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Volatile organic compound emissions from *Miscanthus* and short rotation coppice willow bioenergy crops

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#### 19 Abstract

20

21 *Miscanthus x giganteus* and short rotation coppice (SRC) willow (*Salix spp.*) are increasingly important bioenergy crops. Above-canopy fluxes and mixing ratios of volatile organic 22 compounds (VOCs) were measured in summer for the two crops at a site near Lincoln, UK, by 23 24 proton transfer reaction mass spectrometry (PTR-MS) and virtual disjunct eddy covariance. The isoprene emission rate above willow peaked around midday at  $\sim 1 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ , equivalent 25 to 20  $\mu$ g g<sub>dw</sub><sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> normalised to 30°C and 1000  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> PAR, much greater than for 26 conventional arable crops. Average midday peak isoprene mixing ratio was ~1.4 ppbv. 27 28 Acetone and acetic acid also showed small positive daytime fluxes. No measurable fluxes of VOCs were detected above the *Miscanthus* canopy. Differing isoprene emission rates between 29 30 different bioenergy crops, and the crops or vegetation cover they may replace, means the 31 impact on regional air quality should be taken into consideration in bioenergy crop selection.

32

33 Keywords: VOC, isoprene, bioenergy, *Miscanthus*, willow, eddy covariance

#### 34 **1 Introduction**

35

Bioenergy crops are those grown specifically for energy production rather than food, as a 36 37 means of mitigating two problems associated with the use of traditional fossil fuels: anthropogenic climate forcing and energy security (McKay, 2006). Such crops contribute to 38 39 carbon neutrality since  $CO_2$  produced during the combustion of the crop is offset by the  $CO_2$ 40 sequestered during growth. There is also potential for long-term storage of carbon via uptake 41 by soil through plant roots (Grogan and Matthews, 2002). Consequently, cultivation of bioenergy crops is increasing rapidly. For example, power generators in the UK are required to 42 43 increase to 15.4% by 2015/16 the energy derived from renewable sources (DTI, 2005), with 44 biomass being acknowledged as a key resource in achieving this target.

45

Although bioenergy crops are perceived to be carbon neutral, full life-cycle analysis needs also to take account of changes in emissions of other potent greenhouse gases such as CH<sub>4</sub> or N<sub>2</sub>O. Also, few studies have investigated volatile organic compound (VOC) emissions from bioenergy crops. Biogenic VOC emissions from vegetation (Steiner and Goldstein, 2007) are estimated as about 10 times greater globally than VOC emissions from anthropogenic sources (Guenther et al., 1995). The dominant BVOC is isoprene (Guenther et al., 2006), but other important compounds include oxygenated VOCs and terpenoids.

53

Emissions of VOCs are important for several reasons. Their rapid oxidation chemistry, particularly in the presence of  $NO_x$ , affects the oxidative capacity of the atmosphere, the generation of tropospheric ozone (Atkinson, 2000), of concern for human and plant health (Ashmore, 2005) and as a radiative forcing gas, and on formation of secondary organic

particles, which likewise affect human health (Dockery et al., 1993) and radiative forcing(Kulmala et al., 2004).

60

61 The potential for BVOC emissions from crops to have a significant impact on atmospheric 62 composition has been demonstrated in the tropics (Hewitt et al., 2009). The aim of this study was to determine fluxes of BVOCs for two bioenergy crops grown in the UK and elsewhere: 63 64 short rotation coppice (SRC) willow (Salix spp.), a woody crop grown in dense plantations of 65 multi-stemmed plants and harvested every 3 years; and *Miscanthus x giganteus*, a perennial grass native to Asia, of the same taxonomic group as sugarcane, sorghum and maize (Naidu et 66 67 al., 2003) but more resilient to lower temperature whilst maintaining high CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation and biomass conversion efficiency. The crop grows up to 3.5 m per year (Rowe et al., 2009), 68 69 and is harvested annually between January and March. The chipped and dried biomass of both 70 crops is used to fuel biomass burners or to co-fire existing coal-fired power stations. 71 72 Fluxes from this work are compared with those for conventional UK arable crops to assess the 73 potential impact of this land-use change on atmospheric chemistry. 74

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- 77
- 78 2.1 Sampling site

The field measurements were carried out from mid July to mid August 2010 near Lincoln, UK (53° 19′ N, 0° 35′ W). Figure 1 shows the layout of the site, which consisted of several fields of *Miscanthus*, willow and wheat, located within an area of predominantly flat arable fields separated by hedgerows and isolated areas of mixed deciduous woodland. Mean annual

<sup>76</sup> **2 Methods** 

83	rainfall at the site was 600 mm and the soil was a fine loam, overlying Charnmouth mudstone.
84	The nearest settlement (population: 113), which had a relatively busy through-road, was ~0.7
85	km to the southeast. A minor road running east-west was situated 0.3 km to the south.
86	
87	The Miscanthus plot (~11 ha, planted in spring 2006) was surrounded by the following
88	vegetation types: hedgerow and wheat to the north; willow to the east; deciduous trees to the
89	west; willow and wheat to the south. Crop height was typically 2.5 m. Sampling was carried
90	out from 16 <sup>th</sup> July to 2 <sup>nd</sup> August 2010, near the NE corner of the plot, downwind of the
91	prevailing wind direction, at an inlet height of approximately 4 m.
92	
93	The willow plot (~6.5 ha, planted in 2001 with five different genotypes) was bounded as
94	follows: a row of deciduous trees and a ploughed field to the north; Miscanthus to the west;
95	mixed deciduous woodland to the south; wheat to the east. Typical canopy height was 4 m.
96	Sampling was carried out from 5 <sup>th</sup> to 13 <sup>th</sup> August 2010 at an inlet height of 6.7 m on the north
97	edge of the field. Trees were planted in pairs of rows 1.3 m apart, with 0.6 m spacing within

98 each pair.

99

Flux footprints for both sampling sites were predicted using a simple parameterisation model 100 101 (Kljun et al., 2004). Model results are shown in Supplementary Information Figure S1. For the 102 Miscanthus measurements, the largest distance for 80% flux contribution over the range of 103 friction velocities encountered (122 m) was within the area of the Miscanthus field throughout 104 the south-westerly sector  $(180 - 270^{\circ})$ . For the willow measurements, the largest distance for 105 80% flux contribution (185 m) meant there may have been some small flux contributions from 106 outside the willow field when wind was from the west. Flux contribution was otherwise within 107 the willow field for the whole southerly wind sector  $(90 - 270^{\circ})$ . These sectors were used for

- 108 directional filtering of data prior to deriving diurnal averages. Directionally-filtered data
- 109 comprised 23% and 71% of all data for *Miscanthus* and willow, respectively.
- 110
- 111 Harvesting activities in surrounding farms during this study may have affected results,
- 112 particularly during *Miscanthus* measurements, and are discussed later.
- 113
- 114 2.2 Proton transfer reaction mass spectrometer (PTR-MS)
- 115 BVOC mixing ratios and fluxes above both crop canopies were measured using proton transfer reaction mass spectrometry (PTR-MS) (Blake et al., 2009) coupled with virtual disjunct eddy 116 117 covariance (vDEC) (Karl et al., 2002; Rinne et al., 2001). PTR-MS is a 'soft' chemical 118 ionisation method in which hydronium ions  $(H_3O^+)$  formed in a hollow cathode ion source 119 pass into a drift tube subject to an electric field (E) into which the ambient air is also introduced. As most VOC molecules have a proton affinity greater than water, they react with 120 121  $H_3O^+$  ions to form protonated products, predominantly the protonated molecular ion, but also 122 fragments or clusters. The extent of fragmentation/clustering can be controlled by tuning the E/N ratio (N is the H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup> ion density). 123
- 124

The PTR-MS used in this study (Ionicon Analytik, Innsbruck, Austria) was fitted with an extra turbopump connected to the detection chamber, and Teflon instead of Viton rings in the drift tube (Davison et al., 2009; Misztal et al., 2010). Pfeiffer turbopumps replaced the Varian equivalents. The drift tube conditions were held constant throughout (pressure 2 mbar, temperature 40 °C, voltage 572 V) to maintain an *E/N* ratio of ~130 Td (1 Td =  $10^{-17}$  V cm<sup>2</sup>).

The sampling inlet and 20 Hz sonic anemometer (WindmasterPro, Gill Instruments) were
positioned above the canopy using a telescopic mast. Air was sampled at 30 L min<sup>-1</sup> through a

20 m PTFE inlet line (1/4" OD, 3/16" ID) with a T-piece for sub-sampling into the PTR-MS
inlet at a rate of 100 mL min<sup>-1</sup>. Condensation of water vapour in the inlet line was prevented
by wrapping with self-regulating heating tape (Omega, UK type SRF3-2C). Data were logged
using a program written in LabVIEW (Version 8.5, National Instruments).

137

## 138 2.3 Determination of VOC mixing ratios and fluxes

The PTR-MS signal was calibrated explicitly for several VOCs using a mixed gas calibration 139 140 cylinder (Apel-Riemer Environmental Inc., USA) containing 1 ppmv each of formaldehyde, methanol, acetonitrile, acetone, acetaldehyde, isoprene and 0.18 ppmv d-limonene. The 141 142 calibration gas was diluted with VOC-scrubbed air to produce 6 samples with concentrations 143 of 0.5, 1.0, 10, 20, 30 and 50% of the pure calibration gas standard. A relative transmission 144 curve was then constructed to determine empirical calibration coefficients for other VOCs under study not present in the standard (Taipale et al., 2008). Calibrations were carried out in 145 the lab before commencement of the field campaign, and on  $22^{nd}$  July during the campaign. 146 147 Concentrations of gases in the calibration cylinder were verified using GC-MS calibrated with 148 its own independent standards (details given in Section 2.4).

149

The PTR-MS was run in multiple ion detection (MID) mode for two 25 min sampling periods 150 per hour. During these periods only the targeted VOC ions listed in Table 1 were measured, 151 with dwell times of 0.5 s, in addition to the primary ion  $H_3O^+$ , and water cluster  $(H_2O)H_3O^+$ , 152 which had dwell times of 0.2 s. The sensitivities (ncps ppbv<sup>-1</sup>) and limits of detection (ppbv) 153 154 for the target ions for the *Miscanthus* and willow campaigns are also included in Table 1. 155 LODs were calculated as the ratio of twice the standard deviation of the background ion 156 counts for a particular m/z throughout the campaign divided by the sensitivity (Karl et al., 2003). 157

158

The remaining 10 min per hour were used for full mass scans in the range 21 – 206 amu at a dwell time of 1 s per amu. For one 5 min period, ambient air was scanned to allow information about the full VOC composition to be acquired. For a further 5 min per hour, 'zero air' was scanned to determine the instrument background. Zero air was achieved by sampling ambient air through a custom-made zero-air generator comprising a glass tube packed with platinum wool and a 50:50 mixture of platinum mesh and activated charcoal heated to 200°C. The background spectrum was subtracted in subsequent processing of data.

166

167 As the PTR-MS was run in MID mode, fewer data points were generated than required for 168 direct eddy covariance due to the non-continuous manner in which the quadrupole mass 169 analyser measures each m/z. The set-up resulted in 30,000 wind speed measurements and up to 170 441 VOC measurements in each 25 min sampling period (depending on how many VOCs 171 were being measured). The total lag time between PTR-MS and wind speed data was 172 determined by examining the cross-correlation between vertical wind speed and VOC mixing 173 ratio as a function of lag time (with 15 s window). Total lag includes residence time in the 174 sampling inlet line but also lag associated with collection and data writing of a full cycle of analysis by disjunct sampling and the response of the PTR-MS. The median of the lag times 175 176 for each 5 min sub-period was used to calculate the flux in that 25 min period (Misztal, 2010). 177 For example, the average lag-time for isoprene above the willow was 9.58 s, with a standard deviation between 25 min periods of 1.41 s. This method produced less variable lag times than 178 179 those derived using the prevalent MAX method in cross-correlation function (~72% lower sd), 180 and has been shown to be a practical alternative (Taipale et al., 2010).

181

Quality controls were used to filter data for periods of low friction velocity ( $u^* < 0.15 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ), 182 non-stationarity, large spikes in vertical wind speed or VOC concentration, and where <20000 183 data points were acquired in a 25 min sampling period. Most discarded data occurred during 184 night when turbulence was low. High frequency flux losses due to the relatively slow disjunct 185 VOC sampling frequency (0.25 Hz, compared to 20 Hz sonic data capture) were estimated 186 using empirical ogive analysis (Ammann et al., 2006) for each 25 min period. At least 78% of 187 flux was captured for all individual 25 min data periods, and values were corrected 188 accordingly. Standard rotations of the coordinate frame were applied to correct for sonic 189 190 anemometer tilt for each 25 min period separately.

191

192 2.4 Chromatographic analysis of ambient air samples

193 Ambient air samples were collected for chromatographic analysis, to confirm the identity of the VOC components measured by the PTR-MS, approximately hourly from 06:53 to 16:20 on 194 23 September 2010 above Miscanthus and from 06:32 to 17:30 on 11 August 2010 above 195 196 willow (at ~1 m above the canopies). Sampling above Miscanthus was carried out at a later date because initial samples taken during the intensive campaign were lost due to GC-MS 197 instrument failure. A mass-flow controlled Pocket Pump (210-1000 Series, SKC Inc.) was 198 used to pump air at 100 mL min<sup>-1</sup> for 15 min through stainless steel adsorbent tubes (6 mm 199 200 OD) packed with 200 mg Tenax TA and 100 mg CarboTrap (Markes International Ltd., UK). 201 Prior to sampling, packed tubes were conditioned at 300 °C for 15 min with a flow of helium.

202

Analyses were carried out using a Hewlett-Packard 5890/5970 GC-MS with an automated thermal desorption unit (ATD 400, Perkin Elmer) connected via a 200 °C heated transfer line. Transfer of samples from the adsorbent tubes was performed in two steps: heat to 280 °C for 5 min at 25 mL min<sup>-1</sup> to desorb samples onto a Tenax-TA cold trap at -30 °C, followed by

207	transfer to the GC column at 300 °C for 6 min. Chromatographic separation util	ised an Ultra-2
208	column (Agilent Technologies, 50 m $\times$ 0.2 mm ID $\times$ 0.11 $\mu m$ film, 5% pheny	lmethyl silica)
209	and a temperature program of 35 °C for 2 min, heat at 5 °C min <sup>-1</sup> to 160 °C,	heat at 10 °C
210	min <sup>-1</sup> to 280 °C, and hold for 5 min.	A
211		O Y

Calibration was carried out using a mixed monoterpene in methanol standard (10 ng  $\mu$ L<sup>-1</sup>  $\alpha$ -212 pinene,  $\beta$ -pinene,  $\alpha$ -phellandrene, 3-carene and limonene (Sigma Aldrich, UK)) and an 213 isoprene in nitrogen gas standard (700 ppbv, BOC Gases, UK). Aliquots of the monoterpene 214 215 standard (0, 1, 3 and 5  $\mu$ L) were injected onto 4 adsorbent tubes with helium carrier gas. Tubes continued to be purged with helium for 2 min after the standard injection. Isoprene calibration 216 217 tubes were prepared by slowly (over a period of about 2 min) injecting 0, 10, 30 and 50 mL of the gas standard onto 4 adsorbent tubes, while purging with helium. The limits of detection for 218 isoprene, a-pinene and limonene were 0.16, 0.23 and 0.30 ng on column, corresponding to 219 220 mixing ratios of 38, 27 and 35 pptv, respectively, for a 1.5 L sample.

- 221
- 222 2.5 Meteorological measurements

Photosynthetically active radiation (PAR), rainfall, temperature and relative humidity wereavailable as part of long-term measurements at the site.

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- 226
- 227 **3 Results**
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The time series of VOC fluxes above *Miscanthus* are shown in Figure 2 along with  $u^*$  and sensible heat flux. Two periods of missing data  $21^{st} - 22^{nd}$  and  $25^{th} - 27^{th}$  July were due to

<sup>229</sup> *3.1 Miscanthus* 

failure of the sampling pump. Data in the first few days were relatively noisy, showing no particular diurnal trend up to  $20^{\text{th}}$  July. This was likely due to elevated  $O_2^+$  impurities during transport of the instrument resulting in less reliable primary ion counts or higher LOD. Additionally, episodes of rainfall on  $17^{\text{th}}$ ,  $18^{\text{th}}$ ,  $20^{\text{th}}$  and  $22^{\text{nd}}$  July may have resulted in a reduction in mixing ratio of VOCs where emission is proportional to PAR.

237

Small net emissions of isoprene and MEK from Miscanthus during daytime were just 238 discernible, most noticeable on 18<sup>th</sup> July when sensible heat flux was also at its maximum. 239 240 However, in general, flux data were somewhat noisy for all VOCs measured, and mostly not 241 significantly different from zero. The directionally-filtered diurnal averages of VOC fluxes are 242 shown in Supplementary Information Figure S2. As described earlier, the relevant sector for the Miscanthus measurements was south-west (180 - 270°). The mixing ratios of 243 MVK+MACR (the first-generation oxidation products of isoporene) showed no diurnal pattern 244 245 and were below LOD, so no data for these species are shown.

246

The time series of VOC mixing ratios above Miscanthus are shown in Supplementary 247 Information Figure S3. For the period 27<sup>th</sup> July to 2<sup>nd</sup> August, mixing ratios of all measured 248 VOCs had maxima at night except for isoprene whose mixing ratios were elevated in late 249 250 afternoon. The average diurnal VOC mixing ratios above Miscanthus are shown in Figure S4. 251 Methanol, acetaldehyde, acetone, acetic acid and MEK had similar diurnal profiles in mixing ratio. All showed a minimum mixing ratio around midday. The isoprene mixing ratio peaked 252 253 around midday consistent with observation of a possible small isoprene flux above *Miscanthus* 254 (Figure S2). No isoprene or monoterpenes were detected in the GC-MS analysis of adsorption 255 tube sampling above the *Miscanthus* canopy.

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#### 257 *3.2 Short rotation coppice willow*

The time series of VOC fluxes, and  $u^*$  and sensible heat, measured above willow are shown in 258 Figure 3. Missing data on 10<sup>th</sup> and 12-13<sup>th</sup> August were due to failure of the mobile power 259 supply. Data were directionally filtered to include only those from over the willow field (90 – 260 270°) before diurnally averaging (Figure 4). Willow showed a distinct diurnal pattern of 261 isoprene flux, peaking at  $\sim 1 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$  around midday and decreasing to zero overnight, 262 driven by the strong dependence of isoprene emissions on temperature and PAR. All other 263 VOC measured showed positive and negative fluxes throughout the day, with no significant 264 265 net positive or negative daily flux overall.

266

Supplementary Information Figure S5 shows the time series of VOC mixing ratios and temperature above SRC willow. The time series showed clear diurnality in mixing ratios of all VOCs measured, except for methanol. The directionally-filtered diurnal averages of mixing ratio over the willow are shown in Figure 5.

271

Isoprene had a dominant maximum mixing ratio in early afternoon (~1 ppbv), temporally coincident with the temperature profile, and low mixing ratios at night. Figure 5 also plots the isoprene mixing ratios determined by adsorption tube sampling and GC-MS analysis. There was good agreement. Small quantities of the monoterpenes  $\alpha$ -pinene and limonene were also detected by GC-MS, but no diurnal patterns were discernable in these data.

277

Acetic acid, acetaldehyde and MVK+MACR also showed diurnal profiles with maxima in the afternoon and minima around 6 am, closely mirroring daily temperature variation. The amplitude of the daytime maximum of MEK mixing ratio was considerably less. Acetone

exhibited low diurnal variability but with the small maximum in early morning similar to theobservation of *Miscanthus*.

283

284 As isoprene oxidation is the only known source of MVK and MACR, the ratio of 285 MVK+MACR to isoprene mixing ratios can be used to examine the degree of isoprene 286 oxidation (Figure 6). The [MVK+MACR]:[isoprene] ratio peaked around midnight with an 287 average value of about 0.8 when isoprene was not being emitted and MVK+MACR were not 288 undergoing photochemical loss or dispersion. At dawn there was a rapid decline in the ratio as the canopy responded to increasing PAR and temperature hence isoprene emissions increased, 289 290 and the boundary layer depth also increased. The minimum ratio of  $\sim 0.1$  occurred for several 291 hours around midday. The ratio rose in late afternoon as isoprene emissions declined but 292 isoprene oxidation continued.

293

The average measured daytime [MVK+MACR]:[isoprene] ratio of 0.24 is comparable with those from other northern latitude studies. A daytime ratio of 0.23 was measured in a rural Canadian forest clearing (Biesenthal et al., 1998), 0.12 was reported for a mixed forest in Michigan, USA (Apel et al., 2002) and 0.4 – 0.8 in a deciduous forest in Pennsylvania, USA (Martin et al., 1991).

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#### 300 3.3 Standardised isoprene emission

As isoprene emission from plants is strongly influenced by light and leaf temperature, the canopy-level emission, *F*, was recalculated as a standard emission factor ( $\varepsilon$ ) normalised to a standard leaf temperature of 303 K and PAR flux of 1000 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, as described by the G95 algorithm (Guenther et al., 1995),

306 where *D* is foliar density (g dry weight m<sup>-2</sup>) and  $\gamma$  is a non-dimensional activity adjustment

 $\varepsilon = \frac{F}{D v}$ 

307 factor to account for the effect of light and temperature:

$$\gamma = C_L C_T$$

309 The light dependence,  $C_L$ , is defined by

$$C_L = \frac{\alpha c_{L1} Q}{\sqrt{1 + \alpha^2 Q^2}} \tag{3}$$

where  $\alpha$  (0.0027) and  $c_{LI}$  (1.066) are empirical coefficients and Q is PAR flux (µmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>). The temperature dependence  $C_T$ , is defined by

$$C_{T} = \frac{\exp \frac{c_{T1} (T - T_{s})}{R T_{s} T}}{1 + \frac{\exp(c_{T2} (T - T_{M}))}{R T_{s} T}}$$
(4)

313

310

where *T* is leaf temperature (K),  $T_s$  is leaf temperature at standard conditions (303 K), *R* is the universal gas constant (8.314 J K<sup>-1</sup> mol<sup>-1</sup>), and  $c_{TI}$  (95000 J mol<sup>-1</sup>),  $c_{T2}$  (230000 J mol<sup>-1</sup>) and  $T_M$ (314 K) are empirical coefficients.

317

Values of above-canopy PAR and temperature, and of isoprene flux (from Figure 4), at hourly intervals during the willow campaign were used for the calculation of  $\gamma$  and *F* respectively. Foliar density *D* was estimated at 150 g<sub>dw</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> for *Salix spp*. (Karl et al., 2009). Hourly emission factors  $\varepsilon$  were then determined for isoprene from willow, and were found to have a peak value of 25 µg g<sub>dw</sub><sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> at 10:00. A mean midday value of 20 µg g<sub>dw</sub><sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> for 12:00 ± 2 h was determined to allow comparison, in Table 2, with mean values from other studies.

324

Table 2 shows that the emission factor from this study was within the range of values derived previously for *Salix spp*. The slightly lower measurements derived in this work and in the

(1)

(2)

other above-canopy study (Olofsson et al., 2005) were canopy-averaged emissions factors
which included leaves which were in shade as well as those in direct sunlight. It was therefore
expected that these measurements would result in lower standard emission factors than from
individual branch or leaf-level experiments.

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332

333 4 Discussion

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In the context of SRC willow as a bioenergy crop, the significant isoprene emission factor 335 336 could potentially impact local and regional air quality by affecting tropospheric ozone 337 production and SOA formation. Conventional agricultural crops are regarded as being low 338 emitting species. For example, wheat and oats are estimated as having isoprene emission factors in the range 0 - 0.5  $\mu$ g g<sub>dw</sub><sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> (Karl et al., 2009; Konig et al., 1995), while those for 339 rapeseed, rye and barley are zero (Karl et al., 2009; Kesselmeier and Staudt, 1999). 340 341 Replacement of conventional crops with SRC willow would therefore result in increased isoprene emission. A recent study examined the impact of SRC crop cultivation in Europe 342 343 (Ashworth et al., 2012). It was concluded that monthly mean increases in ozone and BSOA (+1% and +5% respectively) from low level planting scenarios were significant enough to 344 affect regional air quality and therefore warrant consideration in short term local impact 345 346 assessments, as well as life cycle analysis of bioenergy crops.

347

At the end of 2009, total UK plantings of *Miscanthus* and SRC willow were 12,700 and 6,400 ha respectively (DEFRA, 2009). A government report stated that there is potential in the UK to increase bioenergy crop cultivation substantially by a further 350,000 ha by 2020, accounting for ~6% of total UK arable land (DEFRA, 2007), with the assumption that 70%

would be *Miscanthus* and SRC willow (Rowe et al., 2009). In the case of 70% being converted solely to SRC willow, then a UK-wide increase of up to 7.35 t h<sup>-1</sup> in emissions of isoprene would result (assuming zero isoprene emissions from the land prior to conversion to willow, 150  $g_{dw}$  m<sup>-2</sup> willow, and an isoprene standard emission rate of 20 µg  $g_{dw}$ <sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> determined here). The annual increase in isoprene would require calculation using PAR and temperature data across the likely planting sites in the UK, and a whole-canopy model.

358

The standard emission factor for isoprene from SRC willow measured in this study was 26.5 g  $C ha^{-1} h^{-1}$ . This is an order of magnitude higher than was determined for total emission of VOCs from the biofuel crop switchgrass (Eller et al., 2011), where emissions were dominated by oxygenated VOCs and isoprene contributed less than 8%.

363

For *Miscanthus*, the near-zero values of flux at night were in contrast to the increase in mixing 364 ratios of oxygenated VOCs (Figure S3 & S4). Since reliability of the eddy covariance 365 technique depends on friction velocity, the greater boundary layer stability at night (hence low 366 367 friction velocity) resulted in unreliable night time flux measurements. It may therefore be 368 possible that night time fluxes were non-zero. A more likely scenario is that increasing VOC 369 mixing ratios at night were affected by sources in the wider area. Towards the start of the 370 measurement period, several of the surrounding fields were subject to harvesting and 371 subsequent ploughing activities, which are known to be a source of oxygenated VOCs (Karl et 372 al., 2001). Mixing ratios of methanol, acetaldehyde and acetone were comparable to those 373 measured in previous field experiments of crop cutting (Warneke et al., 2002). The enhanced 374 mixing ratios towards dusk, and at night can be explained by reduced radical sink chemistry, 375 together with accumulation within a shallower nocturnal boundary layer from reduced vertical transport and mixing, as demonstrated by the lower wind speed and  $u^*$  at night (Figure 2). 376

During willow measurements, atypical increases in mixing ratios of methanol, acetone and acetic acid on 8<sup>th</sup> August may also have been caused by further harvesting activity in the wider area.

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381

#### 382 5 Conclusions

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384 Measurements of above-canopy fluxes and mixing ratios of VOCs revealed significant emissions of isoprene from short rotation coppice willow, with a standard emission factor of 385 20  $\mu$ g g<sub>dw</sub><sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>. No significant emissions were measured from *Miscanthus*. This is the first 386 field study of bioenergy crops in the UK and shows that a change in land use from 387 388 conventional to bioenergy crops could result in increased isoprene emissions. Bioenergy crop species choice should therefore include consideration of their impact on regional air quality. 389 Further work could include measurement of VOC emissions from Miscanthus and SRC 390 willow during senescence and harvesting. 391

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Miscanthus and coppice willow are increasingly important bioenergy crops.

Above-canopy fluxes were measured using PTR-MS and virtual disjunct eddy covariance. Willow isoprene emission peaked at ~1 mg m<sup>-2</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>,  $\equiv 20 \ \mu g \ g_{dw}^{-1} h^{-1}$  standardised.

Bioenergy crop species choice should include their impact on regional air quality.

<i>m/z.</i> [amu]	Contributing compound(s)	Formula	Dwell time [s]	Sensitivity [ncps ppbv <sup>-1</sup> ]	Limit of detection [ppbv]	
					Miscanthus	Willow
21	water isotope	$H_2{}^{18}\mathrm{O}$	0.2	-	-	-
33	methanol	CH <sub>4</sub> O	0.5	4.1	1.41	2.03
37	water cluster	(H <sub>2</sub> O) <sub>2</sub>	0.2	-		-
45	acetaldehyde	$C_2H_4O$	0.5	12	0.44	0.21
59	acetone propanal	$C_3H_6O$	0.5	11	0.41	0.06
61	acetic acid	$C_2H_4O_2$	0.5	10	0.08	0.06
69	isoprene furan methyl butenol fragment	$C_5H_8$	0.5	3.5	0.13	0.12
71	methyl vinyl ketone (MVK) methacrolein (MACR)	$C_4H_6O$	0.5	6.2	0.06	0.07
73	methyl ethyl ketone (MEK)	$C_4H_8O$	0.5	6.0	0.11	0.08

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Table 1: Compounds measured during the field campaign including dwell times, sensitivities and limits of detection.

Table 2: Comparison of standardised emission rates of isopren	ne from willow	. REA = 1	relaxed
eddy accumulation			

Species	Standard emission rate / $\mu g g_{dw}^{-1} h^{-1}$	Measurement type	Reference
Salix spp.	20	Canopy-scale, PTR-MS	This study
Salix spp.	28	Branch enclosure	(Owen and Hewitt, 2000)
Salix alba	18	Branch enclosure, lab conditions	(Pio et al., 1993)
Salix alba	37.2	-	(Karl et al., 2009)
Salix babylonica	115	-	(Winer et al., 1983)
Salix caprea	18.9	Branch enclosure	(Karl et al., 2009)
Salix caroliniana	12.5	Air-exchange branch enclosure	(Zimmerman, 1979)
Salix nigra	25.2	Whole plant, air-exchange chamber	(Evans et al., 1982)
Salix phylicifolia	32	Branch enclosure	(Hakola et al., 1998)
Salix viminalis	12	Canopy-scale, REA	(Olofsson et al., 2005)

#### **Figure captions**

Figure 1: Aerial view of the Miscanthus and willow plantations. The white dots denote the measurement locations at the NE corner of the Miscanthus field and the N edge of the SRC willow field. (Map attributable to: ©2001 DigitalGlobe, GeoEye, Getmapping plc, Infoterra Ltd & Bluesky, TerraMetrics. Map data ©2011 Google).

Figure 2: Time series of VOC fluxes measured above Miscanthus. Dashed gridlines denote midnight. Note the variable flux scales.

Figure 3: Time series of VOC fluxes measured above willow canopy. Dashed gridlines denote midnight. Note the variable scales.

Figure 4: Average diurnal profiles of VOC fluxes above willow, and of sensible heat flux, when wind direction was between 90 and  $270^{\circ}$  (i.e. from over the willow field). Note the variable scales. Grey areas show variability calculated as  $\pm 1$  sd of the averaged half-hourly values of all measurements.

Figure 5: Average diurnal profiles of VOC mixing ratios above willow, and of temperature, when wind direction was between 90 and  $270^{\circ}$  (i.e. from over the willow field). Note the variable scales. Dashed lines denote LOD. Grey areas represent variability calculated as  $\pm 1$  sd of the averaged half-hourly values of all measurements.

Figure 6: Average diurnal profile of [MVK+MACR]:[isoprene] ratio above the willow canopy. Grey areas represent variability calculated as  $\pm 1$  sd of the averaged half-hourly values of all measurements.





Time and date 2010









## **Supplementary Information**

## Volatile Organic Compound Emissions from *Miscanthus* and Short Rotation Coppice Willow Bioenergy Crops

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The main paper reports on field measurements of VOC concentrations and fluxes above *Miscanthus* and short rotation crop (SRC) willow crops.

Average diurnal profiles were derived from the time series of measurements using data filtered to examine only those times when the wind direction and flux footprint was over the relevant crop field. The flux footprint for the range of friction velocities encountered was estimated as described in the main text, and the model output is shown here in Supplementary Information Figure S1. For measurements over *Miscanthus* and willow, directional filtering was undertaken for the sectors  $180 - 270^{\circ}$  and  $90 - 270^{\circ}$ , respectively. (See also the layout of the field site shown in Figure 1.)

Time series and directionally-filtered diurnal averages of both fluxes and mixing ratios of VOCs above both *Miscanthus* and SRC willow comprise too many figures to present in the main text. The most salient are presented in the main paper, and are mainly concerned with the measurements above SRC willow since measurements above *Miscanthus* showed essentially no significant VOC fluxes. For completion, the directionally-filtered diurnal averages of fluxes above *Miscanthus* are presented here in Figure S2, and the time series and directionally-filtered diurnal averages of the VOC mixing ratios above *Miscanthus* are presented in Figures S3 and S4, respectively. The time series of VOC mixing ratios above willow are shown in Figure S5.

Figure S1: Modelled flux footprints for *Miscanthus* and SRC willow measurements. The following parameters were used. *Miscanthus*: measurement height  $z_m$  4 m; roughness length  $z_0$  0.25 m (estimated as 1/10th of the canopy height, 2.5 m); boundary layer height *h* 1000 m. SRC willow:  $z_m$  6.7 m;  $z_0$  0.4m; *h* 1000 m. Footprints were calculated for 90<sup>th</sup> percentile (P90), median and minimum values of  $u^*$  (1 sd of the vertical wind speed,  $\sigma_w$ , shown in brackets) as indicated on the graphs. The distance at which maximum contribution can be expected, and at which 80% of the flux is contained, are given as  $X_{max}$  and  $X_r$ , respectively.



Figure S2: Average diurnal profiles of VOC fluxes above *Miscanthus* when wind direction was between 180 and 270° (i.e. from over the *Miscanthus* field). Note the variable scales. Grey areas represent variability calculated as  $\pm 1$  sd of the averaged half-hourly values of all measurements. A profile for MVK+MACR is not included due to insufficient data.





Figure S3: Time series of VOC mixing ratios, and of temperature, measured above *Miscanthus*. Dashed gridlines denote midnight. Note the variable mixing ratio scales.

Figure S4: Average diurnal profiles of VOC mixing ratios above *Miscanthus*, and of temperature, when wind direction was between 180 and  $270^{\circ}$  (i.e. from over the *Miscanthus* field). Note the variable scales. Dashed lines denote LOD. Grey areas represent variability calculated as  $\pm 1$  sd of the averaged half-hourly values of all measurements.





Figure S5: Time series of VOC mixing ratios, and of temperature, measured above willow. Dashed gridlines denote midnight. Note the variable mixing ratio scales.