



# Gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence of pea (*Pisum sativum* L.) plants in response to ambient ozone at a rural site in Egypt



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## HIGHLIGHTS

- Ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) concentrations recorded were within the ranges of phytotoxicity.
- O<sub>3</sub> has a clear influence on the physiological parameters.
- O<sub>3</sub> decreased Photosynthetic rates, chlorophyll fluorescence parameters.
- The variability in stomatal response may be due to inherent differences.

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## ABSTRACT

Egyptian pea cultivars (*Pisum sativum* L. cultivars Little Marvel, Perfection and Victory) grown in open-top chambers were exposed to either charcoal-filtered (FA) or non-filtered air (NF) for five consecutive years (2009–2013) at a rural site in northern Egypt. Net photosynthetic rates (P<sub>N</sub>), stomatal conductance (g<sub>s</sub>), intercellular CO<sub>2</sub> (C<sub>i</sub>) and chlorophyll fluorescence were measured.

Ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) was found to be the most prevalent pollutant common at the rural site and is suspected to be involved in the alteration of the physiological parameters measured in the present investigation.

P<sub>N</sub> of different cultivars were found to respond similarly; decreases of 23, 29 and 39% were observed in the cultivars Perfection, Little Marvel and Victory, respectively (averaged over the five years) due to ambient O<sub>3</sub>. The maximum impairment in P<sub>N</sub> was recorded in the cultivar Victory (46%) in 2013 when the highest O<sub>3</sub> levels were recorded (90 nL L<sup>-1</sup>). The average stomatal conductance decreased by 20 and 18% in the cultivars Little Marvel and Perfection, respectively, while the average stomatal conductance increased on average by 27% in the cultivar Victory. A significant correlation was found between P<sub>N</sub> and C<sub>i</sub>, indicating the importance of non-stomatal limitations of photosynthesis, especially in the cultivar Victory. The P<sub>N</sub> vs. C<sub>i</sub> curves were fitted to a non-rectangular hyperbolic model.

The actual quantum yield (Φ<sub>PSII</sub>) and photochemical quenching coefficient (qP) were significantly decreased in the leaves of plants exposed to NF air. Non-photochemical quenching (NPQ) was increased in all cultivars.

Exposure to NF air caused reductions in chlorophyll (Chl *a*) of 19, 16 and 30% in the Little Marvel, Perfection and Victory cultivars, respectively.

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## 1. Introduction

Current interest in investigating the impact of air pollutants on agricultural crops is now centered on the long-term low-level effects of the main phytotoxic gases on crop production (Weigel et al., 1987; De Temmerman et al., 1992; Schenone et al., 1992, 1994; Fiscus et al., 2005; Hassan, 2006, 2010). Chronic exposure to air pollutants can cause yield losses (Heagle et al., 1979; Pande and Mansfield, 1985;

Weigel et al., 1987; Schenone and Lorenzini, 1992; Ali, 1993; Hassan et al., 1995, 1999; Dizengremel et al., 2008, 2009, 2012). Apart from crop yield losses, changes in plant development and reduced net growth can occur (Gould and Mansfield, 1988; Hassan, 2004; Hatata et al., 2013) as well as changes in crop quality (Peleijel et al., 1989; Fuhrer et al., 1990; Vandermerien et al., 1992; Hassan, 1998a), and plant physiology (Fuhrer et al., 1988; Hassan et al., 1994, 1999; El-Khatib, 2003; Hassan, 2004, 2006; Taie et al., 2013).

Ozone is the main phytotoxic air pollutant in the Mediterranean area (Lorenzini et al., 1994; Hassan, 1999; Hassan et al., 1994, 1995, 2013; Velissariou et al., 1996; Gimeno et al., 1999; Calatayud et al., 2002, 2004, 2011; Pellegrini et al., 2011).

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Important physiological processes such as photosynthesis and stomatal conductance are known to be affected by air pollution (Hassan et al., 1994, 1999; Zhang et al., 2001; El-Khatib, 2003; Hassan, 1998 a, b, 2004; Thwe et al., 2014).

A considerable volume of published data exists that is useful for evaluating the response of agricultural crops to ambient air pollution in the USA and Northern Europe (e.g. NAFLAN and EOTC). However, the data for the Middle East, and especially for Egypt are still extremely scarce, in spite of high population densities and rates of pollution emission, and the climatic conditions which favor photochemical air pollution (WHO/UNEP, 1992; El-Khatib, 2003; Hassan, 1999). To fill the above gap in knowledge, a specific research project was developed as a collaboration between Alexandria University and University of London to examine the effects of ambient air pollution effects on agricultural crops in rural (the main agricultural area in Egypt) and urban areas in northern Egypt.

Pea plants are sensitive to air pollutants. Hassan (2008) investigated the impact of O<sub>3</sub> on the growth and yield of three pea cultivars (*Pisum sativum* L. cvs. Little Marvel, Perfection and Victory) grown in ambient air, in northern Egypt. All cultivars showed significant yield reductions and severe foliar injury symptoms; these symptoms are characteristic of O<sub>3</sub> injury when compared with cultivars grown in filtered air. Moreover, the cultivar Victory showed the highest yield loss compared to the other two cultivars (cv. Little Marvel and cv. Perfection). Therefore it was concluded that Victory plants are more sensitive to air pollution (mainly O<sub>3</sub>) than the other two cultivars (Hassan, 2008). The physiological characteristics that are responsible for these relative sensitivities have been elusive, but stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ ) has been suggested to play a major role, as those species with higher  $g_s$  are likely to be less tolerant to pollutants (Pande and Mansfield, 1985). Similarly, plants in which stimulation of stomatal opening occurs in response to pollutant(s) are likely to be more sensitive to pollutants (Hassan et al., 1994). Previous work (Hassan et al. 1995; Hassan, 1998a, 1999, 2006, 2010) showed that O<sub>3</sub> was the main air pollutant responsible for yield losses.

Ozone can cause damage to thylakoids leading to ion leakage and consequent change in Chl *a* fluorescence (Reichwnauer et al., 1998; Guidi et al., 1999a,b; Plazek et al., 2000). Chl *a* fluorescence which is a good indicator of photoinhibition of PSII (Thwe et al., 2014), shows changes in photosynthetic performance and allows localization of the primary sites of limitations. Therefore, Chl *a* fluorescence has been widely used for the assessment of environmental stresses on photosynthesis (Hassan, 2004; Pellegrini et al., 2011).

The present work was carried out to verify and characterize the effects of ambient air pollution on the photosynthetic processes of pea leaves through an analysis of Chl *a* fluorescence and gas exchange parameters. To our knowledge, this study is one of the very few investigations conducted in the Middle East attempting to clarify the potential mechanisms of reduced photosynthetic rate.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Experimental facilities

The experimental site was located at Abbis village (a “rural” site) 35 km to the south of Alexandria in the Nile Delta, which is the main agricultural area of the country (30° 0'N and 31° 19'E). The experimental area was approximately 2 km from the nearest traffic road, and was surrounded by *Eucalyptus*, *Casuarina* and *Salix* trees (for full description see Hassan et al., 1995).

The soil texture at the experimental location was loamy clay with a pH 7.7 (Hassan, 1998 a).

The experiment was carried out in six portable open-top chambers (OTCs) constructed according to the design of Treshow and Stewart (1973). Briefly, chambers were constructed that could be placed over the plots in the field. An iron framework 2 × 3 m<sup>2</sup> in size with a lid on

the top was covered by a transparent, low-density polyethylene. Air was distributed into the chambers by means of two perforated semi-circular annuli attached to the wall of the chamber at heights of 0.50 and 1.00 m above ground level. Ventilation was continuous at a rate of 1800 mh<sup>-1</sup> (2.5 air changes a minute). The fans were switched on and operated for 8 h day<sup>-1</sup> (09:00–17:00 h Egyptian local time) and switched off in the evening to allow for dew formation.

Six semi-open-top chambers were used in this experiment in a split plot design: three chambers received charcoal-filtered air (FA) and the other chambers received non-filtered (NF) air and an ambient air (AA) to determine responses to the chamber environment. Air filtration experiments with OTCs were carried out in between 2009 and 2013 (09:00–17:00 h Egyptian local time).

The AA plot was 3 × 2 m<sup>2</sup> in size with four rows. The between-row distance was 0.50 m.

Air temperature, soil temperature, relative humidity and photosynthetic photon flux density (PPFD) were monitored regularly inside and outside the chambers. The microclimatic conditions were comparable over the five successive years (2009–2013) and there were no significant differences between chamber climate and open-field conditions.

### 2.2. Plant culture

Prior to sowing, dried cow manure was added to the soil. Seeds of three cultivars pea plants (*Pisum sativum* L. cultivars Little Marvel, Perfection and Victory) were hand sown directly into the soil, the sowing and harvest dates are shown in Table 1. There were six rows in each chamber, the between-row distance was 30 cm, and each cultivar was planted in two rows in each OTC. Two weeks after sowing, when the first true leaf expanded, the seedlings were thinned to one per lot. There were 20 plants per row, thus there were 40 plant/cultivar/chamber. The plants were irrigated manually with tap water once a week for the whole years.

No pesticides or fertilizers were applied.

### 2.3. Air pollution measurements

The concentrations of gaseous air pollutants (O<sub>3</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub>) were measured by AQM60 over the five successive years (2009–2013). The AQM60 contains a multichannel solenoid valve sampler which was used to sample different air pollutants sequentially from the top of the plant canopy.

This instrument contains an internal zero air scrubber and it is therefore, capable of periodically carrying out automatic zero and span calibrations and making its own zero and span self-adjustments to predetermined readings.

### 2.4. Physiological measurements

#### 2.4.1. Net photosynthetic rate ( $P_N$ ) and total CO<sub>2</sub> stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ )

Net photosynthetic rate ( $P_N$ ) and total CO<sub>2</sub> stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ ) were measured using the youngest fully expanded leaf of the main stem. Gas exchange measurements were carried out using the same leaf. Measurements were performed eighteen times at 5 days intervals to cover all growth stages using a LI-6400 portable infrared gas analyzer (IRGA; LI-COR, Lincoln, USA) between 10:00 and 15:00 h (Egyptian Local time). All measurements were performed at the PPFD of 1200–1400 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> in air with an RH of 60–65% and a CO<sub>2</sub> concentration of approximately 345 mol mol<sup>-1</sup>. Five plants were selected from each OTC, thus fifteen measurements were performed per treatment. The IRGA consists of a leaf cuvette, air supply unit (ASU) and data processor and logger. Air emerging from the cuvette and a sample of air emerging from the ASU are passed to the IRGA. The difference in CO<sub>2</sub> concentration between these two air streams is measured by the IRGA and the product of this and the flow/unit leaf area provide the assimilation rate ( $P_N$ ) and  $g_s$ .

**Table 1**  
Timetable of sowing and harvest dates.

Year	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Sowing date	5 Nov. 2009	5 Nov. 2010	29 Oct. 2011	25 Oct. 2012	15 Nov. 2013
Harvest date	5 Feb. 2010	3 Feb. 2011	25 Jan. 2012	3 Feb. 2013	10 Feb. 2014
Duration (days)	92	91	89	95	88

#### 2.4.2. Chlorophyll (Chl) fluorescence

Chlorophyll (Chl) fluorescence was measured on the same leaf at the same time as  $P_N$  and  $g_s$ , using a portable Photosynthetic Efficiency Analyser PEA (Hansatech Instrumental, Hardwick, Norfolk, UK). The leaves were dark adapted for 30 min in leaf-clips before the measurements were performed. The ground ( $F_0$ ), maximum ( $F_m$ ), and variable ( $F_v$ ) fluorescence were measured and used for calculations of the variable to maximum fluorescence ratio ( $F_v/F_m$ ). The optimal quantum efficiency of PSII photochemistry ( $F_v/F_m$ ) was calculated when the leaf was completely dark-adapted. Photochemical ( $\Phi_{PSII}$  and  $q_p$ ) and non-photochemical (NPQ) Chl quenching measurements were calculated when the leaf was completely adapted to light. (Hassan, 2004; Thwe et al., 2014).

#### 2.4.3. Chlorophyll

Chlorophyll was extracted in cold acetone from all leaves on the main stems of nine plants per treatment were used (i.e. three chambers). The chlorophyll concentration was determined according to Khan and Khan (1994). Extraction was carried out in a dark room.

#### 2.5. Statistical analysis

Gas exchange data were log-transformed prior to analysis to ensure that they were normally distributed. Then, these data were subjected to two-way ANOVA with blocking, with years as the blocks. The relationships among  $P_N$ ,  $g_s$  and  $C_i$  were analyzed using the correlation coefficient test, while linear regression analysis was used to examine the relationship between  $P_N$  and  $g_s$  (using the STATGRAF statistical package). PPFD was used as a covariate in the ANOVA of gas exchange measurements. The least significant differences (LSDs) between the means were estimated at the 95% confidence level. Unless indicated otherwise, significant differences among the different treatments were determined at  $P < 0.05$ .

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Microclimate and air quality

There were slight differences (insignificant,  $P > 0.05$ ) between AA plots and chambers in terms of microclimatic conditions and pollutant concentrations.

The light intensity inside chambers was reduced by 2%, on average due to the shadowing by the frames and the plastic sheets, while the mean air temperature and relative humidity were 1.6 °C and 4% higher than those of the outside chambers, (Table 2). Moreover, precipitation

was slightly lower (ca 5%) inside the OTCs compared to the AA plots (Table 2).

The mean concentrations of major air pollutants ( $O_3$ ,  $SO_2$  and  $NO_x$ ) throughout the years are shown in Table 3.

Air quality at the experimental site was characterized by very low concentrations of  $SO_2$  and  $NO_x$ , where the mean 6-h concentrations of these gases throughout the years were 10.3 and 8.7  $nL L^{-1}$ , respectively (Table 3). The mean 8-hour concentrations of  $O_3$  were 70, 72, 80, 81 and 88  $nL L^{-1}$  for the years 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012 and 2013, respectively (Table 3). The AOT40 were 22.816, 22.816, 26.344, 31.168 and 35.200 ppm · h throughout the five years, respectively. This increase in  $O_3$  concentrations coincided with a slight increase in the seasonal mean temperature.

Table 4 shows the monthly mean and peak concentration of  $O_3$  in the OTCs and AA plots. There were no significant differences in  $O_3$  concentrations between AA plots and chambers ventilated with NF air (2–3% lower in NF compared to AA). The maximum concentration was recorded in Dec. 2013 (92  $nL L^{-1}$ ), while the lowest average concentration was recorded in Jan. 2009 (68  $nL L^{-1}$ ).

#### 3.2. Physiological response

Fig. 1 shows the estimated values of  $P_N$  and  $g_s$  of the three pea cultivars.  $P_N$  of plants exposed to NF air was reduced by 23, 29 and 39% in the cultivars Perfection, Little Marvel and Victory, respectively, compared to the  $P_N$  of plants grown in FA (averaged between the five years) (Fig. 1A). In contrast, the effect of air filtration on  $g_s$  was very different in the three cultivars. The value of  $g_s$  decreased by 20 and 18% in the cultivars Little Marvel and Perfection, respectively, while the value of  $g_s$  increased by an average of 27% in the cultivar Victory (Fig. 1B).

The relationships between  $P_N$  and  $C_i$  for FA and NF plants are presented in Fig. 2. There was a strong significant negative correlation ( $r = -0.317$ ) between  $P_N$  and  $C_i$  for NF plants of cultivars Little Marvel and Perfection, while a positive correlation ( $r = 0.206$ ) was found in cultivar Victory (Fig. 2). Moreover, The  $P_N$  vs.  $C_i$  curve was fitted to a non-rectangular hyperbolic model, which indicates the importance of non-stomatal limitations of photosynthesis, especially in the cultivar Victory. Moreover, there was a significant correlation ( $P < 0.01$ ) between  $g_s$  and  $C_i$  in the cultivars Little Marvel and Perfection ( $r = 0.57$ , 0.351, respectively), but not in the cultivar Victory ( $r = 0.015$ ) (Fig. 2).

The regression of  $P_N$  against  $g_s$  was significant ( $P < 0.01$ ) for the cultivars Little Marvel and Perfection grown in FA air ( $R^2 = 0.406$  and 0.305) and NF air ( $R^2 = 0.391$  and 0.213), respectively (Fig. 3). Moreover, the regression for the cultivar Victory grown in FA was

**Table 2**  
Meteorological parameters recorded at the experimental location during the years.

Parameter	Air temperature (°C)		Soil temperature (°C)		Relative humidity (%)		PPFD ( $\mu mol m^{-2} s^{-1}$ )		Precipitation (mm year <sup>-1</sup> )	
	Outside	Inside	Outside	Inside	Outside	Inside	Outside	Inside	Outside	Inside
2009	21.3	22.5	21.0	22.5	60	62	1250	1230	143	141
2010	21.7	22.9	21.0	22.0	63	63	1310	1300	140	135
2011	22.0	24.0	21.0	22.0	62	65	1290	1260	133	130
2012	22.5	24.6	21.0	21.5	63	65	1325	1300	137	132
2013	25.0	25.1	21.7	22.4	60	65	1320	1300	157	149

**Table 3**

Mean concentrations of major pollutants during the five growing seasons at a rural site in northern Egypt in the open-field plot (AA), in the charcoal-filtered (FA) and non-filtered (NF) OTCs.

Pollutant					
Year	O <sub>3</sub> (8 h day <sup>-1</sup> ) (nL L <sup>-1</sup> )	AOT4 (ppm·h)	SO <sub>2</sub> (6 h day <sup>-1</sup> ) (nL L <sup>-1</sup> )	NO <sub>x</sub> (6 h day <sup>-1</sup> ) (nL L <sup>-1</sup> )	
2009	AA 70	22.816	11	9	
	NF 71	22.906	12	8	
	FA 11	–	3	3	
2010	AA 73	22.816	10	10	
	NF 71	22.896	11	9	
	FA 12	–	4	3	
2011	AA 76	26.344	11	8	
	NF 77	26.435	9	7	
	FA 9	–	3	2	
2012	AA 82	31.168	12	8	
	NF 81	31.257	10	9	
	FA 11	–	3	2	
2013	AA 88	35.200	8	6	
	NF 90	35.292	8	5	
	FA 11	–	3	2	

significant ( $R^2 = 0.416$  at  $P < 0.01$ ), but not for the plants grown in NF air ( $R^2 = 0.0902$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ) (Fig. 3).

Fig. 4 shows the annual trends in gas exchange parameters of all cultivars. Clearly, ambient O<sub>3</sub> caused reductions in P<sub>N</sub> of all cultivars and the greatest effect was observed on the P<sub>N</sub> of cv. Victory in 2013, when the highest O<sub>3</sub> levels were recorded.

Similarly, g<sub>s</sub> showed a similar trend in cvs Little marvel and Perfection, while cv. Victory showed the opposite response; exposure to ambient air caused an increase in g<sub>s</sub> (Fig. 4).

The variable to maximal fluorescence ratio (F<sub>v</sub>/F<sub>m</sub>), actual quantum yield (Φ<sub>PSII</sub>), and photochemical quenching coefficient (qP) at steady-state kinetics decreased significantly by 10, 29 and 14%, respectively in the leaves of Little Marvel plants exposed to NF air. Moreover, these parameters decreased similarly in the other two cultivars, with cv. Victory, showing the maximum reductions in these parameters (29, 33 and 20%, respectively). Non-photochemical quenching (NPQ) was increased significantly by 60, 90 and 110% in the cultivars Marvel, Little Perfection and Victory, respectively (Table 5).

Chl *a* content decreased following exposure to non-filtered air by 16, 19 and 30% in cultivars Perfection, Little Marvel and Victory, respectively, but Chl *b* showed no significant response to air filtration ( $P > 0.005$ ) (Table 6).

There was no significant difference ( $P > 0.05$ ) in response to chlorophyll between plants exposed to ambient air (AA) and those exposed to non-filtered air (NF).

**Table 4**

Summary of ozone concentrations (nL L<sup>-1</sup>) in OTCs during fumigation.

Year		Nov		Dec		Jan		Feb	
		Mean	Max	Mean	Max	Mean	Max	Mean	Max
2009	AA 73	77	70	75	68	70	69	75	
	NF 72	77	70	76	67	69	70	74	
	FA 11	13	12	13	11	12	13	14	
2010	AA 73	76	75	77	72	75	74	80	
	NF 72	74	74	77	74	76	73	79	
	FA 11	13	12	13	13	15	13	16	
2011	AA 75	79	75	76	74	77	79	81	
	NF 74	74	74	77	73	76	74	79	
	FA 10	11	10	12	8	11	8	13	
2012	AA 80	85	83	87	77	80	80	85	
	NF 77	80	77	81	74	78	73	78	
	FA 11	14	10	12	10	13	9	13	
2013	AA 87	90	89	92	81	88	80	85	
	NF 85	88	84	87	79	82	77	80	
	FA 10	11	11	14	12	15	9	14	

#### 4. Discussion

Open-top chambers (OTCs) have been used most extensively with herbaceous crops to assess impact of air pollution on plant performance (Kohut et al., 1977; Heagle et al., 1979; Roberts et al., 1983; Weigel et al., 1987; Vandermann et al., 1992; Maggs et al., 1996; Hassan et al., 1994, 1999; Wahid et al., 2001).

In the present study, which lasted for five consecutive years, only insignificant differences between environmental conditions in ambient air (AA) plots and OTCs were found. The most important effect of the chambers, although insignificant, was a reduction in light intensity and a small increase in temperature. These effects were of the same order of magnitude as those found by other researchers (Olszyk et al., 1980; Roberts et al., 1983; Weigel et al., 1987; Maggs et al., 1996).

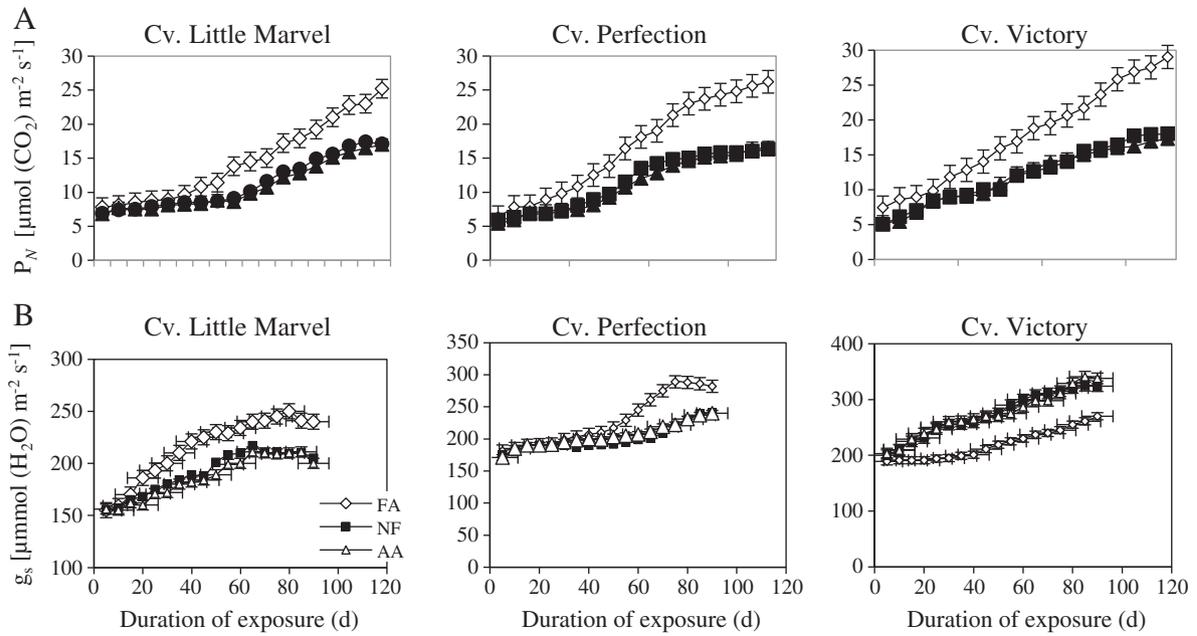
In the present study, the concentrations of O<sub>3</sub> recorded, at the rural site, and the cumulative doses were within the ranges of phytotoxicity. In contrast, the concentrations of SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> were so low, that we can certainly exclude any effect of these pollutants on the observed effect. This is in agreement with earlier results of Hassan et al. (1995) in Egypt and Schenone et al. (1994) in Italy.

Because no distinct trends in the response could be detected during a single day of measurement, all of the physiological measurements performed in the time period from 10:00 to 15:00 h were combined to provide a daily mean rate for each treatment. The lack of a daily trend in the observed response of pea plants to ambient air pollution suggests that the physiological effects were the results of medium and long-term modifications (chronic effects), which is in agreement with the results of Schenone et al. (1994) who studied *Phaseolus vulgaris*, and Zhang et al. (2001), who studied Swiss native plant species.

Most previous studies used growth, yield and visible injury symptoms as markers of the sensitivity of plants to O<sub>3</sub> toxicity (Fuhrer and Booker, 2003; Chappelka et al., 2003; Hassan, 2008). However, using physiological and biochemical responses to O<sub>3</sub> as biomarkers is helpful for detecting O<sub>3</sub> toxicity at early stages (Feng et al., 2007; Pellegrini et al., 2011; Thwe et al., 2014). An understanding of these physiological responses enhances our knowledge of the mechanisms involved in the plant response to O<sub>3</sub> (Baczek-Kwinta, 2002; Power and Ashmore, 2002; El Khatib, 2003; Nali et al., 2005, 2006; Pellegrini et al., 2011).

The net photosynthesis (P<sub>N</sub>) of NF plants was negatively affected, and this result is in agreement with the general view reported in the literature (Darrall, 1989; Wolfenden and Mansfield, 1991; Hassan et al., 1994; Schenone et al., 1994; Zhang et al., 2001). Moreover, the results of the present investigation indicated that the percentage decrease was higher in cultivar Victory than in the other two cultivars (Little Marvel and Perfection). The decrease in P<sub>N</sub> was recorded before the appearance of visible O<sub>3</sub> injury (chlorotic and necrotic spots) on the leaves of NF and AA plants. By that time most leaves of the FA plants were still green. Similar effects were recorded previously in other studies on plants exposed to air pollutants in OTCs (Sanders et al., 1992; Schenone et al., 1994; Zhang et al., 2001). The maximum impairment of P<sub>N</sub> occurred in 2013 when the recorded ozone levels were high. Moreover, the maximum impairment occurred during pod filling (55 days after exposure) and this could have influenced the yield, which was significantly lower for NF plants of the three cultivars (Hassan, 2008).

Photosynthesis is a good indicator of environmental stress. Most studies have demonstrated stomatal closure under stress, with a consequent decrease in P<sub>N</sub> (Calatayud et al., 2004). However, environmental stress may have direct effects on chloroplast that cause a decrease in P<sub>N</sub>, thus non-stomatal factors have roles in restricting P<sub>N</sub> (Zheng et al., 2000; Feng et al., 2007). Therefore, P<sub>N</sub> restriction could occur due to stomatal and/or non-stomatal factors (Shangguan et al., 1999). The closure of stomata results in a shortage of CO<sub>2</sub> (Boyer 1976). Non-stomatal factors include the followings: (1) an increase in diffusive resistance to CO<sub>2</sub> in the mesophyll; (2) a reduction in PS II; and (3) a decrease in chlorophyll content and inhibition of electron transport (Mackerness



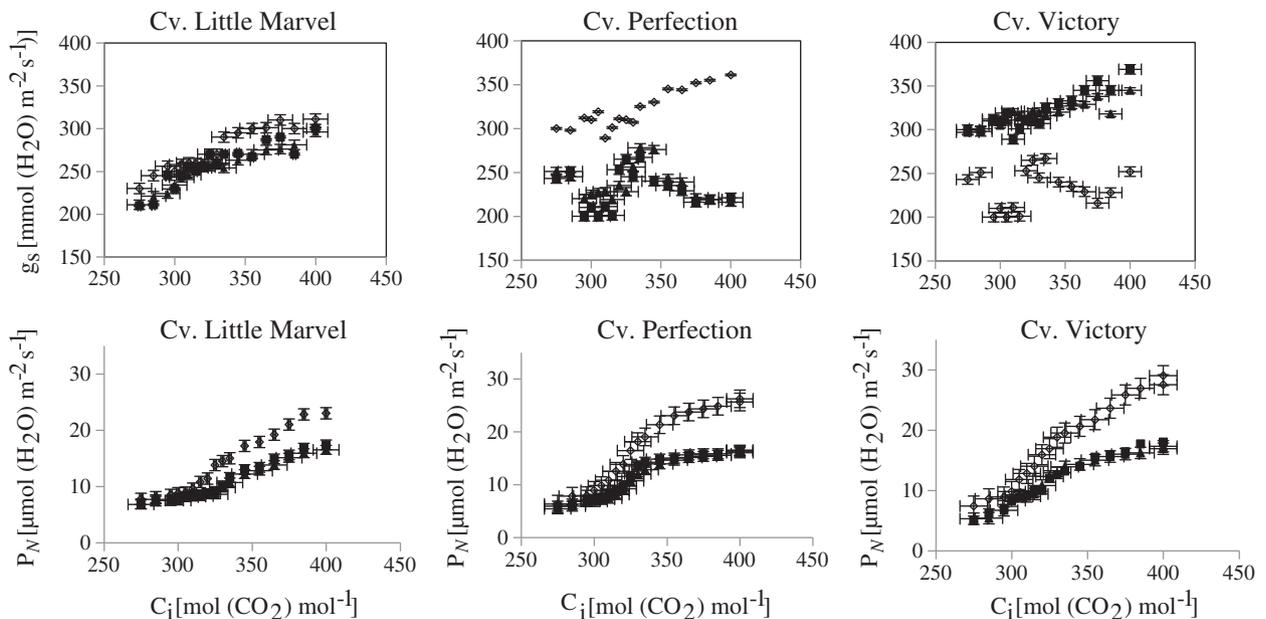
**Fig. 1.** Net photosynthetic rates ( $P_N$ ) [ $\mu\text{mol}(\text{CO}_2) \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ] (A), and stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ ) [ $\mu\text{mol}(\text{H}_2\text{O}) \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ] (B) of field-grown pea plants. The data shown in the figures are the means of five years. FA = filtered air. NF = non-filtered air, and AA = ambient air. ( $n = 15 \pm 1$  SE of the means).

2000; Hassan, 2006). If stomatal factors are the main factors, then  $P_N$  and  $g_s$  decrease owing to the decline in  $C_i$ . Otherwise, the decrease in  $P_N$  is dominated by non-stomatal factors.

The significant correlation between  $P_N$  and  $g_s$  indicated that stomatal closure could be the cause of the apparent reduction of  $P_N$  in the cultivars Little Marvel and Perfection. However, this was not the case in cv. Victory, where there was a negative correlation ( $r = -1.45$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ) between  $g_s$  and  $C_i$  (Fig. 2), suggesting that the reduction of  $P_N$  was not caused primarily by the lower  $g_s$  but rather by non-stomatal factors (Feng et al., 2007).

The regression of  $P_N$  versus  $C_i$  was analyzed to determine whether air pollutant(s) (mainly  $\text{O}_3$  in the present study) had any effect on the amount of active ribulose 1,5 biphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase

(Rubisco) or on the rate of ribulose 1,5 biphosphate (RuBp) regeneration (Guidi et al., 2001). The results obtained in the leaves of cultivars Little Marvel and Perfection exposed to long-term non-filtered air seem to support the view that the decrease in quantum yield of electron transport may be the mechanism underlying the down regulation of photosynthetic electron transport. Thus, the production of ATP and NADPH would be in equilibrium with the decreased demand in the Calvin cycle, especially the reduction was related to a strong stomatal closure in these cultivars or to an altered mesophyll activity ascribed to the limitations of the dark reactions of the photosynthetic process. Amthor (1988) and Badiani et al. (1993) reported some biochemical modifications in NF plants such as a decrease in total ascorbic acid, an increase in total glutathione content and an increase in catalase activity.



**Fig. 2.** Relationship between stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ ), photosynthetic activity (PN) and sub-stomatal  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration ( $C_i$ ) [ $\text{mol}(\text{CO}_2) \text{ mol}^{-1}$ ] in the three cultivars of pea ( $\diamond = \text{FA}$ ;  $\blacksquare = \text{NFA}$ ;  $\blacktriangle = \text{AA}$ ). (Abbreviations are the same as Fig. 1).

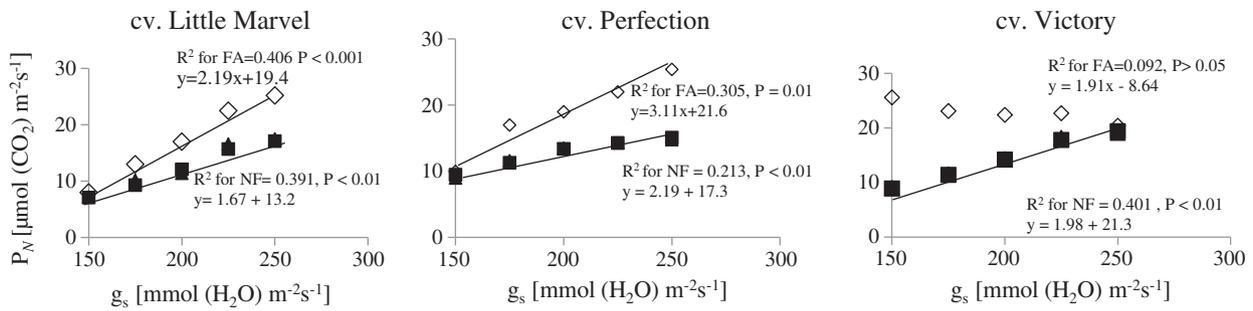


Fig. 3. Relationship between net photosynthetic rates ( $P_N$ ) and stomatal conductance ( $g_s$ ) in pea leaves exposed to FA and NFA. (Abbreviations are the same as Fig. 2).

These changes suggest the occurrence of an oxidative stress, which causes an increased energy demand to support repair and maintenance processes, and which ultimately reduces net photosynthesis. Our results concerning the increased importance of the non-stomatal limitation of photosynthesis in pea plants exposed to air pollution are in agreement with similar observations in beans (Schenone et al., 1994) and in spring wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) (Lehnherr et al., 1988).

The variable to maximum fluorescence ( $F_v/F_m$ ) ratio is a good indicator of the efficiency of the primary photochemistry of PSII and serves as a noninvasive indicator of the status of photosynthetic reaction centers

(Plazek et al., 2000; Thwe et al., 2014). In contrast to the results of Farage et al. (1991) and Plazek et al. (2000), who found a reduction in  $P_N$  but no response in the photochemical efficiency of PSII ( $F_v/F_m$ ), in wheat and barley, respectively, we found reductions in both  $P_N$  and the ratio of  $F_v/F_m$  in plants grown in NF or AA. These reductions indicated that ambient ozone inhibits the ability of crops to utilize photon energy and consequently changes the entire photosynthetic processes. These suggestions are supported by the alterations in other parameters such as  $\Phi_{PSII}$ , and  $qP$  (Guidi et al., 1999; Calatayud et al., 2006; Thwe et al., 2014). However, plants exposed to NF had a higher NPQ,

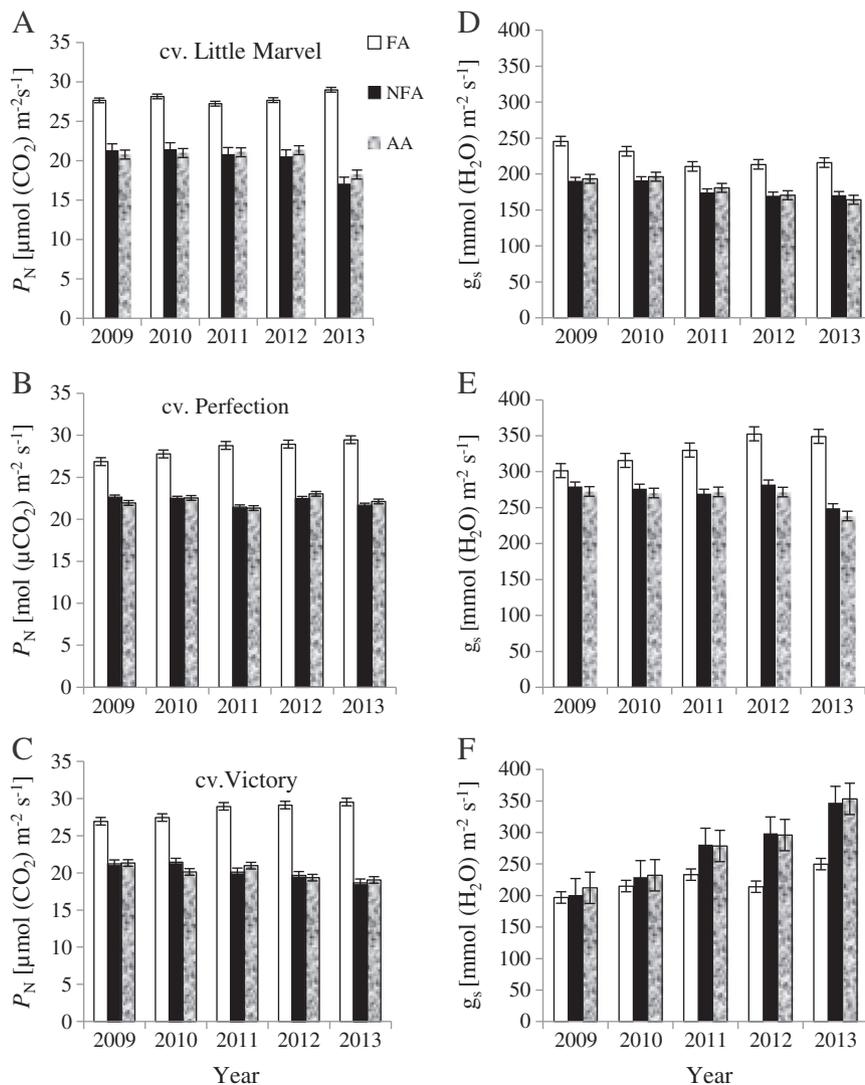


Fig. 4. Annual means of  $P_N$  [ $\mu\text{mol (CO}_2\text{) m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ] (A-C) and  $g_s$  [ $\text{mmol (H}_2\text{O) m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ] (D-F) of different pea cultivars of Pea, ( $n = 15 \pm 1$  SE of the means).

**Table 5**

Chlorophyll a fluorescence parameters in the leaves of the three pea cultivars exposed to ambient ozone. Abbreviations: Fv/Fm, variable to maximal fluorescence ratio;  $\Phi_{PSII}$  actual quantum yield of PSII; qP, photochemical quenching coefficient; and NPQ, non-photochemical quenching. The data represented are the means of five years  $\pm$  SD. FA = filtered air. NF = non-filtered air. Means not followed by the same letter are significantly different from each other at  $P < 0.05$  ( $n = 10 \pm$  SD).

Parameter	Treatment								
	Cv. Little Marvel			Cv. Perfection			Cv. Victory		
	FA	NF	AA	FA	NF	AA	FA	NF	AA
Fv/Fm	0.82 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 0.07	0.74 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.05	0.75 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.05	0.76 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 0.06	0.65 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.06	0.66 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.07	0.82 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 0.09	0.58 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.06	0.59 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.06
$\Phi_{PSII}$	0.61 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 0.06	0.43 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.04	0.42 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.04	0.59 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 0.06	0.45 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.05	0.46 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.06	0.61 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 0.07	0.41 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.04	0.43 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.04
qP	0.91 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 0.05	0.78 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.06	0.79 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.08	0.88 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 0.07	0.77 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.08	0.75 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.07	0.89 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 0.08	0.71 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.06	0.72 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.07
NPQ	0.51 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.03	0.97 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 0.11	1.01 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 0.09	0.63 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.07	1.01 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 0.09	0.99 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 0.09	0.56 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.07	1.13 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 0.09	1.04 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 0.08

**Table 6**

Changes in chlorophyll (Chl a, b, total chl and Chl a/b) content [g kg<sup>-1</sup> FW] in response to different treatments ( $n = 5 \pm$  SD). (Abbreviations are the same as those in Table 5).

Parameter	Treatment								
	Cv. Little Marvel			Cv. Perfection			Cv. Victory		
	FA	NF	AA	FA	NF	AA	FA	NF	AA
Chl a	7.80 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 1.1	6.30 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.80	6.45 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 1.11	6.20 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 0.90	5.20 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 1.05	4.93 $\pm$ 0.87	7.70 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 0.80	5.41 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.90	5.63 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 1.02
Chl b	5.70 $\pm$ 0.90	5.41 $\pm$ 0.60	5.21 $\pm$ 1.03	5.80 $\pm$ 0.80	5.60 $\pm$ 0.90	5.27 $\pm$ 0.76	5.80 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 1.10	4.10 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.40	4.43 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.91
Tot. Chl	13.50 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 2.90	9.71 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 1.90	11.66 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 2.30	12.0 $\pm$ 2.10	10.80 $\pm$ 2.10	10.20 $\pm$ 1.90	13.50 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 2.10	9.51 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 1.60	10.06 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 1.70
Chl a/b	1.35 $\pm$ 0.20	1.16 $\pm$ 0.80	1.24 $\pm$ 0.09	1.11 $\pm$ 0.35	0.93 $\pm$ 0.22	0.93 $\pm$ 0.23	1.33 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.30	1.32 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.30	1.27 $\pm$ 0.50

which reveals lower photochemical quenching, indicating greater photoinactivation of PSII in plants grown under NF conditions (Park et al., 1995; Calatayud and Barreno, 2001; Guidi et al., 2001; Calatayud et al., 2004; Pellegrini et al., 2011). The higher value of NPQ indicates the ability to mitigate the negative effects of ambient O<sub>3</sub> at the chloroplast level, as these organelles have the ability to dissipate the excess excitation energy (Pellegrini et al., 2011). This finding was confirmed by the reductions in F<sub>v</sub>/F<sub>m</sub> ratios found in these plants.

Although, the three cultivars were exposed simultaneously to non-filtered air, their stomata responded differently to O<sub>3</sub>, because exposure to NF air increased g<sub>s</sub> in cv. Victory, but decreased it in the other two cultivars. This study is one of very few to demonstrate an opposite response of g<sub>s</sub> to O<sub>3</sub> in closely related plants exposed simultaneously to non-filtered air under the same experimental conditions.

Reports in the literature on stomatal response to O<sub>3</sub> describe both increases and decreases in conductance (Darrall, 1989). It is not clear from these diverse reports whether these reported variations in stomatal responses to O<sub>3</sub> are related to the level and duration of exposure or to the climatic conditions during the experiment. In contrast, the present study provides clear evidence of a difference in stomatal response among cultivars. In the present experiment, the plants were exposed to relatively high levels of O<sub>3</sub> since emergence. Plant development and morphogenesis may therefore have been influenced, and the greater stomatal conductance observed in cv. Victory grown in NF air could be related to increased stomatal opening rather than increased stomatal number per leaf area, especially because the number of stomata on the three cultivars was very similar (data not shown). However, Schenone et al. (1994) related the increased in g<sub>s</sub> to stomatal number rather than stomatal opening in bean plants. Moreover, stomatal opening could be the result of damage to epidermal cells. Importantly, visible injury symptoms (in the form of chlorotic and necrotic stipples) were more prominent in this cultivar. Hassan et al. (1994) attributed the increase in g<sub>s</sub> in radish plants exposed to 50 nL L<sup>-1</sup> O<sub>3</sub> to rupture of the epidermal cells adjacent to stomata, thus offering less mechanical resistance, exerting no back pressure on the guard cells, and allowing the stomata to open more widely. Recently, Paoletti and Grulke (2010) reported that a delay in stomatal responses (i.e. 'sluggish' responses) was due to O<sub>3</sub> exposure and they postulated that stomatal sluggishness is a cause of increased O<sub>3</sub>-sensitivity in snap beans. This could also be the case in our study, however, further investigation is warranted.

In summary, photosynthetic CO<sub>2</sub> fixation in the chloroplast was inhibited by O<sub>3</sub> influx into the leaves. This inhibition induced an increase in C<sub>i</sub> and stomatal closure (especially in the cultivars Little Marvel and Perfection), resulting in the reduction of g<sub>s</sub>. The limitation of photosynthesis appears to be correlated with a reduction of the efficiency in the energy conversion of PSII. However, this was not the case in cultivar Victory, where increased g<sub>s</sub> and can be considered as detrimental as it would increase air pollutant (O<sub>3</sub>) flux and accelerate transpiration water loss. This may explain the greater sensitivity of the plants and indicates the importance of non-stomatal limitations of photosynthesis. In contrast, the decreased g<sub>s</sub> in cvs Little Marvel and Perfection would reduce O<sub>3</sub> influx and consequently increase resistance to O<sub>3</sub>-induced damage. Thus, the variability in the response of g<sub>s</sub> to O<sub>3</sub> reported in the literature is not entirely due to differences in experimental conditions or methodology, but may be due to inherent differences between species.

The present study showed that ambient air pollution has a clear influence on the physiology of pea plants. Moreover, it is argued that the major air contaminant involved in causing the observed physiological effects was O<sub>3</sub>, the presence of which at phytotoxic concentrations in the Mediterranean area has important impacts on vegetation.

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