



## Arbuscular Mycorrhiza-Induced Drought Stress Mitigation on Savanna Species

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### Abstract

In many arid and semi-arid regions, drought stress continues to be the primary factor limiting crop and ecosystem productivity, highlighting the implications of climate change. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) are a flexible group that forms plant–fungal symbiotic relationships that mitigate the effects of drought stress. Developing innovative management techniques to lessen the negative consequences of drought stress is imperative in order to improve ecosystem health and food security. By causing oxidative stress, altering membrane integrity, plant water relations, nutrient uptake, photosynthetic activity, photosynthetic apparatus, and anti-oxidant activities, drought stress dramatically affects plant growth and development. Plant resistance to drought stress can be considerably increased using AMF. AMF helps plants thrive under drought stress by preserving membrane integrity and enhancing plant water levels, nutrient and water uptake, and water-use efficiency (WUE). AMF also lessens the buildup of reactive oxygen species (ROS) by boosting antioxidant activities and gene expression that give plants resistance against drought-induced oxidative stress. It also enhances photosynthetic efficiency, osmolytes, phenols, and hormone accumulation. This review discussed the various roles that AMF plays in the various ways that plants react to drought stress. We have given a thorough overview of the various pathways that AMF mediates to help plants develop drought resistance.

**Keywords:** Drought stress, Arbuscular mycorrhiza, Biochemical, morphological, physiological mechanisms.

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### Introduction

In addition to providing food for humans and other animals and serving as the primary source of solar energy and organic carbon in ecosystems, plants are essential for maintaining the planet's biodiversity and regulating the climate (Prajapati *et al.*, 2023). In the current context of anthropogenic global warming, forest and cultivated plants must adapt to the new conditions or perish (Kijowska-Oberc, *et al.*, 2020). To meet these challenges, plants have evolved complex mechanisms that involve a wide range of signaling pathways and interactions with

other organisms, including microbes (Cheng, *et al.*, 2019).

Low soil water supply and high atmospheric water demand are the two main drivers of drought, a complex natural climate phenomenon that can pose serious risks to agricultural productivity and the ecosystem (Madadgar *et al.*, 2017, Zhao *et al.*, 2021). Drought can also cause widespread tree mortality and water shortages (Trugman, *et al.* 2021). Drought is one of the threats that harm the ecosystem that is most widely recognized (Vicente-Serrano, *et al.*, 2020). It happens whenever there is a substantial

rainfall deficit that results to hydrological imbalances and impacts the land's productive processes. Practically all climate areas experience droughts, whether the mean annual rainfall is high or low (Ault, 2020). It may have negative effects on human society, the environment, and agricultural production (Haile *et al.*, 2020). Drought is considered a unique form of natural disaster that differs from others because of its gradual development (Staupe-Delgado and Rubin 2022). According to (Liu *et al.* (2018), a drought tends to start slowly, have long-lasting impacts that gradually worsen, and continue for a considerable amount of time even after it has ended. Between the early 1960s and 1986, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) observed persistent drought events that caused about 900,000 km<sup>2</sup> of former savanna grassland in the region of Africa to be badly decertified (Eze, 2018)). Furthermore, according to Shukla, *et al.*, (2021), one-third of Africans reside in regions that are susceptible to drought. The drought has turned into a recurring occurrence. Drought stress, one of the major abiotic stresses, has a significant impact on crop production and threatens global food security (Begna, 2020). Changes in savanna structure, composition and function as a result of ongoing and future climate change can have major implications for human wellbeing and ecosystem process (Mishra, and Young, 2020). Drought stress profoundly influences arid and semiarid native seed germination, seedling development and establishment in natural habitats (Seleiman, *et al.*, 2021).

Plants cope with drought deficit conditions by acquiring drought avoidance and/or drought tolerance mechanisms, which include morphological, physiological, and biochemical responses (Yang *et al* and Chen, 2021). Water scarcity has a negative impact on many aspects of plant physiology (Seleiman, *et al.*, 2021). For example, it decouples photosynthesis, disrupts enzyme structure, and reduces nutrient uptake and/or transport to the shoot, causing a hormonal and nutritional imbalance in the plant (Liao, *et al.*, 2023). Furthermore, drought stress causes osmotic stress, which can lead to turgor loss,

inhibiting plant growth and development (Ozturk, *et al.*, 2021). Drought stress also causes the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), which causes oxidative damage to carbohydrates, protein synthesis, and lipid metabolism.

Soil drought stress has become the primary limiting factor for plant growth in arid and semi-arid regions due to ongoing climate change (Naorem, *et al.*, 2023). Plant-associated microbes, such as arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF), have the ability to regulate physiological and molecular responses to drought stress, and they have a strong ability to cope with drought-induced oxidative damage via enhanced antioxidant defense systems (Wang, *et al.*, 2023). In arbuscule-containing root cortical cells, AMF causes a short-lived oxidative burst (Kobae, 2019). To scavenge ROS, AMF modulates a fungal network in enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidant defense systems (Zou, *et al.*, 2021).

Plant and fungal metabolites facilitate and guarantee partner recognition, colonization, and the development of the symbiotic association in the myriad interactions that take place in the rhizosphere between plants and their AMF symbionts. This review focuses on the alterations in metabolites that arise from the colonization and establishment of AMF in plants.

### **Methodology.**

Research publications were from the Web of Science, Google, Google Scholar, Science Direct, Springer, Wiley, Springer, and Science. The following keywords were used for searching literature: arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and drought stress or AMF or AMF-induced or AMF inoculation and drought stress/alleviation/tolerance or stress mitigation. Other keywords include physiological mediation, biochemical mediation and morphological mediation.

### **Direct effect of droughts on savanna tree mortality**

Global vegetation is predicted to be significantly impacted by more frequent and severe droughts brought on by climate change (Xu, *et al.*, 2019). Yet, studies conducted so

far have concentrated on how susceptible trees are to aridness in forests, in savannas, where a thin covering of trees coexists with grass, little is known about trees and moisture deficit. Despite being widely distributed throughout the world and making up a substantial portion of tropical land area (Raven, *et al.*, 2020), savannas have gotten significantly less attention than forests in physiological investigations and globally syntheses of drought susceptibility of trees. Predictions about how severely a drought would harm trees are complicated by these tree-grass interactions, which are frequently mediated by fire and herbivory (Case *et al.*, 2019). During drought plants respond physiologically and structurally to prevent excessive water loss according to species-specific water uses strategies which have consequences for carbon uptake by photosynthesis and release by total ecosystem respiration (Li *et al.*, 2020). In savannas, potential effects of drought are uncertain (Sankaran, 2019). Drought is obviously a physiological challenge to savanna trees, with the potential to stunt or even kill them. Regardless of how dry their surroundings are, savanna trees may have limited hydraulic safety margins, much like trees in other biomes (López *et al.*, 2021). Some scholars have suggested that drought has been underestimated as a type of natural episodic disturbance limiting tree populations in these systems (Lloret, and Batllori, 2021). Severe droughts have been shown to cause significant mortality in some cases of savanna trees, both historical and recent (Smit and Bond, 2020). Tree species also differ inherently in their ability to withstand and recover from droughts. Tree mortality during droughts can arise from one or more non-exclusive mechanisms including hydraulic failure and loss of vascular transport capacity as a result of xylem cavitation, carbon starvation as a result of depletion of carbohydrate reserves, and increased susceptibility to herbivore and pathogen attacks (Salmon *et al.*, 2019). Hydraulic failure occurs when droughts are particularly severe, causing the xylem and rhizosphere to cavitate (become filled with air-pockets), impeding water flow and eventually resulting

in desiccation and death (Peters 2019). Trees may limit carbon fixation during less severe but longer-lasting droughts by closing their stomata to prevent hydraulic collapse. This can lead to carbon starvation over time when trees are unable to meet their ongoing metabolic requirement for carbohydrates (Tomasella *et al.*, 2019). The xylem water potentials at which cavitation happens varies depending on the species and is mostly dictated by the anatomical characteristics of the xylem, such as the pit membrane's porosity and the conduits' diameter, length, connectedness, and density (Zhao *et al.*, 2020).

Drought in savannas can have a significant impact on tree survival and inhibit canopy closure. It is becoming more and more crucial to take into account how drought affects the vegetation structure of savannas as future drought severity and frequency are expected to rise (Jones *et al.*, 2022)..

#### **Mycorrhizal fungi-mediated tolerance to Drought**

Eighty to ninety percent of vascular plant species have symbiotic relationships with soil microorganisms known as arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) (Genre *et al.*, 2020). They are widely distributed throughout the world's ecosystems, which are mostly determined by the range of recognized plant hosts (Ma *et al.*, 2023). AMF are categorized as belonging to the three classes (Glomeromycetes, Archaeosporomycetes, and Paraglomeromycetes) in the phylum Glomeromycota and subkingdom Mucoromycota (Lakhdar *et al.*, 2023). AMF comprise around 250 species, 25 genera, and 11 families (Alrajhei *et al.*, 2022). Glomeromycota are obligatory symbionts that depend on their host plants' carbon substrates up to 20% of plant-fixed carbon for survival (Prasad 2023). In exchange, the fungus enhances the availability of water and nutrients, including nitrogen and phosphate, to the host plant via the root-apoplast contact, arbuscules, and extraradical and intraradical hyphae (Diagne *et al.*, 2020). This symbiosis has existed from the earliest land plant emergence, about 600 million years ago, according to molecular and fossil records

(Uwamungu *et al.*, 2022). Most likely the most common beneficial relationship between plants and microbes is the Arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) symbiosis (Noceto *et al.*, 2021). According to many studies, they support several critical ecological processes and are critical for plant nutrition and growth under stress (Wahab *et al.*, 2023).

According to Tedersoo *et al.* (2020) mycorrhizal symbiosis is the formation of a close, primarily mutualistic relationship between mycorrhizal fungus and plant roots. AMF are the most prevalent type of mycorrhizal fungi, found in soils worldwide (Madawala 2021). The plant and the fungus in this symbiosis identify one another through interacting chemical signals (Khalid and Keller 2021). To be more precise, strigolactones released by plant roots promote branching and pre-symbiotic hypha metabolism and are regarded as one of the most important elements in the established (Mitra *et al.*, 2021).

Water scarcity is one of the most serious abiotic pressures threatening ecosystem development and output throughout the world (Gavrilescu 2021). Water stress produces morphological, biochemical, physiological, and molecular changes in plants that reduce output (Kumaret al., 2019). Plants, on the other hand, are frequently connected with microorganisms that can modify plant responses to water scarcity in nature (Zia *et al.*, 2021). AMF are among the most common beneficial microorganisms, colonizing the majority of plants. Aside from improving plant nutrition, AMF has been shown to boost plant performance under water shortages (Begum *et al.*, 2019).

This review aims to provide an overview of the current understanding of AMF relationships with savanna tree species, specifically the mechanisms involved in mediating the impacts of drought on host plants. The biochemical process, the morphological mechanism, and the AMF physiological drought mitigation mechanism.

### **Physiological mediation**

#### *Water status*

Water scarcity in the soil and atmosphere increases stress on vegetation and affects future agricultural productivity and forest

survival, particularly in the face of climate change (Jones *et al.*, 2020). Recent research has revealed soil drying as a main source of global transpiration reduction, which is a more stressful factor than vapor pressure deficit (Liu *et al.*, 2020). The hydraulic conductivities of the various elements (soil, root-soil interface, root, xylem, and leaf) forming the soil-plant continuum influence the leaf water potential (Pou *et al.*, 2022). The leaf water potentials at which stomata close depend on belowground hydraulic properties (root, soil, and their interface) (Abdalla *et al.*, 2022).

Bourbia *et al.* (2021) demonstrated that in both herbaceous and woody species, a decrease in root hydraulic conductivity was associated with stomatal closure. To deal with the loss in conductivity at the root-soil interface, plants evolved a variety of mechanisms (Hallett, *et al.*, 2022).

AMF symbiosis, which occurs naturally between fungal and most plant species, has been shown to improve plant water interactions, particularly in drought-stressed conditions (Madouh, and Quoreshi, 2023). AMF colonization can trigger a variety of physiological responses to drought stress, including stomatal conductance sensitivity, CO<sub>2</sub> absorption, and declines in relative water content; additionally, AMF inoculation is expected to improve leaf water potential (Chandrasekaran *et al.*, 2019).

Water uptake by the roots from the soil and its circulation throughout the plant parts are critical for all physiological developments. Water moves through membranes in a gradient-driven flow, which is regulated and mediated by water channels known as aquaporins (AQPs) (Likhstenshtein and Likhstenshtein, 2021). AQPs are pore-forming integral membrane proteins that belong to the family of major intrinsic proteins (MIPs) and are found in all living cells/organisms, forming huge families in plants. AQPs are classified into five subfamilies based on amino acid sequences: tonoplast intrinsic proteins (TIPs), plasma membrane-intrinsic proteins (PIPs), and NOD26-like intrinsic proteins (NIPs), which were discovered in legume symbiosomes but also exist in the endoplasmic reticulum and plasma

membrane, small basic intrinsic proteins (SIPs) found only in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) of dicot as well as uncharacterized intrinsic proteins (XIPs) found in the plasma membrane (Bahadur *et al.*, 2019). Some PIPs in plant roots show differential expression of genes coding for AQPs in response to AMF and drought stress. According to research, the AM symbiosis modulates the expression of critical AQP genes, as well as the tightly controlled root plant hydration status, hydraulic conductivity, and tolerance to water scarcity (Quiroga *et al.*, 2019). In AM fungal-inoculated tomato plants, an enhancement in the water transport capacity of AMF roots, correlated with overexpression of NIP AQP-encoding gene (LeNIP3;1) (Wang *et al.*, 2023). Conversely, in another study a NIP AQP gene (LjNIP1) was up-regulated specifically in the arbuscule-containing cells in mycorrhizal roots of *Lotus japonicus* (Quiroga, 2020). In contrast, under drought stress, *Funneliformis mosseae* exhibited higher expression levels of root PtTIP1;2, PtTIP1;3, and PtTIP4;1 of *Poncirus trifoliata* L. and lower expression levels of root PtTIP2;1 and PtTIP5;1 (Jia-Dong *et al.*, 2019). It shows that root TIPs genes revealed diverse responses to mycorrhization, representing the multiple roles of AMF in water absorption under water stress.

Plant assimilate production is significantly reduced by drought stress, which also has a negative impact on photosynthesis. Drought stress decreases photosynthesis by rising ROS generation and lowering chlorophyll concentrations (Wahab *et al.*, 2022). Drought stress inhibits the synthesis of RuBisCO and increases the activity of the enzyme chlorophyllase, which degrades chlorophyll, thereby causing a decrease in photosynthesis (Sharma *et al.*, 2020). On the other hand, under drought stress, AMF significantly raised the chlorophyll concentrations and maintained improved RuBisCO synthesis, which resulted in a notable rise in photosynthetic rate (Wahab *et al.*, 2023). With increased stomata conductance brought about by AMF, more CO<sub>2</sub> can enter plant leaf tissues, increasing PS-II efficiency and, ultimately, photosynthetic efficiency under

drought stress (Jajoo, and Mathur, 2021). Higher chlorophyll production under drought stress is maintained by AMF, which significantly reduces chlorophyllase activity while preserving the activity of genes and enzymes involved in chlorophyll synthesis (Begum *et al.*, 2019b).

#### **Morphological mediation.**

Calleja-Cabrera *et al.* (2020), during the initial stages of climatic change, there is a steady reduction in shoot growth and maintenance of root growth, which leads to an increased root/shoot ratio. Osmotic stress and ion toxicity are the results of salt and ion accumulation in the upper soil layers during severe or moderate drought conditions (Zhang *et al.*, 2022). Loose and wrinkled plant cell walls are the result of a decrease in the turgor pressure of plant cells when drought stress increases (Natonik-Białoń *et al.*, 2020). Plants that experience these biophysical consequences eventually lose water content and fresh weight, and their leaves become smaller and fewer in numbers (Bhattacharya and Bhattacharya, 2021). Under mild to moderate drought, roots undergo structural changes and modify their resource allocation (water and nutrients) to minimize dehydration (Seleiman *et al.*, 2021). Research revealed that AMF colonization can modify morphological adaptation to improve the host plant's resistance to drought (Liu *et al.*, 2023). Previous research during drought acclimation of AM rose plants showed reduced cuticle weight and less epicuticular wax in their leaves compared to non-AM plants (Hornstein, 2022). The inclination to abscise leaves would be the reason for the absence of wax in AM roses during drought adaptation. According to Boutasknit *et al.* (2020) mycorrhizal plants recover from wilting more quickly than non-mycorrhizal plants during drought recovery. However, stomatal density and guard cell size were unaffected by AMF inoculation in comparison to non-AMF treatments (Dehkordi *et al.*, 2021). Apart from leaf morphological adaptation, mycorrhization also employs root morphological adaptation as a strategy during drought stress. Under well-watered and drought-stressed conditions, research revealed considerably

greater root total length, projected area, surface area, average diameter, volume, and number of first-, second-, and third-order lateral roots in AMF trifoliolate orange seedlings compared to non-AMF seedlings (Meena *et al.*, 2022).. Additional morphological investigations demonstrated modifications to the palisade's plant vascular architecture, starch storage, and photosynthesis (Liu and Wei, 2021).

The root morphological alterations caused by AMF may be attributed to the control of endogenous polyamine metabolism and phytohormone equilibrium, particularly the activation of root putrescine synthetases through arginine and ornithine decarboxylase as well as root indole-3-acetic acid (IAA) (Karunanantham *et al.*, 2022)..

### **Biochemical mediation**

During the process of AMF symbiosis against drought stress, a variety of signaling molecules, such as ethylene, ABA, cytokinins, salicylic acid (SA), jasmonic acid (JA), and auxin, have the capacity to function as phytohormones under certain circumstances (Gontia-Mishra *et al.*, 2020).

Biochemical signaling molecules are emitted by both symbionts prior to any physical contact, triggering the other to start first reactions (Boyno and Demir, 2022). Strigolactones are a class of carotenoid-based phytohormones that are secreted by plants to regulate several aspects of their development (Boyno *et al.*, 2023). During the pre-contact stage, strigolactones are released into the rhizosphere, where these labile signaling molecules draw AMF to recognize a particular host in their region. When AMF recognize strigolactones, they initiate oxidative metabolism, which improves hyphal branching and growth and leads to physical engagement with host plant roots, ultimately leading to symbiosis (Mitra *et al.*, 2021b).

There are two more pronounced biochemical mechanisms for AMF drought stress mediation. The first process is the direct absorption of water by hyphae and its subsequent transport to the host plant, which increases the water content and scavenges the production of ROS, including superoxide anion radical ( $O_2^{\cdot-}$ ), hydrogen peroxide

( $H_2O_2$ ), hydroxyl radicals ( $\cdot OH$ ), and singlet oxygen ( $^1O_2$ ) (He *et al.*, 2020). In plants, oxidative stress is accompanied by drought stress and arises from the generation of ROS (Sachdev *et al.*, 2021). However, a substantial amount of research indicates that the build-up of ROS under drought stress results in structural damage to proteins, carbohydrates, lipids, and DNA, which eventually results in membrane damage and cell death (Singh *et al.*, 2022).

The second process involves an AMF association-induced increase in the production of both enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidants (Afshari *et al.*, 2022). The function of both enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidant in plants is to control and scavenge ROS. Ascorbate peroxidases (APX), superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase (CAT), glutathione reductase (GR), guaiacol peroxidase (G-POD), and glutathione peroxidase (GPX) are examples of enzymatic antioxidants. Among the non-enzymatic antioxidants include tocopherol, flavonoids, carotenoid, ascorbate (ASC), and glutathione (GSH) (Ho *et al.*, 2020). Increased transcription levels of enzymatic antioxidants and/or components of ascorbate and glutathione biosynthesis have been found to be associated with the influence of AMF symbiosis on antioxidant capacity, indicating the intricate transcriptional regulation of the antioxidant machinery (Zou *et al.*, 2021).

There is still much to learn about the fundamental processes generating the signaling molecules that interact with the plant-fungus interaction. AMF symbiotic plants produce more ABA, a phytohormone known as the "abiotic stress hormone," during droughts in order to deal with the corresponding stresses (Karunanantham *et al.*, 2022). Many investigations have emphasized the mechanistic insights into the increased ABA production in the AMF host plant to provide tolerance against drought stress (Mathur and Roy 2021).

AMF triggers ABA production in response to drought stress, raising ABA levels in plants and encouraging stomatal closure to reduce transpiration water loss (Ilyas *et al.*, 2021).

Since sugar is one of the primary sources of carbon supplied by the plants to the AMF, it

plays a significant regulatory role in the symbiotic relationship between the two organisms (Salmeron-Santiago *et al.*, 2021). From 26–29 days after germination, hexoses, including glucose, were observed in the roots during the AMF colonization. But, the non-mycorrhizal roots showed higher sugar levels than the mycorrhizal roots at 40 days after germination (Gupta *et al.*, 2021). Abiotic stress-stricken plants showed an increase in sugar content, especially when associated with AMF. Sugar and lipid upregulation during water stress were observed in AMF plants, which was in line with the plants' increased biomass (Yadav *et al.*, 2023). Similar sugar accumulations have been observed in plants colonized by AMF under various abiotic stress conditions. Different AMF species may accumulate sugars differently. As an illustration, trifoliolate orange seedlings cultivated in drought had greater levels of sucrose, glucose, and fructose in their leaves when inoculated with *Paraglomus occultum* as opposed to *Funneliformis mosseae* (Posta and Duc, 2020).

As the building blocks of proteins and enzymes, amino acids also serve as signaling molecules and help plants cope with environmental stress (Ali *et al.*, 2019). The AMF spores can use N from the soil to synthesize amino acids, or they can directly extract the amino acids from the soil (Jansa *et al.*, 2019). When compared to non-mycorrhizal plants, arbuscular mycorrhizal plants absorbed more amino acids from the soil (Kaur and Suseela 2020)]. Previous research has shown that AMF colonization in plants can result in an increase, decrease, or no variation in the amount of amino acids present (Kaur and Suseela 2020).

Proline is one of the important osmolytes that plants accumulate to counteract the effects of drought stress. It does this by stimulating the activity of various antioxidant enzymes, such as catalase, peroxidase, and superoxide dismutase, among others. Proline also has a notable ability to bind and hydrate enzymes, which helps to stabilize and protect macromolecules (Bogati and Walczak, 2022)

## Conclusion

Plant morphological, physiological, and biochemical responses are disrupted by drought stress, which results in a significant reduction in plant growth and development. Nonetheless, AMF significantly enhances the growth and development of plants and protects them from the damaging effects of aridness. AMF inoculation preserves the integrity of the membrane and the water status of the plant, guards the photosynthetic apparatus from oxidative stress caused by aridity, and enhances the synthesis of photosynthetic pigments, all of which promote better plant growth and development under drought stress. Plant performance in conditions of water deficiency is significantly improved by AMF, which also enhances the accumulation of osmolytes, hormones, gene expression, and antioxidant activities. AMF-mediated improvements in plant development under DS are mostly due to these and other factors, including increased aquaporin expression, improved water uptake, and increased water usage efficiency.

There are still numerous unsolved concerns regarding the role of AMF in reducing the negative impacts of drought stress, despite recent advancements in this area. Areas of further research may include Identification of AMF species that are more effective in drought stress alleviation, elucidation of the molecular mechanisms underlying AMF-mediated drought stress tolerance in plants and development of AMF-based biofertilizers that can be used to enhance crop productivity under drought stress conditions.

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