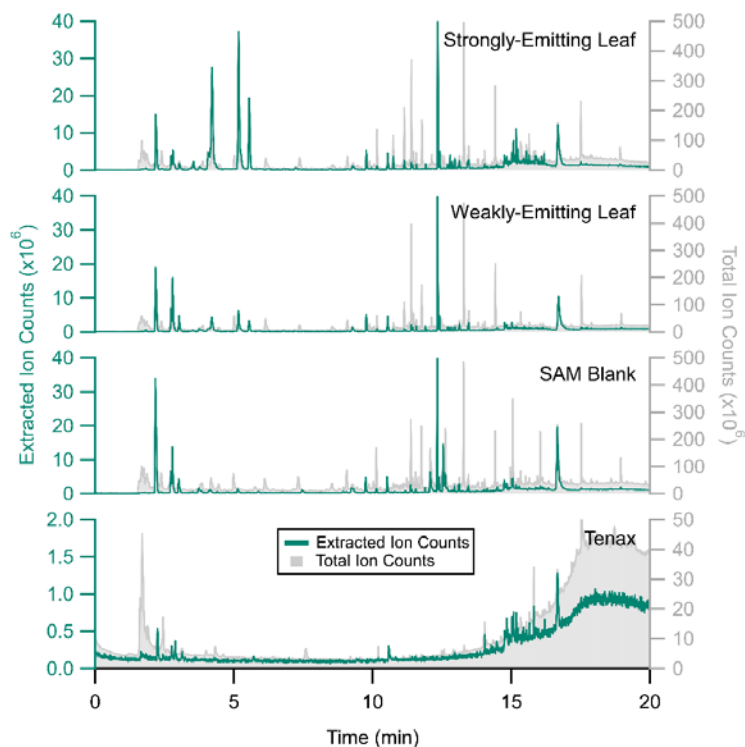
825 | Figure 3. Correlation plots of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration-mixing ratio (squares/pentagons, left panel) and CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation (A, circles, right panel) as calculated internally by the PPS (x-axis) and externally by the CO<sub>2</sub> analyzer (y-axis). A 1:1 line is present as a grey, dashed line. Linear regression fit is shown with a solid line, and fit parameters accompany in text, ± standard error of the fit. Error bars represent the standard deviation of values.



830 | Figure 4. Stacked chromatograms of the background composition of the LI-6800, comparing measurements taken from the REF (light green) and SAM (dark green) ports as sampled by TD-GC-MS (20 minutes at 0.2 L min<sup>-1</sup>, sampled on Tenax cartridges). The five largest peaks are labeled: S is the result of a siloxane, I is that of isobornyl acrylate and O is of n-octyl acrylate.

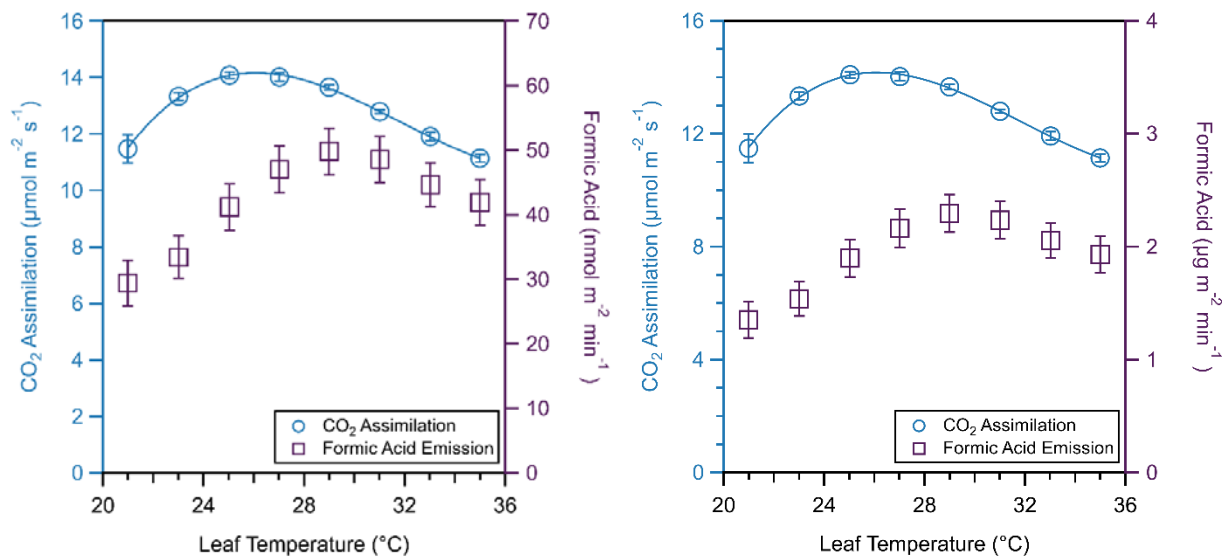


835 **Figure 5. Pie chart summarizing the background composition of the LI-6800 with no leaf in the chamber, collected using the SAM**  
**port of the PPS. Percentages are provided to indicate the contribution of each class of compounds to the total integrated peak area.**  
**The inner pie chart shows the division of total ion counts for identified monofunctional (containing a single functional group),**  
**identified polyfunctional (containing multiple functional groups) and unidentified (yellow stripes) peaks. Identification required an**  
**integrated peak area over 50,000 counts and a NIST library match score of at least 500. The outer pie chart shows the subsequent**  
840 **breakdown of both identified classes.**

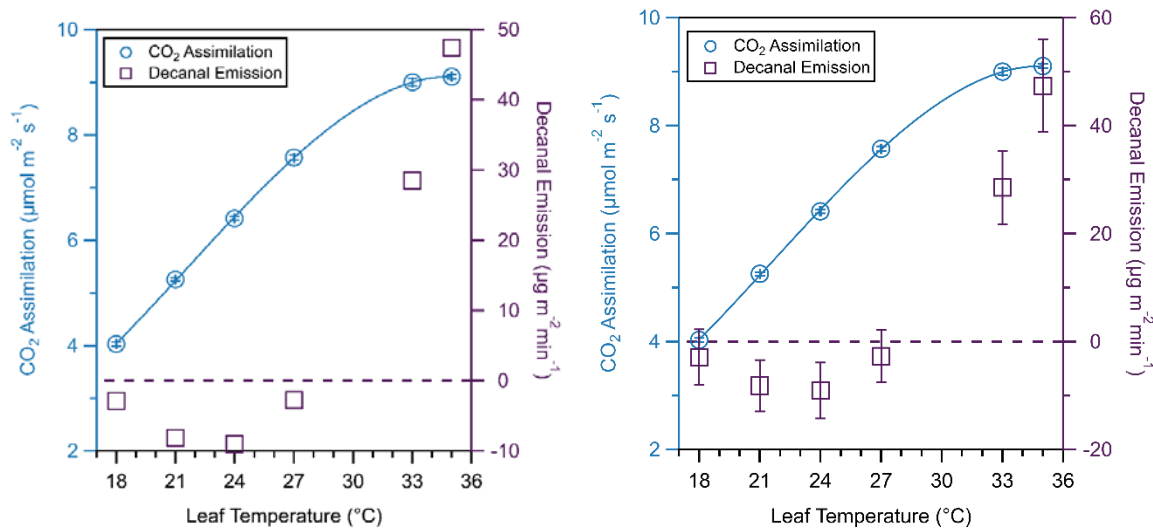


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**Figure 6.** Stacked chromatograms comparing extracted ion chromatograms (EIC using  $m/z$  136, 135, 93 and 91, left, in green) with the total ion chromatogram (TIC, right, in grey) for a Tenax blank, a SAM blank, a weakly- and a strongly- emitting citrus leaf (*Citrus limon*  $\times$  *Citrus medica*). Note the difference in axis scales between EIC and TIC. While several background peaks remain in the EIC, there are substantially fewer in the 10+ minute range. Peak height of EIC isobornyl acrylate (RT = 12.3 min) in has been truncated. Note that retention times differ from Table 2; the column length had been shortened by the time of these measurements.



850 Figure 7. CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation (blue circles) and formic acid emission (purple squares) temperature response curve of one spearmint leaf. Temperatures varied by 2 °C from 21 to 35 °C. CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation follows the expected cubic fit. We collected assimilation and formic acid emission measurements for five minutes and averaged the values of each; error bars represent the standard deviation of those averages.



855 Figure 8. CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation (blue circles) and decanal emission (purple squares) temperature response curve of one basil leaf. CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation is fit to a cubic function. We collected CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation values ten times over 20 minutes and averaged the values; error bars represent the standard deviation of those measurements. We did not collect duplicates of decanal emissions. Error bars for decanal emission represent instrumental error. The dashed line denotes 0 μg m<sup>-2</sup> min<sup>-1</sup> decanal emission.

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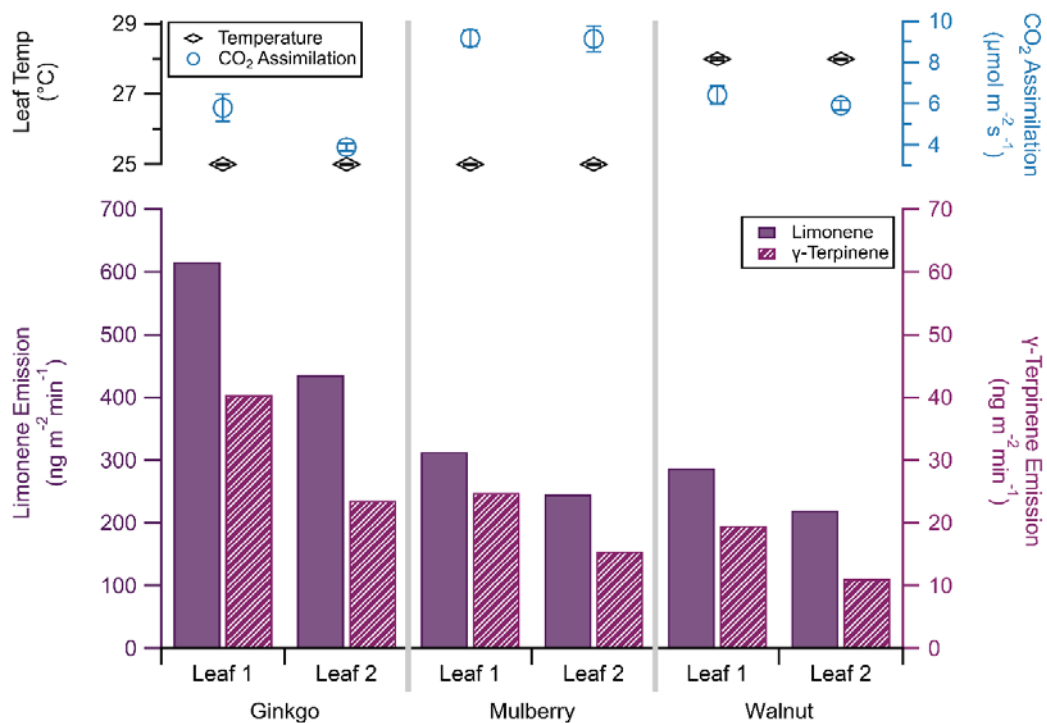
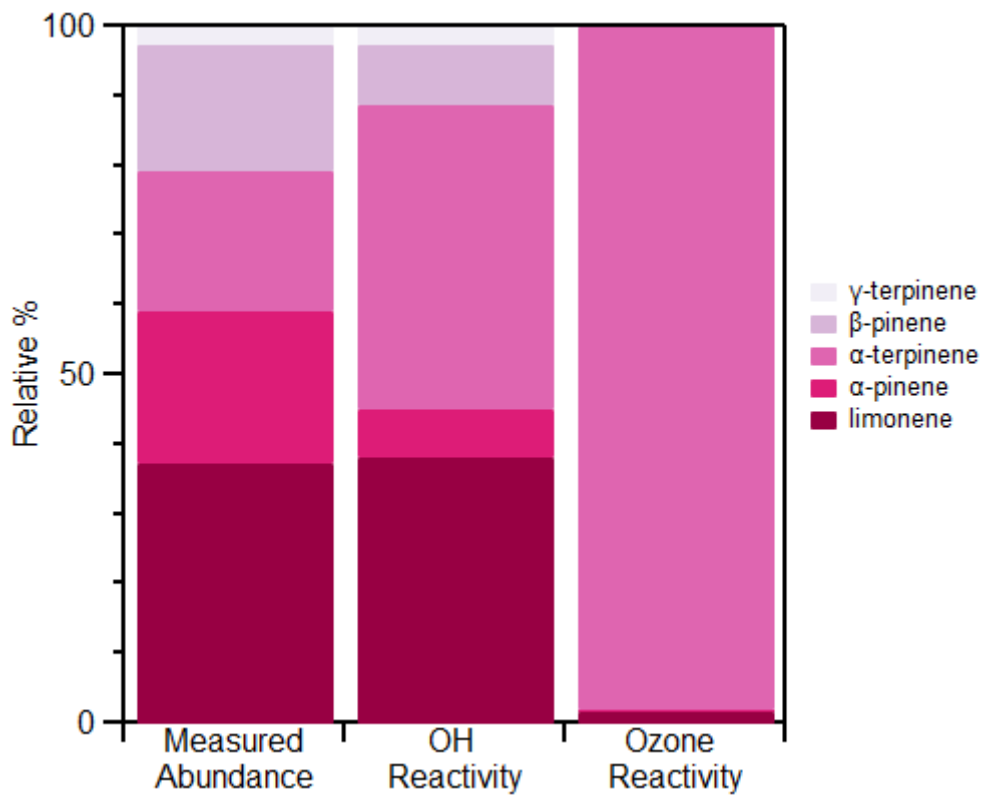


Figure 9. Limonene (solid bars, left bottom axis) and  $\gamma$ -terpinene (striped bars, right bottom axis) emission of two leaves from each of three plant species: ginkgo, mulberry, and walnut. Note that the scale of the limonene emission axis is ten times that of the  $\gamma$ -terpinene emission axis. Leaf temperature (black diamonds, left top axis) and CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation (blue circles, right top axis) are included, with standard deviation bars (n = 60).

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Figure 10. Relative measured abundance of all quantified monoterpenes from Ginkgo Leaf 1 (Fig. 9), and the subsequent relative contribution to both OH Reactivity and Ozone Reactivity. OH and ozone reactivity were calculated using  $k_{OH}$  and  $k_{Ozone}$  rate constants from Atkinson (1997).

### Acknowledgements

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### Data Availability

Data presented in figures herein may be accessed online at

[https://osf.io/8cs75/?view\\_only=9fddf94a16e94fd2a50289e01717ec65](https://osf.io/8cs75/?view_only=9fddf94a16e94fd2a50289e01717ec65).

885 **Author Contribution**

MR, DL, and DF designed the experiments and MR and DL carried them out. MR analysed the data in consultation with DL and DR. MR and DF prepared the manuscript.

**Competing Interests**

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

# Supplement of Simultaneous leaf-level measurement of trace gas emissions and photosynthesis with a portable photosynthesis system

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## S1 Additional method details on TOF-CIMS

For CIMS experiments, sample air is pulled from either the SAM or REF subsampling ports through 0.25 m of PFA tubing (6.35 mm o.d.) into an ion-molecule reaction chamber, where analytes of interest react with I<sup>-</sup> reagent ions. We generate I<sup>-</sup> ions by flowing ultrahigh purity nitrogen over a methyl iodide (CH<sub>3</sub>I) permeation tube and through a <sup>210</sup>P ionizer. We detect  
10 analytes as [I + analyte]<sup>-</sup> adducts. TOF-CIMS mass resolution ( $m/\Delta m$ ) = 4000 throughout experiments performed herein.

We calibrate our TOF-CIMS for formic acid (CH<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) using a permeation tube standard (KIN-TEK Analytical, Inc.) housed in a homebuilt oven held at 50 °C. We flow UHP N<sub>2</sub> (Airgas) over the formic acid permeation tube to generate a steady calibrant flow (Brophy and Farmer, 2015). The TOF-CIMS detection limit for formic acid was 12 parts-per-trillion by  
15 volume (ppt<sub>v</sub>) over a 60 second average, with a sensitivity of 2630 ± 40 normalized counts second<sup>-1</sup> ppt<sub>v</sub><sup>-1</sup>.

## S2 Additional method details on Thermal Desorption Gas Chromatography Mass Spectrometry

We calibrated the TD GC/MS for monoterpenes using a mixed calibration standard. The calibration standard is a mixture of methanol (gradient grade OmniSolv®, CAS:67-56-1) and the same concentration of α-pinene (99%, CAS:80-56-8), β-pinene (99%, CAS:18172-67-3), α-terpinene (85%, CAS:99-86-5), p-cymene (99%, CAS:99-87-6), (R)-(+)-limonene (97%,  
20 CAS:5989-27-5), γ-terpinene (97%, CAS:99-85-4), and terpinolene (technical, ≥85% (GC), CAS:586-62-9). All chemicals were purchased from Sigma Aldrich, Co. We created calibration standards at concentrations of 0.5, 1, 5, 25, 50, and 100 ng μL<sup>-1</sup>, and we used a 1 μL syringe (Hamilton Co.) to inject aliquots of calibration standard in volumes of 0.5, 1.0 or 2.0 μL onto the front end of the sorbent tube. We observed a linear range between 0.25 and 100 ng mass loadings. Table 2 shows data from calibrations performed with mass loadings between 0.25 and 1 ng.

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We collect gas phase samples using Tenax TA adsorbent material in inert-coated stainless steel tubes (Markes Intl., C1-CXXX-5003). We use a low-flow handheld sampling pump (ACTI-VOC, Markes Intl., C-LFP-01) at a constant flow rate of 0.20 L min<sup>-1</sup> for 20 minutes, for a total sample volume of 4 L. Cartridges are sealed with brass storage caps and PTFE

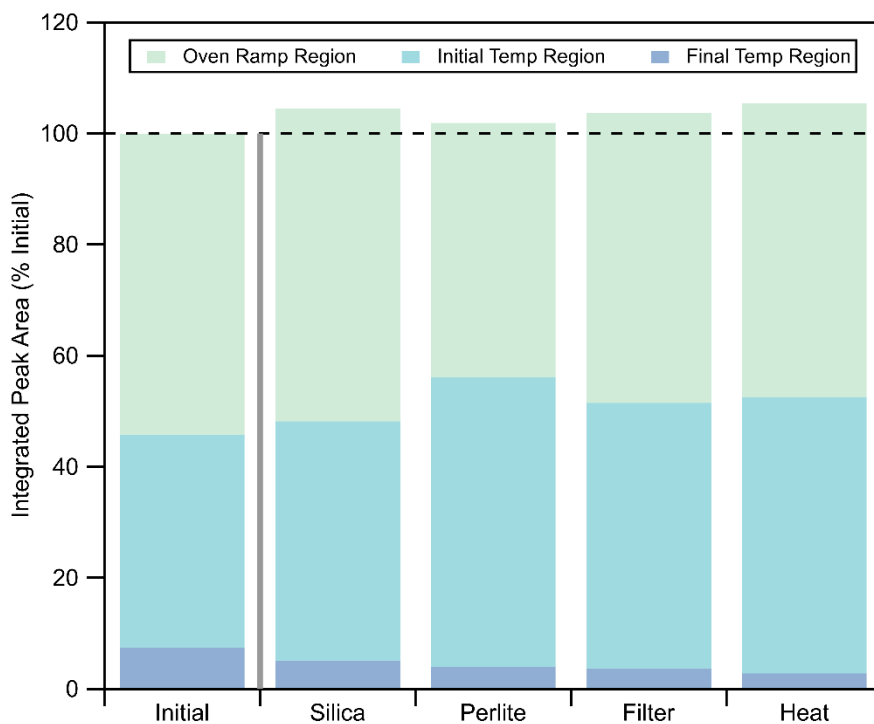
ferrules and are stored in an airtight container and refrigerated prior to sample analysis on the TD-GC/MS, typically within  
30 10 days. The autosampler (Ultra-xr, Markes Intl.) and the thermal desorption unit (Unity-xr, Markes Intl.) desorb gases from  
the cartridge. Cartridges are pre-purged with helium for 3 min. The cartridge tubes are then heated to 300 °C for 6 min while  
carrier gas (high purity helium) flows through the tubes at a rate of 0.100 L min<sup>-1</sup>. Desorbed analytes are focused onto a cold  
trap (Air Toxics Analyzer, Markes Intl.) at 20 °C before the trap is heated to 300 °C at a rate of 40 °C min<sup>-1</sup>. The cold trap is  
maintained at 300°C for 7 min to allow the analytes to fully desorb.

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Desorbed analytes are immediately sent through a gas chromatograph (TRACE 1310, Thermo Scientific with a ZB-5HT-MS  
column) mass spectrometer (TSQ 8000 Evo Triple Quadrupole GC-MS/MS, Thermo Scientific) with an electron impact  
source. A split ratio of 5.2:1 prevents overloading of the column during the desorption process. Helium carrier gas flows at  
0.0012 L min<sup>-1</sup>. The MS transfer line and the ion source temperatures are held at 300 °C. The GC oven temperature is  
40 maintained at 90 °C for 8 min and then raised to 280 °C (20 °C min<sup>-1</sup>; hold at 280°C for 2.5 min). Full scan mass spectra  
covered *m/z* 35-300, while extracted ion chromatogram for monoterpenes were obtained using *m/z* 136, 135, 93, 91. BVOCs  
were identified using the NIST library and, when possible, retention time (RT) and mass spectra of available standards  
(Table 2). We also show the mass-based limit of detection (LOD) and emission rate LOD in Table 2. The emission rate LOD  
is calculated using the mass-based LOD, a 20 minute sampling time, and 6×10<sup>-4</sup> m<sup>2</sup> leaf area. For background-subtracted  
45 emission measurements, the emission rate LOD depends on the background concentration of the analyte and should be  
calculated separately. For calibration, liquid standards are injected onto sorbent tubes by syringe. Standards and calibration  
methodology are described in detail in S1.

GC/MS peaks are integrated using Chromeleon™ Chromatography Data System 7.1 (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Integrated  
50 peaks of non-calibrated compounds are identified only if integrated area exceeded 50,000 counts×min and if a NIST library  
match score exceeded 500.

### S3 Background contamination minimization efforts



55 **Figure S3. Stacked bar chart of LI-6800 system blanks, resulting from different system alterations. We show the change in total ion counts of the resulting chromatograms in terms of % initial integrated peak area. The results are split into three regions, based on the GC oven program. The oven remains at 90 °C for 8 minutes (Initial Temp Region), then ramps at 20 °C min<sup>-1</sup> for 9.5 minutes (Oven Ramp Region), and remains at 280 °C for 2.5 minutes (Final Temp Region). The solid line denotes 100% of initial integrated peak area, and the dashed line delineates initial conditions from the affected conditions.**

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## S4 Plant growth conditions

<u>Plant</u>	<u>Scientific Name</u>	<u>Developmental Stage</u>	<u>Grow Location</u>	<u>Diel Temperature Variance</u>	<u>Light Conditions</u>
<u>Basil</u>	<u><i>Ocimum basilicum</i></u>	<u>Mature, pre-flowering</u>	<u>Indoors, beside north-facing window</u>	<u>~ 19 – 23 °C</u>	<u>Primarily natural, some fluorescent, standard daylight hours</u>
<u>Mint</u>	<u><i>Mentha spicata</i></u>	<u>Mature, pre-flowering</u>	<u>Indoors, beside north-facing window</u>	<u>~ 19 – 23 °C</u>	<u>Primarily natural, some fluorescent, standard daylight hours</u>
<u>Ponderosa Lemon</u>	<u><i>Citrus limon x Citrus medica</i></u>	<u>Mature, fruiting</u>	<u>Indoors, greenhouse</u>	<u>~ 17 – 28 °C</u>	<u>Primarily natural, LED supplement, 16 hours of light</u>
<u>Ginkgo</u>	<u><i>Ginkgo biloba</i></u>	<u>Mature, 2.1 – 2.7 tall</u>	<u>Outdoors, arboretum</u>	<u>~ 16 – 33 °C</u>	<u>Natural light, standard daylight hours</u>
<u>Mulberry</u>	<u><i>Morus alba</i></u>	<u>Mature, 7.6 – 9.1 m tall</u>	<u>Outdoors, arboretum</u>	<u>~ 16 – 33 °C</u>	<u>Natural light, standard daylight hours</u>
<u>Walnut</u>	<u><i>Juglans regia</i></u>	<u>Mature, 3.0 – 4.6 m tall</u>	<u>Outdoors, arboretum</u>	<u>~ 16 – 33 °C</u>	<u>Natural light, standard daylight hours</u>

## 75 References

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