

## THE IMPACT OF OZONE ON AGRICULTURE AND ITS CONSEQUENCES

DAVID T. TINGEY

U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Environmental Research Laboratory,  
Corvallis, OR 97333 (USA)

### ABSTRACT

Given its high level of phytotoxicity and distribution of elevated concentrations over broad geographic areas, O<sub>3</sub> is considered the most critical air pollutant affecting vegetation in the United States. Diverse experimental methods have been used to assess the impacts of O<sub>3</sub> on the crop yield. Comparisons of plant growth and yield in charcoal-filtered or unfiltered air and the use of chemical protectants show that ambient O<sub>3</sub> levels will reduce the growth and yield of numerous plant species. Ozone studies in open-top field-exposure chambers have provided exposure-response functions needed to evaluate the economic impacts of O<sub>3</sub> on agriculture. Exposure-response functions have been developed for a range of legume, grain, fiber and horticultural crops. Yield reductions (10%) were predicted for several crop species when the 7-hr seasonal mean concentration exceeded 0.04 to 0.05 ppm. For some sensitive cultivars of wheat, kidney bean and soybean, 10% yield reductions occurred at 7-hr mean concentrations of 0.028 to 0.033 ppm. Recent studies, using exposure-response functions developed in open-top chambers, have attempted to assess the national economic consequences of O<sub>3</sub> effects on agriculture. These studies indicate that elevated O<sub>3</sub> concentrations are costing U.S. agricultural producers and consumers between 1.2 and 2.4 billion dollars annually.

### INTRODUCTION

Ozone exerts a phytotoxic effect on vegetation only if enough diffuses from the ambient air into the leaf's sensitive cellular sites to cause an impact. Foliar injury is one of the earliest and most obvious manifestations of an O<sub>3</sub> effect, but impacts can also occur on other plant organs, causing effects ranging from reduced plant growth and decreased yield to changes in crop quality and alterations in susceptibility to abiotic and biotic stresses.

#### Yield Loss -- Definition

Yield loss is defined as an impairment or decrease in the intended use of the plant or its product. This concept of yield loss includes reductions in aesthetic values, the occurrence of foliar injury (changes in plant appearance), and losses in weight, number, or size of the plant organ that is normally harvested. Yield loss may also include changes in crop quality.

### Yield Loss -- Methods

To assess the impact of  $O_3$  on plant yield, diverse experimental methods have been used, ranging from studies under highly controlled conditions to exposures using field-exposure systems and chamberless systems, including chemical protectants. To determine the impact of  $O_3$  on plant growth and yield and to provide data for economic assessments, the experimental conditions must minimize deviations from the typical environment in which the crop(s) is grown. It is also important to insure that the experiment exposure regimes are representative of the pollutant concentration range and frequency for the area in which the crop is grown or for which inferences are to be made.

Open-top field exposure chambers (ref. 1, 2) are used most frequently to estimate yield losses because they permit creation of a range of  $O_3$  exposures and can approximate typical cultural conditions. The open-top design permits plants to be grown in soil under environmental conditions comparable to the ambient. The design permits the determination of the effects of the ambient pollutant burden on plant yield by comparing the differences in plant yield between filtered and unfiltered chambers. Plants can be exposed to charcoal-filtered air and a range of  $O_3$  concentrations above and below the current ambient level so that exposure-response functions can be developed (ref. 3, 4).

Chemical protectants have been used to avoid possible chamber influences on yield loss estimates (ref. 5). The crops are grown under typical field conditions, treated with protectant and exposed to ambient pollution. Yield loss is obtained by comparing plant yield from plots treated with the  $O_3$  protectant to the yield from untreated plots. However, using the protectant, only a single pollutant treatment is possible at a given location; consequently exposure-response functions cannot be developed. Also, the data must be interpreted carefully because the chemical protectant may alter plant performance.

### ESTIMATES OF YIELD LOSS

#### Ambient Air

Early research comparing crop yields between charcoal-filtered and unfiltered air documented that the ambient level of photochemical oxidants reduced yield of citrus, grape, tobacco, cotton, and potato (ref. 6). Subsequent studies confirmed that ambient levels of  $O_3$  were high enough to impair plant yield. For example, ambient  $O_3$  reduced the yields of tomato -- 33% (ref. 7), bean -- +1 to 26% (ref. 7-9), soybeans -- 20% (ref. 10, 11) and two sweet corn cultivars -- 9 and 28% (ref. 12).

#### Chemical Protectants

Chemical protectants have been used to estimate the impact of ambient  $O_3$  on the yield of several crop species (Table 1). Using this approach, yields were

reduced 18 to 41% when the ambient oxidant concentration exceeded 0.08 ppm for 5 to 18 days over the crop's growing season. These data support the conclusions from studies comparing yield in charcoal-filtered and unfiltered air, i.e., ambient levels of O<sub>3</sub> can be high enough to impair crop production.

TABLE 1

The effects of ambient O<sub>3</sub> on crop yield as determined by the use of chemical protectants.<sup>a</sup>

Species	Yield reduction % of control	O <sub>3</sub> exposure	Reference
Beans (green)	41	> 0.08 for total of 27 hr over 3.5 months	13
Onion	38	> 0.08 on 5 days out of 48	14
Tomato	30	> 0.08 on 15 days over 3 months	15
Bean (dry)	24	> 0.08 on 11 days (total of 34 hr) over 3 months	16
Tobacco	18	> 0.08 on 14 days during the summer	17
Potato	36	> 0.08 ppm on 18 days (total of 68 hr) over 3 months	18
Potato	25	---b	19

<sup>a</sup> All the species were treated with the antioxidant EDU except the bean study (ref. 13) which used the systemic fungicide benomyl. Yield reduction was determined by comparing the yields of plants treated with chemical protectants (control) to those that were not treated.

<sup>b</sup> This study was run over 2 years when the O<sub>3</sub> doses were 65 and 110 ppm/hr, respectively, but the yield loss was similar both years.

### Controlled Exposures

Most experimental techniques that assess yield loss from controlled exposures have used a range of O<sub>3</sub> concentrations and regression approaches to develop exposure-response functions which relate crop yield loss to O<sub>3</sub> exposure. The regression approaches permit the estimation of the O<sub>3</sub> impact on plant yield over the range of concentrations and it is possible to interpolate between treatment means; this is not possible with analysis of variance methods. Most of the currently available yield loss functions (ref. 3, 20) have expressed the O<sub>3</sub> exposure as the 7-hr (9:00 AM until 3:59 PM) seasonal mean concentration.

Examples of exposure-response functions are shown in Figure 1. A Weibull function (ref. 21) was used to model the change in crop yield in relation to the O<sub>3</sub> concentration. The derived exposure-response functions can be used to determine the concentrations predicted to cause a specific yield loss or to estimate the predicted yield loss that would result from a specific O<sub>3</sub> concentration. Both approaches have been used to summarize the data on crop responses to O<sub>3</sub> using a Weibull function. As an example, the O<sub>3</sub> concentrations

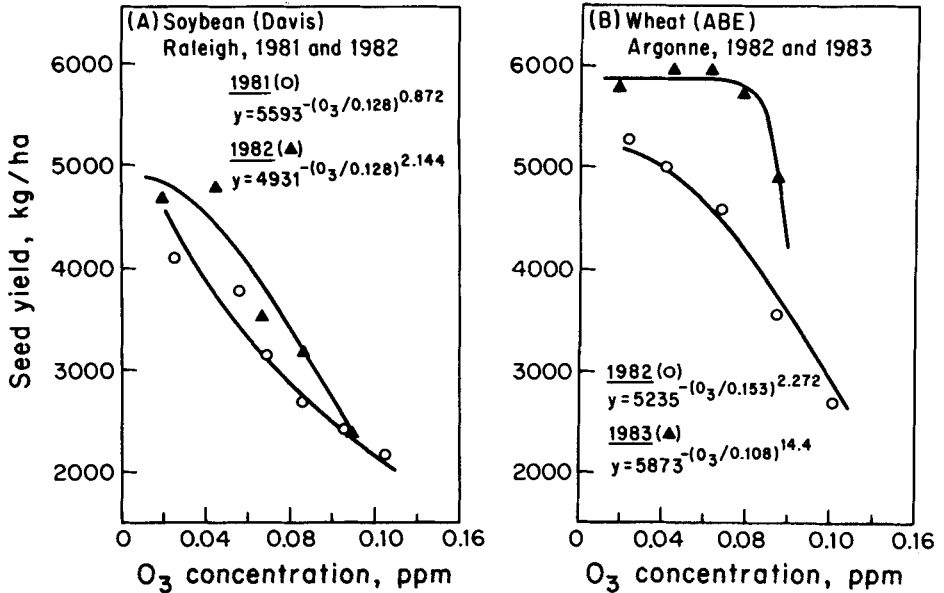


Figure 1. Examples of the effects of  $O_3$  on the yield of soybean and wheat cultivars over two years. The  $O_3$  concentrations are expressed as 7-hr seasonal mean concentrations. The cultivars were selected to illustrate year-to-year variation in plant response to  $O_3$ . The soybean data are from Heck et al. (ref. 20) and the wheat data are from Kress et al. (ref. 22).

predicted to cause a 10 or 30% yield loss have been estimated (Table 2). For approximately 56% of the species/cultivars listed, mean yield reductions were predicted to exceed 10% when the 7-hr seasonal mean  $O_3$  concentration exceeded 0.05 ppm. In sensitive crops, 7-hr seasonal mean concentrations of 0.028 to 0.033 ppm were predicted to cause a 10% yield loss in Vona wheat, kidney bean, and Hodgson soybean. At a 7-hr seasonal mean  $O_3$  concentration of 0.04 ppm, mean yield reductions ranged from 0 in sorghum, barley, and a corn cultivar to a high of 28.8% in Vona wheat.

The grain crops were generally less sensitive to  $O_3$  than were the other species (Table 2). For all grain crops, mean yield reductions at 7-hr seasonal mean concentrations of 0.04 ppm were predicted to be less than 5% except for the Roland and Vona wheat cultivars. The data also demonstrate that sensitivity differences within a species may be as large as differences between species. For example, at 0.04 ppm  $O_3$ , estimated yield losses ranged from 2 to 15% in soybean and from 0 to 28% in wheat.

TABLE 2

Compilation of O<sub>3</sub> concentrations predicted to cause 10% and 30% yield losses as well as yield losses predicted to occur at 7-hr seasonal mean O<sub>3</sub> concentrations of 0.04 and 0.06 ppm.<sup>a</sup>

Species	7-hr seasonal mean O <sub>3</sub> concentrations, ppm predicted to cause yield losses of:		Percent yield losses predicted to occur at 7-hr seasonal mean O <sub>3</sub> concentration of:	
	10%	30%	0.04 ppm	0.06 ppm
	<u>Legume Crops</u>			
Soybean, Corsoy	0.048	0.082	6.4	16.6
Soybean, Davis (81)	0.038	0.071	11.5	24.1
Soybean, Davis (CA-82)	0.048	0.081	6.4	16.5
Soybean, Davis (PA-82)	0.059	0.081	2.0	10.4
Soybean, Essex	0.048	0.099	7.2	14.3
Soybean, Forrest	0.076	0.118	1.7	5.3
Soybean, Williams	0.039	0.093	10.4	18.1
Soybean, Hodgson	0.032	0.066	15.4	18.4
Bean, Kidney	0.033	0.063	14.9	28.0
Peanut, NC-6	0.046	0.073	6.4	19.4
<u>Grain Crops</u>				
Wheat, Abe	0.059	0.095	3.3	10.4
Wheat, Arthur 71	0.056	0.094	4.1	11.7
Wheat, Roland	0.039	0.067	10.3	24.5
Wheat, Vona	0.028	0.041	28.8	51.2
Wheat, Blueboy II	0.088	0.127	0.5	2.0
Wheat, Coker 47-27	0.064	0.107	2.2	8.4
Wheat, Holly	0.099	0.127	0.0	0.9
Wheat, Oasis	0.093	0.135	0.4	2.4
Corn, PAG 397	0.095	0.126	0.3	1.5
Corn, Pioneer 3780	0.075	0.111	1.4	5.1
Corn, Coker 16	0.133	0.175	0.0	0.3
Sorghum, DeKalb-28	0.108	0.186	0.0	2.7
Barley, Poco	0.121	0.161	0.0	0.5
<u>Fiber Crops</u>				
Cotton, Acala SJ-2 (81)	0.044	0.096	8.3	16.2
Cotton, Acala SJ-2 (82)	0.032	0.055	16.1	35.1
Cotton, Stoneville	0.047	0.075	4.6	16.2
<u>Horticultural Crops</u>				
Tomato, Murrieta (81)	0.079	0.108	0.8	3.7
Tomato, Murrieta (82)	0.040	0.059	10.3	31.2
Lettuce, Empire	0.053	0.075	0.0	16.8
Spinach, America	0.046	0.082	6.8	17.2
Spinach, Hybrid	0.043	0.082	2.6	9.2
Spinach, Viroflay	0.048	0.080	6.0	16.7
Spinach, Whiter Bloom	0.049	0.080	5.8	16.5
Turnip, Just Right	0.043	0.064	7.7	24.9
Turnip, Pur Top W.G.	0.040	0.064	10.1	26.5
Turnip, Shogoin	0.036	0.060	13.0	29.7
Turnip, Tokyo Cross	0.053	0.072	3.3	15.6

<sup>a</sup> The yield losses are derived from Weibull equations and are based on the control yields in charcoal-filtered air. Data are derived from exposure-response functions (ref. 20).

#### Ambient Air Quality -- Relationship to Yield Loss

An understanding of ambient concentrations of O<sub>3</sub> is needed to place the concentrations predicted to cause 10 and 30% yield losses in perspective. For

example, air monitoring data for a single O<sub>3</sub> season were obtained from rural or remote monitoring sites throughout the United States (Table 3). For these sites, the 7-hr seasonal mean O<sub>3</sub> concentration averaged 0.044 ppm with a range of 0.019 to 0.057 ppm. This range encompasses the same concentration range predicted to cause a 10% yield loss in numerous crop species/cultivars (Table 2). The 12-hr seasonal mean at most sites is approximately equal to the 7-hr seasonal mean. At most monitoring sites, the number of hours greater than 0.08 ppm was similar to or greater than the exceedances associated with crop yield loss (Table 1).

TABLE 3

Examples of ambient ozone concentrations at rural and remote monitoring sites.<sup>a</sup>

Air Quality Statistic	Mean	St. Dev.	Max.	Min.
7-hr Seasonal Mean	0.043	0.007	0.057	0.019
12-hr Seasonal Mean	0.041	0.006	0.055	0.021
Hours Above 0.08 ppm	106	104	474	0
Hours Above 0.10 ppm	19	34	195	0
Hours Above 0.12 ppm	4	12	74	0

<sup>a</sup> Data courtesy of Ted Johnson, PEI Associates, Durham, North Carolina. Mean concentrations are expressed in ppm. The data are from 82 rural and remote monitoring sites from 32 states across the U.S. for a single year (ozone season) between 1982 and 1984.

#### Yield Loss -- Physiological Basis

Specific studies have not clearly established the cause(s) of the yield losses but several factors singly or in combination probably contribute. Ozone can reduce flowering, seed set, and fertilization processes in plants (ref. 23-27). Experiments have suggested that part of the O<sub>3</sub> impact on yield results from a simulation of leaf drop and senescence (ref. 28-31). Photosynthesis, as measured by gas-exchange, is inhibited by O<sub>3</sub> (0.05 ppm and higher) (ref. 6, 32-34). Biochemical studies have also shown that O<sub>3</sub> (0.12 ppm for 2 hr) inhibits an enzyme which catalyzes the assimilation of CO<sub>2</sub> (ref. 35). Ozone also alters the pattern by which photoassimilate is partitioned through the plant with less of it being translocated to the roots and reproductive organs (ref. 36-40).

#### Yield Loss -- Factors Affecting

Numerous factors, ranging from abiotic and biotic factors to the presence of other pollutants and the temporal dynamics of the exposure, can modify plant

response to  $O_3$ . However, factors influencing plant water relations (relative humidity and soil moisture stress) and the presence of other pollutants are thought to be the most important.

Plant response to  $O_3$  tends to increase with increasing relative humidity (ref. 6). The relative humidity effect appears to be related to stomatal aperture, which tends to increase with increasing relative humidity. McLaughlin and Taylor (ref. 41) demonstrated that plants absorb significantly more  $O_3$  at high humidity than at low humidity.

As soil moisture decreases, plant water stress increases and there is a reduction in plant sensitivity to  $O_3$  (e.g., ref. 6, 42). The reduced  $O_3$  sensitivity is apparently related to stomatal closure, which reduces  $O_3$  uptake (ref. 6, 43, 44). Water stress does not confer a permanent tolerance to  $O_3$ ; once the water stress has been alleviated, the plants regain their sensitivity to  $O_3$  (ref. 44).

Menser and Heggstad (ref. 45) provided the initial impetus to study the interaction of  $O_3$  with  $SO_2$ . They showed that Bel W-3 tobacco plants exposed to  $O_3$  (0.03 ppm) or  $SO_2$  (0.24 to 0.28 ppm) were uninjured but that substantial foliar injury resulted when the plants were exposed to both gases simultaneously. Subsequent studies have confirmed and extended the observation that combinations of  $O_3$  and  $SO_2$  may cause more visible injury on many species than expected, based on the injury caused by the individual gases (e.g., ref. 43, 46, 47). This injury enhancement is most common at low concentrations of each gas and also when the amount of foliar injury induced by each gas, individually, is small. At higher concentrations or when extensive injury occurs, the effects of the individual gases tend to be less than additive.

Field studies have been conducted to determine the influence of  $SO_2$  on plant response to  $O_3$  on several plant species: soybean (ref. 48, 49), beans (ref. 9, 50), and potatoes (ref. 51). In these studies,  $O_3$  reduced plant yield but  $SO_2$  had no significant effect and did not interact with  $O_3$  to reduce yield unless the  $SO_2$  exposure concentrations and frequency of occurrence were much greater than those typically found in the ambient air in the United States.

Many of the studies to determine the influence of pollutant combinations on plant growth and yield have used experimental exposures more intense than those found in the ambient air; consequently the applicability of the yield results from most pollutant combination studies to ambient conditions is not known. An analysis of ambient air monitoring data indicated that the joint co-occurrence of pollutants tended to be infrequent (ref. 52).

#### ECONOMIC CONSEQUENCES OF OZONE EXPOSURE

Various methods have been used for estimating economic losses, from simple monetary calculations to more complex economic assessment methodologies. The

simple procedures calculated monetary effects by multiplying predicted yield or production changes resulting from exposure to  $O_3$  by an assumed constant crop price. This procedure fails to account for possible price changes resulting from yield changes and does not account for the processes underlying economic response.

To conduct a reliable economic assessment, several types of information are needed -- data to relate crop response to  $O_3$  concentrations under actual field conditions and air quality data to describe current or hypothetical  $O_3$  exposures to crops in each production area. The assessment methodology should represent the economic behavior of producers and consumers as they adjust to changes in crop yields and prices that may accompany changes in  $O_3$  air quality.

National-level estimates of the economic impact of  $O_3$  on agriculture (including both producer and consumers) range from 1.2 to 2.4 billion dollars annually (Table 4). The current dollar estimates of crop loss are useful primarily as indicators of the magnitudes of impact. A full accounting of the economic mechanisms underlying agricultural production is required to provide definitive estimates of agricultural losses. Such an assessment should include both annual and perennial crops and the associated dynamics of agricultural production. The assessment should also include factors that affect plant response to  $O_3$  such as the temporal nature of the exposure and the influence of plant water stress on exposure-response functions.

#### SUMMARY

Several lines of evidence lead to the conclusion that  $O_3$  is the most important air pollutant affecting vegetation in the United States. Air monitoring studies have found elevated  $O_3$  levels in many areas and vegetation studies have confirmed that these levels are high enough to impact crop yield. Controlled field exposures to  $O_3$  have substantiated the impact of  $O_3$  on crop yield and permitted the development of exposure response functions for economic assessments. Detailed economic analyses have found that  $O_3$  causes significant impacts on both producers and consumers.

TABLE 4

Estimates of national economic consequences of ozone exposure.

Crops	Annual benefits of control, \$ million	Additional Comments	Reference
3 crops: corn, soybeans, and cotton. Two corn cultivars, three soybean, two cotton.	\$2.2 in 1980 dollars.	Economic estimate measured in terms of changes in consumer and producer surpluses associated with the change in O <sub>3</sub> .	53
4 crops: corn, soybeans, wheat, and cotton. Two cultivars for corn and cotton, three for soybeans and wheat.	\$2.4 in 1980 dollars.	Same as Adams and Crocker (ref. 53). Linear functions result in higher yield losses and hence higher economic loss estimates. Reported estimate (\$2.4 billion) is for quadratic response function.	54
5 crops: corn, soybeans, wheat, cotton, and peanuts. Multiple cultivars of each crop except peanuts.	\$1.2 in 1978 dollars.	In addition to measuring the change in economic surplus for various assumed O <sub>3</sub> levels, the analysis also includes an examination of the sensitivity of the estimates of the nature of the demand relationships used in the model.	55
6 crops: barley, corn, soybeans, cotton, wheat, and sorghum. Multiple cultivars used for each crop except barley and grain sorghum; two for cotton, three for wheat, two for corn, and nine for soybeans.	\$1.7 in 1980 dollars.	Consumer surplus estimated for both domestic and foreign markets; producer surplus nationally by region. The analysis includes a range of economic estimates reflecting changes in response and O <sub>3</sub> data and assumptions.	56

## REFERENCES

- 1 A. S. Heagle, D. E. Body and W. W. Heck, *J. Environ. Qual.* 2 (1973) 365-368.
- 2 R. L. Mandl, L. H. Weinstein, D. C. McCune and M. Keveny, *J. Environ. Qual.* 2 (1973) 132-135.
- 3 W. W. Heck, R. M. Adams, W. W. Cure, A. S. Heagle, H. E. Heggstad, R. J. Kohut, L. W. Kress, I. O. Rawlings and O. C. Taylor, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 17 (1983) 537A-581A.
- 4 W. E. Hogsett, D. T. Tingey and S. R. Holman, *Atmos. Environ.* 19 (1985) 1135-1145.
- 5 P. M. A. Toivonen, G. Hofstra and R. T. Wukasch, *Can. J. Plant Path.* 4 (1982) 318-386.
- 6 U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Air Quality Criteria for Ozone and Other Photochemical Oxidants, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Research Triangle Park, North Carolina, EPA-600/8-78-004, 1978.
- 7 D. C. MacLean and P. E. Schneider, *J. Environ. Qual.* 5 (1976) 75-78.
- 8 H. E. Heggstad, A. S. Heagle, J. H. Bennett and E. J. Koch, *Atmos. Environ.* 14 (1980) 317-326.
- 9 H. E. Heggstad and J. H. Bennett, *Science* 213 (1981) 1008-1010.
- 10 R. K. Howell and L. P. Rose, Jr., *Plant Dis.* 64 (1980) 385-386.
- 11 R. K. Howell, E. J. Koch and L. P. Rose, Jr., *Agron. J.* 71 (1979) 285-288.
- 12 C. R. Thompson, G. Kats and J. W. Cameron, *J. Environ. Qual.* 5 (1976) 410-412.
- 13 W. J. Manning, W. A. Feder and P. M. Vardaro, *J. Environ. Qual.* 3 (1974) 1-3.
- 14 R. T. Wukasch and G. Hofstra, *J. Am. Soc. Hort. Sci.* 102 (1977) 543-546.
- 15 B. C. Legassick and D. P. Ormrod, *HortScience* 16 (1981) 183-184.
- 16 P. J. Temple and S. Bisessar, *Phytopathology* 69 (1979) 101-103.
- 17 S. Bisessar and K. T. Palmer, *Atmos. Environ.* 18 (1984) 1025-1027.
- 18 S. Bisessar, *J. Am. Soc. Hort. Sci.* 107 (1982) 597-599.
- 19 B. B. Clarke, M. R. Henninger and E. Brennan, *Phytopathology* 73 (1983) 104-108.
- 20 W. W. Heck, W. W. Cure, J. O. Rawlings, L. J. Zaragoza, A. S. Heagle, H. E. Heggstad, R. J. Kohut, L. W. Kress and P. J. Temple, *J. Air Pollut. Control Assoc.* 34 (1984) 810-817.
- 21 J. O. Rawlings and W. W. Cure, *Crop Science* 25 (1985) 807-814.
- 22 L. W. Kress, J. E. Miller and H. J. Smith, *Environ. Exp. Bot.* 25 (1985) 211-228.
- 23 N. O. Adedipe, R. E. Barrett and D. P. Ormrod, *J. Am. Soc. Hort. Sci.* 97 (1972) 341-345.
- 24 W. W. Feder and F. J. Campbell, *Phytopathology* 58 (1968) 1038-1039.
- 25 J. G. Shannon and C. L. Mulchi, *Crop Sci.* 14 (1974) 335-337.
- 26 W. W. Feder, *Science* 160 (1968) 1122.
- 27 R. A. Mumford, H. Lipke, D. A. Laufer and W. A. Feder, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 6 (1972) 427-430.
- 28 H. A. Menser and O. E. Street, *Tobacco* 155 (1962) 192-196.
- 29 H. E. Heggstad, *Am. Potato J.* 50 (1973) 315-328.
- 30 E. J. Pell, W. C. Weissberger and J. J. Speroni, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 14 (1980) 568-571.
- 31 G. Hofstra, D. A. Littlejohns and R. T. Wukasch, *Plant. Dis. Rep.* 62 (1978) 350-352.
- 32 P. E. Coyne and G. E. Bingham, *J. Air Pollut. Control Assoc.* 28 (1978) 1119-1123.
- 33 V. J. Black, D. P. Ormrod and M. H. Unsworth, *J. Exp. Bot.* 33 (1982) 1302-1311.
- 34 Y. S. Yang, J. M. Skelly, B. I. Chevone and J. B. Birch, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 17 (1983) 371-373.
- 35 E. J. Pell and N. S. Pearson, *Plant Physiol.* 73 (1983) 185-187.
- 36 D. T. Tingey, W. W. Heck and R. A. Reinert, *J. Am. Soc. Hort. Sci.* 96 (1971) 369-371.

- 37 J. S. Jacobson, in M. H. Unsworth and D. P. Ormrod (Eds.), *Effects of Gaseous Air Pollution in Agriculture and Horticulture*, Butterworth Scientific, London, 1982, pp. 293-304.
- 38 R. J. Oshima, J. P. Bennett and P. K. Braegelmann, *J. Am. Soc. Hort. Sci.* 103 (1978) 348-350.
- 39 R. J. Oshima, P. K. Braegelmann, R. B. Flagler and R. R. Teso, *J. Environ. Qual.* 8 (1979) 474-479.
- 40 J. P. Bennett, R. J. Oshima and L. F. Lippert, *Environ. Exp. Bot.* 19 (1979) 33-39.
- 41 S. B. McLaughlin and G. E. Taylor, *Science* 221 (1981) 167-169.
- 42 P. J. Temple, O. C. Taylor and L. F. Benoit, *J. Environ. Qual.* 14 (1985) 55-60.
- 43 D. M. Olszyk and T. W. Tibbitts, *Plant Physiol.* 67 (1981) 539-544.
- 44 D. T. Tingey, G. L. Thutt, M. L. Gumpertz and W. E. Hogsett, *Agric. Environ.* 7 (1982) 243-254.
- 45 H. A. Menser and H. E. Heggstad, *Science* 153 (1966) 424-425.
- 46 R. A. Reinert, A. S. Heagle and W. W. Heck, in J. B. Mudd and T. T. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Response of Plants to Air Pollution*, Academic Press, Inc., New York, 1975, pp. 159-177.
- 47 D. P. Ormrod, in M. H. Unsworth and D. P. Ormrod (Eds.), *Effects of Gaseous Air Pollution in Agriculture and Horticulture*, Butterworth Scientific, London, pp. 307-331.
- 48 A. S. Heagle, W. W. Heck, J. O. Rawlings and R. B. Philbeck, *Crop Sci.* 23 (1983) 1184-1191.
- 49 P. B. Reich and R. G. Amundson, *Environ. Pollut. (Series A)* 34 (1984) 345-355.
- 50 R. J. Oshima, *The Impact of Sulfur Dioxide on Vegetation: A Sulfur Dioxide-Ozone Response Model*, Report, agreement no. A6-162-30, California Air Resources Board, Sacramento.
- 51 K. W. Foster, H. Timm, C. K. Labanauskas and R. J. Oshima, *J. Environ. Qual.* 12 (1983) 75-80.
- 52 A. S. Lefohn and D. T. Tingey, *Atmos. Environ.* 18 (1984) 2521-2526.
- 53 R. M. Adams and T. D. Crocker, in T. D. Crocker (Ed.), *Economic Perspectives on Acid Deposition Control*, Butterworth Publishers, Boston, 1984, pp. 35-64.
- 54 R. M. Adams, R. M. Crocker and R. W. Katz, *Rev. Econ. Stat.* 66 (1984) 568-575.
- 55 R. J. Kopp, W. J. Vaughan and M. Hazilla, *Agricultural Sector Benefits Analysis for Ozone: Methods Evaluation and Demonstration*, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Research Triangle Park, North Carolina, EPA-450/5-84-003, 1984.
- 56 R. M. Adams, S. A. Hamilton and B. A. McCarl, *The Economic Effects of Ozone on Agriculture*, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Corvallis, Oregon, EPA-600/3-84-090, 1984.