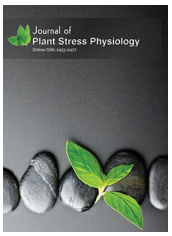
Journal of Plant Stress Physiology 2025, 11: 19-25
doi: 10.25081/jpsp.2025.v11.9126
https://updatepublishing.com/journal/index.php/jpsp

Review Article



ISSN: 2455-0477

Mitigating plant environmental stressors: Exploring sustainable and eco-friendly solutions

Okon Godwin Okon*

Department of Botany, Faculty of Biological Sciences, Akwa Ibom State University, Nigeria

ABSTRACT

Environmental stressors, both abiotic (e.g., drought, salinity, temperature extremes) and biotic (e.g., pests, diseases, weeds), pose significant challenges to plant health, affecting growth, yield, and overall agricultural productivity. Traditional mitigation methods, including chemical interventions and mechanical techniques, often come with environmental and sustainability concerns, necessitating a shift towards more sustainable practices. This review explores innovative approaches and technologies aimed at mitigating plant environmental stressors in an eco-friendly manner. Precision agriculture and smart farming, leveraging advanced technologies such as IoT, AI, and remote sensing, allow for optimized input application, enhancing crop resilience while minimizing environmental impact. The use of biostimulants and biofertilizers promotes plant growth and stress tolerance through natural mechanisms, reducing reliance on chemical fertilizers. Additionally, renewable energy and water conservation techniques, including solar-powered irrigation and rainwater harvesting, offer sustainable solutions to resource management in agriculture. The integration of these strategies, along with advancements in biotechnology such as genetic engineering and the development of stress-resistant crop varieties, provides a holistic approach to addressing the challenges posed by environmental stressors. As agriculture faces the dual pressures of increasing food demand and climate change, these innovative methods are crucial for ensuring sustainable crop production and long-term ecosystem health. The review highlights the need for continued research and ethical considerations in the adoption of these technologies to balance productivity with environmental stewardship.

KEYWORDS: Agriculture, Biostimulants, Biofertilizer, Fertilizer, Mycorrhiza, Stress

Received: August 26, 2024
Revised: May 16, 2025
Accepted: May 18, 2025
Published: June 09, 2025

***Corresponding author:**
Okon Godwin Okon
E-mail: okonokon@aksu.edu.ng

INTRODUCTION

Plants are constantly exposed to a variety of environmental stressors that can significantly impact their growth, development, and productivity. These stressors, broadly categorized into abiotic and biotic types, pose a significant challenge to global agriculture and natural ecosystems. Abiotic stressors include non-living factors such as drought, salinity, extreme temperatures, and nutrient deficiencies, while biotic stressors involve living organisms like pests, pathogens, and weeds (Zhu, 2001). The increasing frequency and intensity of these stressors, exacerbated by climate change, underscore the urgent need for effective mitigation strategies that are both sustainable and eco-friendly.

The effects of environmental stressors on plants are profound and multifaceted. Abiotic stressors such as drought and salinity can lead to osmotic stress, disrupting water and nutrient uptake, and causing physiological changes like stomatal closure, reduced photosynthesis, and oxidative damage (Chaves *et al.*, 2009). Similarly, temperature extremes can impair enzyme function and destabilize cellular membranes, further compromising plant health (Bita & Gerats, 2013). Biotic stressors, including attacks from pathogens and pests, can trigger a cascade of defensive responses in plants, such as the production of secondary metabolites and the activation of signalling pathways. However, these defensive measures often come at the cost of reduced growth and reproductive output (Glazebrook, 2005).

The cumulative impact of these stressors can lead to substantial yield losses, threatening food security and the sustainability of agricultural systems. For example, it is estimated that abiotic stressors alone are responsible for over 50% of global crop yield losses annually (Boyer, 1982). Moreover, the effects of these stressors are not isolated; they often interact synergistically, compounding their detrimental effects on plants (Mittler, 2006). This highlights the complexity of the challenge and the need for comprehensive strategies that address multiple stressors simultaneously.

TYPES OF PLANT ENVIRONMENTAL STRESSORS

Plant environmental stressors can be broadly classified into abiotic and biotic categories. Each of these stressors can

Copyright: © The authors. This article is open access and licensed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/) which permits unrestricted, use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, or format for any purpose, even commercially provided the work is properly cited. Attribution — You must give appropriate credit, provide a link to the license, and indicate if changes were made.

severely impact plant growth, development, and productivity. Additionally, plants often face multiple stressors simultaneously, leading to complex interactions and compounded effects, known as combined stressors.

Abiotic Stressors

Abiotic stressors refer to non-living environmental factors that can adversely affect plant health. Some of the most common abiotic stressors include drought, salinity, temperature extremes, etc.

Drought

Drought is one of the most significant abiotic stressors affecting plants, particularly in arid and semi-arid regions. It leads to water deficit, which can cause a range of physiological responses in plants, such as stomatal closure, reduced photosynthesis, and impaired cell growth (Tardieu *et al.*, 2018). Prolonged drought conditions can result in wilting, reduced leaf area, and ultimately, decreased crop yields (Chaves *et al.*, 2003).

Salinity

Soil salinity is another major abiotic stressor, particularly in coastal and irrigated agricultural areas. High salt concentrations in the soil can lead to osmotic stress, which hampers water uptake by plant roots and causes ion toxicity, leading to cellular damage (Munns & Tester, 2008). Salinity stress often results in stunted growth, leaf chlorosis, and reduced productivity (Zhu, 2001).

Temperature extremes

Plants are sensitive to temperature variations, with both high and low extremes posing significant stress. Heat stress can disrupt cellular processes, leading to protein denaturation and membrane instability, while cold stress can cause ice formation in tissues, leading to cell death (Thakur *et al.*, 2010; Bita & Gerats, 2013). Both types of temperature stress can impair photosynthesis, reduce growth rates, and negatively impact reproductive success.

Biotic Stressors

Biotic stressors are caused by living organisms, including pests, pathogens, weeds, etc., that can damage plants or compete with them for resources.

Pests

Insects and other herbivores are common biotic stressors that feed on plant tissues, leading to physical damage and loss of biomass. Pest infestations can also open up pathways for secondary infections by pathogens (Howe & Jander, 2008). The damage caused by pests can range from minor leaf damage to complete defoliation, significantly reducing crop yields.

Diseases

Plant diseases caused by bacteria, fungi, viruses, and nematodes are major biotic stressors. These pathogens can infect plants through wounds, stomata, or directly penetrate plant tissues. Infected plants often exhibit symptoms such as wilting, chlorosis, necrosis, and stunted growth (Agrios, 2005). Plant diseases can lead to significant yield losses and are a major concern in both agriculture and natural ecosystems.

Weeds

Weeds compete with crops for essential resources such as light, water, and nutrients, often outcompeting them due to their aggressive growth habits. This competition can lead to reduced crop vigor, lower yields, and increased production costs associated with weed management (Oerke, 2006). Some weeds can also harbor pests and diseases, further exacerbating the stress on crops.

Combined Stressors and their Synergistic Effects

In natural and agricultural environments, plants are often subjected to multiple stressors simultaneously, leading to combined stress conditions. The interaction between abiotic and biotic stressors can be synergistic, where the combined effect is greater than the sum of the individual effects. For example, drought-stressed plants may be more susceptible to pest attacks due to weakened defenses, or salt-stressed plants may be more vulnerable to disease (Atkinson & Urwin, 2012). These combined stressors can lead to more severe outcomes, such as accelerated senescence, increased mortality rates, and significant yield reductions.

The synergistic effects of combined stressors present a significant challenge for plant survival and productivity. Understanding these interactions is critical for developing effective strategies to mitigate their impact. Research has shown that plants exposed to multiple stressors often exhibit complex responses that cannot be predicted by studying each stressor in isolation (Mittler, 2006). This complexity underscores the need for integrated approaches to managing plant stress, combining traditional practices with innovative, sustainable solutions.

IMPACT OF ENVIRONMENTAL STRESSORS ON PLANT HEALTH

Physiological and Biochemical Responses

Environmental stressors like drought, salinity, and temperature extremes can reduce the efficiency of photosynthesis by causing stomatal closure, which limits CO_2 uptake (Chaves *et al.*, 2009). Stress conditions often lead to the overproduction of reactive oxygen species (ROS), which can damage cellular structures such as membranes, proteins, and DNA (Mittler, 2006). Stress conditions also trigger changes in hormone levels, such as increased abscisic acid (ABA) during drought, which helps in stomatal closure but also slows down growth processes (Peleg & Blumwald, 2011).

Impact on Growth, Yield, and Quality

Stressors like drought and salinity slow down cell division and elongation, leading to reduced plant height and biomass (Munns, 2002). Environmental stressors are a major cause of yield reduction in crops. For instance, heat stress during the reproductive stage can cause poor pollination and seed set, reducing yields. Also, stress conditions can adversely affect the quality of produce. For example, salinity can cause an imbalance in nutrient uptake, leading to poor fruit quality (Flowers & Yeo, 1995).

Long-term Effects on Ecosystems and Agriculture

Soil degradation

Continuous exposure to stressors such as salinity can lead to long-term soil degradation, reducing soil fertility and productivity (Rengasamy, 2006).

Biodiversity loss

Persistent stress conditions can lead to a decline in plant biodiversity, particularly in ecosystems like grasslands and forests, which rely on specific climate conditions (Parmesan & Yohe, 2003).

Agricultural sustainability

The cumulative impact of environmental stressors poses a significant threat to the sustainability of agricultural systems, necessitating the development of resilient crop varieties and farming practices (FAO, 2011).

TRADITIONAL METHODS OF MITIGATION

Traditional Mitigation Methods and their Limitations

Traditionally, the mitigation of plant environmental stressors has relied heavily on chemical interventions, such as the use of synthetic fertilizers, pesticides, and herbicides. These methods, while effective in the short term, have raised significant environmental concerns. For instance, the overuse of chemical fertilizers can lead to soil degradation, water pollution, and a decline in soil biodiversity (Tilman *et al.*, 2002). Similarly, the widespread use of pesticides has been linked to the development of pesticide-resistant pests, non-target species toxicity, and the disruption of ecological balance (Pimentel, 2005).

Mechanical methods, such as tilling and irrigation, have also been employed to mitigate stressors like drought and soil compaction. However, these practices can be energy-intensive and may lead to long-term environmental degradation. Tilling, for example, can increase soil erosion and disrupt soil structure, while improper irrigation practices can contribute to waterlogging, salinization, and the depletion of water resources (Lal, 1991; Postel, 1999).

Limitations and Environmental Concerns

Chemical pollution

Excessive use of chemical inputs leads to pollution of water bodies, soil degradation, and loss of biodiversity (Carvalho, 2017).

Energy intensity

Mechanical methods like tilling and pumping water for irrigation are energy-intensive and contribute to greenhouse gas emissions.

Resistance development

Overreliance on chemical pesticides has led to the development of resistant pests, making them less effective over time (Gould, 1998).

SUSTAINABLE AND ECO-FRIENDLY MITIGATION STRATEGIES

Sustainable and Eco-friendly Solutions

In response to the environmental and health concerns associated with traditional practices, sustainable and eco-friendly solutions have gained prominence in recent years. These approaches are designed to minimize environmental impact while enhancing the resilience of plants to stressors. One such approach is organic farming, which emphasizes the use of natural inputs, crop rotation, and the integration of livestock to maintain soil fertility and control pests (Reganold & Wachter, 2016). Organic farming practices have been shown to improve soil health, increase biodiversity, and reduce the reliance on synthetic chemicals, making them a viable alternative to conventional agriculture.

Agroecology, another sustainable approach, focuses on the application of ecological principles to agricultural systems. This includes practices such as intercropping, agroforestry, and the use of cover crops to enhance biodiversity, improve soil structure, and reduce the incidence of pests and diseases (Altieri, 1999). Agroecological practices have been demonstrated to increase the resilience of farming systems to environmental stressors while promoting long-term sustainability.

Biological control agents, including natural predators and parasitoids, are also being explored as eco-friendly alternatives to chemical pesticides. These biological agents can effectively reduce pest populations without the adverse environmental effects associated with synthetic chemicals (van Lenteren, 2000). Additionally, the use of biostimulants and biofertilizers, derived from natural materials such as compost, seaweed extracts, and beneficial microorganisms, has shown promise in enhancing plant growth and stress tolerance (du Jardin, 2015).

ROLE OF BIOTECHNOLOGY IN MITIGATING PLANT STRESS

Role of Biotechnology in Addressing Environmental Stressors

Biotechnology plays a crucial role in the development of sustainable solutions to plant environmental stressors. Advances in genetic engineering, including CRISPR-Cas9 technology, have enabled the development of crop varieties with enhanced resistance to abiotic and biotic stressors (Chen *et al.*, 2019). For example, genetically modified (GM) crops with improved drought tolerance, disease resistance, and nutrient use efficiency have been developed, offering potential solutions to some of the most pressing challenges in agriculture (Qaim, 2020).

However, the use of biotechnology in agriculture is not without controversy. Concerns have been raised about the potential ecological risks, such as gene flow to wild relatives and the unintended effects on non-target organisms. Additionally, there are ethical considerations regarding the ownership and control of genetically modified organisms (GMOs), particularly in relation to smallholder farmers in developing countries. These concerns highlight the need for careful consideration and regulation of biotechnological interventions in agriculture.

INNOVATIVE APPROACHES AND TECHNOLOGIES

In recent years, the agricultural sector has increasingly embraced innovative approaches and technologies to enhance productivity, sustainability, and resilience to environmental stressors. These advancements offer promising solutions for mitigating the adverse effects of abiotic and biotic stressors on plants while promoting eco-friendly practices.

Precision Agriculture and Smart Farming

Precision agriculture

Precision agriculture involves the use of advanced technologies, such as GPS, sensors, drones, and data analytics, to optimize agricultural practices. This approach allows for the precise application of inputs like water, fertilizers, and pesticides, tailored to the specific needs of crops at different growth stages. By minimizing waste and maximizing efficiency, precision agriculture reduces the environmental impact of farming and enhances crop resilience to stressors (Gebbers & Adamchuk, 2010).

Remote sensing

Remote sensing technologies, including satellite imagery and UAVs (unmanned aerial vehicles), provide real-time data on soil conditions, crop health, and weather patterns. This information enables farmers to make informed decisions about irrigation scheduling, pest management, and nutrient application, improving overall farm productivity and reducing the risk of crop failure due to environmental stressors (Zhang & Kovacs, 2012).

Variable rate technology (VRT)

VRT allows for the site-specific application of inputs based on the variability in soil and crop conditions within a field. For example, fertilizers can be applied at varying rates across different field zones, ensuring that crops receive the right amount of nutrients while reducing runoff and pollution (Bongiovanni & Lowenberg-DeBoer, 2004).

Smart Farming

Smart farming builds on precision agriculture by integrating Internet of Things (IoT) devices, artificial intelligence (AI), and machine learning to create more automated and responsive farming systems. These technologies can monitor environmental conditions, predict stress events (such as drought or pest outbreaks), and autonomously adjust irrigation, fertilization, and pest control measures (Wolfert *et al.*, 2017).

IoT sensors

IoT sensors placed in the field continuously monitor parameters such as soil moisture, temperature, and nutrient levels. This data is transmitted to cloud-based platforms where AI algorithms analyze it and provide actionable insights to farmers.

AI and machine learning

AI-driven models can predict crop yields, detect diseases early, and optimize resource use based on historical and real-time data. These technologies help farmers make proactive decisions, reducing the impact of environmental stressors and improving crop resilience.

USE OF BIOSTIMULANTS AND BIOFERTILIZERS

Biostimulants

Biostimulants are natural or synthetic substances that enhance plant growth and stress tolerance by improving nutrient uptake, water efficiency, and resistance to abiotic and biotic stressors. Unlike traditional fertilizers, which supply nutrients directly, biostimulants work by activating the plant's natural defense mechanisms and enhancing physiological processes (du Jardin, 2015).

Seaweed extracts

Seaweed-based biostimulants are rich in bioactive compounds, such as hormones, polysaccharides, and antioxidants, which improve plant growth and stress resistance. These extracts have been shown to enhance root development, increase drought tolerance, and boost crop yields (Khan *et al.*, 2009).

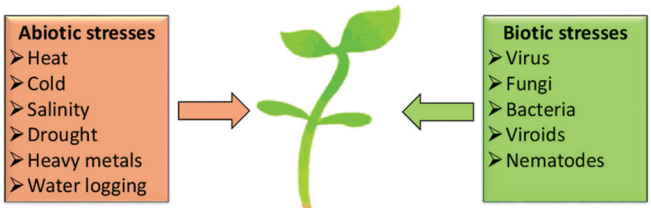
Humic and fulvic acids

These organic acids, derived from the decomposition of plant and animal material, improve soil structure, enhance nutrient

availability, and stimulate plant root growth. Their application can lead to improved plant health, particularly under stress conditions like drought or salinity (Nardi *et al.*, 2002).

Biofertilizers

Biofertilizers contain living microorganisms that promote plant growth by increasing the availability of nutrients in the soil. These microbes, such as nitrogen-fixing bacteria, phosphate-solubilizing bacteria, and mycorrhizal fungi, enhance nutrient uptake, improve soil health, and reduce the need for chemical fertilizers.



AQ1 **Figure 1:** Environmental stresses affecting plant (biotic and abiotic) (Raza *et al.*, 2020)

AQ1 **Figure 2:** Ploughing and tilling of soil (Lancaster University, 2022)

Rhizobium bacteria

Rhizobium bacteria form symbiotic relationships with leguminous plants, fixing atmospheric nitrogen into a form that plants can use. This natural nitrogen fixation reduces the reliance on synthetic nitrogen fertilizers and improves soil fertility (Graham & Vance, 2000).

Mycorrhizal fungi

These fungi form mutualistic associations with plant roots, extending the root system and enhancing the uptake of water and nutrients, particularly phosphorus. Mycorrhizal inoculation has been shown to improve plant resilience to drought and soil salinity (Smith & Read, 2008) (Figure 3).

RENEWABLE ENERGY AND WATER CONSERVATION TECHNIQUES

Renewable Energy

The adoption of renewable energy sources in agriculture is critical for reducing greenhouse gas emissions and promoting sustainable farming practices. Solar, wind, and biomass energy are increasingly used to power irrigation systems, greenhouses, and farm machinery, reducing the carbon footprint of agricultural operations (Burney *et al.*, 2010).

Solar-powered irrigation

Solar energy is used to power irrigation systems, reducing the dependence on fossil fuels and ensuring a reliable water supply, especially in remote areas. Solar-powered drip irrigation systems are particularly effective in arid regions, where water conservation is crucial (Burney & Naylor, 2012).

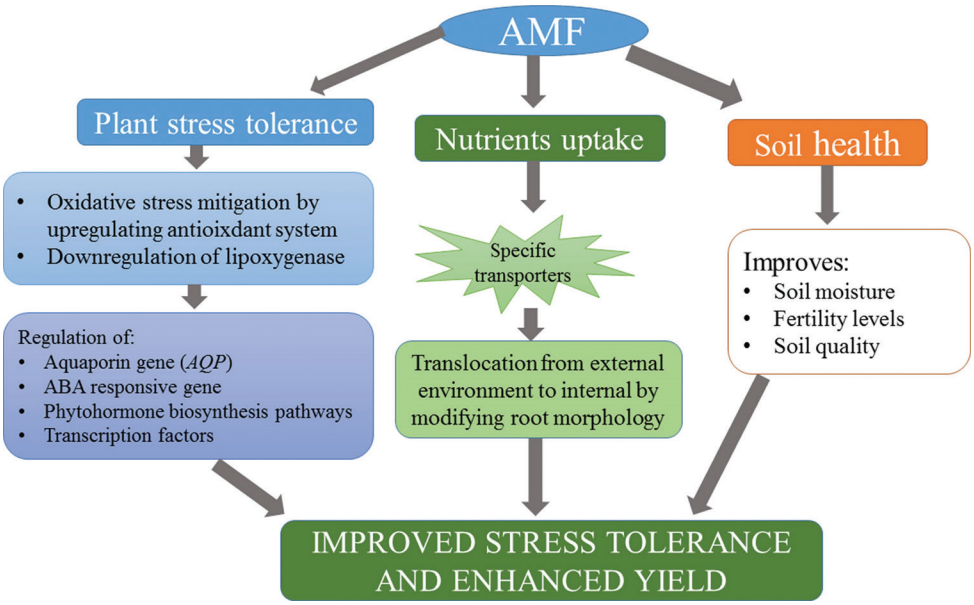


Figure 3: Role of Arbuscular Mycorrhizal Fungi in Plant Growth

Wind energy

Wind turbines can provide a renewable source of electricity for farms, powering equipment and reducing energy costs. In addition to providing clean energy, windbreaks created by planting trees or shrubs can reduce wind erosion and protect crops from wind damage.

Water Conservation Techniques

Efficient water use is essential for sustainable agriculture, particularly in regions facing water scarcity. Innovative water conservation techniques help optimize water use, reduce waste, and enhance plant resilience to drought stress (Foley *et al.*, 2011).

Drip irrigation

Drip irrigation delivers water directly to the root zone of plants through a network of tubes and emitters, minimizing water loss through evaporation and runoff. This method is highly efficient and can significantly reduce water use in agriculture (Raina *et al.*, 2011).

Rainwater harvesting

Rainwater harvesting involves collecting and storing rainwater for agricultural use, reducing dependence on groundwater and surface water sources. This technique is particularly useful in dry regions and can help farmers cope with irregular rainfall patterns (Falkenmark & Rockström, 2006).

Soil moisture sensors

These sensors measure the moisture content in the soil and provide real-time data to farmers, enabling them to optimize irrigation schedules and avoid overwatering. By using soil moisture sensors, farmers can conserve water while ensuring that crops receive the necessary amount of water for optimal growth (Evett *et al.*, 2006).

CONCLUSION

Addressing the challenges posed by environmental stressors on plants requires a multifaceted approach that integrates traditional practices with innovative technologies and sustainable strategies. While traditional methods such as chemical interventions and mechanical techniques have played a crucial role in mitigating stress, they often come with significant environmental and sustainability concerns. The shift towards precision agriculture and smart farming, supported by advancements in IoT, AI, and remote sensing, offers a promising path forward by optimizing resource use and enhancing crop resilience. The incorporation of biostimulants and biofertilizers represents a move towards more natural and eco-friendly solutions, reducing dependence on synthetic chemicals while improving plant health and stress tolerance. Moreover, renewable energy and water conservation techniques provide sustainable alternatives to resource management in agriculture, essential for adapting to the increasing pressures of climate change and resource scarcity. Biotechnology, through genetic engineering and the development of stress-resistant crop varieties, further contributes to the resilience of agricultural systems. However, these innovations must be adopted with careful consideration of their ethical and environmental implications, ensuring that the benefits do not come at the expense of long-term sustainability. In conclusion, the integration of these diverse strategies offers a comprehensive approach to mitigating plant environmental stressors, crucial for securing agricultural productivity and ecosystem health in a rapidly changing world. Continued research, innovation, and responsible implementation are essential to achieve sustainable agricultural practices that can meet the growing global food demand while preserving the environment.

REFERENCES

Agrios, G. N. (2005). *Plant Pathology.* (5th ed.). New York: Academic Press.

Altieri, M. A. (1999). The ecological role of biodiversity in agroecosystems. *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment, 74*(1-3), 19-31. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-8809(99)00028-6

Atkinson, N. J., & Urwin, P. E. (2012). The interaction of plant biotic and abiotic stresses: from genes to the field. *Journal of Experimental Botany, 63*(10), 3523-3543. https://doi.org/10.1093/jxb/ers100

Bita, C. E., & Gerats, T. (2013). Plant tolerance to high temperature in a changing environment: scientific fundamentals and production of heat stress-tolerant crops. *Frontiers in Plant Science, 4*, 273. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2013.00273

Bongiovanni, R., & Lowenberg-DeBoer, J. (2004). Precision agriculture and sustainability. *Precision Agriculture, 5*, 359-387. https://doi.org/10.1023/B: PRAG.0000040806.39604.aa

Boyer, J. S. (1982). Plant productivity and environment. *Science, 218*(4571), 443-448. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.218.4571.443

Burney, J. A., & Naylor, R. L. (2012). Smallholder irrigation as a poverty alleviation tool in sub-Saharan Africa. *World Development, 40*(1), 110-123. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2011.05.007

Burney, J., Woltering, L., Burke, M., Naylor, R., & Pasternak, D. (2010). Solar-powered drip irrigation enhances food security in the Sudano-Sahel. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 107*(5), 1848-1853. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0909678107

Carvalho, F. P. (2017). Pesticides, environment, and food safety. *Food and Energy Security, 6*(2), 48-60. https://doi.org/10.1002/fes3.108

Chaves, M. M., Flexas, J., & Pinheiro, C. (2009). Photosynthesis under drought and salt stress: regulation mechanisms from whole plant to cell. *Annals of Botany, 103*(4), 551-560. https://doi.org/10.1093/aob/mcn125

Chaves, M. M., Maroco, J. P., & Pereira, J. S. (2003). Understanding plant responses to drought—from genes to the whole plant. *Functional Plant Biology, 30*(3), 239-264. https://doi.org/10.1071/FP02076

Chen, K., Wang, Y., Zhang, R., Zhang, H., & Gao, C. (2019). CRISPR/Cas genome editing and precision plant breeding in agriculture. *Annual Review of Plant Biology, 70*, 667-697. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-arplant-050718-100049

du Jardin, P. (2015). Plant biostimulants: Definition, concept, main categories and regulation. *Scientia Horticulturae, 196*, 3-14. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scienta.2015.09.021

Evett, S. R., Tolk, J. A., & Howell, T. A. (2006). Soil profile water content determination: Sensor accuracy, axial response, calibration, temperature dependence, and precision. *Vadose Zone Journal, 5*(3), 894-907. https://doi.org/10.2136/vzj2005.0149

Falkenmark, M., & Rockström, J. (2006). The new blue and green water paradigm: Breaking new ground for water resources planning and management. *Journal of Water Resources Planning and Management, 132*(3), 129-132. https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)0733-9496(2006)132:3(129)

FAO. (2011). *The state of the world's land and water resources for food and agriculture: Managing systems at risk*. Food and Agriculture

Organization of the United Nations.
Flowers, T. J., & Yeo, A. R. (1995). Breeding for salinity resistance in crop plants: where next? *Australian Journal of Plant Physiology, 22*(6), 875-884. https://doi.org/10.1071/PP9950875
Foley, J. A., Ramankutty, N., Brauman, K. A., Cassidy, E. S., Gerber, J. S., Johnston, M., Mueller, N. D., O'Connell, C., Ray, D. K., West, P. C., Balzer, C., Bennett, E. M., Carpenter, S. R., Hill, J., Monfreda, C., Polasky, S., Rockström, J., Sheehan, J., Siebert, S., Tilman, D., & Zaks, D. P. M. (2011). Solutions for a cultivated planet. *Nature, 478*, 337-342. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature10452
Gebbers, R., & Adamchuk, V. I. (2010). Precision agriculture and food security. *Science, 327*(5967), 828-831. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1183899
Glazebrook, J. (2005). Contrasting mechanisms of defense against biotrophic and necrotrophic pathogens. *Annual Review of Phytopathology, 43*, 205-227. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.phyto.43.040204.135923
Gliessman, S. R. (2014). *Agroecology: The ecology of sustainable food systems*. (3rd ed.). Boca Raton, Florida: CRC Press. https://doi.org/10.1201/b17881
Gould, F. (1998). Sustainability of transgenic insecticidal cultivars: Integrating pest genetics and ecology. *Annual Review of Entomology, 43*, 701-726. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.ento.43.1.701
Graham, P. H., & Vance, C. P. (2000). Nitrogen fixation in perspective: an overview of research and extension needs. *Field Crops Research, 65*(2-3), 93-106. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-4290(99)00080-5
Howe, G. A., & Jander, G. (2008). Plant immunity to insect herbivores. *Annual Review of Plant Biology, 59*, 41-66. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.arplant.59.032607.092825
Khan, W., Rayirath, U. P., Subramanian, S., Jithesh, M. N., Rayorath, P., Hodges, D. M., Critchley, A. T., Craigie, J. S., Norrie, J., & Prithiviraj, B. (2009). Seaweed Extracts as Biostimulants of Plant Growth and Development. *Journal of Plant Growth Regulation, 28*, 386-399. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00344-009-9103-x
Lal, R. (1991). Soil structure and sustainability. *Journal of Sustainable Agriculture, 1*(4), 67-92. https://doi.org/10.1300/J064v01n04_06
Lancaster University. (2022). *Ploughing and tilling soil on slopes is jeopardizing future farm yields*.
Mittler, R. (2006). Abiotic stress, the field environment and stress combination. *Trends in Plant Science, 11*(1), 15-19. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tplants.2005.11.002
Munns, R. (2002). Comparative physiology of salt and water stress. *Plant, Cell & Environment, 25*(2), 239-250. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.0016-8025.2001.00808.x
Munns, R., & Tester, M. (2008). Mechanisms of salinity tolerance. *Annual Review of Plant Biology, 59*, 651-681. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.arplant.59.032607.092911
Nardi, S., Pizzeghello, D., Muscolo, A., & Vianello, A. (2002). Physiological effects of humic substances on higher plants. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry, 34*(11), 1527-1536. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0038-0717(02)00174-8
Oerke, E.-C. (2006). Crop losses to pests. *The Journal of Agricultural Science, 144*(1), 31-43. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0021859605005708
Parmesan, C., & Yohe, G. (2003). A globally coherent fingerprint of climate change impacts across natural systems. Nature, 421, 37-42. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature01286
Peleg, Z., & Blumwald, E. (2011). Hormone balance and abiotic stress tolerance in crop plants. *Current Opinion in Plant Biology, 14*(3), 290-295. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pbi.2011.02.001
Pimentel, D. (2005). Environmental and economic costs of the application of pesticides primarily in the United States. *Environment, Development and Sustainability, 7*, 229-252. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10668-005-7314-2
Postel, S. (1999). *Pillar of Sand – Can The Irrigation Miracle Last?* New York, US: W. W. Norton & Company Ltd.
Qaim, M. (2020). Role of new plant breeding technologies for food security and sustainable agricultural development. *Applied Economic Perspectives and Policy, 42*(2), 129-150. https://doi.org/10.1002/aepp.13044
Raina, R., Chand, R., & Sharma, Y. P. (2011). Conservation strategies of some important medicinal plants. *International Journal of Medicinal and Aromatic Plants, 1*, 342-347.
Raza, A., Ashraf, F., Zou, X., Zhang, X., & Tosif, H. (2020). Plant Adaptation and Tolerance to Environmental Stresses: Mechanisms and Perspectives. In M. Hasanuzzaman (Ed.), *Plant Ecophysiology and Adaptation under Climate Change: Mechanisms and Perspectives I* (pp. 117-145) Singapore: Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-2156-0_5
Reganold, J. P., & Wachter, J. M. (2016). Organic agriculture in the twenty-first century. *Nature Plants, 2*, 15221. https://doi.org/10.1038/nplants.2015.221
Rengasamy, P. (2006). World salinization with emphasis on Australia. *Journal of Experimental Botany, 57*(5), 1017-1023. https://doi.org/10.1093/jxb/erj108
Smith, S. E., & Read, D. J. (2008). *Mycorrhizal symbiosis*. (3rd ed.). New York, US: Elsevier Academic Publishers.
Tardieu, F., Simonneau, T., & Muller, B. (2018). The physiological basis of drought tolerance in crop plants: A scenario-dependent probabilistic approach. *Annual Review of Plant Biology, 69*, 733-759. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-arplant-042817-040218
Thakur, P., Kumar, S., Malik, J. A., Berger, J. D., & Nayyar, H. (2010). Cold stress effects on reproductive development in grain crops: an overview. *Environmental and Experimental Botany, 67*(3), 429-443. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envexpbot.2009.09.004
Tilman, D., Cassman, K. G., Matson, P. A., Naylor, R., & Polasky, S. (2002). Agricultural sustainability and intensive production practices. *Nature, 418*, 671-677. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature01014
van Lenteren, J. C. (2000). A greenhouse without pesticides: fact or fantasy? *Crop Protection, 19*(6), 375-384. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-2194(00)00038-7
Wolfert, S., Ge, L., Verdouw, C., & Bogaardt, M.-J. (2017). Big Data in Smart Farming – A review. *Agricultural Systems, 153*, 69-80. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agsy.2017.01.023
Zhang, C., & Kovacs, J. M. (2012). The application of small unmanned aerial systems for precision agriculture: a review. *Precision Agriculture, 13*, 693-712. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11119-012-9274-5
Zhu, J.-K. (2001). Plant salt tolerance. *Trends in Plant Science, 6*(2), 66-71. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1360-1385(00)01838-0

Author Query???
AQ1: Kindly cite figures 1 and 2 in the text part