



Review on the Impacts of Climate Change on the Plant Water Interactions

Turyasingura B^{1,2*}

¹Department of Environmental Sciences, Faculty of Agriculture and Environmental Sciences, Kabale University, Kabale, Uganda

²Africa Center of Excellence for Climate Smart Agriculture and Biodiversity Conservation, College of Agriculture and Environmental Sciences, Haramaya University, Ethiopia

***Corresponding author:** Department of Environmental Sciences, Kabale University, Faculty of Agriculture and Environmental Sciences, Kabale University, P. O. Box 317, Plot 346, Block 3 Kikungiri, Kabale, Uganda, Email: bentsonturyasingura@gmail.com

Africa Center of Excellence for Climate Smart Agriculture and Biodiversity Conservation, College of Agriculture and Environmental Sciences, Haramaya University, P. O. BOX 138, Dire Dawa, Ethiopia, Email: bentsonturyasingura@gmail.com

Received Date: July 30, 2022; **Published Date:** September 07, 2022

Abstract

Climate change has an impact on ecosystem structure and function globally by altering the relationships between plants and soil organisms. Despite the fact that water is the most plentiful molecule on Earth's surface, water scarcity is the element that most severely limits global terrestrial plant production. Little is known about the climatic factors that drive phenological responses to climate change, and less attention has been paid to the fact that phenology is also responsive to other climatic. The aim of this study was to assess the impacts of climate change on plant water interactions. This study was guided by the specific objectives, which included examining the relationship between climate change and plant function; finding out the impacts of climate change on plant water interactions; and assessing how plants handle water scarcity. It was found that there was a linkage between climate change and plant function. The evaporation of water molecules from the outer surfaces of the mesophyll cells initiates the upward transpiration pull in the leaves, and respiring starches and sugars are created during photosynthetic processes using sunlight energy. Climate change enhanced the most enormous movement of species that has occurred without direct human intervention. It was also found that precipitation was a key driver of phenological changes in desert ecosystems. It was also found that drought was one of the most significant biotic challenges faced by plants, with considerable genetic variation in water deficit responses. There is a need for research on climate change to ease biodiversity conservation.

Keywords: Climate change; Plant water interactions; Plant; Water

Introduction

Climate change has an impact on ecosystem structure and function globally by altering the relationships between plants and soil organisms [1]. Despite the fact that water is the most plentiful molecule on Earth's surface, water scarcity is the element that most severely limits global terrestrial plant production. Many natural ecosystems' production is hampered by a lack of water, especially in arid climates [2,3].

The world's population is expected to grow by one-third between now and 2050 [4-6]. The majority of the additional 2 billion people will live in developing countries, and cities will become increasingly populous. According to the FAO, production will need to increase by 60% by 2050 to meet predicted food and feed demand. As a result, agriculture must adopt climate-smart agriculture practices [7]. Tropical forests support nearly half of all plant and animal species [8], including 96 percent of tree species [9], with the greatest

diversity in areas with the most consistent rainfall.

Hayat, et al. [10] mentioned that the crop yield losses caused by water stress outnumber losses caused by all other biotic and environmental variables combined. The wet tropics, for example, contain luxuriant vegetation because rainfall is plentiful and uniformly dispersed throughout the growth season [11]. According to Lambers, et al. [12,13] forests are replaced by grasslands in areas where summer droughts are regular and severe, such as the Asian steppes and North American plains [14].

According to Warne, et al. [15], as rainfall decreases, semideserts, with scattered vegetation, and finally deserts, emerge. According to Lambers, et al. [12] evaporation and transpiration rates are connected with temperature, the impacts of temperature are partially exerted through water interactions [16]. Thus, understanding the controls over plant water relations and the consequences of an inadequate water supply for plant development is critical if we want to explain natural patterns of productivity or boost productivity in agriculture or forestry [17].

According to the study conducted by Soheli, et al. [18], any ecosystem function, including ecosystem resilience to a changing climate, is dependent on the dynamics of soil water supply and plant water usage. Plant productivity is generally limited by soil moisture according to Umar, et al. [19], hence water supply to plants in dry settings is a concern.

Soheli, et al. [18] added that the response of this plant-water interaction to climate change, such as warming and droughts, has recently been a topic of discussion. Global mean temperatures are expected to climb by 0.3 to 4.8 degrees Celsius by the late twenty-first century, according to observations [20]. As a result, there's a good chance that water stress may worsen in several parts of the planet. For plants to be productive and be less vulnerable to climate change, they must be able to handle water stress in hotter, drier climates. Species diversity, ecological structure, and forest type are all significantly influenced by water availability.

Kleine, et al. [21] mentioned that in dry areas with limited water supplies, some plants with deep roots may swallow water from deep soil or groundwater sources. Through hydraulic lift, deep roots may also contribute to the distribution of water in the top soil layer. This water uptake strategy can be advantageous for plants that need water at the top layer of soil. Some plants employ several water sources throughout the year to reduce water competition and increase plant survival rates during dry spells [22].

According to Mahmood, et al. [23], the reaction of plants to climate change varies depending on the plant species

and developmental stage. Various plants have different species-specific thresholds, and their reactions, such as root elongation, root growth angle disruption, and yield loss, differ between species.

Relationship between Water and Plant Functioning

Lambers, et al. [13] said that water is essential to plant physiology because it plays a critical role in all physiological processes and is required in vast quantities. Nonwoody tissues, such as leaves and roots, contain 70-95 percent water. Water is the primary channel for moving metabolites through cells at the cellular level. Due to its highly polar nature, water dissolves enormous amounts of ions and polar organic molecules like sugars, amino acids, and proteins, which are essential for metabolism and life.

The lignified cell walls of woody tissues provide additional structural support to large plants. Plants that have lost their turgor (wilt) are unable to perform some physiological processes, such as cell growth and, to a lesser extent, photosynthesis. Long durations of wilting usually result in the plant's death [24].

The fact that plants need a lot of water is a second argument for the importance of water relations in plant physiological ecology. Less than 1% of absorbed water is retained in biomass, while plants incorporate more than 90% of absorbed N, P, and K into new tissues and between 0 and 70% of photosynthetically fixed C into new tissues (depending on respiratory carbon demands) (Table 1) [13].

The remainder is due to transpiration, or the evaporation of water from plants. Water use by terrestrial plants is inherently inefficient as a function of photosynthesis. Stomates act as a water loss pathway in addition to allowing CO₂ to enter the leaf [12,13]. Before CO₂ can diffuse to the carboxylation site in the leaf, it first needs to dissolve in water on the moist walls of the mesophyll cells. The moist surface area of mesophyll cells exposed to interior air gaps of the leaf is roughly 7-80 times more than the external leaf area, depending on the species and plant growth conditions.

Resource	Concentration (0/o of fresh mass)	Quantity required (mg g ⁻¹)
Water	90	500000
Carbon	4	40
Nitrogen	0.3	3
Potassium	0.2	2
Phosphorus	0.02	0.2

Table 1: Major constituent concentrations in a hypothetical herbaceous plant, as well as the amount of each constituent that must be taken to generate a gram of dry biomass.

Source: (Lambers et al. p. 190) [13].

Absorption and Conduction of Water

The water potential gradient that occurs in the soil, plant, and air continuum provides the energy to move the water. The flow of water inside the xylem of the root, on the other hand, is almost entirely pressure dependent, with pressure dropping from the root to the stem, leaves, and air (Figure 1).

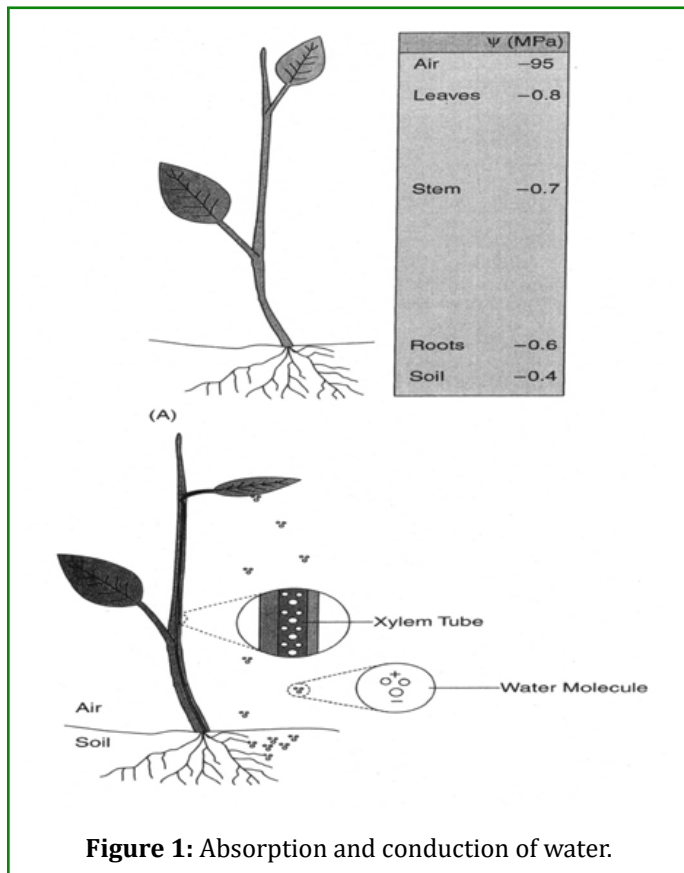


Figure 1: Absorption and conduction of water.

The upward transport of water and dissolved minerals occurs mostly in the xylem, as shown in (Figure 1). Due to transpiration is the principal cause of this upward movement, it is sometimes referred to as the transpiration stream [25]. The evaporation of water molecules from the outer surfaces of the mesophyll cells initiates the upward transpiration pull in the leaves [26].

The concentration of a given element in root cells is 500 to 10,000 times that of the soil solution. If the main mechanism for taking up soil nutrients was diffusion, mineral nutrients would not get into the roots against such a large concentration gradient [27]. Furthermore, ion transport is generally blocked by cell plasma membranes. Energy is required to drive ions against a concentration gradient and through impenetrable barriers. Respiring starches and sugars created during photosynthetic processes provide this energy [28].

Impact of Climate Change on the Plant-Water Interactions

It's problematic to trace environmental changes directly or exclusively to climate change's paraphernalia. When patterns are detected across many species rather than depending on studies of a few specific species, evidence of climate change's ecological implications becomes more convincing [29].

Two well-studied and well-documented general ecological implications of climate change that give a glimpse into the larger issue are climate-induced changes in species ranges and seasonal fluctuations in biological activities (known as phenology) or events. These kinds of changes have been observed across extensive time periods in a wide range of animals and environments [30].

Other broad effects of climate change that affect many ecosystems include changes in growth rates, the relative abundance of various species, processes like water and nutrient cycle, and the risk of disturbance from fire, insects, and invasive species [31].

A) Range shift

Since the beginning of the present interglacial (warm) epoch, climate change has driven the most enormous movement of species that has occurred without direct human intervention [32]. Each species can survive and reproduce in a variety of environments. Species can only exist in places with temperatures, rainfall, and precipitation that they can withstand [33]. The well-planned park, preserve, and refuge system of the United States may not function as intended in another hundred years [34].

B) Seasonal Shifts

According to Change, et al. [35], climate change is also driving changes in phenology. Change, et al. [35] added that many biological events are timed based on seasonal cues, with most of the major ones occurring in the spring and autumn. Many studies looking at changes of the timing of spring events have found that over the last 30 to 40 years, various seasonal behaviors of numerous species now occur 15 to 20 days earlier than several decades ago [36].

The types of changes include earlier arrival of migrant birds, earlier appearance of butterflies, and earlier flowering and budding of plants [37]. Many trees, on the other hand, respond to a later arrival of fall by delaying the date their leaves turn color.

One of the main ways that climate change will impact plant performance is through changes in the availability of water. It is generally known that variations in water availability have

an immediate impact on plant physiology. Decrease in fruits, and seeds may result from reduced plant capacity to sustain turgor and transpiration, to absorb nutrients, and through altered plant-microbial interactions in the soil.

Despite the fact that phenological responses to climate

change being one of greatest visible and known living indicators of climate change in plants [38], there is need to know climatic factors that drive phenological responses to climate change [39], and less attention has been paid to the fact that phenology is also responsive to other climatic [40] (Figure 2).



Figure 2: Phonology in flowering plants by Prev y [41].

Findings from the (Figure 2) above show that precipitation is a key driver of phenological changes in desert ecosystems and this is in line with Prev y [41], and that future changes in precipitation could negate or even reverse the directionality of phenological responses to temperature in water-limited systems like this one.

Why does it Matter How Plants Handle Water Scarcity?

Plants suffer from a lack of water or a suboptimal supply of water. Water deprivation responses in plants are complicated and pleiotropic [42]. A decrease in growth rate results in decreased plant vegetative biomass, particularly in the shoot, which lowers a plant's competitiveness relative to other plants and reduces or limits the plant's reserves that can be remobilized into reproductive tissues, which lowers a plant's competitiveness relative to other plants and decreases or limits the plant's reserves that can be remobilized into reproductive tissues [42].

Drought is one of the most significant abiotic challenges that plants face. According to Ashraf [43], water stress impacts a

variety of morphological and physiological activities in plants to maturity resulting in a significant reduction in agricultural production and productivity [44]. Drought is defined as a shortage of water that results in a loss of yield. Drought in agriculture occurs when the humidity source is insufficient to meet the crop's needs [45].

Some plants, such as those cereals that make up the majority of the human diet, are more sensitive to water deficits that occur during their reproductive development [46]. The plant's fitness and the yield of grain for animals to eat are both harmed by this reproductive sensitivity. Although we have made significant progress in understanding responses to water shortages, we are still far from being fully informed [47]. The following are some of the most common plant reactions to water shortages.

Severity and Timing of Water Deficit Affect Responses

One of the biggest challenges to understanding water-deficit a response comes from the fact that "water deficit" is difficult to define and to control experimentally. The water status of

a plant varies considerably daily and seasonally especially in maize [48].

Furthermore, the rate at which a plant experiences

dehydration determines how it responds. Gradual water loss allows the plant to adjust metabolically and morphologically, and there may be little actual “stress” perceived [49] (Figure 3).

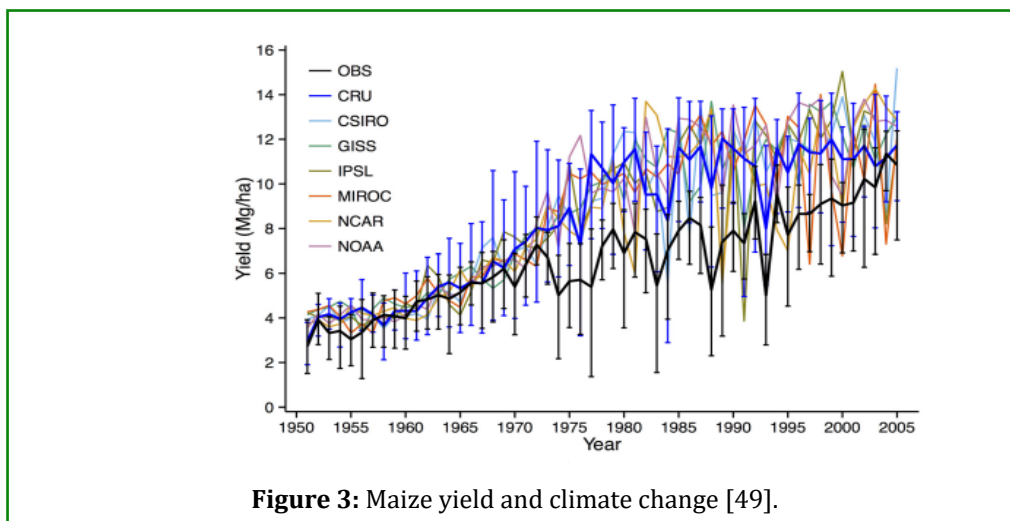


Figure 3: Maize yield and climate change [49].

By contrast, a sudden loss of water (such as that sometimes encountered in controlled environment-grown plants when water is withheld) can cause damage before the plant can initiate protective responses. Furthermore, among and within species there is considerable genetic variation in water deficit responses. Nevertheless, we can recognize that there is a combination of responses commonly observed in most plants.

Water Deficit Signaling

Water deficiency is communicated throughout the plant's body. Shoots of well-watered plants, for example, respond to a water shortage provided solely to the roots [50]. It's suspected that at least two distinct signals are involved.

When a root system is dehydrated, a shift in the xylem's water potential, known as a hydraulic signal, occurs, which is quickly transduced as a physical change throughout the hydraulic system [51]. A self-contained, high-speed electrical system is also planned. The processes for transducing hydraulic and/or electrical impulses downstream are still unknown.

There's also evidence that roots with a lack of water produce the hormone abscisic acid [52], which is transported to the shoot via the xylem. Both hydraulic signals and hormone abscisic acid have been shown to convey water-deficit information. Both contribute to the plant's acclimatization responses (Figure 4), however their respective contributions to various responses are still being debated [53].

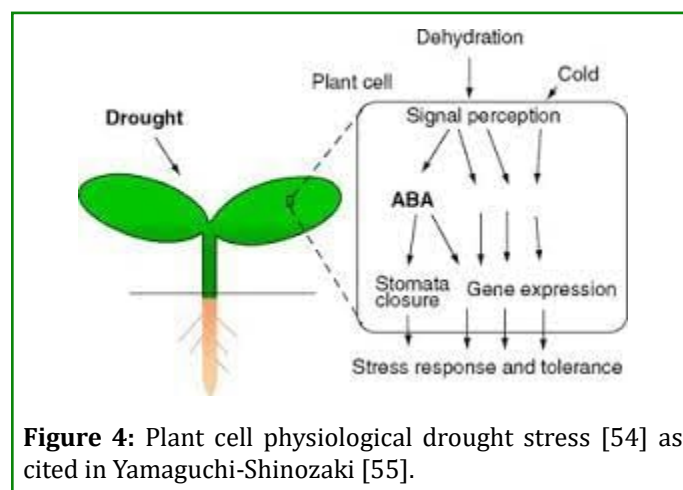


Figure 4: Plant cell physiological drought stress [54] as cited in Yamaguchi-Shinozaki [55].

According to Yamaguchi-Shinozaki [55], perception of the dehydration signal, signal transduction to the cytoplasm and nucleus, gene expression, and responses and tolerance to drought stress are all examples of molecular and cellular responses to drought stress. ABA (Plant Hormone Absciscic Acid) stands for abscisic acid [56].

The most well-known physiological plant reaction is stomata closing in response to water deprivation. Water loss from leaves is reduced when stomata are closed [55]. In diverse plants, accumulation of numerous tiny compounds has been reported. Osmotic adjustment is assumed to be the function of these tiny molecules [57].

Wan, et al. [58] noted that there are several genes that have been found to respond transcriptionally to drought stress.

Their gene products are thought to contribute in stress tolerance and responsiveness (Figure 4). Stress-inducible genes have been used in gene transfer to increase the stress tolerance of plants. Analysis of stress-inducible gene activity is crucial for both improving crop stress resistance through gene manipulation and for a better understanding of the molecular mechanisms of stress tolerance and response in higher plants [59].

Transcriptional Responses to Water Deficit

There is a plethora of effective tools for analyzing transcriptional responses to water deficiency. A few drought-sensitive cDNAs and genes were painstakingly cloned in the early days of plant molecular biology, revealing a collection of common promoter elements responsive to drought and ABA. ABA-responsive and ABA-independent transcription factors that respond to water deprivation have been found using this as a starting point [60].

Genomic technologies like as transcriptomics and proteomics, which provide a more global perspective of the plant's transcriptional and translational responses, have overtaken these early methodologies. The emerging picture is that drought or ABA controls thousands of osmotic regulation, hydraulic conductance, and cellular defense. These genes are regulated by a huge number of transcription factors in several families [61].

Drought Effects on Stomatal Conductance

In addition, the exchange of carbon and water between plants and the atmosphere is regulated by stomata and this protects plants from drying up. A decrease in stomatal conductance is a common and quick response to ABA or water deprivation in most plants [62].

Root-borne signals are not necessary to induce stomatal closure, and the stomatal closure response is tightly associated with leaf water status. A detached leaf, for example, has a far faster stomatal closure reaction than a potted plant deprived of water. In most plants, applying ABA directly to leaf petioles or epidermal strips containing guard cells is enough to seal the stomata.

Guard cells are also sensitive to the turgor and water potential of their surrounding cells, a characteristic that may be especially essential in lycophytes and ferns. Although these non-seed plants' genomes include the genes required for ABA signaling, their guard cells are often less responsive to ABA than seed plants'. There appears to be a developmentally mediated influence on ABA sensitivity; stomata of very young leaves appear to be relatively insensitive to ABA, but with exposure to dry air acquire ABA sensitivity, whereas stomata

of very old leaves become less sensitive to ABA.

Guard cell responses to ABA accumulation have been studied in several model organisms using techniques ranging from electrophysiology to systems biology [63]. ABA activates signaling intermediates, including reactive oxygen species and cytoplasmic calcium, which cause the opening of some membrane localized ion channels.

Potassium and other ions leave the guard cells, and water follows osmotically. This reduces the turgor of the guard cells and causes them to relax near one another, which closes the stomatal pore. Additionally, ABA prevents the reopening of stomatal pores [64].

Drought Effects on Photosynthesis

A reduction in the rate of CO₂ uptake in photosynthesis is another effect of stomatal closure [65]. Stomata rarely close entirely, except in extreme circumstances; instead, as water scarcity increases, the stomatal aperture shrinks.

Importantly, the transition from fully open to partially closed stomata influences transpiration more than CO₂ assimilation during stomatal closure. This happens because CO₂ transport has an extra component (mesophyll resistance of the cell wall, plasma membrane, cytoplasm, chloroplast membranes, and stroma, among other things), whereas water does not face this resistance when it exits the intercellular gaps. Hence, as stomata close, the ratio of the two total resistance networks shifts in favor of increased CO₂ uptake per unit of water loss.

Effects of Water Deficit on Development and Change

Effects on Leaf Growth

The suppression of leaf development or expansion, which happens in both monocots and dicots, is one of the most severe and repeatable impacts of drought. Inhibition of leaf expansion can generate secondary dry impacts, such as a reduction in whole-plant photosynthetic rate and seed production, in addition to being an early sign of water deprivation.

There have been various theories proposed to explain why leaf expansion ceases, and this is still a hot topic of research. This is because leaf expansion arrest occurs at a lower water deficit than photosynthesis arrest, it's doubtful that leaf expansive development is limited by a lack of accessible fixed carbon as an energy source, at least during mild drought.

In reality, multiple investigations have shown that the concentration of sugars rises under certain conditions

during mild drought stress, possibly as a result of reduced cellular growth or as an osmoregulatory response. Perhaps a reduction in leaf development rate confers a fitness benefit, with the result that water use is reduced when this resource becomes scarce.

It also has the potential to redirect energy away from growth and toward drought adaptation processes. Another theory proposes that the cessation of leaf expansion is due to a hydraulic mechanical constraint, either due to a reduction in water input into developing cells or due to the tendency of cell walls to stiffen under stress.

Finally, there is some indication that hormones like ABA, ethylene, and gibberellins have a role in these reactions, but the exact location and mechanism are unknown.

Root Responses to Water Deficit

Because most vascular plants get their water from the earth through their roots, it's not surprising that roots are sensitive to water shortages [66]. Benešová, et al. [67] found that the nature of the response varies depending on the plant and the severity of the drought stress, but common responses include preferential preservation of the primary root's elongation (as a mechanism to reach water deeper in the soil), a more positive gravitropic curvature of roots (toward deeper water), a hydrotropic growth response (toward more abundant water), and a proliferation of lateral roots in the deeper soil zone (under mild deficits).

The persistence of primary root elongation under water deficit, even at water potentials that fully block shoot growth, is one of the well-studied of these responses. ABA is known to play a role in mediating this reaction. This acclamatory reaction is aided by an accumulation of proline and other osmolytes in the elongating cells of the root tip, as well as an increase in the cell wall extensibility of these cells. The rate at which water travels through the root and shoot tissues might be affected by a lack of water.

Water Deficit Effects on Reproductive Development

The reproductive phase of many cereals is particularly susceptible to water shortages [68], and short drought episodes during critical developmental phases can have a significant impact on seed yields [69]. Drought has a significant impact on the formation of the female stigma (the silk) in maize, resulting in a desynchronization of male and female blooming [70].

Furthermore, ovule formation is drought-sensitive, and ovules may abort if the plant runs out of water during this time [71]. Ovule abortion, according to some research, is caused by a lack of carbohydrate nourishment for the growing

seed; ovule abortion can be avoided by feeding sucrose to the stem linked with the developing ear [72].

Pollen formation in rice (*Oryza sativa*) and wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) is very sensitive to water deficit, which may potentially be mediated by carbohydrate constraint [73]. In rice and wheat, the activity of the enzyme invertase (which hydrolyzes sucrose) and sugar transporters has been linked to reproductive resistance to drought stress [74].

The discovery of the molecular pathways behind reproductive vulnerability paves the way for genetic interventions to improve reproductive tolerance (Figure 5). The graph below illustrates how dryness has a significant impact on seed production [75].



Figure 5: Pollen formation in rice and wheat.

Abiotic stress has a considerable impact on grain number at young stage. Inflorescences under normal conditions are shown on the left, while those under stress are shown on the right [75].

Conclusion

Worldwide atmospheric CO₂ concentrations have risen and average global temperatures have risen since the Industrial Revolution, with the most pronounced effects occurring near the poles. As the hydrologic cycle intensifies, precipitation regimes are expected to shift on a regional scale, resulting in greater extremes in dry versus wet conditions, and such changes are already having profound effects on plant physiological functioning, which scale up to influence interactions between plants and other organisms, as well as ecosystems as a whole.

Climate change's effects on plant-water interactions vary across spatial-temporal events, with several negative implications. When the soil water potential near the root diminishes, a plant may not be able to fully meet the

transpiration requirement and so enters a phase of water stress, which is accompanied by turgor in the tissue and can impact growth. As the growth slows, so does the respiration associate with it?

References

1. Council NR (2001) Abrupt climate change: inevitable surprises, National Academy Press.
2. (2002) National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine. Abrupt Climate Change: Inevitable Surprises. Washington, DC: The National Academies Press.
3. Jury WA, Vaux Jr HJ (2007) The emerging global water crisis: managing scarcity and conflict between water users. *Advances in Agronomy* 95: 1-76.
4. Conklin, N. C. (n.d.). As we look to the future, agriculture in the United States and around the world faces a difficult challenge: how to feed a growing world. Global population is expected to increase by one-third to reach 9 billion by 2040. Incomes are rising, too, bringing increased demand for agriculture to provide food, fiber and energy, and increasing pressure on global resources.
5. He C, Liu Z, Wu J, Pan X, Fang Z, et al. (2021) Future global urban water scarcity and potential solutions. *Nature Communications* 12: 1-11.
6. Simkin, R. D., Seto, K. C., McDonald, R. I., & Jetz, W. (2022). Biodiversity impacts and conservation implications of urban land expansion projected to 2050. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 119(12), e2117297119.
7. Lamnisos D, Giannakou K, Jakovljevic MM (2021) Demographic forecasting of population aging in Greece and Cyprus: one big challenge for the Mediterranean health and social system long-term sustainability. *Health Research Policy and Systems* 19: 1-8.
8. Libby R, Sato AY, Alapai L, Brawner WP, Carter YY, et al. (2022) A Hawaiian Tropical Dry Forest Regenerates: Natural Regeneration of Endangered Species under Biocultural Restoration. *Sustainability* 14(3): 1159.
9. de Souza Amorim D, Brown BV, Boscolo D, Ale-Rocha R, Alvarez-Garcia DM, et al. (2022) Vertical stratification of insect abundance and species richness in an Amazonian tropical forest. *Scientific Reports* 12: 1-10.
10. Hayat S, Siddiqui H, Damalas CA (2022) Salicylic Acid-A Versatile Plant Growth Regulator. Springer.
11. Jayaraman S, Naorem AK, Lal R, Dalal RC, Sinha NK, et al. (2021) Disease-suppressive soils—beyond food production: a critical review. *Journal of Soil Science and Plant Nutrition* 21(2): 1437-1465.
12. Lambers H, Chapin FS, Pons TL (2008a) Ecological biochemistry: allelopathy and defense against herbivores. In *Plant physiological ecology* Springer, pp: 445-477.
13. Lambers H, Chapin FS, Pons TL (2008b) *Plant physiological ecology*, 2nd (Edn), Springer, pp: 1-623.
14. Jaman M, Wu H, Yu Q, Tan Q, Zhang Y, et al. (2022). Contrasting responses of plant above and belowground biomass carbon pools to extreme drought in six grasslands spanning an aridity gradient. *Plant and Soil* 473(1): 167-180.
15. Warne RW, Baer SG, Boyles JG (2019) Community physiological ecology. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* 34(6): 510-518.
16. Solbrig OT (2021) The Origin and Floristic Affinities of the South American Temperate Desert and Semidesert Regions. In *Evolution of desert biota*, University of Texas press, pp: 7-50.
17. Shao HB, Chu LY, Jaleel CA, Manivannan P, Panneerselvam R, et al. (2009) Understanding water deficit stress-induced changes in the basic metabolism of higher plants—biotechnologically and sustainably improving agriculture and the ecoenvironment in arid regions of the globe. *Critical Reviews in Biotechnology* 29(2): 131-151.
18. Sohel MSI, Salam MA, Herbohn J (2019) An assessment of woody plant water source studies from across the globe: what do we know after 30 years of research and where do we go from here? *Hydrology* 6(2): 40.
19. Umar OB, Ranti LA, Abdulhamid AK, Biola MR, Victor KO, et al. (2021) Stresses in Plants: Biotic and Abiotic. In *Current Trends in Wheat Research*. IntechOpen.
20. Dolan F, Lamontagne J, Link R, Hejazi M, Reed P, et al. (2021) Evaluating the economic impact of water scarcity in a changing world. *Nature Communications* 12(1): 1-10.
21. Kleine L, Tetzlaff D, Smith A, Dubbert M, Soulsby C (2021) Modelling ecohydrological feedbacks in forest and grassland plots under a prolonged drought anomaly in central Europe 2018–2020. *Hydrological Processes* 35(8): e14325.
22. Honda EA, Pilon NAL, Durigan G (2019) The relationship between plant density and survival to water stress in

- seedlings of a legume tree. *Acta Botanica Brasilica* 33(3): 602-606.
23. Mahmood A, Rafique MA, Yaseen G, Zaib M, Arif M, et al. (2021) Effect Of Global Change And Possible Ways To Reduce Its Adverse Impact On Agriculture In The Overall World: A Review. *Nveo-Natural Volatiles & Essential Oils Journal* 8(4): 16252-16278.
 24. Kuromori T, Seo M, Shinozaki K (2018) ABA transport and plant water stress responses. *Trends in Plant Science* 23(6): 513-522.
 25. Ishikawa M (2020) *Paradox and Representation: Silenced Voices in the Narratives of Nakagami Kenji*. Cornell University Press.
 26. Silva LCR, Lambers H (2021) Soil-plant-atmosphere interactions: structure, function, and predictive scaling for climate change mitigation. *Plant and Soil* 461(1): 5-27.
 27. Simler-Williamson AB, Rizzo DM, Cobb RC (2019) Interacting effects of global change on forest pest and pathogen dynamics. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics* 50(1): 381-403.
 28. Kuczyk J, Raharivololoniaina A, Fischer K (2021) High temperature and soil moisture reduce host-plant quality for an insect herbivore. *Ecological Entomology* 46(4): 889-897.
 29. Singh P, Hussain T, Patel S, Akhtar N (2018) Impact of climate change on root-pathogen interactions. In *Root Biology* Springer, pp: 409-427.
 30. Sullivan CN, Koski MH (2021) The effects of climate change on floral anthocyanin polymorphisms. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B* 288(1946): 20202693.
 31. Gebeyehu MN, Hirpo FH (2019) Review on Effect of Climate Change on Forest Ecosystem. *Int J Environ Sci Nat Res* 17(4): 126-129.
 32. Brierley AS, Kingsford MJ (2009) Impacts of climate change on marine organisms and ecosystems. *Curr Biol* 19(14): R602-R614.
 33. Gerhard LC, Harrison WE, Hanson BM (2001) AAPG Studies in Geology: Geological Perspectives of Global Climate Change. *American Association of Petroleum Geologists* 47.
 34. Chitonge H, Mfuno O (2015) The urban land question in Africa: The case of urban land conflicts in the City of Lusaka, 100 years after its founding. *Habitat International* 48: 209-218.
 35. Change C on AC, Disorders N, research council P on M, Workplace the Council NR, Sciences B on A, Staff C, Sciences B on A, Earth D on, Studies L, Board OS (2002) *Abrupt climate change: inevitable surprises*. Pearson Education.
 36. Kikvidze Z, Khetsuriani L, Kikodze D, Callaway RM (2006) Seasonal shifts in competition and facilitation in subalpine plant communities of the central Caucasus. *Journal of Vegetation Science* 17(1): 77-82.
 37. Bertrand C, Eckerter PW, Ammann L, Entling MH, Gobet E, et al. (2019) Seasonal shifts and complementary use of pollen sources by two bees, a lacewing and a ladybeetle species in European agricultural landscapes. *Journal of Applied Ecology* 56(11): 2431-2442.
 38. Biasi R, Brunori E, Ferrara C, Salvati L (2019) Assessing impacts of climate change on phenology and quality traits of *Vitis vinifera* L.: The contribution of local knowledge. *Plants* 8(5): 121.
 39. Peñuelas J, Filella I, Zhang X, Llorens L, Ogaya R, et al. (2004) Complex spatiotemporal phenological shifts as a response to rainfall changes. *New Phytol* 161(3): 837-846.
 40. Peng J, Wu C, Wang X, Lu L (2021) Spring phenology outweighed climate change in determining autumn phenology on the Tibetan Plateau. *International Journal of Climatology* 41(6): 3725-3742.
 41. Prev y JS (2020) Climate Change: Flowering time may be shifting in surprising ways. *Curr Biol* 30(3): R112-R114.
 42. Zetland D (2011) *The end of abundance: Economic solutions to water scarcity*. Aguanomics Press, pp: 280.
 43. Ashraf M (2014) Stress-induced changes in wheat grain composition and quality. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr* 54(12): 1576-1583.
 44. Chourasia KN, Omprakash, Gobu R, Bisen P, Baghe M, et al. (2017) Resistance/Tolerance mechanism under water deficit (Drought) condition in plants. *Int J Curr Microbiol App Sci* 6(4): 66-78.
 45. Wilhite DA, Glantz MH (1985) Understanding: the drought phenomenon: the role of definitions. *Water International* 10(3): 111-120.
 46. Han P, Lavoit AV, Le Bot J, Desneux AE, Desneux N, et al. (2014) Nitrogen and water availability to tomato plants triggers bottom-up effects on the leafminer *Tuta absoluta*. *Sci Rep* 4(1): 1-8.
 47. Wutich A (2020) *Water insecurity: An agenda for*

- research and call to action for human biology. *Am J Hum Biol* 32(1): e23345.
48. Sah RP, Chakraborty M, Prasad K, Pandit M, Tudu VK, et al. (2020) Impact of water deficit stress in maize: Phenology and yield components. *Sci Rep* 10(1): 2944.
 49. Xu H, Twine TE, Girvetz E (2016) Climate change and maize yield in Iowa. *PLoS One* 11(5): e0156083.
 50. Christmann A, Weiler EW, Steudle E, Grill E (2007) A hydraulic signal in root-to-shoot signalling of water shortage. *Plant J* 52(1): 167-174.
 51. Mukarram M, Choudhary S, Kurjak D, Petek A, Khan MMA (2021) Drought: Sensing, signalling, effects and tolerance in higher plants. *Physiol Plant* 172(2): 1291-1300.
 52. Arkhipova T, Martynenko E, Sharipova G, Kuzmina L, Ivanov I, et al. (2020) Effects of plant growth promoting rhizobacteria on the content of abscisic acid and salt resistance of wheat plants. *Plants* 9(11): 1429.
 53. Tkemaladze GS, Makhashvili KA (2016) Climate changes and photosynthesis. *Annals of Agrarian Science* 14(2): 119-126.
 54. Du Toit AGA (2005) Hydroponics as a tool in wheat breeding. University of the Free State, pp: 1-108.
 55. Yamaguchi Shinozaki K (2002) Biological mechanisms of drought stress response. *JIRCAS Work Rep* 23: 1-8.
 56. Kozłowski TT, Pallardy SG (1997) Physiological regulation of vegetative growth. *Growth Control Woody Plants*, pp: 73-165.
 57. Agnes EAB, Matchawe C, Nsawir BJ, Manuela BBA, Adjele JJB, et al. (2021) The use of alternative water sources as a means of adaptation to water shortages in Nsimeyong, Yaounde city: a quality assessment. *Scientific African* 13: e00861.
 58. Wan P, Wu J, Zhou Y, Xiao J, Feng J, et al. (2011) Computational analysis of drought stress-associated miRNAs and miRNA co-regulation network in *Physcomitrella patens*. *Genomics, Proteomics & Bioinformatics* 9(1-2): 37-44.
 59. Hsien C, Low JSC, Fuchen SC, Han TW (2019) Life cycle assessment of water supply in Singapore—a water-scarce urban city with multiple water sources. *Resources, Conservation and Recycling* 151: 104476.
 60. Safdarian M, Askari H, Shariati JV, Nematzadeh G (2019) Transcriptional responses of wheat roots inoculated with *Arthrobacter nitroguajacolicus* to salt stress. *Scientific Reports* 9(1): 1792.
 61. Wang Z, Yang Y, Yadav V, Zhao W, He Y, et al. (2022) Drought-induced proline is mainly synthesized in leaves and transported to roots in watermelon under water deficit. *Horticultural Plant Journal*.
 62. Gujjar RS, Banyen P, Chuekong W, Worakan P, Roytrakul S, et al. (2020) A synthetic cytokinin improves photosynthesis in rice under drought stress by modulating the abundance of proteins related to stomatal conductance, chlorophyll contents, and rubisco activity. *Plants* 9(9): 1106.
 63. Kruse J, Adams M, Winkler B, Ghirardo A, Alfarraj S, et al. (2019) Optimization of photosynthesis and stomatal conductance in the date palm *Phoenix dactylifera* during acclimation to heat and drought. *New Phytologist* 223(4): 1973-1988.
 64. Gao Y, Liang Y, Fu Y, Si Z, Hamani AKM (2022) Interactive Effects of Intraspecific Competition and Drought on Stomatal Conductance and Hormone Concentrations in Different Tomato Genotypes. *Horticulturae* 8(1): 45.
 65. Cornic G, Briantais JM (1991) Partitioning of photosynthetic electron flow between CO₂ and O₂ reduction in a C₃ leaf (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.) at different CO₂ concentrations and during drought stress. *Planta* 183(2): 178-184.
 66. Bray EA (1997) Plant responses to water deficit. *Trends in Plant Science* 2(2): 48-54.
 67. Benešová M, Holá D, Fischer L, Jedelský PL, Hnilicka F (2012) The Physiology and Proteomics of Drought Tolerance in Maize: Early Stomatal Closure as a Cause of Lower Tolerance to Short-Term Dehydration? 7(6): e38017.
 68. Loka DA (2012) Effect of water-deficit stress on cotton during reproductive development. University of Arkansas, pp: 1-216.
 69. Atti S, Bonnell R, Smith D, Prasher S (2004) Response of an indeterminate soybean {*Glycine Max* (L.) Merr} to chronic water deficit during reproductive development under greenhouse conditions. *Canadian Water Resources Journal/Revue Canadienne Des Ressources Hydriques* 29(4): 209-222.
 70. Carrizo García C, Nepi M, Pacini E (2017) It is a matter of timing: asynchrony during pollen development and its consequences on pollen performance in angiosperms—a review. *Protoplasma* 254(1): 57-73.

-
71. Li Z, Zhang J (2022) Effects of Raised Ambient Temperature on the Local and Systemic Adaptions of Maize. *Plants* 11(6): 755.
 72. Sita K, Sehgal A, Hanumantha Rao B, Nair RM, Vara Prasad PV, et al. (2017) Food legumes and rising temperatures: effects, adaptive functional mechanisms specific to reproductive growth stage and strategies to improve heat tolerance. *Frontiers in Plant Science* 8: 1658.
 73. Saini HS, Westgate ME (1999) Reproductive development in grain crops during drought. *Advances in Agronomy* 68: 59-96.
 74. Dolferus R, Ji X, Richards RA (2011) Abiotic stress and control of grain number in cereals. *Plant Science* 181(4): 331-341.
 75. Dolferus R, Powell N, Ji X, Ravash R, Edlington J, et al. (2013) The physiology of reproductive-stage abiotic stress tolerance in cereals. In *Molecular stress physiology of plants*, Springer, pp: 193-216.