

Drought and climate change impacts on plant metabolism: A review

Impactos da seca e das mudanças climáticas no metabolismo das plantas: Uma revisão

Impactos de la sequía y el cambio climático en el metabolismo de las plantas: Una revisión

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Abstract

Drought and predicted changes in climate, such as increased atmospheric CO₂ concentration and high temperature, may affect the growth and productivity of crop plants and generate varying responses, including morphological, physiological, biochemical and molecular changes. Water deficit negatively affects photosynthesis, while increasing CO₂ can benefit plants and attenuate photo-oxidative damage, especially in C₃ metabolism species. However, the excess heat associated with this increase can affect photosynthetic efficiency differently, depending on the species and/or variety studied. In addition, the responses to the combination of these factors are poorly understood and cannot be extracted directly from the effects of each of these agents applied in isolation. This review sought to address the isolated and combined effects of water deficit and climate change on agricultural production, reporting how plant metabolism is affected by rising temperatures and high CO₂ concentration. This understanding is important to monitor the behavior of plants in the face of future climatic scenarios in order to develop strategies that can confer resistance to plants and ensure food security for agricultural production.

Keywords: Climate change; Crop production; Drought; Plant metabolism.

Resumo

A seca e as mudanças previstas no clima, como aumento da concentração de CO₂ atmosférico e a elevada temperatura, poderão afetar o crescimento e a produtividade das plantas agrícolas e gerar respostas variadas, incluindo mudanças morfológicas, fisiológicas, bioquímicas e moleculares. O déficit hídrico afeta negativamente a fotossíntese, enquanto o aumento do CO₂ pode beneficiar as plantas e atenuar o dano fotooxidativo, especialmente em espécies do metabolismo C₃. No entanto, o excesso de calor associado a este aumento pode afetar diferentemente a eficiência fotossintética, dependendo da espécie e/ou variedade estudada. Além disso, as respostas à combinação desses fatores são mal compreendidas e não podem ser extraídas diretamente dos efeitos de cada um desses agentes aplicados isoladamente.

Esta revisão procurou abordar os efeitos isolados e combinados do déficit hídrico e das mudanças climáticas na produção agrícola, relatando como o metabolismo das plantas é afetado pelo aumento da temperatura e elevada concentração de CO₂. Esse entendimento é importante para monitorar o comportamento das plantas frente aos cenários climáticos futuros e para desenvolver estratégias que possam conferir tolerância às plantas e garantir a segurança alimentar para a produção agrícola.

Palavras-chave: Metabolismo vegetal; Mudanças climáticas; Produção agrícola; Seca.

Resumen

La sequía y los cambios climáticos previstos, como el aumento de la concentración de CO₂ atmosférico y las altas temperaturas, pueden afectar el crecimiento y la productividad de las plantas agrícolas y generar respuestas variadas, incluidos cambios morfológicos, fisiológicos, bioquímicos y moleculares. El déficit de agua afecta negativamente a la fotosíntesis, mientras que el aumento de CO₂ puede beneficiar a las plantas y atenuar el daño fotooxidativo, especialmente en especies de metabolismo C3. Sin embargo, el exceso de calor asociado con este aumento puede afectar la eficiencia fotosintética de manera diferente según la especie y/o variedad estudiada. Además, las respuestas a la combinación de estos factores son poco conocidas y no pueden extraerse directamente de los efectos de cada uno de estos agentes aplicados de forma aislada. Esta revisión buscó abordar los efectos aislados y combinados del déficit de agua y el cambio climático en la producción agrícola, informando cómo el metabolismo de las plantas se ve afectado por el aumento de las temperaturas y la alta concentración de CO₂. Esta comprensión es importante para monitorear el comportamiento de las plantas en escenarios climáticos futuros y para desarrollar estrategias que puedan proporcionar resistencia a las plantas y garantizar la seguridad alimentaria para la producción agrícola.

Palabras clave: Cambio climático; Metabolismo vegetal; Producción agrícola; Sequía.

1. Introduction

Water constraints caused by changing weather conditions, especially rainfall, tend to impact crop production in many areas, affecting food security in vulnerable environments such as arid and semi-arid regions, creating a level of uncertainty for agricultural systems (Daryanto, Wang & Jacinthe, 2017). The challenge of drought is a global reality affecting agriculture in both developed and developing countries and is expected to worsen if climate change persists (Elliott, et al., 2017).

The precipitation pattern has been changing, indicating a tendency to increase the rainfall intensity, but a decrease in its frequency, which plays a major role in determining the spatial patterns and variations of the globe (Chen & Dai, 2017). Parallel to this, global warming is also a strong contributor to drought intensifies in the subtropics (Hansen & Sato, 2016), this is directly related to an increase in surface warming and consequent real crop evapotranspiration, being the heat responsible for the increasing occurrence of drought, establishing it faster and more intensely (Trenberth, et al., 2013).

A study of national grain production losses worldwide, based on extreme weather disasters reported during 1964-2007, found that drought resulted in a reduction of approximately 10.1% of all production, and that this damage is mainly associated with a decrease in harvested area and crop yields of 5.1% and 4.1% respectively (Lesk, Rowhani & Ramankutty, 2016). Another estimate ensures that in China, average drought-related grain loss reaches nearly 39.2 billion kilograms per year (Leng, Tang & Rexburg, 2015).

Another concern is the increasing concentration of CO₂ observed in the atmosphere in the last 150 years, which, although it has been accompanied by greater CO₂ assimilation and storage in terrestrial ecosystems, there is evidence that this increase causes high temperatures and intensifies the stress caused by drought (Ainsworth, et al., 2020). This could limit the ability of future terrestrial ecosystems to protect themselves from atmospheric emissions (Stuart Chapin & Díaz, 2020).

Based on this, different sectors, including agriculture, will be in the process of adapting to address global change (Ludwig & Asseng, 2010), being the understanding plant metabolism an important tool for breeding programs, a technological alternative to produce varieties that adapt well under these restrictive growing conditions (Langridge & Reynolds, 2015). Therefore, studies on multifactorial interactions, which simulate the natural conditions under which plants are imposed, become more important than isolated analyzes, as they reach strategies to subsidize the development of increasingly resistant cultivars and minimize the impact of these and other conditions in the future.

2. Methodology

This qualitative study is a literature review, that has the objective to gather information on the effects of climate change, especially drought, increased temperature, and increased carbon dioxide in the photosynthetic metabolism of plants. This understanding is important to help plant improvement programs, in the search for technologies and varieties that are tolerant to the conditions foreseen for the coming years. For this, we carry out vast research in databases, using articles published in national and international scientific journals, covering data from research institutes, as well as master's dissertations, books, and technical press releases.

3. Results and Discussion

Impacts of drought on crop production

Metabolic, molecular disorders and growth restrictions

Water stress due to deficit can limit plant germination and development (Vibhuti, et al., 2015) and among the various consequences of drought on plant development, changes in growth, dry matter and yield are commonly reported (Jaleel, et al., 2009; Lipiec, et al., 2013), being the tolerance mainly dependent on the specie (Maréchaux, et al., 2015). These changes can be explained by the malfunctioning or inhibition of the vital processes of plants under stress that require water, such as metabolic functions, ion and nutrient transport, cell development and solute translocation (Zargar, et al., 2017).

Analysis of plant performance patterns under water stress is important mainly because impacts are related to both endogenous factors such as size and stomatal density, root size or plant height, as well as environmental conditions such as temperature of air and soil, moisture, and photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) (Bollig & Feller, 2014). In water deficit conditions there is induction of stomatal closure and consequent reduction of stomatal conductance, affecting the gas exchange process by restricting the influx of atmospheric CO₂ into the carboxylation sites in the leaf mesophyll (Andrianasolo, et al., 2016; Lawlor & Cornic, 2002). As a result, the net CO₂ assimilation decreases and may result in a significant increase in the NADPH/NADP⁺ ratio in chloroplasts as a result of reduced Calvin cycle activity and photosynthetic restriction (Foyer & Noctor, 2000).

Many plant species naturally accumulate some substances when exposed to different abiotic stresses, such as water deficit. Osmotic adjustment and accumulation of compatible solutes are directly related to the plant's role in adapting to dehydration, mainly by maintaining turgor and protecting specific cellular functions (Blum, 2017). These compounds are known to play an adaptive role in osmotic mediation and protection of subcellular structures when the plant is under stress (Vibhuti, et al., 2015).

In addition to hormonal signaling and anatomical adaptations at the cellular level caused by water stress, the accumulation of these low molecular weight compounds (e.g. proline and gibberellins) (Lipiec, et al., 2013), as well as specifically increasing carotenoids (Jaleel, et al., 2009) are important for stress tolerance. Blum (2017) states that the relationship of osmotic adjustment to produce under stress is mediated by a cell turgor support or higher stomatal conductance, confirming that within some crops, such as wheat, corn, sorghum and sunflower, adjustment is associated with higher root growth and consequent improvement in soil water uptake.

At the roots, plants also manifest numerous adaptive changes in response to dehydration. Decreased root hydraulic conductivity is induced, reducing water flow to the plant while preventing loss of water from the plant to dry soil (Lipiec, et al., 2013). However, time to stress exposure can also influence the type of response. In the short term drought promotes higher root growth as a strategy to improve water uptake (Comas, et al., 2013), having this opposite effect with prolonged exposure,

which results in shrinkage and anatomical deformations of the root, disrupting the defense mechanisms and leading to a reduction in yield or even death (Zargar, et al., 2017).

Changes in photorespiratory activity

In dry conditions the photorespiratory activity is intensified, which occurs mainly in species of C3 metabolism (Foyer, et al., 2009). In these species, the photorespiratory activity may contribute to dissipate the excess of reducing power and energy from the photochemical phase of photosynthesis (Embiale, et al., 2016; Takahashi & Badger, 2010). Photorespiratory activity is present in both C4 and C3 species, being most intense in the latter, and may be increased in both species by abiotic stresses such as elevated temperatures, water deficit and excess light (Foyer & Noctor, 2003; Rivas, et al., 2016; Takahashi & Badger, 2010; Zelitch, et al., 2009).

In theory, the most accepted metabolic function performed by photorespiration is the dissipation of excess reducing power, which, although decreasing the quantum yield of photosynthesis can be considered physiologically favorable under water stress conditions (Foyer, et al., 2012). This energy dissipation through photorespiration can prevent damage such as photoinhibition due to excess light by allowing the metabolism to continue using electron chain products (Takahashi, Bauwe & Badger, 2007; Wingler, et al., 2000).

The dissipation of excess energy through increased photorespiration occurs associated with the production of hydrogen peroxide in peroxisome through the action of glycolate oxidase (GO) enzyme (Foyer, et al., 2009). GO is a photorespiratory enzyme that catalyzes the oxidation of glycolate in peroxisome, producing during this reaction equimolar amounts of glyoxylate and hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) (Xu, et al., 2009), being dependent on glycolate supply through oxygenation of 1,5-bisphosphate (RuBP) ribulose in the chloroplast (South, et al., 2019).

In photosynthetic cells peroxisomes are considered the main H₂O₂ producing sites, followed by chloroplasts and mitochondria, other potentially H₂O₂ producing organelles as byproducts of photosynthetic and respiratory metabolism, respectively (Foyer & Noctor, 2003). Therefore, GO activity is favored by conditions that limit the diffusion of CO₂ from the outside of the leaf to photosynthetic cells, such as stomatal closure caused by water stress (Noctor & Mhamdi, 2017).

However, this photosynthetic repair process causes losses for proper carbon assimilation through Rubisco carboxylation. About 25% is not recovered (Hodges, et al., 2016). Therefore, some recent studies use various strategies to reduce the costs of photorespiration. Chamber and greenhouse plants with altered photorespiratory pathways within the chloroplast showed promising results, including increased photosynthetic rates, plant size, and yield, as reported in *Camelina sativa* (Dalal, et al., 2015). South et al. (2019), for example, they have built metabolic pathways in transgenic tobacco plants that are able to more efficiently recapture the unproductive byproducts of photosynthesis with less lost energy. In field trials, these transgenic tobacco plants were ~ 40% more productive than wild type tobacco plants.

Impact of temperature rise

Temperature fluctuations are challenges facing agricultural environments over time, and concern crop production in the coming years (IPCC, 2013). Temperature, directly influenced by the increase in greenhouse gases, has changed atypically over the past two decades, and is warming up to almost 0.2 °C per decade, which is a 50 times faster rate than the natural glacial-interglacial cycle (Nobre, et al., 2012). According to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change report (IPCC, 2007) the likely range of temperature increase is between 1.8 °C and 4.2 °C by the end of the century and warming appears unambiguous. Given this scenario, there is the following question: can climate changes allow for acclimatization and adaptation of species, as these changes will occur gradually? Some say that in many cases the adaptation of plants is unlikely

to match the pace or magnitude of predicted climate change (Jump & Penuelas, 2005), and this can have considerable impacts on crop yield.

Photosynthesis is light dependent and is modulated by leaf temperature (Greer, 2015) and other environmental conditions, and it is important to understand how variations in climate affect this process (Bagley, et al., 2015). Photorespiratory activity is present in species with higher intensity in C₃ metabolism, and may be intensified by abiotic stresses such as elevated temperatures, water deficit and excess light. (Foyer & Noctor, 2003; Rivas, et al., 2016; Takahashi & Badger, 2010; Zelitch, et al., 2009). The solubility of CO₂ in water increases with lower heat intensity compared to the solubility of O₂ under the same conditions. Thus, raising the temperature may reduce the CO₂/O₂ ratio in the cell and may lead to lower CO₂ availability of the Rubisco carboxylation site, which favors Rubisco oxygenase activity and stimulates photorespiration (Foyer & Noctor, 2000). In addition, excess heat can affect Rubisco's kinetic properties, stimulating oxygenase activity to the detriment of carboxylase activity (Ehleringer & Helliker, 1997).

Studies show that under high temperature plants can have their photosynthetic activity compromised (Dusenge, et al., 2019), or even modulate transpiration parameters and stomatal conductance in the hope of keeping the leaves cool (Barroso Neto, et al., 2018). Keeping the leaf temperature at or slightly below the air temperature proves the cooling capacity of the various cultivars or species, via transpiration, in order to keep the plant protected from very high thermal bands (Oliveira, Fernandes & Rodrigues, 2005).

Moreover, the high temperature can cause even greater damage, directly related to the photosynthetic apparatus (Wise, et al., 2004). This can lead to changes in the thylakoid membrane and alter the physical-chemical properties and, also, the functional organization of these cellular structures (Alberto & Borges, 2009). As a consequence, there may be a blocking of the reaction centers of the PSII and, then, the dissociation of the protein-pigment complex of the central nucleus of the PSII light-collecting apparatus (Armond, Schreiber & Björkman, 1978).

From germination to reproduction, thermal stress can harm all growth stages of vegetables, especially in the main crops, causing negative impacts on agricultural production (Hussain, et al., 2019). In wheat, for example, this stress is linked to the reproductive and grain filling stages (Abdelrahman et al. 2020), and an increase of 1 °C can cause a 4-6% reduction in the average global production (Asseng, et al., 2014). Other processes and organs that are quite affected and vulnerable to temperature rise are those related to seeds, including regulation of the development of fertilization or abnormalities in flowering (Pareek, et al., 2020)

The resilience of cultures in this scenario depends on genetic mechanisms, which play an important role in responding to rising temperatures (Janni, et al., 2020). Genotypes more tolerant to high temperatures showed a significant increase in sugars, alcohols and phosphate when performed an analysis of the metabolite profile of wheat genotypes (Impa, et al., 2019). The main effects caused by the increase in temperature in plants are related to the alteration of photosynthetic processes, phenology and biomass partition; reduced growth, productivity and quality; inhibition of germination and photosynthesis; among others, such as improper development, oxidative stress and water loss (Chiu, et al., 2016; Eyshi Rezaei, et al., 2015; Hasanuzzaman, et al., 2012, 2013a, 2013b; Mathur, et al., 2014; Xiong, et al., 2017).

Impacts of increased CO₂ concentration

Interaction with climate change and agriculture

The high concentration of atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) is a major component of climate change (IPCC, 2018), increasing from pre-industrial level from 280 μmol mol⁻¹ in 1750 to 400 μmol mol⁻¹ today, and with forecasts for 900 μmol mol⁻¹ in the late 21st century (IPCC, 2007; Xu, et al., 2016). Although disputed, this prediction has raised major concerns

about plant behavior, mainly because this increase in CO₂ may come combined and/or cause other climate changes, such as global warming and reduced rainfall.

There is a positive interaction between climate change and the increase in CO₂ concentration, which can significantly dampen the decrease in global gross domestic product (GDP) by the end of the 21st century (Pan, et al., 2018). Combining climate change with increasing CO₂ concentration would increase global water use efficiency (WUE), suggesting that this increase could mitigate climate change-induced WUE decline, especially in high latitude regions (Weiwei, et al., 2018). However, these answers will be more reliable when we get more detailed studies on evapotranspiration in an environment with twice the CO₂ concentration we have today.

Potential changes in growth and development

Increasing atmospheric CO₂ concentration will likely affect plant development and physiology (Broughton, et al., 2017), being generally associated with an increase in vegetative growth and total leaf area, which may consequently increase plant water use (Lewis, et al., 2013). This response to growth is mainly determined by increasing the photosynthesis rate per unit area of leaf and decreasing specific leaf area (Poorter & Navas, 2003).

Despite the acclimatization of photosynthetic capacity, as measured by the maximum carboxylation and electron transport rates, recent studies with high ambient CO₂ concentrations on photosynthetic responses in C3 plants show that photosynthetic carbon absorption is enhanced (Leakey, et al., 2009). In addition, carbon dioxide enrichment often reduces leaf transpiration, which can increase soil water content, improving plant development in water-constrained environments, and increasing community productivity (Fay, et al., 2015).

Two are the reactions commonly related to the effects of high CO₂ on plants: one linked to stomatal effects and the other effects metabolic. In addition to providing plus carbon and causing the partial closure of the stomata, the high CO₂ can also induce metabolic changes involving levels of reactive oxygen species, possibly resulting in an increased protective capacity of the antioxidant defense system (AbdElgawad, et al., 2016). A defense system study, analyzed in *Arabidopsis thaliana*, revealed that high CO₂ activates some multiple defense pathways, leading to greater resistance to biotic and abiotic stresses, but when analyzing specific mutant genes, the evidence that activation of these plant defense pathways to this condition were caused by stomatal closure, being partly related to the metabolic effects involving redox signaling (Mhamdi & Noctor, 2016).

Although the explanations of the crucial biochemical pathways that regulate this signaling to high CO₂ have not been completed, the increase in plant growth is often reported. In your experiment with wheat, O'leary et al. (2015) observed a significant increase in biomass, leaf area index and photosynthetic area index under high CO₂, and this increased vegetative growth resulted in a 26% increase in grain yield. Although most responses reveal increased growth related, this effect is also dependent on the species and its possible tolerance to some stresses. For example, the effects of drought on three maize genotypes were also attenuated by CO₂ enrichment, but reduced growth was observed in a highly drought-resistant hybrid, the first effect being related to improved stress tolerance, reducing loss, improving soil moisture content and increasing the potential of water in the leaves (Yang, et al., 2014).

Gas exchange and stomatal functions

The large variability in plant responses to high CO₂ concentrations, especially among species, gives different strategies for controlling gas exchange, and it is not yet clear whether there is a coordinated action between the physiology and morphology of these plants. These responses are mainly dependent on species, plant age, type of experiment, exposure time, nutritional availability and other factors (Ainsworth & Long, 2005; Nowak, Ellsworth & Smith, 2004).

Many experiments have reported an increase in photosynthesis, evidenced mainly in C3 plants, attributed to a higher carbon availability at the carboxylation sites, reducing the photorespiration process (Gamage, et al., 2018; Bowes, 1991) and increasing biomass (O'leary, et al., 2015). In addition, a decrease in stomatal conductance (g_s) is usually observed when plants are subjected to an increase in high CO₂ concentration in the growing environment (Flexas, et al., 2007; Gao, et al., 2015; Uddin, et al., 2018).

An atypical response to these findings was that found by Lahive, Hadley & Daymond (2017), when they tested this condition in cocoa, obtaining significantly higher stomatal conductance in plants at high CO₂, which could be explained by the reflection of the environment in which the crop is submitted (moist). However, contrary to this hypothesis, and despite being a rare response, a higher stomatal conductance associated with CO₂ increase may also occur in species adapted to hot and low humidity conditions (Purcell, et al., 2018).

Although not interfering with carbon absorption processes, the stomatal partial closure under high CO₂ can alter the water balance of the plants. When stomatal conductance decreases, there is automatically less perspiration, and consequently the greater efficiency in water use (Easlon, et al., 2015). This fact is explained by the lower water loss due to partial stomatal closure under higher CO₂ concentration. This stomatal control is accomplished by regulating stomatal opening through changes in guard cell turgor and by changes in stomatal density and leaf area during development (Haworth, Elliott-Kingston & McElwain, 2013).

The increase in temperature due to the concentration of greenhouse gases in the environment should also influence gas exchange in plants, since the solubility of CO₂ in water increases with less intensity in the heat compared to the solubility of O₂ under the same conditions. Thus, raising the temperature may reduce the CO₂/O₂ ratio in the cell and may lead to lower CO₂ availability at the Rubisco carboxylation site, which favors Rubisco oxygenase activity and stimulates photorespiration (Foyer & Noctor, 2000). In addition, excess heat can affect Rubisco's kinetic properties, stimulating oxygenase activity to the detriment of carboxylase activity (Ehleringer, Cerling & Helliker, 1997).

Accordingly, while the increase in ambient carbon dioxide facilitates the water issues of stomatal regulation (Barroso Neto, 2019), and increasing photosynthetic efficiency (Ainsworth & Long, 2005), in contrast, the high temperatures stimulate the photorespiratory cycle reactions in plants (Betti, et al., 2016; Walker, et al., 2016). This heterogeneity of plant responses between high CO₂ and its consequences on the environment is a pertinent question that has been heavily studied, showing that other climate variables, such as the projected increase in global temperature, may nullify the possible benefits by itself of the high concentration of CO₂ (Eller, et al., 2014; Wang, et al., 2016).

A recent question is whether increasing CO₂ concentrations will influence plant sensitivity to water stress, and whether increased growth may mean less water requirement under these conditions through better water use efficiency. As a result of decreased transpiration and increases in net photosynthesis, plants have been shown to maintain higher water use efficiency when grown under high CO₂ than when grown under ambient conditions (Tyree & Alexander, 1993), considered the main effect of CO₂ enrichment on growth enhancement (Morgan, et al., 2001).

High plant growth by increasing CO₂, however, may be limited by other aspects, such as available water, making the presence of a positive effect of CO₂ increment dependent on this factor (Reich, Hobbie & Lee, 2014). Lewis et al. (2013) suggest in their results with eucalyptus that gas was the main factor regulating the effects of increasing atmospheric CO₂ on photosynthetic responses to short term drought. Among the favorable effects, an increase in net CO₂ assimilation rates has been reported, both in the absence (Aspinwall, et al., 2018) of as in the presence of abiotic stresses, such as water deficit (Paudel, et al., 2018). Oliveira et al. (2013) on your results showed that CO₂ increase favored the maintenance of tissue turgor, contributing to the maintenance of high rates of CO₂ assimilation in a native Cerrado plant under water stress.

On the other hand, exposure time can influence plant responses to high CO₂. The increase in photosynthesis in the early stages of exposure to high CO₂ concentration may not be sustained for a longer period (Gamage, et al., 2018). This phenomenon is known as “photosynthetic acclimatization” and has been widely reported in the literature and has been attributed to several mechanisms such as the decline in nitrogen supply to leaves (Seneweera, et al., 2011), accumulation of nonstructural carbohydrates, or by inhibition by feedback and physical damage to chloroplast (Delucia, Sasek & Strain, 1985).

Photorespiratory modulation in the absence and under drought

As has been said, photorespiration, increased by water stress, is an important source of H₂O₂, and is certainly affected by the change in CO₂ concentration (Zinta, et al., 2014). It is then believed that high CO₂ can mitigate the impact of stress by decreasing photorespiration, resulting in lower hydrogen peroxide production (Abdelgawad, et al., 2016; Foyer, et al., 2009). The hypotheses supporting these claims are that high CO₂ increases the supply of chloroplast electron acceptors (Mhamdi & Noctor, 2016), which can ultimately limit electron leakage to oxygen, ensuring NADP⁺ regeneration (Foyer, et al., 2012), and avoiding the formation of reactive oxygen species in exacerbated amounts, thus avoiding the consequent oxidative stress.

This pathway, however, is not the only hydrogen peroxide producer, the which may not be a very confident direct relationship. In addition, photorespiration appears to be a part of the stress response to prevent the formation of reactive oxygen species (ROS), despite being a source of production in peroxisomes. The importance of photorespiratory reactions in keeping reactive oxygen species levels low and therefore protect against oxidative damage under a variety of stress conditions (Voss, et al., 2013). Another important point is that photorespiration also provides metabolites for other processes of plant metabolism, for example glycine for glutathione synthesis, which is also involved in protecting against stress (Wingler, et al., 2000).

This still persistent impasse over the real role of photorespiration is due to the fact that this process involves metabolic communication between various subcellular compartments (Noctor & Mhamdi, 2017). In addition, some recent studies have already used in research that seeks alternative pathways for this process in order to increase photosynthesis in plants. Important findings have been made using genetically modified models deficient in various photorespiration enzymes, such as those found in *Arabidopsis thaliana*, and also for other crops such as rice (Noctor & Mhamdi, 2017).

4. Conclusion

Plant production will be directly influenced by the lack of water and climate change, such as the increase in CO₂ concentration and temperature rise, expected by the end of the century. Although there is evidence that increased CO₂ can benefit and even mitigate the detrimental effects of drought, the rise in temperature caused by this increase in greenhouse gases tends to nullify this improvement. Alternatives that alleviate this tension between environmental phenomena and plant growth are needed to ensure world food security. This will only be possible, with the help of science, which will understand plant behavior in order to modify management or improve the mechanisms and alter genes that confer resistance to plants against future abiotic stresses.

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