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1 Forum article

## 2 **Ozone pollution disrupts plant-pollinator systems**

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21 **Keywords:** air pollution; chemical interactions; ecological effects; pollination; plant-insect

22 interactions; species communication

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## 32 **Abstract**

33 **Ozone pollution disrupts floral visual and volatile signals, olfactory perception of volatile**  
34 **communication signals, and learning, memory, and behavior of pollinators. These changes**  
35 **could have implications for plant-pollinator systems.**

36

## 37 **Ozone pollution**

38 In recent decades, **ozone** (see Glossary) levels in the lower **troposphere** have risen [1].  
39 Ozone is a **secondary pollutant** formed by the reaction of **volatile organic compounds** (VOCs)  
40 and **nitrogen oxides** (NO<sub>x</sub>) under sunlight, and this complex chemistry of ozone hinders its  
41 mitigation. As a result, ozone exposures are likely to widely exceed the **critical levels** of  
42 legislative standards for the protection of vegetation throughout the northern hemisphere by 2100  
43 [1].

44 Ozone pollution causes widespread vegetation damage, including discoloration and other  
45 visible injuries. It also changes foliar chemical composition and the amounts and blend of plant-  
46 emitted VOCs [1]. These affect plant-insect interactions because (i) plant tissue color signals  
47 insects, (ii) nutrients and **secondary metabolites** are of dietary importance for insect herbivores  
48 or are toxins against them, and (iii) biogenic VOCs (BVOCs) are chemical communication  
49 signals [1]. These effects of ozone could alter the composition and structure of insect leaf  
50 herbivore communities [1]. More recent studies demonstrate that ozone also affects pollination  
51 [2–4]. Here, we discuss potential ecological, evolutionary, and agricultural implications of air  
52 pollution effects on plant-pollinator systems (Fig. 1).

## 53 **Flowers and pollen**

54 Ozone pollution affects pollen by oxidizing components of pollen wall or via production of  
55 hydroxyl radicals, inhibits pollen tube growth, and changes the amount of pollen and nectar and  
56 their chemical composition (reference in [3]). Ozone can accelerate flowering, extend flowering

57 duration, or alter the number of open flowers [3,5]. This depends on the ontogenetic stage of the  
58 plant at exposure, due to different strategies for investment toward reproduction [3,5]. For  
59 example, ozone treatment increased the number of pollinators that visited younger *Sinapis*  
60 *arvensis* plants but generally caused negative effects on older plants, depending on the number of  
61 open flowers and pollinator guild [5]. Furthermore, high ozone can decrease petal size and  
62 changes pigmentation and color [6]. While BVOCs orient pollinators over long distances, visual  
63 acuity of pollinators is largely restricted to centimeters to few meters [7]. Such changes in  
64 flowers and pollen characteristics could disrupt short-range foraging behaviors and, thus,  
65 pollination in ozone-polluted atmospheres [7].

## 66 **Semiochemicals emitted by plants**

67 Pollinators utilize floral blends to orient in space, discriminate flowers, and select host  
68 plants [8,9]. Ozone differentially affects the emission of individual compounds, increasing some  
69 and decreasing others. It therefore changes the relative contribution of specific compounds to the  
70 scent blend and the ratios between compounds [7,10,11]. Ozone also produces new volatiles as a  
71 result of chemical reactions of already existing volatiles [7,12]. The ratio of specific compounds  
72 in a blend is important for information processing [9,13], and such qualitative changes in floral  
73 scents due to ozone affects learning and recognition of olfactive signals by pollinators [10].  
74 Decreased concentration of pollinator-used volatiles and a reduction in the diffusion of volatiles  
75 in space suggests that pollinators will spend more time searching for scent trails to find flowers  
76 [11,12]. The length of the plant scent trails might decrease from kilometers in the pre-industrial  
77 period to less than 200 m today [10,12]. Such effects vary spatiotemporally, e.g. with greater  
78 relevance in areas with isolated flower patches and in relation with changes in ozone  
79 concentrations [12]. Ozone-induced chemical transformation of floral blends becomes stronger  
80 as the plume moves farther from the emitting flowers, which suggests a potentially greater threat  
81 to pollination in areas with distant plant patches [7,11]. Overall, the alteration of BVOCs emitted

82 by flowering plants can modify the chemical-use efficacy of pollinators, decrease their success to  
83 locate floral scents plumes, and increase their foraging times [11].

#### 84 **Pollinator behavior**

85 Ozone indirectly affects pollinator attraction by modifying BVOCs and decreasing the  
86 attractiveness of floral scent to pollinators, e.g. the generalist buff-tailed bumblebee *Bombus*  
87 *terrestris* to black mustard (*Brassica nigra*) [10]. It also affects pollinators directly by altering  
88 olfactory learning, decreasing the recall of learned scents, and enhancing the response to new  
89 scents, which also impairs discrimination of the antennae [14]. Ozone causes both direct and  
90 **carry-over effects** on the activity and sensitivity of antennae and insect motility of different  
91 pollinators, e.g. in the Western honey bee *Apis mellifera* [13,14] and fig wasp *Blastophaga*  
92 *pseudes* [15]. The effect varies among volatile compounds, likely due to the distinct effects that  
93 ozone has on different proteins and chemoreceptors; however, we note a lack of evidence for  
94 ozone oxidation of olfactory receptors and odorant-binding proteins [13]. The sensitivity to  
95 ozone differs among pollinators, such as between the *B. pseudes* and the *B. terrestris*, with the  
96 former being more affected by ozone [14]. Hence, ozone compromises the ability of  
97 ecologically-differing pollinators to trace and react to floral VOCs, but the effects depend on the  
98 type and concentration of BVOCs and the size and duration of ozone exposure [14].

99 Pollinators deal with olfactory cues through innate recognition of compounds together  
100 with behavioral plasticity [7]. Ozone also alters the color perception of pollinators, due to  
101 changes in flower optical properties, and this depends on both ozone exposure and pollinator  
102 guild [6]. Although it disrupts the innate attraction, e.g. of the tobacco hornworm *Manduca sexta*  
103 (nighttime pollinator) to sweet tobacco *Nicotiana glauca*, visual navigation and learning to  
104 associate altered floral scents with rewards can counteract this effect in some cases [7]. The  
105 ability to learn new floral odors due to ozone-driven chemical transformation counteracts ozone  
106 impacts on plant-pollinator systems [7].

107 Ozone may further decrease the proportion of active pollinators, a distress behavior  
108 implying fewer potential foragers [15]. While ozone may not strongly affect overall pollinator  
109 preference in some cases, different pollinators have different responses [2,3]. For example,  
110 bumblebees (*Bombus terrestris*) visited more flowers on ozone-treated wild mustard (*S. arvensis*)  
111 plants, which might be due to increased number of open flowers [3]. Ozone-treatment also  
112 extended honeybee (*Apis mellifera*) flower visits, but hoverflies (*Eristalis tenax*) visits did not  
113 change with ozone treatment [3]. Likewise, diesel exhaust (containing NO<sub>x</sub>) and ozone pollution  
114 individually and jointly decreased the number of wild and managed insect pollinators and their  
115 flower visits [2]. These effects decreased yields of black mustard (*Brassica nigra*), even at  
116 exposures considered safe by the existing air quality standards [2]. Changes in specific pollinator  
117 groups shaped these effects, as is the case of bees, butterflies, flies, and moths in this study [2].  
118 Most of the evidence for the affected pollinator behavior come from laboratory assays or highly  
119 controlled experiments, but recent *in situ* evaluations confirm earlier findings [2,4].

## 120 **Ecological implications**

121 Ozone concentrations are usually lower during the nighttime. However, since nighttime  
122 ozone concentrations are increasing, ozone pollution may affect nocturnal pollinators more than  
123 previously thought. New studies are needed to test this assumption and to determine whether  
124 ozone pollution changes plant-pollinator systems due to altered interactions between daytime and  
125 nighttime pollinators.

126 Generalists learn floral scents and their value, whereas specialists inherently prefer the  
127 BVOC blends specific to their host plants [9,10], hinting at potential differences in the long-term  
128 responses to ozone between generalist and specialist pollinators. Expected responses also depend  
129 on the signals used by different pollinators and pollinator stability [2].

130 As ozone decreases with proximity to urban centers due to elimination by NO<sub>x</sub>, potential  
131 shifts in pollinator communities and evolutionary changes in the plant-pollinator systems are  
132 expected among urbanization gradients. However, the prediction of such alterations due to the

133 ozone specific effect is challenging because primary air pollutants (e.g. NO<sub>x</sub> from diesel exhaust)  
134 also influence pollinator attraction toward flowers [2]. Nevertheless, preliminary evidence  
135 suggests that the effect of ozone on pollinator foraging behavior may not be modified by NO<sub>x</sub>  
136 [2,4]. Moreover, data from North-West Europe suggest that high ozone exposures may also  
137 exacerbate the effect of pesticides on pollinators independent of NO<sub>x</sub> [4].

## 138 **Evolutionary implications**

139 As pollinators rely on floral signals, ozone pollution can alter plant-pollinator  
140 mutualisms by affecting spatiotemporal patterns and characteristics of the floral scents. Hence,  
141 pollinator dispersal strategies may also be modified. The high spatiotemporal variation in floral  
142 scents over evolutionary time scales implies selection influence of floral scents [7–9]. But air  
143 pollution following the industrial revolution increases the variation in chemical signals [7], with  
144 unknown implications. Due to the long time scales, coupling new empirical data with models is  
145 needed to uncover potential effects at ecological or evolutionary time scales.

146 A new generation of inter-disciplinary research programs are needed to evaluate  
147 resilience of plant-pollinator interactions in areas exposed to ozone pollution. This will need to  
148 consider pollinator plasticity, responses of wild versus cultivated plants, and possible evolution  
149 of less ozone-reactive floral VOCs.

150

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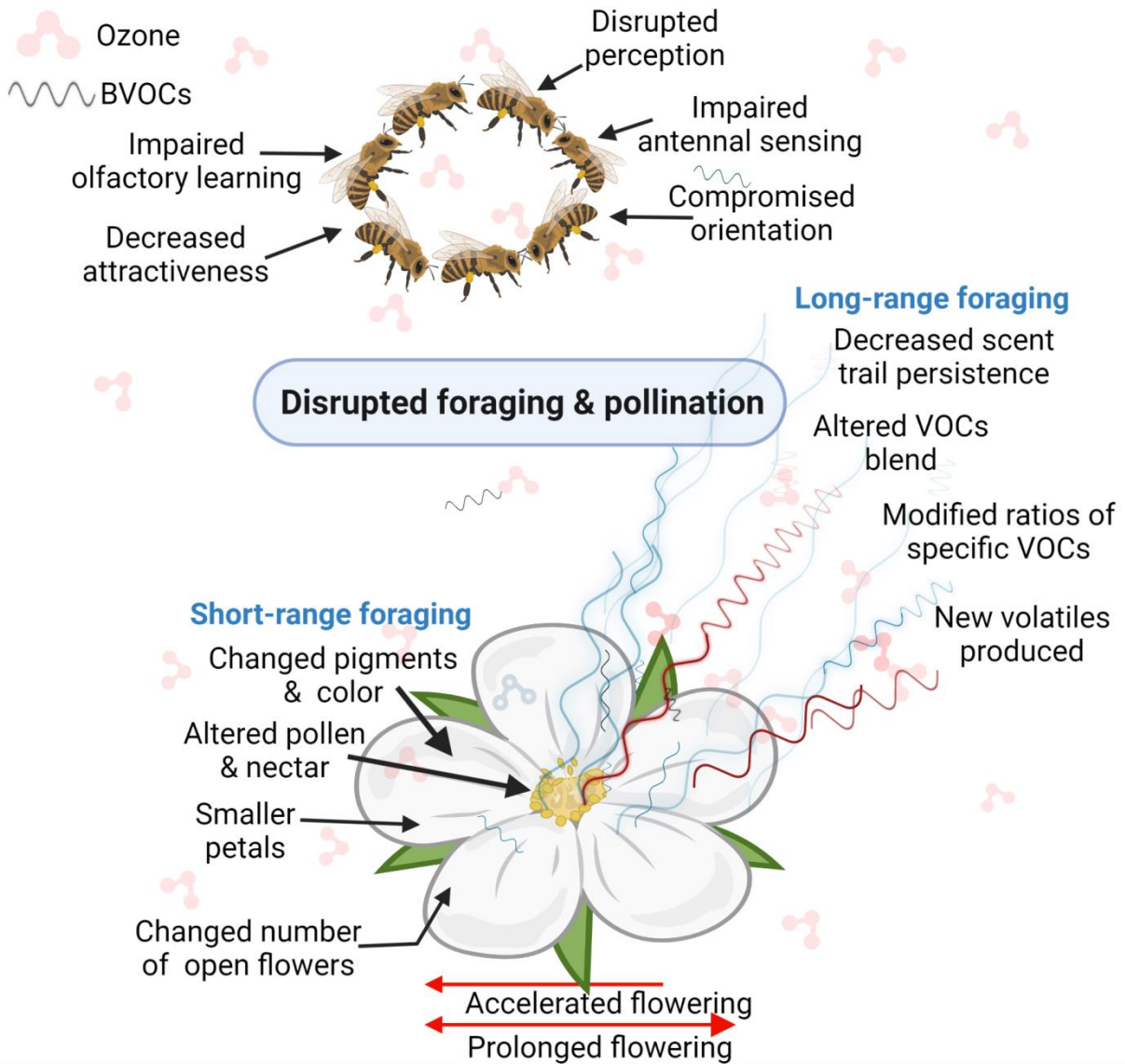
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187

189 **Fig 1. Ozone pollution disrupts pollination, a key ecosystem service.**

190 Ozone alters morphology and quality of flowers, and leads to chemical transformations of  
 191 biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOCs) in the air or to newly produced compounds.  
 192 Ozone decreases pollinator olfaction, vision, and attraction to flowers and degrades and  
 193 implicates long-distance signals. In ozone-polluted atmospheres, pollinators may have to shift  
 194 their dependence toward BVOCs that are less or not reactive with ozone and/or learn identifying  
 195 and utilizing new scent blends at or far from the emitting flowers. Considerable degradation of  
 196 floral scents might require visual contact with the flowers by chance, since short-distance  
 197 foraging is also compromised, thus decreasing pollination efficiency. Created with Biorender.



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233 **Glossary**

234 **Critical level:** a level of exposure (concentration or dose) above which sensitive vegetation may be  
235 adversely affected.

236 **Nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>):** anthropogenic air pollutants that are formed by combustion of fuel at high  
237 temperatures and act as precursors to form ozone.

238 **Ozone:** a chemical with three molecules of oxygen (O<sub>3</sub>), naturally occurring in the atmosphere. In the  
239 stratosphere (above the layer of the troposphere) it provides protection from radiation.

240 **Secondary metabolites:** organic chemicals produced as a result of plant metabolism.

241 **Semiochemicals:** chemicals produced and released by organisms in the environment and affect other  
242 recipient organisms.

243 **Secondary pollutant:** a pollutant formed by the reaction of other pollutants in the atmosphere, thus it is  
244 not emitted directly by a source.

245 **Troposphere:** the lowest part of the atmosphere toward the Earth's surface, contributing 75% of the  
246 planetary atmosphere's total mass.

247 **Volatile organic compounds (VOCs):** organic chemicals with low water solubility and high vapor  
248 pressure, emitted by both anthropogenic and natural sources and contribute to air pollution.