

## Article (non-refereed) - postprint

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Paoletti, Elena; Feng, Zhaozhong; De Marco, Alessandra; Hoshika, Yasutomo; Harmens, Harry; Agathokleous, Evgenios; Domingos, Marisa; Mills, Gina; Sicard, Pierre; Zhang, Lu; Carrari, Elisa. 2020. **Challenges, gaps and opportunities in investigating the interactions of ozone pollution and plant ecosystems.**

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**The definitive version was published in *Science of the Total Environment* (2020), 709. 136188. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2019.136188>**

The definitive version is available at <https://www.elsevier.com/>

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# 1 **Challenges, gaps and opportunities in investigating the interactions of ozone** 2 **pollution and plant ecosystems**

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10 Climate change and air pollution are interlinked and are a threat to plant ecosystems. Tropospheric  
11 ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) impacts on plant ecosystems are of major concern globally, given the present  
12 distribution of O<sub>3</sub> pollution (Mills et al., 2018a) and the phytotoxicity of high O<sub>3</sub> levels (Paoletti,  
13 2007). Ozone is an air pollutant formed in sunlight from photochemical reactions of its precursors  
14 such as nitrogen oxides and volatile organic compounds. While O<sub>3</sub> is a normal component of the  
15 troposphere, its background concentrations in the Northern Hemisphere have doubled since pre-  
16 industrial times (Vingarzan, 2004; Parrish et al., 2012; Cooper et al., 2014), with negative effects on  
17 human and plant health (Oksanen et al., 2013; WHO, 2013; Lelieveld et al., 2015; Lelieveld and  
18 Pöschl, 2017; Mills et al., 2018a). Ozone causes cellular damage in plants, inducing reduced  
19 stomatal control, lower CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rates, and the occurrence of visible leaf injury (Fares et  
20 al., 2013; Jolivet et al., 2016; Ainsworth, 2017). These effects often accelerate senescence, diminish  
21 green leaf area and biomass, and reduce photosynthetic capacity (Jolivet et al., 2016; Ainsworth,  
22 2017). Hence, O<sub>3</sub> pollution has large impacts on plant functioning, and, consequently on plant  
23 ecosystem productivity and services (Karnosky et al., 2007; Lindroth, 2010), as well as agricultural  
24 yields (Oksanen et al., 2013; Tian et al., 2016; Tai and Val Martin, 2017; Mills et al., 2018b).

25 Progress has been achieved by controlling the emission of O<sub>3</sub> precursors in some areas of the world,  
26 but much remains to be done (Lefohn et al., 2018). On 21-24 May 2018, an international conference  
27 was organized in Florence (Italy), enabling all experts studying the interactions between O<sub>3</sub> and  
28 plant ecosystems to meet and discuss the state of the art and the strategies for continuous  
29 improvements. The conference was co-organized by the International Cooperative Programme on  
30 Effects of Air Pollution on Natural Vegetation and Crops (ICP Vegetation) and the International  
31 Union of Forest Research Organizations (IUFRO) Research Group8.04.00 (former RG7.01.00)  
32 *Impacts of Air Pollution and Climate Change on Forest Ecosystems* including the three Working  
33 Parties on “Genetic, biochemical and physiological processes”, “Modelling and risk assessment”

34 and “*Ground-level O<sub>3</sub>*”. The ICP Vegetation is an international research programme investigating  
35 the impacts of air pollutants, including O<sub>3</sub>, on crops and (semi-)natural vegetation, with a focus on  
36 impacts of pollutant mixtures (e.g. O<sub>3</sub> and nitrogen), consequences for biodiversity and the  
37 modifying influence of climate change on the impacts of air pollutants on vegetation (Harmens et  
38 al., 2015). The ICP Vegetation (<https://icpvegetation.ceh.ac.uk/>) reports to the Working Group on  
39 Effects (WGE) of the UNECE Convention on Long-Range Transboundary Air Pollution (LRTAP)  
40 (<http://www.unece.org/env/lrtap/welcome.html>). The IUFRO is the largest forest research network  
41 in the world (<https://www.iufro.org/>). The aim of RG 8.04.00 is to promote international  
42 cooperation, to encourage an interactive process among scientists, policy makers and  
43 representatives of local to regional governments and institutions, in order to share scientific  
44 knowledge and harmonize effective strategies aimed to reduce the risk for forests related to air  
45 pollution and climate change. Because of the recent establishment of the IUFRO working party on  
46 ground level O<sub>3</sub>, a special focus is on the impacts of O<sub>3</sub> on forests.

47 The main themes of the conference were: 1. Monitoring, modelling and assessing the risk of O<sub>3</sub>  
48 damage to plant ecosystems. Proofs of the impacts of ambient O<sub>3</sub> on plant ecosystems are still  
49 elusive. New monitoring approaches and epidemiological studies are developing. Modelling of O<sub>3</sub> is  
50 becoming more and more sophisticated and of high resolution. Risk assessment is evaluating many  
51 different metrics for plant protection, with a focus in Europe on stomatal O<sub>3</sub> flux. 2. How plant  
52 ecosystems respond to O<sub>3</sub> exposure, including effects on forests, grasslands and consequences for  
53 food security. A main aim was to evaluate strategies for maximizing yield, productivity and other  
54 environmental services of plant ecosystems under O<sub>3</sub> stress. 3. How plant ecosystems affect O<sub>3</sub>  
55 concentrations in the atmosphere. Ozone deposition is strongly affected by the type of vegetation.  
56 Emission of biogenic volatile organic compounds is known to contribute to O<sub>3</sub> chemistry in the  
57 atmosphere. Mechanisms, seasonality and responses to O<sub>3</sub> singly and in combination with other  
58 environmental factors, as well as selection of appropriate green infrastructure for urban greening  
59 were discussed.

60 The conference participants discussed actual and emerging research challenges, knowledge gaps  
61 and opportunities in investigating the interactions of O<sub>3</sub> pollution and plant ecosystems. From the  
62 oral and poster presentations, 24 papers were peer-reviewed and published in a dedicated special  
63 issue in *Science of the Total Environment*, available at  
64 <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/journal/00489697/vsi/10Q8QW4D8R7>. The published  
65 special issue provides a source of new knowledge regarding status, trends and impacts of O<sub>3</sub>  
66 pollution as well as plant physiological mechanisms and ecological effects under O<sub>3</sub> singly or

67 combined with other environmental factors. Some of the main findings of the published papers are  
68 summarized herein, by grouping the papers into four categories (note: some of the papers provide  
69 new and important insights that fall within more than one categories, but are discussed only in one  
70 category for presentation purposes; the reader may refer to the original articles for further reading):

71 1) Three papers deal with air pollution status, trends, and real-world impacts on forest trees,  
72 and one paper deals with dose-response models used for the evaluation of O<sub>3</sub> effects and derivation  
73 of critical levels. Zeng et al. (2019) illustrate that while the levels of SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub> and particulate  
74 matter (PM) have been reduced over the last decade, the levels of O<sub>3</sub> are increasing in China. They  
75 also found that the values of the average 90<sup>th</sup> percentile of daily maximum 8-hour average O<sub>3</sub>  
76 concentration (90<sup>th</sup> MDA8), annual mean of the weekly average O<sub>3</sub> concentrations from 09:00 to  
77 16:00 (M7), and cumulative exposure to hourly O<sub>3</sub> concentrations exceeding 40 ppb (AOT40)  
78 showed an increasing trend in 31 capital cities over the time period 2013-2017. The work by Zeng  
79 et al. (2019) also suggests that China's air pollution is now NO<sub>x</sub> and O<sub>3</sub>-dominated, highlighting  
80 that O<sub>3</sub> will remain a major air pollutant threatening plants in the many years to come. Araminienė  
81 et al. (2019), based on data from 2001 onward, found that the annual mean O<sub>3</sub> concentration (- 0.28  
82 ppb per decade) and AOT40 (- 2,540 ppb h per decade) decreased, whereas the Phytotoxic O<sub>3</sub> Dose  
83 over a threshold of 0 nmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> (POD<sub>0</sub>) increased (0.4 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> per decade) in Lithuania.  
84 AOT40 and POD<sub>0</sub> were correlated with crown defoliation and visible foliar injury, respectively, in  
85 ICP-Forests plots; however, the visible injury was negligible in terms of magnitude. Hůnová et al.  
86 (2019) mapped AOT40 and N deposition in Czech forests over the years 2000–2015, and found  
87 higher N deposition in northern areas while southern areas had higher O<sub>3</sub> exposures. Interestingly,  
88 areas with a potential risk from simultaneously high O<sub>3</sub> exposure and N deposition represented only  
89 less than 5% of the total forested area.

90 2) Seven papers deal with dose (or exposure)-response relationship for evaluating O<sub>3</sub> effects  
91 on plants and risk assessment. Agathokleous et al. (2019a) evaluated published literatures on O<sub>3</sub>  
92 effects on plants as well as the most recent developments in toxicological dose-response research to  
93 assess the biological relevance of different dose-response models as to their biological suitability  
94 for risk assessment. Their study documents a wide occurrence of O<sub>3</sub>-induced hormesis in plants,  
95 which results from the activation of the *adaptive response* by low O<sub>3</sub> exposures/doses.  
96 Agathokleous et al. (2019a) suggest that the AOT40 metric is biologically irrelevant, and thresholds  
97 in the metrics should not be used, when assessing dose-response relationships to derive  
98 toxicological estimates. A further paper by Dusart et al. (2019) is an integrated experiment that  
99 analyzes biological mechanisms of plant response to O<sub>3</sub>, and suggests that both linear threshold and

100 hormetic models can be observed in biological response indicators (e.g. defense- or repair-related)  
101 when using  $POD_0$  as  $O_3$  metric; this study also sheds light on detoxification mechanisms associated  
102 with the Halliwell-Asada-Foyer cycle and can feed risk assessment evaluations in the future, with a  
103 perspective to account for detoxification and repair processes that are currently excluded. By  
104 incorporating  $O_3$  (120 ppb, 17 days) and mild water deficit stress singly or in combination, Dusart  
105 et al. (2019) also suggest that antagonistic effects between water deficit stress and  $O_3$  can modify  
106 the slope of the dose-response relationship and the magnitude of the response in the hormetic  
107 model. Pellegrini et al. (2019) cultivated three oak species (*Quercus ilex*, *Q. pubescens* and *Q.*  
108 *robur*) under single and combined effects of  $O_3$  (1.0, 1.2 and 1.4 times the ambient  $O_3$   
109 concentration) and water availability (100, 80 and 42% of field capacity). They observed that both  
110  $O_3$  and drought enhanced carotenoids, decreased flavonoids and prevented the peroxidation by free  
111 radicals in *Q. ilex* and *Q. pubescens*, but induced a partial readjustment of the phenylpropanoid  
112 pathway and cell structure damage in *Q. robur*, suggesting that *Q. robur* is less tolerant than *Q. ilex*  
113 and *Q. pubescens*. They further assessed the  $POD_0$ -malondialdehyde response relationships and  
114 proposed that accelerated leaf senescence can be assessed in deciduous oak species using the POD  
115 approach. Shang et al. (2019), after exposing two clones of poplar to  $O_3$ , evaluated exposure-  
116 response relationships using AOT40 as  $O_3$  metric and leaf mass per area, photosynthetic N-use  
117 efficiency and leaf N concentration per area or per mass as response indicators. They demonstrated  
118 that the slope of the exposure-response relationship differed between the two clones when N  
119 concentration was expressed per leaf area but not when N concentration was expressed per leaf  
120 mass. This study provides important insights for selecting response indicators. Dai et al. (2019)  
121 evaluated experimentally whether N load affects the  $O_3$  stomatal flux-response relationship for  
122 birch saplings biomass, and found that  $O_3$  dose-response relationships for biomass were not affected  
123 by N load. This study suggests a need for further long-term studies and with different species to  
124 confirm whether the nature of the  $O_3$  dose-response relationships and the thereby toxicological  
125 estimates are affected by N load. Pleijel et al. (2019) utilized published data to assess  $O_3$  impacts on  
126 wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) grain yield in Europe, Asia and North America using dose-response  
127 analysis. They concluded that, on average, the response was lower for the older North American  
128 experiments but the grain mass and harvest index responded similarly for Europe, Asia and North  
129 America. This study also highlights the importance of the response indicator (plant trait) for dose-  
130 response relationships and risk assessment. Feng et al. (2019) conducted a meta-analysis on  $O_3$   
131 effects on poplars, and found that current ambient  $O_3$  levels may reduce photosynthesis by 33% and  
132 total plant biomass by 4%, and that high  $O_3$  (mean=88 ppb) reduces isoprene emission rate by 34%.  
133 Furthermore, exposure-response relationships of photosynthesis, leaf chlorophyll concentrations

134 and total biomass of poplars using global data were provided for the first time. This study provides  
135 important information for air pollution feedbacks due to O<sub>3</sub> as well as for improving O<sub>3</sub> risk  
136 assessment.

137 3) Seven papers report on the interactive effects of O<sub>3</sub> with other environmental factors, in  
138 particular salinity, fertilization and soil water availability. Calzone et al. (2019) studied single and  
139 combined effects of O<sub>3</sub> and salinity on pomegranate plants (*Punica granatum* cv. Dente di cavallo)  
140 for three months and found that leaf antioxidative adjustments in the presence of both elevated O<sub>3</sub>  
141 (AOT40=58.7 ppm h) and salinity were insufficient to ameliorate the O<sub>3</sub>-induced oxidative stress.  
142 Sugai et al. (2019) assessed the effects of N loading and O<sub>3</sub> on Japanese larch (*L. kaempferi*) and its  
143 hybrid F<sub>1</sub> (*L. gmelinii* var. *japonica* × *L. kaempferi*) over two growing seasons (three months of  
144 exposure per growing season). They found that N loading (50 kg (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) reduced the  
145 negative effects of O<sub>3</sub> on Japanese larch but did not reduce the negative effects of elevated O<sub>3</sub>  
146 (average monthly AOT40= 7.0 ppm h) on growth and photosynthetic capacity of hybrid larch.  
147 Higher growth response to N load contributed to more severe O<sub>3</sub> effects in hybrid larch, and leaf  
148 N/P ratio seemed to have an important role in O<sub>3</sub> and N load responses. In another study, Podda et  
149 al. (2019) exposed an O<sub>3</sub>-susceptible poplar clone to single or combined effects of O<sub>3</sub> (ambient,  
150 1.5 × ambient and 2.0 × ambient), soil N (0 and 80 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) and P load (P; 0, 40 and 80 ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>)  
151 for five months. O<sub>3</sub> induced multiple stress signals, independently of the concentration. N and P  
152 fertilization restricted the accumulation of reactive oxygen species and enhanced membrane  
153 stability but only in ambient O<sub>3</sub> (14.4 ppm h) and 1.5 × ambient O<sub>3</sub> (43.8 ppm h); N and P  
154 fertilization could not mitigate the effects of 2.0 × ambient O<sub>3</sub> exposure (71.1 ppm h). Agathokleous  
155 et al. (2019b) treated cauliflower (*Brassica oleracea*) with O<sub>3</sub> (ambient≈20 ppb, elevated≈55 ppb)  
156 and/or N loading (0 and 50 kg (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) for about one month in an open-field  
157 experiment. They found that N availability but not O<sub>3</sub> drove plant-herbivore interactions, through  
158 enhanced leaf N content. They followed this up with laboratory assays where polyphagous larvae  
159 (Eri silkmoth, *Samia ricini*) could feed on leaf tissues from either each experimental condition  
160 separately (no-choice) or all the experimental conditions together (choice). The field observations  
161 for preference toward N-treated leaves were confirmed by the choice assays; however, the no-  
162 choice assays also showed that larval body mass growth was inhibited when larvae fed on leaf  
163 tissues from elevated O<sub>3</sub> or high N load. Mrak et al. (2019) studied responses of roots and  
164 ectomycorrhizae communities in three oak species (*Q. ilex*, *Q. pubescens* and *Q. robur*) subjected to  
165 O<sub>3</sub> (1.0 and 1.4 times the ambient O<sub>3</sub> concentration) and/or water availability (100 and 10% of field  
166 capacity) for about 150 days (see also Pellegrini et al., 2019), and revealed greater effects of O<sub>3</sub>  
167 when plants were well-watered, although the effects were complex, species-specific and root-trait

168 specific. Likewise, Li et al. (2019) exposed a poplar clone to charcoal-filtered air and ambient air  
169 enriched with 40 ppb of O<sub>3</sub> as well as to different irrigation regimes and soil N loads (50 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>  
170 yr<sup>-1</sup>) for 104 days, and found that elevated O<sub>3</sub> (AOT40=41.6 ppm h) reduced total plant biomass but  
171 not when irrigation and soil N were limited. Finally, Landi et al. (2019) subjected two deciduous  
172 oak species (*Q. cerris* and *Q. pubescens*) to either full irrigation or 15-day water withholding (20%  
173 of daily evapotranspiration) and, then, to either filtered air or 200 ppb O<sub>3</sub> for 5 h. They found that *Q.*  
174 *cerris* had a higher capacity to propagate the wave of O<sub>3</sub>-induced reactive oxygen species than *Q.*  
175 *pubescens*, even in water-limiting conditions, thus, its PSII function was better protected when the  
176 episodic O<sub>3</sub> pulse occurred. *Q. pubescens* lost its ability to cope with O<sub>3</sub> when subjected to water  
177 withholding; thus, it was more susceptible to the episodic O<sub>3</sub> pulse than *Q. cerris* in water-limiting  
178 conditions.

179 4) Seven papers examine mechanisms of O<sub>3</sub> effects on plants and plant-interacting microbes  
180 and insects. Fernandes et al. (2019) demonstrated that the liana species *Passiflora edulis* Sims was  
181 tolerant to O<sub>3</sub> exposures elevated up to twice the ambient concentration for about three months, and  
182 its tolerance was related to enhanced non-enzymatic antioxidants (ascorbic acid, carotenoids,  
183 glutathione and flavonoids), hyperplasia and hypertrophy of the mesophyll cells, and other  
184 morphological acclimation responses. Gandin et al. (2019) exposed ten Euramerican poplar  
185 genotypes (*Populus deltoides* × *nigra*) to 120 ppb of O<sub>3</sub> for 3 weeks to shed light on the relative  
186 contribution of different biological mechanisms to O<sub>3</sub> tolerance. They found that growth and  
187 productivity can be maintained by protecting photosynthetic capacity through ascorbate peroxidase  
188 and ascorbate regeneration through monodehydroascorbate reductase, which were the major  
189 determinants of O<sub>3</sub> tolerance. Yadav et al. (2019), after exposing early and late sown wheat  
190 cultivars to ambient and elevated (ambient + 20 ppb) O<sub>3</sub> levels for one growing season, concluded  
191 that cultivars that were sown early outperformed cultivars that were sown late in their defense  
192 response due to higher induction of enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidants. However, this study  
193 also suggests that cultivars that were sown early may be more susceptible to elevated O<sub>3</sub> because of  
194 the extra metabolic cost that non-enzymatic defense mechanisms require compared to enzymatic  
195 defense. Marchica et al. (2019) conducted a sequence genome analysis of common sage (*Salvia*  
196 *officinalis*) exposed to 200 ppb O<sub>3</sub> and found that the genes *WRKY4*, *WRKY5*, *WRKY11* and  
197 *WRKY46* were up-regulated after 2 and 5 hours of O<sub>3</sub> exposure. These results suggest that WRKYs  
198 were important for regulating signaling mechanisms during the initial response of plants to O<sub>3</sub>.  
199 These studies also provide new insights into the role of ethylene, salicylic acid and jasmonic acid in  
200 O<sub>3</sub> defense mechanisms (Landi et al. 2019; Marchica et al. 2019), but also highlight the complexity  
201 of the signaling network in plants exposed to multiple stresses. Xu et al. (2019) cultivated an O<sub>3</sub>-

202 sensitive hybrid poplar clone (*Populus deltoides* cv. 55/56 × *P. deltoides* cv. Imperial) in charcoal-  
203 filtered ambient air or elevated O<sub>3</sub> (40 ppb above ambient concentration), for about 100 days, and  
204 showed that inhibition of light-saturated net photosynthesis by O<sub>3</sub> was associated more with  
205 decreased mesophyll conductance, little with carboxylation and not with stomatal conductance.  
206 Although the magnitude of the responses varied with time and leaves, this study suggests that  
207 mesophyll conductance is a key determinant of photosynthesis under elevated O<sub>3</sub>. Wang et al.  
208 (2019) exposed a temperate grassland to O<sub>3</sub> for 4 years (4-years average AOT40=1.3, 14.0 or 26.4  
209 ppm h for three O<sub>3</sub> treatments, respectively). Their results show that total soil carbon and β-  
210 glucosidase activity were decreased by elevated O<sub>3</sub>; however, microbial activities were not affected  
211 significantly by O<sub>3</sub> or its interaction with aggregate size. Nonetheless, the size and activity of the  
212 microbial community were altered by elevated O<sub>3</sub>. Zhang et al. (2019) studied bacterial  
213 communities in a rotation paddy system with summer rice (*Oryza sativa*) and winter wheat (*T.*  
214 *aestivum*) exposed to ambient or elevated O<sub>3</sub> for 4 growing seasons (4-year average daily mean ≈ 37  
215 or 48 ppb, respectively). With the elevation of O<sub>3</sub> levels, bacterial alpha diversities were stimulated  
216 through a survival strategy in the presence of limited resources, which resulted in the instability of  
217 the community, and the temporal turnover of the bacterial community composition was decelerated  
218 as a result of plant-derived deterministic processes. A collection of four studies published in this  
219 special issue provides further novel insights on O<sub>3</sub> indirect effects on microbes and insects  
220 (Agathokleous et al., 2019b; Mrak et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019), suggesting  
221 that elevated O<sub>3</sub> may pose an indirect threat to trophic interactions. The published papers provide a  
222 platform upon which future developments can be based.

223

224 Thanks to the broad participation of experts from different countries and scientific fields, the  
225 conference was a fundamental moment to define the state-of-the-art of the challenging interactions  
226 between O<sub>3</sub> and plant ecosystems. More field-based evidence of O<sub>3</sub> impacts (monitoring and  
227 experimental data in both developing and developed regions, and use of epidemiological data) and  
228 O<sub>3</sub> interactions with other stressors related to a changing climate. Flux-based metrics are the most  
229 biologically relevant indicators for O<sub>3</sub> risk assessments and must be proposed as standards for  
230 ecosystem protection. A necessity emerged to improve the research network and establish further  
231 science policy frameworks, especially in developing regions.

232

233 The following key issues were identified of major interest at present: a) General updates on O<sub>3</sub>  
234 trends in different countries and ecosystems; b) Regional risk assessment of ambient O<sub>3</sub>; c) New  
235 developments in modeling of O<sub>3</sub> deposition for forest trees and crops; d) Multi-scale monitoring

236 approaches; e) Big data validation and analyses (e.g. TOAR, GAW database); f) Active monitoring  
237 of hourly O<sub>3</sub> concentrations and phytotoxic O<sub>3</sub> dose calculations; g) Mechanisms of O<sub>3</sub> impacts and  
238 detoxification (molecular, physiological, and stomata); h) Latest results from multifactorial studies,  
239 the effect of O<sub>3</sub> on plants in combination with other biotic and abiotic stressors; i) Impacts of O<sub>3</sub> on  
240 below-ground processes and nutrient cycling; j) O<sub>3</sub> impacts on non-woody (semi-)natural  
241 vegetation, e.g. grasslands; k) Joint use of O<sub>3</sub> research facilities e.g. ozone FACEs; l) Impacts of O<sub>3</sub>  
242 on vegetation in urban areas and role of vegetation in cleaning air in cities.

243 Future goals include the incorporation of O<sub>3</sub> impacts in crop and tree growth models, in modelling  
244 future impacts in the context of a changing climate (e.g. drought, warming and elevated CO<sub>2</sub>) and  
245 developing epidemiologically-based O<sub>3</sub> critical levels for ecosystem protection against O<sub>3</sub>, as  
246 recommended by the LRTAP Convention and for application in the EU National Emission Ceilings  
247 Directive (NECD) (EU, 2016; European Environment Agency, 2018). Non-linear dose-response  
248 relationships should be considered, especially for biological response indicators if detoxification  
249 capacity is incorporated in the derivation of critical levels in the future. As a future activity,  
250 scientists should work for a better definition of O<sub>3</sub> impacts on the complexity of ecosystems  
251 services, as well as for the investigation of “management” solutions for crops, forests and semi-  
252 natural ecosystems. New opportunities in the field are related to studies focusing on the  
253 socioeconomic and environmental evaluation of O<sub>3</sub> impacts on crops and terrestrial ecosystems.  
254 Ozone experts can also contribute to the greening of cities to improve air quality and human well-  
255 being, defining the most suitable species differentiated for geographical areas. Finally, the  
256 conference warrant that the community should work for improving knowledge transfer to  
257 stakeholders, in particular policy makers, regarding the O<sub>3</sub>-plant ecosystem interactions. These  
258 goals will be discussed, in light of new evidence, at the next international conference entitled “*Air*  
259 *Pollution Threats to Plant Ecosystems*” that will be held on 4-8 May, 2020, in Paphos, Cyprus  
260 (<http://www.ozoneandplants2020.com/>).

261

262 **Acknowledgements:** the organizers are grateful to all the participants for active participation and  
263 fruitful discussions, to Regione Toscana for hospitality and ARCHES-Conseils for organization,  
264 and to both European projects, MOTTLES (LIFE15 ENV/IT/000183) and MITIMPACT  
265 (INTERREG ALCOTRA 2017-2020) for financial support. The ICP Vegetation Programme  
266 Coordination Centre at the UK Centre for Ecology & Hydrology in Bangor is grateful for the  
267 financial support provided by the UK Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs (Defra  
268 project AQ0846) and the UNECE Trust Fund of the Long-range Transboundary Air Pollution  
269 Convention (Fund LUA-E910 SB-001832).

270

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