# **1** Investigating the Impact of Climate Change on the Dynamics of Fungal

# 2 Plant Pathogens

# 3 Abstract

4 Fungal plant pathogen dynamics have been revealed to be significantly influenced by 5 climate change, which has important ramifications for global agriculture and food security. This review explores the multifaceted impact of rising temperatures, altered precipitation 6 7 patterns, and extreme weather events on the prevalence, geographic distribution, and 8 virulence of fungal pathogens. The key topics include the mechanisms of fungal adaptation 9 to climatic variability, the interactions between fungal pathogens and host plants, and the 10 challenges in developing sustainable management strategies. Additionally, developments in biological control methods, molecular diagnostics, and predictive modeling are further 11 12 explored, emphasizing their function in reducing the negative consequences of fungal 13 diseases in the face of shifting environmental circumstances. In order to address the 14 growing threats posed by fungal infections in a warming environment, this review highlights the necessity of multidisciplinary research and policy initiatives. 15

Keywords: Biological control; Climate change; Fungal disease; Host-pathogen
 interactions; Pathogen dynamics; Sustainable disease management.

### 18 Introduction

19 Fungal plant infections pose a serious worldwide threat as they may infect 20 horticulture crops, wild plants, and important commercial agricultural plant species. Fungi are recognized to cause the majority of plant and agricultural illnesses (Fisher et al. 2020; 21 22 Ramudingana et al., 2025). Food, fiber, and other goods may be wasted as a result of these 23 diseases, which might render yields unmarketable. Early findings suggested that some 24 infections had particular host ranges or geographic distributions, but more modern genetic 25 and experimental methods have shown a growing variety of fungal-plant relationships 26 (Attia et al. 2022; Deresa & Diriba, 2023). Therefore, in order to control a disease or create 27 crop cultivars that are resistant to it, it is very essential to comprehend the ecology and 28 host-pathogen interactions of each component of the disease triangle (El-Baky & Amara, 29 2021; Upadhyay et al. 2023). Facultative and obligate fungi cause a range of plant diseases such as root and fruit rots, wilts, damping-off, powdery mildew, rust, and smut. The 30 ongoing and dynamic co-evolution between plants and fungal pathogens is of increasing 31 32 interest to evolutionary biologists and researchers involved in plant pathology (Bernardo-Cravo et al. 2020; Borer et al. 2022; Páez & Fleming-Davies, 2020). There have been 33 accounts of the existence of pleomorphic, anamorphic, and distinct teleomorph phases for 34 some species due to interest in the behavior of some specialists when they "jump" to a new 35 36 host in response to changing temperature or maybe host physiological or genetic makeup (Yu et al. 2022; Guégan et al. 2024; Yadav and Ravichandran, 2024). The significance of 37 38 such distinct infection systems to biology and, on the other hand, the economic significance 39 of particular fungal pathogens in connection with crop disease management will be 40 somewhat quantified by longer-planned multicenter research on the frequency and population analyses of relevant data. The potential implications of changing temperatures 41

or increased CO<sub>2</sub> on the interactions between plants and their pathogens have been a topic
of investigation as part of a broader concern over the influence of climate change on global
plant pathology (Wahid et al. 2020; Singh et al. 2023; Lahlali et al. 2024).

45 Plants are affected by a broad spectrum of diseases caused by different types of fungi that are found in a wide range of taxonomic groups and are among the most 46 important, diverse, and economically damaging pathogens of plants (El-Baky & Amara, 47 2021; Fernandez-San et al. 2021). Plant pathogenic fungi manipulate the physiology of 48 49 plant hosts by a multitude of mechanisms, such as the secretion of proteins that suppress 50 host immunity to respond against pathogen attack, adding enzymes and other proteins to 51 infected plant cells, scavenging important nutrients from plant tissue in order to fuel their growth (Grabka et al. 2022). They can be split into different types of pathogens based on 52 53 their life cycle and the ways they infect plants. For example, rust fungi are pathogens with complex life cycles, whereas powdery mildews have relatively simple life cycles compared 54 to rust fungi even though they both are biotrophic fungi (Précigout et al. 2020; Mapuranga 55 56 et al., 2022). An example of a necrotrophic fungal pathogen is the soil-borne take-all 57 fungus, while monogenic pathogens have life cycles similar to biotrophic pathogens, they 58 are not adapted, therefore, unable to spread from one host species to another (Précigout et 59 al. 2020). Biotrophic fungal pathogens can also cause a range of diseases when they switch 60 from being parasitic to saprotrophic towards the end of their life cycle. This transition can result in the reduction of crop quality by pre-harvest diseases (Précigout et al. 2020). On 61 62 the other hand, there are saprotrophs, which have adapted to exploit plants after they die, 63 by aiding in the return of nutrients to the underlying soil.

64 Fungi can reproduce either sexually through fruiting structures or asexually through the production of different types of spores that are adapting to their dispersal capabilities 65 66 and suitable host tissues (Wijayawardene et al., 2022). Fungal spores are produced in a wide range of varieties, and each strategy has its own genetics and evolution, maintaining 67 the maximum capacity for spore germination during the correct conditions (Jayawardena 68 69 et al. 2021). Some fungi that occur naturally in the environment can also become invasive pathogens, causing severe disease on a range of plants (Leroy et al. 2021; Yigezu 70 71 Wendimu, 2021; Rathnayaka et al. 2024). In this review, fungal lifestyle strategies were 72 described in more detail before moving to the mechanisms of fungi that allow them to 73 interact with their plant hosts. Agriculture, in particular, is one of the key practices that has 74 been influenced by fungi, and the loss of crop yield due to fungal diseases is a significant 75 threat to food security in a changing climate. The horticultural and forestry industries invest 76 time and energy in controlling a wide range of plant diseases in addition to producing food. 77 The economy is greatly impacted by the harm that pathogenic fungus do. If some of the 78 most dangerous viruses spread more widely as a result of climate change, the impact might 79 be much more severe. An overview of the basics pertaining to this taxonomic group of 80 creatures is given in this review, which also serves as a backdrop for understanding how 81 climate change may affect their interactions with plants.

### 82 Climate Change and its Effects on the Environment

According to the European Environment Agency, climate change is any sustained
 change in observable patterns of the climate that is caused by either anthropogenic or

natural variability, such as trends toward global warming or cooling. Global ecosystems 85 86 are impacted by a number of climate change-related factors. For example, among the known consequences of climate change are an increase in the frequency of infrequent but 87 88 catastrophic weather events and a rise in the average world temperature (Belazreg et al. 89 2023). According to the most cautious projections, the world's temperature is expected to 90 increase by 1.5 to 4.5 °C by 2100 (Keppas et al. 2021). In addition, other consequences 91 predicted in response to climate change include altered precipitation patterns, such as more 92 rainfall in some regions but less in others or variations in seasonal timing, as well as a rise in the incidence of extreme meteorological events (Chen et al. 2023; Zhu et al. 2024). 93

94 The impact of climate variations on fungal plant pathogens remains difficult to predict because of the complex interaction between several factors. As an example, 95 96 temperature, humidity, precipitation patterns, and extreme weather events (Garrett et al. 97 2021). Higher temperatures are predicted to favor some parasitic fungi by enhancing soil health and increase plant debris decomposition (Wang et al. 2020). Besides, a decrease in 98 99 precipitation frequency combined with longer, more intermittent dry periods are negatively 100 affecting fungal pathogens by reducing the duration of leaf wetness and availability of water-soluble nutrients that are essential for their growth (Aguilar-Paredes et al. 2023). 101 102 Furthermore, it is predicted that a rise in the intensity and occurrence of extreme weather events would be detrimental to agriculture mainly because of expected losses in crop yield 103 104 (Thakur et al. 2022; Khalid et al. 2024; Liu et al. 2024). From the point of view of the 105 impact on global agriculture, these consequences could lead to food shortages and, in turn, 106 make all living organisms face malnutrition problems (Ristaino et al. 2021). Therefore, many researchers consider that it is of the utmost importance to study soil pathogens to 107 108 prevent such catastrophes (Trivedi et al. 2020). With the increasing trend of climate 109 change, the environment is expected to be different from the environment familiar to 110 human populations. Therefore, it is critical to explore the new environment to anticipate 111 the challenges that will face plant health (Ashraf et al. 2021; Singh et al. 2023).

#### 112 Global Warming and Climatic Variability

113 Global warming is an unanimously accepted overarching cause of climatic variability which could have impacts on a variety of ecological and agricultural systems. It 114 has been noticed that climate-related modifications at the poles are more extreme than those 115 found in other locations globally, with rising global and ocean temperatures are now known 116 117 to result in a multitude of alterations to ecosystems (Romero et al. 2022). The rise in extreme events and weather-related disasters, such as hurricanes and tropical storms, is 118 another important result of this change. Such variability may raise ground atmospheric 119 120 temperatures in many tropical, subtropical, and temperate regions where some of the planet's most important crops are grown. Climatic variability can influence the intensity of 121 plant fungal disease and reduce food crop quality. Since many fungi have considerable 122 advantages for survival and proliferation in these altered or variable conditions, climatic 123 variability can have a substantial influence on fungal-plant disease (Gadre et al. 2022; 124 Singh et al. 2023; Lahlali et al. 2024). This rise in infections was especially noteworthy 125 126 during the 2000s, as unusual warmth weakened potato host resistance. Research has also 127 shown an increase in the fruiting body production of pollen allergenic fungus during the milder Christmas period. Although suitable forage is vital for honey bee strength and 128

survival during foraging, studies have shown that higher upland temperatures help to
spread the infection to forage sets (Borowska-Beszta et al. 2024; Dixit et al. 2024; Zhong
et al. 2024).

Although floods produce relatively cold and moist infection settings in some places 132 in addition to photosynthesis and plant development, drought increases temperatures that 133 can both directly and indirectly affect host resistance systems (Ali et al. 2022). In addition 134 135 to lower air temperatures, unseasonably cooler weather characterized by strong winds induces wet plant foliage, leading to much faster availability of adequate moisture for 136 137 germination of soil-borne spores (McDowell et al. 2022). The replacement of outdated host 138 plant species with more resilient and stress-tolerant clones can also promote infection by pathogenic fungi in a variety of crops. Such interactive impacts obviously need to be 139 140 considered by developing predictive models that are poised to mirror the sophisticated interactions occurring in larger agricultural environments containing several simultaneous 141 climate transformations and their organisms, either offering or hindering control over plant 142 diseases (Lahlali et al. 2024). 143

### 144 Interactions Between Fungal Plant Pathogens and Host Plants

Numerous fungal plant diseases possess the capacity to form intricate connections 145 with their hosts as a result of various internal and exterior morphological changes. 146 Internally, both plants and diseases may change gene activity to adjust for environmental 147 148 fluctuation (Bhunjun et al. 2021; Antonio López-Quílez, 2025). The majority of fungi cause infection by penetrating plant cell walls by mechanical pressure, the attacking 149 fungus's osmotic potential, or the release of enzymes and other secondary metabolites that 150 break down cell walls (Jayawardena et al. 2021). The fungus typically subsequently enters 151 152 the plant tissue through the cell wall's natural holes or open wounds. Certain fungi have a tightly controlled genetic mechanism for infecting plants, which includes the production of 153 154 hormones and other secondary metabolites as soon as the fungus detects the presence of a certain root exudate from a host plant (Chiquito-Contreras et al. 2024; Rathnayaka et al. 155 156 2024).

157 Numerous lines of evidence demonstrate the variety of tactics viruses might use to 158 get past host defenses. Reactive oxygen species buildup is one of the tactics used by wound-159 invading fungal infections. These tactics entail a unique host response that is prepared 160 during the pathogen and host's evolution (McLaren and Callahan 2020). Practical, durable disease resistance can only result from the full comprehension of the underlying 161 162 mechanisms that characterize the interaction of host, pathogen, and environmental factors 163 (Paludan et al. 2021). Plant diseases will ultimately cause irreversible harm to the environment and the economy. Research in this area should receive a lot of financial and 164 moral support in a society where hunger and violence are ongoing threats. It should be 165 166 remembered that host-pathogen interactions can have vicarious effects on broad ecosystems, therefore their ecological ramifications extend beyond zootechnical and 167 agricultural dangers (Liu et al. 2022; Smith et al. 2023). 168

#### 169 Infection Mechanisms and Disease Development

170 The infection of the targeted hosts is one of the key stages of the life cycle of most 171 plant pathogens. The various infection mechanisms of fungal plant pathogens have been well described in such research. As the mechanisms of invasion are the only component of 172 the pathogen life cycle where external environmental factors may potentially influence the 173 174 outcome of a host-pathogen interaction, a brief overview of this topic provided here (Meile 175 et al. 2020; Mapuranga et al. 2022). It is important to note, however, that no clear divisions 176 exist between all of these modes of entry; many pathogens have a combination of all of 177 these modes in their life cycles, adopting different strategies depending on host and 178 environmental conditions, while others are specialized to use only one of these strategies. 179 For example, the hemibiotrophic fungi use appressorium-mediated penetration into unopened fruit, whereas they may rely on a germ tube tip-growth strategy to enter leaves. 180 181 Following the infection of the host, the pathogen interacts with the plant at the cellular and 182 molecular level to enable establishment and disease progression (Dutt et al. 2021; Palmieri 183 et al. 2022; Yan et al. 2023).

184 An important approach in plant-disease ecology is to examine the role of the 185 environment in the development of the disease, i.e., the time frame from infection to 186 expression of symptoms (Camenzind et al. 2022; Wang et al. 2022). The outcome of the 187 interaction at the cellular and molecular level may result in necrosis and/or the development of combinations of other symptoms including chlorosis, gall formation, cankers, or induced 188 189 plant growth. Disease initiation is the period following a successful infection event, while disease progression is the period following the onset of the first symptoms. Large 190 191 discrepancies exist in the environmental requirements for the asexual sporulation of many 192 fungi between initiation and progression events. Additionally, the influx of nutrients and 193 energy by use of the necrotrophic lifestyle points to supposed advantages of inducing 194 necrosis immediately upon infection to hasten the initiation of disease. The role of 195 environmental cues in the timing of symptoms is reviewed in the next section (Wijayawardene et al. 2022; Hyde et al. 2024). 196

### 197 Current Methods for Studying Fungal Plant Pathogens

198 Interest in the study of the dynamic interactions between fungal plant pathogens 199 and their natural environments has increased enormously over the last decade. However, 200 to adequately understand the various facets of these often-complex interactions, researchers need a diverse array of appropriate investigative tools. The capacity to better understand 201 microbial pathogens, including the use of molecular diagnostic and identification tools to 202 203 detect and monitor pathogen populations, has enabled the investigation of ecological dynamics at finer temporal and spatial resolutions (Peng et al. 2021; Palmieri et al. 2022). 204 Classical and modern research methodologies have cumulative or complementary 205 attributes, and the outcomes of separate investigations-each undertaken at different 206 207 resolutions—add valuable information concerning complex ecological interactions. This 208 approach is consistent with the replicability and falsifiability principles of the scientific 209 method, and unequivocal conclusions about the behavior of plant pathogens are therefore highly valuable in scientific research (Fernandez-San et al. 2021; Liu et al. 2022). 210

211 Classical methods of pathogen investigation primarily focused on pathogen 212 identification techniques. These techniques used visual examination of the fungus and 213 cultural characteristics that often raised the taxonomic status of the pathogen to a 214 morphospecies. Among the advent and development of molecular diagnostics, pathogen 215 identifications could, within limits, be made with greater sensitivity and specificity (Carney 216 et al. 2020; Tiedje et al. 2022; Wensel et al. 2022). Environmental studies of fungal 217 pathogen dynamics may now be conducted more robustly thanks to these recently made 218 accessible technologies. In conclusion, direct sampling from field surveys as well as 219 experimental manipulations or inoculation investigations conducted in glasshouse and/or 220 controlled-environment facilities are both incorporated into modern pathogen inquiry methodologies. Field experiments are then used to validate the use of that knowledge in 221 order to capture significant facets of pathogen behavior in empirical investigations. 222 223 Knowledge derived from field and laboratory studies can therefore be more accurately 224 applied to current disease dynamics, advancing the overall understanding of pathogen ecology (Deng et al. 2021). 225

### 226 Molecular Techniques and Pathogen Identification

227 In plant pathology, the species of plant pathogens are usually determined on the 228 basis of morphological criteria provided by experienced taxonomists. This is often a 229 challenging and even impossible task when relying on morphological traits because 230 parasites collected in the wild can grow differently in culture from the type material, be in 231 different life stages, undergo cell wall modifications due to exposure to host plants or 232 fungicides, be mixed in culture products and thus misidentified, and be undergoing genetic 233 changes (Buja et al. 2021; Hariharan and Prasannath 2021). The advent of molecular 234 techniques in the late 1970s, however, has revolutionized our capabilities of identifying and characterizing plant and human pathogens globally. Techniques such as DNA 235 236 barcoding and next-generation DNA sequencing, combined with sequences derived from 237 reference fungal cultures or unknown species available in public and subscription-based 238 repositories, do much to resolve diagnostic dilemmas about cryptic fungal pathogen species 239 (Kulik et al. 2020)

240 The major advantages of molecular diagnosis are that researchers and practitioners are no longer required to retrieve and grow pathogens from culture, they can rapidly 241 identify the presence and absence of pathogens in substrates such as air, water, and soil. 242 243 Additionally, they can identify plant pathogens from infected plant tissues that might have been colonized by bacterial symbionts, viruses, and viroids. Furthermore, molecular 244 245 diagnosis facilitates the analysis of soil and root systems that can reveal the presence of 246 secondary and environmental contaminants and saprophytes in the laboratory and nursery 247 environment. These capabilities support effective management and control outbreaks as they occur. High-throughput next-generation DNA diagnostics, especially metagenomic 248 249 techniques combined with reverse transcription-quantitative PCR and advanced host-250 induced gene silencing have significantly innovative the study of disease dynamics and emergence. Having a molecular reference database sitting at the end user's desktop or 251 252 secure server manned by competent curators is extremely important (Sahajpal et al. 2021; 253 Suminda et al. 2022; Zhao et al. 2024). This can result in faster pathogen spread rates or a reduction in the effect of management actions themselves over time, eventually making a 254

data-based management program obsolete. Next-generation sequencing has increased our 255 256 understanding of pathogen diversity around the world, along with the selective pressures 257 influencing its evolution and that of its host plants. Random gene and core-genome 258 sequence selection combined with genome-resolved studies of microbe communities in plant pathology provide a way of understanding the true nature of pathogen and commensal 259 260 biology on diseases such as Panama disease of banana and the impact of protection agents in sustainable development. In addition to molecular detection, pathogen activity can be 261 262 tracked using molecular assays. The field is now embracing gene expression of actively growing fungal spores and mycelium directly exposed to commercial control products in 263 264 addition to the development of dried down spore-based gene assays (Garcia-Garcia et al. 2021; Liu et al. 2023; Altindiş & Kahraman Kilbaş, 2023). 265

## 266 Climate Change Adaptations of Fungal Plant Pathogens

Global climate change has been causing more frequent and intense weather events 267 that are a major factor in the emergence of diseases and famine in natural and agricultural 268 269 ecosystems. Because of their great variety and host essentiality, fungi are already 270 recognized as a class of plant diseases that can tolerate harsh environmental conditions. Some fungi that cause plant diseases may change to a more virulent form in order to live 271 272 and procreate in a different climate. In reaction to climate change, they could also directly 273 or indirectly alter their host selection. Moreover, due to their short life spans and large life 274 cycles, there is also a chance of a dynamic shift of fungal plant pathogens (Rienth et al. 275 2021; Singh et al. 2023; Lahlali et al. 2024).

Numerous investigations on how pathogen dynamics are affected by climate 276 277 change have been carried out to date, and a number of these research have been examined. 278 The ecological and epidemiological ramifications of the fungal infections that arise in 279 response to these conditions are yet unknown, despite the fact that the effects of climate 280 change on bacterial, viral, and nematode pathogens have drawn increasing attention. The 281 adaptive response of fungal plant diseases to climate change and the impact of warmer and more variable weather on host-pathogen interactions are the main topics of this succinct 282 283 and topical study. It discusses topics such as potential interactions, including temperature 284 and physicochemical effects, and hypotheses to predict the ecological and epidemiological implications of changing host-pathogen interactions corresponding to changes in climate 285 regimes. This review also addresses that ongoing and future research on dynamic fungal 286 287 pathogens will be essential to establish and assess the validity of these assumptions and to 288 develop practical strategies to minimize the effects of crop losses from pest management 289 as well as human and animal parasitic fungi (Fones et al. 2020).

# 290 Shifts in Geographic Distribution

In response to climate change, substantial attention has been given to the expansion and contraction in the geographic distribution of wildlife. Several pathogens have already undergone marked shifts in their distribution as a consequence of climate change. These distributional alterations often occur when pathogens that attuned to specific climatic conditions are exposed to altered conditions (Stokholm et al. 2020; Vollset et al. 2022; Baker et al. 2022). One well-documented example of this phenomenon is the northward spread of avian malaria in New Zealand: tighter minimum temperature constraints at the
northern limit may prevent transmission and disease in native land birds. Similarly,
emerging human diseases are often reported to be moving into areas that have historically
been considered disease-free because of unsuitable environmental conditions (Legge et al.
2022; Wen et al. 2022).

302 Ectotrophic root and bark fungi have very strict environmental requirements, and 303 their species composition often varies according to more macro-climatic variables only, 304 such as latitude and altitude. Many fungi will be adapted to specific temperature minima 305 and maxima, as well as humidity and other specific micro-climatic variables. A change in temperature, or in precipitation and humidity regimes, may affect the abundance of 306 ascospores post-dispersal and in the atmosphere, while water circulation below ground 307 308 within the host plant root system may also be affected. Warmer temperatures may also 309 affect whole tree phenology, which in turn may affect the invasion and colonization potential for root and shoot pathogens (Saidi et al. 2023). Climate change and other 310 processes that increase the likelihood of cross-boundary movement can facilitate biological 311 312 invasions by pathogens. Another possible outcome of the international commerce in plant 313 products is the introduction of new diseases into the host plants' natural range. These 314 invasion processes may result in increased competition amongst diseases, with the victor frequently relying on certain co-evolutionary characteristics. To protect and preserve the 315 world's food supply, it is imperative to detect and examine worldwide patterns in the 316 317 emergence of these novel and alien infections in order to track the possible effects of future 318 disease risks (Potapov et al. 2022).

319 Climate and geographic shifts can result in new pathogens colonizing new hosts. 320 This is important both in terms of disease risk to new hosts and to the potential evolutionary 321 implications for the newly colonizing pathogen. It is noticeable that many of the newly emerging pathogens are becoming established on new host plants in areas where they could 322 323 not initially (Baker et al. 2022). This probably occurs through selection of more generalist races to the previously confined hosts. Infected material along with global shipping and 324 325 travel continue to be the main causes of emerging and new plant pathogens (Kafle et al. 326 2020; Hauser et al. 2021; Singh et al. 2023). New pathogens in new host ranges and 327 distribution limits in native pathogens are important to understand in light of current 328 climate change so that invasive pests can be quickly reported and controlled outside their 329 native host range to slow the natural spread and minimize impacts on native plant, forest, 330 and crop systems (Boeger et al. 2022). Monitoring of disease aliens and use of computer-331 based models to predict the potential spread and impacts of future disease threats, including expected climate warming scenarios, is essential for improved evaluative and management 332 333 procedures (Brooks et al. 2022; Jiranek et al. 2023; de et al. 2023; Casu et al. 2024).

# 334 Case Studies of Fungal Plant Pathogens in Changing Climates

### 335 **Case Study 1:**

A Warming Mediterranean Basin Warmer winters are reducing the snowpack in the Sierra Nevada and decreasing moisture in the transition zone. Along with the increase in several pests throughout the state, *Phytophthora cinnamomi* appears to be spreading 339 northward. (Serrano et al. 2021). The fact that accessible soil moisture for several months 340 of the year has been inversely connected with illness in various parts of the region makes this rather contradictory. The pathogen's human mobility on nursery stock may be 341 342 influencing its northward expansion (Noah et al. 2021; Gustafson et al. 2022). From a global standpoint, eucalypts are a host of this disease, which mostly affects oaks and other 343 trees in the Fagaceae family and is a severe issue in many natural and ornamental 344 345 environments. The forestry sector in Australia is significantly impacted by this. Climate 346 may further restrict the pathogen's distribution in Tasmania, the only significant eucalyptgrowing location where it is thought to be nonexistent. It may be especially pertinent in the 347 348 context of this study since the pathogen's distribution is limited by variables other than 349 climate, and because it has been shown to evolve several strategies for long-term survival 350 in less-than-ideal environments, meaning changes may be gradual and intricate (Sáenz-351 Romero et al. 2020; Woodward et al. 2022)

## 352 **Case Study 2:**

353 In the Midwestern United States, the northern range limit of white pine pathogen was positively correlated with increased winter temperatures. In addition to the range limit 354 355 expansion, the timing of disease in terms of spring temperatures relative to leaf emergence 356 was also shown to be of epidemiological significance, influencing the buildup of the 357 inoculum within host tissues to cause an epidemic and recognition of resistance mechanisms (Dudney et al. 2020; Lalande et al. 2020; Schoettle et al. 2022). Many factors 358 359 establish the ability of a new infection center to become established each year. Other speculate that S. tsugae may spread most successfully with significant cultural or economic 360 aid. More data is needed to increase our understanding of these and other factors driving 361 362 pathogen and its population distributional ranges, and behavior during future exotic introductions and developing research, especially internationally, is focusing on the area 363 (Kichas et al. 2020; Stern et al. 2021; Six et al. 2021; Cardinal et al. 2022; Sniezko et al. 364 365 2024).

### 366 Impact on Agricultural Systems

367 Given the evolving mechanisms by which infections influence disease prevalence, 368 the scientific community is extremely concerned about the emergence of novel fungal 369 epidemics in agricultural systems. These particular effects of fungal plant diseases' 370 dynamic response to climate change will be the main topic of this subsection. A changing population structure in the range or share of different fungi and breeding types will have 371 372 suboptimal effects on the host's external disease prevalence (Fones et al. 2020; Fisher et al. 373 2020; Ristaino et al. 2021). If a higher fraction of a pathogen population of a given type is 374 part of a coordinated group of individuals, there will be increased links, such as parallel 375 epidemics, that may elevate external disease prevalence relative to the disease that would 376 occur with the same average pathogen population size. This disease prevalence is removed from the total pathogen population and left as sub-optimally low seeds. Similarly, if the 377 378 increased fraction of a pathogen type changes the proportion of the pathogen population 379 that seeks to make links inside the host rather than create offspring through asexual 380 reproduction, it will increase growth. A pathogen atop a target under specific conditions

with changing temperature can affect a wide range of other suboptimal conditions, having
 more aggregate effects on total transmission pathways (Belgacem et al. 2021).

In modern agriculture, handling diseases and pathogens are generally reactive rather than proactive. Production systems are usually designed to increase crop yield and hence economic profit rather than withstand ecologically driven perturbations such as climate change. Now that the most acute consequences of climate change on food security are being addressed, greater understanding will enable adaptation. A lack of inclusion of the response of plant pathology to climate change suggests that these changes will not be addressed in time to avert damage to food security (Fisher et al. 2020).

390 Disease management is a significant factor in shaping adaptive capacity in 391 agroecosystems, especially in less developed regions due to limited technology and lack of 392 infrastructure for pathogens and disease research for development. In the twenty-first 393 century, fungal diseases are estimated to have destroyed 125 million tons of major crops, 394 worth \$70 billion. From cotton to coffee to cacao, fungal diseases affecting crops impact the rural poor. Current approaches to mitigating the impact of existing and emergent 395 396 diseases are costly, and resistance development is one of the largest expenses in the 397 vegetable industry (Khakimov et al. 2020; Shukla et al. 2022; Masih 2024). If resistant 398 crop varieties are not provided for specific diseases, disease can be expected to cause small 399 losses in crop yield. For example, under a specific scenario, there is a 90 % likelihood of 400 an increase of 0-5% in rice disease incidence in Asia, which will produce a 1.2-2.1%decrease in global caloric availability. These direct yield losses are further added to yield 401 402 reductions caused by climate change, even though the combined effects of climate change 403 and pathogens are subject to significant uncertainty, compounded by seed sensitivity to 404 increased temperatures (Mahadevakumar and Sridhar 2021). For an average farm situated in a specific scenario, out of a base of 4–16 beats equal costs or above that of the standard 405 management scenario. The magnitude of these combined effects on a per-hectare basis 406 407 seems less significant; the estimated loss only exceeds the 2.5% standard error from the yield and price averaging technique for durum wheat and rapeseed, as higher seed prices 408 409 are balanced by lower pesticide expenses (Fones et al. 2020).

### 410 **Predictive Modeling of Fungal Pathogen Dynamics in a Changing Climate**

Ongoing climate change poses a novel and complex ecological challenge for both 411 412 plant pathologists and the society that relies on agricultural production. Innovative and integrative research is desperately needed to keep up with the rapid emergence of new and 413 414 more aggressive biotic threats. This section examines the role that climatic variables have 415 in risk assessment and predictive modeling of fungal plant pathogen dynamics. Predictive, mechanistic, and eco-physiological modeling are highlighted, along with a discussion of 416 various alternative ecological and statistical methodologies that have been employed 417 418 (Occhibove et al. 2020; Jeger et al. 2021; Singh et al. 2023). Several studies have predicted range expansion, local adaptation of strains along climate-induced gradients, or have 419 420 projected the expected evolution or spread of pathogens under different increasing future 421 scenarios. Understanding the general biology and ecological context of the examined 422 pathogen through separate experimental research is a crucial prerequisite for assessing the prediction value of these methods (Gullino et al. 2022). Linking and integrating the two 423

424 different levels of modeling could form the basis for developing new tools to study changes425 in biotic interactions (Lahlali et al. 2024)

426 A vital part of verifying and implementing any new scientific achievement is its possible societal value. In the context of producing food, predictive modeling studies can 427 play a prominent role in planning and implementing forward-looking strategies for coping 428 429 with a shifting climate and pathogen landscape at field, regional, and global levels. Such 430 scenarios already hold the potential to inform management decisions such as whether or 431 which new crop or new agricultural practice can be tried or developed for a given area 432 within a certain time frame (Sheng et al. 2021; Rolnick et al. 2022). On the other hand, predictive modeling approaches may suffer from significant statistical uncertainty, as they 433 include some sources of variation that interact in unpredictable ways. The models must be 434 435 carefully validated and regarded as an evolving enterprise. Their speculative nature necessitates close interdisciplinary cooperation and comparison with experimental and on-436 437 field surveys (Gomez-Zavaglia et al. 2020; Rellstab et al. 2021; Ridwan et al. 2021)

### 438 Simulation and Data Analysis Techniques

439 This section provides an overview of different types of simulation and data analysis 440 techniques that might be used for predictive modeling of fungal plant pathogens. It outlines 441 the various computational tools and software that can be used to model pathogen dynamics under different climatic variables and how to represent these climatic variables (Gökalp et 442 443 al. 2021; Zhang et al. 2023). It also talks about how creating a trustworthy data-driven 444 model requires the use of high-quality data. A model's outputs must be interpreted using 445 mathematical or statistical techniques, which address uncertainty and validate the model's dependability. A summary of the several simulation and data analysis methods that may be 446 447 applied to data-driven modeling is given (Fisher et al. 2020; Liu et al. 2022; Adeniran et al. 2024). 448

449 The simulation techniques used in predictive modeling produce computergenerated approximations of the outputs of an experiment or a model at a given time. One 450 451 of the main purposes of using simulation tools to investigate pathogen progress under varying climatic conditions is to shine light on areas of parametric or structural sensitivity 452 453 that require more investigation. The combination of the model's biological assumptions and input parameters is one of the fundamental suggestions that need investigation. An 454 455 important factor that has to be considered is the step-by-step examination of the many model components that are thought to affect the pathogen dynamics as triggered by the 456 457 environmental variables (Delplace et al. 2022; Lahlali et al. 2024). There is different 458 validation procedures associated with simulation techniques, and their role is to evaluate 459 the level of trustworthiness of the estimated outputs.

Model validation provides one possible answer to the question, how good is our model? Sensitivity analysis as part of the simulation techniques allows for the reduction of the model's complexity and practical constraints. Simulations are used to take into account the random occurrence of each event when predicting pathogen behavior under varying climatic variables (Motamedi et al. 2022; Singh et al. 2023). Model flexibility is important in ensuring that the model is a viable decision-making tool for agriculture. The validation of our data and model predictions can be tested to demonstrate the model's robustness for
future projections. Given this, the use of real-world case studies is an essential part of our
approach. Two case studies are provided to present the function of the simulation
techniques, in which they cover examples of the plant pathogens (Ristaino et al. 2021;
Salahshoori et al. 2024)

## 471 Mitigation Strategies for Managing Fungal Plant Pathogens in a Changing Climate

It seems sense to create suitable mitigation methods to reduce risks while examining the possible effects of climate change on plant pathogen dynamics. The creation and upkeep of reliable monitoring systems will help anticipate shifts in pathogen behavior and enable the effective distribution of resources to control disease outbreaks when they happen. This information will then be utilized to guide extension initiatives that try to get stakeholders ready for preventative measures (Singh et al. 2023; Olatunji et al. 2024)

478 In the absence of a 'silver bullet' that would reduce risk across all systems, a 479 combination of management strategies is likely to be the most useful. Integrated pest 480 management programs are often recommended as a way of attacking the pathogen on 481 multiple fronts and are also likely to be better suited to tackling the complexities of a 482 changing disease scenario. Developing resistant cultivars to lower the danger of pathogen 483 establishment and dissemination is the primary goal of breeding and biotechnology in the fight against fungal plant diseases for public use (Baker et al. 2020). By engaging and 484 485 funding research that increases the capacities of all stakeholders, a range of local and landscape-specific management strategies to lessen the effects of a changing climate may 486 be developed. Plant disease dynamics models and/or farm-level and/or regional weather 487 monitoring systems most certainly played a part. For example, utilizing information on 488 489 recent local disease observations to forecast when a fungicide treatment is necessary (Deguine et al. 2021). Knowledge-based decision-making is made possible by the creation 490 491 and upkeep of monitoring and reporting systems, the evaluation of possible effects of 492 modifications to support well-informed management choices, and the incorporation of the 493 effects of biotic and abiotic factors in plant disease simulation models for both primary 494 producers and policymakers. Involving stakeholders in research is essential to ensuring that 495 end users can properly receive the management methods that have been discovered.

496 To address any possible obstacles to the adoption of proactive or preventative 497 measures, social and agricultural science disciplines should do research on the socioeconomic and adaptive behavioral concerns related to the application of management 498 499 systems. Sustainable management of a shifting pathogen environment requires long-term approaches that address pathogen life-cycle obstacles and agricultural systems' general 500 501 vulnerability, maybe by leveraging host resistance. Making sure legislators understand the 502 advantages of the management alternatives discussed might lead to adjustments that protect 503 delicate agricultural systems and eventually lessen the effects of fungal diseases on crop 504 yields (Aiello et al. 2022; Singh et al. 2023)

In an increasingly competitive market, pressure is on all agricultural producers to
 increase production costs and efficiency while meeting standards for food safety and
 quality. Although the multiplicative structure of models may be used to overlook relatively

508 unusual events, agricultural components like vineyards, the dairy sector, and flowers 509 cultivated for export might have significant economic imperatives to demonstrate that disease pressures and management apply throughout full seasons. The primary economic 510 511 engine of the agricultural sector, broadacre cropping, has been the focus of early research on the effects of climate change on disease (Harries et al. 2020; Khanal et al. 2021). 512 513 Developing and adapting research outcomes to different horticultural cropping industries, organic clients, and outdoor versus undercover fruit and vegetable growers will build on 514 515 this initial work and further develop adaptive innovation practices. The use of such longterm negative binomial processes for disease dynamics in this sector will also be 516 517 encouraged by the provision of solid data on the effects and tactics in specific horticultural 518 agricultural businesses (Bondad et al. 2023)

#### 519 **Biological Control Methods**

520 Biological control is one of the fundamental management techniques that may be 521 used to the enormous problem of managing fungal plant diseases in agriculture worldwide. 522 The term "biological control" refers to the use of a natural antagonist that either directly results in high plant pathogen death or inhibits the activities of diseases. Beneficial bacteria 523 and fungi in particular are known to generate or stimulate a variety of hydrolytic and other 524 525 antifungal chemicals that can aid in suppressing soil pathogens and, as a result, have the ability to lower infection. In many instances, it is still necessary to comprehend the 526 527 processes by which these biological control agents operate (Palmieri et al. 2022). Three fungal infections are said to be controlled by these, either in fields or in the natural habitat 528 529 of plants. Depending on ecological particularity, they can be used in low- or high-input 530 agriculture. Probiotics may have unintended side effects, and appropriate bioformulations 531 will need to be investigated.

532 It is advised that probiotics be used in conjunction with other management 533 techniques like companion planting and farmyard waste to make their use low input and sustainable over the long run (Tariq et al. 2020). Meanwhile, one of the easiest biological 534 control agents for farmers to use has been Bacillus subtilis rods, which contain the small 535 protein lipopeptide surfactants iturin and fengycin. These compounds penetrate the fungal 536 537 spore coat and plasma membrane, causing death for the spores and fungal mycelia to shrink. A marginal note here on biological control in general is that currently, while there 538 has been significant groundwork done to assess their effectiveness, there are no published 539 540 efficacy figures on using biocontrol for pathogen management in the wild or in commercial 541 agriculture using a sustainable farming approach (Tariq et al. 2020). Nonetheless, it is 542 essential to talk about real-world examples of enhancing crop resilience in various systems. 543 The way biocontrol integrates with the plants' natural habitat, the right dosage, and the 544 treatment window are some important success elements that might affect how effective biocontrol is in agriculture. Increasing the ability for beneficials to spread from the carrier 545 system is the aim of interacting with the local microecology of soils and the plant being 546 cultivated. However, in order for biocontrol or other tactics to be successful in their 547 farming, farmers will want sound guidance on these factors (Ons et al. 2020; Palmieri et 548 549 al. 2022).

#### 550 Genomic Approaches in Pathogen Research

551 The use of genomic techniques in research on fungal plant diseases has grown in 552 recent years. Full-genome sequences of a variety of pathogenic fungal strains, including 553 those belonging to the most economically significant pathogen families, are now possible 554 due to rapid advancements in sequencing technology and significant cost reductions. 555 Whole-genome sequencing is important because it not only allows the identification of 556 candidate pathogenicity and virulence factors either through a de novo approach or through 557 homology search, but it also increasingly reveals fundamental aspects of the biology of the pathogen of interest, such as life history, population connectivity, and selective pressures 558 559 acting on the pathogens, which are important facets of pathogen population genetics and 560 evolutionary studies (Palmieri et al. 2022).

561 Because targeted mutation may be more readily carried out in gene areas that lack functional similarity in the host, the availability of genomic information can enhance 562 563 genetics research. Furthermore, the availability of whole-genome sequences can aid in the 564 creation of more resilient crop varieties by controlling marker-assisted selection of host gene alterations at will. Thus, the availability of a full set of reference sequences for host 565 566 and pathogen, combined with a better understanding of gene conservation, can be exploited 567 to propose cataloging of genes highly conserved between host and pathogens, which can 568 be used as effector targets for enhancing crop resistance in the long term and safe allele selection for gene deployment and conventional breeding of new crop cultivars in the short 569 570 term. Finally, the described research can be carried out in parallel with field trials and data acquisition, which, if relevant to the constructed parameters, can be directly added to the 571 572 model to provide a comprehensive view of pathogen dynamics. Integrating high-573 throughput, methodical methodologies to patshogen research present a number of 574 significant hurdles (El-Baky & Amara, 2021). One of these challenges is the interpretation 575 of these mixed data requires robust computational tools that can identify, link, and 576 prioritize candidate genes in high data dimensionality. Furthermore, there is some historical 577 precedent for the ethical issues raised by the use of pathogen sequencing data. Indeed, one can and should argue that out of respect for public safety, such studies should only be 578 579 undertaken with the utmost caution by a well-regulated research community living up to 580 its responsibilities (Hariharan and Prasannath 2021). Nevertheless, using cutting-edge molecular genetic technologies is an identified responsibility under European law. At this 581 point, it is difficult to envisage any significant advances in our understanding of pathogens 582 583 available to researchers not exploiting genomics or similar cutting-edge molecular genetic approaches. Arguably, there are wider societal benefits to such studies, particularly those 584 585 that provide feasible alternatives and safe research to undertake (Yadav et al. 2023; 586 Chethana et al. 2021).

RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) technology has been widely used to provide important
insights into the interactions between plants and pathogens (Nibedita and Jolly, 2017).
Accurate recording of host transcriptome responses during infections is made possible by
this method. Consequently, RNA-seq is a sophisticated technique to unravel the molecular
mechanism behind these interactions, as evidenced by the hundreds of transcriptome
profiling studies that have been conducted too far (Tyagi et al., 2022). These methods

593 would also help with the ongoing discovery of novel resistance genes, which is essential for enhancing resistance to biotic stressors and laying the groundwork for future breeding 594 595 initiatives (Zambounis et al., 2020, Doddaraju et al., 2021). For example, the pomegranate genome has 186 R2R3-MYB transcription factors (TFs) that regulate defensive responses, 596 597 metabolite accumulation, and plant growth; the U-box gene family, which is implicated in abiotic stressors, has a similar function (Chen et al., 2023; Suo et al., 2023). These days, 598 599 expenses are going down and RNA-seq technology is becoming more useful because to the use of cutting-edge next generation sequencing (NGS) platforms like Illumina and 600 Single-molecule realtime (SMRT) sequencing (Li et al., 2018; Naidoo et al., 2018). There 601 602 is currently a study vacuum in the transcriptional profiles of pomegranate fruits following 603 challenge with C. granati, despite the fact that similar methods have recently been used on the fruits and petals of other deciduous trees to understand the defense responses against 604 605 fungal infections (Aci et al., 2024; Tsalgatidou et al., 2024a,b).

## 606 Future Research Directions and Emerging Technologies

607 Due to a combination of rising temperatures, increased moisture availability, and shifting natural and agricultural environment acclimatizations, most diseases are predicted 608 to grow, which has drawn attention to plant pathology. As a result, in addition to thoroughly 609 outlining the dynamics connected to every patho-system and agro-ecosystem, future study 610 611 will necessitate other methodologies from those presented in this review and created thus far (Baker et al. 2022). These alternatives can be broken down into at least five: the use of 612 machine learning and artificial intelligence to analyze accumulated data; basic research on 613 the genetics of pathogens and their evolution; use of various technologies to decipher 614 metabolic and signaling pathways that are important for pathogens; interdisciplinary and 615 multidisciplinary approaches; and the need to involve practitioners and intermediaries in 616 617 developing data-based predictive models (Mora et al. 2022)

618 For the study of system pathologies, which were defined by constant 619 communication between practitioners and modelers, a number of networks have recently 620 been formed. These efforts have to be expanded and based on collaboration with transdisciplinary and multidisciplinary organizations in addition to practitioners and 621 622 modelers (Rehman et al. 2022). Needless to mention, but it should be said, all of the above priorities imply an integration of research skills in the same research team rather than the 623 sum of results obtained by distinct researchers who work independently but interchange 624 625 comments about the results (Van et al. 2021).

Finally, however, the co-evolution of plants and a changing environment has not yet been addressed. It is likely that changing climate patterns and new farming practices will challenge the control strategies currently in place. In fact, there are indications that, for example, quantitative resistance will behave differently in a changed climate (Syed et al. 2022).

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