



# Disease Modeling as a Tool to Assess the Impacts of Climate Variability on Plant Diseases and Health

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Muhammad Zeeshan Mehmood, Obaid Afzal,  
Muhammad Aqeel Aslam, Hasan Riaz, Muhammad Ali Raza,  
Shakeel Ahmed, Ghulam Qadir, Mukhtar Ahmad,  
Farid Asif Shaheen, Fayyaz-ul-Hassan, and Zahid Hussain Shah

## Abstract

Biotic stress is one of the major environmental factors that affect the plant's growth and life cycle. Plant pathogens are major constraints and severe threats to agricultural production in changing climate scenarios. The effects of climate variability on plant diseases and pathogens have been examined in various plant pathosystems. Climate change is predicted to affect the development of pathogens, their survival, vigor, sporulation, multiplicity, and host susceptibility that ultimately cause changes in the crop diseases. It also affects the inoculum dispersion and pathogenicity. These effects vary depending on pathosystems and geographic locations. Climate change not only affects optimal conditions of infection but also host specificity and infection mechanism in plants.

M. Z. Mehmood (✉) · O. Afzal · M. A. Aslam · G. Qadir · Fayyaz-ul-Hassan  
Department of Agronomy, Pir Mehr Ali Shah Arid Agriculture University, Rawalpindi, Pakistan

H. Riaz  
Institute of Plant Protection, MNS University of Agriculture, Multan, Pakistan

M. A. Raza  
College of Agronomy, Sichuan Agricultural University, Chengdu, Sichuan, China

S. Ahmed  
Department of Agronomy, Bahauddin Zakariya University, Multan, Pakistan

M. Ahmad  
Department of Agronomy, Pir Mehr Ali Shah Arid Agriculture University, Rawalpindi, Pakistan  
Department of Agricultural Research for Northern Sweden, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, Umeå, Sweden

F. A. Shaheen  
Department of Entomology, PMAS Arid Agriculture University, Rawalpindi, Pakistan

Z. H. Shah  
Department of Plant Breeding & Genetics, Pir Mehr Ali Shah Arid Agriculture University, Rawalpindi, Pakistan

Temperature, light, and humidity are the major factors that control the development and growth of diseases. So, climate change is an emerging challenge that is impacting and driving the plants and pathogens growth, disease development in a pathosystem. This overview is aimed to summarize the previous research, reviews, opinions, and recent trends in studying the effects of climate variability on pathogens and plants health. However, managing and predicting climate change impacts are complicated because of the interaction between the indirect effects and global climate change drivers. Similarly, uncertainty in plant disease development models in changing climate needs the diversification in management strategies. Protection of plants against diseases and pathogens is an essential direction for researchers to make the plants more resistant to pests and diseases. There is a need for further research in different areas under multiple climate-changing factors and scenarios using the disease modeling frameworks such as BIOMA and APSIM-DYMEX.

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**Keywords**

Pathosystems Climate change Biotic stress Disease modeling

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## 12.1 Introduction

Change in the statistical distribution of weather for an extended period of time is called climate change. The end of the twentieth century and the start of the twenty-first century were the warmest periods globally. The availability of information on the effects of climate variability upon plant diseases is very limited. It was documented that plant diseases will be affected by the changing climate like other global change components (Regniere 2011; Bradley et al. 2012). The influence of the environment on plant disease is considered by plant pathologists disease studies, and the disease triangle illustrates the interaction among host plants, environment, and pathogen for disease development (Grunke 2011). Climate variability is one of the ways in which the environment can be suppressive or conducive for disease (Ahmed 2020; Ahmed and Stockle 2016; Perkins et al. 2011; Fuhrer 2003). Therefore plant diseases are indicators of climate variability (Garrett et al. 2015). Since the last decade plant virus distribution and the population is increasing swiftly as well as many new infectious diseases are also identified. Plant diseases are not only accelerated by increased activity of pathogens but also due to declined tolerance in plants as a result of adverse environmental conditions (Huseynova et al. 2014). Anthropogenic activities are the important causes of plant diseases spread; sudden oak death is an example of these activities (Prospero et al. 2009). Climate variability is impacting the plants in agriculture ecosystems globally (Stern 2008). Little work has been carried out on modeling the impacts of climate variability on disease epidemics in plants. However, several tree diseases are emerging because of climate change (Garrett et al. 2006; Garrett et al. 2015). This change is affecting the crops directly as well as indirectly by interacting with microbial pests and resulting in

several disease epidemics in plants (Bosch et al. 2007; Chakraborty 2005). A variety of mechanisms can affect the health of plants in changing climates such as acceleration in pathogen evolution, fewer incubation periods, and extreme climatic events (Sutherst et al. 2011). Climate change is impacting the hosts and pathogens directly and indirectly by altering their physiology (Desprez-Loustau et al. 2006; Garbelotto et al. 2010).

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## 12.2 Recently Occurred Changes

Climate variability has been measured, and these changes have been associated with plant pathosystems. Environment and climatic conditions strongly affect the plant diseases in the forests. Pathogens, moisture, temperature, and stress interaction influence the severity of infections and diseases. Climate changes result in the involvement of more invasive species and increase stress on plants leading to the condition that is favorable for diseases in plants. Changes in temperature, moisture, and precipitation in North America were associated with tree death events (Van Mantgem et al. 2009; Sturrock et al. 2011). In central Europe rise in winter temperature and fluctuations in the rain favored the root rot diseases in forests by supporting infection through *Phytophthora* spp. (Jung 2009). At Oregon coast climatic changes resulted in the Swiss needle epidemic, and a further increase of 0.4 °C in temperature is predicted by 2050 in Pacific Northwest forests that will further increase the severity of the epidemic and increase the outbreak (Stone et al. 2008; Sturrock et al. 2011). In Oregon and California sudden death of Oak trees caused by *Phytophthora ramorum* abruptly increased due to extreme climatic events. Heavy rains and extension of moist weather in warm season favor the infection in plants and lead to the death (Swiecki and Bernhardt 2016; Frankel 2007). In Europe study was carried out for *Phytophthora cinnamomi* in Oak. Results demonstrated that an increase in temperature worsens the root disease (Brasier 1996; Brasier and Scott 1994). A similar study was carried out for eucalyptus (Booth et al. 2000). In Alaska yellow cedar tree's mortality rate is also increasing due to changing climatic conditions. As earlier, melting of snow exposed roots to the cold conditions that result in freezing and cause injury (Thompson 2007).

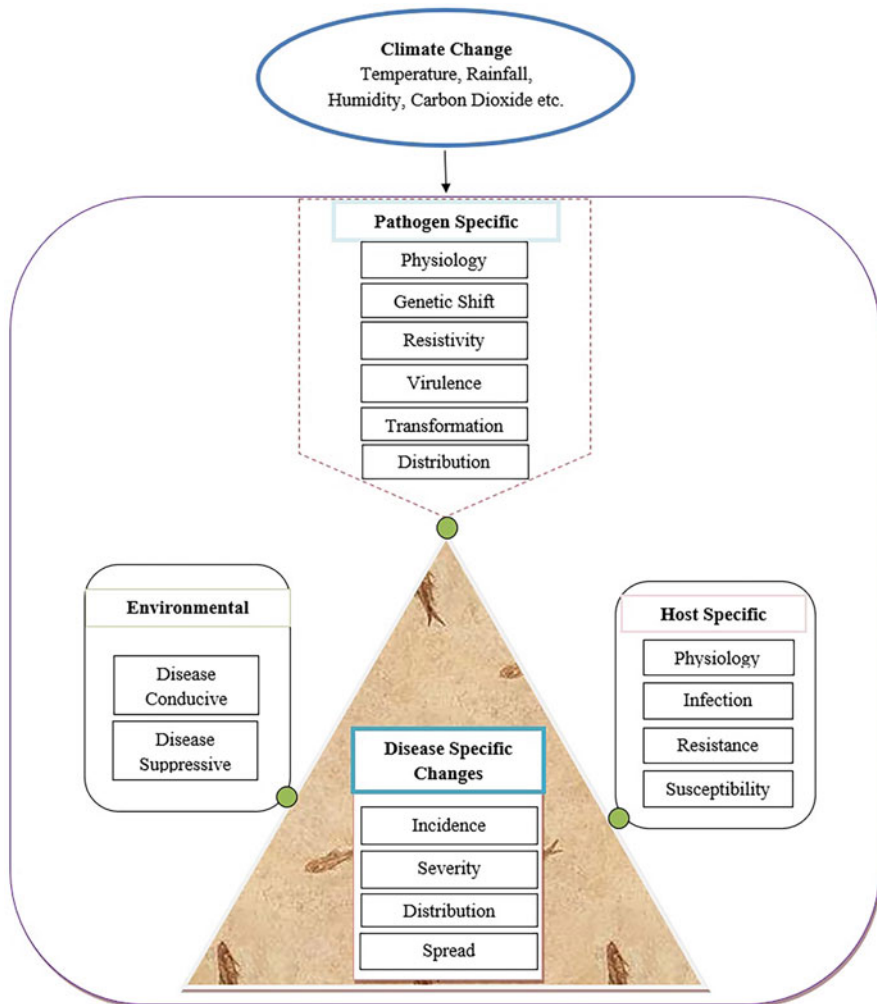
Several studies were carried out to assess the climate change impacts on plant diseases. Most studies investigated the head blight, leaf rust and blotch in wheat, downy mildew in grapes, and phoma stem canker in oilseed rapes. These studies are mostly carried out in European countries and Brazil (Juroszek and von Tiedemann 2015). However, rice is a major crop in Asian countries, and rice blast is an important disease that results in major losses in rice production. Luo et al. (1995) conducted an analysis of the blast epidemic produced by *Magaporthe grisea*. Results showed that change in rainfall has no impacts, while in subtropical regions, disease severity is increased because of high temperatures. However, the opposite trend was observed in humid areas. An experiment was conducted to study the impacts on soil-borne pathogens. Results showed an increase in damping-off in cotton plants under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> (Ahmad and Hasanuzzaman 2020; Runion et al. 1994). In barley an

increase in growth was observed at high CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations but after the infection of powdery mildew, the growth was retarded (Hibberd et al. 1996). The incidence of leaf rust was studied in spring wheat under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> and ozone. The infection rate was inhibited by the ozone; however, ozone damage on leaves was altered by infection and CO<sub>2</sub> (Tiedemann and Firsching 2000). Temperature evaluation can increase the yellow dwarf symptoms in wheat and barley (Mikkelsen et al. 2015). In maize crop, increased CO<sub>2</sub> makes it more prone to *Fusarium* (Vaughan et al. 2014). *Fusarium* Crown rot diseases in wheat increased with more CO<sub>2</sub> (Melloy et al. 2014) while reduced in elevated temperature (Vary et al. 2015). Increased CO<sub>2</sub> effects were studied on a C<sub>3</sub> *Scirpus olneyi*, and the C<sub>4</sub> grass *Spartina patens*. However, shoot N and water content were also determined. Plants with increased CO<sub>2</sub> levels showed an increase of 37% in resistance while in reduced N and increased water content the disease severity was also enhanced (Thompson and Drake 1994). Similarly, in Finland, climate variability will affect potato production. The risk of potato blight resulted from *Phytophthora infestans* will be increased and a nematode called *Globodera rostochiensis* will also be distributed all over the country because it has the ability to support many generations in a single year (Carter et al. 1996). In tomato plants, climate change will not affect diseases like white mold, late blight, verticillium wilt, septoria leaf spot, and tomato mosaic. But the importance of powdery mildew, early blight, bacterial wilt, and leaf curl will increase (Gioria et al. 2008).

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## 12.3 Climate Change Impacts on Pathogens

The rise in temperature may initiate the growth and development of inactive pathogens (Fig. 12.1). Temperature and rainfall changes may cause alteration in growth, rate of progress, physiology, and resistivity of the host (Chakraborty and Datta 2003). Temperature affects the diseases caused by bacteria like *Acidovorax avenae*, *Ralstonia solanacearum*, and *Burkholderia glumae*. Bacteria can move to the areas where temperature depending diseases are not previously noticed (Kudela 2009). As the rise in temperature reduce winter length, whereas growth and reproduction of pathogens get modified (Ladanyi and Horvath 2010). Researches indicated that wheat and oats are becoming more susceptible to the rust disease due to the increase in temperature and humidity, while resistant has been shown by few forage species to alleviated temperatures (Coakley et al. 1999). In the cold duration of the year, warming can release cold stress but in the hot period of the year, it increases heat stress. Various models have been used for forecasting the epidemics based on the rise in pathogen growth and infection in a specific range of temperatures. Fungi that are causing the disease to plant at cold temperatures experience longer suitable temperature periods for reproduction and growth in a warmer climate. Late blight epidemic became more severe and required more fungicide to control diseases if warm temperature onset earlier. These effects of increased temperature vary throughout the year as increase in temperature in colder parts may reduce plant stress while in hotter parts it results in increase of alleviated



**Fig. 12.1** Impacts of climate variability on plant diseases

temperature stress. Lower rainfall decreases the incidence of downy mildew infections in grape plants. Temperature and moisture are correlated and affect the pathogens reproduction (Caffarra et al. 2012) and also affect the populations of pathogens (Legler et al. 2012). When the temperature is higher, the moisture will be reduced and result in reduced risk of disease (Desprez-Loustau et al. 2006). Dense canopies result in more moisture and increase leaf wetness that will favor the growth and development of pathogens.

Alleviated  $\text{CO}_2$  impacts both pathogen and host in multiple manners. Under alleviated  $\text{CO}_2$  and temperature, new races are evolving very rapidly, and the population of pathogens is boosted as well as infectious cycles are also increasing

due to favorable climate in the large canopy (Chakraborty 2013). Higher concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub> lead to the increased production of biomass depending on the availability of nutrients and water, weeds, diseases, and pests damage. However, the increased carbohydrates amount in plant tissues favors the biotrophic fungi, that is, rust (Chakraborty and Datta 2003). Therefore, biomass increase can alter the microclimate of plants and also the chances of infection. More CO<sub>2</sub> will result in slow decomposition of residues that will favor in overwintering of harmful organisms and more fungal spore production will occur. Increased CO<sub>2</sub> can affect the growth of pathogens by leading to higher production of fungal spores but it can also cause some physiological alterations in host plants that enhance the resistance against pathogens (Coakley et al. 1999). At higher concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub> growth of germ tube and germination rate were slower in conidium of *C. gleosporioides* fungi but after infection fungi develop quickly and attain sporulation (Chakraborty et al. 2002). Similarly, higher ozone concentration can increase rust infection on the tree of poplar but it is minimized by increased CO<sub>2</sub> (Karnosky et al. 2002).

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## 12.4 Climate Change Impacts on Plants

Plants show alteration in their gene expression in response to the climatic changes, while transcriptome enables plants to respond to these changes (Garrett et al. 2006). Climate variability directly impacts the plant's biology, physiology, biochemical process, and morphology (Fig. 12.1). These changes affect the pathogens colonization, symptoms expression, colonization infection, etc.

Drought can reduce stomatal activity as well as photosynthesis and affect leaf growth and morphology of root and shoot (Ahmed et al. 2020). Temperature and moisture stress affects the plants by changes in abscisic acid, salicylic acid, jasmonic acid, and adversely affect the plant resistance to stresses (Asselbergh et al. 2008). It may also reduce the plant's ability to produce growth and defense substances, making the plant susceptible to pathogens.

Increased CO<sub>2</sub> affect photosynthesis and change the structure of plants as well as affect the functioning of ecosystems. Under increased CO<sub>2</sub> conditions, plant organ size also increases, such as leaves and branches (Pritchard et al. 1999), and water use efficiency of plants also increases (Ahmed and Ahmad 2019; Wong et al. 2002). It results in the humid climate, and plant pathogen infection rate may rise. Similarly, elevated ozone can increase the attack of necrotrophic fungi (Sandermann 2000) because leaf composition and structure are affected by the ozone (Karnosky et al. 2002).

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## 12.5 Climate Change Impacts on Host Resistance

The assessment of plant resistance in the context of climate change is complicated. Under drought conditions, infection rate and success tend to decrease (Huber and Gillespie 1992). Fewer symptoms were observed under drought conditions when

alfalfa plants were exposed to *verticillium albo-atrum* (Pennypacker et al. 1991). However, in some cases, plant resistance is reduced under drought stress (Christiansen 1982). Resistance genes are also affected by temperature, but it is complicated to assess the effect of temperature on resistance genes and pathogen aggressiveness. Effects of temperature on wheat and barley were studied, and the response of resistance was different to different ranges of temperature (Browder and Eversmeyer 1986; Newton and Young 1996). A higher level of ozone and CO<sub>2</sub> also affects the host resistance (Plazek et al. 2001; Plessl et al. 2005). Reduction in host resistance was observed under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> (Chakraborty and Datta 2003). An increase or decrease in the conduciveness of the disease environment due to climate change can cause shifts in the presence and diversity of resistance genes (Fig. 12.1).

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## 12.6 Climate Change Impacts on Microbial Interaction

Climate change is impacting the microbial communities in the soil and causing various shifts in different interactions. Temperature, CO<sub>2</sub>, nitrogen, etc. are the main factors influencing interactions in soils. Increased CO<sub>2</sub> results in a reduction of soil nitrates in grasslands (Barnard et al. 2005) and enhances the nitrogen uptake of plants because of increased growth in plants (Hu et al. 2001). In tallgrass prairies, increased temperature favors plant growth that facilitates fungi dominance in the community and uptake of nitrogen. Lesser availability of nitrogen is experienced by microbial communities, while the type of soil and composition of plants have effects on these observed responses (Hungate et al. 1996). In both agricultural and natural ecosystems prediction of climate change impacts on the disease; suppression is complicated due to variations in the interaction between the microbial species (Davelos et al. 2004). Recent advancements in technology like metagenomic analysis will enhance knowledge about the dynamics of microbes in soil and various environments (Riesenfeld et al. 2004).

Host response to climate change may be affected by symbiosis, as fungal endophytes had shown tolerance to heat, nutrient availability, and water stress (Kannadan and Rudgers 2008; Rodriguez et al. 2008). Brosi et al. (2011) studied the effects of climate change on endophytes, and results concluded that higher infection rates in tall fescue are led by elevated CO<sub>2</sub> levels than the precipitation and temperature.

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## 12.7 Simulation Modeling for Disease Prediction

There are several approaches that can be used in modeling the impacts of climate variability on pathogens and diseases. Different empirical or regressions models can be used to predict the pathogens' success and development of epidemics (Booth et al. 2000). Models can be used for predicting the success of the pathogen in changing environments in the context of a reference climate where pathogens are successful. Climate variability occurs gradually that causes difficulty in studying its effects

directly, and hence simulation models can become helpful in outcomes prediction over broader range scenarios. However, problems have been identified in models application for disease forecasting in climate change scenarios (Schermer 2004; Schermer and Coakley 2003). Major issues involve difficulty in acquiring data regarding climate and epidemiological responses (Otten et al. 2004), disease geographic distribution that may lead to higher uncertainties (Katz 2002; Schermer 2000), and ignorance of adaptation potential of plants in simulation models.

### 12.7.1 History of Disease Modeling

Since the 1960s, models for disease prediction are available, and the first mathematical model was published by Van der Plank (Van der Plank 2013). At the start, the models were empirical. Later on, mechanistic and analytical models were developed. The early model's focus was only based on the units of pathogen and diseased tissue, while the growth of plants was neglected. With the passage of time models for disease prediction became more sophisticated as they included host, environment, and management effects as well. GIS-based models may also be used for disease predictions (Aurambout et al. 2009). At present, a wide range of simple and complex models is in practice for the forecasting and management of disease (Pavan et al. 2011; Rakotonindrainia et al. 2012).

Climate change affects the various stages of crops and pathogens, both directly and indirectly. Pathosystems are generally affected by the response of organisms to climate change. However, it is not well understood whether the effects are either positive or negative. To predict the plant diseases in response to climate change, various models had been used in the past (Table 12.1).

### 12.7.2 Recent Goals and Challenges in Disease Modeling

Integration of crop disease modeling in decision support systems development is mainly dominated by short-term strategic planning to support the scheduling of pesticide application, pest scouting activities, adaptation, and mitigation measures to prevent the diseases (Isard et al. 2015; Magarey et al. 2002). Disease modeling activities are frequently based on the development of relationships using multi-seasonal crop and environmental variables in a specific pest-crop system (Madden et al. 2007). The development of effective decision support systems involves the knowledge of key aspects and dynamics of a system based on the reliable multiple seasonal and specific crop-pest environment data (Madden et al. 2007). Representation of biotic stress and host interaction has been simplified by focusing on the specific environment and pathogens in a system. Moreover, the controlled experiment data can be used to parameterize the model to identify the responses of targeted host and pathogen under a variety of environmental changes. Infection models and Susceptible-Exposed-Infectious-removed (SEIR) models are well-known examples of such disease models (Magarey et al. 2005; Zadoks 1971). For instance, such



**Table 12.1** Models used in different regions of the world to study various crop diseases

Region	Crop	Predicted diseases/Pests	References
Australia	Wheat	Yellow dwarf virus	Nancarrow et al. (2014)
Australia	Wheat	Fusarium crown rot	Vary et al. (2015)
Europe	Wheat	Karnal bunt	Baker et al. (2000)
Europe	Rice	Fungal diseases	Bregaglio et al. (2013)
Brazil	Corn	Rust	Moraes et al. (2011)
Denmark	Barley	Powdery mildew	Mikkelsen et al. (2015)
France	Barley	Net blotch	Launay et al. (2014)
United Kingdom	Oilseed rape	Phoma stem canker	Barnes et al. (2010)
Brazil	Soybean	Rust	Alves et al. (2011)
Europe	Sugar beet	Soil borne pathogens	Manici et al. (2014)
Germany	Sugar beet	Leaf spot	Richerzhagen et al. (2011)
Australia	Pea	Ascochyta blight	Salam et al. (2011)
Globally	Potato	Late blight	Sparks et al. (2014)
Brazil	Cocoa	Moniliasis	Moraes et al. (2012b)
Brazil	Coffee	Rust	Ghini et al. (2011)
Brazil	Coffee	Leaf miner	Hamada et al. (2006)
Brazil	Coffee	Nematodes and leaf miner	Ghini et al. (2008)
Brazil	Coffee	Leaf spot	Moraes et al. (2012a)
Globally	Date palm	Fusarium wilt	Shabani and Kumar (2013)
Northern Italy	Grapevines	Powdery mildew	Caffarra et al. (2012)
Italy	Grapevines	Downy mildew	Francesca et al. (2006)
Globally	Grapevines	Downy mildew	Salinari et al. (2007)
France	Grapevines	Botrytis	Gouache et al. (2011)
Brazil	Banana	Black sigtoka	Ghini et al. (2007)
Globally	Banana	Black sigtoka	Junior et al. (2008)
Switzerland	Apple	Fire blight	Hirschi et al. (2012)

disease prediction models can be used to predict the host alterations, disease severity, and yield losses in changing climate (Dillehay et al. 2005).

Priorities for disease modeling are rerouting due to the newly arising challenges and more specific goals. The major challenge for disease modeling is climate change, as it is resulting in the variable average temperature, more erratic rainfall, and humidity. These climate irregularities indicate that previously observed datasets are losing their importance in reliable disease prediction modeling. Moreover, due to these variabilities, several pathogens that were previously unharmed are now becoming detrimental for crops (Gramaje et al. 2016; Berger et al. 2007). Presently, there are increasing concerns about the goal to estimate and predict global food security risks. But it requires the addition of production systems and geographical areas to develop the baseline data for local and robust empirical relationships. However, climate variability makes this goal impossible to achieve due to the nonlinearity of the process involved in statistical models (Garrett et al. 2006). Similarly, climate change impacts the goal of seeking effective estimation and

prediction of disease dynamics in future scenarios and impedes the trend analysis based on the several observed weather patterns. To address these challenges, the most efficient and appealing way involves the use of process-based modeling with efficiently designed scenarios and shared modeling approaches among the scientist related to a variety of field. Additionally, the utilization of disease modeling increased its important manifolds, ranging from the strategic decisions making (Duveiller et al. 2007), risk analysis (Venette et al. 2010), research priority and policy making (Willocquet et al. 2004), and resource allocation (Beddow et al. 2015). A new generation of technologically advanced tools is needed to understand the system processes and their dynamics to allow system analysis.

### 12.7.3 Modeling Approaches in Disease Modeling

Crop growth, performance, and disease dynamics are linked with discrete sets of developmental processes. Efficient understanding and knowledge of these processes can be mobilized to address the problems related to crop pests and diseases. Recently, the concept of integrating pest and disease models with crop models has made easier and effective to study pest and disease dynamics. However, complex disease and crop models are hard to link with each other.

#### 12.7.3.1 Existing Trends in Disease Modeling

Several recent advances have been documented in the domain of designing and integrating the generic disease simulation models to predict the reliable disease and pest damage to crops (Esler et al. 2012; Savary et al. 2006). Process-based disease modeling has emerged as a key approach to quantitatively understand the behavior and address the problems related to the complex crop-pest systems. A typical process-based disease modeling encompasses four basic steps: (1) Infection chain in a disease cycle is considered as the prime focus for analysis (Kranz 1974). (2) Then the functional traits of a pathogen corresponding to infection chain are studied (Pariaud et al. 2009). (3) The efficiency and performance of these traits based on the environment are studied in a pathosystem, as these functional traits are involved in quantitative processes (Zadoks and Schein 1979). (4) Finally, the observed and measured information from these processes is used for the development of process-based models (Savary and Willocquet 2014; Bregaglio and Donatelli 2015). There is a number of disease modeling structures that have been developed with an emphasis on inoculum mobility, spread, efficiency, and production (Rossi et al. 2009). Moreover, a wider range of concepts and development of mechanistic simulation models made it possible to study the interaction between crops, pests, and diseases within a given pathosystem.

The development of generic simulators enables the illustration of several species in a pathosystem. The application of these generic simulators can be extended by adding several specialized biological mechanisms of species. Generic simulators make the disease modeling approach simpler due to the possibility of developing the species-specific disease model. Moreover, these simulators provide a framework to

collect adequate data for disease modeling regarding insect phenology, physiology (Welch et al. 1978), populations (Yonow et al. 2004), development, and reproduction (Hong et al. 2015; Sutherst et al. 2007).

Knowledge sharing and modification among the wider scientific communities can enhance the impacts and progress of disease modeling (Stein et al. 2002; Tatusov et al. 2000). For instance, AgMIP (Agricultural Model Inter-comparison and Improvement Project) is a recent knowledge sharing example of international collaboration to assess the impacts of climate change on global agriculture based on global agricultural modeling (Rosenzweig et al. 2013). These approaches can mobilize the generic disease modeling platform by combining all fragmented theories and concepts existing in disease modeling globally. APSnet (American Phytopathology Society) plant health instructor is a well-known illustration of such approaches (Bregaglio and Donatelli 2015; Savary and Willocquet 2014). Simulated disease epidemics can be used as input in crop models accounting for the physiological impacts of disease on crops and damage mechanisms (Rouse 1988). Over the past few decades, crop growth models involving damage mechanisms have been developed with the concept of integration of disease and crop models to simulate the crop yield losses due to disease epidemics (Boote et al. 1983; Bastiaans et al. 1994).

### 12.7.3.2 Data Requirements for Disease Modeling

Most common data inputs for disease modeling are based on variables such as temperature, precipitation, relative humidity, and leaf wetness with hourly or daily resolutions (Magarey et al. 2001). However, the soil variables and wind are considered in more complex models focusing on soil pathogens. Mostly the daily data is sufficient for disease models, but some models need hourly data to improve the accuracy and reliability of disease simulations and scenarios development (Bregaglio et al. 2010). However, the gridded current and forecasted data with fine resolution can be obtained by numerical weather models such as AGRI4CAST in Europe, RTMA (Real Time Mesoscale Analysis System) in the United States (De Pondeva et al. 2011), and CFSR (Climate Forecast System Reanalysis) globally (Saha et al. 2014). Data regarding leaf wetness is a limitation due to the unavailability of such data, but simulations models are now being used as alternatives to target the climate change scenarios (Magarey et al. 2006; Bregaglio et al. 2012).

### 12.7.3.3 Calibration and Evaluation of Disease Models

Models calibration is the fine-tuning of models with real-time data to improve the model accuracy and application in a desired environment or pathosystem. Most of the disease and pest models are calibrated with experimental data obtained from controlled conditions. Data regarding variables such as pest virulence, development, fecundity, longevity, mortality, and environment of pathosystem is needed to parameterize and calibrate the models (Régnière et al. 2012). Similarly, data from the experiments with controlled temperature and leaf wetness can be used to calibrate the infection models (Magarey et al. 2005; Madden and Ellis 1988). Moreover, when the data is unavailable to calibrate the model, then closely related

species can be used to identify parameter, and then field studies are enabled to see if the estimated parameters are in line with observed data or not.

Model evaluation is necessary to estimate the accuracy of simulations in comparison with real-time data. Several ways and methods can be used to evaluate the pest and disease models (Rabbinge 1993). The most common approach to evaluate the models involves the comparison of observed and simulated data in terms of disease severity, incidence, and damage. However, evaluation of disease models is usually done by the developing party or by the end-user according to their pathosystems. Overfitting is a serious concern in the model evaluation and to perform simulation in different pathosystems. Overfitting occurs when the output of model adjusted parameters closely matches the data used for calibration but leads to compromised accuracy when simulations are performed over an independent dataset.

#### **12.7.4 Frameworks for Disease Modeling**

In the past various types of models were being used by scientists to model plant pathogens and disease. Matrix models have been used widely over several decades in the past for determining the population densities of pests and insects in a certain region (Lewis 1977). Several equations were used in competitive models to determine the effects of competition between crops and pathogen species (Kaplan and Denno 2007).

#### **12.7.5 Recent Development and Addition in Modeling Frameworks**

Recently, disease modeling gained importance and various developments occurred. Different modeling frameworks are developed for pests and disease modeling in the last few years.

##### **12.7.5.1 APSnet**

It is an (American Phytopathology Society) website that provides a module to help in modeling epidemiology and crop loss analysis. It has various models such as GENEPEST for simulations (Donatelli et al. 2017) and provides guidance for running the simulation models. Savary et al. (2006) summarized an overall disease modeling framework to simulate the disease impacts on agriculture systems using such models. The development of this platform involved several steps. Multilocational farmer's field survey was conducted for several years to observe the production systems and associated injuries. Similarly, the field experiments performed to assess disease damage and crop losses. Mechanistic models were developed by using this collected data based on the damage mechanisms. This approach was used to simulate pest and disease systems in Asian rice-growing regions (Willocquet et al. 2004; Willocquet et al. 2002) and European and UK wheat-growing regions (Willocquet et al. 2008; Foster et al. 2004).

### 12.7.5.2 APSIM-DYMEX

APSIM (Agriculture Production Systems Simulator) is a modeling framework developed over the last two decades (Holzworth et al. 2015). APSIM does not have the ability to consider pests and diseases. But recently, it has been linked with DYMEX (Whish et al. 2015). DYMEX is a mechanistic model for simulation of pests, diseases, and weeds life cycles. Models involved in DYMEX are enabled to run in the DYMAX simulator (Whish et al. 2015). The coupling of these modules enabled the multi-point APSIM features with simplified communication within both models. Both these frameworks can simultaneously model the crop growth and disease dynamics.

### 12.7.5.3 BioMA-Diseases

For fungal plant disease modeling, this framework was developed, having four extendable software (Bregaglio and Donatelli 2015). This framework is used for modeling the impacts of fungal epidemics on plant growth. It simulates and quantifies the polycyclic fungal epidemics and impacts of epidemics on crops. BioMA is a public-domain framework to parameterize and run the biophysical models in the agriculture field (Fig. 12.2). This module was applied to study major diseases such as brown rust (wheat) and leaf blast (Carlsson et al. 2008) in Europe, China, and Italy and assess the model behavior under diverse environments (Bregaglio et al. 2016).

### 12.7.5.4 NAPPFAST

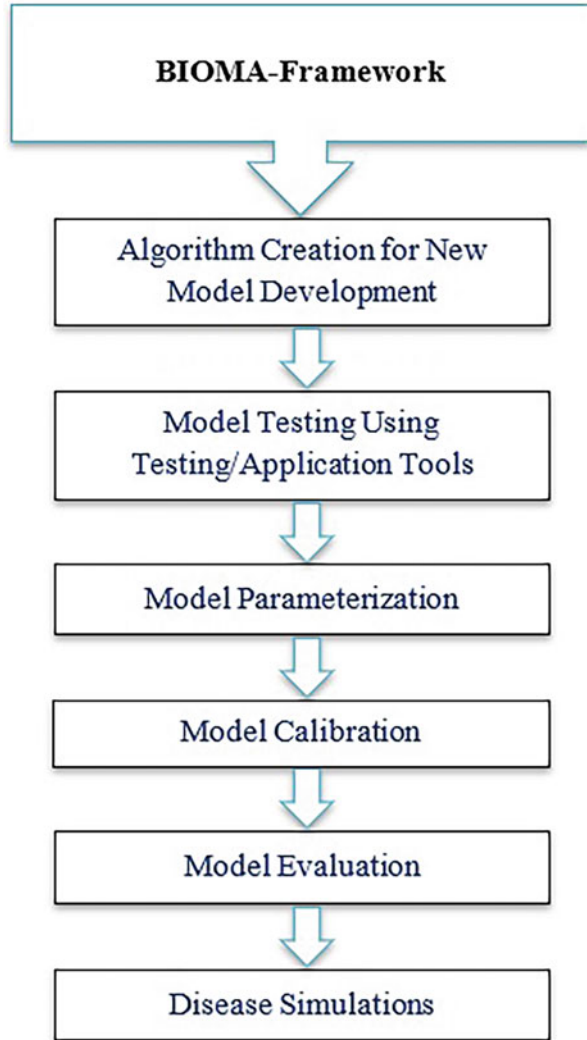
NAPPFAST (North Carolina State University/Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service Plant Pest Forecasting System) module was developed during a project from 2002 to 2013 (Magarey et al. 2007; Magarey et al. 2015) with having an Internet-based GUI (graphical user interface). This module was interlinked with the weather datasets. It has three simulation modeling templates: phenology models (with degree-day approach), infection models (with pathogens and diseases approach), and generic models (with a simple empirical model approach). All these templates were generic to meet the diverse needs of users. NAPPFAST has the ability of pest risk mapping with several resolutions (Magarey et al. 2011).

## 12.7.6 Case Study

Climate variability has significant impact on interactions among plants, pests, and diseases. However, limited research has been conducted on disease severity, incidence, and distribution in response to the changing climate. Few studies simulated the future potential changes in disease epidemics and plant health (Sparks et al. 2014; Bregaglio et al. 2013). Application of disease models can dissect the role of climate change in disease spread, severity, and plant health.

Black Sigatoka is a major disease of tropical crops especially banana. The causal agent of this disease *Pseudocercospora fijiensis* is dependent on microclimate and weather variables. It requires the high relative humidity and leaf wet surface to

**Fig. 12.2** BIOMA modeling framework



germinate and cause infections in banana plant (Uchôa et al. 2012). A disease model for simulating the Black Sigatoka in future climate change scenarios was developed by using the climate data of banana growing areas in Caribbean and Latin America (Bebber 2019). During the process of model development past 60 years observed and reported climate data was used to parameterize the model. The temperature ( $T_{min}$ ,  $T_{max}$ , and  $T_{opt}$ ) and leaf wetness data were used to develop and parameterize the model. The data regarding these variables was observed at 3-h intervals in studied regions.

The model simulated the fraction of spore's cohort development  $F(t)$  over the time ( $t$ ) during the wet intervals and had a Weibull hazard ( $H$ ) function based on

prevailing temperature ( $T$ ). The temperature-dependent cohort development rate ( $r$ ) was simulated on the basis of cardinal temperatures such as  $T_{\min}$ ,  $T_{\max}$ , and  $T_{\text{opt}}$ . Model was parameterized using observations and simulations based on  $T_{\min}$ ,  $T_{\max}$ ,  $T_{\text{opt}}$ , the scale factor ( $\alpha$ ) and shape parameter ( $\gamma$ ) for hazard function.

$$F(t, T) = 1 - e^{-H(t, T)}$$

$$H(t, T) = r(T) [t/\alpha]^\gamma$$

$$r(T) = [T_{\max} - T/T_{\max} - T_{\text{opt}}] * [T - T_{\min}/T_{\text{opt}} - T_{\min}]^{T_{\text{opt}} - T_{\min}/T_{\max} - T_{\text{opt}}}$$

Disease simulations using this model defined the Black Sigatoka infection risks on the basis of total number of simulated spore's cohorts per hour over a specific time duration. Disease simulations predicted the 44% increase in infection rate of Black Sigatoka across Caribbean and Latin America since 1960. This simulated increase was due to the increased temperature and leaf surface wetness that favored the pathogen infection ability. Conclusively, the changing climate and global trading of banana resulted in the establishment of more conducive environment in banana growing regions for Black Sigatoka infection.

### 12.7.7 Strategies for Effective Disease Modeling

There are some effective strategies that can be used to enhance the reliability of simulation in agricultural disease and crop modeling. These strategies comprise the actions to enhance the availability of quality data for disease model input and model evaluation, coupling with crop models, and develop the modeler's community to share the knowledge.

Process-based disease modeling is aimed to reproduce the dynamics of biophysical processes depending on the input variables. Pathogen growth and development are highly dependent on weather variables; hence the model should modulate the responses according to the fluctuations in model input variables (Pfender et al. 2012; Magarey et al. 2005). Therefore, the availability of high resolution and quality data is essential to calibrate the model, especially for the moisture- and temperature-mediated responses. Low-quality data reduces the reliability of model empirical coefficients and impede the model fitness and application. Hence, the quality input dataset is a key in crop disease modeling and the high-resolution real-time data regarding temperature, humidity, and leaf wetness are required to minimize the uncertainties during model calibration and evaluation.

Field measurements and data about the impacts of diseases on crops have been collected in previous years, but these observation methods had no standards and usually are not coupled with crop and weather data to be used as disease modeling data input (Esler et al. 2012; Nutter Jr 1989). Consequently, the disease model validation was limited across diversified environments (Willcoquet et al. 2004; Willcoquet et al. 2002). Hence, the development of designs, guides, templates, and

protocols is needed to collect the adequate and required standard data to validate the disease models effectively (Willocquet et al. 2000). Detailed observations should include the disease or pest data (Disease severity, incidence, injury level), weather data (temperature, humidity, and leaf wetness), and crop data (physiological processes such as respiration, photosynthesis, senescence, etc.) (Esler et al. 2012; Savary et al. 2006).

The disease and host crop dynamics are the coupling points among disease and crop models. Quantification of disease damage and injuries can be assessed by performing experiments in different pathosystems (Robert et al. 2005; Bassanezi et al. 2001). Mathematical representation of these injuries may enable the integration into crop models for simulation of biophysical processes (Pavan and Fernandes 2009). Disease simulation modeling can be done in conjunction with crop growth models to assess the impacts of disease on crop growth. However, the integration of disease and crop models may lead to issues such as complexity in model structures, binary incompatibilities, and sharing difficulties. There are some critical points to be considered for integrating the disease and crop models. Identification and adequate knowledge about damage mechanisms are necessary to simulate the disease impacted outputs by crop models. The disease model's output must be compatible directly or indirectly with the crop model variables. Moreover, the communication compatibilities of both types of models must also be considered for the efficient integration of disease and crop models. Crop model selection to integrate with the disease model must consider the presence of variables affected by the disease in both kinds of models.

Lack of modeling community and cohesive research hampered the development of improved and advanced disease models. Such modelers community development efforts may help in the efficient understanding of biophysical processes, system behaviors, and bridge the communication gaps. However, there are several limitations in such efforts like limited availability of generic disease model frameworks that allow the shift between pathogens and pests. Similarly, modeling cooperation efforts are limited due to the inadequate availability of standard data. In 2015, PeDiMiP (Pest and Disease Modeling Inter-comparison Project) was launched as part of the AgMIP (Agricultural Modeling Inter-comparison Project) to improve disease and pest modeling and to assess the impacts of climate change on crop losses. This project is mainly focused on modeling of crop health, wheat rust, and potato late blight diseases.

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## 12.8 Plant Disease Management

Climate change increases the plant protection complexity. It also causes changes in the chemical market due to the changes in pathogen distribution. Similarly, climate change results in the resistance development in pathogens which ultimately leads to the increased cost for crop production due to high application rates and treatments (Juroszek and Von Tiedemann 2011). Some production systems show more flexibility than others to adopt better practices and strategies to reduce certain diseases.



However, adaptation strategies depend on cost-benefit analyses. One of the great strategies in changing climate involves the efficiency evaluation of current biological, physical, and chemical practices. We can prevent the increased risk of diseases under predicted climate change by using various agronomic practices (irrigation, crop rotation, etc.) that can minimize the overwintering amount of inoculum (Juroszek and Von Tiedemann 2011). There is a need for adjustment in management strategies under changing climate. In biological control, the populations vary with changes in environmental conditions. Under the extreme condition of the environment, the populations of biological agents may become smaller and do not recover even in favorable conditions. Disease management may be affected by climate change and results in uncertainties in decision making when climate variability is greater. But, El Nino-based climate predictions were useful in decision making for farmers of Zimbabwe (Patt et al. 2005).

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## 12.9 Knowledge Gaps and Future Directions

Over the past decade, climate change studies have improved the understanding of how environmental factors impact plant disease epidemics. Climate change is not occurring in isolation, and it may intensify in the coming years. While only a few studies were carried out to evaluate the combined impact of multiple factors, evaluation of the combined effect of various factors on hosts, pathogens, and diseases is needed. Simulation modeling provides an opportunity to simulate several factors simultaneously. While climatic models used to study the impacts of climate change on plant diseases focused on a few variables like precipitation and rainfall, models based on multiple factors should be used to study climate changes and plant disease relationships. Molecular analysis and mechanistic studies can help to consider the change in plant diseases as a result of climate change. Over the past few years, foliar diseases are mainly focused while little work has been done on soilborne diseases. Therefore, studies should be conducted to evaluate the climate change impacts on soilborne diseases.

Plant disease management and severity will probably be increased due to climate change. Prediction of diseases and their management is of great interest to farmers and agro-industries. The following plant protection strategies can help in disease management to a certain extent:

1. Use of models to forecast disease epidemics
2. Crop rotation
3. Diversity in crop species
4. Use cultivars with superior disease resistance
5. Adjustment in sowing time
6. Effective quarantine measures
7. Use of Integrated Pest Management strategy

## 12.10 Conclusion

Climate change is impacting the crops, trees, and agricultural productivity and, at the same time, influencing the pathogens and disease development in plants. It is a major challenge to understand and realize the impacts of climate change in terms of plant diseases, pathogens, and health of plants because of the limitation in the knowledge that how various changes in the atmosphere are affecting the physiology of host and pathogens development, spread and resistance in host and pathogen. Achievements in plant protection are limited due to the lack of knowledge about changes in the environment, pathogen, and host interaction globally. For effective plant protection and disease management, detailed study and research are needed to understand the relationship among the changing environment, pathogens, and hosts under the climate change scenario. Modeling of diseases can become more effective if we combine the developed tools in our studies.

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