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Bacterial-mediated drought tolerance: Current and future prospects

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A R T I C L E I N F O

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A B S T R A C T

With ongoing climate change, the severity, frequency and duration of drought in cotton (Gossypium hirsutum L.), soybean (Glycine max L.), and corn (Zea mays L.) producing areas around the world are predicted to increase. Plants' tolerance to drought stress needs to be improved in order to allow growth of crops that satisfy food demands under limited water resource availability. Plant-associated microbial communities, such as mycorrhizal fungi, nitrogen-fixing bacteria, and plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR), enhance crop productivity and provide stress resistance. PGPR represent a wide range of root-colonizing bacteria with excellent root colonizing ability and capacity to produce a wide range of enzymes and metabolites that help plants tolerate both biotic and abiotic stresses. Their roles in the management of abiotic stresses such as drought are only beginning to gain attention. In this review, we synthesize research concerning bacterial-mediated drought tolerance in agricultural crop plants. We summarize in a table and provide details of most relevant and recent studies about the crop system studied, experimental system, means of applying drought stress, and physiological traits measured (such as relative water content, photosynthesis). Furthermore, we highlight the research needed to understand mechanisms behind observed bacterial-mediated drought tolerance and the need to homogenize and develop screening protocols.

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1. Introduction

1.1. Definitions and concepts of drought

One of the key obstacles to increasing crop growth and productivity in many parts of the world is drought ([Vinocur](#page-16-0) and [Altman,](#page-16-0) 2005; Naveed et al., 2014). Due to differences in hydrometeorological variables, socioeconomic factors, and the stochastic nature of water demands in different regions of the world, many definitions of drought have been proposed ([Yevjevich,](#page-16-0) 1967; Dracup et al., 1980; Wilhite and Glantz, 1985; [American](#page-16-0) [Meteorological](#page-16-0) Society, 2004). Depending on the variable used to describe drought, drought definitions are classified into four different categories (Wilhite and Glantz, 1985; [American](#page-16-0) Meteo[rological](#page-16-0) Society, 2004): (1) meteorological drought, defined as a lack of precipitation for a period of time; (2) hydrological drought, defined as a lack of adequate surface and subsurface water resources for established water uses of a given water resources management system; (3) socio-economic drought, defined as the failure of water resources systems to meet water demands; and (4) agricultural drought, defined as a period with declining soil moisture resulting in crop failure. In this review, we focus on agricultural drought.

Drought is one of the major limitations to food production worldwide and is estimated to have reduced national cereal production by 9–10% (Lesk et al., [2016](#page-15-0)). Drought is expected to cause serious plant growth problems for crops on more than 50% of the earth's arable lands by 2050 ([Vinocur](#page-16-0) and Altman, 2005). With ongoing global climate change, the severity, frequency and duration of drought in cotton (Gossypium hirsutum L.), soybean (Glycine max L.), and corn (Zea mays L.) in many crop-producing areas around the world are predicted to continue to increase ([IPCC,](#page-15-0) [2007;](#page-15-0) EEA, 2011). In addition, the world population is expected to reach 9 billion by 2050, necessitating continued increases in crop production to assure food security [\(Gatehouse](#page-15-0) et al., 2011; Foley et al., [2011\)](#page-15-0). Therefore, there is a renewed interest in finding solutions to water-related problems such as drought and its impacts on food security ([Alexanratos](#page-14-0) and Bruinsma, 2012). In particular, there is a need to find solutions that increase plants' tolerance to drought stress and allow growth of crops that satisfy food demands under limited water resource availability [\(Editorial,](#page-15-0) 2010; [Mancosu](#page-15-0) et al., 2015).

1.2. Concepts of drought adaptations

The ability of plants to sustain growth and survive during periods of drought stress has been termed drought resistance (Levitt, 1980; [Chaves](#page-15-0) et al., 2003). Plants have developed several mechanisms allowing them to cope with drought stress including morphological adaptations, osmotic adjustment, optimization of water resources, antioxidant systems that diminish the harmful effects of reactive oxygen species (ROS) linked to drought, and induction of a variety of stress-responsive genes and proteins ([Farooq](#page-15-0) et al., 2009). These and other adaptations have been detailed in multiple research articles and reviews (e.g. [Chaves](#page-14-0) et al., 2003; [Boomsma](#page-14-0) and Vyn, 2008; Farooq et al., 2009; Lopes et al., 2011; [Huang](#page-14-0) et al., 2014) and are not be included in this review. These adaptations of plants to drought broadly fit into three categories. First is drought escape, in which the plant completes its life cycle before the onset of drought and undergoes dormancy before the onset of the dry season [\(Levitt,1980;](#page-15-0) Turner et al., 2001; [Farooq](#page-15-0) et al., 2009). Second is drought avoidance and phenotypic flexibility, which is the ability of a plant to sustain its normal water status under drought conditions [\(Blum,](#page-14-0) 2005). This can be achieved when the plant obtains more water from the soil or minimizes water loss through transpiration. Third is drought tolerance, which occurs when normal plant growth and metabolic activities are maintained even under water stress. These activities include strategies such as osmotic adjustment, maintenance of root viability and membrane stability under dehydration as well as accumulation of proteins and other metabolites that work directly or indirectly in structural stabilization (Nilsen and [Orcutt,](#page-16-0) 1996; [Huang](#page-16-0) et al., 2014).

1.3. How bacteria in soil experience water stress

Soil microorganisms including beneficial soil bacteria experience drought [\(Schimel](#page-16-0) et al., 2007; Barnard et al., 2013). Drought stress affects soil bacteria through osmotic stress and resource competition ([Schimel](#page-16-0) et al., 2007; Chodak et al., 2015) and can result in nucleic acids damages ([Dose](#page-14-0) et al., 1991) that may occur via chemical modifications (alkylation or oxidation), cross-linking, or base removal [\(Potts,](#page-16-0) 1999). Drought stress results in an accumulation of free radicals due to conformational protein changes, restricted enzyme efficiency, and changes in electron transport chains [\(Vriezen](#page-16-0) et al., 2007; Bérard et al., 2015). Accumulation of free radicals induces protein denaturation and lipid peroxidation that ultimately leads to cell lysis [\(Potts,](#page-16-0) 1999). Moreover, drought stress can induce protein conformational changes and affect the membrane characteristics of microbes through phospholipid fatty acid composition changes [\(Russell](#page-16-0) et al., 1995; [Bérard](#page-16-0) et al., 2015).

Soil microbes are small, in intimate contact with soil water, and have semipermeable membranes ([Schimel](#page-16-0) et al., 2007). As water potentials decline and soils dry due to drought, cells have to accumulate solutes to decrease their internal water potential to avoid dehydration and death [\(Schimel](#page-16-0) et al., 2007). To survive drought and protect cell structures and organelles, soil bacteria employ a variety of physiological mechanisms including accumulation of compatible solutes, exopolysaccharide production, and the production of spores (Conlin and Nelson, 2007; [Schimel](#page-14-0) et al., 2007; Allison and [Martiny,](#page-14-0) 2008; Bérard et al., 2015). Accumulation of compatible solutes such as proline, glycine betaine and trehalose increases thermotolerance of enzymes, inhibits proteins thermal denaturation, and helps maintain membrane integrity ([Welsh,](#page-16-0) 2000; Conlin and Nelson, 2007; [Schimel](#page-16-0) et al., 2007; Bérard et al., [2015](#page-16-0)). Bacteria also synthesize heat shock proteins (HSPs) that recognize and bind to other proteins if they are in non-native conformations (Hecker et al., 1996; Feder and [Hofmann,](#page-15-0) 1999). Alternatively, some bacteria store high quantities of ribosomes, which allow them to respond with rapid protein synthesis when the stress is released ([Placella](#page-16-0) et al., 2012). Other mechanisms that help bacteria to cope up with water stress include increased efficiency of resource use and re-allocation within microbial cells ([Tiemann](#page-16-0) and Billings, 2011) and the production of extracellular polymeric substances (EPS). EPS serve to protect the cell as well as the local environment in which the cell is embedded [\(Rossi](#page-16-0) et al., [2012](#page-16-0)).

The strategies used by soil bacteria to withstand drought stress have also been reported as some of the key adaptation strategies that are employed by plants to survive drought. For example, many of the compatible solutes (proline and glycine betaine) that help bacteria to cope with drought stress also help plants to tolerate drought stress.

1.4. Bacterial-mediated drought tolerance

To date, creation of drought-tolerant cultivars has been the approach used to mitigate the negative effects of drought stress on crops and crop yields (Barrow et al., 2008; [Eisenstein,](#page-14-0) 2013). Conventional plant breeding techniques have allowed the development of high-yielding, drought- tolerant crop varieties. The disadvantages of this approach are that it is time consuming, labor intensive, may lead to the loss of other desirable traits from the host's gene pool, and that breeding confers benefits to a single crop species that are not transferrable to other crop systems [\(Ashraf,](#page-14-0) 2010; [Eisenstein,](#page-14-0) 2013; Philippot et al., 2013). Genetic engineering of crops with improved tolerance to drought could, theoretically, be faster, but it would come with its own set of challenges including time and labor (Ashraf, 2010; [Eisenstein,](#page-14-0) 2013). In addition, when transgenic crops reach the market, their success is not guaranteed as consumer response to genetically modified crop products varies among different countries ([Fedoroff](#page-15-0) et al., 2010).

The approaches mentioned above overlook the ecological context of the soil environment in which the crops are grown ([Morrissey](#page-15-0) et al., 2004). In most studies the crops were grown in sterilized potting soils or soilless amendments. For example, [Waterer](#page-16-0) et al. (2010) evaluated the tolerance of genetically modified potatoes (Solanum tuberosum L.) to drought stress by using transgenic potatoes that had been grown using a peat: vermiculite mixture (Sunshine Mix #3). Similarly, Witt et al. [\(2012\)](#page-16-0) evaluated metabolic and phenotypic responses of greenhousegrown maize hybrids to drought stress using plants that were planted in a 1:1 mix of peat moss and vermiculite. Results generated from such studies may not translate into practical applications as conditions in agricultural soils are different. Furthermore, classical breeding and genetic engineering approaches consider plants as independent organisms that are solely regulated by their genetic code and cellular physiology (Barrow et al., 2008; [Coleman-Derr](#page-14-0) and Tringe, 2014), although plant-associated microbes can influence plants' responses to the environmental conditions, including drought stress [\(Budak](#page-14-0) et al., 2013; [Cooper](#page-14-0) et al., 2014). Therefore, there is a need for microbialbased approaches to mitigate drought stress.

Plant-associated microbial communities currently have received increased attention for enhancing crop productivity and providing stress resistance [\(Mayak](#page-15-0) et al., 2004; Glick et al., 2007; [Marulanda](#page-15-0) et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2009). The most well studied of these plant associated microbes include the mycorrhizal fungi ([Rodriguez](#page-16-0) and Redman, 2008; Bonfante and Anca 2009; Singh et al., 2011; Aroca and [Ruíz-Lozan,](#page-16-0) 2012; Azcon et al., 2013), nitrogen-fixing bacteria [\(Lugtenberg](#page-15-0) and Kamilova, 2009), and plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria ([Kloepper](#page-15-0) et al., 2004; [Glick,](#page-15-0) 2012); the latter represent a wide range of root-colonizing bacteria that have received global attention because of their root colonizing ability and their capacity to produce a wide range of enzymes and metabolites that help plants tolerate biotic and abiotic stresses ([Mayak](#page-15-0) et al., 2004; Glick et al., 2007; Kim et al., 2009; Pineda et al., 2013; [Chauhan](#page-15-0) et al., 2015).

In recent years, efforts have been directed at harnessing these naturally-occurring, beneficial soil microbes to improve crop production under a changing climate (Yang et al., 2009; [Nadeem](#page-16-0) et al., [2014](#page-16-0)). Although the roles of PGPR in plant growth promotion, nutrient management, and disease control are well known, their roles in the management of abiotic stress such as drought has more recently gained importance (Yang et al., 2009; [Dimpka](#page-16-0) et al., 2009; [Grover](#page-16-0) et al., 2010). The advantages of using PGPR to help plants tolerate stress include their ability to confer drought tolerance to many plant hosts such as monocotyledonous and dicotyledonous row and vegetable crop species ([Timmusk](#page-16-0) and Wagner, 1999; Mayak et al., 2004; [Sandhya](#page-16-0) et al., 2009; Kasim et al., 2013) and their ability to confer more than one type of biotic and/or abiotic stress tolerance [\(Timmusk](#page-16-0) et al., 1999; Mayak et al., 2004; [Coleman-Derr](#page-16-0) and Tringe, 2014).

Determining the underlying mechanisms of plant adaptations to drought stress is a key step for the development of droughttolerant varieties and cost efficient management practices. Plant response to drought stress mechanisms involves multiple physiological, molecular and biochemical pathways and quantitative traits that control different metabolic processes, such as water and nutrient relations, carbohydrate metabolism, protein metabolism, hormone metabolism as well as antioxidant defenses ([Huang](#page-15-0) et al., [2014](#page-15-0)). These adaptations of plants to aid in survival during periods of drought stress have been comprehensively reviewed (e.g. [Farooq](#page-15-0) et al., 2009; Huang et al., 2014) and are not included in this review article.

In this review, we summarize published studies on how beneficial microbes, specifically PGPR, help plants tolerate drought ([Table](#page-3-0) 1). We also present suggestions and recommendations for future research on bacterial-mediated drought tolerance studies in agricultural crop plants.

2. PGPR improve physiological processes associated with drought resistance

2.1. Rooting characteristics for water uptake

Among the many adaptive traits that plants possess to endure drought, root system architecture is one of the most important (Bacon et al., 2002; Yu et al., 2007; [Huang](#page-14-0) et al., 2014). Root system architecture integrates root system topology, spatial distribution of primary and lateral roots, and the number and length of various diameters of roots (de Dorlodot et al., 2007; [Vacheron](#page-14-0) et al., 2013). Roots exhibit morphological plasticity in response to soil physical conditions ([Bengough](#page-14-0) et al., 2006; Forde, 2009; Tuberosa, 2012), a uniqueness that allows plants to adapt better to the chemical and physical properties of the soil, particularly under drought conditions [\(Bacon](#page-14-0) et al., 2002; Yu et al., 2007). Specific root traits associated with maintaining plant productivity under drought conditions include increases in numbers of roots with smaller diameters and a deeper root system (Blum, 1988, 2011; [Addington](#page-14-0) et al., 2006; Pemán et al., 2006; [Chirino](#page-14-0) et al., 2008; Comas et al., [2013\)](#page-14-0). A correlation between a deep and prolific root system with drought resistance has been established in several crops including soybeans (Sadok and [Sinclair,](#page-16-0) 2011), chickpea (Cicer arietinum L.) ([Varshney](#page-16-0) et al., 2011), maize [\(Tuberosa](#page-16-0) et al., 2003, 2007, 2011; Landi et al., [2010;](#page-16-0) Hund et al., 2011), and wheat (Triticum aestivum L.) ([Wasson](#page-16-0) et al., 2012). Similarly, increases in numbers of roots with small diameters enable plants undergoing drought to increase hydraulic conductance by increasing the surface area in contact with soil water as well as increasing the volume of soil that can be explored for water ([Comas](#page-14-0) et al., 2013). From these studies, it can be argued that plants with a more prolific and deeper root system would be able to tolerate drought stress better than plants with fewer roots, as roots are the only organ capable of extracting water from the soil profile [\(Turner](#page-16-0) et al., 2001; Kavar et al., 2007; [Gowda](#page-16-0) et al., 2011).

Treatment of plants with PGPR has been reported to promote root growth and to alter the root architecture ([Kloepper,](#page-15-0) 1992; [Kloepper](#page-15-0) et al., 2004; Ngumbi, 2011). It has further been argued that bacterial-induced alterations in root architecture may lead to an increase in total root surface area, and consequently lead to improved water and nutrient uptake, with positive effects on plant growth as a whole (Somers et al., 2004; [Timmusk](#page-16-0) et al., 2014). In a study with maize, [Naseem](#page-15-0) and Bano (2014) applied strain Alcaligenes faecalis (AF3) to seeds in growth chamber tests. Three weeks after planting, drought stressed PGPR treated plants showed an increase in root length by 10% compared to drought stressed noninoculated control plants [\(Table](#page-3-0) 1). They argued that development of root system as a result of PGPR treatment led to an increase in water uptake which allowed treated plants to tolerate drought stress. [Naveed](#page-15-0) et al. (2014) reported that maize plants inoculated with Burkholderia phytofirmans strain PsJN had significantly increased root biomass by 70 and 58% in Mazurka and Kaleo Table 1

List of studies on applications of rhizobacteria for drought tolerance.

- PGPR treated plants had augmented photosynthetic and photoprotective pigments. In addition, the observed PGPR effect may have been the result of better control of stomata closure mediated by ABA together with ^a more developed root system.

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seedlings tolerate stress via the regulation of phytohormones. - Different PGPR may impart drought tolerance via different mechanisms.

environments.

may have enhanced the ability of green gram plants to tolerate water stress. Therefore, the use of PGPR can mitigate water stress in crop plants and may be an adoptable strategy to

manage drought conditions.

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Fan et al. (2015) Fan et al. [\(2015\)](#page-15-0) and soluble sugars. Inoculation with PGPR also and soluble sugars. Inoculation with PGPR also nisms including increasing the concentration abscisic acid levels. Consequently, PGPR treated plants had enhanced water-use efficiency. - Treatment with PGPR improved plant growth plant genotype. Treated plants had longer and plant genotype. Treated plants had longer and **Conclusions:**
- Treatment with PGPR improved tolerance to nisms including increasing the concentration of antioxidant enzymes, reducing production of antioxidant enzymes, reducing production abscisic acid levels. Consequently, PGPR treated plants had enhanced water- use efficiency. Treatment with PGPR improved plant growth larger root systems which may have contriblarger root systems which may have contribdrought by maize plants via several mecha-- To understand the physiology and biochem-- Treatment with PGPR improved tolerance to To understand the physiology and biochemistry of plant growth promotion induced by istry of plant growth promotion induced by drought by maize plants via several mechaparameters. This improvement was depenparameters. This improvement was dependent on the intensity of water deficits and dent on the intensity of water deficits and of reactive oxygen species, and lowering of reactive oxygen species, and lowering uted to the observed drought tolerance. uted to the observed drought tolerance. improved protein content in leaves . PGPR under different water deficits. improved protein content in leaves PGPR under different water deficits. Conclusions: Objectives: Objectives: - Leaf water potential and gas Lipid peroxidation and reac-- Leaf water potential and gas - Lipid peroxidation and reac-- Plant growth parameters exchange measurements - Plant growth parameters exchange measurements Antioxidant enzymes - Antioxidant enzymes tive oxygen species tive oxygen species - Abscisic acid - Abscisic acid Drought introduced by withholding watering for 10 days - Drought introduced by withholding watering for 10 days when plants reached the when plants reached the 4 leaves stage. 4 leaves stage **Soil used:**
- 3 kg soil (loamy clay and peat Five watering regimes (80, 60, - 3 kg soil (loamy clay and peat - Five watering regimes (80, 60, 45, 35, and 25% of soil water 45, 35, and 25% of soil water **Inoculation design:**
 -10 ml of bacteria at 5×10^7 surface soil near root-stem **Inoculation design:**
- 10 ml of bacteria at 5 $\times10^7$ surface soil near root-stem cfu/g was applied to the Multiple re-inoculations. - Multiple re-inoculations. cfu/g was applied to the Rainout shelter studies - Rainout shelter studies Experimental system: Experimental system: mixture $(3:1, v/v)$ mixture (3:1, v/v) transition. transition. capacity). Soil used: Burkholderia sp. Maize Zea mays Burkholderia sp. strain LD-11 strain LD-11 Zea mays Maize

water potential, antioxidant enzymes and enhanced production of proline, amino acids

water potential, antioxidant enzymes and

enhanced production of proline, amino acids

cultivars, respectively. Likewise, inoculation of plants with Enterobacter sp. strain FD resulted in 47 and 40% increase in root mass in Mazurka and Kaleo cultivars respectively compared to control plants under drought stress conditions. They suggested that the observed increase in root biomass led to improved water uptake by plants during drought stress. Similarly, [Yasmin](#page-16-0) et al. (2013) reported that under drought stress, maize plants inoculated with PGPR isolate 9 K enhanced root length by 43.3%. [Timmusk](#page-16-0) et al. [\(2014\)](#page-16-0) reported that wheat plants treated with Bacillus thuringiensis AZP2 had two to three times longer root hairs and longer and denser lateral roots, effects that were more pronounced when plants experienced drought stress. The observed bacterialmediated alterations in root architecture of wheat plants may have helped the plants to tolerate drought stress ([Timmusk](#page-16-0) et al., [2014](#page-16-0)) [\(Table](#page-3-0) 1). PGPR may help plants tolerate drought stress via the enhance-

ment and alteration of root parameters. More studies are needed to investigate the correlation between bacterial-mediated improved root architecture and drought tolerance. Moreover, functional structural modelling studies of root systems in interaction with their soil environment could be very pertinent ([Doussan](#page-15-0) et al., 2006; [Dunbabin](#page-15-0) et al., 2013). Furthermore, more studies will be needed to identify the ideal root traits that help plants the most under drought stress. Identified specific traits could be incorporated in breeding programs that aim to breed plants with root traits to enhance productivity under drought stress.

2.2. Shoot growth characteristics

One of the key responses to drought stress is the inhibition of shoot growth, which benefits plants by limiting the leaf area available for evaporative loss of limited water reserves [\(Sinclair](#page-16-0) and Muchow, 2001; Wang and Yamauchi, 2006; [Neumann,](#page-16-0) 2008; [Skirycz](#page-16-0) and Inzé, 2010). In addition, inhibiting shoot growth allows plants to divert essential solutes from growth requirements to stress-related house-keeping functions, such as osmotic adjustment. Therefore, inhibition of shoot growth is considered an adaptive response that helps plants to tolerate drought stress ([Neumann,](#page-15-0) 1995, 2008; Aachard et al., 2006).

However, drought tolerance mechanisms that increase plant survival by inhibiting shoot growth will likely decrease plant size and hence limit yield potential (Sinclair and [Muchow,](#page-16-0) 2001; [Neumann,](#page-16-0) 2008; Claeys and Inzé, 2013). Hence, inhibition of shoot growth could be a counter-productive response in the case of crop plants exposed to moderate drought stress. In such cases, plant survival might not be threatened, but drought stress-induced reductions in shoot growth would still limit yield potential. Therefore, development of crop varieties with an ability to maintain near-normal shoot growth rates during moderate drought stress might be advantageous for crop production ([Neumann,](#page-15-0) 2008).

Treatment of plants with PGPR typically increases shoot growth. Consequently, under drought stress, plants inoculated with effective PGPR strains could maintain near-normal shoot growth rates, resulting in increased crop productivity. For example, [Vardharajula](#page-16-0) et al. (2011) showed that inoculation of corn plants with plant growth-promoting Bacillus spp. improved shoot growth. In this study, under drought stress conditions, all the plants inoculated with the tested Bacillus spp. showed significantly greater shoot length and dry biomass compared to non-inoculated plants. Similarly, [Timmusk](#page-16-0) et al. (2014) showed that under drought stress, wheat plants treated with PGPR had 78% higher biomass than non-treated plants, confirming the potential of PGPR to enhance plant performance under drought stress. Similarly, [Lim](#page-15-0) and Kim [\(2013\)](#page-15-0) showed that pepper plants treated with Bacillus licheniformis K11 and exposed to drought stress had 50% higher

biomass than non-treated plants. The plant shoot length was also increased. Increases in shoot and plant growth under drought stress as a result of PGPR treatment have also been reported in other crops including sorghum (Sorghum bicolor L.) ([Grover](#page-15-0) et al., [2014](#page-15-0)), sunflower (Helianthus annuus L.) ([Castillo](#page-14-0) et al., 2013), wheat [\(Arzanesh](#page-14-0) et al., 2011; Kasim et al., 2013), green gram (Vigna radiata L.) [\(Saravanakumar](#page-16-0) et al., 2011) mung bean (Vigna radiata L.) (Sarma and [Saikia,](#page-16-0) 2014) and maize ([Sandhya](#page-16-0) et al., 2010; [Naseem](#page-16-0) and Bano, 2014; Naveed et al., 2014) ([Table](#page-3-0) 1).

Taken together, the above studies clearly show that treatment of plants with selected strains of PGPR leads to increase in shoot growth and improvements in plant growth which help plants tolerate drought stress. Consequently, improved shoot growth, and plant growth may translate to increased yield and increased plant productivity.

2.3. Relative water content

Relative water content (RWC) in plant leaves is considered one of the best criteria for measuring plant water status because it is involved in the metabolic activity in tissues. A decline in RWC reflects a loss of turgor that results in limited cell expansion and, consequentially, reduced growth in plants [\(Ashraf,](#page-14-0) 2010; Lu et al., 2010; [Castillo](#page-14-0) et al., 2013). It has been observed that species that are better adapted to dry environments have high RWC ([Jarvis](#page-15-0) and [Jarvis,](#page-15-0) 1963). Therefore, an increase in RWC should be considered an important drought tolerance enhancement strategy. RWC could be used as a parameter in screening PGPR for drought stressalleviating potential. Indeed, many studies investigating the ability of PGPR to help plants tolerate drought stress have measured RWC in treated and non-treated plants under drought stress. Several studies have shown that under drought stress, PGPR-treated plants maintained relatively higher RWC compared to non-treated plants, leading to the conclusion that PGPR strains that improve survival of plants under drought stress generally increase RWC in the plants. For example, [Grover](#page-15-0) et al. (2014) reported that sorghum plants treated with PGPR, Bacillus spp strain KB 129 under drought stress showed 24% increase in RWC over plants that were not treated with PGPR. Similar results have been demonstrated in maize (Sandhya et al., 2010; [Vardharajula](#page-16-0) et al., 2011; Bano et al., 2013; Naveed et al., 2014; [Naseem](#page-16-0) and Bano, 2014) ([Table](#page-3-0) 1). Studies reported above have indicated that higher RWC may help plants counteract the oxidative and osmotic stresses caused by drought stress, potentially contributing to greater productivity under stress.

While studies have reported a correlation between increased RWC with PGPR treatment, the mechanisms behind these phenomena are yet to be uncovered. [Casanovas](#page-14-0) et al. (2002) suggested that the high RWC in maize treated with Azospirillum brasilense BR11005spp. was a result of bacterial absicisic acid (ABA) that induced stomatal closure and mitigated drought stress. [Dodd](#page-14-0) et al. [\(2010\)](#page-14-0) proposed that the increase in RWC may have been a result of alterations of the sensitivity of physiological processes such as stomatal closure. Such contrasting views emphasize the need to understand mechanisms behind observed bacterialmediated drought tolerance via increased RWC. It is yet to be established whether the observed increase in RWC remains constant as drought stress increases.

2.4. Osmotic adjustment for drought tolerance

Osmotic adjustment is one of the key adaptations at the cellular level that helps plants tolerate drought-induced damage ([Blum,](#page-14-0) 2005; [Farooq](#page-14-0) et al., 2009). It protects enzymes, proteins, cellular organelles and membranes against oxidative damage [\(Hoekstra](#page-15-0) and [Buitink,](#page-15-0) 2001; Farooq et al., 2009; Huang et al., 2014). Osmotic adjustment is the active accumulation of organic and inorganic solutes, also referred to as compatible solutes [\(Kiani](#page-15-0) et al., 2007), in response to drought stress (Nilsen and [Orcutt,](#page-16-0) 1996). These solutes maintain cellular turgor and help plants lower water potential without decreasing actual water content (Serraj and [Sinclair,](#page-16-0) [2002](#page-16-0)). They include ammonium compounds such as glycine betaine, sugars (e.g. sucrose), poly-ols (e.g. mannitol), organic acids (e.g. malate), inorganic ions (e.g. calcium), and non-protein amino acids (e.g. proline). Drought stress is often accompanied by an increase in compatible solutes, specifically proline ([Farooq](#page-15-0) et al., [2008](#page-15-0)).

Proline is one of the most important osmolytes that accumulate in plants experiencing drought stress ([Yoshiba](#page-16-0) et al., 1997; [Verbruggen](#page-16-0) and Hermans, 2008; Farooq et al., 2009; Huang et al., [2014\)](#page-16-0). Apart from acting as an osmolyte for osmotic adjustment, proline contributes to stabilizing sub-cellular structures (e.g. proteins and membranes), scavenging free radicals and buffering cellular redox potential (Ashraf and [Foolad,](#page-14-0) 2007; Hayat et al., [2012\)](#page-14-0). In many plants, an increase in proline levels under drought stress has been correlated with drought tolerance ([Sankar](#page-16-0) et al., [2007\)](#page-16-0). For example, proline content increased under drought stress in pea (Pisum sativum L.) [\(Alexieva](#page-14-0) et al., 2001), chickpea (Cicer arietinum L.) [\(Mafakheri](#page-15-0) et al., 2010), rice (Oryza sativa L.) (Lum et al., [2014](#page-15-0)), and soybean [\(Silvente](#page-16-0) et al., 2012). These studies indicate that plants with increased levels of proline would be better able to tolerate drought stress.

Treatment of plants with PGPR has been shown to lead to an increase in proline levels. This has been demonstrated in maize (Sandhya et al., 2010; [Vardharajula](#page-16-0) et al., 2011; Naseem and Bano, [2014](#page-16-0)), sorghum ([Grover](#page-15-0) et al., 2014), potato plants [\(Gururani](#page-15-0) et al., [2013](#page-15-0)), mung bean (Sarma and [Saikia,](#page-16-0) 2014), and Arabidopsis (Arabidopsis thaliana L.) [\(Cohen](#page-14-0) et al., 2015) [\(Table](#page-3-0) 1). For example, Wang et al. [\(2012\)](#page-16-0) reported that treatment of cucumber (Cucumis sativa L.) plants with a mixture of three PGPR strains (Bacillus cereus AR156, Bacillus subtilis SM21, and Serratia sp. XY21) increased leaf proline contents 3–4 fold relative to untreated controls. They suggested that the observed increase in leaf proline contributed to the observed drought tolerance by protecting the cucumber plants from over-dehydration. Treatment with PGPR has also been shown to increase concentrations of free amino acids and soluble sugars in maize (Sandhya et al., 2010; [Vardharajula](#page-16-0) et al., [2011;](#page-16-0) Bano et al., 2013) [\(Table](#page-3-0) 1). Consequently, plants with increased levels of free amino acids and soluble sugars are suggested to tolerate drought stress.

2.5. Antioxidant metabolism

One of the inevitable consequences of drought stress is enhanced production of a variety of reactive oxygen species (ROS), such as hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) , singlet oxygen $(^1O_2)$, superoxide radical (O_2^-) , and the hydroxyl radical (HO[•]) [\(Helena](#page-15-0) and [Carvalho,](#page-15-0) 2008). These ROS slow down normal plant metabolism through oxidative damage to lipids, proteins and other macromolecules and may ultimately cause cell death (Mittler, 2002; Farooq et al., 2009; [Hasanuzzaman](#page-15-0) et al., 2014).

To avoid the deleterious effects of ROS, plants have enzymatic and non-enzymatic oxidants also known as scavenging enzymes that act in an efficient and cooperative manner ([Helena](#page-15-0) and Carvalho, 2008; [Simova-Stoilova](#page-15-0) et al., 2008). These enzymatic antioxidants include superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase (CAT), peroxidase (POX), glutathione reductase (GR), and ascorbate peroxidase (APX). ROS and the scavenging enzymes have been extensively reviewed (Helena and [Carvalho,](#page-15-0) 2008; Farooq et al., 2009; Gill and Tuteja, 2010; [Hasanuzzaman](#page-15-0) et al., 2014). Measuring activities of specific antioxidant enzymes is one of the approaches used to assess involvement of the scavenging system during

drought stress. Several studies have detected a direct correlation between the level of induction of the antioxidant system and the degree of drought tolerance ([Contour-Ansel](#page-14-0) et al., 2006; Guo et al., [2006](#page-14-0)). Drought-tolerant plants, therefore, develop effective ROS scavenging systems (Apel and Hirt, 2004; [Huang](#page-14-0) et al., 2014).

Experiments investigating bacterial-mediated tolerance have measured activities of antioxidant enzymes as a way to assess the involvement of the scavenging system during drought stress. Specifically, these studies have investigated if treatment of plants with PGPR led to increases in the levels of antioxidant enzymes. Elevated accumulation of antioxidant enzymes, such as CAT, POX, and POX, serves to minimize oxidative injury and contributes to the drought tolerance. Treatment of potato plants with two PGPR strains, Bacillus pumilus str. DH-11 and Bacillus firmus str. 40, induced an increase in the levels of ROS-scavenging enzymes including ascorbate peroxidase and catalase. [Gururani](#page-15-0) et al. (2013) reported a significant increase in several scavenging enzymes including APX, SOD, and CAT. The specific activity of CAT, for example, was up to 1.8 times higher under drought stress in PGPRtreated plants compared with that in non-treated plants. The elevation in ROS-scavenging enzymes was suggested as the main reason for the observed tolerance to drought stress in PGPR-treated potato plants. [Saravanakumar](#page-16-0) et al. (2011) reported an increase in the activity of CAT in green gram plants treated with Pseudomonas fluorescens Pf1 and Bacillus subtilis EPB. This increase was correlated with the observed drought tolerance. An association of CAT production and drought tolerance has also been observed in cucumber plants [\(Wang](#page-16-0) et al., 2012), maize ([Sandhya](#page-16-0) et al., 2010; Sarma and Saikia, 2014; [Vardharajula](#page-16-0) et al., 2011), and wheat ([Kasim](#page-15-0) et al., 2013) [\(Table](#page-3-0) 1).

Results generated from the above studies clearly point out an important role of ROS-scavenging enzymes in PGPR-mediated drought tolerance. Treatment of plants with selected PGPR induces the over-production of these ROS-scavenging enzymes, which in turn reduce levels of over-produced ROS, thereby conferring drought tolerance. However, there are several key questions to be answered that include determining the following: (1) whether the observed increases are dependent on the physiological status of the plant or the PGPR strain used; (2) if certain strains induce the production of certain ROS-scavenging enzymes; (3) whether there is a correlation between increases in ROS-scavenging enzymes with increasing drought duration; (4) if ROS-scavenging enzymes vary depending on the type of crop investigated; (5) if there are other ROS-scavenging enzymes not traditionally considered that may be induced solely by PGPR; and (6) how the observed results of PGPR treatment translate to the overall improved fitness of the plant.

2.6. Plant growth substances

Plant growth and development including shoot growth (see Section [2.2](#page-10-0)) is under the control of plant growth regulators (substances applied externally) and several phytohormones, including auxins, gibberellins (GAs), cytokinins (CKs), ethylene (ET), and abscisic acid (ABA) [\(Farooq](#page-15-0) et al., 2009). GAs and CKs promote plant growth while ethylene and abscisic acid inhibit growth (Taiz and [Zeiger,](#page-16-0) 2010). Drought stress leads to an increase in the concentrations of substances that inhibit growth, thereby allowing the plants to regulate their water budget ([Farooq](#page-15-0) et al., [2009](#page-15-0)). PGPR treatment promotes plant growth in the presence of drought stress by manipulating and modifying the phytohormone content (Dodd et al., 2010; [Bresson](#page-14-0) et al., 2014). Such modifications include decreasing ET production (Glick et al., 1998; [Belimov](#page-15-0) et al., [2009\)](#page-15-0) and changing the balance of CKs and ABA ([Figueiredo](#page-15-0) et al., 2008; [Cohen](#page-15-0) et al., 2009) or IAA signaling [\(Contesto](#page-14-0) et al., 2010). These modifications have all been associated with drought stress tolerance when PGPR are applied and may contribute to the observed bacterial-mediated drought tolerance.

2.6.1. Auxin

Auxin, also referred to as indole-3-acetic acid (IAA), is an important regulator of plant growth and development, which influences a large number of diverse cellular functions including differentiation of vascular tissues, initiation of lateral and adventitious roots, stimulation of cell division, elongation of stems and roots, and orientation of root and shoot growth in response to light and gravity [\(Glick,](#page-15-0) 1995). Treatment of clover (Trifolium repens L.) plants with PGPR (P. putida and B. megaterium) increased shoot and root biomass and water content under drought stress, and these increases were correlated with increased IAA production also elicited by the applied PGPR ([Marulanda](#page-15-0) et al., [2009](#page-15-0)). Treatment of Arabidopsis plants with PGPR Phyllobacterium brassicacearum strain STM196 resulted in increased lateral root length and modifications of the root architecture that led to the observed drought tolerance [\(Bresson](#page-14-0) et al., 2014). These increases in root length and modifications of the root architecture were correlated with increased IAA concentrations in rhizobacteriatreated plants [\(Contesto](#page-14-0) et al., 2010). These results suggest that bacterial-mediated drought tolerance may be partly mediated by IAA.

2.6.2. Ethylene and ACC deaminase

Ethylene (ET) is synthesized at higher rates as a result of several stress signals, including mechanical wounding, chemicals and metals, flooding, extreme temperatures, pathogen infection and drought ([Johnson](#page-15-0) and Ecker, 1998). 1-Aminocyclopropane-1 carboxylate (ACC) is the immediate precursor of ET in higher plants. Its regulation has been suggested as the principal mechanism by which bacteria exert beneficial effects on plants under abiotic stress, including drought stress ([Saleem](#page-16-0) et al., [2007](#page-16-0)). Some PGPR contain the enzyme ACC deaminase that hydrolyzes ACC into ammonia and alpha-ketobutyrate ([Glick](#page-15-0) et al., 1998; [Shaharoona](#page-15-0) et al., 2006) instead of converting it to ET. This cleavage reduces ACC and ethylene levels in the rhizoplane, thus providing a sink for ACC. Reduced ACC levels lead to a reduction in the levels of endogenous ET, thus eliminating the inhibitory effect of higher ET concentrations ([Glick](#page-15-0) et al., 1998). Consequently, plants are able to maintain normal growth ([Siddikee](#page-16-0) et al., 2011). Several other studies have documented the positive effect ET has on plants experiencing drought stress. For example, treatment of pea plants with Pseudomonas spp. containing ACC deaminase partially eliminated the effects of drought stress ([Arshad](#page-14-0) et al., 2008). Similarly, treatment of tomato (Solanum lycopersicum L.) and pepper (Capsicum annuum L.) seedlings with Achromobacter piechaudii ARV8 reduced the production of ET, which may have contributed to the observed drought tolerance ([Mayak](#page-15-0) et al., 2004). Lim and Kim [\(2013\)](#page-15-0) showed that pepper plants treated with PGPR Bacillus licheniformis K11 tolerated drought stress and had better survival compared to non-treated plants. The authors argued that part of the observed drought tolerance may have been due to the fact that the PGPR applied produced ACC deaminase that reduced ET concentrations by cleaving ACC. It is important to point out that other studies have not found a correlation between ACC deaminase-producing bacteria and drought tolerance. For example, Wang et al. [\(2012\)](#page-16-0) showed that the observed bacterial-mediated tolerance in cucumber plants did not involve the action of ACC deaminase. In addition, production of ACC deaminase is assayed in vitro, under culture conditions different from those found in soil. Hence, production in vitro does not assure production on roots growing under field conditions.

2.6.3. Abscisic acid

Abscisic acid (ABA) plays important roles in many physiological processes in plants and is crucial for the response to environmental stresses such as drought (Porcel et al., 2014; [Cohen](#page-16-0) et al., 2015). Elevated ABA contents in plant organs under drought stress result in physiological changes that modulate plant growth [\(Farooq](#page-15-0) et al., [2009](#page-15-0)). PGPR that elevate the concentrations of ABA can enhance plants' ability to tolerate drought stress. [Arkhipova](#page-14-0) et al. (2007) showed that Bacillus sp.-treated lettuce (Lactuca sativa L.) plants had increased amounts of ABA when compared to non-treated plants. They related the observed drought tolerance to increased ABA levels. Similarly, Cohen et al. [\(2008\)](#page-14-0) reported that Arabidopsis plants that were treated with PGPR Azospirillum brasilense Sp245 had higher ABA content than non-treated plants, and they correlated the observed drought tolerance to the elevated ABA content. There are other explanations that have been advanced to explain the mechanisms by which ABA is able to enhance drought tolerance. One of the explanations is that ABA enhances drought tolerance via regulation of leaf transpiration and root hydraulic conductivity ([Aroca](#page-14-0) et al., 2006). Another explanation is that ABA enhances drought tolerance via the up regulation of aquaporins ([Zhou](#page-16-0) et al., 2012). From these explanations, it is clear that more research is required to understand exactly how bacterial-mediated modifications of ABA contents lead to the observed enhancement of drought tolerance in plants. Apart from ABA, cytokinins have also been reported to have a positive effect on plant growth under drought stress conditions (Timmusk and Wagner, 1999; [Arkhipova](#page-16-0) et al., [2007;](#page-16-0) Liu et al., 2013).

3. Conclusion

This review of the literature indicates that certain strains of PGPR can help plants tolerate drought stress. Some of the physiological mechanisms that have been proposed include alterations in root architecture which results in improved water and nutrient uptake, with positive effects on the overall plant growth, increase in relative water content, increase in several organic and inorganic solutes as well as an increase in the synthesis of osmolytes including proline, increase in antioxidant enzymes that scavenge for reactive oxygen species, and manipulation of phytohormones including IAA, ABA, and CK. The research that has been published so far offers a glimpse into the intricate, complex and intriguing mechanisms underlying bacterial-mediated drought tolerance. New studies on these mechanisms will help improve strategies for the use of PGPR in mediating drought tolerance.

Although it is clear that various PGPR strains help plants mitigate drought stress, the mechanisms involved remain largely speculative. Understanding the mechanisms behind the observed PGPR-observed-drought tolerance mechanisms is important and will contribute to our ability to improve strategies for the use of these beneficial bacteria in mediating drought tolerance. Some of the fundamental questions that remain unanswered are: Is the observed bacterial-mediated drought tolerance due to IAA or there are other mechanisms that are yet to be discovered? Does the observed bacterial-mediated drought tolerance change with plants physiological status?

To understand fully the mechanisms behind the observed bacterial-mediated drought tolerance, there is a need for more systematic studies and screening protocols that would allow scientists to obtain accurate data that can be replicated with greater precision. Currently, it is difficult to compare the responses of plants submitted to a progressive drought stress, imposed by withdrawing water for several days, to the responses of PGPRtreated plants submitted to a more immediate drought stress, imposed by watering with an osmotically active agent such as PEG for several hours. Similarly, it is difficult to compare results generated from using sterilized soils to results obtained from agriculturally relevant soils. Moreover, there is the need to take into consideration the diversity of physical-chemical characteristics of soils which may be impacted by drought stress and the PGPR, and which may also further impact beneficial microbes including PGPR ([Bérard](#page-14-0) et al., 2015). Further, results generated from using plants that have been subjected to different screening protocols cannot be easily compared.

Among the many adaptive traits that plants possess to endure drought, root system architecture is one of the most important. Plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria and microbial inoculants are specifically known for their excellent ability to promote root growth and significantly improve root architecture; changes that increase the volume of soil explored and consequently the uptake of water and nutrients. These alterations in root architecture are important traits for drought tolerance. However, there are fewer studies that have looked into understanding if the ability of PGPR to improve root growth and parameters, hence, enhanced drought tolerance can be harnessed in breeding programs.

Under natural environments, drought hardly ever occurs in the absence of other stress factors. Most important are biotic stressors such as plant diseases, pathogens and insects. Bacterial inoculants are widely known for their ability to induce systemic resistance to biotic stresses including plant diseases and insects. Therefore, identification of bacterial strains with potential to confer tolerance to biotic and abiotic stress would be valuable. Similarly, understanding how the mechanisms behind ISR and those behind observed bacterial-mediated drought tolerance overlap would be valuable.

The review of literature also suggests that bacterial collections from drought-prone areas performed better in increasing plants' tolerance to drought stress than those that were isolated from areas that do not experience drought. However, this relation, drawn from a few studies, needs to be validated in more cases. While there have been suggestions for this, it is not clear if higher percentages of PGPR isolated from dry environments will confer drought tolerance compared to collections of PGPR from "normal" agricultural fields. Overall, there is a continuing need to screen collections of PGPR for drought tolerance from diverse environments.

When designing methods to screen PGPR for drought tolerance, researchers face two complementary requirements. The first is to simplify the system in order to facilitate elucidation of the most important drought-adaptive features that may be expressed in plants that are treated with beneficial microbes. The second is to evaluate the broader value of these PGPR-related, droughtadaptive features in a breeding and agronomically sound context. Therefore, it is important to develop screening protocols that can be used by many scientists to evaluate PGPR-related, droughtadaptive features. This will help scientists create accurate data that can be replicated with greater precision. Although there are many studies reporting the capacity of PGPR to improve plants' tolerance of drought stress, the methods employed in the studies have been quite diverse. Additionally, most of the studies used sterile soils, and hence the relevance of the reported results to "real" field conditions is unclear. Moreover, soil sterilization may induce changes in soil physical-chemical characteristics. Such changes in the soil may affect plants response to drought stress [\(Bérard](#page-14-0) et al., [2015](#page-14-0)).

The outcome of PGPR-mediated drought tolerance may depend on the interaction between the strain of PGPR used and soil type ([Cairns](#page-14-0) et al., 2009, 2011) as well as the plants ability to benefit from PGPR populations occurring naturally in the soils (Den [Herder](#page-14-0) et al., [2010](#page-14-0)). Coarse sandy or gravelly soils have been reported to allow for thinner roots to develop, which lead to improved soil penetration, and may ultimately translate to drought tolerance (Cairns et al., 2009). In addition, the outcome of PGPR-mediated drought tolerance may be influenced by the duration and severity of the stress and the age and stage of the plant's development at the point of drought exposure. Moreover, the performance of effective PGPR strains must be evaluated under field conditions where plants are more likely to experience cyclic drought rather than continuous drought. In these evaluations the effect of PGPR on overall crop yield should be documented. Ultimately, integrating testing of PGPR strains into plant breeding strategies for drought tolerance may help agriculture adapt to continued climate change.

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