



*Supplement of*

**Isoprene emissions track the seasonal cycle of canopy temperature, not primary production: evidence from remote sensing**

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1 **Supporting online material**

2 **Reference isoprene emission model**

3 Following Arneth et al. (2007) and Niinemets et al. (1999), the monthly isoprene emission  
4 rate  $I_{REF}$  in the reference model was modelled in LPJ as:

5 
$$I_{REF} = \sum_{i=1}^{PFTs} \varepsilon_i \frac{c_{i,370\text{ppm}}}{87c_i} GPP_i \exp\left[0.1(T_{CAN-PFT} - 30^\circ C)\right]$$

6 where summation is over the plant functional types (PFTs),  $\varepsilon_i$  is the fraction of  
7 photosynthetic electrons used for isoprene synthesis under standard conditions (constant  
8 through the seasonal cycle),  $c_i$  is the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration inside the leaf,  $c_{i, 370\text{ppm}}$  is the leaf-  
9 internal concentration corresponding to an ambient CO<sub>2</sub> concentration of 370 ppm and  
10  $GPP_i$  is the gross primary production. Both  $c_i$  and  $c_{i, 370\text{ppm}}$  are for non-water stressed  
11 conditions.

12 We used Guenther et al.'s (2006) values of the  $\varepsilon_i$  factors, with modifications from Millet et  
13 al., 2008, to derive values of the fraction of photosynthetic electrons diverted to isoprene  
14 production at standard temperature,  $\varepsilon$ , as follows:  $\varepsilon = 0.0085$  for tropical broadleaved trees,  
15 0.1070 for other broadleaved trees, 0.0303 for needle-leaved evergreen trees, 0.0106 for  
16 needleleaved summergreen trees, and 0.0076 for C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> grasses and other non-woody  
17 plants. Note that the effect of these different (and approximate) values on the modelled  
18 seasonal cycle of isoprene emission was slight, working only through differences in the  
19 phenology of different PFTs. This version of LPJ does not separate diffuse and direct  
20 radiation fractions, whose share in the total radiation received by the canopy may have an  
21 impact on photosynthesis rates in dense canopies (Alton, 2008).

22 **Error analysis**

23 In only three regions was  $r(T_{AIR})$  greater than  $r(T_{CAN-OBS})$  or  $r(T_{CAN-LPJ})$ : Aus2, San2 and  
24 Nord. Of those regions, only in the Nord region were the air-temperature correlations more  
25 than 0.07 greater than the canopy-temperature correlations. Nord was also one of the few  
26 sites in which  $r(T_{CAN-OBS}) < 0.78$ . In the other two sites with  $r(T_{CAN-OBS}) < 0.78$  (Con1 and  
27 Con2), both canopy temperature measures were better predictors of formaldehyde  
28 concentration than  $I_{REF}$ ,  $GPP$  and  $T_{AIR}$ . These regions had the smallest seasonal temperature  
29 range (1.5°C, not shown) of all the regions examined and yet the P value for formaldehyde  
30 versus  $T_{CAN-OBS}$  was 0.03, implying that the formaldehyde signal is influenced by  $T_{CAN-OBS}$   
31 with better than 95% confidence. It is not clear why the predictive capability of canopy  
32 temperatures failed in Nordeste. This region had a fairly large temperature range (11°C in  
33 MODIS), the offset of the surface temperatures from the satellite data showed no bias  
34 towards large or small values, and similar biomes (Ivory Coast) were well modelled by the  
35 canopy temperatures. Unlike in other regions, where the 1-2 month shift in the maxima and  
36 minima of the canopy temperatures relative to air temperature improved the correlation with  
37 formaldehyde, in Nordeste, this timing shift degraded the correlation. Yet both the observed  
38 and the modelled surface temperatures showed the same shift.

39 **Supporting Material Figure Captions**

40 Figure S1. Differences between temperature fields ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) for January and July 2002.  
41 Calculated canopy temperature *minus* air temperature (left,  $T_{\text{CAN-LPJ}}-T_{\text{AIR}}$ ); MODIS 2m  
42 surface temperature *minus* air temperature (right,  $T_{\text{CAN-OBS}}-T_{\text{AIR}}$ ).

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