

Future development of apricot blossom blight under climate change in Southern France

Paul Tresson, Laurent Brun, Iñaki Garcia de Cortazar-Atauri, Jean-Marc Audergon, Sophie Buléon, Hélène Chenevotot, Freddy Combe, Doriane Dam, Maxime Jacquot, Baptiste Labeyrie, et al.

To cite this version:

Paul Tresson, Laurent Brun, Iñaki Garcia de Cortazar-Atauri, Jean-Marc Audergon, Sophie Buléon, et al.. Future development of apricot blossom blight under climate change in Southern France. European Journal of Agronomy, 2020, 112, pp.125960. 10.1016/j.eja.2019.125960. hal-02361185

HAL Id: hal-02361185 <https://hal.science/hal-02361185v1>

Submitted on 15 Nov 2019

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

Future development of apricot blossom blight under climate change in Southern France 1 2

3 Paul Tresson^{1,2,7}, Laurent Brun², Iñaki Garcia de Cortazar-Atauri¹, Jean-Marc Audergon³, 4 Sophie Buléon⁴, Hélène Chenevotot², Freddy Combe², Doriane Dam², Maxime Jacquot⁵, 5 Baptiste Labeyrie⁶, Vincent Mercier², Claude-Eric Parveaud⁵, Marie Launay¹

- 7¹ INRA US1116 AgroClim, Domaine St. Paul, Site Agroparc, 84914 Avignon Cedex 9, France
- 8² INRA UERI Gotheron, 460 route de Gotheron, 26320 Saint-Marcel-Lès-Valence, France
- 3 INRA GAFL, Domaine Saint-Maurice, 67 Allée des Chênes CS60094 84143 MONTFAVET 9
- 10CEDEX
- 11⁴ Chambre d'Agriculture Ardèche et Drôme, 145 Avenue Georges Brassens, 26500 Bourg-lès-
- 12Valence

13⁵ GRAB, 460 route de Gotheron, 26320 Saint-Marcel-Lès-Valence, France

14⁶ SEFRA, Quartier Marcellas - 26800 Etoile Sur Rhône

15⁷ Present affiliations : CIRAD, UR GECO, Montpellier, France ; GECO, Univ. Montpellier,

16CIRAD, Montpellier, France ; LIRMM, Univ. Montpellier, CNRS, France.

17

18

19 Corresponding author:

20 Marie Launay

21Tel.: $+33$ 4 32 72 23 67. E-mail address: marie.launay@inra.fr

22

Abstract 23

24

25 Climate change will have several consequences for agro-systems, one of which will concern 26 changes to the development of pathogens. Because of the losses it causes, particularly in 27 organic farming, Monilinia laxa is an important pathogen affecting apricot crops. This study 28 focuses on the consequences of climate change regarding blossom and twig blight (Monilinia 29laxa) of apricot. To achieve this, a Climatic Index of cumulated Blight risk (CIB) was built, to 30 obtain the weighted sum of blossom blight incidence throughout the blooming period. An 31epidemiological model to calculate the incidence of blossom blight during every potentially 32 infectious episode and based on biological parameters, was calibrated using a trap pot 33 experiment where trees were placed in orchards and subject to various meteorological 34 conditions. The CIB derived from this model was evaluated on field data, and was shown to 35be a robust and useful tool to predict the effects of climate change on the development of 36 apricot blight. Then, using the CIB with a phenological model to predict blooming periods in 37the future, we estimated the risks of apricot blight until 2100 on four contrasted apricot 38 cultivars and in three geographical zones under climate change scenarios RCP 4.5 and 8.5. 39This study revealed different effects of climate change depending on the cultivar and altitude. Apricot trees would bloom earlier (up to a difference of 50 days between 1950 and 2100) 40 41under climate change. Under the combined effects of these shifts of blooming period and 42 changing climatic conditions, late cultivars such as Bergarouge might see a reduction in the 43risk of blossom blight (down to 31%) because of warmer but dryer blooming periods. Other 44 varieties (e.g.: Bergeron) could experience an increase in this risk by up to 27% with a shift of 45the blooming period towards rainier conditions at the highest altitudes. The results of this 46 study could be used to anticipate future changes as well as be used at present as a decision-47 support tool for farmers.

48

49Key words

50Blossom blight, Monilinia laxa, apricot orchards, Prunus armeniaca L., climate change, 51 modelling, phenology

531. Introduction

54

55

56Climatic changes such as increase of air temperature and rainfall variability can directly 57 and/or indirectly affect pathogens and the plant diseases they are causing, which has been 58 recently reviewed (Trebicki and Finlay, 2019). All important life cycle stages of fungal 59 pathogens are more or less directly influenced by the prevailing environmental conditions. 60The infection process is particularly dependent on the species specific temperature and 61humidity requirements of the pathogens. According to the review article by Juroszek and 62 Tiedemann (2015) infection risk is the most frequently investigated plant disease parameter in 63 disease risk simulation studies, where crop disease models have been linked to climate 64 scenarios including, for example, downy mildew infection risk of grapevine (Vitis vinifera L.) 65 published by Launay et al. (2014). As well as direct effects on pathogens, climate change will 66also affect plant phenology (Körner and Basler, 2010) and thus modify host-pathogen 67 synchronism (Caubel et al., 2017). This indirect effect of climate change on disease 68 development will be all the more crucial regarding pathogens that infect plants during a short 69 and sensitive phenological stage, such as infectious diseases which attack during blooming 70 periods.

71 Apricot (Prunus armeniaca L.) is an important crop in the Mediterranean region (14,000 ha 72 planted and 180,000 T of fruit produced in 2014) and particularly in southern France (third 73 most important fruit crop) (Lichou and Jay, 2012), but like other such crops, apricot requires 74 repeated fungicide treatments to secure production. In 2012, an average apricot orchard in France received 11.8 treatments, including 8.1 against fungi (AGRESTE, 2014). Among the 75 76 different fungi that affect apricot, *Monilinia spp*. causes the most losses (Hrustić et al., 2012; 77Oliveira Lino et al., 2016). Three species of Monilinia have a significant economic impact: *Monilinia laxa*, *Monilinia fructicola* and *Monilinia fructigena* (Hrustić et al., 2012; Oliveira 78 79Lino et al., 2016). The latter has been the subject of the most study because of the damages it 80also causes to apple and pear crops. However, infections affecting stone fruits are mainly due 81to Monilinia laxa and Monilinia fructicola (Oliveira Lino et al., 2016). Monilinia laxa can 82infect apricot blossom, twigs and fruit. Blossom and twig blight are the principal concerns, 83 particularly for organic farmers, and can cause losses of up to 90% in Southern France (Parveau et al., 2016). 84

85 Apricot blossom is sensitive to blight (whether this is caused by *M. laxa* or *M. fructicola*) at 86flowering. The flowers have been shown to be the most susceptible when they are wide open 87(BBCH Stage 65; Hack et al., 1992) (Luo et al., 2001). In some cases, infected blossoms can 88then convey infection to the twigs, generating a necrosis of internal tissues. Moreover, twig 89blight can only be caused when transmitted via infected blossom (Agrios, 2005). During the 90 present study, we focused on twig and blossom blight, as there is a causal relationship 91 between the two, and did not address the problem of fruit rot.

92The development of Monilinia fungal infection on stone fruit blossom is linked to 93 meteorological conditions in several ways, as has been demonstrated by previous studies. 94 Experimenting in a growth chamber, Tamm et al. (1995) revealed the effects of the duration of 95 petal wetness and temperature on the development of blossom blight caused by *M. laxa* on 96 cherry (Prunus avium L.). Luo et al., (2001) produced similar results in 2001 in their study on 97 plums (Prunus domestica L.) infected by M. fructicola. Relative humidity and water activity 98have also been shown to affect the development of *M. fructicola* on cherry blossom petals 99(Koball et al., 1997). Casals et al., (2010) highlighted the importance of the same weather 100factors to the germination of *M. fructicola* on Petri dishes (Casals et al., 2010). However, 101although the effects of climate on the development of *Monilinia* have been studied before, to 102our knowledge this has only been done under controlled conditions. It may be difficult to 103 ensure reliable recordings of the variables used to describe incidence, mycelial development 104 or conidia germination in the field. For example, leaf wetness duration is widely used in crop-105 disease epidemiological models but remains difficult to measure accurately (Gleason et al., 2008). 106

107In the context of climate change, the increasing threat of apricot blight makes it necessary to 108 develop tools that will enable us to define/imagine crop systems adapted to future conditions. 109There is therefore a need for bioclimatic modelling to anticipate the changes to come and 110adapt our agro-systems (Jeschke and Strayer, 2008). Current epidemiological models that are 111used as Decision Support Systems (DSS) are often of a purely statistical nature. They are 112 calibrated on current data for use at present but may lack robustness regarding any changes to 113 conditions which fall outside their domain of validity. On the other hand, bioclimatic and 114 physiological models are calibrated under controlled conditions (Petri dishes, growth 115 chambers, greenhouses) that may not reflect the reality in the field, so are once again 116 deficient. Faced with the future uncertainties inherent in climate change, our models need to 117be adaptable and valid under different conditions (Maier et al., 2016).

118The study we present here only concerned M. laxa, as several identification tests performed 119 during the experiments based on the Lane identification key (Lane, 2002) had reported a great 120 majority of *M. laxa* cases (93.7%), rather than *M. fructicola* (6.3%) and *M. fructigena* (none). 121

122The aims of this study were to (1) produce a climatic index of blight risk thanks to an 123epidemiological model simulating the incidence of blossom and twig blight caused by M. 124laxa on apricot. This model, including biological parameters, was calibrated on field data 125 from a trap pot experiment and then evaluated on independent data from a network of 126orchards;

 $127(2)$ determine the effects of climate change on apricot blossom blight. To do so, we first of all 128 applied a phenological process-based model to simulate flowering changes, and then 129implemented our epidemiological model to calculate the incidence of blossom blight on four 130 contrasted apricot cultivars in three geographical ranges and under two climate change 131 scenarios.

132

2. Materials and methods 133

134

2.1. Building a climatic index of cumulated blight risk 135

136The Climatic Index of cumulated Blight risk (CIB) that we propose is built in several sections. 137A blossom incidence *I* is calculated using a modified version of the epidemiological model 138 proposed by Tamm et al. in 1995. This factor reflects primary blossom infection due to 139 inoculum dispersal and infection as a function of rainfall and temperature. This blossom 140 infection can then be transmitted to twigs. This transmission is not equal at all stages of 141blossom development so incidence I is weighted according to the proportion of disease-142 sensitive stages at the time of infection, to form a Weighted Incidence *WI*. The twig blight 143observed at the end of blooming is thus the result of several infectious episodes and the 144 different WI experienced by an orchard are then summed to obtain a Climatic Index of 145 cumulated Blight risk (CIB) that reflects twig infection.

146

2.1.1. Incidence of blossom blight 147

148The epidemiological model we used for this study was a modified version of that proposed by Tamm et al., (1995) to describe the incidence of *M. laxa* blossom blight (*number of* 149 150symptomatic blossoms/total number of blossoms) on sour cherry trees (Tamm et al., 1995). 151This model describes a continuous response surface for any given temperature and wetness

152 duration, making it usable under different conditions and appropriate for the study of climate 153 change. We nevertheless made several modifications to this model.

154 First, Tamm's model takes wetness duration and temperature as input variables to generate 155 incidence data. During our study, we preferred to use rainfall rather than wetness duration to 156 explain blight incidence (see Supplementary Materials 1 for a comparison between wetness 157 duration and rainfall). One of the advantages of this approach is that rainfall data are easier to 158 measure accurately in the field.

159 Second, in order to prevent the model from generating positive incidence values in the 160absence of rainfall (as the trees displayed no symptoms under dry conditions), we added a 161 corrective term taking a zero-value for null rainfall and a one-value otherwise. In this context, **162**a supplementary factor built on precipitation (*p*) and a constant ε , $p/(p + \varepsilon)$ with $\varepsilon \neq 0$, was 163 added to force the model to return no incidence if the rainfall is null.

164 The equation of our modified version of the Tamm model is therefore as follows (eq.1):

165

$$
166I(p,T)=\frac{p}{p+\epsilon}*i_{max}*[1-(1-i_0(T)^{(1-m)})*e^{-r(T)*p}]^{\frac{1}{1-m}}(1)
$$

167with,

 $168i_0(T) = \gamma_1 * \phi^{\gamma_2} * (1 - \phi)$ (2) $169r(T) = \rho_1 * \phi^{\rho_2} * (1-\phi)$ (3)

170where,

$$
171\phi = \frac{(T - T_{min})}{(T_{max} - T_{min})}
$$
(4)

172

173The model returns the incidence I for a given rainfall p and temperature T . The model takes as 174known parameters i_{max} (the maximum observed incidence), and T_{min} and T_{max} the minimal and **175** maximal cardinal temperatures for *M. laxa* development. The fit parameters ρ_1 , ρ_2 , γ_1 , γ_2 and ε 176 were estimated during model fitting. The shape parameter *m* was set at 0.9 as advised by 177 Tamm (Tamm et al., 1995). The ϕ factor describes a "bell curve" response to temperature. The $178i_0(T)$ factor was originally designed to return an incidence in the absence of wetness duration. 179We retained it despite the supplementary factor that we added because we saw a rapid 180 increase in the incidence observed on trees under low rainfall levels. This factor therefore 181 describes incidence at low rainfall values. The $r(T)$ factor is a rate parameter describing the 182 response to rainfall.

183

184In addition to this model, we also tested two others (see Supplementary Materials 2.): (i) a 185simple generic infection model based on epidemiological knowledge and proposed by 186Magarey and colleagues (Magarey et al., 2005, referred to below as "Magarey"), and (ii) a 187 purely statistical model (linear regression, referred to as "LM") established from our trap pot 188 experiment dataset. We chose the modified Tamm model we because of its greater robustness 189 and suitability for climate change studies (for details see Supplementary Materials 2.).

190

2.1.2. Transmission to twigs 191

192As the proportion of disease-sensitive blossoms is evolving with phenology, *I* has to be 193 weighted for rainy events that occur at different times during blooming.

194Different blooming stages are susceptible in different ways to blossom blight (Luo et al., 1952001). We observed that 58 to 65 BBCH stages (flower opening) displayed comparable 196 sensitivity and the 57 stage (sepals opening) had less sensitivity; 57 stage infections were only 197 possible in the context of a highly infectious event and were observed at lower proportions 198(data not shown). The Weighted Incidence WI was thus defined as:

199

$$
200 \text{W}I = \frac{I \times (0.25 S_{57} + S_{5865})}{S_{57} + S_{5865}} \text{ if } I \ge 0.5 \quad (5)
$$

$$
201WI = \frac{I \times S_{5865}}{S_{57} + S_{5865}} \quad \text{if } I < 0, 5 \tag{6}
$$

202 With S_{57} being the number of flowers at BBCH stage 57 and S_{5865} being the number of flowers 203at BBCH stages 58 to 65.

204Because twig infection is caused by infected blossoms, use of these weightings was necessary 205to correctly describe transmission of the infection to twigs.

206

207

2.1.3. Climatic index of cumulated blight risk

208The twig infection observed was the result of several blossom infections, each being caused 209by a rainy event during blooming. We chose to identify a single rainy event during the 210blooming period as a record of rainfall separated from another rainfall episode by at least 4 211 hours without rain or leaf wetness. We estimated that 4 hours was sufficiently long for the 212 wetness caused by the rain to dry, so that the next event could be considered separately. 213Finally, by summing the WI associated with different rainy events, we were able to build a **Climatic Index of cumulated Blight risk** (CIB) reflecting the history of infectious events 214 215 (eq. 7).

 $CIB = \sum_{i=1}$ *n* 216*CIB* = \sum *WI*_{*i*} (7) *n* being the number of recorded rainy events

217

```
2.2. Data
218
```
219

2.2.1. Trap pot experiment for model calibration 220

221CIB parameters corresponding to those enabling calculation of the blossom infection (*I*) 222 component were optimised with data from a trap pot experiment. This trap pot experiment 223was performed under semi-controlled conditions: we chose the weather events to which the 224 pots would be exposed by taking them out into the orchard or returning them to the

225 greenhouse. In the orchard, they continued to be exposed to field inoculums and current 226 weather conditions. The fact that we could choose the events to which the trees were exposed 227 enabled us to cover a broad range of weather conditions for model calibration, and at the same 228time this contributed robustness to our model as the calibration was performed using field 229data.

230 The trap pot experiment for model calibration was carried out at the INRA Gotheron Research Station (Southern France, 44° 58' 37'' N, 4° 55' 48'' E) over a two-year period, *i.e.* 2017 and 231 2322018.

233 Trap apricot trees in pots were set out in the orchard for a defined period of time (around 24 234 hours), during which they were exposed to recorded meteorological conditions (see 3.1.2) and 235outdoor Monilinia inoculum. The pots were then moved to a greenhouse in which the 236 conditions were controlled and favourable to the expression of blossom blight.

237 Apricot trees of the Bergarouge cultivar (Bergarouge® (A2914) Avirine (cov)) were used as 238the trap pot trees. This cultivar is known to be very sensitive to blossom blight (Parveau et al., 2392016). The expression of symptoms in the event of exposure to *M. laxa* and favourable 240 climatic conditions for infection was therefore ensured. The orchard comprised three lines of 24125 trees along a south-north axis.

242We used seven groups of six Bergarouge trees in pots during 2017 and nine groups of five 243trees in 2018. Before exposure, the trees were maintained in a cold room $(4^{\circ}C)$ to keep their 244 phenology under control. Each tree within a group was exposed for the same period in the 245 orchard between the BBCH 57 and BBCH 65 stages (disease-sensitive stages) and during the 246blooming period of the Bergeval orchard. The first group of trees was exposed on 27 February 247 and the last on 10 March in 2017, while in 2018 the trees were exposed for periods between 7 248 and 28 March. After exposure, pots were placed in a greenhouse under controlled conditions 249 (relative humidity $>40\%$, ambient temperature between 5° C and 25° C).

250 With each group, a control tree was left in the greenhouse to prove the absence of any 251 inoculum inside the greenhouse.

252

2.2.2. Orchard network for model evaluation 253

254The model was tested on independent data by studying an orchard network in Southern 255 France. The CIB was calculated for the orchards and compared versus a measured Twig 256Blight Incidence (TBI).

257

258The network comprised 15 orchards located in the Drôme and Ardèche regions (Rhône Valley, 259 France, ranging between 4°48' 29" E - 4° 58' 54" E and between 45° 14' 52" N - 44° 41' 51" N). 260Thirteen orchards were studied in both 2017 and 2018 and two were studied in 2018, thus 261 providing a total of 28 siteXyear measurements of Twig Blight Incidence. None of the 262orchards was treated against fungal diseases.

263These 15 orchards were planted with two moderately sensitive cultivars: ten with the 264 Bergeron cultivar (Bergeron (660)) and five with the Bergeval cultivar (Parveau et al., 2016). 265 These cultivars are less sensitive to blossom blight than the Bergarouge trees used for the 266blossom blight model. However, this was not expected to alter the performance of the model 267(see Discussion).

268

269Blighted twigs were counted on five random main branches per orchard to obtain one TBI 270 notation per orchard:

$$
271TBI = \frac{numberofbli\ g\ h\ tedtwigs}{total number of twigs} \quad (8)
$$

272

273The evolution of blossom phenological stages was recorded regularly (three times a week) on 274ten trees in each orchard. On several occasions, the proportion of blossom at each stage was

275 estimated. The proportion of blossom at any time during the different stages was then 276 extrapolated linearly between two estimation dates.

277

2.2.3. Recorded meteorological data 278

279A weather station (IMT 200 Pessl Instruments, Weiz, Austria) was placed in the middle of 280each orchard (trap pot experiment and each orchard in the orchard network) at a height of 1.80 281m. Rainfall (mm), temperature ($\rm{^{\circ}C}$) and leaf wetness (min) were recorded at an hourly time 282step using a rain gauge, temperature sensor and filter paper leaf sensor, respectively. Leaf 283 wetness was also measured with an electric resistance sensor to assess the reliability of the 284 measurements (this variable is used in Supplementary Materials 1).

285

2.2.4. Future climate data 286

287We performed the study using the predicted rainfall and temperature data of 46 DRIAS grids 288(French climate change modelling project, **http://www.drias-climat.fr)**, which are 8 x 8 km 289wide. They were selected in the Rhône Valley at locations were apricot is currently being 290cultivated.

291

292For more clarity we decided to group the DRIAS grids thus employed in several clusters. A 293Hierarchical Ascending Classification was performed (mean temperature and mean rainfall as 294 entry variables) and reflected groups as a function of altitude (see Supplementary Materials 2953). The following clusters were thus used (see *Fig. 1*):

296Cluster 1: altitude <100m

297 Cluster 2: 100m ≤ altitude ≤ 400m

298Cluster 3: altitude > 400m

300Present and future climatic conditions (between 1950 and 2100) were applied using the 301ALADIN-Climate regional climate model nested within the global ARPEGE model (Deque, 2010). Three periods were simulated: the 'recent past' (RP, 1970–1999), 'near future' (NF, 302 2020–2049) and 'far future' (FF, 2070–2099) according to two 'representative concentration 303 304 pathway' emission scenarios, RCP4.5 (median) and RCP8.5 (pessimistic) (Pachauri et al., 2014). 305

306

2.3. Application to climate change 307

308

2.3.1. Phenological model 309

310In order to apply our model to the context of climate change, it was necessary to forecast 311apricot blooming periods in the future. We therefore implemented a two-step phenological 312 model on future climatic data.

313

2.3.1.1. Estimation of the mid-blooming date 314

315To simulate the blooming period for apricot we used the sequential phenological process-316based model proposed by Andreini et al. (2014). The date of budbreak is simulated using the 317Smoothed Utah function (Bonhomme et al., 2010, advised by Andreini et al. 2014) and the 318time between budbreak and mid-blooming (F50) is simulated with a sigmoid model (Chuine 319et al., 2016). We estimated the mid-blooming dates for four cultivars chosen to have different 320 precocities in terms of dormancy release and blooming: cv. Beliana (Beliana® Sayeb) 321 (median to early blooming period), cv. Bergarouge (used during the trap pot experiment, 322 median blooming period), cv. Bergeron (late blooming period, widely used in the Rhône 323Valley) and cv. Rouge du Roussillon (Rouge du Roussillon (A157)) (early blooming period).

324The models we used to estimate the F50 date had already been calibrated for the different 325 cultivars (Andreini et al., 2014, Chuine et al., 2016), (Garcia de Cortazar-Atauri et al., 2013). 326

2.3.1.2. Estimation of the blooming period 327

328The expand of the blooming period was estimated by studying the phenological data recorded 329by the orchard network. No significant differences were found between the expands of the 330blooming periods of Bergeron and Bergeval (T-test, p-value $= 0.2196$). Recordings on the two 331 cultivars were then grouped. We found that the proportion of disease sensitive stages during 332blooming (degree-days) could be approximated using a Gaussian curve centred on the 333 maximum proportion of opened flowers (around 100% of opened flowers) and of a 28 degree-334day standard deviation. It was then possible to estimate the expand of the blooming period at 335 around F50, starting 122 degree-days before F50 and ending 133 degree-days after F50.

336

2.4. Data analysis 337

338Statistical analysis and computations were performed using R 3.4.3. Computations for 339phenological modelling were performed using Phenology-Modeling-Platform 5.5 340(http://www.cefe.cnrs.fr/fr/recherche/ef/forecast/phenology-modelling-platform) (Chuine et 341al., 2013).

342

2.4.1. Model calibration 343

344Goodness-of-fit was assessed using the Root Mean Square Error (RMSE, eq.9) and Relative 345 Root Mean Square Error (RRMSE, eq.10).

346

$$
347 \text{ RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (S_i - O_i)^2}{n}} \text{ (9) and } \text{ RMSE} = \frac{\text{RMSE}}{\bar{O}} \text{ (10)}
$$

348

27

349Where *n* is the number of observations, S_i the simulated value and \bar{O} the average of observed 350 values O_i. RMSE can be broken down into two components representing systematic (bias or 351RMSEs) and unsystematic (dispersion or RMSEu) error (Willmott, 1981).

$$
352 \\
$$

$$
353 \text{RMSEs} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (\hat{S}_i - O_i)^2}{n}} \quad (11)
$$

$$
354 \text{RMSEu} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (\hat{S}_i - S_i)^2}{n}} \quad (12)
$$

355

356With \hat{S}_i being derived from the linear regression of observed versus simulated values: $357\hat{S}_i = a+b*O_i$ *with a* and *b* being the parameters of the regression.

358

2.4.2. Model evaluation 359

360The performance of our model was then assessed from the correlation between the observed

361Twig Blight Incidence of orchards in the network and their respective calculated CIB.

362

2.4.3. Algorithm for climate change study 363

364 The method used for computation is described in Figure 2.

365

3663. Results

367

3.1. Model fitting and evaluation 368

369 Our model revealed a RMSE of 6.12% incidence when comparing the simulated incidence on 370 flowers with those observed in the calibration dataset. Given that the average incidence was 27.34%, the RRMSE of our model was 22.43%, which could be considered to be a 371

372 satisfactory performance. A comparison between simulated and observed incidences is 373 illustrated in Figure 3.

374

375

376 Furthermore, the RMSEs was 1.86% whereas the RMSEu was 5.84%, meaning that the error 377 was mostly due to dispersal of the points (*i.e.* biological variability) and not to bias in the 378 chosen formalism. This can also be seen in Figure 4 which represents the residuals associated 379 with each point.

380

381 The parameter values we obtained after optimisation are shown in Table 1.

382

383The CIB calculated using our model was correlated with Twig Blight Infection at $R^2 = 0.46$ 384(Fig.5). Given the numerous parameters varying between the orchards (see Discussion), we 385 considered this performance to be satisfactory.

386

3.2. Evolution of blooming dates 387

388The predictions of the phenological model indicated a shift of all mid-blooming dates to an 389earlier day in the year (DOY) for all cultivar and clusters. Under climate change scenario 390RCP4.5, the median blooming date was 20 days earlier, from 89.9 DOY (i.e. 31 March in 3911950) to 72.2 DOY (March 12 in 2100). This shift was more marked under scenario RCP8.5, 392 where the F50 date moved to 61.5 DOY ($1st$ March) in 2100 (Fig. 6). Rouge du Roussillon and 393Beliana displayed similar but moderated shifts toward earlier blooming dates (of around 20 394 days), but the Bergeron cultivar notably experienced a shift of almost 50 days in its mid-395blooming date in all clusters under the RCP8.5 scenario. Therefore, by 2100, the differences 396 in blooming periods between Bergeron and other cultivars would no longer be significant. On 397the contrary, Bergarouge experienced less variation in its blooming date and would thus 398become the latest blooming cultivar by 2100 in both cluster 1 and cluster 2. We concluded 399that under the RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios, but particularly with the latter, a shift towards 400earlier blooming periods and a convergence between the blooming periods of different 401 cultivars would be observed, with consequences regarding the climatic conditions during 402blooming and thus the risk of blossom blight.

403

3.3. Evolution of climatic conditions during the blooming period 404

405This future convergence of blooming periods caused a convergence of the climatic conditions 406 prevailing during the blooming of different cultivars. In particular, Bergeron and Bergarouge 407 experienced opposite and strong shifts. The blooming conditions for Bergarouge shifted 408 towards warmer but dryer conditions, and would be 2° C warmer in the far future than in the 409 past in all clusters and under both scenarios, the trees receiving 10 to 20 mm less rainfall 410 during blooming (Fig. 7). On the other hand, Bergeron saw a marked shift of its blooming 411 period towards earlier dates, so that this cultivar would experience cultivar conditions that 412 would be colder (2.8 \textdegree C lower in cluster 3 and RCP8.5) and rainier (especially in cluster 1). 413 Rouge du Roussillon and Beliana saw more moderate shifts; those in cluster 3 shifted towards 414 dryer conditions while cluster 1 saw a temperature-related shift towards warmer conditions.

415

416From an epidemiological standpoint, the impacts of these changes to climatic conditions 417 during blooming could indeed be assessed by the CIB computation.

418

3.4. Future risk of apricot blight 419

420 Significant differences in future CIB were only found in the eventuality of the RCP8.5 421 scenario, so this is the only one described in greater detail below.

422The CIB calculated by the model revealed different consequences of climate change that 423 varied according to the clusters and cultivars studied (Fig.8). Variations in the CIB between 424 past and far future ranged from +27% (Bergeron cluster 1) to -31% (Bergarouge, cluster 1). 425 However, cluster 1 (lowest altitudes) displayed greater inter-annual variations, although these 426 differences were not always significant.

427

428We noted a significant in the risk to which Bergarouge is exposed, in all clusters. This could 429be linked to the shift of its blooming period to warmer but dryer conditions, the expected 430 positive effect from rising temperatures being counter-balanced by the negative effect of 431lower rainfall (Fig. 7). On the other hand, an increase in risk may be possible in the near 432 future (nf) for Bergeron in cluster 3 (altitudes higher than 400 m) because of colder but rainier 433blooming conditions. Beliana and Rouge du Roussillon experienced more diverse conditions 434 depending on the cluster, with a general trend regarding disease risk that stagnated or 435 diminished in the far future.

436

4374. Discussion

438This study generated a climatic index of cumulated blight risk based on an epidemiological 439 model, describing the blossom and twig blight caused by *M. laxa* on apricot. The model we 440used was built using biological parameters driving development of the fungus (optimal 441 growth temperatures, response to rain). This gave the model robustness, enabling its use 442 within the framework of a changing climate. Furthermore, by comparison to the original 443Tamm model, this model was calibrated and evaluated on easily measurable variables and in 444the field, so that it is more applicable and closer to observed incidence. To our knowledge, 445 this approach – integrating the incidence of both blossom and twig blight in the same CIB

446 index, based on biological parameters and easily accessible weather inputs (daily temperature 447 and rainfall), and valuable under field conditions $-$ is entirely new.

448To estimate the effects of climate change on blight risks, we first of all determined the 449 sensitivity periods of several cultivars. By estimating the present and future CIB at different 450 altitudes (and even latitudes to a lesser extent), we were able to reveal different changes as a 451 function of the precocities of the trees and their altitudes. The late blooming cultivar Bergeron 452 might bloom earlier and face rainier conditions, leading to an increase in the incidence of twig 453blight; on the other hand, the median cultivar Bergarouge might shift towards later blooming 454 and dryer conditions, accompanied by a lower blight incidence at all altitudes.

455

4.1. Variabilities affecting evaluation 456

457The results of evaluating this model using data from the orchard network could be considered 458 as satisfactory ($R^2 = 0.44$). Indeed, numerous parameters varied between orchards in the 459 network. For example, the amount of *Monilinia* inoculum could vary at the landscape or 460 regional levels. Furthermore, the fitting performances of the epidemiological model 461 (RRMSE = 0.22) were equal to or better than the fitting performances regarded as satisfactory 462by recent comparable studies (e.g.: Gouache et al., 2015; Morales et al., 2018).

463We set blossom-twig transmission according to our empirical observations. However, 464 variations in twig infection via blossom could impact the performance of the model. For 465 instance, blossom-twig transmission could also depend on climatic conditions. A large part of 466the correlation between the calculated CIB and observed TBI was due to the choice of 467 weightings. More observations might help to improve our understanding of blossom-twig 468transmission. For example, orchards that experienced rain at the end of the blooming period 469displayed greater sensitivity to twig blight infection. This factor could be determined by 470 means of other trap pot experiments or the analysis of a larger orchard network experiencing a 471 variety of conditions, with a broader range of latitudes; for example, combining 472 Mediterranean and more continental climatic conditions.

473The biological construction of our epidemiological model means that it could be used to 474 address future conditions at a single location (in the present case, the Rhône Valley) but 475 should also make the model usable at various geographical locations. For example, testing our 476 model in other apricot growing regions such as Spain or Turkey would further assess the 477 robustness of the model we propose here.

478It should be noted that the model used to calculate blossom blight infection was calibrated on 479Bergarouge trees, which are more sensitive to blossom blight than Bergeval and Bergeron 480(Parveau et al., 2016). However, because Bergeron and Bergeval display comparable 481 sensitivity (and thus comparable differences in sensitivity versus Bergarouge), the correlation 482between CIB and TBI should not be affected mathematically by a difference in sensitivity 483between Bergarouge and Bergeron or Bergeval.

484

4.2. Working hypotheses 485

486We only studied climate-related factors during this study, in order to assess changes to the 487 infection risk in line with climate change. Nevertheless, factors of a genetic (e.g. resistance), 488 physiological (e.g. water stress) or epidemiological (e.g. inoculum repartition) nature should 489also be taken into account.

490Here, the apricot cultivars were only compared through the lens of precocities, but a factor 491 reflecting varietal sensitivity could be added. Such study would enable assessment of the 492 respective roles of phenology and genetics: is it better for a tree to avoid blight or resist it? 493As for physiological factors, two types of interactions have been documented to date: "cross-494 protection" for plants whose resistance to biotic stresses is increased by the onset of abiotic 495 stress, and "cross-vulnerability" for plants whose susceptibility to biotic stress is increased

496 under abiotic stress (Fones and Gurr, 2017). These processes might modify the host response 497to increased biotic and abiotic stresses under climate change, and should therefore be 498 considered under a more integrative modelling approach.

499Further, inoculum levels may vary at a landscape or regional level. For example, they may be 500 affected by the provenance of air masses, as has already been shown for *Botrytis cinered* 501(Leyronas and Nicot, 2013). Moreover, amounts of primary inoculum may also vary as a 502 function of previous disease levels or orchard management practices (Lichou and Jay, 2012).

503The Monilinia inoculum may differ in terms of both quantity and quality involving a change 504to the predominant *Monilinia* species. For instance, because it is better suited to warmer 505temperatures (Casals et al., 2010) and displays pesticide resistance (Lichou and Jay, 2012), *Monilinia fructicola* may become more important than *Monilinia laxa* in the European 506 507 inoculum landscape as climate change progresses. In addition, the sexual reproduction of 508Monilinia laxa has not yet been observed under natural conditions in Europe (Hrustić et al., 5092012) but warmer temperatures could trigger this development cycle (Agrios, 2005). Such a 510 change would render obsolete the model we present here, as this aspect of development 511 remains a limiting factor. These features could also affect epidemiological concerns over the 512 coming decades. Epidemiological studies on *M. fructicola* under semi-controlled conditions 513 would then be of value in the context of future research.

514

4.3. Uncertainty of climatic variables 515

516 Variations affecting the risk predicted by the model were mainly due to rainfall. However, this 517 variable is hard to predict in climate change scenarios, and climatic models can generate 518 markedly different predictions (Jouzel et al., 2014). For instance, the DRIAS data we used are 519based on the ALADIN model proposed by the French National Weather Research Centre 520(Centre National de Recherches Météorologiques) and used to forecast weather in the context 521of climate change; it predicts an overall reduction of rainfall in France between [1976-2005] 522 and $[2071-2100]$ under the RCP8.5 scenario in summer (-0.38 mm.day⁻¹). On the other hand, 523the WRF (Weather Research and Forecasting) model proposed by the US National Center for 524Atmospheric Research predicts an overall increase of rainfall of the same scope (+0.32 525mm.day⁻¹) (Jouzel et al., 2014), hence the uncertainty attached to ongoing modelling 526 approaches used to study future impacts of climate change.

527

5285. Conclusion

529The Climatic Index of cumulated Blight risk we propose here offers an efficient reflection of 530twig blight infection calculated from the weighted sum of blossom blight infection episodes $531(R² = 0.44$ with independent evaluation). Blossom blight infections were estimated with a 532 good fit to an epidemiological model (RRMSE = 0.22, largely due to unsystematic error). 533This model, calibrated and evaluated on field data (using easily measurable variables such as 534 rainfall) and based on biological parameters, was shown to be a robust and useful tool to 535 predict the consequences of climate change regarding the development of apricot blight. 536 Because of a shift of the blooming period, the Bergarouge apricot cultivar could experience a 537long term reduction in the climatic risk to which it is exposed (in the far future). By contrast, 538 cultivars such as Beliana or Bergeron could see a medium-term (near future) increase of this 539risk of blossom blight at altitudes above 100 m. The various conditions under which our 540 model can be employed means that it could be applied to conditions other than those in the 541Rhône Valley, and possibly worldwide.

542

543Acknowledgements

544This study was funded by the GIS Fruits Network, FAN de Bio and FEADER ClimArbo 545 projects. The authors gratefully acknowledge the assistance received from Emilie Freyssinet 546 and William Chambeyron during field and lab work. The authors are also grateful to Benoît 547 Saunier and Tom Fillot for their careful reviews of the paper.

548

References 549

550

551AGRESTE, 2014. Enquête pratiques phytosanitaires en arboriculture 2012.

552

553 Agrios, G., 2005. Plant Pathology, 5th Edition. ed. ELSEVIER.

554

555

556

557 Andreini, L., de Cortázar-Atauri, I.G., Chuine, I., Viti, R., Bartolini, S., Ruiz, D., Campoy, 558J.A., Legave, J.M., Audergon, J.-M., Bertuzzi, P., 2014. Understanding dormancy release in 559 apricot flower buds (Prunus armeniaca L.) using several process-based phenological models. and Forest Meteorology 184, 210–219. 561https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2013.10.005 560 Agricultural 562 563 564 565 566

567Bonhomme, M., Rageau, R. et Lacointe, A., 2010. Optimization of endodormancy release 568 models, using series of endodormancy release data collected in France. Acta Hortic. 2010. 569Vol. 872, pp. 51-60. https://doi.org[/10.17660/ActaHortic.2010.872.4](https://doi.org/10.17660/ActaHortic.2010.872.4)

571 Casals, C., Viñas, I., Torres, R., Griera, C., Usall, J., 2010. Effect of temperature and water 572 activity on in vitro germination of Monilinia spp.: Effect of temperature and water activity on 573Monilinia spp. Journal of Applied Microbiology 108, 47-54. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-5742672.2009.04402.x

575

576

577

578Chuine, I., Garcia de Cortazar-Atauri, I., Kramer, k., Hänninen, H., 2013. Plant Development 579Models, in: Phenology : An Integrative Environnemental Science. Springer, Dordrechts, 580Netherlands, pp. 275-293.

581

582 Chuine, I. Bonhomme, M., legave, J-M., Garcia de Cortazar-Atauri, I., Charrier, G., Lacointe, 583A., Améglio, T., 2016. Can phenological models predict tree phenology accurately in the 584 future? The unrevealed hurdle of endodormancy break. Global Change Biology 22, 3444-3460. 585

586

587Deque, M., 2010. Regional climate simulation with a mosaic of RCMs. Meteorol. Z. 19, 259–266. 588

589

590

591

592Fones, H.N., Gurr, S.J., 2017. NO(X)ious gases and the unpredictability of emerging plant 593 pathogens under climate change. BMC Biol. 15.

594

595 Garcia de Cortazar-Atauri, I., Bertuzzi, P., Andreini, L., Madon, F., Audergon, J-M., 2013. 596 Adaptation de l'abricotier aux changements climatiques : Estimation des risques génétiques et 597 géographiques liés aux avortements floraux et à l'époque de floraison. Le réseau 598 agroclimatique de l'INRA et la base associée de données. Rapport CTPS Abricot, 54 p.

599

600

601

602Gleason, M.L., Duttweiler, K.B., Batzer, J.C., Taylor, S.E., Sentelhas, P.C., Monteiro, 603J.E.B.A., Gillespie, T.J., 2008. Obtaining weather data for input to crop disease-warning 604 systems: leaf wetness duration as a case study. Scientia Agricola 65, 76-87. 605<https://doi.org/10.1590/S0103-90162008000700013>

606

607 Gouache, D., Léon, M. S., Duyme, F., Braun, P., 2015. A novel solution to the variable 608 selection problem in Window Pane approaches of plant pathogen - Climate models: 609Development, evaluation and application of a climatological model for brown rust of wheat. and Forest Meteorology 205 pp. 51-59. 611http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2015.02.013 610Agricultural

612

613Hack, H., Bleiholder, H., Buhr, L., Meier, U., Schnock-Fricke, U., Weber, E., Witzenberger, 614A., 1992. Einheitliche Codierung der phänologischen Entwicklungsstadien mono- und Pflanzen – Erweiterte BBCH-Skala, AllgemeinNachrichtenbl. Deut. 616Pflanzenschutzd., 44 pp. 265-270. 615dikotyler

617

618

619

620Hrustić, J., Mihajlović, M., Grahovac, M., Delibašić, G., Bulajić, A., Krstić, B., Tanović, B., 6212012. Genus Monilinia on pome and stone fruit species. Pesticidi i fitomedicina 27, 283–297. 622

623Jeschke, J.M., Strayer, D.L., 2008. Usefulness of Bioclimatic Models for Studying Climate 624 Change and Invasive Species. Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences 1134, 1-24. 625https://doi.org/10.1196/annals.1439.002

626

627Jouzel, J., Déqué, M., Jouini, M., Planton, S., Vautard, R., 2014. Le climat de la France au 628XXIe siècle (No. 4). Ministère de l'Ecologie, du Développement durable et de l'Energie.

629

630Juroszek P, von Tiedemann A, 2015. Linking plant disease models to climate change scenarios 631 to project future risks of crop diseases: a review. Journal of Plant Diseases and Protection 122, 6323-15.

633

634Koball, D.C., Wilcox, W.F., Seem, R.C., 1997. Influence of incubation-period humidity on the 635 development of brown rot blossom blight of sour cherry. Phytopathology 87, 42-49.

636

637

638

639Lane, C.R., 2002. A synoptic key for differentiation of Monilinia fructicola, M. fructigena and 640M. laxa, based on examination of cultural characters. EPPO Bulletin 32, 489-493.

641

642Launay M, Caubel J, Bourgeois G, Huard F, Cortazar-Atauri IG, Bancal MO, Brisson N, 6432014. Climatic indicators for crop infection risk: Application to climate change impacts on

644 five major foliar diseases in Northern France. Agriculture, Ecosystems, and Environment 197, 645147-158.

646

647Leyronas, C., Nicot, P.C., 2013. Monitoring viable airborne inoculum of Botrytis cinerea in 648the South-East of France over 3 years: relation with climatic parameters and the origin of air 649 masses. Aerobiologia 29. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10453-012-9280-0

650

651Lichou, J., Jay, M., 2012. Monographie abricot. CTIFL.

652

653Luo, Y., Morgan, D.P., Michailides, T.J., 2001. Risk analysis of brown rot blossom blight of 654 prune caused by Monilinia fructicola. Phytopathology 91, 759–768.

655

656Magarey, R.D., Sutton, T.B., Thayer, C.L., 2005. A Simple Generic Infection Model for Foliar 657 Fungal Plant Pathogens. Phytopathology 95, 92-100. [https://doi.org/10.1094/PHYTO-95-](https://doi.org/10.1094/PHYTO-95-0092) 658[0092](https://doi.org/10.1094/PHYTO-95-0092)

659

660 Maier, H.R., Guillaume, J.H.A., van Delden, H., Ridell, G.A., Haasnoot, M., Kwakkel, J.H., 6612016. An uncertain future, deep uncertainty, scenarios, robustness and adaptation: How do fit together? Environmental Modelling & Software 81, 154-164. 663<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsoft.2016.03.014> 662thev

664

665Morales G., Moragrena, C., Montesinos, E., Llorente, I., 2018. Environmental and inoculum 666 effects on epidemiology of bacterial spot disease of stone fruits and development of a disease forecasting system. Eur J Plant Oathol 152 pp. 635-651. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10658-018- 667 6681507-7

-
-

674 Oliveira Lino, L., Pacheco, I., Mercier, V., Faoro, F., Bassi, D., Bornard, I., Quilot-Turion, B., 2016. Brown Rot Strikes *Prunus* Fruit: An Ancient Fight Almost Always Lost. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry 64, 4029–4047. https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.jafc.6b00104

678Pachauri, R.K., Meyer, L., Equipe de rédaction principale, 2014. IPCC, 2014: Climate Change 6792014: Synthesis Report. Contribution of Working Groups I, II and III to the Fifth Assessment 680 Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (No. 5). GIEC, Genève.

682Parveau, C.-É., Gomez, C., Mercier, V., Brun, L., Guillermin, A., Clauzel, G., Broquaire, J.-683M., Audergon, J.-M., 2016. Guide des sensibilités variétales aux bio-agresseurs - Fiche n°3 : 684 Monilioses sur fleur. L'Arboriculture Fruitière 5.

-
-

696Tamm, L., Minder, C.E., Flückiger, W., 1995. Phenological analysis of brown rot blossom 697blight of sweet cherry caused by Monilinia laxa. Phytopathology 85, 401-408.

699Trebicki P, Finlay K, 2019. Pests and diseases under climate change; it's threats to food 700 security, 229-248. In: Yadav et al (eds). Food Security and Climate Change. Wiley Blackwell.

702 Willmott, C.J., 1981. ON THE VALIDATION OF MODELS. Physical Geography 2, 184– 194. https://doi.org/10.1080/02723646.1981.10642213

Fig.1: Localisation of the grids studied and their associated clusters (Best viewed in colour).

Fig. 2: Method used to calculate climate change for a given year n and cultivar. (1) Computations for year n start on the 15th of October of year n-1. For the dormancy model, it is assumed that the cold needs of apricot have not started to be fulfilled prior to this date. (2) Phenological models compute the F50 date given the daily average temperature. (3) The expand of the blooming period around F50 is estimated given the distribution of disease-sensitive stages. (4) Daily rainfall and temperature during the blooming period are extracted and (5) CIB is calculated for year n

Fig 3: Simulated vs. Observed values for blossom blight incidence (I, dimensionless). R² = 0.941, Intercept = 0.009; slope = 0.935.

Fig 4: 3D representation of our model as a surface response of blossom blight incidence to rainfall (mm) and temperature (°C) (left) and residuals associated with each point of the dataset as a function of rainfall and temperature (right). The size of each point represents the value of the residual and the colour the sign of the residual. Lines correspond to different predicted levels of incidence.

Fig 5: Predicted Climatic Index of cumulated Blight risk (CIB, cumulated %) versus observed Twig Blight Incidence (TBI, dimensionless).

Fig 6: Evolution of the mid-blooming date (DOY) for the different cultivars and clusters under scenario RCP8.5. Linear regression lines are shown for clarity.

Cultivar · · · Beliana - Bergarouge · - · Bergeron - - Rouge

Fig 7: Mean temperature (°C) and mean cumulated rainfall (mm) experienced during blooming for the different cultivars and clusters. The start of the line represents the situation during the [1970- 1999] period and the head of the arrow the situation forecasted for the [2070-2099] period.

Fig 8: Mean simulated CIB (±one standard deviation) by period (p: past, nf: near future, pf: far future) for each cluster and cultivar under RCP 8.5. The colours are red for a significant increase in the risk and green for a significant reduction in the risk. Letters are the result of the Kruskall-Wallis comparison between periods within one Cultivar-Cluster panel (best viewed in colour).

Table.1: Parameter values of the fitted model. Bolt parameters were chosen priori to optimisation according to the method described by Tamm et al. 1995

Parameter	Value
T_{min}	$\boldsymbol{0}$
T_{max}	31
${\bf E}$	0.029
i_{max}	0.79
${\bf m}$	0.9
ρ_1	1.575
ρ_2	1.965
γ_1	1.709
Y ₂	1.472