



## Drought stress mitigation through bioengineering of microbes and crop varieties for sustainable agriculture and food security

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### ABSTRACT

Climate change and agriculture are intrinsically connected and sudden changes in climatic conditions adversely impact global food production and security. The climate change-linked abiotic stressors like drought and high temperatures are resulting in crop failure. The most severe abiotic stress drought significantly affect the stomatal closure, production of reactive oxygen species, transpiration, photosynthesis or other physiological processes and plant morphology, and adversely affect plant growth and crop yield. Therefore, there is an exigent need for cost effective and eco-friendly modern technologies to induce drought tolerance in crop plants leading to climate-adapted sustainable agricultural practices for sustained food production. Among many options being pursued in this regard, the use of plant growth promoting microbes (PGPMs) is the most sustainable approach to promote drought stress resilience in crop plants leading to better plant growth and crop productivity. These PGPMs confer drought resistance via various direct or indirect mechanisms including production of antioxidants, enzymes, exopolysaccharides, modulation of phytohormones level, osmotic adjustment by inducing the accumulation of sugars, along with increases in nutrients, water uptake and photosynthetic pigments. However, several technological and ecological challenges limit their use in agriculture and sometimes treatment with plant beneficial microbes fails to produce desired results under field conditions. Thus, development of synthetic microbial communities or host mediated microbiome engineering or development of transgenic plants with the capacity to express desired traits may promote plant survival and growth under drought stress conditions. The present review critically assesses research evidence on the plant growth and stress resilience promoting potentials of PGPMs and their genes as an approach to develop drought resilient plants leading to increased crop productivity. Effective collaboration among scientific communities, policymakers and regulatory agencies is needed to create strong frameworks that both promote and regulate the utilization of synthetic microbial communities and transgenic plants in agriculture.

### 1. Introduction

Sustainable agricultural practices are essential to meet demands of food for the ever-increasing population while minimizing the impact on the environment. However, global climate change, erratic rains, harsh

environmental conditions and progressive intensification of global agriculture have adversely affected soil health, microbial biodiversity and crop production (Malhi et al., 2021; Hartmann and Six, 2023). Dominant abiotic stresses comprise drought, salinity, temperature, freezing, intense light, changes in pH, flooding and heavy metals toxicity

**Abbreviations:** PGPMs, Plant growth-promoting microbes; ABA, Abscisic acid; SA, Salicylic acid; JA, Jasmonic acid; PGPB, Plant growth-promoting bacteria; ACC, 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate; ROS, Reactive oxygen species; ET, Ethylene; RWC, Relative water content; POD, Peroxidase; SOD, Superoxide dismutase; GR, Glutathione reductase; CAT, Catalase; APX, Ascorbate peroxidase; DHAR, Dehydroascorbate reductase; MDAR, Monodehydroascorbate reductase; MDA, Malondialdehyde; AMF, Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi; FC, Field capacity; GSH, Glutathione; GSSG, Glutathione (oxidized form); CKs, Cytokinins; GA, Gibberellin acid; IAA, Indole acetic acid; VOCs, Volatile organic compounds; PGPR, Plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria; EPSs, Exopolysaccharides; EPB, EPS-producing bacteria; PSMs, Phosphate solubilizing microorganisms; PSMs, Phosphate solubilizing bacteria; KSMs, Potassium-solubilizing microorganisms; PGP, Plant growth-promoting; SMCs, Synthetic microbial communities; HMME, Host mediated microbiome engineering; P5CS, 1-pyrroline-5-carboxylic acid synthase enzyme; NCED, 9-cis-epoxycarotenoid dioxygenase; GWAS, Genome-wide association studies; RSA, Root system architecture; SNPs, Single-nucleotide polymorphisms; QTL, Quantitative trait locus WUE, Water utilization efficiency.

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(Cramer et al., 2011; Teshome et al., 2020; Chaudhary and Sindhu, 2024). Among these different abiotic stresses, drought has affected approximately 64 % of global land area followed by cold (57 %), acidic soil (15 %) and flood (13 %), followed by low fertility (9 %) and salinity (6 %), respectively (Cramer et al., 2011; Phour and Sindhu, 2022). Thus, drought is one of the most important abiotic stresses that have deleterious impact on crop production and quality (Lesk et al., 2016; Ahluwalia et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2022). Drought condition affects all aspects of plant growth including molecular, physiological, biochemical, hormonal, morphological and ecological traits (Ortiz et al., 2015; Gusain et al., 2024). Factors responsible for drought conditions includes evapotranspiration, uneven distribution of rainfall and varied water holding capacity of soil (Passioura and Angus, 2010; Devincenzo, 2020). By year 2050, more than half of the cultivable land is expected to be affected by drought (Naylor and Coleman-Derr, 2018; Vociante et al., 2022). In different studies conducted, around 60 % of wheat yield is lost to drought followed by chickpeas and maize i.e., 40 and 21 % (Kasim et al., 2013; Daryanto et al., 2016; Khan et al., 2016).

Water comprises 80 to 95 % of plant body and is essential for reproduction, growth, and development of plants (Brodersen et al., 2019), thus any shortage in water will lead to abnormal plant growth leading to poor quality crop yield (Gupta et al., 2020; Deng et al., 2021). The solution seems to be developing high yielding crop plants with high water uptake potential or have some coping mechanisms against drought (Seleiman et al., 2021). Plants employ several morphological, physiological, and molecular responses in defense to combat drought stress (Phour and Sindhu, 2022; Bhanbhro et al., 2024). Further, osmolytes or osmo-protectants like soluble sugar, proline, betaine, spermines are synthesized by plant in order to maintain turgor pressure of cell. Secondary metabolites and antioxidant molecules have also been found to protect plants from drought (Siddique et al., 2016; Hasanuzzaman et al., 2020; Kaur et al., 2021). Other potent mechanisms that confer protection to drought in plants include abscisic acid (ABA) signalling, transcription factor activities and enhanced ion transport (Prakash et al., 2019; Kumar et al., 2019). Farmers also opt for water saving irrigation or drought tolerant cultivars to cope up with drought (Eisenstein, 2013). Thus, crop plants employ various adaptation strategies and pathways to tackle impact of climate change (Raza et al., 2019; Bhanbhro et al., 2024). However, under certain conditions, plant morphology or defense response fails to protect plant from drought and thus, there is a need to develop drought tolerance in plants by looking into gene regulation and cross talk between plants and microbes through signalling (Phour et al., 2020; Yadav et al., 2020; Shahid et al., 2020; Thomas-Barry et al., 2024).

Chemical priming of the plants with natural and synthetic chemicals is also applied in some cases for combating drought stress, which includes azelaic acid, salicylic acid (SA), pipecolic acid, ABA, hydrogen peroxide, benzothiadiazole, jasmonic acid (JA) and  $\beta$ -aminobutyric acid (Savvides et al., 2016; Ali et al., 2019; Kaya et al., 2019). However, chemical priming is not a sustainable option as chemicals are expensive and toxic in nature, and may disturb the ecosystem after reaction with other chemicals in soil. In addition, chemicals may alter soil microbiota, biodiversity and fertility, and even affect crop production (Lin et al., 2019). Recently, utilization of beneficial plant-associated microbiomes as bioinoculants has emerged as cost effective and environment friendly solution for drought tolerance in sustainable agriculture practices (de Vries et al., 2020; Shah et al., 2021; Vociante et al., 2022; Muhammad et al., 2024). Various microorganisms help the plant in combating biotic and abiotic stress along with improving plant growth (Bender et al., 2016; Thirkell et al., 2017; Rubin et al., 2017; Ebrahimi-Zarandi et al., 2023). Such plant growth promoting bacteria (PGPB) including strains of *Azospirillum*, *Azotobacter*, *Bacillus*, *Klebsiella*, *Paenibacillus*, *Pseudomonas*, *Rhizobium* and *Serratia* obtained from phyllosphere, rhizosphere or endophytes have been demonstrated to contribute in drought mitigation (Abdelal et al., 2021; Kumar et al., 2022a, 2023; Manjunatha et al., 2022; Sati et al., 2023; Bittencourt et al., 2023). Such strains show

a diverse range of mechanisms for plant growth and stress mitigation by increasing nutrient availability (phosphorous, potassium and zinc) in soil, releasing plant growth promoting hormones, siderophores, 1-amino cyclopropane-1-carboxylate (ACC) deaminase and nitrogen fixation, and many more (Malik and Sindhu, 2011; García et al., 2017; Li et al., 2020; Alkahtani et al., 2020; Kumar et al., 2022b; Chieb and Gachomo, 2023).

The molecular defense in plants against drought includes regulation at transcription and translation level, which could be reprogrammed or induced for drought tolerant genes (Fang and Xiong, 2015; Zandalinas et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2022). Various transgenic and molecular breeding tools are opted for developing drought resilient crops since last 20 years (Oladosu et al., 2019; Qaim, 2020; Khadka et al., 2020). RNAi, CRISPR/Cas and transgenics are some of the popular choices for developing drought resistant plants but this process is highly costly, and associated with toxicity and ethical issues (Shanker and Maheswari, 2017; Qaim, 2020; Jeon et al., 2023; Wang and Doudna, 2023). Hence, scientists are looking for and incorporating traits with the application of conventional plant breeding techniques that could aid in drought tolerance in plants, by which sustainable agriculture could be practiced (Khadka et al., 2020; Rasheed et al., 2022). However, such techniques are laborious and time consuming. On the other hand, molecular techniques for developing transgenic plants are associated with ethical issues, and could possibly cause environmental hazards.

While there have been numerous papers and reviews that discusses the genetic and physiological approaches that provide resistance to plants against drought stress and adapt to climate change (e.g., Ashraf, 2010; Marasco et al., 2012; Tardieu, 2022; Muhammad et al., 2024; Thomas-Barry et al., 2024). The potential contribution of some plant associated beneficial microbes to this challenge has also been discussed individually (although see, de Vries et al., 2020; Poudel et al., 2021; Shah et al., 2021; Bittencourt et al., 2023). The available information lacks the involvement of various microbial genes and their modulation during amelioration of drought stress. It necessitated the need for a comprehensive discussion on exploitation of microbial genetic resources during plant-microbe interactions to assist crop production under drought stress. In the present manuscript, a broad overview of the main strategies employed by plants and microorganisms has been provided that aids in increasing drought tolerance in crop plants. A more in-depth discussion was provided about various mechanisms and microbial genes to enhance drought tolerance. Novel approaches and strategies were explored for genetic engineering of microbial communities and host plants for increasing their efficacy towards drought stress mitigation in different crops.

## 2. Detrimental effects of drought stress on crops and plant responses to stress adaptation

Plants are affected more by varying environmental conditions due to their sessile nature. Harsh environmental conditions not only affect the growth and development of crop plants but also the geographic distribution of a single plant species (Bukhari et al., 2019; Teshome et al., 2020). Any kind of adverse condition results in some metabolic alterations and expression of stress responsive genes that ensure the plant survival under such conditions (Ahanger et al., 2017; Mostofa et al., 2018; Wang et al. 2021). Climate change due to human activities has adverse effects worldwide and drought is the most concerning stress as approximately 10 % of cereal crops yield is lost to drought (Lau et al., 2012; Shen et al., 2020). Therefore, it is essential to study the plant potential to tolerate water limitation specifically for the crops in arid and semi-arid regions (Sobhanian et al., 2020; Thomas-Barry et al., 2024). Various studies have been conducted to evaluate the impact of drought stress on plants from the initial growing stage to harvest. More studies are still needed towards the combined effects of both drought and heat on reproductive stage (Seleiman and Kheir, 2018). This section discusses the effect of drought on morphology, physiology, and

biochemistry of plants including changes in root and leaf shape, respiration, biomolecule synthesis, and physiological processes i.e., respiration, photosynthesis, translocation and ions uptake (Kapoor et al., 2020).

## 2.1. Stress symptoms caused by water deficiency and drought

Crops cultivated in areas that are chiefly dependent upon rainfall are at a higher risk of facing stress than the irrigated areas (Konapala et al., 2020; Thomas-Barry et al. 2024). Drought dependent symptoms intensify with the increasing time period of drought stress. The effect of drought on plant is dependent on soil type, growth stage of plant, time duration of drought, plant species and drought frequency (Zoghi et al., 2019). For instance, mild drought condition induces increase in root biomass, however, growth pattern remains same. On contrary, severe drought conditions typically affect the stomatal closure or transpiration, photosynthesis or other physiological processes, and plant morphology (Rao and Chaitanya, 2016; Gholami et al., 2022). Drought condition leads to low moisture content in soil, which indicates low water potential in leaves and stem causing high transpiration rates as compared to low water absorption from soil (Ristvey et al., 2019; Goche et al., 2020). Plants expand their roots to increase water uptake, which could reduce the transpiration rates so to cope up with drought stress (Martínez-Vilalta and Garcia-Forner, 2017). Also, the plant response towards water scarcity is based upon the drought intensity, presence of different stress conditions or the past drought experience (Thomason and Battaglia, 2020; Sadhukhan et al., 2023).

Drought threatens crop production due to reduction in photosynthesis, reduced amount of CO<sub>2</sub> captured due to stomatal closure, and increased photorespiration. Drought results into accumulation of salts in upper layers of soil, thus lowering the water potential and uptake of water and minerals from soil. Therefore, such situation is also responsible for micro- and macro-nutrients deficiency (Gholami et al., 2022). Stomata closure disrupts the carbon fixation and utilization rate by varying sugar concentrations, which latter generates reactive oxygen species (ROS) due to disturbance in photosynthesis (Chaves et al., 2009; Pinheiro and Chaves, 2011; Hou et al., 2024). Moreover, low water potential disturbs the redox homeostasis, which generates ROS and its production in chloroplast, mitochondria and peroxisomes could lower the CO<sub>2</sub> uptake in green leaves (Hasanuzzaman et al., 2020). Development of oxidative stress later affects the photosynthesis process in addition to electron transport chain, eventually results in malfunctioning of chloroplast and mitochondria (Rao and Chaitanya, 2016). It also causes lipid peroxidation, hence altering the structure and activity of enzymes like RuBisCo (Maswada et al., 2020). Water directly governs

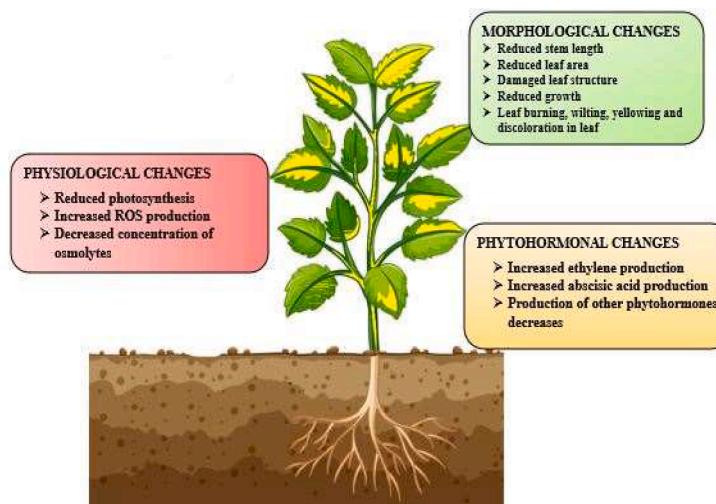
the plant growth, for instance, cell enlargement is dependent more on water deficit compared to cell division (Humplík et al., 2017). Water scarcity is chiefly responsible for reducing the cell wall extensibility and turgor pressure. Thus, lowered plant metabolism and altered electrolyte balance can eventually cause plant death. Different studies have demonstrated decrease in the number of leaves and their sizes, retarded root growth, decreased production of seed and delayed seedling establishment under drought conditions (Osakabe et al., 2014).

Ethylene (ET) is the major phytohormone produced during drought and is responsible for leaf senescence in younger plants (Meena et al., 2017). Although, drought may affect plant functioning at any stage, but it is more lethal during seed development and reproductive stage, thus decreasing the number, size and quality of seeds, and crop yield (Queiroz et al., 2019). Phenotypic modifications induced by drought stress include leaf burning, wilting, yellowing and discoloration in leaf, closed flowers, etiolation, flower sagging, premature leaf senescence or fall, leaf drooping, scorching and limp leaves (Fig. 1) (Ullah et al., 2017; Khan et al., 2018; Ruehr et al., 2019). Some other rare symptoms include reduced canopy, stunted growth, twig and bark cracks, and necrosis (Toscano et al., 2019). Extreme drought may even lead to death of crop plants. Under water deficiency conditions, fruit cracking is also generally observed.

However, plant expresses a range of defense mechanisms varying from molecular to phenotypic level (Khadka et al., 2020; Bhanbhor et al., 2024). The most obvious defense strategy includes early flowering, fast growth and a short life cycle in addition to hairy leaves and cuticle to maintain high water potential in plant (Seleiman et al., 2021). Moreover, plants in drought prone areas adapt certain features like small leaf area, trichomes on both dorsal and ventral leaf surface, and limited expansion of new leaves, more root hair, increased root length and size, and better root growth for more absorption of water and nutrients from soil (Seleiman et al., 2021; Ranjan et al., 2022). Also, antioxidants production, osmotic regulation and salt accumulation are the underlying metabolic mechanisms to withstand drought condition (Hasanuzzaman et al., 2020; Zahedi et al., 2022). Other strategies that could help in avoiding the harmful effects of drought include sowing at a particular time, mulching, and application of osmotic protectors or plant beneficial microbes, maintaining soil nutrient pool, and selecting cultivars according to soil type (Gholami and Zahedi, 2019).

## 2.2. Drought related morphological changes

Now-a-days climate change and variations in environmental conditions is so high that plant experiences diversity of stresses including varying rainfall and drying conditions. Therefore, manipulating plant



**Fig. 1.** Morphological, physiological and phytohormonal changes induced by drought stress.

physiology seems to be a fascinating option for overcoming stress conditions (Becklin et al., 2016). The most common response towards drought is generated through leaves (Pedersen et al., 2021) and changes in leaf thickness, altered leaf palisade, restricted cell division and elongation, and spongy leaf tissue occurs during water stress (Meng et al., 2021). Leaves capture the effects of drought in the form of stunted growth, reduced leaf area, number and size, atrophy, senescence, etiolation, and leaf shedding (Bhusal et al., 2020; Nadal et al., 2020; Pedersen et al., 2021). Every plant species shows different symptoms for instance; only marginal elongation of leaves is observed in sugarcane under drought conditions (Misra et al., 2020). Decrease in leaf area under water deficit conditions causes drop in leaf turgor pressure, decreased concentration of photo-assimilates and canopy temperature (Taiz et al., 2015). Thus, modification in leaf structure during drought conditions decreases the rate of transpiration and photosynthesis. Also, water is transpired mostly from the upper leaf epidermis, while the lower epidermis is less vulnerable to water loss causing a reduced pressure leading to wilted leaf with altered morphology. This mechanism is opted by conifers in xerophytic conditions, which retained more water by rolling in their leaves (Rueda et al., 2017). Reduced plant height is resulted due to delayed cell division and it is the most crucial symptom of drought (Li et al., 2020; Misra et al., 2020). Roots tend to uptake more nutrients from soil so as to sustain the plant during drought stress (Lobet and Draye, 2013). Another important adaptation in plants is increased number of vessels, reduced area of stele by decreasing the diameter of vessel and secondary root cortex cells (Thangthong et al., 2019). Moreover, water scarcity also reduces the root to shoot ratio (Zhang et al., 2019). Modifications in roots are necessary for plant survival under water stress in arid regions (Liu et al., 2023). This includes increase in root density and number of lateral roots, which will eventually aid in enhanced accumulation of nutrients (Strock et al., 2021), and water uptake compared to thinner roots (Ilyas et al., 2021).

### 2.3. Drought effects on physiology and biochemistry of plants

Numerous physiological and molecular mechanisms play central role in plant survival during unfavourable conditions so as to maintain homeostatic balance (Tardieu, 2022). Osmotic stress is induced due to water scarcity, which causes dehydration in cell due to restricted cell division and cell elongation. The major dysfunction during drought includes decreased turgor, reduced chlorophyll content, chlorophyll peroxidation or other variations in chlorophyll, and reduced photosynthesis rate due to changes in stomata and leaf structure (Kaushal and Wani, 2016). With increasing time of drought, CO<sub>2</sub> uptake is also reduced due to altered functioning in plants and cannot be repaired even by increasing the external CO<sub>2</sub> concentration. The enzymatic activity of RuBisCo, electron transport chain and light harvesting capacity of photosynthetic apparatus are severely impaired during drought conditions, thus affecting photosynthesis process. The concentration of photosynthetic pigments is significantly reduced at the time of vegetative phase and pollination during drought stress. To minimize the effects of drought on biochemical and physiological processes, plants tries to maintain CO<sub>2</sub> in mesophilic intracellular space in order to restrict photosynthesis.

Plants suffer with low productivity and water use efficiency due to disturbed cycle of water and nutrients in plant during drought (Faroog et al., 2009; Li et al., 2009). Abid et al. (2018) observed that turgor pressure, water potential of leaf, and relative water content (RWC) decreases at tillering and jointing stage of wheat during drought, while an increase in osmotic adjustment was also reported. Osmotic regulation by plant is mediated via the accumulation of compatible solutes, which could reduce the water potential intracellularly (Yang et al., 2021). Osmotic regulators include mineral ions, organic osmolytes, nitrogen containing amides, amines and quaternary ammonium compounds, and sugars like trehalose, fructose, sucrose, maltose and mannitol (Bittencourt et al., 2023). Generally, drought is more severe during

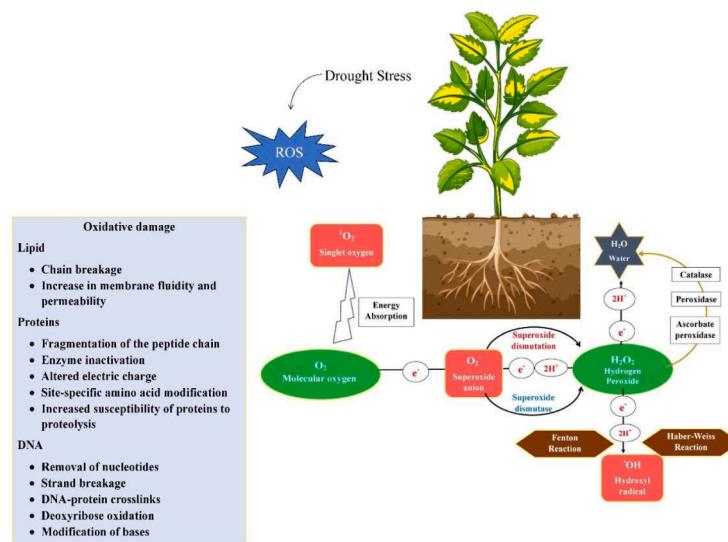
flowering or reproductive growth stage contrary to vegetative growth stage, which eventually affects the crop yield and productivity in rice, chickpea, cowpea and wheat (Mafakheri et al., 2010; Ndiso et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2018).

### 2.4. Drought induced oxidative stress and plant antioxidant response

Production of ROS is the most severe result of drought stress, which is produced within chloroplast, peroxisomes and mitochondria (Fig. 2) (Hasanuzzaman et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2022). ROS include hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>), singlet oxygen (<sup>1</sup>O<sub>2</sub>) or superoxide radical (O<sub>2</sub><sup>·</sup>). ROS can be produced through the electron transport chain of respiration and photosynthesis processes (Dietz, 2016). They are normally produced in minor concentrations as signalling molecules for cell expression and protein production (Waszczał et al., 2018). However, higher ROS concentration causes damage to DNA, chloroplast and mitochondria, disturbs electron transport chain, and causes lipid peroxidation, alters the structure of proteins and denatures the enzymes, and modify the metabolic processes as well (da Silva et al., 2013; Li and Liu, 2016). The peptide bond is degraded by the ROS, which eventually damages the structure and functions of proteins, and other macromolecules either by carbonylation or glycosylation (Yang et al., 2021). Plants overcome the ROS stress by the action of antioxidant enzymes and the increased expression of related genes during the onset of drought conditions (Hou et al., 2021). The variations in the enzymatic activity of antioxidant enzymes such as peroxidase (POD) and superoxide dismutase (SOD) create a drought stress memory, which aids in producing adequate defense response during stress (Lukić et al., 2023). For instance, enhanced synthesis of SOD and peroxidase enzymes was observed in offsprings when the parent plants were grown under stress conditions in *Alopecurus pratensis* (Lukić et al. 2020; 2023). Liu et al. (2022) reported that transgenerational drought stress memory is induced by the over expression of anti-oxidative enzymes including glutathione reductase (GR), catalase (CAT), ascorbate peroxidase (APX), dehydroascorbate reductase (DHAR), SOD, POD and monodehydroascorbate reductase (MDAR). This latter is periodically oxidized and reduced, and metals bind to the enzyme, catalysing the conversion of O<sub>2</sub> to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>.

Usually, SOD has three different isoforms in plants, including Fe-SOD, Cu/Zn-SOD and Mn-SOD. Mn-SOD and Fe-SOD have one metal ion and can be found in chloroplast and mitochondria, while Cu/Zn-SOD exists in cytoplasm and chloroplast (Yang et al., 2021). Another important enzyme is catalase, which exist in tetrameric form containing four iron-containing heme group and functions in the conversion of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> into H<sub>2</sub>O and O<sub>2</sub>. Catalase is primarily localized in peroxisomes where they detoxify H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> produced as a result of photorespiration by splitting the O–O bond. However, catalase only converts the excess amount of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> into water and oxygen, and allows only a limited amount of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for cell signalling. Catalase produces iron peroxides by reacting with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> followed by oxidation (Yang et al., 2021). Peroxidase enzyme functions similar to catalase and converts H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> into H<sub>2</sub>O, thus preventing oxidative damage (Wu et al., 2022). Thus, CAT and POD enzyme secretion in drought stressed plants resulted in reduced concentration of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in offsprings (Lukić et al., 2023). Similarly, drought priming increases the concentration of malondialdehyde (MDA) by inducing chelation of ferrous ions, which are responsible for synthesis of MDA and lipids. Some of the non-enzymatic antioxidants include water soluble-glutathione, ascorbic acid and fat-soluble tocopherols (Ahmad et al., 2019; Laxa et al., 2019).

Glutathione (GSH; reduced form) and GSSG (GSH; oxidized form) could also scavenge free radicals to prevent oxidative damage. Glutathione peroxidase converts H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> into H<sub>2</sub>O, while GSH is oxidized to GSSG. Similar to ascorbic acid, vitamin C could also act as antioxidant molecule in addition to enzymatic cofactor and it also functions additionally in the regulation of photosynthesis, cell division and signal transduction (Yang et al., 2021). During drought condition, oxygen free radical and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production was elevated in wheat flag leaves compared



**Fig. 2.** Production of reactive oxygen species during drought stress and contribution of various antioxidant enzymes to prevent oxidative damage to macromolecules.

to the primed plants where their concentration was low (Wang et al., 2018). Enzymatic activity of different enzymes including CAT, APX and SOD was more in primed plant versus non primed plant. Priming elevates the activity of glutathione peroxidase enzymes during the second time exposure to drought, whereas, APX activity remains consistent. In another study, primed rice seedlings depicted increased SOD and POD due to oxidative stress generated under drought stress (Li et al. 2011). Primed plants resulted into five times more activity of SOD and a lower CAT activity compared to unprimed control (Yang et al., 2021). Similarly, primed *Nicotiana tabacum* (L.) produced peroxidase enzyme that reduced  $H_2O_2$  concentration in plant cell during drought (Khan et al., 2020).

Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) establish symbiosis with plant roots and this symbiotic association promotes plant growth and development by establishing extra radical mycelial hyphae around the roots, and provide access to the inaccessible nutrients and water to the plants (Püschel et al., 2020; Tatewaki et al., 2023; Phour and Sindhu, 2024). In return, AMF procure shelter and carbon sources like lipids and sugars from the plant (Wang et al., 2023; Alotaibi et al., 2023). In addition, AMF induces enzymatic and microbial activity in soil, and also ameliorate biotic and abiotic stresses (Wanlin and Yan, 2024). The deleterious effect of ROS could be suppressed with the production of phenolics and flavonoids (Begum et al., 2021; Hassena et al., 2022; Haghanninia et al., 2024). Moreover, AMF stimulates the production of heat shock transcription factors in addition to non-enzymatic and enzymatic antioxidants which regulated signal transduction for balancing ROS production during stress conditions (Bahadur et al., 2019; Das and Sarkar, 2024). Combined treatment of AMF and biochar increased antioxidative enzymatic activity and reduced levels of proline and MDA in lavender under different irrigation levels (Haghanninia et al., 2024). Under mild drought stress conditions, increased production of flavonoid and phenolic in addition to borneol, linalool, camphor and linalyl acetate was observed.

AMF inoculation in *Bombax ceiba* under drought stress caused a hike in antioxidative enzymes such as CAT (318.5 %), APX (34.1 %) and GR by 22.8 %, respectively (Li et al., 2022). Similarly in walnut, AMF exhibited increased activity of CAT by 340.4 % and APX and GR by 106.3 and 77.2 % compared to control plants (Ma et al., 2022). Further in tomato plants, CAT activity was increased by 42 and 57 % during water and heat stress, respectively with the inoculation of two different AMF strains (Haddidi et al., 2020). In another study, Rasouli et al. (2023) evaluated the effect of AMF strain *Funneliformis mosseae* on the summer savory (*Satureja hortensis* L.) under different irrigation levels.

Inoculation of AMF at 30 % field capacity (under drought stress) increased the levels of  $H_2O_2$ , MDA, and antioxidant activity in addition to enhance enzymatic activity of guaiacol peroxidase, SOD and APX. Mycorrhization of Unnayan LT896 tomatoes with AMF strain *Paraglomus occultum* depicted higher CAT activity compared to control plants under drought stress (Alam et al., 2023). Whereas,  $H_2O_2$  levels were maximum in control plant as compared to LT896 tomatoes treated with *Rhizophagus clarus*. On the other hand, APX activity was higher in Unnayan tomatoes when treated with *R. clarus* and *Acaulospora morrowiae*. AMF treated Minto super tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.) plants depicted 42 % and 66 % increase in CAT and APX compared to control plants. Further, AMF treated plants showed increases in shoot dry weight and yield by 28 and 20 %, respectively in comparison to control untreated plants.

## 2.5. Production of phytohormones associated with drought stress

Phytohormones production is a major strategy opted by plants to overcome stress conditions and to sustain their survival under harsh environmental conditions. Phytohormones also regulate key metabolic processes and contribute as signalling molecules under adverse environmental conditions (Salvi et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2022). Plant hormones include auxins, cytokinins (CKs), gibberellic acid (GA), jasmonic acid (JA), salicylic acid (SA), ethylene (ET), brassinosteroids, and strigolactone. Onset of drought stress induces ABA production leading its higher concentration in stressed plants, which functions as signalling sensor from root to shoot during drought stress (Chaves et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2009). It perceives the signal from environment and then accordingly produces adaptive response by regulating the cellular, biochemical, physiological characters. Other important functions of ABA include expression of stress related genes and modulation of transcription factors for increased resistance to stress (Kuromori et al., 2018; Takahashi et al., 2018; Manna et al., 2021). The drought signalling cascade mediated by ABA is perceived by three receptors i.e., GTGs, PYR/PLR/R-CARs and CHLH/ABAR, which then modulate lipid metabolism, stomatal closure, transpiration rate, seed germination, or seed dormancy and other plant developmental processes. The receptor protein phosphatases (PP2C) was identified as negative regulator of ABA in *Arabidopsis* knockouts of *abil-1* and *abi2-1* (Leung and Giraudat, 1998), while protein kinase (SnRK2/OST1) was identified as positive controller of ABA (Yoshida et al., 2002). Thus, ABA production could be modulated by regulatory genes/proteins, which subsequently affect the expression of stress related genes and transcription factors for increased resistance

to stress. ABA production is induced in roots with the onset of drought condition and later translocated to leaves through xylem where it shows protective response towards leaves (Wu et al., 2022). In addition, ABA together with CKs and JA controls stomatal opening and downregulates the transpiration (Daszkowska-Golec and Szarejko, 2013).

Several antioxidant enzymes and genes related to drought stress were upregulated including RD11, RD29A, RD29B, DREB2B, and DREB2A with increased concentration of auxins (Ilyas et al., 2020). Jung et al. (2015) identified a total of 31 Aux/IAA genes in rice (*Oryza sativa*) and some of which were induced by drought stress. It was found that the rice Aux/IAA gene OsIAA6 is highly upregulated by drought stress and its overexpression in transgenic rice improved drought tolerance, likely via the regulation of auxin biosynthesis genes. The OsIAA6 gene was specifically expressed in the axillary meristem of the basal stem, which is the tissue that gives rise to tillers in rice. Auxin production in *Arabidopsis* altered the concentration of glucosinolate (Salehin et al., 2019). Auxin promotes plant growth by stimulating root architecture and increasing the number of root hairs, which will allow more uptake of water and nutrients, thus indirectly aid in mitigation of drought stress (Contesto et al., 2010; Cassán et al., 2014; Egamberdieva et al., 2017).

Another active form of phytohormone includes gibberellic acid, GA1 and GA4, which are structurally tetracyclic diterpenoid carboxylic acid (Sponsel and Hedden, 2010). GA concentration should be low so to impart tolerance against drought, for instance; inhibition of GA production with paclobutrazol inhibitor in finger millet conferred tolerance to drought and resulted in no symptoms related to drought. This could be due to decreased rolling of leaves, which enhanced the plants withstand to lower moisture levels (Plaza-Wuthrich et al., 2016). Cytokinins are other phytohormones, which are synthesized in the roots and exported to other parts via xylem (Hai et al., 2020). Similar to GA functioning, CKs in low concentration increases the drought tolerance as observed from the overexpression of CKX1-4 in *Arabidopsis* (Nishiyama et al., 2011). CKs act as the antagonistic of ABA and prevent the stomatal closure under water limiting conditions (Hung et al., 2018). Similar results were reported by Prerostova et al. (2018) with decreased CKs production in sunflower during drought. Moreover, Ramireddy et al. (2018) observed that degradation of cytokinins due to overexpression of cytokinin oxidase/dehydrogenase gene promoted uptake of nutrients from soil by roots, thus improving tolerance of barley plants to drought.

Another class of phytohormones includes JA, which upregulated the stress related genes, and stimulated water uptake by roots via ABA independent and dependent pathways (Sanchez-Romera et al., 2014). JA plays a central role in crosstalk with ABA and other phytohormones, and induces the signalling cascade initiating the antioxidant activity, and regulates the stomata closing and opening (Singh et al., 2023). Poly-hydroxylated sterol derivatives i.e., brassinosteroids also impart drought tolerance in plants (Kahlaoui et al., 2016). Increased concentration of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in cells initiated the signalling cascade of brassinosteroids by inducing transcription factors BES1 and BZR1 (Tian et al., 2018). Brassinosteroids induce the overexpression of antioxidant enzymes and decreases the ROS production (Divi et al., 2010). This mechanism helps in maintaining higher concentration of photosynthetic pigments and photosynthesis, and stomatal conductance in tomato and corn (Anwar et al., 2018).

Strigolactones phytohormones (carotenoid-derived lactone terpenoids) are synthesized in roots and then secreted in soil to induce symbiotic interactions between mycorrhizal fungi and plant roots leading to increases in uptake of water and minerals (Matusova et al., 2005; Stauder et al., 2018). Biosynthesis of strigolactones is mediated by a number of enzymes like eCCD7-8, DWARF 27 or D27 and MORE AXILLARY GROWTH 1 (MAX1) while the transporter protein mediates the secretion of strigolactones in soil (Sasse et al., 2015). Strigolactones together with ABA mitigates abiotic stress including drought in *Arabidopsis* (Liu et al., 2015a; Bhatt and Bhatt, 2020). However, in *Lotus japonicus* ABA is increased in woody sap, while strigolactones production was decreased in roots due to reduced water potential under

drought stress (Liu et al., 2015b).

Ethylene is another important phytohormone produced from methionine (Fusco and Carillo, 2023). ABA and ET positively regulate NADPH oxidase in six different genotypes of wheat (Hu et al., 2020a), and its production plays a crucial role in drought tolerance of rice by regulating ROS production and stomatal closure (Shi et al., 2020). Ethylene promotes ripening, seed germination, leaf growth and senescence under different stress conditions. SA is highly sensitive to the presence of ABA as observed with the overexpression of CBP60g (calmodulin-binding protein) in transgenic *Arabidopsis* plant (Wan et al., 2012), and SA producing plants depicted high resistance to disease and drought stress. Salicylic acid also controls stomatal movement, transpiration rate, photosynthesis, and antioxidant activity (Nazar et al., 2015). Application of SA could increase the concentration of dehydrin like proteins, heat shock proteins and chaperones, and regulates concentrations of Rubisco and chlorophyll along with protein kinase activity (Sun et al., 2009; Nazar et al., 2015). From above discussion, the crucial role of phytohormones in amelioration of drought stress is well established. However, the impact of different phytohormones on the drought-stressed root microbiome deserves further investigation.

### 3. Effects of drought on microbial population dynamics and functions

Recently, rapid and drastic changes in the global climate have exacerbated various environmental (abiotic) and biotic stresses for crops, which significantly threaten crop production and food security worldwide. Mild or severe drought conditions significantly affect the structure of soil microbial communities, their growth and survivability, as well as their biochemical functioning and soil fertility (Meisner et al., 2018; Siebielec et al., 2020; Bogati and Walczak, 2022), which subsequently affect yields of drought-sensitive crops (Nguyen et al., 2018; Bazany et al., 2022; Bogati and Walczak, 2022; Bittencourt et al., 2023). The major effects of drought on soil bacteria include increased osmotic stress and rising competition among microbial population for water and nutrients (Barnard et al., 2013; Chodak et al., 2015; Bogati et al., 2023). Further, water stress may induce alteration in genetic material like alkylation or oxidation of nucleic acid bases, removal of bases or formation of cross linking among nucleotides (Ngumbi and Kloepfer, 2016). Moreover, drought stress induces the production of free radicals, which may result in lipid peroxidation, cause alteration in electron transport chains, or may induce conformational changes in proteins affecting the membrane structure and integrity (Bérard et al., 2015; Bogati et al., 2023). The climate change and plant community composition were reported modulate the structure and function of microbial communities. For instance, decreased soil moisture (drought) induced a highly active phosphate-solubilizing community, whereas opposite response was observed in the siderophore-producing community (Breitkreuz et al. 2021).

Microbial community structure in rhizosphere soil is also shaped by the root exudates released by host plant and surrounding soil environment (Dastogeer et al., 2020; Raza et al., 2021; Ali and Glick, 2024). Plants may stimulate the proliferation of specific beneficial microbes to help them in amelioration of these stresses by secreting a range of primary and secondary metabolites (Bakker et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2020; Bai et al., 2022; Dhungana et al., 2023). In addition, plant functional genes have been found to regulate root phenotypic traits and the secretion of root exudates, such as organic acids and hormones, which play important role in shaping the microbial community assembly in rhizosphere (Zhalnina et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2020; Yu et al., 2021). Plant-microbe interactions under drought stress also influenced the synthesis or release of specific metabolites. For instance, *Pinus taeda* seedlings treated with root endophytic fungus *Serendipita indica* caused more than three times upregulation of eriocitrin, trans-aconitic acid, vitamin C, uric acid,  $\alpha$ -ketoglutaric acid, vitamin A, stachydrine, coumaric acid, itaconic acid, calceolarioside B,

2-oxoglutaric acid, and citric acid synthesis in inoculated seedlings under drought stress in comparison to those of uninoculated seedlings (Wu et al. 2024).

Climate change affects the frequency and severity of droughts, which may cause significant perturbations of terrestrial ecosystems. The long-term impacts of droughts on ecosystem structure and functioning after the drought has subsided are often termed as 'drought legacies' (Müller and Bahn, 2022). Drought legacies involve changes at the species and the community scale as well as alterations of soil properties, which have consequences for ecosystem responses to subsequent drought. Canarini et al. (2021) conducted a long-term field experiment in mountain grassland in central Austria and suggested that the process of "ecological memory" is stimulated by recurring droughts and this provides resistance to future droughts due to the major role mediated by microorganisms. Thus, drought history of soils affects microbial population dynamics and functions such as enzyme activities involved in C, N, and P cycling, which can, in turn, affect plant's nutrition status and fitness (Canarini et al., 2021; Kelly et al., 2023). With increasing duration of drought conditions, the reduced microbial populations and their activity in litter soil was reported under birch trees after one month of drought conditions (Schimel et al., 1999). However, two months prevailing drought reduced the abundance of Bacteroidetes, Verrucomicrobia, and Proteobacteria while induced the dominance of Actinobacteria (Sieblec et al., 2020). The loamy soils are dominated by ten different actinomycetes genera including *Marmoricola*, *Gaiella*, *Pseudomonas*, *Sphingomonas*, *Aquihabitans*, *Flavobacterium*, *Solirubrobacter*, *Kribbella*, *Brevundimonas* and *Nocardioides*.

Several studies have further shown that this drought legacy affects the microorganisms associated with the rhizosphere and endosphere of crop hosts (Azarbad et al., 2020; Santos-medellín et al., 2021; Gebauer et al., 2022; Carter et al., 2023), and has a significant impact on plant growth, physiology, and phenology under drought (Lozano et al., 2022; Kuerban et al., 2023). For example, Azarbad et al. (2020) showed that under low soil moisture content, the rhizosphere of plants growing in soils with a history of water stress harbored significantly higher numbers of actinobacteria. Maize plants inoculated with a microbiota from a water-limited legacy soil were more tolerant to drought by producing longer roots and generating more organic carbon in the soil, potentially stimulating the microbiome, and slowing water loss in soil during drought (Carter et al., 2023). Ebrahimi-Zarandi et al. (2023) showed that actinobacteria are enriched in the rhizosphere and endosphere of crops enduring water deficit stress conditions. These actinobacteria, particularly the *Streptomyces* genus, employed various mechanisms including modulation of phytohormone levels, reinforcement of anti-oxidant enzymes, enhanced water and nutrient uptake to alleviate water deficit stress in crops.

Drought reduced the diversity of microorganisms from soil to the roots of different grasses and observed up to 20 % variance of microbial communities within different cereal species such as sorghum, maize, barley, and wheat under drought (Naylor et al., 2017). The enhanced the population of Actinobacterial species especially genus *Streptomyces* was demonstrated. In another study, genus *Streptomyces* was found as abundant actinobacteria taxa in the endosphere microbiome of 30 different angiosperm plants (Fitzpatrick et al., 2018; Santos-Medellín et al., 2021). Many researchers have reported the relative decrease in the population of Proteobacteria and Bacteroidetes under drought stress conditions (Dai et al., 2019; Simmons et al., 2020). Whereas, other studies showed higher microbial species richness in drought-sensitive genotypes in response to water deficit (Gaete et al., 2021; Kristy et al., 2022), indicating that drought-tolerant cultivars exert a stronger selection on microbial communities in the face of drought conditions. These results indicate that the host genetic factor at species and cultivar level is an important determinant in shaping root microbiomes under drought. Aparna and Devi (2022) reported that a rice landrace recruited a specific group of microorganisms during drought, potentially maintaining its rhizosphere functioning. Characterizing the root mycobiome of wild and

domesticated pearl millet grown in arid and semi-arid areas, Mofini et al. (2022) showed a higher relative abundance of saprotrophic fungal species in the wild millet. It suggests that wild plants probably provide a more appropriate ecological niche for saprotrophic fungi under drought, and could benefit from mineralization of nutrients driven by saprotrophs. By sharing the necessary phenotypes such as nitrogen fixation, increased plant nutrient availability, and acquisition of tolerance to drought, an intercropping system including legume-cereal can positively affect the composition of root microbial communities under drought stress (Singh and Mathimaran, 2019).

In rice plants, Si et al. (2021) found that drought exerts a negligible effect on the alpha diversity of rhizosphere bacterial communities, but substantially enriches *Actinobacteria* and decreases *Firmicutes* (Rosa et al., 2023). Specifically, the relative abundances of *Actinobacteria* and *Acidobacteria* were increased in peanut seedlings and podding stages under drought stress, whereas the relative abundances of *Cyanobacteria* and *Gemmimonadetes* were increased in the flowering stage (Dai et al., 2019). Furthermore, in millet plants, Simmons et al. (2020) proved that drought intensity is correlated with the enrichment level of *Actinobacteria*. In conclusion, *Actinobacteria* enrichment within drought-stressed root microbiomes is strongly conserved among evolutionarily diverse plant species. Moreover, decreases in the phyla *Proteobacteria* and *Verrucomicrobia*, as well as increases in the ratio of Gram-positive to Gram-negative bacteria, are also frequently observed under drought conditions (Acosta-Martínez et al., 2014; Naylor and Coleman-Derr, 2018; Rosa et al., 2023).

Drought stress may reduce the colonization of ectomycorrhizal fungi, and alter their community structure in addition to changes in hyphal growth, and arbuscules production (Compañt et al., 2010). Changes in the composition of root-associated fungal communities and increased fungal biodiversity in rice plants have also been reported, with the majority of identified OTUs belonging to the *Pezizomycotina* subphylum (Andreo-Jimenez et al., 2019).

A study was carried out to observe differences in relative abundance of Ascomycota and Basidiomycota during drought stress in seven different grasslands located in two continents (Ochoa-Hueso et al., 2018). The results depicted that the changes in relative abundance was negatively related to the rainfall. Further, rice plant responded to drought by inducing a shift in bacterial and fungal population in their root endosphere and rhizosphere (Santos-Medellín et al., 2017), and characterized an enrichment of *Actinobacteria* and *Chloroflexi* but a depletion of *Acidobacteria* and *Delta Proteobacteria*. In another study, specific fungal species have been identified in wheat roots under drought stress; for example, *Trichoderma longibrachiatum* and *T. velutinum* are only identified under drought stress, whereas *Zopfiella* sp., *M. hedericola*, *A. verrucaria*, *G. radicicola*, and *A. salicis* are observed specifically in irrigated plant groups (Salaman et al., 2020). Whereas, a relatively more abundance of phytopathogenic fungi such as *Fusarium*, *Thielavia* and *Curvularia* was reported in number in tropical grassland soil under drought conditions (Oliveira et al., 2020). The meta-analysis studies demonstrated that bacterial communities are more vulnerable to drought stress compared to fungal communities (Fry et al., 2016). Significant enrichment in arbuscular mycorrhizal fungus (AMF) *Funneliformis* was also identified within the roots during drought, which is predominantly attributed to decreased P availability in drought soil (Augé, 2001; Carbone et al., 2021).

Bazany et al. (2022) observed that water deficit stress differentially shape bacterial, fungal, and protistan microbiome composition and influenced interkingdom microbial interactions in the rhizospheres of corn and sugar beet grown under irrigated and water deficit conditions. The water deficit treatment had a stronger influence than host species on bacterial composition, whereas the opposite was true for protists. Nishu et al. (2022) isolated *Pseudomonas fluorescens* DR397 from the drought-prone rhizospheric soil of soybean, which showed high metabolic activity at 21.25 Mpa. Transcriptomic analysis revealed that genome of DR397 possesses several genes related to the synthesis of

compatible solutes (choline and glycine-betaine), exopolysaccharides (alginate and cellulose), and secretion systems (type II, III, IV, and VI), as well as genes related to plant growth promotion (indole acetic acid, transketolase, and thiamine phosphate synthesis). The expression of these genes was significantly upregulated (8- to 263-fold change) only under drought conditions with plant root exudate treatment. Several other studies have shown a considerable effect on extracellular soil enzymes due to drought stress (Yan et al., 2020; Deng et al., 2021). Onset of drought or reduced precipitation suppressed the soil enzymes for instance, urease (-30.6 %), acid phosphatase (-5.1 %), phenol oxidase (-47.2 %) and  $\beta$ -1,4-glucosidase (-4.6 %). Moreover, nutrient acquisition i.e., C (-4.6), N (-17.6 %) and P (-5.1 %), respectively, was significantly affected (Steinweg et al., 2013).

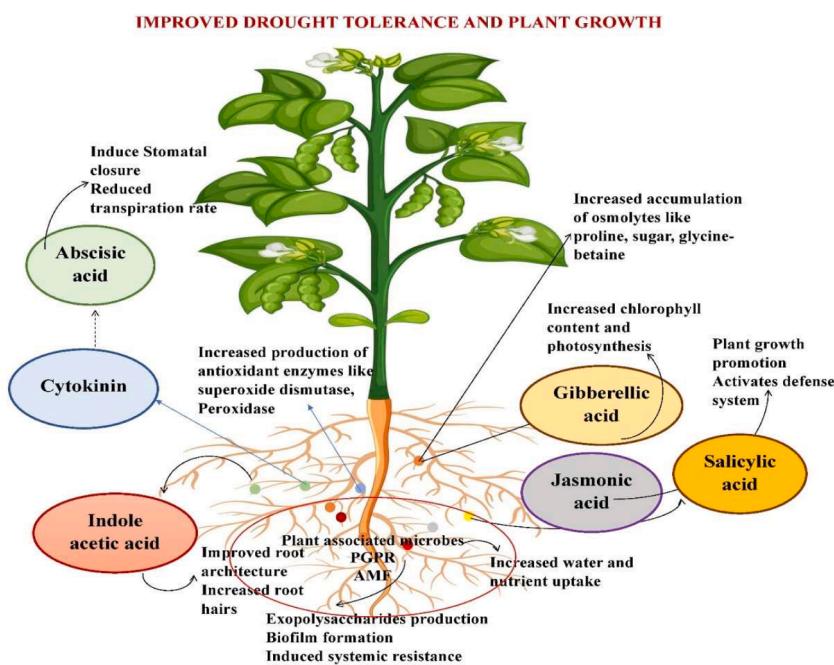
The above examples indicate that drought legacies impact the selection of adapted microbial communities harboring beneficial functions after recurrent stress events to better tolerate subsequent drought (Canarini et al., 2021; Müller and Bahn, 2022). It is also observed that root exudates and soil organic amendments increase the diversity and/or activity of root microbiota, which may modulate drought tolerance (Preece and Peñuelas, 2016; Prescott et al., 2020; Mueller et al., 2024). Thus, plant-soil feedback and long-term adaptation to drought can determine the performance of plants as well as plant-associated communities under drought (Azarbad et al., 2020; Carter et al., 2023). In addition, soil amendment practices and the transition to new cropping systems can be considered for harnessing soil microbiome under water scarcity (Nawaz et al., 2023). However, the persistence of microbial communities under biotic and abiotic drivers needs to be considered for predictions of agricultural system responses (Bittencourt et al., 2023).

#### 4. Role of microbial metabolites and associated genes in mitigation of drought stress

Recently, use of plant-associated beneficial microbes has emerged as a low cost, sustainable and environment friendly approach for increasing plant tolerance against abiotic stresses and for improving plant growth (Naylor and Coleman-Derr, 2018; Caddell et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2020; Gamalero and Glick, 2022; Islam et al., 2023). In addition,

plant microbiome offers high metabolic flexibility, fast growth, large population size, high physiological tolerance, great diversity and abundance in nature (Berg et al., 2016; Jiao et al., 2019). Beneficial microbes have been isolated from soil, phyllosphere and rhizosphere or as endophytes, which help plants for their survival under drought and other abiotic stresses (Ullah et al., 2019; de Vries et al., 2020; Poudel et al., 2021; Voccante et al., 2022; Islam et al., 2023; Kumar et al., 2024). These beneficial microbes produced/secreted various phytohormones, growth regulators, volatile organic compounds (VOCs), organic acids, and enzymes like ACC deaminase and also enhanced availability of fixed nitrogen (N) and nutrient solubilization (Fig. 3) (Ahkami et al., 2017; Ahmad et al., 2021; Sindhu et al., 2022; Kumar et al., 2023; Gu et al., 2024). Recently, Gu et al. (2024) discussed the morpho-physiological, biochemical, and molecular mechanisms underlying the mitigation effect of microbes on crop drought stress. The complex interactions between crops and microbes were reviewed for improving drought resistance through the application of beneficial drought adaptive microbes. Thus, application of plant growth promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) and mycorrhizal fungi as bioinoculants in plants results in better plant growth due to their growth promoting functions and increased drought tolerance (AlKahtani et al., 2020; Goswami and Deka, 2020; Kumar et al., 2022b) (Table 1).

Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) colonize upto 80 % of terrestrial plant roots including most crops and are most popularly applied as bioinoculants in agriculture (Brundrett and Tedersoo, 2018; Chen et al., 2018; Martín-Robles et al., 2018). Mycorrhizal fungi function efficiently in nutrient solubilization and nutrient uptake by plants due to enlarged surface area of roots and also enhance plant resistance to different stresses (Strullu-Derrien et al., 2018; Kumar et al., 2022a; Phour and Sindhu, 2024). AMF significantly regulate plant water relationships, which in return affect plant productivity (Rapparini and Peñuelas, 2014). Apart from mycorrhiza, certain plants may exist in mutualistic relationship with endophytic fungal strain, for instance; *Trichoderma*, which is easy to culture and could be easily applied and colonize within plant roots (Harman and Uphoff, 2019; Field et al., 2021; Khan et al., 2021). *Trichoderma* could effectively alter gene expression in plants and induce certain metabolic pathways, which could aid in mitigation of drought stress (Shoresh et al., 2010).



**Fig. 3.** Production of phytohormones, exopolysaccharides, antioxidant enzymes and osmolytes by beneficial microbes to activate plant defense system under drought stress.

**Table 1**

Amelioration of drought stress through the application of microbial strains and possible mechanisms.

Mechanism of action	Drought tolerant microbial strains	Host plant	Beneficial features related to drought mitigation	References
Phytohormonal activity	<i>Bacillus cereus</i> TCR17, <i>Myroides odoratissimus</i> TCR22 and <i>Providencia rettgeri</i> TCR21	Sorghum	Plant growth promotion, IAA production, confers drought tolerance	Bruno et al., 2020
	<i>Herbaspirillum seropedicae</i> Z-152 and <i>Azospirillum brasilense</i> SP-7	Maize	Increases plant biomass, osmoregulation, reduces ethylene and ABA production, and confers drought tolerance	Curá et al., 2017
	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	Chickpea	Increases metabolites production and influence phytohormone production	Khan et al., 2019b
	<i>Bacillus amyloliquefaciens</i> S-134	Wheat	Plant growth promotion, increases the production of IAA, ICA and ILA and enhances drought resistance	Raheem et al., 2018
	<i>Azospirillum brasilense</i>	Pennyroyal mint	Regulate auxin transport in root tip, root hair elongation, and increased ABA accumulation and improved drought tolerance	Asghari et al., 2020
	<i>Bacillus sp.</i>	Potato	Increases the photosynthetic potential and upregulates genes related to ROS scavenging or antioxidant system	Gururani et al., 2013
ACC deaminase	<i>Paenibacillus polymyxa</i> B and <i>Bacillus thuringiensis</i> AZP2	Wheat	Plant growth promotion, increases plant biomass and drought tolerance	Timmusk et al., 2014
	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i> TV12H and <i>B. megaterium</i> TV6D	Lettuce	Increases nutrient availability, stomatal conductance, and relative water content in leaves, and improves plant growth and crop yield	Maxton et al., 2018
	<i>Enterobacter cloacae</i> and <i>Achromobacter xylosoxidans</i>	Maize	Increases transpiration rate, chlorophyll content, photosynthesis, and stomatal conductance. Improves plant growth and crop yield	Danish et al., 2020
	<i>Bacillus cereus</i> AKAD A1-1, <i>P. otitidis</i> AKAD A1-2 and <i>Pseudomonas</i> sp. AKAD A1-3	Soybean	Increases relative water content, osmolytes concentration, maintains membrane integrity and confers drought tolerance and promotes plant growth	Dubey et al., 2021
	<i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i> YX2, <i>Klebsiella varicola</i> F2 and <i>Raoultella planticola</i> YL2	Maize	Increases relative water content, dry matter weight and accumulation of choline and glycine betaine	Gou et al., 2015
	<i>Bacillus polymyxa</i>	Tomato	Accumulation of proline, improvement in biochemical and physiological characters of plant	Shintu and Jayaram, 2015
Osmotic adjustment	<i>Acinetobacter calcoaceticus</i> EU-FTF-6 and EU-LRNA-72	Foxtail millet	Significant increase in glycine betaine, proline, sugars, chlorophyll content and decreased LPO	Kour et al., 2020
	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	Chickpea	Increase proline, aids lipid peroxidation, enhanced antioxidant enzymes activities such as catalase, SOD, POD and APX	Khan et al., 2019
	<i>Glomus intraradices</i>	Fennel	Improves leaf nutrients and regulates osmotic adjustment	Zardak et al., 2018
	<i>Bacillus amyloliquefaciens</i> and AM fungi	Soybean	Improved osmoprotectant levels, i.e., phenol, flavonoid, glycine betaine contents, and antioxidant activities and glutathione-S-transferase activity	Sheteiwly et al., 2021
	<i>Pseudomonas putida</i> GAP-P45	Sunflower	Increases plant growth, biomass and reduces drought stress	Sandhya et al., 2010
	<i>Rhizobium phaseoli</i> MR-2, <i>Mesorhizobium ciceri</i> CR-30 and <i>Azospirillum brasilense</i> NO-40	Wheat	IAA, EPS and CAT production, improves plant growth and biomass, and increases drought tolerance	Kasim et al., 2013
Exopolysaccharides	<i>Azospirillum brasilense</i> and <i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	Wheat	Increases seed vigor index, germination rate, relative water content, chlorophyll content, concentration of osmolytes, and antioxidant enzymes activities and improves plant biomass	Ilyas et al., 2020
	<i>Bacillus amyloliquefaciens</i> 54	Tomato	Increases root vigor, relative water content, antioxidant enzymes activities, ABA production and decreases MDA content and upregulates <i>nced1</i> gene	Wang et al., 2019
	<i>Bacillus altitudinis</i> FD-48	Rice	Promotes plant growth and drought tolerance	Narayanasamy et al., 2023
	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i> GB03	Arabidopsis	Promotes plant growth and drought tolerance	Tahir et al., 2017
	<i>Pseudomonas pseudoalcaligenes</i>	Maize	Promotes plant growth and drought tolerance	Yasmin et al., 2021
	<i>Proteus vulgaris</i> JBL2020	Arabidopsis	Increases root and shoot length, number of leaves, leaf area and plant fresh weight	Bhattacharyya et al., 2015
Antioxidant activity	<i>Pseudomonas chlororaphis</i> O6	Arabidopsis	Plant growth promotion and stimulate drought resistance	Cho et al., 2008
	<i>Pseudomonas</i> sp. M30-35 and <i>Bacillus</i> sp. WM13-24	Ryegrass	Increases antioxidant enzymes activities like SOD, CAT, POD, decreases relative membrane permeability, MDA content, hydrogen peroxide production and confers drought tolerance	He et al., 2021
	<i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i> and <i>P. putida</i>	Common myrtle	Increases chlorophyll and carotenoid contents and employs enzymatic and non-enzymatic defense system, increases plant biomass	Azizi et al., 2021
	<i>Bacillus megaterium</i>	Wheat	Increases antioxidant enzyme activity such as CAT, GR, APX, POD and SOD, reduces oxidative stresses by decreasing MDA content and electrolyte leakage, and increases photosynthesis	Rashid et al., 2022
	<i>Bacillus</i> sp.	Guinea grass	Increases proline accumulation and decreases glutathione reductase activity	Moreno-Galván et al., 2020a
	Consortium containing <i>Azospirillum lipoferum</i> YB5, <i>A. nitroguajacolicus</i> YB3, <i>P. jessennii</i> R62 and <i>P. synxantha</i> R81	Rice	Increases enzymatic activity of APX, POD and CAT and decreases MDA content and H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> production	Gusain et al., 2015
Stress responsive genes	<i>Pseudomonas putida</i> KT2440 and <i>P. fluorescens</i>	Maize	Down-regulated gene <i>WRKY18</i> , cold-related dehydrin 410 gene, lipoxygenase genes, <i>OPR7</i> gene (encoding 12-oxo-phytodienoate-reductase 7)	Ahmad et al., 2019
	<i>Gluconacetobacter diazotrophicus</i> PAL 5	Sugarcane	Activates ABA-dependent signalling genes	Vargas et al., 2014
	<i>Paenibacillus yonginensis</i> DCY84T	Arabidopsis	Induces the expression of stress responsive genes such as late embryogenesis abundant protein i.e., bab18 and early response to dehydration i.e., erd15	Sukweenadh et al., 2015

(continued on next page)

**Table 1 (continued)**

Mechanism of action	Drought tolerant microbial strains	Host plant	Beneficial features related to drought mitigation	References
Nutrient and water uptake	<i>Pseudomonas chlororaphis</i> O6 <i>Paenibacillus polymyxa</i> CR1	Arabidopsis Arabidopsis and soybean	Induces systemic drought tolerance Confers drought tolerance	Cho et al., 2013 Liu et al., 2020
	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i> GOT9	Mustard and Arabidopsis	Induces hyper-expression of stress related genes	Woo et al., 2020
	<i>Rhizophagus irregularis</i> , <i>R. intraradices</i> , <i>Funneliformis mosseae</i> and <i>F. geosporum</i>	Wheat	Improves nutrient allocation and nutrient composition in plant and increases grain number	Cabral et al., 2016
	<i>Rhizophagus irregularis</i>	Barrel clover	Improves hyphal water absorption rate	Püschel et al., 2020
	<i>Bacillus</i> spp strains KB122, KB129, KB133 and KB14	Sorghum	Improves plant growth and biomass, provides dark green colour to leaves, increases chlorophyll content, relative water content, soil moisture content	Grover et al., 2014
	<i>Enterobacter</i> sp. EB-14, <i>Ochrobactrum</i> sp. EB-165, <i>Microbacterium</i> sp. EB-65, and <i>E. cloacae</i> EB-48	Sorghum	Induces root development and topology, increases relative water content, proline levels and membrane stability index	Govindasamy et al., 2020
	<i>Bacillus cereus</i> P2 and <i>Planomicrobium chinense</i> P1	Sunflower	Increases root and shoot length, fresh and dry root weight, phenolic content, sugar and proline levels, chlorophyll and carotenoid content in leaves	Khan et al., 2018

In addition to symbiotic mycorrhizal fungi, phyllosphere inhabiting microorganisms act as a barrier against different biotic and abiotic stresses in plants, and enhance nutrient availability as well as various growth hormones i.e., zeatin, gibberellic acid, IAA and cytokinins for improving plant growth (Abadi et al., 2020; Khan et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2022; Kumar et al., 2023). Phyllosphere microbes of humid tropical ecosystems harbors nitrogenase enzyme that convert atmospheric nitrogen into ammonia, which could be utilized by plants (Abril et al., 2005). In addition, phyllosphere microbes also produce secondary metabolites including siderophores, antibiotics, hydrolytic enzymes, HCN, which prevent the growth of plant pathogens and suppress various plant diseases (Wu et al., 2009; Sahu and Sindhu, 2011; Sehrawat and Sindhu, 2019; Sehrawat et al., 2022). Production of other secondary metabolites by different phyllospheric microbes such as alkenyl glucosinolates, 2-phenyl, 4-penetyl, 3-butetyl and aromatic glucosinolates-2-phenylethyl, also acts as defense mechanism against plant pathogens and induces systemic resistances in plants (Vorholt, 2012; Wagi and Ahmad, 2017; Chaudhary et al., 2021).

Thus, plants treatment with beneficial microbes termed as microbial priming, is a fascinating approach for better crop performance under stress conditions. Due to the microbial priming effect, plants' response to a subsequent drought or stress conditions is quite prompt. For instance, priming with *Bacillus* in maize produced several metabolites that provided resistance against drought (Alamgir et al., 2018). Similarly, inoculation of rice with phyllospheric bacteria increased plant resistance against different biotic as well as abiotic stresses (Arun et al., 2020). In another study, drought tolerance, plant growth and biomass were improved with the application of *Mesorhizobium ciceri*, *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens*, *Rhizobium leguminosarum* and *Azospirillum brasiliense* (Kumar et al., 2020). Similarly, drought tolerance in okra was enhanced with the inoculation of phosphobacterium (Pravisy et al., 2019). Treatment of crop plants with fungi, termed as mycorrhization, also has been demonstrated to mitigate drought stress. For instance, mycorrhization with *Trichoderma harzianum* significantly alleviated the drought tolerance in rice (Khadka and Uphoff, 2019; Hewedy et al., 2020). Islam et al. (2023) discussed role of some key genes, such as ABA-responsive genes, transcription factor genes, aquaporin genes, and ROS-related genes in drought tolerance in tomato plants. Microbial interactions, notably with PGPR, mycorrhizal fungi, *Pseudomonas* and *Bacillus subtilis*, improved water and nutrient availability. These microorganisms produced antioxidants such as CAT and SOD to scavenge ROS, protected plant cells, and enhanced resistance to oxidative damage during drought.

During drought conditions, some microbial genes are differentially expressed for mitigating drought stress. For instance, enhanced expression of phenylpropanoid (PAL) gene and enzymatic activity was observed after microbial inoculation, which stimulated the accumulation of polyphenolics within plant cells (Singh et al., 2020). Such plants

depicted increased levels of ABTS, DPPH, Fe reducing power and chelation activity suggesting the role of polyphenolics as free radical scavengers. In addition, inoculation with microbes also increased enzyme activities of GR, POD, APX, and glutathione peroxidase. Similarly, soybean inoculation with *Pseudomonas simiae* strain AU protected plants from drought stress by altering the gene expression and phytohormones production pathway (Vaishnav and Choudhary, 2019). The drought tolerance was mediated with the overexpression of osmoprotectants (P5CS, GOLS), transcription factors (DREB/EREB), and water transporters i.e., TIP and PIP. Such plants also caused the increased production of SA, ABA, proline and total soluble sugar in addition to reduced ET production, which strengthened the plant's drought tolerance. In another study, Sarkee et al. (2017) treated rice plants with *Pseudomonas fluorescens* strain Pf1 and elucidated the gene expression at reproductive stage of plants exposed to drought stress using differential display technique. From differentially expressed cDNAs, various genes including Hsp20, PKDP, aP2-EREBP, COX1, COC1 and bZIP1 were successfully identified, cloned and sequenced. These genes were upregulated with treatment of *P. fluorescens* Pf1 strain. Hence, effective colonization of Pf1 strain induced drought tolerance in the rice plants at reproductive stage. Omar et al. (2021) revealed the effect of drought tolerant strains i.e., *Rhizobium* sp. (4E11), *Bacillus megaterium* (4E3) and *Pseudomonas azotofixans* (3E9) on drought sensitive rice genotype Giza177 under drought conditions. Inoculating bacterial strains caused a hike in the activities of several enzymes, for instance; urease, dehydrogenase, alkaline phosphatase and nitrogenase in the tolerant genotype of rhizosphere. Moreover, inoculated plants showed enhanced expression of stress related genes including GST, GRAM, COX1, EREBP, DHN, NRAMP6, AP-2 and three different gene of expansin i.e., EXP3, EXP2 and EXP1 during drought stress. Moreover, enhanced tolerance in plants inoculated with 4E11 strain also depicted better plant growth under drought stress.

Kalleku et al. (2024) observed the effect of *Pseudomonas koreensis* strain S4T10 on plant physiology of wild type *Arabidopsis thaliana* Col-0 and atnced3 mutant plants under drought and salt stress. The strain induced the activity of SOD, polyphenol oxidase (PPO), POD and GSH for ROS scavenging. The gene expression of related antioxidant system including AtSOD, AtCAT1 and AtCAT3 was upregulated by treatment with *P. koreensis*. Whole-transcriptome sequencing of *Burkholderia phytophaga* PsJN colonizing potato (*Solanum tuberosum* L.) plants was used to analyse *in planta* gene activity under plant stress. Inoculation of *B. phytophaga* PsJN in potato plants upregulated the transcripts involved in cellular homeostasis and detoxification of ROS under *in vitro* conditions (Sheibani-Tezerji et al., 2015). Gene depicted the modulation of extracytoplasmic function (ECF) group IV sigma factors, which are involved in cell surface signaling and allows bacteria to adjust their metabolism according to environmental changes. Around six ECF sigma

factor genes were differently expressed in potato plants inoculated with *B. phytofirmans* PsJN strain. Youssi et al. (2024) reviewed the role of *Bacillus* species in enhancing plants' ability to alleviate drought stress mainly by producing water absorbing substances and enhancing the uptake of water and nutrient. Some *Bacillus* species also possess the ability to resist plant pathogens through several mechanisms, including antibiosis, competition, induced systemic resistance (ISR), and enriching the microbiome of the soil with important biological agents for management of plant diseases. Different fundamental mechanisms governing drought stress tolerance in plants involving expression of various metabolites and associated genes in microbes are discussed in this section.

#### 4.1. Modulation of phytohormones produced by PGPMs in drought stress mitigation

Plant growth promoting microbes produce different phytohormones including auxins, CKs, GA, ET, ABA and JA, which contributes towards mitigation of biotic and abiotic stresses, and increases root or shoot length and plant growth (Cassán et al., 2014; Vurukonda et al., 2016; Orozco-Mosqueda et al., 2023). Phytohormones also control the processes of abscission, dormancy, and senescence (Ahmed and Hasnain, 2014). For instance, PGPR regulate the concentration of phytohormones such as ABA, indole acetic acid (IAA) and CKs (Egamberdieva et al., 2017; Namwongsa et al., 2019), and lowers ET levels (Belimov et al., 2015). Various strains of soil microbiota produce IAA, which are involved in plant-microbes interactions, mitigation of biotic stress and in regulation of plant growth (Jangu and Sindhu, 2011; Spaepen and Vanderleyden, 2011; Orozco-Mosqueda et al., 2023). Moreover, auxins suppress abiotic stress condition by strengthening the root structure, promoting root growth, or enhancing the number of root hairs; thus, increasing water and mineral uptake (Cassán et al., 2014; Egamberdieva et al., 2017).

Indole acetic acid has been demonstrated to induce drought signalling pathways under drought stress conditions. For instance, inoculation with three IAA producing thermotolerant PGPR strains including *Bacillus cereus* TCR17, *Providencia rettgeri* TCR21, and *Myroides odoratimimus* TCR22 in *Sorghum bicolor* increased plant growth under water stress conditions (Bruno et al., 2020). However, IAA at higher concentrations promotes lateral root formation and increases the number of root hairs, but reduces the length of primary roots (Vacheron et al., 2013). Moreover, higher IAA concentrations activate transcription of ACC synthase, which enhances the ET level. For example, *Ochrobactrum pseudogrigorense* RJ12 produced 85 µg mL<sup>-1</sup> of IAA while *Bacillus subtilis* RJ46 and *Pseudomonas* sp. produced 72 and 68 µg mL<sup>-1</sup> of IAA. These three strains when applied in garden pea and black gram, suffering from osmotic stress of -0.73 MPa, increased the root length up to 10.2 and 12.1 cm, respectively (Saikia et al., 2018). Thus, IAA producing microbes may mitigate drought stress by promoting increased water uptake, permeability of water, upregulation of stress resistant genes and scavenging of reactive oxygen species (Etesami and Maheshwari, 2018; Ha-tran et al., 2021). Drought tolerance and root growth in wheat was enhanced by bacterization with *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* S-134, which produced three different auxins i.e., IAA, indole-3-lactic acid (ILA) and indole-3-carboxylic acid (ICA) (Raheem et al., 2018).

Another hormone ABA modulated the root structure and increased the nutrient and water uptake in plants (Sah et al., 2016; Egamberdieva et al., 2017). Also, ABA increases antioxidant activity and enhances the accumulation of osmolytes to sustain plant growth under drought stress. Abscisic acid is involved in stomatal opening and closing, and its concentration is directly related to water availability to plants under drought conditions. It also regulates the transcription of certain genes, which are required under stress condition (Eldakak et al., 2013). Inoculation of *Arabidopsis* plant with *Phyllobacterium brassicacearum* STM196 (isolated from *Brassica napus* rhizosphere) elevated plants' tolerance to

drought (Bresson et al., 2013). The enhanced drought tolerance could be due to preventive action of ABA on oxidative stress induced damage (Guajardo et al., 2016). In addition, enhanced ABA levels also reduced the transpiration rate so to avoid water loss. Other phytohormones such as auxins, GA, JA, CKs, SA and brassinosteroids were increased in sorghum with the inoculation of rhizobacteria under drought conditions (Carlson et al., 2020). *Pseudomonas putida* H-2-3 produced GA, which suppressed the effect of drought on soybean (Kang et al., 2014). Taken together, the above examples illustrate that the phytohormone-producing microbiota can affect regulation of root development and benefit the host plant in drought stress mitigation.

#### 4.2. Role of ACC deaminase in mitigation of drought stress

Ethylene production in plant is regulated by several factors such as light, plant hormones, temperature, nutrition and other biotic as well as abiotic stresses (Gamalero and Glick, 2015; Olanrewaju et al., 2017). ET in plants controls the physiological responses like senescence, aging, fruit ripening, nodule formation in roots, root formation, inhibition of formation of storage organs and flowering (Gururani et al., 2013; Chaudhary and Sindhu, 2015). Synthesis of ET, from ACC by ACC oxidase activity in plants, is increased during stress like drought, salinity, water logging, heavy metal, and disease development (Gamalero and Glick, 2015). Many microbial strains possess the ability for production of ACC deaminase enzyme, which degrades ACC molecule into α-ketobutyrate and ammonia; thus, prevent the formation of ET in plants (Zafar-ul-Hye et al., 2019; Danish et al., 2020; Thomas-Barry et al., 2024), and support the plant growth (Khandelwal and Sindhu, 2012; Chandra et al., 2019).

Moreover, ACC deaminase producing microbes also decreases the formation of ROS, thus reducing the impact of drought on plants. For instance, inoculation of ACC deaminase producing *Enterobacter* sp. and *Bacillus* sp. resulted in enhanced drought tolerance in *Mucuna pruriens* (Saleem et al., 2018). Likewise, Niu et al. (2018) described reduced effects of drought stress in *Setaria italica* upon inoculation with exopolysaccharides (EPSs) and ACC deaminase producing bacteria. *Enterobacter cloacae* in combination with biochar produced higher concentration of ACC deaminase and increased the crop yield by increasing nutrient availability and IAA content in maize (Danish et al., 2020). In similar studies, yield and productivity of wheat was increased in wheat under drought stress after inoculation with ACC deaminase producing strains of *Agrobacterium fabrum* and *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* either individually or in combination (Zafar-ul-Hye et al., 2019). Chandra et al. (2019) also reported the role of ACC deaminase in amelioration of drought stress and plant growth improvement in wheat with individual application of *Variovorax paradoxus* RAA3 or combined application of *Pseudomonas* sp. DPB13, DPB15 and DPB16, and *Ochrobactrum anthropic* DPC9. PGPR inoculation improved the growth, nutrient concentration in leaves and regulated antioxidant activity of plants under drought stress. Due to these effects on the host plant, ACC deaminase-producing microbes support growth of crop plants under drought and reduced the deleterious effects of ET in plants under stress conditions (Khandelwal and Sindhu, 2013; Umapathi et al., 2022; Ojuederie and Babalola, 2023). Thomas-Barry et al. (2024) obtained 15 rhizobacteria from dominant plant species grown in the hyperseasonal Aripo Savannas, which possessed ACC deaminase (ACCD) activities along with production of IAA and biofilm under stress induced conditions. The best performing co-culture, *Burkholderia* sp. UWIGT-83 and UWIGT-120 showed enhanced growth in germination assays and in greenhouse trials with *Capsicum chinense* (Moruga red hot peppers) under drought stress in comparison to uninoculated treatments.

#### 4.3. Mitigation of drought stress in plants by osmoprotectants

Under drought stress, plants accumulate certain osmoprotectants including trehalose, proline, mannitol or glycine betaine and other

organic and inorganic ions like calcium, potassium, chloride ions or organic acid, which confers osmotic adjustments, reduces oxidative stress due to ROS, and stabilizes the subcellular plant structures (Huang et al., 2014). Moreover, AMF colonization in plants maintains the osmotic balance and increases the concentration of inorganic ions i.e.,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  and  $\text{K}^+$  (Ruiz-Lozano, 2003), in addition to increased osmolytes concentration like polyamines, proline, and sugar (Rapparini and Peñuelas, 2014; Zhang et al., 2020). Proline is the most crucial osmolyte, which regulates the gene expression of stress-responsive genes and maintains the structural integrity of lipid bilayer and nucleic acid (Talaat and Shawky, 2015; Zhang et al., 2020), and conducts osmotic adjustment, inhibits free radical formation, and maintains the structural integrity of subcellular structure of plant cells (Ngumbi and Kloepper, 2016). PGPR strains retrieved from *Megathyrsus maximus* produced proline and reduced the MDA levels and GR activity to overcome the deleterious effects of drought stress (Moreno-Galván et al., 2020a). Similarly, *Pseudomonas putida* inoculation in *Arabidopsis thaliana* increased the proline content followed by enhanced water uptake and induced biomass accumulation and chlorophyll concentration in plants (Ghosh et al., 2017). In addition to PGPR, AMF inoculation also induced proline accumulation in several plant species; for example, *Poncirus trifoliata* (Wu et al., 2017), *Cupressus arizonica* (Aalipour et al., 2020), *Olea europaea* (Ouledali et al., 2018) and *Juglans regia* (Behrooz et al., 2019).

The reduction in sugar levels due to environmental stress conditions degrades the cell membrane and cellular components of plant. Combined application of PGPR and plant growth regulators induced accumulation of soluble sugar and imparted tolerance to drought stress in chickpea along with improvement in photosynthetic efficiency (Khan et al., 2019b). Moreover, increased sugar level in plants contributes to the gene expression related to photosynthesis, and signalling of activation of various processes to cope up with water stress. Some bacteria produce trehalose under dry conditions where it functions as osmoprotectant and maintains membrane integrity, and protects dehydrated enzymes (Yang et al., 2009). Trehalose also acts as a signalling molecule for transcription of trehalose-6-phosphate synthase gene responsible for maintaining membrane structure (Vilchez et al., 2016).

Treatment of certain crop plants with bacteria, also termed as bacterization, accumulated several osmoprotectants and contributed in drought tolerance. For instance, bacterization with PGPR strains including *Pseudomonas fluorescens* YX2, *Klebsiella variicola* F2, and *Roultella planticola* YL2 elevated the concentration of betaine, glycine and choline, and promoted plant growth in maize (Gou et al., 2015). Similarly, Govindasamy et al. (2020) reported increases in plant growth and osmotic adjustment in sorghum after the application of endophytes i.e., *Ochrobactrum* sp., *Enterobacter* sp. and *Microbacterium* sp. under drought stress. In another study, mycorrhization with AMF produced carbohydrates such as sucrose, fructose, or glucose as osmoprotectants and also promoted photosynthesis under drought conditions in crops like lettuce (Baslam and Goicoechea, 2012), maize (Hu et al., 2020b), and macadamia nut (Yooyongwech et al., 2013). The differential regulation of carbohydrates and proline occurs under drought stress, and the concentration of carbohydrates like sucrose, glucose and fructose were found higher in trifoliate orange, while proline concentration was low in leaf exposed to drought stress (Wu et al., 2017).

#### 4.4. Mitigation of drought stress by production of exopolysaccharides by PGPMs

Exopolysaccharides form an outer surface layer of microbial cell and stabilizes membrane under adverse environmental conditions (Mishra and Jha, 2013; Naseem et al., 2018). EPSs are secreted by plant associated microbes for strong adhesion to plant roots and supports plant survival against a range of abiotic stresses and under drought conditions as EPSs has high water retention competency (Sindhu and Dadarwal, 1994; Bhagat et al., 2021; Morcillo and Manzanera, 2021; Chauhan and

Upadhyay, 2023). The components of EPSs include macromolecules or polysaccharides, proteins, and uronic acid comprising 40 to 95 % of bacterial weight (Ojuiederie et al., 2017). EPSs layer could be slime or capsular exopolysaccharides (Sindhu et al., 1999; Fukami et al., 2018), and prevent desiccation by retaining water and regulation of carbon diffusion under drought stress. The water retention capacity of EPSs could be as high as 70 g water per gram of polysaccharides (Flemming and Wingender, 2010; Chandra et al., 2021).

The production rate of EPS is highly dependent on environmental factors such as temperature, drought, pH, salinity, and nutrient availability. Various EPS-secreting bacteria including species of *Acinetobacter*, *Bacillus*, *Pseudomonas* and *Rhizobium* were demonstrated to promote plant growth under drought conditions (Naseem et al., 2024). These bacterial species form biofilm and increased drought tolerance of plants (Putrie et al., 2013; Ajijah et al., 2023). The biofilm formed by PGPR forms a covering over plant roots that retain water and protect them from desiccation (Rolli et al., 2015). The seed treatment with biofilm forming *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* ALB629 produced five times more EPSs compared to its absence in common bean seedlings during drought stress conditions (Martins et al., 2018a). EPSs also promote microbial colonization and promote carbon diffusion under water deficit conditions (Ali et al., 2014). Silica induces more EPS production causing a hike in water retention of biofilm in addition to osmotic pressure and allows more plant-microbes interactions, thus producing healthy plants under drought stress conditions (Fetsiukh et al., 2021). Similarly, soil aggregation was increased during drought stress due to the application of EPSs producing *Bacillus* sp. strains HYTAPB18, HYD-B17 and RMPB44 (Vardharajula, 2021).

Naseem et al. (2024) characterized EPS-producing bacteria (EPB) as *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* EPB9 and *Bacillus cereus* EPB17 from soil samples drawn from diverse ecologies (sub-humid and arid). Inoculation of both EPB strains significantly enhanced maize growth and soil-water retained until harvesting stage in drought-stressed soils. Higher water contents in soil and plant leaves, as well as fresh shoot and root weight were obtained with EPB9 (10d growth) treatment and plant leaf area and shoot length were greater with EPB17 (10d growth) inoculation. Bacterial EPS also caused higher protein and sugar, and lower proline contents in plants. Antioxidant enzymes (SOD, POD and CAT) remained lower with both EPB treatments due to reduced drought stress than in control.

#### 4.5. Mitigation of drought stress by secretion of volatile organic compounds by PGPMs

Production of organic molecules in gaseous form by several PGPMs is known as volatile organic compounds, which are involved in improving plant growth during drought stress (Sharifi and Ryu, 2018). These VOCs are low-molecular-weight compounds (less than 300 Da) that can evaporate at room temperature and pressure (Bennett et al., 2012). Such compounds could act as elicitors inducing systemic resistance and strengthens the plant defense system (Timusk et al., 2014; Panpatte et al., 2017). VOCs are produced by various microbes as extracellular degradation product of complex organic compounds or an end product of anaerobic fermentation (Choudhary et al., 2017). VOCs produced by PGPR significantly improve root branching, photosynthesis, seedling emergence, iron uptake, reduces disease incidence and increase plant growth and yield, and enhance drought tolerance (Terra et al., 2018; Martins et al., 2019).

VOCs produced by various microbes include different chemical compounds, for instance; alcohols, benzenoids, ketones, sulphides, alkenes, pyrazines and terpenes (Kanchiswamy et al., 2015; Lemack et al., 2018). Apart from this, bacteria also produce certain antifungal compounds including HCN, phenazine-1-carboxylic acid, alcohols, and ammonia (Choudhary et al., 2008; Sehrwat et al., 2022). The role of volatile compound produced *Bacillus subtilis* and *B. amyloliquefaciens* in drought stress was elaborated by Asari et al. (2016) with reference to

*Arabidopsis*. These strains produced a range of volatiles like acetoin, 3-hydroxy-2-butanone and 2R- or 3R-buanediol, which showed increased plant growth due to upregulation of genes functioning in the maintenance of cell structure and phytohormones signalling like ET, SA and jasmonates. Similarly, Yasmin et al. (2021) reported increases in chlorophyll content, proline levels and antioxidant enzymes along with reduced MDA levels and electrolyte leakage throughout drought stress with the application of VOCs producing *Pseudomonas pseudoalcaligenes* in maize.

VOCs also act as signalling molecules and facilitate intercellular or organismal interaction due to their capacity to diffuse (Effmert et al., 2012; Bitas et al., 2013). The VOCs promoted drought tolerance in plants by increasing the concentration of choline and osmoprotectants such as glycine betaine (Liu and Zhang, 2015). VOCs were later identified as 2, 3 butanediol, which after 10 days of application increased the total leaf area by five times and enhanced plant growth. Other VOCs like indole and dimethylhexdecylamine (DMHDA) produced by different PGPR strains increased root hair density, improved root architecture and increased the root length along with volume and surface area in *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Bailly et al., 2014; Sharifi and Ryu, 2018). Moreover, VOCs regulates the gene expression of FIT1, IRT1 and FRO2 genes, which are responsible for iron uptake.

#### 4.6. Antioxidant enzymes induced drought tolerance in plants by PGPMs

Drought induces ROS production, which damages the cellular structures, DNA, lipids and proteins due to their interference with cellular redox (Wu et al., 2014b), and thus impair normal plant functioning (Laxa et al., 2019). This necessitates an antioxidant system, which could remove ROS. Reactive oxygen species includes single oxygen ( $^1\text{O}_2$ ), hydroxyl radicals (OH), hydrogen peroxide ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ), superoxide anion radicals ( $\text{O}_2^-$ ) and alkoxy radicals. Therefore, plants employ antioxidant system, which could be either enzymatic or non-enzymatic, and inhibit production of ROS; thus, protecting the host from oxidative damage under drought stress (Hasanuzzaman et al., 2020). Plant beneficial microbes alter the antioxidant activity of plant for promoting drought tolerance. Different antioxidant enzymes include GR, SOD, APX, and catalase. Non-enzymatic antioxidant activity is mediated via ascorbic acid, glutathione and cysteine (Kaushal and Wani, 2016; Ma et al., 2020). For instance, PGPR inoculation in Guinea grass reduced the GR activity, which promoted drought tolerance (Moreno-Galván et al., 2020a). Similarly, inoculation of *Bacillus* in maize lead to reduced activity of GR and APX under drought stress condition (Moreno-Galván et al., 2020b). AMF inoculation in plants significantly elevated the activity of enzymes such as SOD, CAT and POD under water deficit conditions (Essahibi et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2020). Paul et al. (2022) showed that inoculation of wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) seeds with biofilm-forming *Bacillus pseudomycoides* promoted antioxidant enzymes CAT, SOD, POD, and APX. Molecular gene expression studies showed that inoculation of *B. pseudomycoides* strongly expressed the Dreb1 gene by silencing the expression of MYB gene, which synthesizes Myb protein (TaMpc1-D4), through secreted volatile compounds. Out of 45 volatile compounds identified, 2,6-ditert-butylcyclohexa-2,5-diene-1,4-dione and 3, 5-ditert-butylphenol compounds suppressed Myb protein's expression in response to drought.

#### 4.7. Mitigation of drought stress through induction of stress responsive genes in plants

Drought response of any plant is regulated at genetic level and beneficial microbes trigger the gene expression to stimulate a better defense response under stress conditions. Microbes can also stimulate the expression of stress-resistance genes; for example, antioxidant (Murali et al., 2021), aquaporins (Quiroga et al., 2017; Kapilan et al., 2018; Symanczik et al., 2020), transcription factors (Barnawal et al., 2017; Manjunatha et al., 2022), and proline biosynthesis (Govindasamy

et al., 2020; Li et al., 2020) by modulation of hormonal levels. For instance, *Pseudomonas simiae* AU upregulated the expression of transcription factors i.e., EREB/DREB, water transporters including PIP and TIP, and osmoprotectant synthesis coding genes i.e., GOLS and P5CS upon inoculation of soybean in order to prevent the deleterious effect of drought (Vaishnav and Choudhary, 2019). Similar observation was recorded with the application of *Paenibacillus polymyxa* CR1 in *Arabidopsis*, which resulted in upregulation of dehydration-responsive genes, RD29A and RD29B for coping up with desiccation (Liu et al., 2020). Ghosh et al. (2017) reported upregulation of genes involved in biosynthesis of proline i.e., OAT (ornithine-1-aminotransferase), P5CR (11-pyrrolidine-5-carboxylate reductase), PDH1 (proline dehydrogenase 1) and P5CDH or 11-pyrrolidine-5-carboxylate dehydrogenase (P5CDH) with the inoculation of *Pseudomonas putida* GAP-P45 in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Similarly, *Bacillus licheniformis* K11 inoculation in pepper plants induced the synthesis of vacuolar ATPase, small heat shock proteins, dehydrin like protein (Cadhn) and other pathogenesis related protein (CaPR-10) (Lim and Kim, 2013). Moreover, *Bacillus marisflavi* strain CRDT-EB-1 produced ABA or abscisic acid analogs (xanthoxin and xanthoxic acid), which could induce the expression of ABA related genes like ABA2, ABA3 and NCED3 during drought conditions in mustard seedlings (Gowtham et al., 2021).

Upregulation of genes responsible for the phenylpropanoid synthesis and antioxidant enzymes production was observed by treatment of rice with *Trichoderma* and *Pseudomonas*, which enhanced stress tolerance (Singh et al., 2020). Genes like DHN responsible for dehydrin, PIP for plasma membrane intrinsic protein and DREB were also upregulated under drought stress. Improved drought tolerance in *Brassica campestris* was correlated with upregulation of drought tolerant genes such as CSD3, DREB1D, and WRKY7, while in *Arabidopsis thaliana*, it was attributed to the genes like NVED3, RD20, RaB18 and RD29B mediated by *Bacillus subtilis* GOT9 (Woo et al., 2020). Similar mechanism was observed in tomato by Abbasi et al. (2020) indicating the role of plant associated microbes in upregulation of drought tolerant genes ERF1 and WRKY70 and increased production of proline and antioxidant enzymes. Ou et al. (2022) showed that *Bacillus megaterium* HGS7 strain obtained from the rhizosphere soil of mulberry after drought stress, possessed multiple genes that contributed to plant growth promotion, stress tolerance enhancement, and antimicrobial compound production. *B. megaterium* HGS7 consistently exhibited antagonistic activity against phytopathogens and strong tolerance to abiotic stress *in vitro*. Moreover, this strain stimulated mulberry seed germination and seedling growth, and induced production of proline and antioxidant enzymes in mulberry trees.

Gene expression of SbP5CS1 and SbP5CS2 coding for pyrroline-5-carboxylate synthase was increased by endophytic root bacteria i.e., *Ochrobactrum* sp. EB-165, *Microbacterium* sp. EB-65, *Enterobacter* sp. EB-14 and *Enterobacter cloacae* strain EB-48 in sorghum and conferred drought tolerance and plant growth promotion (Govindasamy et al., 2020). *Pseudomonas putida* induced the gene expression of proline related gene P5CS in addition to enhancing phosphate and Zn uptake by rice seedling under drought conditions (Saddique et al., 2018). Mycorrhization of apple plants with AMF caused upregulation of gene expression i.e., MdMAPK20-1, MdMAPK7-1, MdMAPK16-2 and MdMAPK17 to ameliorate drought stress (Huang et al., 2020). MdIAA24 is the most commonly upregulated gene observed in apple due to AMF inoculation, which controls the synthesis of strigolactone, resulting in enhanced osmotic adjustments, relative water content and gas exchange capacity (Huang et al., 2021). Moreover, AMF produces a range of antioxidant enzymes for the amelioration of oxidative stress generated under drought conditions (Zou et al., 2021). Kim et al. (2022) reported that pepper (*Capsicum annuum*) plants inoculated with *Bacillus butanivorans* KJ40 strain induced drought tolerance by activation of peroxidase and glutathione peroxidase and upregulation of gene expression of *Capsicum annuum* dehydrin (Cadhn), small heat shock protein (sHSP),  $\Delta$ 1-pyrroline-5-carboxylate synthetase (P5CS),

$\Delta$ -1-pyrroline-5-carboxylate reductase (P5CR), ABA (bZIP transcription factor 1 and NCED1)-, JA (lipoxygenase 1; LOX1), and coronatine insensitive 1 (COI1)-related genes, as well as changing polyphenol content in KJ40-treated pepper plants under drought stress. Differential accumulation and alteration of polyphenol contents, including flavonoids, were observed in fruits of KJ40-treated plants, and capsaicin, dihydrocapsaicin, and naringenin were decreased. However, luteolin and catechin were increased compared to those of control plants.

Endophytic *Bacillus altitudinis* HNH7 and *B. velezensis* HNH9 strains possessed various PGP traits including proteolytic, amylolytic, lipolytic and cellulolytic activities, and solubilized iron by producing siderophores (Hasan et al., 2022). Inoculation of HNH7 and HNH9 strains promoted the growth of upland cotton plants by upregulating the expression of growth-linked genes, EXP6, ARF1, ARF18, IAA9, CKX6 and GID1b. However, the expression of ERF and ERF17 genes involved in ethylene biosynthesis was downregulated after treating the plants with HNH7 and HNH9 compared to the control. Furthermore, cotton plants treated with HNH7 and HNH9 strains exhibited a significantly higher rate of photosynthesis and stomatal conductance. Wu et al. (2024) performed proteome analysis of *Pinus taeda* seedlings treated with endophytic fungus *Serendipita indica* and revealed that two proteins, i.e., H9 × 056 and H9VDW5, only appeared in the needles of inoculated seedlings, and protein H9VNE7 was upregulated more than 11.0 times as that of uninoculated seedlings under drought stress. In addition, *S. indica* inoculation increased enrichment of water deficient-inducible proteins (such as LP3-1, LP3-2, LP3-3, and dehydrins) and those involved in ribosomal structures (such as A0A385JF23). *S. indica* inoculation also caused great changes in phenylpropanoid biosynthesis, cutin, suberine and wax biosynthesis, and 2-oxocarboxylic acid metabolism under drought stress. Hence, antioxidant system of AMF acts as active scavengers of ROS with amelioration of drought stress in crop plants.

#### 4.8. Improvement in nutrient and water uptake under drought stress by PGPMs

Plants require nutrients for their optimum growth and development, and they are dependent on soil nutrient pool due to their sessile lifestyle. Various microbial strains increase the nutrient availability and their efficient utilization by plants under various stress conditions. Plant requires N, P, and potassium (K) along with trace amounts of iron (Fe) for their growth, but most of the soils are deficient of these nutrients (Khan et al., 2017; Kumar et al., 2022b; Sindhu et al., 2022). Among these nutrients, P exists both in organic as well as inorganic forms. Bista et al. (2018) studied the nutrient uptake potential of different drought tolerant and drought sensitive grasses including barley, bluestem, and corn. Under drought stress, proteins involved in phosphate uptake failed to keep up with normal functioning and thus, leads to reduced uptake of P. Moreover, this was more evident in plants harvested at mid and late drought periods. During drought stress, plant plasma membrane protein PHT-1 homologous to PHO84Pi of yeast aids in plant uptake of P (Nussaume et al., 2011). However, the PHT-1 levels were reduced under drought stress by 40 % in barley and 44 and 59 % in corn and bluestem, respectively. This resulted in reduced P content in corn by 48 %, barley and bluestem by 41 and 39 %, respectively. Thus, abiotic stress decreases the nutrient uptake due to reduced protein levels and impaired the plant growth and development of crops leading to poor crop yield. Therefore, farmers apply excessive amount of chemical fertilizers in order to fulfil plant's nutrient requirements; however, chemicals being toxic in nature affect the soil quality and causes environment pollution leading to public health hazards (Sindhu et al., 2017).

Phosphate solubilizing microorganisms (PSMs) are frequently applied as bioinoculants to mitigate the stress conditions and for plant growth promotion (Zhao et al., 2014; Alori et al., 2017; Bittencourt et al., 2023). Certain PSMs help in abiotic stress mitigation by producing siderophores and phytohormones, lowering ET levels by expression of

ACC deaminase enzyme, and upregulating the expression of antioxidant and dehydration response genes encoding CAT, APX, SOD, POD, and GR (Beneduzi et al., 2008; Ojuederie et al., 2019; Vociante et al., 2022). For instance, Dubey et al. (2021) reported the improved biomass of soybean crops under drought conditions upon inoculation with three drought-tolerant phosphate solubilizing bacteria (PSB) strains i.e., *Pseudomonas* sp. AKAD A1-16, *P. otitidis* AKAD A-2 and *Bacillus cereus* AKAD A1-1. *Pseudomonas* sp. AKAD A1-16 produced ACC deaminase, which helped in stress mitigation.

Another important component of the soil microbial community is potassium solubilizing microorganisms (KSMs), which play important role in enhancing K availability to plants and strengthened plant defense mechanisms against various environmental stresses (Johnson et al., 2022; Bhattacharjee et al., 2023; Sharma et al., 2024). The release of K, aluminum and silicon by these KSMs through weathering of minerals along with secretion of phytohormones improved plant nutrition as well as plant growth (Höflich et al., 1994; Anwar et al., 2022). Currently, several efficient KSMs are being applied as biofertilizers for improving crop productivity in sustainable agriculture (Singh et al., 2022; Soumare et al., 2022; Sharma et al., 2024). For instance, inoculation of K solubilizing bacterial strains *Paenibacillus sabinae* and *Leptolyngbya* sp. RBD05 to saline-alkali soil alone or in combination, increased wheat growth, N:P ratio, K:Na ratio, proline content and SOD activity (Duan et al., 2023).

Drought stress also impairs the activity of nitrogenase enzyme leading to reduction in symbiotic N<sub>2</sub> fixation in legumes (King and Purcell, 2006; Arrese-Igor et al., 2011). Interestingly, about 60 % of legume production the developing world occurs under drought stressed conditions (Graham and Vance, 2003; Zhang et al., 2007). Majority of the isolates obtained from five cultivated leguminous plants, namely *Cicer arietinum*, *Lens esculentus*, *Phaseolus vulgaris*, *Pisum sativum* and *Vicia faba* grown in arid region of Egypt provided tolerance to various environmental factors including drought (Zahran et al., 1999). In another study, combined inoculation of ACC deaminase-containing *Bacillus subtilis* and *Pseudomonas stutzeri* along with *Mesorhizobium ciceri* significantly reduced ET production and improved chickpea growth under drought conditions (Swarnalakshmi et al., 2016). Similarly, enhanced drought tolerance, pod yield or biomass accumulation was observed in nodulated *Phaseolus vulgaris* and *Pisum sativum* as compared to non-nodulated nitrate-fed plants (Frechilla et al., 2000; Lodeiro et al., 2000).

Apart from N, P and K, Fe micronutrient is also essentially required by plants and Fe is the fourth most abundant mineral in soil (Pedraza, 2015; Dhankhar et al., 2023; Velez-Bermúdez and Schmidt, 2023), and it induces tolerance in plants against abiotic stress. Although Fe is present in abundant amount, yet the plant available ferric iron Fe<sup>3+</sup> form is in scarce amount in soil. Therefore, deficiency of Fe in plants causes interveinal chlorosis and lowers crop yield (Tripathi et al., 2018). Thus, application of Fe or Zn (zinc) fertilizers in soil could promote plant growth and tolerance to several stress conditions (Rotaru et al., 2011; Pourgholam et al., 2013; Sehrawat and Sindhu, 2024). Microbes residing within the plant rhizosphere produces Fe-chelating compounds called siderophores (Pedraza, 2015), which increases Fe availability to plants, and eventually improves plant growth. Some of the bacterial strains that produce carboxylate type siderophore include *Rhizobium meliloti* while hydroxamate and catecholate type of siderophores were produced by fluorescent pseudomonads (Ghavami et al., 2017). AMF strains belonging to the phylum Glomeromycota were also demonstrated to suppress the deleterious effects of drought by increasing nutrient availability (Li et al., 2019; Posta and Duc, 2019). Association of AMF with terrestrial plants helps in increasing nutrient and water uptake, modify root structure, promotes flowering and increases stress tolerance (Pozo et al., 2015; Wu et al., 2017), while AMF receives photosynthates for their growth from host plant (Li et al., 2019; Phour and Sindhu, 2024). Similarly, treatment of barley (*Hordeum vulgare* ssp. *Nudum* L.) with *Pacispora franciscana*, *Funneliformis mosseae*, *F.*

*geosporum*, *Rhizophagus irregularis* and *Glomus tenebrosum* increased uptake of N, P, K, Cu and Fe nutrients, improved activity of antioxidant enzymes and alleviated drought stress (Jerbi et al. 2022).

#### 4.9. Increases in plant growth and crop yield using drought-tolerant microbes

Some PGPMs mitigate drought stress and promote root and shoot length, root hairs, biomass accumulation, number of leaves and phenological character like flowering. For instance, the symbiotic association between AMF and diverse plants boost root growth and productivity, plant biomass and leaf area index (Gholamhoseini et al., 2013). Significant improvement in drought and water deficit tolerance was reported in lettuce and tomato, sweet potato and strawberry, when exposed to AMF under immediate drought circumstances (Ruiz-Lozano et al., 2015; Yooyongwech et al., 2016; Moradalab et al., 2019). In similar studies, bacterization of wheat with auxin-producing mixed culture comprising of *Bacillus simplex* D-1 and D-11 strains, *B. thuringiensis* D-2 and S-26, *B. amyloliquefaciens* S-134, *B. muralis* D-5, *M. pluranimalium* S-29 and *Pseudomonas stutzeri* S-80 increased the number of spikelets and tillers under drought stress (Raheem et al., 2018). Bakr et al. (2018) reported that mycorrhization of *Solanum lycopersicum* with AMF i.e., *Funneliformis mosseae*, *F. geosporum*, *Claroideoglomus etunicatum* and *Glomus microaggregatum* improved water use efficiency, stomatal conductance and water potential of leaves and conferred drought stress. In similar studies, inoculation of *Glomus intraradices* on *Solanum melongena* mitigated the adverse effects of drought stress and enhanced crop growth, dry biomass and yield (Badr et al., 2020). Co-application of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles and AMF increased water use efficiency and dry matter yield, improved essential oil quantity and quality of sage (*Salvia officinalis* L.) in drought stress conditions (Ostadi et al., 2022). Similarly, combined inoculation of PGPR and AMF consortium in tomato increased mineral accumulation, osmolyte accumulation, POD activity and plant growth, and also alleviated water stress effects (Tahiri et al., 2022).

Ahmad et al. (2019) inoculated *Zea mays* L. (cv. B73) with *Pseudomonas putida* KT2440 and *P. fluorescens* strains under drought stress and non-stress conditions. Both strains demonstrated significant improvement in root length, protein content, chlorophyll content, and root and shoot fresh masses as compared to uninoculated drought stressed plants. In another study, inoculation of sugarcane with *Bacillus megaterium* increased the expression of invertase gene (involved in conversion of sucrose to glucose and fructose), and it caused early growth of settings during drought stress (Chandra et al., 2018). In another study, inoculation of *Acinetobacter* sp. isolated from the cotton phyllosphere on drought susceptible cotton variety ADB-542 increased germination, plant biomass and number of bolls under drought conditions (Sharath et al., 2021). In similar studies, inoculation of rice seedling with phyllosphere bacterial strains enhanced plant growth under drought stress by increasing nutrient availability, EPSs secretion, soluble sugar levels, chlorophyll and protein content, and phytohormones production (Arun et al., 2020). Drought tolerance of *Oryza sativa* was increased with the application of phyllosphere bacteria *Bacillus megaterium* PB50 (Devarajan et al., 2021). Bacterization with P solubilizing *Enterobacter ludwigii* strains AFFR02 and Mj1212 in alfalfa promoted plant growth by secreting phytohormones and increasing nutrient availability leading to increased plant height, and plant weight under drought stress (Kang et al., 2021). PGPR treated alfalfa plants also showed higher levels of flavonoids and ABA.

Nishu et al. (2022) observed that inoculation of *P. fluorescens* DR397 on legume cultivars (*Pisum sativum* and *Phaseolus vulgaris*), increased shoot and root growths by 62.0 % to 149.1 % compared with the control group under drought conditions, whereas growth was hardly affected under well-watered conditions. In similar studies, drought stress tolerance of a susceptible soybean cultivar, MAUS 2 was improved through combined inoculation of selected rhizobia and AM fungus (Ashwin et al.,

2023). Shaffique et al. (2023) reported that treatment of soybean with *Bacillus pumilus* SH-9, possessing the ability to produce EPSs, siderophores, IAA and solubilized phosphate, promoted plant growth under drought stress. Further, the strain SH-9 could efficiently tolerate 30 % concentration of polyethylene glycol (PEG) 6000. Also, plant biomass and growth were increased by 20 % due to decreased levels of ABA and increased expression of different genes related to antioxidant enzymes like POD, GSH, SOD and APX and other transcription factors like GmDREB2, GmbZIP1, and GmNCED3. Subsequently, *Bacillus pumilus* SH-9 was used for inoculation of rice under drought stress (Shaffique et al., 2024). PGPR strain SH-9 significantly increased levels of CAT, APX and SOD, and could withstand 35 % of PEG6000 in rice. The strain positively influenced seeds vigor index, germination percent and germination rate index.

Mahreen et al. (2023) isolated eight different drought-tolerant PGPR strains from the rice rhizosphere that are tolerant to 20 % PEG-8000. All the strains exhibited the production of ACC deaminase, EPSs, IAA (14.3 to 46.2 µg ml<sup>-1</sup>) and organic acid (72 to 178 µg ml<sup>-1</sup>), and solubilized 51 to 356 µg ml<sup>-1</sup> of phosphate. A consortium consisting of *Bacillus cereus* NM-6, *B. subtilis* NM-2 and *Brucella haematophilum* NM-4 was prepared and its inoculation on rice improved the root length (17 %), increased root surface area (18 %), and seed vigor index i.e., 1009.2 to 1100 as compared to non-inoculated plants causing 630 to 957 seed vigor index. Moreover, consortium induced drought tolerance by production of antioxidant enzymes, increased proline levels by 85.8 to 122 %, membrane stability index and relative water content by 64 % and 51 %, respectively. In similar studies, consortium of PGPB strains including *Azotobacter vinelandii*, *Pseudomonas putida* and *Pseudomonas agglomerans* application was evaluated on *Festuca ovina* and it increased germination percentage, nutrient uptake, root and shoot length, plant dry weight, and plant biomass with their application under 30 % FC condition (Rigi et al., 2023). Therefore, single strain or consortium inoculation in plants could significantly increase plant tolerance to drought.

Wilnowicz et al. (2022) showed that inoculation of maize seeds by *Glomus* sp. and *Bacillus* sp. restored the proper photosynthetic activity of the plant under drought stress and stabilized the osmoprotectant content of the leaf. Mixed inoculation of maize seeds by *Glomus* sp. and *Bacillus* sp. was also related to the stabilization of cell redox status reflected by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> content, antioxidant enzymes, and malondialdehyde level in leaves. In addition, drought response in maize was mediated by both microorganism-mediated modifications of cell wall composition and structure of leaves, such as downregulating pectin, affecting their methylation degree, and increasing hemicellulose content. In another study, combined inoculation of maize (*Zea mays* L.) plants with *Acaulospora laevis* (AMF) and *Bacillus subtilis* (PGPR) increased root colonization (104.6–113.2 %) and microbial biomass carbon (36.38–40.23 %), leaf photosynthetic rate (27.3–29.8 %) and grain yield under moderate to severe drought conditions as compared with uninoculated control (Khan et al., 2024). Higher root colonization was strongly linked with elevated ACC production, subsequently enhancing water use efficiency (21.62–12.77 %) and root nutrient uptake under moderate to severe drought conditions. Furthermore, co-inoculation with AMF-PGPR reduced cellular damage by lowering oxidative enzyme levels and increasing anti-oxidative enzyme activities, improving plant performance and grain yield under stressful environments. Mycorrhization of *Pinus massoniana* with ectomycorrhizal fungus *Cenococcum geophilum* showed increased water content, osmotic adjustment, photosynthesis rate, and antioxidant enzymes, which eventually improved drought tolerance (Zhang et al., 2024b). In another study, inoculation of wheat with AMF *Funneliformis mosseae* increased water use efficiency, growth, and yield (Duan et al., 2024), and soil was reported to have higher soil water content, nutrient availability and soil organic carbon to soil nitrogen ratio. Plants treated with AMF produced 28.5 % more grain compared to control under drought stress.

A comparative evaluation of microbial consortia versus single-strain inoculants was conducted in potato by Mamun et al. (2024). The effect

of six fungal and bacterial strains, and ten consortia on growth, nutritional status and drought stress protectants was compared. Presence of AMF *Rhizophagus irregularis* strain MUCL41833 improved the P nutritional status and root growth, while non-inoculated plants suffered with 70 % reduction in water supply and showed reduced shoot growth by 30 % and biomass of tuber by 50 % in addition to phosphate limitation. Consortium constituted of AMF and *Pseudomonas brassicacearum* strain 3Re2-7 and *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* FZB42 suppressed the leaf damage under drought conditions. Also,  $\text{NH}_4^+$  fertilization supplemented with AMF inoculation increased tuber biomass by 951 %, which was only 534 % with  $\text{NH}_4^+$  fertilization alone. This was mediated by improved accumulation of osmolytes, increased concentration of hormones like JA, ABA and IAA in shoot and amplified antioxidant enzymes activity and reduced leaf damage under drought conditions. Bacterial inoculants also enhanced ROS detoxification and stimulated biomass allocation towards shoot growth at the expense of tuber development. Zhang et al. (2024a) established AM symbiosis between tomato plants and three AMF species i.e., *Rhizophagus intraradices*, *Funneliformis mosseae*, *R. irregularis*, under well watered or drought stressed conditions in pot experiment. AMF treatment significantly increased plant biomass under drought stress and the growth promoting effect of *R. irregularis* was lower than those of *R. intraradices* and *F. mosseae*, which was associated with higher mycorrhizal colonization and more consumption of lipids. On the other hand, drought tolerance capacity of *R. irregularis* was greater than those of *R. intraradices* and *F. mosseae*. These studies established that microbial consortia provide more tolerance to plants against drought stress.

Despite the growing recognition of the microbiota for increasing nutrient availability, plant growth and fitness in response to drought, harnessing of these interactions for increased drought resilience remains a significant challenge due to complex interactions between the host plant and its surrounding soil, which influence microbial community structure and function (Chen et al., 2019; Dong et al., 2023). In addition, poor colonization and establishment of inoculated microorganisms, and other cultural restrictions restricted the success of microbes in offering desired benefits to plant under field conditions (Goel et al., 1999; Sindhu et al., 2003). Moreover, only a small fraction of microbes is culturable under laboratory conditions, thus hidden potential of most of microbes is still unexplored (Tringe et al., 2005). Recently, use of advanced culture-independent techniques including high throughput DNA sequencing has resulted in finding new and novel uncultivable microbial strains with great beneficial properties (Fitzpatrick et al., 2020). Thus, production of specific metabolites, phytohormones and antioxidant enzymes, understanding of interactions between different microbes and intercommunicatin signalling mechanisms between plant and microbes is urgently needed to achieve full potential of plant associated microbes under drought stress (de Vries et al., 2018; de Nijs et al., 2019). For this, a better mechanistic understanding of the complex feedback between plants, soils, environment and microbes is needed to develop future strategies for prediction and mitigation of the drought stress impacts on growth of plants and crop yields.

## 5. Gene modulation during microbe-plant interactions to ameliorate drought stress

Recent rapid and drastic changes in the global climate have exacerbated various environmental (abiotic) and biotic stresses for crops, which significantly threaten the worldwide crop production and food security. Therefore, current research efforts are aimed at improving sustainable and healthy agricultural production through application of microbial communities or improving their traits/characteristics with microbiome-based rhizosphere engineering and synthetic biology approach, by increasing nutrient acquisition, and/or protecting plants from biotic and environmental stresses (Qiu et al., 2019; Ke et al., 2021; Phour and Sindhu, 2022; Neemisha et al., 2022; Gouesbet, 2023). Another novel approach involves the use of consortia of various microbes possessing different plant growth-promoting (PGP) traits as an

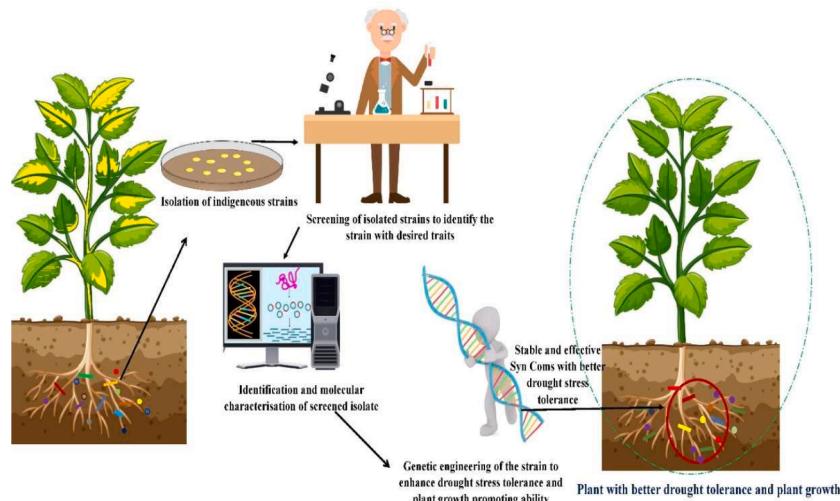
effective synthetic community to improve crop production under stressed environments (Lau et al., 2022; Shayanthan et al., 2022; Yin et al., 2022). Recent innovative omics technology including metagenomics, metabolomics, meta proteomics in addition to culture-based strategies may be applied to improve microbial colonization and plant-microbe interactions leading to improved plant growth and development (Jansson and Hofmockel, 2018; Mishra et al., 2022). For instance, culturomics- and metagenomics-based studies were performed recently on microbial community and its functions for assessing their performance in rhizosphere soils of desert farming systems (Lian et al., 2023). In addition, large-scale sequencing may be used to retrieve microbial genomes directly from a specific environment for comprehensive understanding of the diversity and functional potential of microbes. However, these novel genomic methods show species vulnerable to climate change disturbances, which may modify the structure and function of vast microbial communities. Hence, microbes are being engineered to derive desired result for improving soil health and plant growth (Tsolakidou et al. 2019; Ke et al. 2021).

Considering the role of different microbe-associated genes in drought tolerance, efforts are being made worldwide to improve drought tolerance in model as well as non-model plants (He et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020). It is established that several regulatory mechanisms are employed within the plants for increasing tolerance, averting drought or recovering from drought (Zhang et al., 2022; Kambona et al., 2023). Efforts have also been made to develop plants with increased drought tolerance with the aid of novel advanced techniques in genetic engineering and molecular breeding. However, the plant system is highly complex and thus, success rate is limited.

### 5.1. Bioengineering of microbes to improve efficacy of drought tolerance

Genetic engineering allows the manipulation of microbial communities for increasing plant tolerance to stress along with improvement in soil fertility and health leading to increases in plant growth and crop yield. In some cases, engineered microbiomes outcompetes the traditional microbial strains in producing more pronounced effects (Alnahhas et al., 2020; Karkaria et al., 2021). Therefore, microbiome engineering has become a popular choice because of associated benefits in comparison to single inoculation-based method. In addition, retrieving microbial community from wild crop plants and understanding their role in drought resistance could pave a way for developing SynComs (Fig. 4). SynComs are the synthetic microbial communities (SMCs), which are developed via microbiome engineering (Quides and Atamian, 2021; Monteoliva et al., 2022). Other microbiome engineering technique is 'host mediated microbiome engineering (HMME)'. A number of studies are based on the application of these HMME or SynComs techniques in various crops (Table 2). Recently, SynComs have been applied to crops like *Canavalia ensiformis* and *Crotalaria juncea* (Hernández-Álvarez et al., 2023), and *Medicago sativa* (Hansen et al., 2020). In most of the cases, efficacy of synthetic microbial communities has been found better than the conventional bioinoculants (Alnahhas et al., 2020; Karkaria et al., 2021), because SMCs allow synergistic action of different microbial strains, which offers multiple beneficial traits to plants. Hence, such SMCs are more robust and stable that work efficiently under different environmental conditions (Karkaria et al., 2021; Orozco-Mosqueda et al., 2021).

The microbial strains used to develop SMCs are indigenously isolated and characterized using culture dependent techniques and subsequently, screened for different desired traits/functions (Lemanceau et al., 2017; Vorholt et al., 2017; Armanhi et al. 2018). Different strains in SMCs employ either common or different mechanisms for mitigation of drought or other environmental stresses (Compan et al., 2019). Community profiling of the host plant is carried out to identify the strains with desired traits like effective colonization and survival under developmental stage (de Souza et al., 2020). Thus, SynComs is an application strategy that could develop inoculants, which are highly



**Fig. 4.** Retrieving of microbial community from wild crop plants, their genetic engineering and development of SynComs for drought resistance.

efficient, shows increased plant-microbe or microbe-microbes interactions, and are integrated with plant beneficial characteristics (Arif et al., 2020; Petrushin et al., 2023).

Rolli et al. (2015) developed SynComs using strains of *Bacillus*, *Enterobacter*, *Delftia*, *Sphingobacterium* and *Acinetobacter*, that increased drought tolerance and plant growth in grapevine. Similarly, plant height and weight were increased in maize with the application of SynComs consisting of strains of *Acinetobacter*, *Sphingomonas*, *Pseudomonas putida* and *Azospirillum brasiliense* (Molina-Romero et al., 2017). Thus, SynComs have emerged as a helping tool in producing robust drought tolerant core microbiome, which confers drought resilience and further applied for producing drought resistance smart crops (Ali et al., 2022). With the advent of new technologies like machine learning, artificial intelligence and computational methods, more fine screening of beneficial microbes could be further accomplished (de Souza et al., 2020; Sindhu and Sindhu, 2023). However, plant-microbiome engineering has its own limitation due to complexity of microbial community and variation in function of microbiome during plant ontogeny. Therefore, HMME could be an alternative option by selecting microbiome based on the phenotype of host indirectly via propagation and cyclic differentiation to maintain microbial communities that benefit plants.

Microbial community directly or indirectly interacts with the host plant and could aid in shaping plant response to water stress. The focus of modern research is currently shifting towards the identification of beneficial microbial communities, engineering/manipulation of the rhizosphere microbes and their implications for maintaining long-term soil health and fertility (Hakim et al., 2021). Recent genetic engineering techniques could be applied to manipulate beneficial microbes for improving nutrient uptake, water acquisition and stress hormone regulation, which may enhance drought tolerance leading to plant growth promotion for their subsequent use as biofertilizer in different crop plants. For instance, Lian et al. (2023) applied culturomics- and metagenomics-based studies of microbial community and its functions for assessing their performance in rhizosphere soils of desert farming systems. In addition, use of large-scale sequencing to retrieve microbial genomes directly from a specific environment has given researchers a comprehensive understanding of the diversity and functional potential of microbes (Almeida et al. 2021). However, novel genomic methods show species vulnerable to climate change disturbances, which may modify the structure and function of vast microbial communities. Thus, focus of modern research is currently shifting towards the identification of beneficial microbial communities, engineering/manipulation of the rhizosphere and their implications for maintaining long-term soil health and fertility (Tsolakidou et al., 2019; Hakim et al., 2021).

Use of recent advanced and innovative techniques for identification, cloning and expression patterns of the genes related to drought stress mitigation may subsequently be applied to develop genetically manipulated microbial strains with enhanced PGP activities for their subsequent use as biofertilizer in different crop plants. Involvement of similar mechanisms for solubilization of P, K and Zn through production of acids (organic/inorganic) by various microbial strains (Amy et al., 2022; Sehrawat and Sindhu, 2024; Sharma et al., 2024), suggested that the genetic manipulation of PGPMs has the potential to produce significantly better strains with improved P, K and Zn solubilization efficacy (Chen et al., 2022). Recently, Yang et al. (2023) showed that K solubilizing *Priestia aryabhattai* strain SK1-7 upregulated the expression of the *maeA-1* gene to secrete more pyruvate into the medium for increasing feldspar dissolution. It needs to be determined whether P and Zn solubilization also results from the release of acids (malic and pyruvic acid) in the rhizosphere. Thus, current strategies for combating global warming by using metagenomics and other omics technologies may supply significant data inputs required to understand of the physiological reactions of the soil microbiome for supporting nutritional availability, soil functioning and plant growth promotion and by providing essential feedback to ecosystem health by alleviating the effects of climate change and drought stress (Fiodor et al., 2021; Gowda et al., 2022; Campos et al., 2023; Phour and Sindhu, 2023).

Under drought conditions, microbes may significantly alter the hormonal pathways and control the gene expression via antioxidant defense, hormone signalling, root modification, and stress responsive gene expression (Breitkreuz et al., 2021; Sayer et al., 2021; Yasmin et al., 2022). Two categories of genes are responsible for drought tolerance in plants, which include signal transduction factors such as transcription factors and protein kinases, while the second category includes proteins responsible for osmotic adjustments, protein modification, metabolism, ROS scavenging and transportation. Major genes related to drought tolerance in plants include proline encoding genes PAD4, P5CS and LEA and protein stabilization, and transcription factor DREB1A, which activates other drought responsive genes. Islam et al. (2023) reported different genes in tomatoes such as MdEPF2, cwInv, AtGAMT1, SlADL1, ATHB-7, SIPIP2;1, SIPIP2;7, SIPIP2;5, osmotin, TAS14, SIMAPK3, and SlJUB1, which conferred drought tolerance. Priming of *Arabidopsis* with *Paenibacillus polymyxa* increased drought tolerance by activating certain genes like RAB18 and ERD15 (Timmusk and Wagner, 1999). In another study, *P. polymyxa* strain CR1 conferred drought resistance in soybean and *Arabidopsis* plants (Liu et al., 2020). Moreover, genes like RD29A and RD29B were upregulated with time in response to drought. Non ribosomal peptides and polyketide derived metabolites were produced

**Table 2**

Application of microbiome engineering (SynComs/HMME) for amelioration of drought stress in plants.

Synthetic microbial community			
Host plant	SynComs	Plant response	References
<i>Vitis vinifera</i> cv. Barbera	Strains of <i>Bacillus</i> sp., <i>Acinetobacter</i> sp., <i>Delftia</i> sp., <i>Enterobacter</i> sp. and <i>Sphingobacterium</i> sp.	Increased biomass of roots, reduced transpiration rates and enhanced water retention and drought tolerance	Rolli et al., 2015
<i>Populus deltoides</i> x p. nigra clone	Strains of <i>Rhizobium tropici</i> , <i>Sphingomonas vanoikiyae</i> , <i>Enterobacter asburiae</i> , <i>Acinetobacter calcoaceticus</i> , <i>Curtobacterium</i> sp., <i>Burkholderia vietnamiensis</i> , <i>Rahnella</i> sp., <i>Rhodotorula graminis</i> , <i>Burkholderia</i> sp.	Improved plant growth, and biomass, increased total nitrogen levels and drought tolerance	Khan et al., 2016
Maize	Strains of <i>Acinetobacter</i> sp., <i>Azospirillum brasiliense</i> , <i>Pseudomonas putida</i> and <i>Sphingomonas</i> sp.	Enhanced plant growth and improved drought tolerance	Molina-Romero et al., 2017
Maize	<i>Burkholderia</i> sp., <i>Dyella</i> sp., <i>Enterobacter</i> sp., <i>Pantoea</i> sp., <i>Rhizobium</i> sp., <i>Stenotrophomonas</i> , <i>Microbacterium</i> sp., <i>Bosea</i> sp., <i>Chitinophaga</i> sp., <i>Asticcacaulis</i> , <i>Lysobacter</i> sp., <i>Pseudoxanthomonas</i> sp., <i>Sphingomonas</i> , <i>Chitinophaga</i> sp., <i>Stenotrophomonas</i> and 2 unidentified genera of Comamonadaceae and Streptomycetaceae	Increased plant growth and biomass (3.4 times) and increased root branching, and dark green leaves	Armanhi et al., 2018
Host-mediated microbiome engineering			
<i>Brassica rapa</i>	Microbes associated with wet environmental condition increased	Significant enhancement in plant growth and increased flower and fruit number with adapted microbiome	Lau and Lennon, 2012
<i>Brassica rapa</i>	Increased microbes associated with wet environmental conditions	Bacterial communities showed more abundance and richness while fungal communities showed less abundance. Nitrogen levels of soil were increased along with decrease in carbon to N ratio	Terhorst et al., 2014
Wheat	Abundance of Proteobacteria increased with 1.2-fold, while Acidobacteria and Actinobacteria decreased	Delayed symptoms of drought.	Jochum et al., 2019

by *P. polymyxa* to increase drought tolerance (Timmusk et al., 2015). The contribution of A26 Sfp-type 40-phosphopantetheinyl transferase gene (Sfp-type PPtase) was demonstrated in survival of wheat under drought conditions as its deactivation promoted biofilm formation. *Pseudomonas chlororaphis* O6 induced the gene expression of pdf-1.2 and VSP1 for the synthesis of JA, ethylene responsive gene HEL and PR1, and SA modulated gene for its colonization in *Arabidopsis* (Cho et al., 2013). Hence, a number of genes are regulated in augmenting the drought

tolerance of a plant.

Furthermore, inoculation of drought-tolerant microbes may alter or upregulate defensive pathways for alleviating abiotic stress. For instance, inoculation of AMF induced the expression of 1-pyrrolin-5-carboxylic acid synthase enzyme (P5CS; involved in the proline synthesis) under drought stress condition. P5CS enzyme promotes cell water retention, thus improves the ability of plants to resist osmotic stress (Hu et al., 1992; Ruiz-Lozano et al., 2006). At the same time, the AMF has also been reported to upregulate 9-cis-epoxycarotenoid dioxygenase (NCED) gene expression for enhancing plant resistance to drought stress. NCED enzyme is involved in controlling ABA metabolism and it catalyses the oxidative cleavage of epoxy carotenoids into xanthoxins (Taylor et al., 2000; Chauffour et al., 2019).

Krishna et al. (2022) reported increased expression of stress-responsive genes like CAT, SOD, APX, DREB and P5CS due to the inoculation of PGPMs in tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.) that enhanced drought tolerance and improved soil properties and fruit yield. Similarly certain genes were upregulated in soybean such as DREB/EREB transcription factor, P5CS and GOLS genes for osmoprotectants and water transporters genes i.e., PIP and TIP with the inoculation of *Pseudomonas simiae* AU for promoting plant survival under drought stress (Vaishnav and Choudhary, 2019). In a detailed study, Kaushal (2019) highlighted the role of different microbial communities including AMF or PGPR in regulation of different genes for providing drought tolerance to plants. Different genes which were upregulated includes miRNA's, Hsp20, SAMDC, CPA, ADC, AIH, ERD15, COC1, PtYUC3, PtYUC8, LbSKOR, jasmonate PR1, LbKT1, PKDP, COX1, 14-3-3, RAB18, AP2-EREBP, SPMS, bZIP1, VSP1, MYC2, and pdf1.2. Guarnizo et al. (2023) elaborated the role of *Pseudomonas mandelii* for interaction of *Helianthemum almeriense* with fungal species. *P. mandelii* also increased the nutrient uptake and expression of aquaporin coding AQP or TcAQP1 gene in *Terfezia claveryi* and *Helianthemum* plant, which effectively increased water transport in ecto-endomycorrhizal fungal symbiont. The increased water uptake in both fungus and bacteria was essential to cope up with drought stress. *P. mandelii* not only promoted the colonization of fungus with plants but also increased ABA level and promoted plant survival under drought stress. Curá et al. (2017) reported hormonal regulation by *Herbaspirillum seropedicae* Z-152 and *Azospirillum brasiliense* SP-7, along with reduced gene expression of ZmVP14 and genes coding for ABA and ET production in maize, respectively. Also, ABA dependent signalling genes were activated in the shoots of sugarcane by *Gluconoacetobacter diazotrophicus* PAL5 in order to cope up with the effects of drought (Vargas et al., 2014). Similarly, concentrations of IAA and ABA were increased with the inoculation of *Shewanella putrefaciens* MCL-1 in pearl millet, while GA content was increased with *Cronobacter dublinensis* MKS-1. This suggested increased water uptake, proline level, improved root architecture, better plant growth and increased drought tolerance (Manjunatha et al., 2022).

Siraj et al. (2022) reported phytohormone production, P solubilization and siderophore production in *Microbacterium oxydans* strains AGH9, AGH5 and AGH3, isolated from the rhizosphere of *Calotropis procera* (Aiton) W.T. Aiton and *Achyranthes aspera* L. The production of ABA and JA was induced under drought stress in addition to increased gene expression of SIHsfA1a, SIHAKT1 and SlmiR159 in AGH3 strain. *Rhizophagus irregularis* (AMF) and *Bacillus subtilis* in combination promoted the expression of aquaporin genes and modulated ABA genes including ZmTIP1.1, ZmPIP1;3, ZmPIP2;2, and GintAQP1 for maintaining osmotic pressure in plant cell and thus, aided in plant survival under drought stress (Romero-Munar et al., 2023). Similarly, co-inoculation of two different endophytic fungi *Penicillium funiculosum* LHLO6 and *Paecilomyces formosus* LHL10 in soybean led to upregulation of drought responsive genes and heat shock proteins including GmRD20, GmDREB1B, and GmERD1. The endophytic fungal strains promoted plant growth under drought stress by increasing nutrient uptake, photosynthesis, biomass accumulation, and reducing oxidative stress (Bilal et al., 2020). This study also revealed high JA and ABA level in

non-inoculated plants under high temperature and drought stress. Ghosh et al. (2017) reported modulation in gene expression of proline biosynthesis in *Arabidopsis thaliana* after treatment with *Pseudomonas putida* GAP-P45. The quantitative real time expression analysis revealed prolonged but delayed upregulation of genes involved in proline catabolism i.e.,  $\Delta 1$ -pyrroline-5-carboxylate dehydrogenase (P5CDH), and proline dehydrogenase1 (PDH1) and genes involved in proline biosynthesis, i.e.,  $\Delta 1$ -pyrroline-5-carboxylate reductase/P5CR,  $\Delta 1$ -pyrroline-5-carboxylate synthase1/P5CS1 and ornithine- $\Delta$ -aminotransferase/OAT. Therefore, rhizomicrobiome and co-inoculation of different strains has become a 'secret tool' for plants to utilize scarce soil nutrient resources and providing an effective mitigation strategy in crops exposed to drought stress.

### 5.2. Host based approach targeting microbiome evolution for drought stress mitigation

Manipulation of the host genotype is a promising approach for harnessing the plant-associated microbiota for increases drought resilience (Escudero-martinez and Bulgarelli, 2023). Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) represent a potentially powerful, unbiased method to connect host responsive microbes to the host genetic loci influencing their colonization (Deng et al., 2021). Host based approach is directed towards the improvement of plant functioning by targeting the evolution of microbiome (Mueller and Sachs, 2015). For selection of only desired phenotype, microbiome passing through all the multiple experiments is only selected at the end for the application as inoculum. Moreover, microbiome application in sequential plant growth cycle results in gradual evolution and domestication of the microbiome that is most suitable for plant phenotype. HMME is advantageous over SynComs due to selection of only desired microbes that has already acclimatized to plant system exposed to stress. In addition, HMME employs both culturable as well as non-culturable microbes, whereas SynComs explores only the culturable bacteria. HMME has been applied to increase drought resistance in wheat plant and Proteobacteria was confirmed as the most abundant bacterial phylum in soil with the use of 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing. In similar work, HMME application improved plant fitness on ecological context and increased drought tolerance (Lau and Lennon, 2012; Terhorst et al., 2014).

Root system architecture (RSA) and the spatial configuration of the plant root system plays a pivotal role in plant anchorage and efficient uptake of essential nutrients [e.g., N, P, and K and water] (Ryan et al., 2016; Gabay et al. 2023; Liu et al., 2023; Zheng et al. 2023). Under mild drought conditions, the biomass allocation into roots increases (Wach and Skowron, 2022), and root exudation is usually higher than that of well-watered controls (Tiziani et al., 2022). Specifically, drought increased the abundance of organic acids exuded by wheat (Anderson et al., 2023), and pearl millet (Ghatak et al., 2022), and also secondary metabolites in various plants (Ghatak et al., 2022; He et al., 2022). For instance, changes in plant metabolites of rice such as salicin, arbutin, glycolic acid phosphate influenced the growth of rhizosphere microorganisms and helped host plant to resist salt stress even after loss of *sst* gene (seedling salt tolerant) function (Lian et al., 2020). Furthermore, differences in the composition of root exudates was observed after disruption of ET signalling pathways and it included smaller amounts of esculetin, gallic acid, L-fucose, eicosapentaenoic acid, and higher amounts of  $\beta$ -aldehyde (Fu et al., 2021); these altered root exudate metabolites affect the growth, assembly and functioning of microbial taxa.

Moreover, plant characters could be altered with the help of genome editing that could allow the colonization of desired beneficial core microbiome. This strategy is more beneficial compared to traditional method of microbial inoculation. Song et al. (2021) observed that FERONIA, a kinase mutant in *Arabidopsis thaliana*, promoted colonization of *Pseudomonas fluorescens* in the rhizophore by regulation of ROS. Also, other processes that could be engineered for altering the structural

microbial community includes hormonal biosynthesis or genes coding for plant exudates so to determine their function in shaping microbial community. Therefore, engineering plant microbiome is a promising tool for improving crop yield and productivity in addition to enhanced stress tolerance in plants.

Root system, its architecture and traits provide an avenue for breeding nutrient- and drought-resilient crops (Liu et al., 2023). Significant differences were identified in root traits using P efficient SC103 and inefficient BTx635 sorghum cultivars. Cultivar SC103 developed a larger root system with more and longer lateral roots, and enhanced shoot biomass, under both nutrient sufficient and deficient conditions. Under P deficiency, both cultivars exhibited an initial increase in lateral root development; however, SC103 still maintained the larger root biomass. Although N deficiency and drought stress inhibited both root and shoot growth, for both sorghum cultivars, SC103 again maintained the better growth performance under N deficiency and drought. Martínez-Barradas et al. (2024) evaluated drought tolerance of most widely cultivated cultivar 'Zorzar' of common bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.) in Chile under drought stress. Plants were subjected to severe drought stress by suspending irrigation. 'Zorzar' cultivar expressed diverse traits associated with drought tolerance, and maintained stable leaf RWC and a better ROS scavenging and stable root biomass system than 'Arroz Tuscola' (a susceptible cultivar of the same gene pool) during the drought condition. Zeist et al. (2024) tested seven wild accessions, three *Solanum lycopersicum* var. *cerasiforme* accessions, and six commercial cultivars to select drought-tolerant tomato plants. Intra- and interspecific crosses were performed and from the crosses *S. lycopersicum* × *S. pennellii*, two F<sub>2</sub>BC<sub>1</sub> populations were obtained. The genotypes were subjected to water deficit. Among the tested *cerasiform* accessions, the RVC 66 accession was the least affected by the reduced water supply. The LA 716 accession (*S. pennellii*) was the most promising to introgress drought tolerance-related genes and had the highest tolerance to water deficit, followed by 'LA 1401' (*S. galapagense*) and 'LA 1967' (*S. chilense*). The crossing between 'LA 716' and the commercial tomatoes 'Clara' and 'Redenção' (most susceptible to water deficit) allowed the development and selection of drought-tolerant F<sub>2</sub>BC<sub>1</sub> genotypes. Since host traits involved in microbiome assembly are complex and multifactorial (e.g., plant immune system, metabolites, and root traits), it has been suggested that this approach may not work in a predictable way (Raaijmakers and Kiers, 2022).

### 5.3. Redesigning of crop varieties and development of transgenic crops with improved drought stress tolerance

The application of beneficial microbes in soil is a sustainable and efficient approach to ameliorate drought stress. However, sometimes introduced microbial strains fail to reproduce the same effect in field as observed under laboratory conditions due to poor colonization of inoculated microbial strain, or failure in production of particular metabolite, and variable inoculant delivery (Sindhu and Dadarwal, 2000; Sindhu et al., 2003). Therefore, producing of transgenic plants or cultivars via genetic engineering is another alternative strategy to improve drought stress tolerance in plants (Manepalli et al., 2022; Pixley et al., 2023). Metabolic pathways are manipulated either to target root morphology and/or for secretion exudates to increase uptake of nutrients and enhance chlorophyll content. Thus, manipulation of the host genotype is a promising approach for harnessing the crop microbiota for increases drought resilience (Escudero-martinez and Bulgarelli, 2023). Moreover, analyses of high-throughput phenotyping and plant genomics, and integration of large-scale environmental metagenomics (e.g., in different geographic locations and different sites) with metabolomics, may provide wider insights into plant-microbiota interactions. For instance, genes located around single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) associating with fungi are involved in the plant immune system, abiotic stress responses and cell wall remodeling processes in drought-stressed rice (Andreo-Jimenez et al., 2023).

Conventional breeding techniques have been applied since last few decades; however, such techniques are labour and time consuming, and costly (Ashraf, 2010). Traditional methods of plant breeding also transform the undesirable genes and require several cycles of breeding, and selection for the desired outcome. Traditional breeding methods fail often due to the role of numerous genes in conferring drought resistance traits to plant. Therefore, genetically manipulating the plant for drought resistance is a more effective approach. The most significant step for genetic manipulation in plants is to collect the necessary data of elite material through doubled-haploid and speed-breeding methods related to genes involved in different abiotic stresses including drought as well as biotic stress, the availability of computing power and novel algorithms (Jeon et al., 2023). Plant breeders target for developing drought tolerant crops using genetic modification (Yang et al., 2010; Mwadzigeni et al., 2016). Recently, CRISPR-Cas is also being used as a tool for genome editing, which enables altering of genes directly in crop plants without permanently introducing foreign genetic material (Wang and Doudna, 2023). Most of the breeding and genome editing work is targeting commercial traits, crops and cropping systems for improving food security in developed countries (Pixley et al., 2022; Marks et al., 2023). Hence, transgenics are based upon the transfer of desired genes and conferring better traits in plants for the better resistance towards water deficit stress (Ashraf, 2010; Rabara et al., 2014). Transgenics works wonder as it is based on modifying either single or group of desired genes as compared to conventional breeding techniques (Gosal et al., 2009; Manepalli et al. 2022). Several techniques used for genetic manipulation for producing drought tolerant crops includes quantitative trait locus (QTL) mapping, marker-assisted breeding, and introgression from wild gene pool (Gupta et al., 2017; Bhatta et al., 2018; Przewieslik-Allen et al., 2019; Vala et al., 2023; Bhanbhro et al., 2024).

However, drought tolerance in plants is a complex quantitative polygenic trait and is regulated by a number of genes; therefore, the molecular or physiological basis of drought tolerance is difficult to understand (Hu and Xiong, 2014; Senapati et al., 2018). In addition, success rate of transgenic development is limited because the process requires skill to efficiently incorporate the genes. Moreover, the success of transgenics is also dependent upon the physiological effects of foreign gene after incorporation. The major pathways that could be targeted for improving drought tolerance include modulating the expression of stress responsive gene, activation of distinct stress-response pathways in plants, synthesis of various synergistic or antagonistic signaling molecules, stress hormones, ABA synthesis, and transcription factors (Suzuki et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2020; Osakabe et al., 2020; Manepalli et al., 2022). For instance, ABA signaling and osmotic stress signal transduction activated SnRK2 kinase, it regulated the activity of transcription factor and ion channels through phosphorylation resulting in expression of genes regulating stomatal closure (Takahashi et al., 2020). Certain genes were inserted within plant genome to produce transgenics with better production of organic acids, phosphatases, better P uptake and translocation, and carbohydrate utilization within the plant (Koyama et al., 2000). However, the major drawback associated with increasing the gene expression of stress responsive genes includes slower plant growth, which hinders the application of transgenics (Hussain et al., 2018).

Table 3 enlists various transgenic crops developed through genetic engineering to mitigate abiotic stresses. The overexpression of OsNAC45 gene in *Oryza sativa* improved tolerance to drought and salt stress (Yu et al., 2018). Additionally, it reduced the accumulation of ROS and increased lignin levels in the roots, and contributed to normal seedling root development under stress conditions. Significantly increased expression of transcription factor WRKY8 and stress responsive genes SIAREB, SIDREB2A and SIRD29 in tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*) conferred resistance to the drought, salt stress and pathogen (Gao et al., 2019).

Cross talk between QTL, their interactions and cloning reveal the molecular basis of genes conferring stress tolerance (Nakashima et al.,

**Table 3**  
Development of transgenic crops having improved tolerance to drought stress.

Transgenic Plants	Gene transferred	Abiotic stress tolerance	Mechanism involved	References
Wheat	Aquaporin gene <i>TdPIP2;1</i>	Drought and salt stress tolerance	Induction of antioxidative enzymes catalase and superoxide dismutase	Ayadi et al., 2019
	TF <i>TaWRKY31</i>	Drought stress tolerance	Activation of stress responsive genes and antioxidant activities	Ge et al., 2024
	R2R3 MYB gene, <i>TaMpc1-D4</i>	Drought stress tolerance	Negatively regulates drought tolerance	Le et al., 2020
	<i>TaVQ4-D</i>	Drought stress tolerance	Upregulation of reactive oxygen species-scavenging-related genes and stress related genes	Zhang et al., 2023
Rice	<i>CcCDR</i>	Drought, salt and cold stress	Higher leaf chlorophyll content, proline, reducing sugars, CAT, and SOD activities	Sunitha et al., 2017
	<i>OsMYB6</i> ; a MYB family gene	Drought and salinity stress	Higher proline content, higher CAT and SOD activities, lower REL and MDA content	Tang et al., 2019
	<i>CdCIPK21</i>	Drought and salt tolerance	Altered ABA sensitivity, antioxidant, proline accumulation and expression of ABA-dependent and ABA-independent stress responsive genes	Liu et al., 2023
Maize	<i>ZeEREB24</i>	Drought stress tolerance	Modulation the expression of drought stress genes	Ren et al., 2024
Tobacco	<i>TaMYB20</i>	Drought stress tolerance	Upregulation of auxin-related genes expression, improving root system architecture, maintenance of ROS balance, lower ion leakage and high relative water content	Azab et al., 2024
	<i>MaNCED1</i>	Drought and salt stress tolerance	Expression of auxin and ethylene signal pathway-related gene	Zhu et al., 2023
Chick pea	Aquaporins	Drought stress tolerance	Enhanced water permeability of vacuolar and plasma membrane	Azeem et al., 2019
Faba bean	<i>PR10a</i>	Drought stress tolerance	Synthesis and accumulation of osmolytes	Hanafy et al., 2013

(continued on next page)

**Table 3 (continued)**

Transgenic Plants	Gene transferred	Abiotic stress tolerance	Mechanism involved	References
Mung bean	<i>codA</i> gene	Drought and salt stress tolerance	encodes for osmoprotectant glycine betaine	Baloda et al., 2017
	<i>VrbZIP</i>	Drought stress tolerance	Drought-responsive gene	Wang et al., 2018
Alfalfa	<i>MicroRNA 156</i>	Drought stress tolerance	SPL13 silencing	Arshad et al., 2017
	<i>AtEDT1</i>	Confers drought tolerance	Reduced membrane permeability and MDA content, higher soluble sugar and proline content, higher SOD, enhanced expression of drought-responsive genes	Zheng et al., 2017
Cowpea	<i>GsZFP1</i>	Confers drought and salt tolerance	Induction of stress-responsive marker gene	Tang et al., 2013
	<i>HaHB11</i>	Confers tolerance to water deficit and salinity	Morphological, physiological, and molecular changes	Cabello et al., 2017
Common bean	<i>DREB2</i>	Drought tolerance	ABA signaling pathway	Cortes et al., 2012
	<i>WRKY20</i>	Drought tolerance	Higher antioxidant enzyme activities and more free proline content	Ning et al., 2017
Soybean	<i>PgTIP1</i>	Drought and salt stress tolerance	Maintain homeostasis of water, salt ions and ROS	Van et al., 2018
	<i>GmRACK1</i>	Drought and salt tolerance	Antioxidative enzymes activities	Li et al., 2018
Sweet potato	<i>GmWRKY54</i>	Drought tolerance	Activating genes in abscisic acid and $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ signaling pathways	Wei et al., 2019
	<i>miR166 ATHB14-LIKE</i>	Drought tolerance	Expression of ABA signaling pathway	Zhao et al., 2024
Tomato	<i>IbCBF3</i>	Drought and low temperature stress	Regulation of stress-responsive genes	Jin et al., 2017
	<i>NHX1 and eF4A1</i>	Drought tolerance	Antioxidative enzymes activities and proline content	Zhang et al., 2019
Groundnut	<i>SlbHLH22</i>	Drought and salt stress tolerance	helix-loop-helix transcription factor	Waseem et al., 2019
Groundnut	<i>AtHDG11</i>	Drought and salt stress	Up-regulation of stress responsive genes, antioxidant enzymes, free proline	Banavath et al., 2018

**Table 3 (continued)**

Transgenic Plants	Gene transferred	Abiotic stress tolerance	Mechanism involved	References
Apple	<i>MuWRKY3</i>	Drought tolerance	Transcription factor	Kiranmai et al., 2018
	<i>MsDREB6.2</i>	Drought tolerance	Results in cytokinin-deficient developmental phenotypes	Liao et al., 2017
Arabidopsis	<i>MpSnRK2.10</i>	Drought stress tolerance	Induction of stress responsive genes, enhancement of ABA signal transduction	Shao et al., 2019
	<i>MdATG10</i>	Drought tolerance	Regulating stomatal movement and enhancing autophagic activity	Xiang et al., 2024
Arabidopsis	<i>GmBIN2</i>	Drought and salt tolerance	Glycogen synthase kinase 3 gene	Wang et al., 2018
	<i>GmCaM4</i> and transcription factor, MYB2	Drought tolerance	Upregulate several drought-responsive genes	Yoo et al., 2005
OsNAM	<i>VfPIP1</i>	Improves drought resistance	Aquaporin/water transport	Cui et al., 2008
	<i>MePP2C24</i>	Conferred stress tolerance	Phytohormone regulation and fostering plant-rhizobacterium interaction	Tiwari et al., 2021
Soybean	<i>GmNAC19</i>	Drought stress and abscisic acid response	ABA signaling pathway	Zeng et al., 2024
		Drought stress tolerance	Regulation of soluble protein, soluble sugar, proline and MDA and activities of antioxidant enzymes i.e., SOD, APX and CAT	Cui et al., 2024

2014; Medina et al., 2016). In order to develop crop cultivars with better stress resistance, the related transcription factors need to be identified, which can regulate the crop's phenotypes (Reynolds et al., 2015). Genetically modified plants demonstrated better resistance towards different environmental stress conditions compared to other plants (Shah et al., 2016; Nejat and Mantri, 2017). For instance, one of the plant specific transcription factor is *AP2/ERFBP* group, which is involved in stress response and related to plant growth improvement (Riechmann and Meyerowitz, 1998; Licausi et al., 2010). This group of transcription factors is divided into 4 different sub-groups based upon numbers and their similarity, and includes *ERF*, *AP2* (*Apetala 2*), *DREB* or dehydration-responsive element binding protein and *RAV* related to *AB13/VP1*. Among these 4 subgroups, *DREB* and *ERF* are the major groups responsible for biotic and abiotic stress response (Sharoni et al., 2010). *DREB* transcription factor functions in stress response to water limiting and cold stress conditions (Stockinger et al., 1997). Such transcription factors have been closely examined in various plant species such as rice, wheat, maize, barley, soybean, tomato, and *Arabidopsis* (Lata and Prasad, 2011; Mizoi et al., 2012). Moreover, *DREB1* genes have been inserted in other crops to develop transgenic crops with better stress resistance (Dubouzet et al., 2003; Qin et al., 2004). Transcription factor *DREB1* was also inserted in tobacco for increasing the tolerance to drought- and low-temperature stress (Kasuga et al., 2004) and *DREB1*

was upregulated in transgenic *Arabidopsis*, which showed better resistance towards salinity, cold and drought stress (Gilmour et al., 1998; Jaglo-Ottosen et al., 1998). Similarly, *DREB2* is reported to confer resistance to salinity, drought, and high temperature stress (Sakuma et al., 2002; Lucas et al., 2011). Transgenic rice was developed by over expressing the *OsDREB2A* gene, which provided resistance against drought and salinity (Mallikarjuna et al., 2011).

*ERF* is another larger subgroup of *AP2/EREBP* transcription factors (Dietz et al., 2010), which controls the stress tolerance genes in plants (Hao et al., 1998). In transgenic plants, *ERF* genes are over-expressed to increase the plant's tolerance to stress (Xu et al., 2008). *ERF* transcription factors also regulate the biosynthesis pathways of hormones in plants (Liang et al., 2008). Transgenic apple and tomato were developed with the addition of *MdMYB121* from apple to increase drought and salt tolerance (Cao et al., 2013). Similarly, transgenic tobacco and apple acquired *MdSIMYB1* gene from apple, which induced resistance in plants against drought, cold and salinity (Wang et al., 2014). In another study, transgenic wheat contained gene *TaPIMP1*, which conferred resistance against pathogen *Bipolaris sorokiniana*, in addition to drought (Zhang et al., 2012). Transgenic tobacco could withstand the infestation of *Ralstonia solanacearum* and abiotic stresses like salinity and drought due to the presence of *TaPIMP1* transcription factor (Liu et al., 2011).

The cultivation of rice (a high water demanding crop) is severely impacted by various abiotic and biotic stresses. Transgenic aromatic rice i.e., Pusa Sugandhi 2 was developed, which showed hyper expression of *AtDREB1A* and *OsRab16A* genes resulting in enhanced drought tolerance, leaf RWC, proline, and CAT levels and increased shoot and root lengths (Ganguly et al., 2020). In another study, drought resistance in rice was induced due to the expression of *OsNADK1* gene, which is localized in cytosol (Wang et al., 2020). This gene was involved in maintaining redox balance intracellularly in rice dwarf mutant. Another strategy for increased stress tolerance is due to increased production of cuticular wax. The transgenic rapeseed produced more cuticular wax induced by the overexpression of *BnCER1-2* and *BnKCS1-2* (orthologs of ECERIFERUM), *BnKCS1-1* (ortholog of 3-ketoacyl-CoA synthase). Moreover, transgenic rapeseed showed reduced water loss and increased tolerance to drought stress (Wang et al., 2020). Further, overexpression of such genes resulted in more dense wax crystals on leaf surface compared to wild type plants (Wang et al., 2020). Similarly, drought resistant transgenic cotton and *Arabidopsis* contained overexpressing gene *GbWRKY1* (Luo et al., 2020). The later gene acted as negative regulator of salinity and drought tolerance. Transcription factor R2R3-type MYB in wheat induced tolerance to multiple abiotic stresses (Li et al., 2020). Crops like soybean and maize were genetically modified for increasing drought tolerance (Li et al., 2018; Wei et al., 2019; Ren et al., 2024).

In some cases, drought resistance is mediated by the accumulation of proline in plant cells, therefore transgenic plant varieties showed more proline accumulation in wheat (Sawahel and Hassan, 2002), potato (*Solanum tuberosum*) (Hmida-Sayari et al., 2005), and tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*) (Kishor et al., 1995). The pathway responsible for proline synthesis includes the production of semialdehyde after the reduction of glutamate in the presence of enzyme P5CS, followed by reduction to produce proline. Enzyme P5CS is a rate limiting enzyme and is regulated by feedback inhibition (Zhang et al., 1995). Therefore, an attempt was made by Vendruscolo et al. (2007) to transform cDNA of gene responsible for P5CS synthesis of *Vigna aconitifolia* under inducible AIPC promoter via biolistics transformation method. Transgenic wheat depicted enhanced tolerance to water limitation conditions due to reduced MDA levels. Moreover, transgenic wheat had 50 % intact cellular membrane compared to 13 % in wild type wheat when exposed to water limitation for 14 days at booting stage. Transgenic lines of T2 generation containing *P5CS* gene when exposed to 8 days of water stress showed 18.5 times more proline accumulation compared to non-transgenic plants (Pavei et al., 2016). However, MDA levels were not reduced in such transgenics; hence there was no protection to cell membrane against

oxidative stress. Yang et al. (2021) reported over expression of *OE-SpP5CS* leading to increased proline levels in transgenic *Arabidopsis* during drought stress. Similarly, proline levels were increased due to overexpression of *PagP5CS1* gene in poplar plant under drought stress conditions (Ren et al., 2023). In potato, *P5CS* gene mediated tolerance against drought stress (Li et al., 2014).

Certain transgenics were developed by inserting the genes related to the biosynthesis of betaine and glycine; for instance, *COD*, *CDH*, *betA* and *BADH* (Sakamoto and Murata, 2000; Wang et al., 2010; He et al., 2011). Gene *BADH* from *Atriplex hortensis* was transferred to wheat to induce betaine aldehyde dehydrogenase activity (Guo et al., 2000). Similarly, transgenic T6 wheat line was developed by inserting the *BADH* gene from *Atriplex hortensis*, which regulated under ubiquitin promoter from maize via microprojectile bombardment method (Wang et al., 2010). Transgenic plants depicted higher levels of glycine and betaine, along with increased photosynthesis rate due to better water status and antioxidant activity. This was evident from osmotic stress exposed (-1.88 MPa, 30 % PEG) transgenic and wild type Shi 4185. The same observation was recorded in transgenic wheat (T6 line) when exposed to water stress i.e., 78–82 % relative water content (Wang et al., 2010). He et al. (2011) developed transgenic wheat by inserting choline dehydrogenase encoding *betA* gene under maize ubiquitin promoter. When such plants were exposed to drought stress or 12–14 % RWC, they depicted less injury in addition to better root length and biomass due to enhanced levels of osmoprotectants glycine and betaine.

Enhanced photosynthesis rate and ROS scavenging activity were reported in some transgenic plants for increased tolerance to different abiotic stresses. This tolerance was mediated by transfer of *mtlD* gene from *Escherichia coli*, which was inserted in crops such as tobacco (Tarczynski et al., 1992; Karakas et al., 1997), rice (Pujni et al., 2007), *Arabidopsis* (Thomas et al., 1995) and peanut (Saxena et al., 2013; Bhause et al., 2014). Transformation of wheat with the *mtlD* gene of *E. coli* induced the accumulation of mannitol though the wild wheat does not accumulate mannitol (Abebe et al., 2003). Another transgenic wheat line containing *SeCspA* and *SeCspB* from *E. coli* was developed by Yu et al. (2017). Transgenic wheat harbouring *SeCspA* depicted less wilting and reduced MDA levels, produced more proline and chlorophyll content, reduced water loss and more grain weight and yield compared to wild type. The expression of *A4-rolB* in the transformed cell cultures of *Arabidopsis* disturbed the homeostasis of numerous proteins involved in primary metabolism, phytohormone, chaperone and ROS signalling (Veremeichik et al. 2016; Bulgakov et al. 2018). Veremeichik et al. (2022) investigated the overexpression of *A4-rolB* gene from the pRiA4 of *Rhizobium rhizogenes*, which modulated two important processes, flavonoid biosynthesis and drought tolerance. In addition, the constitutive overexpression of *A4-rolB* activated the SA signaling system. An increase in flavonol accumulation and enhanced drought tolerance can be explained by the cooperative action of SA and ROS pathways.

In another study, over expression of *GhTPPA2* in tobacco resulted in enhanced TPPase activity (by 66 %), and sugar and starch content by 39 % and 27 %, respectively (Wei et al. 2024). Transgenic tobacco showed better growth under 100 mM mannitol stress, which could be attributed to metabolism of phosphate and carbohydrate, and photosynthesis. Further, *GhTPPA\_2* induced soluble sugar accumulation, sugar metabolism and improved crop yield, which resulted in enhanced tolerance against drought stress. Transgenic wheat when exposed to drought, produced more anthocyanin and ABA, and showed greater drought tolerance compared to wild type. Enhanced leaf water content, antioxidant activity, soluble sugar and chlorophyll content, ABA levels and enzymes related abscisic acid signalling and anthocyanin content in wheat were reported by expression of *BnMYBL2-1* gene from *Brassica napus* (Gao et al., 2024). Gene *ChaWRKY40* enhanced drought tolerance of 'dawei' hazelnuts by positively regulating proline synthesis (Zhang et al., 2024). Increasing PEG-6000 concentration increased the expression of *ChaWRKY40* and *ChaP5CS*, which in turn increased the electrolyte leakage, and proline content. These studies suggested that

transgenics may improve physiological and molecular traits, which could improve drought stress tolerance in plants.

Another strategy involves the development of transgenic plants for higher drought tolerance by improving water utilization efficiency (WUE) leading to improved crop yields under drought stress. For instance, transgenic maize seedling exhibited enhanced survival rates due to better water utilization achieved by increasing the gene expression of ZmVPP1, ZmTIP1, and ZmSRO1d (Wang et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2020; Gao et al., 2022). Moreover, the maize kernel yield was increased under drought conditions due to the overexpression of rice trehalose-6-phosphate phosphatae (TPP) (Nuccio et al., 2015), ZmSRO1d (Gao et al., 2022), ZmVPP1 (Wang et al., 2016), and ZmASR1 (Virlouvet et al., 2011). Under drought conditions, the expression of drought-inducible ZmEXPA4 gene decreased anthesis and silking interval (ASI) compared to wild type maize plant (Liu et al., 2021). An association study using a natural-variation population of maize revealed a significant relationship between the level of  $\alpha$ -expansin4 (ZmEXPA4) expression and drought-induced increases in ASI. Furthermore, genetic manipulation of ZmEXPA4 expression using a drought-inducible promoter in developing maize ears reduced the ASI under drought conditions. Overexpression of expansin gene TaEXPA2 in transgenic wheat (Yang et al., 2020), ABA receptor gene TaPYL1-1B in wheat (Mao et al., 2022a), a NAC transcription factor TaNAC071-A in wheat (Mao et al., 2022b) or TaWRKY46 in transgenic wheat (Yu and Zhang, 2022) increased WUE and survival rates under drought stress compared to wild type plants. It has been reported that the wheat genes TaPYL1-1B and TaNAC071-A increased grain yield via increasing WUE (Mao et al., 2022a, b). Under drought stress, overexpression of MYB family gene, OsMYB6 (Tang et al., 2019), enhanced trehalose biosynthesis gene OsTPSP (Joshi et al., 2020), OsNAC14 (Shim et al., 2018), SiMYB56 involved in lignin biosynthesis and ABA signaling pathway (Xu et al., 2020), Osipa1 involved in activating ABA pathway (Zhu et al., 2022) improved WUE and increased survival rates compared to wild type rice plants. Transgenic rice plants having overexpression of OsTPSP (Joshi et al., 2020), OsNAC14 (Shim et al., 2018) or OsHYR (Ambavaram et al., 2014) genes showed higher grain yields than wild type plants under drought stress.

## 6. Regulatory challenges of implementing bioengineered crops and their economic and ethical implications

With the advent of advanced biotechnological tools, agriculture sector has seen a great boost in crop production via GM crops. The United States is a global leader and possesses 30 % of the whole market share of GM crops. Another largest GM cultivator is Canada, which accounts for 6 % of total global market share. However, use of genetic engineering technologies and GM crops in intensive agriculture practices for food production has potential health and environmental risks. These genetically transformed crops may have either positive or negative environmental impact depending on how and where they are used. Genetic engineering may either accelerate the damaging effects of agriculture or contribute to more sustainable agricultural practices and the conservation of natural resources. The main food safety concerns associated with transgenic products and foods derived from them relate to the possibility of increased allergens, toxins or other harmful compounds; horizontal gene transfer particularly of antibiotic-resistant genes and other unintended effects. Therefore, risk associated with such genetic engineering technologies must be evaluated and managed for the safe implementation (Aven, 2016; Glick, 2020).

Each country has their own set of regulations for the production, commercialization and trading of GM crops. For instance, three agencies are involved in the approval and evaluation of novel GM crops including the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) and Food and Drug Administration (FDA). However, the concerns for GM crops remain the same around the globe and should be strictly assessed for their potential risks (Podevin et al.,

2013). For instance, GM crops based on site directed nucleases (SDNs) mutagenesis (Tzfira et al., 2012; Podevin et al., 2013), especially SDN-1, are excluded from the GM regulations in various countries like South Africa, Germany, Argentina, Canada, Netherlands, Japan, and Australia. On the other hand, SDN-2 based GM crops are excluded from GM regulation in Germany in the EU, while SDN-3 based crops are enforced with GM regulations (McHughen, 2016).

Cultivation of GM crops and consumption of their products have been a debatable issue for their safety issues and long-term consequences on environment. Another concern regarding their safety is gene transfer to wild relatives or conventional crops, trait effects on non-target species and genetic modification over the time, which could potentially have direct effects including gene transfer and other unintended effects and may disturb environment and human health. In addition, transgenic crops may also entail positive or negative indirect environmental effects through changes in agricultural practices such as pesticide and herbicide use and cropping patterns. Therefore, environmental impacts need to be assessed on a case-by-case basis and post-release ecological monitoring is recommended to detect any unexpected events. Thus, it becomes essential to implement strict risk assessment and monitoring protocols for regular evaluation of potential risk of GM crops. Therefore, a regulatory body must assess ecological risk, gene flow and development of secondary pest resistance (Craig et al., 2008).

Several misconceptions are being circulated among public in recent past about consumption of GM crop products, which make people reluctant to adopt genetically engineered crop or products in different parts of world. Fortunately, currently available transgenic crops and foods derived from them have been found safe to eat and no verifiable untoward toxic or nutritionally deleterious effects have been reported from the consumption of foods obtained from GM crops (mainly maize, soybean and oilseed rape) anywhere in the world. Another issue regarding regulatory frameworks related to GM crops is time consuming, and expensive, which hinders the small traditional seed producing firms to enter the market (Tait, 2007). Since GM crops are entitled to different regulations depending upon their cultivation, import, export and consumption as food and feed (Eckerstorfer et al., 2019). Moreover, several international environmental non-governmental organizations have been active in campaigning against GM products, which caused poor public acceptance (Paarlberg, 2014). Therefore, regulatory framework must be standardized around the globe for the easy approvals of genetically engineered drought resistant crops, which will lead to increased acceptance by farmers. Moreover, their cultivation and consumption must be analyzed with strict consideration related to their governance and socio-economic impact to fully utilize their potential. In addition, policy makers must enforce clear regulations through transparent communications with public, public awareness programs and equitable access to technology to facilitate the smooth flow of genetically engineered crops in market. Furthermore, initiatives for technology transfer and capacity building is needed to promote cultivation of genetically engineered drought resistant crops irrespective of socio-economic disparities for promoting sustainable agriculture development.

## 7. Conclusions

With sudden changes in climate and increasing food demand by ever-growing global population, efficient and advanced cultivation techniques are needed to sustain food security under environmental stress conditions. Drought is one of the major threats to crop production, which adversely affect plant growth and crop yield. Application of drought-tolerant beneficial PGPMs as bioinoculants is a cost-effective sustainable option for inducing tolerance in farmer's field leading to increases in plant growth and crop yield under drought stress. These plant beneficial microbes employ various strategies including production of EPSs, phytohormones, osmolytes, VOCs and antioxidant

enzymes, and induce expression of drought responsive genes. Therefore, a better understanding of the physiological reactions of the beneficial soil microbiome is needed to predict effects of climate change on microbial community in soil and its functioning, which could be used to alleviate the effects of climate change by giving essential feedback to ecosystem health (Azeem et al., 2022; Bittencourt et al., 2023). Thus, soil microbial communities can be managed for monitoring, adaptation, and stress mitigation despite climate change's pragmatic uncertainties. A deeper awareness of changing climate effects on soil microbes' biogeochemical processes is further needed to make more accurate estimates of climate change for addressing future soil degradation and impact on food production. Genetic manipulation of soil microbiomes and host plants alongwith development of drought-tolerant transgenic crops also have great potential for supporting sustainable agriculture by reducing the competition from native microorganisms and increasing plant adaptation to drought stress. Engineered microbiomes may outcompete the traditional bioinoculants in enhancing plant stress tolerance and plant growth. However, the research in this aspect is still in infancy stage and associated with several hindrances. For instance, inconsistent results of engineered microbiomes in fields, limited knowledge of plant microbiome functioning under *in vivo* system, lack of appropriate method for preservation and application of microbiota, and complex plant-microbe-environmental interactions in soil are few limitations. However, plant associated microorganisms and their biengineering using synthetic biology approach may help in developing drought resilient plant system to harness more benefits in sustainable agriculture systems.

## 8. Future directions

Drought and other abiotic stresses to plants have been a global phenomenon since ancient times and have silently become a chronic problem. The evidences presented herein highlight the profound influence of drought stress on crop growth, in shaping the composition of root microbial communities and the intricate interplay between crops and microorganisms in drought-prone environments. We have systematically elucidated the underlying mechanisms governing how microorganisms can ameliorate the adverse effects of drought stress on crops. Nevertheless, a substantial research gap exists in the characterization of root exudates across diverse crop species. Given the pivotal role of root exudates in modulating root microbial communities, the application of exudates holds significant promise for mitigating the adverse effects of drought stress on crop growth. Hence, sustained efforts are required to characterize and quantify root exudates under drought stress conditions. Furthermore, a deeper exploration of distinct root or rhizobacterial microbes could enhance our understanding of their interconnectedness and their potential to fortify crops against drought stress. However, the research into the efficiency of drought-tolerant microbes as inoculants under drought conditions is limited.

In addition, due to the multigenic nature of stress tolerance and the long time required in these approaches, traditional breeding approaches to improve drought tolerance have largely failed. The molecular techniques have been developed over the last few decades to understand the mechanisms governing drought stress tolerance at the gene-level, which improved water utilization efficiency leading to improved crop yields under drought stress. The discovery of miRNAs regulating gene expression, post-translational modifications of proteins to accommodate more complex functions for the same set of gene(s) and the development of new CRISPR-based tools and modifications, has proved to be critical points in the understanding of drought and abiotic stress tolerance. Nevertheless, the application of beneficial drought adaptive microbes to crops could be a sustainable solution enabling plants to withstand stress conditions, paving the way for improved soil health, fertility and crop yields. Thus, considerable future research is required to identify efficient microbial strains as potential field bioinoculants with longer shelf-life and survival ability for promoting sustainable food production in arid

areas while bolstering environmental friendliness and agricultural sustainability.

## Credit authorship contribution statement

**Satish Kumar:** Resources analysis, Data curation, Original draft preparation, Investigation, Figures designing.

**Satyavir S. Sindhu:** Conceptualization, Supervision, Formal analysis, Reviewing and Editing.

## Authors' contributions

Both authors have equal contribution in compilation of this review chapter. Both authors have read and approved the final manuscript.

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## Availability of data and materials

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Not applicable. This is the review chapter and no data/figure has been copied or taken from any published article.

## Availability of data and materials

Data reported in the review chapter include information compiled from different published articles. The minimal dataset used for interpretation has been compiled from the information of the findings reported in the different articles. All the articles have been included in the References section.

## Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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