To the associate editor,

Regarding the submitted manuscript (bg-2018-85), this document contains the following:

1. A point by point response to the reviewer's comments
2. A version of the manuscript highlighting all the changes from the previous version.

Finally, here is a brief list of relevant changes.

1. Storage fluxes have been incorporated into the estimation of OCS flux.
2. Inferences about soil moisture have been changed in accordance with reviewer comments.
3. Box plots have been added to Fig. 7 to help visualize the difference between fluxes observed during heat wave events.

On behalf of all the co-authors, I look forward to hearing from you.

Sincerely,
Bharat Rastogi
30 October, 2018

GENERAL COMMENTS

The authors have done a nice job improving this manuscript, which is more clear and reads well. I have just a few concerns remaining, noted below. With these addressed, I think the paper will make an important contribution to the literature.

We thank the reviewer for providing another round of detailed and valuable comments to help us improve the manuscript. Please see our responses to each comment below.

SPECIFIC COMMENTS

(1) Regarding the OCS flux estimation (Section 2.8)…

First, in the context of flux-gradient theory, g is the conventional symbol for conductance and I think it should not be used for "gradient".
We agree and have changed the symbol for gradient to delta (Δ).

Second, I would spell out the theoretical idea a little more accurately in Section 2.8, as it differs significantly from the Commane et al 2015 paper that is cited as its basis. In Commane et al 2015, the flux-gradient approach was applied to turbulent flux; the assumption was that the turbulent conductance (g = F/gradient) for all gases was the same (no normalization for relative diffusivities necessary because turbulent flux is not diffusive), so that the gradients of the two gases (along a wholly above-canopy turbulent path that passed no sources or sinks) and the flux of one could be used to calculate the flux of the other. Here, instead, your gradient is between the inside of the leaf and the canopy-top atmosphere, which is a path that is mostly diffusive (stomata and, partially, the leaf boundary layer) but partly turbulent (the within-canopy airspace and, partially, the leaf boundary layer), and which may include unaccounted-for sources/sinks in the form of storage flux (i.e. changes in the canopy airspace concentrations) and lateral advection. By normalizing by the diffusivity ratio (i.e. treating the whole path as diffusive) and by neglecting storage and advection, you are effectively taking your canopy-top measurements to represent leaf surface measurements and your eddy flux to represent flux through the stomata. That will definitely invoke some error (possibly bias) and may or may not be a sufficient approximation, so I think the paper should discuss these assumptions and approximations that you are making, how they differ from the cited works, and the resulting uncertainty in the results (ideally quantitatively).

In your response to the first-round review, you argued: "In tall canopies such as our site, the portion of canopy that is coupled to the overlying atmosphere changes considerably during the

day, and parts of the lower canopy are likely to be always decoupled from the upper canopy as well as above canopy air (Pyles et al., 2004). This has obvious consequences on canopy storage and venting of gases such as CO2 and OCS." I agree, and this is exactly why taking canopy-top concentrations and fluxes to represent leaf-surface concentrations and fluxes will invoke error. It is also exactly why storage should be accounted for (not neglected, as you argued). If a significant portion of the flux through the stomata is going into (or coming from) changes in canopy concentration, then your flux gradient equations will become significantly inaccurate.

We thank you for this careful and detailed explanation regarding the turbulent and diffusive modes of resistance to flow of gases between the bulk atmosphere and inside the leaves. We showed in our earlier response that at this needle-leaf forest, stomatal (i.e. diffusive) resistance was by far the chief resistance to flow. You are absolutely correct about missing sources/sinks by not accounting for storage fluxes. However, there is considerable uncertainty in the estimation of storage flux, related to the averaging time and vertical resolution of the storage profile (Yang et al., 2007) as well as horizontal resolution (de Araújo et al., 2010; Nicolini et al., 2018). This is especially true at our site, where storage estimates can vary tremendously depending on how this term is estimated. Three different estimates of storage flux are shown (Fig. 1), as estimated from profile measurements. The first is using discrete measurements at the reference height (S_{70}), the second is by using measurements along the entire profile ($S_{70\text{-}1}$), and finally one using only the two heights at the canopy top ($S_{70\text{-}60}$). Importantly, over the course of the average day, each flux cumulatively sums up to zero. At Wind River, storage fluxes for CO_2 have been estimated using a discrete measurement only at the reference height (Falk et al., 2008). However, this results in a flux that is not significantly different from 0, which we know is incorrect. If instead, the entire profile is used, the mid-morning storage flux exceeds inferred GPP and is over twice the estimated turbulent flux. This is also likely incorrect, given that wind speed is usually high at 70m and the needle-leaf canopy top is well coupled to the overlying atmosphere. However, the understory at the site is decoupled from the overstory at all times of day, and movement of air in the sub-canopy is controlled by topographically generated (mountain/valley) katabatic flows; this is understandable due to the tall and dense canopy. Thus, turbulent fluxes measured by EC are principally influenced by the upper canopy layers. Incorporating measurements of the decoupled understory can account for large errors in flux estimation (e.g. Jocher et al., 2018). Given the within-canopy decoupling we use estimated storage flux based only on the top two measurement heights (i.e., use the 70m and 60m inlets), allowing us to incorporate the effect of change in storage on the estimation of an ecosystem OCS flux that is predominantly from the upper canopy .

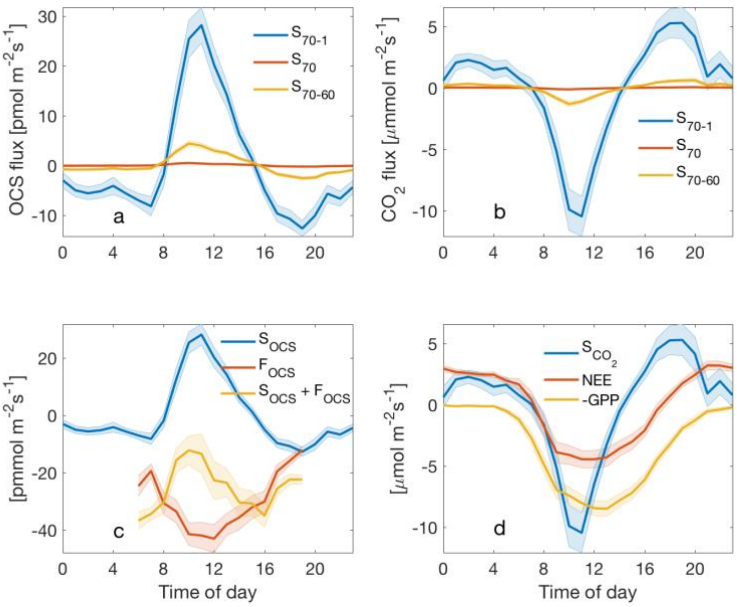

Figure 1. Mean diurnal cycles of OCS and CO_2 storage flux estimated using three different methods (a-b), and the storage flux estimated using the entire profile (S_{70-1}) compared to the NEE turbulent flux and the derived GPP (c-d).

(2) Regarding the response to heat waves (Section 3.5 and lines 462-464)…

This draft is better in that unsupported claims have been removed; however, the trade-off is that there doesn't seem to be a proper conclusion from the heat wave analysis. The only one offered is in the Conclusion section, which says that "sequential heatwaves lead to suppression in stomatal gas exchange of all three fluxes" — but that is not quite true, as F_H2O is enhanced during the heatwaves. Moreover, the reduction of F_OCS is not so clear for the first two heat waves in Fig. 7, probably just due to the noise. Perhaps a regression plot or even just a simple statistic on heat-wave vs not-heat-wave F_OCS would help support the point that F_OCS, in keeping with GPP and Gc, is suppressed during heat waves.

We have added boxplots that show that during these heatwaves OCS uptake and canopy conductance are reduced, NEE is more positive, while F_{H2O} fluxes are not significantly different. We have also added means for F_{OCS} in the text (line 453) that show the difference in these fluxes, and changed a line in the conclusion section (line 492) to say while F_{CO2} and F_{OCS} are suppressed, F_{H2O} is not.

(3) Regarding the influence of soil moisture…

I still do not see how the data support the inference that soil moisture (rather than a combination of VPD, temperature, and light) is driving seasonal changes in gas exchange, and although this draft backs away from strong statements about the soil moisture influence, it still suggests that soil moisture is a key driver in some places (e.g. abstract lines 28-29: "OCS fluxes

tracked changes in soil moisture", and lines 411-413: "declining soil moisture likely limits gas exchange as the summer progresses, even as canopy conductance can be reasonably high under overcast skies"). Where soil moisture influence is suggested (and it is certainly a possibility that should be mentioned), it should be on par with other plausible explanations. It is probably also a good idea in general to note somewhere in the manuscript that it is not possible using the present data to tell the soil moisture influence apart from other factors. You attempt to disentangle the drivers in the discussion surrounding Fig 6, but I don't follow the logic. I don't see the Gc response being any more similar across time periods than the OCS or CO2 responses are, despite the text's claim. Nor do I see why such an observation, if it were true, would implicate soil moisture as opposed to temperature or seasonal light levels.

We agree with the reviewer and have now removed soil moisture from the abstract (lines 29-29), and have changed lines 411-413 to say: "This indicates that declining soil moisture (Fig. 3b-c) potentially limits gas exchange as the summer progresses, even as canopy conductance can be reasonably high under overcast skies. It is important to note that in the absence of concurrent leaf and root water potential measurements, it is not possible to attribute reduction in gas exchange due to declining soil moisture."

TECHNICAL CORRECTIONS

- line 235: Eq. 6 seems inverted. The correct equation is flux = conductance x gradient => conductance = flux/gradient

Changed appropriately.

- lines 278-280: Fig 2 does not show the nighttime OCS flux.

We have removed these form the text

- Fig 2d: color scale should have a label (PAR).

Included in the current version.

- line 334: do you mean rainy days?

No. We have changed this to say decreased (line 343).

- line 376: "diffused: total" should be "diffuse:total" (no d and no space)

Changed appropriately.

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Ecosystem fluxes of carbonyl sulfide in an old-growth forest: temporal dynamics and responses to diffuse radiation and heat waves

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Abstract

Carbonyl sulfide (OCS) has recently emerged as a tracer for terrestrial carbon uptake. While physiological studies relating OCS fluxes to leaf stomatal dynamics have been established at leaf and branch scales and incorporated in global carbon cycle models, the quantity of data from ecosystem-scale field studies remains limited. In this study, we employ established theoretical relationships to infer ecosystem-scale plant OCS uptake from mixing ratio measurements. OCS fluxes showed a pronounced diurnal cycle, with maximum uptake during mid-day. OCS uptake was found to scale with independent measurements of CO_2 fluxes over a 60-m-tall old-growth forest in the Pacific Northwestern U.S. (45°49′13.76″ N; 121°57′06.88″) at daily and monthly timescales under mid-high light conditions across the growing season in 2015. OCS fluxes were strongly influenced by the fraction of downwelling diffuse light. Finally, we examine the effect of sequential heatwaves on fluxes of OCS, CO_2 and H_2O. Our results bolster previous evidence that ecosystem OCS uptake is strongly related to stomatal dynamics, and measuring this gas improves constraints on estimating photosynthetic rates at the ecosystem scale.

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1. Introduction

Carbonyl Sulfide (OCS) is the most abundant sulfur gas in the atmosphere, with a mean atmospheric concentration of ~500 ppt (parts per trillion), and therefore a significant part of the tropospheric and stratospheric sulfur cycles, with implications for the global radiation budget and ozone depletion (Johnson et al.,1993; Notholt et al., 2003). The dominant sink of atmospheric OCS is vegetation (Kesselmeier and Merk, 1993; Kettle et al., 2002; Montzka et al., 2007 and references therein), through rapid and irreversible hydrolysis by the ubiquitous enzyme carbonic anhydrase (Protoschill-Krebs, Wilhelm, &

Kesselmeier, 1996; Protoschill-Krebs and Kesselmeier, 1992). Recent advances in spectroscopic technology have enabled continuous in-situ measurements of OCS on timescales that are relevant to understanding stomatal function at the leaf-scale (Stimler et al., 2010a, 2010b), branch scale (Berkelhammer et al., 2014) and the ecosystem scale (Kooijmans et al., 2017; Wehr et al., 2017). An important distinction between OCS and CO_2 cycling is the absence of a retroflux from actively photosynthesizing leaves (OCS emissions have been reported from stressed crops following severe fungal infection; Bloem et al., 2012). However, the normalized leaf uptake ratio of OCS:CO_2 (LRU; Sandoval-Soto et al., 2005) is relatively constant at medium to high light levels (Maseyk et al., 2014; Stimler et al., 2010), making it an excellent proxy for quantifying plant productivity (GPP; Asaf et al., 2013; Billesbach et al., 2014; Blonquist et al., 2011). On the other hand, both uptake and emissions of OCS from soils have been identified (Whelan et al., 2016; Sun et al., 2015; Maseyk et al., 2014; Kesselmier et al., 1999). While ecosystem-scale measurements of OCS continue to establish links between OCS uptake and GPP in different ecosystems (for a comprehensive list of ecosystem scale studies readers are referred to Figure 2 in Whelan et al., 2018), inconsistencies persist. For example, in an oak-savanna woodland in southern France Belviso et al. (2016) found that OCS exchange was strongly influenced by photosynthesis during early morning hours, while meaningful values of LRU could only by calculated for a few days in the early afternoons. Commane et al. (2015) were unable to explain mid-summer emissions of OCS at a mid-latitude deciduous forest. Uncertainties highlighted above argue for field-scale measurements of OCS in a variety of ecosystems, particularly as OCS flux predictions have recently been incorporated to inform estimates of plant productivity in global carbon cycle models (Campbell et al., 2017a; Hilton et al., 2017; Launois et al., 2015).

OCS fluxes have not been previously reported for old-growth forests, although a recent study using flask samples inferred large uptake of OCS in coastal redwood forests in northern California (Campbell et al., 2017b). Rastogi et al. (in revision) found large drawdowns in mixing ratios of OCS at an old growth forest in the pacific northwestern U.S., and significant uptake of this gas by various components of the ecosystem (leaves, soils, and epiphytes). In this study, we report estimates of OCS fluxes from an old-growth forest and place them in the context of ecosystem carbon and water cycling. Additionally, we investigate the response of CO_2, H_2O and OCS fluxes to changes in the fraction of downwelling diffuse radiation, as well as heat wave events through the growing season. Technological constraints posed limitations in measuring fast-response OCS fluxes so instead we combine continuous in-situ measurements of OCS mixing ratios above and within the canopy with established theoretical equations for OCS uptake (see Berry et al., 2013; Commane et al., 2015; Seibt et al., 2010) to characterize OCS fluxes using a simple empirical model and compare them with ecosystem uptake of CO_2 from co-located eddy covariance measurements.

2. Methods

2.1. Site Description

Measurements were made at the Wind River Experimental Forest (WR), located within the Gifford Pinchot National Forest in southwest Washington state, USA (45°49′13.76″

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N; 121°57′06.88″; 371 m above sea level). The site is well studied and described in great detail (Paw U et al., 2004; Shaw et al., 2004; Wharton and Falk, 2016; Winner et al., 2004). The climate is classified as temperate oceanic with a strong summer drought. The forest is 478 ha of preserved old-growth evergreen needle-leaf forest, with dominant tree species of Douglas fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii*) and Western hemlock (*Tsuga heterophylla*). The tallest Douglas fir trees are between 50 and 60m, while the shade-tolerant hemlocks are typically between 20-30 m high. Maximum rooting depth is 1–2 m for the tallest, dominant Douglas-fir trees although most of the root biomass is concentrated in the first 0.5 m (Shaw et al., 2014). The cumulative LAI is estimated to be 8-9 $m^2 m^{-2}$ (Parker et al., 2004). Additionally, the ecosystem hosts a large diversity of mosses, lichens and other epiphytic plants, which play an important role in canopy OCS dynamics (Rastogi et al., in revision). The soils are volcanic in origin, although most of the forest surface is comprised of decaying organic matter (Shaw et al., 2004).

2.2. Study period: Measurements reported here are between April 18- Dec 31, 2015. However, in early November an intake line at the top of the canopy was damaged after a rainstorm. Measurements continued at the other intake heights (see sections 2.4 and 2.9). Therefore, ecosystem fluxes and related analyses in this study cover 136 days between April 18 and October 31, while chamber based soil fluxes are reported for the months of August-December. Gaps in the time series due to analyzer maintenance correspond to Jun 26-28, July 6-17, August 4-7, August 24 and October 4-7. April-October roughly corresponds to most of the growing season, although at this site GPP usually peaks early in March-April, when soil moisture is high and ecosystem respiration flux is low, while plant productivity is typically severely light and temperature limited in the months of November-December (Wharton and Falk, 2016). Environmental conditions during the measurement campaign are shown in Figure 1 are represent a typical Mediterranean-type climate, with temperature peaking in July and minimal to no measured rainfall between June and September. This results in high summertime atmospheric vapor pressure deficit (VPDa), and soil moisture declines steadily through the summer period, with some recharge following rare precipitation events in September and then more commonly in October. The measurement period also encompasses three distinct heat waves, characterized by anomalously high air temperatures and mid-day VPDa values (often exceeding 4 kPa). We examine the response of OCS and CO_2 fluxes during these heat waves.

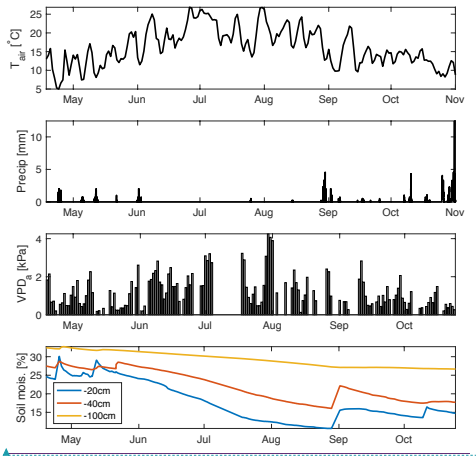

Figure 1. Environmental conditions at Wind River during the measurement campaign. daily mean air temperature (a), precipitation (b) mid-day VPDa (c) and soil moisture measured at three depths (d) are shown.

2.3. CO_2 and H_2O eddy flux measurements: Carbon, water and energy fluxes have been collected since 1998 at the Wind River AmeriFlux tower (US-wrc; Paw U et al. 2004). For further details readers are referred to Falk et al., (2008; instrumentation and data processing), and Wharton et al., (2012) and Wharton and Falk, (2016) for multi-year carbon and water flux measurements and synthesis.

2.4. OCS measurements: A commercially available off-axis integrated cavity output spectroscopy analyzer manufactured by Los Gatos Research Inc., (LGR; model 914-0028) was deployed at the base of the tower in an insulated and temperature-controlled shed. The instrument measures mixing ratios of OCS, CO_2, H_2O and CO simultaneously at a maximal scan rate of 5Hz. The system uses a 4.87 μm cascade laser coupled to a high finesse 800 cm^3 optical cavity and light transmitted through the cavity is focused into a cooled and amplified HgCdTe detector. OCS is detected at ~2050.40 cm^{-1}, CO_2 at 2050.56 cm^{-1}, CO at ~2050.86 cm^{-1}, and H_2O at ~2050.66 cm^{-1}. Pressure broadening associated with changes in the concentration of water vapor in the samples is corrected for in the analysis routine. Air was sampled through 0.25'' diameter PFA tubing using a diaphragm pump at a flow rate of 2L min^{-1}, from inlets located at 70m (at the height of the eddy flux instrumentation), 60m (canopy top), 20m, 10m, and 1m. The sampling frequency was 0.1Hz and the sampling interval was 5 minutes. The first minute of each sampling interval was removed to avoid any inter-sampling mixing. The remaining data were checked for temperature and pressure fluctuations inside the measurement chamber, and a moving window filter was used to eliminate any sudden outliers in the data. Mixing ratios were aggregated to provide hourly means. For detailed information regarding instrumentation and the measurement readers are referred to Rastogi et al (in revision), Berkelhammer et al. (2014) and Belviso et al. (2016).

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2.5. Calibration: Calibration was performed using ambient air stored in insulated tanks as a secondary reference. Air was sampled into the analyzer daily, and tank pressure was routinely monitored to check for leaks. Glass flasks were randomly sampled from calibration tanks and measured against a NOAA GMD reference standard. Cross-referencing revealed that the accuracy of the measurement was within the reported minimum uncertainty of the instrument (of 12.6 pmol mol^{-1}; Berkelhammer et al., 2016).

2.6. Thermal Camera measurements: Leaf temperatures were measured from October 28, 2014 to January 28, 2016 using a FLIR A325sc thermal camera (FLIR System Inc., Wilsonville, OR), in which a FLIR IR 30-mm lens (focal length: 30.38 mm; field of view: 15°×11.25°) was installed. The thermal camera has a pixel resolution of 320 × 240. Within the field of view (FOV), spot sizes of a single pixel are 0.83 cm from 10-m distance and 8.3 cm from 100-m distance. Manufacturer-reported errors in original measured thermal temperatures are ±2 °C or ±2% of the measurements. The camera model is identical to one used in another study at an AmeriFlux site in central Oregon (US Me-2), and the detailed specifications can be found in Kim et al. (2016). To monitor a larger canopy region, a pan-tilt unit (PTU) was used for motion control, allowing multiple canopy thermal image acquisition within one motion cycle. We used a FLIR PTU-D100E (FLIR System Inc., Wilsonville, OR; (http://www.flir.com/mcs) to move the thermal camera vertically and horizontally at specific pan and tilt angles. We selected five pan-tilt angle (PT) positions representing the upper canopy (i.e., ~40 to 60 m above the forest floor) to estimate leaf temperatures in this study.

2.7. Diffuse light measurement and analyses: An SPN1 Sunshine Pyranometer (Delta-T Devices ltd., Cambridge, U.K.) was installed at the top of the canopy and collected direct and diffuse shortwave downwelling radiation from April- December 2015. Measurements were made every 1 min, and then aggregated to hourly means. We limited our analyses of diffuse radiation data to include only mid-day hours (between 11am-1pm) to minimize the influence of solar angles on diffuse radiation fractions. We defined three distinct periods based on the ratio of diffuse radiation to total incoming solar radiation (*fidff*). Data were characterized as clear if *fdiff* < 0.2; partly cloudy if *fdiff* > 0.2 and *fdiff* < 0.8, and overcast if *fdiff* > 0.8.

2.8. OCS flux estimation: 'Canopy-scale leaf' OCS flux was estimated using flux-gradient similarity, following Commane et al., 2015.

$$F_{OCS} = F_{H2O} \cdot \frac{\Delta_{OCS}}{\Delta_{H2O}} + S_{OCS} \quad (1)$$

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where F_{OCS}, F_{H2O}, Δ_{OCS} and Δ_{H_2O} are the fluxes and gradients of OCS and H_2O respectively and S_{OCS} is the change in storage flux of OCS. Change in storage flux is subject to large uncertainties and estimates have been shown to vary depending on the averaging time and vertical resolution of the storage profile (Yang et al., 2007), horizontal resolution and site heterogeneity (de Araújo et al., 2010; Nicolini et al., 2018) as well as canopy decoupling (Jocher et al., 2018). Since large parts of the canopy at the site are decoupled from the bulk air at all times (Pyles et al., 2004), we inferred change in storage as the height integrated change in the time derivative of mixing ratios between the canopy top and above the canopy. Following Seibt et al., (2010) and Berry et al., (2013),

we assume that OCS is irreversibly and rapidly consumed inside leaves, such that the gradient between ambient air and the leaf interior effectively reduces to the ambient measured OCS mixing ratio: $\Delta_{OCS}\Delta_{H_2O}$

$$\Delta_{OCS} = \chi^a_{OCS} - \chi^l_{OCS} = \chi^a_{OCS} \quad , \qquad (2)$$

where Δ_{OCS} is defined as he gradient of OCS between ambient air and the leaf intercellular spaces (χ is the mixing ratio of OCS and superscripts *a* and *l* refer to ambient and leaf respectively). In our study, χ^a_{OCS} is the measured mixing ratio at the canopy top (60m) instead of above canopy (70m) to account for turbulent transport between the canopy top and air that is above the canopy top. We use vapor pressure deficit (VPD) as the corresponding gradient for H_2O, under the key assumption that the intercellular leaf surfaces are saturated with water vapor. While VPD is usually calculated using air temperature, a more accurate calculation can be performed with leaf temperatures, which can deviate significantly from air temperatures (Kim et al. 2016), leading to significant differences between the VPD of ambient air and that at the leaf surface (Fig. 2a and 3d in this study). Previously leaf temperatures have been inferred from sensible heat fluxes, wind speed and air temperatures (e.g. Wehr et al., 2017), here we use explicit measurements of leaf skin temperatures to estimate leaf-air VPD (VPD_l). Analogous to Eq (3),

$$\Delta_{H2O} = \chi^l_{H2O} - \chi^a_{H2O} = \frac{(e_i - e_a)}{P} = \frac{VPD_l}{P} \quad , \qquad (3)$$

where e_i is saturation vapor pressure in the leaf sub-stomatal cavity (kPa), using leaf skin temperature, ea is the actual vapor pressure (kPa), P is the measured atmospheric pressure (kPa) at the tower top, and $\chi^l_{H_2O}$ and $\chi^a_{H_2O}$ (ppth) are the leaf and ambient H_2O mixing ratios at the canopy top. Finally, since gradients of OCS and H_2O are estimated between ambient air and the leaf intercellular spaces, these are normalized by the ratio of diffusivities of these two species in air (Seibt et al., 2010; Wohlfahrt et al., 2012).

F_{H2O} was measured using eddy covariance at the tower top (70m). In high LAI forests with minimal exposed soil, such as those of the Pacific Northwest, fluxes of F_{H2O} can be treated as a good proxy for transpiration, since soil evaporation is minimal. We excluded rainy days, as well as two days following rainfall, to only capture periods when F_{H2O} can be assumed to be dominated by transpiration. Equation (1) was evaluated only under the condition $F_{H2O} > 0.2$ mmolm^{-2}s^{-1}. We restricted our analyses to daytime, when OCS flux is assumed to be related to leaf CO_2 uptake (Maseyk et al., 2014; Wehr et al., 2017).

Leaf Relative uptake was calculated following Seibt et al (2010).

$$LRU = \frac{F_{OCS}}{GPP} . \frac{\chi CO_2}{\chi OCS} \quad , \qquad (5)$$

where GPP was estimated from CO_2 fluxes measured at the tower top, using a nighttime based partitioning approach (Reichstein et al., 2005), that was optimized for the site (Falk et al., 2008). Finally, canopy conductance (Gc) was estimated using a simple flux-gradient approach with the assumption that the canopy (or ecosystem) acts as a single big leaf.

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Deleted: g_{H2O} are the fluxes and gradients of OCS and H_2O, respectively. Following Seibt et al., (2010) and Berry et al., (2013), we assume that OCS is irreversibly and rapidly consumed inside leaves, such that the gradient between ambient air and the leaf interior effectively reduces to the ambient measured OCS mixing ratio:

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Deleted: F_{H2O} was measured using eddy covariance at the tower top (70m). In high LAI forests with minimal exposed soil, such as those of the Pacific Northwest, fluxes of F_{H2O} can be treated as a good proxy for transpiration, since soil evaporation should be minimal. We excluded rainy days, as well as two days following rainfall, to only capture periods when F_{H2O} can be assumed to be dominated by transpiration. Equation (1) was evaluated only under the condition $F_{H2O} > 0.2$ mmolm^{-2}s^{-1}. We restricted our analyses to daytime, when OCS flux is assumed to be related to leaf CO_2 uptake (Maseyk et al., 2014; Wehr et al., 2017).

$$Gc = F_{H2O} \cdot \frac{VPD_l}{P} \quad , \tag{6}$$

2.9. Surface Fluxes: A long-term automatic soil survey chamber (Li-Cor 8100-104, 20 cm diameter) was installed at three 0.03 m^2 surface sites in series, within 1 meter of each other. All plastic and rubber parts had been removed from the chamber and replaced with materials compatible with OCS measurements: stainless steel, PFA plastic, and Volara foam. Blank measurements were performed in the laboratory before deployment and OCS concentrations in the chamber were found to be statistically indistinguishable from incoming ambient concentrations. The stainless-steel chamber top opened and closed automatically on a timer. Gas was drawn through the chamber via a pump downstream of the analyzer, and the 3 $Lmin^{-1}$ flow rate was confirmed with a mass flow meter. When the chamber was open, ambient near-surface air was observed. When the chamber was closed, trace gas concentrations reached a stable state for at least 2 minutes during the 10-minute incubation time. The difference between the ambient concentration and the stable closed-chamber concentration were used to calculate the surface fluxes of OCS and CO_2.

$$F_{forest\ floor} = M_c \Delta\chi . A^{-1} \ , \tag{7}$$

where M_c is the measured flow rate into the chamber (converted from $Lmin^{-1}$ to $mols^{-1}$ using the ideal gas law) and $\Delta\chi$ is the difference between mixing ratios of OCS or CO_2 in ambient air and the chamber and A is the surface area of the chamber. The minimum flux detectable with this method was 1.2 $pmolm^{-2}s^{-1}$ uptake or production.

Care was taken to select sites characteristic of the surface, which was generally springy and covered in a mat of mosses and lichen. Surface flux observations were made at site 1 from July 6 to 16, site 2 from August 13 to October 7, and site 3 from November 6 to December 2, 2015. The first site was visually similar to the subsequent two sites at the surface, though the chamber base of the first site was installed into the moss layer and a barely decomposed fallen tree. When a soil sample was attempted to be extracted from the footprint of the chamber base, several liters of intact wood litter were removed. The influence of the developed soil on site 1 is therefore considered minimal. Site 2 was selected nearby and observations were made until a dominant tree fell on the soil chamber. The chamber was repaired and re-installed a month later at site 3 and observations continued without incident until the chamber was removed in advance of the soil freezing.

3. Results and Discussion:

3.1. Ecosystem fluxes: The composite diurnal cycles for CO_2, water vapor and OCS and fluxes are shown (Fig. 2a-d). The total ecosystem flux of OCS (F_{OCS}; Fig 2.d) follows a pronounced diurnal cycle that peaks during mid-day. The vertical profile of mixing ratios measured throughout the canopy is also shown (Fig.2.b). OCS mixing ratios are highest at the canopy top and lowest near the forest floor, but mixing ratios increase from the early morning to mid-afternoon. Together these processes are indicative of ecosystem uptake and downward entrainment of boundary layer air (Rastogi et al., *in press*). The shape of the F_{OCS} curve is very similar to those of net and gross carbon fluxes (Fig 2.b-c), although F_{OCS} was consistently negative during daylight hours. Leaf relative uptake, a ratio of F_{OCS}:GPP normalized by the mean mixing ratios of OCS:CO_2, showed a strong

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light dependence (Fig. 2e). High-light, mid-day values ranged between 3-4, which is higher than those observed at other forest systems (Kooijmans et al., 2017; Wehr et al., 2017) but well within the spread of values obtained in a recent meta-analyses of OCS studies for vegetated ecosystems (Whelan et al., 2018). The diurnal cycle was found to be asymmetric, with peak values observed in the early morning, when stomatal conductance is likely to be high (Winner et al., 2004), but GPP is limited by low light. It is important to note that LRU is likely influenced by large amounts of epiphyte and understory vegetation, which assimilate OCS even at times when ecosystem CO_2 uptake is low or zero. Epiphytic assimilation of OCS is highly influenced by moisture content (Gimeno et al., 2017) and is typically higher through the night and in the early mornings at this site (Rastogi et al., in press). Moreover, in tall old-growth forests, leaf area is vertically distributed over a much larger part of the canopy compared to other forests (Parker et al., 2004). While leaves at the canopy top exercise tight stomatal control to limit water loss and minimize hydraulic failure (Woodruff et al., 2007) leaves lower down in the canopy, including those of understory vegetation, likely impose less stomatal control of transpiration (Winner et al., 2004). Lower-canopy leaves may therefore continue to disproportionately assimilate OCS, even under low rates of carbon assimilation (as CO_2 uptake is additionally light limited).

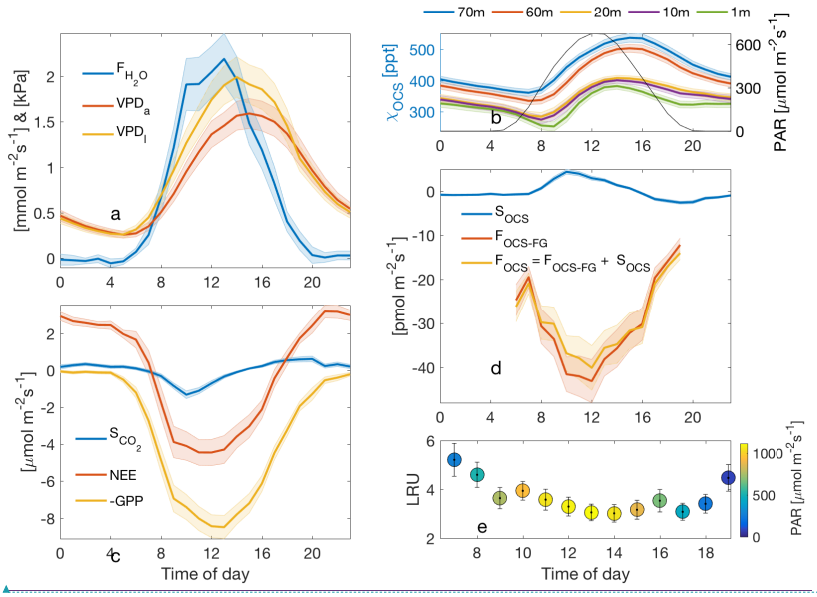

Figure 2. Diurnal cycle of measured H_2O flux (blue curve) and VPD estimated from air and leaf temperatures (red and yellow curves, respectively; a), diurnal cycles of OCS mixing ratio profiles measured along the canopy (left axis) and mean PAR (right axis; b), inferred storage flux of CO2 (blue curve), measured turbulent flux of CO_2 (NEE; red curve) and estimated flux of GPP (yellow curve, plotted as a negative quantity to show uptake; are shown in c), diurnal

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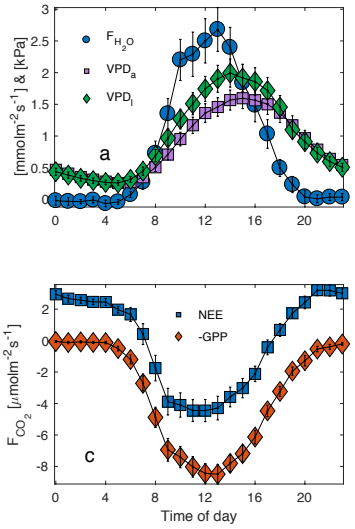

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cycle of change in storage flux of OCS (S_{OCS}; blue curve; d), estimated flux of OCS using flux-gradient similarity (F_{OCS-FG}; red curve in d) and the sum of the two fluxes (F_{OCS}; yellow curve in d), and mean diurnal cycle of leaf relative uptake estimated according to eq. (5), shown in (e), and colored according to mean PAR. Shaded regions (in a-d) and vertical bars (in e) represent one standard error.

3.2. Daily and seasonal dynamics: Daytime fluxes of OCS (estimated as fluxes when PAR was higher than 100 µmol $m^{-2}s^{-1}$) were correlated to independent estimates of GPP (Fig. 3a), and uptake of both OCS and CO_2 reduced as soil moisture declined. Variability in the relationship between fluxes of OCS and CO_2 and soil moisture was related to VPD, which fluctuated as a response of changing cloud cover (discussed later in sec. 3.4).

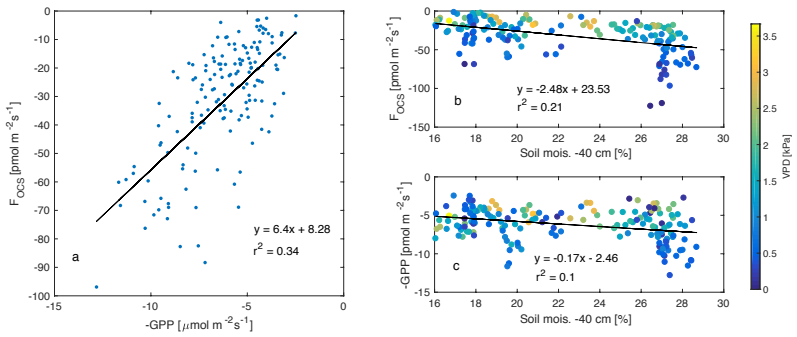

Figure 3. F_{OCS} was linearly correlated to GPP (plotted as a negative quantity to show ecosystem uptake; a), while both FOCS and GPP reduced as a function of decreasing soil moisture (b-c). Data presented here are mid-day means, data in (b-c) are colored according to VPD.

Ecosystem uptake of OCS and CO_2 (as well as GPP) was highest in April (Fig. 4a), and declined as the soil drought progressed (Fig. 4f). Mean monthly maximum OCS flux was estimated as -61 ± 6 $pmolm^{-2}s^{-1}$, while daily mean maximum GPP over this period was estimated as 10 ± 1$\mu molm^{-2}s^{-1}$ (plotted as a negative quantity in Fig. 4b to show ecosystem uptake). While the steepest declines in F_{OCS}, NEE and GPP happened between the months of May and June, F_{OCS} continued to decline through the rest of the summer, with a minimum in August, and remaining low in September and October. CO_2 fluxes flattened between June-September, before declining again in October. While uptake of OCS and CO_2 followed similar patterns, H_2O flux remained high until mid-summer (Fig. 4c) and decreased in August, presumably due to a combination of high VPD (Fig. 4d) and declining soil moisture (Fig. 4f), as plants exercised greater control over stomata. This can be clearly seen in the seasonal cycle of canopy conductance (Gc; Fig. 4e). Mean monthly Gc was highest in the months of April and May, and then declined in response to increasing VPD and decreasing soil moisture, before increasing again slightly in September and October following soil recharge and decreased VPD due to precipitation events. In October, soil water recharge, several rain-free days (Fig. 1), and lower VPD

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(Fig. 4d) do not result in increased gas exchange, likely due to downregulation of photosynthesis (Eastman and Camm, 1995), induced by photoprotective changes in the xanthophyll cycle (Adams and Demmig-Adams, 1994).

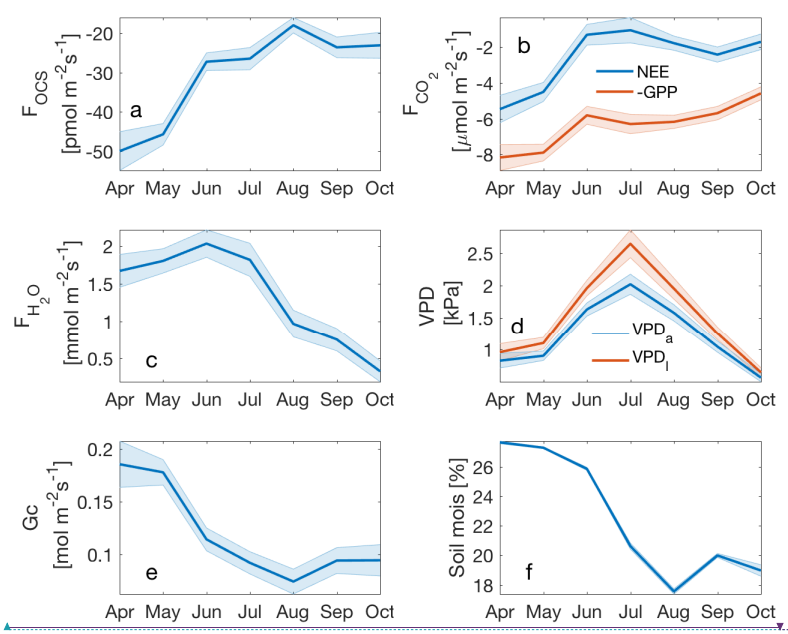
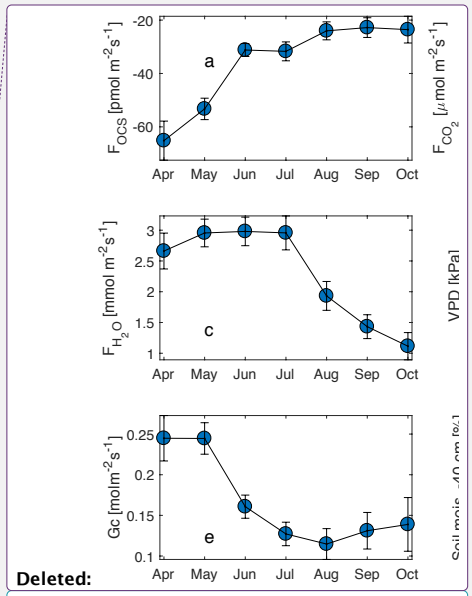


Figure 4. Monthly means for daytime F_{OCS} (a), NEE and -GPP (blue and red curves; b), water vapor flux (c), VPD_a and VPD_l (blue and red curves respectively; d), canopy conductance (Gc; e), and soil moisture at -40cm depth (f). Vertical bars indicate standard error.

3.3. Surface Fluxes: Forest floor OCS fluxes were observed from 3 sites in series and within 1 m of each other. Site 1 had approximately twice the OCS uptake compared to the subsequent two sites and had a substantial layer of intact woody debris under the chamber footprint. Site 2 and 3 had OCS fluxes similar to previous surface fluxes reported for forests (Whelan et al., 2018). For all sites, there was no clear diurnal pattern. For site 2, uptake immediately following chamber installation was higher (~6 pmol $m^{-2}s^{-1}$) than fluxes later on (all <6 pmol $m^{-2}s^{-1}$) when temperatures were lower (Fig 5). Site 3 did not have high uptake after chamber installation, and had consistent fluxes between the detection limit and -6.2 pmol $m^{-2}s^{-1}$ for the first few weeks. When ambient air temperatures dropped below freezing, uptake remained unchanged, except for the largest uptake observed (6 to 12 pmol $m^{-2}s^{-1}$) during two events when average air temperature fluctuated from a cooling to warming trend. Soil temperature never dropped below freezing during the experiment and was generally colder over time. We did not observe any OCS emissions from the chamber based measurements, consistent with



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recent studies that find that cooler, moist (Maseyk et al., 2014; Sun et al., 2016; Whelan et al., 2016) and radiation limited (Kitz et al., 2017) soils do not emit OCS.

Surface CO_2 emissions exhibited a relationship with temperature, where highest production (~25 µmol $m^{-2}s^{-1}$) corresponded with temperatures ~15°C, and maximum flux values decreased for warmer and colder temperatures. CO_2 emissions had a diurnal pattern, with lowest emissions at night and maximum emissions in late morning to mid-afternoon. No obvious relationship emerges from CO_2 emission and OCS uptake, though the high OCS uptake events in late November and early December have a linear relationship with CO_2 emissions. For sites 2 and 3, the ratio of OCS emission to CO_2 production, normalized by the concentration of OCS and CO_2 in the closed chamber, was between -0.25 and -3.5 with a mean of -1. In contrast, the same ratio for site 1 varied from -5 to -19 with a mean of -10.

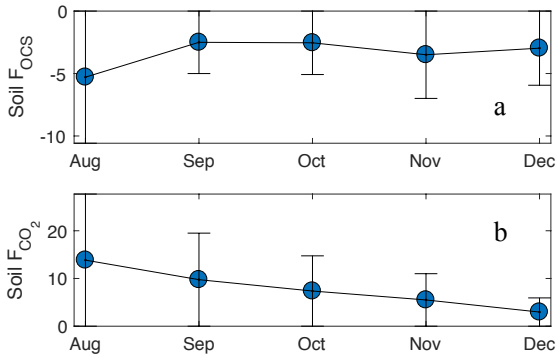

Figure 5. Surface F_{OCS} and F_{CO2} from chamber measurements (brown squares in a-b) from sites 2 and 3. Site 1 was atypical (see section 2.7) and therefore fluxes are not shown. Values for site 1 F_{OCS} and F_{CO2} were -22 ± 0.3 $pmolm^{-2}s^{-1}$ and -83 ± 2 $µmolm^{-2}s^{-1}$ respectively. Error bars indicate standard deviation.

3.4. Sensitivity to diffuse light: Mid-day fluxes of OCS and CO_2 were found to be sensitive to changes in the fraction of diffuse:total incoming shortwave radiation (*fdiff*; Figure 6b-c). For these analyses, data were separated into three periods corresponding to early summer (DOY 109-180), mid-late summer (DOY 180-240) and early fall (DOY 240-297), and binned into three categories: clear sky conditions, partly cloudy, and overcast, defined in sec. 2.7. Mid-day VPD was highest under clear sky conditions and lowest under overcast skies, but was most different across the three periods, during clear skies (Fig. 6a). Consequently, OCS and CO_2 uptake was highest (most negative fluxes) under overcast conditions during the early summer, and generally declined as *fdiff* decreased across all time periods (Fig. 6b-d). Across the three periods, the rate of decrease was much higher as *fdiff* changed from partially cloudy to clear. During the mid-late summer, however, (red diamonds in Fig. 6a-f), the diffuse light effect resulted in GPP and NEE being almost as high as during the early summer. F_{OCS} was also highest under partially cloudy skies during this time, and only showed a very weak decline under

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completely overcast conditions. Overall, the behavior of OCS and CO_2 fluxes was similar during the later time periods. Leaf relative uptake (LRU; calculated according to eq. 5) was lowest under partly clear skies and highest under overcast conditions. This is because under highly diffuse conditions, carbon uptake is additionally limited by light, whereas F_{OCS} is not (Wehr et al., 2017; Maseyk et al., 2014). The shape of the LRU curves can additionally be explained by examining canopy conductance (Gc; Fig. 6f), which was also higher under overcast skies. LRU increased with Gc across all three periods (Fig. 6g), and appeared to be constant for Gc greater than ~400 $mmolm^{-2}s^{-1}$.

The diffuse light enhancement of stomatal and canopy conductance is well documented across a range of forest ecosystems (Alton et al., 2007; Cheng et al., 2015; Hollinger et al., 2017; Urban et al., 2007; Wharton et al., 2012). Lower VPD (Fig. 6a) and light levels allow plants to keep stomata open at mid-day and continue fixing CO_2. Lower VPD reduces transpirational losses, and the lack of VPD-induced partial stomatal closure reduces the resistance to CO_2 diffusion into the leaf. Correspondingly, the less directional nature of diffuse solar radiation allows greater penetration into the canopy, thus increasing photosynthesis across the entire canopy, even as a reduction in canopy top leaf photosynthesis is observed due to a reduction in total radiation. In a multi-year analysis at Wind River, Wharton et al., (2012) found that cloudy and partly cloudy sky conditions during the peak-growing season lead to an increase in CO_2 uptake. During our study, Gc was generally higher in the early growing season, but increased as sky conditions changed from clear skies to overcast. This increase was similar across the three time periods, even as the response of OCS and CO_2 fluxes was different across these periods. This indicates that declining soil moisture (Fig. 3b-c) potentially limits gas exchange as the summer progresses, even as canopy conductance can be reasonably high under overcast skies. It is important to note that in the absence of concurrent leaf and root water potential measurements, it is not possible to attribute reduction in gas exchange due to declining soil moisture.

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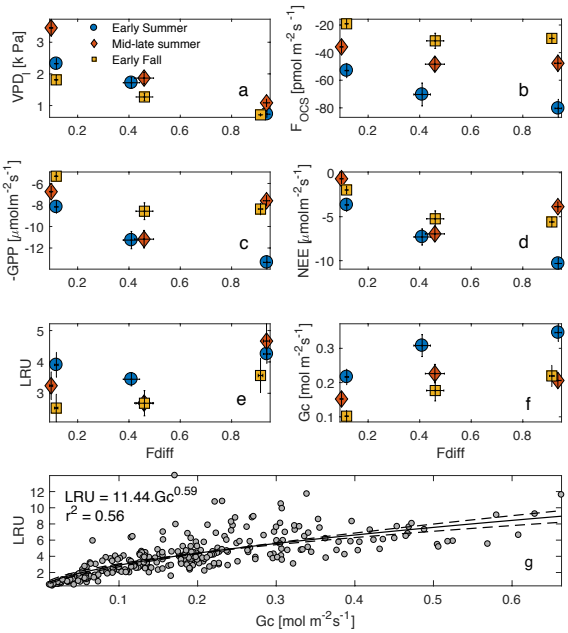

Figure 6. Mid-day VPD_l, F_{OCS}, NEE and GPP plotted against the fraction of diffuse downwelling shortwave radiation (a-d) for early summer, mid-late summer and early fall of 2015 (these periods are defined in Section 3.4). High values on the x-axis indicate completely overcast or cloudy conditions, whereas as low values indicated clear skies. LRU increases with increasing *fdiff* during each period but the increase is most pronounced in the early summer (e). Gc increases from clear to partly cloudy conditions across the three periods and plateaus during overcast sky conditions (f). Vertical bars indicate 1 standard error. Across the three periods, LRU increased with Gc, and levelled off at Gc values greater than ~ 0.5 mol $m^{-2}s^{-1}$ (g).

3.5. Response to heat waves: 2015 was the warmest year in large parts of the Pacific Northwest since records began in the 1930s (Dalton et al., 2017). We observed three distinct heat waves during the 2015 summer. These were in early June (DOY 157-160), end of June- early July (DOY 175-188) and late July-early August (DOY 210-213). The three heat waves are shown as red, yellow and dark purple bars in Fig. 7; the overall time series is shown in blue (daytime means are plotted for all variables, where daytime is defined as PAR exceeding 100 µmol $m^{-2}s^{-1}$). Additionally, boxplots for 'non-heatwave' and 'heatwave' days are shown (labelled as No HW and HW respectively). Mid-day temperatures exceeded 30°C during these heat wave events, while VPD-leaf exceeded 3 kPa during the first heat wave and increased to a mean daily maximum of 5.1 kPa during the last event (Fig. 7b). The canopy was a net source of CO_2 during all three events, while mid-day means for NEE were usually negative (implying CO_2 sink) before and after the heat wave periods (Fig. 7c). During the first event, F_{OCS} was similar to days immediately

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prior (Fig. 7d). The third event lead to a reduction in F_{OCS}, even though the canopy had received some rainfall in the preceding weeks (Fig. 1c). Overall, mean daytime OCS uptake decreased from -27 [pmol $m^{-2}s^{-1}$] in 'non- heatwave' days (daytime means presented as blue bars in Fig. 7) to -16 [pmol $m^{-2}s^{-1}$] during 'heatwave' days (daytime means from data presented as red, yellow and purple bars in Fig. 7). Water vapor fluxes (Fig. 7e) increased during the first heat wave, compared to days immediately prior. The increased water vapor flux is likely form an increase in transpiration under high VPD_l (red bars in Fig. 7b)., that ensures a steady transpirational flux (purple bars in Fig. 7e). F_{H2O} was not significantly different between 'heatwave' and 'non-heatwave' days (boxplots in Fig. 7e) even as VPD_l was significantly higher during these events leading to a suppression in canopy conductance (Fig. 7f).

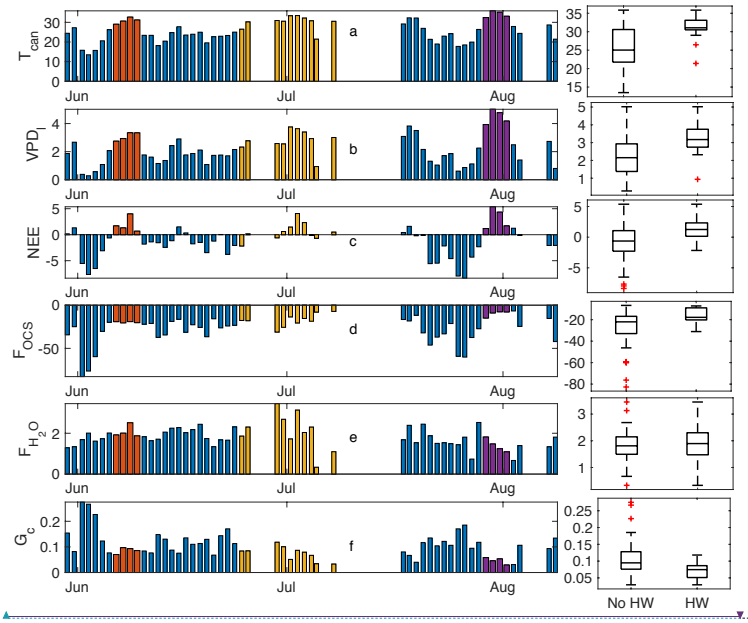

Figure 7. Daytime means (defined as periods when PAR > 100 µmol $m^{-2}s^{-1}$) for three heat wave periods (plotted as red, yellow and purple, while the overall time series is shown in blue). Variables displayed are canopy temperature (°C; a), VPD-leaf (b), F_{OCS} (c), NEE (d), water vapor flux (e), and canopy conductance (Gc, f). Units for each panel are the same as specified in previous figures.

4. Conclusions

Over hourly, daily and seasonal timescales, estimates of F_{OCS} generally tracked fluctuations in GPP, implying stomatal control of carbon, water, and OCS fluxes at the site. We used continuous in-situ measurements of OCS mixing ratios, collocated measurements of water vapor fluxes, and air and canopy temperatures to calculate OCS

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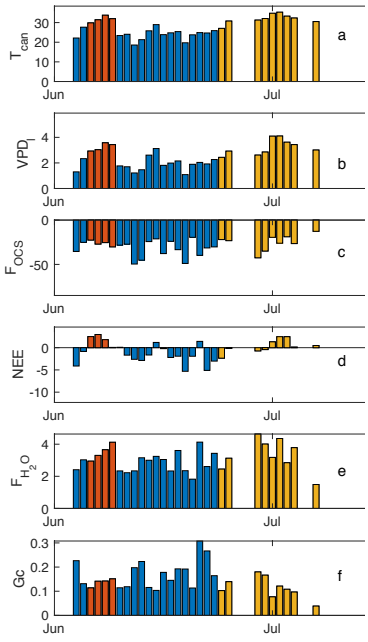

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uptake. We found the forest to be a large sink for OCS, with sink strength peaking during daylight hours. The mean LRU was ~ 4, and varied in response to changing light conditions and canopy conductance. These LRUs are larger than observed from other ecosystem scale studies, but well within the range of reported values (Whelan et al., 2018; Sandoval-Soto et al., 2005). The forest surface was found to be a soil moisture dependent sink of OCS. Ecosystem fluxes of OCS and CO_2 were found to be strongly sensitive to the ratio of diffuse:direct radiation reaching the top of the canopy. Uptake of both OCS and CO_2 increased as sky conditions changed from clear to partly cloudy. A much smaller increase in uptake was observed as sky conditions changed from partly cloudy to overcast, except during the early summer, when soil moisture was not limiting. This change was mediated by the sensitivity of stomata to changing cloudiness and soil moisture, as estimated from canopy conductance. Finally, we examined the response of OCS, CO_2 and H_2O fluxes on heatwaves, and found that sequential heatwaves lead to suppression in stomatal gas exchange of OCS and CO_2 fluxes, but not in the flux of water vapour.

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Our results support the growing body of work that suggests ecosystem-scale OCS uptake is controlled by stomatal dynamics. While moist old-growth forests in Pacific Northwestern U.S. do not represent a very large fraction of the global terrestrial surface area, results from this study are likely relevant for other old-growth forests, particularly high LAI and very wet forests with extensive epiphyte cover, which are widespread in the humid tropics.

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