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Author(s)	Abu ElEla, Shahenda A.; Agathokleous, Evgenios; Koike, Takayoshi
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1 **Growth and nutrition of *Agelastica coerulea* (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae) larvae**
2 **changed when fed with leaves obtained from an O₃-enriched atmosphere**

3 Shahenda A. Abu ElEla¹, Evgenios Agathokleous^{2,3*}, Takayoshi Koike^{3**}

4 1) Entomology Department, Faculty of Science, Cairo University, 12613, Giza, Egypt

5 2) Hokkaido Research Center, Forestry and Forest Products Research Institute (FFPRI), Forest Research and
6 Management Organization, 7 Hitsujigaoka, Sapporo, Hokkaido, 062-8516, Japan

7 3) Research Faculty of Agriculture, School of Agriculture, Hokkaido University, Kita 9 Nishi 9, Sapporo 060-85889,
8 Japan

9 *Corresponding author: globalscience@frontier.hokudai.ac.jp or evgenios@ffpri.affrc.go.jp [E.A.], **:

10 tkoike@for.agr.hokudai.ac.jp [T.K.]

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21

22 **Abstract**

23 A series of laboratory no-choice assays were performed to test changes in the feeding,
24 growth and nutrition of leaf beetle (*Agelastica coerulea*) larval instars on O₃-treated
25 leaves of Japanese white birch (*Betula platyphylla* var. *japonica*). Larvae fed with
26 O₃-treated leaves grew and developed significantly faster throughout their developmental
27 cycle than the corresponding controls. The growth rate (GR) and consumption index (CI)
28 were mostly decreased with age for both control and O₃-treated leaves. Efficiency of

29 conversion of both ingested and digested food (ECI, ECD) showed an increase from the
30 2nd to the 4th instar, after which they decreased significantly and reached the lowest value
31 in the last larval instars (7th). GR, CI, ECI and ECD were greater and approximate
32 digestibility (AD) lower in larvae fed with O₃-treated leaves than those fed with control
33 leaves. This indicated that the greater rate of growth on fumigated leaves was due
34 primarily to a greater rate of consumption (*i.e.*, O₃ increased the "acceptability" of the
35 host more than "suitability") and efficiency in converting food into body mass. Overall,
36 larval performance seemed to have improved when fed with O₃-treated leaves in these
37 assays. This study suggests insects may be more injurious to O₃-treated plants and
38 warrants further investigations on birch-beetle interactions under field conditions.

39

40 **Keywords:** air pollution; herbivore; leaf beetle; nutrition; plant-insect; trophic interaction

41

42 **1. INTRODUCTION**

43 Ground-level ozone (O₃) concentrations in the lower troposphere have notably increased
44 since the preindustrial age, and remain at potentially phytotoxic levels, although control
45 measures on precursor emissions have reduced O₃ peaks in some regions of Europe
46 (Vingarzan 2004; Derwent et al. 2007; Cape 2008; The Royal Society 2008; Sicard et al.

47 2016, 2017; Solomou et al. 2018). Northeast Asia is a hot spot of O₃ pollution
48 (Nagashima et al. 2017; Trieu et al. 2017; Wang et al. 2017). Domestically-produced O₃
49 and transboundary transport from outside, mainly from China, result in significant
50 increases in O₃ levels in Japan in recent years (Nagashima et al. 2010, 2017; Tanimoto
51 2009; Tanimoto et al. 2009). Furthermore, an increase in background O₃ levels in regions
52 of the northern hemisphere may occur in the near future (The Royal Society 2008). O₃ is
53 a gaseous pollutant which causes toxicity to plants at macro- and microscopic levels,
54 when its concentrations exceed species-specific thresholds, through reactions in the
55 leaves, with a subsequent production of highly oxidative intermediates (Robinson and
56 Rowland 1996; Oksanen et al. 2013; Vaultier and Jolivet 2015). Such exceedances may
57 result in reduction in plant vigor, suppression of yields and productivity, with further
58 implications to ecological processes and trophic cascades (Feng et al. 2008; Lindroth
59 2010; Ainsworth et al. 2012; Koike et al. 2013; Blande et al. 2014; Agathokleous et al.
60 2016a; Chappelka and Grulke 2016).

61 There has been a notable progress in research on O₃ effects on vegetation and plant
62 ecosystems over the last decades (Feng et al. 2008; Lindroth 2010; Ainsworth et al. 2012;
63 Koike et al. 2013; Blande et al. 2014; Agathokleous et al. 2015a,b, 2016); however, the
64 knowledge about O₃ effects on trophic interactions remains limited. The relationship

65 between plant stress and susceptibility to insects is of particular interest (White 1974,
66 1976, 1984; Alstad et al. 1982; Hain 1987; Mattson and Haack 1987). Plant-herbivore
67 relationships represent a dynamic equilibrium between plant defense against herbivory
68 and insect feeding adaptation on host plants. However, environmental stresses like air
69 pollution can shift the balance of these relationships (Hughes 1988; Hillstrom and
70 Lindroth 2008; Lindroth 2010; Chappelka and Grulke 2016; Agathokleous 2018).
71 Stressed plants could become more vulnerable to herbivory when biochemical changes
72 lead to an increase in the nutritional value or to a decrease in plant chemical defenses
73 (White 1974, 1984; Valkama et al. 2007; Ali and Agrawal 2012; Chappelka and Grulke
74 2016). Stressed trees may be a more suitable food source for invertebrate herbivores than
75 unstressed trees due to an increase in the tissue content of soluble nitrogenous compounds
76 (Fred 1987; Koike et al. 2006). Although O₃ is known to change the palatability of leaves,
77 how this change influences plant-insect interactions remains underexplored.

78 The insect performance depends on the level of toxins produced by plants and the quality
79 of the insect, e.g. sequestering or stealthy (Ali and Agrawal 2012; Agathokleous 2018). In
80 the case of O₃, the level of defense chemicals produced by plants, and thereby the insect
81 performance, depend on the exposure level or on the O₃ dose uptake by plants, within the
82 framework of hormesis (Agathokleous 2018). For instance, insects may display a

83 preference towards leaves which experience short exposure to elevated O₃ levels and
84 have increased palatability (Jones and Coleman 1988a; Bolsinger et al. 1991, 1992).
85 Recently, results from laboratory assays showed that O₃ altered the feeding behavior of
86 the leaf beetle *Agelastica coerulea* (Baly 1874) (hereafter leaf beetle) into leaves of
87 Japanese white birch (*Betula platyphylla* var. *japonica*) (Agathokleous et al. 2017a). In
88 these assays, it was found that overwintered adults preferred elevated O₃-treated leaves
89 than ambient O₃-treated ones and that the feeding behavior of 2nd instar larvae was not
90 changed when larvae could select between ambient O₃-treated and elevated O₃-treated
91 leaves (Agathokleous et al. 2017a). These laboratory observations are in agreement with
92 observations in assays with the common leaf weevil *Phyllobius pyri* L. (Coleoptera:
93 Curculionidae) (Freiwald et al. 2008) and oppose earlier field observations where the leaf
94 beetle deterred from grazing leaves of Japanese white birch in elevated O₃ sites of a Free
95 Air Controlled Exposure (FACE) system (Sakikawa et al. 2014, 2016; Vanderstock et al.
96 2016), a phenomenon which may be upon O₃-induced degradation of biogenic volatile
97 organic compounds (BVOCs) that repels insects (Fuentes et al. 2013; Dötterl et al. 2016;
98 Farré-Armengol et al. 2016; Li et al. 2016). However, in O₃-polluted regions, herbivore
99 insects have no privilege to choose between O₃ sites, and, thus, feed on plants under
100 stress. The implications of this feeding to the insect nutrition remain unknown.

101 In the present study, we explored the possibility that O₃ does affect insect nutrition
102 indirectly, when insects consume leaves which underwent elevated O₃ exposure. In order
103 to identify and quantify O₃ effects on insect nutrition, we conducted laboratory assays
104 with a collection of larvae instars of the leaf beetle fed with Japanese white birch leaves
105 obtained from sites with either background or elevated O₃ levels in a FACE system. We
106 hypothesized that O₃ would have indirect effects on the nutrition of larvae feeding with
107 O₃-treated leaves, and the effects could vary among larval instars which differ in their
108 anatomical and physiological characteristics.

109 We assessed larvae consumption, mass growth, efficiency of conversion of ingested food
110 (growth efficiency, ECI), efficiency of conversion of digested food (ECD), and
111 assimilation efficiency (approximate digestibility, AD) as effective indicators of food
112 utilization by insects (Slansky 1985). ECI relates the total consumption (food ingested) of
113 insect to the amount of body mass, whereas ECD ignores undigested food (Slansky 1985;
114 Farrar et al. 1989). AD indicates the food digestibility whereas ECI and ECD indicate the
115 insect efficiency to convert food into body mass.

116

117 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

118 2.1. Insect eggs and leaf samples

119 Samples were collected in 2016 from Japanese white birch trees grown in the FACE
120 system located at Sapporo Experimental Forest of Hokkaido University, Japan (43°04' N,
121 141°20' E, 15 m a.s.l.). This birch is classified as heterophyllous shoot development type
122 with two types of leaves, namely early leaves vs. late leaves which appear after complete
123 expansion of the early leaves (Koike 1995; Matsuki et al. 2004). These trees were planted
124 in the experimental plots in mid-May 2014, when they were two-year old. The plants
125 were periodically irrigated and treated with 100 times diluted wood vinegar early after
126 plantation in 2014 for pest management until their establishment to the experimental sites.
127 Fertilization was never carried out. After the establishment to the sites, plants were grown
128 naturally with no intentional irrigation or other pest management. The snow cover period
129 in Sapporo lasted from mid-December to early-May. Meteorological data in 2016 were
130 recorded at a station located in Sapporo (WMO, ID: 47412), at 43°03.6'N 141°19.7'E
131 (Japan Meteorological Agency 2017). For the period May-August, the main
132 meteorological conditions (mean \pm s.e.) were: mean monthly average of air temperature =
133 18.95 (\pm 2.06) °C; daily maximum temperature = 23.48 (\pm 1.95) °C; daily minimum
134 temperature = 15.50 (\pm 2.18) °C; wind speed = 4.00 (\pm 0.23) m s⁻¹; relative humidity =

135 69.75 (± 3.94) %; mean monthly total sunshine duration = 205.90 (± 16.54) h; and mean
136 monthly precipitation 137.63 (± 52.36) mm, respectively. Meteorological data for the
137 years 2014 and 2015 along with details of the study site are available in Agathokleous et
138 al. (2017b).

139 The O₃-FACE system consisted of six rings; three with ambient air and three with
140 ambient air enriched with O₃ (target = 70 nmol mol⁻¹) during daylight hours with
141 photosynthetic photon flux density (PPFD) > 70 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (07:00–17:00). In 2014, the
142 plants were exposed to elevated O₃ from August 15 to October 26, and, in 2015, from
143 April 24 to October 26. The mean O₃ levels (07:00–17:00) for elevated O₃ plots were 60
144 nmol mol⁻¹ in 2014 and 72 nmol mol⁻¹ in 2015, whereas for ambient O₃ plots were 20
145 nmol mol⁻¹ in 2014 and 34 nmol mol⁻¹ in 2015. In 2016, the O₃ enrichment started on
146 May 18, and the last leaf samples were collected on July 15. The mean O₃ levels
147 (07:00–17:00) in elevated O₃ plots were 63.52 nmol mol⁻¹ during the period May 10 to
148 July 15 and 60.92 nmol mol⁻¹ during the period June 21 to July 15 (duration of insect
149 assays). Ambient O₃ levels were recorded from June 1 onwards. Ambient O₃ levels
150 (07:00–17:00) were 5.21 and 5.84 nmol mol⁻¹ during the periods June 1 to July 15 and
151 June 21 to July 15. Details on the FACE system and O₃ exposures can be found in
152 Agathokleous et al. (2017b).

153 **2.2. Laboratory insect culture and assays**

154 The colony of the leaf beetle was started with egg patches obtained from ambient air
155 conditions of Sapporo Experimental Forest of Hokkaido University, on June 16, 2016.
156 Deposited eggs were selected based on the intensity of yellow color (eggs close to
157 hatching avoided) and transferred to laboratory. Thereafter, all the processes were
158 conducted under laboratory conditions. Eggs hatching occurred within four to five days
159 from the collection. Newly hatched larvae were placed in plastic boxes (12 × 6 × 18 cm).
160 Ten larvae were placed in a box replicated four times per O₃ treatment per instar stage,
161 giving thus a total of 40 individual larvae per instar per O₃ treatment. The assays were
162 conducted based on a completely randomized design, and the position of the boxes was
163 rotated on a daily base. The initial weight of the larvae was measured and the culture was
164 kept at a temperature of 25 ± 2°C, 65 ± 5 % relative humidity and 14:10 hours (D: L)
165 photoperiod (Abu ElEla and ElSayed 2015; Adham et al 2005 a,b; Abu ElEla et al 2016).
166 Larvae of each preceding instar molted and transferred to next stage by shedding the skin.
167 Larvae were fed on weighed quantities of treated and untreated fresh mature leaves of
168 Japanese white birch leaves until pupation. Fresh late leaves were collected from ambient
169 and elevated O₃ plots and provided to the larvae on a daily base, until the end of larval
170 stage. Late leaves were selected over early leaves because females of this beetle

171 commonly oviposit on late leaves and from June larvae start hatching and grazing these
172 leaves (Agathokleous et al. 2017a). The leaves were randomly selected; however leaves
173 with injury were excluded to minimize potential bias. To overcome limitations which
174 may occur when using leaf disks, intact leaves were used (Jones and Coleman 1988b;
175 Smith et al. 1994; Lacey 1997). Plant materials of each O₃ treatment were daily pooled,
176 and leaf samples were randomly drawn and provided to the larvae. Feeding period lasted
177 from June 21 to July 15.

178 In the middle of the assays, additional leaf samples, similar to those used for the assays,
179 were collected from each plot and kept at room conditions with dry air. The weight of
180 each leaf was measured at 0 and 22 hours, and then the leaves were dried to a constant
181 weight. Water content in fresh leaves was 1.1 % greater in elevated O₃ than in ambient O₃,
182 but the difference was non-significant (data not shown). Furthermore, at 22 hours, leaves
183 obtained from elevated O₃ lost 6.9 % more water than those obtained from ambient O₃,
184 however the difference was non-significant (data not shown). Therefore larval feeding
185 was not affected by O₃-mediated alteration in the dehydration of leaves.

186 The average fresh weight of larvae, faeces, and consumed leaf, and the gained weight
187 were determined by an analytical balance (Mettler[®] M22). To assess the effects on larval
188 feeding and conversion of food to biomass, consumption and utilization of ozonated and

189 control tissues were compared by means of nutritional indices (Kogan 1986; Waldbaure
190 1968) for the 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th, and 7th instars using standard gravimetric procedures.
191 Consumption index (CI), mass growth rate (GR), ECD; ECI, and AD were calculated
192 using standard gravimetric procedures described by Waldbauer (1968):

193 a) $CI = C / [T \times A]$, where C is the fresh weight of leaf consumed, T is the duration of
194 feeding period and A is the mean fresh weight of the larvae during the feeding
195 period. CI measures the amount of food eaten per unit time relative to mean
196 weight of larvae during the feeding period.

197 b) $GR = G / [T \times A]$, where G is the fresh weight gain of the larvae. GR measures the
198 amount of weight gained per unit time relative to the mean weight of the larvae
199 during the feeding period.

200 c) $ECI = (G/C) \times (100)$. ECI is an overall measure of the larvae's ability to utilize
201 ingested food for growth.

202 d) $ECD = [G / (C - F)] \times (100)$, where F is the weight of faeces during the feeding
203 period. ECD is an overall measure of the larvae ability to utilize digested food for
204 growth.

205 e) $AD = [(C - F) / C] \times (100)$. AD measures the larvae's ability to digest the introduced
206 food.

207 Exuviae were measured with the faeces since they are not a part of the insect at the end of
208 the experiment (Reese and Beck 1976; Abu ElEla and ElSayed 2015, Abu ElEla et al
209 2016).

210 **2.3. Data Analysis**

211 Four values were used per O₃ treatment per instar stage, each of which was a robust
212 estimate of one independent experimental unit. The alpha level was predefined at $\alpha=0.05$.
213 The data of CI, GR, ECI, ECD and AD were not satisfactorily fit to Gaussian distribution
214 and therefore were subjected to a Box-Cox power transformation (Box and Cox 1964), as
215 described by Agathokleous et al. (2016b). Data of each response variable were subjected
216 to repeated measures Analysis of Variances (rANOVAs) where Instar was the
217 within-subjects factor with 6 levels and O₃ the categorical predictor with 2 levels.
218 rANOVA was based on *effective hypothesis* Sums of Squares (*Type 6 SS*) straightforward
219 computation method (Hocking 2013) with σ -restricted coding of effects (Hill and Lewicki
220 2006). Type 6 SS for each effect is the difference of the model SS for all the other effects
221 from the whole model SS, thus, providing an explicit estimate of predicted values
222 variability for the outcome that is attributed to each effect (Hill and Lewicki 2006). When
223 rANOVAs returned overall significances at a level of significance $\alpha=0.05$ (H_0 rejected),
224 the data were further subjected to Bonferroni *a posteriori* test.

225 Data were processed and statistically analyzed in the software MS EXCEL 2010 (©
226 Microsoft) and STATISTICA v.10 (© StatSoft Inc.).

227

228 **2. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

229 Based on observations, larvae from ambient treatment needed 24 days from 1st to 7th
230 instar, whereas larvae from elevated O₃ needed 21 days from 1st to 7th instar.

231 **GR** (Fig 1A) significantly varied among instar stages ($F=20.0$ $P<0.001$). Second and 4th
232 instars showed similar GR which was on average 4.3 times greater than that of 3rd, 5th, 6th
233 and 7th instars ($P<0.05$). Third, 5th and 6th instars shared a similar GR, which was on
234 average 3.5 times lower than that of 2nd and 4th instars and 4 times greater than that of 7th
235 instar. These differences were significant except for GR between 6th and 7th instars due to
236 large relative standard deviation (RSD) in 6th instar ($P<0.05$). Seventh instars had a
237 multi-fold lower GR than 2nd, 3rd, 4th, and 5th instars. Larvae displayed a 137 % greater
238 GR in elevated O₃ than in ambient O₃ ($F=9.2$, $P<0.05$). O₃ effects did not vary
239 significantly among instar stages ($F=1.8$, $P=0.152$).

240 **CI** (Fig 1B) also varied among instar stages ($F=13.8$, $P<0.001$). Second instars had on
241 average 2.6 times greater CI than 3rd, 5th, 6th and 7th instars ($P<0.05$); they also had 1.7
242 times greater CI than 4th instars, however the difference was non-significant. Seventh

243 instars had significantly lower CI than 2nd, 3rd and 4th instars. Larvae showed a 115 %
244 greater CI in elevated O₃ than in ambient O₃ ($F=9.0$, $P<0.05$), while O₃ effects did not
245 vary significantly among instar stages ($F=0.3$, $P=0.919$). When food contains less
246 nitrogen, the consumption by insects increases to compensate for nitrogen acquisition.
247 Thus, elevated O₃-treated leaves, might have lower nitrogen content than elevated
248 O₃-treated leaves, however this could only be a speculation as we have no supportive data.
249 In the experiment of Agathokleous et al. (2017a), leaves of white birch trees were
250 collected in July, after a similar O₃ exposure. By that time, leaves exposed to O₃ had
251 lower content of total phenolics and condensed tannin than leaves, but no different leaf
252 mass per area (LMA), compared to leaves exposed to ambient O₃. In that no-choice
253 laboratory assay, 2nd instar larvae and adults of the leaf beetle did not significantly
254 increase the leaf consumption to compensate for degraded leaf palatability caused by O₃.
255 Several other investigations reported that insects showed preference towards O₃-treated
256 leaf material. For example, the monarch butterfly, *Danaus plexippus* (Lepidoptera:
257 Nymphalidae), preferred O₃-treated leaves of *Asclepias curassavica* and *A. syriaca*
258 (Bolsinger et al. 1992), and the Mexican bean beetle, *Epilachna varivestis* (Coleoptera:
259 Coccinellidae), preferred O₃-treated leaves of soybean, *Glycine max* (L.) Merr. (Endress
260 and Post 1985; Chappelka et al. 1988). Jones and Coleman (1988a) found that the willow

261 leaf beetle, *Plagioderia versicolora* (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae), not only preferred
262 O₃-treated plants but also consumed more foliage. This phenomenon might be upon
263 decreased palatability and/or reduced defense of the leaves. Consumption of leaf area
264 alone is not an efficient indicator of O₃-induced alterations because of the several factors
265 which interplay. This assumption relies on the fact that consumption alone cannot inform
266 if changes are upon O₃-induced changes in the palatability or defense of leaves, or if
267 changes in consumption have any effects on insect physiological performance (Whittaker
268 et al. 1989).

269 The extent to which leaf palatability is improved depends on the O₃ exposure and the
270 subsequent plant response. Moderate increases in the levels of chemicals produced by
271 plants may translate to stimulation of insect performance, i.e. hormesis (Ali and Agrawal
272 2012; Agathokleous 2018). The increase in CI, due to treatment of leaves with O₃,
273 observed in this experiment is in agreement with the GR results, thus verifying earlier
274 findings where the amount of growth reduction was generally proportional to reduced
275 food consumption (Woodring et al. 1978; Adham et al. 2005a; Abu ElEla et al. 2016).
276 The present results may hint to O₃-induced increase in the palatability and decrease in the
277 defense of the leaves, something that requires further investigations.

278 **ECI** (Fig 2A) showed differences among instar stages ($F=32.0$, $P<0.001$). Independently
279 from O₃, 3rd and 4th instars had no significantly different ECI from 2nd instars, whereas 5th
280 and 6th instars had lower ECI compared to 2nd instars. Seventh instars had a multi-fold
281 lower ECI than all the previous instars. Instars showed a greater ECI in elevated O₃ than
282 in ambient O₃ ($F=11.8$, $P<0.05$), and O₃ effects did vary significantly among instar stages
283 ($F=7.6$, $P<0.001$). Within each instar stage, the only significant difference was observed
284 in the 3rd instars. Instars of ambient O₃ had much lower ECI at 3rd than at 2nd stage,
285 whereas instars of elevated O₃ had no significantly different ECI between 2nd and 3rd
286 stages. Thus, 3rd instars of elevated O₃ had greater ECI than 3rd instars of ambient O₃.

287 **ECD** (Fig 2B) also showed significant differences among instar stages ($F=105.0$,
288 $P<0.001$). Larvae of ambient or elevated O₃ showed lower ECD in 5th, 6th and 7th instar
289 stages than in 4th one. Seventh instars had a multi-fold lower ECD than all the previous
290 instars. Fourth instars larvae were more selective feeders and choose more digestive
291 foliage from the inter-vein regions of the leaf. Also, their metabolic rate was greater than
292 other instar stages, and, hence, more digested food was available for conversion to body
293 substance (i.e. ECD) (Abu ElEla and ElSayed 2015). It was noticed that 5th, 6th and 7th
294 instar larvae were more generalized in feeding, and they ingested different parts of
295 foliage such as leaf veins, which contain large quantities of indigestible crude fiber.

296 Therefore, it is likely that the 7th instar larvae had lower metabolic rate than younger ones
297 (2nd instars). The decrease in ECD indicates a less precise correspondence between larval
298 requirements and the level of nutrients balance in the diet. Larvae showed a greater ECD
299 in elevated O₃ than in ambient O₃ ($F=43.5$, $P<0.001$). ECD may decrease as a result of a
300 compensation to increase nutrient intake in leaves with reduced nutrients, along with
301 parallel intake of toxins. Our results are reverse, suggesting that there was no issue of
302 O₃-induced production of toxins in leaves. The O₃-induced increased efficiency of larvae
303 to convert ingested and digested food (ECI and ECD, Fig. 2A,B) observed in this study
304 can explain the enhanced GR (Fig 1A). O₃ effects did vary significantly among instar
305 stages ($F=28.1$, $P<0.001$). Within instars, the only difference was a lower ECD in larvae
306 of ambient than in larvae of elevated O₃ at 3rd and 7th stages. Larvae of elevated O₃
307 displayed a significantly greater ECD in 3rd and 4th instar than in 2nd instar, whereas
308 larvae of ambient O₃ displayed lower ECD in 3rd stage and statistically non-different
309 ECD in 4th stage compared to 2nd stage. Greatest ECD was recorded in 3rd and 4th instar
310 stages, when larvae were fed with elevated O₃-treated leaves, in agreement with findings
311 in *Helicoverpa armigera* Hübner (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) (Hemati et al. 2012).

312 **AD** measures the digestive availability to the larvae, which is an important aspect in a
313 diet (Cohen 2005). AD (Fig 2B) displayed a variation within instars ($F=104.9$, $P<0.001$).

314 Seventh instars had greater AD than all the previous instars. Third, 4th and 5th instars had
315 lower AD than 2nd instars. Sixth instar had significantly non-different AD than 2nd instar.
316 Larvae displayed a lower AD in elevated O₃ than in ambient O₃ ($F=47.1$, $P<0.001$).
317 Lower AD values may indicate lower suitability of leaf tissue for the larvae (Rahmathulla
318 and Suresh 2012). However, the present results verify that the absorptive capacity of
319 larvae (i.e. AD) is inversely proportional to ECD and ECI, as previously suggested
320 (Waldbauer 1968; Xue et al. 2010; Teimouri et al. 2015). Increased consumption would
321 accelerate passage of food through the gut and thereby reduce AD. In our research with
322 the leaf beetle, we found that larvae reared on leaves treated with O₃ showed an increase
323 in the consumption rates and thereby a decreased AD. Lower AD of the leaf beetle larvae
324 indicates an adaptation to compensate for an increase in ECD and ECI which may result
325 from a nutritional imbalance. For example, Adham et al. (2005a,b) showed that the 6th
326 instar of *Spodoptera littoralis* (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) larvae compensated for lower
327 ECD by showing higher AD. O₃ effects did vary significantly among instar stages
328 ($F=41.0$, $P<0.001$). Larvae of ambient O₃ had non-different AD in 3rd instar compared to
329 2nd instar but they had lower AD in 4th, 5th and 6th instars and greater AD in 7th instar than
330 in 2nd instar; AD was similar among 4th, 5th and 6th instars. Larvae of elevated O₃ had

331 lower AD in 3rd, 4th and 5th instars and greater in 7th instar than in 2nd instar, but they had
332 non-different AD between 6th and 2nd instars and among 3rd, 4th and 5th instars.

333 Larvae of elevated O₃ had lower AD in 3rd, 4th and 5th instar stages and greater AD in 6th
334 stage than larvae of ambient O₃. Among all instar stages, larvae at 3rd instar were the most
335 nutritionally responsive to O₃, as indicated by ECI, ECD and AD. In an earlier
336 experiment, ECI, ECD and AD of 3rd and 4th instar larvae of the monarch butterfly
337 (*Danaus plexippus* L.) fed with leaf tissues of *Asclepias curassavica* L. and *A. syriaca* L.
338 were not different between O₃-treated and O₃-untreated tissues (Bolsinger et al., 1992).

339 However, small leaf disks were used in that assay, and the indices were calculated only
340 after a short exposure (maximum 24 h) of insects to the tissues. In our assay, larvae were
341 provided with fresh leaves on a daily base and followed over their larval life cycle. AD
342 may not be a sensitive index to changes in leaf secondary compounds as previously found
343 in larvae of *A. alni* L. (Firidin and Mutlu 2009).

344 Rapid growth of larvae may be associated with increased gross feed efficiency (Medrano
345 and Gall, 1975). Larvae may display a rapid growth (growth = CI × ECD × AD) as a
346 result of a nutritional overcompensation if O₃-treated leaves have any costly effects
347 (Manuwoto and Scriber 1985; Rahmathulla and Suresh 2012). In our assays, larvae fed
348 with elevated O₃-treated leaved (M=287.7 ±50.7) had greater growth ($F=25.9, P<0.01$)

349 than larvae fed with ambient O₃-treated leaves (M=228.1 ±57.3), independently from
350 larval stage. Therefore, larvae may have displayed a nutritional overcompensation. When
351 insects consume leaf tissues which lack materials for the development of their body, ECI
352 and ECD are expected to decrease whereas AD to increase (Teimouri et al. 2015). Our
353 observations were reverse, suggesting that the leaf tissue quality was not degraded. When
354 nutrients are less abundant in leaves, insects increase their consumption rate, accelerate
355 food passage through their guts, and decrease AD. More research is required to address
356 these effects across generations of insects fed with leaves grown under elevated O₃.

357 It should be noted that the results may differ at field because O₃ may transform the scent
358 or degrade leaf-emitting volatile organic compounds (VOCs), becoming thus a repellent
359 to herbivores and imbedding the plant-insect communication (Fuhrer and Booker 2003;
360 Lindroth 2010; Fuentes et al. 2013; Blande et al. 2014; Cui et al. 2014; Farré-Armengol
361 et al. 2016; Li et al. 2016). Nonetheless, the results of the present study are the first of
362 their kind and are still valuable because in an O₃-polluted environment insects will not
363 have the choice to select among O₃ conditions and thus will have to graze leaves at the
364 relevant area.

365

366 **3. CONCLUSIONS**

- 367 • O₃ does indirectly change the growth and nutrition of the leaf beetle larvae.
- 368 • O₃ treatment of leaves may enhance the insect performance which may be proved
- 369 costly for the plants under field conditions.
- 370 • ECD and AD can be utilized as efficient biomarkers of O₃ injury.
- 371 • Third instars can serve as the most effective O₃ bioindicator among all the larval
- 372 instars of the leaf beetle.
- 373 • When needed, control of the leaf beetle at an O₃-enriched environment should be
- 374 conducted before the 4th instar stage where larvae can cause greater injuries to
- 375 plants (greater ECI and ECD).
- 376 • Indirect O₃-induced alterations of insect physiology through consumption of
- 377 ozonated leaf tissues require further experimentations to reveal potential
- 378 consequences over insect generations.

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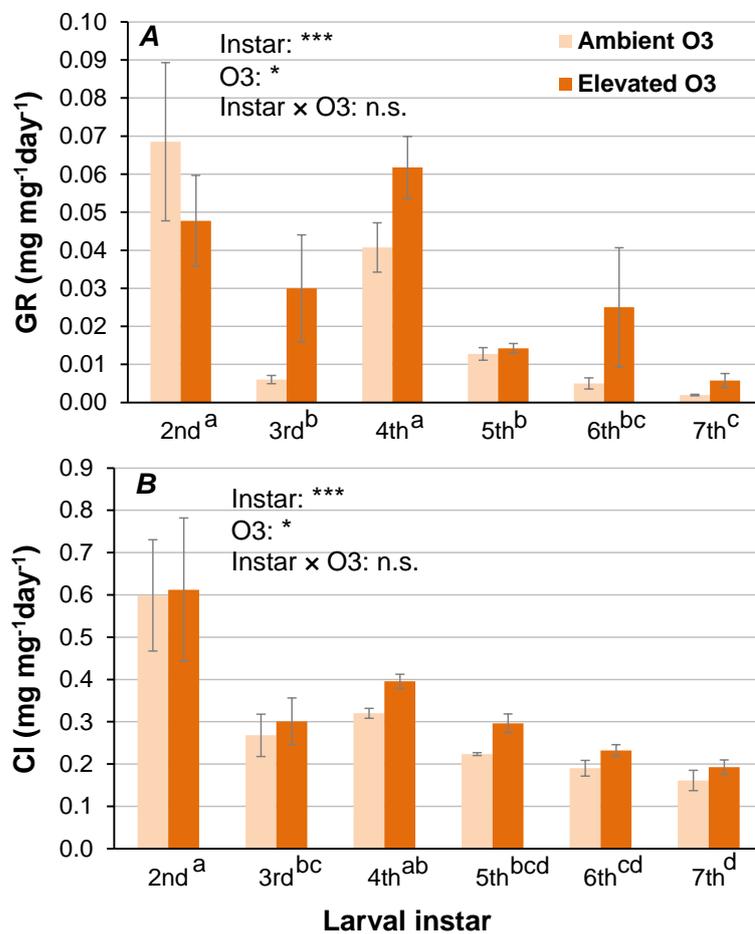
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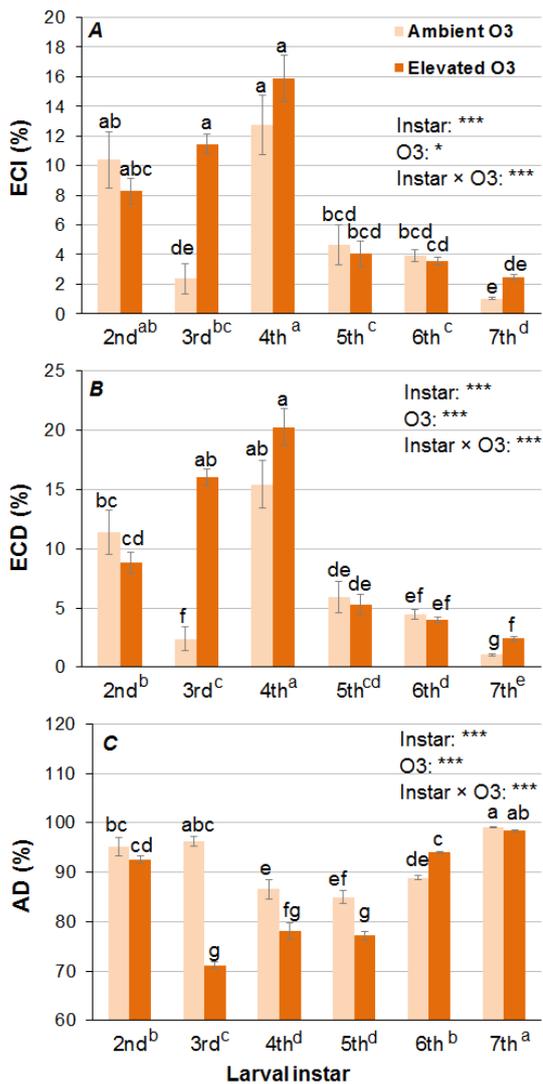
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618 **Fig 1.** Means \pm SE ($n = 4$) of growth rate (GR) (A) and consumption index (CI) (B) of 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th,
619 6th, and 7th larvae instars of the leaf beetle *Agelastica coerulea* (Baly, 1874) (hereafter leaf beetle) fed with
620 leaves of Japanese white birch (*Betula platyphylla* var. *japonica*) obtained from ambient or elevated O₃
621 atmospheres, under laboratory conditions. Asterisks indicate rANOVA significant effects at $P < 0.05$ (*),
622 $P < 0.01$ (**) and $P < 0.001$ (***), whereas “n.s.” indicates non-significant effects ($P > 0.05$). Different
623 lowercase letters above instar stages show statistically significant differences among the instar stages (O₃
624 pooled). Differences are marked according to Bonferroni test ($\alpha = 0.05$).



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630 **Fig 2.** Means \pm SE ($n = 4$) of efficiency conversion of ingested food (ECI) (A), efficiency conversion of
631 digested food (ECD) (B), and approximate digestibility (AD) (C) of 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th, and 7th larvae
632 instars of the leaf beetle *Agelastica coerulea* (Baly, 1874) (hereafter leaf beetle) fed with leaves of Japanese
633 white birch (*Betula platyphylla* var. japonica) obtained from ambient or elevated O₃ atmospheres, under
634 laboratory conditions. Asterisks indicate rANOVA significant effects at $P < 0.05$ (*), $P < 0.01$ (**) and
635 $P < 0.001$ (***), whereas “n.s.” indicates non-significant effects ($P > 0.05$). Different lowercase letters above
636 instar stages show statistically significant differences among the instar stages (O₃ pooled). Different
637 lowercase letters above the means show statistically significant differences within the interaction Instar \times
638 O₃. Differences are marked according to Bonferroni test ($\alpha = 0.05$).



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