

1 CRISPR Cas for bringing desired traits in crops.

2

3 Abstract

4 In the edge of present day agribusiness, confronting the projected surge in global population
5 concomitantly with escalating environmental perturbations, the sustainable production of
6 high quality food has emerged as a substantial challenge. In order to overcome this major
7 undertaking, adaptation of innovative, resilient and science driven agricultural strategies has
8 been an essential step in plant biotechnology. Advanced biotechnological approaches like
9 genome editing with site directed mutagenesis permit to step forward towards new cultivar
10 with desirable traits in economically important crops Latterly, Zinc-finger nucleases (ZFNs),
11 transcription activator-like effector nucleases (TALENs), and clustered regularly interspersed
12 short palindromic repeats (CRISPR)/CRISPR associated protein 9 system has revolutionised
13 the plant breeding system with exceptional achievements. On that account, the present review
14 re-evaluates and discusses the information on genome editing technologies specially CRISPR
15 /Cas 9 approach in detailtogether with complete mechanism of CRISPR /Cas, problem and
16 future aspects of the approach aiming to develop desirable agronomic genetic traits.

17

18 Introduction

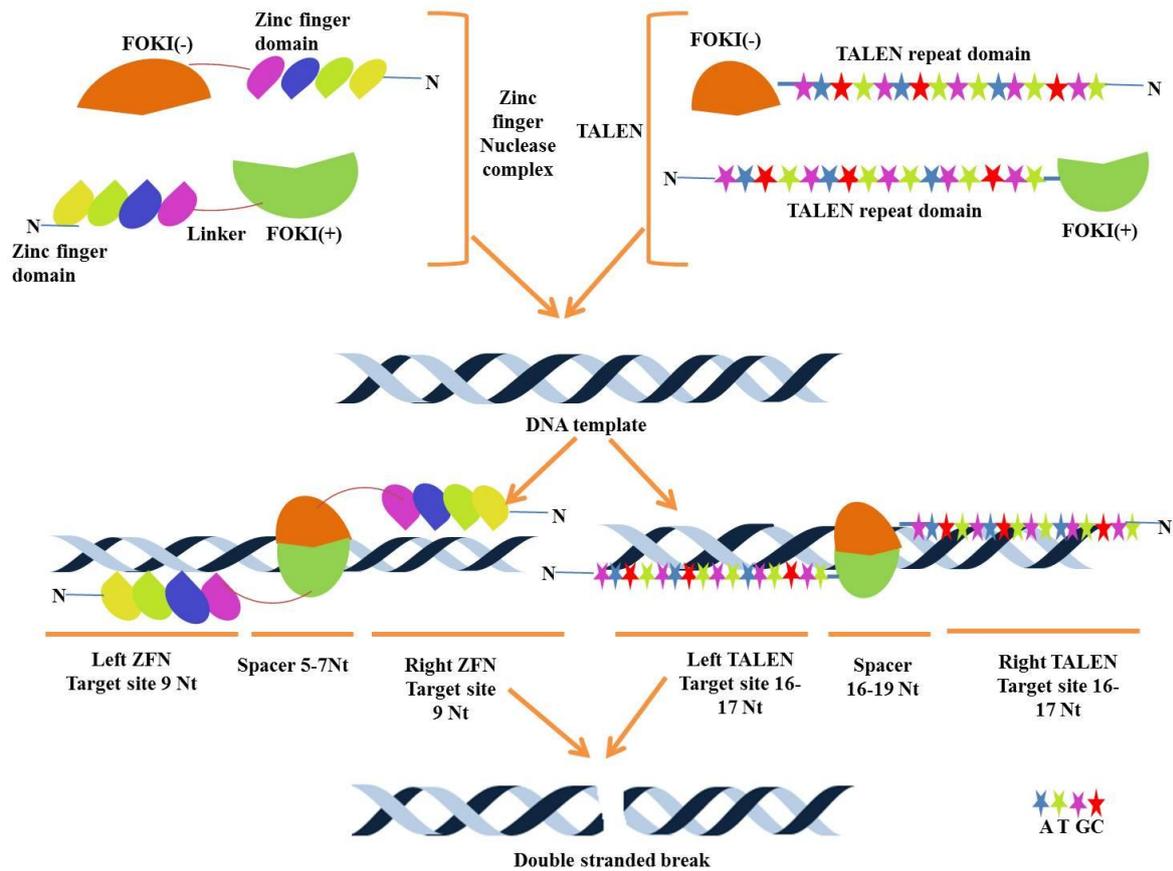
19

20 The achievement of plant breeding mainly depends on development of a wide hereditary
21 variation. Plant breeders from decades are using several techniques cross breeding, mutation
22 breeding and transgenic breeding for enhancing quantitative and qualitative traits of the crop.
23 . Cross breeding involves improving trait by crossing genetic material from one variety to
24 another and further choosing outstanding progeny with the preferred trait, followed by
25 backcrossing with the recipient line for subsequent generations to eliminate the linked traits
26 (Mangrauthia et al., 2024). But it takes several years to incorporate desirable alleles and to
27 enhance variability in the plant by the use of cross breeding and moreover, the genetic
28 variability of the crops has been greatly reduced by the large fixed parts of the genome
29 (Swarup et al., 2021). Mutation breeding involves the enhancement of traits by creating
30 random mutations in the plant material by the use of chemical mutagens or physical
31 irradiations (Yali et al., 2022), However,the screening of such a large number of mutants is
32 time taking, laborious and challengingtogether with the burdens for increased crop production

33 (Sarsu et al., 2023). Transgenic breeding involves transferring of exogenous genes into crop
34 to obtain the enhanced trait and can be useful, but the long and cost regulatory estimation
35 processes and the public concerns in the commercialization of the produced genetically
36 modified crops acts as a barrier for the use of the technology (Marone et al., 2023). Thus, the
37 novelties in the technology with development of new, fast and efficient techniques to create
38 advanced crops with better characteristics are a need of the hour, and are essential to enhance
39 the agricultural yield and accelerate sustainable agricultural development (Patel et al., 2023).

40 **Zinc finger nucleases**

41 The research in the genetics has been revolutionized by the use of genome editing approaches
42 using high throughput sequencing and computational analysis. Several gene
43 editing techniques leading to site directed mutagenesis has been developed during last few
44 years. Zinc finger nucleases (ZFNs) were the first engineered endonucleases which are site
45 directed and are created by fusion of the DNA-binding domain of the artificial array of the
46 zinc fingers and the non-specific cleavage domain of FokI, which cleave the target DNA by
47 protein-DNA binding (Limbalkaret al., 2025). ZFNs firstly came from the study on FokI
48 restriction enzymes, when it was figured out that the recognition and the cleavage domain of
49 FokI are physically separable and, if the non-specific nuclease domain from FokI are put
50 away from its natural recognition domain, other recognition domains can be incorporated.
51 Using this strategy set of zing fingers were chosen, as zinc fingers naturally occur in
52 eukaryotic sequence specific DNA binding transcription factors (TF) (Zess and Begemann
53 2021). Each module of these TF is the finger that recognizes principle three base pair of
54 DNA, and successive finger recognize successive triplet in DNA target. So FokI cleavage
55 domain cuts double stranded DNA by assembling different combination of zinc finger on
56 them (Abdelrahmanet al., 2021) (Figure 1).. Despite of its uses, potential of ZFNs technology
57 has not been fulfilled as its nucleases requires protein engineering for recognizing target
58 DNA sequence (Liu et al., 2024). Therefore, due to construction complexity, high but
59 variable off-target rate, high cost and skill, difficulty in customization, its application in the
60 field of genome editing gets restricted (Castro et al., 2021).



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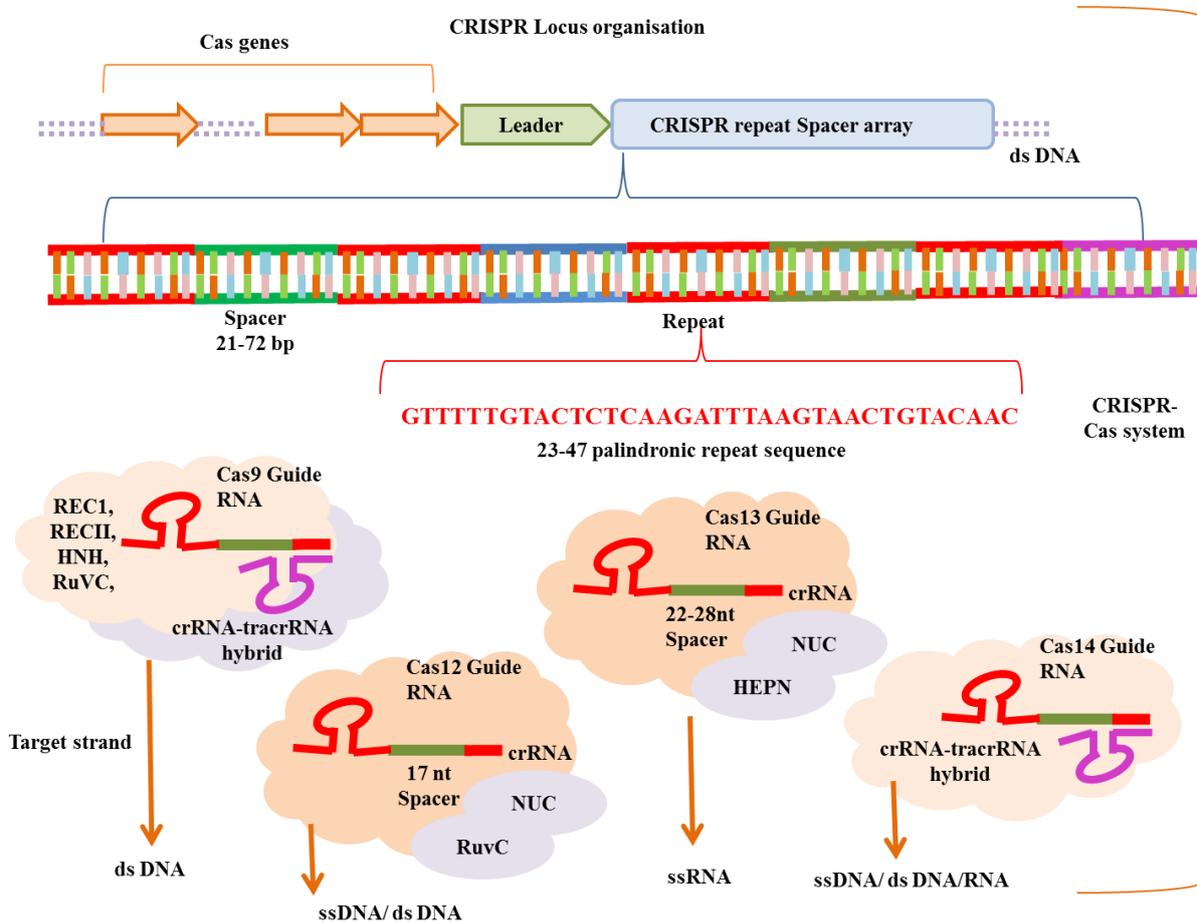
62 **Figure 1: Comparative mechanism of Zinc finger nucleases and TALENS. ZFN-Zinc**
 63 **finger nuclease**

64

65 **Transcription activator-like effector nucleases (TALENs)**

66 TALENs system arose from studies of bacterial plant pathogen of the genus *Xanthomonas*,
 67 these bacteria produce proteins that they secrete into plant host cell. In the host cells these
 68 protein binds upstream of the host gene and regulates its transcription in a way that promotes
 69 the bacterial infection (Teperet al., 2023). TALENs are chimeric enzymes formed by binding
 70 of transcription activator like (TALE) protein fused with catalytic domain of the FokI
 71 endonuclease to cleave the target DNA. The specificity in recognizing the target DNA is due
 72 to the central repeat region of 33 to 35 amino acid tandem repeats, which differ at two amino
 73 acids which determines at which nucleotide it will bind. By combining 12 to 31 of these
 74 repeats, TALENs can be customized to bind to specific DNA template. Two sets of TALEN
 75 system must dimerize to cleave the target DNA resulting into double stranded break. The
 76 cells repair the DNA by NHEJ mechanism leading to frame shift mutation (Bhardwaj and
 77 Nain 2021) (Figure 1). Although the efficiency of the TALENs is high as compared to the
 78 ZFNs as it involve no re-engineering of proteins (Mishra et al., 2023), but production of

79 novel TALE arrays can be long and relatively costly, due to large size of TALEN, along with
 80 a pair of proteins to identify the antiparallel DNA strand and create DSB, restricts its use as
 81 the gene editing technology (Bhagtaney and Sundarrajan 2023). To overcome the
 82 shortcomings of these techniques, a new technique known as CRISPR came into existence.



83
 84 **Figure2: CRISPR- Cas system- CRISPR locus organisation and complex of different**
 85 **Cas proteins like 9, 12, 13 and 14 forming the guide RNA . NUC- Nuclease lobe, HNH-**
 86 **Ribonuclease domain and RuVC-Ribonuclease, REC1 and REC 2-Recognition lobe-**
 87 **HEPN- Higher eukaryotes and prokaryotes nucleotide binding domain.**

88
 89 **Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats (CRISPR)**

90 Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats (CRISPR) and CRISPR-
 91 associated (Cas) proteins are extensively found in bacterial and archaeobacterial genomes as
 92 adaptive immune systems (Ganger et al., 2023).The first CRISPR/ Cas system known to
 93 cleave the target DNA was the type II system which belonged to *Streptococcus pyogenes*
 94 (Varble and Marraffini 2022).

95 The CRISPR system mainly consists of two components Cas 9 endonuclease and guide RNA.
96 The guide RNA guides the Cas 9 endonuclease to create double stranded breaks in the
97 targeted DNA (Aksoyet al., 2022). This is the crucial step as after the cleavage of DNA the
98 DNA repair mechanism comes in activity and start repairing the DNA either by NHEJ
99 orHDR resulting into either deletion or insertion mutations (Nambiaret al., 2022)(Figure 2).
100 In recent years, CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing has emerged as a promising alternative due to
101 its precise editing capabilities (Cheng et al., 2025). This innovative tool enables targeted
102 modification of DNA sequences. The ground-breaking technology is poised to revolutionize
103 biotechnological research by facilitating the manipulation of target genes associated with
104 plant metabolism, immunity, and stress resistance, thus facilitating the development of
105 improved crops (Kumar et al., 2023).This technology has been observed to be better than the
106 traditional breeding technologies(Kumar et al., 2020).the system precisely edits the genome
107 of the plants with great efficiency, thus making it a suitable technology for use (Chib et al.,
108 2020).However the technology still possesses certain limitations like off targeting as the
109 CRISPR/Cas system is still under modifications to bring maximum application advantages to
110 the researchers (Ali et al., 2023).

111 **Mechanism of action in CRISPR**

112 CRISPR is originally found in bacteria and archae as an adaptive immune system to protect
113 from the invading virus(Garcia-Robledoet al., 2020).CRISPR systems have been classified
114 into two; Class 1 and Class 2, further categorized into three types each. Class 1 (Types I, III,
115 and IV) utilize multiple Cas proteins for RNA guided cleavage, while Class 2 (Types II, V,
116 and VI) rely on only one endonuclease protein for the DNA cleavage (Hillary and Ceasar
117 2023). The most commonly used system is type IICRISPR/Cas 9 system adapted from
118 *Streptococcus pyognesis*and repurposed for genome editing by modifying the DNA
119 sequences by either deleting or introducing new gene sequences (Liang and Corn 2022).The
120 CRISPR array is mainly composed of two components; first component includes two type of
121 RNAs i.e CRISPR RNA or crRNA, Tracer RNA or tracrRNA and the other component is
122 RNA dependent endonuclease i.e Cas (CRISPR associated protein) (Mohamadi et al., 2020).
123 The CRISPR immunity works in three phases, phase 1 is adaptation, phase 2 involves
124 expression and processing and phase 3 proceeds with recognition and cleavage of the target
125 (Mosterd et al., 2021).In phase 1 when the bacteria is infected by the phage the Cas, such as
126 Cas1 and Cas2 recognize the Protospacer (a 20 -50 bp short sequence similar to the spacer
127 sequence in CRISPR array) from the invading phage or virus and store it as a new spacer on

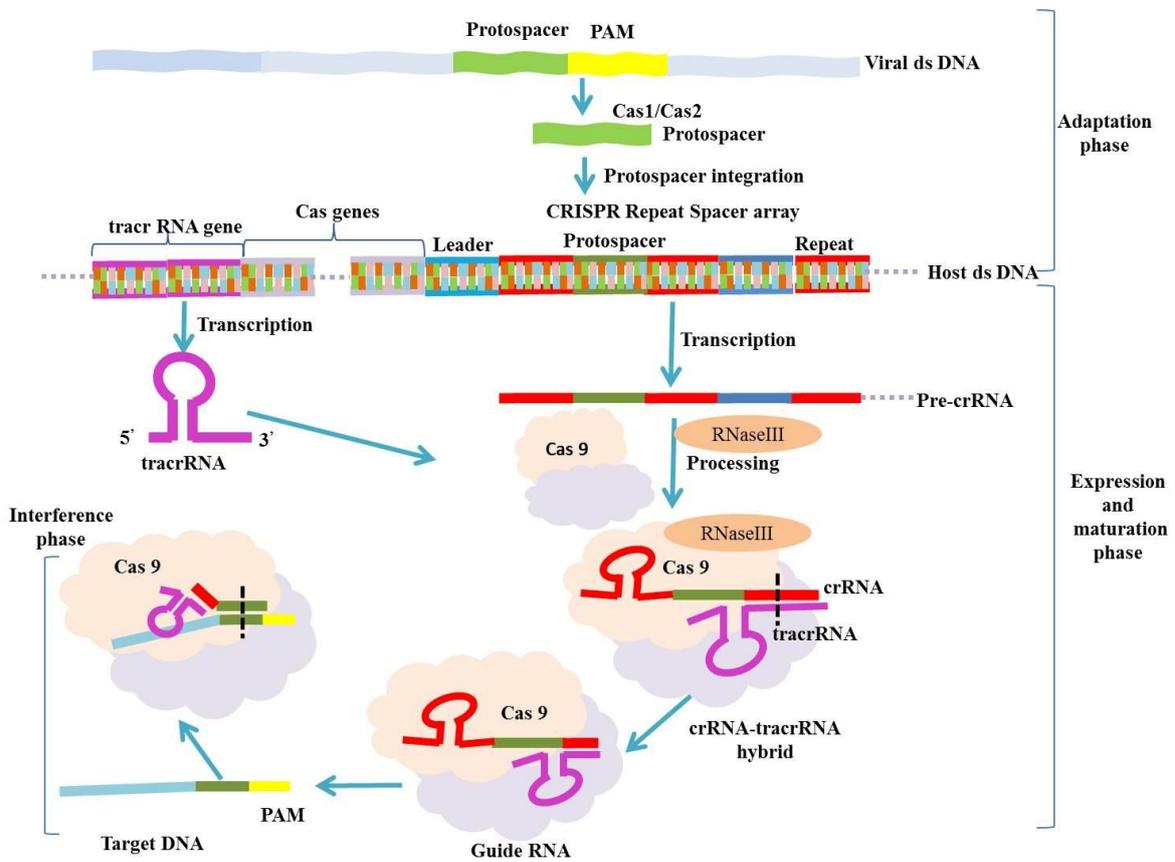
128 CRISPR locus as a result an memory for the invader is formed for future recognition
129 (McGinn and Marraffini 2021) (Figure 3)..

130 Phase 2 transcription of CRISPR array occurs resulting into the formation of the long
131 precursor RNA (pre-crRNA). The pre-crRNA is processed by RNase III and Cas proteins into
132 crRNA, the crRNA further combines with the trans-activating CRISPR RNA (tracrRNA) to
133 form a duplex form complex. Finally the Cas 9 protein binds to this duplex resulting into
134 formation of the single guide RNA (sgRNA) (Munawar and Ahmad 2021).

135 Phase 3 involves the target recognition and cleavage with the help of Cas9. It contains a
136 sequence known as PAM (Protospacer Adjacent Motif) which is adjacent to the target
137 sequences in the foreign DNA in most of the CRISPR -Cas systems (Ding et al., 2021). It
138 also contains a guide RNA, which is almost 20nt and leads Cas 9 to the target DNA adjacent
139 to the PAM and has the sequence complementary to the part of the sequence of the invading
140 DNA which is to be edited (Gupta et al., 2021). In many cases, a chimeric sgRNA, formed by
141 the association of the crRNA and the tracr RNA into a single transcript is used, which is
142 accurately functional in causing Cas mediated sequence-specific DNA cleavage. This
143 simplified two-component system CRISPR Cas 9, can be used to target any DNA of interest
144 merely by changing the 20nt guide RNA sequence (Liao and Beisel 2021).

145 The Cas9 enzyme consists of two well defined lobes: the alpha-helical recognition lobe
146 (REC) and the nuclease lobe (NUC). The NUC has the HNH nuclease domain (motif with
147 three conserved amino acids; Histidine (H) Asparagine (N) and Histidine (H), the RuvC
148 nuclease domain and the CTD (C- terminal domain) (Palanivelu, 2021). The Cas 9 enzyme
149 snips the target DNA 3bp upstream of the PAM with these two nuclease domains. The HNH
150 like-nuclease domain cuts the target strand (the strand complementary to the guide RNA) of
151 the DNA and the RuvC like-nuclease domain which cuts the non-target strand (strand
152 opposite to the complementary strand of the guide RNA) (Chuang et al., 2021). The RuvC
153 domain of the enzyme has three motifs: Motif I, Motif II, and Motif III. The HNH domain of
154 the nuclease enzyme interrupts motif I and III, and the larger lobe made of alpha-helices
155 (REC) interrupts motif I and II (Nasrallah et al., 2022). The two domains of the enzyme
156 (REC and NUC) are connected to each other by two linkers, one formed by the arginine-rich
157 bridge and the other formed by the disordered linker. The CTD domain of the enzyme
158 contains a PAM- interacting site, which is essential for PAM recognition (Jiang and Doudna
159 2017).Studies show that mutating any of the two domains of the Cas 9 converts it to nickase
160 while mutating any of the two domains stops its endonuclease activity but its RNA - guided
161 DNA binding ability remains as it is (Deb et al., 2022). The Cas 9 enzyme is present in an

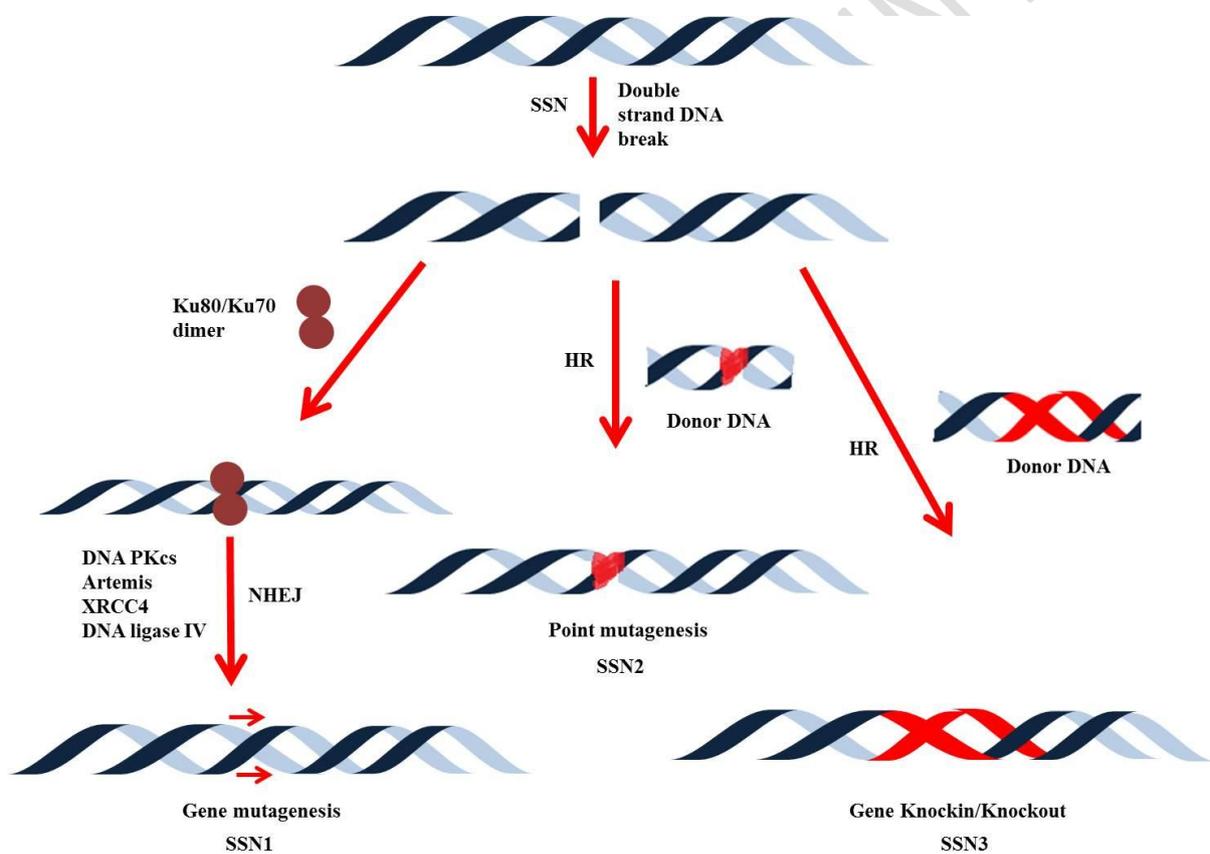
162 inactive state and undergoes extensive rearrangements on binding with the sgRNA, thus
 163 making the enzyme compatible for the recognition of the target DNA (Montecillo et al.,
 164 2020).



165
 166 **Figure 3:** Mechanism of CRISPR-Cas9 activity highlighting three phases- Adaptation –
 167 Integration of protospacer in CRISPR array, Expression- Generation of Guide RNA (complex
 168 of Cas9-with crRNA and tracrRNA, Interference phase- Degradation of target DNA

169
 170 Binding of the Cas 9 with the sgRNA indicates preparedness of the enzyme to search for the
 171 complementary sites in the target DNA (David et al., 2022). The two prerequisite conditions
 172 for the recognition of the target sequence are: The complementary base pairing between the
 173 20nt spacer and the complementary protospacer is the target DNA and the presence of PAM
 174 sequence adjacent to the target site (Karvelis et al., 2017). The most commonly studied and
 175 used CRISPR Cas 9 system for genome editing belongs to *Streptococcus pyogenes* which has
 176 a 5'-NGG-3' PAM sequence in the target DNA. The PAM sequence is of immense
 177 importance in the type II CRISPR Cas 9 system as it helps in distinguishing between the self
 178 and non-self-sequences. A single mutation in PAM can inhibit the cleavage of the target
 179 DNA (Gupta et al., 2021). DNA melting starts after the Cas 9 has found a suitable PAM in
 180 the target site, and is followed by the formation of RNA-DNA hybrid, and the formation of

181 the R-loop by the non-target DNA strand. The R-loop is formed when the guide RNA of the
 182 crRNA array, combines with the ds target DNA to form a RNA-DNA heteroduplex(Pacesa et
 183 al., 2022).The guide RNA pairs with the target DNA strand (complementary to the guide
 184 RNA), thus replacing the opposite non-target DNA strand (non-complementary to the guide
 185 RNA) (Gorski et al., 2017). The interaction of the R-loop with the target DNA and the
 186 complementary guide RNA, leads to the double stranded breaks, 3bp upstream of PAM by
 187 the HNH and the RuvC nuclease domains of the Cas 9 (Allemailem et al., 2024).
 188 After the site specific double stranded break (DSB), the cell undergoes repair mechanism.
 189 Non homologous end joining (NHEJ) and homologous directed repair (HDR) in DNA repair
 190 mechanism are the two most commonly used methods to induce sequence specific changes
 191 during genome engineering (Yang et al., 2020) (Figure 4).



192
 193 **Figure 4: Categorization of site specific nuclease approach(SSN), depicting double**
 194 **stranded break repair (DSB) by non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) or homologous**
 195 **repair (HR) method in ZFNs / TALENs and CRISPR, SSN 1 result in small**
 196 **deletion/insertion via NHEJ, SSN 2 for point mutation via HR and SSN 3 for complete**
 197 **gene edit using HR.**

198

199 All cells face double stranded breaks during cell cycle that are repaired preponderantly by the
200 NHEJ. The DNA ends are identified, selected, polymerised, and ligated in a versatile manner
201 by the proteins involved in the NHEJ mechanism. Ku70/Ku80 proteins bind to the blunt ends
202 of cleaved double stranded DNA and ligation of the DNA occurs by ligase IV (Meyenberg et
203 al., 2021). This adaptability licenses NHEJ to operate on a wide range of DNA end
204 arrangements, ending with mutation in the repaired DNA (Chang et al., 2017). This repair
205 mechanism occurs in the absence of any homologous DNA template, which makes the
206 process little error prone also resulting into random mutations sometimes (Chatterjee and
207 Walker, 2017).

208 HDR is another mechanism for the repair of the targeted DNA. As compared to NHEJ, HDR
209 happens at lower and significantly more variable frequency. It uses externally added target
210 DNA template or a homologous sequence for the repair mechanism. The externally added
211 target DNA can either be single stranded or double stranded oligonucleotides. This
212 mechanism creates more precise and specific genetic alteration (Jin et al., 2025).

213 **Other systems of CRISPR**

214 Although type II CRISPR/Cas system is most commonly used for genome editing, but there
215 exist other systems also particularly in class 2 of CRISPR system such as Cas12 (belonging
216 from type V) and Cas13 (belongs from type VI). The system varies in structural organization,
217 target specificity, cleavage mechanism, PAM requirement and repair pathway (Chaudhary et
218 al., 2024).

219 **Cas12-** The system belongs from type V CRISPR system exhibiting cleavage system
220 different to Cas9 system. Cas12 system (Figure 2). cleave both of the DNA strand by a single
221 RuvC- like catalytic domain unlike Cas9 system where two nuclease domains are
222 responsible for cleavage of the DNA strand (Lei et al., 2017). It recognizes T-rich PAM
223 located at 5' end of target sequence, unlike G-rich PAM of Cas9. The system generates
224 staggered cuts in the DNA and follows HDR system for DNA repair (Teng et al., 2019).

225 **Cas13**

226 **Cas13-** Cas13 has been added to the CRISPR list very recently, it belongs to class 2 type VI
227 of CRISPR system. The system works only on RNA and is catalysed by its HEPN (Higher
228 eukaryotes and prokaryotes nucleotide-binding domains). The Cas13 system involves the use
229 of only crRNA for cleavage of RNA (Ashraf et al., 2022). Since the system works on the
230 RNA only so no DNA strand cleavage occurs and hence no DSB mechanism takes place in
231 Cas13 system and the system does not rely on host repair mechanism or pathway. But since
232 the HEPN domain of the Cas13 system is present on the outer surface, there are high chances

233 of cleavage of RNA other than target RNA resulting in programmed cell deaths (Yang and
234 Patel, 2024) (Figure 2)..

235 **Cas14-** very recently Doudna's group explored a new protein named as Cas14, a 400-700
236 amino acids small protein coding for small protein with molecular weight of 40-70 kd. The
237 small size of this Cas14 protein make it efficient for targeting ssDNA using only T-rich
238 sequences without a requirement of PAM sequence, but cannot target dsRNA or ssRNA
239 (Savage, 2019). For cleavage of ssDNA, similar to Cas9, Cas14 also require the tracrRNA
240 and crRNA complex. In term of efficiency Cas14 system has proven to be more efficient and
241 specific than Cas9, Cas12 and Cas13. Due to its small size it can be used to target any type of
242 tissue and improves SNP (single nucleotide polymorphism) (Hillary and Ceasar, 2023)
243 (Figure 2)..

244

245 **Application of CRISPR/Cas 9 in plants**

246 Concerning the surging need of food resources with increasing population, the food and
247 agricultural researchers are showing significant attention to explore CRISPR/Cas technology,
248 which was first used by Feng et al., 2013 for modifying genome of world's largest staple food
249 crop, rice. Several studies have proven the efficiency of this technology in plant genome
250 editing compared to other technologies existing previously. The CRISPR/Cas9 genome
251 editing has been used to edit plant genome more precisely and efficiently (Chib et al., 2020).
252 The main applications are as below:-

- 253 • **Crop trait improvement via knockout:** Eradicating the undesirable gene is the most
254 promising approach for advancement in the field of genetic. The most widely used
255 application of CRISPR/Cas9 comprises knocking out the unwanted genes. There have
256 been several traits which are being enhanced and amended by the use of gene
257 knockout. Better yield, quality, biotic- and abiotic-stress resistance, hybrid-breeding
258 techniques and several other aspects of crop productivity have been enhanced using
259 this approach (Rao and Wang, 2021). For eg. Knocking out of OsERF922 gene was
260 done in rice to achieve bacterial blight disease resistance a major cause of loss of
261 almost 50% rice yield (Wang et al., 2016)
- 262 • **Knock-In and Replacement by CRISPR/ Cas:** Several traits in the crop plants are
263 altered by single-nucleotide substitutions, gene expression changes, or the addition of
264 new genes with favorable traits. Introduction of new alleles without linkage drag or
265 generating allelic variants that do not exist naturally has been made simple by knock-

266 ins and replacements via CRISPR/Cas system. Moreover, multiple traits can be
267 modified via knock-in by introducing multiple genes in a single variety (Rozov et al.,
268 2019). Herbicide tolerance in rice by knock-in of mutated acetolactate synthase (ALS)
269 gene to confer resistance to herbicide bispyribac-sodium is one of the example for
270 gene knock-in (Ouyang et al., 2025).

271 • **Use of Base editors for Genome editing:** As many agriculturally essential traits can
272 be altered by single-nucleotide polymorphisms in either coding or noncoding regions,
273 base editing is fairly convenient for plant breeding and improved crop development.
274 For single-base substitution, base editing is developing as a substitute and is an
275 effective, influential tool to HDR-mediated precise gene editing in plants (Molla et
276 al., 2021). The most commonly used base editors include the cytidine base editor
277 (CBE) and adenine base editor (ABE) (Bharat et al., 2020).

278 • **Fine-Tuning Gene Regulation via CRISPR/Cas in Plants:** Besides generating
279 mutations in coding sequences, modifying gene expression is a beneficial method for
280 investigating role of a gene and can significantly enable plant breeding (Sun et al.,
281 2024). Gene expression can be modified at several levels, including transcription,
282 mRNA processing, and mRNA translation. These processes are under the control of a
283 series of cis-regulatory elements, which can be modified by genome editing. Till date,
284 the alteration for modifying the gene expression mainly included promoters replacing
285 and deleting cis-regulatory elements (Cui et al., 2023).

286 • **Antiviral Plant Breeding Strategies:** The viral infections are amongst the chief
287 reasons that lead to damage of valuable crops in natural ecosystems. These infections
288 significantly decrease harvest by displaying different symptoms in plants and
289 therefore bring economic burden (Nazarov et al., 2020). The CRISPR/Cas system
290 delivers a resistance mechanism that cleaves plasmids, DNA viruses, and RNA
291 viruses. Opportunely, genetic engineering by the use of CRISPR/ Cas 9 has been
292 supporting as a potent tool to increase plant resistance against a broad range of viral
293 infections (Tyagi et al., 2021).

294 • **Highly efficient plant mutant libraries via CRISPR/Cas:** The most appreciated tool
295 for functional genomics is whole-genome-scale mutant libraries. Traditional mutant
296 libraries contain the data based on random mutations encouraged by agents such as
297 irradiation, T-DNA insertions, ethyl methyl sulfonate (EMS) mutagenesis, and
298 transposons (Santosh, 2020). The use of these methods to achieve stabilized mutations

299 requires many generations; moreover finding the genotypic and phenotypic
 300 associations amongst the mutants is a time-consuming and laborious process. The
 301 availability of high-quality, high-coverage, uniformly dispersed mutant libraries
 302 generated via CRISPR/Cas could simplify the expansion of advanced germplasm
 303 approaches as well as crop trait improvement (Tan et al., 2024).

304



305

306 Figure5 : Impact of CRISPR/Cas 9 on genetic engineering in plants

307

308 Table1. Targeted mutagenesis using the CRISPR/Cas system in rice

Name	Targeted Gene	Effect of editing on plant	Reference
Rice (<i>Oryza sativa</i>)	<i>OsPHO1;2</i>	Improved phosphate uptake	Mayura et al., 2025
	<i>OsALS</i>	Herbicide resistance	Ouyang et al., 2025

<i>OsACA9</i>	Disease resistance and regulates leaf senescence	Wang et al., 2024
<i>OsCPR5.1</i>	Resistance against yellow mottle virus	Arra et al., 2024
<i>OsPUB9</i>	Resistance against bacterial leaf blight	Kim et al., 2024
<i>OsCOPI</i>	Improved UV protection	Hu et al., 2024
<i>OsCAT2</i>	Improved scavenging of ROS	Shen et al., 2024
<i>OsMYB84</i>	Controlled uptake and transport of copper	Ding et al., 2024
<i>OsNIP3</i>	Reduced arsenic accumulation	Xu et al., 2024
<i>SD1, Wx</i>	Increased semi-dwarf glutinous traits	Wang et al., 2024
<i>OsNAS2</i>	Increased uptake and translocation of zinc	Ludwig et al., 2024
<i>OsRR22</i>	Salinity tolerance	Sheng et al., 2023
<i>OsAUX5, OsWRKY78</i>	Regulated amino acid accumulation	Shi et al., 2023
<i>Pi21, OsSULTR3;6</i>	Resistance against rice blast	Yang et al., 2023
<i>OsCKX</i>	Stress tolerance and enhanced growth	Zheng et al., 2023
<i>OsWRKY71, Bph15</i>	Resistance from brown plant hopper	Li et al., 2023
<i>OsHPP04</i>	Resistance against rice root-knot nematode	Huand et al., 2023
<i>OsTPP3</i>	Improved salt resistance	Ye et al., 2023
<i>OsLCD</i>	Low cadmium accumulation	Chen et al., 2023
<i>bHLH57</i>	Increased yield even under cold condition	Zhang et al., 2023
<i>OsPUB7</i>	Enhanced drought resistance	Kim et al., 2023
<i>OsGER4</i>	Enhanced heat resistance	Nguyen et al., 2023
<i>NRAMP1, FRO2</i>	Improved Fe uptake	Krishna et al., 2023
<i>OsPDR7, OsZIP9</i>	Improved zinc accumulation	Lu et al., 2023

	<i>OsGS2/GRF4</i>	Improved size and yield	Wang et al., 2022
	<i>PR10/Bet vl-like protein gene</i>	Resistance from <i>Meloidogynegraminicola</i>	Li et al., 2022
	<i>CRTL, PSY</i>	Enhanced vitamin A content	Dong et al., 2020
	<i>OsDEPI, OsROCs</i>	Enhanced heat resistance	Malzahn et al., 2019
	<i>OsSWEET 11, OsSWEET 13, OsSWEET 14, Os8N3</i>	Resistance against Bacterial Blight	Olivaet al., 2019
	<i>ISA-1</i>	Reduced starch content and increased sugar content	Shufenet al., 2019
	<i>eIF4G</i>	Resistance against Rice Tungro Disease	Macoveiet al., 2018
	<i>Waxy</i>	Low Amylose content	Zanget al., 2018
	<i>SBEI and SBEIIb</i>	Increased amylose content and the resistant starch content	Sun et al., 2017
	<i>OsAnn3</i>	Increased relative electrical conductivity and reduced survival ratio after exposure to cold treatment	Shenet al., 2017
	<i>OsNramp5</i>	Reduced Cadmium content	Tang et al., 2017
	<i>Gn1a, DEP1, GS3, and IPA1</i>	Alteration in grain number, panicle architecture, grain size and plant architecture	Xuet al., 2016
	<i>OsERF922</i>	Resistance against Rice blast	Wang et al., 2016

309

310 Table 2.Targeted mutagenesis using the CRISPR/Cas system in wheat

Name	Targeted Gene	Effect of editing on plant	Reference
Wheat	<i>S</i>	Disease resistance	Waites et al., 2025

(*Triticum aestivum*)

<i>ω- and γ-gliadin</i>	Reduced immunotoxicity	Yu et al., 2024
<i>TaRR12</i>	Drought resistance	Li et al., 2024
<i>TaRPK1</i>	Enhanced yield	Rahim et al., 2024
<i>TaHKT1;5</i>	Salt resistance	Wang et al., 2024
<i>TaHSFA1</i>	Heat resistance	Wang et al., 2023
<i>EIF4E</i>	Resistance against yellow mosaic virus	Kan et al., 2023
<i>TaPGK</i>	Cold resistance	Zhang et al., 2023
<i>TaCIPK14</i>	Resistance against stripe rust	He et al., 2023
<i>Tamyb10</i>	Reduced pre-harvest sprouting	Zhu et al., 2023
<i>PSY</i>	Enhanced vitamin and mineral level	Narayanan et al., 2023
<i>Ppd-1</i>	Yield enhancement	Errum et al., 2023
<i>Sall</i>	Stress resistance	Mohr et al., 2022
<i>TaIPK1</i>	Enhanced uptake of iron and zinc	Ibrahim et al., 2022
<i>TaPDI</i>	Enhanced protein storage	Hu et al., 2022
<i>S</i>	Stress resistance	Taj et al., 2022
<i>pinb, waxy, ppo and psy</i>	Improved grain quality	Zhang et al., 2021
<i>TaASN</i>	Reduced asparagine accumulation	Raffan et al., 2021
<i>TaSBella</i>	Regulated starch composition	Li et al., 2021
<i>TaNPI</i>	Male sterility	Li et al., 2020
<i>TaQsd1</i>	Enhanced seed dormancy	Abe et al., 2019
<i>TaMs1</i>	Male sterility	Okada et al., 2019
<i>Gli-2</i>	Low gluten wheat	Sanchez Leonset al., 2018
<i>TaERF3, TaDREB2</i>	Drought Resistant	Kim et al., 2018
<i>Pinb, Waxy and DA1</i>	Yield enhancement	Zhang et al., 2018

	<i>TaEDR1</i>	Resistance against Powdery Mildew	Zhang et al., 2017
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312 Table 3.Targeted mutagenesis using the CRISPR/Cas system in other important staple crops

Name	Targeted Gene	Effect of editing on plant	Reference
Sorghum (<i>Sorghum bicolor</i>)	<i>SbLG1</i>	Yield improvement	Brant et al., 2021
	<i>sbFT</i>	Yield improvement	Char et al., 2020
	<i>SbGA20Ox5</i>	Yield improvement	Char et al., 2020
	<i>CAD</i>	Yield and quality improvement	Liu et al., 2019
	<i>K1C</i>	Quality improvement	Li et al., 2018
Maize (<i>Zea mays</i>)	<i>ZmHDT103</i>	Drought resistance	Wang et al., 2024
	<i>ZmHSPs</i>	Enhanced heat resistance	Li et al., 2024
	<i>Zmpdrp1</i>	Virus resistance	Xie et al., 2024
	<i>Cry1F</i>	Pest resistance	Kumari et al., 2024
	<i>RZ2MS9</i>	Stress tolerance	Figueredo et al., 2023
	<i>ZeSWEET1b</i>	Enhanced nutrient uptake and accumulation	Wu et al., 2023
	<i>ZmAGO18b</i>	Southern leaf blight resistance	Dai et al., 2023
	<i>MCMV</i>	Reduction in viral infections	Lei et al., 2023
	<i>ZmG6PDH1</i>	Enhanced cold resistance	Li et al., 2023
	<i>ZmMYB69</i>	Quality improvement	Qiang et al., 2022
	<i>Zmbadh2a,</i> <i>Zmbadh2b</i>	Improved sugar and acid metabolism	Wang et al., 2021
	<i>SbLG1</i>	Yield improvement	Brant et al., 2021
	<i>SbBADH2</i>	Quality improvement	Suebpongsang et al., 2020

	<i>CRTL, PSY</i>	Enhanced vitamin A content	Dong et al., 2020
	<i>Wx1</i>	Low amylose content	Qi et al., 2020
	<i>MS8</i>	Male sterility	Chen et al., 2018
	<i>ARGOS8</i>	Enhanced grain yield in drought condition	Shi et al., 2017
	<i>ALS1</i> and <i>ALS2</i>	Resistance against chlorosulfuron herbicides	Svitashevet al., 2016
Soybean (<i>Glycine max</i>)	<i>GmFAD2</i>	Increased fatty acid	Zhou et al., 2023
	<i>GmHsp90A2</i>	Heat resistance	Jianing et al., 2022
	<i>GmSNAP11</i> , α - <i>SNAP</i>	Soybean cyst nematode resistance	Shaibu et al., 2022; Usovsky et al., 2023
	<i>Glyma05g29080</i>	White mold resistance	Zhang et al., 2022
	<i>GmUGT</i>	Resistance against insects (leaf chewing)	Zhang et al., 2022
	<i>GmF3H1</i> , <i>GmF3H2</i> and <i>GmFNSII-1</i>	Increased isoflavone content and resistance to soya bean mosaic virus	Zhang et al., 2020
	<i>GmFAD2</i>	Increased oleic acid and decreased linoleic and α -linolenic acid	Do et al., 2019
	<i>GmFT2a</i> , <i>GmFT5a</i>	Late flowering	Cai et al., 2018
Barley (<i>Hordeum vulgare</i>)	<i>GW2.1</i>	Improved yield	Kis et al., 2024
	<i>Hina</i>	Increased grain hardness	Jiang et al., 2022
	<i>HGGT</i> , <i>HPT</i>	Increased vitamin A biosynthesis	Zeng et al., 2020
	<i>HvITPK1</i>	Increased phosphate levels	Vlčko and Ohnoutková, 2020
	<i>HvMORC1</i>	Resistance to <i>Blumeriagraminis</i> and <i>Fusarium graminearum</i>	Kumar et al., 2018
	<i>HvCKX1</i>	Improved plant productivity and decreased total grain biomass	Holubova et al., 2018

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314

315 **Challenges**

316 Genome editing technologies like CRISPR/Cas system offer several benefits for the
317 agriculture due to their less-complicated, robust and multiplex targeting. Due to their high
318 efficacy and accuracy, these systems are used to overcome the confines that existed while
319 using the conventional breeding methods for the development of the disease resistant, high
320 yielding and better agricultural crops. In spite of several benefits and enormous application,
321 CRISPR/Cas 9 has quite few shortcomings. The development of the disease resistant crops by
322 the use of CRISPR/Cas 9 system is obstructed by a few important hindrances.

323 These hindrances include:

324 (i) **High fitness cost:** Some fitness cost may be caused due to the direct targeting of the host
325 susceptible genes as they are linked with the other growth and developing genes in plants.
326 Moreover, the disruption of the any host susceptible genes may affect the formation of
327 several products in the pathway and eventually other products in the plant due to the mutation
328 in the desired target gene. This may cause the insufficiency of several important nutrients and
329 may cause abnormal phenotypic changes. Nevertheless, the fitness cost may modify based
330 on the targeting susceptible gene/s and additionally is governed by numerous elements, i.e.
331 architects of disease susceptibility, defense suppressors, genes or pre-penetration factors
332 involved in the replication machinery. Use of base editing methods, promoter targeting to
333 create immediate alleles, introduction and designing of susceptible gene variants and knock-
334 in of desired characters is the possible solution to control this phenomenon. Research has
335 been intensively working on natural or synthetic pathogen inducible promoters or regulatory
336 elements from the past two decades. By the use of regulatory elements, pathogen inducible
337 CRISPR/ Cas 9 systems can be shaped, which can quickly knockout a host susceptible gene
338 involved in synthesis of a specific micronutrient or a sugar promoter and eventually evading
339 fitness consequences. Without regarding the barriers of the species, CRISPR/Cas 9 editing
340 can be used for the production of the desired host susceptible gene mutants in most of the
341 plants of interest (Wang et al., 2022).

342 (ii) **Off- target mutations:** Another challenge faced by the CRISPR/ Cas9 system, mainly in
343 the construction of transgene-free crops is off-target mutations. Off-targeting can happen due

344 to misguide by the gRNA or may be gRNA independent in nature and refers to the
345 modifications in the DNA at non-specific, unintended and unwanted sites (Hajiahmadi et al.,
346 2019). It has become a major barrier in the production of targeted mutations at the desired
347 sites. Several methods are being developed in largely two directions to find a solution to this
348 problem of off-targeting: evolving a technique for distinguishing off-target mutations and
349 developing the CRISPR/Cas system with high precision. Today numerous bioinformatics
350 tools, such as CasOFFinder (<http://www.rgenome.net/cas-offinder/>) and CCTop
351 (<https://crispr.cos.uniheidelberg.de>) and several other tools which include SELEX, IDLV
352 capture, Guide-seq, HTGTS, BLESS, Digenome-seq (Wang et al., 2023) and DISCOVER
353 (Zou et al., 2023) have been established as a measure against this matter. As each tool has its
354 individual positive and negative aspects, the researchers have to select their analytical tool
355 depending on their nature of work and their need. On the other hand, many enhancements are
356 being made in the CRISPR/Cas 9 system to reduce the off-target mutations. Firstly, Cas 9
357 proteins including eSpCas9 eSpCas9, HiFiCas9 and HypaCas9 and Sniper Cas9 were created
358 to expand the target specificity of the enzyme. eSpCas9 (Kim et al 2020), HF-Cas9 and
359 HypaCas9 were technologically advanced by structural alterations to enhance specificity,
360 whereas Sniper Cas9 was screened from a library of SpCas9 mutants that displayed enhanced
361 specificity (Moon et al., 2019). The improved Cas proteins exhibited extraordinarily reduced
362 off-target levels whereas retaining on-target activity. Enhanced specificity has also been
363 achieved by gRNA engineering. The synthesis of guide RNA has itself delivered convenient
364 and adaptable opportunities to advance the CRISPR/Cas system. Chemical synthesis, *in*
365 *vitro* transcription, or intracellular transcription systems can be used for the synthesis of the
366 gRNAs. Guide RNAs can be engineered in numerous ways, including chemical alterations,
367 modifications in the spacer length, sequence alterations in the spacer or scaffold, blending
368 with additional DNA or RNA components, and partial replacement with DNA. The
369 engineered guide RNAs are responsible for enhanced genome editing efficiency and target
370 specificity, regulation of biological toxicity, sensitive and specific molecular imaging,
371 multiplexing, and genome editing flexibility (Zhou et al., 2023). Lately, off-target mutations
372 have also been discovered in rice due to cytosine base editors, but no off-target mutations
373 were detected in adenine base editors. This shows that the new tools devised also need
374 developments (Jin et al., 2019). Off- targeting has been removed in many of the important
375 crops.

376 (iii) **Commercialization of the crops:** The safety and commercialization of the crops
377 generated by the mutations caused by the CRISPR/Cas system are associated with the
378 humans and other living organisms. The crops generated by the editing using the CRISPR/
379 Cas9 system are transgene-free and thus do not contain any foreign element in their genome.
380 Therefore these crops would not be considered as transgenic and thus their adoption for
381 commercial cultivation becomes easier. But, the adoption of the genome-edited crops is an
382 issue. Concerning about the problem, several countries are debating on this issue due to rules
383 pertaining to GMO crops, while many countries have adopted these genome-edited crops
384 (Turnbull et al., 2021).

385 (iv) **Resistance against viruses:** DNA/RNA viruses editing: earlier, CRISPR/Cas 9 has been
386 very useful in creating the virus-resistant crops by accurately and efficiently mutating the
387 genetic material of the DNA- and RNA-based viruses. But due to compromise with the virus
388 immunity in several plants, the ability and efficiency of this system has been questioned.
389 Therefore, the expansion of a well-organized, effective and openly and satisfactorily
390 acceptable form of CRISPR such as CRISPR/Cas13a is immediately needed.

391 (v) **Plants with unknown genome:** The use of CRISPR/Cas 9 system cannot be used on the
392 plants whose genomes are still not known. Moreover, its applicability is also limited for the
393 plants in which the functions of certain proteins are not known.

394 (vi) **Delivery systems:** Present delivery systems are restricted to explicit plant species,
395 genotypes, and tissues. In addition, more or less all the existing methods need tissue culture,
396 an extensive and laborious process. Refining the current delivery systems and emergence of
397 new systems will be crucial in reducing obstacles to low-cost application of gene editing in
398 plants (Zhang, 2019). To increase the range of delivery systems, both *Agrobacterium* and
399 plant genes could be manipulated to advance the *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation.
400 Plant germline or meristematic cells can be used for establishing genotype-independent,
401 tissue culture-free delivery systems for the delivery of the CRISPR/ Cas 9 in plants (Gordon-
402 Kamm et al., 2021). The emergence of the sperm cells, the egg cells and the zygote as the
403 realistic target for delivery is a boon for the CRISPR/Cas technology. The limitation of the
404 species specificity can be avoided by the use of pollen mediated transformation and the
405 regeneration using pollination and artificial hybridization. Moreover, the use of shoot apical
406 meristem for the delivery of the CRISPR/ Cas is evident as the stem cells are destined to

407 differentiate into gametes. New delivery systems grounded on nanotechnology and virus
408 particle-like structures too embrace a potential for crop improvement (Abdallah et al., 2025)

409 (viii) **Limited PAM sequences:** The action of CRISPR/Cas system requires the PAM
410 sequence for the identification and cleavage of the target DNA, and thus the missing of the
411 PAM sequence causes a problem in the action the system. Moreover, there are very limited
412 PAM sites present.

413 (ix) **Low HDR efficacy:** A challenge of HDR-mediated gene editing is that it needs
414 synchronized introduction of DSBs and delivery of a repair template to one site inside the
415 genome. There are numerous possible ways to increase the frequency of HDR in plant cells,
416 for example, management of DNA repair pathways (Ahmad et al., 2022)

417 **Conclusion**

418 The CRIPSR/Cas system has permitted cost-effective and efficient gene editing compared
419 with prior technologies, comprising zinc finger nucleases (ZFNs) and transcription activator-
420 like effector nucleases (TALENs), making it available to many scientists. The ease,
421 flexibility, and sturdiness of CRISPR/Cas systems make genome editing an influential tool
422 for efficient crop improvement via gene knockout, knock-in, replacement, point mutations,
423 fine-tuning of gene regulation, and other alterations at any gene locus in crops. This system
424 can be further extended to the crops with complex genomes or to the crops with unknown
425 genomes to further extend the technology to a broader prospect, by investigating and
426 developing more efficient delivery systems.

427 **Author contributions**

428 MKD conceived the review and provided the possible outline. SC, TS, SK, collected the
429 information and wrote the first draft of the manuscript. MKD edited and finished the final
430 draft of the manuscript.

431 **Declarations**

432 **Consent for publication**

433 We hereby give our informed consent for the publication of this manuscript and any
434 accompanying materials, including images or data that may directly or indirectly disclose our
435 identity, as part of the publication process.

436 **Conflict of interest**

437 The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare. All co-authors have seen and agree with
438 the contents of the manuscript.

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