

**UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE VIÇOSA**

**Integrated omics approaches for understanding and improving aluminum  
tolerance in popcorn: from mechanistic insights to breeding**

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*Doctor Scientiae*

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**Integrated omics approaches for understanding and improving aluminum tolerance in popcorn: from mechanistic insights to breeding**

Thesis submitted to the Genetics and Breeding Graduate Program of the Universidade Federal de Viçosa in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of *Doctor Scientiae*.

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## ABSTRACT

RIBEIRO, Matheus Pereira, D.Sc., Universidade Federal de Viçosa, July, 2025. **Integrated omics approaches for understanding and improving aluminum tolerance in popcorn: from mechanistic insights to breeding.** Adviser: Jose Marcelo Soriano Viana. Co-advisers: Humberto Josue de Oliveira Ramos and Vítor Batista Pinto.

Aluminum (Al) toxicity is one of the main limiting factors for agricultural productivity in tropical and subtropical regions, directly affecting plant morphology, physiology and metabolism. In acidic soils, soluble  $Al^{3+}$  impairs root growth, reduces nutrient uptake and triggers oxidative stress, with serious consequences for food crops such as maize (*Zea mays* L.). The first chapter, an integrative review, discusses advances in the understanding of Al tolerance in cereals, focusing on maize, rice, wheat, barley, sorghum and, especially, popcorn. The review details the two main tolerance mechanisms: (i) exclusion via exudation of organic acids and phenols, and (ii) internal tolerance based on vacuolar sequestration, cell wall modification and activation of the antioxidant system. The analysis addresses the roles of genes such as MATE, ALMT, STOP1, WRKY and ABC transporters, as well as the contribution of omics approaches, such as genomics, transcriptomics, proteomics, metabolomics and epigenomics, for the identification of regulatory pathways, functional targets and molecular markers. The study highlights that multi-omics integration has revealed coordinated responses between tissues at the molecular level, becoming the basis for the application of modern tools such as marker-assisted selection, genomic prediction and gene editing. The second chapter, of an experimental nature, describes an integrated proteomics and metabolomics approach in a popcorn inbred line previously selected for its tolerance to Al. Seedlings were subjected for 72 h to nutrient solutions with and without Al, and root and leaf tissues were analyzed by LC-MS/MS and GC×GC/TOF-MS. A total of 423 differentially accumulated proteins and 68 differentially accumulated metabolites were identified, with most of the changes occurring in the roots. The tolerance response included the induction of enzymes of the citric acid cycle, citrate synthase, biosynthetic pathways of phenolics, malate and glutathione, in addition to the activation of antioxidant systems. In the leaves, adjustments in energy metabolism, selenium pathways and redox signaling were observed. The integrated analysis revealed functional convergence between proteins and metabolites, highlighting key strategies such as exudation of organic acids, detoxification of reactive oxygen species and structural reinforcement. Together, these studies significantly expand the understanding of the molecular mechanisms of Al tolerance in popcorn,

providing promising biomarkers for genetic improvement programs. They demonstrate the power of integrative biology to transform molecular data into practical applications, driving the development of more resilient cultivars adapted to environments with high soil acidity.

Keywords: proteomic; metabolomic; Al tolerance mechanisms; antioxidant metabolism; TCA cycle

## RESUMO

RIBEIRO, Matheus Pereira, D.Sc., Universidade Federal de Viçosa, julho de 2025. **Abordagens ômicas integradas para compreender e melhorar a tolerância ao alumínio em milho-pipoca: de insights mecanicistas a aplicações no melhoramento.** Orientador: Jose Marcelo Soriano Viana. Coorientadores: Humberto Josue de Oliveira Ramos e Vítor Batista Pinto.

A toxidez por alumínio (Al) é um dos principais fatores limitantes à produtividade agrícola em regiões tropicais e subtropicais, afetando diretamente a morfologia, fisiologia e metabolismo das plantas. Em solos ácidos, o  $Al^{3+}$  solúvel compromete o crescimento radicular, reduz a absorção de nutrientes e desencadeia estresse oxidativo, com sérias consequências para culturas de base alimentar como o milho (*Zea mays* L.). O primeiro capítulo, uma revisão integrativa, discute os avanços no entendimento da tolerância ao Al em cereais, com foco em milho, arroz, trigo, cevada, sorgo e, especialmente, no milho-pipoca. A revisão detalha os dois principais mecanismos de tolerância: (i) exclusão via exsudação de ácidos orgânicos e fenóis, e (ii) tolerância interna baseada em sequestro vacuolar, modificação da parede celular e ativação do sistema antioxidante. A análise aborda os papéis de genes como MATE, ALMT, STOP1, WRKY e transportadores ABC, assim como a contribuição das abordagens ômicas, como a genômica, transcriptômica, proteômica, metabolômica e epigenômica, para a identificação de vias regulatórias, alvos funcionais e marcadores moleculares. O estudo ressalta que a integração multi-ômica tem revelado respostas coordenadas entre tecidos em níveis moleculares, tornando-se base para a aplicação de ferramentas modernas como seleção assistida por marcadores, predição genômica e edição gênica. O segundo capítulo, de natureza experimental, descreve uma abordagem integrada de proteômica e metabolômica em uma linhagem de milho-pipoca previamente selecionada por sua tolerância ao Al. Plântulas foram submetidas por 72 horas a soluções nutritivas com e sem Al, e tecidos radiculares e foliares foram analisados por LC-MS/MS e GC×GC/TOF-MS. Foram identificadas 423 proteínas diferencialmente acumuladas e 68 metabólitos diferencialmente acumulados, com a maioria das alterações ocorrendo nas raízes. A resposta à tolerância incluiu a indução de enzimas do ciclo do ácido cítrico (TCA), citrato sintase, vias de biossíntese de compostos fenólicos, malato e glutatona, além da ativação de sistemas antioxidantes. Nas folhas, observaram-se ajustes no metabolismo energético, rotas do selênio e sinalização redox. A análise integrada revelou convergência funcional entre proteínas e metabólitos, destacando estratégias-chave como exsudação de ácidos orgânicos,

detoxificação de espécies reativas de oxigênio e reforço estrutural. Conjuntamente, esses estudos ampliam significativamente a compreensão dos mecanismos moleculares de tolerância ao Al em milho-pipoca, fornecendo biomarcadores promissores para programas de melhoramento genético. Eles demonstram o poder da biologia integrativa para transformar dados moleculares em aplicações práticas, impulsionando o desenvolvimento de cultivares mais resilientes e adaptadas a ambientes com alta acidez do solo.

Palavras-chave: proteômica; metabolômica; mecanismos de tolerância ao Al; metabolismo antioxidante; ciclo do TCA

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## General Introduction

Soil acidity is one of the major constraints to agricultural productivity in tropical and subtropical regions, directly affecting nutrient availability, soil structure, and plant health. In soils with pH below 5.5, aluminum (Al), which is naturally present as inert silicates and oxides, becomes soluble and highly phytotoxic in its trivalent form ( $\text{Al}^{3+}$ ). This ion interacts with the cell walls of roots, inhibits cell elongation, impairs ion transport, and activates oxidative stress pathways, leading to physiological dysfunction and yield loss (Kochian et al., 2015; Ofoe et al., 2023; Silva, 2012). It is estimated that more than 40% of arable land in the Americas shows some degree of acidity, making Al stress one of the most important abiotic limitations to global food security (Tandzi et al., 2018; Tyagi et al., 2020).

Exposure to  $\text{Al}^{3+}$  triggers a cascade of physiological, biochemical, and molecular responses that vary according to genotype, tissue, and stress intensity (Chakraborty et al., 2024). In strategic crops like maize (*Zea mays* L.), sensitivity to Al compromises root system development, reduces water and nutrient uptake, impairs photosynthesis, and causes significant metabolic imbalances. These effects are particularly critical in special maize types such as popcorn (*Zea mays* var. *everta*), a high-value commercial crop whose expansion in acidic soils is limited by its elevated sensitivity to Al toxicity (Mutimaamba et al., 2020; Yoshida et al., 2023). Brazil is currently the second-largest producer of popcorn worldwide, with increasing production aimed at both domestic consumption and export (Kist, 2019; USDA, 2025), reinforcing the urgency of developing genotypes better adapted to the country's edaphoclimatic conditions.

Despite its economic relevance, most of the knowledge in the context of functional genomics, with limited availability of reference genome assemblies, stress-responsive gene annotations and publicly available omics data, is extrapolated from maize, which may overlook specific genotypic responses and regulatory mechanisms unique to popcorn. This highlights the

importance of dedicated multi-omics studies on popcorn to reveal its distinct physiological and molecular characteristics under abiotic stress conditions, such as Al toxicity.

Al tolerance in plants involves two main strategies: exclusion, which prevents Al<sup>3+</sup> entry into root cells via exudation of chelating compounds such as citrate, malate, and phenolics; and internal tolerance, which relies on intracellular sequestration, vacuolar compartmentalization, cell wall remodeling, and antioxidant system activation (Chakraborty et al., 2024; Kochian et al., 2015; Ofoe et al., 2023). These mechanisms are regulated by complex gene networks involving transporters such as ALMT, MATE, and ABC, transcription factors (STOP1, WRKY, NAC, MYB), antioxidant enzymes, cell wall modifiers, and hormonal signaling components (Guan et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2023; Piñeros et al., 2008).

Historically, breeding programs relied on phenotypic selection to improve Al tolerance, based on traits such as root elongation and biomass under stress. However, these traits are highly polygenic and strongly influenced by environmental interactions, making them difficult to select efficiently. The advent of systems biology and omics technologies has made it possible to unravel the molecular basis of stress adaptation. In this scenario, proteomics and metabolomics offer a high-resolution functional perspective, directly accessing the outputs of active metabolic pathways under Al stress (Rahman et al., 2022; Roychowdhury et al., 2023; Varadharajan et al., 2025).

Proteomics reveals differentially abundant proteins, including key enzymes, membrane transporters, chaperones, and regulatory proteins that play critical roles in Al tolerance. Metabolomics, in turn, detects changes in metabolites associated with detoxification, redox balance, cell wall reinforcement, stress signaling, and energy metabolism. Integrating these data layers enables the identification of coordinated pathways, central regulatory hubs, and biochemical tolerance signatures (Araujo et al., 2023; Pinto et al., 2023; Yoshida et al., 2023). Moreover, omics studies have shown that Al stress responses are highly tissue-specific: roots

prioritize chelation, structural reinforcement, and energy reprogramming, while leaves maintain photosynthesis, manage oxidative damage, and support systemic adaptation (Pinto et al., 2021b; Wang et al., 2023).

In popcorn, recent studies applied to a previously selected Al-tolerant inbred line (Rahim et al., 2019) have revealed induction of pathways such as the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle, cysteine and methionine metabolism, phenylpropanoid biosynthesis, and glutathione metabolism in roots. The presence of enzymes like citrate synthase and the accumulation of malate, combined with the repression of malate dehydrogenase, reflect a tightly regulated control of organic acid exudation as a key tolerance mechanism (Pinto et al., 2021a, 2021b, 2023; Yoshida et al., 2023).

In this study, it was conducted an integrated proteomic and metabolomic analysis of roots and leaves from an Al-tolerant popcorn inbred line under Al stress conditions. The results revealed a coordinated reprogramming of primary and secondary metabolism, highlighting adaptive functional networks with potential applications in plant breeding.

In this context, plant breeding programs gain a solid molecular foundation to accelerate the identification and introgression of alleles associated with Al tolerance. Omics-derived data provide candidate genes, regulatory proteins, and key metabolites with validated roles in stress adaptation. These findings can be directly applied to marker-assisted selection (MAS), genomic prediction, and precision gene editing approaches, significantly enhancing the efficiency, predictability, and speed of breeding cycles (Azeem et al., 2025; Derbyshire; Batley; Edwards, 2022; Roychowdhury et al., 2023). Additionally, the construction of gene–protein–metabolite networks enables modeling of phenotype–genotype associations. Recent advances in artificial intelligence and machine learning offer powerful tools to integrate and analyze multi-omics datasets, increasing the resolution of stress-response prediction and accelerating decision-making in cultivar development (Varadharajan et al., 2025).

Moreover, the development of Al-tolerant genotypes reduces the need for intensive liming, thereby minimizing production costs and the environmental impacts associated with excessive chemical inputs. This aligns with sustainability goals and promotes low-input agriculture in resource-constrained regions.

By integrating omics technologies with breeding tools, this research not only advances our understanding of Al stress adaptation in popcorn but also elevates this underutilized crop to a new frontier in plant biotechnology and sustainable food production.

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**CHAPTER I - ADVANCES IN UNDERSTANDING AND MITIGATING ALUMINUM TOXICITY IN GRAIN CROPS: OMICS APPROACHES AND GENETIC IMPROVEMENT STRATEGIES**

Advances in understanding and mitigating aluminum toxicity in grain crops: omics approaches and genetic improvement strategies

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**Abstract**

Aluminum (Al) toxicity in acidic soils is a major abiotic constraint to agricultural productivity, particularly in tropical and subtropical regions. In its trivalent form ( $Al^{3+}$ ), Al becomes soluble and phytotoxic, impairing root growth, nutrient uptake, and overall plant development. This review provides a comprehensive synthesis of the physiological, biochemical, and molecular mechanisms underlying Al tolerance in grain crops, with emphasis on maize and popcorn. Two main tolerance strategies are described: exclusion, based on the exudation of organic acids and phenolics; and internal tolerance, involving vacuolar sequestration, antioxidant defense, and cell wall modifications. Recent advances in genomics, transcriptomics, proteomics, metabolomics, and epigenomics have enabled the identification of regulatory networks, key transporters (MATE, ALMT, ABC), and transcription factors (STOP1, WRKY, NAC, MYB) involved in Al stress responses. Multi-omics integration has revealed tissue-specific and genotype-dependent responses, highlighting the role of convergent metabolic and signaling pathways. Studies in maize and rice demonstrated functional convergence across omics layers, reinforcing the importance of citrate and malate exudation, lignin biosynthesis, and redox homeostasis. Furthermore, omics-based insights are now being translated into marker-assisted selection, genomic prediction, and gene editing tools for breeding Al-tolerant cultivars. We also highlight current gaps, including the need for functional validation, exploration of epigenetic memory, and incorporation of underrepresented crops like popcorn. Altogether, this review underscores the transformative potential of omics technologies for improving crop resilience to Al stress and guides future efforts in sustainable agriculture on acid soils.

**Key-words:** Multi-omics integration; Popcorn; Plant Breeding; Al tolerance.

## Introduction

Aluminum (Al) is the third most abundant element in the Earth's crust after oxygen and silicon. In most soils, Al exists as non-toxic Al silicates and oxides to which plant roots are exposed and have no deleterious effects (Ofuo et al., 2023). However, in soils with a pH below 5.5, Al becomes soluble and bioavailable as  $Al^{3+}$  causing phytotoxicity. These ions react with water ( $Al^{3+}$  hydrolysis) in a process that releases  $H^+$  ions, further increasing soil acidity. Soil acidity is one of the main barriers to global agricultural production. It is estimated that more than 40% of potentially arable soils on the American continent have some degree of acidity (Tyagi et al., 2020).

The  $Al^{3+}$  compromises root growth, interferes with cell metabolism and severely impairs the physiological performance of plants (Banet et al., 2020; Shetty et al., 2021). This ion interacts rapidly with the cell wall and plasma membrane of root cells, promoting structural changes, blocking ion channels and inducing oxidative stress (Kocjan; Kwasniewska; Szurman-Zubrzycka, 2024; Ofuo et al., 2023; Yoshida et al., 2023). As a consequence, there is inhibition of cell elongation, loss of membrane integrity, damage to the absorption of essential nutrients and reduced photosynthetic efficiency, impacting directly agricultural productivity (Chakraborty et al., 2024; Cheng et al., 2020; Hajiboland et al., 2023). In crops of great socioeconomic relevance such as grain crops, these effects are particularly serious (Ofuo et al., 2023).

Sets of genotypes of various crops have shown varying degrees of tolerance to Al, which has prompted research aimed at identifying the physiological, molecular and biochemical mechanisms involved in this adaptation. Al tolerance mechanisms are generally classified into two groups: (i) exclusion: acts externally to the plant, preventing Al from entering the root cells by exuding chelating compounds such as malic, citric and oxalic acids, and (ii) tolerance: acts internally to the plant and is based on vacuolar sequestration of Al, intracellular complexation with organic ligands and modulation of the cell wall and antioxidant network (Ahammed et al.,

2024; Chakraborty et al., 2024; Peng et al., 2023). These mechanisms are controlled by complex regulatory networks involving transporters such as MATE (multidrug and toxic compound extrusion), ALMT (Aluminum-Activated Malate Transporter) and ABC (ATP binding cassette), transcription factors such as STOP1 (sensitive to protein rhizotoxicity 1), WRKY, NAC and MYB, as well as antioxidant enzymes, cell wall modifiers and hormonal regulators (Chakraborty et al., 2024; Guan et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2023; Maron et al., 2010; Ofoe et al., 2023; Piñeros et al., 2008). In addition, recent studies suggest that epigenomic modulation, including RNA modifications such as m<sup>6</sup>A, playing an essential role in the dynamic regulation of gene expression during Al-stress (Wu et al., 2024), enabling rapid and coordinated responses to environmental changes.

The advancement of integrated multi-omics approaches, encompassing transcriptomics, proteomics, metabolomics, epigenomics and high-resolution phenotypic analyses, has enabled a much more comprehensive understanding of the mechanisms involved in Al tolerance. These technologies reveal not only the individual molecular components of the response, but also their interactions in functional networks, offering a systemic view of adaptations to stress (Anani et al., 2022; Derbyshire; Batley; Edwards, 2022; Rahman et al., 2022; Varadharajan et al., 2025; Wu et al., 2024) . Models based on gene co-expression network analysis Weighted Gene Co-expression Network Analysis (WGCNA), GO/KEGG functional analysis, integration of bioinformatics pipelines and machine learning have been applied to identify core gene modules, priority targets for manipulation and robust molecular markers (Derbyshire; Batley; Edwards, 2022; Roychowdhury et al., 2023) . Such tools accelerate the translation of basic knowledge into practical applications in plant breeding and biotechnology, including the use of precision gene editing by CRISPR/Cas9 to modulate tolerance genes (Han et al., 2022; Liao et al., 2019; Santosh Kumar et al., 2020; Shi et al., 2017).

Cereals such as wheat, rice, maize, popcorn and sorghum form the basis of global food security, accounting for a large part of the caloric and nutritional intake of the world's population (Albahri et al., 2023). Particularly, in maize, wheat and rice are among the most widely produced and consumed crops, playing a central role in reducing hunger and malnutrition, especially in regions of high socioeconomic vulnerability (USDA, 2025). However, the development and productivity of these cereals are often limited by adverse soil factors, such as soil acidity and Al toxicity, a condition prevalent in tropical and subtropical areas (Carvalho et al., 2016; Jaiswal et al., 2024; Kochian et al., 2015; Rahim et al., 2019; Tandzi et al., 2018). This represents a significant threat to the stability of agricultural production and the maintenance of sustainable food systems (Kochian et al., 2015; Tandzi et al., 2018). In this context, the study of Al tolerance is strategically important, as it enables the identification of physiological, biochemical and genetic mechanisms that confer resistance to this stressor (Chakraborty et al., 2024; Kocjan; Kwasniewska; Szurman-Zubrzycka, 2024). Advances in this field are essential not only for preserving the productive potential of these crops in acidic environments, but also for guaranteeing the stability of agricultural systems, promoting adaptation to climate change and sustaining food supplies in vulnerable regions (Kocjan; Kwasniewska; Szurman-Zubrzycka, 2024).

In view of these advances, it is necessary to organize and synthesize the state of the art on the mechanisms of Al toxicity and tolerance in plants, with a main focus on maize, highlighting the role of omics tools and their practical implications for the development of more resilient cultivars. Multi-omics integration has revealed that Al tolerance is not the result of isolated pathways, but of a coordinated defense system activated in a manner dependent on genotype, tissue and stress intensity. This systemic vision is essential for guiding breeding and genetic engineering strategies, the subject of the next section. This review integrates the most relevant evidence for grain crops, discussing the main components of molecular regulation of

Al tolerance in an integrative biology perspective, as well as the opportunities offered by biotechnology and genomics applied to sustainable agriculture in acid soils.

### **Omics approaches applied to the study of Al tolerance**

Elucidating the mechanisms of Al tolerance in plants requires a comprehensive and integrative approach capable of capturing the complexity of biological responses to stress. In this context, omics sciences, such as genomics, transcriptomics, proteomics, metabolomics and epigenomics, have established themselves as central tools for identifying genes, proteins, metabolites and regulatory changes involved in the response to Al (Anani et al., 2022; Rahman et al., 2022; Roychowdhury et al., 2023) . In grain crops, these approaches have been applied with increasing sophistication, allowing the construction of a robust functional landscape that combines basic discovery with practical application in breeding programs.

#### *Genomics*

Genomic analysis has become an essential tool for elucidating the molecular mechanisms underlying Al tolerance in agricultural crops. This approach enables the identification of candidate genes, regulatory elements, and genomic regions involved in stress perception, signaling, and adaptation (Raza et al., 2022). High-density genotyping has allowed the detection of quantitative trait loci (QTLs) associated with Al tolerance, providing a solid foundation for genetic improvement in cereals under acidic soil conditions (Guimaraes et al., 2014).

In maize, mapping studies have identified five major QTLs located on chromosomes 2, 6, and 8, which together account for approximately 63% of the phenotypic variance in root growth under Al stress. The most relevant QTL, *qALT6*, located on chromosome 6, co-localizes with the *ZmMATE1* gene, which encodes an Al-activated citrate transporter (Maron et al., 2010). A tandem duplication of *ZmMATE1* leads to its overexpression, promoting increased citrate exudation and enhanced Al tolerance (Maron et al., 2013; Matonyei et al., 2020). The *TaMATE1* gene, discovered by Garcia-Oliveira et al., (2014)., is positioned on the long arm of

the group 4 homologous chromosomes (*TaMATE1-4A*, *TaMATE1-4B*, *TaMATE1-4D*). Other important genes include *ZmNrat1*, which is Al-inducible and preferentially expressed in root tips, as well as transcription factors such as *ZmART1* and *ZmAT6*, which coordinate defense responses and activate transporter expression (Du et al., 2020; Yamaji et al., 2009). Other authors have also described Al tolerance in maize by ROS elimination (*ZmALDH1* and *ZmAT6*) (Du et al., 2020, 2022), Al fixation in the cell wall (*ZmXTH1*) (Du et al., 2021b) and auxin transport (*ZmPGP1*) (Zhang et al., 2018).

In other crops, Al tolerance is primarily mediated by membrane transporters that enable organic-acid exudation or vacuolar sequestration, complemented by transcriptional regulators and QTL evidence. In wheat, *TaALMT1* on chromosome 4D is a major contributor to Al exclusion via malate exudation (Farokhzadeh et al., 2019; Zeng et al., 2023a). In sorghum, the *AltSB* locus on chromosome 3, which includes *SbMATE*, plays a comparable role by promoting citrate exudation. In barley, *HvAACT1* facilitates citrate secretion to detoxify Al, and *HvALMT1* on chromosome 2H has also been reported (Huang; Sato; Ma, 2024). In rice, *OsFRDL4* participates in citrate transport, while *OsALS1*, a half-size ABC transporter of the TAP subfamily, is rapidly and specifically up-accumulated by Al in roots and is expressed across root cell types (Huang et al., 2012). Transcriptional regulation further shapes these responses: in rice, *ART1* is a central regulator of Al-tolerance genes; in sorghum, additional QTLs on chromosome 9 were refined to a locus harboring the transcription factors *SbZNF* and *SbWRKY*, initially identified through QTL and association mapping, supporting parallel and complementary regulatory pathways (Melo et al., 2019). Consistent with these gene-level findings, QTLs for Al tolerance in rice on chromosomes 1, 2, and 6 explain approximately 27% of the phenotypic variance (Jaiswal et al., 2024; Ma et al., 2002).

More recently, genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have revealed functional polymorphisms in transporter and regulatory genes (Famoso et al., 2011; Tao et al., 2018; Zeng

et al., 2023b; Zhang et al., 2019), significantly expanding the repository of molecular markers available for marker-assisted selection (MAS). Genomic analysis has revolutionized our understanding of Al tolerance in plants, not only by enabling the identification of specific genes and pathways but also by providing actionable targets for the development of stress-resilient cultivars. Tools like CRISPR/Cas9 and genomic prediction have made it possible to implement precision breeding strategies. While CRISPR/Cas9 allows targeted genome editing, creating specific mutations or inserting genes of interest, for example, modifying transcription factors like ART1 to increase Al tolerance in rice (Barrero et al., 2022). Genomic prediction relies on statistical models that use genomic marker data to predict breeding values, as successfully applied in rice breeding programs (Bartholomé et al., 2024). The fundamental difference between the two approaches is that CRISPR/Cas9 directly alters the DNA sequence at selected loci, while genomic prediction accelerates selection decisions without altering the genome itself. Furthermore, the integration of genomics with other omics approaches, such as transcriptomics, proteomics, and metabolomics, increases predictive power and supports the advancement of sustainable agriculture in acidic tropical soils.

### *Transcriptomics*

Transcriptomics has been one of the most effective approaches for unraveling the molecular mechanisms underlying Al tolerance in plants, allowing for large-scale identification of differentially expressed genes under toxicity conditions. Through technologies such as RNA-Seq, it is possible to map regulatory networks, detect gene isoforms, non-coding RNAs, and signaling pathways associated with stress perception, response, and adaptation to Al (Pinto et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2018). Microarray and RNA-Seq technologies were developed in different periods, each representing a milestone in transcriptomic analysis. Microarrays provided the first large-scale insights into Al stress responses by enabling the simultaneous monitoring of thousands of genes, which helped identify candidate genes and pathways associated with

organic acid exudation and oxidative stress. RNA-Seq, as a subsequent technological evolution, expanded this capacity by allowing the discovery of novel transcripts, low-abundance genes, and alternative splicing events, offering a more comprehensive picture of transcriptional reprogramming under Al stress (Kloet et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2014). Thus, rather than competing methods, both have contributed significantly to elucidating the molecular basis of aluminum tolerance in plants. According to Varadharajan et al., (2025), transcriptomics represents the first step toward building a functional architecture of the stress response, enabling integration with other omics and bioinformatics approaches for gene-to-phenotype network modeling. The use of functional enrichment analyses (GO/KEGG), co-expression networks (such as WGCNA), and multivariate analyses, like Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and clustering, has been crucial for prioritizing candidate genes for Al tolerance and adaptation to acidic soils.

In popcorn, study conducted by Pinto et al., (2021a) is among the most comprehensive to date, in which the Al-resistant line exhibited up-accumulated transporters, detoxification-related genes, and transcription factors, together with alterations in lipid and organic acid metabolism. Using RNA-Seq on roots of contrasting genotypes under long term Al exposure, the authors identified hundreds of differentially expressed genes related to crucial pathways such as organic acid exudation (via *ZmMATE*, *ZmALMT*), vacuolar transport (ABC transporters), cell wall remodeling, lignin biosynthesis, antioxidant responses, in addition to new players never been described to Al-tolerance, such as SWEET transporters. SWEETs are sugar transporters essential for development and stress response. In the Pinto et al., (2021a) study, SWEET genes were more active in the Al-resistant line, suggesting they help maintain energy balance during toxic stress. They may facilitate sugar storage in the vacuole and provide energy for detoxification mechanisms. This finding highlights their role in adaptation to acidic

soils, making them valuable targets for the development of more tolerant crops. In short, SWEETs are key regulators of sugar metabolism under adverse conditions.

Analysis of gene co-expression networks suggested that Al tolerance involves modules enriched in transcription factor families such as WRKY, NAC, MYB, and bZIP, and highlighted the central role of master regulators like STOP1 and STOP2. However, it is important to note that such network analyses provide insights into potential regulatory relationships, rather than direct validation of candidate genes. These factors control the expression of genes involved in cell wall modification, Al exclusion, and detoxification, playing a critical role in plant adaptation to acidic soils (Agrahari et al., 2021; Kobayashi et al., 2014; Li et al., 2020; Park et al., 2010; Tao et al., 2022). Notable examples include WRKY47, which regulates genes such as *ELP* and *XTH17* (Li et al., 2020); NAC factors like regulating *ANAC017*, which modulate cell wall components (Tao et al., 2022); MYBs regulating downstream genes such as *PGIP1* (Agrahari et al., 2021), of the cell wall defense pathway, where MYBs activate genes such as *PGIP1* to protect the plant from damage; and master regulators STOP1/STOP2, which activate key genes like *ALS3*, *AtMATE*, and *PGIP1* (Agrahari et al., 2021; Kobayashi et al., 2014). Additionally, signaling molecules like nitric oxide further enhance the activity of these transcription factors (Agrahari et al., 2021). Altogether, co-expression modules represent a complex and coordinated regulatory network that underpins the Al-stress response.

In rice, genes involved in flavonoid metabolism, cell wall lignification, and hormonal signaling are differentially expressed under Al-stress (Wang et al., 2023), many of them are conserved orthologs in maize. *OsSTAR1* and *OsSTAR2* encode the NBD (nucleotide-binding domain) and TMD (transmembrane domain), respectively. When co-expressed, these genes form a protein complex localized in rice roots, which functions as a UDP-glucose transporter, as demonstrated in oocyte experiments. UDP-glucose-containing vesicles fuse with the plasma

membrane, releasing this metabolite into the root cell wall (Huang et al., 2009), a mechanism that helps reduce Al accumulation and toxicity (Kochian et al., 2015). Another key regulator of Al resistance in rice is *OsART1*, a transcription factor expressed in roots. Yamaji et al., (2009) identified 31 genes up-accumulated by *OsART1* in response to Al, including *OsSTAR1* and *OsSTAR2*. Subsequent studies leveraged this transcriptional profile to uncover novel resistance genes, such as *OsNrat1* (Al transporter), *OsMGT1* (Mg<sup>2+</sup> transporter), *OsCDT3* (a metal-binding protein), and *OsFRDL4* (citrate exporter) (Kochian et al., 2015; Xia et al., 2010; Xia; Yamaji; Ma, 2013). Yokosho et al., (2016) demonstrated that, although *OsFRDL2* is involved in Al-induced citrate secretion, its overall contribution to high Al tolerance in rice is relatively limited. The *OsEXPA10* gene, associated with Al-induced cell elongation, was characterized by Che et al., (2016). Its expression, restricted to root tips, is regulated by the transcription factor ART1.

Transcriptomics also allows investigation of spatial and temporal responses. Genes expressed specifically in the elongation zone of the root, as demonstrated by Kocjan; Kwasniewska; Szurman-Zubrzycka, (2024) and Rahman et al., (2022), are directly linked to initial Al perception and activation of exclusion and structural reinforcement mechanisms, highlighting the importance of tissue-specific sampling for more precise analyses. In Al-sensitive rice, Al reduced root length without completely inhibiting elongation (Wang et al., 2023), while in maize, Al had a similar non-lethal effect (Kong et al., 2014). In contrast, barley is highly sensitive, with even micromolar Al concentrations causing strong root growth inhibition (Szurman-Zubrzycka et al., 2021). These contrasting responses highlight the importance of understanding Al toxicity in cereals.

Despite advances enabled by transcriptomics in identifying genes associated with Al tolerance, the field still faces gaps that cannot be addressed by any single technique. Outstanding challenges include the incomplete elucidation of regulatory mechanisms, limited

functional validation of candidate genes, and insufficient integration of expression profiles with genetic variation and phenotypic traits (Pinto et al., 2023) . Rather than a stand-alone pillar, transcriptomics should be viewed as one component within an integrated framework to dissect AI stress responses in crops (Pinto et al., 2023; Szurman-Zubrzycka et al., 2021). When combined with complementary layers, such as genomics, proteomics, metabolomics, epigenomics, and high-resolution phenotyping, it can support the discovery of candidate genes, enable marker development, and inform marker-assisted selection, transgenic approaches, and genome editing.

### *Proteomics*

Proteomics is an indispensable tool in the post-genomic era, especially in the study of tolerance mechanisms to AI-stress. While transcriptomics provides information on the potential for gene expression, proteomics reveals the real functional activity of cellular systems by detecting expressed proteins, their relative amounts, post-translational modifications (PTMs) and functional interactions (Rahman et al., 2022) . The techniques used in proteomic studies range from traditional methods such as two-dimensional electrophoresis (2-DE) and Difference In-Gel Electrophoresis (DIGE) to new generation approaches such as LC-MS/MS (shotgun), iTRAQ, TMT and Orbitrap-based MS (Farooqi et al., 2022; Rahman et al., 2022; Roychowdhury et al., 2023; Varadharajan et al., 2025; Wu et al., 2024). These platforms allow the identification of low-abundance proteins, such as transcription factors, signaling proteins and vacuolar transporters, which are often crucial in the response to AI. Post-translational modifications such as phosphorylation, ubiquitination and acetylation also play central roles in the activation and regulation of proteins under stress. The phosphoproteomics approach, for example, has been instrumental in mapping signaling networks activated by ionic and oxidative stresses (Roychowdhury et al., 2023; Varadharajan et al., 2025).

The use of proteomic approaches has revealed central mechanisms in the response of cereal crops to Al-stress, pointing to the coordinated action of metabolic pathways, organic acid transporters, antioxidant systems and post-stress recovery processes (Dai et al., 2013; Han et al., 2019; Pinto et al., 2021b; Wang et al., 2014). One of the most recurrent discoveries concerns the reprogramming of energy metabolism, which is fundamental for sustaining root growth and Al detoxification. Enzymes associated with glycolysis, gluconeogenesis and the citric acid cycle appear to be up-accumulated under stress conditions, indicating a greater mobilization of energy for defense processes and cell maintenance (Pinto et al., 2021b; Wang et al., 2014). This strategy has been observed, for example, in tolerant popcorn genotypes, in which the high expression of sucrose synthase and TCA cycle enzymes favors the synthesis and secretion of organic acids, such as citrate, which are essential for Al complexation in the apoplast (Pinto et al., 2021b).

Another important axis of the protein response involves the activation of antioxidant systems. The presence of Al in the root environment promotes the accumulation of reactive oxygen species (ROS), requiring a rapid response to prevent oxidative damage to cell membranes and DNA. Proteins such as peroxidases, superoxide dismutase and other defense enzymes have been shown to be significantly more abundant in tolerant genotypes, as seen in barley (Han et al., 2019). In addition, some studies on Tibetan wild barley indicate that certain genotypes express specific proteins that are not present in sensitive inbred lines, which reinforces the importance of unique genetic variants adapted to naturally acidic environments (Niedziela et al., 2022).

The exclusion of Al from the root growth zone has also been associated with the expression of membrane transporters, especially members of the ABC and MATE families. These transporters facilitate the secretion of malate and citrate into the extracellular medium, a mechanism widely described in rice and barley. The functional conservation of these proteins

among different grain species highlights their central role in Al tolerance and points to promising molecular targets in genetic engineering and marker-assisted breeding programs (Dai et al., 2013; Pinto et al., 2021b).

In addition to the direct response to stress, the ability to recover after Al removal has emerged as an important differentiator between tolerant and sensitive genotypes. Studies on triticale reveal that tolerant cultivars show proteomic plasticity, quickly reacquiring their basal protein profile and resuming root growth. Sensitive genotypes, on the other hand, maintain persistent alterations, which compromises recovery and indicates a physiological limitation in reversing the damage (Han et al., 2019).

Despite these advances, there are still significant gaps in the understanding of protein regulation against Al, especially in cereals. One example of this is the scarcity of studies on post-translational modifications, such as phosphorylation, which are fundamental for the activation and regulation of protein function. Until now, analyses of this type have only been reported in soybeans under Al-stress, where the abundance of proteins involved in redox and hormonal signaling pathways was decisive for adaptation to stress (Han et al., 2020; He et al., 2024). The lack of similar research in species such as wheat, maize and rice represent an important gap in the proteomic characterization of Al tolerance.

This evidence reinforces the idea that Al tolerance is a multigenic trait, regulated by complex interaction networks that integrate primary metabolism, antioxidant defense, ion transport and post-translational regulation. The growing integration of proteomics with transcriptomic and genomic data has made it possible to map these networks with greater resolution, enabling the identification of more precise targets for biotechnological interventions (Derbyshire; Batley; Edwards, 2022; Roychowdhury et al., 2023; Varadharajan et al., 2025; Wu et al., 2024). Although challenges remain, especially with regard to functional validation in field conditions, the advances provided by proteomic analysis offer promising avenues for

the development of grain cultivars that are more resilient and productive in acidic soils. Critically, these protein-level insights gain full explanatory power when combined with metabolomic profiles, as metabolites represent the functional endpoints of both gene expression and protein activity.

### *Metabolomics*

Metabolomics, the science that studies the complete set of metabolites produced by a cell, tissue, or organism, has gained prominence in elucidating plant responses to Al-stress. While genomic and transcriptomic analyses reveal potential cellular responses, metabolomics provides a direct functional readout of physiological states by quantifying the dynamic end-products of biochemical activity. This approach captures real-time metabolic fluctuations, offering an unparalleled window into the organism's adaptive responses to environmental challenges (Rahman et al., 2022). In the context of Al toxicity, metabolomics enables the identification of active defense, adaptation, and biochemical compensation pathways.

According to Roychowdhury et al., (2023), metabolomics occupies a strategic position in the multi-omics pipeline, serving as a direct bridge between molecular signals and phenotypic responses. By identifying differentially accumulated metabolites (DAMs), it is possible to associate them with functions such as Al chelation, cell wall reinforcement, antioxidant defense, osmoregulation, and stress signaling. Core metabolic pathways such as the TCA cycle, amino acid biosynthesis, and phenolic compound metabolism have been shown to be essential in Al tolerance.

Metabolomic analyses carried out on grain crops such as rice and maize have revealed distinct metabolic profiles between Al-tolerant and sensitive genotypes, pointing to metabolic pathways and key compounds involved in the stress response. In maize, analysis of the metabolites showed Al-stress leads to significant changes in primary metabolism. Al-sensitive genotypes accumulate higher levels of sugars, amino acids, proteins, and organic acids in

leaves, which is associated with impaired growth and increased oxidative damage. In contrast, Al-tolerant genotypes maintain stable primary metabolism and show less physiological disruption under Al stress (Khan; McNeilly; Collins, 2000; Siqueira et al., 2020). With regard to secondary metabolites, computational studies suggest that secondary metabolites like ascorbate, glutathione, jasmonic acid, and salicylic acid may interact with key enzymes, like dehydroascorbate reductase, to mitigate Al-induced oxidative stress, supporting the antioxidant defense system in maize (Choudhury et al., 2022).

Al tolerance in grain crops involves metabolic reprogramming that strengthens cell wall integrity, increases antioxidant capacity and favors detoxification mechanisms. While tolerant genotypes tend to activate pathways related to the biosynthesis of phenolic compounds, lignin and energy metabolism, sensitive ones accumulate amino acids and intermediates typical of cellular stress conditions (Table 1). These contrasting metabolic profiles represent promising signatures for the selection of biomarkers and the genetic improvement of cultivars with greater resistance to Al (Table 2) (Awasthi et al., 2017; Choudhury et al., 2022; Xie et al., 2022).

In rice, tolerant varieties, was detected show an increase in the biosynthesis of phenolic acids and alkaloids, while certain classes of lipids were reduced under Al toxicity. These compounds may be associated with antioxidant defense and direct complexation of Al in the apoplastic environment (Xie et al., 2022). On the other hand, Al-sensitive varieties tend to accumulate amino acids such as L-homoserine, L-methionine, L-ornithine and L-proline, generally related to stress signaling pathways and cellular detoxification mechanisms.

Metabolic markers could serve as powerful tools for selecting cultivars with enhanced resilience to acid stress in Al-toxicity environments. Using an UPLC-ESI-MS/MS system, Xie et al., (2022) demonstrated that elevated putrescine levels in rice – polyamines crucial for cellular function under heavy metal stress – may mediate Al neutralization in sensitive

genotypes. In addition, a reduced cysteine and S-(methyl)glutathione levels correlated with diminished detoxification capacity.

In addition, the activation of central energy supply pathways, such as glycolysis and gluconeogenesis, has been observed in Al-tolerant rice roots, suggesting that the redirection of energy metabolism is an important strategy for sustaining adaptive processes under stress (Wang et al., 2014). A striking example of this metabolic adjustment is the greater accumulation of glutathione reductase (GR) in tolerant rice cultivars, which reinforces its role in antioxidant defense against Al-induced oxidative stress (Awasthi et al., 2017). These findings underscore how targeted metabolomic profiling can reveal both protective mechanisms and vulnerability markers, providing a dual-strategy approach for crop improvement.

#### *Multi-omics integration and predictive applications*

The integration of genomic, transcriptomic, proteomic, and metabolomic data, commonly referred to as a multi-omics approach, has become essential to understanding the complexity of plant responses to Al toxicity. This systemic perspective allows researchers to move beyond the limitations of single-layer analyses, offering a holistic view of gene-to-phenotype regulation under stress conditions (Rahman et al., 2022; Roychowdhury et al., 2023; Varadharajan et al., 2025). By combining multiple data layers, multi-omics strategies enable the identification of regulatory hubs, convergence points of molecular pathways, and coordinated stress-response modules (Liu et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2023; Wu et al., 2024). This is particularly relevant in Al tolerance, where gene expression, protein abundance, and metabolite accumulation often do not correlate directly due to post-transcriptional regulation and differential tissue responses.

The application of bioinformatic tools such as WGCNA, PCA and GO/KEGG enrichment analyses has proven critical for interpreting complex datasets and identifying multi-omics markers of tolerance (Derbyshire; Batley; Edwards, 2022; Varadharajan et al., 2025). These tools have revealed that tolerant genotypes exhibit coordinated activation of organic acid

exudation pathways, like *ZmMATE*, *ZmALMT*, ROS detoxification systems, and lignin biosynthesis, all supported by transcriptomic, proteomic, and metabolomic evidence (Azeem et al., 2025; Liu et al., 2021; Roychowdhury et al., 2023; Varadharajan et al., 2025; Wang et al., 2023; Wu et al., 2024). Araujo et al., (2023) further demonstrated how omics integration can clarify the systemic nature of stress responses by identifying the overlap between differentially expressed transcripts, proteins, and metabolites. These shared components reflect central metabolic routes and structural defense mechanisms that are robustly expressed in tolerant genotypes and nearly absent in sensitive ones.

In recent years, the integration of multi-omics technologies, such as transcriptomics, proteomics and metabolomics, has significantly advanced our understanding of plant responses to Al stress. Studies in rice revealed that phenylpropanoid biosynthesis plays a central role in oxidative stress response, with a strong correlation between differentially expressed genes and metabolites (Wang et al., 2023). In popcorn, integrative analyses of transcriptome and proteome data from the Al-tolerant inbred line showed that although transcriptional regulation predominates, post-transcriptional adjustments, particularly in bioenergetic pathways, also contribute to the Al tolerance mechanism (Pinto et al., 2021b). Similar complexity was observed in barley, where m6A methylation profiling coupled with metabolomics highlighted that auxin and jasmonic acid suppress cell elongation while enhancing pectin demethylation, aiding Al detoxification through mechanisms such as Al exclusion, chelation, and ROS scavenging (Wu et al., 2024). Together, these findings underscore the intricate, multi-layered regulatory networks plants employ to mitigate Al toxicity, and demonstrate the value of integrated omics approaches in uncovering novel mechanisms of stress tolerance.

Integration of this kind not only validates individual findings but also enhances the predictive power of stress biomarkers. According to Varadharajan et al., (2025), multi-omics approaches represent a paradigm shift in plant biotechnology, especially when combined with

machine learning algorithms and artificial intelligence for large-scale pattern recognition. Such frameworks enable the prioritization of gene-metabolite-protein networks for functional validation, accelerating the development of stress-resilient cultivars. In summary, multi-omics integration is indispensable for unraveling the complex regulatory networks involved in Al tolerance, providing a strategic foundation for next-generation breeding programs targeting Al tolerance in acidic soils adaptation.

### **Future perspectives**

The impacts of Al on plant morphology, biochemistry, and physiology, as well as the adaptive responses, highlight the complexity of this stress (Chakraborty et al., 2024; Tandzi et al., 2018). Over the past decades, advances and integration among omics have transformed the traditional research approach, enabling not only the identification of molecular components of tolerance but also the understanding of their interactions within interconnected regulatory networks. This has uncovered novel functional targets, coordinated defense pathways, and additional regulatory layers (Roychowdhury et al., 2023; Wu et al., 2024).

Despite these advances, important knowledge gaps remain. Most studies focus on early developmental stages or root tissues, neglecting the effects on aerial organs and during the reproductive phase, both essential to final yield. Furthermore, the intergenerational impact of Al exposure, potentially mediated by epigenetic mechanisms, remains largely unexplored in grain crops (Kocjan et al., 2024; Liu et al., 2021). The combination of multi-omics data with emerging technologies such as CRISPR/Cas9, epigenetic editing, high-resolution phenotyping, and machine learning points to a new frontier in the development of resilient cultivars. Predictive models based on gene networks and metabolic signatures will not only allow for the selection of superior genotypes but also enable simulations of their performance in varying edaphic environments, anticipating Al-stress responses even before field validation (Derbyshire et al., 2022; Varadharajan et al., 2025). In addition, innovative perspectives include: (i) Exploration of uncharacterized genetic diversity in traditional varieties and populations; (ii)

Adoption of participatory breeding strategies involving farmers in regions affected by acidic soils; (iii) Integration with agroecological practices, such as the use of growth-promoting microorganisms and regenerative soil management; (iv) Implementation of translational bioinformatics, bridging molecular data with digital phenotyping and marker-assisted selection.

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**Table 1.** Main metabolic pathways associated with Al stress tolerance in plants

Species	Metabolic Pathway	Key Proteins / Metabolites	Function in Al Tolerance	References
<i>Hordeum vulgare</i> , <i>Oryza sativa</i> , <i>Sorghum bicolor</i> , <i>Triticum aestivum</i> , <i>Zea mays</i>	Al Exclusion via Organic Acids	Malate, Citrate, HvAACT1, ALMT1, Citrate synthase	Root exudation of organic acids that chelate Al <sup>3+</sup> in the apoplast, preventing its uptake	Maron et al., (2013); Zeng et al., (2023a); Han et al., (2009)
<i>Oryza sativa</i> , <i>Zea mays</i> , <i>Zea mays var. everta</i>	Carbon and Sugar Metabolism	Fructose-6P, Glucose, ATP, Malate, Citrate, MDH, Sucrose synthase	Provides energy and metabolic intermediates; supports organic acid synthesis and defense compounds	Xie et al., (2023); Šukalović et al., (2011); Zhang et al., (2022); Pinto et al., (2021b)
<i>Zea mays</i> , <i>Zea mays var. everta</i>	Antioxidant Response	SOD, CAT, APX, POD, Ascorbic acid, Glutathione, GSH/GSSG	Detoxifies ROS generated under Al <sup>3+</sup> stress, preventing oxidative damage to membranes and organelles	Yoshida et al., (2023); Peng et al., (2023); Du et al., (2022)
<i>Oryza sativa</i> , <i>Sorghum bicolor</i> , <i>Triticum aestivum</i> , <i>Zea mays</i>	Transcriptional Regulation	ART1, ASR5, WRKYs, STOP1	Controls expression of genes involved in Al exclusion, antioxidant defense, and cellular maintenance	Garcia-Oliveira et al., (2013); Li et al., (2020); Arenhart et al., (2016); Yamaji et al., (2009); Guan et al., (2023)
<i>Medicago sativa</i> , <i>Zea mays var. everta</i>	Amino Acid and Phenylpropanoid Metabolism	Phenylalanine, Proline, GABA, Ferulic acid, Lignin	Strengthens cell wall, contributes to signaling, antioxidant defense, and Al sequestration	Tesfaye et al., (2001); Pinto et al., (2021b); Yoshida et al., (2023)

**Table 2.** Key genes involved in Al tolerance in grain crops.

Species	Genes	Proteins/Metabolites	Functions	Regulations	References
<i>Hordeum vulgare</i>	<i>HvAACT1</i>	Citrate transporter (MATE)	Citrate exudation	Up	Huang et al. (2024)
	<i>HvALMT1</i>	Malate transporter (ALMT)	Malate exudation	Up	Gruber et al., (2010)
<i>Oryza sativa</i>	<i>Osa7</i>	H <sup>+</sup> -ATPase	Interacts with <i>Osa7</i> to negatively regulate the PM H <sup>+</sup> -ATPase	Up	Xie et al., (2023)
	<i>OsaPx1</i> <i>OsaPx1</i>	Ascorbate peroxidases	Cell defense	Up	Rosa et al., (2010)
	<i>OsALMT4</i>	Malate transporter (ALMT)	Malate exudation	Up	Liu et al., (2018)
	<i>OsALS1</i>	ABC transporter (ATPase)	Sequesters Al in vacuoles	Up	Huang et al. (2012)
	<i>OsArPK</i>	Al-related protein kinase		Up	Liu et al., (2022)
	<i>OsART1</i>	Transcription factor	Homolog of AtSTOP1; regulates STAR1, Nrat1	Up	Yamaji et al., (2009)
	<i>OsART2</i>	Transcription factor		Up	Che et al., (2018)
	<i>OsASR1</i>	Transcription factor	Complements <i>OsASR5</i> to regulate gene expression	Up	Arenhart et al., (2016)

	<i>OsASR5</i>	Transcription factor	Regulate genes related to photosynthesis	Up	Arenhart et al., (2016)
	<i>OsAUX3</i>	Auxin transporter	Involved in Al-induced inhibition of root growth	Up	Wang et al., (2019)
	<i>OsCDT3</i>	Cysteine-rich peptide	Binds Al in the cell wall, reducing cytosolic entry	Up	Xia et al., (2010; Xia; Yamaji; Ma, 2013)
	<i>OsCS1</i>	Citrate synthase		Up	Han et al., (2009)
	<i>OsEXPA10</i>	Al-inducible expansin gene	Cell elongation	Up	Che et al., (2016)
	<i>OsFRDL2</i>	Citrate transporter (FRDL)	Citrate efflux into the xylem	Up	Yokosho et al., (2016)
	<i>OsFRDL4</i>	Citrate transporter (FRDL)	Citrate efflux into the xylem	Up	Xia et al., (2010; Xia; Yamaji; Ma, 2013)
	<i>OsGERLP</i>	Ribosomal L32-like protein		Up	Miftahudin et al., (2021)
	<i>OsMGT1</i>	Mg transporter	Maintains Mg homeostasis	Up	Xia et al., (2010; Xia; Yamaji; Ma, 2013)
	<i>OsMYB30</i>	MYB transcription factor	Regulates modification of cell wall proteins	Up	Gao et al., (2023)
	<i>OsNrat1</i>	Al transporter (Nramp)	Al uptake and vacuolar storage	Up	Xia et al., (2010; Xia; Yamaji; Ma, 2013)
	<i>OsNIP1;2</i>	Aquaporins	Sequesters Al in vacuoles	Up	Wang et al., (2022)
	<i>OsSAL1</i>	PP2C.D phosphatase	Increased PM H <sup>+</sup> -ATPase activity and Al uptake	Up	Xie et al., (2023)
	<i>OsSTAR1</i> <i>OsSTAR2</i>	ABC transporter complex	Cell wall repair via UDP-glucose transport	Up	Huang et al., (2009)
	<i>OsWRKY22</i>	WRKY transcription factor	Promote Al-induced increases in OsFRDL4 expression	Up	Li et al., (2018)
<i>Sorghum bicolor</i>	<i>SbGLU1</i>	$\beta$ -1,3-glucanase enzyme	Regulate callose deposition	Up	Guan et al., (2023)
	<i>SbHY5</i>	MYB transcription factor	Active <i>SbMATE</i> and <i>SbSTOP1</i> expression	Up	Zhan et al., (2023)
	<i>SbMATE</i>	Citrate transporter (MATE)	Citrate exudation	Up	Magalhaes et al., (2007)
	<i>SbNrat1</i>	Al transporter (Nramp)	Selectively transports Al <sup>3+</sup>	Up	Lu et al., (2017)
	<i>SbSTAR1</i>	ABC transporter	Regulating hemicellulose content in the root cell wall.	Up	Guan et al., (2023); Gao et al., (2021)
	<i>SbSTOP1</i>	Transcription factor	Complex regulatory mechanisms of STOP1-like proteins in response to Al toxicity	Up	Huang et al., (2018)

	<i>SbZNF1</i>	Transcription factor	Activation of SbMATE	Up	Melo et al., (2019)
	<i>SbWRKY1</i>	WRKY transcription factor	Activation of SbMATE	Up	Melo et al., (2019)
	<i>SbWRKY22</i> <i>SbWRKY65</i>	WRKY transcription factor	Regulate callose deposition in roots	Up	Guan et al., (2023)
<i>Triticum aestivum</i>	<i>TaALMT1</i>	Malate transporter (ALMT)	Primary malate exudation mechanism in wheat	Up	Zeng et al., (2023a); Farokhzadeh et al., (2019)
	<i>TaMATE1</i>	Citrate transporter (MATE)	Complements <i>TaALMT1</i> in tolerant varieties	Up	Garcia-Oliveira et al., (2014)
	<i>TaMATE2</i>	Citrate transporter (MATE)	Citrate exudation	Up	Garcia-Oliveira et al., (2018)
	<i>TaSTOP1</i>	Transcription factor		Up	Garcia-Oliveira et al., (2013)
	<i>TaWRKY47</i>	Transcription factor	Activates detoxification genes (ALMT1, MATE)	Up	Li et al., (2020)
<i>Zea mays</i>	<i>ZmALDH</i>	Aldehyde dehydrogenase	Eliminates ROS under stress	Up	Du et al. (2022)
	<i>ZmART1</i>	Transcription factor	Associated with Al tolerance QTLs	Up	Matonyei et al., (2020)
	<i>ZmAT6</i>	Transcription factor	Associated with Al tolerance QTLs	Up	Du et al. (2020)
	<i>ZmMATE1</i>	Citrate transporter (MATE)	Citrate exudation	Up	Maron et al., (2010)
	<i>ZmMATE6</i>	Citrate transporter (MATE)	Citrate exudation	Up	Du et al., (2021a)
	<i>ZmNRAMP4</i>	Al transporter (Nramp)	Sequesters Al in vacuoles	Up	Li et al., (2022)
	<i>ZmPGP1</i>	ABC transporter	Associated with reduced auxin accumulation in root tips	Up	Zhang et al. (2018)
	<i>ZmXTH</i>	Xyloglucan endotransglucosylase/hydrolase	Reduces Al accumulation in roots and cell wall	Up	Du et al., (2021b)

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**CHAPTER II** - PROTEOMIC AND METABOLOMIC SIGNATURES UNDERLYING  
ALUMINUM TOLERANCE IN POPCORN (*Zea mays* var. *everta*)

Proteomic and metabolomic signatures underlying aluminum tolerance in popcorn (*Zea mays* var. *everta*)

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**Abstract**

Aluminum (Al) toxicity in acidic soils limits the productivity of many crops, including popcorn, a specialty maize with increasing economic relevance. In this study, an integrative proteomic and metabolomic analysis was conducted to uncover the molecular mechanisms underlying Al tolerance in a previously selected Al-tolerant popcorn inbred line. Seedlings were exposed for 72 hours to nutrient solution under -Al and +Al conditions in a controlled growth chamber. Root and leaf tissues were analyzed using LC-MS/MS and GC×GC/TOF-MS platforms following Al stress exposure. Across both tissues, a total of 423 differentially accumulated proteins (DAPs) and 68 differentially accumulated metabolites (DAMs) were detected, revealing tissue-specific responses. The highest number of DAPs (308) and DAMs (52) was observed in roots, where Al tolerance was associated with the upregulation of citrate synthase, TCA cycle enzymes, antioxidant proteins, and enhanced biosynthesis of phenylpropanoids, malate, and glutathione. In contrast, leaves exhibited metabolic adjustments involving energy metabolism, selenium pathways, and redox signaling aimed at preserving photosynthetic function. Integrated pathway analysis revealed a functional convergence between proteomic and metabolomic data, highlighting organic acid activity, ROS detoxification, and cell wall reinforcement as key tolerance strategies. These findings provide robust biochemical evidence of Al stress mitigation in popcorn and identify molecular signatures with potential applications in marker-assisted selection and precision breeding. This work demonstrates the value of multi-omics approaches in underutilized crops and contributes to the development of Al-tolerant cultivars adapted to acidic soils.

**Key-words:** Multi-omics integration; Al Tolerance mechanisms; antioxidant metabolism; TCA cycle.

## Introduction

Maize (*Zea mays* L.) is the world's most produced cereal, with a global output of 1,158 million tons per season, considering all kinds of maize, like common maize, popcorn and others. Nearly half of this production comes from Americas, where the United States (31%), and Brazil (10%) rank as the first and third largest producers, respectively. It's playing a crucial role in the global supply of this crop, with a market worth billions of dollars (USDA, 2025). Thinking only of popcorn, a special type of corn, Brazil ranks second among the largest producers. Brazil's Midwest region is responsible for 80% of national production, with almost 300,000 tons produced in the 2019/20 season, with demand and productions increase year by year (Kist, 2019).

To address the dual challenges of rising global demand of food and climate change, understanding crop adaptability to suboptimal conditions, including stressed environments and low-fertility soils, becomes crucial. It is estimated that 40% of acid soils of the world (pH < 5.5), are distributed throughout the American continent (Tandzi et al., 2018). Modern agricultural practices, while essential for sustaining global food demand, often involve the intensive use of agrochemicals and pesticides, which contribute to the accumulation of heavy metals in soils and wastewater (Tandzi et al., 2018). Among these elements, aluminum (Al) stands out as one of the most abundant metals in the Earth's crust, and its concentration in soils is exacerbated by anthropogenic activities such as acidifying fertilization and land management strategies (Niu et al., 2020). In acidic soils, typically defined by a pH below 5.5, Al becomes solubilized into its phytotoxic ionic form ( $Al^{3+}$ ), severely impairing root development and plant productivity (Silva, 2012).

Different environmental conditions influence gene expression in plants (Lasky et al., 2014). Genes activated under stress are responsible for triggering adaptive responses that will induce morphological, physiological and biochemical changes in different metabolic pathways (Gupta; Rico-Medina; Caño-Delgado, 2020). Plants exposed to Al stress use several survival

strategies, divided into two mechanisms: (i) resistance to Al, by reducing or preventing the binding of  $Al^{3+}$  to the root cell wall by the accumulation and/or exudation of organic ligands with a high affinity for  $Al^{3+}$ , such as organic acids (citrate, malate and others) and phenolic compounds (polypeptides and catechol); or (ii) tolerance to Al, by sequestering Al in the cell, forming a stable complex and stored in cell organelles, such as the vacuole, without any damage to the plant (Kochian et al., 2015; Nunes-Nesi et al., 2014). Due the natural Al sensibility in all kinds of maize, Al stress can cause yield losses of more than 30 % (Mutimaamba et al., 2020).

This ion binds to negatively charged groups in the cell wall and reduces mitotic activity in root apices, causing inhibition of cell elongation (Horst; Wang; Eticha, 2010). This inhibition results in damage to root morphology and architecture, with negative consequences for the ability to uptake water and nutrients (Silva, 2012). In maize, especially popcorn (*Zea mays* var. *everta*),  $Al^{3+}$  stress induces morphological changes such as cortical thickening, coif deformation, and altered lateral root patterning (Rahim et al., 2019; Yoshida et al., 2023). On a biochemical level,  $Al^{3+}$  triggers excessive reactive oxygen species (ROS) generation, leading to oxidative stress and cellular damage (Ranjan et al., 2021; You; Chan, 2015). Tolerant genotypes counteract this through antioxidant enzymes and compounds such as SOD, CAT, POD, ascorbate, and flavonoids (Tyagi et al., 2020a; Yoshida et al., 2023; You & Chan, 2015). Biochemical studies in popcorn under  $Al^{3+}$  stress have shown increased levels of amino acids (proline, arginine), phenolics, and sugars that support osmoprotection and redox balance (Pinto et al., 2021b; Yoshida et al., 2023). Therefore, the effects of Al stress result in a loss of plant productivity.

The process of refining knowledge about the genetic control of tolerance/resistance to stresses is crucial for the development of Al-tolerant genotypes. For many years, breeders have focused their efforts on obtaining tolerant plants through phenotypic changes. However, over

the years omics tools have emerged that are capable of assessing the genetic control of adaptive responses to stress-tolerance (Tandzi et al., 2018).

The development of popcorn adapted to Al toxicity has been the subject of several studies. Rahim et al., (2019) identified popcorn inbred lines contrasting for Al tolerance based on root damage and plant growth. Following, Yoshida et al., (2023) studied the compartmentalization of Al and the antioxidant defense system in these same popcorn inbred lines. High throughput transcriptomic and proteomic analyses were performed to evaluate the stress response mechanisms associated with Al-toxicity aiming to identify candidate players and pathways that confer Al-tolerance to advance in popcorn breeding (Pinto et al., 2021a, 2021b, 2023).

Modern plant breeding has integrated different high-throughput omics technologies to identify key genes that help crops resist environmental stresses. By combining insights from genomics, transcriptomics, proteomics, and metabolomics, researchers can now more accurately identify and select the genetic traits that make plants resilient to challenging growing conditions (Chen et al., 2022; Pinto et al., 2021b, 2023; Wang et al., 2023; Xie et al., 2022). The integration of multi-omics data has provided a comprehensive understanding of Al toxicity responses in crops, particularly in popcorn. These approaches have revealed that Al tolerance is governed by coordinated and genotype-specific molecular networks rather than isolated pathways, involving key mechanisms such as MATE and ALMT transporter activation, antioxidant responses, cell wall remodeling, and chelator accumulation (Pinto et al., 2021b, 2023; Yoshida et al., 2023). Multi-omics integration enables the identification of regulatory hubs and converging defense modules, highlighting the complexity of stress responses, which often include post-transcriptional modulation and tissue-specific dynamics (Rahman et al., 2022; Roychowdhury et al., 2023; Varadharajan et al., 2025).

Recently, several studies using an Al-tolerant popcorn inbred line have been conducted to understand the effects of Al stress on root systems, particularly at the metabolic and

biochemical levels. However, the adverse effects of Al on shoot development, energy synthesis processes, and other indirect impacts have not yet been fully elucidated from a proteomic and metabolic perspective (Pinto et al., 2021a, 2021b, 2023; Yoshida et al., 2023). In this study, proteomic and metabolomic analyses were carried out to investigate the response to Al stress in an Al-tolerant popcorn line, aiming to identify key molecular processes and potential candidate genes associated with Al tolerance. The results provide new insights into the molecular mechanisms underlying Al tolerance in popcorn, contributing to a deeper understanding of Al stress regulation and offering valuable support for sustainable agricultural development and the rational use of natural resources.

## **Material and Methods**

### **Plant material and growth conditions**

Seeds from Al-tolerant inbred line (11-133) after ten generations, selected previously by Rahim et al., (2019) developed by Popcorn Breeding Program at Federal University of Viçosa (Viçosa, Brazil) were used for this work. Seeds were treated with the fungicide Maxim® (Syngenta, Pratteln, Switzerland) and germinated on Germitest paper rolls in a growth chamber at  $25\text{ °C} \pm 1\text{ °C}$  at 16:8 h light:dark photoperiod for seven days. Then, seedlings with uniform growth were picked randomly, transferred to a ½ strength nutritive solution (pH 4.5) described by Magnavaca; Gardner; Clark, (1987) and modified by Famoso et al., (2010) with constant aeration for 24 h.

Posteriorly, the nutrient solution was changed to total strength and the seedlings were divided into two groups: control (-Al) and presence of Al (+Al). The nutrient solution composition consisted of: 1 mM KCl, 1.5 mM  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$ , 1 mM  $\text{CaCl}_2$ , 0.045 mM  $\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4$ , 200  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{MgSO}_4$ , 500  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{Mg}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ , 155  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{MgCl}_2$ , 11.8  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{MnCl}_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , 33  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{H}_3\text{BO}_3$ , 3.06  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{ZnSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , 0.8  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , 1.07  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{Na}_2\text{MoO}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ , and 77  $\mu\text{M}$  Fe-EDTA. In both, conditions the pH was adjusted to 4.5. For +Al treatment group, the nutritive solution was supplied to 540  $\mu\text{M}$  of  $\text{AlCl}_3$  (160  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{Al}^{3+}$ ). The seedlings were maintained in a growth

chamber under constant aeration, at  $25 \pm 1$  °C,  $200 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  light intensity, 80% relative humidity, and photoperiod of 16:8 h (light:dark). After 72 h, the shoots and roots were collected and macerated and homogenized in liquid nitrogen were kept in an ultra-freezer (-80 °C). The experiment was performed in a completely randomized design with one seedling per pot.

## Proteomic analysis

### *Protein extraction and tryptic digestion*

For protein extraction, three biological replicates were established by pooling tissues from three individual plants per treatment. Shoots and roots were separately collected for each condition (-Al and +Al), immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen, and individually macerated. Proteins were extracted from 300 mg (leaves) or 450 mg (roots) of powdered fresh material (FM) via trichloroacetic acid (TCA)/acetone precipitation method (Damerval et al., 1986), with modifications. The samples were resuspended in 1 mL of cold extraction buffer containing 10% (w/v) of TCA (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) in acetone with 20 mM of dithiothreitol (DTT) (GE Healthcare, Piscataway, NJ, USA) and agitated for 5 minutes at 8 °C. The mixture was kept at -20° C for 1 hour and subsequently centrifuged at 16,000 g for 30 minutes at 4 °C. The resulting pellets were washed three times with cold acetone, with the addition of 20 mM of DTT, and centrifuged for 5 minutes per wash. The pellets were air-dried and resuspended in a buffer containing 7 M urea, 2 M of thiourea, 2 % of Triton X-100, 1 % of DTT, and 1 mM of phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF) (Sigma-Aldrich). Samples were vortexed for 30 min at 4 °C in a refrigerator, followed by centrifugation at  $16,000 \times g$  for 20 min at 4 °C. The supernatants containing total proteins were collected, and the protein concentration was measured using Bradford reagent (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA).

The proteins samples were precipitated using a methanol/chloroform extraction method to remove any interfering compounds from the samples (Nanjo et al., 2012). The samples were then resuspended in a solution consisting of 7 M urea and 2 M thiourea after which tryptic

protein digestion (1:100 enzyme:protein, V5111, Promega, Madison, WI, USA) was performed using Microcon-30 kDa filter units (Merck Millipore, Burlington, MA, USA) with the filter-aided sample preparation (FASP) methodology (Pinto et al., 2021b). The resulting peptides were quantified with the A205 nm protein and peptide method using a NanoDrop 2000c spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA).

#### *Mass spectrometry analysis and proteins identification by HPLC*

The samples were injected into a nanoAcquity ultra-pure liquid chromatography (UPLC) mass spectrometer connected to a Q-TOF SYNAPT G2-Si instrument (Waters, Manchester, UK). The runs consisted of three biological replicates of 2 µg of peptide samples. The spectra processing and database search were performed using the ProteinLynx Global SERVER (PLGS) software v.3.02 (Waters) and the *Zea mays* protein databank (ID: UP000007305) available on UniProtKB ([www.uniprot.org](http://www.uniprot.org)). The label-free quantification analyses were performed using ISOQuant software v.1.7 (Distler et al., 2014). To ensure the quality of the results after data processing, only proteins present in the three runs were accepted for differential abundance analysis. Proteins were deemed up-accumulated if the log<sub>2</sub> value of the fold change (FC) was > 0.585 and down-accumulated if the log<sub>2</sub> value of the FC was < -0.585, according to Student's t test (two-tailed, P < 0.05) and after P-value correction with the Benjamini–Hochberg test.

#### *Functional analysis of proteomic data*

Differentially accumulated proteins (DAPs) identified in root and leaf tissues underwent comprehensive functional annotation and enrichment analysis using ShinyGO (v0.82) (Ge; Jung; Yao, 2020). For both Gene Ontology (GO) and KEGG pathway analyses, was applied a p-value < 0.01 (Fisher's exact test with FDR correction) to identify significantly enriched terms. From the resulting datasets, were selected the top 15 most significantly enriched terms for Biological Process (GO-BP) and KEGG pathways based on their -log<sub>10</sub> (p-value) scores. Plots

were constructed on R environment. The plots were generated with the RStudio (R Core Team, 2025) software.

For protein-protein interaction (PPI) network analysis, DAPs from roots and leaf were further examined using the *Zea mays* proteome reference in the STRING-DB plugin on Cytoscape software (Shannon et al., 2003) with a confidence score cutoff  $> 0.7$  (high confidence), and selected KEGG pathways enriched with biological relevance for Al-tolerance. Cluster analysis was applied in the entire network with the ClusterMaker plugin with the MCODE algorithm to identify the modules highly connected to each other. Finally, topology analysis was performed in both PPI networks to identify the degree of each node using the NetworkAnalyzer plugin.

#### Metabolomic analysis

##### *Metabolites extraction and derivatization*

The extraction of metabolites, seven biological replicates were established by pooling tissues from three individual plants per treatment following Hoffman et al., (2010). In microtubes with macerated samples of roots (200 mg) and shoots (100 mg) was added three 3 mm tungsten beads and used a vibration mill (MM 301 Retch GmbH & Co, Haan, Germany) with a frequency of  $30 \text{ Hz s}^{-1}$  for 60 s. The metabolites were extracted by adding 500  $\mu\text{L}$  of 6:2:2 methanol:chloroform:water ice-cold extraction solution was added. It was added 50  $\mu\text{L}$  ( $1 \text{ mg ml}^{-1}$  each of myristic acid ( $^{13}\text{C}_3$ ), palmitic acid ( $^{13}\text{C}_4$ ) and succinic acid ( $^2\text{H}_4$ )) stable isotope reference compounds in each sample which were used as external standards and used as external standard for quality control. These microtubes were vortexed for 30 s to shoots and 90 s to roots, and placed in an ultrasonic low-temperature bath at  $30 \text{ Hz s}^{-1}$  for 15 min. The samples were then centrifuged at  $4^\circ\text{C}$  for 10 min at  $14000 \times g$  (Eppendorf Centrifuge 5415R). Then, the supernatant was filtered (Millipore filter PVDF  $0.22 \mu\text{m}$ ) and 100  $\mu\text{L}$  of the filtered was transferred to a chromatographic vial where the extracts were lyophilized until completely dry.

Finally, samples lyophilized were derivatized according to Gullberg et al., (2004) with 30  $\mu\text{L}$  of methoxyamine hydrochloride (15  $\text{mg ml}^{-1}$  in pyridine) for 16 h at room temperature in dark. The samples were trimethylsilylated by adding 30  $\mu\text{l}$  of N-methyl-N-(trimethylsilyl) trifluoroacetamide (MSTFA) containing 1% trimethylchlorosilane (TMCS), the resulting mixture stand at room temperature for 1 h. Then, 30  $\mu\text{l}$  of heptane with 15  $\text{ng } \mu\text{l}^{-1}$  de methyl-esterate was added. Blank control samples and a series of n-alkanes (C12–C40), which allowed retention indices to be calculated (Schauer et al., 2005) were also used.

#### *Analysis and metabolites identification by GC-MS*

One microliter of each derivatized sample was injected in splitless mode into a 7890A gas chromatograph (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, USA), equipped with a Comb-xt Autosampler (Leap Technologies, Carrboro, USA). For compound separation, a DB-5 GC capillary column (20 m  $\times$  0.18 mm i.d.  $\times$  0.18  $\mu\text{m}$  film thickness; Agilent Technologies) was employed as the primary column, while the secondary column consisted of an Rxi-17 capillary (0.69 m  $\times$  0.1 mm i.d.  $\times$  0.1  $\mu\text{m}$  film thickness; Restek, Bellefonte, USA). The injector temperature was set to 280  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ , with a septum purge flow of 20  $\text{mL min}^{-1}$ , activated 60 s after injection. Helium was used as the carrier gas at a constant flow rate of 1  $\text{mL min}^{-1}$ . The column oven was programmed as follows: initial temperature of 80  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 2 min, ramped at 15  $^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$  up to 305  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ , and held at this temperature for 10 min. The effluent was directed to the ion source of a GC $\times$ GC/TOF-MS system (Pegasus 4D, Leco Corp., St. Joseph, USA). The transfer line and ion source were maintained at 280  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  and 250  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ , respectively. Ionization was achieved using a 70-eV electron beam at an ionization current of 2.0 mA. Mass spectra were acquired at a rate of 10 spectra  $\text{s}^{-1}$ , covering a mass range of  $m/z$  45–800.

Baseline correction and export of all mass spectrometry files in NetCDF format were performed using ChromaTOF software v. 4.51 (Leco Corp., St. Joseph, USA). Subsequent peak detection, retention time alignment, and compound identification were carried out using the TargetSearch package (Cuadros-Inostroza et al., 2009). Metabolites were annotated by

comparing retention indices ( $\pm 2$  s) and spectral similarity (similarity score  $>600$ ) against entries in the Golm Metabolome Database (<http://csbdb.mpimp-golm.mpg.de/csbdb/gmd/gmd.html>) (Kopka et al., 2005). Metabolite intensities were normalized to both sample dry weight and the total ion chromatogram (TIC).

#### *Metabolomic data analysis*

The data analysis and graphics generations were done in MetaboAnalyst 6.0 (Pang et al., 2024). To reduce systematic variance and to improve the performance for downstream statistical analysis data were log-transformed and Pareto scaled prior to data analysis. Metabolites up- or down-accumulation was determined using the same FC analysis methodology used in the proteomic data analysis.

The metabolic pathways integrating proteomic and metabolomic data were constructed using the KEGG database (<https://www.genome.jp/kegg/>) by mapping the identified protein and metabolite IDs.

## **Results**

### Proteomic profile

A total of 308 differentially accumulated proteins (DAPs) were identified in the roots (Suppl. Table 1) and 115 in the leaves (Suppl. Table 2) of the Al-tolerant inbred line when comparing conditions with and without Al stress. In roots, were detected 68 proteins up-accumulated and 174 proteins down-accumulated, in addition to 36 proteins accumulated only in the -Al condition (down-related proteins), and 30 proteins accumulated only in +Al toxicity treatment (up-related proteins) (Suppl. Table 1). In leaves, were detected 14 and 69 DAPs up- and down-accumulated, respectively, in addition to 17 proteins accumulated only in -Al condition (down-related proteins), and 15 in the +Al toxicity treatment (up-related proteins) (Suppl. Table 2). Furthermore, 18 proteins were differentially accumulated under Al stress in both roots and leaves (Figure 1).

The GO analysis revealed distinct functional enrichment patterns between tissues, with leaf proteins predominantly associated with energy metabolic processes (e.g., glycogen metabolic process; UDP-glucose metabolic process; energy reserve metabolic process), while root proteins showed significant enrichment in detoxification pathways (including cellular detoxification; ROS metabolic process, and organic acid metabolic process) (Figure 2). The analysis of cellular component identified that most of the proteins are localized in photosystem and ribosomal components in leaves, and in cell wall in roots. For molecular function, in leaves were predominant proteins with transferase activity, while in roots were those with oxidoreductase and antioxidant activity (Suppl. Figure 1).

For KEGG enrichment analysis, leaf proteins exhibited high fold enrichment in pathways involved in the maintenance of energy and protein production, such as photosynthesis and antenna proteins, ribosome, selenocompound metabolism, and carbon metabolism (Figure 3). In roots, a greater number of proteins were associated with the pathways involved in energy generation, detoxification, and production of defense compounds, such as the tricarboxylic acid cycle (TCA) cycle, cysteine and methionine metabolism, phenylpropanoid biosynthesis, and glutathione metabolism (Figure 3).

In the PPI network from leaf proteins retrieved 57 physical interactions (Figure 4a) and three clusters – translation, photosynthesis and quinone binding, and protein folding (Figure 4b). For roots proteins, the network retrieved 151 interactions (Figure 5a) and nine clusters: translation, TCA cycle, proteasome, glycolysis, and pentose phosphate pathway, oxidative phosphorylation, protein folding, cysteine and methionine metabolism, glycolysis, and phagosome (Figure 5b). In leaf proteins the maximum degree of connections was equal 20 with the participation of ribosomal proteins (Suppl. Figure 2). In roots, the network topology revealed central hubs with maximum degree to 40S ribosomal proteins S2-1 (A0A804M605, and A0A804P6X5; degree = 19), and citrate synthase (B4FIC0; degree = 18) (Suppl. Figure 3).

### Metabolite quantification

In the leaves of the Al-tolerant inbred line, 83 metabolites were identified, including 16 differentially accumulated metabolites (DAMs) (Suppl. Figure 4), with 8 up-accumulated and 8 down-accumulated (Figure 6) (Table 1). In the roots, a total of 65 metabolites were detected, among which 52 were DAMs (Suppl. Figure 5), including 40 up-accumulated and 12 down-accumulated (Figure 6) (Table 1). For KEGG enrichment analysis, Al-stress in the roots activated key metabolic pathways associated with detoxification and oxidative resistance, energy adjustments, cell protection, metabolic repair, and signaling under stress (Figure 7).

### Integration of proteomic and metabolomic data

By integrating proteomic and metabolomic data, a metabolic regulation profile was observed with significant changes in metabolites and key enzymes in the roots. The main findings include: (i) the accumulation of nitrogenous intermediates (serine, glycine, alanine, aspartate, asparagine, threonine, tyrosine, tryptophan, valine, and leucine) and associated proteins (aspartate aminotransferase, serine hydroxymethyltransferase, glutamate synthetase, and glycine decarboxylase), identified in the amino acid biosynthesis pathway (Suppl. Figure 6); (ii) elevated levels of glucose-6-phosphate, phosphoenolpyruvate, pyruvate, phosphoserine, glycine, malate, oxaloacetate, and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate in central carbon metabolism (Suppl. Figure 7); and (iii) the accumulation of malate with concomitant reduction in malate dehydrogenase activity and increase in citrate synthase, changes detected both in carbon metabolism (Suppl. Figure 7) and in the TCA cycle (Suppl. Figure 8).

### Discussion

The integration of GO and KEGG functional enrichment analyses with PPI networks revealed a systemically coordinated and specialized response to Al stress, with roots and leaves playing complementary roles in plant survival and growth maintenance. While GO analysis classifies differentially expressed proteins according to their biological processes, cellular localization, and molecular functions, KEGG highlights the metabolic and signaling pathways

involved, revealing specific functional reprogramming. PPI analysis, in turn, reveals how these proteins interact functionally, forming clusters and identifying molecular hubs that are critical for cellular adaptation (Szklarczyk et al., 2019). When combined, these approaches contextualize each other's findings and also help uncover tissue-specific mechanisms, such as the prioritization of photosynthesis in leaves and detoxification in roots. The metabolic pathways integrate enabled a comprehensive visualization of the biochemical routes modulated under Al stress, highlighting the functional interactions between enzymes and their corresponding metabolic intermediates.

#### Photosynthetic Support and Metabolic Conservation

In leaves, the enrichment of the “photosynthesis” and “antenna protein” pathways indicate an attempt to preserve the functional integrity of the photosynthetic apparatus. At the same time, PPI analysis showed the repression of ribosomal proteins, reflecting a strategy to contain translation, possibly as an energy-saving mechanism in the face of adversity. The enrichment of the selenocompounds metabolism pathway, known for its association with the neutralization of ROS, highlights the role of selenium in antioxidant mechanisms (Cartes et al., 2010; Das et al., 2025).

The activation of the monobactam biosynthesis pathway, although with a low number of proteins but high enrichment value, suggests the recruitment of specific biosynthetic pathways. Intermediates of this pathway, such as serine and threonine, comprise the cytoplasmic kinase domain of WAK proteins (Kohorn; Kohorn, 2012), which are related to cell wall integrity. In this context, the strong up-accumulation of serine and the simultaneous down-accumulation of L-aspartate in metabolomic data reinforce the hypothesis of amino acid flux redirection toward WAK-related signaling. Additionally, the down-regulation of the enzyme sulfate adenylyltransferase (B6SRJ5), involved in sulfur metabolism (Jez, 2019), may impair sulfur-containing metabolite biosynthesis, indirectly affecting pectin structure and cell wall remodeling. This metabolic configuration can support a model where serine-driven WAK

activation contributes to maintaining cell wall integrity under Al stress. In fact, Sivaguru et al., (2003) demonstrated that overexpression of WAK1 increases Al resistance in *Arabidopsis*, while Lou et al., (2020) observed that this expression is associated with cell wall pectin content, contributing to tolerance in *Vigna umbellata*.

The predominance of repressed TCA cycle proteins in the leaves, with the exception of up-accumulated malate dehydrogenase (B4FVH1, MDH), whereas two other MDH isoforms were found down-accumulated, indicates a redirection of the energy pathway. This enzyme, involved in malate synthesis, may provide precursors for root exudation, as reported by Tesfaye et al., (2001) in alfalfa, and confirmed in corn (Šukalović et al., 2011) and *Stylosanthes* (Song et al., 2022). This pattern supports the hypothesis of intertissue metabolic collaboration, with leaves providing substrates for root defense.

Moreover, the metabolomic identification of up-accumulated coumaric acid in leaves suggests a potential aerial detoxification mechanism against Al. A possible mechanism by which phenolics contribute to ROS scavenging involves peroxidases. Specifically, phenolics can serve as electron donors for guaiacol-type peroxidase, facilitating the conversion of hydrogen peroxide into water (Kováčik; Klejdus, 2008). Its accumulation may thus represent a complementary strategy to root exudation, reinforcing the systemic nature of Al tolerance in maize.

#### Metabolic Reprogramming, Detoxification, and Defense

In contrast, roots exhibited significant enrichment in pathways related to metabolic reprogramming, antioxidant defense, and physical barrier formation. Integrated analysis revealed the accumulation of amino acids such as serine, glycine, aspartate, tyrosine, tryptophan, and phenylalanine, reflecting a strategic redistribution of carbon and nitrogen for the synthesis of defensive compounds. The induction of aspartate aminotransferase and glycine decarboxylase supports both amino acid production and the regeneration of reducing potential via folate and glutathione metabolism (Foyer; Noctor, 2011; Yoshida et al., 2023).

The positive modulation of cysteine and methionine pathways, glutathione biosynthesis, and phenylpropanoids highlights the coordinated mobilization of central metabolism to meet bioenergetic and antioxidant demands. The activation of citrate synthase (B4FIC0), highlighted as a central hub in the PPI network, due the large number of connections with other proteins (Suppl. Figure 3), reinforces its role as a key point in the TCA cycle and in the generation of citrate, an organic acid with  $Al^{3+}$  chelating action (Pinto et al., 2021b). Isocitrate dehydrogenase, also induced (B4FLJ3, A0A804QTB0), supports this function by contributing NADPH and specific intermediates (Li; Ma; Matsumoto, 2000; Liu et al., 2010). In parallel, MDH repression prevents the conversion of malate to oxaloacetate, suggesting its cytosolic accumulation and subsequent exudation (Zhang et al., 2022). Integration with the metabolomic profile confirmed the increase in malate in roots under stress, reinforcing its role as a chelating agent in popcorn under Al-exposure. Our results are consistent with those described by Pinto et al., (2021b), who demonstrated that Al toxicity triggers malate secretion in popcorn roots, while simultaneously inducing citrate synthase accumulation in the tolerant inbred line.

This classic tolerance mechanism is further complemented by glycolytic and anaplerotic pathways, with accumulation of pyruvate and phosphoenolpyruvate (Tesfaye et al., 2001), which provide precursors for the biosynthesis of organic acids and amino acids. The reduction of intermediates such as 3-phosphoglycerate and fructose-6-phosphate possibly reflects the diversion of carbon to more critical pathways.

#### Amino Acid and Phenolic Compound Metabolism

Amino acid biosynthesis pathways were found to be highly modulated, particularly the production of serine, glycine, aspartate, threonine, tryptophan, and phenylalanine. These compounds act as precursors to antioxidant molecules, such as glutathione, and phenolic compounds involved in strengthening the cell wall. The phenylpropanoid pathway, activated in response to stress, showed induction of phenylalanine ammonia-lyase (PAL) and caffeoyl-CoA O-methyltransferase 2 (CCoAOMT2), essential for the production of lignin and flavonoids (Qin

et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2021). The increase in phenylalanine strengthens the functional convergence between the proteome and the metabolome.

These compounds not only act in antioxidant defense but also reinforce cell walls, limiting the entry of toxic ions. The GO annotation of proteins located in the cell wall, together with the presence of enzymes associated with callose deposition (Mattiello et al., 2010), corroborates this structural barrier as a defensive mechanism. Consistently, callose synthase (A0A1D6Q188) was found up-accumulated in the proteomic analysis, reinforcing the hypothesis of callose accumulation as a physical barrier against  $Al^{3+}$  intrusion. This enzyme plays a key role in synthesizing  $\beta$ -1,3-glucans, contributing to localized wall thickening and reduced cell wall porosity under stress conditions (Guan et al., 2023). The up-regulation of this isoform suggests an active reinforcement of cell walls in aerial tissues, complementing the metabolic production of lignin and phenolics.

#### PPI Networks and Functional Organization

The analysis of PPI networks reinforced the functional organization of the tissue. In the leaves, the formation of modules centered on translation, photosynthesis, and chaperones was observed, while in the roots, the topological complexity (with 151 interactions and nine clusters) reflected the diversity of activated responses, including proteasome, glycolysis, pentose phosphate pathway, and phagosome, related to damaged protein recycling, energy mobilization, and cell defense (De Sousa et al., 2022; Donnelly et al., 2024; Siqueira et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2017; Zheng et al., 2014).

Citrate synthase and ribosomal 40S S9-2 emerged as structuring hubs of responses in roots (Suppl. Figure 3) and leaves (Suppl. Figure 2), respectively, connecting energy metabolism, organic acid biosynthesis, and translation regulation. The high connectivity of oxidoreductase enzymes points to a global reorganization around redox stability, which is consistent with the enrichment of glutathione pathways and the accumulation of antioxidant amino acids (Foyer; Noctor, 2011).

In leaves, the enrichment of chaperone-related modules, especially involving heat shock proteins (HSPs), highlights the importance of protein folding and stabilization mechanisms under Al stress. Many HSPs identified were up-accumulated, suggesting their role in protecting the proteome from misfolding and aggregation caused by Al-induced oxidative damage (Liu et al., 2023). This protective function supports enhanced tolerance, as proper folding maintains cellular homeostasis and mitigates stress-induced proteotoxicity. The extensive interactions among HSPs also indicate a coordinated chaperone network actively responding to stress signals (Leng et al., 2022).

On the other hand, in roots, although a considerable number of proteins were down-accumulated, these nodes maintained interactions with classic Al stress related proteins that were up-accumulated. This pattern suggests a complex regulatory balance, where some pathways are suppressed possibly to conserve energy (Tyagi et al., 2020), while key defense and detoxification (Ahammed et al., 2024; Das et al., 2025; You; Chan, 2015) proteins remain active to mitigate damage. The connectivity between down- and up-accumulated proteins emphasizes the fine-tuned coordination of stress responses in roots, integrating energy metabolism, protein turnover, and cellular defense mechanisms.

#### Functional Integration: A Multi-Strategic Defense System

The response to Al stress in maize is characterized by a functional division between tissues: leaves preserve photosynthetic capacity and contribute metabolic precursors (Siqueira et al., 2020), while roots coordinate the main tolerance mechanisms, exudation of organic acids, antioxidant defense, and structural barriers (Kochian et al., 2015). The integration of proteomic and metabolomic data revealed a coherent, efficient, and multidimensional response, operating from metabolic redirection to the reconfiguration of complex biosynthetic pathways.

This systemic reprogramming provides a solid foundation for the identification of key genes and target pathways for breeding and gene-editing strategies aimed at improving Al tolerance. Pathways associated with organic acid biosynthesis, ROS detoxification, cell wall

remodeling, and energy optimization are particularly promising, especially in maize and popcorn cultivars grown in acidic soils. Among the main candidate genes, those involved in citrate synthase activity and energy maintenance stand out. Additionally, genes related to cell wall modification, like those encoding pectin methylesterases and WAKs, play crucial roles in maintaining cell wall integrity under Al stress (Kohorn; Kohorn, 2012). Genes involved in antioxidant defense, including glutathione S-transferases (GSTs), superoxide dismutases (SODs), and heat shock proteins (HSPs), are also promising targets due to their role in mitigating oxidative damage caused by Al toxicity (Ahammed et al., 2024).

These genes serve as potential molecular markers for breeding programs and biotechnological applications aimed at improving Al tolerance. Integration of multi-omics data can facilitate the identification of novel candidate genes and regulatory networks, accelerating the development of tolerant maize and popcorn varieties.

## **Conclusion**

These results show that Al-tolerant plants modulate their metabolism extensively, coordinating the synthesis of key compounds to optimize ionic detoxification, cellular maintenance, and redox balance. The strong convergence between proteome and metabolome, especially in roots, reveals an integrated defense involving organic acid exudation, antioxidant production, and structural reinforcement.

Notably, down-regulation of many proteins suggests energy conservation as a key tolerance strategy. This study is novel in profiling proteomic and metabolomic changes in both leaves and roots, providing a comprehensive view rarely addressed in the literature. Leaves exhibit a more conservative regulation with fewer differentially accumulated proteins and metabolites, while roots show more dynamic modulation, indicating ongoing acclimation after 72 hours of stress.

These findings highlight targets such as organic acid transport and redox control for genetic improvement of popcorn adapted to acidic soils.

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**Table 1.** Differentially Accumulated Metabolites (DAMs) identified in roots and leaves. DAMs with  $\log_2(\text{FC})$  value  $> 0.585$  was up-accumulated and down-accumulated if the  $\log_2(\text{FC}) < -0.585$ .

Tissue	Metabolite	$\log_2(\text{FC})$	p.adjusted
Roots	1,2,3-Trihydroxybenzene	-5.3998	0.00102
	Methyl mannofuranoside	-4.776	9.97E-06
	Rhamnose	-3.825	0.01819
	Fructopyranose/Sorbopyranose/Fructopyranose/Psicopyranose/Tagatopyranose/Sorbose pyranose	-3.7776	0.0069
	2-Allyl-1,4-dimethoxybenzene	-3.5109	7.24E-08
	Erythronic acid lactone	-3.4802	0.00616
	Arabinonic acid,1,4-lactone	-3.3791	6.29E-08
	2',5'-Dimethoxypropiophenone	-3.2432	0.00542
	Threono-1,4-lactone/Erythronic acid,1,4-lactone	-2.906	5.13E-08
	3,4-Dihydroxydihydro-2(3H)-furanone	-2.4119	0.00331
	Glucopyranoside, methyl 2-(acetylamino)-2-deoxy-3-O-(trimethylsilyl)-, cyclic methylboronate	-1.3748	0.03128
	Mannopyranose/Galactopyranose/Allopyranose/Talopyranose/Glucopyranose	-0.9860	0.04809
	Lactic acid	2.0294	0.00332
	Glycolic acid	2.0894	0.00034
	Xylopyranose/Lyxopyranose/Ribopyranose/Arabinopyranose/Lyxosepyranose	2.3151	0.03601
	Asparagine	2.7126	1.86E-09
	3-Hydroxybutyric acid	2.7502	0.00879
	Aspartic acid	2.7546	1.38E-09
	Tyrosine	2.7633	0.00049
	Serine	2.7668	1.38E-09
	Gluconic acid	2.7956	1.30E-08
	Threonine	2.8775	1.38E-09
	Malic acid	2.8924	3.44E-09
	Glycine	2.9296	0.00034
	Uracil	2.9461	1.38E-09
	Itaconic acid	2.9461	1.38E-09
	Phosphoric acid, monomethyl ester	3.0186	1.13E-05
	Aminobutyric acid	3.0537	3.20E-07
	Uridine	3.2121	0.01414
	Pyroglutamic acid	3.267	8.18E-08
	Erythritol	3.5224	0.00044
	Galactaric acid/Allaric acid/Idaric acid/Mannaric acid/Mucic acid/Saccharic acid	3.5562	1.43E-08
	Methyl galactoside	3.6488	0.0049
	Trypophan	3.6552	0.00039
	Galacturonic acid/Glucuronic acid	3.7234	7.48E-08
	Mannopyranoside, methyl 2,3-bis-O-(trimethylsilyl)-, cyclic butylboronate	3.779	0.033308
	2-Keto-gluconic acid	3.8535	7.38E-08
	Pyrrolidinone	3.9503	8.43E-07
	Glyceric acid	4.0564	1.26E-06
	Methylmaleic acid	4.0749	0.002422
	Aucubin	4.1107	0.00375
	Leucine	4.5295	0.00063
	Aconitic acid	4.6317	0.00223
	Valine	4.7044	1.25E-06

	Putrescine	5.6106	2.96E-06
	Phenylalanine	5.9263	0.00156
	Thymine	6.1627	4.55E-05
	Xylose	6.6234	0.00406
	Lyxose	6.8419	0.01067
	Mannose/Galactose/Glucose/Talose/Allose	7.3991	1.09E-05
	Benzoic acid	7.4798	0.04354
	Urea	9.1263	0.00313
	Serine	1.0651	0.00731
Leaves	Myoinositol	0.71304	0.00731
	1-Glucopyranosylpiperidine	4.4934	0.00957
	N-(Trifluoroacetyl)-norepinephrine	2.2291	0.02105
	Erythrofuranose/Erythrofuranose/Threose/Erythrose	3.1079	0.02693
	Octadecanoic acid	1.9961	0.02934
	Coumaric acid	0.8293	0.02941
	2,5-Dimethoxymandelic acid	1.5054	0.02999
	Thymine	-5.1104	0.00731
	Deoxyadenosine	-3.9745	0.0074
	Aspartic acid	-0.7131	0.0139
	Xylopyranose/Lyxopyranose/Ribopyranose/Arabinopyranose/Lyxose, pyranose/Xylose	-3.9841	0.02092
	2-Methyl-1,2,3-propanetriol	-7.0726	0.02105
	3-Carbomethoxycyclopentanone	-4.4611	0.02934
	2-(Acetylamino)-2-deoxyhexopyranose	-3.9117	0.03237
	Mannopyranose/Galactopyranose/Allopyranose/Talopyranose/Glucopyranose	-0.8972	0.04652

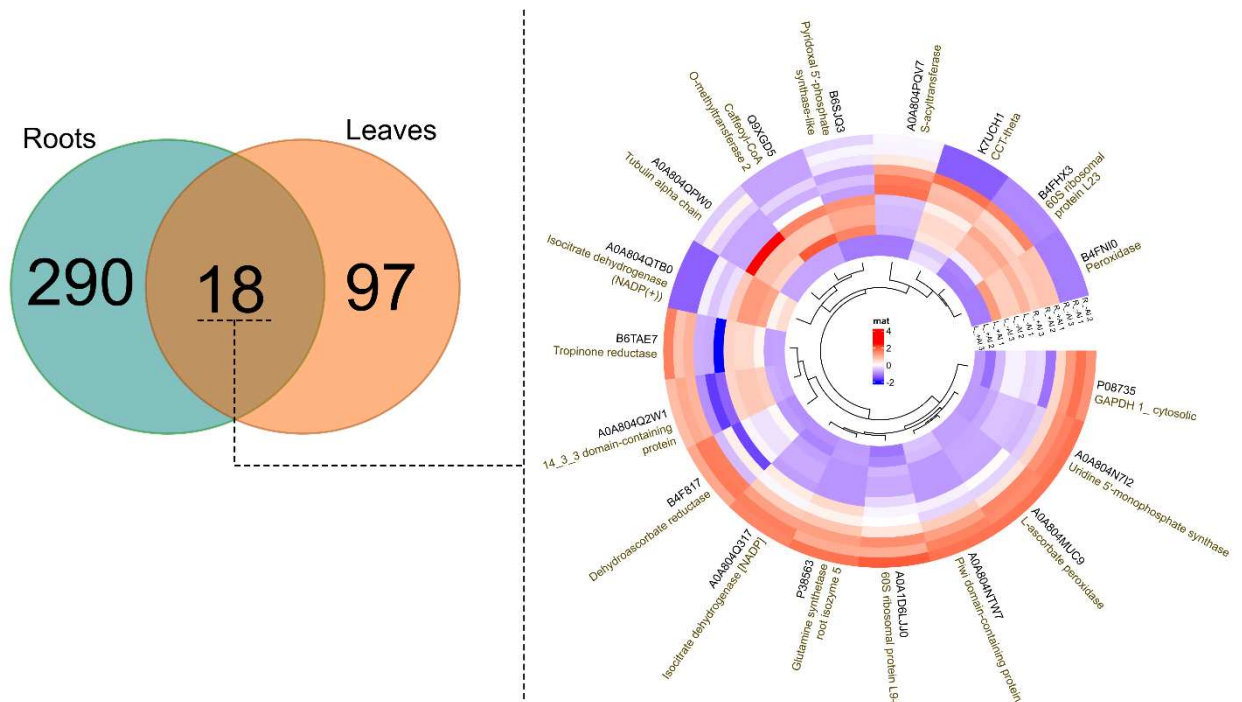
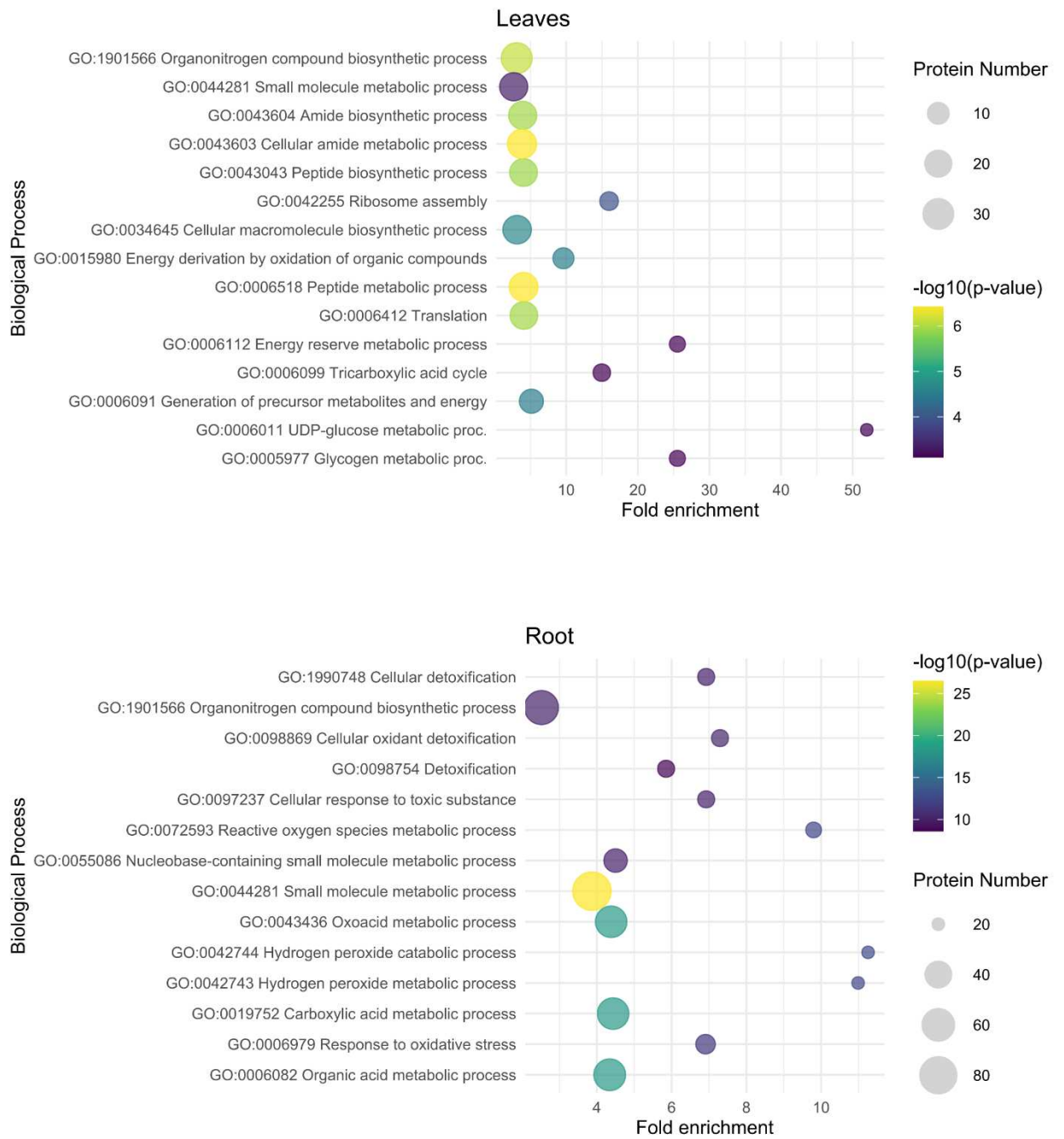
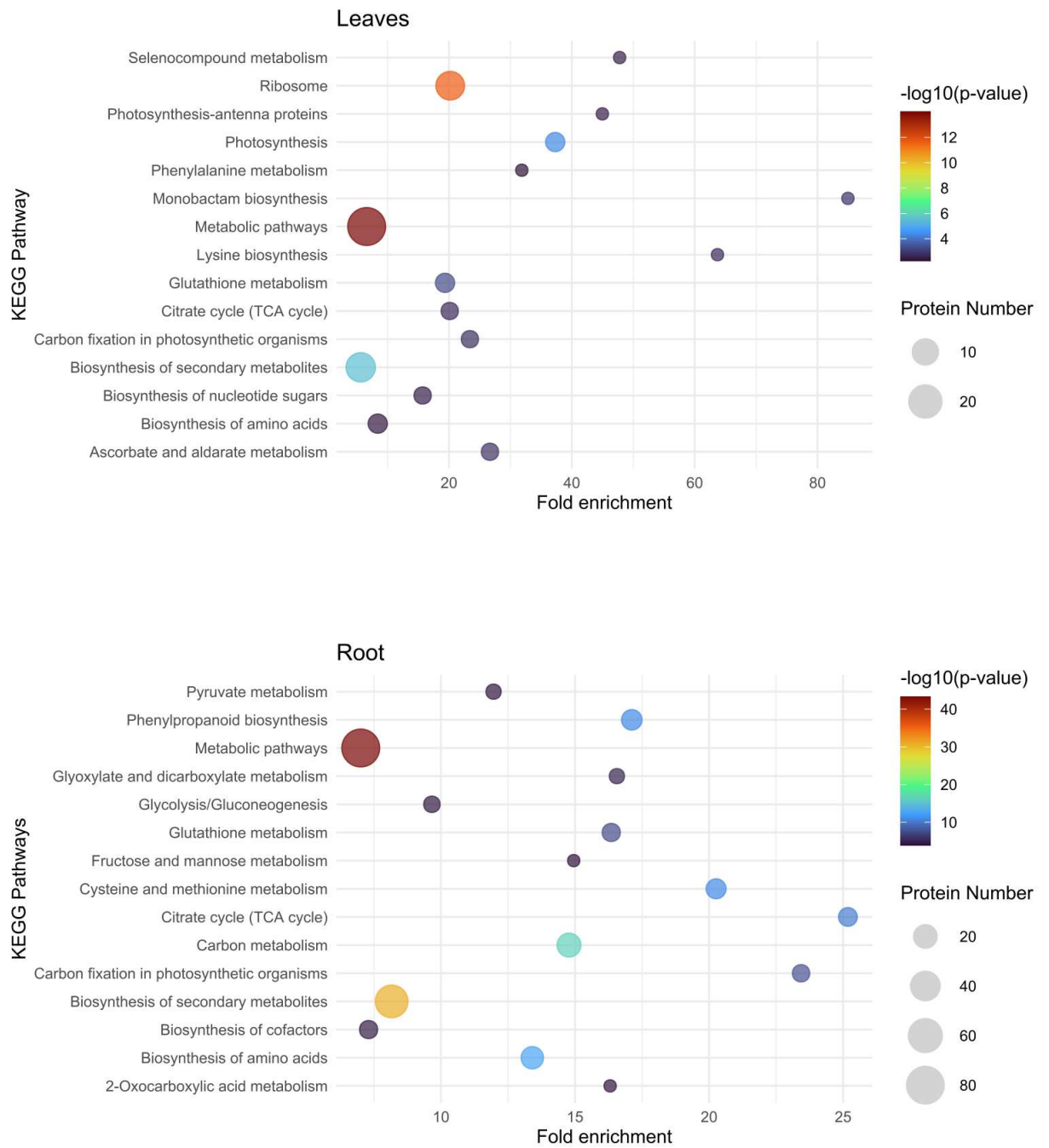


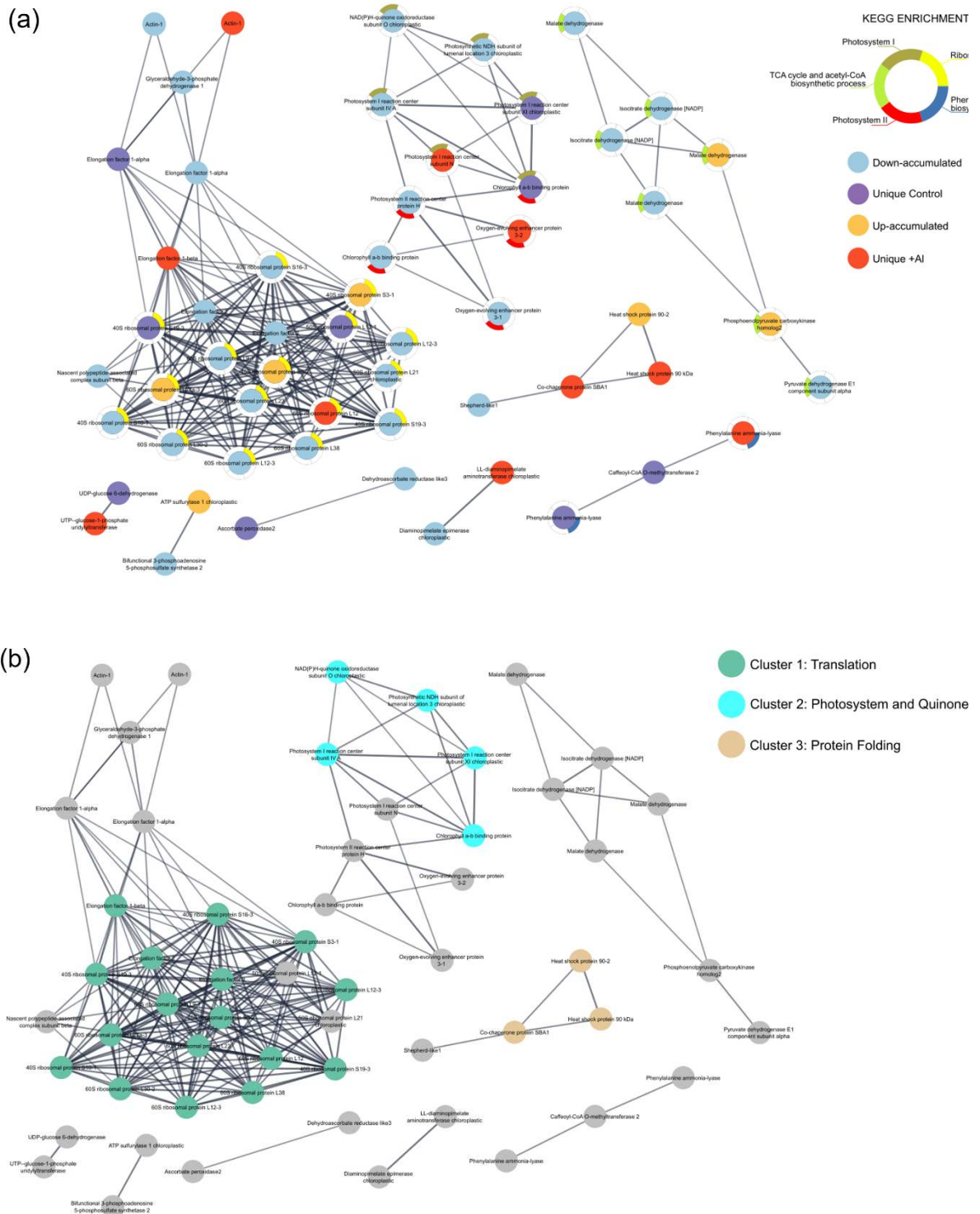
Figure 1. Co-DAPs in roots and leaves.



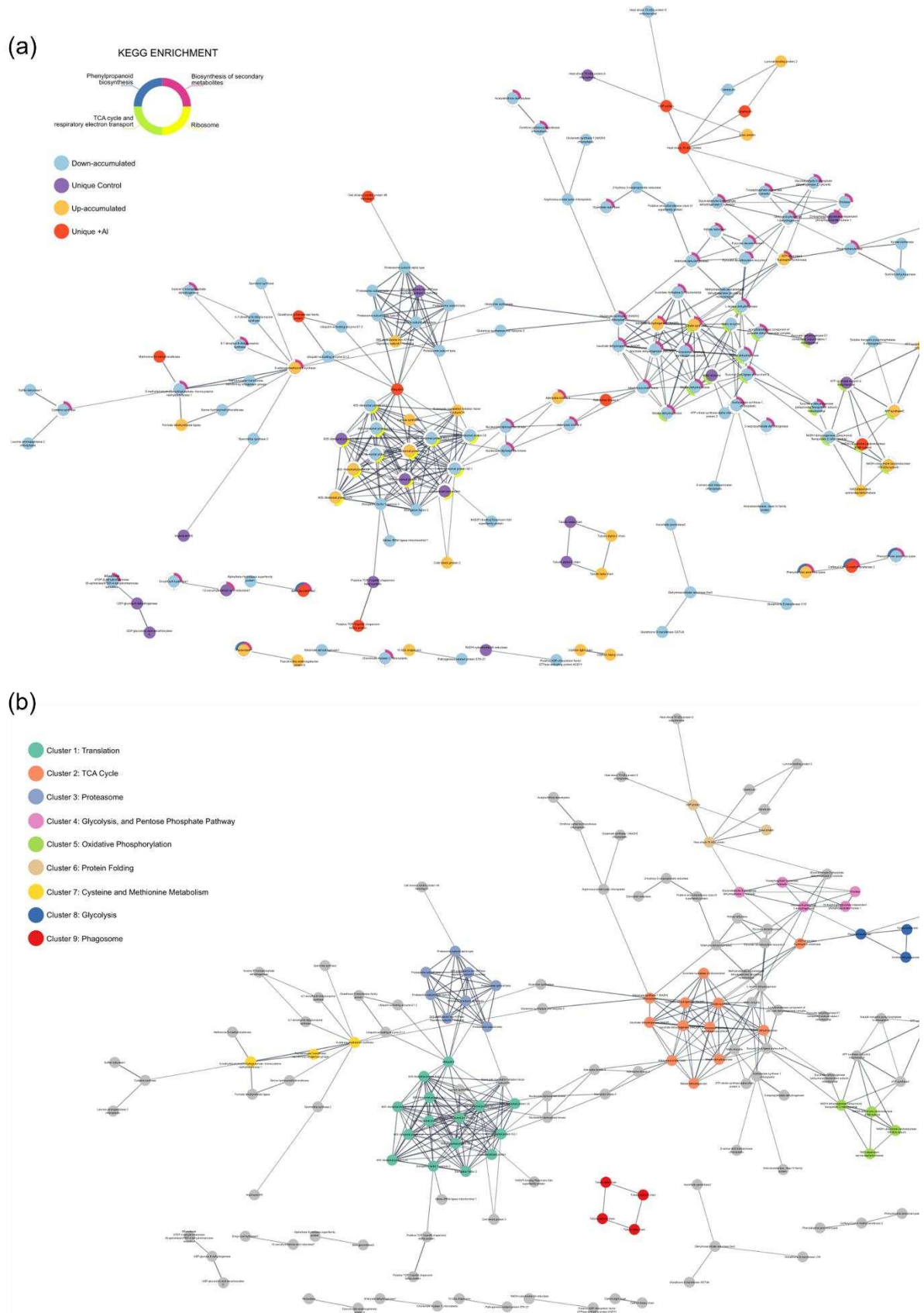
**Figure 2.** Gene Ontology enrichment analysis identified functional terms related to DAPs in leaves and roots, based on the *Zea mays* reference genome.



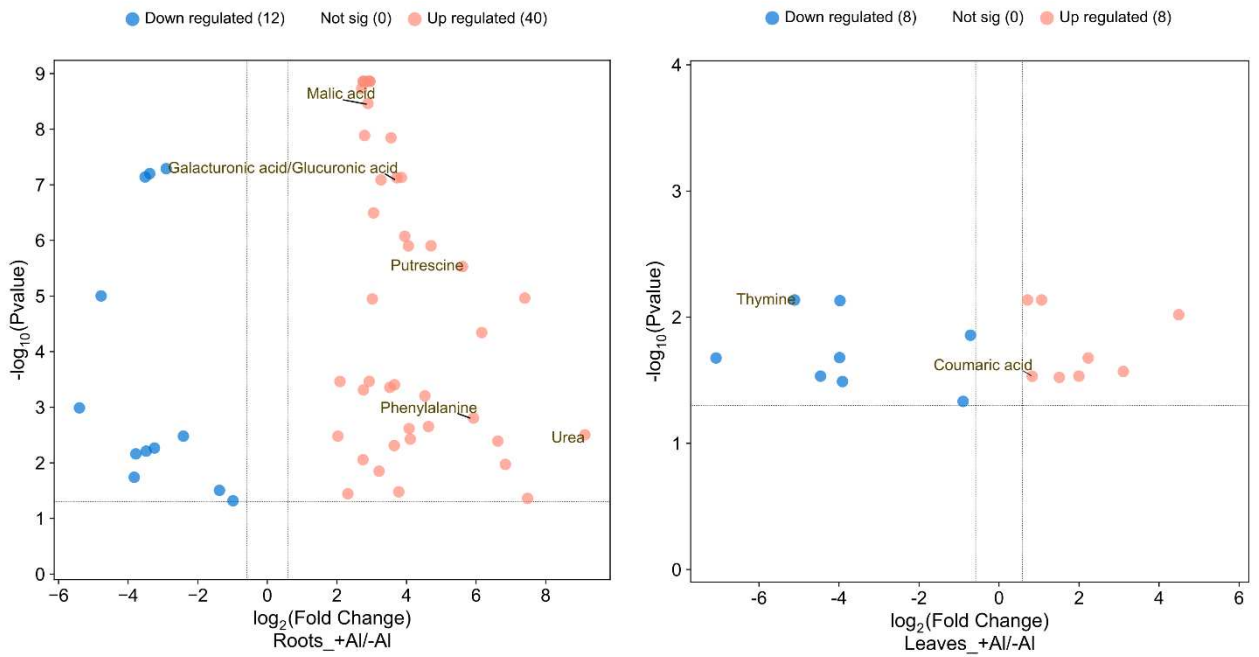
**Figure 3.** KEGG pathway analysis of DAPs in leaves and roots.



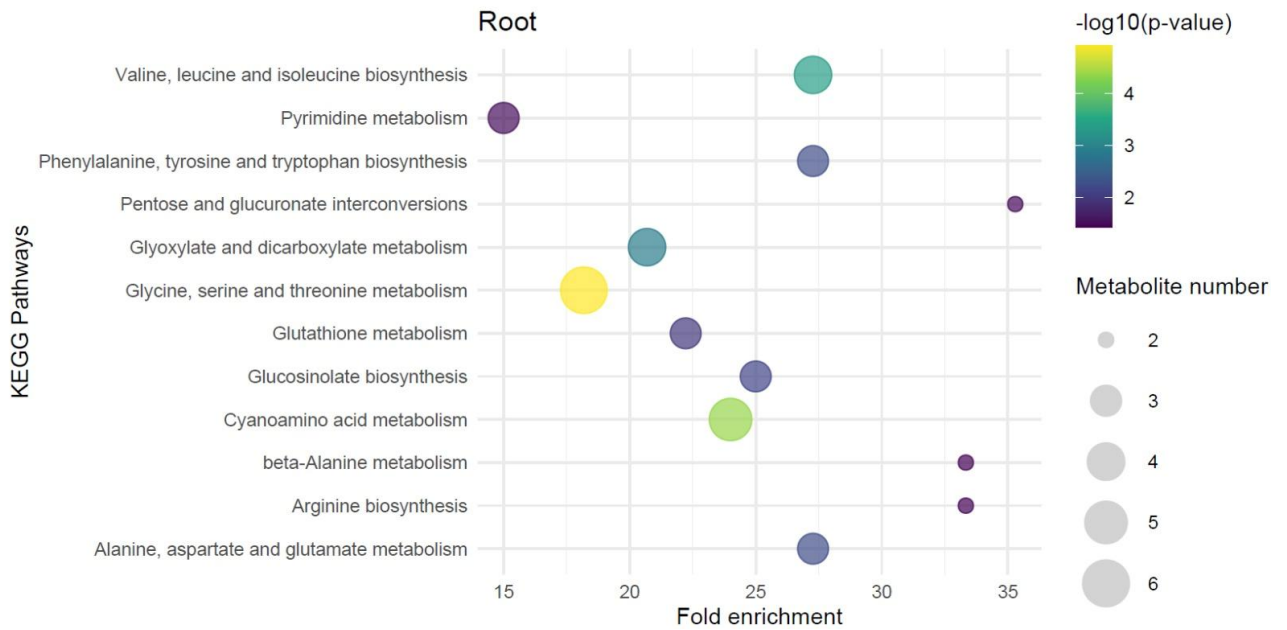
**Figure 4.** PPI enriched network **(a)** and clusters **(b)** of DAPs in leaves.



**Figure 5.** PPI enriched network (a) and clusters (b) of DAPs in roots



**Figure 6.** Volcano plot of DAMs up- (orange) and down-accumulated (blue) quantified at the roots (left) and leaves (right) in an AI-tolerant inbred line.



**Figure 7.** KEGG pathway analysis of DAMs in roots.

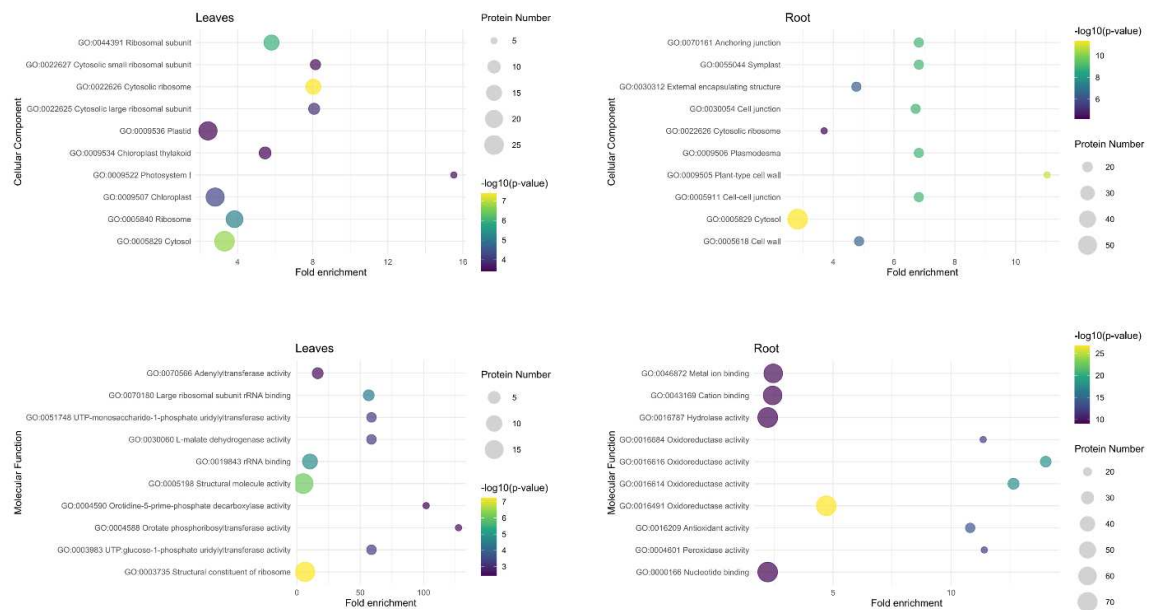
## Supplementary materials

**Suppl. Table 1.** [https://docs.google.com/spreadsheets/d/1dyS9ZPW634-mEg-](https://docs.google.com/spreadsheets/d/1dyS9ZPW634-mEg-dy0A0YC0yyu1pE2f8/edit?usp=drive_link&oid=112605248685174005647&rtpof=true&sd=true)

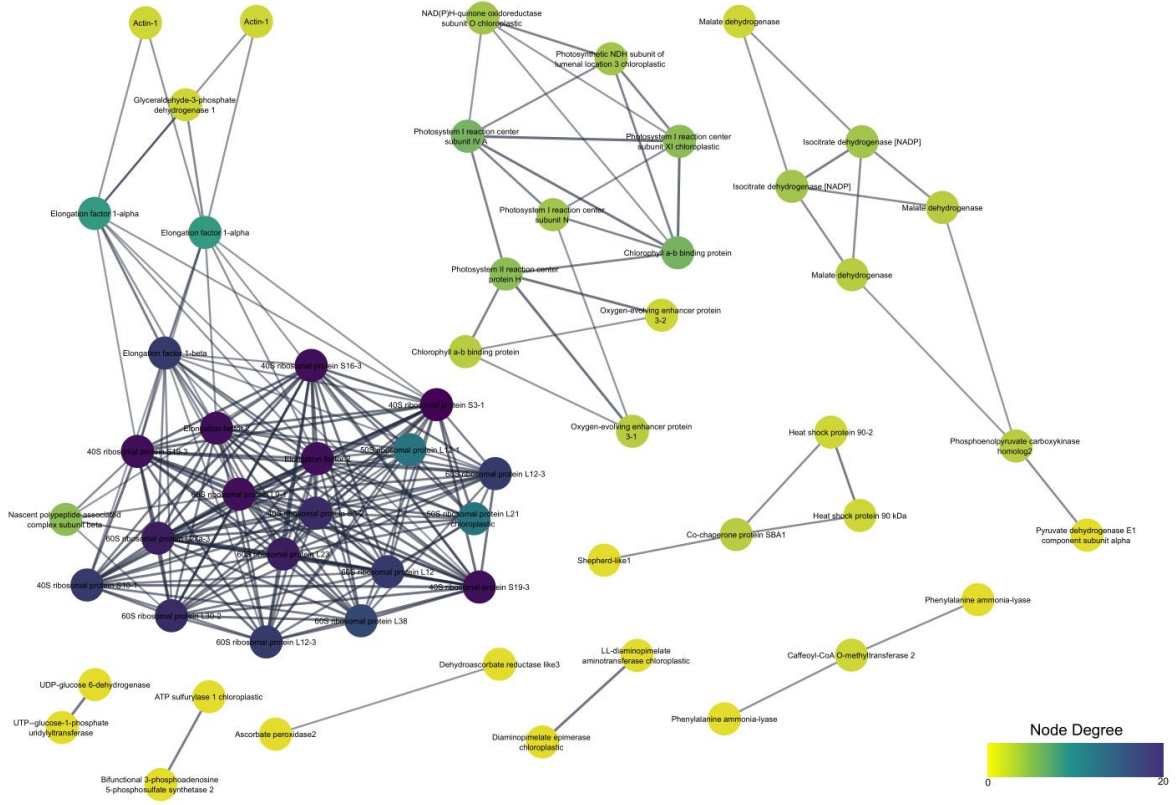
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**Suppl. Table 2.**

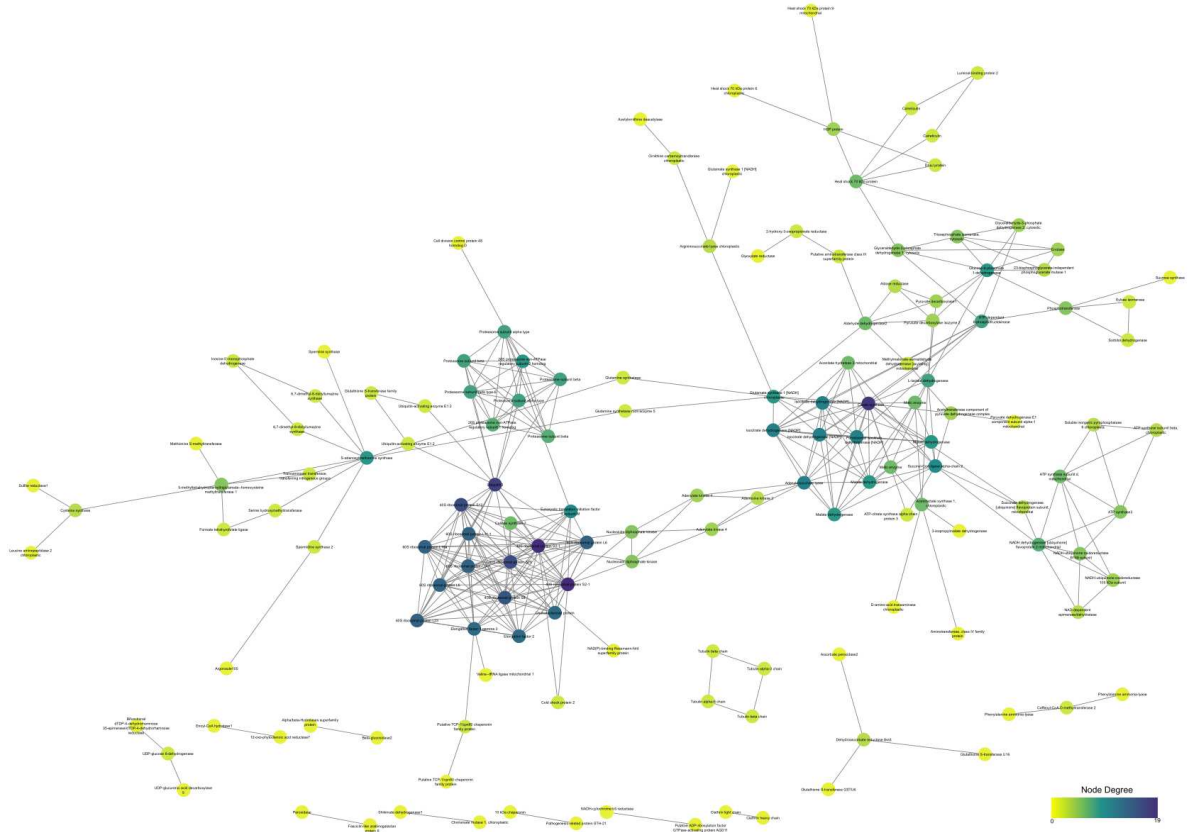
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[sp=drive\\_link&oid=112605248685174005647&rtpof=true&sd=true](https://docs.google.com/spreadsheets/d/1O50_yZvuOMweNuhX4owTx45VEI1ZENyr/edit?usp=drive_link&oid=112605248685174005647&rtpof=true&sd=true)



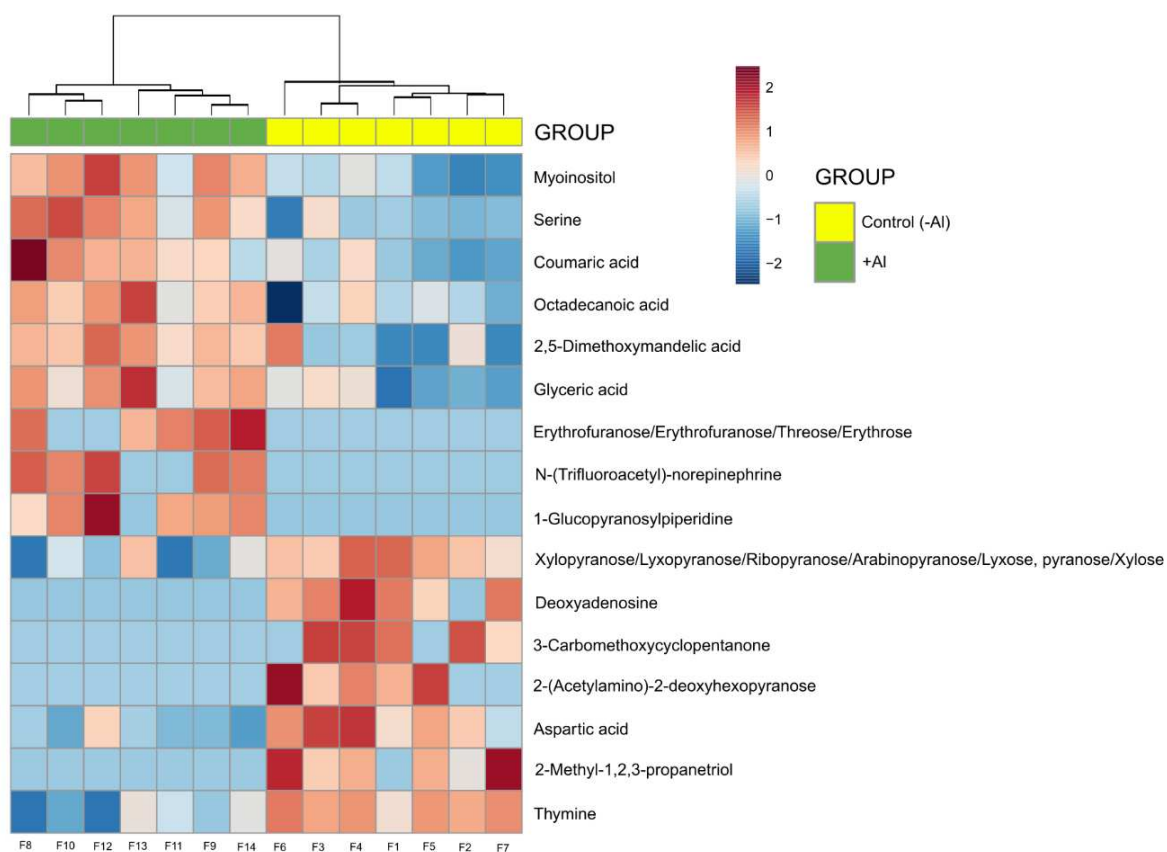
**Suppl. Figure 1.** Gene Ontology enrichment analysis identified functional terms related to proteins in leaves and roots, based on the *Zea mays* reference genome.



Suppl. Figure 2. PPI enriched network degrees of DAPs in leaves.



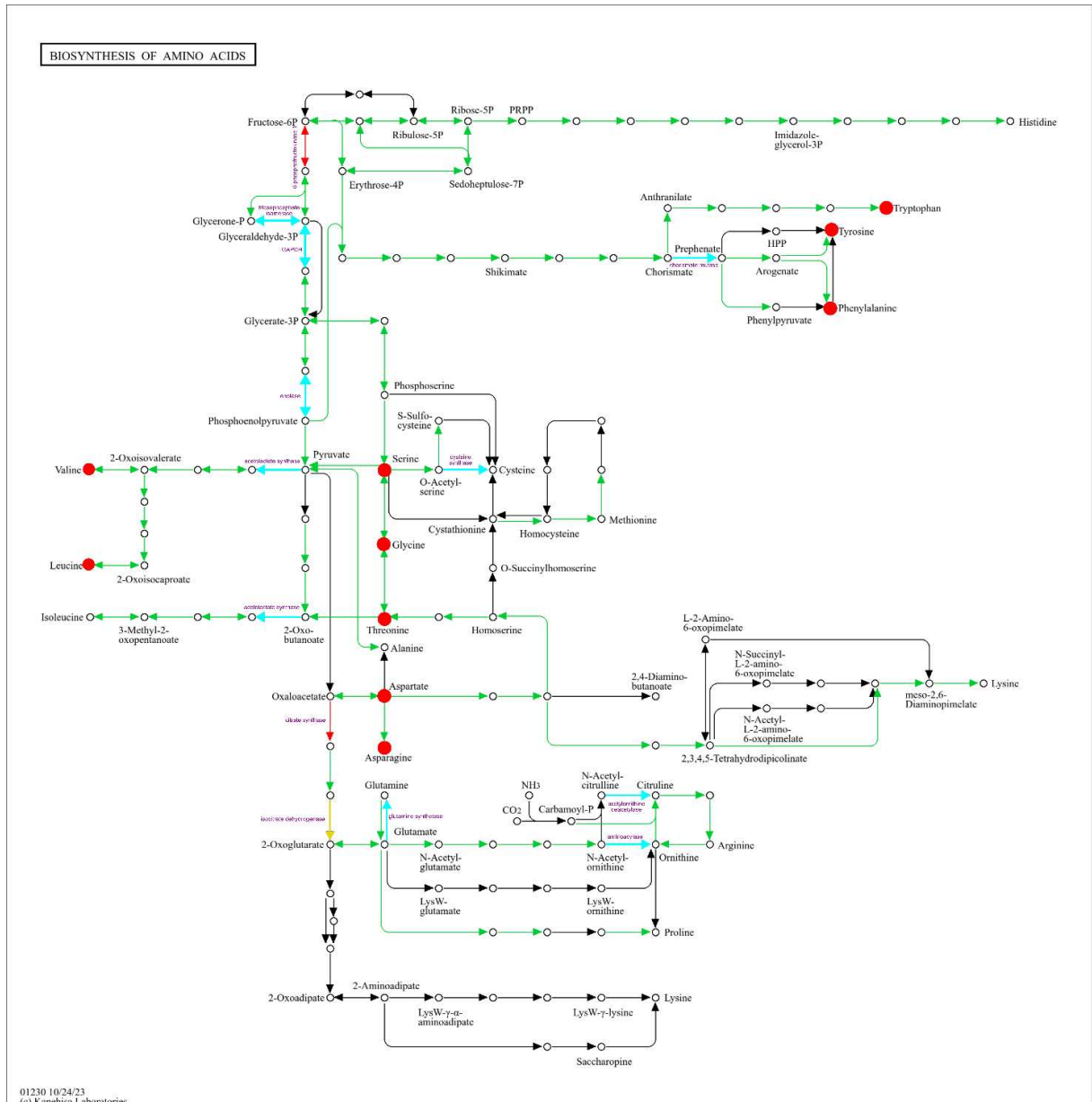
Suppl. Figure 3. PPI enriched network degrees of DAPs in roots.



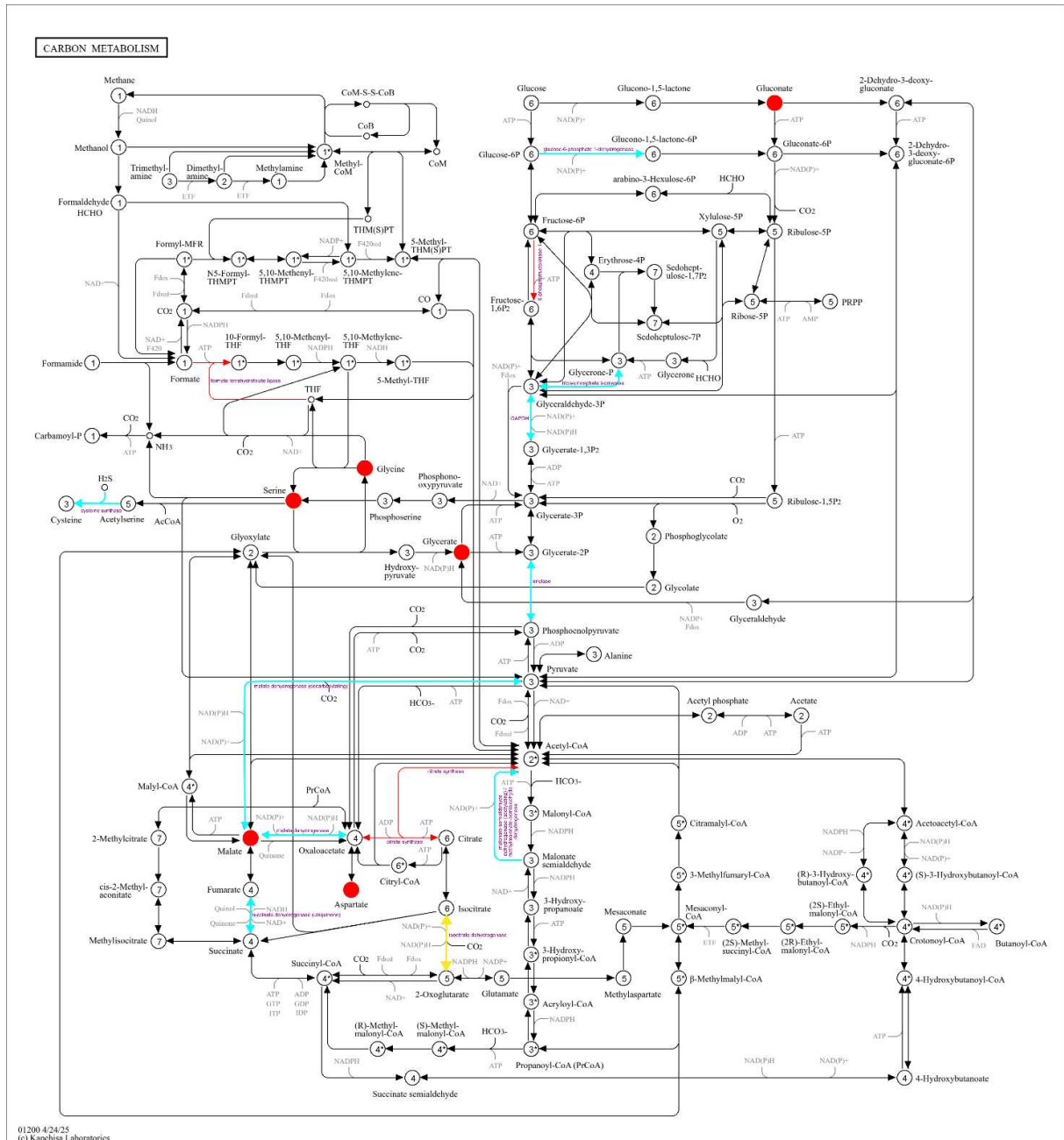
**Suppl. Figure 4.** Heatmap of the 16 DAMs identified in leaves. The color gradient from blue (less) to red (more) indicates the metabolite concentration.



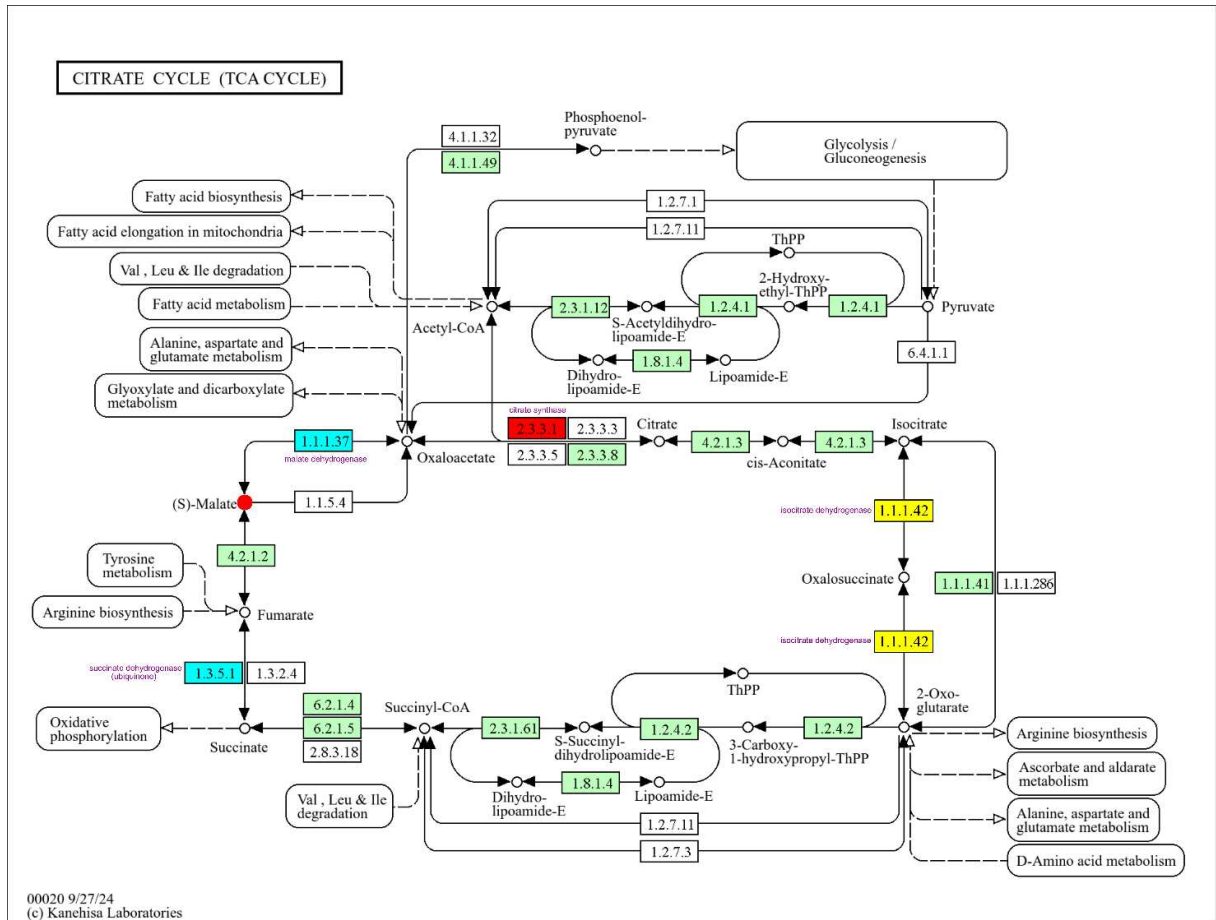
**Suppl. Figure 5.** Heatmap of the 52 DAMs identified in roots. The color gradient from blue (less) to red (more) indicates the metabolite concentration.



**Suppl. Figure 6.** Integration of proteomic and metabolomic data in the amino acid biosynthesis pathway of popcorn roots under +Al. Arrows represent proteins; circles represent metabolites. Red indicates up-accumulated elements, blue indicates down-accumulated elements, and yellow denotes elements showing both up- and down-regulation.



**Suppl. Figure 7.** Integration of proteomic and metabolomic data in the central carbon metabolism of popcorn roots under +Al. Arrows represent enzymes; circles represent metabolites. Red indicates up-accumulated elements, blue indicates down-accumulated elements, and yellow denotes elements showing both up- and down-regulation.



**Suppl. Figure 8.** Integration of proteomic and metabolomic data in the TCA cycle of popcorn roots under +Al. Squares represent proteins; circles represent metabolites. Red indicates up-accumulated elements, blue indicates down-accumulated elements, and yellow denotes elements with both up- and down- accumulated entries.