**Role of plant trichomes in pest management**

Patel Hiral G., Pastagia Jayesh J., Senjaliya Tushar M. and Chaudhary Lala S.

1. **Department of Entomology, N M College of Agriculture, Navsari Agricultural University, Navsari- 396 450 Gujarat,**

**Email address hiralpatel6078@gmail.com and Mobile no. 9723695936**

1. **College of Agriculture, Waghai, Navsari Agricultural University Gujarat, India**

**Email address** [**jayeshpastagia@nau.in**](mailto:jayeshpastagia@nau.in) **and Mobile no. 9879038539**

1. **Department of Entomology, N M College of Agriculture, Navsari Agricultural University, Navsari- 396 450 Gujarat,**

**Email address** [**t.m.senjaliya@gmail.com**](mailto:t.m.senjaliya@gmail.com) **and Mobile no.9712055112**

1. **Department of Entomology, N M College of Agriculture, Navsari Agricultural University, Navsari- 396 450 Gujarat,**

**Email address** [**lalabhai261999@gmail.com**](mailto:lalabhai261999@gmail.com) **and and Mobile no. 8511421905**

**ABSTRACT**

Natural hair like structures, produced on aerial surfaces of plants that involves in plant defence, are recognised as trichomes. These trichomes play their role in natural plant defence. These trichomes may be glandular or non-glandular, and secrete exudates, which trap insects and slowdown their movement and act as a physical barrier either against insect attack killing the insects directly or through retarding the insect growth and their population. These trichomes play an important role against both biotic and abiotic stresses. Plant trichomes, specialized epidermal outgrowths found on the surfaces of various plant species, have gained significant attention in recent years due to their diverse roles in plant development, defense, and pest management. Trichomes serve as a physical barrier against herbivores, play a crucial role in the release of chemical deterrents, and act as key components of indirect defense mechanisms. This review aims to provide a comprehensive overview of the multifaceted contributions of plant trichomes in pest management, focusing on their structural characteristics, chemical defense, and ecological interactions with herbivores. Understanding the mechanisms underlying the role of trichomes in pest management can potentially pave the way for the development of novel strategies for sustainable agriculture.

**INTRODUCTION**

Trichome is derived from greek word “trichome” which means hair, trichomes are hair - like protuberances that develops from the aerial epidermis on leaves, stems and other organs on many plant species. They are considered a primitive Charistics with many independent evolutionary origins. The morphology and density of trichomes can vary greatly between plant species and even within different parts of the same plant. Trichomes can be unicellular or multicellular, and their size, shape, and density can impact their functional properties. Some plants have dense trichome coverings, while others may have sparse or absent trichomes. Trichomes, as a plant protective barrier against natural hazards such as herbivores, ultraviolet (UV) irradiation, pathogen attacks and excessive transpiration, play a key role in development of plants and occur widely in various plants. Trichomes may be unicellular or multicellular and are derived from aerial epidermal cells in leaves, stems and floral organs. Trichomes are mostly classified as glandular and non-glandular trichomes (Pradhan and Maradi*,* 2020). Trichomes serve various functions, such as reducing water loss by creating a microclimate around the leaf surface, reflecting excess sunlight, and protecting plants from harmful UV radiation. They can also help regulate temperature, prevent mechanical damage from wind or insects, and aid in nutrient absorption. The chemical composition of trichomes often includes secondary metabolites, such as terpenes, phenols, alkaloids, and flavonoids. These compounds can have deterrent or toxic effects on herbivores, interfering with their feeding behaviour, growth, or reproduction. The plants produce a wide variety of secondary metabolites including volatile organic compounds that contribute directly to the defense against herbivores by acting repellent and/or toxic, and indirectly by attracting natural enemies (Dudareva et al., 2013; Unsicker et al., 2009). Plant volatile organic compounds primarily belong to three classes of secondary metabolites: phenylpropanoids/benzenoids, fatty acid derivatives, and terpenoids (Dudareva et al., 2013). Terpenoids are a large and diverse class of plant metabolites that include vital molecules such as sterols, chlorophylls, carotenoids, and several hormones involved in basic plant processes, as well as in addition volatile monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes. All terpenoids originate from the building blocks isopentenyl diphosphate (IPP) and its isomer dimethylallyl diphosphate (DMAPP). IPP and DMAPP are used by phenyl transferases to form larger phenyl diphosphate intermediates. While geranyl diphosphate and nearly diphosphate serve as precursors for monoterpene formation, trans- and cis-farnesyl diphosphate are utilized for sesquiterpene formation. The diversity of terpenes found in plants is then generated by terpene synthases which utilize one or several prenyl diphosphate substrates, and often have the ability to produce multiple terpene products from one prenyl diphosphate substrate (Degenhardt et al., 2009). To facilitate their role in the antagonistic interaction with herbivores (Gershenzon and Dudareva, 2007) plant terpenes are often produced in specific plant tissues like glandular trichomes or internal ducts located in different tissues including parenchyma and vascular tissues. In wild plants these defensive volatile terpene traits are constantly under positive selection pressure to increase survival and reproduction. Some trichome-derived chemicals may also attract natural enemies of pests, promoting indirect defense. Understanding the structural and chemical properties of plant trichomes is essential for elucidating their role in pest management. By studying trichomes, researchers can identify potential mechanisms for enhancing crop resistance to pests, develop eco-friendly pest control strategies, and contribute to the development of sustainable agriculture practices.

**Morphology and types of trichome**

1. **Non-glandular Trichomes**: Simple Hair-like Trichomes: These trichomes are long, unbranched, and consist of a single cell or a few cells. They can be straight or curved and have a hair-like appearance. (Glas *et al*.,2012). Branched Trichomes: These trichomes have a complex structure with multiple branches arising from a common base. They can be dendritic (tree-like) or stellate (star-shaped). T-shaped Trichomes: These trichomes have a structure resembling the letter "T," with a central stalk and two lateral branches.
2. **Glandular Trichomes**: Capitate Glandular Trichomes: These trichomes consist of a stalk and a glandular head. The glandular head contains secretory cells that produce and store various compounds, such as essential oils, resins, or other secondary metabolites. Peltate Glandular Trichomes: In these trichomes, the glandular head is attached to the stalk via a disc-shaped structure.Sessile Glandular Trichomes: These trichomes lack a stalk, and the glandular head is directly attached to the plant surface. (Turner *et al*., 2000) **Bulbous Trichomes:** These trichomes are characterized by a swollen, bulbous base with secretory cells. They are often found in clusters and contain volatile compounds. **Stalked Glandular Trichomes**: These trichomes have a long stalk with a glandular head at the top. The glandular head produces and stores secretory substances.
3. **Scale-like Trichomes:**Scale Trichomes: These trichomes are flat, scale-like structures that closely adhere to the plant surface. They provide protection against herbivores and environmental stresses. (Glas *et al*.,2012)

**Distribution and density on plant surface**

The distribution and density of trichomes on plant surfaces can vary significantly between different plant species and even within different parts of the same plant (Dahlin *et al.,* 1992).

**Leaf Surfaces:**

**Adaxial Surface:** The upper surface of leaves, also known as the adaxial surface, often exhibits a higher density of trichomes compared to the lower surface (abaxial surface).

**Leaf Veins:** Trichomes are frequently found in higher numbers along leaf veins, where they can provide additional protection against herbivores and environmental stresses (Dahlin *et al.,* 2008).

**Leaf Margins:** Trichomes are commonly present along the margins of leaves, acting as a physical barrier against pests and reducing water loss.

**Stem Surfaces:**

**Stem Epidermis:** Trichomes can be distributed along the epidermis of stems, providing mechanical protection and defense against herbivores.

**Internodes and Nodes:** The density of trichomes can vary along the length of stems, with higher densities observed near nodes and lower densities in internodal regions.

**Floral Surfaces:**

**Petals and Sepals:** Trichomes can be present on the outer surfaces of petals and sepals, contributing to the protection of reproductive structures.

**Floral Bracts:** Trichomes may also be found on the bracts surrounding flowers, serving as a deterrent to herbivores and protecting developing flower buds.

**Other Plant Surfaces:**

**Inflorescence Surfaces:** Trichomes can be distributed on the surfaces of inflorescences, such as the rachis of flower clusters, providing defense against pests.

**Fruit and Seed Surfaces:** Trichomes can occur on the surfaces of fruits and seeds, acting as a physical barrier and offering protection against herbivores.

**Biological function of plant trichomes**

Plant trichomes serve various biological functions that contribute to the overall fitness and survival of plants. These functions can vary depending on the type, density, and morphology of trichomes, as well as the specific ecological context of the plant species. Here are some key biological functions of plant trichomes (Dudareva *et al.,* 2009):

**Defense against Herbivores:**

**Physical Barrier:** Trichomes act as a physical barrier, making it difficult for herbivores to access plant tissues. Dense trichome coverings can impede herbivore movement and feeding(Dahlin *et al.,* 2008).

**Mechanical Defense:** Trichomes can cause physical irritation or entanglement, deterring herbivores and reducing their feeding efficiency.

**Chemical Defense**: Trichomes produce and store chemical compounds, such as secondary metabolites, that have deterrent or toxic effects on herbivores. These compounds can interfere with herbivore feeding behaviour, growth, or reproduction (Dahlin *et al.,* 2008).

**Indirect Defense:** Trichomes can attract natural enemies of herbivores, such as predatory insects or parasitoids, which help control pest populations.

**Protection against Environmental Stresses:**

**Water Regulation:** Trichomes reduce water loss from plant surfaces by creating a microclimate that slows down evaporation and decreases transpiration rates.

**UV Protection:** Trichomes can reflect or absorb harmful ultraviolet (UV) radiation, protecting plant tissues from UV damage.

**Temperature Regulation:** Trichomes can modify temperature by reducing heat absorption or increasing air movement around plant surfaces, thereby regulating temperature and preventing overheating.

**Pathogen Resistance:**

Physical Barrier: Trichomes can hinder the movement and establishment of pathogens, such as fungal spores or bacteria, on plant surfaces.

Chemical Defense: Trichomes can produce antimicrobial compounds that inhibit the growth and colonization of pathogens.

**Pollinator Interaction:**

Attraction and Guidance: Trichomes can serve as visual and tactile cues for pollinators, guiding them toward flowers and enhancing pollination efficiency.

Nectar Protection: Trichomes on floral structures can protect nectar reserves from non-pollinating visitors, ensuring that the nectar is accessible only to pollinators.

**Water Regulation and Storage:**

Water Absorption: Some trichomes have structures that increase surface area and promote water absorption from rainfall or dew.

Water Storage: Trichomes in succulent plants can store water, enabling plants to withstand drought conditions.

**Allelopathy:**

Some trichomes produce allelochemicals that can inhibit the growth or germination of neighboring plants, providing a competitive advantage.

**Regulatory mechanism of trichome development in plants**

The development of trichomes in plants is regulated by a complex network of genetic and molecular mechanisms. These mechanisms involve the coordination of various signalling pathways, transcription factors, hormones, and genetic regulators (Dudareva *et al.,* 2013) Here are some key components of the regulatory mechanism of trichome development in plants:

**Transcription Factors:**

GLABRA (GL) and GLABRA3 (GL3)/ENHANCER OF GLABRA3 (EGL3): These transcription factors are central regulators of trichome development in Arabidopsis thaliana. They form a protein complex that promotes trichome initiation and development (Gutschick et al., 1999)

TRANSPARENT TESTA GLABRA1 (TTG1): TTG1 interacts with GL3/EGL3 and acts as a positive regulator of trichome formation. It is also involved in other epidermal cell differentiation processes.

TRIPTYCHON (TRY) and CAPRICE (CPC): These transcription factors act as negative regulators of trichome formation, inhibiting trichome initiation in specific cell types.

**Hormonal Signaling:**

Gibberellins (GAs): GA signaling promotes trichome initiation and development. GA mutants in Arabidopsis exhibit reduced trichome density. Jasmonic Acid (JA): JA signaling is involved in the induction of trichome development, particularly in response to herbivory or wounding. Ethylene: Ethylene signaling can positively or negatively regulate trichome development, depending on the plant species and environmental conditions.

**Epidermal Patterning:**

WEREWOLF (WER): WER is a MYB transcription factor that controls the spacing and distribution of trichomes. It acts as a negative regulator of trichome initiation, promoting the formation of non-trichome cells between trichomes. CAPRICE (CPC): In addition to its role as a transcription factor, CPC also regulates the spacing of trichomes by inhibiting neighboring cell fate transitions.

**MicroRNAs (miRNAs):**

miR156: miR156 is a small RNA molecule that negatively regulates trichome development by targeting the SPL family of transcription factors. Downregulation of miR156 leads to increased trichome density. miR828: miR828 regulates trichome branching by targeting the TAS4 transcript, which encodes tasiRNA precursors involved in trichome development.

**Defense mechanism:**

Trichomes possess both physical and chemical defense mechanisms that contribute to plant protection against herbivores and other pests. These defense mechanisms are crucial for reducing herbivore damage and enhancing plant fitness. (War *et al.,* 2012) Here's an overview of the physical and chemical defense mechanisms of trichomes:

**Physical Defense Mechanisms:**

1**. Mechanical Barrier**: Trichomes act as physical barriers, creating obstacles that impede herbivore movement and feeding. The presence of trichomes can deter small herbivores or make it more challenging for larger herbivores to access plant tissues (Tian *et al.,* 2012)  **Irritation and Entanglement:** Trichomes can cause physical irritation or entangle herbivores, hindering their feeding activities and movement. The pointed or branched structure of certain trichomes can prick or entrap pests, acting as a defensive barrier. **Reduction of Leaf Surface Area**: Trichomes on leaf surfaces can reduce the effective surface area available for herbivores to feed upon. This reduction limits the herbivore's access to plant tissues and diminishes the damage they can cause.

**Chemical Defense Mechanisms:**

1. **Secondary Metabolite Production:** Trichomes often produce and store a variety of secondary metabolites, such as terpenes, phenols, alkaloids, and flavonoids. These chemical compounds can have deterrent or toxic effects on herbivores. Trichome-derived secondary metabolites act as chemical defenses, deterring or repelling herbivores from feeding on the plant (Escobar-Bravo *et al.*, 2016).

**2. Allelochemicals**: Some trichomes produce allelochemicals that can inhibit the growth or germination of neighboring plants, providing a competitive advantage for the plant (Iwasa *et al.,* 1996).

3. **Pheromone Production:** Trichomes can also produce volatile compounds that act as pheromones to attract natural enemies of herbivores. These compounds facilitate indirect defense by attracting predators or parasitoids that prey upon or parasitize herbivorous pests.

4. **Sticky Secretions:** Certain trichomes secrete sticky substances, such as resins or mucilage, which can trap and immobilize herbivores. These sticky secretions physically impede the movement of pests, making them vulnerable to predation or preventing them from causing further damage.

**Top of Form**

**ROLE OF TRICHOMES IN THE PRODUCTION AND RELEASE OF SECONDARY METABOLITES:**

Trichomes play a crucial role in the production and release of secondary metabolites in plants. These specialized epidermal outgrowths serve as sites for the synthesis, storage, and secretion of various secondary metabolites, which are chemical compounds that have diverse ecological functions. Here's a detailed exploration of the role of trichomes in the production and release of secondary metabolites:

**Biosynthesis of Secondary Metabolites**:

Trichomes house specific cells, often referred to as glandular cells, that are responsible for the biosynthesis of secondary metabolites. These glandular cells contain specialized metabolic pathways and enzymes that facilitate the production of secondary metabolites (Maes *et al.,* 2010). Trichome-specific gene expression patterns regulate the biosynthesis of secondary metabolites. Transcription factors and other regulatory proteins control the expression of genes involved in secondary metabolite biosynthesis within trichomes (Bennett *et al.,* 1994).

**Storage and Accumulation:**

Trichomes function as storage reservoirs for secondary metabolites, accumulating these compounds within their specialized structures, such as glandular heads or subcellular compartments. This accumulation allows for higher concentrations of secondary metabolites, enhancing their defensive efficacy (Maes *et al.,* 2010). The storage and accumulation of secondary metabolites in trichomes can be influenced by various factors, including developmental stage, environmental conditions, and interactions with pests or pathogens.

**Release of Secondary Metabolites:**

Trichomes are involved in the active release of secondary metabolites, allowing the plant to deploy them for various ecological purposes. The release mechanisms can include:

Volatile Emission: Trichomes can release volatile secondary metabolites into the surrounding air. These volatile compounds serve as chemical signals for plant communication, defense against herbivores, attraction of pollinators, or repulsion of pathogens.

Exudation: Trichomes can exude or secrete secondary metabolites onto the plant surface. The exuded compounds can deter herbivores, inhibit pathogen growth, or provide protection against environmental stresses.

Mechanical Disruption: Trichomes can rupture or break upon physical contact or damage, leading to the release of secondary metabolites. This can happen when trichomes are touched or when herbivores feed on plant tissues.

**Ecological Significance:**

Trichome-derived secondary metabolites play vital ecological roles in plant defense and interactions with the environment. Chemical defenses: Secondary metabolites released by trichomes can deter herbivores, either by causing feeding deterrents, interfering with herbivore growth or development, or acting as toxins. Indirect defense: The release of volatile secondary metabolites can attract natural enemies of herbivores, such as predatory insects or parasitic wasps, thereby promoting biological control and reducing herbivore damage (Handley *et al.,* 2005). Communication and pollination: Trichome-derived volatile compounds can function as communication signals to attract pollinators or mediate interactions between plants and other organisms (Li *et al.,* 2016). Trichome-derived compounds exhibit remarkable chemical diversity, with a wide range of chemical classes and structural variations. These compounds play important roles in plant defense, communication, and ecological interactions. Here are some of the major chemical classes and examples of trichome-derived compounds:

1**. Terpenes:**

**Monoterpenes:** Compounds such as limonene, linalool, and α-pinene are commonly found in trichomes. They often contribute to the characteristic aromas of plants and play roles in insect deterrence or attraction (Degenhardt *et al.,* 2009). **Sesquiterpenes:** Compounds like germacrene D and β-caryophyllene are frequently produced by trichomes and have diverse biological activities, including defense against herbivores and attraction of natural enemies. **Diterpenes:** Trichome-derived diterpenes, such as phorbol esters and ingenol esters, exhibit potent antimicrobial and antifeedant properties.**Triterpenes:** Compounds like oleanolic acid and ursolic acid are triterpenes that can serve as feeding deterrents or inhibitors of insect growth (Gershenzon et al., 2007).

2**. Phenolic Compounds:**

- **Flavonoids:** Trichomes often produce flavonoids, including compounds like quercetin, kaempferol, and apigenin. Flavonoids have diverse functions, including UV protection, antioxidant activity, and defense against pathogens and herbivores (Sharma *et al.,* 2002). **Phenolic acids:** Trichomes can synthesize phenolic acids such as caffeic acid, ferulic acid, and rosmarinic acid. These compounds have antimicrobial and antioxidant properties, and they contribute to plant defense against pathogens and herbivores. **Lignans**: Some trichome-derived compounds, like podophyllotoxin, are lignans that possess cytotoxic and antitumor activities.

**3. Alkaloids:**

- **Pyridine alkaloids:** Trichomes can produce alkaloids such as nicotine, anabasine, and nornicotine, which are potent feeding deterrents against herbivores. **Tropane alkaloids**: Compounds like atropine and scopolamine are tropane alkaloids that are toxic to many herbivores and have pharmaceutical applications. **Benzylisoquinoline alkaloids:** Alkaloids such as morphine, codeine, and berberine, which are produced by trichomes, have analgesic, antimicrobial, and antiparasitic properties (Traw *et al.,* 2003)

4. **Essential Oils and Volatile Compounds:**

- Trichomes can release volatile compounds, including monoterpenes, sesquiterpenes, and their oxygenated derivatives. These volatile compounds contribute to plant aromas, attract pollinators, repel herbivores, or aid in indirect defense by attracting natural enemies of pests (Unsicker *et al.,* 2009).

**5. Fatty Acids and Derivatives:**

- Trichomes can synthesize and secrete various fatty acids and their derivatives, such as trichome-specific acyl sugars. These compounds can act as feeding deterrents against herbivores (Unsicker *et al.,* 2009).

**Bioactivity and efficacy against pests:**

Trichome-derived compounds exhibit a wide range of bioactivities against pests, including herbivores, pathogens, and other pests. The efficacy of trichome-derived compounds in pest management depends on various factors, such as the specific compound, the target pest, the mode of action, and the concentration of the compound. Here's an overview of the bioactivity and efficacy of trichome-derived compounds against pests (Handley *et al.,* 2007).

1. **Feeding Deterrence**: Many trichome-derived compounds act as feeding deterrents, making plant tissues less palatable to herbivores. These compounds can cause taste aversion, disrupt feeding behavior, or induce physiological responses that discourage herbivory. For example, compounds like terpenes, alkaloids, and phenolic compounds can deter herbivores by their bitter or unpleasant taste.

2. **Antifeedant and Growth Inhibition:** Trichome-derived compounds can inhibit the feeding and growth of pests. They may interfere with the insect's ability to digest or assimilate nutrients, leading to reduced feeding, growth retardation, or even mortality. Alkaloids, such as nicotine, and diterpenes, like phorbol esters, are known for their antifeedant and growth-inhibitory properties against herbivores.

3. **Toxicity:** Some trichome-derived compounds have direct toxic effects on pests. They can disrupt physiological processes, such as the nervous system, metabolism, or development of the pest. For example, tropane alkaloids and certain flavonoids have been shown to have insecticidal activity against various herbivorous insects.

4. **Antimicrobial Activity:** Trichome-derived compounds, particularly phenolic compounds and essential oils, often exhibit antimicrobial properties. They can inhibit the growth and development of pathogenic microorganisms, including bacteria and fungi. This antimicrobial activity can help protect plants from diseases caused by microbial pathogens.

5. **Indirect Defense:** Trichome-derived compounds can also play a role in indirect defense by attracting natural enemies of pests. Some volatile compounds released by trichomes act as chemical signals, attracting predators or parasitoids that prey upon or parasitize herbivorous pests, thus providing a natural control mechanism for pest management (Levin *et al.,* 1973). It's worth noting that the bioactivity and efficacy of trichome-derived compounds against pests can also have ecological implications, as they can impact non-target organisms, including beneficial insects or organisms higher up in the food chain. Therefore, a balanced and integrated approach to pest management that considers the broader ecosystem is crucial.

**TRICHOME-INDUCED CHANGES IN HERBIVORE BEHAVIOR AND FEEDING PREFERENCES**:

Trichomes can induce various changes in herbivore behavior and feeding preferences, influencing their interactions with plants. Here are some notable effects of trichomes on herbivore behavior:

**1. Deterrence and Avoidance:**

Physical Barrier: The presence of trichomes can create a physical barrier that deters herbivores from landing on or accessing plant surfaces. Herbivores may avoid plants with dense trichome coverings, reducing the likelihood of feeding (Peter *et al.,* 1995). Mechanical Irritation: Trichomes with pointed or branched structures can cause mechanical irritation or entanglement, deterring herbivores from feeding and reducing their feeding efficiency. Chemical Deterrence: Trichomes produce secondary metabolites that can deter herbivores through their bitter taste or toxicity. Herbivores may avoid plants with trichome-derived compounds due to their aversive effects.

2. **Altered Feeding Behavior:**

Reduced Feeding Rate: Trichomes can slow down herbivore feeding by impeding their ability to reach and consume plant tissues. The physical barrier created by trichomes can lead to decreased feeding rates and reduced damage (Xiao *et al.,* 2017). Altered Feeding Site Selection: Herbivores may selectively avoid areas of the plant with higher trichome density, choosing to feed on trichome-free or low trichome areas instead. Trichome-induced changes in herbivore feeding site selection can help minimize damage to vital plant parts.

3. **Feeding Site Localization:**

Trichomes can influence the localization of herbivore feeding sites on plant surfaces. Herbivores may concentrate their feeding activity in areas with lower trichome density or avoid areas with dense trichome coverings. This localized feeding behavior can help protect vital plant tissues from excessive damage.

4**. Induced Defensive Responses:**

Herbivory on trichome-rich plant surfaces can trigger plant defensive responses. Plants can activate defense-related pathways, such as the production of toxic secondary metabolites, in response to herbivore feeding on trichome-bearing tissues. This induced defense can make the plant less palatable or even toxic to herbivores.

5**. Impact on Oviposition Behavior**:

Trichomes can influence the oviposition (egg-laying) behavior of herbivores. Some herbivores may preferentially lay their eggs on trichome-free areas or areas with lower trichome density to ensure better access to food resources for their offspring.

Overall, trichomes can significantly influence herbivore behavior and feeding preferences. They can act as physical barriers, cause mechanical irritation, deter herbivores through chemical compounds, alter feeding site selection, and induce defensive responses in plants. These trichome-induced changes in herbivore behavior contribute to the overall defense strategy of plants, reducing herbivore damage and promoting plant fitness and survival.

**Influence of trichomes on natural enemies and beneficial insects**

Trichomes can have both direct and indirect influences on natural enemies and beneficial insects, shaping their interactions with plants. Here are some key aspects of trichome influence on beneficial organisms Walling(2007).

1. **Shelter and Refuge:**

Trichomes provide physical structures that can serve as shelters and refuges for beneficial insects. These structures offer protection from adverse environmental conditions, predators, or parasitoids. Beneficial insects, such as predatory mites, ladybugs, and lacewings, may utilize trichomes as hiding places or as sites for egg-laying or pupation.

2. **Attraction and Retention:**

Trichomes can attract beneficial insects by providing food resources, nectar, or pollen. Some trichomes produce nectar-rich glands that serve as feeding sites for beneficial insects, including pollinators and predatory insects. Certain types of trichomes, such as glandular trichomes, may release volatile compounds that attract natural enemies of herbivores. These volatile signals can act as chemical cues for predators or parasitoids to locate herbivore-infested plants.

3. **Biological Control Enhancement:**

Trichome-induced changes in herbivore behavior and feeding preferences can indirectly benefit natural enemies. By deterring or reducing herbivore feeding, trichomes create a more favorable environment for natural enemies to locate and prey upon herbivores. Trichome-rich plants can serve as "banker plants" by providing shelter, alternative prey, or supplemental food resources for beneficial insects, enhancing their population density and activity. The presence of trichomes can improve the effectiveness of biological control programs by promoting the establishment and persistence of natural enemy populations.

4. **Interaction Complexity:**

Trichomes can affect the movement and behavior of beneficial insects. Depending on the density and morphology of trichomes, they may facilitate or hinder the movement of natural enemies across plant surfaces. The density and presence of trichomes may influence the foraging behavior and efficiency of predatory insects. Some predators may preferentially target herbivores located in trichome-free areas or modify their hunting strategies in response to trichome barriers.

5. **Compatibility with Beneficials:**

Trichome-derived secondary metabolites can have direct effects on beneficial insects. Some compounds may be toxic or repellent to certain beneficial organisms, limiting their effectiveness or persistence. However, many beneficial insects have evolved adaptations or tolerance to trichome-derived compounds, allowing them to coexist and exploit the resources provided by trichome-rich plants.

The influence of trichomes on natural enemies and beneficial insects is complex and context-dependent. Trichomes can provide shelter, food resources, and attractants for beneficial organisms, enhancing their population density and activity. At the same time, trichomes can create physical barriers or produce chemical compounds that may impact the behavior and compatibility of beneficial insects. Understanding these interactions is crucial for designing sustainable pest management strategies that promote the conservation and utilization of beneficial insects in agricultural ecosystems.

**Genetic control and regulatory pathways involved in trichome development:**

Trichome development in plants is regulated by a complex network of genetic control and regulatory pathways. These pathways involve the coordination of various genes, transcription factors, hormones, and signaling molecules. Here are some key components of the genetic control and regulatory pathways involved in trichome development:

1. **Transcription Factors:**

GLABRA1 (GL1): GL1 is a MYB transcription factor that promotes trichome initiation and development. It interacts with other transcription factors and regulatory proteins to activate trichome-specific genes. GLABRA3 (GL3) and ENHANCER OF GLABRA3 (EGL3): GL3/EGL3 are bHLH (basic helix-loop-helix) transcription factors that form a protein complex with GL1 to regulate trichome development. They are essential for the activation of downstream genes involved in trichome formation. TRANSPARENT TESTA GLABRA1 (TTG1): TTG1 is a WD40 repeat protein that interacts with GL3/EGL3 and GL1 to form a transcriptional activation complex. It is crucial for trichome initiation and development (Sun *et al.,* 2020)

2. **Hormonal Signaling:**

Gibberellins (GAs): GA signaling promotes trichome initiation and development. GA mutants often exhibit reduced trichome density or abnormal trichome morphology. Ethylene: Ethylene can positively or negatively regulate trichome development depending on the plant species and environmental conditions. It influences trichome density and branching. Jasmonic Acid (JA): JA signaling is involved in the induction of trichome development, particularly in response to herbivory or wounding. It regulates trichome density and morphology.

3. **Epidermal Patterning:**

WEREWOLF (WER): WER is a MYB transcription factor that controls epidermal patterning and trichome formation. It acts as a negative regulator of trichome initiation, promoting the formation of non-trichome cells between trichomes. CAPRICE (CPC): CPC is a MYB transcription factor that inhibits trichome formation. It acts antagonistically to GL1 and GL3/EGL3, restricting trichome initiation in specific cell types.

4. **Receptor Kinases:**

TOO MANY MOUTHS (TMM): TMM is a receptor-like kinase that plays a crucial role in trichome initiation. It is involved in perceiving positional signals and promoting the formation of trichome precursor cells.

5. **MicroRNAs (miRNAs):**

miR156: miR156 is a small RNA molecule that negatively regulates trichome development. It targets the SPL family of transcription factors, suppressing their expression and promoting juvenile traits with fewer trichomes. miR828: miR828 regulates trichome branching by targeting the TAS4 transcript, which encodes tasiRNA precursors involved in trichome development.

6. **Phytochrome Interactions:**

Phytochromes, light-sensing proteins, can regulate trichome development. Red light promotes trichome formation, while far-red light inhibits it.

**Impact of genetic manipulation on trichome density and pest resistance**

Genetic manipulation can have a significant impact on trichome density and pest resistance in plants. By altering the expression of genes involved in trichome development or related pathways, researchers can modulate trichome density and morphology, thereby affecting plant interactions with pests. Here are some ways in which genetic manipulation can influence trichome density and pest resistance:

**1. Increased Trichome Density:**

Overexpression of Trichome-Related Genes: Overexpression of genes involved in trichome initiation or development, such as GL1, GL3/EGL3, or TTG1, can lead to an increase in trichome density. This genetic manipulation results in more physical barriers and enhanced defenses against herbivores. Downregulation of Negative Regulators: Silencing or downregulating genes that act as negative regulators of trichome development, such as WER or CPC, can increase trichome density. This manipulation allows for a higher number of trichomes on plant surfaces, providing better defense against herbivores.

2**. Altered Trichome Morphology:**

Modulation of Trichome Branching: Genetic manipulation can be used to alter the branching pattern of trichomes. For instance, upregulation or downregulation of genes like miR828 or its targets can impact trichome branching. Changes in trichome branching can influence physical deterrence, as well as the retention and movement of pests on plant surfaces. Modification of Trichome Structure: Genetic manipulation can be employed to modify trichome structure, such as altering the length, density, or shape of trichomes. These modifications can affect herbivore behavior and feeding efficiency, making plants less attractive or more difficult to feed upon.

3. **Enhanced Pest Resistance:**

Deterrence and Aversion: Manipulation of trichome density and morphology can result in increased deterrence and aversion of pests. Higher trichome density or altered trichome structures can physically impede herbivore movement, cause irritation, or reduce feeding efficiency, thereby deterring pests. Increased Chemical Defenses: Manipulating genes involved in secondary metabolite biosynthesis within trichomes can enhance the production and release of defensive compounds. Trichomes can be engineered to produce higher levels of toxic or deterrent secondary metabolites, improving plant resistance against pests. Indirect Defense Enhancement: Genetic manipulation can improve indirect defense mechanisms mediated by trichomes. By enhancing the emission of volatile compounds or optimizing trichome-based signaling pathways, plants can attract more beneficial insects that help control pest populations.

**Potential for breeding trichome-enhanced crops for improved pest management**

Breeding trichome-enhanced crops for improved pest management is an area of interest and research in agricultural science. By selecting and breeding plants with desirable trichome traits, it is possible to develop crops that exhibit enhanced pest resistance and reduced reliance on chemical pesticides. Here are some considerations and potential benefits of breeding trichome-enhanced crops for improved pest management:

1**. Increased Physical Barriers**: Trichome-enhanced crops can possess a higher density or altered trichome morphology that creates physical barriers for pests. Dense trichome coverings can impede herbivore movement and feeding, reducing pest damage and improving crop productivity.

2. **Enhanced Deterrence**: Trichome-enhanced crops can produce secondary metabolites or compounds that deter pests through their taste, smell, or toxic effects. These compounds can repel pests, discourage feeding, and reduce crop susceptibility to herbivores.

3. **Indirect Defense Promotion: Trichome**-enhanced crops can attract natural enemies of pests through the release of volatile compounds. These volatile signals act as chemical cues, attracting beneficial insects that prey upon or parasitize herbivores, thus enhancing biological control and reducing pest populations.

4. **Reduced Reliance on Chemical Pesticides**: By incorporating trichome-enhanced traits, crops can exhibit increased resistance to pests, reducing the need for chemical pesticides. This approach aligns with sustainable and environmentally friendly pest management practices, reducing chemical inputs and potential ecological risks.

5**. Crop-Specific Adaptation:** Breeding trichome-enhanced crops can be tailored to specific crop types, taking into consideration the target pests and their interactions with trichomes. Different crops may require variations in trichome density, morphology, or the types of secondary metabolites produced to effectively deter or repel specific pests.

6. **Genetic Diversity and Trait Stacking**: Breeding trichome-enhanced crops can introduce genetic diversity and facilitate the stacking of multiple pest resistance traits. This approach involves combining trichome-enhanced traits with other resistance mechanisms, such as disease resistance or tolerance to abiotic stresses, to develop crops with enhanced overall pest management capabilities.

7. B**alancing Trade-Offs:** When breeding trichome-enhanced crops, it's important to consider potential trade-offs associated with trichome traits, such as impacts on crop yield, agronomic performance, or susceptibility to other pests or diseases. Breeding efforts should aim to strike a balance between pest resistance and other desirable agronomic traits to ensure overall crop productivity and market acceptability.

**References**

A. J. Peter, T. G. Shanower, J. Romeis, “The role of plant trichomes in insect resistance: a selective review” *Phytophaga,* 7: 41-64, 1995.

[A.R. War, M.G. Paulraj, T. Ahmad, A.A. Buhroo, B. Hussain, S. Ignacimuthu,](http://refhub.elsevier.com/S0168-9452(18)30185-7/sbref0010) [H.C. Sharma, “Mechanisms of plant defense against insect herbivores, Plant Signal](http://refhub.elsevier.com/S0168-9452(18)30185-7/sbref0010)”[*Behav.* 7 1306–1320](http://refhub.elsevier.com/S0168-9452(18)30185-7/sbref0010) 2012.

B. Sun, Z. Zhu, R. Liu, L. Wang, F. Dai, F. Cao, “TRANSPARENT TESTA GLABRA1 (TTG1) regulates leaf trichome density in tea Camellia sinensis” *Nord J Bot.*38:1, 2020.

D. A. Levin, “The role of trichomes in plant defense” *The quarterly review of biology* 48(1): 3- 15, 1973.

[D. Tian, J. Tooker, M. Peiffer, S.H. Chung, G.W. Felton “Role of trichomes in defense](http://refhub.elsevier.com/S0168-9452(18)30185-7/sbref0145) [against herbivores: comparison of herbivore response to woolly and hairless tri-](http://refhub.elsevier.com/S0168-9452(18)30185-7/sbref0145) [chome mutants in tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*)” *Planta* 236: 1053–1066.](http://refhub.elsevier.com/S0168-9452(18)30185-7/sbref0145) 2012.

E. T. McDowell, J. Kapteyn, A. Schmidt, C. Li, J. Kang, A. Descour, F. Shi, M. Larson, A. Schilmiller, L. An, “Comparative functional genomic analysis of Solanum glandular trichome types” *Plant Physiol*, 155: 524–539, 2011.

G. J. Wagner, E. Wang, R. W. Shepherd, “New approaches for studying and exploiting an old protuberance, the plant trichome” *Ann. Bot.* 93, 3–11, 2004.

G. W.Turner, J. Gershenzon and R. B. Croteau. *Plant Physiology*,**124**(2): 665-679, 2000.

H. C. Sharma, R. Ortiz, “Host plant resistance to insects: An eco-friendly approach for pest management and environmental conservation” *J. Environ. Biol*. 23:111–135, 2002.

J. Degenhardt, T. G. Köllner, J. Gershenzon “Monoterpene and sesquiterpene synthases and the origin of terpene skeletal diversity in plants” *Phytochemistry* 70:1621-1637 2009.

J. Gershenzon, N. Dudareva, “The function of terpene natural products in the natural world. Nat” *Chem. Biol.* 3, 408-414, 2007.

J. J. Glas, J. C. B. Schimmel, M. J. Alba, R. Escobar-Bravo, C. R. Schuurink, and R. M. Kant, *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, **13**: 17077-17103, 2012.

K. Pradhan, and R. M. Maradi,. *Biotica Research Today*, **2**(8): 713-716, 2020.

K. Xiao, X. Mao, Y. Lin, X. Xu,, Y. Zhu, Q, Cai and J. Zhang “Trichome, a functional diversity phenotype in plants*” Mol Biol* 6: 183, 2017.

[L. Maes, A. Goossens, Hormone-mediated promotion of trichome initiation in plants](http://refhub.elsevier.com/S0168-9452(18)30185-7/sbref0140) [is conserved but utilizes species and trichome-specific regulatory mechanisms, Plant](http://refhub.elsevier.com/S0168-9452(18)30185-7/sbref0140) [Signal. Behav. 5 205–207, 2010.](http://refhub.elsevier.com/S0168-9452(18)30185-7/sbref0140)

L. L. Walling, “Adaptive defense responses to pathogens and insects” *In Advances in Botanical Research,*51:551–612, 2009.

M. B. Traw and J. Bergelson “Interactive effects of jasmonic acid, salicylic acid, and gibberellin on induction of trichomes in Arabidopsis” *Plant Physiol* 133(3): 1367-1375, 2003.

M. E. Hanley, B. B. Lamont, M. M. Fairbanks and C. M. Rafferty, “Plant structural traits and their role in antiherbivore defence” *Persp in Plant Ecol, Evolution and System* 8(4): 157-178, 2007.

N. Dudareva, A. Klempien, J. K. Muhlemann, I. Kaplan, “Biosynthesis, function and metabolic engineering of plant volatile organic compounds” *New Phytol.* 198: 16-32, 2013.

P. Dalin, J. Ågren, C. Björkman, P. Huttunen, and K. Kärkkäinen “Leaf trichome formation and plant resistance to herbivory” *In Induced plant resistance to herbivory* pp. 89- 105, 2008.

R. Handley, B. Ekbom, and J. Ågren, “Variation in trichome density and resistance against a specialist insect herbivore in natural populations of Arabidopsis thaliana” *Ecol Entomol* 30(3): 284-292, 2005.

R.M. Dahlin, M. A. Brick, J. B. Ogg “Characterization and density of trichomes on three common bean cultivars” *Econ Bot,* 46(3):299–304 1992.

[R.N. Bennett, R.M. Wallsgrove, “Secondary metabolites in plant defence mechan-](http://refhub.elsevier.com/S0168-9452(18)30185-7/sbref0005) [isms” *New Phytol.* 127: 617–633](http://refhub.elsevier.com/S0168-9452(18)30185-7/sbref0005), 1994.

S. B. Unsicker, G. Kunert and J. Gershenzon, “Protective perfumes: the role of vegetative volatiles in plant defense against herbivores” *Curr. Opin. Plant Biol.* 12, 479-485, 2009.

V. P. Gutschick, “Biotic and abiotic consequences of differences in leaf structure” *New Phytol* 143(1):3–18, 1999.<https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1469-8137.1999.00423>.

[Y. Iwasa, T. Kubo, N. Van Dam, T.J. De Jong, “Optimal level of chemical defense](http://refhub.elsevier.com/S0168-9452(18)30185-7/sbref0085) [*decreasing with leaf agelk” Theor. Popul. Biol.* 50:124–148](http://refhub.elsevier.com/S0168-9452(18)30185-7/sbref0085), 1996.

Y. Li, X. Shan, R. Gao, S.Yang, S. Wang, X. Gao, “Two iiif clade-bHLHs from Freesia hybrida play divergent roles in flavonoid biosynthesis and trichome formation when ectopically expressed in Arabidopsis” *Sci Rep*, 6(1): e30514, 2016.