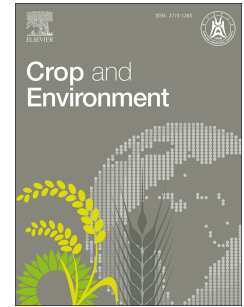


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Effects of climate change on plant pathogens and host-pathogen interactions

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1 **Effects of climate change on plant pathogens and host-pathogen interactions**

2

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29 **Abstract**

30 Crop production stands as a pivotal pillar of global food security, but its sustainability
31 faces complex challenges from plant diseases, which pose a substantial threat to agricultural
32 productivity. Climate change significantly alters the dynamics of plant pathogens, primarily
33 through changes in temperature, humidity, and precipitation patterns, which can enhance the
34 virulence and spread of various plant diseases. Indeed, the increased frequency of extreme
35 weather events, which is a direct consequence of climate change, creates favorable conditions
36 for outbreaks of plant diseases. As global temperatures rise, the geographic range of many plant
37 pathogens is expanding, exposing new regions and species to diseases previously limited to

38 warmer climates. Climate change not only affects the prevalence and severity of plant diseases
39 but also influences the effectiveness of disease management strategies, necessitating adaptive
40 approaches in agricultural practices. This review presents a thorough examination of the
41 relationship between climate change and plant pathogens and carefully provides an analysis of
42 the interplay between climatic shifts and disease dynamics. In addition to insights into the
43 development of effective strategies for countering the adverse impacts of climate change on
44 plant diseases, these insights hold significant promise for bolstering global crop production
45 resilience against mounting environmental challenges.

46 **Keywords:** Climate change, Crop production, Plant diseases, Greenhouse gas emissions,
47 mitigation strategies.

48

49 1. Introduction

50

51 The impact of climate change on plant diseases is substantial, exerting influence on
52 various facets including pathogen evolution, host-pathogen interactions, and the emergence of
53 novel pathogenic strains (Singh et al., 2023). As environmental conditions undergo alterations,
54 pathogens undergo evolutionary shifts, adapting to novel environments and potentially giving
55 rise to new diseases or resurfacing previously controlled ones. Concurrently, climate change
56 can also modulate pathogen virulence (Singh et al., 2023). Climate change remains one of the
57 most significant threats to humanity, exacting a yearly cost of approximately US\$ 1.2 trillion
58 and resulting in nearly 0.4 million fatalities annually in terms of agricultural resources (EPA,
59 2023). With the world's average temperature having risen by 0.74°C over the past century and
60 atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) concentrations escalating from 280 ppm in 1750 to 417.9
61 ppm in 2022, the influence on agriculture is profound (EPA, 2023). These changes significantly
62 affect the growth and production of numerous crops on earth, simultaneously altering the
63 severity, spread, and reproduction of several plant diseases, thereby endangering our food
64 security (Moullec et al., 2019). In light of these climatic fluctuations and their impacts on crop
65 plants and their phytopathogens, the imperative need for the development of new crop varieties
66 is evident. However, this process currently takes an average of approximately 20 years
67 (Sreenivas, 2022). The transformations witnessed carry profound implications for agricultural
68 and ecological systems alike. The proliferation of plant diseases not only threatens crop
69 productivity but also instigates biodiversity loss, thereby undermining crucial ecosystem
70 services (Kashyap et al., 2018; Singh et al., 2023). Therefore, comprehending the intricacies of

71 climate-induced shifts in plant disease dynamics becomes imperative. Such understanding
72 forms the foundation for crafting robust strategies aiming at mitigating the adverse impacts on
73 both agricultural sustainability and ecological integrity.

74 Furthermore, Many diseases that are now restricted by the need to overwinter, such as *Puccinia*
75 *graminis* f. sp. *tritici*-caused wheat stem rust, can have their range expanded by rising
76 temperatures (Singh et al., 2023). On the other hand, it was noted that *Triphragmium ulmarie*,
77 the rust pathogen that infects *Filipendula ulmaria* (meadowsweet), was going extinct in some
78 areas over a 30-year period during which summer temperatures rose steadily (Zhan et al., 2018).
79 Climate projections suggest a future heightened frequency of extreme weather events, such as
80 storms, droughts, and periods of intense heat (Cook et al., 2016), fostering diverse disease
81 outbreaks across geographical regions. Climate-induced variations profoundly impact host
82 susceptibility to diseases and influence the cultivation of host cultivars (Moulllec et al., 2019).
83 The onset of global warming, evident through shifts in mean temperatures, changes in annual
84 precipitation patterns, and prolonged droughts, can disrupt plant growth and development,
85 ultimately resulting in crop losses (Ebi et al., 2016). Environmental stresses triggered by climate
86 change can render plants vulnerable to invasion by bacterial and fungal pathogens, thereby
87 compromising plant health and increasing mortality rates (Devendra, 2012).

88 The dynamic landscape and evolving interactions between pathogens and their hosts
89 contribute significantly to the emergence of novel disease events (Velásquez et al., 2018).
90 Pathogenic organisms employ a variety of structures and compounds adeptly to infiltrate and
91 manipulate host plants, triggering the onset of diseases (Ogbonna and Umunna, 2017). In
92 response, plants activate defense mechanisms to counteract pathogen assaults (Olori-Great and
93 Opara, 2017). A notable example of this intricate interplay is observed in the interaction
94 between *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* and avocado fruit, where fruit-produced epicatechin
95 acts as a defense mechanism against fungal laccase proteins (Djami-Tchatchou et al., 2013).

96 The evolving gene pathogenicity of pathogens across geographic regions underscores
97 the regional influence on disease dynamics (Djami-Tchatchou et al., 2013; Grassi et al., 2009;
98 Mayek-PÉrez et al., 2002). Abiotic stresses, such as salinity, drought, and high temperatures,
99 play a pivotal role in molding the complex interplay between pathogens and hosts, influencing
100 both plant defense mechanisms and pathogen virulence (Sun et al., 2021). Pathogens
101 continuously refine their virulence mechanisms to breach host defenses and trigger disease
102 onset (Doehlemann et al., 2017), while abiotic factors regulate plant defense mechanisms and
103 shape pathogen dynamics across diverse ecological niches (Adhikari et al., 2013).

104 Understanding the nexus comprising climate change and plant diseases is imperative
105 from both agricultural and ecological perspectives, ensuring food security and mitigating the
106 adverse impacts of diseases on vital food crops (Chakraborty and Newton, 2011), these
107 mitigation strategies should include the development of resistant cultivars, innovative control
108 methods, and adaptive techniques to minimize potential losses (Hernandez Nopsa et al., 2014).
109 Tackling the significant challenges posed by climate-driven changes in disease dynamics
110 requires substantial investments in research and development, these efforts are aimed at
111 fostering the growth of climate-resilient crops and enhancing disease management protocols
112 (Desai et al., 2021). This entails the creation of cultivars with heightened disease resistance and
113 the adoption of innovative control strategies, including biological agents and integrated disease
114 management systems (Chakraborty and Newton, 2011). The evolving disease landscape,
115 precipitated by climate change, underscores the urgency of advancing predictive modeling
116 approaches to forecast the severity of major infections affecting critical crops in real-world field
117 scenarios. Furthermore, adapting to the changing climate mandates the integration of
118 sustainable food production strategies with robust disease control measures (Singh et al., 2023).

119 Therefore, this review elucidates the multifaceted drivers of climate change,
120 encompassing greenhouse gas emissions, deforestation, and anthropogenic activities, along
121 with their consequential impacts on environmental factors such as temperature and soil pH.
122 Disruptions to these parameters can profoundly influence plant health, host susceptibility,
123 disease dynamics, and pathogen virulence and dispersion.

124 **2. Climate change and its drivers**

125
126 Climate change stems from a complex interplay of natural phenomena and human-
127 induced activities. Human activities, such as fossil fuel combustion, deforestation, and
128 agriculture are also leading drivers of deforestation, especially in tropical regions. Clearing
129 forests for agricultural land releases large amounts of carbon stored in trees into the atmosphere,
130 while also reducing the number of trees available to absorb CO₂, industrial processes and
131 fertilizers and pesticides contribute to greenhouse gas emissions during their manufacture and
132 application (Nda et al., 2018). Additionally, they can affect the health of ecosystems and their
133 ability to store carbon and emit greenhouse gases into the atmosphere, thereby catalyzing global
134 warming and subsequent climate change (Nda et al., 2018; Trenberth, 2018). The well-
135 established scientific consensus postulates that greenhouse gas emissions directly contribute to

136 climate change by trapping solar heat within the earth's atmosphere, leading to a plethora of
137 environmental consequences (Kweku et al., 2019).

138 Human-induced greenhouse gas emissions exert a profound influence on the Earth's
139 climate, a fact extensively corroborated by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
140 (IPCC). The escalation in the earth's average temperature attributable to human emissions,
141 notably of CO₂ and methane (CH₄), has precipitated an array of consequences, including
142 perturbations to natural cycles, escalating sea levels, and exacerbation of extreme weather
143 events (Kabir et al., 2023). On the other hand, there are also deforestation impacts extending to
144 both local and global scales. Studies have shown that deforestation contributes to approximately
145 10-20% of global greenhouse gas emissions, primarily through the release of CO₂ into the
146 atmosphere (Diego et al., 2010), with Indonesia and Brazil being the top emitters, accounting
147 for approximately 80% and 70% of their emissions, respectively (Hunjan and Lore, 2020). In
148 addition to a strong net global warming as a result of both CO₂ and biophysical effects
149 particularly in the context of industrial-era deforestation, it increases the annual local average
150 temperature by approximately 1 °C and also affects rainfall levels (Lawrence et al., 2022).

151 In 1913, French physicists Henri Buisson and Charles Fabry made the ground-breaking
152 discovery of ozone gas, an achievement later acknowledged by British meteorologist Dobson.
153 Dobson's invention of the Dobson meter allowed for the estimation of stratospheric ozone gas
154 from ground level. He subsequently established an international network of ozone monitoring
155 stations, which were aptly named after him. However, in the 1970s, a concerning "hole"
156 emerged in the stratospheric ozone layer, notably over Antarctica, and it was determined that
157 human-made substances were primarily responsible for this phenomenon (Demers et al., 2016).
158 The depletion of the ozone layer has sparked global concerns, with anthropogenic activities
159 largely identified as the root cause of this issue. Specifically, the continuous rise in global
160 temperatures and escalating concentrations of CO₂ are contributing to the destruction of the
161 ozone layer. Unlike many forms of pollution stemming from various sources, the depletion of
162 the ozone layer is primarily attributed to a specific chemical substance: chlorofluorocarbons
163 (CFCs) (Demers et al., 2016). Growing amounts of nursery gas emissions are thought to be the
164 main cause of the problem. The following greenhouse gases are known to have a major effect
165 on the environment: CO₂: Carbon Dioxide - CH₄: Methane - N₂O: Nitrous Oxide - HFC:
166 Hydrofluorocarbons-PFC: Perfluorocarbons - SF₆: Sulfur Hexafluoride (IPOC, 1995). Among
167 these, CO₂ is widely considered the primary driver of global climate change. Despite the
168 significant impact of the 2020 COVID-19 pandemic and associated lockdown measures on

169 energy consumption, CO₂ emissions, production activities, and daily life, CO₂ levels in the
 170 troposphere continue to fluctuate both temporally and spatially. This gas is generated by both
 171 natural and anthropogenic processes, and its concentration has surged by 25% over the past 125
 172 years (Kabir et al., 2023).

173 Amidst these critical times, concerns about climate change are rapidly escalating, as
 174 evidenced by individuals' self-reported negative emotional responses to the awareness of its
 175 significance (Clayton and Karazsia, 2020). Human industrial activities, especially since the
 176 Industrial Revolution, have significantly elevated atmospheric CO₂ levels, the main aspect of
 177 climate change is listed in (Table 1). Strikingly, the concentration of CO₂ in the stratosphere
 178 has surged by 30-31% over the past three decades, soaring from 280 ppm in 1750 to 400 ppm
 179 in 2013 (Diallo et al., 2017). This unprecedented increase has disrupted the relatively stable
 180 CO₂ levels maintained for almost a millennium (Kabir et al., 2023).

181 **Table 1.** Evolution of climate change aspects over the past 20 years.

Aspect	2000	2005	2010	2015	2020	Reference
Global average temperature (°C)	14.6	14.66	14.70	14.84	14.9	Berkeley Earth, 2024
CO ₂ concentration (ppm)	368	380	390	403	413	Oceanography, 2023
Sea level rise (mm year ⁻¹)	2.8	3.1	3.4	3.6	3.7	European Service, 2018
Average global ocean pH	8.14	8.12	8.10	8.08	8.06	Jiang et al., 2023 Sutton et al., 2019

182

183 3. Impact of climate change on plant diseases

184 3.1. Temperature

185 Temperature stands as a paramount environmental determinant influencing plant
 186 growth, development, and physiological processes, alongside shaping the life cycle,
 187 distribution, and virulence of plant pathogens (Hunjan and Lore, 2020). Additionally,
 188 temperature governs critical aspects of the pathogen infection process, including its rate,
 189 duration, latency period, sporulation, dispersal of inoculum, and host resistance dynamics
 190 (Kweku et al., 2019). Generally, elevated temperatures foster the proliferation and propagation
 191 of plant pathogens, notably fungi, and bacteria, while concurrently compromising host defense

192 mechanisms (Devi et al., 2022). However, it's crucial to note that the optimal temperature range
193 for pathogen-host systems can vary, with some pathogens exhibiting susceptibility to extremes
194 of heat or cold (Porras et al., 2023).

195 The escalation in global mean temperatures resulting from climate change exerts
196 significant consequences on plant diseases (Chaloner et al., 2021). For instance, temperature
197 increases may precipitate shifts in agroclimatic zones, prompting host plant migration and
198 facilitating the emergence of novel disease complexes (Hunjan and Lore, 2020). Warming
199 trends may also bolster the overwintering and persistence of pathogens and vectors, such as
200 insects and nematodes, thereby prolonging their activity periods and expanding their
201 geographic ranges (El-Sayed and Kamel, 2020). Furthermore, climate-induced alterations in
202 host plant phenology and physiology can render them more susceptible or resistant to specific
203 pathogens (Pathak et al., 2018). Empirical evidence suggests that heightened temperatures can
204 exacerbate the intensity of various crop diseases, including wheat rust (*Puccinia triticina*), rice
205 blast (*Magnaporthe grisea*), potato late blight (*P. infestans*), and citrus canker (*Xanthomonas*
206 spp.) (Ahmed et al., 2024; Charaya et al., 2021; Singh et al., 2023).

207 3.2. Precipitation

208 Precipitation stands as a critical environmental factor influencing plant diseases by
209 shaping water and nutrient availability, soil moisture, pH levels, pesticide leaching, runoff, and
210 inoculum formation and dissemination (Chen et al., 2023). Moreover, precipitation plays a
211 pivotal role in determining the duration of leaf wetness, a crucial factor affecting the infection
212 and sporulation of numerous foliar pathogens (Beyer et al., 2022; Dutta et al., 2020). In general,
213 heightened precipitation tends to promote the development and spread of plant diseases,
214 particularly those caused by fungi and oomycetes, while simultaneously diminishing the
215 effectiveness of chemical and biological control measures (Lim et al., 2023). However, the
216 impact of precipitation on plant diseases can vary depending on factors such as timing,
217 frequency, intensity, and form of precipitation, as well as its interaction with other climatic
218 variables like temperature and humidity (Skendžić et al., 2021).

219 The change in precipitation patterns due to climate change has diverse effects on plant
220 diseases (Garrett et al., 2021). For instance, increased rainfall may enhance the occurrence and
221 severity of soil-borne and foliar diseases, such as root rot, damping-off, leaf spot, and blight
222 (Lamichhane et al., 2023). Increased rainfall may also increase the risk of flooding and
223 waterlogging, which can create anaerobic conditions and favor the development of some

224 pathogens, such as *Pythium* spp. and *Phytophthora* spp. (Martínez-Arias et al., 2022). On the
225 other hand, decreased rainfall may reduce the incidence and spread of some diseases, such as
226 downy mildew and powdery mildew (PM), but may also increase the susceptibility of host
227 plants to drought stress and other pathogens, such as *Fusarium* spp. and *Verticillium* spp.
228 (Maurya et al., 2022). Moreover, decreased rainfall may increase the reliance on irrigation,
229 which can create favorable conditions for some diseases, such as bacterial wilt caused by
230 *Erwinia tracheiphila* and root-knot nematode caused by *Meloidogyne* spp. (Erayya et al., 2023).

231

232 3.3. Humidity

233

234 Humidity serves as another critical environmental factor impacting plant diseases,
235 influencing key processes such as evapotranspiration, transpiration, and stomatal conductance
236 in host plants, as well as the germination, infection, and survival of plant pathogens (Dixit et
237 al., 2023). Additionally, humidity plays a significant role in the formation and deposition of
238 dew, serving as a source of free water for many pathogens (Nath, 2021). In general, elevated
239 humidity levels tend to foster the development and spread of plant diseases, particularly those
240 caused by fungi and bacteria, while also diminishing the effectiveness of host resistance
241 mechanisms and control measures (Lim et al., 2023). However, the impact of humidity on plant
242 diseases can vary depending on factors such as the type and stage of the pathogen, the host
243 plant, and its interaction with other climatic variables like temperature and precipitation (Dixit
244 et al., 2023).

245 The change in humidity levels due to climate change is expected to have significant
246 impacts on plant diseases. For instance, increased humidity may enhance the occurrence and
247 severity of foliar and fruit diseases, such as anthracnose (*Colletotrichum* spp.), scab
248 (*Streptomyces scabies*), and gray mold (*Botrytis cinerea*) (Ji et al., 2021; Maurya et al., 2022).
249 Increased humidity may also increase the risk of post-harvest diseases, such as gray mold (*B.*
250 *cinerea*) and soft rot (*Pandanus conoideus*), which can cause significant losses in storage and
251 transportation (Moradinezhad and Ranjbar, 2023). On the other hand, decreased humidity may
252 reduce the incidence and spread of some diseases, such as rust and smut, but may also increase
253 the susceptibility of host plants to water stress and other pathogens, such as wilt and canker
254 (Jeger, 2022). Moreover, decreased humidity may affect the quality and quantity of pollen and
255 nectar, which can affect the pollination and reproduction of host plants (Biella et al., 2022).

256

257 *3.4. Extreme weather events*

258

259 Extreme weather events represent a significant environmental factor impacting plant
260 diseases, leading to physical damage, physiological stress, and biochemical alterations in host
261 plants, as well as altering the population dynamics and diversity of plant pathogens and their
262 vectors (Singh et al., 2023). These events encompass storms, heat waves, cold snaps, and hail,
263 which are experiencing increased frequency and intensity due to climate change (Faranda et al.,
264 2022). Typically, extreme weather events heighten the vulnerability and susceptibility of host
265 plants to diseases, thereby reducing the efficacy of control measures (Gullino et al., 2022). For
266 instance, storms can inflict physical wounds on host plants, serving as entry points for
267 pathogens like fire blight and crown gall (Hong et al., 2021), and disperse rust and aphid vectors
268 (Bastas, 2022). Heat waves and cold snaps may induce heat and oxidative stress in plants,
269 compromising their photosynthesis and respiration and rendering them more susceptible to
270 pathogens such as PM, leaf spot, and black rot (Rivero et al., 2022; Tanveer et al., 2023).
271 Furthermore, hail damage to protective structures like the cuticle and epidermis can increase
272 plant susceptibility to diseases like downy mildew and bacterial spot (Khadiri et al., 2023).

273 *3.5. Solar radiation and wind*

274

275 Climate change has altered various non-temperature related environmental factors such
276 as solar radiation and wind, which significantly influence plant ecosystems. For instance,
277 increased global radiation has been noted since the 1990s, particularly affecting photosynthesis
278 in primary producers during spring at Lake Taihu, China, this has led to variations in the
279 phytoplankton communities, which are crucial to aquatic ecosystems. The combination of these
280 changes with elevated nutrient levels due to higher rainfall and runoff contributes to more
281 severe algal blooms, highlighting the complex interplay of climate change factors on aquatic
282 life (Deng et al., 2018). Solar radiation can affect the development and spread of plant diseases.
283 For instance, it can impact the survival of fungal spores on plant surfaces (Bornman et al.,
284 2015). Solar radiation can influence the survival and growth of plant pathogens. Exposure to
285 sunlight can lead to the inactivation of certain pathogens due to UV radiation (Campillo et al.,
286 2012). For example, *Cercospora* leaf spot, a severe leaf blight of beets, and gray mold (*Botrytis*
287 *cinerea*) on strawberries have been suppressed by UV light exposure (Kumari et al., 2017)

288 Additionally, changes in wind patterns affect the sediment dynamics in lakes,
289 influencing light penetration and nutrient distribution, which are vital for aquatic plant growth.
290 The decrease in wind speed, coupled with increased cloud cover, can reduce solar radiation
291 availability, leading to light limitation. These factors collectively enhance the likelihood of
292 plant pathogen outbreaks by creating favorable conditions for their growth and spread,
293 demonstrating the broader ecological impacts of climate change on plant health (Deng et al.,
294 2018). Wind can play a role in dispersing plant pathogens over long distances, aiding in the
295 spread of diseases between plants and regions, Strong winds can physically damage plants,
296 creating entry points for pathogens to infect the plant tissues (Krafft et al., 2019). Fungi that
297 produce spores on aerial parts of plants, such as leaves or flowers, can be easily dispersed by
298 wind over a wide range of distances. Examples include powdery mildews and rust fungi that
299 infect cereal (El Jarroudi et al., 2020). Dry, lightweight spores or propagules are more easily
300 carried by wind compared to wet, heavy ones. Pathogens such as *Xanthomonas axonopodis* pv.
301 *citri* (citrus canker) rely on wind dispersal of dry inoculum (Esler et al., 2007). Long-distance
302 wind dispersal can spread pathogens across and even between continents, reestablishing
303 diseases in areas where host plants are seasonally absent. This can lead to founder effects where
304 atypical pathogen genotypes cause epidemics (Rieux et al., 2014).

305 A study by Myers et al. (2021) explored how climate change could increase the spread
306 of plant pathogens, focusing on fungal and oomycete pathogens. These organisms, which cause
307 significant crop losses, are likely to spread further as global temperatures rise, potentially
308 affecting higher latitude regions previously less susceptible to such pathogens. The research
309 incorporated various climate models to predict shifts in crop yields and pathogen spread,
310 indicating an overall increase in pathogen activity with warming temperatures, which could
311 counteract gains in agricultural productivity due to climate change (Myers et al., 2021).

312

313 **4. Changes in plant pathogens**

314

315 Climate change poses a direct threat to global food security, impacting crop physiology
316 and productivity, as well as exerting an indirect influence on plant-associated microbiota, which
317 includes plant pathogens. Although the interactions among host plants, pathogens, and
318 environmental factors can be intricate, recent research is starting to reveal certain overarching
319 patterns in how plant diseases will impact future crop production (Raza and Bebbler, 2022).
320 These shifts will profoundly affect the growth and cultivation of various crops on Earth.

321 Concurrently, they will influence the reproduction, spread, and severity of numerous plant
322 pathogens, posing a significant threat to global food security (Gautam et al., 2013).

323 Plant disease outbreaks pose a significant threat to global food security and
324 environmental sustainability, undermining primary productivity and biodiversity on a global
325 scale. Climate change further exacerbates these risks by shaping pathogen evolution and
326 altering host-pathogen interactions, thereby fostering the emergence of novel pathogenic strains
327 (Singh et al., 2023). Over the past decade, the impact of climate change on plant diseases has
328 been subject to extensive investigation (Yáñez-López et al., 2012). The anticipated shifts in
329 climate are certain to influence pathogen development and survival rates, alongside altering
330 host susceptibility, resulting in variations in disease impact on crops. The nuanced effects of
331 climatic alterations will vary based on the specific pathosystem and geographical context,
332 influencing ideal infection conditions, host specificity, and infection mechanisms (Elad and
333 Pertot, 2014). Furthermore, alterations in abiotic conditions will inevitably reshape the
334 microclimate enveloping plants, potentially disrupting the beneficial effects of soil microbial
335 communities and canopy pathosystems. These simultaneous impacts on pathogens and host
336 plants are anticipated to induce significant shifts in disease manifestation, geographical
337 distribution, and economic implications, thus demanding adaptations in disease management
338 strategies and cropping systems (Elad and Pertot, 2014). Importantly, despite potential gains
339 in crop yields resulting from climate change, plant diseases can offset such advancements (Raza
340 and Bebber, 2022). The influence of climate on plant diseases is profound, as it shapes host
341 plants, vector behavior, and mechanisms of pathogen dispersal, thereby influencing the
342 likelihood of pathogen invasions.

343 Human decisions significantly influence economically substantial pathogen invasions,
344 as landscape connectivity for pathogen movement is influenced by the spatial arrangement of
345 hosts, pathogens, and environmental conditions (Garrett et al., 2014). Consequently, assessing
346 limiting factors before invasion becomes challenging, highlighting the critical role of proactive
347 management strategies in mitigating the impacts of climate-induced shifts in plant disease
348 dynamics. The impact of drought conditions on plant diseases is complex and carries substantial
349 implications for global agriculture. Traditionally, drought has been viewed as inhibiting or
350 disturbing the development of diseases caused by pathogens that thrive in moist environments.
351 However, it's important to note that certain diseases can benefit from drought conditions, as
352 stressed plants become more susceptible to specific pathogens. This multifaceted relationship
353 underscores the need for a nuanced understanding of how drought affects disease dynamics in

354 agricultural systems (Wegulo et al., 2013). As anticipated climate change is expected to elevate
355 the occurrence and duration of drought in various regions globally. Therefore, it is crucial to
356 understand how these shifts will impact plant-pathogen interactions. This shift may impact the
357 natural lifecycles of plant pathogens, influence host susceptibility to infection or disease
358 manifestation, alter the natural distribution of pathogens, and modify the pace of genetic
359 changes within pathogen populations. Cumulatively, these effects are likely to have
360 repercussions on diverse pathosystems, holding economic significance for productive sectors
361 (Wakelin et al., 2018). Charcoal rot, also known as dry-weather wilt, is caused by the fungus
362 *Macrophomina phaseolina* and can impact a variety of crops, including corn, sorghum,
363 soybean, sunflowers, and dry beans. The fungus has a broad distribution and infects a wide
364 range of hosts. It forms microsclerotia, hardened fungal survival bodies, inside infected crop
365 tissue. These microsclerotia serve as a means for the fungus to overwinter in infested crop debris
366 and soil. While they can survive for several years in dry soil, their survival is limited to a few
367 weeks in wet, saturated soils. Given that most rotations include hosts susceptible to this fungus
368 annually, there is a high potential for the pathogen to be present in numerous fields, and dry
369 conditions further favor its prevalence. *Aspergillus* ear rot poses a significant threat in fields
370 affected by drought and lacking irrigation. This disease is notable due to the fungal species
371 responsible, typically *Aspergillus flavus* and *A. parasiticus*, which have the potential to produce
372 aflatoxin. Aflatoxin, found in contaminated grain, poses serious health risks to both animal and
373 human consumers. Meanwhile, *Fusarium* pathogens, which persist in soil and crop residues,
374 are notorious for causing diseases influenced by numerous factors. Among these factors, plant
375 stress particularly drought plays a significant role in increasing the incidence and severity of
376 *Fusarium*-related diseases. *Fusarium* species are notorious for causing substantial yield losses
377 in crops such as corn, wheat, and soybean, with drought exacerbating the impact of these
378 diseases. For instance, *Fusarium verticillioides* can lead to substantial yield losses and
379 mycotoxin contamination in corn, affecting stalk rot, ear rot, and kernel rot. Wheat root
380 diseases, such as common root rot (*Bipolaris sorokiniana*) and *Fusarium* crown rot (*Fusarium*
381 spp.), are exacerbated in dry conditions, causing severe yield reduction from early root
382 infections. Interestingly, drought has been observed to reduce the likelihood of sudden death
383 syndrome in soybeans, while simultaneously promoting other *Fusarium* infections that result
384 in *Fusarium* wilt (Wegulo et al., 2013). Assessments have been conducted to evaluate the
385 potential impact of drought on several plant diseases significant to New Zealand. These include
386 pea root rot (caused by *Aphanomyces euteiches*), onion white rot (*Sclerotium cepivorum*), wheat
387 take-all (*Gaeumannomyces graminis* var. *tritici*), wheat crown rot (*Fusarium* spp.), *Brassica*

388 blackleg (*Leptosphaeria maculans*), grapevine black foot (*Ilyonectria/Dactylonectria* spp.),
389 kiwifruit *Sclerotinia* rot (*Sclerotinia sclerotiorum*), and Radiata pine red needle cast
390 (*Phytophthora pluvialis*). In most pathosystems, an anticipated outcome of increased drought
391 is an elevation in disease expression. However, for certain diseases, such as *Sclerotinia* rot in
392 kiwifruit and red needle cast in Radiata pine, drought may lead to a reduction in disease severity
393 (Wakelin et al., 2018).

394 Elevated levels of CO₂ and temperature are known to instigate complex repercussions
395 on plant pathogens (Gullino et al., 2018). The escalation in temperatures and augmented
396 concentrations of CO₂ linked with climate change are expected to profoundly influence the
397 interplay between plants and diseases. Climate exerts a pivotal influence on the occurrence, as
398 well as the temporal and spatial distribution, of plant diseases. In polar-ward agroclimatic zones,
399 climate change is likely to induce a modification resulting in a shift in the geographic
400 distribution of host pathogens (Yáñez-López et al., 2012).

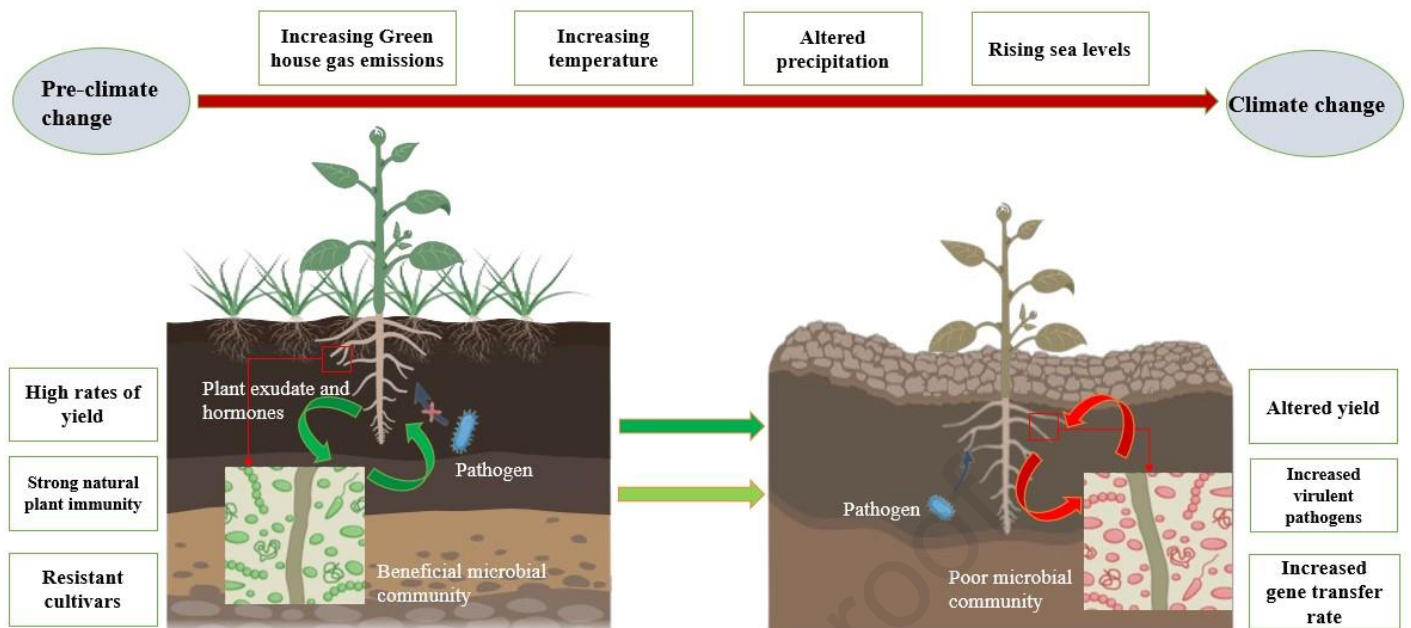
401 In the face of rising temperatures and increased atmospheric CO₂ levels, new pathogen
402 strains may undergo rapid evolution. This evolutionary process is fueled by a notable increase
403 in pathogen populations, leading to heightened proliferation and infection cycles within an
404 expanded canopy, supported by favorable microclimatic conditions. Moreover, changes in
405 geographic distribution may bring together diverse pathogen lineages or genotypes that may
406 not typically share the same ecological niche, potentially leading to an escalation in pathogen
407 diversity (Chakraborty, 2013).

408 The evolving climate, coupled with the concurrent rise in atmospheric CO₂ levels, holds
409 the potential to significantly impact the severity of plant diseases, posing a looming threat to
410 future crop yields (Zhou et al., 2019). These anticipated shifts emphasize the critical importance
411 of comprehensive research initiatives aimed at unraveling the intricate dynamics between
412 climate change and plant-pathogen interactions. Such efforts are essential for developing
413 effective strategies to mitigate the adverse effects of climate change on agricultural productivity
414 and ensure global food security in the face of evolving climatic challenges.

415 Elevated temperatures associated with climate change often exacerbate the severity of
416 plant diseases (**Figure 1**). Understanding how plants respond to pathogens under high-
417 temperature stress is crucial for enhancing crop resilience. However, the molecular mechanisms
418 governing this response remain largely unexplored (Cohen and Leach, 2020). The resistance of
419 crops to stem rust, particularly Sr31, is compromised by the Ug99 race of stem rust caused by

420 *P. graminis* f. sp. *tritici*. Furthermore, elevated temperatures and increased CO₂ levels heighten
421 the threat of late blight (*P. infestans*) in potatoes, as well as significant rice diseases including
422 blast (*P. oryzae*) and ShB (*R. solani*) (Gautam et al., 2013).

423 Research is underway to investigate the impact of climate warming on *Phytophthora*
424 *cinnamomi*, a widespread and highly destructive forest pathogen. In Europe, the winter survival
425 of this pathogen significantly influences the development of the disease in oak trees, particularly
426 in *Quercus robur* and *Q. rubra*. The research compares the potential geographic ranges of the
427 pathogen and its associated disease in France over two distinct periods: 1968–1998 and 2070–
428 2099. Simulations incorporate a physiologically based approach to predict the pathogen's winter
429 survival relative to microhabitat temperature (specifically, in the phloem of infected trees),
430 along with a regionalized climatic scenario derived from a global circulation model. Projections
431 indicate that positive anomalies in winter temperatures are expected to vary between 0.5–5.1°C
432 during the period 2070–2099 compared to 1968–1998, with variations observed across sites
433 and months. Consequently, higher annual rates of *P. cinnamomi* survival are anticipated,
434 potentially leading to an eastward expansion of the disease's range from the Atlantic coast by
435 one to a few hundred kilometers within a century (Bergot et al., 2004). These findings
436 underscore the critical importance of comprehending the intricate interactions between climate
437 change and plant-pathogen dynamics. Advancing our understanding in this domain is
438 imperative for devising effective strategies to alleviate the impact of climate change on
439 agricultural productivity and ensure global food security amidst evolving environmental
440 challenges. The outcomes of research investigating the effects of climate change on various
441 pathosystems, such as those affecting grapevines, including downy and powdery mildew, as
442 well as several pathogens targeting vegetable crops like rocket, basil, beet, and zucchini, have
443 been demonstrated. Elevating both CO₂ levels and temperature resulted in an increased
444 occurrence of PM on zucchini, *Alternaria* leaf spot on rocket salad, black spot, and downy
445 mildew on basil, *Allophoma tropica* on lettuce, and Phoma leaf spot on garden beet. Conversely,
446 variable effects were noted when individual climate parameters were considered separately.
447 The impact of altered environmental conditions on certain physiological parameters affecting
448 mycotoxin production and disease management in selected pathosystems was also explored. It
449 was observed that CO₂ concentration and temperature exerted distinct influences on disease
450 severity and mycotoxin production. Regarding the application of biocontrol agents, the
451 effectiveness of *Ampelomyces quisqualis* against zucchini powdery mildew was found to be
452 enhanced under elevated temperature and CO₂ conditions (Gullino et al., 2018).



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Figure 1. Impact of climate change on plant-pathogen interactions

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ShB, caused by *R. solani*, poses a significant threat to rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) production. However, the response of rice ShB risk to elevated CO₂ (ECO₂) and temperature in the context of future climate change remains unclear. Field experiments were conducted with inoculated *R. solani*, considering two CO₂ levels (ambient and enriched up to 590 mmol mol⁻¹) and two temperature levels (ambient and increased by 2.0°C) using a free-air CO₂ enrichment (T-FACE) system for two cultivars, namely a susceptible cultivar (Lemont) and a resistant cultivar (YSBR1). Results revealed that, upon inoculation with *R. solani*, the vertical length of ShB lesions for cv. Lemont was significantly longer than that for cv. YSBR1 across the four CO₂ and temperature treatments. Elevated temperature significantly increased the vertical length of ShB lesions, while ECO₂ had no such effect for both cultivars. Under the combination of ECO₂ and elevated temperature, the vertical length of ShB lesions increased by 21–38% for cv. Lemont and by -1–6% for cv. YSBR1. The significant increase in membrane lipid peroxidation level was associated with a notable rise in the vertical length of ShB lesions under the combination of ECO₂ and elevated temperature. The ECO₂ was unable to offset the adverse effect of elevated temperature on the yield of both cultivars under future climate change. Rice yield and biomass experienced a further decline by 2.0–2.5% and 2.9–4.2%, respectively, due to an increase in ShB severity under the combination of ECO₂ and elevated temperature. Therefore, it is imperative to implement rational agronomic management practices aimed at enhancing resistance to ShB disease and improving grain yield for rice under future climate

474 change conditions (Shen et al., 2023). Comparisons were made between the responses of the
475 model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana* to leaf and root pathogens employing hemi-biotrophic or
476 necrotrophic infection strategies under pre-industrial, current, and projected future atmospheric
477 CO₂ conditions. Under ECO₂ conditions, plants exhibited increased resistance to the
478 necrotrophic leaf pathogen *B. cinerea*, but a reduction in resistance to the hemibiotrophic leaf
479 pathogen *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *tomato* was observed. Conversely, plants grown under low
480 CO₂ displayed the opposite pattern. Disease severity induced by the soil-borne pathogens
481 *Fusarium oxysporum* f.sp. *raphani* and *R. solani* remained similar across all tested CO₂
482 conditions. The findings emphasize that atmospheric CO₂ levels influence the equilibrium
483 between salicylic acid- and jasmonic acid-dependent defenses, consequently affecting the
484 resistance against foliar hemibiotrophic and necrotrophic pathogens (Zhou et al., 2019). The
485 CO₂ serves as a significant sensory cue for various animals, encompassing both parasitic and
486 free-living nematodes. The behavioral reactions of nematodes to CO₂ are often context-
487 dependent, experience-dependent, or life stage-dependent, indicating the vital roles CO₂ plays
488 across multiple ethological contexts throughout the nematode life cycle. Additionally,
489 nematodes exhibit diverse physiological responses to CO₂ (Banerjee and Hallem, 2020).
490 Concurrently, the interplay of ECO₂ levels, temperature shifts, and altered precipitation
491 strongly influences the biology of nematodes, including those parasitizing plants and insects.
492 While nematode development tends to accelerate in warmer soil temperatures induced by
493 climate change, the precise implications of these climate change effects on nematode biology
494 and the overall plant-nematode interaction continuum are not yet fully understood (Dutta et al.,
495 2023).

496 **5. Host-pathogen interactions**

497

498 Global climate change exerts significant impacts on plant ecosystems by altering key
499 environmental factors. Factors such as temperature, precipitation, sunlight duration and quality,
500 and nutrient availability (e.g. nitrogen, phosphorus, potassium) are pivotal in determining plant
501 growth and are anticipated to change because of global climate change. ECO₂ levels resulting
502 from climate change can enhance plant growth by stimulating increased photosynthesis, albeit
503 at the cost of reduced evaporative cooling (Dutta et al., 2023).

504 The influence of climate change on pests and pathogens primarily operates through
505 plants. ECO₂ levels, rising temperatures, and shifts in precipitation patterns disrupt plant growth
506 and development, leading to alterations in canopy architecture, size, density, microclimate, and

507 the amount of susceptible tissue. These changes in host physiology and canopy microclimate,
508 particularly under ECO_2 levels, affect the production, dispersal, and survival of pathogen
509 inoculum, as well as the feeding behavior of insect pests. Increased temperatures accelerate
510 plant growth and development, thereby reshaping canopy architecture and influencing the
511 development of pests and pathogens. Moreover, changes in precipitation patterns, whether
512 resulting in drought or flooding stress, impact canopy architecture and have corresponding
513 effects on pests and pathogens. Despite the profound interactions occurring at the canopy level,
514 they are frequently overlooked in epidemiology models used to forecast the impacts of climate
515 change (Pangga et al., 2013).

516 Temperature variations affect both the host and the pathogen, necessitating risk analyses
517 for each pathosystem to understand the implications of climate change (Yáñez-López et al.,
518 2012). Observational studies consistently highlight increasing temperatures as the predominant
519 factor driving the impact of diseases. Process-based models indicate that rising temperatures
520 could result in shifts in disease pressure along latitudinal lines while drying conditions might
521 alleviate disease risks (Raza and Bebbler 2022).

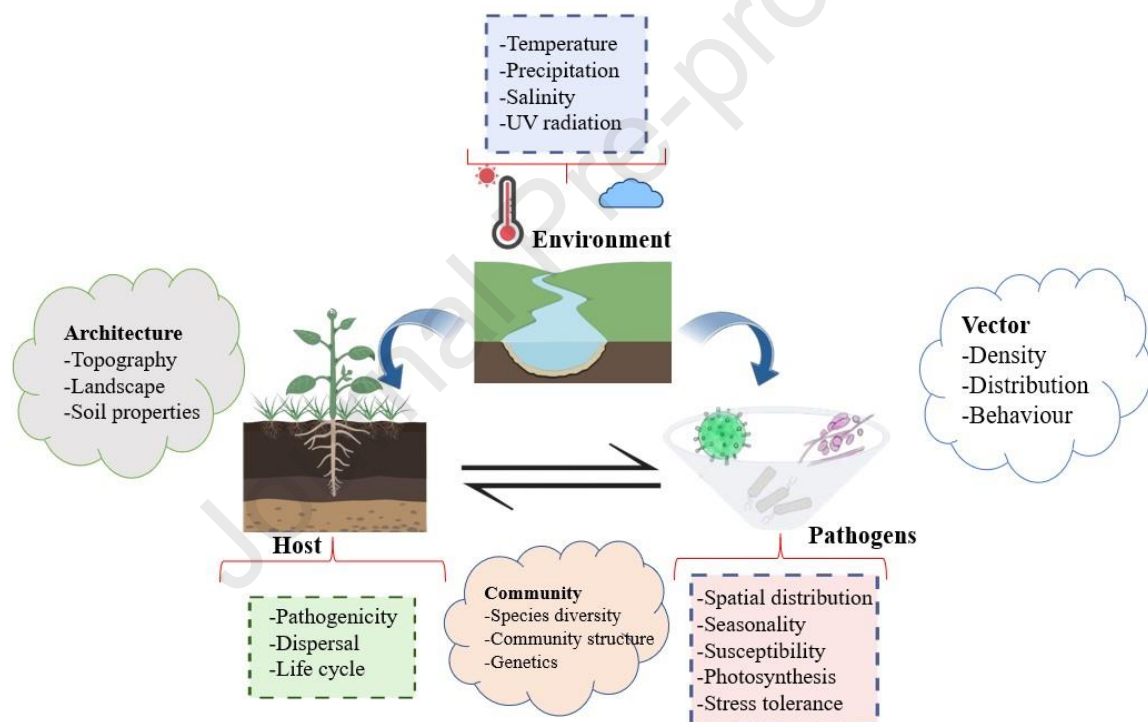
522 ECO_2 , a key factor in climate change, is recognized for its ability to modify various
523 plant processes (**Figure 2**), including physiology, growth, and resistance to pathogens
524 (Sanchez-Luca et al., 2023). Human activities have led to a doubling of CO_2 concentrations
525 since the Industrial Revolution. While this increase could potentially enhance plant growth
526 through the 'CO₂ fertilization' effect, recent studies present conflicting findings regarding the
527 impacts of ECO_2 on plant-pathogen interactions (Smith and Luna, 2023). While studies
528 conducted under controlled conditions have identified the effects of ECO_2 levels, field
529 responses, such as the adaptation of pathogens over time, may differ (Yáñez-López et al., 2012).
530 Experimental studies propose that the elevation of atmospheric CO_2 levels could intensify the
531 impact of diseases (Raza and Bebbler, 2022). ECO_2 and the accompanying climate changes
532 carry the potential to expedite the evolution of plant pathogens, subsequently influencing their
533 virulence. The interactions between plants and pathogens in the context of ECO_2 can
534 significantly disrupt both agricultural and natural systems. However, the existence of a
535 fundamental knowledge gap arises from the scarcity of experimental data, hindering our ability
536 to accurately predict future outcomes in this regard. In the absence of information regarding
537 crop species, a study demonstrated an increase in the aggressiveness of the plant pathogen
538 (*Erysiphe cichoracearum*) under ECO_2 . Concurrently, alterations in the leaf epidermal
539 characteristics of the model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana* L. are observed. Stomatal density, guard

540 cell length, and trichome numbers on leaves that develop post-infection show an increase under
541 ECO_2 , contrasting with the responses in non-infected conditions. Given that many plant
542 pathogens rely on epidermal features for successful infection, these responses create a positive
543 feedback mechanism, enhancing the susceptibility of newly developed leaves to further
544 pathogen attacks. Additionally, an analysis of resistant and susceptible ecotypes suggests
545 inherent differences in epidermal responses to ECO_2 (Lake and Wade, 2009).

546 Wheat diseases represent a persistent and evolving threat to global food security, yet
547 there remains limited understanding of how ECO_2 levels will impact these diseases,
548 consequently affecting grain supply security. With atmospheric CO_2 surpassing the 400 ppmv
549 benchmark in 2013 and expected to double or triple by the end of the century, a study delved
550 into the influence of both pathogen and wheat acclimation to ECO_2 on the development of
551 *Fusarium* head blight (FHB) and *Septoria tritici* blotch (STB) diseases in wheat. The study
552 involved cultivating plants and pathogens under either 390 or 780 ppmv CO_2 for two wheat
553 generations and multiple pathogen sub-cultures, followed by standard disease trials. The
554 acclimation of pathogens and the wheat cultivar Remus to ECO_2 resulted in increased severity
555 for both STB and FHB diseases compared to ambient conditions, with a more pronounced effect
556 observed for FHB. The highest FHB disease levels and associated yield losses occurred when
557 both the pathogen and wheat were acclimated to ECO_2 . Similarly, experiments conducted with
558 the disease-resistant cultivar CM82036 revealed that pathogen acclimation significantly
559 increased disease levels and yield loss under ECO_2 conditions, indicating diminished
560 effectiveness of the innate defense pathways in this wheat cultivar. In conclusion, the study
561 highlights that acclimation to ECO_2 in the coming decades will significantly shape the outcomes
562 of plant-pathogen interactions and impact the durability of disease resistance (Váry et al., 2015).

563 The impact of ECO_2 on the foliar fungal pathogen *Phyllosticta minima*, affecting *Acer*
564 *rubrum* in the understory at the Duke Forest free-air CO_2 enrichment experiment in Durham,
565 North Carolina, has been investigated. Surveys conducted in the 6th, 7th, and 8th years of CO_2
566 exposure revealed a significant reduction in disease incidence under ECO_2 . There were 22%,
567 27%, and 8% fewer saplings affected and 14%, 4%, and 5% fewer infected leaves per plant in
568 the three consecutive years, respectively. ECO_2 also led to a notable decrease in disease severity
569 across all years, with mean lesion area reduced by 35%, 50%, and 10% in 2002, 2003, and
570 2004, respectively. To understand the mechanisms behind these changes, comprehensive bag
571 analyses of leaf structure, physiology, and chemistry were combined with growth chamber
572 studies on *P. minima* growth and host infection. In vitro, exponential growth rates of *P. minima*

573 increased by 17% under EO_2 , discounting the possibility that disease reductions were due to
 574 direct negative effects of EO_2 on fungal performance. Scanning electron micrographs
 575 confirmed that conidia germ tubes of *P. minima* enter *A. rubrum* leaves through the stomata.
 576 Although stomatal size and density remained unchanged, stomatal conductance decreased by
 577 21–36% under EO_2 , resulting in smaller openings for infecting germ tubes. Reduced disease
 578 severity under EO_2 was likely attributed to altered leaf chemistry and reduced nutritive
 579 quality. EO_2 led to a 20% reduction in leaf N and a 20% increase in the C: N ratio, along with
 580 a 15% increase in total phenolics and a 14% increase in tannins. The described dual mechanism
 581 involves reduced stomatal opening and altered leaf chemistry, resulting in decreased disease
 582 incidence and severity under EO_2 , which implies a common occurrence in plant pathosystems
 583 where the pathogen targets the stomata (McElrone et al., 2005).



584

585 **Figure 2.** Effect of climate change factors affecting host plants, plant pathogens, and the
 586 interaction between them.

587

588 In tree species crucial in many forest regeneration strategies, *Quercus robur* is
 589 particularly susceptible to PM (Powdery mildew) disease during the seedling stage. PM is
 590 widespread in oak forests and is considered a hindrance to oak woodland regeneration. In a
 591 study aiming to elucidate the impact of EO_2 on plant responses to PM, oak seedlings were
 592 cultivated in controlled environments under ambient (aCO_2 , ~ 400 ppm) and EO_2 (~ 1000

593 ppm) conditions and were infected with *Erysiphe alphitoides*, the causative agent of oak PM.
594 The study monitored plant growth, physiological parameters, and disease progression.
595 Additionally, to assess the effect of ECO₂ on induced resistance (IR), these parameters were
596 evaluated following treatments with the IR elicitor β -aminobutyric acid (BABA). The results
597 indicated that ECO₂ enhanced photosynthetic rates and aboveground growth but, conversely,
598 reduced root length. Importantly, seedlings under ECO₂ exhibited increased susceptibility to
599 PM. While treatments with BABA protected PM, this effect was less pronounced under ECO₂.
600 Furthermore, regardless of CO₂ concentration, BABA did not significantly alter aboveground
601 growth but did result in longer root systems, mitigating the impact of ECO₂ on root shortening.
602 These findings underscore the influence of ECO₂ on plant physiology, growth, and defense,
603 emphasizing the need for further biomolecular studies to unravel the mechanisms by which
604 ECO₂ heightens oak seedling susceptibility to PM (Sanchez-Luca et al., 2023).

605 A study examined the impact of rising atmospheric CO₂ concentrations on beneficial
606 soil fauna, specifically entomopathogenic nematodes (EPNs). The objective was to understand
607 the influence of ECO₂ on the growth of maize plants (*Zea mays* L.), including root morphology,
608 and to assess the effectiveness of the entomopathogenic nematode *Heterorhabditis*
609 *bacteriophora* in this altered environment. Plants cultivated under ECO₂ exhibited accelerated,
610 lengthier, denser, and larger root systems compared to those grown under aCO₂ conditions.
611 Consequently, the enhanced root development resulted in reduced effectiveness of EPNs.
612 Despite no notable disparity in host mortality between aCO₂ and ECO₂ conditions, a
613 significantly higher number of nematodes were recovered from hosts situated near plants grown
614 in the aCO₂ environment. The structural equation model analysis unveiled that this impact was
615 indirect and mediated by the heightened morphological traits of the roots. This research
616 represents the initial instance demonstrating how alterations in atmospheric CO₂ levels
617 indirectly diminish the efficacy of globally employed entomopathogenic nematodes (EPN) for
618 crop protection. While additional factors, such as plant volatile emissions, might influence or
619 intensify these patterns, the results indicate that changes in root traits under ECO₂ negatively
620 affect EPN effectiveness, consequently impacting the management of soil-dwelling insect pests
621 (Hiltbold et al., 2020).

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626 **6. Mitigation and adaptation strategies**

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628 Management strategies for diseases hinge on prevailing climatic conditions, and any
629 alterations in climate will inevitably trigger shifts in the spatial and temporal distribution of
630 diseases. Consequently, control methodologies will necessitate adjustments in response to
631 diverse climate change scenarios. In recent years, there has been a heightened emphasis on
632 adaptation measures, largely driven by a greater certainty regarding the manifestation of several
633 anticipated climate change scenarios. This intensified focus is warranted by the crucial role of
634 developing highly effective strategies to acclimate plants to the challenges presented by climate
635 change, as both productivity and food security hinge on these efforts (Gitz et al., 2016).
636 According to the IPCC, adaptation strategies entail making modifications in natural or human
637 systems to respond to actual or anticipated climate stimuli or their effects, to mitigate harm, or
638 to capitalize on advantageous opportunities (IPCC, 2007). With climate change advancing and
639 global trade accelerating, uncertainties and the frequency of both existing and new pest
640 occurrences are poised to escalate. Consequently, bolstering the capacity for swift adaptation
641 to disruptions and climate shifts will be increasingly paramount (Barzman et al., 2015).

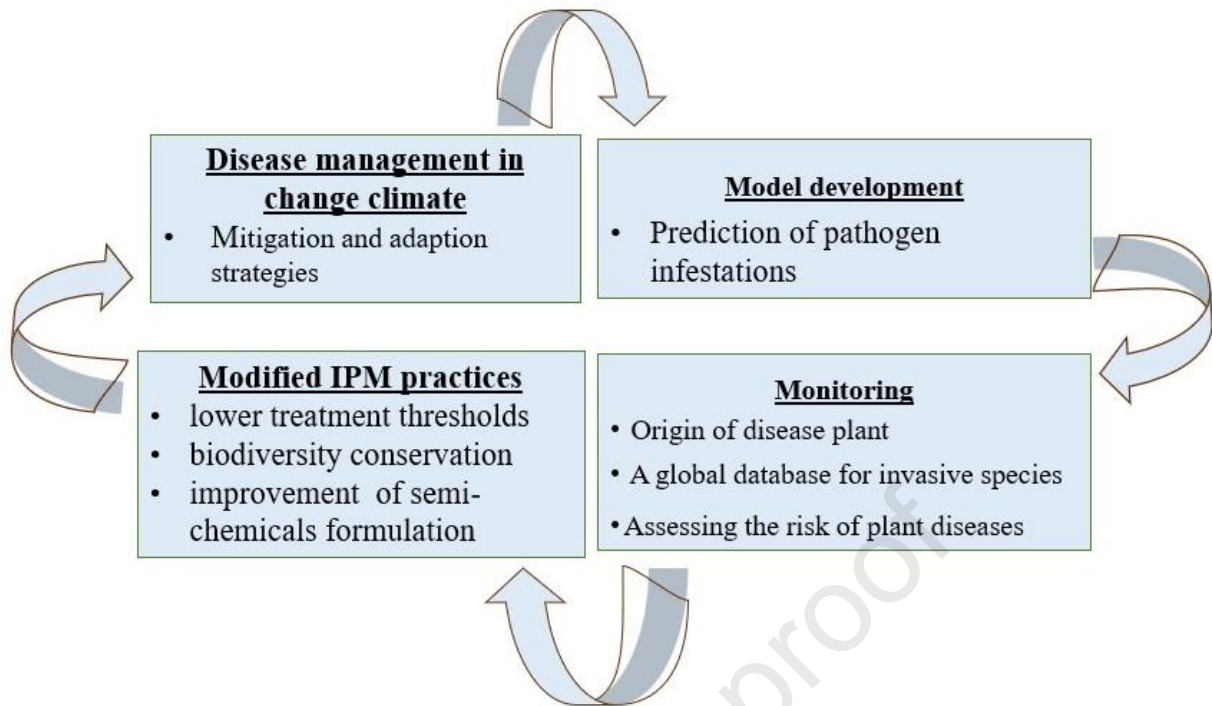
642 Traditional management systems, notably chemical control using synthetic pesticides,
643 remain vital in the fight against these diseases due to their immediate efficacy. However, this
644 method brings about escalating environmental concerns, public health hazards, and the
645 emergence of pesticide resistance. In parallel, cultural control measures such as crop rotation,
646 intercropping, and the cultivation of resistant varieties play pivotal roles in promoting
647 sustainable crop health. For instance, crop rotation disrupts the life cycles of pathogens and
648 pests, while the adoption of resistant varieties reduces dependence on chemical interventions.
649 Furthermore, biological control methods, employing environmentally friendly agents like
650 bacteria and yeasts, are emerging as promising strategies to balance control effectiveness with
651 the preservation of agricultural ecosystems. By integrating these diverse approaches within an
652 integrated disease management (IDM) framework, crops can be bolstered against evolving
653 challenges while mitigating adverse impacts on the environment and human health (Altieri and
654 Nicholls, 2017; Khursheed et al., 2022).

655 In the context of climatic crisis, the conventional paradigms of crop protection, notably
656 relying on pesticide application, witness a discernible decline in efficacy. This decline is
657 notably attributed to the escalation of temperatures and the modulation of precipitation patterns,
658 significantly impacting the persistence, volatilization, and overarching efficiency of these

659 chemical interventions. Furthermore, within the realm of biological control, the intricate
660 interplay of temperature and humidity fluctuations exerts notable influences on the reproductive
661 cycles and overall viability of biological control agents. Meanwhile, the migratory patterns of
662 pests to novel geographical zones pose a formidable challenge, potentially surpassing the
663 establishment rate of their natural adversaries (Deguine et al., 2021; Kumar et al., 2023).

664 IDM stands as a holistic and strategic approach to safeguarding plant health, blending
665 diverse methods for economically feasible and environmentally sound disease control.
666 Anchored in a deep comprehension of disease biology, IDM entails monitoring vigilant disease,
667 leveraging forecasting models, and prioritizing preventive measures like crop rotation and the
668 adoption of resistant varieties. Moreover, this methodology seamlessly incorporates biological,
669 chemical, and physical controls to manage diseases effectively while curbing environmental
670 repercussions. In the era of climate change, IDM necessitates adaptive measures, encompassing
671 the refinement of risk assessment models, the development of climate-resilient crop varieties,
672 and the enhancement of biological control agent efficacy. Advancements in irrigation systems
673 and the integration of cutting-edge technologies such as remote sensing further fortify a
674 comprehensive plant protection strategy (Hampel et al., 2018). Crucially, integrating insights
675 from both physical and social sciences with the perspectives of local farmers and land managers
676 is essential to offer well-informed guidance to policymakers in bolstering resilient strategies
677 (**Figure 3**). This requires collaborative efforts spanning the public and private sectors to
678 navigate the complexities of disease management and climate adaptation effectively (Gupta et
679 al., 2018).

680



681

682 **Figure 3.** Layout of the basic formulation of plant disease management strategies as affected
 683 by changing climate.

684 When crafting these management strategies, it is paramount to factor in the implications
 685 of climate change while ensuring they remain economically viable and not excessively
 686 resource-intensive, as this could impede their adoption (Desai et al., 2021). Nevertheless,
 687 adaptation strategies vary depending on agricultural systems, geographical location, and
 688 projections of global climate change. At more advanced stages of adaptation, significant
 689 changes in cropping systems and crop types may be necessary. Beyond mere adjustments in
 690 field management, the possibility of relocating cultivation zones may arise in response to the
 691 emergence of new agricultural areas shaped by shifting climatic conditions. The primary
 692 avenues for climate change adaptation and mitigation generally fall into three categories:
 693 resource conservation technologies, crop system technologies, and socio-economic or policy
 694 interventions (Venkateswarlu and Shanker, 2009). Various agronomic practices offer avenues
 695 to mitigate the impacts of climate change (**Table 2**).

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Table 2. Short and long-term adaptation strategies.

Strategies	
In the short term	In the long term
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Sowing date and appropriate cultivars ➤ Planting patterns such as high-density plantations ➤ Intercropping systems ➤ Crop residue management ➤ Soil health management systems ➤ Crop rotation ➤ Crop diversification, etc. ➤ Utilizing organic fertilizers could be harnessed to reduce vulnerability. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Developing stress-resistant genotypes using traditional and molecular breeding tools. ➤ Consistent implementation of genotyping and phenotyping will be beneficial for the development of promising genotypes.

701

702 **7. Future perspectives**

703

704 The current landscape in plant pathology research underscores a pressing need for
705 fundamental knowledge to leverage emerging tools effectively in disease management (Singh
706 et al., 2023). Meeting this challenge requires a holistic approach extending beyond traditional
707 disease monitoring and chemical controls. To enhance our capabilities, it is essential to deepen
708 our understanding of the biological, ecological, and evolutionary responses of pathogens,
709 vectors, and hosts to climate change. At the core of this endeavor is the identification and
710 characterization of pathobiomes, which comprise microorganisms and invertebrates that either
711 facilitate or impede infection and disease progression in response to climate shifts. Leveraging
712 ecological theories, such as invasion theory and network theory, can furnish a robust framework
713 for predicting pathogen transmission in novel environments or to new hosts, including their
714 interactions with host and soil microbiomes (Blumenthal, 2006; Mallon et al., 2015).

715 Likewise, integrating evolutionary processes, such as new phenotype acquisition by
716 pathogens or indigenous microflora through horizontal gene transfer or mutations, can deepen
717 our understanding of pathogenicity mechanisms. Furthermore, elucidating plant phenology and
718 disease interactions is paramount, considering that different plant species exhibit vulnerability
719 to pathogens at distinct growth stages. For example, *Fusarium* and *Verticillium* pathogens

720 primarily infect hosts during early growth stages, leading to wilt disease (Kirkby et al., 2013).
721 Similarly, many diseases, like PM of grapevine and strawberry, show higher susceptibility in
722 young leaves compared to mature leaves. Given the anticipated impact of climate change on
723 plant growth and phenology, it is crucial to evaluate how these changes might influence plant
724 susceptibility to disease to develop targeted disease management strategies (Jeger et al., 2021).

725 Measuring pathogen movement through air and water systems is vital for predicting
726 pathogen loads resulting from climate change-induced alterations in weather patterns, wind
727 direction, and extreme weather events. Consideration of the individual and interactive effects
728 of climate factors such as temperature, precipitation, and drought on disease manifestation
729 across different climatic zones is essential (Jeger et al., 2021). This necessitates establishing
730 permanent observatories monitoring pollutants and microorganisms, complemented by drone
731 technologies capable of sampling at elevated altitudes. Moreover, enhancing disease
732 surveillance and management tools through remote sensing, drones, sensor-based technologies,
733 and population genomics, coupled with advanced modeling tools, is critical for predicting future
734 outbreaks and implementing effective risk management strategies (Burdon and Zhan, 2020;
735 Mallon et al., 2015).

736 Furthermore, while much attention has been focused on diseases affecting commercial
737 crops, the role of wild and native plants in disease incidence remains underexplored. Climate
738 change-induced shifts in the range of wild plants may significantly impact plant disease
739 dynamics, yet this aspect remains poorly understood (Burdon and Zhan, 2020). Similarly, the
740 responses of plant-associated microbiomes, which play pivotal roles in disease progression or
741 restriction, to climate change remains a knowledge gap. Additionally, socio-economic aspects
742 must be integrated into disease monitoring and management efforts. Implementing user-
743 friendly computational information systems supporting decision-making, especially for
744 smallholder farmers, is crucial for effective disease management. Mobile phone-based
745 applications can serve as useful tools due to their widespread accessibility (Burdon and Zhan,
746 2020).

747 Looking ahead, concerted efforts are needed to enhance our predictive capabilities and
748 develop adaptive strategies tailored to the unique challenges posed by climate change-induced
749 shifts in disease dynamics. This entails integrating cutting-edge technologies, fostering
750 interdisciplinary collaborations, and adopting robust data-driven approaches (Burdon and Zhan,
751 2020). However, achieving effective monitoring and management of plant pathogens amidst
752 climate change depends on increased research funding and policy commitments from relevant

753 stakeholders worldwide. By prioritizing investments in research, fostering international
754 cooperation, and embracing innovative solutions, we can strengthen global food systems and
755 safeguard agricultural sustainability in the face of an ever-evolving climate. Research
756 projections indicate that shifts in climatic patterns will significantly alter the dynamics of
757 pathogen progression, host resistance, and the physiology of host-pathogen interactions,
758 exacerbating the intensity of plant diseases. It is crucial to recognize that the impact of climate
759 change on individual pathosystems can yield varied outcomes, ranging from positive to
760 negative or neutral, owing to the nuanced nature of host-pathogen interactions (Jeger et al.,
761 2021).

762 **8. Conclusion**

763

764 The intricate relationship between climate change and plant diseases presents a
765 multifaceted threat to global agriculture, with far-reaching implications for food security,
766 environmental sustainability, and socio-economic stability. Throughout this review, the
767 complexity of this dynamic was thoroughly examined. To effectively address these challenges
768 and enhance resilience in the face of an increasingly unpredictable climate, it is essential to
769 foster a comprehensive understanding of these processes and develop robust adaptation
770 strategies through international collaboration. The devastating consequences of climate change
771 on agriculture, including its profound effects on the severity, frequency, and recurrence of pests
772 and diseases, demand urgent attention. Despite efforts to anticipate climate variations, plant
773 health continues to suffer, leading to fluctuations in disease prevalence, crop quality, and yield.

774 Globally, progress in combating the impact of climate change on plant diseases has been
775 hindered by a lack of comprehensive understanding of epidemic processes at relevant
776 environmental and spatial scales. Effective disease management requires detailed insights at the
777 field scale for specific diseases. Therefore, conducting meticulous assessments and evaluations
778 of the potential impacts of climate change at a granular level is essential to elucidate the critical
779 mechanisms and dynamics driving plant-related diseases and associated epidemics.

780

781 **List of abbreviations**

782 aCO₂: atmospheric of CO₂

783 BABA: β-aminobutyric acid

784 C : Carbon

785 C° : Celsius degree

786 CO₂: Carbon dioxide
787 COVID : coronavirus disease
788 ECO₂: emitted of CO₂
789 EPN: entomopathogenic nematodes
790 FHB: Fusarium head blight
791 IDM: integrated disease management
792 IPCC: Intergovernmental Panel On Climate
793 IR: induced resistance
794 N: Azote
795 pH : potential of hydrogen
796 PM : Powdery mildew
797 ppm : part per million
798 ppmv : parts per million by volume
799 Sheath blight (ShB)
800 STB: Septoria tritici blotch
801 UV : Ultraviolet

802

803 **Availability of data and materials**

804 Not applicable.

805

806 **Authors' contributions**

807 RL, TM, SL : Conceptualization, methodology. RL, TM, SL GG: writing—original draft
808 preparation. AA, ME, RE, AM, ZB, KA, EAB : formal analysis. AA, RE, ZB, KA, R.L.,
809 EAB : Investigation. AM, ME, EAB, RL : writing—review and editing. RL: Validation. RL :
810 supervision.

811

812 **Declarations of competing interest**

813 The authors declare no competing interests.

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817

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Highlights

- Elevated CO₂ levels exacerbate plant-pathogen interactions, leading to more complex disease dynamics.
- Climate change directly influences crop physiology, productivity, and associated microbiota, including pathogens.
- Changes in climate alter the distribution, abundance, and virulence of pathogens, affecting crop health.
- Increasing temperatures might shift disease pressure geographically, as predicted by process-based models.
- Mitigation strategies may include breeding resistant crops and implementing integrated pest management practices.

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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