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Abstract

Iris species can adopt different pollination strategies to attract their pollinators, generalized shelter-mimicking, specialized deceptive sexual-mimicking or food-rewarding. As attractive stimuli, Iris flowers may use their colours, large-size, symmetry, and volatile organic compounds (VOCs). However, relatively few studies investigated Iris floral olfactory cues in the context of plant-visitor/pollinator interactions. In the present study we combined the identification of the floral volatiles of the nectariferous I. planifolia with insects visiting its flowers to gather data on its biology. Floral volatiles were collected in the natural environment by dynamic headspace and analysed by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS). Insect visitors/pollinators were also recorded. The volatile bouquet was aromatic-dominated with 1,4 dimethoxybenzene as major compound. Among the insects visiting its flowers, bumble and honey bees were the most abundant followed by hover flies. Overall, our results suggest that I. planifolia advertises its food reward by an aromatic dominated volatile composition.

Keywords	Iris planifolia; Iridaceae; Aromatic compounds; Dynamic headspace; GC-MS; Bumble bees; Honey bees; Hover flies; Pollination
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Ref: PHYTOCHEM_2018_187_R1

Title: Floral scent in Iris planifolia (Iridaceae) suggests food reward

Journal: Phytochemistry

Dear Editor,

Thank you very much for giving us the opportunity to review our manuscript, for the very useful comments and for accepting our manuscript.

As requested we modified the manuscript (MS Word revision mode) according to the suggestions/requests.

Please note that we accepted all the revisions done in the version PHYTOCHEM_2018_187_R1 and highlighted only the new changes in the text.

The revised files have been uploaded in the system together with the replies to editor and reviewer remarks.

Best regards,

Pietro Zito on behalf of co-authors.

Ref: PHYTOCHEM_2018_187_R1

Title: Floral scent in Iris planifolia (Iridaceae) suggests food reward

Journal: Phytochemistry

Dear Dr. Zito,

I am pleased to inform you that the overall recommendation of the reviewers and the specialist subject Editor is that your paper should be accepted for publication once you have attended to a few final corrections. These are detailed below.

Please check again for any further typos.

Please indicate in a point-by-point 'reply to reviewers' the modifications made in response to the comments, or explain why you have not done so.

Dear Editor,

Thank you very much for giving us the opportunity to review our manuscript, for the very useful comments and for accepting our manuscript.

Please find below our replies with the final corrections done according to the suggestions of the Reviewer.

Please note that we accepted all the revisions done in the version PHYTOCHEM_2018_187_R1 and highlighted the new alterations in the text by using Microsoft Word revision mode.

Comments from the editors and reviewers:

-Editor

-

-Reviewer 1

- The authors have responded with care to the reviewer remarks and the paper now feels less speculative, its arguments less forced.

Additional edits for fine tuning:

Discussion

Line 139: hydrocarbons

Reply: Done, line 131 in the new revised version

Line 149: benzyl tiglate also was detected

Reply: Done, line 141 in the new revised version

Line 172: it is not likely to have detrimental effects

Reply: Done, line 162 in the new revised version

Line 183: data from the literature

Reply: Done, line 173 in the new revised version

Line 199: blue-violet

Reply: Done, line 183 in the new revised version

Line 227: Although more data are needed...

Reply: Done, line 205 in the new revised version

Additional changes:

Please note that we added the asterisk to phenylacetaldehyde in the table 1 since in the previous file it was missing.

We added in the acknowledgements section Dr. Roman Fuchs

Best regards

Pietro Zito

Floral scent in Iris planifolia (Iridaceae) suggests food reward

1 2

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11 Declarations of interest: none.

12

13 Abstract

Iris species can adopt different pollination strategies to attract their pollinators, generalized shelter-14 mimicking, specialized deceptive sexual-mimicking or food-rewarding. As attractive stimuli, Iris 15 flowers may use their colours, large-size, symmetry, and volatile organic compounds (VOCs). 16 However, relatively few studies investigated Iris floral olfactory cues in the context of plant-17 visitor/pollinator interactions. In the present study we combined the identification of the floral 18 volatiles of the nectariferous *I. planifolia* with insects visiting its flowers to gather data on its biology. 19 20 Floral volatiles were collected in the natural environment by dynamic headspace and analysed by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS). Insect visitors/pollinators were also recorded. The 21 22 volatile bouquet was aromatic-dominated with 1,4 dimethoxybenzene as major compound. Among the insects visiting its flowers, bumble and honey bees were the most abundant followed by hover 23 flies. Overall, our results suggest that I. planifolia advertises its food reward by an aromatic 24 dominated volatile composition. 25

Keywords: *Iris planifolia*; Iridaceae; Aromatic compounds; Dynamic headspace; GC-MS; Bumble
bees; Honey bees; Hover flies; Pollination

28 **1. Introduction**

Iris L., with about 250-300 species distributed in Eurasia, North America and North Africa, is the 29 largest genus in the family Iridaceae (Goldblatt and Manning, 2008; Mavrodiev et al., 2014). 30 Although some species are found in mesic or wet environments, most occur in desert, semi-desert, or 31 dry, rocky and montane habitats (Wilson et al., 2016). Iris spp. were well known and cultivated, for 32 33 their use as a perfume, throughout ancient Greece and Roman Empire (Crisan and Cantor, 2016). 34 Cherokee Indians or other Native Americans used Iris plants for medicinal purposes (e.g. gastric problems, kidney and bladder disorders, among others) (Crisan and Cantor, 2016). Indeed, Iris plants 35 have been extensively studied because the species are a rich source of specialised metabolites, such 36 as flavonoids, isoflavonoids, benzoquinones, terpenoids and glycosides which have a wide range of 37 38 biological activities, including anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, antimicrobial and anticancer with chemo-preventive properties (Al-Jaber, 2016; Crisan and Cantor, 2016). To date, Iris plants have a 39 large economic value as flavoring in food products and soft drinks, ornamental purposes and uses in 40 41 the cosmetic industry (Crisan and Cantor, 2016).

Iris flower is considered an inflorescence with three functionally separate pollination units 42 (meranthia), acting as a single bilabiate gullet/tunnel flower (Goldblatt and Bernhardt, 1999). In each 43 unit (meranthium), the petaloid-style branch and its associated stamen form the upper lip (roof), while 44 the closely opposed large tepal, that works like a landing platform for insect visitors, forms the lower 45 46 lip (perigon lobe/floor) (Goldblatt and Bernhardt, 1999; Westerkamp and Claßen-Bockhoff, 2007). Interestingly, in Iris spp. the lower lips are often embellished with various colour patches, lines, 47 hairs/beards and ridges, among others, that may play an attractive role for the insects visiting the 48 49 flowers (Guo, 2015; Morinaga and Sakai, 2006). Studies on Iris pollination showed that most species are pollinated by social and/or solitary bees belonging to Apidaea, Andrenidae, Halictidae and 50 Colletidae (e.g., I. atropurpurea Baker, Sapir et al., 2005; Vereecken et al., 2013; Watts et al., 2013; 51 52 I. bulleyana Dykes, Ye et al., 2017; I. lutescens Lam., Imbert et al., 2014a, Radović et al., 2017; I. paradoxa Steven, Vereecken et al., 2012; I. pumila L., Radović et al., 2017; I. tuberosa L., Pellegrino 53

et al., 2016). In *Iris* species the rewards may consist of pollen, nectar or oils (Pellegrino et al., 2015);
although, such as in the nectarless *Oncocyclus* (Siems.) Baker section (*I. atrofusca* Baker, *I. atropurpurea*, *I. bismarckiana* Damman & Sprenger, among others) the flowers can provide
protective shelters (non-nutritive form of reward) that are used by visitors/pollinators (Sapir et al., 2005; Vereecken et al., 2012, 2013; Watts et al., 2013).

As attractive stimuli, Iris flowers may use their colours (Imbert et al., 2014a, 2014b; Vereecken et 59 60 al., 2012, 2013; Wang et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2016), large-sized flowers (Lavi and Sapir, 2015; Radović et al., 2017), floral symmetry (Radović et al., 2017), and a range of volatile organic 61 compounds (VOCs) (Ohler et al., 2016; Pellegrino et al., 2015, 2016; Vereecken et al., 2012, 2013; 62 63 Wang et al., 2013). However, while floral visual cues *i.e.* floral size, symmetry, colour and/or its 64 polymorphism have been extensively studied in Iris spp. (Imbert et al., 2014a, 2014b; Lavi and Sapir, 2015; Pellegrino et al., 2015, 2016; Radović et al., 2017; Souto-Vilarós, 2018; Vereecken et al., 2012, 65 66 2013; Wang et al., 2013, 2016), relatively few studies (additionally or exclusively) investigated Iris floral olfactory cues *i.e.* floral VOCs in the context of plant-visitor/pollinator interactions (I. 67 atropurpurea and I. paradoxa, Vereecken et al., 2012, 2013; I. lutescens, Wang et al., 2013, I. pallida 68 Lam., Ohler et al., 2016; I. tuberosa, Pellegrino et al., 2016). 69

70 Iris planifolia (Mill.) T. Durand & Schinz (Iridaceae), occurring mainly in the western Mediterranean 71 and North Africa, is the only member of the subgenus Scorpiris Spach (section Juno Dykes) native to Europe (Boltenkov and Govaerts, 2017). Since this nectariferous species occurs at low/middle 72 altitude in the Mediterranean region, where the winters are not severe, it may bloom at any time from 73 74 November to February (Mathew, 1986). This species has been studied from a taxonomical (Boltenkov and Govaerts, 2017), molecular (Ikinci et al., 2011) and morphological (Guo, 2015; Ikinci et al., 2011) 75 76 points of view. The single chemical study on *I. planifolia* was performed by Chikhi et al., (2012). 77 The authors used the essential oil to study some biological roles (*i.e.* antimicrobial and antioxidant 78 activity) of whole *I. planifolia* plant volatiles, but there are no studies investigating the inflorescence-79 specific volatile emissions of *I. planifolia* by using more biologically appropriate and non-invasive

methods, such as headspace. In the present study we combined the identification of the floral volatiles
of the blue-violet *I. planifolia* with insects visiting its flowers to gather data on its biology. In detail,
we (i) collected the inflorescences scent by dynamic headspace, (ii) analysed the samples by gas
chromatography and mass spectrometry (GC-MS) and (iii) recorded first data on its insect
visitors/pollinators.

85

86 **2. Results**

87 2.1. Floral scent

Twelve VOCs were identified in I. planifolia inflorescences: eleven aromatic compounds and one 88 89 monoterpene (Table 1). The total absolute amount of VOCs emitted by I. planifolia, estimated by using anisole as internal standard (see section 5.2 for details), was about 2.0 µg/inflorescence/hour. 90 The relative amount was reported as mean percentage of the integrated chromatogram peak areas. 91 92 The aromatic-dominated volatile bouquet was composed of four aromatic aldehydes (12 %), three aromatic alcohols (10 %), two aromatic esters (5 %) and two aromatic ethers (72 %). The single 93 94 exception was represented by the monoterpene alcohol linalool, which contributed to less than 0.5 %. Overall, the floral scent of I. planifolia was strongly dominated by 1,4-dimethoxybenzene (also 95 known as hydroquinone dimethyl ether) with about 71 %. Two compounds: 2-phenylethanol and 2-96 methoxybenzaldeyde were respectively found in relative amounts of 8 % and 6 %. Finally, five 97 compounds ranged between 4 and 1% whereas four contributed with less than 1% (Table 1). 98

99 2.2. Flower-visiting insects

Overall, in 8 hours of observation (8:00 - 16:00) we recorded 42 insects on *I. planifolia* inflorescences,
with bees and flies landing on all the observed plants. Insect visitation mostly occurred between 11:00
- 14:00. Bumble bees and honey bees (Apidae) were the most abundant visitors (32 registered visits)
followed by hover flies (10 registered visits). *Bombus ruderatus* (Fabricius) (Apidae) (Fig. 1A, B)
with 18 visits was the main insect visitor followed by *Apis mellifera* Linnaeus (Apidae) (Fig. 1C)

with 14 visits and by *Episyrphus balteatus* (De Geer) (Syrphidae) (Fig. 1D) with 10 visits. Since only
bumble bees and honey bees entered inside the flower tunnels and carried the pollen on their body
(mainly on their head and torax), they can be considered as potential pollinators. On the contrary, the
syrphid fly *E. balteatus* never entered inside the flowers and thus was considered as visitor.
Interestingly, *E. balteatus* spent most of its time eating the pollen grains left on the flowers by
pollinators when they crawled out of the flower tunnels.

111

112 **3. Discussion**

113 The floral scent of *I. planifolia* is characterized by VOCs that are reported (1) as floral volatiles of 114 different angiosperm families (Knudsen et al., 2006) and (2) as semiochemicals mediating several 115 plant-animal interactions (El Sayed, 2018).

With the single exception represented by the monoterpene alcohol linalool (less than 0.5 %), the floral scent bouquet of *I. planifolia* has a strong aromatic chemical composition (Tab. 1) dominated with more than 70 % by the aromatic ether 1,4-dimethoxybenzene (hereafter 1,4-DMB). This VOC was also found as major compound in the floral scents of *Salix* L. spp. (Salicaceae) pollinated during the daytime by mining bees and honey bees (Dötterl et al., 2005, 2014; Jürgens et al., 2014), and of *Anacamptis coriophora* (L.) R.M. Bateman, Pridgeon & M.W. Chase (Orchidaceae) pollinated by bumble and honey bees (Salzmann et al., 2007).

Despite the similarity with the floral scents of plant species belonging to different families (Knudsen 123 et al., 2006), the floral scent composition of *I. planifolia* differs from those found within the genus by 124 other authors. For example, while 1,4-DMB was the main VOC found in our dynamic headspace 125 samples, it was detected in minor amounts in the essential oil of I. planifolia (0.5 %, Chikhi et al., 126 127 2012) and in the static headspace samples of *I. lutescens* (less than 3.0 %, Wang et al., 2013). Furthermore, it was not found in solvent extracts of *I. pallida* (toluene samples by Ohler et al., 2016), 128 I. atropurpurea, I. paradoxa and I. tuberosa (hexane samples by Pellegrino et al., 2016 and Vereecken 129 et al., 2012, 2013). In contrast, I. planifolia by Chikhi et al. (2012) was dominated by aliphatic 130

131 hydrocarbnons and fatty acids (e.g. *n*-alkanes and hexadecanoic acid); *I. lutescens* by monoterpenes 132 (myrcene, (E)- β -ocimene and limonene) (Wang et al., 2013); *I. pallida* by methyl anthranilate (Ohler et al., 2016) and *I. atropurpurea*, *I. paradoxa* and *I. tuberosa* by aliphatic hydrocarbons (*n*-alkanes 133 and *n*-alkenes) (Pellegrino et al., 2016; Vereecken et al., 2012, 2013). As reported by other authors 134 (e.g. El-Sajed et al., 2018; Jürgens et al., 2009; Knudsen and Gershenzon, 2006; Tholl et al., 2006), 135 it is not surprising that the limited overlap in floral VOCs between *Iris* species could be due to the 136 137 different volatile sampling methods (e.g., headspace vs hydrodistillation or solvent extractions), to the polarity and affinities of VOCs to the adsorbent fibers used (headspace methods), to the 138 interspecific variation, and/or to the insect pollinators/pollination strategies of the investigated Iris, 139 140 among others. Indeed, excluding 1,4-DMB, we found only a few co-occurrences between our floral 141 volatiles and those of other Iris species. Among these, benzyl tiglate also was detected also in I. planifolia by Chikhi et al. (2012); benzaldehyde, 2-(4-methoxyphenyl)ethanol and 4-142 methoxybenzaldehyde in *I. lutescens* (Wang et al., 2013); linalool in *I. planifolia* (Chikhi et al., 2012) 143 and in *I. lutescens* (Wang et al., 2013). 144

Autonomous self-pollination has been described in some Iris species (e.g. Iris versicolor L.) (Kron 145 et al., 1993) but not in others (e.g. Oncocyclus irises) (Watts et al., 2013; Sapir et al., 2005). To date, 146 information on pollination biology of *I. planifolia* has been lacking; however, irises pollination data 147 148 from the literature show that insects play an important role for the reproductive success in both selfincompatible and self-compatible Iris species (Watts et al., 2013; Kron et al., 1993). Among I. 149 planifolia visitors, Bombus ruderatus and Apis mellifera (Fig. 1A, B, C) were found as candidates 150 that, forcing the tepal (lower lip) and the opposite style branch of the meranthium, entered inside the 151 152 tunnel and passively collected pollen. We did not find any insects inside the flowers (sheltering) as in Iris atropurpurea and Iris paradoxa (Vereecken et al., 2012, 2013; Watts et al., 2013). Although 153 154 more extensive field observations (e.g. data collection and night-sheltering) and experiments (e.g. seed- fruit-set) are needed to confirm the exclusive role of B. ruderatus and A. mellifera as pollinators 155 156 of *I. planifolia*, our findings are consistent with previous studies of other *Iris* species pollinated by

bumble bees and/or honey bees, among others (Goldblatt and Manning, 2006; Imbert et al., 2014a, 157 158 2014b; Segal et al. 2006; Souto-Vilarós et al., 2018; Watts et al., 2013; Ye et al., 2017). In addition to the legitimate bee pollinators, the syrphid fly E. balteatus was observed eating the pollen grains 159 lost by B. ruderatus and A. mellifera on the lower lip of the I. planifolia flowers. Since E. balteatus 160 was not observed as pollen robber from the anthers of I. planifolia (it never entered into the 161 162 gullet/tunnel flower) it is not likely to have has not detrimental effects for *I. planifolia*. Conversely, 163 we speculate that its "cleaning service" could have a beneficial effect by restoring the original visual 164 displays.

Generalist bees, such as *Bombus* spp. and *Apis mellifera*, have a broad pollen/nectar diet and collect 165 166 pollen from different species with variable floral cues (Dobson, 2006; Dötterl and Vereecken, 2010). Consequently, generalist bees might benefit by relying on floral VOCs related to a broad spectrum of 167 potential host flowers (Dötterl and Vereecken, 2010). In food-rewarding plants, the aromatic 168 169 compounds as alcohols, aldehydes, esters, and ethers alone or in combination with some monoterpene alcohols (e.g. linalool) are often reported as floral VOCs that attract nectar/pollen feeders, such as 170 bees, butterflies, months and flies (Dobson 2006; Dötterl and Vereecken 2010; Jürgens et al., 2009; 171 Primante and Dötterl, 2010). Although in our study we did not perform electroantennographic or 172 173 behavioral experiments, data form from the literature provide evidence that 1,4-DMB (Jürgens et al., 174 2014; Salzman et al., 2007), benzaldehyde (Theis, 2006), 4-methoxybenzaldehyde (= panisaldehyde), phenylacetaldehyde (Dötterl and Vereecken 2010; Knauer and Schiestl, 2015; Theis, 175 2006), 2-phenylethanol, benzyl alcohol and linalool (Dötterl and Vereecken 2010; Theis, 2006) are 176 177 VOCs perceived and attractive for *Bombus* spp. and/or *Apis mellifera*. In addition, 2-phenylethanol is known as attractant for syrphid flies (Zhu and Park, 2005) and potentially also for E. balteatus 178 179 (Primante and Dötterl, 2010); whereas linalool was recently reported as electrophysiologically-active for Syrphidae (Braunschmid et al., 2017). 180

Iris spp. use floral visual and olfactory cues for attracting their pollinators (e.g. Pellegrino et al., 2016;
Vereecken et al., 2012, 2013; Wang et al., 2013). It is interesting to note that bumble bees' UV-blue

photoreceptors can perceive the predominant blu<u>e</u>-violet *I. planifolia* floral colour (human perception) (Arnold et al., 2010) as attractive and innate signals of rewarding flowers (Knauer and Schiestl, 2015; Kunze and Gumbert, 2001; Raine and Chittka, 2007). Furthermore, since syrphid flies prefer yellow over other colours, the yellow or orange pubescent median ridge in the lower lips of *I. planifolia* meranthia can be attractive for *E. balteatus*, despite it mainly uses olfactory cues to find a pollen/nectar host-plants (Primante and Dötterl, 2010).

189

190 4. Conclusions

In agreement with Vereecken et al. (2015), in this study we adopted an accepted and modern 191 192 methodology (dynamic headspace) that allows the collection and analysis of floral scents from the prospective of plant-visitor/pollinator interactions (El-Sajed et al., 2018; Zito et al., 2015). To our 193 surprise, this is the first study that investigated the floral volatiles in the genus Iris by using a dynamic 194 195 headspace method. Furthermore, it is the first report on visitor/pollinators of I. planifolia. Our results suggest that the floral volatiles of the nectariferous *I. planifolia* may play a synergistic role when also 196 visual cues occur. This hypothesis is supported by other studies that reported how social bees (e.g. 197 bumble bees and honey bees) elicited the strongest behavioural responses when floral visual and 198 199 olfactory cues co-occur (Chittka and Raine, 2006; Dötterl et al., 2014; Junker and Parachnowitsch, 200 2015).

Interestingly, sexual mimicry has evolved from generalized food deception, shelter pollination, or 201 food reward systems (Johnson and Schiestl, 2016). By floral visual and olfactory cuesIris spp. can 202 203 adopt different pollination strategies to attract their pollinators *i.e.* from generalized sheltermimicking species or specialized sexual-mimicking deceptive species (Pellegrino et al., 2015, 2016; 204 205 Vereecken et al., 2012, 2013) to food-rewarding species (present study). Although more Despite 206 further-data are needed to confirm the pollination strategies adopted in other un-investigated Iris species among the sections, our results suggest that I. planifolia advertises the food reward by its 207 208 aromatic dominated volatile composition probably in synergy with its visual cues. Further studies are

needed to better understand the interplay between floral olfactory and visual cues for attracting *I*. *planifolia* visitors and pollinators.

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212 **5. Experimental**

213 5.1. Study species

Iris planifolia (Mill.) T. Durand & Schinz (Iridaceae) [subg. Scorpiris Spach; section Juno Dykes], 214 215 described as Xiphium planifolium in 1768 by Philip Miller, is a perennial bulbous herb about 10-25 216 cm high (Mathew, 1986). It is naturally occurring in Spain, Portugal, Sardinia, Sicily, Crete, Greece, Libya, Tunisia, Algeria and Morocco (Barker and Govaerts, 2018). As described by Mathew (1986), 217 218 the stems are very short, more or less subterranean and hidden by the leaf bases. The lanceolate and often undulate-falcate leaves (4-7) are bright shiny green above and glaucous beneath. Each plant, 219 blooming from November to February, has 1-3 inflorescences (6-12 cm across) pale to deep blue or 220 violet-blue and rarely white. The lower lips of the three meranthia of its inflorescence are widely 221 reflexed, blue, veined and dotted in dark violet with a yellow or orange pubescent median ridge. The 222 223 anthers are whitish or purplish whereas style branches flattened and petaloid are bilobed at the apex. To date, no information is available on the pollination ecology of *I. planifolia*; the plant produces 224 nectar (supplementary material in Herrera et al., 2012) as pollinators reward. The seeds, ovoid and 225 rugose are dark reddish-brown. In its natural habitat, the species usually grows on sloping rocky 226 ground on limestone formations where the soil is the typical Mediterranean reddish clay (Mathew, 227 1986). 228

In the present study, all the field activities were performed in November 2017, wet season in Sicily,
in a natural site located in San Martino delle Scale - Sicily (38°5'18.29"N, 13°15'23.48"E).

231 5.2. Floral scent sampling

Floral scent was collected, on a sunny day in November 2017, from plants growing in their natural habitat (38°5'18.29"N, 13°15'23.48"E - San Martino delle Scale - Sicily). All samples from

inflorescences (N=7) were collected using a dynamic headspace method (pull system) (Tholl et al., 234 235 2006). For each sampling, one inflorescence per plant was enclosed in an oven bag (size: 15×12 cm, CUKI® Cofresco S.p.A.) and the emitted volatiles were collected for 6 hours (9:00 - 15:00) by an 236 adsorbent tube using a vacuum pump (G12/01 EB, Rietschle Thomas, Puchheim, Germany), with a 237 flow rate of 200 ml/min. The adsorbent tube (shortened glass Pasteur pipette) was filled with 20 mg 238 Tenax-TA (mesh 60-80) and 20 mg Carbotrap B (mesh 20-40) both Supelco (Bellefonte, PA, USA). 239 The adsorbent materials were fixed in the tubes using glass wool (Sigma Aldrich). At the same time, 240 by using the same approach described before, headspace samples from leaf (N=3) and an empty oven 241 bag (N=1), were used as negative controls. Volatiles trapped in the tubes were eluted within a few 242 minutes after collection with 200 μ l of acetone (Sigma Aldrich, > 99 %). All samples were stored in 243 screw cap vials at -20 °C until chemical analyses. The peak areas on the chromatograms were 244 integrated to obtain the total ion current, which was used to determine the relative amount (%) of each 245 246 peak. -To quantify the absolute amount of scent emitted from an inflorescence, one µg of anisole (Sigma-Aldrich, Anisole ReagentPlus[®], 99 %) was added to each sample as internal standard. 247 Subsequently to calculate the absolute amounts of the VOCs in each sample, peak areas on the 248 chromatograms were integrated to obtain the total ion current signal and compared to that of the 249 internal standard. 250

251 5.3. Chemical analysis

All samples were analyzed by GC-MS on a single quadrupole Shimadzu GC-MS-QP2010 Plus equipped with an AOC-20i autoinjector (Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan) and a Supelcowax 10 capillary column (30 m long, 0.25 mm i.d., 0.25 μm film thickness). One μl of each sample was injected at 250 °C in the splitless mode, and the column flow (carrier gas: helium) was set at 1 ml/min. The GC oven temperature was held for 5 min at 40 °C, then increased by 2°C/min to 250 °C, held for 15 min and finally raised to 270 °C at 10 °C/min. The MS interface worked at 280 °C, and the ion source at 250 °C. Mass spectra were taken at 70 eV (in EI mode) from m/z 30 to 500. The GC/MS data were
analyzed using the GCMSolution package, Version 2.72.

Identification of compounds was carried out using the mass spectral libraries FFNSC 2, W9N11, 260 ESSENTIAL OILS (available in MassFinder 3), and Adams (2007). These identifications were also 261 compared by mass spectra and Kovats retention indices found in NIST11, SciFinder and Pherobase 262 (El-Sayed, 2018) database. Many of the compounds were confirmed by comparison of mass spectra 263 264 and retention times with authentic standard components (Sigma Aldrich) provided by Prof. Dr. Stefan Dötterl (Plant Ecology Lab - University of Salzburg). Kovats retention indices were calculated using 265 a series of n-alkanes ($C_8 - C_{30}$). Compounds found in the flowers were compared with those found in 266 267 the negative controls (empty oven bag and green leaves) to discriminate contaminations from air ambient and to identify those exclusively emitted by flowers. 268

269 5.4. Flower-visiting insects

Insects visiting *I. planifolia* inflorescences were recorded during the day and in the same site of the 270 headspace collections. The sampling of flower-visiting insects was limited to ten inflorescences in 271 order to minimize the potential negative impact on the local entomofauna and on pollination 272 processes. Observations were performed simultaneously by two researchers staying near the plants 273 for 8 hours (08:00 - 16:00). The limited number of hours of observation was linked to good weather 274 condition (sunny day) occurring in the flowering period of *I. planifolia* in Sicily (rainy season). 275 Insects visiting I. planifolia were recorded when they landed on a meranthium. Only a few insect 276 visitors belonging to different morphospecies were captured by entomological hand nets or plastic 277 bags (10 x 7 cm), otherwise they were annotated and photographed with a digital camera (NIKON 278 D3100). Since not all insect individuals were captured, we cannot exclude that the same specimen 279 280 after leaving, came back to revisit the inflorescence again. The data of insects visiting the ten different 281 *I. planifolia* inflorescences were polled together. The flower visitors that landed, entered inside the meranthium and came out it with pollen on their body were recorded as potential pollinators. On the 282

contrary, the insects that after their landing on the inflorescences never entered inside the meranthium
were recorded as visitors. Insect specimens, identified at specific taxonomic level, are stored in an
entomological box and kept in the Entomological collection of the Department of Biological,
Chemical and Pharmaceutical Sciences and Technologies of the University of Palermo.

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Table 1. Relative and total absolute amounts of floral scent detected in *Iris planifolia*. Compounds
belonging to the same chemical class and functional group (Knudsen et al., 2006) are arranged
according to Kovats retention indices (KRI) of the Supelcowax 10 column. Odour characteristic:
olfactory descriptions according to Acree and Arn (2004) and El-Sayed (2018). * = identification
verified by authentic standard.

Compound	KRI	Relative amount (%) Mean ± SE (<i>N</i> = 7)	Occurrence of samples (%)	Odour characteristic
Aromatic alcohols				
Benzyl alcohol*	1856	0.3 ± 0.1	100	Sweet, floral, fruity
2-Phenylethanol*	1886	8.4 ± 3.6	100	Honey, spicy, rose, lilac, sweet, yeast, floral, herbal
2-(4-Methoxyphenyl)ethanol	2303	1.4 ± 0.2	100	-
Aromatic aldehydes				
Benzaldehyde*	1503	3.7 ± 1.3	100	Almond, burnt sugar, woody
Phenylacetaldehyde*	1620	2.0 ± 1.6	57	Honey, sweet, rose, green, grassy, floral
2-Methoxybenzaldehyde	1936	6.2 ± 1.4	100	-
4-Methoxybenzaldehyde*	2004	0.4 ± 0.2	71	Mint, sweet
Aromatic esters				
Methyl benzoate*	1599	1.9 ± 0.5	86	Prune, lettuce, herbal, sweet, floral, watermelon
Benzyl tiglate*	2080	3.1 ± 1.0	86	Earthy, mushroom
Aromatic ethers				
1,4-Dimethoxybenzene*	1716	71.5 ± 4.9	100	Sweet, floral, herbal
1,2,4-Trimethoxybenzene*	2068	0.8 ± 0.3	86	-
Monoterpene alcohols				
Linalool*	1536	0.4 ± 0.1	100	Muscat, sweet, green, floral, lemon, parsley, lavender, fruity



452 Figure legend.

Fig. 1. *Bombus ruderatus* inside (A) and on (B) the meranthium of *Iris planifolia* (photos by
Francesca Tavella). *Apis mellifera* outgoing from the tunnel of the meranthium (C) and *Episyrphus balteatus* eating the pollen grains left by pollinators (D) (photos by Pietro Zito).

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457 Graphical abstract Legend.

458 *Iris planifolia* (Iridaceae) advertises its food reward by an aromatic dominated floral volatile 459 composition.

Highlights

- Aromatic compounds dominate the floral scent bouquet.
- 1,4-dimethoxybenzene is the major compound.
- The floral scent advertises a food-rewarding species.
- Bumble and honey bees are pollinators whereas a syrphid fly is visitor.
- Floral olfactory cues probably act in synergy with visual ones to attract bees and flies.



Floral scent in Iris planifolia (Iridaceae) suggests food reward

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11 Declarations of interest: none.

13 Abstract

 Iris species can adopt different pollination strategies to attract their pollinators, generalized shelter-mimicking, specialized deceptive sexual-mimicking or food-rewarding. As attractive stimuli, Iris flowers may use their colours, large-size, symmetry, and volatile organic compounds (VOCs). However, relatively few studies investigated Iris floral olfactory cues in the context of plant-visitor/pollinator interactions. In the present study we combined the identification of the floral volatiles of the nectariferous *I. planifolia* with insects visiting its flowers to gather data on its biology. Floral volatiles were collected in the natural environment by dynamic headspace and analysed by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS). Insect visitors/pollinators were also recorded. The volatile bouquet was aromatic-dominated with 1,4 dimethoxybenzene as major compound. Among the insects visiting its flowers, bumble and honey bees were the most abundant followed by hover flies. Overall, our results suggest that I. planifolia advertises its food reward by an aromatic dominated volatile composition.

Keywords: *Iris planifolia*; Iridaceae; Aromatic compounds; Dynamic headspace; GC-MS; Bumble
bees; Honey bees; Hover flies; Pollination

1. Introduction

Iris L., with about 250-300 species distributed in Eurasia, North America and North Africa, is the largest genus in the family Iridaceae (Goldblatt and Manning, 2008; Mavrodiev et al., 2014). Although some species are found in mesic or wet environments, most occur in desert, semi-desert, or dry, rocky and montane habitats (Wilson et al., 2016). Iris spp. were well known and cultivated, for their use as a perfume, throughout ancient Greece and Roman Empire (Crisan and Cantor, 2016). Cherokee Indians or other Native Americans used Iris plants for medicinal purposes (e.g. gastric problems, kidney and bladder disorders, among others) (Crisan and Cantor, 2016). Indeed, Iris plants have been extensively studied because the species are a rich source of specialised metabolites, such as flavonoids, isoflavonoids, benzoquinones, terpenoids and glycosides which have a wide range of biological activities, including anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, antimicrobial and anticancer with chemo-preventive properties (Al-Jaber, 2016; Crisan and Cantor, 2016). To date, Iris plants have a large economic value as flavoring in food products and soft drinks, ornamental purposes and uses in the cosmetic industry (Crişan and Cantor, 2016).

Iris flower is considered an inflorescence with three functionally separate pollination units (meranthia), acting as a single bilabiate gullet/tunnel flower (Goldblatt and Bernhardt, 1999). In each unit (meranthium), the petaloid-style branch and its associated stamen form the upper lip (roof), while the closely opposed large tepal, that works like a landing platform for insect visitors, forms the lower lip (perigon lobe/floor) (Goldblatt and Bernhardt, 1999; Westerkamp and Claßen-Bockhoff, 2007). Interestingly, in Iris spp. the lower lips are often embellished with various colour patches, lines, hairs/beards and ridges, among others, that may play an attractive role for the insects visiting the flowers (Guo, 2015; Morinaga and Sakai, 2006). Studies on Iris pollination showed that most species are pollinated by social and/or solitary bees belonging to Apidaea, Andrenidae, Halictidae and Colletidae (e.g., I. atropurpurea Baker, Sapir et al., 2005; Vereecken et al., 2013; Watts et al., 2013; I. bulleyana Dykes, Ye et al., 2017; I. lutescens Lam., Imbert et al., 2014a, Radović et al., 2017; I. paradoxa Steven, Vereecken et al., 2012; I. pumila L., Radović et al., 2017; I. tuberosa L., Pellegrino

et al., 2016). In Iris species the rewards may consist of pollen, nectar or oils (Pellegrino et al., 2015); although, such as in the nectarless Oncocvclus (Siems.) Baker section (I. atrofusca Baker, I. atropurpurea, I. bismarckiana Damman & Sprenger, among others) the flowers can provide protective shelters (non-nutritive form of reward) that are used by visitors/pollinators (Sapir et al., 2005; Vereecken et al., 2012, 2013; Watts et al., 2013).

As attractive stimuli, Iris flowers may use their colours (Imbert et al., 2014a, 2014b; Vereecken et al., 2012, 2013; Wang et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2016), large-sized flowers (Lavi and Sapir, 2015; Radović et al., 2017), floral symmetry (Radović et al., 2017), and a range of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) (Ohler et al., 2016; Pellegrino et al., 2015, 2016; Vereecken et al., 2012, 2013; Wang et al., 2013). However, while floral visual cues *i.e.* floral size, symmetry, colour and/or its polymorphism have been extensively studied in Iris spp. (Imbert et al., 2014a, 2014b; Lavi and Sapir, 2015; Pellegrino et al., 2015, 2016; Radović et al., 2017; Souto-Vilarós, 2018; Vereecken et al., 2012, 2013; Wang et al., 2013, 2016), relatively few studies (additionally or exclusively) investigated Iris 147 66 floral olfactory cues *i.e.* floral VOCs in the context of plant-visitor/pollinator interactions (I. 149 67 atropurpurea and I. paradoxa, Vereecken et al., 2012, 2013; I. lutescens, Wang et al., 2013, I. pallida Lam., Ohler et al., 2016; I. tuberosa, Pellegrino et al., 2016).

Iris planifolia (Mill.) T. Durand & Schinz (Iridaceae), occurring mainly in the western Mediterranean and North Africa, is the only member of the subgenus Scorpiris Spach (section Juno Dykes) native to Europe (Boltenkov and Govaerts, 2017). Since this nectariferous species occurs at low/middle altitude in the Mediterranean region, where the winters are not severe, it may bloom at any time from 164 74 November to February (Mathew, 1986). This species has been studied from a taxonomical (Boltenkov and Govaerts, 2017), molecular (Ikinci et al., 2011) and morphological (Guo, 2015; Ikinci et al., 2011) 166 75 points of view. The single chemical study on *I. planifolia* was performed by Chikhi et al., (2012). 170 77 The authors used the essential oil to study some biological roles (i.e. antimicrobial and antioxidant activity) of whole *I. planifolia* plant volatiles, but there are no studies investigating the inflorescence-specific volatile emissions of *I. planifolia* by using more biologically appropriate and non-invasive

methods, such as headspace. In the present study we combined the identification of the floral volatiles of the blue-violet *I. planifolia* with insects visiting its flowers to gather data on its biology. In detail, we (i) collected the inflorescences scent by dynamic headspace, (ii) analysed the samples by gas chromatography and mass spectrometry (GC-MS) and (iii) recorded first data on its insect visitors/pollinators.

86 2. Results

87 2.1. Floral scent

Twelve VOCs were identified in I. planifolia inflorescences: eleven aromatic compounds and one monoterpene (Table 1). The total absolute amount of VOCs emitted by I. planifolia, estimated by using anisole as internal standard (see section 5.2 for details), was about 2.0 µg/inflorescence/hour. The relative amount was reported as mean percentage of the integrated chromatogram peak areas. The aromatic-dominated volatile bouquet was composed of four aromatic aldehydes (12 %), three aromatic alcohols (10 %), two aromatic esters (5 %) and two aromatic ethers (72 %). The single exception was represented by the monoterpene alcohol linalool, which contributed to less than 0.5 %. Overall, the floral scent of I. planifolia was strongly dominated by 1,4-dimethoxybenzene (also known as hydroquinone dimethyl ether) with about 71 %. Two compounds: 2-phenylethanol and 2-methoxybenzaldevde were respectively found in relative amounts of 8 % and 6 %. Finally, five compounds ranged between 4 and 1% whereas four contributed with less than 1% (Table 1).

9 2.2. Flower-visiting insects

Overall, in 8 hours of observation (8:00 - 16:00) we recorded 42 insects on *I. planifolia* inflorescences, with bees and flies landing on all the observed plants. Insect visitation mostly occurred between 11:00 - 14:00. Bumble bees and honey bees (Apidae) were the most abundant visitors (32 registered visits) followed by hover flies (10 registered visits). *Bombus ruderatus* (Fabricius) (Apidae) (Fig. 1A, B) with 18 visits was the main insect visitor followed by *Apis mellifera* Linnaeus (Apidae) (Fig. 1C)

²³⁹ 240 **105** with 14 visits and by Episyrphus balteatus (De Geer) (Syrphidae) (Fig. 1D) with 10 visits. Since only . 242¹⁰⁶ bumble bees and honey bees entered inside the flower tunnels and carried the pollen on their body ₂₄₄ 107 (mainly on their head and torax), they can be considered as potential pollinators. On the contrary, the syrphid fly E. balteatus never entered inside the flowers and thus was considered as visitor. 246 **108** Interestingly, E. balteatus spent most of its time eating the pollen grains left on the flowers by 248 109 249 pollinators when they crawled out of the flower tunnels. 250 110 251

²⁵⁴112 3. Discussion 255

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²⁵⁶ 257 **113** The floral scent of *I. planifolia* is characterized by VOCs that are reported (1) as floral volatiles of 258 259 **11**4 different angiosperm families (Knudsen et al., 2006) and (2) as semiochemicals mediating several 260 261 **115** plant-animal interactions (El Sayed, 2018).

With the single exception represented by the monoterpene alcohol linalool (less than 0.5%), the floral 263 116 264 scent bouquet of *I. planifolia* has a strong aromatic chemical composition (Tab. 1) dominated with 265 117 266 more than 70 % by the aromatic ether 1,4-dimethoxybenzene (hereafter 1,4-DMB). This VOC was 267 118 268 ²⁶⁹119 also found as major compound in the floral scents of Salix L. spp. (Salicaceae) pollinated during the 270 ²⁷¹ 120 daytime by mining bees and honey bees (Dötterl et al., 2005, 2014; Jürgens et al., 2014), and of 272 273 121 Anacamptis coriophora (L.) R.M. Bateman, Pridgeon & M.W. Chase (Orchidaceae) pollinated by 274 ²⁷⁵ 276 **122** bumble and honey bees (Salzmann et al., 2007).

277 ₂₇₈ 123 Despite the similarity with the floral scents of plant species belonging to different families (Knudsen 279 et al., 2006), the floral scent composition of *I. planifolia* differs from those found within the genus by 280 **12**4 281 other authors. For example, while 1,4-DMB was the main VOC found in our dynamic headspace 282 125 283 284 126 samples, it was detected in minor amounts in the essential oil of *I. planifolia* (0.5 %, Chikhi et al., 285 ²⁸⁶127 2012) and in the static headspace samples of *I. lutescens* (less than 3.0 %, Wang et al., 2013). 287 ²⁸⁸128 Furthermore, it was not found in solvent extracts of *I. pallida* (toluene samples by Ohler et al., 2016), 289 290 I. atropurpurea, I. paradoxa and I. tuberosa (hexane samples by Pellegrino et al., 2016 and Vereecken 291 292 293⁻130 et al., 2012, 2013). In contrast, I. planifolia by Chikhi et al. (2012) was dominated by aliphatic

²⁹⁸ 299 131 hydrocarbons and fatty acids (e.g. n-alkanes and hexadecanoic acid); I. lutescens by monoterpenes 300 132 (myrcene, (E)- β -ocimene and limonene) (Wang et al., 2013); I. pallida by methyl anthranilate (Ohler 301 302 ₃₀₃133 et al., 2016) and I. atropurpurea, I. paradoxa and I. tuberosa by aliphatic hydrocarbons (n-alkanes 304 and *n*-alkenes) (Pellegrino et al., 2016; Vereecken et al., 2012, 2013). As reported by other authors 305 134 306 (e.g. El-Sajed et al., 2018; Jürgens et al., 2009; Knudsen and Gershenzon, 2006; Tholl et al., 2006), 307 135 308 it is not surprising that the limited overlap in floral VOCs between *Iris* species could be due to the 309 136 310 311 137 different volatile sampling methods (e.g., headspace vs hydrodistillation or solvent extractions), to 312 ³¹³138 the polarity and affinities of VOCs to the adsorbent fibers used (headspace methods), to the 314 ³¹⁵139 interspecific variation, and/or to the insect pollinators/pollination strategies of the investigated Iris, 316 ³¹⁷ 318 **140** among others. Indeed, excluding 1,4-DMB, we found only a few co-occurrences between our floral 319 ₃₂₀141 volatiles and those of other Iris species. Among these, benzyl tiglate also was detected in I. planifolia 321 by Chikhi et al. (2012); benzaldehyde, 2-(4-methoxyphenyl)ethanol and 4-methoxybenzaldehyde in 322 142 323 I. lutescens (Wang et al., 2013); linalool in I. planifolia (Chikhi et al., 2012) and in I. lutescens (Wang 324143 325 et al., 2013). 326144 327

328 145 Autonomous self-pollination has been described in some Iris species (e.g. Iris versicolor L.) (Kron 329 ³³⁰146 et al., 1993) but not in others (e.g. Oncocyclus irises) (Watts et al., 2013; Sapir et al., 2005). To date, 331 332 147 information on pollination biology of I. planifolia has been lacking; however, irises pollination data 333 334 335 148 from the literature show that insects play an important role for the reproductive success in both self-336 ₃₃₇ 149 incompatible and self-compatible Iris species (Watts et al., 2013; Kron et al., 1993). Among I. 338 planifolia visitors, Bombus ruderatus and Apis mellifera (Fig. 1A, B, C) were found as candidates 339 **150** 340 that, forcing the tepal (lower lip) and the opposite style branch of the meranthium, entered inside the 341151 342 tunnel and passively collected pollen. We did not find any insects inside the flowers (sheltering) as 343 152 344 345 153 in Iris atropurpurea and Iris paradoxa (Vereecken et al., 2012, 2013; Watts et al., 2013). Although 346 ³⁴⁷154 more extensive field observations (e.g. data collection and night-sheltering) and experiments (e.g. 348 ³⁴⁹155 seed- fruit-set) are needed to confirm the exclusive role of B. ruderatus and A. mellifera as pollinators 350 351 352 156 of *I. planifolia*, our findings are consistent with previous studies of other *Iris* species pollinated by

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³⁵⁷ 358 **157** bumble bees and/or honey bees, among others (Goldblatt and Manning, 2006; Imbert et al., 2014a, 359 360¹⁵⁸ 2014b; Segal et al. 2006; Souto-Vilarós et al., 2018; Watts et al., 2013; Ye et al., 2017). In addition 361 ₃₆₂159 to the legitimate bee pollinators, the syrphid fly E. balteatus was observed eating the pollen grains 363 lost by B. ruderatus and A. mellifera on the lower lip of the I. planifolia flowers. Since E. balteatus 364 160 365 was not observed as pollen robber from the anthers of I. planifolia (it never entered into the 366 161 367 gullet/tunnel flower) it is not likely to have detrimental effects for *I. planifolia*. Conversely, we 368 162 369 ³⁷⁰163 speculate that its "cleaning service" could have a beneficial effect by restoring the original visual 371 ³⁷²164 displays. 373

³⁷⁴ 375 **165** Generalist bees, such as Bombus spp. and Apis mellifera, have a broad pollen/nectar diet and collect ³⁷⁶ 377 **166** pollen from different species with variable floral cues (Dobson, 2006; Dötterl and Vereecken, 2010). 378 ₃₇₉167 Consequently, generalist bees might benefit by relying on floral VOCs related to a broad spectrum of 380 ₃₈₁ 168 potential host flowers (Dötterl and Vereecken, 2010). In food-rewarding plants, the aromatic 382 compounds as alcohols, aldehydes, esters, and ethers alone or in combination with some monoterpene 383 169 384 alcohols (e.g. linalool) are often reported as floral VOCs that attract nectar/pollen feeders, such as 385 170 386 ³⁸⁷ 171 bees, butterflies, months and flies (Dobson 2006; Dötterl and Vereecken 2010; Jürgens et al., 2009; 388 ³⁸⁹172 Primante and Dötterl, 2010). Although in our study we did not perform electroantennographic or 390 391 173 behavioral experiments, data from the literature provide evidence that 1,4-DMB (Jürgens et al., 2014; 392 ³⁹³ 394 **17**4 Salzman et al., 2007), benzaldehyde (Theis, 2006), 4-methoxybenzaldehyde (= p-anisaldehyde), 395 ₃₉₆175 phenylacetaldehyde (Dötterl and Vereecken 2010; Knauer and Schiestl, 2015; Theis, 2006), 2-397 phenylethanol, benzyl alcohol and linalool (Dötterl and Vereecken 2010; Theis, 2006) are VOCs ₃₉₈ 176 399 perceived and attractive for Bombus spp. and/or Apis mellifera. In addition, 2-phenylethanol is known 400 177 401 as attractant for syrphid flies (Zhu and Park, 2005) and potentially also for E. balteatus (Primante and 402 178 403 404 179 Dötterl, 2010); whereas linalool was recently reported as electrophysiologically-active for Syrphidae 405 ⁴⁰⁶ 180 (Braunschmid et al., 2017). 407

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photoreceptors can perceive the predominant blue-violet *I. planifolia* floral colour (human
perception) (Arnold et al., 2010) as attractive and innate signals of rewarding flowers (Knauer and
Schiestl, 2015; Kunze and Gumbert, 2001; Raine and Chittka, 2007). Furthermore, since syrphid flies
prefer yellow over other colours, the yellow or orange pubescent median ridge in the lower lips of *I. planifolia* meranthia can be attractive for *E. balteatus*, despite it mainly uses olfactory cues to find a
pollen/nectar host-plants (Primante and Dötterl, 2010).

0 4. Conclusions

In agreement with Vereecken et al. (2015), in this study we adopted an accepted and modern methodology (dynamic headspace) that allows the collection and analysis of floral scents from the prospective of plant-visitor/pollinator interactions (El-Sajed et al., 2018; Zito et al., 2015). To our surprise, this is the first study that investigated the floral volatiles in the genus *Iris* by using a dynamic headspace method. Furthermore, it is the first report on visitor/pollinators of *I. planifolia*. Our results suggest that the floral volatiles of the nectariferous *I. planifolia* may play a synergistic role when also visual cues occur. This hypothesis is supported by other studies that reported how social bees (e.g. bumble bees and honey bees) elicited the strongest behavioural responses when floral visual and olfactory cues co-occur (Chittka and Raine, 2006; Dötterl et al., 2014; Junker and Parachnowitsch, 2015).

Interestingly, sexual mimicry has evolved from generalized food deception, shelter pollination, or food reward systems (Johnson and Schiestl, 2016). By floral visual and olfactory cues*Iris* spp. can adopt different pollination strategies to attract their pollinators *i.e.* from generalized sheltermimicking species or specialized sexual-mimicking deceptive species (Pellegrino et al., 2015, 2016; Vereecken et al., 2012, 2013) to food-rewarding species (present study). Although more data are needed to confirm the pollination strategies adopted in other un-investigated *Iris* species among the sections, our results suggest that *I. planifolia* advertises the food reward by its aromatic dominated volatile composition probably in synergy with its visual cues. Further studies are needed to better

475 476**209** understand the interplay between floral olfactory and visual cues for attracting I. planifolia visitors . 478²¹⁰ and pollinators.

5. Experimental 482212

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484 **213** 5.1. Study species

485 Iris planifolia (Mill.) T. Durand & Schinz (Iridaceae) [subg. Scorpiris Spach; section Juno Dykes], 486214 487 described as Xiphium planifolium in 1768 by Philip Miller, is a perennial bulbous herb about 10-25 488215 489 cm high (Mathew, 1986). It is naturally occurring in Spain, Portugal, Sardinia, Sicily, Crete, Greece, 490216 491 492217 Libya, Tunisia, Algeria and Morocco (Barker and Govaerts, 2018). As described by Mathew (1986), 493 ⁴⁹⁴218 the stems are very short, more or less subterranean and hidden by the leaf bases. The lanceolate and 495 ⁴⁹⁶_219 often undulate-falcate leaves (4-7) are bright shiny green above and glaucous beneath. Each plant, 497 498 499**220** blooming from November to February, has 1-3 inflorescences (6-12 cm across) pale to deep blue or 500 ₅₀₁ 221 violet-blue and rarely white. The lower lips of the three meranthia of its inflorescence are widely 502 reflexed, blue, veined and dotted in dark violet with a yellow or orange pubescent median ridge. The ₅₀₃222 504 505 **223** anthers are whitish or purplish whereas style branches flattened and petaloid are bilobed at the apex. 506 To date, no information is available on the pollination ecology of *I. planifolia*; the plant produces 507 224 508 509225 nectar (supplementary material in Herrera et al., 2012) as pollinators reward. The seeds, ovoid and 510 ⁵¹¹226 rugose are dark reddish-brown. In its natural habitat, the species usually grows on sloping rocky 512 ⁵¹³,227 ground on limestone formations where the soil is the typical Mediterranean reddish clay (Mathew, 514 515 228 1986). 516

518**229** In the present study, all the field activities were performed in November 2017, wet season in Sicily, in a natural site located in San Martino delle Scale - Sicily (38°5'18.29"N, 13°15'23.48"E). ₅₂₀230

₅₂₃231 5.2. Floral scent sampling

Floral scent was collected, on a sunny day in November 2017, from plants growing in their natural ₅₂₅232 526 habitat (38°5'18.29"N, 13°15'23.48"E - San Martino delle Scale - Sicily). All samples from 527233

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⁵³⁴ 535**23**4 inflorescences (N=7) were collected using a dynamic headspace method (pull system) (Tholl et al., 536 2006). For each sampling, one inflorescence per plant was enclosed in an oven bag (size: 15×12 cm, 235 537 538 ₅₃₉236 CUKI[®] Cofresco S.p.A.) and the emitted volatiles were collected for 6 hours (9:00 - 15:00) by an 540 adsorbent tube using a vacuum pump (G12/01 EB, Rietschle Thomas, Puchheim, Germany), with a 541 **237** 542 flow rate of 200 ml/min. The adsorbent tube (shortened glass Pasteur pipette) was filled with 20 mg 543238 544 Tenax-TA (mesh 60-80) and 20 mg Carbotrap B (mesh 20-40) both Supelco (Bellefonte, PA, USA). 545239 546 547 240 The adsorbent materials were fixed in the tubes using glass wool (Sigma Aldrich). At the same time, 548 ⁵⁴⁹241 by using the same approach described before, headspace samples from leaf (N=3) and an empty oven 550 ⁵⁵¹ 552**242** bag (N=1), were used as negative controls. Volatiles trapped in the tubes were eluted within a few ⁵⁵³ 554**243** minutes after collection with 200 µl of acetone (Sigma Aldrich, > 99 %). All samples were stored in 555 556**24**4 screw cap vials at -20 °C until chemical analyses. The peak areas on the chromatograms were 557 ₅₅₈245 integrated to obtain the total ion current, which was used to determine the relative amount (%) of each 559 peak. To quantify the absolute amount of scent emitted from an inflorescence, one µg of anisole 560246 561 (Sigma-Aldrich, Anisole ReagentPlus®, 99 %) was added to each sample as internal standard. 562247 563 564 248 Subsequently to calculate the absolute amounts of the VOCs in each sample, peak areas on the 565 ⁵⁶⁶249 chromatograms were integrated to obtain the total ion current signal and compared to that of the 567 ⁵⁶⁸250 internal standard. 569

⁵⁷¹₅₇₂**251** *5.3. Chemical analysis*

573 All samples were analyzed by GC-MS on a single quadrupole Shimadzu GC-MS-QP2010 Plus 252 574 575 ₅₇₆253 equipped with an AOC-20i autoinjector (Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan) and a Supelcowax 10 capillary 577 column (30 m long, 0.25 mm i.d., 0.25 µm film thickness). One µl of each sample was injected at 250 578**2**54 579 °C in the splitless mode, and the column flow (carrier gas: helium) was set at 1 ml/min. The GC oven 580255 581 582256 temperature was held for 5 min at 40 °C, then increased by 2°C/min to 250 °C, held for 15 min and 583 584257 finally raised to 270 °C at 10 °C/min. The MS interface worked at 280 °C, and the ion source at 250

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°C. Mass spectra were taken at 70 eV (in EI mode) from m/z 30 to 500. The GC/MS data were analyzed using the GCMSolution package, Version 2.72.

Identification of compounds was carried out using the mass spectral libraries FFNSC 2, W9N11, ESSENTIAL OILS (available in MassFinder 3), and Adams (2007). These identifications were also compared by mass spectra and Kovats retention indices found in NIST11, SciFinder and Pherobase 602262 (El-Saved, 2018) database. Many of the compounds were confirmed by comparison of mass spectra 604263 ⁶⁰⁶264 and retention times with authentic standard components (Sigma Aldrich) provided by Prof. Dr. Stefan ⁶⁰⁸265 Dötterl (Plant Ecology Lab - University of Salzburg). Kovats retention indices were calculated using 610 611**266** a series of n-alkanes ($C_8 - C_{30}$). Compounds found in the flowers were compared with those found in 612 613**267** the negative controls (empty oven bag and green leaves) to discriminate contaminations from air 615**268** ambient and to identify those exclusively emitted by flowers.

617 618**269** 5.4. Flower-visiting insects

619 620²⁷⁰ Insects visiting *I. planifolia* inflorescences were recorded during the day and in the same site of the 621 ₆₂₂271 headspace collections. The sampling of flower-visiting insects was limited to ten inflorescences in 623 ₆₂₄272 order to minimize the potential negative impact on the local entomofauna and on pollination 625 processes. Observations were performed simultaneously by two researchers staying near the plants 626273 627 for 8 hours (08:00 - 16:00). The limited number of hours of observation was linked to good weather 628274 629 630 275 condition (sunny day) occurring in the flowering period of *I. planifolia* in Sicily (rainy season). 631 ⁶³²276 Insects visiting I. planifolia were recorded when they landed on a meranthium. Only a few insect 633 ⁶³⁴277 visitors belonging to different morphospecies were captured by entomological hand nets or plastic 635 636 637**278** bags (10 x 7 cm), otherwise they were annotated and photographed with a digital camera (NIKON 638 ₆₃₉279 D3100). Since not all insect individuals were captured, we cannot exclude that the same specimen 640 641 280 after leaving, came back to revisit the inflorescence again. The data of insects visiting the ten different 642 *I. planifolia* inflorescences were polled together. The flower visitors that landed, entered inside the 643281 644 meranthium and came out it with pollen on their body were recorded as potential pollinators. On the 645282

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contrary, the insects that after their landing on the inflorescences never entered inside the meranthium were recorded as visitors. Insect specimens, identified at specific taxonomic level, are stored in an entomological box and kept in the Entomological collection of the Department of Biological, Chemical and Pharmaceutical Sciences and Technologies of the University of Palermo.

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443 1007 Table 1. Relative and total absolute amounts of floral scent detected in Iris planifolia. Compounds belonging to the same chemical class and functional group (Knudsen et al., 2006) are arranged according to Kovats retention indices (KRI) of the Supelcowax 10 column. Odour characteristic: olfactory descriptions according to Acree and Arn (2004) and El-Sayed (2018). * = identification verified by authentic standard.

Compound	KRI	Relative amount (%) Mean ± SE (<i>N</i> = 7)	Occurrence of samples (%)	Odour characteristic
Aromatic alcohols				
Benzyl alcohol*	1856	0.3 ± 0.1	100	Sweet, floral, fruity
2-Phenylethanol*	1886	8.4 ± 3.6	100	Honey, spicy, rose, lilac, sweet, yeast, floral, herbal
2-(4-Methoxyphenyl)ethanol	2303	1.4 ± 0.2	100	-
Aromatic aldehydes				
Benzaldehyde*	1503	3.7 ± 1.3	100	Almond, burnt sugar, woody
Phenylacetaldehyde*	1620	2.0 ± 1.6	57	Honey, sweet, rose, green, grassy, floral
2-Methoxybenzaldehyde	1936	6.2 ± 1.4	100	-
4-Methoxybenzaldehyde*	2004	0.4 ± 0.2	71	Mint, sweet
Aromatic esters				
Methyl benzoate*	1599	1.9 ± 0.5	86	Prune, lettuce, herbal, sweet, floral, watermelon
Benzyl tiglate*	2080	3.1 ± 1.0	86	Earthy, mushroom
Aromatic ethers				
1,4-Dimethoxybenzene*	1716	71.5 ± 4.9	100	Sweet, floral, herbal
1,2,4-Trimethoxybenzene*	2068	0.8 ± 0.3	86	-
Monoterpene alcohols				
Linalool*	1536	0.4 ± 0.1	100	Muscat, sweet, green, floral, lemon, parsley, lavender, fruity
Total absolute amount: 2.0 ±	0.6 μg/inflo	prescence/hour		
Total number of compounds:	12			

Figure 1



1122 1123	
1124 452 1125	Figure legend.
1126 1127 1128 1128 1128 1128 1128 1128 1128	Fig. 1. <i>Bombus ruderatus</i> inside (A) and on (B) the meranthium of <i>Iris planifolia</i> (photos by Francesca Tavella). <i>Apis mellifera</i> outgoing from the tunnel of the meranthium (C) and <i>Episyrphus balteatus</i> eating the pollen grains left by pollinators (D) (photos by Pietro Zito).
113 2 113 357	Graphical abstract Legend.
1134 113 958 113 959 1137	Iris planifolia (Iridaceae) advertises its food reward by an aromatic dominated floral volatile composition.
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Table 1. Relative and total absolute amounts of floral scent detected in *Iris planifolia*. Compounds belonging to the same chemical class and functional group (Knudsen et al., 2006) are arranged according to Kovats retention indices (KRI) of the Supelcowax 10 column. Odour characteristic: olfactory descriptions according to Acree and Arn (2004) and El-Sayed (2018). * = identification verified by authentic standard.

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