



DOES CO₂ AMELIORATE PHYTOTOXIC EFFECTS OF O₃? A STUDY CASE ON THEIR INTERACTIVE EFFECTS ON PHYSIOLOGY, AND YIELD OF POTATO (*SOLANUM TUBEROSUM* L. CV. KARA) PLANTS

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Abstract: Potato (*Solanum tuberosum* L. cv. Kara) was grown in Open-Top Chambers (OTCs) in Northern Egypt at ambient (ca 350 ppm) or doubled CO₂ (ca 690 ppm) either in charcoal-filtered air (15 nl l⁻¹) or in non-filtered ambient air (78 nl l⁻¹ O₃) to investigate the changes in physiology and yield under long-term elevated CO₂ and/or O₃ throughout 100 days. Ambient O₃ level reduced net photosynthetic rates, number and weight of tubers by 18%, 41% and 21%, respectively, whereas elevated CO₂ caused the opposite effect where it increased the same parameters by 44%, 37% and 20%, respectively. Significant O₃ x CO₂ interactions were detected. However, O₃ caused an increase in GR and POD by 18% and 35%, respectively, while CO₂ caused an increase in POD only by 46%, and there was no effect of O₃ and/or CO₂ on other enzymes. The results of this study are discussed in relation to predicted atmospheric changes.

Keywords: Open-Top Chambers; OTCs; Potato (*Solanum tuberosum*); O₃; CO₂; photosynthesis; Stomatal Conductance; antioxidant enzymes; growth and yield. Superoxide Dismutase; SOD; Glutathione Reductase; GR; Ascorbate Peroxidase; APX; Guaiacol peroxidase; POD.

INTRODUCTION

Ozone (O₃) is the most phytotoxic pollutant in the USA, Europe and other industrialised areas of the world imposing the great threat on Vegetation (Gardner et al., 2005; Hassan, 2006; Hayes et al., 2009;

Keutgen, 2005; Oksanen et al., 2005; Ranford and Reiling, 2007). Its ambient concentrations in the troposphere are increasing due to global industrialisation and excessive anthropogenic emission of its precursors. Moreover, CO₂ concentrations

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are expected to continue rising in the 21st century to levels that significantly increase plant growth and yield (Booker and Fiscus, 2005; Morison & Morecroft, 2008; Prather et al., 2001; Råmo et al., 2005).

Atmospheric CO₂ enrichment generally increases net photosynthesis, biomass and yield in many plant species, including potato plants (Ainsworth and Long, 2005; Donnelly et al., 2001a, b; Heagle et al., 2003; Schapendok et al., 2000). In contrast, exposure to O₃ induces leaf loss and decreased leaf production resulting in reduction in net photosynthetic rates and ultimately, reductions in net carbon gain and yield of crops (Calvo et al., 2009; Råmo et al., 2005; Ranford and Reiling, 2007; Topa et al., 2001; Yonekura et al., 2004).

Response of plants to O₃ and CO₂ singly and in combination vary among species and results are contradictory, while Booker and Fiscus (2005) reported that elevated CO₂ caused an increase in the threshold of O₃ flux for yields of soybean, Heagle et al. (2003) found difficulty in predicting effects of both gases on potato. However, Finnan et al. (2002) found that CO₂ ameliorated foliar injury caused by O₃ in potato. These variations in response may be due to differences in methodologies, duration of exposure and species and cultivar used.

Booker et al. (2005), found that exposure of soybean plants to elevated CO₂ prevent the deleterious effects of O₃ and they ascribed such protection to the fact that high CO₂ concentrations would lower O₃ flux into leaves. Similar results were found with potato, as elevated CO₂ caused an increase in tuber yield and ameliorated foliar injury caused by O₃ (Donnelly et al., 2001; Finnan et al., 2002).

McKee et al. (2000) stated that elevated CO₂ causes stomatal closure, lowering

stomatal conductance and hence amount of O₃ flux into leaves and subsequently O₃ injury. Recently, this suggestion was supported by the results of Cardoso-Vilhena et al. (2004), who found similar results on wheat. However, this was not the case in the study of Pole and Pell (1999), who did not detect any reduction in stomatal conductance in some tree species in response to high levels of CO₂, although O₃ injury was diminished. They ascribed the protective effects of CO₂ against O₃ injury to increased photosynthate availability that could be used for repair and detoxification processes. Nevertheless, Olszyk and Wise (1997) revealed that elevated CO₂ did not suppress the deleterious effect of O₃ on biomass of tomato plants and they stated that this effect was due to partial stomatal closure. This finding was supported recently with the results of Cardoso-Vilhena et al. (2004).

Plants grown in elevated CO₂ might also be able to increase or maintain pools of antioxidants that confer resistance to O₃ injury on soybean plants (Booker and Fiscus, 2005; Polle and Pell, 1999; Reid and Fiscus, 1998).

However, Pritchard et al. (2000) found lower antioxidative enzyme activity in CO₂ - treated soybeans, they stated that this may reflect a decrease in oxidative stress resulting from growth in a CO₂ - enriched atmosphere. These results supported the earlier study of McKee et al. (1997) and Sgherri et al. (2000), who found no significant effect of elevated CO₂ on superoxide dismutase (SOD) and Glutathione Reductase (GR) in wheat and alfalfa plants, respectively.

Results from studies investigating the interactive effects of O₃ and CO₂ are contradictory. While Elevated CO₂ alleviated some of the negative effects of O₃ on physiology

and growth of some plants (Booker and Fiscus (2005) and this was correlated to increase in the activity of antioxidant enzymes (e.g. SOD and GR), Heagle et al. (2003) found difficulties in predicting interactive effects of O₃ and CO₂ based on the effects of the individual gases in potato plants. Potato (*Solanum tuberosum* L.) is of major importance for human nutrition and, in terms of the tonnage produced, is the second most important crop in Europe after wheat. Potato ranks fourth on a global scale after wheat, rice and maize (FAO 2000, cited by Vandermeiren et al., 2005). The impact of future increases in atmospheric concentrations of gaseous pollutants such as O₃ on the yield and quality of potato tubers is therefore of major concern for scientists, policy-makers and farmers. The recent EU-funded collaborative research programme 'Changing Climate and Potential Impacts on Potato Yield and Quality' (CHIP) provided an extensive database of information on this topic. CHIP is one of the largest Open-Top Chamber (OTC) projects ever commissioned to examine the impact of rising tropospheric O₃ concentrations, alone or in combination with elevated CO₂, on the physiology, growth and productivity of crop species or natural vegetation, matched only in Europe by the earlier EU funded ESPACE-wheat and ESPACE-grass programs. Evaluations of the impact of future increases in tropospheric O₃ levels and accumulated exposure must take account of their interactions with other changing physical, chemical and environmental stresses which are directly affected by either human activities (e.g. fertilizer application) and/or by global change (rising CO₂ concentrations, water stress, UV-B radiation, other gaseous pollutants). The potato growth simulation model, LPOTCO, which has been improved using the comprehensive dataset by CHIP, suggests that the prevailing conditions under climate

scenarios for 2050 (including increasing in temperature, O₃ and CO₂ concentrations) would increase the yield of potato in most of European countries, primarily because of the beneficial effect of increased CO₂ (Wolf and Van Oijen, 2003). These predictions suggest that potato productivity partially protected from the potentially damaging impact of O₃ by increasing CO₂ – induced decreases in stomatal conductance (Fiscus et al., 1997; McKee et al., 1997; Vandermerien et al., 2005).

Although many studies addressed the effects of CO₂ and /or O₃ on plants in the developed world, no such study, to the best of knowledge, was conducted in developing world.

The present investigation was conducted to investigate the response to O₃ and CO₂, singly and in combination, of an important Egyptian crop, potato (*Solanum tuberosum* L. cv Kara) in terms of foliar injury, stomatal conductance, photosynthetic rates, activity of some antioxidant enzymes, growth and yield and to assess and to understand the mechanism by which CO₂ can protect plants against phytotoxic effects of O₃.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Experimental area, cultural methods and exposure

The fieldwork was carried out in northern Egypt, at Abbis village (a 'rural' site), located 35 km to the south of Alexandria city in the Nile Delta. The experimental site was about 2 km from the nearest traffic road and was surrounded by Eucalyptus, Casuarina and Salix trees. This was being the main agricultural area of the country.

Whole tubers of an Egyptian cultivar of potato (*S. tuberosum* L. cv. Kara), obtained

from a commercial source (averaged 50g), were sown in 20-L pots, 18 November 2007, filled with soil collected from the field (soil texture was Loamy clay) in accordance with Standardized Changing Climate and Potential Impacts on Potato Yield and Quality (CHIP) protocol (Donnelly et al., 2001). The soil already enriched with fertilizer (NPK as farmers used to mix soil with NPK at a rate of 200, 100 and 150 kg h⁻¹, respectively, to get a reasonable yield).

Potato plant is a winter crop, so they were sown and harvested during the winter season as normal agricultural practical in Egypt.

Pots transferred to eight OTCs (Hassan, 1998), and distributed randomly in a complete random factorial block design for reciprocal gas treatment. There were 12 pots per chamber. Plants were watered twice a week with tap water till field capacity. No pesticides or insecticides were applied.

The experiment was a two-factorial design that consisted of two O₃ treatments (ambient and charcoal-filtered) and two atmospheric CO₂ concentrations (ambient and double ambient) replicated twice.

The treatment combinations were:

- 1 charcoal-filtered air (CF) and ambient CO₂ (ca 350 ppm) (control)
- 2 CF plus double CO₂ concentrations (ca 650 ppm)
- 3 non-filtered air (NF) plus ambient CO₂
- 4 NF plus double CO₂.

CO₂ was dispensed from a 500-L receiver and its concentrations in the chambers were monitored with Infrared CO₂ analyser (Model 6252; Li-Cor, Inc., Lincoln, NE) calibrated with CO₂ standards. O₃ concentrations in the chambers were monitored using UV photometric O₃ analyser (TECO Model 49;

Thermo Environmental, Franklin, MA). Analyser was calibrated with TECO Model 49 PS calibrator. Air was sampled in each chamber at canopy level every 7.5 min.

Stomatal conductance and Net Photosynthetic measurements

Photosynthetic rates (A), stomatal conductance (g_s) and internal CO₂ (C_i) were measured on the first foliage expanded leaf, from all plants, during the entire course of the experiment using a portable Infra Red Gas Analyser (Li-Cor, Model 6200) under OTC conditions.

Measurement were made weekly between 10:00 and 14:00h (Egyptian local time), from the 7th to the 15th week after planting (destructive harvest).

Destructive harvest and antioxidant assays

Destructive harvests were carried out five times; 20, 40, 60, 80 and 100 Days After Planting (DAP). Plants were randomly selected and divided into above- and below-ground biomass before determining the number and dry weight of green and senescent leaves, stem dry weight, tuber number and tuber dry weight.

Antioxidant enzymes assays

Leaves collected from the final destructive harvest (100 DAP) were subjected to biochemical analyses. Extractions of antioxidant enzymes from the leaves of the four treatments (CF and ambient CO₂ (control); CF plus double CO₂ concentrations; NF plus ambient CO₂; (iv) NF plus double CO₂), were performed according to Lee et al. (1997). Leaves were cut from each treatment and immersed in liquid nitrogen and kept in a deep freezer at 80°C until the analyses.

Samples were weighed and ground at about 0°C in 25 ml Tris-HCl buffer containing 3 mM MgCl₂, then the homogenates were centrifuged at 20,000 for 15 min at 4°C (Centrifuge 17 S/RS, Heraeus Sepatech). The supernatants were used for the enzyme assays and the results were expressed on protein basis (Bradford, 1976).

All assays were performed using a final volume of 1 ml, with at least duplicate assays undertaken on each sample. Moreover, the assays were end point determinations (Hassan, 2006).

Superoxide dismutase (SOD, EC 1.15.1.1) activity was monitored according to Lee et al. (1997). The extraction contained 50 mM phosphate buffer solution (pH 7.8), 13 mM L-methionine, 63 µM nitro blue tetrazolium and 2 µM riboflavin. The ability of the extract to inhibit the photochemical reduction of nitro blue tetrazolium was determined at 560 nm (Schimadzu UV-1201 spectrophotometer). The amount of the extract resulting in 50% inhibition of nitro blue tetrazolium reaction is defined as one unit of SOD activity.

Guaiacol PX (GPX Glutathione Reductase (GR, EC, 1.11.1.7) activity was determined by adding 50 mM phosphate buffer (pH 6.1), 1% H₂O₂, 1% guaiacol to the extract and the absorbance was determined at 470 nm.

Ascorbate peroxidase (APX, EC, 1.11.1.11) activity was determined according to Maehly

and Chance (1954). The reaction mixture contained 50 mM potassium phosphate, 0.5 mM ascorbate, 0.1 mM EDTA and 0.1 mM H₂O₂ and the absorbance was determined at 290 nm.

Glutathione Reductase (GR, EC, 1.6.4.2) activity was determined according to Lee et al. (1997). The enzyme activity was monitored by measuring a decrease in absorbance at 334 nm resulting from oxidation of NADH (6.2 mM⁻¹). The assay mixture contained 0.1 M Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 1 mM EDTA, 0.1 mM NADH and 1 mM oxidized glutathione (GSSG) and the leaf extract.

Glutathione was analysed with a Shimadzu R.F. 1201 HPLC, and peaks were detected by a fluorescence detector using an excitation wavelength of 340 nm and an emission wavelength of 420 nm (Hassan, 2006).

RESULTS

Gas concentrations

Daily mean ambient CO₂ concentration was 350 + 20 ppm while elevated CO₂ (Doubled ambient) concentration was 690 + 25 ppm.

Ambient O₃ concentration was 78 nl l⁻¹ + 8 (8 hd⁻¹, seasonal average). The mean AOT40 (accumulated O₃ exposure above a threshold of 40 nl l⁻¹) value for the non-filtered air was 29600 nll⁻¹ (Table 1).

Table 1 Seasonal 8-h (09:00–17:00 h Egyptian Local Time) daily average of O₃ and CO₂ concentrations + 1 SE.

Treatment	O ₃ (nl l ⁻¹)	CO ₂ ppm	AOT40
Control (Charcoal filtered)	15 + 3	350 + 20	00
Ambient (Non-filtered)	78 + 8	350 + 20	29,600
Elevated CO ₂	15 + 3	690 + 30	00
Elevated CO ₂ and O ₃	78 + 8	690 + 30	29,600

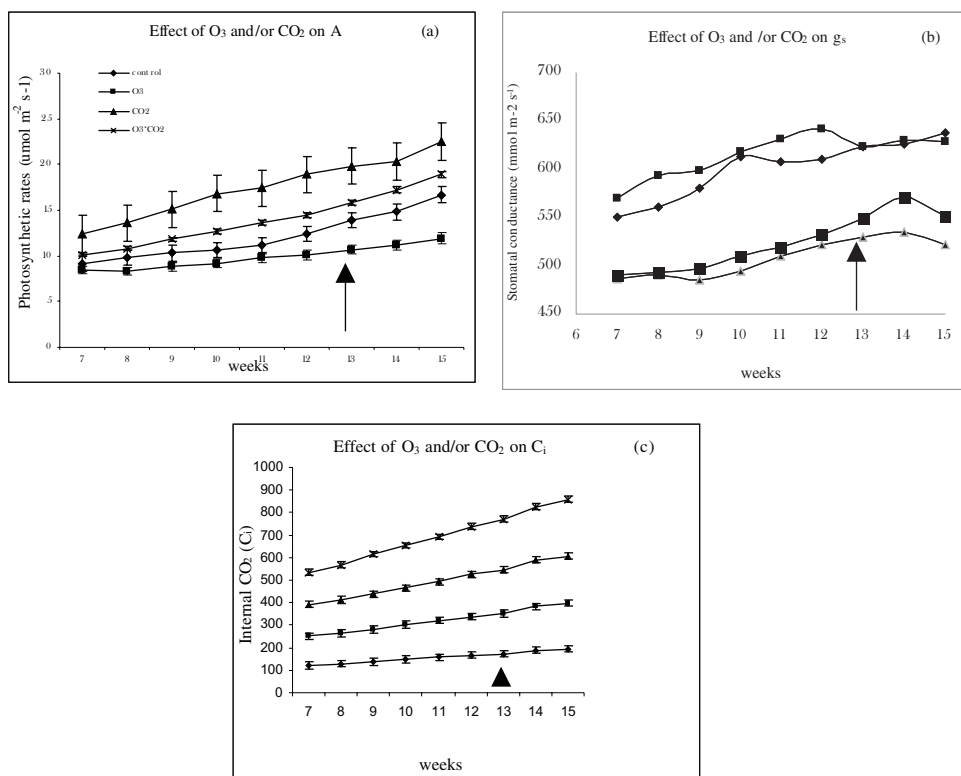


Figure 1 Effect of O_3 and/or CO_2 on (a) Photosynthetic rates 'A' $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, (b) stomatal conductance ' g_s ' $\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ and (c) Internal CO_2 ' C_i ' ppm. Each figure is a mean of 12 readings \pm 1 SE

Effects on A, g_s and C_i

O_3 decreased A by 18% while it had no significant effect ($P \geq 0.05$) on g_s and C_i (Figure 1 (a)–(c)). On the other hand, CO_2 caused increases in A, g_s and C_i by 44, 15 and 28%, respectively (Figure 1 (a)–(c)).

Interaction between O_3 and CO_2 was less than additive and CO_2 protected plants against adverse effect of O_3 on A as A, g_s and C_i were increased by 15, 13 and 12%, respectively due to this interaction (Figure 1 (a)–(c)).

Visible injury symptoms

Table 2 shows that O_3 increased Number and percentage of foliar injury by two and

five fold, respectively, while exposure to elevated CO_2 had no significant ($P \geq 0.005$) on these parameters.

Exposure to O_3 and CO_2 protected potato plants against phytotoxic effect of O_3 on number of injured leaves and percentage of injury by 63 and 50%, respectively (Table 2).

Effect on yield

O_3 decreased number and weight of tubers by 41 and 21%, respectively, while CO_2 increased them by 37 and 20%, respectively (Table 3). However, interaction between CO_2 and O_3 increased number of tubers by 35% while it had no significant effect ($P \geq 0.005$) on weight of tubers (Table 3).

Table 2 Effect of CO₂ and O₃ on foliar injury symptoms of potato leaves

Parameter	Control	Ambient	Elevated CO ₂	Elevated CO ₂ and O ₃
Number of injured leaves	16 ^a	38 ^c	14 ^a	21 ^b
Degree of injury	0.14 ^a	0.82 ^c	0.12 ^a	0.52 ^b

^aMeans not followed by the same letter are significantly different from each other at $P \leq 0.05$.

^bData presented show the mean values ($n = 25$) for the proportion of sampled leaves were indicated and the leaf area damaged assessed on a scale where 1 = no visible injury or damaged area.

^c5 = complete infection or damaged area.

Table 3 Effect of CO₂ and O₃ on potato tuber yield

Parameter	Control	Ambient	Elevated CO ₂	Elevated CO ₂ and O ₃
Weight (kg)	7.83 ^b	6.21 ^a	9.42 ^c	8.23 ^b
No. of tubers (per plant)	6.01 ^b	3.56 ^a	8.21 ^c	8.10 ^c

Legends as Table 2. Figures are means of ten plants per treatment.

Table 4 Activities of GR, guaiacol peroxidase (POD), SOD and APX in extract of leaves (100 DAP), in response to O₃ and/ or CO₂

Treatment	GR activity (n mol cm ⁻² s ⁻¹)	POD activity (n mol cm ⁻² s ⁻¹)	SOD activity (μcm ⁻²)	APX (μcm ⁻²)
Control (Charcoal filtered)	0.28 ^a	5.62 ^a	4.61 ^a	0.32 ^a
Ambient (Non-filtered)	0.33 ^b	7.63 ^b	4.12 ^a	0.29 ^a
Elevated CO ₂	0.25 ^a	8.21 ^c	4.23 ^a	0.34 ^a
Elevated CO ₂ and O ₃	0.24 ^a	5.82 ^a	2.35 ^a	0.31 ^a

Legends as Table 2. Figures are means of ten plants per treatment.

Antioxidant enzymes

It was found that O₃ caused significant ($P \leq 0.01$) increase in GR and POD by 18 and 35%, respectively, while it had no significant effect ($P \geq 0.005$) on SOD and APX (Table 4).

POD activity was increased by 46% due to exposure to elevated CO₂, while other antioxidants showed no significant ($P \geq 0.005$) response (Table 4). Furthermore, exposure to both gases, simultaneously, had no significant ($P \geq 0.005$) effect on any of antioxidant enzymes (Table 4).

DISCUSSION

The mean AOT40 value for ambient O₃ levels throughout the entire course of the experiment (29,600 nl l⁻¹) was very comparable to that recorded in Southern Europe (30,000 nl l⁻¹) and much higher than that recorded in central and northern Europe (Donnelly et al., 2001; Fowler et al., 1999). Moreover, Heagle et al. (2003) found a similar AOT40 in the USA (27,600). Very Recently, Calvo et al. (2009) reported that AOT40 in Spain was 25,283 nl l⁻¹ and this is very comparable to the AOT40 recorded

in the present study and this may be due to that both countries have a Mediterranean climate.

This AOT40 is known to cause foliar injury symptoms on many plants including potato (Calvo et al., 2007; 2009; Hayes et al., 2009; Heagle et al., 2003). Reports on foliar injury of potato caused by O_3 and/or CO_2 are fairly common.

It was found in the present study that elevated CO_2 confer some protection against O_3 , and it was clear that stress caused by CO_2 predisposed leaves to injury caused by O_3 and not vice versa and this explains how they interact to alleviate foliar injury. These results are in agreement with the results of Donnelly et al. (2001) and Finnan et al. (2002), who found that elevated CO_2 (680 ppm) has protected Potato plants (Cv. Binje) from toxic effects of O_3 (65 nl l⁻¹). However, this was not the case in the study of Heagle et al. (2003) who indicated that exposure to elevated CO_2 (715 ppm) did not protect Potato plants (Cv. Dark Red Norland) from toxic effects of elevated O_3 (80 nl l⁻¹), they found that at 80 nl l⁻¹ O_3 foliar injury increased as CO_2 concentration increased and they could not explain why interaction between these pollutants exacerbate foliar injury.

Gas exchange measurements indicated that non-filtered air tended to reduce stomatal conductance in Cv. Kara and this is in agreement with the general trend in the literature (e.g. Calvo et al., 2009; Dann and Pell, 1989; Emberson et al., 2000; Landolt et al., 1997) on many crops including potatoes. In agreement with the results of Calvo et al. (2009) the results indicated more efficient photosynthesis and less need for stomata to be open to allow CO_2 influx. Booker and Fiscus (2005) found increases in A at elevated CO_2 and they suggested that this could compensate for the inhibitory

effect of O_3 on plant metabolism and growth by increasing carbon assimilation over that at ambient CO_2 . This would be affected at elevated CO_2 by increased photoassimilation and decreased photorespiration (Long and Naidu, 2002; Ziska and Bunce, 2008).

CO_2 -induced reduction in O_3 flux is an important component in the prevention of O_3 injury (Booker et al., 2005; Fiscus et al., 2005). However, Cardoso-Vilhena et al. (2004) stated that there are other factor(s) in addition to decreased O_3 flux are involved in the protective effect of elevated CO_2 against O_3 damage. Exact mechanism whereby elevated CO_2 protects plants from phytotoxic effects of O_3 remain unknown (Heagle et al., 2003). Protection may result from increased rates of repair of incipient O_3 injury, but measures to identify biochemical mechanisms to explain this possibility are rudimentary (Booker and Fiscus, 2005; Heagle et al., 2003).

Although elevated CO_2 did not alter GR, SOD and APX activities in ways that appeared instrumental in O_3 detoxification processes, POD activity was increased in response to elevated CO_2 . However, McKee et al. (1997) concluded that amelioration of O_3 injury by elevated CO_2 was not primarily related to effects on antioxidant metabolism, but rather decreased O_3 flux. Responses of antioxidant metabolism to elevated CO_2 are variable but it appears that growth at elevated CO_2 reduces oxidative stress, although it is unclear whether the accompanying metabolic changes affect plant susceptibility to oxidative stress from additional factors such as O_3 , drought and salinity (Booker and Fiscus, 2005; Sgherri et al., 2000; Wustman et al., 2001). Kurz et al. (1998) found a decrease in glutathione concentration at elevated concentrations of CO_2 , and they attributed this to a lower mineral:C content because glutathione functions as a reserve of reduced S

(Booker and Fiscus, 2005). However, this was not the case in the present study as elevated CO₂ did not affect significantly ($P \geq 0.05$) glutathione concentration, and this is in agreement with the results of McKee et al. (1997) and Sgherri et al. (2000) on wheat and alfalfa, respectively. Moreover, there was no significant effect of CO₂ on SOD and AA concentrations, while exposure to elevated CO₂ caused significant increase in POD activity. Schwanz and Polle (2001) found a lower level of AA, while Sgherri et al. (2000) found higher AA concentrations at elevated CO₂. Increased POD activity was possibly the result of greater carbohydrate supply at elevated CO₂ (e.g. Booker and Fiscus, 2005; Sgherri et al., 2000).

In the present study, increased GR concentration and POD activity in ambient air can be interpreted as response to oxidative stress imposed by O₃ (Chernkova et al., 2000). However, the lack of significant changes in activities of SOD and AA in ambient air, which also observed in other O₃ studies (e.g. Azevedo et al., 1998), differed from studies where activities of these enzymes increased in response to O₃ (Chernkova et al., 2000).

The variability in the response of antioxidants to elevated O₃ and CO₂ among studies reflects differences in the magnitude of the perceived oxidative stress, the species-specific mechanisms involved in responses to changes in redox status, the plant capacity to cope with additional stress(s), experimental protocols and environmental conditions. Therefore, further studies are needed to further the understanding of the response of antioxidant metabolism to elevated O₃ and CO₂ singly and in combination.

Pell et al. (1988) found a reduction in number and weight of Norchip potato tubers by 31 and 14% respectively, when exposed to 80 nl l⁻¹ and this in agreement with the

results of the present study where both parameters were reduced by 41 and 21% at 78 nl l⁻¹ O₃. Heagle et al. (2003) reported 31% reduction in number of potato tubers grown in open top chambers in the USA when exposed to 80 nl l⁻¹ O₃. Moreover, Booker et al. (2005) found that tuber yield decreased by 31 and 14% in Cv. Dark Red Norland when exposed to 80 and 45 nl l⁻¹ O₃, respectively. Very Recently, Calvo et al. (2009) found that ambient non-filtered air (16.3 nl l⁻¹ O₃) and non-filtered air supplied with O₃ (58.8 nl l⁻¹) significantly decreased tuber fresh weight by 29 and 44%, respectively in Potato plants Cv. Desiree grown in Spain. Moreover, O₃ alters crop quality as it reduces starch content of potato (Vorne et al., 2002). Such alteration in nutritional quality may become increasingly important in developing countries where demand for food is stable or increasing slowly. However, it is unclear whether agricultural production can meet the growing demand for the food in developing countries where human populations are increasing rapidly (Chameides et al., 1999; Hassan, 2006; Hassan et al., 1995; WHO/UNEP, 1992). In such areas, potato offers great potential to meet food requirements due to its high ratio of edible to non-edible components.

In general, the results of the present study are in agreement with the most previous work on potato and this indicate that O₃ levels in Egypt are high enough to cause reductions in growth and yield of economic plants, moreover, potato plants cv. Kara are sensitive to O₃ as Western cultivars.

Overall, increasing concentrations of ambient O₃ will suppress the increase in growth and yield of crops resulting from rising CO₂ concentrations. On the other hand, O₃ injury is lessened by elevated CO₂ due to reduced O₃ influx, increased carbon assimilation and to as yet undetermined additional factor(s) (Booker and Fiscus, 2005).

BIOGRAPHY

Prof. Ibrahim Hassan received his PhD from Imperial College, London University in 1994 in the field of air pollution effect on plants. He is a Professor of plant physiology and environmental botany at Alexandria University, Egypt. Currently, he is in a sabbatical leave to KSA. He is principal investigator of a project entitled Ozone Effects on Egyptian Crops in Egypt funded by the Department of International Development (DFID) and the British Council (BC) in collaboration with Imperial College, London.

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