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1 **Mangrove's species are weak isoprenoid emitters.**

2

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20

21 **Abstract**

22 Mangroves are ecosystems interfacing terrestrial and marine environments submitted to extreme
23 abiotic factors (e.g. anoxia, flooding, salinity) producing stress on vegetation. Due to these stresses, we
24 hypothesized that mangroves potentially emit biogenic volatile organic compound (BVOC),
25 particularly isoprenoids as they are defense compounds. Despite mangroves cover only about 5% of
26 the forest areas of the world, their emissions could impact air quality at the continental-ocean
27 interface. As a result, it is important to fill the gap in the knowledge about BVOC emissions from the
28 canopy of the major mangrove trees. The aim of this study was thus to screen isoprenoid emissions of
29 the mangrove species. In this study, we sampled isoprenoid emissions of 15 species foliage among the
30 38 core species existing in the Indo-West Pacific (IWP) and the Atlantic Est Pacific (AEP) regions.
31 Sampling was performed using a branch-bag dynamic enclosure system and analyzed with gas
32 chromatography coupled to mass spectrometry. Our analysis showed that mangrove tree species are
33 very low emitters suggesting that mangrove ecosystems would not strongly influence atmospheric
34 chemistry and air quality.

35

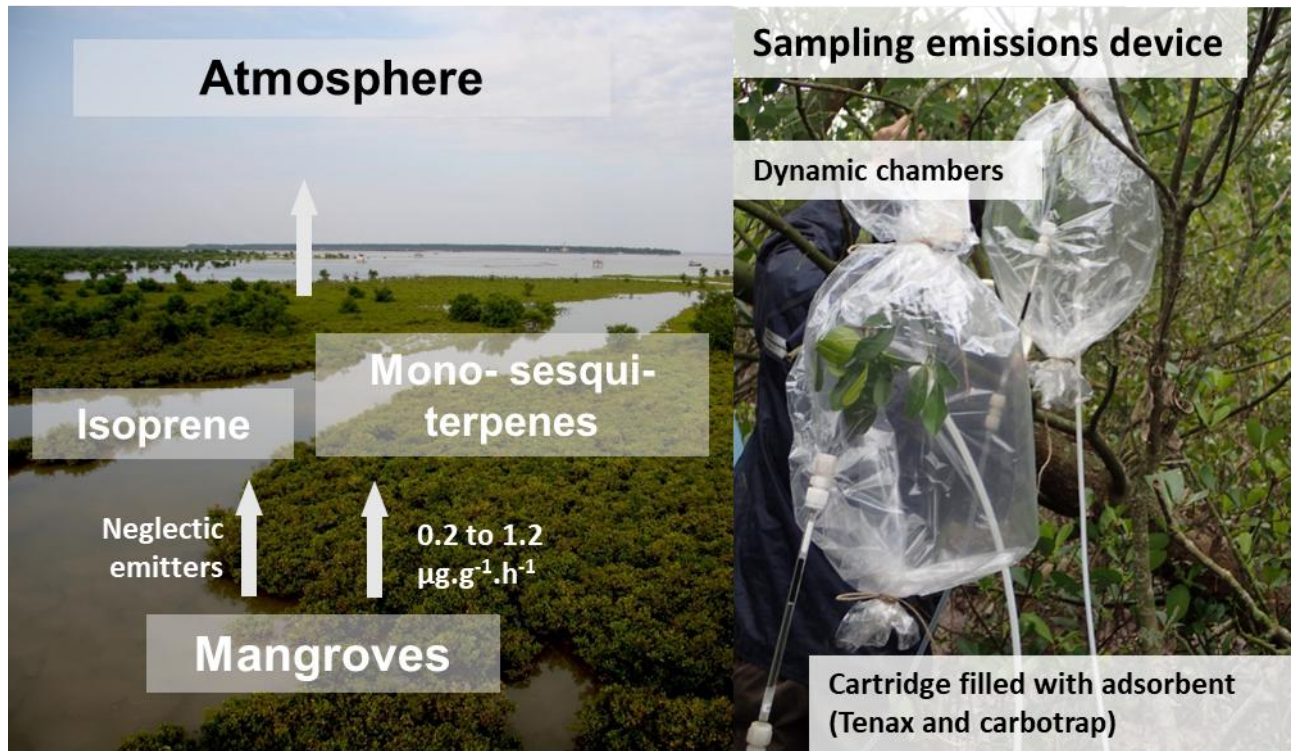
36 **Keywords**

37 BVOC emissions; Isoprenoids; Mangroves; Flooded ecosystems; extreme environments

38

39 **Highlights**

- 40
- 41 • Isoprenoid emissions of 15 mangrove species were investigated.
 - 42 • Mangrove species studied are very low isoprenoid emitters.
 - 43 • Mangrove forest weakly contribute to biosphere-atmosphere exchanges through BVOC.
- 44
- 45
- 46
- 47



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51 **1. Introduction**

52 Vegetation (croplands, shrublands, woodlands etc) is the most important source of volatile organic
53 compound (VOC) as it accounts for 1015 TgC.yr⁻¹, about 90% of total biogenic emissions (Guenther
54 *et al.* 1995). VOCs gather a wide variety of chemical compounds having a high vapor pressure (at
55 least 0.01 KPa) at ambient temperature. Among them, isoprenoids (including isoprene but also
56 monoterpenes and, to a lesser extent, sesquiterpenes), as well as highly volatile compounds such as
57 methanol, acetaldehyde, or formaldehyde, are mainly emitted (e.g. Saunier *et al.*, 2017a). These
58 compounds play a major environmental role on air quality and indirectly modulate climate conditions.
59 Indeed, in the presence of sunlight and nitrogen oxides (NO_x), biogenic VOCs (BVOCs) contribute to
60 the formation of tropospheric ozone (Fehsenfeld *et al.* 1992) and secondary organic aerosols (Claeys
61 *et al.* 2004; Ng *et al.* 2006), which in turn act on cloud formation and albedo (Makkonen *et al.* 2012).
62 Among BVOCs, isoprenoids are therefore key compounds for chemistry-model-transport and climate-
63 change models that aim to forecast photo-chemical pollution episodes and their contribution in the
64 future climate change (Makkonen *et al.* 2012). These two types of models rely on thousands of
65 publications that describe, since the 1980s, BVOCs emissions from plant species (Keenan *et al.* 2009),
66 their dependence on environmental factors such as light and temperature (Guenther *et al.* 1993). Since
67 isoprenoid emissions are species-specific, it is crucial to investigate isoprenoid emissions from the
68 main vegetal formations at the global scale. For this purpose, temperate environments (e.g.
69 Mediterranean, continental, oceanic) have been widely studied in terms of BVOCs emissions (Owen *et*
70 *al.* 2001; Ormeno *et al.* 2007; Saunier *et al.* 2017b), but plant species from extreme environments such
71 as mangroves have been clearly neglected (Rinnan *et al.* 2014; Exton *et al.* 2015).

72 Mangroves are extreme ecosystems interfacing terrestrial and marine environments. These forests are
73 key elements of tropical coastal ecosystems as they provide many ecosystem services such as limiting
74 erosion (e.g. cyclone, wave) and saline intrusion (Brander *et al.* 2012, Hilmi *et al.*, 2017), providing
75 raw materials, food and habitat for fauna (e.g. migration, breeding, spawning), or being important
76 carbon (C) sinks (Jakovac *et al.* 2020). They are found in two distinct regions: the Atlantic Est
77 Pacific (AEP) and the Indo-West Pacific (IWP) (Spalding 2010) and account for 147,359 km²

78 (127,925–168,895) in 2020 (Bunting et al., 2022). In both geographical areas, there are several
79 common genera but no common species. To handle their particular changing environmental conditions
80 (e.g. high salinity, flooding, anoxia), mangrove species have developed several specific defense
81 mechanisms, including physical barriers (e.g. waxes, He *et al.* 2016) or chemical protections (e.g.
82 secondary metabolites, Naskar & Palit 2015). Indeed, specialized compounds can be produced and/or
83 emitted by plants to cope flooding and salinity as demonstrated for other species (Copolovici &
84 Niinemets 2016; Yang *et al.* 2018). However, to our knowledge, only a few studies have investigated
85 BVOC emissions from mangrove despite the large distribution of this unique ecosystem over the
86 world. For instance, Barr *et al.* (2003) focused on volatile compounds emitted by foliage of Red
87 mangroves (*Rhizophora mangle* L.) in Florida, and found very low emissions of isoprene (< 0.1
88 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}_{\text{DW}}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$). Despite these reported low emissions, mangrove trees could have a non-negligible effect
89 on atmospheric processes since mangroves represent one of the most biomass-productive biomes on
90 our planet and cover about 75% of the coasts and estuaries of tropical regions (Ellison and Farnworth,
91 2001; FAO 2007).

92 The aim of this study was to perform for the first time a screening of isoprenoid emissions from 15
93 mangrove trees located in two geographical areas: the IWP (Vietnam) and the AEP (French Guyana)
94 regions. We hypothesized that some mangrove species could be isoprenoid emitters in response to
95 extreme conditions in mangrove ecosystems.

96

97 **2. Materials and methods**

98 *2.1 Species*

99 From the 73 species recognized as “true” mangroves, we investigated 15 of the dominant mangrove
100 species among the 38 core species (Spalding 2010): *Avicennia alba* Blume, *Avicennia germinans*
101 (L.)L., *Avicennia marina* (Forsk) Vierh (Acanthaceae), *Aegiceras corniculatum* (L.) Blanco, *Aegiceras*
102 *floridum* Roem. & Schult. (Myrsinaceae), *Bruguiera gymnorhiza* Lam., *Ceriops zippeliana* Blume,
103 *Rhizophora apiculata* Salvoza, *Rhizophora racemose* (Hochr.) Salvoza, *Rhizophora stylosa* Griff.
104 (Rhizophoraceae), *Laguncularia racemose* (L.) C.F. Gaertn., *Lumnitzera littorea* (Jack) Voigt,
105 *Lumnitzera racemosa* Wild. (Combretaceae), *Sonneratia alba* Sm. and *Sonneratia caseolaris* (L.)

106 Engl. (Lythraceae). Due to the large surface area they occupy, these species could be the most
107 important contributors to the biosphere atmosphere relationship.

108 The 15 species were sampled in two distribution areas: 11 in the IWP (Vietnam) and 3 in the AEP
109 (French Guyana) regions. In Vietnam, the experimental site was located in the botanical garden of Can
110 Gio District (CGBG), Ho Chi Minh City in the South of Vietnam (10°30'N 106°51'E). The Can Gio
111 mangrove is formed by the deltaic confluence of the Saigon, Dong Nai and Vam Co Rivers and it is
112 the first mangrove biosphere reserve in Vietnam (UNESCO/MAB Project 2000). This estuary is
113 subject to semi-diurnal tides, and the tidal elevation ranges from 2 to 4 m. The climate is monsoonal,
114 with a dry season lasting from December to April and a wet season from May to November. In this
115 site, the annual mean temperature is 27.4°C with the highest (37.6°C) occurring in October and the
116 lowest (21.7°C) in February. The annual average rainfall ranges from 13000-14000mm with highest
117 monthly average in September (300-400mm). To the sampling site, not directly connected to the to the
118 main estuarine channel, the salinity ranges from 16 to 23 (Vinh et al. 2020).

119
120 The second experimental site was located in French Guyana, along the Mahury River (04° 51.4429'N
121 052°15.8035'W). In this site, the climate is humid equatorial climate with 2 wet seasons and 2 dry
122 seasons. French Guiana coast is mesotidal with semi-diurnal tides (Ray et al. 2020) with a tide
123 elevation ranged from 0.92 m and 3.06 m in this site. The average annual temperature is 26.5 °C with
124 a thermal amplitude of 3 °C at the most between the hottest and the coldest month and the average
125 annual rainfall ranges from 2500 to 3000 mm y⁻¹. In the site the salinity ranges from 16 to 26
126 (Marchand et al. 2004).

127 Samplings were performed in the dry season during 2 field campaigns in April 2019 in Vietnam and
128 October 2019 in French Guyana. The environmental conditions in terms of temperature (°C), relative
129 humidity (%) occurring during the field campaigns were recorded using a HOBO device (Onset,
130 USA). Photosynthetically Active Radiation (PAR) was measured using a quantum sensor (PAR- SA
131 190®, LI- COR, USA) (Table 1).

132

133 *2.2 Isoprenoid sampling*

134 For each species, five mature trees (2-5m) were sampled during each field campaign and sampling site
135 (only exception: 6 *Avicenia alba* were sampled), for a total of 76 trees sampled (see Table 2 for
136 details). The sampling procedure was described in detail in Saunier *et al.* (2017). On each sampled
137 tree, one branch sun-exposed and without flower and having about 6 leaves was enclosed in a
138 polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) chamber of about 10 L. A continuous atmospheric air flow, filtered
139 with VOC and ozone scrubbers, flowed through the chamber at 1 L.min⁻¹. After a 30 min system
140 stabilization period, air from the enclosure was collected during 30 min at 0.2 L.min⁻¹ on cartridges
141 (two beds of adsorbants: tenax and cartotrap B), one for isoprene and one for other isoprenoids. Inlet
142 and outlet air flows were controlled by mass flow controllers (Porter Instrument, USA). Cartridges
143 were then stored at -20°C until analysis (portable freezer in the field and classical one in the
144 laboratory). Samplings were performed between 10 h and 15 h (local time) on fully developed leaves.
145 Twice a day, blanks were performed to control inlet air quality.

146 One test was performed in April 2019 to check the reliability of our protocol of transport and storage.
147 According to this test, no significant difference was detected between an analysis right after the
148 sampling or after a period of transport/storage (Fig. S1 in supplementary files).

149

150 2.3 GC-MS analyses

151 Cartridge analyses were conducted by gas chromatography (model 6890N, Agilent technologies,
152 USA) coupled to mass spectrometry (model 5973, Agilent Technologies, USA). VOC were extracted
153 using thermodesorption system (TDS3/CIS, Gerstel, Germany) using helium as carrier gas (50
154 mL.min⁻¹) at 250 °C during 10 min. The extracted compounds were concentrated on-line by cryo-
155 trapping at -50 °C using liquid nitrogen. The sample was then injected by rapid heating to 250°C at
156 10°C/min. Initial oven temperature was 40 degrees hold for 5 minutes and then increasing by 3
157 degrees per minute to 250 °C maintained for 15 min.

158 Two distinct chromatographic methods were used, one to detect and quantify isoprene (C5) and
159 another one to analyze C10-C15 compounds. Isoprene was analysed using a capillary Al/KCl column
160 (Agilent Technologies, USA; 30 m x 0.25 mm x 5 µm) as described in Saunier *et al.* (2017b) whereas
161 other isoprenoids were separated on a HP-5MS column (Agilent Technology, USA; 30 m x 0.25 mm x

162 0.25 μm) as shown in Ormeño *et al.* (2007). For both analyses helium was the carrier gas at a constant
163 flow rate of 1 mL.min⁻¹. Isoprenoids were identified based on the co-injection of analytical standards
164 (Sigma-Aldrich, Germany), the Kovàts' index calculation through the injection of alkanes (C₈-C₂₀) as
165 well as the comparison of mass spectra to the NIST library (2011). BVOC emission rate (ER) were
166 calculated according to Saunier *et al.* (2017).

167 2.4 Statistical analyses

168 The statistical analyses were performed with R software (version 4.2.1). After having checked the
169 normality of the data set, one way-ANOVA or Kruskal-Wallis tests were performed for isoprene
170 emissions and other BVOC emissions according to the species. Dunn post-hoc tests were performed to
171 detect the species with statistical differences in their emissions.

172

173 3. Results

174 The 15 studied mangrove species are low isoprenoid emitters (< 1.200 ng.gDW⁻¹.h⁻¹, Table 2). In
175 details, species from the IWP region are the lower isoprene emitters with emissions rates ranging
176 between 0.3 and 1.6 ng.gDW⁻¹.h⁻¹ while species from the AEP region present a larger range of
177 isoprene emission rate with values ranging between 0.1 and 2.1 ng.gDW⁻¹.h⁻¹. Isoprene emissions
178 represent 0.3, 0.5 and 2.1% of total emissions for *A. germinans*, *L. racemosa* and *R. racemosa*,
179 respectively.

180 Besides, those species are also low emitters of other BVOC (200 – 1.2 ng. g⁻¹DW.h⁻¹, Table 2 and 3)
181 and the main BVOC detected are monoterpenes but also benzenoids as well as methyl salicylate.
182 Sesquiterpene emissions are very low, closed to the detection limit of the analyzers.

183 Other BVOC such as benzaldehyde, benzeneacetaldehyde, acetophenone or methyl salicylate
184 contribute (Table 3) significantly to the total BVOC emission specifically for *A. germinans* and *L.*
185 *racemosa* with 76 and 82% of the total emissions, respectively.

186 *Rhizophora racemosa* is the highest emitter of the mangrove species with an average emission rate of
187 about 1200 ng.g⁻¹DW.h⁻¹. Contrary to the two other species from AEP region, *R. racemosa* emissions
188 are dominated by monoterpenes which represent about 93% of its total emissions. The three dominant
189 emitted monoterpenes of *R. racemosa* are α -pinene, sabinene and β -pinene.

190

191 **4. Discussion**

192 The low isoprenoids emissions observed for the 15 mangrove species sampled in the two geographical
193 regions (IWP and AEP) are in agreement with previous findings (Barr *et al.* 2003). In addition,
194 Guenther *et al.* (1994) reported values below $100 \text{ ngC.g}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$ for emissions from the genera *Avicennia*,
195 *Laguncularia* and *Rhizophora* in the United States of America, referring to the works of Zimmernan
196 (1979) and Evans *et al.* (1982). Moreover, the dominant monoterpenes α -pinene and β -pinene detected
197 here are also present in the study of Barr *et al.* (2003). Sabinene was detected in the essential oil of
198 *Melaleuca cajuputi*, a species not directly related to the mangrove but often found in the back of
199 mangroves (Sharif *et al.* 2009). The presence of monoterpenes but also benzenoids as well as methyl
200 salicylate in emissions from mangrove species is not surprising as they are observed in many other
201 biogenic emissions (Rodriguez-Saona *et al.* 2011; Gentner *et al.* 2014).

202 The two geographic areas of mangroves have no species in common but share *Avicennia* L. and
203 *Rhizophora* L., the most characteristic genera of mangrove systems worldwide (Robert *et al.*, 2009). In
204 our study, several species belonging to these two genera were sampled and show qualitatively
205 different but always small emissions. These results agree with those of Lorto (2002) who showed that
206 within the genus *Quercus*, that have a wide geographical distribution, non-emitting species and
207 emitting species of isoprenoids (isoprene and/or terpenes) can be found.

208 Although they share a common ecological niche and must adapt to similar environmental conditions,
209 mangroves are nonetheless a genetically diverse group of flowering plants (Duke, 2002). This may
210 explain the observed differences in their emission spectra, which are also driven by internal factors
211 such as genetics (Peñuelas and Llusia, 2001).

212

213 This emission rate from mangroves is low compared to the emission rates of most other tropical plant
214 species. For instance, Geron *et al.* (2002) performed a screening of BVOC from twenty species in a
215 lowland wet forest located in Costa Rica. Half of these common species emitted isoprene at a rate
216 ranging from 10 to $126 \mu\text{g.gDW}^{-1}\text{.h}^{-1}$ or about 100 times higher than the isoprene emissions of the 15
217 mangrove species under study. The same trend is observed for the other BVOCs that are generally

218 emitted by tropical species at higher rates than mangrove species (Singh *et al.* 2011; Bracho-Nunez *et*
219 *al.* 2013).

220

221 We can confirm that mangroves invest in isoprenoid emissions as chemical defences against the
222 extreme environmental conditions that typically occur in their environment (e.g. flooding, salinity) but
223 to a small extent. Indeed, mangroves have other strategies that ensure very good adaptation to these
224 extreme conditions. They possess strategies such as osmolyte production which absorb salt as
225 previously observed in *Avicennia* genus and other halophytes (Khan *et al.* 2016) (Slama *et al.* 2015).
226 However, samplings were performed only on a short time. As a result, it cannot be excluded that we
227 missed plant response to salinity and or flooding that could have caused emission puffs. For example,
228 *Eucalyptus globulus*, a non-halophyte plant, exhibits puffs of isoprene only when salt stress is relieved
229 (Loreto & Delfine 2000). Velikova *et al.* (2012) also observed important emissions of volatile
230 isoprenoids from *Citrus* leaves, mainly limonene, during flooding with saline water.

231

232 Moreover, it would be worth investigating the emission of highly volatile organic compounds such as
233 acetaldehyde and methanol since mangroves face anoxic conditions that could lead to alcoholic
234 fermentation processes and, as a result, ethanol could be produced and transformed to acetaldehyde
235 and to a lesser extent to acetic acid (Oikawa & Lerdau 2013). More generally, plants can also emit
236 methanol through growth process (Hüve *et al.* 2007) and acetone through acetoacetate decarboxylation
237 (Fall 2003). Acetaldehyde and acetic acid impact air quality by contributing to the atmospheric
238 oxidative capacity and forming toxic secondary pollutants such as formaldehyde (Oikawa & Lerdau
239 2013). In addition, other halophytes have been shown to be a source of methyl halides and
240 dimethylsulphoniopropionate (DMSP) (Otte *et al.* 2004; Rhew & Mazéas 2010). One experimental
241 study conducted under greenhouse conditions also demonstrated that mangrove trees emit methyl
242 halides with possible atmospheric impact (Manley *et al.* 2007). However, this study emphasizes the
243 need for field experiments to check for the occurrence of these emissions from mangroves. Further
244 investigations are thus required to explore if mangroves are a source of halide VOC.

245

246 **4. Conclusion**

247 Our results show that mangrove trees are very low isoprenoid emitters. Only *R. racemosa* can be
248 regarded as a non-negligible source though monoterpene emissions still low ($\sim 1000 \text{ ng.gDW.h}^{-1}$).
249 Such results suggest that mangrove does not strongly affect local or regional atmospheric chemistry
250 through BVOC emissions despite the large distribution of this ecosystem over the globe. However,
251 despite the low-rate emission, the data from this study can be used in atmospheric chemistry models to
252 study the impact of biogenic VOC emissions on air quality in areas where mangroves are present.

253 It is still worthy to note that we only made punctual samplings and that continuous monitoring of
254 isoprenoid emissions should be carried out to check for potential seasonal variations. Moreover, as far
255 as our results showed important differences between plant species, it could be interesting to broaden
256 the sampling design including other sites (African west coast and Caribbean Islands) as they include
257 mangrove species that have not been investigated.

258 It could be also interesting to focus on other compounds than isoprenoids such as highly volatile or
259 halogenated compounds which might be tackled in future studies focused on BVOC emissions from
260 mangroves.

261

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270 **6. Author contributions:**

271 **Catherine Fernandez:** Conceptualization, Investigation, Methodology, Visualization, Writing –
272 review & editing **Amélie Saunier:** Investigation, Methodology, Formal analysis, Data curation,

273 Writing – original draft **Henri Wortham**: Conceptualization, Investigation, Methodology,
274 Visualization, Writing – review & editing **Elena Ormeño**: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing
275 – review & editing **Magali Proffit**: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing – review & editing
276 **Caroline Lecareux**: Resources, Methodology, Writing – review & editing **Stéphane Greff**:
277 Resources, Methodology, Writing – review & editing **Dao Van Tan**: Investigation, Resources,
278 Methodology **Mai Sy Tuan**: Resources, **Huynh Duc Hoan**: Resources, **Bui Nguyen The Kiet**:
279 Resources **Dounia Dhaou**: Investigation, Methodology **Virginie Baldy**: Investigation, Methodology,
280 Writing – review & editing **Anne Bousquet-Mélou**: Funding acquisition, Project administration,
281 Supervision, Conceptualization, Investigation, Methodology, Visualization, Writing – review &
282 editing
283

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421 **Table 1:** Means (\pm SE) of temperatures (T, °C), relative humidity (RH, %) and Photosynthetic Active
422 Radiation (PAR, $\mu\text{mol.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$) between 10 h and 15 h (sampling time for BVOC, local time) during
423 each field campaign. PAR in March 2019 could not be calculated due to technical problems with the
424 HOBO sensor.

Site	Sampling	T	RH	PAR
Vietnam	April 2019	33.0 ± 0.2	66.0 ± 0.5	301 ± 23
French Guyana	October 2019	35.0 ± 0.3	60.0 ± 0.6	603 ± 55

425 **Table 2:** Emission rates (ER, ng.gDW⁻¹.h⁻¹) of 15 mangrove species in terms of isoprene and other
 426 BVOC (see Table 3 for details) detected with GC-MS, n.d.: no compound detected. Values are means
 427 ± SE. Statistical test are presented for each BVOC type and site. Lower case letters denote post-hoc
 428 test differences at 95% confidence level (Due to a problem during the analysis, we lost a series of
 429 samples from French Guyana and therefore only have 4 samples with results)

Sites	Species	ER isoprene* C ₅	n	ER other BVOC (C ₁₀ – C ₁₅)	n
Vietnam	<i>Aegiceras corniculatum</i>	1.5 ± 1.0 ^a	5	n.d.	5
	<i>Aegiceras floridum</i>	1.0 ± 0.4 ^a	5	n.d.	5
	<i>Avicennia alba</i>	0.3 ± 0.1 ^a	6	n.d.	6
	<i>Avicennia marina</i>	0.2 ± 0.1 ^a	5	n.d.	5
	<i>Bruguiera gymnorrhiza</i>	n.d.	5	n.d.	5
	<i>Ceriops zippeliana</i>	0.8 ± 0.5 ^a	5	n.d.	5
	<i>Lumnitzera racemosa</i>	1.6 ± 0.8 ^b	5	n.d.	5
	<i>Lumnitzera littorea</i>	0.1 ± 0.1 ^a	5	n.d.	5
	<i>Rhizophora apiculata</i>	0.3 ± 0.2 ^a	5	n.d.	5
	<i>Rhizophora stylosa</i>	0.7 ± 0.4 ^a	5	n.d.	5
	<i>Sonneratia alba</i>	0.3 ± 0.2 ^a	5	n.d.	5
	<i>Sonneratia caseolaris</i>	1.3 ± 0.4 ^a	5	n.d.	5
	Kruskall-Wallis test p=0.02				
French Guyana	<i>Avicennia germinans</i>	0.5 ± 0.3 ^a	5	212 ± 38	4
	<i>Laguncularia racemosa</i>	0.3 ± 0.3 ^a	5	222 ± 97	4
	<i>Rhizophora racemosa</i>	2.1 ± 0.8 ^b	4	1176 ± 626	4
Kruskall-Wallis test p=0.04 Anova test p=0.09					

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432 **Table 3:** Emissions rates (ng.gDW⁻¹.h⁻¹) of *Avicennia germinans*, *Laguncularia racemosa* and
 433 *Rhizophora racemosa*. Asterisks indicate the co-injection of analytical standards to perform compound
 434 identifications and quantifications. Means \pm SE.

Compounds	<i>A. germinans</i>	<i>L. racemosa</i>	<i>R. racemosa</i>
<i>Monoterpenes</i>			
α -pinene*	18.5 \pm 3.1	3.9 \pm 2.1	393.6 \pm 220.0
camphene	0.1 \pm 0.1	n.d.	32.8 \pm 25.4
sabinene	0.6 \pm 0.6	n.d.	393.3 \pm 268.0
β -pinene*	0.4 \pm 0.4	0.1 \pm 0.1	102.5 \pm 68.2
β -myrcene	19.9 \pm 6.2	7.3 \pm 4.1	13.0 \pm 2.7
α -terpinene	n.d.	n.d.	4.9 \pm 2.9
p-cymene*	3.5 \pm 2.0	3.4 \pm 1.1	8.4 \pm 3.6
Limonene*	2.8 \pm 1.7	4.7 \pm 1.9	72.8 \pm 43.9
β -ocimene (Z)	n.d.	2.1 \pm 1.6	n.d.
β -ocimene (E)	n.d.	10.9 \pm 4.6	0.4 \pm 0.4
γ -terpinene	n.d.	n.d.	12.3 \pm 6.8
sabinene hydrate	n.d.	n.d.	0.4 \pm 0.3
E-DMNT	0.5 \pm 0.5	2.0 \pm 1.8	n.d.
linalool	n.d.	3.4 \pm 3.4	3.4 \pm 2.4
allo-ocimene	n.d.	0.3 \pm 0.3	0.2 \pm 0.2
camphor	n.d.	n.d.	2.1 \pm 1.3
pinocarvone	n.d.	n.d.	5.3 \pm 3.6
borneol	0.4 \pm 0.4	0.6 \pm 0.6	40.1 \pm 20.9
terpinen-4-ol	n.d.	n.d.	1.1 \pm 0.5
myrtenal	n.d.	n.d.	4.9 \pm 3.1
verbenone	n.d.	n.d.	0.9 \pm 0.5
<i>Sesquiterpenes</i>			
β -caryophyllene	3.9 \pm 3.9	n.d.	n.d.
α -bergamotene (Z)	0.1 \pm 0.1	n.d.	0.7 \pm 0.7
<i>Other BVOC</i>			
benzaldehyde	73.6 \pm 11.3	89.1 \pm 49.3	42.2 \pm 8.3
benzeneacetaldehyde	2.1 \pm 0.4	1.2 \pm 1.1	0.8 \pm 0.2
acetophenone	83.6 \pm 14.2	90.2 \pm 36.0	38.1 \pm 5.7
methyl salicylate	2.6 \pm 2.6	2.7 \pm 2.5	0.4 \pm 0.4

435 n.d. = not detected, E-DMNT = (E)-4,8-Dimethyl-1,3,7-nonatriene

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