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1 **A screening analysis of foliar terpene emissions of 36 rainforest tree species in French Guiana**
2 **and their relationships with seasonality**

3
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23
24 **Abstract**

25 **Key message** Inventory and Seasonal Variation of Terpene Emissions from Tropical Trees in French Guiana:
26 **Implications for Environmental and Ecological Roles.**

27 **Abstract** A limited understanding of foliar terpene emissions from different tree species is prominent in diverse tropical
28 forests. We conducted a study in French Guiana, screening BVOC emissions from 36 tropical woody species. We focused
29 on 32 species in the dry season and 33 in the wet season, documenting terpene emissions for the first time in some of these
30 tree species. Our findings show that 93.8% emitted terpenes in the dry season, while only 33.3% did so in the wet season.
31 Terpene emissions ranged from 0.01-80.9 µg g⁻¹ h⁻¹ in the dry season and 0-11.7 µg g⁻¹ h⁻¹ in the wet season, consistent
32 with previous reports. We identified and quantified 23 terpene compounds, including 19 monoterpenes and 4
33 sesquiterpenes. Additionally, 2 non-terpenoid compounds were detected: 2,2,4,6,6-pentamethylheptane (with no detected
34 emissions in the dry season) and toluene. Among the monoterpenes, the most abundant were α-terpinolene, limonene, α-
35 pinene, β-ocimene, and sabinene. As for sesquiterpenes, β-caryophyllene, α-caryophyllene, and α-copaene were observed
36 during the dry season, while during the wet season, α-terpinolene predominated, followed by limonene, α-pinene, sabinene,
37 β-caryophyllene, and α-copaene. Isoprene was detected in most of the species studied in both seasons.

38 Sesquiterpene emissions displayed a notable phylogenetic pattern, whereas total terpenes and monoterpenes did not;
39 however, total terpenes and monoterpenes exhibited a significant seasonal influence.

40 Our study demonstrates that seasonality strongly influences BVOC production in tropical trees, with higher emissions in
41 the dry season. These findings imply that various factors and conditions influence tree emissions in this tropical forest,
42 affecting their ecological, environmental, and climatic roles, as well as the implementation of atmospheric chemistry
43 models.

44

45 **Keywords** biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOCs) emissions · chemical diversity · monoterpenes · sesquiterpenes ·
46 tropical forest · seasonality

47

48 **Introduction**

49 Biogenic Volatile Organic Compounds (BVOCs), which include a variety of organic compounds, are emitted by various
50 organisms such as bacteria, fungi, marine life, plants, and even humans (Wheatley 2002; Morath et al. 2012; Bourtsoukidis
51 et al. 2018; Lawson et al. 2020; Edtbauer et al. 2021). On the other hand, phyllospheric emissions, originating from the leaf
52 surface, also contribute to BVOC emissions, with processes like oxidation and adsorption/desorption playing significant
53 roles (Kembel et al. 2014; Koskella 2020; Farré-Armengol et al. 2016; Kesselmeier et al. 1999; Rundell et al. 2015). These
54 compounds range from short-chain methanol (with C1) to longer-chain hemiterpenes like isoprene (with C5), terpenes like
55 monoterpenes (MTs, with C10), sesquiterpenes (SQTs, with C15), and diterpenes (DTs, with C20) exhibiting a wide array
56 of functional groups (Kesselmeier and Staudt 1999; Heiden et al. 1999; Guenther 2013; Yáñez-Serrano et al. 2020). Among
57 BVOCs, terpenoids, including hemiterpenes, have garnered considerable attention in ecophysiology studies (Llusia and
58 Peñuelas 2000; Peñuelas et al. 2005; Owen and Peñuelas 2005; Yáñez-Serrano et al. 2018; Misztal et al. 2015).

59 The production and release of BVOCs are influenced by both biotic and abiotic factors. Biotic factors involve
60 interactions with other organisms (Kegge and Pierik 2010), while abiotic factors include environmental conditions like air
61 temperature, humidity, light intensity, water availability, and seasonal variations (Dement et al. 1975; Tingey et al. 1980;
62 Hansted et al. 1994; Llusia and Peñuelas 1999; Staudt and Seufert 1995; Loreto et al. 1996; Seufert 1997; Jardine et al.
63 2020; Peñuelas and Llusia 1997, 1999). Air temperature, particularly crucial for regulating BVOC emissions, affects
64 enzymatic reactions involved in BVOC biosynthesis and their diffusion in biological tissues (Llusia and Peñuelas 2000).
65 Temperature not only influences the emission rates of MTs but also affects their composition, acting as a "thermometer" to
66 measure these changes. Changes in monoterpene composition, especially the increase in β -ocimenes and the decrease in α -
67 pinene, may reflect the response of plants to thermal stress and their ability to adapt to warmer conditions (Jardine et al.
68 2017). Additionally, air humidity, light intensity and quality, water availability, and seasonal changes contribute to the
69 complex dynamics of BVOC production and emission (Kuhn et al. 2002; Holzinger et al. 2000; Jardine et al. 2015, 2020).

70 The impacts of these factors on BVOCs can vary depending on the specific climatic zone and the plant species present.
71 Notably, even within the same plant species, different populations or individuals can display adaptations to thrive in diverse
72 climatic conditions, showcasing their capacity to adjust BVOC production and emission in response to environmental
73 changes (Kigathi et al., 2019; Picazo-Aragonés et al., 2020).

74 BVOCs play essential ecological roles, including plant defense mechanisms, plant-insect interactions, and ecosystem
75 biodiversity maintenance (Raguso 2008; Farré-Armengol et al. 2015; Borges et al. 2008; Peñuelas and Llusià 2001;
76 Pichersky and Gershenzon 2002; Vickers et al. 2009). They can act as antioxidants, protect against oxidative stress, and aid
77 in coping with environmental stressors like heat damage (Sharkey and Singsaas 1995; Peñuelas and Llusià 2002; Loreto et
78 al. 2004; Munné-Bosch et al. 2004; Copolovici et al. 2005; Peñuelas et al. 2005; Medori et al. 2012; Centrito et al. 2014;
79 Salomon et al. 2016; Dumanovic et al. 2021), protecting cell membranes from peroxidation and reactive oxygen species
80 (Loreto and Velikova 2001; Loreto et al. 2004; Munné-Bosch et al. 2004; Llusià et al. 2005; Peñuelas and Munné-Bosch
81 2005; Salomon et al. 2016; Dumanovic et al. 2021), providing a competitive advantage in harsh environments. This
82 protective capacity of BVOCs would explain that, despite the adverse environmental conditions that negatively affect
83 photosynthesis and transpiration, it does not result in a reduction in the production and emission rates of BVOCs. Isoprene,
84 for instance, plays a crucial role in tropical forest survival under climatic stress (Taylor et al. 2018), underscoring the
85 ecological importance of BVOC emissions. The opportunistic emissions hypothesis sees these functions as evolved from
86 these volatile compounds once they are byproducts of primary metabolism (Peñuelas and Llusià 2004; Owen and Peñuelas
87 2005).

88 Moreover, BVOC emissions significantly affect atmospheric chemistry and climate by influencing aerosol formation,
89 cloud formation, precipitation patterns, and temperature regulation (Andreae and Crutzen 1997; Singh and Zimmerman
90 1992; Kulmala et al. 2009; Peñuelas and Staudt 2010). They also have implications for air quality, reacting with other
91 pollutants to form secondary pollutants like tropospheric ozone formation and particulate matter (Laothawornkitkul et al.
92 2009).

93 In tropical forests such as French Guiana's, terpene production and emission rates are likely to vary seasonally in
94 response to temperature and water availability fluctuations. Considering their ecological significance in tropical forests and
95 their influence on atmospheric chemistry and climate, coupled with the scarcity of information regarding their emissions
96 from tropical plant species (Courtois et al., 2009, 2016; Alves et al., 2016; Mu et al., 2022; Bourtsoukidis et al., 2024), our
97 study was prompted.

98 Thus, our objective is twofold: (i) to analyze terpene emissions from various tree species in French Guiana, including
99 those that have not been previously studied (Table S8), and (ii) to investigate the influence of seasonality on the production
100 and emission rates of any BVOCs, specifically comparing the dry and wet seasons.

102 **Materials and methods**

103 **Site description and sampling**

104 The screening campaign was conducted in French Guiana on the Guiana Shield, one of three South American cratons
105 (Gibbs and Barron 1993) (Fig. 1) and part of the Amazonian rainforest, one of the largest undisturbed areas of tropical
106 forest in the world (Hansen et al. 2013). This tropical region rests on a Precambrian geological substrate that is particularly
107 low in phosphorus content, especially if compared to the generally younger, nutrient-rich soils of western Amazonia
108 (Hammond 2005; Grau et al. 2017). Fieldwork was performed at two research stations, Nouragues (Bongers 2001)
109 (04°05'N, 52°40'W) and Paracou (Gourlet-Fleury et al. 2004) (05°18'N, 52°53'W) in well-conserved old-growth tropical
110 forests. Sampling was conducted in 2015 on May 28–June 11 in Paracou and June 14–July 1 in Nouragues (wet season),
111 and on October 5–22 in Paracou and October 24–November 8 in Nouragues (dry season).

112 Mean annual air temperature is 26°C (Bongers 2001; Gourlet-Fleury et al. 2004), and precipitation is similar, although
113 slightly lower in Paracou (annual average of 2990 and 3100 mm in Paracou and Nouragues, respectively; Bongers 2001;
114 Aguilos et al. 2019).

115 The tropical climate of French Guiana is characterized by important interannual variability in the short dry seasons,
116 with the amount of precipitation between August and November varying from 102.2 to 532.0 mm, and long wet seasons
117 lasting from December to July, with cumulative annual rainfall varying from 1900 to 2800 mm (Aguilos et al. 2018). This
118 is due to the north/south movement of the Inter-Tropical Convergence Zone (Aceituno et al. 2009).

119 Soil water content and nutrient availabilities vary with topographical position in this French Guianese tropical forests
120 (Epron et al. 2006; Ferry et al. 2010; Stahl et al. 2011; Allié et al. 2015). Local spatial variation (less than 200 m) creates
121 specific habitats that differ in terms of soil characteristics, aboveground vegetation (Sabatier et al. 1997) and forest
122 structure (Baraloto et al. 2007; Allié et al. 2015) and dynamics (Ferry et al. 2010; Courtois et al. 2018).

123 Nouragues has sandy soils of variable depth originating from weathered granite (van der Meer and Bongers 1996),
124 while Paracou has shale floors with pegmatite veins of a Precambrian metamorphic formation known as the Bonidoro
125 series (Epron et al. 2006). The soils of both sites are classified as nutrient-poor Acrisols (FAO-ISRIC-ISSS 1998)
126 (Nachtergaele et al. 2000).

127 The selected trees were among the most abundant and mature tree species in the two studied areas (Table S1, Verryckx
128 et al. 2022). We also used a fully resolved and dated Bayesian phylogeny, previously derived at the sampling sites
129 (Baraloto et al. 2012). In addition to the previously mentioned selection criteria, it was taken into account that they were
130 adult trees and of a similar diameter depending on the species. Thirty-six tree species were included in the sampling.
131 Among these, 32 species were sampled during the dry season, while 33 species were sampled during the wet season
132 (Figures 2 and 3; Table S1 and S7). The number of samples per species is indicated in Table S7. Certain species could not
133 be sampled during specific seasons. In the dry season, *Carapa surinamensis*, *Dipteryx odorata*, *Pouteria eugeniifolia*, and

134 *Vochysia sabatieri* were not sampled. In the wet season, *Tetragastris panamensis*, *Moronobea coccinea*, and *Sympomia*
135 *globulifera* could not be sampled. This discrepancy arises because the leaves of these species were not in ideal conditions to
136 be sampled (Table S7). Additionally, the species names were verified based on the list published in Stegeé et al. (2019) (see
137 Table S8). It should be noted that in this list, *Aniba roseaodora* appears as *A. rosiodora*, *Eugenia culcullata* as *E. cucullata*,
138 and *Tetragastris panamensis* is not included.

139 To obtain the branches that were used for perform gas exchange measurements and collect BVOC samples, we
140 collaborated with expert tree climbers to collect sunlit branches between 1 and 2 meters long. Two branches were cut from
141 each sampled tree. To avoid cavitation, we immediately immersed approximately 20 cm of the cut end in water, cutting
142 about 7 cm of the branch into the water. For transport to the laboratory, we carefully placed the harvested branches in
143 plastic bags with damp paper (Verryckt et al. 2020ab). Throughout the sampling process, the branches remained submerged
144 in water. Transport time from the forest to the laboratory varied depending on the location. In Nouragues it ranged between
145 20 and 30 minutes, while in Paracou it lasted between 1 and 2 hours. We studied the variation of the effects of branch
146 excision and transport among branches at the different heights in the canopy. When the branch had acclimated to its new
147 environmental conditions—which took on average 20 min—light-saturated leaf net photosynthetic rates did not
148 significantly differ between the excised and intact branches. We therefore conclude that branch excision did not affect the
149 measurement of gas exchange, provided that the branch is recut under water and is allowed sufficient time to acclimate to
150 its new environmental conditions, as we did (Verryckt et al. 2020ab).

151 Upon arrival at the laboratory, we meticulously selected twigs with the seemingly healthiest leaves, following the
152 procedure mentioned earlier. Subsequently, these selected twigs were recut underwater at the base to prevent cavitation and
153 then immersed in plastic cups filled with water. To ensure stability during the acclimatization period, they were sealed
154 inside transparent plastic bags for approximately 24 hours at 23-25 °C (Niinemets et al. 2005, 2009; Llusià et al. 2010a,
155 2014). For VOC sampling, three twigs were collected from each branch as replicates. Thus, a total of 6 twigs per tree were
156 sampled. All leaf handling steps were carried out with utmost care to avoid causing wounds or other alterations that could
157 lead to artifacts in VOC emission determination. Tests were conducted to compare the response of leaves on cut branches
158 with those on uncut branches, and it was observed that the differences in photosynthetic activity and transpiration were not
159 significant (Verryckt et al. 2020a, 2021).

160 Furthermore, samples without leaves were taken, thus characterizing the contribution of VOCs from the sampling
161 system. These samples obtained from the system were used as blanks, subtracted from those obtained with leaves in the
162 calculations described later on.

163

164

165

166 **Soil water content and soil temperature**

167 Soil water content and temperature were measured in the same BVOC sampling period, at a depth of 10 cm at five points in
168 the 50x50 m tree sample plots. Soil moisture was measured with an HH2 soil moisture meter connected to an ML2x soil
169 moisture sensor (Delta-T Devices Ltd, Cambridge, England), while soil temperature was measured with a digital soil
170 thermometer (TO 15, Jules Richard instruments, Argenteuil, France) (Table S2).

171
172 **Sampling of BVOC emissions**

173 Measurements of BVOC emissions were conducted in the laboratory on a pre-cut branch with attached leaves, as
174 previously mentioned. These measurements were carried out using a Licor-6400XT gas-exchange system coupled with a
175 leaf chamber equipped with environmental control capabilities.

176 All tubes and accessories used for BVOC sampling were constructed of PFA Teflon (Cole Parmer, USA).
177 Hydrocarbon-free ambient air was delivered to the gas inlet of the LI-6400XT using a capillary-grade hydrocarbon trap
178 (Restek, USA). BVOC emissions were measured at a quantum flux density of 1000 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ under standard
179 temperature conditions (30°C) with controlled CO₂ concentrations of 400 ppm. Given that, all tree species had leaves with a
180 surface area greater than that of the chamber surface; the leaves were clamped on an area of the limb without prominent
181 ribs. The 6400-40 is designed with a uniform, integrated LED light source and PAM fluorimeter that easily attaches to the
182 LI-6400XT sensor head, giving the user complete control of the environment surrounding the 2-cm² leaf area. The flow in
183 the cuvette was an average of 675 ml min⁻¹ in the two seasons.

184 The air exiting the cuvette was pumped through custom-made sampling tubes, comprised of stainless steel tubes (89
185 mm in length and 6.4 mm in external diameter), which were equipped with adsorbents (115 mg of Tenax® TA and 230 mg
186 of SulfiCarb®). These tubes were separated by sorbent-retaining springs, fixed using gauze-retaining springs, and sealed
187 with airtight caps (Markes International Inc., Wilmington, USA). Air samples were collected using a Q_{max} air-sampling
188 pump (Supelco, Bellefonte, Pennsylvania). The flow was measured with a Bios Defender 510 flowmeter (Bios International
189 Corporation, Butler, USA) and adjusted with a valve. The sampling time was 20 min and the flow was 360 \pm 3 mL min⁻¹.
190 The hydrophobic properties of the activated adsorbents minimized any sample displacement by water. The terpenes were
191 not chemically transformed in these tubes, as demonstrated by reference to trapped standards (α -pinene, β -pinene,
192 camphene, myrcene, *p*-cymene, limonene, sabinene, camphor, α -humulene and dodecane). Prior to terpene sampling, the
193 tubes were conditioned twice for 30 min at 350°C with a stream of 100 mL min⁻¹ of purified helium. The trapping and
194 desorption efficiency of standards such as α -pinene, β -pinene and limonene was 99%. Blank samples of air with no plants
195 in the cuvette were collected in the tubes for 20 min immediately before each measurement. The terpene content of the
196 blank samples was subtracted from the samples collected from plants in order to calculate the rates of terpene emission.

197 All the leaves used for VOC sampling were collected and the specific leaf area (SLA) was obtained by dividing the
198 fresh leaf area by its dry weight. Leaf area was measured with the LI-3100C Leaf Area Meter (LI-COR, Lincoln, NE,
199 USA), after which the leaves were dried for at least 48 h and weighed.

200

201 **BVOC analysis**

202 The emitted BVOCs trapped in the sorbent tubes were sampled using an automatic sample processor (TD Auto sampler,
203 Series 2 Ultra, Markes International Inc. Wilmington, USA) and thermally desorbed using a coupled injector with a
204 cryotrap (Unity, Series 2, Markes International Inc. Wilmington, USA) connected to a Gas Chromatograph (7890A, Agilent
205 Technologies, Santa Clara, USA) with a mass spectrometer detector (5975C inert MSD with Triple-Axis Detector, Agilent
206 Technologies). A full-scan (between 35 to 350 m/z) method was used in the chromatographic analyses.

207 Pre-desorption conditions consisted of a pre-purge time of 0.1 min, with a split of 20 mL min⁻¹, and a dry purge of 2
208 min. Then, BVOCs were desorbed with a flow path temperature of 200 °C, minimum carrier pressure of 0.5 KPa, and a GC
209 cycle time of 30 min, optimal time to recover maximum sample; the standby split was 25 mL min⁻¹. Sample desorption
210 time was 30 min at 320 °C with the trap maintained in-line, with a flow rate of 50 mL min⁻¹ and a split of 2 mL min⁻¹; the
211 cryotrap low temperature was -25 °C. Prior to heating, traps were held in a pre-cryotrap fire purge for 2 min. The cryotrap
212 flow rate was 50 mL min⁻¹, with a split of 10 mL min⁻¹, and the heating rate was 40 °C s⁻¹ to a cryotrap high of 320 °C
213 maintained for 7 min, with a split of 5 mL min⁻¹.

214 Then, the cryofocused desorbed samples were injected into a GC column (Agilent Tech., HP 5MS, 30 m x 0.25 µm x
215 0.25 mm) using a transfer line at 250°C. Following sample injection at 35 °C (initial time: 3 min), the column temperature
216 was increased stepwise by 15 °C min⁻¹ to 150 °C, by 50 °C min⁻¹ to 250 °C for 5 min, and by 30 °C min⁻¹ to 280 °C for 5
217 min, and was maintained at each time for 5 min. The total run time was 30 min, the helium column flow rate was 1 mL
218 min⁻¹.

219

220 **Terpene identification and quantification**

221 Terpene identification was performed by comparing the derived mass spectra with published results (Wiley275 and Nist05a
222 libraries) and known standards such as those mentioned below for quantification. Quantification of peaks was conducted
223 using the fragmentation product with mass 93 (Blanch et al. 2012; Llusia et al. 2012; Hellén et al. 2024), while calibration
224 curves were prepared using commercial standards for some of the most abundant recorded compounds: four monoterpenes
225 (α-pinene, 3-carene, β-pinene and limonene) and one sesquiterpene (α-caryophyllene) (Fluka Chemie AG, Buchs,
226 Switzerland). These standards were adsorbed on cartridges similar to those used for the samples by means of a valve
227 coupled to the chromatograph and a flow of Helium 5.0 like the one used for the flows generated by the Q_{max} pump. They

were then desorbed and analysed following the same protocol as used for the samples. Terpene calibration curves for signals and concentrations were always highly correlated ($r^2 \geq 0.95$) and the sensitivity of the most abundant terpenes were similar (differences were < 5%). The response factor for the MTs was an average of the standard MTs and only that of the α -caryophyllene for the sesquiterpenes. We estimate a 5% error in the quantification given by the response variation of each standard with respect to each other. For isoprene, we used a Linde gas standard (1 ppm) of which we made three dilutions to obtain its calibration curve.

To prepare the liquid standards, three different dilutions were made: 1 μ L of the pure standard was diluted in 1000 μ L of pentane and then 100 μ L of this standard were taken and diluted in another 1000 μ L of pentane. From this second dilution another 100 μ L were taken and diluted in 1000 μ L of pentane.

In addition, we also prepared standards from a standard at 500 ppb of a 50-L bottle (Reimer Environmental, Inc., Miami, USA). We injected 15, 25 and 35 mL into three sampling tubes using the same valve as mentioned above. In each sequence (of 30 tubes) of analysis, a series of three standards (one for each concentration) of the gas standard were added at the beginning, and at the end of series 3 (one for each concentration) of the liquid standard (previously gassed). To avoid interference in samples due to contamination, the standards were arranged from lowest to highest concentrations. In addition, the analysis of the sequences always started with an empty tube followed by a tube with the same adsorbents taken from the field but not sampled to test for possible contamination during the process.

To calculate the micrograms (μ g) of terpenes per gram (g) of dry matter and per hour, we used the following formula:

$$[(AUs / svb) - (AUb / svb)] \times [(rf \times Fch \times 60 \text{ min}) / (AUrf \times g \text{ d.m.} \times st)] \quad \text{Equ. 1.}$$

In this equation, the variables represent the following:

- AUs and Aub: Arbitrary units of area of the air sampled from the cuvette and of the blank air sample (area units).
- Svs and svb: Volume of air sampled from the cuvette with leaves and as blank (milliliters, mL).
- rf: Response factor calculated from the calibration curves (micrograms, μ g).
- Fch: Flow rate in the sampling chamber (milliliters per minute, mL min^{-1}).
- AUrf: Arbitrary units of area corresponding to the response factor (arbitrary units).
- g d.m.: Grams of dry matter (g).
- st: Sampling time (minutes, min).

The Shapiro-Wilk test ($N > 30$) showed that the data of the variables (i.e. emissions of total BVOCs, monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes) were normally distributed ($P > 0.05$).

We used Bayesian phylogenetic linear mixed-effects models implemented in the MCMCglmm R package (Hadfield 2010) (Table S6) to test for the effects of season while controlling for the potential effects of intraspecific plasticity and

259 phylogenetic ancestry on the foliar variables. In these analyses season was included as a fixed factor, and phylogenetic
260 relationships and species identities as random factors. The phylogenetic term accounted for the variability related with
261 shared ancestry, while the species term accounted for species-specific traits independent of shared ancestry. Thus, both
262 random factors accounted for the variance explained by heritability and by the plastic expression of species' emission
263 capacities.

264 We computed the phylogenetic signal as Pagel's λ to assess the importance of phylogenetic ancestry on the emission of
265 BVOCs. The corresponding P -values were based on the variance in phylogenetically independent contrasts relative to tip-
266 shuffling randomization, as implemented in the *phylosig* function in the R *phytools* package (Revell 2012). Pagel's λ (1999)
267 provides a quantitative phylogenetic measure in which λ is a scaling parameter for the correlations between species in
268 relation to the correlation expected under Brownian evolution. λ has a natural scale between zero (no correlation between
269 species) and 1.0 (correlation between species equal to the expected Brownian correlation). λ itself is not a correlation but,
270 rather, a scaling factor for a correlation, so $\lambda > 1.0$ is theoretically possible. However, depending on the structure of the
271 tree, $\lambda >> 1.0$ is not usually defined.

272 Terpene emission rates were expressed as $\mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{ d.m. h}^{-1}$.

273

274 **Results**

275 **Environmental conditions**

276 The French Guiana monthly average rainfall in 2015 was 237 ± 44 mm during the wet season (December–August) and 47.5 ± 11.1 mm during the dry season (September–November), with the maximum rainfall falling in May (532 mm) and the minimum in October (33 mm). The field campaign during the dry season was conducted with 32.8 mm of rainfall. Mean air temperature during the rainy season was 27–28°C, with a maximum of 28°C in December. During the dry season the maximum temperatures were 28–28.5°C, with minimum temperatures recorded in February (26.5°C). The overall air temperature remains steady throughout the year in French Guiana.

277 Soil water content and temperature values correspond to measurements made in the experimental plots. The average soil water content was $20.2 \pm 0.3\%$ in the dry season and $32.3 \pm 0.2\%$ in the wet season (Fig. 1 and Table S2). The average soil temperature in the dry season was $26.5 \pm 0.1^\circ\text{C}$ and in wet season $23.7 \pm 0.01^\circ\text{C}$ (Fig. 1 and Table S2).

285

286 **BVOC emission rates**

287 Total BVOC emissions varied from 0.01 to $80.9 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{ d.m. h}^{-1}$ in the dry season and from 0 to $11.7 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{ d.m. h}^{-1}$ in the wet season, indicating considerable variation based on environmental conditions (Fig. 2, 3, 4, and S1, and Table S3 and S4). The values for total BVOCs they were 5.7 ± 0.6 and $1.3 \pm 0.7 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{ d.m. h}^{-1}$ while, for total terpenes were 5.4 ± 0.6 and $0.5 \pm 0.7 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{ d.m. h}^{-1}$, in dry and wet season respectively. The majority of both total BVOCs and terpenes were

291 mainly emitted during the dry season (see Figs. 4 and S1). These differences were statistically significant, with ANOVA
292 analysis showing $P < 0.0001$. Sample sizes were 285 in the dry season and 219 in the wet season. Of the monoterpenes, the
293 most abundant were α -terpinolene, limonene, α -pinene, t- β -ocimene and sabinene. Of the sesquiterpenes, β -caryophyllene,
294 α -caryophyllene and α -copaene were observed during the dry season, while during the wet season, α -terpinolene
295 predominated, followed by limonene, α -pinene, sabinene, β -caryophyllene and α -copaene (Figs. 3A, 4 and Table S3).
296 Isoprene was detected in most of the species studied in both seasons (Figs. 3B, 4 and S1, and Table S3). However, in three
297 tree species (*Gustavia hexapétala* (1.8 ± 1.6 vs $0 \pm 0 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{d.m. h}^{-1}$), *Eugenia culcullata* (3.1 ± 1.1 vs $0.4 \pm 0.1 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{d.m. h}^{-1}$)
298 and *Dycorinia guianensis* (1.2 ± 0.8 vs $0 \pm 0 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{d.m. h}^{-1}$)) was significantly higher in the wet season than in the dry
299 season ($P < 0.01$). Only *Aniba rosaeodora* emitted more isoprene in the dry season than in the wet season (2.2 ± 2.0 vs $0 \pm$
300 $0 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{d.m. h}^{-1}$) (Fig. 3B).

301 Among the BVOCs detected, the main non-terpenoid compounds were 2,2,4,6,6-pentamethyl heptane (with no detected
302 emissions in the dry season and $0.3 \pm 0.1 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{d.m. h}^{-1}$ in the wet season) and toluene ($0.1 \pm 0.02 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{d.m. h}^{-1}$ in the dry
303 season and $0.012 \pm 0.007 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{d.m. h}^{-1}$ in the wet season) (Fig. 4 and Table S4). Notably, 2,2,4,6,6-pentamethyl heptane
304 exhibited a strong correlation with isoprene during the wet season ($r^2 = 0.23$, $P < 0.0001$, $N = 219$), while toluene showed a
305 correlation with α -pinene during the dry season ($r^2 = 0.15$, $P < 0.01$, $N = 285$).

306 The emission rates of the terpenes and toluene followed a similar pattern to the total BVOCs, except for 2,2,4,6,6-
307 pentamethyl heptane, which was primarily emitted during the wet season (Fig. 4 and Table S4). Among the emitted
308 BVOCs, α -terpinolene, limonene, α -pinene, t- β -ocimene (MT), β -caryophyllene, and α -caryophyllene (SQT) were the most
309 abundant, especially in the dry season (Fig. 3A and 4). Additionally, there was a group of unidentified sesquiterpenes
310 emitted, collectively surpassing the previously mentioned BVOCs, also in the dry season (Fig. 3A).

311 Figure 2 displays all the tree species studied along with their average terpene emissions during both the dry and wet
312 seasons. Among these species, 27.6% were classified as high terpene emitters, 51.7% as intermediate emitters, and 20.7%
313 as low emitters. The remaining species were categorized as very low emitters (Fig. 2A). Notably, 90.6% of the species
314 emitted terpenes during the dry season, whereas only 36.4% emitted terpenes during the wet season. The percentages for
315 monoterpenes mirrored those of the total terpenes. However, sesquiterpenes were emitted by 75% of the species in the dry
316 season and only by 15.6% in the wet season (Figs. 2 and 3).

317 Specifically, 2,2,4,6,6-pentamethyl heptane was emitted by 31.3% of the tree species exclusively during the wet season,
318 while toluene was emitted by 37.5% of the species during the dry season and by 6.3% of the species during the wet season
319 (Table S4). Monoterpenes generally predominated over sesquiterpenes, except in the case of the tree species *Eperua*
320 *grandiflora* (Fig. 2B, C). Notably, a significant phylogenetic signal, as assessed by Pagel's λ , was observed only for
321 sesquiterpenes (Table S5).

322 **Discussion**

323 Our results emphasized the species-specificity of BVOC emissions and the varying tree species responses to seasonal and
324 environmental conditions (Gomes-Alves et al. 2022; Khun et al. 2002; Mishra and Sinha 2020). The majority of the species
325 emitted terpenes, isoprene, and other BVOCs (Figs. 2 and 3; Table S3). However, the emitted quantities were relatively low
326 compared to similar studies in other ecosystems such as the Mediterranean forests (Llusia et al. 2013) but comparable to
327 those observed in analogous tropical environments (Llusia et al. 2010a, 2014). In the Amazon rainforest, various studies
328 have explored BVOC emissions and their fluctuations. Jardine et al. (2015) studied the speciation of 12 monoterpenes and
329 their vertically resolved ambient air mixing ratios in a central Amazon rainforest and their reactive potential of some of
330 them. Specifically, they observed the highly reactive cis- β -ocimene (160 ppt), trans- β -ocimene (79 ppt) and terpinolene (32
331 ppt), which represented approximately 21% of the total monoterpene composition and 55% of the rate of ozonolysis of
332 monoterpenes from the upper part of the canopy. Leaf-level emissions of highly reactive monoterpenes accounted for up to
333 1.9% of photosynthesis, confirming light-dependent emissions in several genera of Amazonian trees, corroborating the
334 present study accounting the qualitatively results. Jardine et al. (2017) utilized monoterpenes as an indicator to gauge the
335 central Amazon rainforest's response to climate warming and found that monoterpene emissions increase with temperature,
336 especially β -ocymene, corroborating our results of higher emissions in the dry season (Figs. 3A, 4, S1 and Tables S3 and
337 S4). And in another study (Yáñez-Serrano et al., 2018), conducted in the Amazon rainforest, the chemical speciation of
338 monoterpenes, was investigated using samples collected during the dry season of October 2015 at the Amazon Tall Tower
339 Observatory (ATTO). A distinct differentiation in chemical composition between day and night was found, with α -pinene
340 being more abundant during the day and limonene predominating at night. Reactivity calculations revealed that higher
341 abundance does not always correlate with greater reactivity, and modeling simulations indicated the need for further
342 research to fully understand the processes of monoterpene exchange in the tropical forest canopy. This study highlights the
343 importance of chemical speciation in understanding the role of monoterpenes in atmospheric chemistry and the carbon
344 cycle in tropical forest ecosystems. Furthermore, Byron et al. (2022) investigated the chemical speciation of chiral
345 monoterpenes in a tropical rainforest ecosystem, revealing distinct diel emission peaks and shifts in emissions in response
346 to drought conditions. Their findings emphasize the importance of considering enantiomeric distribution in understanding
347 monoterpene emission mechanisms and predicting atmospheric feedbacks in forest ecosystems, which complements our
348 understanding of BVOC emissions.

349 Gomes-Alves et al. (2022) investigated the variability of isoprenoid emission patterns, including isoprene, in
350 Amazonian ecosystems in response to ecophysiological and environmental factors. They conducted measurements of
351 isoprenoid emission capacities across seasons and environmental gradients for three dominant tree species in the central
352 Amazon. Contrary to the common perception that isoprene emissions predominantly occur under water stress and high
353 temperatures, their results align with those of Gomes-Alves et al. (2022), who documented higher isoprene emissions

354 during the wet season, challenging previous assumptions (Taylor et al. 2018) across all tree species. They suggested that
355 the decreased emissions during the dry season could represent a plastic response to escalating abiotic stress, such as heat
356 and drought, coupled with reduced substrate availability for isoprenoid synthesis. The study proposed that shifts in
357 emission composition, characterized by elevated isoprene emissions during the wet season, might serve as a physiological
358 adaptation to optimize plant performance under prevailing wet season conditions. These findings contrast with the higher
359 terpene emissions observed in the driest and hottest seasons, indicating potential differences in emission behavior between
360 isoprene and other isoprenoids, necessitating separate consideration in seasonal emission studies.

361 In their study, Gomes-Alves et al. (2022) noted a significant decrease in isoprenoid emission capacity during the
362 transition from the wet to the dry season, coinciding with heightened abiotic stress due to heat and drought in the Amazon
363 rainforest. Moreover, they observed an increase in emissions of heavier isoprenoids, such as monoterpenes and
364 sesquiterpenes, during this seasonal transition, suggesting a plastic response of plants to changing conditions. This
365 adaptation in the composition of isoprenoid emissions may represent a strategy to mitigate abiotic stress and sustain
366 essential plant functions. Additionally, previous research has demonstrated the variability of plant responses in isoprenoid
367 emission rates in relation to climatic and ecological factors (Staudt et al. 2017). It has also been observed that moderate
368 drought can lead to an increase in isoprenoid emission rates as plants adapt to water stress (Dani et al., 2014). However,
369 under conditions of extreme drought, these rates have been shown to decline substantially (Llusia and Peñuelas, 1998).

370 Furthermore, the study by Byron et al. (2022) examined the response of monoterpene emissions to drought in a tropical
371 rainforest ecosystem. They found that, during a controlled drought experiment, monoterpene emissions exhibited distinct
372 diurnal peaks and changes in the composition of α -pinene enantiomers. Additionally, as drought progressed, the emission
373 source of (-)- α -pinene shifted towards storage pools, promoting cloud formation. This alteration in monoterpene emission
374 composition may be linked to the plant's ability to adapt to water and thermal stress, supporting the hypothesis of a plastic
375 response to drought.

376 In summary, these findings suggest that plants can adjust their terpene emissions, including isoprenoids, as an adaptive
377 strategy to cope with abiotic stress during the dry season in tropical rainforests. The ability to modulate the composition of
378 terpene emissions could have significant implications for atmospheric chemistry and climate feedback processes in these
379 ecosystems.

380 Given the present climate change scenario with altered rainfall patterns (Dore 2005), and recognizing that moderate
381 drought conditions amplify BVOC emissions (Niinemets 2010), a negative feedback effect might occur, particularly
382 regarding increased aridity. During moderate drought conditions, heightened terpenes in the atmosphere could potentially
383 enhance rainfall, alleviating, to some degree, the detrimental impacts of climate change in these areas (Llusia and Peñuelas
384 1998; Llusia et al. 2006, 2008, 2010b; Blanch et al. 2007, 2009).

385 It is noteworthy that non-terpene compounds like toluene and 2,2,4,6,6-pentamethyl heptane were detected (Heiden et
386 al. 1999; Zhiqun et al. 2017; Misztal et al. 2015). α -Pinene emission rates also showed a correlation with these factors,
387 especially during the dry season (Fig. 4). This study also presents the first report of 2,2,4,6,6-pentamethyl heptane emission
388 from the leaves of several tropical tree species (Khun et al. 2002; Courtois et al. 2009). This BVOC is known to have
389 allopathic effects, implying a role in plant defense (Zhiqun et al. 2017).

390 BVOC emissions are thus sensitive to taxonomy and environmental factors, including temperature, light, and moisture
391 availability. Considering the increasing occurrence of drought periods in tropical areas due to climate change,
392 understanding the potential implications for BVOC emissions is crucial. Drought stress can significantly affect plant
393 physiology and metabolism, potentially altering the quantity and composition of BVOC emissions.

394 The findings of this study contribute to the characterization of BVOC emissions from some tropical tree species and,
395 therefore, to our understanding of the complex interactions between climate change, drought, tree species and BVOC
396 emissions. By considering the potential effects of drought on BVOC emissions and their implications for atmospheric
397 chemistry and climate processes, we can develop a more comprehensive understanding of the role of BVOCs in the context
398 of climate change and its impact on drought periods in tropical areas (Dore 2005; Fubao et al. 2018).

399

400 **Conclusions and final remarks**

401 This study reports the results of the emissions of different BVOCs by 36 tree species in the tropical forests of French
402 Guiana and confirms that there are significant seasonal differences, on average, for BVOCs emitted. On average, emissions
403 in the dry season were higher than in the wet season; as well, the proportion of each type of BVOCs in each season was
404 found to be different. Species' shared ancestry had a significant effect on sesquiterpene (Liang et al. 2021) emissions but
405 not on the total terpenes or monoterpenes.

406 This study provides strong evidence of higher rates of foliar terpene emissions from tropical trees in the dry season than
407 in the wet season. Our results underscore the potential role of this variation in the capacity of terpene emissions to act as a
408 buffer effect on climate change (Engelhart et al. 2008). More BVOC emissions under increased drought could partly
409 counteract the severity of droughts by favoring cloud formation and precipitation (Jardine et al. 2020).

410 As these compounds have important roles in atmospheric chemistry, aerosol formation, and plant-atmosphere
411 interaction, further research in this field will help improve our understanding of biogeochemical processes and address
412 important issues related to climate change and air quality.

413

414 **Authorship contribution statement**

415 **AG-G** Manuscript review. **CS, DA, GP, LB and RO** Support in field work and manuscript review. **EC, IU, LVL and OG**
416 Support in field work. **IAJ** Planning and development of the experiment, supervision of the collection of the samples. **IF**

417 Planning and development of the experiment. Manuscript review. **JL** Collection of samples of BVOCs and their analysis
418 and writing of the document. **JP** Planning and development of the experiment, supervision of the collection of the samples
419 and analyses and manuscript review. **JS** Planning and development of the experiment, supervision of the collection of the
420 samples. Analysis of the Bayesian phylogeny. Manuscript review. **LTV** Support in field and laboratory work, manuscript
421 review. All authors read and commented on the paper.

422

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432

433 Declarations

434 **Conflict of interest** The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships
435 that could influence the work reported in this paper.

436

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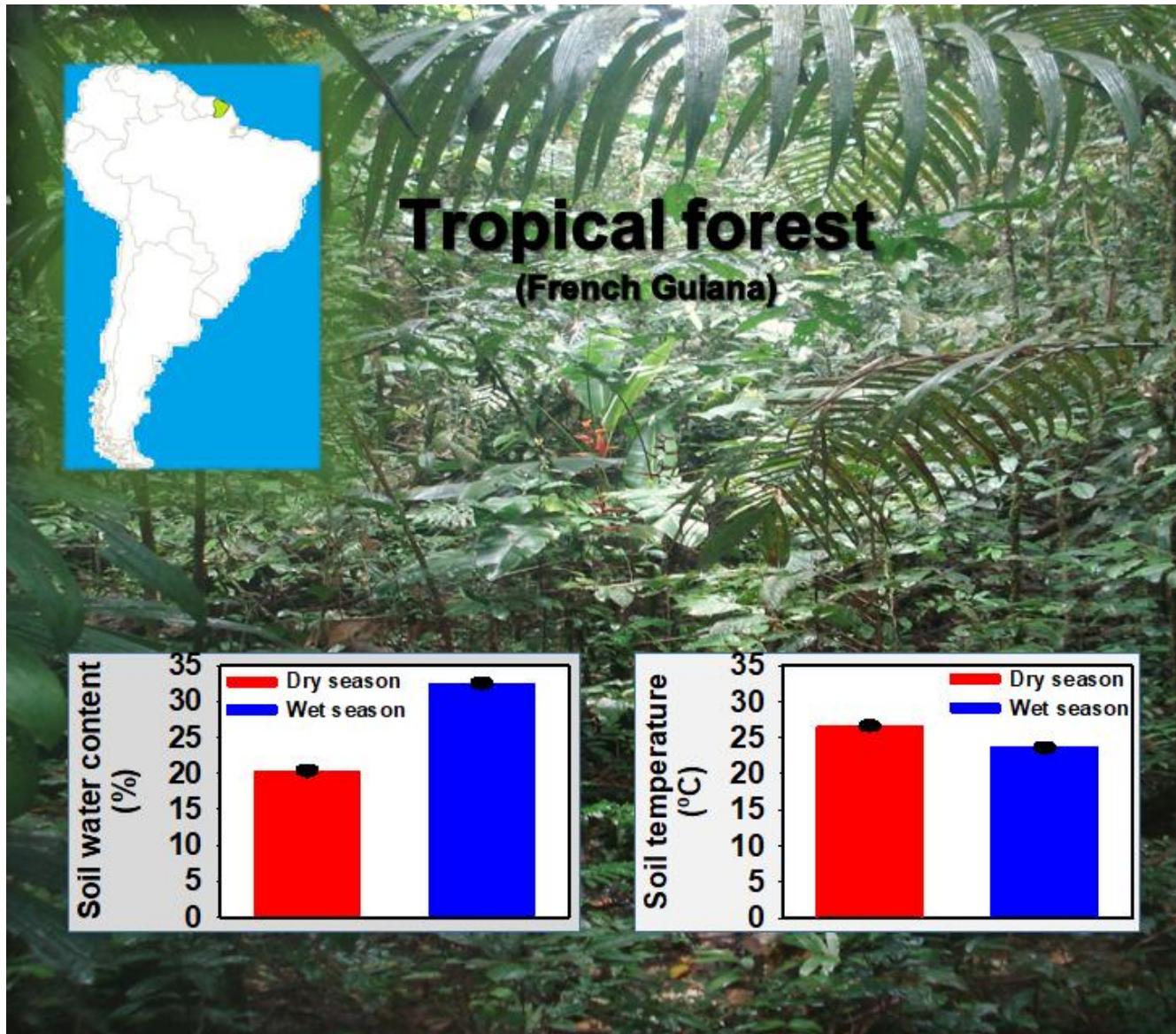
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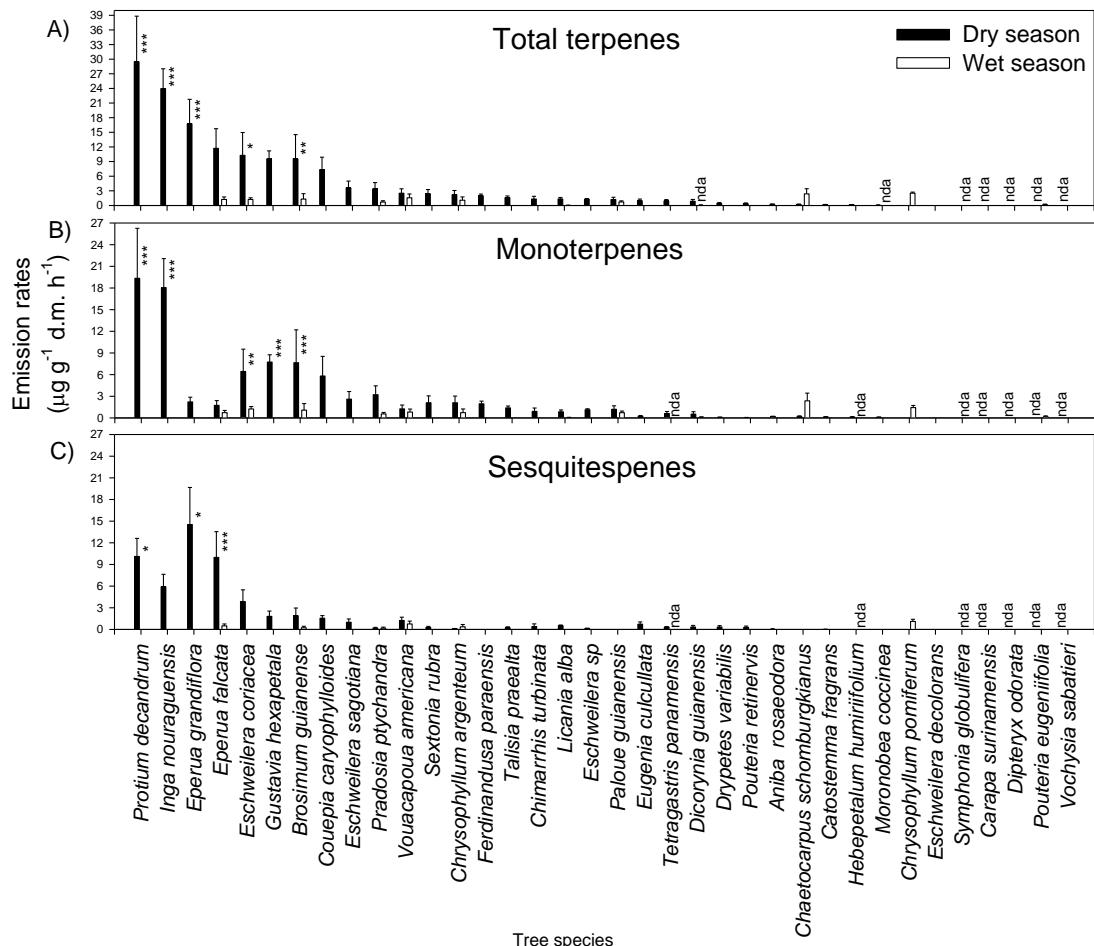
727 **Fig. 1.** Mean soil water content (%) and soil temperature (°C) (\pm standard error) in French Guiana, South America. The
 728 picture was taken during the 2015 wet season at the Nouragues Ecological Research Station.

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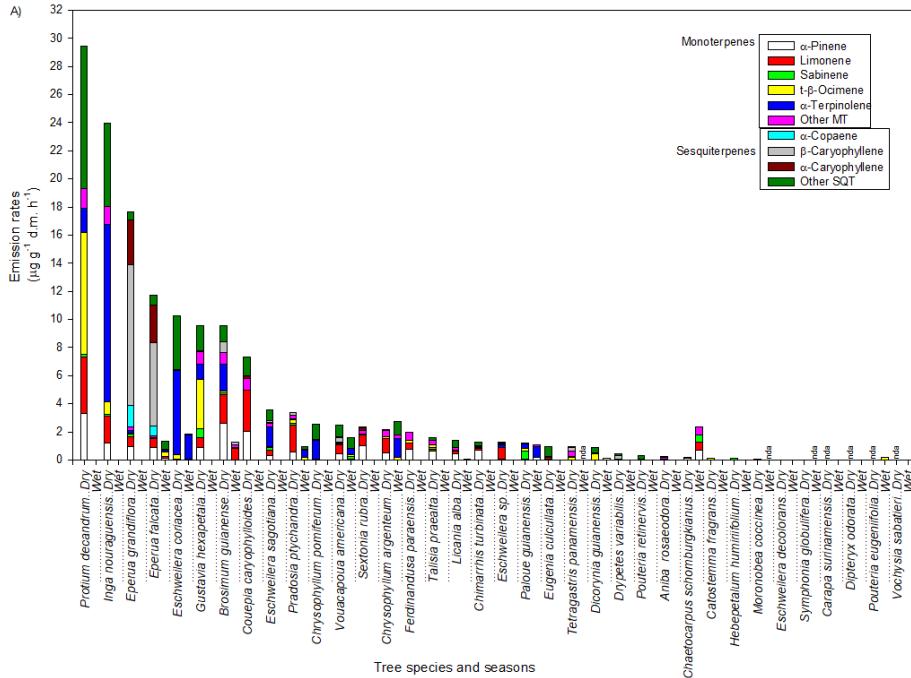
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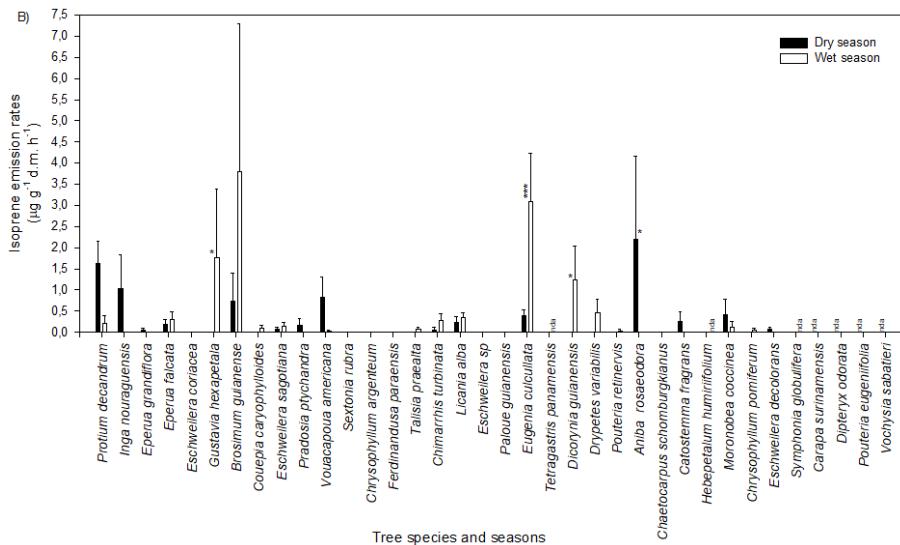
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735 **Fig. 2.** Mean terpene emissions (\pm standard deviation) for A) total terpenes, B) monoterpenes and C) sesquiterpenes from
736 36 tropical tree species in French Guiana. Asterisks indicate significant differences between seasons, * $P < 0.01$, ** $P <$
737 0.001, *** $P < 0.00001$; N = 285 and 219 in the dry and wet season, respectively. Nda stands for no data available.

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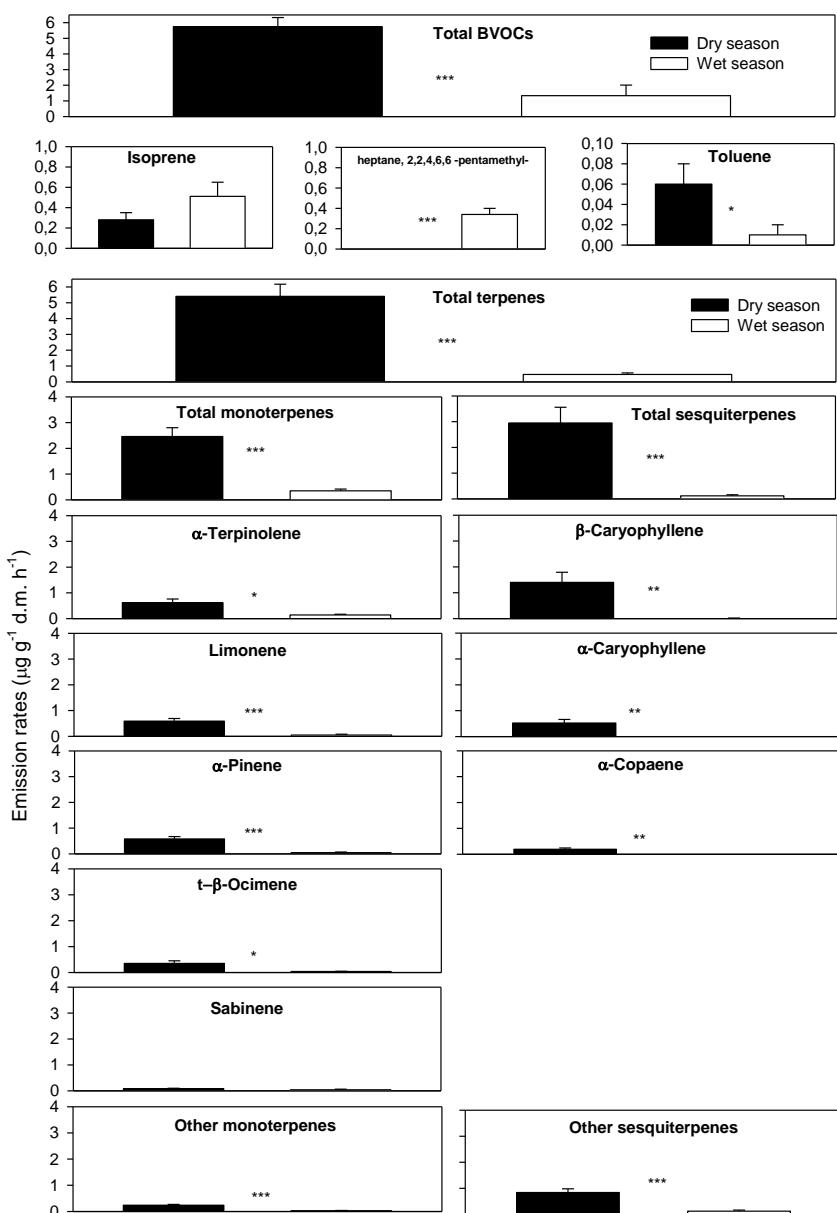


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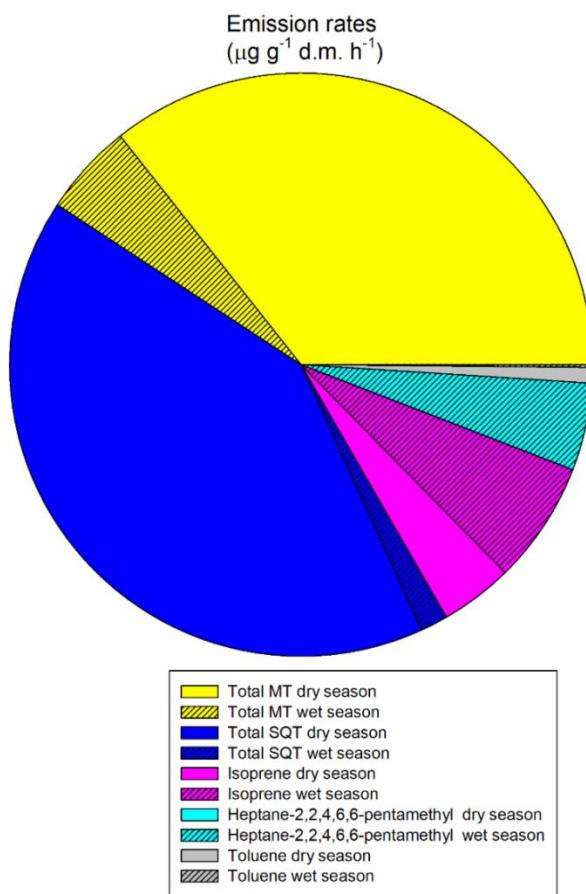
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741 **Fig. 3.** Mean terpene emissions (\pm standard error) for A) Total terpenes and B) the isoprene group from 36 tropical tree
 742 species in French Guiana. Asterisks indicate significant differences between seasons, * $P < 0.01$, ** $P < 0.001$, *** $P <$
 743 0.00001; N = 285 and 219 in the dry and wet season, respectively. "N" refers to the sample size, representing the number of
 744 observations available in each season. "Nda" stands for no data available.



745

746 **Fig. 4.** Mean biogenic volatile organic compound (BVOC) emissions (\pm standard error) from 36 tropical tree species in
 747 French Guiana. Asterisks indicate significant differences between seasons: * $P < 0.01$, ** $P < 0.001$, *** $P < 0.00001$; N =
 748 285 and 219 in the dry and wet seasons, respectively. In this context, "N" represents the sample size, indicating the number
 749 of observations available for each season.



750

751 **Fig. S1.** Means of the different types of BVOCs emitted by 36 tropical tree species in French Guiana. MT: monoterpenes;
 752 SQT: sesquiterpenes.

Table S1. List of the different tropical tree species studied in the dry and wet seasons in the Nouragues Ecological Research Station and Paracou Experimental Field Station in French Guiana.

Season	Site	Species	Family
Dry	Nouragues	<i>Aniba rosaeodora</i>	Lauraceae
		<i>Brosimum guianense</i>	Moraceae
		<i>Chimarrhis turbinata</i>	Rubiaceae
		<i>Chrysophyllum argenteum</i>	Sapotaceae
		<i>Couepia caryophylloides</i>	Chrysobalanaceae
		<i>Dicorynia guianensis</i>	Fabaceae
		<i>Eperua falcata</i>	Fabaceae
		<i>Eschweilera coriacea</i>	Lecythidaceae
		<i>Eschweilera decolorans</i>	Lecythidaceae
		<i>Eugenia culcullata</i>	Myrtaceae
		<i>Ferdinandusa paraensis</i>	Rubiaceae
		<i>Inga nouraguensis</i>	Fabaceae
		<i>Licania alba</i>	Chrysobalanaceae
		<i>Paloue guianensis</i>	Fabaceae
		<i>Pouteria retinervis</i>	Sapotaceae
		<i>Pradosia ptychandra</i>	Sapotaceae
		<i>Protium decandrum</i>	Burseraceae
		<i>Sextonia rubra</i>	Lauraceae
		<i>Talisia paealta</i>	Sapindaceae
Wet	Paracou	<i>Vochysia sabatieri</i>	Vochysiaceae
		<i>Vouacapoua americana</i>	Fabaceae
		<i>Carapa surinamensis</i>	Meliaceae
		<i>Catostemma fragrans</i>	Malvaceae
		<i>Chaetocarpus schomburgkianus</i>	Euphorbiaceae
		<i>Chrysophyllum pomiferum</i>	Sapotaceae
		<i>Dipteryx odorata</i>	Fabaceae
		<i>Drypetes variabilis</i>	Putranjivaceae
		<i>Eperua falcata</i>	Fabaceae
		<i>Eperua grandiflora</i>	Fabaceae
		<i>Eschweilera sagotiana</i>	Lecythidaceae
		<i>Eschweilera sp</i>	Lecythidaceae
		<i>Gustavia hexapetala</i>	Lecythidaceae
		<i>Hebepetalum humiriifolium</i>	Linaceae
		<i>Licania alba</i>	
		<i>Moronobea coccinea</i>	Clusiaceae
		<i>Pouteria eugeniifolia</i>	Sapotaceae
		<i>Symponia globulifera</i>	Clusiaceae
		<i>Tetragastris panamensis</i>	Burseraceae
		<i>Vouacapoua americana</i>	
		<i>Aniba rosaeodora</i>	Lauraceae
		<i>Agonandra silvatica</i>	
		<i>Brosimum guianense</i>	Moraceae
		<i>Chimarrhis turbinata</i>	Rubiaceae

	<i>Chrysophyllum argenteum</i>	Sapotaceae
	<i>Couepia caryophylloides</i>	Chrysobalanaceae
	<i>Dicorynia guianensis</i>	Fabaceae
	<i>Eperua falcata</i>	Fabaceae
	<i>Eschweilera coriacea</i>	Lecythidaceae
	<i>Eschweilera decolorans</i>	Lecythidaceae
	<i>Eugenia culcullata</i>	Myrtaceae
	<i>Ferdinandusa paraensis</i>	Rubiaceae
	<i>Inga nouraguensis</i>	Fabaceae
	<i>Licania alba</i>	Chrysobalanaceae
	<i>Paloue guianensis</i>	Fabaceae
	<i>Pouteria retinervis</i>	Sapotaceae
	<i>Pradosia ptychandra</i>	Sapotaceae
	<i>Protium decandrum</i>	Burseraceae
	<i>Sextonia rubra</i>	Lauraceae
	<i>Talisia praealta</i>	Sapindaceae
	<i>Vochysia sabatieri</i>	Vochysiaceae
	<i>Vouacapoua americana</i>	Fabaceae
Paracou	<i>Carapa surinamensis</i>	Meliaceae
	<i>Catostemma fragrans</i>	Malvaceae
	<i>Chaetocarpus schomburgkianus</i>	Euphorbiaceae
	<i>Chrysophyllum argenteum</i>	
	<i>Chrysophyllum pomiferum</i>	Sapotaceae
	<i>Dipteryx odorata</i>	Fabaceae
	<i>Drypetes variabilis</i>	Putranjivaceae
	<i>Eperua falcata</i>	
	<i>Eperua grandiflora</i>	Fabaceae
	<i>Eschweilera sagotiana</i>	Lecythidaceae
	<i>Eschweilera sp</i>	Lecythidaceae
	<i>Gustavia hexapetala</i>	Lecythidaceae
	<i>Hebepetalum humiriifolium</i>	Linaceae
	<i>Licania alba</i>	
	<i>Moronoea coccinea</i>	Clusiaceae
	<i>Pouteria eugeniiifolia</i>	Sapotaceae
	<i>Symphonia globulifera</i>	Clusiaceae
	<i>Tetragastris panamensis</i>	Burseraceae
	<i>Vouacapoua americana</i>	

Table S2. Mean (\pm STD) soil water content (%) and soil temperature ($^{\circ}$ C) around the 36 tropical tree species in French Guiana. Letters indicate significant differences between seasons. N indicates the number of measurements.

Specific name	Season	Soil water content (%)	Soil temperature ($^{\circ}$ C)	N
<i>Protium decandrum</i>	Dry	23.6 \pm 0a	26.3 \pm 0a	
	Wet	33.1 \pm 0b	23.7 \pm 0b	
<i>Inga nouraguensis</i>	Dry	23.6 \pm 0a	26.3 \pm 0a	
	Wet	33.1 \pm 0b	23.7 \pm 0b	
<i>Eperua grandiflora</i>	Dry	15.6 \pm 1.1a	26 \pm 0.4	20
	Wet	28.8 \pm 1.5b	nda	
<i>Eperua falcata</i>	Dry	20.3 \pm 0.6a	25 \pm 0.07a	32
	Wet	34.2 \pm 0.7b	23.7 \pm 0b	
<i>Eschweilera coriacea</i>	Dry	20.2 \pm 0a	26.2 \pm 0a	6
	Wet	35.8 \pm 0.3b	23.9 \pm 0.05b	
<i>Gustavia hexapetala</i>	Dry	21.3 \pm 0a	24.6 \pm 0	
	Wet	30.7 \pm 0b	nda	
<i>Brosimum guianense</i>	Dry	18.7 \pm 0a	28 \pm 0a	6
	Wet	35 \pm 0b	23.7 \pm 0b	
<i>Couepia caryophylloides</i>	Dry	23.4 \pm 0a	29.6 \pm 0a	
	Wet	31.5 \pm 0b	23.7 \pm 0b	
<i>Eschweilera sagotiana</i>	Dry	19.9 \pm 1.6a	27 \pm 0.6	
	Wet	32.8 \pm 0b	nda	
<i>Pradosia ptychandra</i>	Dry	20.3 \pm 0.5a	28 \pm 0a	
	Wet	36.4 \pm 0b	23.6 \pm 0b	
<i>Chrysophyllum pomiferum</i>	Dry	20.5 \pm 0	25.1 \pm 0	6
	Wet	nda	nda	
<i>Vouacapoua americana</i>	Dry	22.6 \pm 0.5a	25.4 \pm 0.1a	18
	Wet	32.1 \pm 1b	23.7 \pm 0.03b	
<i>Sextonia rubra</i>	Dry	25.4 \pm 0a	28.5 \pm 0a	17
	Wet	33.4 \pm 0b	23.7 \pm 0b	

<i>Chrysophyllum argenteum</i>	Dry	20.2 ± 0a	26.2 ± 0a
	Wet	32.7 ± 1.3b	23.9 ± 0b
			6
<i>Ferdinandusa paraensis</i>	Dry	24.2 ± 0a	27.5 ± 0a
	Wet	31.4 ± 0b	23.3 ± 0b
<i>Talisia praearcta</i>	Dry	25.4 ± 0a	29 ± 0a
	Wet	36.3 ± 0b	23.5 ± 0b
<i>Licania alba</i>	Dry	22.5 ± 0.7a	27.7 ± 0.3a
	Wet	33 ± 0.5b	23.7 ± 0.02b
			40
<i>Chimarrhis turbinata</i>	Dry	25.2 ± 0a	27.6 ± 0a
	Wet	38.1 ± 0b	23.4 ± 0b
<i>Eschweilera sp</i>	Dry	12.8 ± 0a	24.5 ± 0
	Wet	27.9 ± 0b	nda
<i>Paloue guianensis</i>	Dry	21.8 ± 0a	28 ± 0a
	Wet	36.4 ± 0b	23.6 ± 0b
			4
<i>Eugenia culcullata</i>	Dry	9 ± 0a	28.9 ± 0a
	Wet	25.3 ± 0b	23.5 ± 0b
<i>Tetragastris panamensis</i>	Dry	25.3 ± 0	25 ± 0
	Wet	nda	nda
<i>Dicorynia guianensis</i>	Dry	19 ± 0a	28 ± 0a
	Wet	34.4 ± 0.5b	23.8 ± 0.02b
<i>Drypetes variabilis</i>	Dry	22.2 ± 0a	24.8 ± 0
	Wet	29.7 ± 0b	nda
<i>Pouteria retinervis</i>	Dry	9 ± 0a	29 ± 0a
	Wet	25.3 ± 0b	23.5 ± 0b
<i>Aniba rosaeodora</i>	Dry	24.2 ± 0a	27.5 ± 0a
	Wet	31.4 ± 0b	23.3 ± 0b
<i>Chaetocarpus schomburgkianus</i>	Dry	13.7 ± 0a	25.4 ± 0
	Wet	27.8 ± 0b	nda
<i>Catostemma fragrans</i>	Dry	21.3 ± 0a	24.6 ± 0
			6
	Wet	30.7 ± 0b	nda
<i>Hebepetalum humiriifolium</i>	Dry	15 ± 0	24.7 ± 0
	Wet	nda	nda
<i>Moronobea coccinea</i>	Dry	9.9 ± 0a	24.9 ± 0
	Wet	26.2 ± 0b	nda
<i>Symponia globulifera</i>	Dry	19.4 ± 0	24.6 ± 0
	Wet	nda	nda

<i>Eschweilera decolorans</i>	Dry	22.9 ± 0a	27.3 ± 0a
	Wet	37.6 ± 0b	23.9 ± 0b
<i>Capirona decorticans</i>	Dry	nda	nda
	Wet	31.5 ± 0	23.7 ± 0
<i>Caryocar glabrum</i>	Dry	nda	nda
	Wet	33.4 ± 0	23.7 ± 0
<i>Chrysophyllum sanguinolentum</i>	Dry	nda	nda
	Wet	31.5 ± 0	23.7 ± 0
<i>Helicostylis pedunculata</i>	Dry	nda	nda
	Wet	36.4 ± 0	23.6 ± 0
<i>Hirtella bicornis</i>	Dry	nda	nda
	Wet	33.4 ± 0	23.7 ± 0
<i>Hymanea courbaril</i>	Dry	nda	nda
	Wet	35.5 ± 0	23.9 ± 0
<i>Lecythis poiteaui</i>	Dry	nda	nda
	Wet	38.1 ± 0	23.4 ± 0
<i>Myrcia splendens</i>	Dry	nda	nda
	Wet	25.3 ± 0	23.5 ± 0
<i>Protium opacum</i>	Dry	nda	nda
	Wet	36.4 ± 0	23.6 ± 0
<i>Sloanea sp</i>	Dry	nda	nda
	Wet	nda	nda
<i>Sterculia pruriens</i>	Dry	nda	nda
	Wet	30.7 ± 0	nda
<i>Pouteria eugeniiifolia</i>	Dry	nda	nda
	Wet	27.8 ± 0	nda
<i>Carapa surinamensis</i>	Dry	nda	nda
	Wet	29.7 ± 0	nda
<i>Dipteryx odorata</i>	Dry	nda	nda
	Wet	30.7 ± 0	nda
<i>Vochysia sabatieri</i>	Dry	nda	nda
	Wet	33.4 ± 0	23.7 ± 0

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Table S3. Mean (minimum, maximum \pm standard deviation and standard error, in $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ d.m. h^{-1}) biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOCs) and *P-value* of the 36 tropical tree species studied in the dry and wet seasons in French Guiana. N = 285 and 219 for the dry and wet seasons, respectively. MTu: monoterpene unidentified; SQTs: Sum of unidentified sesquiterpenes.

Season	Dry					Wet						
	BVOCs	Mean	Min.	Max.	Std	Ste	Mean	Min.	Max.	Std	Ste	<i>P-value</i>
Total BVOCs	5,5	0	80,9	12,8	0,8		0,8	0	11,7	1,9	0,1	0.000010
Total terpenes	5,4	0	80,9	12,8	0,8		0,5	0	10,3	1,5	0,1	0.000010
Total monoterpenes	2,5	0	39,6	5,7	0,3		0,4	0	6,6	1	0,1	0.000010
Other monoterpenes	0,2	0	4,5	0,6	0		0	0	2	0,2	0	0.000010
Total sesquiterpenes	3	0	79,9	10,3	0,6		0,1	0	4,4	0,6	0	0.000100
Other sesquiterpenes	0,8	0	16,7	2,3	0,1		0,1	0	4,4	0,6	0	0.000010
Isoprene	0,3	0	13	1,2	0,1		0,5	0	22,9	2,1	0,1	ns
Heptane-2,2,4,6,6-pentamethyl	0	0	0	0	0		0,3	0	5,7	0,8	0,1	0.000010
Toluene	0,1	0	3,2	0,3	0		0	0	1,4	0,1	0	0.010000
MTu1	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0,3	0	0	ns
MTu2	0	0	0,4	0	0		0	0	0	0	0	ns
MTu3	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0	0	ns
α -Pinene	0,6	0	15,4	1,5	0,1		0,1	0	2,5	0,2	0	0.000010
MTu4	0	0	0,9	0,1	0		0	0	0,7	0,1	0	0.020000
MTu5	0	0	0,6	0,1	0		0	0	0,2	0	0	0.000026
MTu6	0	0	0,2	0	0		0	0	0	0	0	ns
MTu7	0,1	0	2	0,2	0		0	0	0,4	0	0	0.000010
MTu8	0,1	0	1,8	0,2	0		0	0	1,6	0,1	0	0.010000
Limonene	0,6	0	13,7	1,7	0,1		0,1	0	4,9	0,4	0	0.000010
Sabinene	0,1	0	2,4	0,3	0		0	0	2,2	0,2	0	ns
trans- β -Ocimene	0,4	0	19,8	1,8	0,1		0	0	1,8	0,2	0	0.010000
MTu9	0	0	0,8	0,1	0		0	0	0	0	0	0.010000
MTu10	0	0	0,7	0,1	0		0	0	0	0	0	0.001000
MTu11	0	0	0,5	0	0		0	0	0	0	0	ns
MTu12	0	0	1,7	0,1	0		0	0	0	0	0	ns
α -Terpinolene	0,6	0	19,7	2,6	0,2		0,1	0	3,6	0,5	0	0.010000
MTu13	0	0	0,4	0	0		0	0	0	0	0	ns
MTu14	0	0	0,5	0	0		0	0	0	0	0	ns
α -Copaene	0,2	0	8,8	0,9	0,1		0	0	0	0	0	0.002500
β -Caryophyllene	1,4	0	54,6	6,7	0,4		0	0	1,3	0,1	0	0.002000
α -Caryophyllene	0,5	0	19,3	2,4	0,1		0	0	0	0	0	0.001000
SQTs	0,8	0	16,7	2,3	0,1		0,1	0	4,4	0,6	0	0.0001

Table S4. Mean emissions (\pm standard error) of the two main non-terpenic volatile compounds emitted by some tropical tree species in French Guiana. Letters indicate significant differences between seasons ($P < 0.05$).

Specific name	Season	Heptane-2,2,4,6,6-pentamethyl	Toluene
<i>Protium decandrum</i>	Dry	0 \pm 0	0.1 \pm 0.1a
	Wet	0 \pm 0	0 \pm 0a
<i>Inga nouraguensis</i>	Dry	0 \pm 0	0 \pm 0
	Wet	0 \pm 0	0 \pm 0
<i>Eperua grandiflora</i>	Dry	0 \pm 0	0.04 \pm 0.02a
	Wet	0 \pm 0	0 \pm 0a
<i>Eperua falcata</i>	Dry	0 \pm 0a	0 \pm 0
	Wet	1.1 \pm 0.3b	0 \pm 0
<i>Eschweilera coriacea</i>	Dry	0 \pm 0a	0.03 \pm 0.02a
	Wet	1 \pm 0.3b	0 \pm 0a
<i>Gustavia hexapetala</i>	Dry	0 \pm 0	0.5 \pm 0.3a
	Wet	0 \pm 0	0 \pm 0b
<i>Brosimum guianense</i>	Dry	0 \pm 0a	0 \pm 0
	Wet	4.1 \pm 0.4b	0 \pm 0
<i>Couepia caryophylloides</i>	Dry	0 \pm 0	0 \pm 0
	Wet	0 \pm 0	0 \pm 0
<i>Eschweilera sagotiana</i>	Dry	0 \pm 0	0.03 \pm 0.02a
	Wet	0 \pm 0	0 \pm 0a
<i>Pradosia ptychandra</i>	Dry	0 \pm 0a	0.2 \pm 0.1a
	Wet	0.7 \pm 0.2b	0.1 \pm 0.04a
<i>Chrysophyllum pomiferum</i>	Dry	0 \pm 0	0.04 \pm 0.03
	Wet	nda	nda
<i>Vouacapoua americana</i>	Dry	0 \pm 0	0 \pm 0a
	Wet	0 \pm 0	0.1 \pm 0.1a
<i>Sextonia rubra</i>	Dry	0 \pm 0	0.1 \pm 0.1a
	Wet	0 \pm 0	0 \pm 0a
<i>Chrysophyllum argenteum</i>	Dry	0 \pm 0a	0.01 \pm 0.01a
	Wet	0.6 \pm 0.3b	0 \pm 0a
<i>Ferdinandusa paraensis</i>	Dry	0 \pm 0	0.1 \pm 0.1a
	Wet	0 \pm 0	0 \pm 0a
<i>Talisia praearcta</i>	Dry	0 \pm 0	0 \pm 0
	Wet	0 \pm 0	0 \pm 0
<i>Licania alba</i>	Dry	0 \pm 0a	0.2 \pm 0.1a
	Wet	0.3 \pm 0.1b	0 \pm 0b
<i>Chimarrhis turbinata</i>	Dry	0 \pm 0	0.3 \pm 0.3a
	Wet	0 \pm 0	0 \pm 0b
<i>Eschweilera sp</i>	Dry	0 \pm 0	0 \pm 0
	Wet	0 \pm 0	0 \pm 0
<i>Paloue guianensis</i>	Dry	0 \pm 0a	0 \pm 0
	Wet	0.6 \pm 0.2b	0 \pm 0
<i>Eugenia culcullata</i>	Dry	0 \pm 0	0 \pm 0

	Wet	0 ± 0	0 ± 0
<i>Tetragastris panamensis</i>	Dry	0 ± 0	0 ± 0
	Wet	nda	nda
<i>Dicorynia guianensis</i>	Dry	0 ± 0a	0 ± 0
	Wet	0.7 ± 0.1b	0 ± 0
<i>Drypetes variabilis</i>	Dry	0 ± 0	0 ± 0
	Wet	0 ± 0	0 ± 0
<i>Pouteria retinervis</i>	Dry	0 ± 0	0 ± 0
	Wet	0 ± 0	0 ± 0
<i>Aniba rosaeodora</i>	Dry	0 ± 0	0 ± 0
	Wet	0 ± 0	0 ± 0
<i>Chaetocarpus schomburgkianus</i>	Dry	0 ± 0a	0 ± 0
	Wet	0.2 ± 0.1b	0 ± 0
<i>Catostemma fragrans</i>	Dry	0 ± 0	0 ± 0
	Wet	0 ± 0	0 ± 0
<i>Hebepetalum humiriifolium</i>	Dry	0 ± 0	0 ± 0
	Wet	nda	nda
<i>Moronobea coccinea</i>	Dry	0 ± 0	0 ± 0
	Wet	0 ± 0	0 ± 0
<i>Sympmania globulifera</i>	Dry	0 ± 0	0 ± 0
	Wet	nda	nda
<i>Eschweilera decolorans</i>	Dry	0 ± 0	0 ± 0
	Wet	0 ± 0	0 ± 0
<i>Pouteria eugeniiifolia</i>	Dry	nda	nda
	Wet	0.5 ± 0.3	0 ± 0
<i>Carapa surinamensis</i>	Dry	nda	nda
	Wet	0 ± 0	0 ± 0
<i>Dipteryx odorata</i>	Dry	nda	nda
	Wet	0 ± 0	0 ± 0
<i>Vochysia sabatieri</i>	Dry	nda	nda
	Wet	0 ± 0	0 ± 0

Table S5. Results of the phylogenetic analyses using Pagel's λ and the corresponding P values. Significant values ($P < 0.05$) are shown in bold.

	Total BVOCs	Total terpenes	Total monoterpenes	Total sesquiterpenes
Phylogenetic signal lambda	0.2	0.2	6.6	0.8
logL(lambda)	-104	-103	-825	-827
LR(lambda=0)	0.1	0.1	-0.001	673
P-value (based on LR test)	0.7	0.8	1	0.01

Table S6. Results of the Bayesian phylogenetic linear mixed models with season as fixed factor and phylogeny and species as random factors obtained with the R package *MCMCglmm*. The phylogeny term accounted for variability in the shared ancestry, while the species term accounted for species-specific traits independently of the shared ancestry. Significant values of fixed independent variables ($P < 0.05$) are shown in bold.

Variables	Fixed factors						R^2				
	Statistics Table						Fixed factors	Random		Total model	
		post.mean	l-95% CI	u-95% CI	eff.samp	pMCMC		R^2_f	R^2_s		
Total terpenes							0.1	0.02	0.01	0.1	0.2
	(Intercept)	0.1	-0.2	0.4	1700	0.4					
	seasonWET	-0.4	-0.6	-0.3	1700	<6e-04 ***					
MTu1							0.01	0.0001	0.00004	0.01	0.02
	(Intercept)	-0.1	-0.2	0.1	1413	0.5					
	seasonWET	0.1	-0.1	0.3	1863	0.3					
Hept-6en-3yn-1ol							0.02	0.0001	0.0004	0.1	0.1
	(Intercept)	-0.03	-0.3	0.2	2056	0.8					
	seasonWET	0.1	-0.1	0.3	1554	0.3					
Toluene							0.01	0.0002	0.0003	0.02	0.04
	(Intercept)	0.1	-0.1	0.2	1700	0.3					
	seasonWET	-0.2	-0.4	-0.1	1553	0.01 *					
MTu1							0.0045	0.0001	0.00004	0.01	0.015
	(Intercept)	-0.1	-0.2	0.1	1413	0.5					

	seasonWET	0.1	-0.1	0.3	1863	0.3					
MTu2		post.mean	1-95% CI	u-95% CI	eff.samp	pMCMC	0.01	0.002	0.003	0.1	0.1
	(Intercept)	0.1	-0.1	0.3	1700	0.4					
	seasonWET	-0.2	-0.3	0.004	1700	0.1					
MTu3		post.mean	1-95% CI	u-95% CI	eff.samp	pMCMC	0.006	0.003	0.004	0.08	0.1
	(Intercept)	0.1	-0.2	0.3	1700	0.5					
	seasonWET	-0.1	-0.3	0.03	1700	0.2					
α -Pinene		post.mean	1-95% CI	u-95% CI	eff.samp	pMCMC	0.1	0.001	0.001	0.04	0.1
	(Intercept)	0.2	-0.01	0.4	1700	0.1					
	seasonWET	-0.4	-0.6	-0.3	1855	<6e-04 ***					
MTu4		post.mean	1-95% CI	u-95% CI	eff.samp	pMCMC	0.02	0.01	0.07	0.2	0.3
	(Intercept)	0.2	-0.2	0.5	1700	0.2					
	seasonWET	-0.3	-0.4	-0.1	1700	0.002 **					
MTu5		post.mean	1-95% CI	u-95% CI	eff.samp	pMCMC	0.03	0.002	0.003	0.1	0.1
	(Intercept)	0.1	-0.1	0.3	1700	0.2					
	seasonWET	-0.4	-0.5	-0.2	1700	<6e-04 ***					
MTu6		post.mean	1-95% CI	u-95% CI	eff.samp	pMCMC	0.01	0.005	0.004	0.1	0.1
	(Intercept)	0.1	-0.2	0.3	1519	0.5					
	seasonWET	-0.2	-0.3	-0.01	1700	0.05 *					
MTu7		post.mean	1-95% CI	u-95% CI	eff.samp	pMCMC	0.05	0.003	0.01	0.1	0.1
	(Intercept)	0.2	-0.04	0.4	1824	0.1					
	seasonWET	-0.4	-0.6	-0.3	1700	<6e-04 ***					
MTu8		post.mean	1-95% CI	u-95% CI	eff.samp	pMCMC	0.02	0.005	0.01	0.1	0.1

	(Intercept)	0.1	-0.3	0.4	1463	0.6						
	seasonWET	-0.2	-0.4	-0.05	1700	0.01 **						
Limonene		post.mean		l-95% CI	u-95% CI	eff.samp	pMCMC	0.04	0.003	0.006	0.1	0.1
	(Intercept)	0.2	-0.1	0.4	1700	0.1						
	seasonWET	-0.4	-0.6	-0.2	1700	< 6e-04 ***						
Sabinene		post.mean		l-95% CI	u-95% CI	eff.samp		0.01	0.001	0.002	0.05	0.06
	pMCMC											
	(Intercept)	0.04	-0.1	0.2	1700	0.6						
Trans- β -Ocimene		post.mean		l-95% CI	u-95% CI	eff.samp		0.03	0.02	0.1	0.2	0.3
	pMCMC											
	(Intercept)	0.1	-0.2	0.5	1835	0.3						
MTu9		post.mean		l-95% CI	u-95% CI	eff.samp		0.01	0.02	0.03	0.2	0.2
	pMCMC											
	(Intercept)	0.1	-0.3	0.5	1392	0.4						
MTu10		post.mean		l-95% CI	u-95% CI	eff.samp	pMCMC	0.02	0.02	0.1	0.2	0.3
	(Intercept)	0.1	-0.2	0.5	2087	0.3						
MTu11		post.mean		l-95% CI	u-95% CI	eff.samp		0.01	0.01	0.01	0.1	0.1
	pMCMC											
	(Intercept)	0.1	-0.3	0.4	2120	0.6						
MTu12		post.mean		l-95% CI	u-95% CI	eff.samp		0.01	0.002	0.01	0.1	0.2

pMCMC											
α -Terpinolene	(Intercept)	0.1	-0.3	0.4	1700	0.6	0.02	0.02	0.1	0.2	0.4
	seasonWET	-0.1	-0.3	0.04	1700	0.2					
α -Terpinolene		post.mean	1-95% CI	u-95% CI	eff.samp						
	pMCMC										
MTu13	(Intercept)	0.1	-0.2	0.5	1700	0.3	0.01	0.0004	0.001	0.03	0.04
	seasonWET	-0.3	-0.5	-0.1	2067	0.001 **					
MTu14		post.mean	1-95% CI	u-95% CI	eff.samp						
	pMCMC										
α -Copaene	(Intercept)	0.04	-0.1	0.2	1700	0.6	0.01	0.0003	0.001	0.03	0.04
	seasonWET	-0.1	-0.3	0.1	1333	0.2					
α -Caryophyllene		post.mean	1-95% CI	u-95% CI	eff.samp						
	pMCMC										
SQTsu1	(Intercept)	0.002	-0.4	0.3	1700	1	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.1	0.1
	seasonWET	-0.2	-0.3	0.01	1517	0.05 *					
SQTsu1		post.mean	1-95% CI	u-95% CI	eff.samp						
	pMCMC										
SQTsu1	(Intercept)	0.2	-0.1	0.5	1700	0.2	0.05	0.01	0.06	0.2	0.3

	seasonWET	-0.5	-0.6	-0.3	1700	<6e-04 ***					
Isoprene		post.mean	l-95% CI	u-95% CI	eff.samp	0.04	0.003	0.001	0.06	0.1	
	pMCMC										
	(Intercept)	-0.03	-0.3	0.3	1700	0.8					
	seasonWET	0.1	-0.04	0.3	1700	0.2					
Total Monoterpene		post.mean	l-95% CI	u-95% CI	eff.samp	0.07	0.01	0.04	0.2	0.3	
	pMCMC										
	(Intercept)	0.3	0.001	0.5	1700	0.1					
	seasonWET	-0.5	-0.7	-0.4	1700	<6e-04 ***					
Total Sesquiterpenes		post.mean	l-95% CI	u-95% CI	eff.samp	0.03	0.01	0.002	0.1	0.1	
	pMCMC										
	(Intercept)	0.1	-0.2	0.4	1700	0.6					
	seasonWET	-0.3	-0.5	-0.2	1574	<6e-04 ***					

Table S7. Number of mature trees sampled per species at each topographic level and weather station. Phenology indicates if trees are evergreen or deciduous in each season. For more information, see Verryck et al. (2022).

Species	Topographic level	Number of trees sampled per species	
		Season	
		Dry	Wet
<i>Aniba rosaeodora</i>	Slope	1	1
<i>Brosimum guianense</i>	Bottom	1	1
<i>Carapa surinamensis</i>	Bottom		1
<i>Catostemma fragrans</i>	Bottom	1	1
<i>Chaetocarpus schomburgkianus</i>	Top	1	1
<i>Chimarrhis turbinata</i>	Top	1	1
<i>Chrysophyllum argenteum</i>	Top	1	1
<i>Chrysophyllum pomiferum</i>	Top	1	1
<i>Couepia caryophylloides</i>	Slope	1	1
<i>Dicorynia guianensis</i>	Bottom	1	1
<i>Dipteryx odorata</i>	Bottom		1
<i>Drypetes variabilis</i>	Bottom	1	1
<i>Eperua falcata</i>	Bottom	3	4
<i>Eperua grandiflora</i>	Slope	2	1
<i>Eschweilera sp</i>	Bottom	1	1
<i>Eschweilera coriacea</i>	Top	1	1
<i>Eschweilera decolorans</i>	Bottom	1	1
<i>Eschweilera sagotiana</i>	Slope	1	
<i>Eugenia NA</i>	Top	1	1
<i>Ferdinandusa paraensis</i>	Slope	1	1
<i>Gustavia hexapetala</i>	Bottom	1	1
<i>Hebepetalum humiriifolium</i>	Slope	1	
<i>Inga nouraguensis</i>	Slope	1	1
<i>Licania alba</i>	Bottom	2	3
<i>Moronobea coccinea</i>	Top	1	1
<i>Paloue guianensis</i>	Bottom	1	1
<i>Pouteria eugeniifolia</i>	Top		1
<i>Pouteria retinervis</i>	Slope	1	1
<i>Pradosia ptychandra</i>	Bottom	1	1
<i>Protium decandrum</i>	Slope	1	1
<i>Sextonia rubra</i>	Top	1	1
<i>Symphonia globulifera</i>	Bottom	1	
<i>Talisia praearcta</i>	Top	1	1
<i>Tetragastris panamensis</i>	Slope	1	
<i>Vochysia sabatieri</i>	Top		1
<i>Vouacapoua americana</i>	Bottom	1	1

Table S8. List of species sampled in this work and sampled by other authors previously. We want to show that in the present work there are tree species not previously sampled for BVOCs. In the case of Jardine et al. 2020 only gives information about gender.

Species	Present work	Courtois et al. 2009	Courtois et al. 2016	Jardine et al. 2020
<i>Aniba rosaeodora</i> ^a	x			
<i>Brosimum guianense</i>	x	x	x	
<i>Carapa surinamensis</i>	x			
<i>Catostemma fragrans</i>	x		x	
<i>Chaetocarpus schomburgkianus</i>	x			
<i>Chimarrhis turbinata</i>	x	x	x	
<i>Chrysophyllum argenteum</i>	x	x	x	
<i>Chrysophyllum pomiferum</i>	x			
<i>Couepia caryophylloides</i>	x			
<i>Dicorynia guianensis</i>	x		x	
<i>Dipteryx odorata</i>	x		x	
<i>Drypetes variabilis</i>	x		x	
<i>Eperua falcata</i>	x		x	
<i>Eperua grandiflora</i>	x			
<i>Eschweilera coriacea</i>	x	x	x	
<i>Eschweilera decolorans</i>	x		x	
<i>Eschweilera sagotiana</i>	x		x	
<i>Eschweilera sp</i>	x			x
<i>Eugenia culcullata</i> ^b	x		x	
<i>Ferdinandusa paraensis</i>	x			
<i>Gustavia hexapetala</i>	x		x	
<i>Hebepetalum humiriifolium</i>	x		x	
<i>Inga nouraguensis</i>	x			x
<i>Licania alba</i>	x			x
<i>Moronobea coccinea</i>	x		x	
<i>Paloue guianensis</i>	x			
<i>Pouteria eugeniifolia</i>	x			x
<i>Pouteria retinervis</i>	x			x
<i>Pradosia ptychandra</i>	x		x	
<i>Protium decandrum</i>	x	x	x	x
<i>Sextonia rubra</i>	x	x	x	
<i>Sympmania globulifera</i>	x		x	
<i>Talisia praealta</i>	x			
<i>Tetragastris panamensis</i> ^c	x	x	x	
<i>Vochysia sabatieri</i>	x			
<i>Vouacapoua americana</i>	x	x	x	

All names verified in Steege et al. 2019, except for **a**: which appears as *Aniba rosiodora*; **b**: *Eugenia cucullata*; **c**: Does not appear in the list.