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### Assessment of volatile organic compound emissions from ecosystems of China

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[1] Isoprene, monoterpene, and other volatile organic compound (VOC) emissions from grasslands, shrublands, forests, and peatlands in China were characterized to estimate their regional magnitudes and to compare these emissions with those from landscapes of North America, Europe, and Africa. Ecological and VOC emission sampling was conducted at 52 sites centered in and around major research stations located in seven different regions of China: Inner Mongolia (temperate), Changbai Mountain (boreal-temperate), Beijing Mountain (temperate), Dinghu Mountain (subtropical), Ailao Mountain (subtropical), Kunming (subtropical), and Xishuangbanna (tropical). Transects were used to sample plant species and growth form composition, leafy (green) biomass, and leaf area in forests representing nearly all the major forest types of China. Leafy biomass was determined using generic algorithms based on tree diameter, canopy structure, and absolute cover. Measurements of VOC emissions were made on 386 of the 541 recorded species using a portable photo-ionization detector method. For 105 species, VOC emissions were also measured using a flow-through leaf cuvette sampling/gas chromatography analysis method. Results indicate that isoprene and monoterpene emissions, as well as leafy biomass, vary systematically along gradients of ecological succession in the same manner found in previous studies in the United States, Canada, and Africa. Applying these results to a regional VOC emissions model, we arrive at a value of 21 Tg C for total annual biogenic VOC emissions from China, compared to 5 Tg C of VOCs released annually from anthropogenic sources there. The isoprene and monoterpene emissions are nearly the same as those reported for Europe, which is comparable in size to China. *INDEX TERMS:* 0315 Atmospheric Composition and Structure: Biosphere/atmosphere interactions; 0322 Atmospheric Composition and Structure: Constituent sources and sinks; 1615 Global Change: Biogeochemical processes (4805); 1851 Hydrology: Plant ecology; KEYWORDS: isoprene, succession, Gaia, grasslands, forests, peat bogs

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#### 1. Introduction

[2] Recent work on the ecological and evolutionary relationships of plants that emit (nonmethane) volatile organic compounds (VOCs) has revealed patterns which suggest that biogenic VOCs may play adaptive roles in the

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metabolism and development of ecosystems. Isoprene  $(C_5H_8)$ , for instance, is a highly reactive hydrocarbon emitted in large quantities by a wide variety of plants which can strongly influence concentrations of ozone  $(O_3)$ , nitrogen oxides  $(NO_x)$ , and hydroxyl radicals  $(OH)$  in the boundary-layer atmosphere over forested continental regions. While phylogenetic studies have revealed no clear evolutionary pattern among the major taxa that links isoprene-emitting plants [Harley et al., 1999], patterns do appear when plants and their emissions are examined in an ecological context. Klinger et al. [1994, 1998] have shown that isoprene and monoterpene emissions appear to vary systematically along gradients of ecosystem development (i.e., succession). These and other empirical studies indicate a common spatial-temporal pattern whereby isoprene emissions are seen to be low in early successional grasslands and shrublands, increase to high rates in early to mid-successional deciduous woodlands and ''secondary'' forests, then decrease to moderate rates in later successional ''primary'' evergreen forests, and drop to low rates in late

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successional peatlands [Klinger et al., 1998; Guenther et al., 1999a; Helmig et al., 1999b; Isebrands et al., 1999; Schaab et al., 2000; Westberg et al., 2000]. Studies using ecological models to describe VOC emissions during succession show a similar trend [Martin and Guenther, 1995].

[3] Such ecological patterns present opportunities to derive landscape-level VOC fluxes from models parameterized with remotely sensed vegetation data classified according to ecosystem age and/or disturbance regime. The need for a remote-sensing approach is particularly germane as scientists begin to focus on VOC emissions from the species-rich tropics. In rain forests especially, conventional ground-based methods which involve inventorying emissions of each species to characterize landscapelevel VOC fluxes are time-consuming and difficult. The utility, however, of a succession-based model for predicting how VOC emissions from terrestrial ecosystems will change with time relies heavily on the degree to which the successional patterns in emissions are global.

[4] In this paper we extend to China the investigation of VOC emissions and ecosystem succession by conducting a species-by-species survey of isoprene and monoterpene emissions and characterizing vegetation composition and structure along successional gradients in boreal, temperate, subtropical, and tropical ecosystems there. Furthermore, we apply our forest and emission inventory data to a regional model to estimate VOC emissions for all of China.

#### 2. Methods

#### 2.1. Study Site Descriptions

[5] Study sites were located in seven regions of China in and around the following research stations: the temperate Inner Mongolia Grassland Ecosystem Research Station, (Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region), the boreal-temperate Changbai Mountain Forest Ecosystem Research Station (Jilin Province), the temperate Beijing Forest Ecosystem Research Station (Beijing Province), the subtropical Dinghu Mountain Forest Ecosystem Research Station (Guangdong Province), the subtropical Ailao Mountain Forest Ecosystem Station (Yunnan Province), the subtropical Kunming Botanical Garden (Yunnan Province), and the tropical Xishuangbanna Tropical Botanical Garden (Yunnan Province). Sampling sites were located in forests that have previously been studied and described by local ecologists. Sampling was conducted during the main growing season at each site. Table 1 lists the vegetation type, sampling period, geographic coordinates, elevation, slope, and aspect for each of the 52 study sites.

#### 2.2. Vegetation Measurements

[6] Vegetation communities at 36 of the sites were identified, gridded, then sampled in 10-m  $\times$  10-m contiguous plots along 50-m to 100-m transects. In each plot all trees were identified, and the tree diameter at breast height (DBH)  $(\sim 1.5 \text{ m from base})$  and tree height were recorded. All stems 4 cm DBH and 1.5 m tall were counted as trees. Tree layer and understory layer leaf area index (LAI), the ratio of leaf area to ground area, were measured at two central locations in plots using two (above and below canopy) LiCor LAI-2000 instruments. The above-canopy instrument was located at the top of a nearby tower or in a nearby forest clearing.

Visual estimates of absolute cover of growth forms were made, and slope, aspect, and elevation were recorded for each plot. Details of the above methods are described by Helmig et al. [1999b].

[7] Leaves of the main plant species occurring in the transects, including cryptogams (mosses and lichens), were collected and photographed against a calibrated white backing. In the laboratory, dry weight of each leaf set was obtained by placing leaves in a drying oven for 24 hours at  $50^{\circ}$ C and weighing on an analytical balance. Digital photos were analyzed using an Interactive Data Language  $(IDL^{(R)} )$  custom leaf area program designed to select adjacent pixels of a similar shade in an image. In each image, the leaf and  $25$ -cm<sup>2</sup> calibration square pixel areas were determined, giving metric values of (one-sided) leaf area. These data were used to determine the ratio of leaf area  $(A_L)$  to leaf biomass  $(B_L)$ , a parameter used in our emission equations. Species not measured were assigned  $A_L:B_L$  values based on the averages of measured species of their respective genus or of their respective growth form.

[8] Tree leaf biomass, expressed as leaf dry weight per unit ground area, was determined using generic algorithms based on DBH and canopy structure. The different algorithms were derived from measured parameters of species typifying the respective forest types of each region. The Geron et al. [1994] algorithms were used for the Inner Mongolia, Beijing Mountain, and Changbai Mountain forests, the *Tang et al.* [1998] and *Feng et al.* [1998] algorithms for the Xishuangbanna forests, and the Geron et al. [1994] and the Qiu et al. [1984] algorithms for the Ailao Mountain forests. Understory leafy biomass was calculated as the product of the  $A_L:B_L$  value and the fractional area cover in each plot of leafy biomass for each growth form. (We use the label ''leafy'' biomass in referring to the leaf-like, green photosynthetic tissue of all plants, including cryptogams which possess no true leaves.) The  $A_L:B_L$  values, in cm<sup>2</sup> per gram dry weight of leafy matter, assigned to the understory growth forms are as follows: graminoids  $= 121$ , forbs  $=$ 123, deciduous shrubs = 131, evergreen shrubs = 105, lianes  $= 120$ , bamboos  $= 295$ , ferns  $= 211$ , peat mosses  $= 8$ , other mosses  $= 26$ , and lichens  $= 150$ .

#### 2.3. Trace Gas Sampling and Analysis

[9] Emissions of isoprene and other nonmethane VOCs were characterized for 386 of the 541 recorded species using the portable photoionization detector (PID) screening method reported by Klinger et al. [1998]. Measurements were taken on several different leaves and/or individual plants of a given species until a consistent result was obtained. On the basis of the semiquantitative results from the PID method, species were assigned emission potentials of high, moderate, or low as per the emission categories of Geron et al. [1994]. In addition, 105 species were sampled using the flow-through leaf cuvette method similar to that described by *Harley et al.* [1997] except that the cuvette system was custom-made at the National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) (Boulder, CO). This system recorded flow rates, inlet and outlet air humidity, leaf temperature, and photosynthetically active radiation at 5 second intervals on a Tattletale 5F datalogger (Onset Computer Corp, Pocasset, MA). Cuvette air samples, 500 ml in volume, were collected onto absorbent cartridges using a

Vegetation Type <sup>a</sup>	Sampling Period	Latitude	Longitude	Elev, m	Slope, deg	Aspect
		Inner Mongolia				
Station area	23 July 2001	$43^{\circ}37.81'N$	$116^{\circ}42.30'E$	1191	$\mathbf{0}$	
Mixed grassland*	24 July 2001	$43^{\circ}30.38^{\prime}N$	116°49.39'E	1415	2.5	<b>NNW</b>
Stipa grassland*	24 July 2001	$43^{\circ}32.40^{\prime}N$	$116^{\circ}33.49'E$	1174	$\boldsymbol{0}$	
Willow shrubland*	25 July 2001	$43^{\circ}09.52'N$	$116^{\circ}06.73^{\prime}E$	1296	5	<b>NE</b>
Station area forest		Beijing Mountain $40^{\circ}01'N$	$115^{\circ}28'E$	1100	n.d. <sup>b</sup>	n.d.
Elm woodland	27 May 1998 26 July 2001	$40^{\circ}21.30^{\prime}N$	$116^{\circ}00.39'E$	644	$\boldsymbol{0}$	
Pine woodland*		$40^{\circ}21.11^{\prime}N$	$116^{\circ}00.38'E$	695	21	$\overline{\phantom{a}}$ $\mathbf E$
Locust woodland*	26 July 2001 26 July 2001	$40^{\circ}21.40^{\prime}N$	$116^{\circ}00.43^{\prime}E$	678	15	W
		Changbai Mountain				
Alpine tundra	11 Aug. 1998	$42^{\circ}03.27'N$	$128^{\circ}03.89'E$	$\sim$ 2400	20	W
Birch woodland*	$12 - 25$ Aug. 1998	$42^{\circ}03.27^{\prime}N$	$128^{\circ}03.89'E$	1980	12	W
Birch/larch forest*	12-25 Aug. 1998	$42^{\circ}03.61'$ N	$128^{\circ}03.87'E$	1863	21	N
Birch/poplar forest*	20-26 Aug. 1998	$42^{\circ}24.26'$ N	$128^{\circ}05.97'E$	700	5	<b>SW</b>
Birch/spruce forest*	$11 - 25$ Aug. 1998	$42^{\circ}03.98^{\prime}N$	$128^{\circ}03.90'E$	$\sim$ 1700	20	N
Grass/willow shrubland*	$20 - 24$ Sept. 1998	$42^{\circ}24.20'$ N	$128^{\circ}06.35'E$	705	$\mathbf{0}$	$\overline{\phantom{a}}$
Larch bog forest*	19–25 Aug. 1998	$42^{\circ}08.40^{\prime}N$	$128^{\circ}16.47'E$	1200	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\sim$
Larch/pine forest*		$42^{\circ}11.27'N$	$128^{\circ}13.26'E$	$\sim$ 1000	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\overline{\phantom{a}}$
	$22 - 25$ Aug. 1998		128°06.35'E			
Linden/ash forest*	14-24 Aug. 1998	$42^{\circ}24.18'$ N		705	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\overline{\phantom{a}}$
Oak/pine forest*	$15 - 26$ Aug. 1998	$42^{\circ}24.26'$ N	$128^{\circ}05.97'E$	745	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\blacksquare$
Pine/linden/fir forest*	24-25 Aug. 1998	$42^{\circ}13.53'N$	$128^{\circ}10.65'E$	$\sim 900$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\overline{a}$
Pine/spruce forest*	$18 - 25$ Aug. 1998	$43^{\circ}08.57^{\prime}N$	$128^{\circ}07.92'E$	1190	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\sim$
Sphagnum/shrub bog*	$10-21$ Aug. 1998	$42^{\circ}01.83'$ N	128°25.74'E	1255	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\overline{a}$
Spruce/fir forest*	$12 - 25$ Aug. 1998	$42^{\circ}01.61'$ N	$128^{\circ}03.85'E$	1620	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\sim$
Spruce/larch forest*	$12 - 25$ Aug. 1998	$42^{\circ}04.37^{\prime}N$	$128^{\circ}03.71'E$	1640	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\overline{a}$
Station garden	9–22 Aug. 1998	$42^{\circ}24.26'$ N	128°05.97'E	705	$\mathbf{0}$	$\overline{a}$
		Dinghu Mountain				
Station area forest	24-25 May 1998	$23^{\circ}10'$ N	112°32'E	$\sim 400$	n.d.	n.d.
		Xishuangbanna				
Botanical garden	22 Sept. - 2 Nov. 1998	$21^{\circ}55.60^{\prime}N$	$101^{\circ}15.94'E$	570	$\boldsymbol{0}$	
Castanopsis forest*	24 Sept. - 8 Oct. 1998	$21^{\circ}57.66'$ N	$101^{\circ}12.02'E$	820	28	W
Conservation reserve	26 Sept. - 2 Nov. 1998	$21^{\circ}55.18'$ N	$101^{\circ}16.13^{\prime}E$	590	$\boldsymbol{0}$	
Cratoxylon moss forest*	2–8 Oct. 1998	$21^{\circ}57.71'N$	$101^{\circ}12.24'E$	845	10	WNW
Early primary forest*	29 Sept. - 7 Oct. 1998	$21^{\circ}55.12'N$	$101^{\circ}16.38$ <sup>E</sup>	565	35	<b>NNW</b>
		$21^{\circ}55.35'$ N	$101^{\circ}16.23^{\prime}E$	570	10	<b>SE</b>
Early secondary forest*	29 Sept. - 6 Oct. 1998					
Elephant reserve	23 Sept. 1998	$22^{\circ}10.60^{\prime}N$	$100^{\circ}51.33'E$	750	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\overline{\phantom{a}}$
<i>Ficus</i> garden	$3-13$ Aug. 2001	$21^{\circ}55.67'N$	$101^{\circ}15.16'E$	560	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\overline{\phantom{a}}$
Mixed plantation	7 Oct-2 Nov 1998	$21^{\circ}55.35'$ N	$101^{\circ}16.23'E$	570	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\overline{\phantom{a}}$
Pometia forest*	24 Sept. - 8 Oct. 1998	$21^{\circ}57.67'N$	$101^{\circ}12.02'E$	805	35	E
Riverside woodland*	$7-10$ Oct. 1998	$21^{\circ}55.91'N$	$101^{\circ}15.29'E$	575	10	N
Rubber tree plantation	$8-10$ Aug. 2001	$21^{\circ}55.44'$ N	$101^{\circ}16.05'E$	570	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\overline{\phantom{a}}$
Secondary forest*	30 Sept. - 7 Oct. 1998	$21^{\circ}55.18'$ N	$101^{\circ}16.13'E$	590	15	W
Shorea forest	22 Sept. 1998	$21^{\circ}37.59^{\prime}N$	101°35.28'E	$\sim$ 700	$\mathbf{0}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
<i>Trema</i> grassland	5 Oct. 1998	22°57.95′N	$102^{\circ}26.28$ E	910	$10\,$	W
Trema woodland*	6 Oct. 1998	$21^{\circ}57.95'$ N	$101^{\circ}26.28'E$	915	25	W
		Ailao Mountain				
Disturbed mossy forest	29 Oct. 1998	$24^{\circ}19.19^{\prime}N$	$100^{\circ}47.70'E$	2325	$\boldsymbol{0}$	
Dwarf forest*	16-24 Oct. 1998	$24^{\circ}31.68'$ N	$101^{\circ}01.84'E$	2528	35	<b>WNW</b>
Heath forest*	16-24 Oct. 1998	$24^{\circ}31.68'$ N	$101^{\circ}01.84'E$	2640	25	NW
Late Castanopsis forest*	17 Oct. 1998	$24^{\circ}32.88'$ N	$101^{\circ}02.45'E$	2515	32	NE
Late primary forest*	$16 - 26$ Oct. 1998	$24^{\circ}32.56'$ N	$101^{\circ}01.65'E$	2442	15	WNW
Lithocarpus forest/bog*	17-26 Oct. 1998	$24^{\circ}32.24^{\prime}N$	$101^{\circ}10.62$ <sup>'</sup> E	2408	9	<b>SSW</b>
Mossy forest*	$16 - 26$ Oct. 1998	$24^{\circ}31.68'N$	$101^{\circ}01.84'E$	2490	20	W
		$24^{\circ}32.54^{\prime}N$	$101^{\circ}01.63'E$			
Poplar forest*	$17 - 26$ Oct. 1998			2415	20	S
Poplar woodland*	$21 - 24$ Oct. 1998	$24^{\circ}32.72'N$	$101^{\circ}01.52^{\prime}E$	2395	23	N
Sphagnum bog*	20-24 Oct. 1998	$24^{\circ}32.81'N$	$101^{\circ}01.54'E$	2460	$\overline{c}$	SW
		Kunming				
Botanical garden	5-7 Nov. 1998	$25^{\circ}08.27^{\prime}N$	102°44.32'E	1880	$\boldsymbol{0}$	

Table 1. Location, Sampling Period, Topographic Setting, and Vegetation Type of Study Sites

<sup>a</sup> asterisk indicates sites sampled with transects.<br><sup>b</sup> not determined.

large syringe [Helmig et al., 1999a]. Both techniques were applied only on mature, undamaged leaves. All measurements were done around midday on in situ sunlit leaves with air temperatures ranging from  $20^{\circ}$  to  $35^{\circ}$ C. The cartridge samples were frozen and brought to NCAR for analysis using gas chromatography mass spectrometry (GC-MS) and atomic emission detection methods for VOCs [Greenberg et al., 1999a].

#### 3. Results and Interpretation

#### 3.1. Distribution and VOC Emissions of Plant Species

[10] Table 2 lists by region the species name, family, growth form, vegetation type, emission potential, and measured emission. High, medium, and low emission potentials were assigned based on measurements in this study and/or emissions reported in the literature [Geron et al., 1994; Guenther et al., 1996; Klinger et al., 1998; Zhang et al., 2000]. For the four species where PID results differed from the leaf cuvette/GC-MS results, the latter results were used to assign emission potentials. Genus-level assignments were based on measured emissions of one or more species within a given genus. Where emission information was not available at the genus level for a given species, emission potentials were treated as missing. Monoterpene emissions for three species measured at Beijing Mountain (Juglans mandshurica, Lespedeza bicolor, and Spiraea pubescens) were found to be unusually high (see Table 2), probably as a result of leaf disturbance during the cuvette sampling. Thus these high values should be considered suspect.

[11] These are the first reported VOC emission measurements for most of the species sampled here. Certain genusand family-level patterns in isoprene emission seen in Africa [Guenther et al., 1996; Klinger et al., 1998] are apparent in China as well. In China, 12 of the 17 species in the family Moraceae were isoprene emitters, mostly in the genus Ficus, a pattern similar to that in Africa. The tendency seen in Africa for species of Caesalpiniaceae and Arecaceae to emit isoprene is not as obvious in China. In the family Arecaceae, 5 of 14 species emitted isoprene and in Caesalpiniaceae, only 3 species out of 16 were isoprene emitters. One important economic species, the rubber tree Hevea brasiliensis, was found to be a strong, light-dependent emitter of monoterpenes. As this tree is planted widely as a monoculture in tropical China, its impact alone on the regional atmospheric chemistry may be significant.

[12] At Changbai Mountain the 56 woody species sampled for biomass and emissions account for over 95% of the forest canopy biomass in the region [Xu et al., 1985; Liu, 1997]. At Xishuangbanna, the 278 woody species sampled for biomass include 80 to 90% of the most abundant forest species in the region according to *Cao et al.* [1996] and *Dang and Qian* [1997], respectively. The 205 woody species for which VOC emissions were sampled account for between 62 and 83% of the most abundant species in the Xishuangbanna region [Cao et al., 1996; Dang and Qian, 1997]. In the Ailao Mountains, biomass estimates were based on 68 species, including 40 species which constitute between 80 and 95% of the forest biomass [*Qian*, 1983; *Wang*, 1983]. Emission estimates were based on 57 species, including 33 species which make up between 75 and 85% of the Ailao forest biomass [*Qian*, 1983; Wang, 1983; Xie, 1987]. For Inner Mongolia and

Beijing Mountain regions, no comparable forest biomass data could be found. Overall, for those sites where inventory data are available, its appears that our emission results are based on those species that account for the majority of the woody vegetation in the study areas.

[13] Unless determined otherwise, nonwoody canopy taxa were assigned emission potentials of 0.1  $\mu$ g C g<sup>-1</sup> hr<sup>-1</sup> for isoprene and monoterpenes, except for peat (Sphagnum) mosses which were assigned an emission potential of 1.0 messes when were assigned an emission potential of 1.0  $\mu$ g C  $g^{-1}$  hr<sup>-1</sup> for isoprene based on measurements of Hanson et al. [1999] and Isebrands et al. [1999]. In general, grasses, forbs, ferns, mosses, and lichens are found to emit low or no amounts of isoprene and monoterpenes. However, with only a limited inventory of the herbaceous and cryptogamic species, the actual emissions for this ground vegetation remain poorly characterized. Considering the high biomass of some of these growth forms (e.g., mosses), even a low emission could add significantly to the total emissions.

#### 3.2. Successional Relationships of Vegetation Types

[14] Table 3 summarizes plant abundance and VOC emissions for the various vegetation types in each region according to their successional status. The successional relationships and ecosystem ages are based on previously published studies from China, recorded disturbance histories, tree size distributions, and peat depth and stratigraphy. In the Changbai Mountain region, successional stages from bare ground to spruce-fir forest were pieced together from several published field studies from this region [Barnes et al., 1992; Wu and Han, 1992; Deng et al., 1995; Li et al., 1994; Liu, 1997] as well as field studies in nearby regions containing similar forest types [Li, 1991; Tian et al., 1995]. The ages of the older peatland communities were based on known radiocarbon dates of basal peats at Changbai Mountain sites with peat depths comparable to those measured in this study [Yang and Song, 1992]. Model results of Jiang et al. [1999] showing biomass changes over several hundred years of ecosystem development are consistent with the pattern of gradual replacement of deciduous forest by evergreen forest shown here for Changbai Mountain. Species and biomass results of a gap model of forests on Changbai Mountain [Yan and Zhao, 1996], which show the succession of forest types in the sequence poplar/birch  $\rightarrow$  oak  $\rightarrow$  pine  $\rightarrow$  spruce/fir, are also consistent with our findings. Succession at Changbai Mountain is similar to that found in other parts of China, such as in the Gongga Mountain region, western Sichuan Province, where vegetation succession from herbs to deciduous shrubs to deciduous trees to evergreen trees has been documented following glacier retreat [Zhong et al., 1999].

[15] Successional patterns of the vegetation in the Xishuangbanna region follow the classification by Zhang and Cao [1995]. Of the ten vegetation types they report, all but one (monsoon forest over limestone) were included among the sampling sites here. Successional status was determined for the early stages (<100 years) by examining abandoned fields of known age. Later stages of succession were determined from published studies of forest composition and size structure [Dang and Qian, 1997; Su, 1997].

[16] The successional patterns in the subtropical Ailao Mountains are based on previous studies by Wang [1983], Sheng and Xie [1990], and Young et al. [1992], as well as on









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a dbs, deciduous broadleaved shrub; ebs, evergreen broadleaved shrub; bli, broadleaved liana; bt, broadleaved tree; dbt, decidous broadleaved tree; ebt,

evergreen broadleaved tree; dnt, deciduous needleleaved tree; ent, evergreen needleleaved tree; grm, graminoid; frb, forb; mos, moss.<br><sup>b</sup>gr, grassland; sh, shrubland; dw, deciduous woodland; df, deciduous forest; ef, ever

<sup>e</sup>units:  $\mu$ g C g<sup>-1</sup> hr<sup>-1</sup>; 2001 measurements in italics.

f not determined.

observed forest structure, peat depth, and gross peat stratigraphy. The successional patterns shown here, to about 500 years, are consistent with successions described from other subtropical forests of China [Ming, 1987; Zhou et al., 1999; Chau and Marafa, 1999; An et al., 2001]. Wang [1983]

further proposes that, in this region, succession occurs from peatland to Populus forest, although no data in support of this pathway are presented. In our study we found unambiguous evidence that, in the absence of large-scale disturbance, peatlands are replacing the Lithocarpus forest in the region,



and we found no evidence of succession from peatland to Populus forest. This evidence can be seen in the oldest (500- 1000 years) Lithocarpus forests (the so-called ''dwarf forests") where we find peatland plants, particularly Sphagnum mosses, colonizing the forest floor. Also, in the dwarf forests along the margins of peatlands, the peat bog vegetation is overgrowing forest plants and soils. Here there is an abundance of dead and dying trees, with logs and stumps buried under the peat. Measured peat depths in these bogs range from 205 to 404 cm, which suggests that the oldest parts of these peatlands are several thousands of years in age.

[17] The successional patterns described here for China are consistent with successional studies elsewhere that show, in the absence of disturbance, pathways of ecosystem development going from evergreen forest to peat forest to peatland [Klinger et al., 1990; Klinger, 1996a, 1996b; Klinger and Short, 1996]. However, other studies suggest different successional pathways and relationships among the ecosystem types described here, thus leaving the matter open to further investigation.

#### 3.3. Leafy Biomass, Leaf Area, and VOC Emissions

[18] Mean values of leafy biomass, leaf area, and VOC emissions according to successional status of plots in each of the study areas are also listed in Table 3. The biomass values reported here are generally consistent with values reported from comparable sites in China. Measured leafy biomass of Stipa-dominated grasslands in northern China is reported by Gao and Yu [1998] as 153 g (leaf dry weight) per  $m^{-2}$ (ground area) compared to 109 g  $m^{-2}$  determined in this study. At Changbai Mountain, Xu et al. [1985] reported canopy leafy biomass values of 262 and 269 g  $\text{m}^{-2}$  for two deciduous forest types, and 240 and 326  $\frac{1}{\text{g}}$  m<sup>-2</sup> for two evergreen forest types, compared to canopy leafy biomass for deciduous forests of 340 g m<sup>-2</sup> and for evergreen forests of 353 g m<sup>-2</sup> measured here. Cao et al. [1995] reported cryptogam biomass of 400 to 558 g  $m^{-2}$  for moss forests and 534  $\rm g$  m<sup>-2</sup> for a peatland compared to values of 351 and 480  $g m^{-2}$  measured here, respectively. Shao et al. [1992] found an herb (graminoid + forb) leafy biomass of  $42.2 \text{ g m}^{-2}$  in deciduous forest compared to 17.5 g m<sup>-2</sup> found here. Tree leaf biomass reported for a Xishuangbanna primary rain forest is 791 g m<sup>-2</sup> [Dang et al., 1997] compared to tree leaf biomass of primary rain forest found here to be 486  $g$  m<sup>-2</sup>. Estimates of leafy biomass for subtropical broad-leaved evergreen forest, similar to Ailao Mountain forests, range from 128 [*Chen et al.*, 1993] to 346  $\rm g$  m<sup>-2</sup> [*Qiu et al.*, 1984], compared to 243 g  $m^{-2}$  reported here. At Ailao Mountain, Qiu et al. [1984] reported moss forest canopy leafy biomass of 346 g m<sup>-2</sup> compared to 289 g m<sup>-2</sup> here.

[19] The only comparable measurements of LAI found in the literature are for the Changbai Mountain region, reported as 6.9 for deciduous forest and 4.7 for evergreen forest [Xu et al., 1985], compared to values found here of 4.7 and 5.2, respectively. There are no known measurements of VOC emissions for comparable forests in China.

[20] Figure 1a shows the mean values of total leafy biomass for each plot according to successional stage. The trend in group means shows that leafy biomass of plants increases sigmoidally with ecosystem age, consistent with *Odum's* [1971] principles of ecosystem development. While the curve in Figure 1a shows leafy biomass continuing to increase during succession, Table 3 indicates that the leafy biomass in later successional stages is composed largely of cryptogams.

[21] Calculated isoprene and monoterpene emissions for each plot according to successional stage are shown in Figures 1b and 1c. Isoprene values were adjusted for leaf area index and standardized for a sun zenith angle of 57 degrees, an above-canopy PAR of 1500  $\mu$ moles m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> , and a leaf temperature of  $30^{\circ}$ C. The curve of isoprene mean group values indicates that isoprene emissions are highest in the early successional forest stages  $(3-4 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1})$ and drop to lower levels in the late successional forests and peatlands  $(0.1-2 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1})$ . The group means for monoterpene emissions indicate highest monoterpene emissions ( $\sim$ 2 mg C m<sup>-2</sup> hr<sup>-1</sup>) in the late successional moss forests and declining somewhat in the peatland stages. These patterns are very similar to those found in previous successional studies of VOC emissions in Africa [Klinger et] al., 1998], in North America [Guenther et al., 1999a; Helmig et al., 1999b], and in Europe [Schaab et al., 2000].

#### 3.4. VOC Emission Estimates for China

[22] VOC emissions for all of China were computed using the model of Guenther et al. [1995], parameterized and modified for China in the following ways. The percentage of forest types by province was calculated from forest inventory results reported by  $Wu$  [1997]. From this inventory we utilized data on two forest classifications to arrive at province-level forest composition and cover (Table 4). One data set provided province-level areas for the following categories: coniferous forest, broadleaved forest, bamboo forest, economic forest, total forest, and total area. A second data set gave provincial presence-absence and nationwide percentage cover for 15 forest types: Quercus, Betula, Populus, Larix, Picea, Abies, Cunninghamia lanceolata, Pinus massoniana, P. tabulaeformis, P. yunnanensis, mixed conifer, mixed broadleaf, broadleaf, sclerophyll, and other. These latter forest types were condensed to 12 by combining the three Pinus types to a single Pinus type and combining the Abies and Cunninghamia lanceolata types to a single fir type. The first data set provided area-weighted indices for these 12 forest types according to the percentage composition of "conifer," "broadleaf," or "other" ("bamboo'' + ''economic'') forest cover. Characterizations of species composition, leafy biomass density, and emissions data collected at the Changbai, Xishuangbanna, and Ailao locations in areas representative of nearly all these forest types were then applied to the values in Table 4. The results (Table 5) show the canopy leafy biomass, isoprene emission factors, monoterpene emission factors, and emission factors of other volatile organic compounds (OVOCs) calculated from N samples (plots) in each forest type, except sclerophyll forest. OVOC emission factors were based on a value of 1.5  $\mu$ g C g<sup>-1</sup> hr<sup>-1</sup> assigned for all canopy species [*Geron* et al., 1994]. These results were then used to weight, proportional to the magnitude of leafy biomass and emission rates, the forest emission factors for each province in the regional VOC emissions model of Guenther et al. [1999b]. Inputs of temperature and light in the Guenther model are based on monthly average values from a 0.5 $\degree$  × 0.5° gridded meteorological database.

[23] Model results of VOC annual emissions from forested areas of China by province are given in Table 6. These



**Figure 1.** Individual plot means and group means  $(\pm S, D)$  of (a) total leaf/green biomass, (b) standardized isoprene emissions, and (c) standardized monoterpene emissions for all plots grouped according to successional stage.

results give annual VOC emissions for China (except Taiwan) of 4.1 Tg C as isoprene, 3.5 Tg C as monoterpenes, and 13 Tg C as OVOCs. The isoprene emissions found in this study are substantially lower than the value of 15.0 Tg C  $yr^{-1}$  of isoprene obtained using the *Guenther et al.* [1995] model (Table 7). This discrepancy is mainly due to the differences in model input values for the forest cover and isoprene emission factors, which Guenther et al. [1995] obtained from data sets that contained little or no information specific to China on forest species composition or VOC emissions. The isoprene + monoterpene annual emissions of 7.6 Tg C found here are similar to the isoprene + monoterpene annual emissions of 8.3 Tg C calculated for China

by Bai et al. [1995] using an extrapolation method based on branch measurements of VOC emissions from 15 representative tree species. The annual biogenic VOC emissions are considerably higher than the annual anthropogenic VOC emissions reported for China to be 5.3 Tg C [*Piccot et al.*, 1992], although we expect that the relative amounts of anthropogenic and biogenic emissions vary widely from region to region in China.

[24] Figures 2a, 2b, and 2c show the distribution across China of modeled July noonday emission rates of isoprene, monoterpenes, and OVOCs, respectively. These figures reveal marked differences in distributions and rates of VOC emissions compared to those shown by Guenther et

		Forest Type											
	Forested					Mixed	Mixed						
Province	Area, km <sup>2</sup>	Betula	<b>Broadleaf</b>	Fir	Larix	<b>Broadleaf</b>	Needleleaf	Other <sup>a</sup>	Picea	Pinus	Populus	Ouercus	Sclerophyll
Anhui	22561	$\theta$	4.8	18.3	$\theta$	$\Omega$	$\mathbf{0}$	27.2	$\theta$	23.0	5.9	14.0	6.8
Beijing	2671	9.2	$\theta$	$\mathbf{0}$	9.3	$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	45.5	$\theta$	7.0	6.0	15.9	7.1
Fujian	61484	$\theta$	8.4	23.2	$\theta$	$\Omega$	$\theta$	23.9	$\theta$	29.1	$\mathbf{0}$	15.3	$\mathbf{0}$
Gansu	19486	12.0	4.7	4.6	8.1	8.0	4.2	10.5	5.3	4.4	6.7	23.0	8.6
Guangdong	65431	$\mathbf{0}$	7.6	19.1	$\mathbf{0}$	9.0	11.0	18.7	$\theta$	25.4	$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	9.2
Guangxi	60217	$\theta$	6.0	13.5	$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	20.4	$\theta$	26.7	7.3	17.5	8.5
Guizhou	26028	6.5	2.5	14.5	$\mathbf{0}$	4.4	7.1	15.7	$\Omega$	28.5	3.7	12.5	4.7
Hainan	10663	$\theta$	26.0	0.8	$\Omega$	29.0	$\theta$	43.2	$\theta$	1.0	$\mathbf{0}$	$\theta$	$\mathbf{0}$
Hebei	24806	8.7	3.4	$\overline{0}$	5.4	5.9	3.1	38.5	3.8	3.2	4.9	16.8	6.2
Heilongjiang	161620	12.1	4.7	7.8	12.6	8.1	7.2	0.3	8.7	$\theta$	6.8	23.2	8.6
Henan	17527	$\theta$	$\mathbf{0}$	4.6	4.6	$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	25.2	$\theta$	8.7	13.5	28.2	15.1
Hubei	39522	7.9	3.6	14.1	10.2	$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	15.7	$\theta$	23.4	4.8	14.3	5.9
Hunan	69490	$\theta$	1.7	16.7	$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	39.9	$\Omega$	32.0	2.1	5.1	2.5
Inner Mongolia	140657	12.9	6.0	$\Omega$	14.1	$\Omega$	$\mathbf{0}$	6.2	10.5	9.4	7.9	23.4	9.7
Jiangsu	4122	$\mathbf{0}$	3.4	14.9	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\Omega$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	44.3	$\theta$	18.7	4.1	9.8	4.7
Jiangxi	67277	$\theta$	3.0	24.3	$\mathbf{0}$	4.1	$\theta$	25.0	$\theta$	30.4	$\mathbf{0}$	8.9	4.3
Jilin	63469	14.5	5.6	5.0	8.0	9.7	4.6	0.7	5.6	$\mathbf{0}$	8.1	27.8	10.4
Liaoning	39186	9.2	3.6	3.7	6.4	6.2	3.3	30.8	4.2	3.5	5.1	17.6	6.6
Ningxia	1020	15.3	7.1	$\overline{0}$	6.0	$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	18.4	$\theta$	4.6	9.4	27.7	11.5
Qinghai	2501	15.7	$\theta$	14.9	24.0	$\Omega$	$\mathbf{0}$	1.4	16.6	14.2	13.3	$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$
Shaanxi	12700	10.9	5.0	$\overline{0}$	14.9	$\overline{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	13.6	11.1	9.9	6.7	19.7	8.2
Shandong	16288	$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	$\overline{0}$	9.7	$\Omega$	$\theta$	60.6	$\theta$	7.3	5.3	11.1	6.0
Shanhai	147	$\theta$	$\theta$	$\theta$	$\mathbf{0}$	$\theta$	19.7	78.9	$\theta$	$\theta$	$\mathbf{0}$	$\theta$	1.4
Shanxi	49735	15.7	7.2	4.8	3.4	$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	12.9	$\theta$	6.3	9.6	28.4	11.8
Sichuan	115318	5.8	2.7	16.7	12.5	$\theta$	$\theta$	10.3	5.8	28.0	3.5	10.5	4.3
Taiwan	19695						(data not available)						
Tianjing	858	$\mathbf{0}$	7.4	$\overline{0}$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	46.7	$\mathbf{0}$	4.8	9.0	21.6	10.5
Tibet	71699	$\theta$	$\Omega$	24.6	$\theta$	9.5	$\Omega$	$\mathbf{0}$	26.5	23.9	$\mathbf{0}$	15.4	$\mathbf{0}$
Xinjiang	13056	11.4	7.2	16.7	24.4	$\Omega$	$\theta$	4.3	18.1	$\theta$	8.4	$\mathbf{0}$	9.4
Yunnan	94042	8.9	3.4	18.5	12.2	5.9	$\theta$	8.5	7.4	6.7	5.0	17.0	6.3
Zhejiang	43759	$\theta$	1.3	26.1	$\Omega$	$\Omega$	$\Omega$	32.4	$\theta$	32.8	1.6	3.9	1.9
Total	1337035	8.5	3.6	11.3	8.4	5.8	2.1	10.5	3.9	18.9	5.0	15.9	6.2

Table 4. Percentage of Forested Area of the 12 Forest Types Used in the Emission Estimates Listed by Province

a mainly economic and bamboo forest areas.

al. [1995]. Our results differ mostly with respect to isoprene emissions, which here are highest mainly in the temperate woodland savannas and forests of central and northeastern China. Guenther et al. [1995] report the highest isoprene emissions occurring in the subtropical and tropical forests of southeast China, at overall rates several times higher than we find here. Overall monoterpene and OVOC emissions for China are shown here to be near or slightly lower than those reported by Guenther et al. [1995], with the highest emissions coming similarly from the subtropical forests of southeast China. Our results, however, show monoterpene and OVOC emissions to be relatively high in the temperate and boreal forest areas of central and northeast China compared to the results of Guenther et al. [1995].

#### 4. Discussion

#### 4.1. VOC Emissions and Ecosystem Succession

[25] The above results extend to China the occurrence of a successional pattern in VOC emissions where the highest

		Canopy	<b>Emission Factors</b>					
Forest Type	N Plots <sup>a</sup>	Leafy Biomass, $\rm{g}~\rm{m}^{-2}$	Isoprene, $\mu$ g C m <sup>-2</sup> hr <sup>-1</sup>	Terpene, $\mu$ g C m <sup>-2</sup> hr <sup>-1</sup>	OVOC, $\mu$ g C m <sup>-2</sup> hr <sup>-1</sup>			
Betula	$\overline{Q}$	259	1960	24.6	388			
<b>Broadleaved</b>	108	426	2990	36.4	639			
Fir	7	430	3160	1040	644			
Larix	16	174	221	188	261			
Mixed Broadleaved	20	274	725	68.3	411			
Mixed Needleleaved	11	440	2310	831	660			
Other <sup>b</sup>		350	1860	52.3	525			
Picea	19	792	9530	2220	1190			
Pinus	11	448	1300	870	672			
Populus	11	266	5980	270	399			
<i><u>Ouercus</u></i>	$\overline{4}$	423	23600	202	634			
Sclerophyll	$\mathbf{0}$	n.m. <sup>c</sup>	n.m.	n.m.	n.m.			

Table 5. Assigned Biomass and Emission Factors for China Forest Types

<sup>a</sup> number of plots used in calculation of assigned factors.

<sup>b</sup> average of broadleaved and mixed broadleaved forest types.

<sup>c</sup> not measured.

	Total	Forest	<b>Tree Leaf Biomass</b> of Forest Areas,	Isoprene Emissions,	Monoterpene Emissions,	OVOC <sup>a</sup> Emissions,
Province	Area, km <sup>2</sup>	Area, km <sup>2</sup>	$g m^{-2}$	$10^9$ g C yr <sup>-1</sup>	$10^9$ g C yr <sup>-1</sup>	$10^9$ g C yr <sup>-1</sup>
Anhui	138165	22561	372	92.5	82.7	359
Beijing	17821	2671	314	13.9	7.80	26.3
Fujian	121500	61484	414	140	205	366
Gansu	449734	19486	338	167	119	482
Guangdong	177901	65431	367	103	159	596
Guangxi	237600	60217	368	195	129	709
Guizhou	176471	26028	378	80.5	70.5	370
Hainan	34104	10663	349	16.8	12.0	124
Hebei	185879	24806	339	99.2	50.9	321
Heilongjiang	454608	161620	346	328	257	517
Henan	167000	17527	310	97.7	50.3	403
Hubei	185862	39522	347	139	132	435
Hunan	211835	69490	389	113	159	505
Jiangsu	102600	4122	370	21.2	16.0	216
Jiangxi	166723	67277	390	116	201	447
Jilin	188869	63469	329	152	51.7	235
Liaoning	145739	39186	342	89.7	33.1	221
Inner Mongolia	1158402	140657	350	528	344	1518
Ningxia	66400	1020	307	28.3	12.9	96.3
Qinghai	721514	2501	381	56.5	53.1	346
Shaanxi	156623	12700	357	204	157	396
Shandong	152221	16288	323	38.9	27.8	345
Shanhai	5956	147	363	0.02	0.02	0.27
Shanxi	205977	49735	317	86.4	81.0	253
Sichuan	566079	115318	381	245	351	786
Taiwan	35760	19695	n.a.b	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Tianjing	11493	858	332	2.59	1.42	22.2
Xinjiang	1647000	13056	356	398	197	1487
Tibet	1228436	71699	514	61.1	92.7	424
Yunnan	382644	94042	359	382	288	746
Zhejiang	101800	43759	399	62.6	120	257
All China	9602716	1337035	360	4057	3462	13010

Table 6. Forest Area, Leafy Biomass, and Estimated Annual VOC Emissions by Province

<sup>a</sup> OVOC, other volatile organic compound.

<sup>b</sup> data not available.

isoprene emissions occur in pioneer and early secondary forests, and the highest monoterpene emissions occur in late secondary and primary forests [cf. Li and Klinger, 2001]. Lower isoprene and monoterpene emissions are found in early successional grasslands and late successional peatlands. We suggest that the systematic patterns in the VOC emissions found here in the forests and peatlands of China and elsewhere [Klinger et al., 1994, 1998; Guenther et al., 1999a; Helmig et al., 1999b; Isebrands et al., 1999; Schaab et al., 2000; Westberg et al., 2000] are indicative of deterministic, self-organizing behavior in ecosystems, consistent with theories and concepts in systems ecology, complexity, and Gaia theory [Lovelock, 1995]. The validity of this view, as applied to the ecosystems of China, is backed by several Chinese ecologists [Han, 1992; Chang, 2000]. From a systems perspective, the successional patterns in isoprene found here point toward a possible functional role of isoprene at the ecosystem level. As postulated by Klinger et al. [1998], isoprene may enhance the formation of available nitrogen (N) in the canopy atmosphere, thus promoting the assimilation of N into an N-limited early successional forest ecosystem.

#### 4.2. VOC Emissions From China

[26] Refining the magnitudes and distributions of biogenic VOC emissions in China is important in order to better understand potential feedbacks of these emissions on the vegetation via ozone. Ozone levels are found to be high in several urban and nonurban areas of China and may be affecting crop yields [Chameides et al., 1999; Shao et al., 2000]. Models indicate that biogenic VOCs significantly affect ozone production in these regions [*Luo et al.*, 2000; Shao et al., 2000] and may even be limiting for ozone production in the rural areas of northern China. Our results

Table 7. Comparison of Regional and Global VOC Emission Estimates

Region	Area, $10^6$ km <sup>2</sup>	Isoprene Emissions, Tg C $yr^{-1}$	Monoterpene Emissions, Tg C $yr^{-1}$	OVOC Emissions, Tg C $yr^{-1}$	Area Average Isoprene Emis., g C m <sup>-2</sup> $\cdot$	References
China	9.6	4.1	3.5	13	0.43	This study
China	9.6	15.0	4.3	9.1	1.56	Guenther et al. [1995]
Europe	9.9	4.6	3.9	5.0	0.46	Simpson et al. [1999]
North America	24.7	29.3	21.0	33.6	1.19	Guenther et al. [2000]
Central Africa	4.54	35.4	-		7.80	Guenther et al. [1999b]
Central South America	14.2	108	12		7.61	Greenberg et al. [1999b]
Global (Land)	146.8	503	127	517	3.43	Guenther et al. [1995]



Figure 2. Modeled average July noonday emissions (mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) for China of (a) isoprene, (b) monoterpenes, and (c) other volatile organic compounds. See color version of this figure at back of this issue.

give higher-than-previous estimates of isoprene emission for northern China, and hence greater potential for ozone production there.

[27] Comparing our VOC emission estimates for China with estimates for Europe, central Africa, central South America, and North America (Table 7), we find that China and Europe are quite similar with respect to isoprene and monoterpene emissions. Our OVOC emission estimates for China, however, are considerably higher than those for Europe, reflecting the large extent of grasslands in China. North America, central Africa, and central South America exhibit higher isoprene emissions on a per-area basis than do China and Europe, suggesting that early successional forest cover is relatively high in the former regions. Discrepancies between our VOC emission results and those of Guenther et al. [1995] for China (Table 7), as in the fourfold difference in isoprene emissions discussed in section 3.3, highlight the importance of conducting field studies in regions that are poorly characterized with respect to forest cover and VOC emissions.

#### 4.3. Uncertainties

[28] The major uncertainties of these findings arise from observational errors in plot measurements and from inaccuracies of key assumptions used in the extrapolation. Uncertainty in the VOC emission potential assigned for a given species can occur from species misidentification, from inaccurate determinations of VOC emission, and from an unrealized discrepancy between assigned versus actual emission potentials. Such a discrepancy can result from assigning unmeasured species of a given genus the same emission potential as the measured species. Error from misidentification is likely quite low as botanical experts were employed for all identifications. The frequency of incorrect assessment of emission potentials (i.e., determining the emission potential of a plant is high when it is actually moderate), based on comparing PID screening results with leaf cuvette method, is about  $10\%$ [Klinger et al., 1998]. It is possible that some plants identified as isoprene emitters with the PID may instead be emitting monoterpenes or methyl butenol in a lightdependent manner. Hevea brasiliensis (rubber tree), for example, exhibits light-dependent VOC emissions which, when sampled using the leaf cuvette/GC-MS method, are found to be mainly monoterpenes. However, in other plants with light-dependent monoterpene emissions, the values tend to be low [Kesselmeir et al., 1996]. Methyl butenol emissions have been found only in the *Pinus* species of North America. Because the pines here were found to have low or no isoprene emissions, it appears that methyl butenol is not contributing to any overestimate in isoprene emissions. Uncertainty of assigned versus actual emission potentials, based on the degree to which species emission potentials were derived from genus assignments versus actual measurements, is estimated at 10% for Changbai Mountain, 20% for Ailao Mountain, and 25% for Xishuangbanna. As discussed in section 3.2, there is an added uncertainty (10%) in the emission potentials of the nonwoody vegetation.

[29] Uncertainties in the determination of vegetation abundance (LAI and leafy biomass) arise from both error in measurement and error in the forest algorithms. The optical sensing methods employed for LAI are accurate to about 20% for the range of LAIs found in this study. The forest algorithms are not reported with uncertainty levels, so their error, based on comparing our leafy biomass results with other studies in China (see section 3.2), is estimated to be 20% for trees and 50% for understory vegetation (mainly as an underestimation).

[30] The VOC emission estimates for China rely largely on the accuracy of the national forest inventory data  $[W_u,$ 1997], on the degree to which our plots are representative of a given forest type, and on the validity of model assumptions. All of our study sites were located with the assistance of local scientists in typical forest types in and around ecological research stations of the Chinese Academy of Sciences. An uncertainty factor of about three has been associated with regional model estimates of biogenic VOC emission rates, but this uncertainty is not based on a quantitative evaluation. The error associated with emissions predicted for a specific landscape can be evaluated using above-canopy eddy flux measurements [e.g., Guenther and Hills, 1998], but there is currently no method for evaluating or even constraining these flux estimates. The uncertainties associated with specific model procedures can be evaluated for particular circumstances, such as a quantitative test of the response of isoprene emission to changes in temperature, but it is not possible to assign rigorous uncertainty estimates to the regional results because of the limited data. A factor of three is probably a reasonable estimate of the uncertainty associated with annual total VOC estimates for China, but predictions for specific times, locales, and compounds can be much more uncertain.

[31] Acknowledgments. We wish to thank the staff of the Inner Mongolia Grassland Ecosystem Research Station, the Changbai Mountain Forest Ecosystem Research Station, the Beijing Forest Ecosystem Research Station, the Dinghu Mountain Forest Ecosystem Research Station, the Ailao Mountain Forest Ecosystem Station, the Kunming Botanical Garden, and the Xishuangbanna Tropical Botanical Garden. For field, technical, and logistical assistance we especially thank at Inner Mongolia, Cheng Yun-Xiang, Kawadu Kiyokazu, and Sun Xin-Wen; at Changbai, Dai Limin, Wang Xiaochun, Xu Hao, Yang Liyun, Liu Qingwei, Wang Chenrui, and Yun Yangli; at Xishuangbanna, Zhang Jinhou, Xia Yong-Mei, Wang Hong, Tang Jianwei, Bo Wen Bian, Hu Jiang-Xiang, Zhang Ling, Xiang Hui, Wang Zhi-Hui, Ava Klinger, and Sonya Klinger; at Ailao, Zhang Xing-Wei, Yang Gou-Ping, He Yong-Tao, Tang Yong, Li Da-Weng, and Yang Weng-Zheng; and at Kunming, Shui Yu-Ming and Gong Xun. Special thanks go to Hu Zaichun and Lou Zhi-Ping of the Chinese Academy of Sciences, who arranged and greatly facilitated this China-United States research collaboration. Thanks to Bill Baugh at NCAR who provided the IDL program used to measure leaf area. Many thanks to Peter Harley, Janne Rinne, Daniel McKenna, and three anonymous reviewers for providing valuable comments on the manuscript. Part of the support for this work came from NSFC grants (39700019 and 40075027) to Q.-J. Li and from an NSF grant (INT-0116879) to B. Baker. The National Center for Atmospheric Research is sponsored by the U.S. National Science Foundation.

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Figure 2. Modeled average July noonday emissions (mg C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) for China of (a) isoprene, (b) monoterpenes, and (c) other volatile organic compounds.

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