

## Impact of combined abiotic and biotic stresses on plant growth and avenues for crop improvement by exploiting physio-morphological traits

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Provisional

1 **Impact of combined abiotic and biotic stresses on plant growth and avenues for**  
2 **crop improvement by exploiting physio-morphological traits**

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17 **Running title:** Stress interaction and combined stress tolerance in crop plants

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1 **Abstract**

2 Global warming leads to the concurrence of a number of abiotic and biotic stresses,  
3 thus affecting agricultural productivity. Occurrence of abiotic stresses can alter plant-  
4 pest interactions by enhancing host plant susceptibility to pathogenic organisms,  
5 insects, and by reducing competitive ability with weeds. On the contrary, some pests  
6 may alter plant response to abiotic stress factors. Therefore, systematic studies are  
7 pivotal to understand the effect of concurrent abiotic and biotic stress conditions on crop  
8 productivity. However, to date, a collective database on the occurrence of various stress  
9 combinations in agriculturally-prominent areas is not available. This review attempts to  
10 assemble published information on this topic, with a particular focus on the impact of  
11 combined drought and pathogen stresses on crop productivity. In doing so, this review  
12 highlights some agriculturally important morpho-physiological traits that can be utilized  
13 to identify genotypes with combined stress tolerance. In addition, this review outlines  
14 potential role of recent genomic tools in deciphering combined stress tolerance in  
15 plants. This review will, therefore, be helpful for agronomists and field pathologists in  
16 assessing the impact of the interactions between drought and plant-pathogens on crop  
17 performance. Further, the review will be helpful for physiologists and molecular  
18 biologists to design agronomically relevant strategies for the development of broad  
19 spectrum stress tolerant crops.

20 **Key words:** Stress interaction, stress combinations, morpho-physiological traits,  
21 drought and pathogen infection, crop production, productivity

22

23

1 **Introduction**

2 Due to global warming, and potential climate abnormalities associated with it, crops  
3 typically encounter an increased number of abiotic and biotic stress combinations,  
4 which severely affect their growth and yield (Mittler, 2006; Prasad et al., 2011; Atkinson  
5 et al., 2013; Narsai et al., 2013; Prasch and Sonnewald, 2013; Suzuki et al., 2014;  
6 Mahalingam, 2015; Ramegowda and Senthil-Kumar, 2015; Pandey et al., 2015a). A  
7 concurrent occurrence of abiotic stresses such as drought and heat has been shown to  
8 be more destructive to crop production than these stresses occurring separately at  
9 different crop growth stages (Mittler, 2006; Prasad et al., 2011). Abiotic stress  
10 conditions such as drought, high and low temperature and salinity are known to  
11 influence the occurrence and spread of pathogens, insects and weeds (Coakley et al.  
12 1999; Scherm and Coakley, 2003; Ziska et al., 2010; McDonald et al., 2009; Peters et  
13 al., 2014). They can also result in minor pests to become potential threats in future  
14 (Duveiller et al., 2007). These stress conditions also directly affect plant-pest  
15 interactions by altering plant physiology and defense responses (Scherm and Coakley,  
16 2003). Additionally, abiotic stress conditions such as drought enhance competitive  
17 interactions of weeds on crops as several weeds exhibit enhanced water use efficiency  
18 than crops (Patterson, 1995; Ziska et al., 2010; Valerio et al., 2013).

19 The effect of combined stress factors on crops is not always additive, because the  
20 outcome is typically dictated by the nature of interactions between the stress factors  
21 (Prasch and Sonnewald, 2013; Atkinson et al., 2013; Pandey et al., 2015a; b;  
22 Choudhary et al., 2016, Ramu et al., 2016). Plants tailor their responses to combined  
23 stress factors and exhibit several unique responses, along with other common  
24 responses. Therefore, to fully recognize the impact of combined abiotic and biotic  
25 stresses on plants, it is important to understand the nature of such interactions. Mittler  
26 and co-workers developed a 'stress matrix' to compile the interactions among various  
27 abiotic and biotic stresses on plant growth and productivity (Mittler, 2006; Suzuki et al.,  
28 2014). This matrix illustrates that the stress combinations can have negative as well as  
29 positive effects on plants. Therefore, development of plants with enhanced tolerance to

1 combined abiotic and biotic stresses involves identification of physio-morphological  
2 traits that are affected by combined stresses.

3 Based on the currently available studies on the effect of concurrent stresses on plants,  
4 this review attempts to improve and amend the current understanding of stress  
5 combinations by explaining some fundamental concepts pertaining to them, highlighting  
6 their global occurrence and assessing their influence on crop growth. In this review, we  
7 provide a general overview of different stress combinations and their impact on  
8 agriculture and discuss in detail the effect of combined drought and pathogen infection  
9 on some important crops. The importance of undertaking simulation studies for  
10 assessing the impact of combined stresses on plants is also highlighted. Taking leads  
11 from some important studies on individual stresses, we have also presented some of  
12 the potential traits which can be utilized for crop improvement under combined drought  
13 and pathogen infection.

## 14 **2. Examples of different stress combinations occurring in nature**

15 Based on the number of interacting factors, stresses can be grouped into three  
16 categories: single, multiple individual and combined stresses (Supplementary Figure 1).  
17 A single stress represents only one stress factor affecting plant growth and  
18 development, whereas multiple stress represents the impact of two or more stresses  
19 occurring at different time periods without any overlap (multiple individual) or occurring  
20 concurrently with at least some degree of overlap between them (combined). The co-  
21 occurrence of drought and heat stresses during summer is an example of a combined  
22 abiotic stress, whereas a bacterial and fungal pathogen attacking a plant at the same  
23 time represents a case of combined biotic stress. For example, brown apical necrosis of  
24 *Juglans regia* (walnut) is caused by combinations of fungal pathogens *Fusarium* spp,  
25 *Alternaria* spp, *Cladosporium* spp, *Colletotrichum* spp, and *Phomopsis* spp and a  
26 bacterium, *Xanthomonas arboricola* (Belisario et al., 2002). A first stress factor  
27 preceded by another stress factor in sequence may either 'endure' (due to priming) or  
28 'predispose' the plants to the subsequent stress. For example, drought predisposes  
29 *Sorghum bicolor* (sorghum) to *Macrophomina phaseolina* (causal agent of charcoal root

1 rot) (Goudarzi et al., 2011). There are also scenarios where plants are exposed to  
2 'repetitive' stresses, where a single or multiple stresses are intervened by short or long  
3 recovery periods. For instance, incidences of multiple spells of hot days or multiple  
4 occurrences of drought and high temperature at different phenological stages of plants  
5 represent repetitive stresses.

6 Some examples of different stress combinations that are expected to arise due to  
7 climate change and their impact on plants is given in Supplementary Table 1.  
8 Simultaneously occurring drought and heat stress stands as the most evident stress  
9 combination (Prasad et al., 2011; Jedmowski et al., 2015). Likewise, plants growing in  
10 arid and semi-arid regions often face a combination of salinity and heat stress. High  
11 light stress also often accompanies heat stress. *Vitis vinifera* (grapes) growing in  
12 regions characterized by a continental climate, such as North China, face a combination  
13 of drought and cold stress which affects their productivity (Su et al., 2015). Plants  
14 growing in the Mediterranean region encounter combined cold and high light stress  
15 (Loreto and Bonggi, 1989). *Triticum aestivum* (winter wheat) is also known to experience  
16 a combination of ozone and cold stress which reduces its frost hardiness (Barnes and  
17 Davison, 1988). Likewise, salinity combined with ozone stress reduces yields of *Cicer*  
18 *arietinum* (chickpea) and *Oryza sativa* (rice) (Welfare et al., 2002).

19 Similar to the different abiotic stress combinations, plants also encounter more than one  
20 biotic stresses simultaneously or sequentially. Infection by a combination of fungi,  
21 bacteria and viruses are common and are known to cause severe disease symptoms,  
22 compared to infections by individual pathogens. Various biotic stress combinations and  
23 their impact on plants have been discussed by Lamichhane and Venturi (2015), and are  
24 also tabulated in Supplementary Table 1.

25 Plants also encounter biotic stressors simultaneously with abiotic stressors  
26 (Supplementary Table 2). The impact of environmental factors on plant diseases  
27 popularly known as the 'disease triangle' has always been an important consideration  
28 for plant pathologists. Reports have documented the effect of drought or salinity leading  
29 to resistance or susceptibility of plants to *Puccinia* spp infection (causal agent of rust),

1 *Verticillium* spp (causal agent of verticillium wilt), *Fusarium* spp (causal agent of  
2 Fusarium wilt), *Phythium* spp (causal agent of root rot) and *Erysiphe* spp (causal agent  
3 of powdery mildew) (Supplementary Table 1 and 2). The influence of co-occurring  
4 drought (Valerio et al., 2013), high temperature (Cordes and Bauman, 1984) or cold  
5 (Patterson and Flint, 1979) stress on increased competitiveness of weeds over crops  
6 has also been documented.

### 7 **3. Stress interactions as an important aspect governing the impact of stress** 8 **combinations on plants**

9 Different types of stress interactions can have a range of effects on plants depending on  
10 the nature, severity and duration of the stresses (Figure 1). In case of some abiotic-  
11 abiotic and majority of abiotic-biotic stress combinations, interactions not only occur  
12 between the plant and the stressors at the plant interface, but also directly between the  
13 stressors at or outside the plant interface (Supplementary Figure 2). In fact, the nature  
14 of such interactions between the stressors governs the magnitude of their impact on  
15 crop response. For example, a concurrent heat wave during a drought period may lead  
16 to more soil water evaporation resulting in aggravated drought conditions and increased  
17 crop yield loss. In addition to this, drought and heat stresses have synergistic effects on  
18 plant physiology, resulting in greater negative net impact manifested as drastic yield  
19 reductions (Mittler, 2006). Likewise, concurrent drought and weed stress further reduces  
20 water availability to crops and subsequently increases the competitiveness of weeds on  
21 them (Stuart et al. 1984).

22 In case of stress combinations involving heat and pathogen stress, high temperatures  
23 not only affect plants but also pathogens. Temperature is, in fact, one of the most  
24 important factors affecting the occurrence of bacterial diseases such as those caused  
25 by *Ralstonia solanacearum* (causal agent of wilt in tomato), *Acidovorax avenae* (causal  
26 agent of seedling blight and bacterial fruit blotch of cucurbits) and *Burkholderia glumea*  
27 (causal agent of bacterial panicle blight in rice) (Kudela, 2009). An increase in  
28 temperature modifies the growth rate and reproduction of pathogens (Ladanyi and  
29 Horvath, 2010). Temperature also affects the incidence of vector-borne diseases by



1 altering the population development and spread of vectors. Similarly, the effect of salt  
2 stress on plant diseases might be the outcome of its modulation on the pathogen  
3 virulence, the host physiology and microbial activity in soils (Triky-Dotan et al., 2005).  
4 For example, increased incidence of Fusarium wilt in *Solanum lycopersicum* (tomato)  
5 under salt stress was found to be caused by more sporulation of the fungi under saline  
6 conditions (Daami-Ramadi et al., 2009).

7 The combination of two stresses (abiotic-abiotic or abiotic-biotic) does not always lead  
8 to negative impact on plants. Some stress combinations negate the effect of each other,  
9 leading to a net neutral or positive impact on plants. One stress may also provide  
10 endurance to plants against another stress and hence yield is not always negatively  
11 impacted. For example, individual drought and ozone stresses are detrimental to the  
12 growth of *Medicago truncatula* (alfalfa), but the combination of drought and ozone  
13 results in increased tolerance of plants to the stress combination (Puckette et al., 2007).  
14 High CO<sub>2</sub> has been shown to ameliorate the effect of drought stress in *T. aestivum*  
15 (Kaddour and Fuller, 2004) and *Poa pratensis* (bluegrass) (Song et al., 2014). Likewise,  
16 an increase in CO<sub>2</sub> level from 350 to 675 ppm favored the competitiveness of the C<sub>3</sub>  
17 crop *Glycine max* (soybean) over the C<sub>4</sub> weed *Sorghum halepense* (johnsongrass)  
18 (Patterson, 1995). *S. lycopersicum* exposed to combined salinity and heat stress  
19 performs better than plants subjected to these stresses separately (Rivero et al., 2014).  
20 Ozone treatment also provides enhanced resistance to *Puccinia* spp in *T. aestivum*,  
21 *Pseudomonas glycinea* (causal agent of bacterial blight) in *G. max* and *Erysiphe*  
22 *polygoni* in *Pisum sativum* (pea), (Supplementary Table 1).

23 Some stress combinations exhibit far more complex interactions and their effect on  
24 plants are variable. Heat-pathogen and drought-pathogen stress combinations are  
25 examples of such complex interactions. For example, with increased temperature, *T.*  
26 *aestivum* and *Avena sativa* (oats) become more susceptible to *Puccinia* spp., but some  
27 forage species such as *Cyanodon dactylon* (Bermuda grass) become more resistant to  
28 rust disease (Coakley et al., 1999). Heat-pathogen and drought-pathogen interactions  
29 can be regarded as two of the agriculturally important stress combinations. The impact

1 of combined heat and pathogen interaction on plants has been discussed by Pautasso  
2 et al. (2012) and Garrett et al. (2006). In the present review, we specifically focus on  
3 drought and pathogen stress combination as a case study and discuss it as a model for  
4 understanding the impact of abiotic and biotic stress combinations on plants.

#### 5 **4. Drought-pathogen stress combination: a model for understanding combined** 6 **abiotic-biotic stresses**

7 Drought stress interacts with pathogen infection both additively and antagonistically. On  
8 the basis of the number of reports of plant diseases being affected by drought stress  
9 and the frequency of occurrence of drought stress, this combination can be considered  
10 as one of the most important stress combinations affecting crop yields worldwide  
11 (Figure 2). Drought stress is reported to enhance the susceptibility of *S. bicolor*, *T.*  
12 *aestivum*, *Senecio vulgaris* (groundsel), *Hordeum vulgare* (barley), *Gossypium* spp  
13 (cotton) and *C. arietinum* to *M. phaseolina*, *Puccinia* sp, *Erysiphe graminis f. sp. hordei*,  
14 *Fusarium oxysporum f. sp. vasinfectum* and *R. bataticola*, respectively (Supplementary  
15 Table 1). On the other hand, drought stress is reported to provide endurance to tomato,  
16 *M. sativa* and *Arabidopsis thaliana* against *Botrytis cinerea* (causal agent of grey mold),  
17 *Oidium neolycopersici* (causal agent of powdery mildew), *Verticillium albo-atrum* (causal  
18 agent of Verticillium wilt) and *Pseudomonas syringae* (causal agent of bacterial speck  
19 disease), respectively (Achu et al., 2006; Gupta et al., 2016). In some cases,  
20 concurrent pathogen infection helps plants to endure towards drought stress, resulting  
21 in increased yield (Supplementary Figure 3) (Davis et al., 2014). For example, infection  
22 with *Cucumber mosaic virus* (CMV) led to improved drought tolerance of *Capsicum*  
23 *annuum* (pepper), *S. lycopersicum*, and *Nicotiana tabacum* (tobacco) (Xu et al., 2008).

24 The effect of combined drought and pathogen infection at physiological and molecular  
25 levels has been discussed in a number of recent reports (Ramegowda and Senthil-  
26 Kumar, 2015; Pandey et al., 2015; Choudhary et al., 2016, Gupta et al., 2016) and also  
27 summarized in Supplementary Figures 2 and 3. In this review, we focus on some  
28 important plant diseases favored by drought stress.

1 One of the important diseases known to be aggravated by high temperature and water  
2 deficit conditions is dry root rot (DRR), caused by a necrotrophic fungus *Rhizoctonia*  
3 *bataticola*, Sharma and Pande (2013) have shown the interaction between *R. bataticola*  
4 and drought stress in laboratory conditions by infecting *C. arietinum* plants grown at  
5 different soil moisture contents with this fungi. This study showed that the disease  
6 incidence was the highest at 40% soil moisture content (Figure 2D). Less disease  
7 incidence at high soil moisture content was attributed to the inability of the fungal  
8 sclerotia to survive under wet soil conditions (Olaya et al., 1996; Umamaheswari et al.,  
9 2000).

10 Long periods of drought accompanied with warm days and cool nights generally favor  
11 powdery mildew in *Beta vulgaris* (sugar beet) caused by the fungus *Erysiphe betae*.  
12 Increased occurrence of powdery mildew infection was observed in several parts of  
13 United States in the drought year of 1988 (Lamey, 1988). Occurrence of powdery  
14 mildew infections also coincided with extended periods of drought in Germany (Lamey,  
15 1988). In contrast to the above report, drought stress delayed powdery mildew disease  
16 development in *Alliaria petiolata* (garlic mustard; Enright and Cipollini, 2007), which  
17 could have been due to osmotic stress mediated stomatal closure that typically reduces  
18 the pathogen's ability to enter through the leaf (Thaler and Bostock, 2004). However,  
19 the exact reason for the same is not yet known. Enright and Cipollini (2007) showed that  
20 drought stress reduced plant growth, resulting in the powdery mildew fungi infecting all  
21 available leaf area by the end of the experiment, though there was a delay in disease  
22 development (Figure 2C). In cases such as this, although drought did not aggravate  
23 disease development, the net impact of the two stresses resulted in loss of plant  
24 performance.

25 Drought stress accompanied by high soil temperature has been correlated with  
26 increased charcoal stalk rot development, caused by *M. phaseolina*, in *S. bicolor*  
27 (Odvody and Dunkle, 1979, Mihail, 1989). This disease has also recently emerged as a  
28 threat in regions with warmer summers and low rainfall (Smith et al., 2015). Soil  
29 moisture content affects microsclerotia survival, root infection, and disease

1 development. It has been found that microsclerotia can survive in dry soils for prolonged  
2 periods, but is unable to survive in saturated soils for more than a week (Mayek-Perez  
3 et al., 2002). Such interaction between drought and charcoal root rot has also been  
4 shown in *Phaseolus vulgaris* (common bean) under laboratory conditions (Mayek-Perez  
5 et al., 2002).

6 It has been reported that drought conditions in England and Wales have resulted in  
7 higher incidences of common scab caused by *Streptomyces scabiei* in *Solanum*  
8 *tuberosum* (potato) (Potato Council News, 2011). Infection occurs for six weeks after  
9 the start of tuber initiation and dry soils facilitate rapid infection of the fungus on  
10 developing tubers. The amount of scab on a tuber's surface is directly related to the  
11 length of time that the plants are deprived of irrigation (Lapwood and Hering, 1968). The  
12 timing of drought occurrence also affects the severity of scabs on surface of tubers and  
13 it was found that drought during early stages of tuber development resulted in more  
14 scabs (Lapwood and Hering, 1968). Research by Davis et al. (1974) showed that  
15 irrigating fields to as high as 90% field capacity is needed to effectively suppress  
16 common scab.

17 Given that a number of drought-pathogen stress combinations have a net negative  
18 influence on crop yields, it is important to devise strategies for improving crop  
19 performance under these stresses. A promising way in doing so is to identify  
20 measurable parameters or traits that are affected by combined stress conditions, which  
21 can be modified favorably to improve crop productivity under combined stress  
22 conditions. In the section below, we highlight some key traits that can be used for crop  
23 improvement under combined drought and pathogen infection.

## 24 **5. Potential traits for screening genotypes for tolerance to combined drought and** 25 **pathogen infection**

### 26 **5.1 Root system architecture (RSA)**

27 RSA acts as a major interface between the plants and several biotic as well as abiotic  
28 factors and enables the plants to circumvent the environmental challenges by sensing

1 and responding to them. The length and density of primary as well as lateral roots play  
2 a crucial role in drought stress tolerance. Development of high root length density (RLD)  
3 along with increased root diameter in response to drought stress confers drought  
4 tolerance in rice. For example, rice lines with low RLD show reduced drought tolerance  
5 (Allah et al., 2010). High RLD favors improved plant growth under drought conditions as  
6 it provides access to moisture present at deeper soil depths (Lynch et al., 2014; Zhan et  
7 al., 2015). Likewise, under drought stress, *Zea mays* (maize) with high RLD and few  
8 lateral roots had high plant water status, increased leaf photosynthesis, stomatal  
9 conductance and increased overall growth, compared to plants with low RLD and more  
10 lateral roots. The presence of fewer but longer lateral roots results in enhanced rooting  
11 depth thereby increasing water acquisition from deeper layers of soil which helps in  
12 improved plant performance under drought (Lynch et al., 2014; Zhan et al., 2015).

13 Interestingly, RSA also plays a significant role under pathogen infection in plants. In an  
14 evaluation of virulence of *Pythium debaryanum* and *P. ultimum* (causal agents of root  
15 rot) on *T. aestivum*, plants with high root length had less fungal infection (Higginbotham  
16 et al., 2004). In contrast, infection of *R. solani* (causal agent of root rot) on *S.*  
17 *lycopersicum* caused reduction in total root length, number of root tips and magnitude of  
18 root branching, which compromised water exploration from deep soil layers and  
19 consequently the shoot growth (Berta et al., 2005; Simonetta et al., 2007). Thus there  
20 seems to be a correlation between RLD and the extent of pathogen infection by root  
21 infecting fungi. Thus we speculate that increasing the RLD of plants might help in  
22 reducing pathogen infection.

23 Combined drought and root infecting pathogens cause greater damage to plants as  
24 both stresses appear to additively disrupt the RSA. For example, under drought  
25 conditions, *Fusarium solani* f. sp. *phaseoli* (causal agent of root rot in beans) infects the  
26 roots of *P. vulgaris* in deep layers of soil and affects water absorption. As a result of  
27 infection, accessibility to water present at deeper soil profiles is compromised under  
28 drought conditions, leading to severe reductions in plant growth (Dryden and Van Alfen,  
29 1984).

1 Under combined stress, the time of occurrence of pathogen infection or drought stress  
2 has a significant effect on the net impact. *Phytophthora cryptogea* (causal agent of root  
3 and crown rot) infection on drought stressed *Carthamus tinctorius* (safflower) resulted in  
4 severe root rot disease development and a marked reduction in fresh weight of roots,  
5 compared to the conditions where drought stress followed the infection (Duniway,  
6 1977). Similarly, *P. parasitica* (causal agent of root rot) infection on drought stressed *S.*  
7 *lycopersicum* resulted in greater disease severity, represented by an increase in the  
8 number of brown roots, reduced root length and low fresh weight, compared to  
9 pathogen infection followed by drought stress (Ristaino and Duniway, 1989). Drought  
10 stress induced increase in root growth and exudation of amino acids (such as alanine,  
11 proline) and carbohydrates (such as pentose and glucose) are known to be responsible  
12 for enhanced root rot disease development on drought stressed plants (Schroth et al.,  
13 1964, Duniway 1977). Root exudates serve as nutrients for the growth of soil borne  
14 pathogens. These drought induced changes in the host physiology enhance pathogen  
15 infection by directly attracting more pathogens as well as intensifying the existing  
16 infection on plant roots. Additionally, pathogen infection modulates the composition of  
17 root exudates. Tomato roots infected with *Fusarium oxysporum* f sp. *radicis-lycopersici*  
18 exhibited decreased exudation of citric acid, but increased secretion of succinic acid as  
19 compared to the non-infected roots. Moreover, co-infection with bio-control bacterium  
20 *Pseudomonas fluorescens* WCS365 resulted in less disease and more secretion of  
21 succinic acid (Kamilova et al., 2006). Identification and analysis of exudates commonly  
22 secreted under drought and pathogen stress, and attempts towards manipulating the  
23 secretion of these exudates by inhibiting or over-expressing the secretory pathways  
24 may help in conferring tolerance to drought and pathogen infection. However, studies in  
25 this direction needs to be done to prove the suitability of this approach.

26 A number of studies have demonstrated no influence of drought stress on pathogen  
27 infection induced root damage in plants. For example, in an assessment of the effect of  
28 drought stress on infection by *Gaeumannomyces graminis* (Sacc.) var. *tritici* (causal  
29 agent of root rot) in wheat under low and severe drought stress conditions, Balota et al.  
30 (2005) found that infection under both the drought levels caused similar reduction in root

1 dry mass. In addition, carbon assimilation rate and root decay were also found to be  
2 reduced similarly under both drought intensities, indicating that increasing drought  
3 intensities had little effect on disease development. Furthermore, *P. irregulare* and *R.*  
4 *solani* infection on *T. aestivum* cultivars under drought stress did not result in any  
5 significant change in root lesions inflicted by pathogen infection compared to infection  
6 on well-watered plants (Aldahadha, 2012).

7  
8 Taken together, in most cases plant survival under concurrent drought and pathogen  
9 infection is compromised if RLD is affected as it influences the acquisition of water.  
10 Plants with the ability to maintain high RLD may perform better under combined drought  
11 and pathogen infection. Considering the role of RLD in both drought tolerance and  
12 pathogen infection, this trait can be utilized as a potential morpho-physiological trait for  
13 selecting cultivars with resistance to combined drought and pathogen stress.  
14 Additionally, root phenotyping tools can be exploited for screening plants with combined  
15 stress tolerance. Several studies have reported QTLs associated with root system  
16 architecture under drought stress (Comas et al., 2013). For example, a constitutive  
17 QTL, designated as Root-ABA1, was associated with root traits like branching,  
18 diameter, angle, and total dry mass has been identified in maize (Giuliani et al., 2005).  
19 Similarly, a QTL for ABA induced reduction in lateral root growth and size has been  
20 identified in *A. thaliana* (Fitz Geral et al., 2006; Xiong et al., 2006). Moreover QTL  
21 (ARR2.1) for root rot resistance and tap root diameter (TD2-1) are correlated and  
22 increase in tap root diameter was related to enhanced resistance (Hagerty et al., 2007).  
23 Hence, we expect that some QTLs associated with efficient RSA may also be used in  
24 breeding programs to develop combined drought and pathogen resistant crops.

25

## 26 **5.2 Leaf pubescence**

27 Trichomes (leaf hairs) are modified epidermal cells found in uni- or multi-cellular,  
28 branched or unbranched, and glandular or non-glandular forms all over the surface of a  
29 plant. Though number and types of trichomes are genetically controlled, the

1 environmental conditions also determine their pattern of occurrence. Plants grown in  
2 semi-arid environments maintain water levels by foliar absorption of water with the help  
3 of trichomes. Trichomes entrap water droplets and it has been shown that *Phlomis*  
4 *fruticosa* (Jerusalem sage) leaves with trichomes in mesophyll cells absorb dew  
5 deposits, which results in decreased water potential of drought stressed leaves,  
6 compared to the leaves of *Hedera helix* without trichomes. In addition, photosynthetic  
7 performance of hairy leaves is greater than that of non-hairy leaves under water stress  
8 conditions (Grammatikopoulos et al., 1994). In some cases, drought conditions also  
9 increase trichome production in plants as a means of adaptation. For instance, drought  
10 stressed *Sinapis arvensis* (wild mustard) plants had more trichomes compared to  
11 control plants of the same line (Roy et al., 1999).

12  
13 Studies have found that trichomes can serve as a barrier to infection by foliar pathogens  
14 (Lai et al., 2000). For example, *P. infestans* (causal agent of late blight) infection in *S.*  
15 *tuberosum* is negatively correlated with the presence of glandular trichomes. Presence  
16 of trichomes can reduce the relative humidity at the leaf surface, which is unfavorable  
17 for the germination of fungal spores (Lai et al., 2000). Trichomes may also secrete  
18 exudates that possess anti-fungal activities (Armstrong-Cho and Gossen, 2005;  
19 Nonomura et al., 2009). For example, exudates secreted by glandular trichomes  
20 present all over the plant surface of chickpea are shown to decrease infection by  
21 *Ascochyta rabiei* (causal agent of ascochyta blight) due to the anti-fungal properties of  
22 the exudates (Armstrong-Cho and Gossen, 2005). It was found that increased  
23 concentrations of exudates inhibited the conidial germination of *A. rabiei* while low  
24 concentrations promoted it. Identification of the pathways and genetic elements behind  
25 the glandular secretions from the trichomes under pathogen stress and their careful  
26 manipulation can enhancing the resistance of plants.

27  
28 In contrast to the above reports, trichomes in some plants may favor pathogen growth.  
29 For example, trichomes present on the leaf surface of common beans were reported to  
30 favor the growth of *P. syringae*. As trichomes retain water, exudates released from the



1 broken cuticle at the base of trichomes might favor microbial growth (Monier et al.,  
2 2003). Similarly, *A. thaliana* mutant *gl1* (GLABROUS1) plants with less trichome density  
3 were found to be tolerant to infection by necrotrophic fungus *B. cinerea* but *try*  
4 (TRYPTYCHON) mutants with more trichome density were found susceptible to  
5 infection (Calo et al., 2006). Not many studies have been done to probe into the role of  
6 trichomes in pathogen infection. A closer understanding of plant pathogen interaction at  
7 this interface may help in further unraveling the role of trichomes in enhancing pathogen  
8 infection. It is evident that plants produce more trichomes under drought to minimize  
9 transpiration. In many cases, the presence of glandular trichomes has been shown to  
10 provide tolerance against pathogen invasion. However, as mentioned above, there are  
11 exceptions to this rule. Moreover, role of glandular trichomes and their secretory  
12 products under drought stress needs to be studied. Taken together, an extensive  
13 understanding of the nature of plant-pathogen interaction under drought stress would be  
14 needed in cases where trichomes enhance pathogen growth. Mapping for leaf  
15 pubescence related QTLs have been done for many plants like *Gossypium hirsutum*  
16 and *A. thaliana* (Lacape and Nguyen, 2005, Bloomer et al., 2014). It can be  
17 hypothesized that enhancement of trichome production impart protection against  
18 combined drought and pathogen infection in many cases and trichomes can be  
19 considered as a potential morpho-physiological trait conferring tolerance to the stress  
20 combination. Moreover, identification of QTLs related to leaf trichome density and  
21 secretion under drought and pathogen infection can also help in breeding genotypes  
22 better adapted to the combined stress. It can also be utilized for exploring the genes  
23 and pathways regulating trichome production and secretion which can be suitably  
24 modified to confer enhanced resistance under combined stress scenarios.

25

### 26 **5.3 Leaf water potential regulation**

27 A change in plant water potential is directly correlated to soil moisture level and is also  
28 affected by fungal and bacterial pathogens that disrupt the function of the plant vascular  
29 system. However, some traits related to maintenance of plant water potential are  
30 negatively affected by drought and pathogen stress. For example, plants close stomata

1 under drought stress in order to reduce the transpirational loss of water. In contrast,  
2 infection by *Uromyces phaseoli* (causal agent of leaf rust) inhibits stomatal closure on *P.*  
3 *vulgaris* due to the toxins produced by the pathogen (Duniway and Durbin, 1971) which  
4 indicates that pathogen infection in cases like this can compromise drought tolerance.

5  
6 Some pathogens may reduce plant water content even under sufficient soil moisture  
7 conditions. For example, *Uromyces phaseoli* infection in *P. vulgaris* results in wilting at  
8 high soil water potential due to xylem damage, whereas uninfected plants experience  
9 wilting only under drought. Inhibition of stomatal closure by toxins secreted by *U.*  
10 *phaseoli*, disruption of cuticle layer and impaired stomatal resistance account for the  
11 increased water loss, which further reduce leaf water potential of plants under drought  
12 stress (Duniway and Durbin, 1971). Similarly, Burman and Lodha (1996) demonstrated  
13 a marked reduction in shoot water potential, leaf turgidity and transpiration in *Vigna*  
14 *unguiculata* (cowpea) plants subjected to concurrent drought and *Macrophomina*  
15 *phaseolina* (causal agent of charcoal rot and stem blight) infection. McElrone et al.  
16 (2003) showed that *V. vinifera* subjected to combined drought and *Xyllela fastidiosa*  
17 (causal agent of leaf scorch) infection experience a significant reduction in leaf water  
18 potential and stomatal conductance, which aggravates the scorch symptoms more in  
19 drought stressed plants, compared to well-watered plants.

20  
21 When *P. vulgaris* was exposed to simultaneous drought and *M. phaseolina* infection,  
22 high transpiration rate, decreased water potential and low stomatal resistance was  
23 observed in the stressed plants (Mayek-Perez et al., 2002). Drought stress caused  
24 plants to produce carbohydrates which facilitated the growth and infection of *M.*  
25 *phaseolina* (Mayek-Perez et al., 2002). In addition, it was found that varieties resistant  
26 to infection maintained high leaf water potential compared to susceptible varieties  
27 (Mayek-Perez et al., 2002). In case of charcoal rot due to infection by *M. phaseolina* in  
28 *G. max*, it has been found that maturation of the sclerotia was induced only by the  
29 reduced leaf water potential due to drought stress. It was also found that symptoms  
30 appeared only after imposition of drought stress. Likewise, Diourte et al. (1995) found

1 that post flowering drought stress caused a reduction in leaf water potential in *S. bicolor*.  
2 Plants with reduced water potential had longer *M. phaseolina* lesions, which directly  
3 resulted in a reduction of grain yield. Pastor-Corrales and Abawi (1988) had  
4 demonstrated that drought-resistant bean varieties showed resistance to *M. phaseolina*  
5 infection as well.

6 Taken together, leaf water potential can be influenced by both drought and vascular  
7 pathogens and improved water status of plants under drought conditions might  
8 correspond to improved pathogen as well as drought resistance. One of the factors  
9 defining plants response to vascular pathogen infection is the xylem vessel dimension;  
10 *V. vinifera* genotypes with smaller xylem diameter are known to be less susceptible to  
11 infection by fungal vascular wilt pathogens (Pouzoulet et al., 2014). Identification of  
12 QTLs related to xylem diameter and xylem pit anatomy can be helpful to identify  
13 mechanisms for tolerance against combined drought and pathogen infection. Thus,  
14 plant water potential can be used as an important morpho-physiological trait to screen  
15 plants resistant to combined drought and pathogen infection.

#### 16 **5.4 Cuticular wax**

17 Cuticle plays a vital role in protecting plants from drought stress and pathogen invasion.  
18 When stomata are closed under drought stress, a small amount of water is lost through  
19 cuticular layer. Cuticular layer also acts as a barrier to pathogen infection as it is  
20 hydrophobic and devoid of moisture (Martin, 1964).

21 The significance of cuticular layer has been studied under drought stress conditions. For  
22 example, drought stress led to an increase in the concentration of cuticular wax  
23 components such as alkanes, aldehydes and ketones in *A. thaliana*, resulting in  
24 increased wax coverage in the stressed plants (Kosma et al., 2009). Under drought  
25 stress, the drought tolerant *T. aestivum* plants exhibit enhanced thickness of the  
26 cuticular layer while the susceptible varieties do not show any change in cuticle  
27 thickness (Hameed et al., 2002).

1 Likewise, the importance of cuticular wax has also been studied under pathogen  
2 infection. Marcell and Beattie (2002) exposed wild type and glossy mutants of *Z. mays*  
3 (*gl4*) to *Clavibacter michiganensis* (causal agent of leaf blight and Goss's wilt of maize).  
4 Compared to the wild-type, more bacterial colonies were observed on the *gl4* mutants,  
5 which had a thin cuticular layer due to an alteration in the wax biosynthesis pathway  
6 (Marcell and Beattie, 2002). Nutrient and water exudation through the weak cuticular  
7 layer might have encouraged the colonization of bacteria, leading to more pathogen  
8 growth in the *gl4* mutants. Jenks et al. (1994) showed that bloomless (*bm*) mutants of *S.*  
9 *bicolor*, deficient in the synthesis of epicuticular wax and having a thin cuticular layer,  
10 were highly susceptible to infection by *Exserohilum turcicum* (causal agent of leaf blight)  
11 compared to the wild type plants. The rate of water loss was found to be high in the *bm*  
12 mutant compared to wild type plants. This apparently suggests that the thickness of  
13 cuticular wax can be used as a trait to identify plants tolerant to *E. turcicum*. Plants  
14 without stomata and deficient in cuticular wax have been used to study the significance  
15 of cuticular wax under pathogen infection. Isaacson et al. (2009) showed that  
16 penetration of pathogen through stomata was more with astomatous fruits (cutin  
17 deficient, *cd* mutant) of *S. lycopersicum*. Only the *cd* fruits were found to be infected  
18 with *B. cinerea* (causal agent of grey mold) depicting a role of cutin in pathogen  
19 resistance. Along with the cutin content, the composition and architecture of the wax  
20 layer also determines their role in defense. In the above study, it was also found that  
21 among the three *cd* mutants, *cd1* which showed lack of microfissures and elevated level  
22 of amyryns and decreased levels of alkanes of chain length > 30 showed maximum  
23 water loss and minimum susceptibility to *B. cinerea* among the three mutants.

24 Although, there are no studies showing the direct role of cuticular wax under combined  
25 drought and pathogen infection, the above evidence suggests its probable role in  
26 combined stress. Thus, plants produce more complex and thick cuticular wax layer in  
27 response to drought stress, which in turn might impart tolerance to pathogen infection.  
28 Additionally, the composition and architecture of the wax layer is equally important in  
29 defining the role of cuticle in defense mechanism. Detailed investigation of the pathways  
30 that determine the composition and structure of cuticle layer may help in identifying

1 targets which can be manipulated to impart improved resistance to plants against  
2 combined drought and pathogen infection. Srinivasan et al. (2008) have found that  
3 QTLs for epicuticular wax, rate of water loss from excised leaves and harvest index co-  
4 located with QTLs associated with shoot and root-related drought resistance traits in  
5 rice. One example of such QTL is a region on chromosome 8 of rice. Considering the  
6 importance of cuticular wax in providing resistance against many pathogen infection,  
7 identification QTLs linked to wax content and disease resistance should also be done.  
8 Cuticular wax may be considered as a trait that can be used to screen plants tolerant to  
9 combined drought and pathogen infection. The measurement of wax content can be  
10 made by simple weight analysis by immersing leaves in chloroform and determining the  
11 wax content after chloroform evaporation (Zhou et al., 2013). Thus, the trait can be  
12 efficiently utilized for large scale screenings of plants better adapted to combined  
13 drought and pathogen infection.

#### 14 **5.5 Canopy temperature**

15 Canopy temperature ( $T_c$ ) has been used to measure drought stress experience of  
16 plants (Gonzalez-Dugo et al., 2005).  $T_c$  varies with each leaf under drought and  
17 pathogen infection, as stress induced drooping and curling of leaf reflects radiation  
18 differently (Jackson, 1986).  $T_c$  plays a significant role in plant growth under drought  
19 stress. *T. aestivum* plants under drought stress were found to have high  $T_c$  and yielded  
20 less than irrigated plants (Blum et al., 1989). Plants which maintain low  $T_c$  under  
21 drought stress conditions possess high plant water status and thus are better adapted  
22 for drought stress (Blum, 2009).

23 The importance of  $T_c$  under pathogen infection has also been shown by Eyal and Blum  
24 (1989).  $T_c$  of *T. aestivum* plants infected with *Mycosphaerella graminicola* (causal agent  
25 of *Septoria tritici* blotch), can be positively correlated with disease occurrence as  
26 infected plants had higher  $T_c$ . The increase in  $T_c$  can be ascribed to the damaged  
27 cuticular layer due to infection by pathogens. Furthermore, a negative correlation was  
28 observed between  $T_c$  and leaf greenness as pathogen infection progressed. Thus,

1 measurement of plant Tc can be used to identify both infected and un-infected areas  
2 (Eyal and Blum, 1989).

3 The significance of Tc under concurrent drought and pathogen infection has been  
4 shown in some studies (Pinter et al., 1979, Dow et al., 1988). When *Beta vulgaris*  
5 (sugar beet) was infected with *P. aphanidermatum* (causal agent of root rot) under  
6 drought stress, increased Tc was observed in drought stressed plants as compared to  
7 control plants (Pinter et al., 1979). Increased Tc can be attributed to infection induced  
8 root damage, resulting in interruption of water uptake and a reduction in plant water  
9 potential. Infected plants had higher Tc as compared to the drought stressed,-  
10 uninfected plants. Similar increase in Tc was observed in *Gossypium* spp. infected with  
11 *Phymatotrichum omnivorum* (causal agent of *Phymatotrichum* root rot) under drought  
12 stress (Pinter et al., 1979). Under concurrent drought and *M. phaseolina* (causal agent  
13 of charcoal rot) infection, increased leaf temperature and decreased stomatal resistance  
14 were observed in stressed *P. vulgaris* (Mayek-Perez et al. 2002). Likewise, infection  
15 under drought stress of *Sclerotinia minor* Jagger (causal agent of watery mould and soft  
16 rots) on thinned and un-thinned *Arachis hypogaea* (peanut) plants has been studied by  
17 Dow et al. (1988). Drought stressed un-thinned plant canopy showed increased disease  
18 severity compared to the thinned treatments. Thinning lead to a modification in plant  
19 canopy size, which affected the microclimate as well as Tc. High relative humidity and  
20 microclimate associated with the un-thinned canopy favored disease infection, whereas  
21 thinned canopy exhibited lower relative humidity and lesser disease infection. The  
22 effects were further supported by a reduction in soil moisture content in the thinned  
23 fields, compared to the non-thinned ones; thinned canopy might have reduced canopy  
24 level humidity and increased transpiration rate as well as water uptake from soil,  
25 resulting in lower Tc and consequently lesser infections. Thus increasing space  
26 between the plants can be utilized as an agronomic practice in areas with less soil  
27 moisture availability for providing resistance against combined drought and pathogen  
28 infection. It has been demonstrated that plants which regulate transpiration and gas  
29 exchange could maintain cooler canopies under drought conditions. Tc has also been

1 found to increase with increasing number of dead leaves (Blum, 2009), further  
2 emphasizing the importance of transpiration and gas exchange in reducing Tc.

3 Overall, a combination of drought stress and pathogen infection shows a negative  
4 correlation with Tc. Plants which maintained normal Tc under these conditions did not  
5 compromise growth and yield. Thus, Tc, which is shown to be affected by both  
6 individual and combined drought and pathogen infection, can be considered as an  
7 important trait for assessing combined drought and pathogen tolerance of plants. A  
8 simple measurement of Tc using infra-red thermometers (IRTs) can be implemented as  
9 an efficient means to screen genotypes better adapted to grow under combined drought  
10 and pathogen infection. Some QTLs for Tc has been found to be related to root  
11 development as Tc at chromosome 2B of *Triticum aestivum* is also the main QTL  
12 responsible for root developmental in wheat (Pinto and Reynolds, 2015). An attempt to  
13 find the relation between Tc and Cephalosporium stripe disease (CSD) of winter wheat  
14 caused by *Cephalosporium gramineum* has been recently made by Froese et al.,  
15 (2016). Although the authors could not find any significant relation between QTLs for Tc  
16 and disease severity, they suggest that a better evaluation of Tc might be helpful in  
17 proving the correlation between Tc and CSD resistance. As Tc is a good indicator of  
18 water status of plants investigation to find correlation between Tc and vascular diseases  
19 can also reveal mechanisms and QTLs for resistance to combined drought and  
20 pathogen infection.

21

## 22 **6. Development of crops with improved performance under combined drought** 23 **and pathogen stress**

### 24 **6.1 Role of simulation studies in assessing the impact of drought-pathogen** 25 **combination**

26 Crop yield is determined as a net result of complex interactions among abiotic and biotic  
27 conditions, soil features and crop management practices. Several crop modeling

1 approaches which can predict the effect of various weather conditions on crop yield can  
2 be used to devise strategies for farm planning and regional policy development..  
3 Similarly, a number of plant disease prediction models have also been developed and  
4 evaluated. For example, Garcia et al. (2008) developed and applied a geographical  
5 information system (GIS) based agro-meteorological disease model to determine the  
6 sowing dates with low climatic risk for the infection of potato late blight disease in the  
7 Andes region of Venezuela (Garcia et al., 2008).

8 Considering the role of biotic stress factors in determining the yield of plants, it becomes  
9 utmost important that the effect of biotic constraints are considered in addition to the  
10 abiotic factors in order to generate a more comprehensive and relevant projection of  
11 future global plant productivity under a changing climate. In order to assess the impact  
12 of combined biotic and abiotic stresses on plants, linked 'climate-crop disease' models  
13 need to be developed. Few simulation studies have been attempted to link disease  
14 forecasting models to regional climatic scenarios (Oldenburg et al., 2009; Caffarra et  
15 al., 2012). Simulation studies like these should be extended to more crops in order to  
16 assess the yield loss potential of diseases in the current scenario of climate change.  
17 This would demand intensive collaboration between climatologists, agronomists and  
18 plant pathologists involved in disease epidemic modelling. Efforts in this direction would  
19 help in planning better strategies for improving crop productivity.

## 20 **6.2 Role of genomic tools for developing combined drought and pathogen stress** 21 **tolerant crops**

22 A few important molecular studies have recently been employed to elucidate the  
23 molecular responses of plants against combined drought and pathogen stresses  
24 (Supplementary Table 3). These studies have not only shed light on a plant's defense  
25 mechanism against combined stresses but also revealed some potential candidates for  
26 improvement of plant tolerance to combined stresses. Some of the important candidate  
27 genes identified so far are methionine homeostasis gene; methionine gamma lyase  
28 (AtMGL), rapid alkalization factor-like 8 (AtRALFL8) involved in cell wall remodeling  
29 and azelaic acid induced1 (AZI1) functioning in systemic plant immunity (Atkinson et al.,



1 2013). Tolerance to combined drought and pathogen stress is also contributed by genes  
2 involved in crosstalk between the drought and pathogen infection associated signaling  
3 pathways. The roles of proline and polyamine metabolism in combined drought and  
4 pathogen stress tolerance of *A. thaliana* and *V. vinifera* have also been indicated by  
5 some studies (Hatmi et al., 2014; Gupta et al., 2016). The identified candidate genes  
6 can be suitably modulated to confer enhanced tolerance against the combined stresses.  
7 The modification can be done by genome editing using tools like CRISPR/Cas9 system.  
8 CRISPR/Cas9 system can also be used to modulate the transcription of the genes of  
9 interest by guiding catalytically inactive dead Cas9 (dCas9) or dCas9 fused with  
10 transcriptional repressors /activators to the promoter of a gene. Further research in this  
11 direction using the different functional genomic approaches can, thus, help in  
12 uncovering responses of plants to combined drought and pathogen stresses.

## 13 **7. Conclusions and future perspectives**

14 Plants under field conditions face a combination of different abiotic and biotic stresses.  
15 The interaction between these stresses and their impact on plants has been discussed  
16 earlier as part of the “disease triangle”. The interaction between the two stress  
17 conditions may either negatively or positively affect plant growth. For example, a co-  
18 existing drought can also modulate the interaction of different pathogens and plants  
19 differently, leading to either suppression or increase in pathogen growth. Therefore, it  
20 becomes very important to study the interaction between the two stresses in order to  
21 better understand the net impact of stress combinations on plants. Several important  
22 diseases such as dry root rot, powdery mildew and charcoal rot are significantly affected  
23 by co-occurring drought conditions and identification and development of superior  
24 cultivars can be done if a mechanistic understanding of the interaction between  
25 pathogen and drought stress is attained. The strategies for improving crop performance  
26 under combined drought and pathogen stress have been schematically represented in  
27 Figure 3. Attempts to understand the interactions have already been started in the form  
28 of transcriptomic studies (Supplementary Table 3). Well-designed experiments involving  
29 simultaneous drought and pathogen stress on plants have also been undertaken,

1 revealing some aspects of drought-pathogen interactions (Gupta et al., 2016; Sinha et  
2 al., 2016). Plant genotypes can be screened for traits such as RSA, leaf water potential,  
3 leaf pubescence and leaf cuticular waxes for identification of superior germplasm lines.

4 To vividly assess the effect of different stress combinations on plants, it is imperative to  
5 design experiments that can reveal different aspects of interactions between the two  
6 stresses. A well thought about stress imposition protocol that is not very different from  
7 stresses occurring under field conditions, complemented by relevant physiological  
8 assays and the recently evolved genomic tools, can help uncover the response of plants  
9 to stress combinations. Understandings from studies on plant response to combined  
10 drought and pathogen stress can be utilized by breeders and field pathologists to better  
11 analyze the performance of the superior/tolerant genotypes. Further development of  
12 crop simulation models involving a combination of drought and pathogen stress can  
13 help in disease forecasting in places where concurrence of the two stresses is  
14 prevalent. Thus, integrative efforts from crop modeling experts, agronomists, field  
15 pathologists, breeders, physiologists and molecular biologists can efficiently lead to  
16 development of combined stress tolerant crops that can perform well under field  
17 conditions.

18

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25

### 26 **Author Contribution Statement**

27 MS-K conceived the concept and provided outline. PP drafted the manuscript. VM  
28 drafted 'traits' part of the manuscript. MVB contributed to 'weeds/herbicides' part and  
29 also edited the manuscript. MS-K edited and finalized the manuscript.

30

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26

## 27 **Figures titles and legends**

28 **Figure 1. Schematic representation of effect of stress combination on plants. A)**  
29 **Effect of combined stresses on plants** is explained by representative examples of

1 heat and drought (abiotic-abiotic stress) and drought and pathogen stress (abiotic-biotic  
2 stress) combination. i) Depending on the nature of stresses, the two stresses can either  
3 not interact physically, but individually affect the plant leading to a net negative impact  
4 on plant growth or interact at plant interface and cause a net effect on the plant.  
5 Generally, abiotic stress combinations are examples of “only net effects and no stress  
6 interactions”. For example, simultaneous exposure to heat and salinity leads to  
7 enhanced retardation of physiological processes such as photosynthesis. ii) Stress  
8 interactions are conspicuous in abiotic and biotic stress combinations wherein one  
9 stress factor affects the other stress factor *per se*. For example, exposure to combined  
10 drought and pathogen stress may result in a complex scenario encompassing an  
11 interaction of the two stresses along with the impact of the two stresses on the plant.  
12 Depending on the plant patho-system, the interaction may lead to enhanced or reduced  
13 susceptibility to a particular pathogen. Some pathogens also modulate drought  
14 tolerance of the plant. **B) Effect of multiple individual stresses (sequential stresses)**  
15 **on plants.** Sequential stresses may either lead to priming or predisposition of plants to  
16 the subsequent stress as explained by examples of heat-pathogen and drought -  
17 pathogen stress combinations. **i) Priming:** Exposure of plants to moderate heat stress  
18 (indicated by red arrow) may prime the plants to the subsequent pathogen infection.  
19 Mild stress can evoke stress memory in the form of epigenetic changes or  
20 transcriptomic changes in plants which may last short or long-term, leading to enhanced  
21 tolerance of stress to subsequent more severe stresses (same or different stress). **ii)**  
22 **Predisposition:** A pre-occurring drought stress can pre-dispose plants to pathogen  
23 infection due to weakened plant defenses or any other metabolic changes occurring due  
24 to the drought stress. 1- Mittler, 2006; 2- Ahmed et al., 2013, 3-Gupta et al., 2016; 4  
25 Sharma and Pande 2013, 5- Xu et al., 2008, 6-REF; 7 Mayek-Perez et al., 2002.

26 **Figure 2. Impact of combined abiotic stress and pathogen infection on plants.**  
27 Impact of weather variables such as temperature, rainfall and relative humidity (RH) on  
28 disease development of stem rot caused by *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* in *Cicer arietinum*.  
29 The figure shows increased incidence of stem rot under conditions of moderate  
30 temperature, high humidity and high rainfall (1). The impact of combined drought and

1 pathogen infection has been shown by taking examples from a few representative  
2 studies. The combined drought in other cases are known to either predispose plants to  
3 infection or increase disease severity (2, 3 and 4). Drought can be ameliorated by the  
4 concurrent viral infection resulting in increased yield in combined stressed plants as  
5 compared to individually stressed plants (5). All the graphs have been reconstructed  
6 from data taken from respective studies.

7 **Figure 3. Outline of strategies for improving crop performance under combined**  
8 **drought and pathogen stress.** For understanding the effect of stress on plants, it is  
9 important to first understand the nature of the stress combinations i.e., the interaction  
10 between the two stresses as influenced by the timing, intensity and duration. For  
11 example, the pathogen-drought stress interaction can be understood by studying the  
12 effect of drought on pathogen life-cycle and virulence. The net effect can be deciphered  
13 by studying the response of plants to combined stress which comprises of shared and  
14 unique responses. For example, a comparison of pre-existing information on a plant's  
15 molecular responses to individual stresses (microarray datasets and metabolic profile)  
16 can help in the identification of probable shared responses. Unique responses can be  
17 studied by performing actual combined stress studies and investigating physiological,  
18 molecular and metabolic changes in plants under the stress combinations. The other  
19 area of research can be the identification of traits associated with combined stress  
20 tolerance **(A)**. Few strategies are available for improving plant tolerance to combined  
21 stress conditions. A comprehensive understanding of the nature and effect of stress  
22 combination on plants is helpful in devising effective strategies for crop improvement  
23 under combined stress conditions. If the stress interaction is important in defining the  
24 disease incidence, strategies exploiting the stress interaction can be more helpful in  
25 enhancing tolerance of plants to combined stress. For example, a simple modulation in  
26 irrigation regime can help in combating the pathogen infection. If the net effect of both  
27 the stresses on plants is more important, the information derived from the transcriptomic  
28 studies can be utilized to select candidate genes and plants with better adaptation to  
29 combined stress can be engineered by suitable modulation of expression of the  
30 candidate genes **(B)**.

- 1 **Supplementary Figure 1.** Schematic representation of forms of stresses in nature.
- 2 **Supplementary Figure 2.** Schematic representation of effect of combined stresses on  
3 plant responses.
- 4 **Supplementary Figure 3.** Schematic representation of drought modulated pathogen  
5 infection in plants.
- 6 **Supplementary Table 1.** Examples of some important stress combinations affecting  
7 plant growth and yield.
- 8 **Supplementary Table 2.** Different abiotic- biotic interactions and their impact on plants.
- 9 **Supplementary Table 3.** List of recent molecular and physiological studies on  
10 combined drought and pathogen infection.

11

Provisional

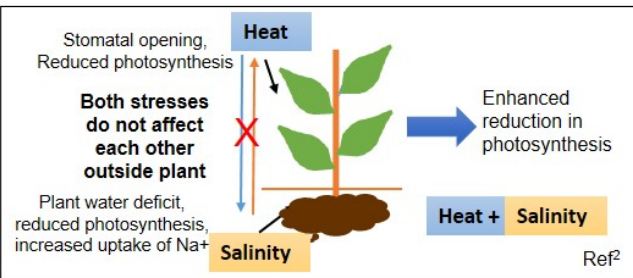
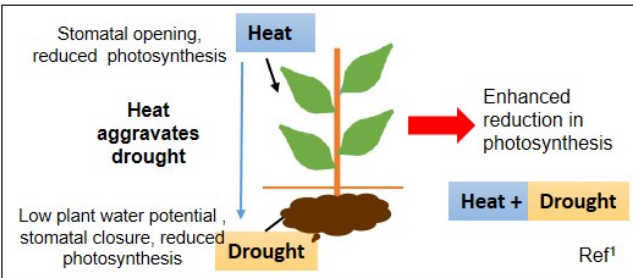


Figure 1

A)

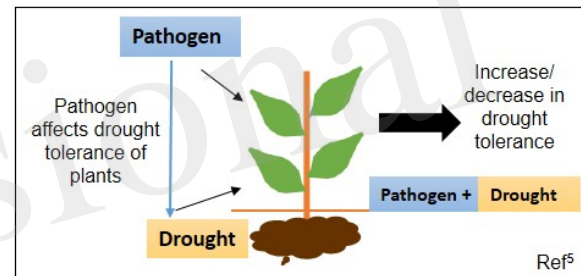
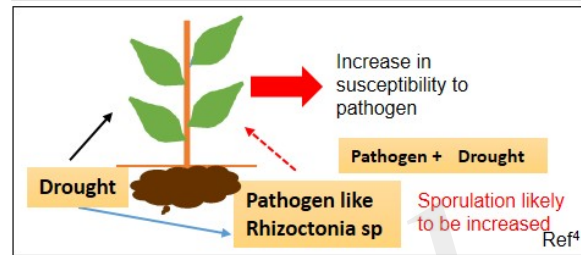
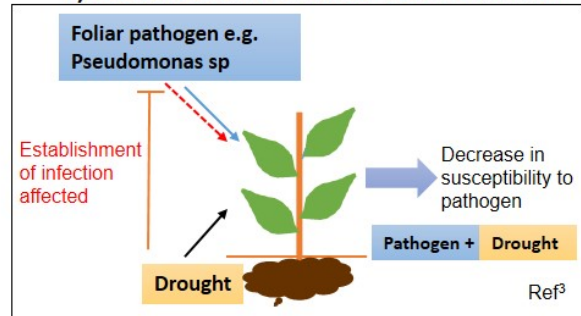
**No direct interaction between the two stresses (only net effect)**

**i) Abiotic-abiotic stress combination**



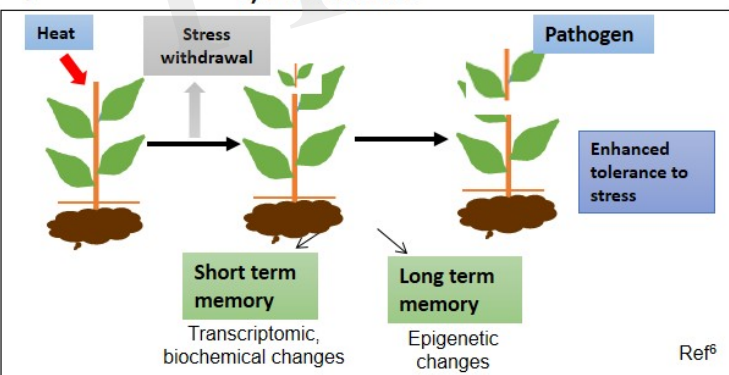
**Stress interactions leading to impact on plants**

**ii) Abiotic-biotic stress combination**



B)

**i) Endurance**



**ii) Predisposition**

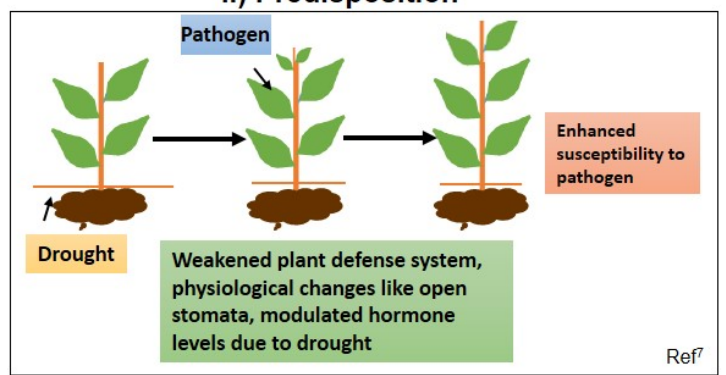


Figure 2

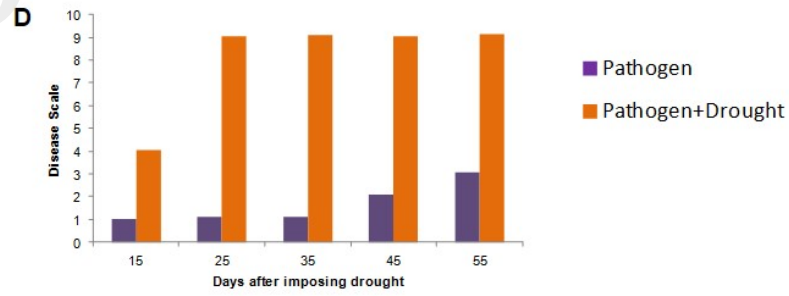
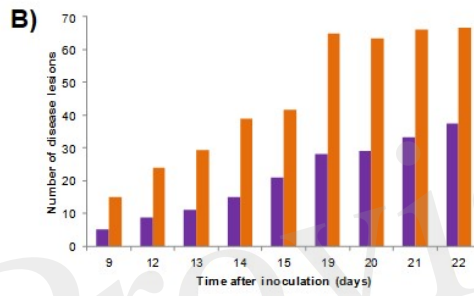
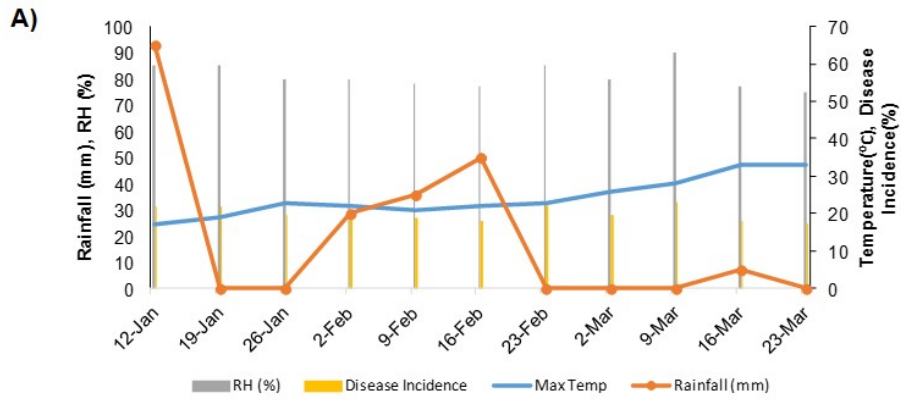
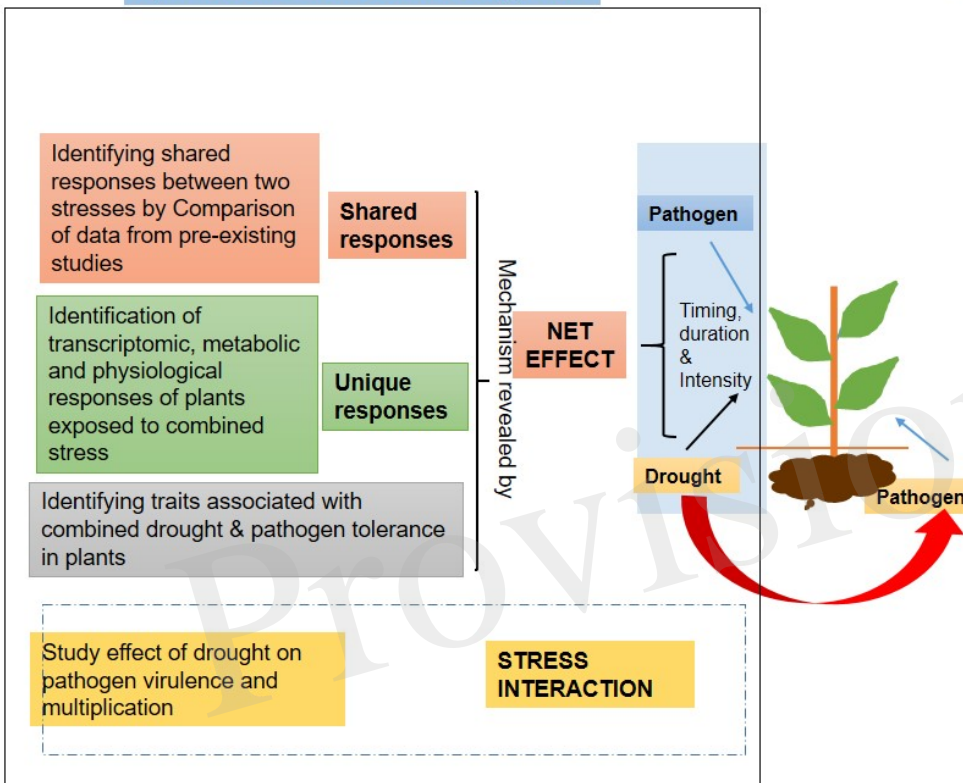


Figure 3

**A) Probable areas of investigation**



**B) Strategies for crop improvement under combined drought and pathogen infection**

