



## Research article

## Effect of elevated ozone and carbon dioxide interaction on growth, yield, nutrient content and wilt disease severity in chickpea grown in Northern India

Arti Bhatia<sup>a,\*</sup>, Usha Mina<sup>b</sup>, Vinod Kumar<sup>a</sup>, Ritu Tomer<sup>a</sup>, Amit Kumar<sup>c</sup>, Bidisha Chakrabarti<sup>a</sup>, R.N. Singh<sup>d</sup>, Bhupinder Singh<sup>a</sup><sup>a</sup> Centre of Environment Science and Climate Resilient Agriculture, ICAR-Indian Agricultural Research Institute, New Delhi, India<sup>b</sup> Dept of Environmental Studies, JawaharLal Nehru University, Delhi, India<sup>c</sup> Central Muga Eri Research & Training Institute, Central Silk Board, Jorhat, India<sup>d</sup> ICAR-NIASM, Baramati, India

## ARTICLE INFO

## Keywords:

Wilt  
Elevated ozone  
Elevated carbon dioxide  
Chickpea  
*Fusarium oxysporum*

## ABSTRACT

Wilt caused by *Fusarium oxysporum*, sp. Ciceris (FOC) is an important disease causing losses up to 10% in chickpea yield. Experiments were conducted growing chickpea in free air ozone and carbon dioxide enrichment rings under four treatments of elevated ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) (EO:60 ± 10 ppb), elevated carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) (ECO<sub>2</sub>:550 ± 25 ppm), combination of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> (EO + ECO<sub>2</sub>) and ambient control for quantifying the effect on growth, yield, biochemical and nutrient content of chickpea. For studying the impact on wilt disease, chickpea was grown additionally in pots with soil containing FOC in these rings. The incidence of *Fusarium* wilt reduced significantly ( $p < 0.01$ ) under EO as compared to ambient and ECO<sub>2</sub>. The activities of pathogenesis-related proteins chitinase and  $\beta$ -1,3- glucanase, involved in plant defense mechanism were enhanced under EO. The aboveground biomass and pod weight declined by 18.7 and 15.8% respectively in uninoculated soils under EO, whereas, in FOC inoculated soil (diseased plants), the decline under EO was much less at 8.6 and 9.9% as compared to the ambient. Under EO, the activity of super oxide dismutase increased significantly ( $p < 0.5$ , 40%) as compared to catalase (12.5%) and peroxidase (17.5%) without any significant increase under EO + ECO<sub>2</sub>. The proline accumulation was significantly ( $p < 0.01$ ) higher in EO as compared to EO + ECO<sub>2</sub>, and ECO<sub>2</sub>. The seed yield declined under EO due to significant reduction ( $p < 0.01$ ) in the number of unproductive pods and seed weight. No change in the protein, total soluble sugars, calcium and phosphorus content was observed in any of the treatments, however, a significant decrease in potassium (K) content was observed under EO + ECO<sub>2</sub>. Elevated CO<sub>2</sub> (554ppm) countered the impacts of 21.1 and 14.4 ppm h (AOT 40) O<sub>3</sub> exposure on the seed yield and nutrient content (except K) in the EO + CO<sub>2</sub> treatment and reduced the severity of wilt disease in the two years' study.

## Main finding

Elevated CO<sub>2</sub> countered the impacts of elevated O<sub>3</sub> exposure on the seed yield and nutrient content (except K) under the interaction EO + CO<sub>2</sub> treatment in the two years' study and significantly reduced wilt disease severity.

## 1. Introduction

Carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) and tropospheric ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) are important components of global and regional climate change having strong impacts

on growth and productivity of crop plants and likely to affect food production in the South Asian subcontinent (IPCC, 2014; Ghude et al., 2014). Climate trends over the past few decades have shown rapid increase in their concentrations in many agricultural regions around the world (Lobell and Gourdji, 2012). CO<sub>2</sub> typically stimulates plant productivity (Ainsworth and Long, 2005), whereas O<sub>3</sub> is phytotoxic to a range of plant species (Agathokleous et al., 2018). Increase in population, urbanization, higher irradiance, elevated temperatures, and the increasing levels of precursors emitted from urban areas are the best suited conditions for O<sub>3</sub> formation. Due to increase in the anthropogenic emissions, O<sub>3</sub> concentrations have risen from 10 ppb in the late 1800s to

\* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: [arti.bhatia@icar.gov.in](mailto:arti.bhatia@icar.gov.in) (A. Bhatia).<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2021.e06049>

Received 21 April 2020; Received in revised form 27 July 2020; Accepted 18 January 2021

2405-8440/© 2021 Published by Elsevier Ltd. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>).

monthly average daytime levels of 40 ppb nowadays (Brauer et al., 2016) and the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> levels have increased from 320 ppm to 412 ppm from 1960 to 2019 (NOAA 2020). The IPCC Fifth assessment report projects an increase in background tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> on an average by about 8 ppb (25% of current levels) and CO<sub>2</sub> is expected to reach 700 ppm by 2100 (IPCC, 2014). South Asian region, will experience the highest increase in surface O<sub>3</sub> (average annual increase of 7.2 ppb) by 2030 (Lenka and Lenka, 2012).

Elevated levels of tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> may cause foliar injury in the susceptible plants, accelerate leaf senescence, alter photosynthetic activity and stomatal conductance in leaves, leading to reduced dry matter production and productivity of crops (Bhatia et al., 2012). As a strong oxidant, O<sub>3</sub> reduces important physiological functions, resulting in inferior crop quality (Avnery et al., 2011a). Under the IPCC SRES A2 Scenario, global yield losses due to O<sub>3</sub> are predicted to range from 5.4–26% for wheat, 15–19% for soybean, and 4.4–8.7% for maize, with total global agricultural losses in the range of \$17–\$35 billion annually by 2030 (Avnery et al., 2011b). Another modelling estimate by Ainsworth (2017) predicts global yield losses due to current day O<sub>3</sub> levels ranging from 2 to 16% for wheat, rice, maize and soybean. There may be significant losses of crop yields in India due to rising tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> concentrations. In addition to direct effects on plants, O<sub>3</sub> may also influence plant response to other stresses such as pathogens and diseases. According to Paoletti et al. (2020) there is a need to quantify the O<sub>3</sub> impacts on crops along with other environmental stresses. Higher O<sub>3</sub> levels may increase the plant's susceptibility by seriously damaging the cuticle layer of the plants, leaving them exposed to pathogen and insect attack (Bernier et al., 2015) and increase in plant diseases. Exposure to elevated O<sub>3</sub> doesn't have any direct effect on fungal pathogens, but may increase the tendency of necrotrophic pathogens to colonize plants weakened by O<sub>3</sub> (Manning and Tiedemann, 1995).

On the other hand, atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> enrichment stimulates photosynthesis, increases leaf area index (LAI), enhances dry matter accumulation and delays senescence (Yadav et al., 2019). The ability of legumes to exchange carbon (C) for nitrogen (N) with their N<sub>2</sub>-fixing symbionts has led to the hypothesis that legumes will have a competitive advantage over non-leguminous species when grown under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> in well managed systems (Rogers et al., 2009). A number of researchers have evaluated the effect of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> in leguminous crops such as chick pea (Saha et al., 2013; Chakrabarti et al., 2019), pigeon pea (Saha et al., 2012), red gram (Vanaja et al., 2010), bush bean (Elagöz and Manning, 2005), mungbean (Mishra and Agrawal, 2014), etc. Legumes have higher photosynthesis and reproduction efficiency than other plant groups under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> due to their ability to reduce carbon sink limitations through enhanced nitrogen uptake (Rogers et al., 2009).

Most studies on the effect of elevated O<sub>3</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> have focused on wheat (Mishra et al., 2013; Piikki et al., 2008; Tomer et al., 2015) and few on other crops such as rice (Imai and Kobori, 2008; Bhatia et al., 2011), brassica (Singh et al., 2013; Bernier et al., 2015), maize (Bhatia et al., 2013), potato (Kumari et al., 2015) and soybean (Mishra, 2008). However, how the legumes will perform under the interaction of elevated O<sub>3</sub> and elevated CO<sub>2</sub> has been studied mainly in Soybean (Dermody et al., 2006; Morgan et al., 2003), peanut (Burkey et al., 2007) and one season results on the growth and yield of chickpea have been reported by Singh et al. (2017).

Chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.) is the 3rd largest grain-legume crop consumed all over the world having a production of 13.12 million tons annually (FAO, 2018). Asia accounted for 84% of the chickpea production, India being the leading producer with 9.88 million tons of chickpea from 10.7 million hectares (IIPR, 2018). The average chickpea seed yield has been less than 1000 kg/ha due to the wilt caused by the fungal pathogen *Fusarium oxysporum* (*F. oxysporum*), a major soil-borne fungus affecting chickpea globally (Sankar et al., 2018). The pathogen penetrates the vascular bundles of the roots of infected plants and reduces water uptake to the foliage resulting in wilting and death (Kraft et al., 1994; Halila and Strange, 1996). It has been reported that besides crops,

directly or indirectly their pests both insects and pathogens are either negatively or positively affected by the elevated levels of O<sub>3</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> (Führer, 2003). It has been reported that many abiotic stress conditions may weaken the defense mechanisms of plants and enhance their susceptibility to pathogenic infection (Atkinson and Urwin, 2012). Bernier et al. (2015) observed that though the economic yield was not affected under CO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> interaction in brassica, however, the plants became more susceptible to pathogen and insect attack. Hemibiotrophic/necrotrophic pathogens favour stressed plants that are weakened or damaged (Manning and Tiedemann, 1995). It is known that O<sub>3</sub>-induced metabolic changes can persist in plants over days or months (Sandermann, 2000), however, it is difficult to predict the effects of climatic variables on disease susceptibility (Eastburn et al., 2010). Under O<sub>3</sub> exposure both increase in disease susceptibility (Mina et al., 2016; Sandermann, 2000) and decrease in disease susceptibility (Coleman et al., 1988) have been reported.

*F. oxysporum* is considered a hemibiotrophic pathogen because it begins its infection cycle as a biotroph but later changes to a necrotroph. In a study by Sharma et al. (2014) at ICRISAT under elevated CO<sub>2</sub>, the wilt caused by *F. oxysporum* increased and the pathogen became more aggressive and increased the infection. Altered plant physiological response under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> could affect plant–pathogen interaction in relation to both availability and quality of nutrients for pathogen feeding. Changes in the content of stress compounds such as reactive oxygen species (ROS) may promote defense-like responses and affect the concentrations of antioxidant enzymes (Sandermann et al., 1998; Fiscus et al., 2005). Swarupa et al. (2014) reported the role of oxidative burst, ROS and antioxidant enzymes as an important defense response against *F. oxysporum* (). Plant pathogenesis-related (PR) proteins are also implicated in plant defense responses against pathogenic infection (Zuccarini, 2009). Production of PR proteins in the remote uninfected parts of plants can lead to the occurrence of systemic acquired resistance, protecting the affected plants from further infection (Ebrahim et al., 2011).

*F. oxysporum* is prevalent in the tropical and subtropical regions and its geographical range may extend due to climate change (Okubara and Paulitz, 2005). The classic disease triangle emphasizes the interactions between plant hosts, pathogens and the environment in causing disease (Grulke, 2011). Thus the present study was carried out to quantify the impact of elevated O<sub>3</sub> in combination with elevated CO<sub>2</sub> on the *Fusarium* wilt disease, growth, yield, biochemical and nutritional quality of kabuli chickpea.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Experimental site, treatments and management

A field experiment was conducted growing chickpea (*C. arietinum* L.) cv. Pusa 5023-kabuli type) inside free air O<sub>3</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> enrichment (FAOCE) rings at the experimental farm of ICAR-Indian Agricultural Research Institute, New Delhi (28°40' N latitude, 77°12' E longitude, altitude of 228.16 m above mean sea level). The mean maximum and minimum temperatures from November to April were 35.5 and 18.5 °C. Four treatments were taken in the FAOCE rings growing chickpea under ambient levels of O<sub>3</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> (Amb O + CO<sub>2</sub>) elevated O<sub>3</sub> (EO, 60 ± 10 ppb), elevated CO<sub>2</sub> (ECO<sub>2</sub>, 550 ± 25 ppm) and a combination of elevated levels of both the gases (EO + ECO<sub>2</sub>). The octagonal ring had a diameter of 6m and there were two replicate rings for each of the treatments. Each ring was further divided into four quadrants and each quadrant was taken as a replicate for all the measurements undertaken. The control plot was the ambient plot having ambient levels of CO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> concentrations. CO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> were released through horizontal perforated tubing's above the soil surface at the canopy level. The CO<sub>2</sub> sensor (NDIR based) was positioned at the center of each ring and regulated the rate of CO<sub>2</sub> gas released upwind for achieving the targeted CO<sub>2</sub> concentration. The CO<sub>2</sub> levels were elevated using highly pressurized CO<sub>2</sub> cylinders with the

help of dual stage regulators, gas flow meters and solenoid valves whereas the O<sub>3</sub> levels were elevated using an O<sub>3</sub> generator. The elevated levels were maintained post germination of chickpea seed to physiological maturity of the crop. Transparent poly carbonate circular sheets (1 m in height) were placed at 2 m distance around each octagonal ring to avoid cross contamination between the rings. The O<sub>3</sub> concentration was measured using an O<sub>3</sub> concentration analyzer (2B technologies). The O<sub>3</sub> fumigation began at 9:00 a.m. and continued until sunset but was discontinued on rainy days. In the ambient plots, plants were grown under ambient CO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> without the rings. Wind direction was measured with an anemoscope.

Chickpea variety Pusa 5023, an extra-large seeded kabuli variety with an average yield of 20 q/ha, being moderately resistant to soil borne diseases was taken for the experiment. The chickpea seeds, were treated with fungicide Captan @ 2 g kg<sup>-1</sup> seed and then with Rhizobium @ 12 g kg<sup>-1</sup> seed and were sown on 16<sup>th</sup> Nov, 2016 and 16<sup>th</sup> Nov, 2017 in well prepared soil of the FAOCE rings with a row to row distance of 30 cm and a plant to plant distance of 20 cm. In 2017 the seeds of chickpea were sown in only three quadrants of each of the rings. In the fourth quadrant, the studies on Fusarium wilt were carried out growing chickpea in pots.

Fertilizer NPK was incorporated prior to sowing @ 20:50:20 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>. The alluvial soil of experimental site was silty clay loam (Typic Ustochrept) with bulk density of 1.38 g cm<sup>-3</sup>, pH (1:2 soil:water) of 8.8, electrical conductivity of 0.43 dS m<sup>-1</sup> and organic carbon, total N, Olsen P, and ammonium acetate extractable K contents of 3.5 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, 0.32 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, 0.009 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, and 0.12 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. O<sub>3</sub> exposure began on 30<sup>th</sup> November, 2016 and ended on 20 March, 2017 in the first year and on 1st December, 2017 and ended on 22<sup>nd</sup> March, 2018 in the second year. Crop was harvested at maturity on 11<sup>th</sup> April, 2017 and 14<sup>th</sup> April 2018.

## 2.2. Fusarium wilt studies and preparation of inoculum of FOC

For studying the impact of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> on wilt disease incidence, chickpea was sown in earthen pots. Eight pots were kept in one quarter of each of FAOCE rings under the different treatments. Delhi isolate of *Fusarium oxysporum*, sp. Ciceris race 4 (FOC) used in this study was cultured on water soaked and autoclaved sorghum seed solid medium at room temperature. After 14 days of growth and at conidia forming stage, this FOC culture was mixed with pre sterilised soil (sterilised by spraying of 10% formalin/kg soil and covered with poly-ethene sheet for two weeks) in order to obtain final densities of 10<sup>5</sup> Conidia/gram of soil of *F. oxysporum*.

Water soaked healthy seeds of chickpea were sown in pots (containing 16 kg soil having FOC inoculum). The pots were transferred to the FAOCE rings at the emergence of 4–5 leaves. The leaflets samples from fully matured leaves of chickpea plants grown in pots in the FAOCE rings were collected at the flowering stage. Collected leaflet samples were quickly frozen in liquid nitrogen to prepare the powdered sample. 1 g of powdered sample, was extracted with 2 ml 0.1 M sodium citrate buffer (4 °C, pH 5.0) and 0.05 M sodium acetate buffer (pH 5.0) for analysis of Chitinase and β-1,3 glucanase enzyme activity respectively. The homogenate was centrifuged for 20 min at 12,000 g and the protein extracts obtained was used for estimation of activity of enzymes chitinase and β-1,3-glucanase. The changes in the activities of chitinase and β-1,3-glucanase was determined by colorimetric assays as described by Pan et al. (1991).

At the vegetative, flowering, pod filling and maturity stages, soil samples from the rhizosphere of chickpea plants under different treatments were collected and analysed for the changes in spore count/conidia per gram of soil.

Plants under each treatment were periodically monitored for the appearance of the symptoms of the wilt disease. The number of wilted plants was recorded and at maturity stage, the number of wilted and healthy plants in each treatment was recorded. The wilt incidence for each treatment was calculated by the following formula:

$$\text{Wilt Incidence (\%)} = (\text{Number of plants wilted} / \text{Total number of plants}) \times 100$$

At maturity *Fusarium* inoculated/wilted/diseased and uninoculated/healthy chickpea plants under each treatment were harvested and the shoot biomass and pod weight/plant was recorded.

## 2.3. Plant sampling for physiological and biochemical analysis

Each treatment had two replicate FAOCE rings. Plant samples from the three quadrants in each of the two replicate FAOCE rings were collected for studying the growth parameters at stem elongation and pod formation in 2016–17 and 2017–18 respectively. Shoot length, shoot dry weight, leaf area index, the number of side branches and the number of secondary branches were measured after each sampling. Measurements for the number of pods per plant, the number of seeds per pod, 100 seed weight and the seed yield was carried out after the final harvest. The seeds were separated from the pods, dried, and weighed.

Single-leaf net photosynthetic rates and stomatal conductance were measured with a portable photosynthesis system (LI-6400-40 Portable Photosynthesis System) at flowering. Total Chlorophyll content was estimated by the non-maceration method of [Hiscox and Israelstam \(1979\)](#). Activity of superoxide dismutase (SOD), peroxidase (POX), catalase (CAT) was also measured at flowering. The proline content was measured at stem elongation and flowering stages. The activity of SOD was assayed by measuring its ability to inhibit the photochemical reduction of nitroblue tetrazolium ([Dhindsa et al., 1981](#)). The assay of POX activity was carried out by measuring the decrease in absorbance at 420 nm due to the decomposition of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> ([Kar and Mishra., 1976](#)). CAT activity was measured as the decline in absorbance at 240 nm due to the decomposition of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> ([Aebi 1983](#)). Proline content was determined by the method of [Bates et al. \(1973\)](#). Total soluble sugars, starch, protein, P, K and Ca contents in the harvested seeds was estimated.

Leaf area Index (LAI) was measured at stem elongation, anthesis and pod formation using a plant canopy analyser (LICOR, LAI-2200 C, USA). The measurement of LAI was carried out at 15:30 h in each quadrant replicate from evenly spaced spots in two diagonal transects to maintain almost fixed incident solar angle with higher proportion of diffuse incident light at sunset.

## 2.4. AOT40

AOT40 is the sum of hourly average values of O<sub>3</sub> concentration beyond 40 ppb or accumulated exposure of O<sub>3</sub> over a threshold of 40 ppbv. The AOT 40 for the elevated O<sub>3</sub> treatments during the entire crop growth period was calculated from the differences between mean hourly concentrations (in ppb) and 40 ppb for each hour when the O<sub>3</sub> concentration exceeded 40 ppb, accumulated during the daylight hours.

## 2.5. Data analysis

All response variable data were analyzed by two-factor (O<sub>3</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> level) analyses of variance (ANOVA). The treatment means were compared by Tukeys test when the anova was significant. Results were taken as significant at p < 0.05. Before the analysis, data were checked for normality (Kolmogorov–Smirnov test). All data analyses were carried using the SPSS software (Version 16.0, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Levels of O<sub>3</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> in the different treatments

The ambient and elevated O<sub>3</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations measured in the FAOCE rings during the crop growth period (November to April) in both the years of the experiment are shown in [Table 1 a](#). Critical levels for O<sub>3</sub> over 40 ppbv were calculated and the resulting index of AOT40 for the

**Table 1a.** Ambient levels of O<sub>3</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> during crop growth period.

	2016			2017		
	Min	Max	Average	Min	Max	Average
Ambient O <sub>3</sub>	7.5	58.6	30.3	10.7	60.8	24.2
Elevated O <sub>3</sub>	54.2	73.1	68.6	51.0	68.4	65.3
Ambient CO <sub>2</sub>	384	413	398	391	418	403
Elevated CO <sub>2</sub>	530	570	554	527	580	558

entire crop growth duration was 21.112 and 14.152 ppm h in 2016–17 and 2017–18, respectively, in the elevated O<sub>3</sub> treatment.

### 3.2. Effect of elevated O<sub>3</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> on crop phenology

No variation in the phenology was observed among the treatments initially. ECO<sub>2</sub> accelerated reproductive development and the onset of flowering was advanced by 3–4 days in the elevated CO<sub>2</sub> treatment during the two years of the study (Table 1b). No change was observed in the EO and EO + ECO<sub>2</sub> treatments as compared to the ambient during the two years. Under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> and EO + ECO<sub>2</sub> the days to pod initiation reduced by 2 and 3 days. The advance in pod initiation could be attributed to early translocation of photosynthates to the leaves. Under EO the pod maturity was earlier by 8 and 10 days as compared to the ambient during the two years which may be due to the source/sink imbalance under EO (Andersen, 2003). Elevated O<sub>3</sub> may inhibit sugar export from leaves (Grantz and Farrar, 2000), which could trigger early leaf senescence and early pod maturity.

### 3.3. Effect of elevated O<sub>3</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> on the photosynthetic rate, stomatal conductance and total chlorophyll

A reduction in the stomatal conductance was observed under all the treatments as compared to the ambient. During the two years, 25 and 19% reduction in the stomatal conductance (gs) was observed in the EO treatment over the ambient treatment (Figure 1a). There was a significant reduction in the net photosynthetic rate (Pn) in EO (14% and 21%) over the ambient at 95 and 90 DAS during the two years. The decrease in gs in EO might have led to lower internal leaf CO<sub>2</sub> levels, thereby reducing the Pn. However, the increase in Pn by 17 and 11% was observed under ECO<sub>2</sub> over the ambient during the two years of the study (Figure 1b). An increase of 13 and 16% in the Pn was also observed under the EO + CO<sub>2</sub> interaction treatment over EO alone. This was due to the presence of higher CO<sub>2</sub> levels in this treatment.

The partial stomatal closure induced by elevated CO<sub>2</sub> decreased the impact of O<sub>3</sub> by restricting their uptake by stomata and also reducing transpiration losses and increasing water use efficiency (Booker et al., 2004). However, the exposure to O<sub>3</sub> alters the stomatal responses, thereby decreasing the ability of leaves to limit water loss and increasing transpiration in leaves (Hayes et al., 2012). The elevated CO<sub>2</sub> had a protective effect against O<sub>3</sub> injury and involved increased photosynthates availability to enable plants to maintain the growth that could be used for damage repair and detoxification processes (Booker et al., 2007). Morgan

et al. (2003) had reported a 17.5% O<sub>3</sub> induced reduction in gs in soybean when daily mean exposure levels of O<sub>3</sub> ranged from 30–79 ppb.

We observed significant increase in chickpea growth and dry matter allocation under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> due to the partitioning of photosynthates towards the different growing plant organs which led to an increased branching and leaf area index (Figure 2b, c). In our experiment, both elevated O<sub>3</sub> and elevated CO<sub>2</sub> reduced the stomatal conductance, which decreased even further when these two gases were combined. The reduced stomatal conductance could be due to changes in stomatal aperture under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> (Ainsworth and Long, 2005) as with increasing levels of CO<sub>2</sub> the stomata do not need to open as widely to allow sufficient CO<sub>2</sub> for photosynthesis to enter the leaf.

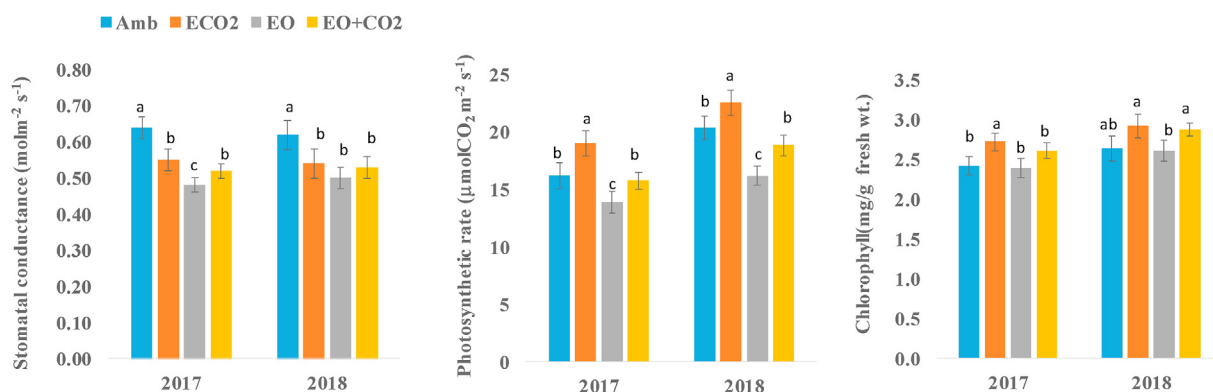
The total chlorophyll increased in ECO<sub>2</sub> (12 and 11%) as compared to the ambient at the flowering stage in both the years (Figure 1c). Being a legume, chickpea can fulfill its N requirement through symbiotic nitrogen fixation and plant N uptake may have accelerated under elevated atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. This may have resulted in an increase in the foliar N concentration and leaf chlorophyll content (e.g. Cheng et al., 2010). The total chlorophyll increased significantly (P < 0.5) in our study under the interaction treatment EO + ECO<sub>2</sub> by 9 and 10 % over EO alone in both the years. The total chlorophyll under EO was lower than the ambient. In our study we found an increase in the activity of the anti-oxidant enzymes under EO treatment. The lowering in chlorophyll under EO could be due to O<sub>3</sub>-mediated ROS accumulation which may lower the chlorophyll due to an insufficient leaf antioxidant capacity (Caregnato et al., 2013).

### 3.4. Effect of elevated O<sub>3</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> on the growth parameters in chickpea

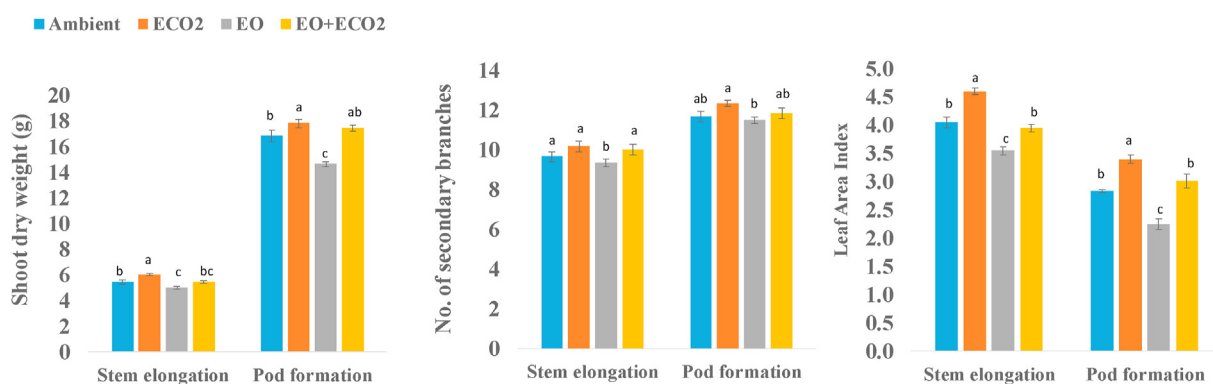
The shoot dry weight increased by 8 and 12% (significant at p < 0.01) under ECO<sub>2</sub> over Amb at stem elongation in the two years respectively. Shoot dry weight was lower by 12 and 14% under EO treatment at pod formation in both the years. A significant increase was observed at pod formation in all the growth parameters under the interaction treatment EO + ECO<sub>2</sub> as compared to the EO alone in both the years. The LAI decreased under EO and the decrease was more in the II<sup>nd</sup> year (14%). LAI increased by 13 and 10 % in EO + CO<sub>2</sub> over EO and was statistically at par with the Amb (Figure 2c) treatment. Increased photosynthetic rates enabled the plants to utilize more amounts of photosynthates for their growth with a simultaneous increase in LAI under ECO<sub>2</sub> and EO + CO<sub>2</sub>. Chickpea being a leguminous crop may be able to fix increased nitrogen under higher CO<sub>2</sub>, which is subsequently utilized by the plants to support the process of growth enhancement (Gamper et al., 2005). Higher leaf area index and a lower stomatal aperture in a CO<sub>2</sub>-enriched

**Table 1b.** Effect of different treatments on days to key growth stages.

	Days to	Amb	EO	ECO <sub>2</sub>	EO + ECO <sub>2</sub>
2016	Flowering	82	82	79	82
	Pod initiation	112	115	109	110
	Pod maturity	147	139	141	139
2017	Flowering	85	85	81	85
	Pod initiation	115	120	112	113
	Pod maturity	150	140	144	141



**Figure 1.** (a) Stomatal conductance (b) Photosynthetic rate (c) Total chlorophyll content at flowering stage in chickpea under different treatments (on the columns the same letter are not significantly different at P < 0.05); Amb: Ambient, ECO<sub>2</sub>: Elevated carbon dioxide, EO: Elevated ozone; EO + CO<sub>2</sub>: Elevated ozone and elevated carbon dioxide.

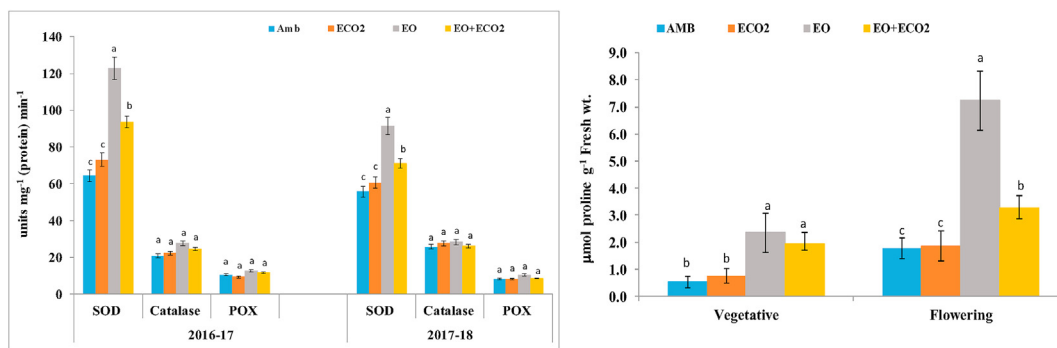


**Figure 2.** Effect of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> on (a) shoot dry weight (b) No. of secondary branches/plant and (c) leaf area index of chickpea at stem elongation and pod formation stages (Average of two years). Means with at least one letter common are not statistically different (p ≤ 0.05 Tukey's). Error bars indicate standard error; Amb: Ambient, ECO<sub>2</sub>: Elevated carbon dioxide, EO: Elevated ozone; EO + CO<sub>2</sub>: Elevated ozone and elevated carbon dioxide.

treatment may improve the water use efficiency at the leaf and canopy level (Mills and Harmens, 2011) resulting in better growth. Under EO, reduced photosynthetic rate, stomatal conductance and chlorophyll content resulted in a change in assimilate allocation and eventually in a decrease in the growth rate of the shoot. The number of secondary branches determines the total number of leaves and hence the total photosynthetic area. There was a significant decrease in the number of secondary branches under EO at pod formation (at p < 0.05) during the second year of the study. The number of secondary branches increased significantly (at p < 0.05) under ECO<sub>2</sub> at stem elongation and pod initiation during the first year.

### 3.5. Effect of elevated O<sub>3</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> on the biochemical parameters

EO induced higher antioxidant enzyme activities in our experiment. Results showed that increase in Superoxide dismutase (SOD), Catalase (CAT), and Peroxidase (POX) activities under EO treatment may be related to the induction of antioxidant responses that protect the plant from oxidative damage. Superoxide dismutase (SOD) showed maximum increase in EO treated plants and less increase in the activities of CAT and POX. At flowering stage, under EO, SOD, CAT and POX activity increased significantly by 48, 16 and 25% in the first year and by 39, 9 and 20% in the second year respectively (Figure 3a). Thus it shows that SOD played a



**Figure 3.** (a) Antioxidant enzymes at flowering stage (b) Proline content at vegetative and flowering stage in chickpea under different treatments in 2017–18 (on the columns the same letter is not significantly different at P < 0.05); Amb: Ambient, ECO<sub>2</sub>: Elevated carbon dioxide, EO: Elevated ozone; EO + CO<sub>2</sub>: Elevated ozone and elevated carbon dioxide.

greater role than CAT and POX in detoxifying the produced reactive oxygen species (ROS) since its activity increased more. Superoxide dismutase constitutes the first line of defence via detoxification of superoxide radicals (Sairam and Saxena, 2000), thereby maintaining the membranes of plant tissue, whereas, CAT consumes  $H_2O_2$  by breaking it down directly to water and oxygen. The activity of SOD was significantly higher than Amb and  $ECO_2$  under the interaction ( $EO + CO_2$ ) treatment. Higher production of ROS due to  $O_3$  stress in the plant may result in lower levels of anti-oxidants in the seed and lower nutritional quality (Daripa et al., 2016).

Proline accumulation is believed to play an adaptive role in plant stress tolerance (Verbruggen and Hermans, 2008). The proline content increased from stem elongation to flowering in all the treatments (Figure 3b). At flowering stage, the proline was significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) higher in EO as compared to  $EO + ECO_2$ , and  $ECO_2$ . Higher proline content was measured under  $EO + ECO_2$  as compared to  $ECO_2$  ( $p < 0.05$ ) at both the stages. Plants can partly protect themselves against stress by accumulating osmolytes (Shinde and Thakur, 2015) and thus higher proline was observed under  $EO + CO_2$ . Accumulation of proline in the plant cell takes place in response to stress to protect the protein structure and to prevent the oxidative burst in plants by bringing concentrations of ROS within normal ranges (Hayat et al., 2012).

### 3.6. Effect of elevated $O_3$ elevated $CO_2$ on the seed yield

Elevated  $O_3$  levels of AOT 40 of 21.112 and 14.152 ppm h led to an 18 and 15 % decrease in seed yield over Amb in the two years. Seed yield significantly increased by 31 and 26% in  $EO + ECO_2$  treatment over EO and by 7 and 8.5% over Amb (not significant) in the two years (Figure 4b). The protective effect of  $CO_2$  was due to increased photosynthetic rate, dry matter production, and more allocation of carbohydrate to the seed. The presence of elevated  $CO_2$  along with EO thus countered the negative effect of  $O_3$  and moderated the response, thereby increasing the yield (Burkey et al., 2007).

The yield contributing characters viz., number of pods/plant, number of unproductive pods, no. of seeds/pod, 100 seed wt., were negatively influenced by the EO levels (Figure 4a). There was no significant reduction in the total number of pods/plant under EO, however, there was a significant reduction in the total number of productive and unproductive pods under EO ( $p < 0.01$ ). In  $ECO_2$  treatment, no. of pods increased significantly ( $p < 0.01$ ) by 10.8 and 6% over the Amb. The no. of productive pods/plant increased by 16 and 12 % in the  $EO + CO_2$  treatment over EO alone in both the years respectively. It can thus be concluded that seed yield decreased due to higher number of unproductive pods under EO and reduced seed weight. The increase in the  $CO_2$  concentration significantly increased all the major yield attributes and no

significant difference was observed in the interaction treatment as compared to the Amb.

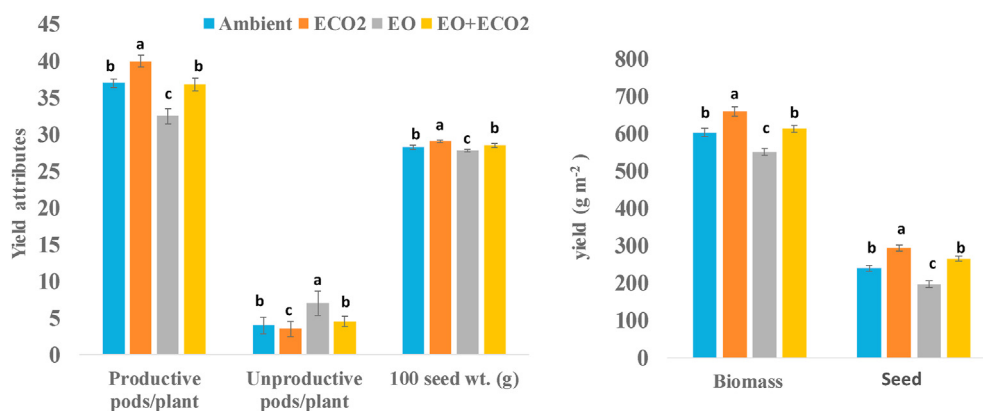
$O_3$  induced yield losses have often been attributed to reductions in photosynthetic activity and assimilate supply to support reproductive development and seed growth (Feng et al., 2010). Under EO the pod maturity was early by 8 and 10 days as compared to the ambient and this reduction in the length of reproductive period may have led to a lower seed weight and seed yield in our experiment. Declined photosynthetic activity under stress conditions may decrease assimilate translocation and carbon fixation affecting the reproductive organs, leading to fewer pods, lower seed set and declined sink activity in chickpea (Nadeem et al., 2019). Under stress, pollen tube growth rate may be reduced playing an important role in the pod and seed formation (Kaloki et al., 2019). It has been earlier reported that high temperature and heat stress in chickpea causes substantial loss in crop yield due to damage to reproductive organs, increased rate of plant development, and reduced length of the reproductive period (Gan et al., 2004), however there are no studies under  $O_3$  stress.

### 3.7. Effect of elevated $O_3$ and $CO_2$ on the seed quality

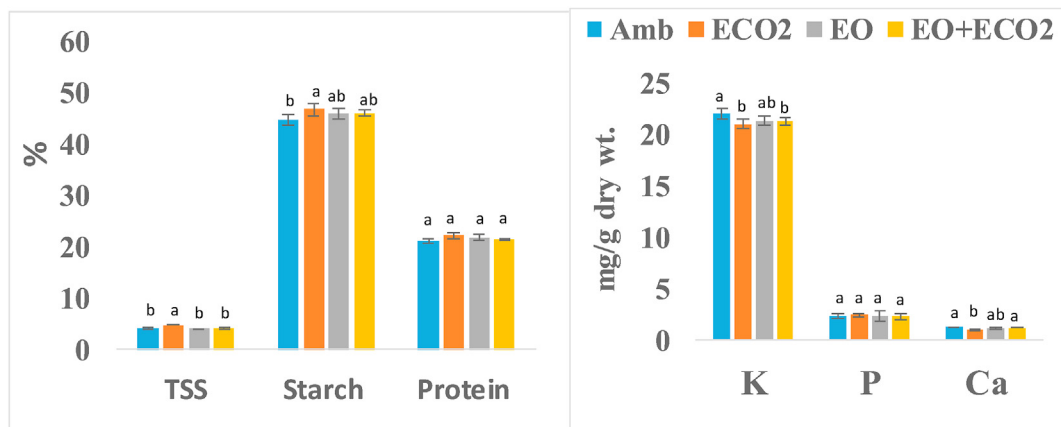
A slight increase in the carbohydrate content of the seed was observed under the elevated  $CO_2$  treatment (Figure 5a). The total soluble sugar and starch significantly increased ( $p < 0.05$ ) by 7 and 4.5 % over the Amb in the  $ECO_2$  treatment during the two years of the study (Figure 5a). In EO and  $EO + CO_2$ , no significant change was observed in the sugar or starch content in both the years of the study.  $O_3$  is known to reduce photosynthesis, leading to lower translocation of carbon to the grain, resulting in reduced sugar and starch content in the grain (Bhatia et al., 2012, Daripa et al., 2016). However, in our study we did not observe any decrease in the carbohydrate content in chickpea.

No significant change in the seed protein content was observed in any of the treatments over the ambient control. Earlier researchers have reported a decline in the seed protein content under EO (Li et al., 2018; Chaudhary and Agrawal, 2015) in mungbean and pea due to lowered photosynthetic efficiency, and a decline in the seed protein under  $ECO_2$  (Li et al., 2018; Singh et al., 2013) due to yield dilution effects. No significant decline in the protein content was observed under  $ECO_2$  in our study. Being a legume, chickpea could probably fulfill its N requirement through symbiotic nitrogen fixation as plant N uptake was accelerated under  $ECO_2$ . This resulted in an increase in the leaf chlorophyll content which increased the foliar N content (Cheng et al., 2010) and the increased N fixation may increase the grain mass without actually decreasing its N concentration (Hampton et al., 2013).

The mineral nutrient content in the seed did not change under EO in both the years with the exception of K content reducing in year 1 of the



**Figure 4.** Effect of elevated  $CO_2$  and  $O_3$  on (a) yield attributes and (b) yield (Average of two years). Means with at least one letter common are not statistically different ( $p \leq 0.05$  Tukey's). Error bars indicate standard error;  $ECO_2$ : Elevated carbon dioxide, EO: Elevated ozone;  $EO + CO_2$ : Elevated ozone and elevated carbon dioxide.



**Figure 5.** Effect of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> on (a) Total soluble sugar, starch and protein and (b) mineral composition of seed. (Average of two years). Means with at least one letter common are not statistically different ( $p \leq 0.05$  Tukey's). Error bars indicate standard error; Amb: Ambient, ECO<sub>2</sub>: Elevated carbon dioxide, EO: Elevated ozone; EO + CO<sub>2</sub>: Elevated ozone and elevated carbon dioxide.

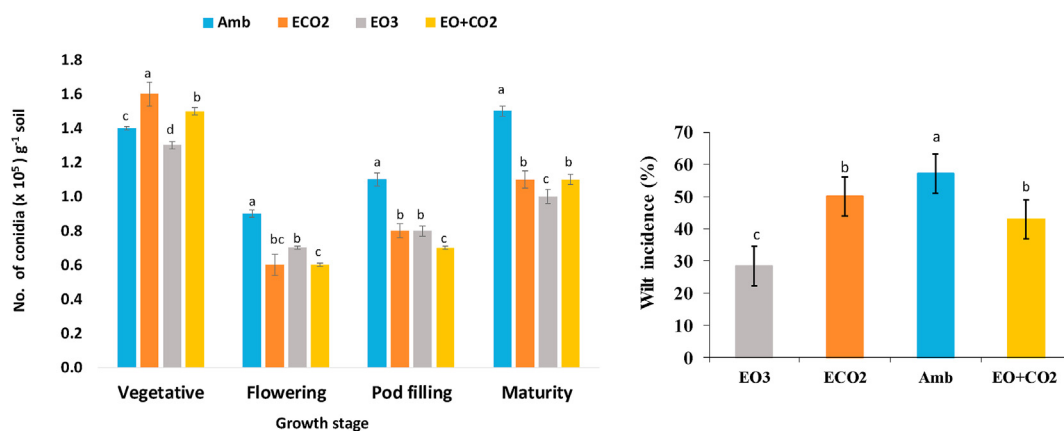
study (Figure 5b). There was a significant decrease in the K content under the interaction treatment EO + ECO<sub>2</sub> as compared to the Amb. Potassium (K) and Calcium (Ca) content decreased significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) by 4.7 and 9.5% respectively under ECO<sub>2</sub> probably due to the yield dilution effect but no change was observed in Phosphorus (P) concentrations. No change or increase in the concentration of P was probably due to reduced transpiration under ECO<sub>2</sub> which may be beneficial for the diffusion of specific elements from the soil to the roots, thereby increasing their availability (Li et al., 2018). However, this mechanism fails to explain the decrease in the concentration of K and Ca in seeds under ECO<sub>2</sub>.

### 3.8. FOC population dynamics in rhizosphere of chickpea

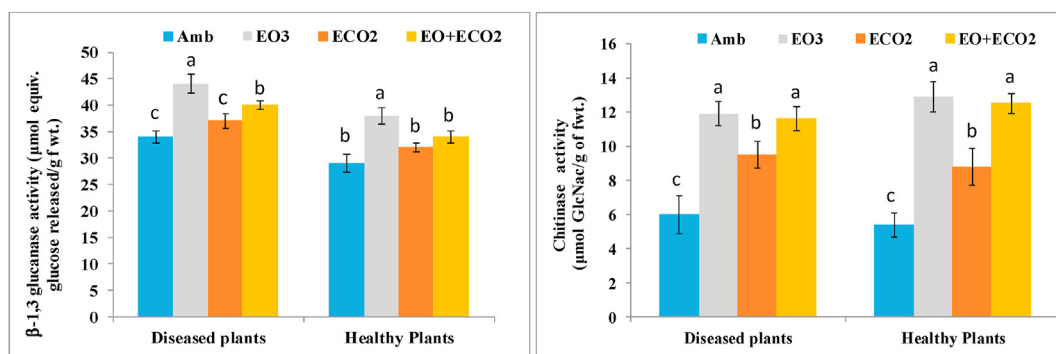
The number of FOC conidia per gram of rhizospheric soil sample analysed monthly at four growth stages of chickpea was the highest under Amb and lowest under EO in the range of  $0.6 \times 10^5$ – $1.8 \times 10^5$  g<sup>-1</sup> of soil (Figure 6a). The maximum FOC conidia load in soil was at the vegetative stage and the minimum was at the flowering stage. The flowering stage coincided with late December and early January months when average ambient temperature was below the optimum range for the growth of FOC pathogen. It has been reported that severe wilt develops at 20–30 °C and an inoculum density of FOC of at least 6 and 100 spores g<sup>-1</sup> of soil, respectively (Navas-Cortés et al., 2007). The life cycle of the soil born FOC pathogen had a parasitic phase in the presence of host plant, chickpea in this study.

### 3.9. Effect of elevated O<sub>3</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> on wilt disease incidence

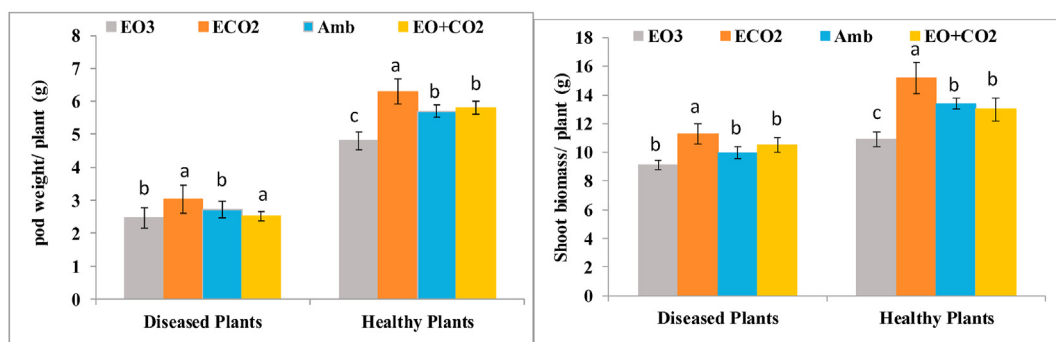
In our study FOC acted as an obligate parasite with chickpea plants and caused the wilt incidence. Elevated O<sub>3</sub> levels significantly reduced (28.6%,  $p < 0.05$ ) the wilt disease severity in EO and EO + CO<sub>2</sub> as compared to the ECO<sub>2</sub> and Amb (Figure 6b). The disease severity in plants under ambient conditions (56.8%) was significantly higher ( $P < 0.05$ ) as compared to EO + CO<sub>2</sub> (42.9%) treatment, but at par with plants exposed to ECO<sub>2</sub> (50%). Ambient CO<sub>2</sub> may probably have little direct effect on soil inhabiting fungi pathogens, as they can tolerate more than 10- or 20-fold increases in CO<sub>2</sub>, and might even be slightly stimulatory (Manning and Tiedemann 1995). Chakraborty et al. (2000) suggested that elevated CO<sub>2</sub> will directly alter the host physiology and morphology, bringing about a change in the light interception, modifying the microclimate and leading to an increase in temperature which may increase or decrease the disease severity. In our study under EO and EO + ECO<sub>2</sub> the effect of O<sub>3</sub> was indirect by reducing the wilt disease severity by altering the host physiology (Manning et al., 1971) and directly by reducing the sporulation and growth of hyphae of obligate parasites (Violini, 1995). O<sub>3</sub> exposure may also activate plant defense and synthesis of pathogenesis-related (PR) proteins (Prasad et al., 2009). The increase in pathogenesis-related (PR) proteins as defense was probably the reason for least wilt incidence under the EO treatment in our study (discussed in next section).



**Figure 6.** (a) Trend of *F. oxysporum*, sp. *Ciceris* race 4 population in rhizospheric soil of chickpea plants (b) Wilt incidence in chickpea plants under different treatment. Means with at least one letter common are not statistically different ( $p \leq 0.05$  Tukey's). Error bars indicate standard error; Amb: Ambient, ECO<sub>2</sub>: Elevated carbon dioxide, EO: Elevated ozone; EO + CO<sub>2</sub>: Elevated ozone and elevated carbon dioxide.



**Figure 7.** (a) Activity of  $\beta$ -1,3- glucanase PR protein and (b) activity of chitinase PR protein in chickpea plants at flowering stage under different treatment. Means with at least one letter common are not statistically different ( $p \leq 0.05$  Tukey's). Error bars indicate standard error; Amb: Ambient,  $\text{ECO}_2$ : Elevated carbon dioxide, EO: Elevated ozone; EO +  $\text{CO}_2$ : Elevated ozone and elevated carbon dioxide.



**Figure 8.** (a) Shoot biomass and (b) pod weight in diseased/inoculated and healthy/uninoculated plants under different treatments. Means with at least one letter common are not statistically different ( $p \leq 0.05$  Tukey's). Error bars indicate standard error; Amb: Ambient,  $\text{ECO}_2$ : Elevated carbon dioxide, EO: Elevated ozone; EO +  $\text{CO}_2$ : Elevated ozone and elevated carbon dioxide.

### 3.10. Effect of $\text{O}_3$ , $\text{CO}_2$ and disease on pathogenesis-related (PR) proteins and yield attributes

Exposure to abiotic ( $\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{CO}_2$ ) and biotic (FOC) stress induced defense response in both healthy and diseased plants and altered the levels of PR proteins-  $\beta$ -1,3- glucanase and Chitinase in our study. PR proteins chitinases and  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanases are two important hydrolytic enzymes that are abundant in many plant species after infection by different type of pathogens and exposure to abiotic stresses, thus they can be used as biochemical markers (Ebrahim et al., 2011). In plants exposed to only abiotic stresses of elevated  $\text{O}_3$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  (healthy plants), the activity of  $\beta$ -1,3- glucanase and chitinase was the highest under EO and the lowest under Amb. Plants that were diseased had higher activity of  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase under  $\text{ECO}_2$  treatments as compared to the healthy plants (Figure 7a). Elevated  $\text{CO}_2$  may increase host resistance (Coakley et al., 1999) and lead to higher levels of PR proteins. The activity of chitinase was observed to be less in diseased plants as compared to the healthy plants under EO and EO +  $\text{CO}_2$  treatments (Figure 7b).

Since the activity of  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase was maximum under EO in both diseased and healthy plants, they developed resistance to wilt disease and thus the severity was found to be the lowest under EO treatment (Figure 6b). When a pathogen attacks, the PR proteins may accumulate in the vacuoles of the cell wall and intercellular spaces, thereby protecting the plants from further infection by not only accumulating locally in the infected and surrounding tissues but also in remote uninfected tissues (Datta and Muthukrishnan 1999). An increase in the activities of the PR proteins in plants susceptible to pathogens, under elevated  $\text{O}_3$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations may result in an improved resistance to the pathogens (Plessl et al., 2007).

The maximum reduction in the shoot biomass and pod weight was observed under EO treatment in both healthy and diseased chickpea plants. The shoot biomass and pod weight reduced by 18.7 and 15.8% respectively in healthy plants under EO as compared to the Amb (Figure 8 a,b). However, the decrease in shoot biomass and pod weight was lower at 8.6 and 9.9% respectively in the diseased plants under EO as compared to Amb (due to lower wilt incidence under EO). However, the presence of elevated  $\text{CO}_2$  in the interaction treatment was able to counter the yield losses in the diseased plants.  $\text{ECO}_2$  treatment positively influenced and nullified the adverse impact of EO on shoot biomass and pod weight in healthy plants, however, in diseased plants the biomass yield under the EO +  $\text{CO}_2$  was at par with Amb but the pod weight significantly declined by 7.7% ( $p < 0.5$ ) as compared to Amb.

## 4. Conclusion

Elevated ozone may directly affect the different growth and biochemical processes in chickpea plants; however, the increasing concentration of atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  will likely ameliorate the deleterious  $\text{O}_3$  effects on plants. The protein, starch and other mineral nutrients content in grain may not see a significant change under the elevated  $\text{O}_3$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  interaction, thus maintaining its nutritional quality.  $\text{O}_3$  stress may induce a burst of reactive oxygen species, or induce enzymes, which triggers the plant defense system and the plant acquires systemic resistance to stress and disease. The incidence of wilt due to *Fusarium oxysporium* may be significantly lower under elevated  $\text{O}_3$ , but the interaction between  $\text{O}_3$  and crop pathogens adds another dimension which may require more experimental studies for understanding at spatial and temporal scales.



More experiments are needed need to establish the productivity trade off in chickpea under elevated O<sub>3</sub> and biotic stress exposure.

## Declarations

### Author contribution statement

Arti Bhatia: Conceived and designed the experiments; Analyzed and interpreted the data; Wrote the paper.

Usha Mina: Analyzed and interpreted the data; Wrote the paper.

Vinod Kumar, RN Singh: Performed the experiments; Contributed reagents, materials, analysis tools or data.

Ritu Tomer: Performed the experiments; Analyzed and interpreted the data.

Amit Kumar, Bhupinder Singh: Contributed reagents, materials, analysis tools or data.

Bidisha Chakrabarti: Analyzed and interpreted the data.

### Funding statement

This work was supported by National innovations for climate resilient agriculture (NICRA) project.

### Data availability statement

Data will be made available on request.

### Declaration of interests statement

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

### Additional information

No additional information is available for this paper.

## Acknowledgements

Authors are thankful to Director, ICAR-Indian Agricultural Research Institute, New Delhi for providing the farm and facilities for carrying out this study and the National innovations for climate resilient agriculture (NICRA) project for providing the manpower resources.

## References

- Aebi, H.E., 1983. Catalase. In: *Method of Enzymatic Analysis*, vol. 3. VCH, Weinheim, Germany-Deerfield, pp. 273–286.
- Agathokleous, E., Kitao, M., Kinose, Y., 2018. A review study on ozone phytotoxicity setrics for setting critical levels in Asia. *Asian J. Atmos. Environ.* 12, 1–16.
- Ainsworth, E.A., 2017. Understanding and improving global crop response to ozone pollution. *Plant J.* 90, 886–897.
- Ainsworth, E.A., Long, S.P., 2005. What have we learned from 15 years of free air CO<sub>2</sub> enrichment (FACE)? A meta-analytic review of the responses of photosynthesis, canopy properties and plant production to rising CO<sub>2</sub>. *New Phytol.* 165, 351–371.
- Andersen, C.P., 2003. Source-sink balance and carbon allocation below ground in plants exposed to ozone. *New Phytologist.* 157, 213–228.
- Atkinson, N.J., Urwin, P.E., 2012. The interaction of plant biotic and abiotic stresses: from genes to the field. *J. Exp. Bot.* 63, 3523–3543.
- Avnery, S., Mauzerall, D.L., Liu, J., Horowitz, L.W., 2011a. Global crop yield reductions due to surface ozone exposure: 1. Year 2000 crop production losses and economic damage. *Atmos. Environ.* 45, 2284–2296.
- Avnery, S., Mauzerall, D.L., Liu, J., Horowitz, L.W., 2011b. Global crop yield reductions due to surface ozone exposure: 2. Year 2030 potential crop production losses and economic damage under two scenarios of O<sub>3</sub> pollution. *Atmos. Environ.* 45 (13), 2297–2309.
- Bates, L.S., Waldren, R.P., Teare, I.D., 1973. Rapid determination of free proline for water-stress studies. *Plant Soil* 39, 205–207.
- Berner, J.M., Maliba, B., Inbaraj, P., 2015. Impact of elevated levels of CO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> on the yield and photosynthetic capabilities of *Brassica napus*. *Procedia Environ. Sci.* 29, 255–261.
- Bhatia, A., Ghosh, A., Kumar, V., Tomer, R., Singh, S.D., Pathak, H., 2011. Effect of elevated tropospheric ozone on methane and nitrous oxide emission from rice soil in North India. *Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.* 144, 21–28.
- Bhatia, A., Tomer, R., Kumar, V., Singh, S.D., Pathak, H., 2012. Impact of tropospheric ozone on crop growth and productivity - a review. *J. Sci. Ind. Res.* 71, 97–112.
- Bhatia, A., Kumar, V., Kumar, A., Tomer, R., Singh, B., Singh, S.D., 2013. Effect of elevated ozone and carbon dioxide interaction on growth and yield of maize. *Maydica* 58, 291–229.
- Booker, F.L., Fiscus, E.L., Miller, J.E., 2004. Combined effects of elevated atmospheric carbon dioxide and ozone on soybean whole-plant water use. *Environ. Manag.* 33, S355–S362.
- Booker, F.L., Burkey, K.O., Pursley, W.A., Heagle, A.S., 2007. Elevated carbon dioxide and ozone effects on peanut: I. Gas-exchange, biomass, and leaf chemistry. *Crop Sci.* 47, 1475–1487.
- Brauer, M., Freedman, G., Frostad, J., et al., 2016. Ambient air pollution exposure estimation for the global burden of disease 2013. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 50, 79–88.
- Burkey, K.O., Booker, F.L., Pursley, W.A., Heagle, A.S., 2007. Elevated carbon dioxide and ozone effects on peanut: II. seed yield and quality. *Crop Sci.* 47 (4), 1488.
- Caregnato, F.F., Bortolina, R.C., Molina Divan Jr., A.M., Moreira, J.C.F., 2013. Exposure to elevated ozone levels differentially affects the antioxidant capacity and the redox homeostasis of two subtropical *Phaseolus vulgaris* L. varieties. *Chemosphere* 93, 320–330.
- Chakrabarti, B., Singh, S.D., Bhatia, A., Kumar, V., Harrit, R.C., 2019. Yield and nitrogen uptake in wheat and chickpea grown under elevated carbon dioxide level. *Natl. Acad. Sci. Lett.*
- Chakraborty, S., Tiedemann, A.V., Teng, P.S., 2000. Climate change: potential impact on plant diseases. *Environ. Pollut.* 108, 317–326.
- Chaudhary, N., Agrawal, S.B., 2015. The role of elevated ozone on growth, yield and seed quality amongst six cultivars of mung bean. *Ecotox. Environ. Safe.* 286–294.
- Cheng, Z.X., Suo, Z.F., Feng, Y.X., Ping, C.X., 2010. Effect of nitrogen nutrition on photosynthetic function of wheat leaf under elevated atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration. *Acta Agron. Sin.* 36 (8), 1362–1370.
- Coakley, S., Scherm, H., Chakraborty, S., 1999. Climate change and disease management. *Annu. Rev. Phytopathol.* 37, 399–426.
- Coleman, J.S., Jones, C.G., Smith, W.H., 1988. Interactions between an acute ozone dose, eastern cottonwood, and *Marssonina* leaf spot: implications for pathogen community dynamics. *Can. J. Bot.* 66, 863–868.
- Daripa, A., Bhatia, A., Ojha, S., Tomer, R., Chattaraj, S., Singh, K.P., Singh, S.D., 2016. Chemical and natural plant extract in ameliorating negative impact of tropospheric ozone on wheat crop: a case study in a part of semiarid north west India. *Aerosol Air Qual. Res.* 16, 1742–1756.
- Datta, S.K., Muthukrishnan, S. (Eds.), 1999. *Pathogenesis-related Proteins in Plants*. CRC Press, Washington DC.
- Dermody, O., Long, S.P., DeLucia, E.H., 2006. How does elevated CO<sub>2</sub> or ozone affect the leaf-area index of soybean when applied independently? *New Phytol.* 169, 145–155.
- Dhindsa, R.S., Plumb-Dhindsa, P., Thorpe, T.A., 1981. Leaf senescence: correlated with increased levels of membrane permeability and lipid peroxidation, and decreased levels of superoxide dismutase and catalase. *J. Exp. Bot.* 126, 93–101.
- Eastburn, D.M., Degennaro, M.M., Delucia, E.H., Dermody, O., Mcelrone, A.J., 2010. Elevated atmospheric carbon dioxide and ozone alter soybean diseases at SoyFACE. *Global Change Biol.* 16, 320–330.
- Elagöz, V., Manning, W.J., 2005 Aug. Responses of sensitive and tolerant bush beans (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.) to ozone in open-top chambers are influenced by phenotypic differences, morphological characteristics, and the chamber environment. *Environ. Pollut.* 136 (3), 371–383.
- Ebrahim, S., Usha, K., Singh, B., 2011. Pathogenesis related (PR) proteins in plant defense mechanism. In: Méndez-Vilas, A. (Ed.), *Science against Microbial Pathogens: Communicating Current Research and Technological Advances*, vol. 1. Formatex Microbiology Series. No. 3, pp. 1043–1054.
- Feng, Z., Wang, S., Szantoic, Z., Chen, S., Wang, X., 2010. Protection of plants from ambient ozone by applications of ethylenediurea (EDU): a meta-analytic review. *Environ. Pollut.* 158, 3236–3242.
- Fiscus, E.L., Booker, F.L., Burkey, K.O., 2005. Crop responses to ozone: uptake, modes of action, carbon assimilation and partitioning. *Plant Cell Environ.* 28, 997–1011.
- Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), 2018. *FAOSTAT Statistical Database of the United Nation Food and Agriculture Organization*. (FAO) statistical division, Rome.
- Fuhrer, J., 2003. Agroecosystem responses to combinations of elevated CO<sub>2</sub>, ozone, and global climate change. *Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.* 97, 1–20.
- Gamper, H., Hartwig, U.A., Leuchtmann, A., 2005. Mycorrhizas improve nitrogen nutrition of *Trifolium repens* after 8 yr of selection under elevated atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure. *New Phytol.* 167 (2), 531–554.
- Gan, Y., Wang, J., Angadi, S.V., McDonald, C.L., 2004. Response of chickpea to short periods of high temperature and water stress at different developmental stages. In: *Proceedings of the 4th International Crop Science Congress*, Brisbane, pp. 26–28.
- Ghude, S.D., Jena, C., Chate, D.M., Beig, G., Pfister, G.G., Kumar, R., Ramanathan, V., 2014. Reduction in India's crop yield due to ozone. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* 41, 51971.
- Grantz, D.A., Farrar, J.F., 2000. Ozone inhibits phloem loading from a transport pool: compartmental efflux analysis in Pima cotton. *Aust. J. Plant Physiol.* 27, 859–868.
- Grukke, N.E., 2011. The nexus of host and pathogen phenology: understanding the disease triangle with climate change. *New Phytol.* 189, 8–11.
- Halila, M.H., Strange, R.N., 1996. Identification of the causal agent of wilt of chickpea in Tunisia as *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *ciceris* race 0. *Phytopathol. Mediterr.* 35, 67–74.
- Hampton, J.G., Boelt, B., Rolston, M.P., Chastain, T.G., 2013. Effects of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> and temperature on seed quality. *J. Agric. Sci.* 151, 154–162.
- Hayat, S., Hayat, Q., Alyemeni, M.N., Wani, A.S., Pichtel, J., Ahmad, A., 2012. Role of proline under changing environments. *Plant Signal. Behav.* 7 (11), 1456–1466.
- Hayes, F., Wagg, S., Mills, G., Wilkinson, S., Davies, W., 2012. Ozone effects in a drier climate: implications for stomatal fluxes of reduced stomatal sensitivity to soil drying in a typical grassland species. *Global Change Biol.* 18, 948–959.

- Hiscox, J.D., Israelstam, G.F., 1979. Different methods of chlorophyll extraction. *Can. J. Bot.* 57, 1332–1334.
- Annual report 2018-19. <https://iipr.icar.gov.in/annual.html>, 2018 accessed on 15th April, 2020.
- Imai, K., Kobori, K., 2008. Effects of the interaction between ozone and carbon dioxide on gas exchange, ascorbic acid content, and visible leaf symptoms in rice leaves. *Photosynthetica* 46, 387.
- IPCC, 2014. *Climate Change 2014. Fifth Assessment Synthesis Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom, and New York, USA.
- Kaloki, P., Devasirvatham, V., Daniel, K.Y., 2019. Chickpea-abiotic-stresses-combating drought, heat and cold in: abiotic and biotic stress in plants. *IntechOpen*.
- Kar, M., Mishra, D., 1976. Catalase, peroxidase, and polyphenoloxidase activities during rice leaf senescence. *Plant Physiol.* 57, 315–319.
- Kraft, J.M., Haware, M.P., Jiménez-Díaz, R.M., Bayaa, B., Harrabi, M., 1994. Screening techniques and sources of resistance to root rot and wilts in cool season food legumes. *Euphytica* 73, 27–39.
- Kumari, S., Agrawal, M., Singh, A., 2015. Effects of ambient and elevated CO<sub>2</sub> and ozone on physiological characteristics, antioxidative defense system and metabolites of potato in relation to ozone flux. *Environ. Exp. Bot.* 109, 276–287.
- Lenka, S., Lenka, N.K., 2012. Impact of tropospheric ozone on agroecosystem: an assessment. *J. Agric. Phys.* 12 (1), 1–11.
- Li, Y., Yu, Z., Jin, J., Zhang, Q., Wang, G., Liu, C., Wu, J., Wang, C., Liu, X., 2018. Impact of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> on seed quality of soybean at the fresh edible and mature stages. *Front. Plant Sci.* 9, 1413.
- Lobell, D.B., Gourdji, S.M., 2012. The influence of climate change on global crop productivity. *Plant Physiol.* 160 (4), 1686–1697.
- Manning, W.J., Tiedemann, A.V., 1995. Climate change: potential effects of increased atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) and ultraviolet-B (UV-B) radiation on plant diseases. *Environ. Pollut.* 88, 219–245.
- Manning, W.J., Feder, W.A., Papia, P.M., Perkins, I., 1971. Effect of low levels of ozone on growth and susceptibility of cabbage plants to *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *conglutinans*. *Plant Dis. Rep.* 55, 47–49.
- Mills, G., Harmens, H., 2011. *Ozone Pollution: A Hidden Threat to Food Security*. Programme Coordination Centre for the ICP Vegetation, Centre of Ecology & Hydrology, Bangor, UK.
- Mishra, S., Heckathorn, S.A., Barua, D., Wang, D., Joshi, P., Hamilton Iii, E.W., Frantz, J., 2008 Nov. Interactive effects of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> and ozone on leaf thermotolerance in field-grown *Glycine max*. *J. Integr. Plant Biol.* 50 (11), 1396–1405.
- Mina, U., Fuloria, A., Aggarwal, R., 2016. Effect of ozone and antioxidants on wheat and its pathogen-Bipolaris sorokiniana. *Cereal Res. Commun.* 44 (4), 594–604.
- Mishra, A.K., Agrawal, S.B., 2014. Cultivar specific response of CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization on two tropical mung bean (*Vigna radiata* L.) cultivars: ROS generation, antioxidant status, physiology, growth, yield and seed quality. *J. Agron. Crop Sci.* 200, 273–289.
- Mishra, A.K., Rai, R., Agrawal, S.B., 2013. Differential response of dwarf and tall tropical wheat cultivars to elevated ozone with and without carbon dioxide enrichment: growth, yield and grain quality. *Field Crop. Res.* 145, 21–32.
- Morgan, P.B., Ainsworth, E.A., Long, S.P., 2003. How does elevated ozone impact soybean? A meta-analysis of photosynthesis, growth and yield. *Plant Cell Environ.* 26, 1317–1328.
- Nadeem, M., Li, J., Yahya, M., Sher, A., Ma, C., Wang, X., Qiu, L., 2019. Research progress and perspective on drought stress in legumes: a review. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* 20 (10), 2541.
- Navas-Cortés, J.A., Landa, B.B., Méndez-Rodríguez, M.A., Jiménez-Díaz, R.M., 2007. Quantitative modeling of the effects of temperature and inoculum density of *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *ciceris* races 0 and 5 on development of *Fusarium* wilt in chickpea cultivars. *Phytopathology* 97 (5), 564–573.
- NOAA, 2020. Trends in Atmospheric Carbon Dioxide- Earth System Research Laboratory. Global Monitoring Division - NOAA. <http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/%20ccgg/trends/> (accessed March 2020).
- Okubara, P.A., Paulitz, T.C., 2005. Root defense responses to fungal pathogens: a molecular perspective. In: Lambers, H., Colmer, T.D. (Eds.), *Root Physiology: from Gene to Function*. Springer, Dordrecht, pp. 215–226.
- Pan, S.Q., Ye, X.S., Kuc, J., 1991. A technique for detection of chitinases,  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanases and protein patterns, after single separation using PAGE or isoelectric focusing. *Phytopathology* 81, 970–974.
- Paolotti, E., Feng, Z., Marco, A.D., Hoshika, Y., Harmens, H., et al., 2020. Challenges, gaps and opportunities in investigating the interactions of ozone pollution and plant ecosystems. *Sci. of Total Environ.* 709, 136188.
- Piikki, K., De Temmerman, L., Ojanperä, K., Danielsson, H., Pleijel, H., 2008. The grain quality of spring wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) in relation to elevated ozone uptake and carbon dioxide exposure. *Eur. J. Agron.* 28, 245–254.
- Plessl, M., Elstner, E.F., Rennenberg, H., Habermeyer, J., Heiser, I., 2007. Influence of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> and ozone concentrations on late blight resistance and growth of potato plants. *Environ. Exp. Bot.* 60, 447–457.
- Prasad, D.N., Sudhakar, N., Murugesan, K., Mohan, N., 2009. Application of ozone on induction of resistance in *Vigna unguiculata* cv. Co 6, against *Fusarium* wilt. *Arch. Phytopath. Plant Prot.* 42 (7), 633–642.
- Rogers, A., Ainsworth, E.A., Leakey, A.D.B., 2009. Will elevated carbon dioxide concentration amplify the benefits of nitrogen fixation in legumes? *Plant Physiol.* 151, 1009–1016.
- Saha, S., Sehgal, V.K., Nagarajan, S., Pal, M., 2012. Impact of elevated atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> on radiation utilization and related plant biophysical properties in pigeon pea (*Cajanus cajan* L.). *Agric. For. Meteorol.* 158, 63–70.
- Saha, S., Sehgal, V.K., Chakraborty, D., Pal, M., 2013. Growth behavior of kabuli chickpea under elevated atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. *J. Agric. Phys.* 13 (1), 55–61.
- Sairam, R.K., Saxena, D.C., 2000. Oxidative stress and antioxidants in wheat genotypes: possible mechanism of water stress tolerance. *J. Agron. Crop Sci.* 184, 55–61.
- Sandermann Jr., H., 2000. Ozone/biotic disease interactions: molecular biomarkers as a new experimental tool. *Environ. Pollut.* 108 (3), 327–332.
- Sandermann, H., Ernst, D., Heller, W., Langebartels, C., 1998. Ozone: an abiotic elicitor of plant defense reactions. *Trends Plant Sci.* 3, 47–50.
- Sankar, M., Vanitha, P., Kamalakannan, S., Raju, A.A., Jeyakumar, P., 2018. Prevalence of *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *ciceris* causing wilt in chickpea and its pathogenic, cultural and morphological characterization. *J. Curr. Microbiol. App. Sci.* 7 (2), 1301–1313.
- Sharma, M., Nagavardhini, A., Thudi, M., Ghosh, R., Pande, S., Varshney, R.K., et al., 2014. Development of DaRT markers and assessment of diversity in *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *ciceris*, wilt pathogen of chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.). *BMC Genom.* 15, 454.
- Shinde, B.P., Thakur, J., 2015. Influence of Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi on chlorophyll, proteins, proline and total carbohydrates content of the pea plant under water stress condition. *Int. J. Curr. Microbiol. App. Sci.* 4 (1), 809–821.
- Singh, S., Bhatia, A., Tomer, R., Kumar, V., Singh, B., Singh, S.D., 2013. Synergistic action of tropospheric ozone and carbon dioxide on yield and nutritional quality of Indian mustard (*Brassica juncea* (L.) Czern.). *Environ. Monit. Assess.* 185, 6517–6529.
- Singh, R.N., Mukherjee, J., Sehgal, V.K., Bhatia, A., et al., 2017. Effect of elevated ozone, carbon dioxide and their interaction on growth, biomass and water use efficiency of chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.). *J. Agron.* 19, 301–305.
- Swarupa, V., Ravishankar, K.V., Rekha, A., 2014. Plant defense response against *Fusarium oxysporum* and strategies to develop tolerant genotypes in banana. *Planta* 239, 735–751.
- Tomer, R., Bhatia, A., Kumar, V., Kumar, A., Singh, R., Singh, B., Singh, S.D., 2015. Impact of elevated ozone on growth, yield and nutritional quality of two wheat species in Northern India. *Aerosol Air Qual. Res.* 15, 329–340.
- Vanaja, M., Ram Reddy, P.R., Lakshmi, N.J., Abdul Razak, S.K., Vagheera, P., Archana, G., Yadav, S.K., Maheswari, M., Venkateswarlu, B., 2010. Response of seed yield and its components of red gram (*Cajanus cajan* L. Millsp.) to elevated CO<sub>2</sub>. *Plant Soil Environ.* 56, 458–462.
- Verbruggen, N., Hermans, C., 2008. Proline accumulation in plants: a review. *Amino Acids* 35, 753–759.
- Violini, G., 1995. Ozone and plant pathogens: an overview. *Rivista Di Patologia Vegetale* 5, 113–130.
- Yadav, A., Bhatia, A., Yadav, S., Kumar, V., Singh, B., 2019. The effects of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> and elevated O<sub>3</sub> exposure on plant growth, yield and quality of grains of two wheat cultivars grown in north India. *Heliyon* 5, e02317.
- Zuccarini, P., 2009. Tropospheric ozone as a fungal elicitor. *J. Biosci.* 34, 125–138.