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1 **Profile of foliar isoprenoid emissions from Mediterranean dominant shrub and tree**
2 **species under experimental nitrogen deposition**

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13 **ABSTRACT**

14 Biogenic volatile organic compounds play important roles in atmospheric chemistry, and
15 their emissions can be greatly influenced by the variations in environmental conditions
16 and physiological activities caused by continuously increasing global nitrogen (N)
17 deposition. However, this influence is still poorly understood, especially in a natural
18 ecosystem. We conducted a one-year (2015-2016) experiment adding N deposition (60
19 kg N ha⁻¹) with fertilization to a Mediterranean shrubland dominated by *Erica multiflora*
20 and a Mediterranean forest dominated by *Quercus ilex* and compared the seasonal and
21 daytime photosynthetic rates (A), stomatal conductances (gs) and rates of isoprenoid
22 emission with control (2015-2016) and pre-treatment (2014-2015) plots. N fertilization
23 increased A in warm weather as soil moisture increased, and assimilation became
24 saturated when the environment was sufficiently favorable, and excess soil N
25 significantly restrained A in cold weather. The plants were much more sensitive to soil
26 water availability than N content and terpene emissions increased synergistically due to
27 heat and drought stress in hot weather. N fertilization did not significantly affect isoprene
28 emission but significantly increased total terpene emissions and decreased the diversity
29 of terpenes. Our results suggest a successful acclimation of plants by emitting more
30 isoprenoids under environmental stress and that N deposition will further stimulate

31 emissions as the Mediterranean region becomes warmer and drier. The results highlight
32 the necessity for predicting the most realistic future of ecosystems under global
33 environmental change and for assessing the impacts of multiple factors acting in concert
34 on plant physiological and ecosystem functioning including biogenic VOC emissions.

35

36 Keywords Nitrogen deposition; Climate change; BVOC emissions; Isoprenoids; *Erica*
37 *multiflora*; *Quercus ilex*.

38

39 1. Introduction

40 Global environmental change (GEC) is accelerating and becoming more intense around
41 the world. The ecological impacts of the main drivers of GEC, such as climate change,
42 nitrogen (N) deposition, land-use changes and species invasions, are all expected to
43 become more conspicuous as human exploitation and pollution of the environment
44 continue to increase (Sala et al., 2000). Climate change has been the most widely and
45 thoroughly studied due to its influence. Other factors, however, are also receiving
46 increasing attention, especially N deposition. Global N deposition has increased in recent
47 decades and will likely double the existing levels to as much as 230 Mt N y⁻¹ by 2050
48 (Galloway et al., 2004; Llusà et al., 2014; Yuan et al., 2017), especially in India, China
49 and Europe, which are also the major global manufacturers and emitters of reactive N
50 (Liu et al., 2011; Yuan et al., 2017). Higher N deposition from anthropogenic sources
51 such as fertilizers, combustion of fossil fuels and cattle residuals (Blanch et al., 2009;
52 Galloway et al., 2008; Peñuelas et al., 2013) has an important long-term impact on
53 ecosystem structure and function (Phoenix et al., 2012; Meunier et al., 2016), including
54 some potential threats to soil acidification that decreases the defensive capacity and
55 biodiversity of plants (Phoenix et al., 2012; Valliere and Allen, 2016; Zhang et al., 2017).
56 GEC research should therefore not ignore N deposition (Janssens et al., 2010).

57 More than 100000 chemical products have been identified in plants (Dicke and Loreto,
58 2010), including many biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOCs) (Loreto and
59 Schnitzler, 2010) that contribute about 90% of the global emission of volatile organic
60 compounds (VOCs) into the atmosphere (Guenther et al., 1995). BVOCs are a crucial
61 group of plant compounds due to their important role in the ecology of plants (Dicke and
62 Loreto, 2010; Niederbacher et al., 2015). Isoprenoids, which account for >80% of the

63 total emission of BVOCs (Guenther et al., 1995), are the most dominant components of
64 the biosphere-atmosphere exchange of BVOCs (Sharkey and Monson, 2017) because
65 they play important roles in plant responses to both abiotic and biotic stresses (Loreto and
66 Schnitzler, 2010; Holopainen and Gershenson, 2010; Peñuelas and Llusà, 2003) and in
67 the chemistry of the atmosphere (Dicke and Loreto, 2010; Niederbacher et al., 2015).
68 Plants are essential components of complex communities that include organisms ranging
69 from microorganisms to mammals and have evolved intricate mechanisms for using
70 BVOCs to defend against enemies such as pathogens, parasitic plants and herbivores and
71 for interactions with other plants and beneficial organisms such as pollinators and
72 predators (Dicke and Loreto, 2010; Farré-Armengol et al., 2015). BVOCs are reactive
73 hydrocarbons that contribute to the production of tropospheric ozone in the presence of
74 NO_x compounds and sunlight (Dicke and Loreto, 2010; Tiiva et al., 2017) and to the
75 formation and growth of aerosol particles in the atmosphere (Paasonen et al., 2013; Tiiva
76 et al., 2017).

77 Most BVOC emissions are associated with photosynthesis (Monson and Fall, 1989)
78 and account for a relevant amount of the carbon fixed by photosynthesis. Under stressed
79 conditions, a larger proportion of fixed carbon is often devoted to isoprenoid emissions
80 (Loreto et al., 2001; Vallat et al., 2005; Blanch et al., 2009), besides, the emission of some
81 terpenes may be limited by stomatal conductance (Niinemets et al., 2002; Harley et al.,
82 2014) due to strong stomatal sensitivity (Niinemets et al., 2002). An abundant input of N
83 to the soil is usually beneficial for plants due to an increase in photosynthetic activity
84 (Häikiö et al., 2007; Handley and Grulke, 2008), and plants will allocate proportionately
85 more carbon toward growth and less toward carbon-based secondary compounds used for
86 defense (Loreto and Schnitzler, 2010; Peñuelas and Llusà, 2003). Low levels of N
87 addition, however, can increase terrestrial plant productivity (Vitousek and Howarth,
88 1991; Pivovarov et al., 2016), and high levels exceeding critical loads may decrease
89 productivity and render plants more susceptible to environmental stressors (Cardoso-
90 Vilhena and Barnes, 2001; Yuan et al., 2017), such as excess of ozone, which induce
91 rapid stomatal closure (Kollist et al., 2007; Vahisalu et al., 2008; Li et al., 2017) and low
92 stomatal vitality (Paoletti and Grulke, 2010; Li et al., 2017). Immediate photosynthetic
93 responses during and after stress are primarily driven by modifications in stomatal
94 conductance (Kollist et al., 2007; Vahisalu et al., 2008), so limitations on CO₂ uptake
95 may substantially decrease photosynthesis, which would also tend to affect BVOC

96 emissions. Even though the assimilative response to N deposition, is not uniform and
97 varies among species or even ecosystems (Bobbink et al., 2010; Alvarez-Clare et al., 2013)
98 because of differences in resource availability, acquisition and strategies of use (Vourlitis
99 and Pasquini, 2009; Pivovarovoff et al., 2016), it may affect the emission of BVOCs by
100 directly affecting their biosynthesis or by affecting primary physiological metabolism
101 (Loreto and Schnitzler, 2010; Pivovarovoff et al., 2016).

102 Environmental experiments have been widely used to predict potential physiological
103 and phenological profiles, with general considerations of realistic changed conditions and
104 their interactions to simulate future environmental scenarios (Beier et al., 2012; Leuzinger
105 et al., 2011; Ogaya et al., 2014). Increases in temperature caused by climate change and
106 increases in soil N content are thus two GEC factors that can interact. Climate change is
107 expected to increase the temperature by 1.5–3.7 °C and the frequency and intensity of
108 drought in many parts of the world by 2100, particularly during the summer and normally
109 drier months (IPCC, 2014; Tiiva et al., 2017). Rates of BVOC emission can increase
110 under moderate drought in conjunction with warmer temperatures caused by climate
111 change and help plants to resist stress (Breshears et al., 2005; Allen et al., 2015), but rates
112 can decrease under severe environmental conditions (Gershenson et al., 1978; Llusia et
113 al., 2011; Llusia et al., 2013). Higher isoprenoid emissions can be expected in the warmer
114 and drier conditions projected by climatic and ecophysiological models for the coming
115 decades in the Mediterranean region (Peñuelas and Llusia, 2001; IPCC, 2014). The
116 important interaction between the emission of phytogenic VOCs and climate change has
117 also elicited great interest in detecting the effects of realistic combinations of other GEC
118 factors on the emission of BVOCs from vegetation. Current models predict that soil N
119 content, air temperature and soil moisture are expected to change concurrently, and
120 understanding their interactive influences on BVOC emissions is essential for predicting
121 future BVOC dynamics (Llusia et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2017; Tiiva et al., 2017). The
122 triple threat of N deposition, drought and warming, representing the most realistic future,
123 on isoprenoid emissions have not been investigated but could provide valuable insights
124 for understanding the dynamics of isoprenoid emissions in the near future. These
125 changing GEC factors, in a long-term perspective, could also shift the composition and
126 structure of ecosystems (Valolahti et al., 2015), which could also influence emission
127 profiles.

128 The influence of N deposition on BVOC emissions is poorly understood. Most studies
129 of the effects on isoprenoids have been short-term or conducted in warm seasons or in
130 greenhouses (Blanch et al., 2007; Carriero et al., 2016) or open-top chambers (Llusià, et
131 al., 2014; Yuan et al., 2017), and the results have been inconsistent (Blanch et al., 2007;
132 Peñuelas and Staudt, 2010; Yuan et al., 2017) due to the variations in response to N
133 availability by different plant species. Yuan et al. (2017) reported that a moderate amount
134 of N fertilization (50 kg N ha⁻¹) increased the emission of isoprene in Cathay poplar
135 (*Populus cathayana*), Llusià et al. (2014) reported that the emission of terpenes decreased
136 in two Mediterranean leguminous species (*Ornithopus compressus* and *Trifolium*
137 *striatum*) at similar N levels (40 kg N ha⁻¹). Isoprene emission was also stimulated in
138 velvet bean (*Mucuna* sp.) (Harley et al., 1994), aspen and white oak (Litvak et al., 1996)
139 with increasing N availability, supporting the existence of links between foliar N status
140 and isoprene synthase activity (Litvak et al., 1996). Blanch et al. (2007) found that a high
141 amount of N fertilization (250 kg N ha⁻¹) decreased the emission of terpenes in *Pinus*
142 *halepensis* but had no influence on *Quercus ilex*, and moderate drought increased the
143 terpene emissions of fertilized plants for both Mediterranean species in summer.
144 Kivimäenpää et al. (2016) observed that higher N availability increased the emission of
145 some minor terpene compounds in Scots pine and some major terpene compounds in
146 combination with warming in summer. Carriero et al. (2016) reported that individual
147 monoterpenes had a compound-specific response to N in silver birch (*Betula pendula*),
148 due to different pathways of biosynthetic formation of the emitted compounds
149 (Kesselmeier and Staudt, 1999; Niinemets et al., 2004), but N fertilization did not
150 significantly affect total terpene emissions. Ormeño et al. (2009) suggested that the
151 positive relationship between N fertilization and terpene emissions for two Mediterranean
152 species, *Rosmarinus officinalis* and *Quercus coccifera*, only occurred at optimal soil N
153 conditions.

154 *Erica multiflora* and *Quercus ilex* are two widespread species in western and central
155 Mediterranean shrublands and forests, respectively, and both are important isoprenoid
156 emitters, dominated by isoprene and terpenes, respectively (Kesselmeier and Staudt,
157 1999). Our study was relatively long-term and conducted in fields, which investigated
158 the seasonal and daytime variations of net photosynthetic rate (A), stomatal conductance
159 (gs) and rate of isoprenoid emissions in these two dominant species at two study sites, a
160 Garraf shrubland and a Prades forest (Llusià et al., 2011; Llusià et al., 2013; Ogaya et al.,

161 2014). The aim of this study was to assess the realistic and systematic response of
162 isoprenoid emissions in these Mediterranean shrubland and forest ecosystems to
163 experimental N deposition and thus to improve the estimations of the emission dynamics
164 expected in the coming decades by models that take GEC into consideration.

165

166 2. Material and methods

167 2.1. Study sites and species description

168 The study was carried out in the Garraf and Prades Mountains in Catalonia, northeastern
169 Spain (Figure S1). The climate and vegetation at the two sites are typically Mediterranean.
170 Garraf Natural Park is a dry shrubland (Rosmarino-Ericion) south of Barcelona
171 (41°18'08"N, 1°49'05"E; 210 m a.s.l.). The vegetation has a coverage of 50–60% and a
172 maximum height of 70 cm. The Prades Mountains are in southwestern Catalonia
173 (41°20'42"N, 1°02'04"E; 970 m a.s.l.) and about 30 km from the Mediterranean Sea. The
174 Prades sampling site is a holm oak forest with tree heights between 1.5 and 10 m (Bolòs
175 and Vigo, 1990; Llusia et al., 2013; Ogaya et al., 2014). Both sites contain abundant
176 evergreen and deciduous species, and the dominant species are common throughout the
177 western Mediterranean Basin (Bolòs and Vigo, 1990; Llusia et al., 2013; Ogaya et al.,
178 2014). We chose one dominant species at each site: *E. multiflora* in Garraf and *Q. ilex* in
179 Prades.

180

181 2.2. Experimental design

182 Six plots (5 × 4 m) were randomly established in Garraf in three replicate blocks, with
183 each block having one N and one control plot. Four plots (15 × 10 m) were established in
184 Prades at the same altitude along the slope, two as N and two as control plots. The N
185 treatments were fertilized with 60 kg N ha⁻¹ using NH₄NO₃ (Fluka, Buchs, Switzerland),
186 and the control treatments were not fertilized. The N-treatment plots were fertilized
187 homogeneously three times each season (total of 15 kg N ha⁻¹ season⁻¹) in 2015.
188 Emissions were measured in the centers of the plots to reduce edge effects, with the outer
189 0.5 and 1 m serving as open buffer zones for the plots in Garraf and Prades, respectively.
190 Emissions were measured from spring 2014 to winter 2016 twice a day, morning (9:00–
191 12:00 solar time) and midday (13:00–16:00 solar time), on three consecutive days in the
192 middle of each season. The N deposition for the two dominant species had thus been
193 manipulated for one year, but we also obtained pre-treatment data for the previous year.

194 Emissions from sunlit and healthy *E. multiflora* needle clusters and *Q. ilex* leaves were
195 measured from three random plants in each plot. Air temperature was measured by an
196 automatic meteorological station, and soil moisture was measured by time-domain
197 reflectometry (Delta-T Devices Ltd, Cambridge, England), both about every 30 min on
198 the day of sampling.

199

200 2.3. Gas-exchange measurements and sampling of isoprenoid emissions

201 A and g_s were measured and isoprenoid emissions were collected simultaneously using
202 a Licor-6400XT gas-exchange system (LI-COR, Lincoln, Nebraska USA). A and g_s were
203 measured at a photosynthetic quantum flux density (PPFD) of $1000 \pm 20 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$
204 under a controlled CO_2 concentration of 400 ± 2 ppm. One *E. multiflora* needle cluster or
205 one *Q. ilex* leaf was enclosed in a clip-on gas-exchange cuvette with a surface area of 2
206 cm^2 . The emitted isoprenoids were pumped from the cuvette through a stainless-steel tube
207 (89 mm in length and 6.4 mm external diameter) manually filled with adsorbents (115 mg
208 of Tenax[®] TA and 230 mg of SulfiCarb[®]) separated by sorbent-retaining springs, fixed
209 using gauze-retaining springs and closed with air-tight caps (Markes International Inc.
210 Wilmington, USA). The flow across the tubes was measured with a Bios Defender 510
211 flow meter (Bios International Corporation, Butler, USA) and controlled at about 300 mL
212 min^{-1} with a metallic valve. The flow was generated using a Q-MAX air-sampling pump
213 (Supelco, Bellefonte, USA), and the sampling time was 10 min. The hydrophobic
214 properties of the activated adsorbents minimized any sample displacement by water,
215 without chemical transformation in the tube. Isoprenoid concentrations were determined
216 by reference to trapped standards (α -pinene, β -pinene, 3-carene, limonene, sabinene and
217 dodecane). The tubes were conditioned before isoprenoid sampling with a stream of 100
218 mL min^{-1} of purified helium at 350 °C for 35 min. The trapping and desorption
219 efficiencies of liquid and volatilized standards such as α -pinene, β -pinene or limonene
220 (the main terpenes accounting for about 65–90% of total emissions) were near 100%.
221 Blank samples of air without leaves in the cuvette were collected for 10 min immediately
222 before each measurement. The sampled parts of the leaves were cut to the perimeter
223 enclosed in the Licor-6400XT cuvette and stored in a portable cooler at 4 °C, taken to the
224 laboratory and oven-dried at 60 °C to constant weights. The metallic tubes (with trapped
225 BVOCs) were stored at 4 °C until analysis.

226

227 2.4. Isoprenoid analyses

228 The isoprenoids were analyzed using a GC-MS system (HP59822B, Hewlett Packard,
229 Palo Alto, USA) with an automatic sample processor (Combi PAL, FOCUS-ATAS GL
230 International BV 5500 AA Veldhoven, The Netherlands). The desorber was an OPTIC3
231 injector (ATAS GL International BV 5500 AA Veldhoven, The Netherlands), and
232 samples were applied to a 30 m × 0.25 mm × 0.25 μm film capillary column (HP-5,
233 Crosslinked 5% pH Me Silicone; Supelco, Bellefonte, USA). A detailed description of
234 the chromatographic method is provided by Mu et al. (2018).

235 The terpenes were identified by comparing their retention times with those of standards
236 from Fluka (Buchs, Switzerland), published spectra, GCD ChemStation G1074A HP and
237 the wiley7n mass-spectra library. The concentrations of common terpenes such as α-
238 pinene, 3-carene, β-pinene, myrcene, limonene, and sabinene were determined from
239 calibration curves every five analyses using four terpene concentrations ($r^2 > 0.99$ for the
240 relationships between the signal and terpene concentrations). The most abundant terpenes
241 had very similar sensitivities, with differences <5% among the calibration factors.

242

243 2.5. Statistical analyses

244 Data variables were analyzed (ANOVA) using STATISTICA v.8.0 (StatSoft, Inc.,
245 Tulsa, USA). Statistical differences between treatments were identified with a Student's
246 *t*-test. Differences were considered significant at $P < 0.05$. The significance of the effects
247 of season, treatment and sampling time were determined by a repeated-measures ANOVA.
248 Regression analyses were conducted using Sigma Plot v. 14.0 for Windows (Systat
249 Software, Chicago, USA). The covariance of emissions of individual terpenes (dependent
250 variables, Y) with environmental conditions and physiological activities (independent
251 variables, X) was analyzed by partial least squares (PLS) regression using the plsdepot
252 package in R v. 3.3.3. The PLS model included two components and was validated by
253 cross-validation. Sigma Plot v. 14.0 and R v. 3.3.3 were also used to generate the figures.

254

255 3. Results

256 3.1. Seasonal and daytime variation of air temperature and soil moisture

257 Annual air temperature and soil moisture were similar between the control and N
258 treatments, with variation <10% for both sites. Mean air temperature on the sampling
259 dates in Garraf ranged between 10.1 ± 0.84 °C in winter mornings in 2015 and $34.4 \pm$
260 0.60 °C at summer middays in 2014. Soil moisture ranged between $5.5 \pm 0.39\%$ (v/v) in

261 summer middays in 2015 and $25.8 \pm 0.47\%$ (v/v) at winter middays in 2015 (Fig. S2).
262 Mean air temperature on the sampling dates in Prades ranged between 13.6 ± 1.11 °C in
263 winter mornings in 2016 and 32.7 ± 1.23 °C at summer middays in 2014. Soil moisture
264 ranged between $4.6 \pm 0.30\%$ (v/v) at summer middays in 2014 and $24.6 \pm 1.37\%$ (v/v) in
265 winter mornings in 2015 (Fig. S2).

266

267 3.2. Seasonal and daytime variation of A and g_s

268 A for *E. multiflora* was always highest in spring or autumn and lowest in winter (Fig.
269 S3A). A was also notably high in mornings but decreased significantly at middays during
270 spring and summer. g_s was always highest in autumn and lowest at winter. A and g_s
271 differed significantly between the nitrogen and control treatments in winter, lower by 49.0%
272 ($P < 0.05$) in mornings for g_s and by 40.5% for A ($P < 0.05$) and 40.8% for g_s ($P < 0.01$)
273 at midday. g_s was 41.0% ($P < 0.05$) lower in the N than the control treatments in summer
274 mornings. A increased sharply in spring relative to the pre-treatments after the first
275 addition of 15 kg N ha⁻¹. A noticeably decreased and g_s increased compared to autumn in
276 2014 after the third addition of 15 kg N ha⁻¹.

277 A for *Q. ilex* was always highest in spring and lowest in summer (Fig. S3B). g_s was
278 always highest in spring or winter and lowest in summer. A at winter midday was
279 significantly lower by 32.7% ($P < 0.01$) in the N than the control treatments. A in autumn
280 and winter was noticeably higher in the N treatments than the pre-treatments, and g_s first
281 noticeably decreased in spring mornings and then increased steadily in the following
282 seasons, with higher values than the previous year after continual N fertilization.

283

284 3.3. Seasonal and daytime variation of isoprenoid emissions

285 Isoprenoid emission rates typically oscillated seasonally in both species, with maxima
286 in summer and minima in cold seasons (Figs. 1 and 2). Isoprenoid emissions were higher
287 for *E. multiflora* in 2015-2016 (Fig. 1), but *Q. ilex* emitted more isoprenoids in 2014-
288 2015 (Fig. 2). Isoprenoid emissions were always higher at midday than in the morning
289 for both species (Figs. 1 and 2). Both species emitted a variety of terpenes in spring and
290 summer, and most terpenes were detected at summer midday (Table S1). α -Pinene and
291 limonene were the two most abundant terpenes for both species and were detected at all
292 sampling times, with trends similar to those for total terpene emissions (Figs. 2 and S4).
293 Large amounts of tricyclene and β -caryophyllene for *E. multiflora* and β -pinene and β -
294 myrcene for *Q. ilex* were also detected in warm seasons (Fig. 3).

295 *E. multiflora* emitted both isoprene and terpenes, with isoprene the main compound
296 due to the large emissions in spring and summer (Fig. S5). Isoprene emissions ranged
297 between $0.03 \pm 0.02 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{ dw h}^{-1}$ at autumn middays in 2015 and $7.74 \pm 2.45 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{ dw}$
298 h^{-1} at summer middays in 2015 (Fig. 1A). Isoprene emission rates did not differ
299 significantly between treatments but tended to increase after N fertilization in the same
300 plots, especially at summer middays. Total terpene emissions for *E. multiflora* ranged
301 between $0.10 \pm 0.05 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{ dw h}^{-1}$ in winter mornings in 2015 and $3.99 \pm 0.56 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{ dw}$
302 h^{-1} at summer middays in 2015 (Fig. 1B). N fertilization increased total terpene emissions
303 in spring and summer relative to the pre-treatments and control treatments, especially at
304 summer midday, with a significant increase of 76.1% ($P < 0.05$). α -Pinene and limonene
305 were emitted mostly at summer middays in 2015, at rates of about 1.3 and $0.8 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{ dw}$
306 h^{-1} , respectively.

307 *Q. ilex* did not emit isoprene but was a large terpene emitter. The emission of total
308 terpenes ranged between $0.35 \pm 0.08 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{ dw h}^{-1}$ at winter middays in 2016 and $23.9 \pm$
309 $3.23 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{ dw h}^{-1}$ at summer middays in 2014 (Fig. 2). *Q. ilex* emitted fewer terpenes in
310 the fertilized year for the same plots, but total terpene emissions still increased
311 significantly relative to the control treatments at summer middays by 83.7% ($P < 0.05$),
312 coinciding with significantly higher limonene ($P < 0.01$). α -Pinene and limonene were
313 emitted mostly at summer middays in 2014, at rates of about 10 and $7 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{ dw h}^{-1}$,
314 respectively.

315

316 4. Discussion

317 4.1. Seasonal and daytime variations of A , g_s and isoprenoid emissions with N 318 fertilization

319 Photosynthesis of most plants increases in warm weather if soil moisture and nutrients
320 are not limiting (Wan et al., 2009; Selsted et al., 2012). Plants in Mediterranean-type
321 climates have similar physiological trends, with A and g_s highest in spring or autumn
322 when environmental conditions are favorable (Llusà et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2016), with
323 A and g_s lowest in winter for *E. multiflora* (Fig. S3A) and in summer for *Q. ilex* (Fig.
324 S3B) in our study. *E. multiflora* was particularly N responsive. *Q. ilex*, however,
325 displayed fewer physiological adjustments with N fertilization, suggesting poor N
326 acclimation (Pivovarov et al., 2016).

327 The emission of isoprenoids differed between the species but followed a similar
328 seasonal pattern. The seasonal pattern agreed with previous results of isoprenoid
329 emissions in most Mediterranean species, with a maximum in summer and a minimum in
330 cold seasons (Llusià et al., 2011; Mu et al., 2018). Both species emitted most isoprenoids
331 at summer midday, coinciding with lower A, and the N treatments increased terpene
332 emissions significantly (Figs. 1, 2 and S3). Plants could temporarily decrease
333 photosynthetic activity under drought stress because of the increased resistance to CO₂ in
334 both the stomata and mesophyll (Centritto et al., 2003; Mu et al., 2018), meanwhile, a
335 higher proportion of photosynthetically fixed carbon was used for increasing terpene
336 production to reduce the damage caused by oxidative stress at summer midday (Vallat et
337 al., 2005; Blanch et al., 2009), and plants increased terpene emissions with the higher N
338 deposition under the heat and drought stress, indicating a successful acclimation by
339 adjusting metabolism under environmental stress (Litvak et al., 1996; Loreto et al., 2001).
340 The N treatment favored terpene production (Blanch et al., 2009; Ormeño and Fernandez,
341 2012), especially under environmental stress. Higher N contents likely translate into
342 higher enzymatic activity and thus higher terpene production (Figs. 1B and 2) in these
343 two non-storing species, whose emission of terpenes depends on short-term production
344 (Litvak et al., 1996).

345

346 4.2. Comprehensive impacts of annual climate and N fertilization on isoprenoid emissions

347 N fertilization for *E. multiflora* increased A in spring 2015 when temperature was
348 suitable and water availability increased. The stimulation also indicated the importance
349 of even a small increase in soil moisture during spring in the warm plots, increasing N
350 availability in this nutrient-limited ecosystem (Figs. S1 and S2A) (Llusià et al., 2014;
351 Zhang et al., 2017; Tiiva et al., 2017). Abundant nutrition helps plants to recover from
352 slow physiological rhythms in winter and to return to growth quickly, especially at
353 midday. The higher temperature at spring midday in 2014, though, may have restrained
354 A, although not significantly, because the environmental conditions were sufficiently
355 suitable for assimilation, maintaining A at a high level for both treatments and saturating
356 N usage (Gundersen et al., 1998; Chen et al., 2016). N fertilization tended to have the
357 least influence in summer, supported by the similar environmental conditions between
358 the two years, in contrast to previous studies hypothesizing that drought-tolerant
359 evergreen shrubs are favored under a warming climate with increased CO₂ or N levels

360 due to a higher A (Fineschi et al., 2013; Tiiva et al., 2017). In autumn and winter,
361 temperature variations may have been the main cause of the fluctuations in A between
362 two years, and excessive N began to negatively affect A and g_s , especially at winter
363 midday. All fluctuations between the two years for *Q. ilex* were due to the variations in
364 environmental conditions (Figs. S1 and S2B), which was obvious for autumn and winter,
365 indicating that better water-heat interaction led to higher A in the fertilized year. A even
366 decreased significantly at winter midday for the N treatments, most likely due to the
367 decrease in both air temperature and soil moisture rather than to excess of available N.

368 Annual climate clearly played an important role due to the importance of some
369 environmental parameters (water and temperature) in setting the rates of isoprene and
370 terpene emissions (Jardine et al., 2014; Fernández-Martínez et al., 2018) under N-rich
371 conditions. For *E. multiflora*, more isoprenoids were emitted in spring and summer in
372 2015. Isoprenoid emissions from this temperate heath generally depend on both the
373 current environmental drivers and on the preceding season and weather (Niinemets et al.,
374 2010; Llusà et al., 2013; Tiiva et al., 2017), which may suggest a high emission potential
375 for the ecosystem in the hot season if A was high in the previous growing season (Figs. 1
376 and S3A). Emissions then decreased to stable low levels. Increased A in spring stimulated
377 emissions in both spring and summer. *Q. ilex* emitted most terpenes in summer 2014 due
378 to a moderate drought, even though the N treatment significantly increased emissions at
379 summer midday in 2015. *Q. ilex* may thus be much more sensitive to water availability
380 than N content in hot seasons (Figs. 2 and S2).

381 Taking into account the results and conditions of this study and considering the climate
382 in combination with available N levels could help us to better understand the systematic
383 role of climate as a determinant of the dynamics of isoprenoid emissions (Fernández-
384 Martínez et al., 2018). Species without structures for storing terpenes are more likely to
385 have higher emission rates in N-rich conditions, supporting findings linking high foliar N
386 content to high rates of isoprenoid emission (Litvak et al., 1996; Possell et al., 2004;
387 Blanch et al., 2009; Fernández-Martínez et al., 2018). Our results thus suggest that N is
388 important for the emission of both isoprene and terpenes, and the variations in emission
389 may be associated with different strategies of N uptake and use (Litvak et al., 2002;
390 Fernández-Martínez et al., 2018), albeit the relationship between them was not very
391 strong, except in summer. This relationship may also be due to the mineralization of soil
392 N or because N absorption by plants is not likely to be limited by water under current
393 conditions (Gundersen et al., 1998; Wan et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2016). These favorable

394 environmental conditions (water and N availability) in the growing season enable high
395 rates of photosynthesis, which in turn have been linked to high rates of isoprenoid
396 emission (Monson et al., 1994; Litvak et al., 1996; Fernández-Martínez et al., 2018) in
397 summer. The positive correlation between soil N content and isoprenoid emission rates
398 may be due to both a direct effect of N on isoprenoid emission rates and an indirect effect
399 from the positive effect of N on photosynthesis (Monson et al., 1994; Fernández-Martínez
400 et al., 2018).

401

402 4.3. The influence of N deposition on the relationship between main physiological or 403 environmental parameters and isoprenoid emissions

404 Environmental conditions such as air temperature and soil moisture are the main factors
405 that determine BVOC emissions (Gershenson et al., 1978; Breshears et al., 2005; Llusà,
406 et al., 2011; Allen et al., 2015). BVOC emissions, however, are also largely influenced
407 by A and g_s , the two main physiological activities of plants (Eller et al., 2016). The PLS
408 regression analysis did not find a strong correlation between terpene emissions and
409 physiological activities but found a strong correlation with environmental conditions (Fig.
410 4). All terpene emissions by *E. multiflora* were correlated positively with air temperature
411 and negatively with soil moisture, except for β -myrcene, which had the opposite trend. β -
412 Pinene had the same relationship with β -myrcene, and 3-carene emission became strongly
413 correlated with physiological activities in the N plots. Trans- β -ocimene, sabinene and α -
414 caryophyllene emissions by *Q. ilex* were not obviously correlated with any parameter,
415 and other species followed a common trend with environmental conditions. α -Pinene and
416 limonene have recently been reported as the main emitted terpenes; α -pinene is sensitive
417 to temperature, and limonene responds more strongly to water deficits (Mu et al., 2018).
418 The correlation for β -caryophyllene with environmental conditions disappeared, and
419 sabinene emission was slightly positively correlated with g_s in the N plots. N fertilization
420 generally increased the correlation between the most emitted compounds and the
421 environmental conditions but decreased it for the least emitted compounds (Fig. 4), which
422 may indicate that N fertilization increased the rates of terpene emission (Fig. 3) but
423 slightly decreased the diversity of terpenes in the warm seasons (Table S1). *Q. ilex*
424 emitted more terpenes in summer in the N plots, but mainly α -pinene, β -pinene and
425 limonene contributed to the increase, and almost all other terpene emissions decreased,
426 especially for β -myrcene and 3-carene (Fig. 3B) and very-least compounds, such as trans-
427 β -ocimene, β -caryophyllene and α -caryophyllene, tended to disappear (Table S1). Not all

428 terpene emissions, however, were higher in summer. This diversity of responses may
429 have been due to the environmental effects on the activities of synthases, the potential
430 protective roles of the various terpenes under environmental constraints (Blanch et al.,
431 2009) or to the increases in foliar N content (Blanch et al., 2009).

432

433 We also analyzed the corresponding correlations that can be applied to the modelling
434 of BVOC emissions (Table S2). The emission rates of isoprene and total terpenes were
435 both correlated positively with air temperature and negatively with soil moisture for both
436 species (Fig. 5). N addition slightly decreased isoprene emission, especially at the high-
437 temperature and low-moisture site, and significantly increased total terpene emissions at
438 this same site. The emission rates of isoprenoids were correlated negatively with A and
439 g_s for both species (Fig. S6), which supports the idea that BVOC emissions are mostly
440 influenced by environmental conditions (Gershenson et al., 1978; Loreto and Schnitzler,
441 2010; Holopainen and Gershenson, 2010; Llusà et al., 2011). *Q. ilex* emitted more
442 isoprenoids and A was lowest in summer than in the other seasons (Figs. 2, S3B), and
443 higher percentages of fixed carbon were devoted to isoprenoid emission in summer. The
444 relationships with physiological activities, however, became much weaker for the *E.*
445 *multiflora* in N plots, also indicating that this species was more sensitive to nutrient
446 availability than *Q. ilex* due to some fluctuations in A and g_s (Figs. S3A and S6).

447

448 5. Conclusions

449 This study investigated the seasonal and daytime variations in the response of
450 isoprenoid emissions to experimental N deposition in dominant species at Mediterranean
451 ecosystems. In the context of GEC, the combination of environmental factors, such as air
452 temperature, soil moisture and N deposition, mimicked future conditions in this temperate
453 ecosystem. The complex effects among warming, drought and N deposition can decrease
454 the regularity of single-factor effects on isoprenoid emissions, even though the responses
455 varied strongly between seasons, and the emission profile was mainly dominated by
456 synergetic increases in summer. Our results indicate a successful acclimation of plants by
457 increasing isoprenoid emissions under environmental stress, which are expected to be
458 increased by climate change in the Mediterranean region (Litvak et al., 1996; Loreto et
459 al., 2001). N deposition will also further stimulate these emission trends in the warmer
460 and drier conditions projected by climatic and ecophysiological models for the coming
461 decades (Peñuelas and Llusà, 2001; Penuelas and Staudt, 2010; IPCC, 2014). The

462 changes in isoprenoid emissions in this region, however, also thus depend on the species,
463 and therefore on the changes in land covers, for example from forests to shrublands with
464 different emission capacities. Further long-term and quantitative research on the detailed
465 emission mechanisms with multiple factors acting in concert is still warranted.

466

467 Declare on interest

468 All authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest relevant to this work.

469

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475

476 Appendix A. Supplementary data

477 Supplementary data to this article can be found online.

478

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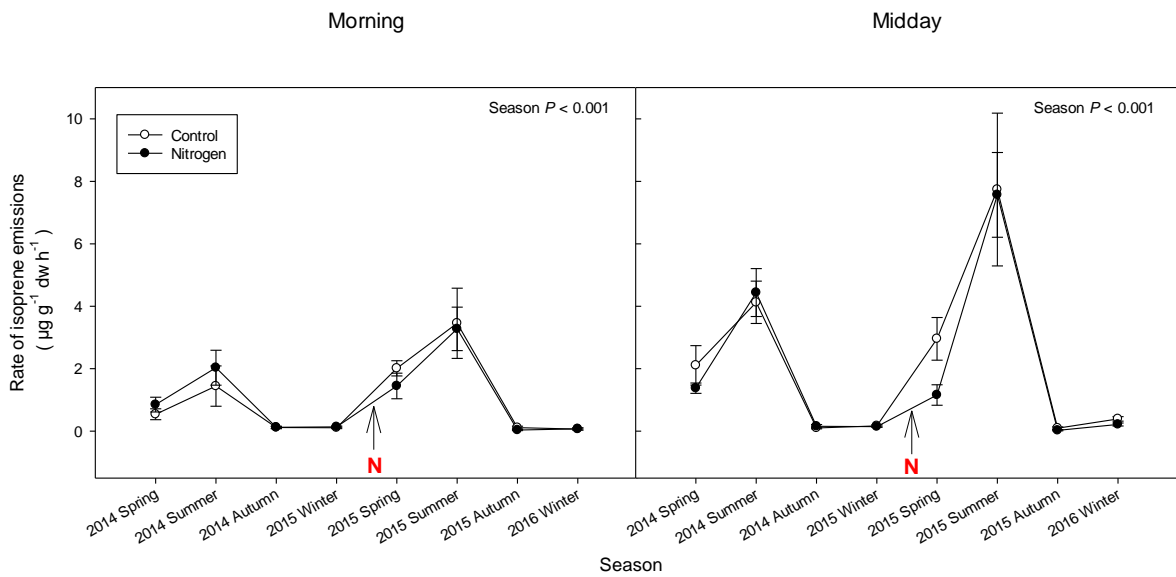
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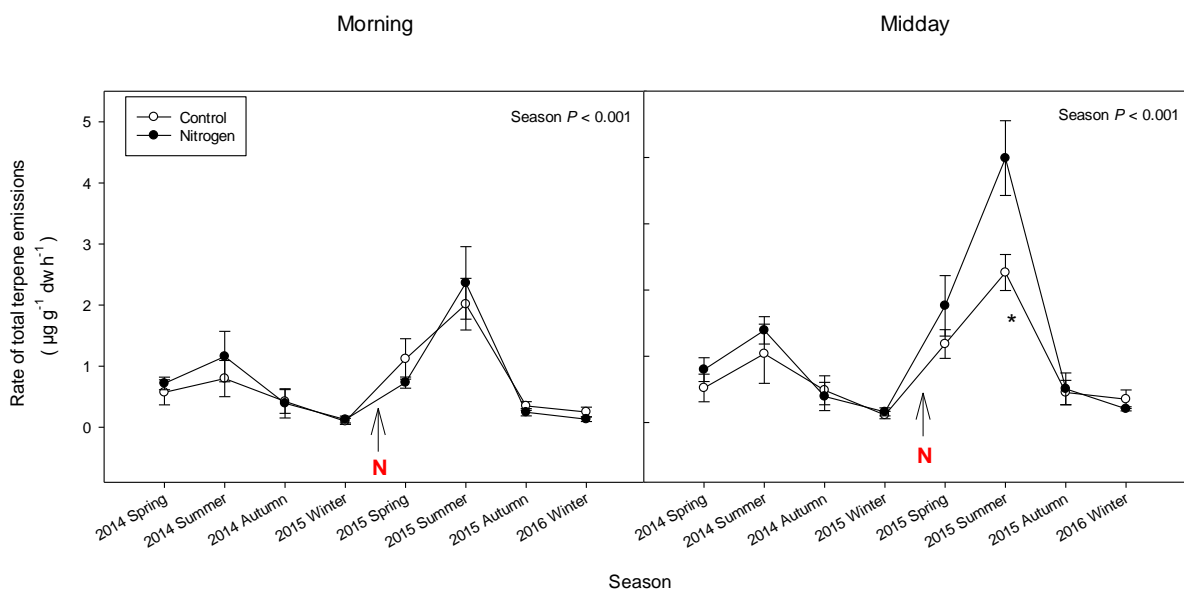
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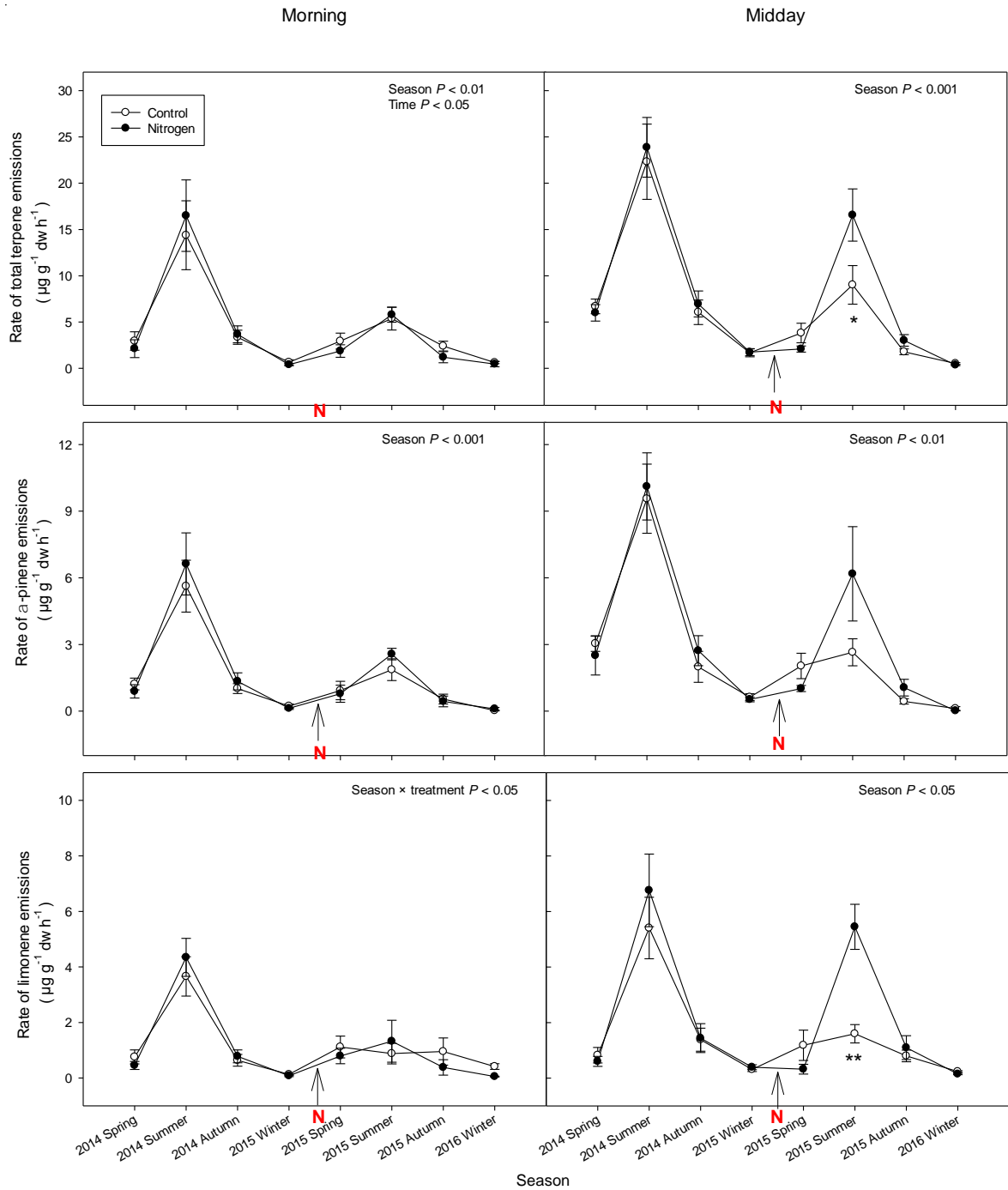
737 **Fig. 1.** Seasonal variation of the rates of emission of isoprene (A) and total terpenes (B) for *Erica multiflora*. 'N'
 738 indicates the start of the fertilization treatment. Error bars indicate standard errors of the means ($n = 6$). Significant
 739 differences between treatments identified by Student's t -tests are indicated by asterisks (*, $P < 0.05$). The effects of
 740 season, treatment and sampling time are depicted in the panels when significant.

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746 **Fig. 2.** Seasonal variation of the rates of emission of total terpenes, α -pinene and limonene for *Quercus ilex*. 'N'
 747 indicates the start of the fertilization treatment. Error bars indicate standard errors of the means ($n = 6$). Significant
 748 differences between treatments identified by Student's t -tests are indicated by asterisks (*, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$).
 749 The effects of season, treatment and sampling time are depicted in the panels when significant.

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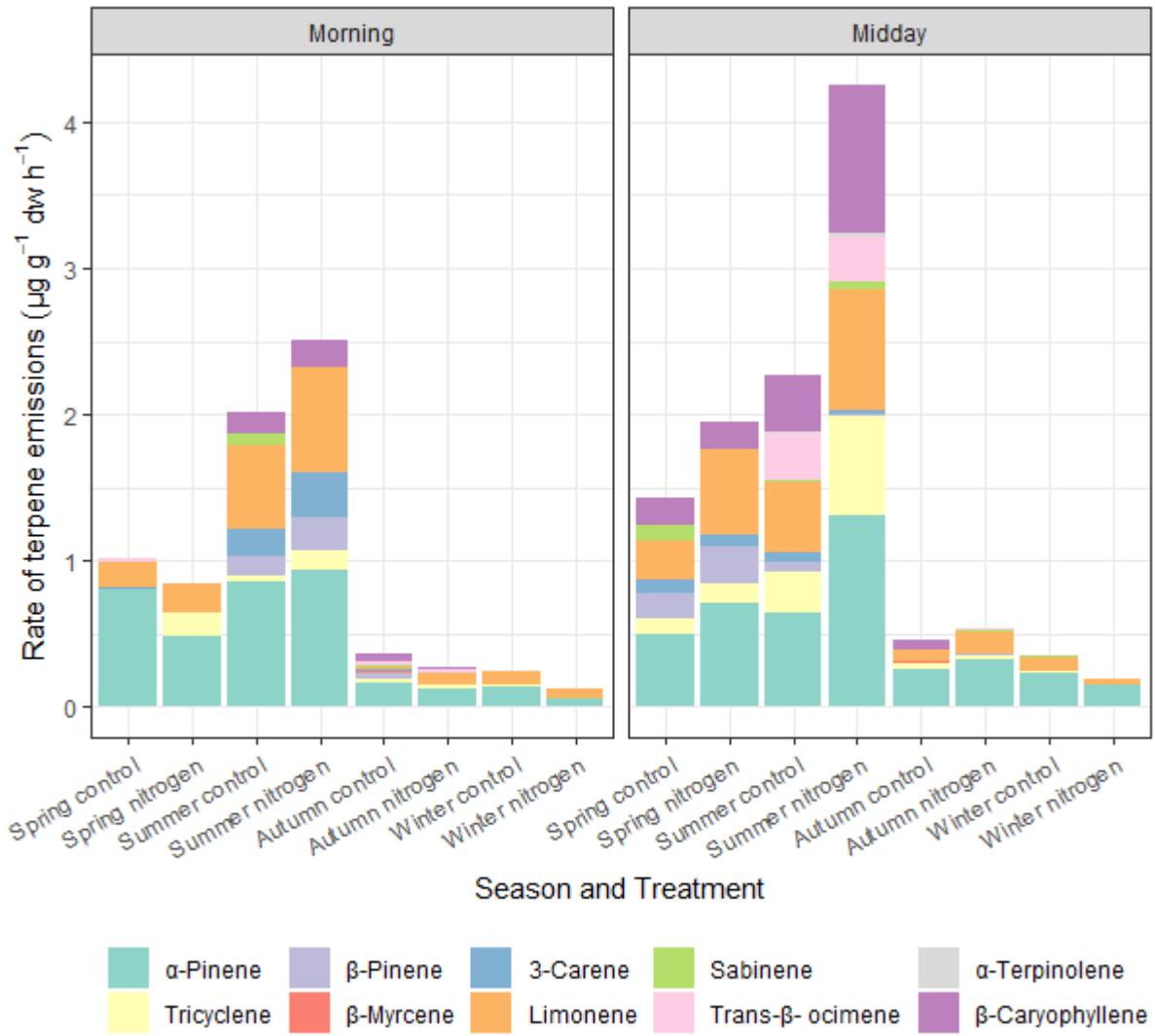
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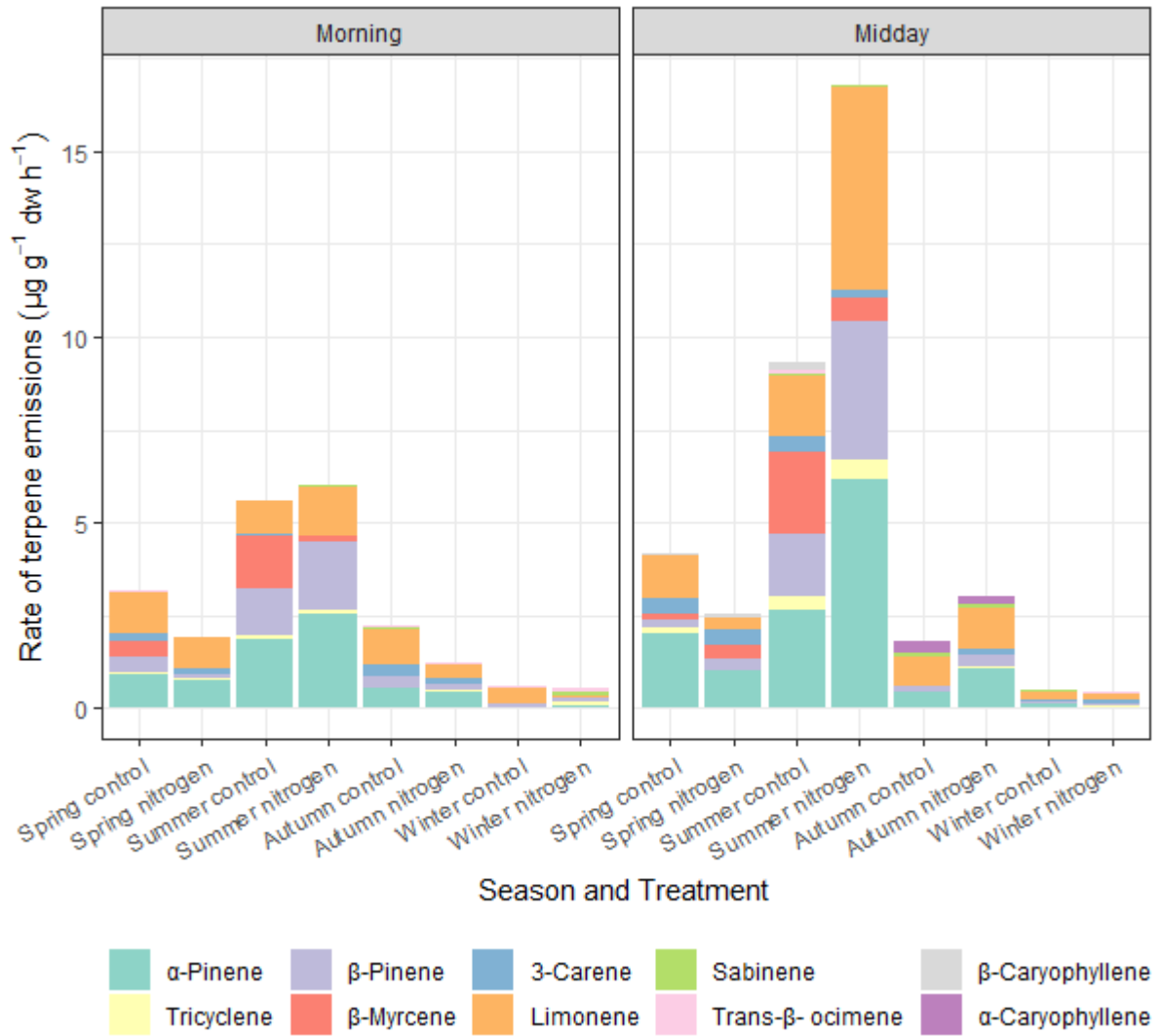
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770 **Fig. 3.** Distribution of seasonal terpene emissions for *Erica multiflora* (A) and *Quercus ilex* (B) in the morning and at
771 midday for the fertilized year.

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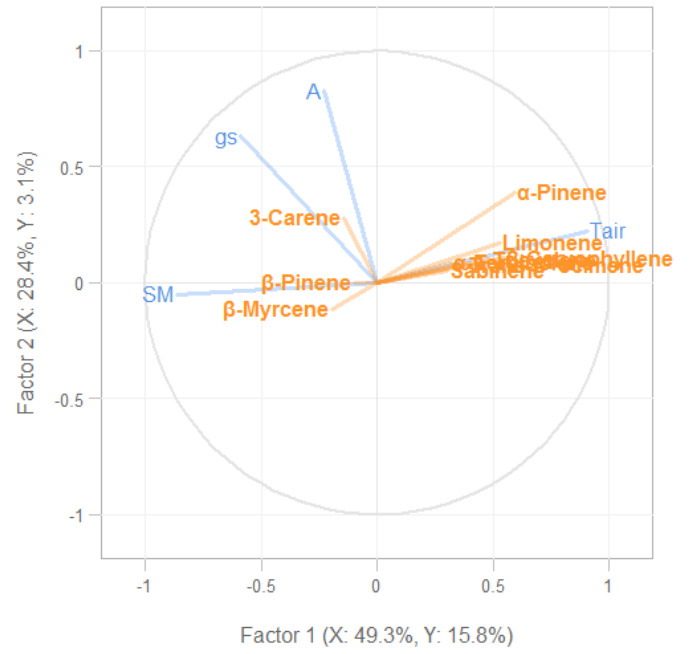
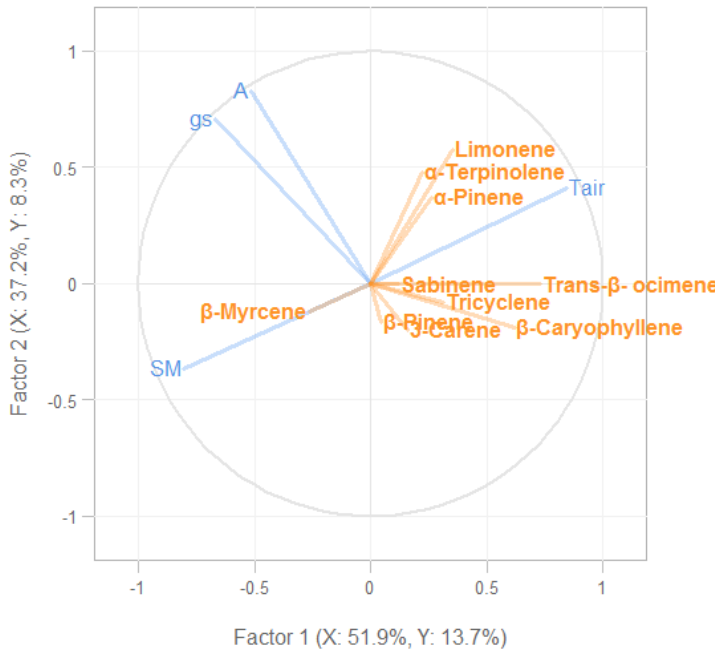
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Erica multiflora

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A) Control

B) Nitrogen



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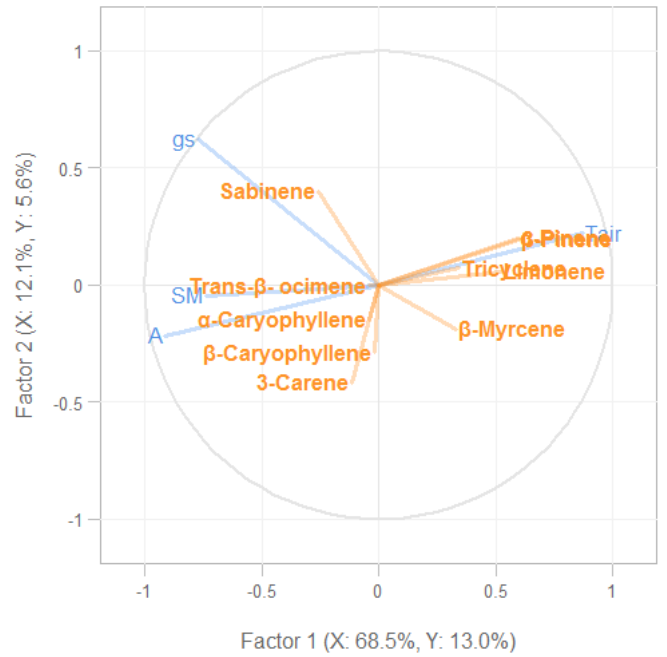
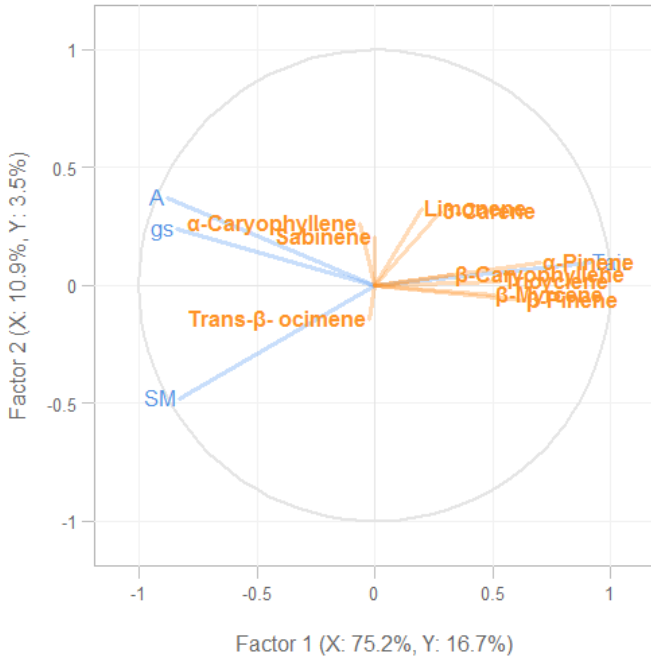
Quercus ilex

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C) Control

D) Nitrogen

Nitrogen



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804 **Fig. 4.** Partial least squares (PLS) regression between main environmental or physiological parameters and terpene
 805 emissions for *Erica multiflora* (A for control treatments, B for nitrogen treatments) and *Quercus ilex* (C for control
 806 treatments, D for nitrogen treatments) in the fertilized year. Blue represents environmental or physiological parameters
 807 (independent variables, X), and yellow represents emission rates of individual terpenes (dependent variables, Y). Tair,
 808 air temperature; SM, soil moisture; A, net photosynthetic rate; gs, stomatal conductance. Individual terpenes: α -pinene,
 809 tricyclene, β -pinene, β -myrcene, 3-carene, limonene, sabinene, trans- β -ocimene, α -terpinolene, β -caryophyllene, α -
 810 caryophyllene.

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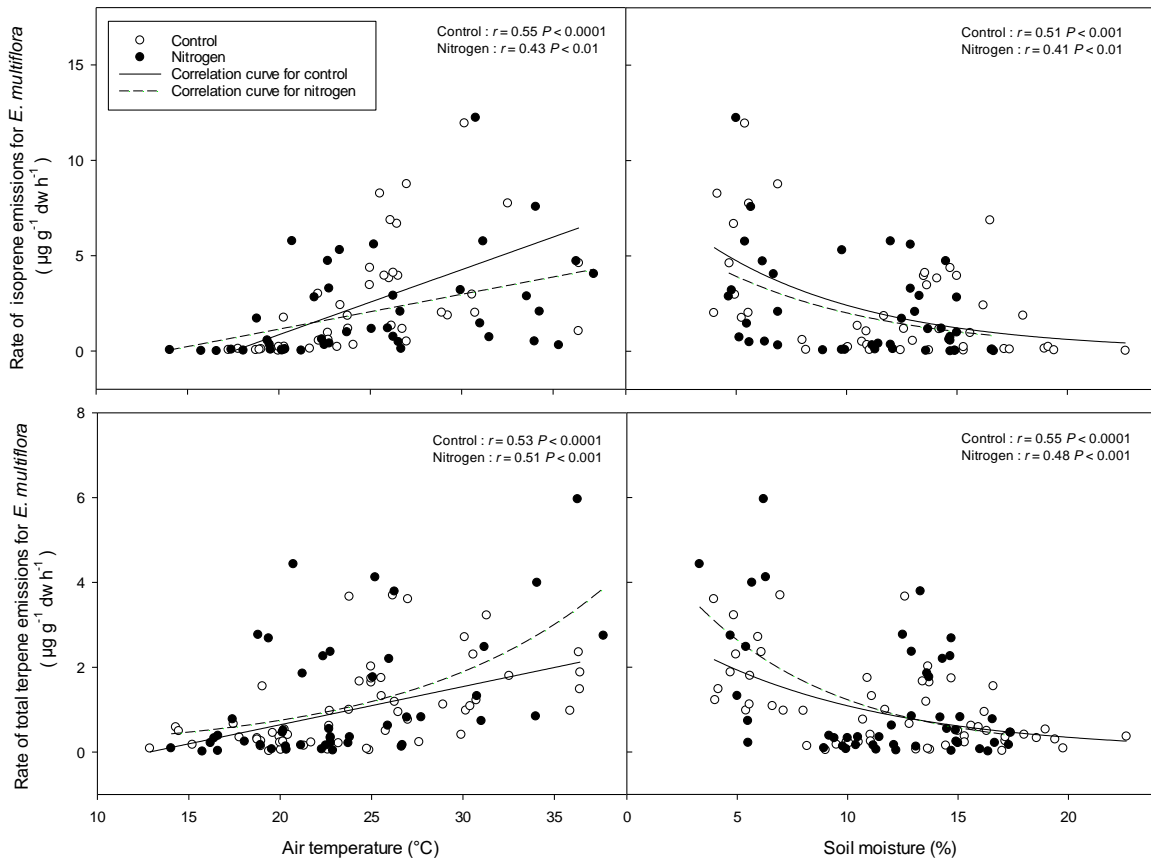
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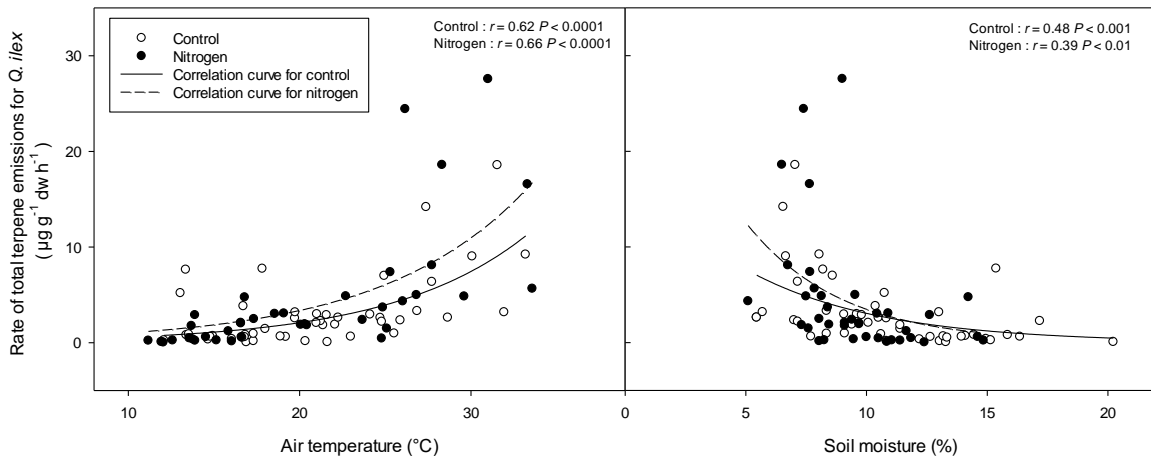
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844 **Fig. 5.** Relationships for the rate of isoprenoid emissions with main environmental conditions (air temperature and soil
845 moisture) for *Erica multiflora* (A) and *Quercus ilex* (B) in the fertilized year.

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863 **Supporting Information**

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866 **Profile of foliar isoprenoid emissions from Mediterranean dominant**
867 **shrub and tree species under experimental nitrogen deposition**

868 Zhaobin Mu^{a,b,*}, Joan Llusà^{a,b}, Daijun Liu^{a,b}, Romà Ogaya^{a,b}, Dolores Asensio^{a,b}, Chao
869 Zhang^{a,b}, Josep Peñuelas^{a,b}

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891 **Tables**892 **Table S1.** Distribution of seasonal terpene emissions ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{dw h}^{-1}$) for *Erica multiflora*893 (A and B) and *Quercus ilex* (C and D) in the morning and at midday for the fertilized year.

894 ND, not detected.

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896 A)

	Morning							
	Spring		Summer		Autumn		Winter	
	Control	Nitrogen	Control	Nitrogen	Control	Nitrogen	Control	Nitrogen
α -Pinene	0.81 ± 0.26	0.48 ± 0.14	0.86 ± 0.31	0.94 ± 0.26	0.17 ± 0.02	0.13 ± 0.06	0.14 ± 0.05	0.06 ± 0.03
Tricyclene	ND	0.16 ± 0.09	0.04 ± 0.02	0.13 ± 0.04	0.02 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.01	0.01	ND
β -Pinene	ND	ND	0.14 ± 0.05	0.22 ± 0.08	0.04 ± 0.02	<0.01	ND	ND
β -Myrcene	ND	ND	ND	ND	0.01	<0.01	ND	ND
3-Carene	0.01	ND	0.18 ± 0.05	0.31 ± 0.11	0.02 ± 0.01	ND	ND	ND
Limonene	0.18 ± 0.03	0.21 ± 0.04	0.58 ± 0.18	0.71 ± 0.30	0.02 ± 0.01	0.07 ± 0.01	0.1 ± 0.04	0.07 ± 0.02
Sabinene	ND	ND	0.08 ± 0.05	<0.01	<0.01	ND	<0.01	<0.01
Trans- β -ocimene	0.02 ± 0.01	ND	ND	0.01	0.04 ± 0.02	0.04 ± 0.02	ND	ND
α -Terpinolene	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
β -Caryophyllene	0.01	ND	0.14 ± 0.08	0.19 ± 0.10	0.05 ± 0.03	<0.01	ND	ND

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899 B)

	Midday							
	Spring		Summer		Autumn		Winter	
	Control	Nitrogen	Control	Nitrogen	Control	Nitrogen	Control	Nitrogen
α -Pinene	0.50 ± 0.09	0.71 ± 0.19	0.65 ± 0.14	1.31 ± 0.27	0.25 ± 0.02	0.33 ± 0.14	0.23 ± 0.09	0.16 ± 0.04
Tricyclene	0.10 ± 0.03	0.14 ± 0.06	0.28 ± 0.06	0.68 ± 0.23	0.04 ± 0.02	0.02 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.01	ND
β -Pinene	0.17 ± 0.06	0.25 ± 0.13	0.07 ± 0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	ND	ND
β -Myrcene	ND	ND	ND	ND	0.01	ND	ND	ND
3-Carene	0.10 ± 0.04	0.07 ± 0.04	0.06 ± 0.03	0.03 ± 0.01	<0.01	0.01	ND	ND
Limonene	0.27 ± 0.11	0.60 ± 0.20	0.49 ± 0.16	0.82 ± 0.21	0.09 ± 0.05	0.15 ± 0.09	0.09 ± 0.01	0.04 ± 0.01
Sabinene	0.10 ± 0.06	ND	0.01	0.05 ± 0.02	ND	0.01	0.02 ± 0.01	ND
Trans- β -ocimene	ND	ND	0.32 ± 0.09	0.30 ± 0.18	ND	0.01	ND	ND
α -Terpinolene	ND	ND	<0.01	0.03 ± 0.01	ND	ND	ND	ND
β -Caryophyllene	0.20 ± 0.05	0.19 ± 0.10	0.38 ± 0.10	1.01 ± 0.40	0.06 ± 0.04	ND	ND	ND

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907 C)

	Morning							
	Spring		Summer		Autumn		Winter	
	Control	Nitrogen	Control	Nitrogen	Control	Nitrogen	Control	Nitrogen
α -Pinene	0.93 \pm 0.42	0.78 \pm 0.38	1.87 \pm 0.49	2.57 \pm 0.26	0.54 \pm 0.22	0.44 \pm 0.24	0.03 \pm 0.02	0.10 \pm 0.07
Tricyclene	0.03 \pm 0.02	0.01	0.11 \pm 0.06	0.06 \pm 0.02	0.01	0.04 \pm 0.01	ND	0.06 \pm 0.03
β -Pinene	0.43 \pm 0.17	0.14 \pm 0.02	1.24 \pm 0.25	1.86 \pm 0.21	0.32 \pm 0.07	0.16	0.10 \pm 0.05	0.10 \pm 0.06
β -Myrcene	0.42 \pm 0.24	ND	1.44 \pm 0.58	0.15 \pm 0.02	ND	ND	ND	ND
3-Carene	0.21 \pm 0.03	0.15 \pm 0.04	0.04 \pm 0.02	ND	0.29 \pm 0.10	0.17 \pm 0.10	ND	<0.01
Limonene	1.12 \pm 0.39	0.8 \pm 0.28	0.88 \pm 0.37	1.33 \pm 0.76	0.95 \pm 0.49	0.38 \pm 0.28	0.41 \pm 0.10	0.05 \pm 0.02
Sabinene	ND	ND	0.02 \pm 0.01	0.04 \pm 0.02	0.08 \pm 0.05	0.01	0.02 \pm 0.01	0.14 \pm 0.04
Trans- β -ocimene	0.03 \pm 0.02	0.04 \pm 0.02	0.01	ND	0.02 \pm 0.01	0.01	0.06 \pm 0.03	0.07 \pm 0.04
β -Caryophyllene	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
α -Caryophyllene	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND

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910 D)

	Midday							
	Spring		Summer		Autumn		Winter	
	Control	Nitrogen	Control	Nitrogen	Control	Nitrogen	Control	Nitrogen
α -Pinene	2.04 \pm 0.57	1.02 \pm 0.14	2.65 \pm 0.61	6.18 \pm 2.12	0.43 \pm 0.12	1.06 \pm 0.38	0.12 \pm 0.08	0.02 \pm 0.01
Tricyclene	0.12 \pm 0.04	0.01	0.35 \pm 0.08	0.50 \pm 0.18	ND	0.05 \pm 0.03	ND	0.06 \pm 0.04
β -Pinene	0.23 \pm 0.06	0.29 \pm 0.04	1.72 \pm 0.26	3.72 \pm 1.20	0.16 \pm 0.08	0.34 \pm 0.17	0.08 \pm 0.04	0.06 \pm 0.04
β -Myrcene	0.19 \pm 0.12	0.38 \pm 0.12	2.21 \pm 1.19	0.66 \pm 0.30	ND	ND	ND	ND
3-Carene	0.37 \pm 0.07	0.44 \pm 0.03	0.43 \pm 0.13	0.20 \pm 0.08	ND	0.14 \pm 0.08	0.02 \pm 0.01	0.09 \pm 0.06
Limonene	1.18 \pm 0.55	0.32 \pm 0.18	1.60 \pm 0.33	5.45 \pm 0.81	0.80 \pm 0.21	1.10 \pm 0.43	0.24 \pm 0.03	0.15 \pm 0.02
Sabinene	ND	ND	0.06 \pm 0.04	0.04 \pm 0.02	0.08 \pm 0.05	0.13 \pm 0.03	0.03 \pm 0.02	0.01
Trans- β -ocimene	0.01	ND	0.07 \pm 0.05	ND	0.04 \pm 0.02	0.01	0.02 \pm 0.01	0.08 \pm 0.03
β -Caryophyllene	0.05 \pm 0.02	0.07 \pm 0.03	0.24 \pm 0.15	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
α -Caryophyllene	ND	ND	ND	ND	0.28 \pm 0.15	0.18 \pm 0.08	ND	0.01

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918 **Table S2.** Relationships for the rate of isoprenoid emissions with main environmental
 919 conditions (air temperature and soil moisture) and physiological activities (net
 920 photosynthetic rate and stomatal conductance) for *Erica multiflora* (A for isoprene and B
 921 for total terpenes) and *Quercus ilex* (C for total terpenes) in the fertilized year (SE,
 922 Standard Error).

923 A)

		Control		Nitrogen	
		Linear	Exponential	Linear	Exponential
Air temperature	<i>R</i>	0.5540	0.453	0.4299	0.3969
	<i>P</i>	<0.0001	0.0018	0.0045	0.0093
	SE	2.3937	2.5634	2.3847	2.4243
Correspondent equation		y = -5.745 + 0.342x		y = -2.504 + 0.183x	
Soil moisture	<i>R</i>	0.4682	0.5086	0.3899	0.4059
	<i>P</i>	0.0012	0.0004	0.0107	0.0076
	SE	2.5406	2.4756	2.4323	2.4139
Correspondent equation		y = 9.360*0.873 \wedgex		y = 7.686*0.874 \wedgex	
Net photosynthetic rate	<i>R</i>	0.4151	0.3937	0.0711	0.0636
	<i>P</i>	0.0046	0.0074	0.6545	0.6893
	SE	2.6159	2.6431	2.6346	2.636
Correspondent equation		y = 5.780 - 0.650x		y = 2.590 - 0.261x	
Stomatal conductance	<i>R</i>	0.4893	0.5177	0.3110	0.2993
	<i>P</i>	0.0006	0.0003	0.0450	0.0541
	SE	2.5076	2.46	2.5103	2.5202
Correspondent equation		y = 7.718*8.277E-010 \wedgex		y = 3.532 - 22.24x	

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937 B)

		Control		Nitrogen	
		Linear	Exponential	Linear	Exponential
Air temperature	<i>R</i>	0.5260	0.4861	0.4887	0.514
	<i>P</i>	<0.0001	0.0001	0.0006	0.0003
	SE	0.8429	0.8661	1.2814	1.2599
Correspondent equation		$y = -1.155 + 0.090x$		$y = 0.117*1.097 \wedge x$	
Soil moisture	<i>R</i>	0.5199	0.5496	0.4272	0.4832
	<i>P</i>	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.0031	0.0007
	SE	0.8466	0.828	1.3279	1.2859
Correspondent equation		$y = 3.423*0.892 \wedge x$		$y = 5.669*0.858 \wedge x$	
Net photosynthetic rate	<i>R</i>	0.0712	0.0704	0.2844	0.2674
	<i>P</i>	0.6021	0.6062	0.0527	0.0692
	SE	0.9886	0.9887	1.4024	1.4096
Correspondent equation		$y = 0.835 - 0.037x$		$y = 0.107 + 0.226x$	
Stomatal conductance	<i>R</i>	0.1552	0.1537	0.0808	0.0766
	<i>P</i>	0.2769	0.2816	0.6066	0.6252
	SE	1.0017	1.0019	1.4908	1.4913
Correspondent equation		$y = 1.419 - 5.228x$		$y = 1.065 - 3.286x$	

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939 C)

		Control		Nitrogen	
		Linear	Exponential	Linear	Exponential
Air temperature	<i>R</i>	0.5373	0.6177	0.6304	0.6572
	<i>P</i>	0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001
	SE	3.2277	3.0096	5.1507	5.0009
Correspondent equation		$y = 0.165*1.135 \wedge x$		$y = 0.317*1.125 \wedge x$	
Soil moisture	<i>R</i>	0.4611	0.4831	0.3836	0.392
	<i>P</i>	0.0013	0.0007	0.0114	0.0089
	SE	3.3960	3.3508	6.1275	6.1042
Correspondent equation		$y = 19.18*0.832 \wedge x$		$y = 45.42*0.773 \wedge x$	
Net photosynthetic rate	<i>R</i>	0.4064	0.5558	0.5205	0.531
	<i>P</i>	0.0051	<0.0001	0.0008	0.0006
	SE	3.4968	3.1816	5.6657	5.6225
Correspondent equation		$y = 15.45*0.753 \wedge x$		$y = 17.44*0.769 \wedge x$	
Stomatal conductance	<i>R</i>	0.3069	0.4334	0.4407	0.5144
	<i>P</i>	0.0380	0.0026	0.0056	0.0013
	SE	3.6424	3.4489	5.9563	5.6901
Correspondent equation		$y = 13.47*6.120E-011 \wedge x$		$y = 17.36*6.628E-011 \wedge x$	

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943 **Figures**

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969 **Fig. S1.** Location and landform of experimental sites. GAR, Garraf; PRA, Prades.

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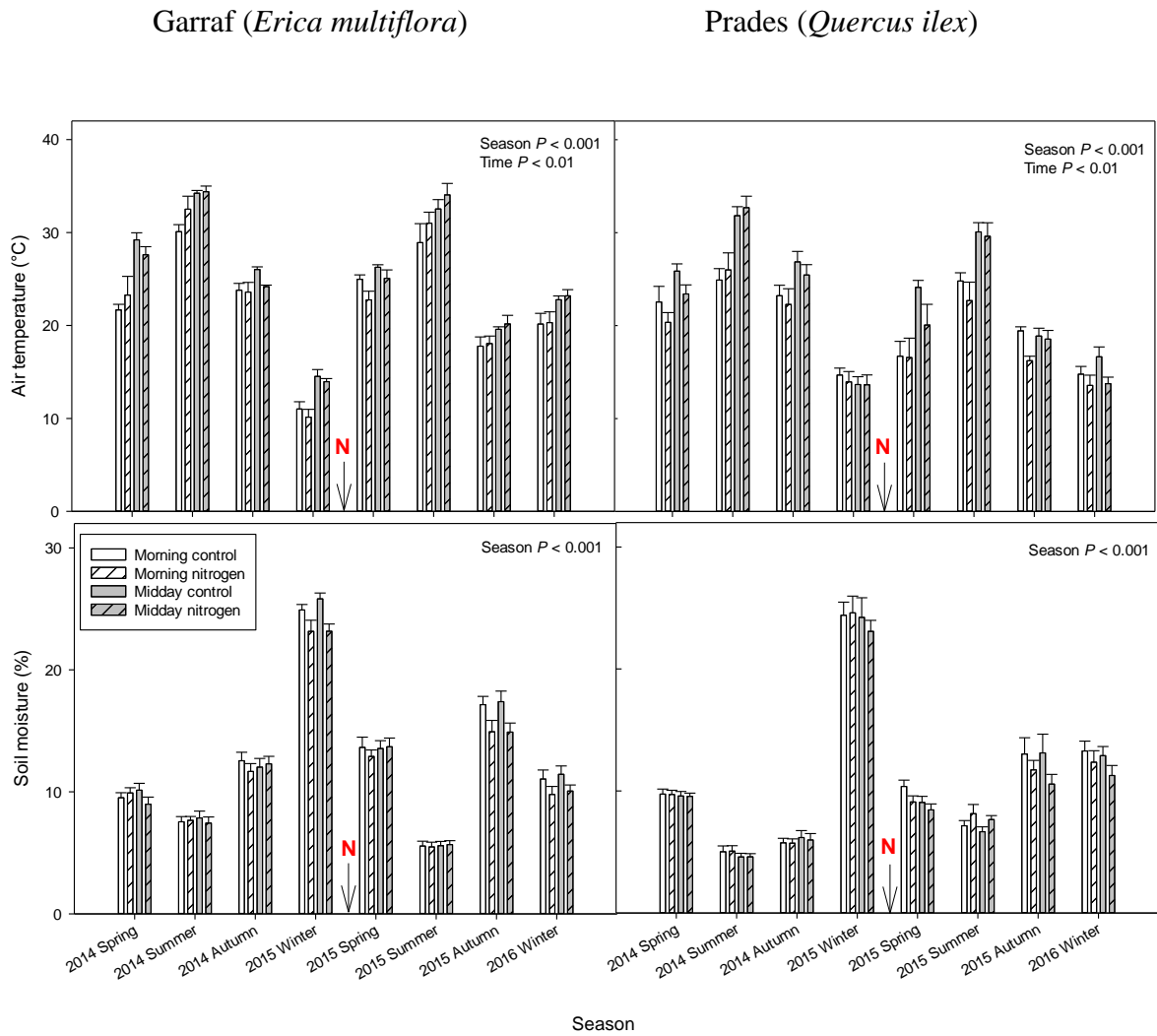
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979 **Fig. S2.** Seasonal morning and midday variation of mean air temperature and soil
980 moisture in Garraf and Prades. 'N' indicates the start of the fertilization treatment. Error
981 bars indicate standard errors of the means ($n = 6$). The significance of the effects of season
982 and sampling time (repeated-measures ANOVA) is depicted in the panels.

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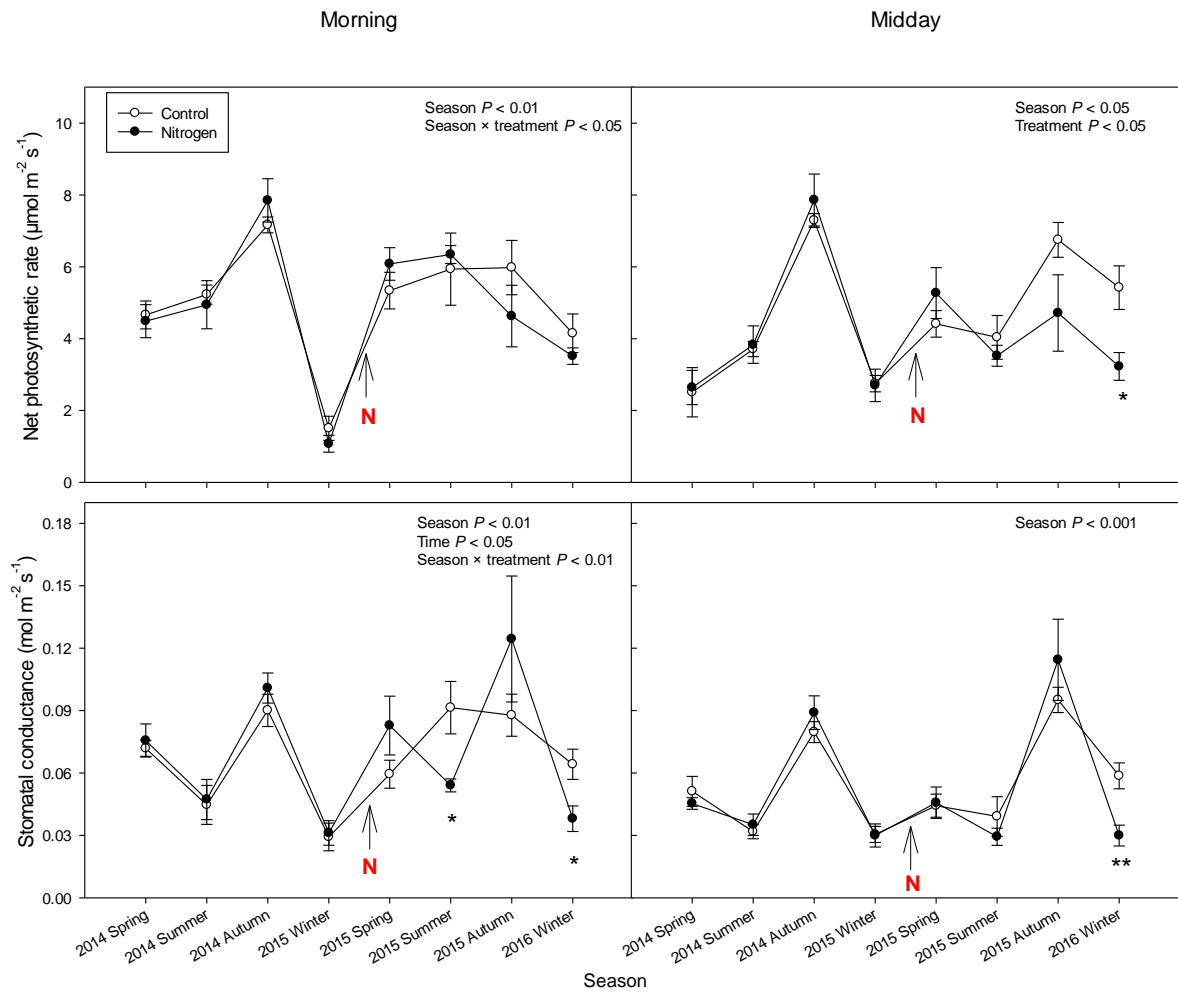
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990 A)

Erica multiflora



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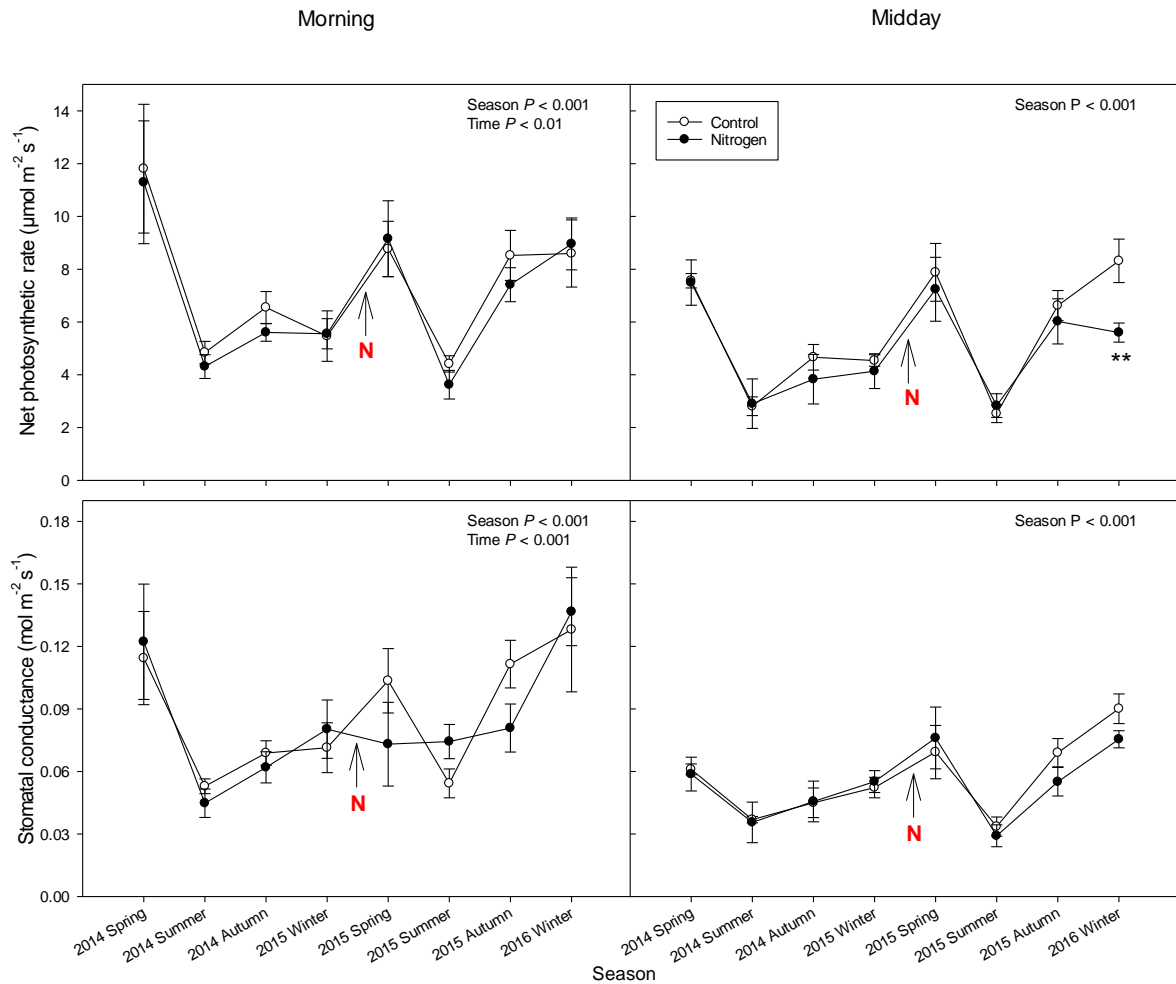
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Quercus ilex

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1009 **Fig. S3.** Seasonal net photosynthetic rates and stomatal conductances for *Erica multiflora*

1010 (A) and *Quercus ilex* (B) in the morning and at midday. 'N' indicates the start of the

1011 fertilization treatment. Error bars indicate standard errors of the means ($n = 6$). Significant

1012 differences between treatments identified by Student's *t*-tests are indicated by asterisks

1013 (*, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$). The significance of the effects of season, treatment and

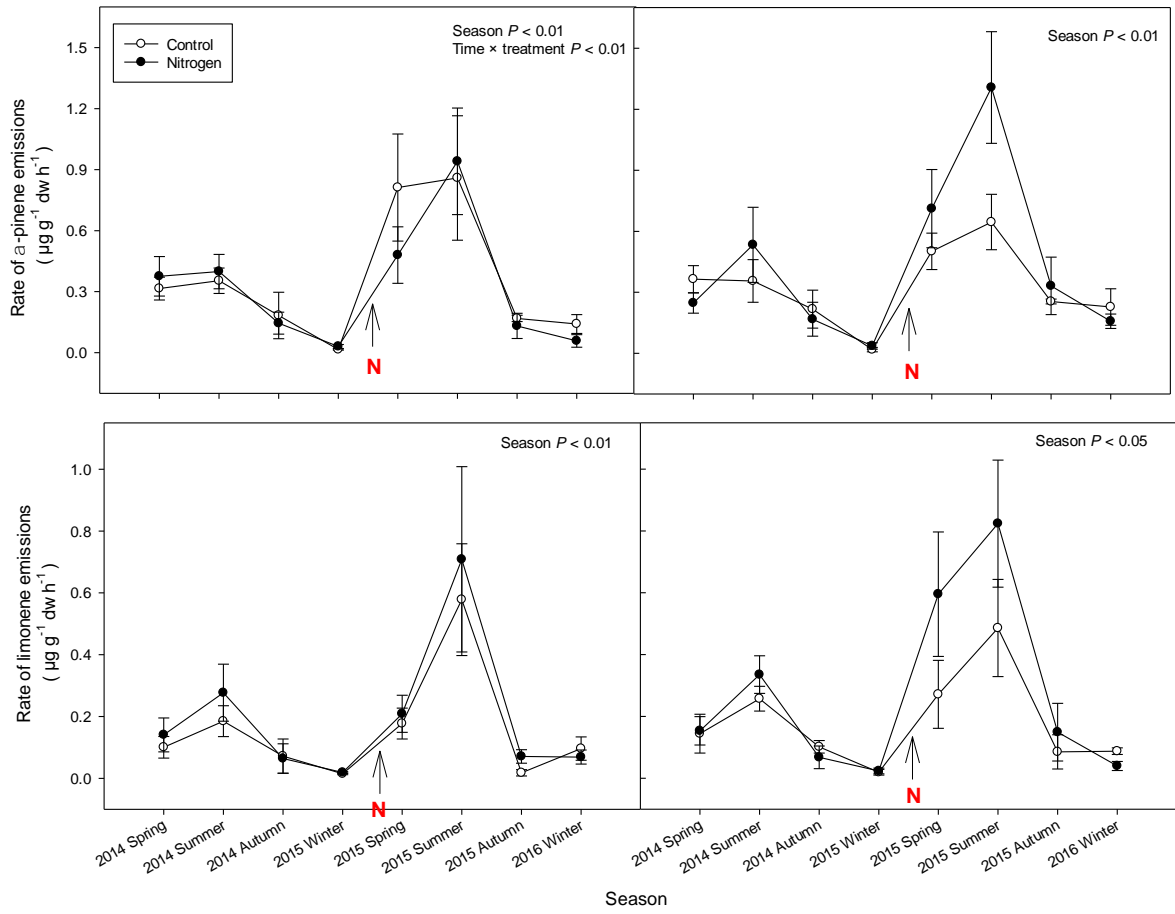
1014 sampling time (repeated-measures ANOVA) is depicted in the panels.

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1021 **Fig. S4.** Seasonal variation of the rates of emission of α -pinene and limonene for *Erica*
 1022 *multiflora*. ‘N’ indicates the start of the fertilization treatment. Error bars indicate
 1023 standard errors of the means ($n = 6$). The effects of season, treatment and sampling time
 1024 are depicted in the panels when significant.

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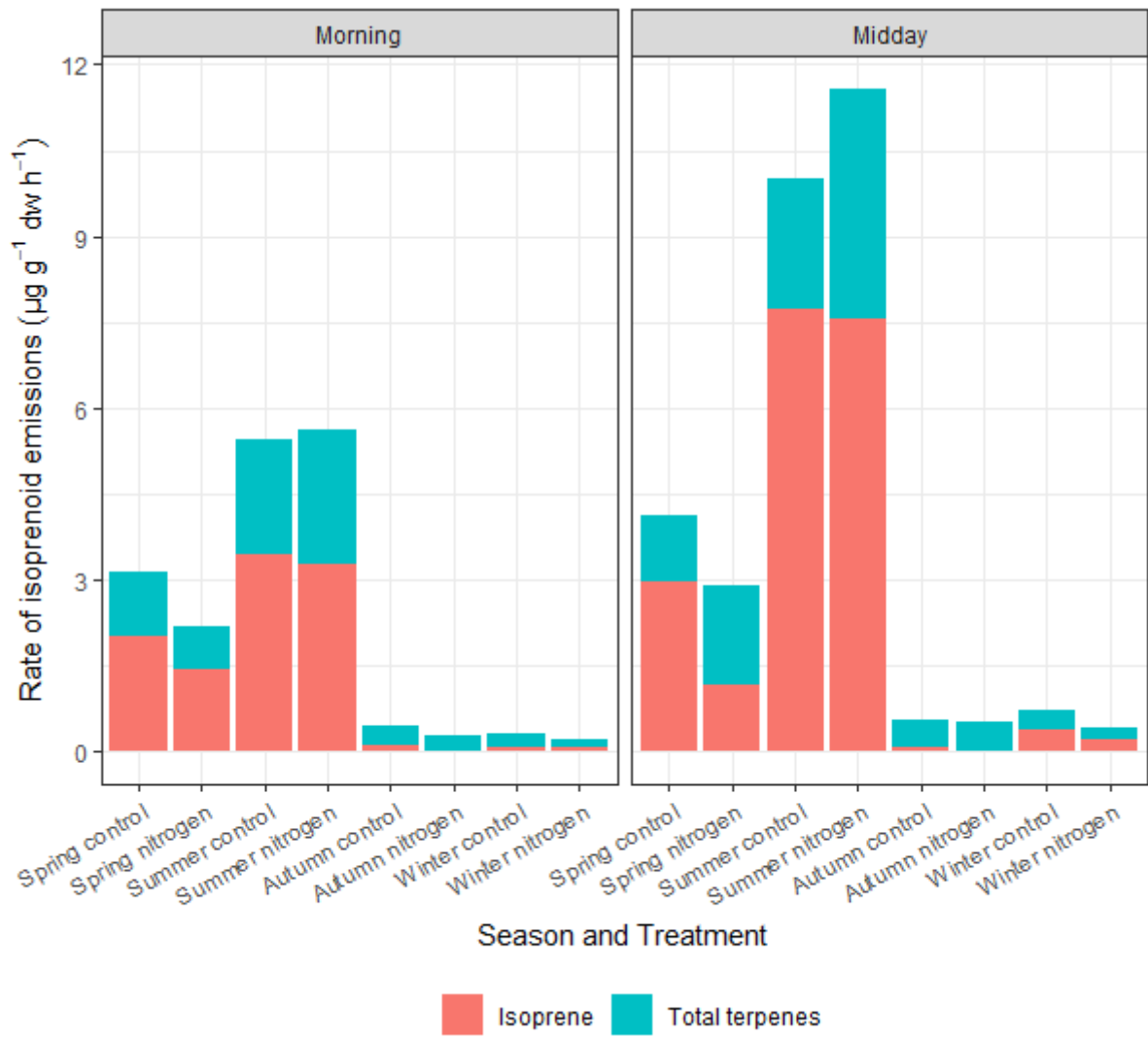
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1038 **Fig. S5.** Distribution of seasonal isoprenoid emissions for *Erica multiflora* in the morning
 1039 and at midday for the fertilized year.

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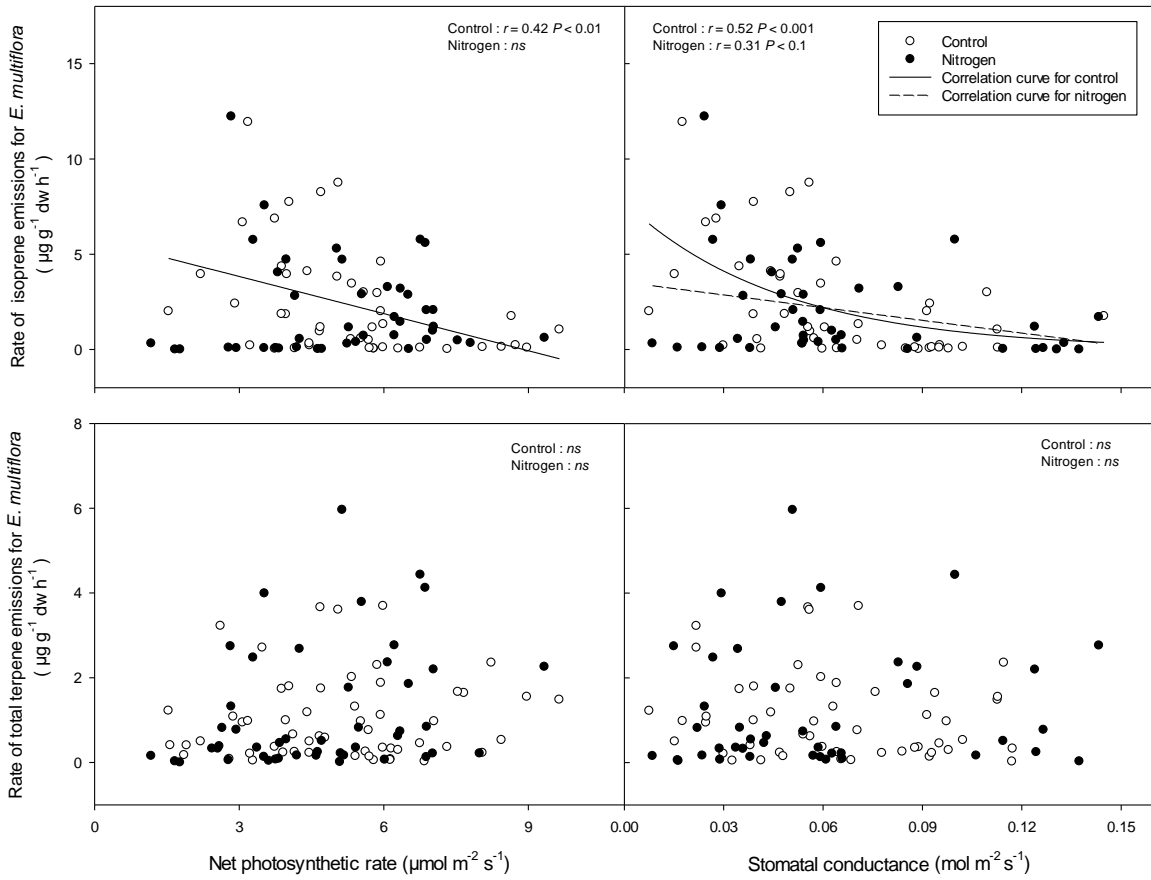
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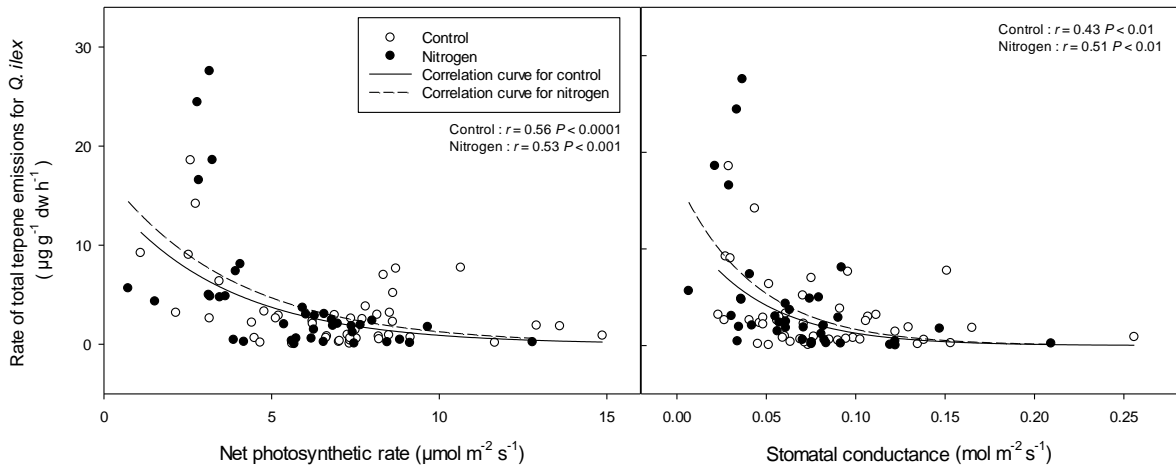
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1064 B)



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1066 **Fig. S6.** Relationships for the rate of isoprenoid emissions with main physiological
1067 activities (net photosynthetic rate and stomatal conductance) for *Erica multiflora* (A) and
1068 *Quercus ilex* (B) in the fertilized year. ns, not significant.

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