The influence of heavy metal stress on the evolutionary transition of teosinte to maize

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Summary

Maize originated from teosinte *parviglumis* following a subspeciation event occurred in volcanic regions of Mesoamerica. The elucidation of the phenotypic changes that gave rise to maize have focused on the direct consequences of domestication, with no insights on how environmental factors could have influenced specific gene function and human selection. The genome of the *Palomero toluqueño* landrace suggested heavy metal (HM) effects on maize domestication (Vielle-Calzada et al., 2009). To test the hypothesis that HM stress influenced the evolutionary transition of teosinte to maize, we exposed both subspecies to sublethal concentrations of copper and cadmium. We also assessed the genetic diversity of three HM response genes mapping to chromosome 5 (chr.5) and previously shown to be affected by domestication: *ZmHMA1*, *ZmHMA7* – encoding for heavy metal ATPases of the $P1_b$ family-, and *ZmSKUs5,* encoding for a multicopper oxidase. *ZmHMA1* and *ZmSKUs5* are within a genomic region containing hundreds of genes linked to QTLs with pleiotropic effects on domestication. The genomic analysis of chr.5 shows that the three genes were under strong positive selection as compared to previously identified domestication genes. Large-scale transcriptomic comparisons indicate that many other loci containing HM response genes were also positively selected across the maize genome. Exposure of teosinte *parviglumis* to HM stress results in a plant architecture reminiscent of extant maize, and upregulation of *Teosinte branched1* (*Tb1*) in the meristem. *ZmHMA1* and *ZmHMA7* are expressed throughout development and respond to HM stress in both subspecies. *ZmHMA1* is mainly involved in restricting plant height and optimizing the number of female inflorescences and seminal roots. Paleoenvironmental studies reveal a temporal and geographical convergence between volcanic eruptions and maize emergence during the early Holocene, at periods of climatic instability. Overall, these results suggest that abiotic stress influenced the evolutionary transition that gave rise to extant maize through the activity of heavy metal response genes and their phenotypic effects, as a possible consequence of volcanic activity.

Key words: maize, teosinte *parviglumis*, heavy metals, domestication, ATPases, seminal roots.

Introduction.

Driven by either conscious or unconscious human selection, domestication can be considered a gradual evolutionary process resulting in the adaptation to agroecological environments and anthropogenic preferences (Ross-Ibarra et al. 2007). In the case of plants, the obvious consequences of domestication are represented by visually recognizable traits that include changes in photoperiod response, reduced capacity of seed dispersion, reduced lateral branching, larger fruits or grains, reduced duration of seed dormancy, and increase in the size of female inflorescences (Pickersgill 2007; Larson et al. 2014). Notably, research efforts to understand the phenotypic changes that gave rise to maize have mainly focused on the direct consequences of domestication in aerial organs and sometimes roots (Chen et al. 2022; Lopez-Valdivia et al. 2022; Ren et al. 2022), with no emphasis on the role of adaptive environmental responses that, by acting on specific gene function, could have given rise to phenotypic traits that were identified and selected by humans.

It is generally accepted that domestication of maize (*Zea mays* ssp. *mays*) from teosinte *parviglumis* (*Zea mays* ssp. *parviglumis*) initiated in Mesoamerica around 9,000 years before present (Matsuoka et al. 2002). The initial evolutionary transition that resulted in the event of subspeciation most likely occurred close to the Balsas river drainage, in regions geographically converging with the Trans-Mexican Volcanic Belt (TMVB), at the intersection of the States of Mexico, Guerrero, and Michoacan (Matsuoka et al. 2002). Although the nature of the initial phenotypic changes that allowed the emergence of primitive maize remains unclear, the most obvious architectural and morphological differences between both subspecies affect their vegetative and reproductive organs. Teosinte *parviglumis* generates numerous lateral branches ending in male inflorescences, while maize often has a few short or no lateral branches, not ending in male reproductive organs (Wills et al. 2013). Additionally, the seeds of teosinte *parviglumis* are covered by a hard glume that protects the kernel externally, while in maize glumes are reduced, soft and do not cover the kernel (Doebley and Stec 1993). Large scale efforts involving physical mapping and comparative genomic analysis have resulted in the identification of numerous regions showing differential nucleotide variability between teosinte *parviglumis* and the

B73 reference maize genome. In some cases, mutations in genes located within those

genomic regions result in phenotypes that reveal their involvement in domestication traits.

One of the major genes affected by maize domestication is *Teosinte branched1* (*Tb1*), a

transcription factor of the TCP family that controls lateral branching, sexual determination,

and glume formation (Doebley et al. 1997; Martín-Trillo and Cubas 2010). *Tb1* acts as a

repressor of lateral branching (Studer et al. 2017), giving rise to maize plants usually

composed of a single stem. Other genes involved in domestication include *Teosinte glume*

architecture1 (Tga1), *ramosa2 (ra2)* and *Zea floricaula leafy2 (zfl2),* among others

(Bomblies and Doebley 2006; Sigmon and Vollbrecht 2010; Wang et al. 2015).

The importance of phenotypic plasticity is considered as likely relevant in the

domestication history of crops (Ross-Ibarra et al. 2007; Lorant et al. 2020; Mueller et al.,

2023); however, the role of environmental factors influencing their origins remains elusive

and poorly investigated. A previous study showed that teosinte *parviglumis* grown under

low temperatures and CO_2 concentrations - reminiscent of those prevailing in the late

Pleistocene and early Holocene - exhibit some phenotypes related to the domestication

syndrome, including short branches, a single main stalk, and partially open seed fruitcases

(Piperno et al. 2015; Piperno et al. 2019); however, the genetic basis of these changes have

not been investigated. Although these results suggest that phenotypic plasticity could have

influenced the domestication process, to this date there are no hints on how the adaptation

to local environmental conditions could have affected specific gene function and guided

human selection.

Recent genomic evidence indicates that admixture of maize with native teosinte *mexicana*

populations (*Zea mays* ssp. *mexicana*) contributed to maize adaptation across a wide range

of altitudes and latitudes in the American continent (Yang et al. 2023); however, the earliest

maize macro-specimens found to date lack teosinte *mexicana* admixture and exhibit

morphological attributes of fully domesticated cobs, indicating that *mexicana* is not a direct

ancestor of maize and that its introgression occurred after initial divergence from teosinte

parviglumis (Vallebueno-Estrada et al. 2023; Acosta-Bayona et al. 2024). Consequently,

the nature of the genetic factors that guided the emergence of maize remain largely

unknown, and the initial phenotypic changes that caused the original divergence of these
two subspecies have not been identified. It is also unknown if domestication initiated by
direct action of human selection on teosinte natural standing variation, or if the response to
specific environmental factors generated phenotypic changes that were identified and
selected by humans to act on native teosinte *parviglumis* populations.

Maize can adapt to abiotic factors such as heavy metal (HM) stress through numerous
mechanisms that prevail during development (AbdElgawad et al. 2020; Gallo-Franco et
al. 2020; Malenica et al. 2021; Gao et al. 2022). These include metal immobilization by
mycorrhizal association, metal sequestration, or complexation by exuding organic
compounds from roots, metal intracellular sequestration and compartmentalization in
vacuoles. HMs include essential elements that are necessary for maize growth through
enzymatic function, such as iron (Fe), manganese (Mn), zinc (Zn), magnesium (Mg),
molybdenum (Mo), and copper (Cu); and non-essential elements like Cadmium (Cd),
chromium (Cr), lead (Pb), aluminum (Al), and selenium (Se). In general, HM stress leads
to visibly reduced plant growth due to the reduced cell elongation and cell wall elasticity.
At the molecular level, metal toxicity can disturb the cellular redox balance and lead
directly or indirectly to oxidative stress and the formation of reactive oxygen species
(ROS), shifting the redox balance to the pro-oxidative side until the antioxidative defense
system allows a new balanced redox status (Smeets et al. 2009; Hall 2002).

The comparison of the *Palomero toluqueño* and B73 genomes resulted in the identification
of a large collection of identical sequence regions (IdSRs) with low nucleotide variability
and transcriptional evidence of expression (Vielle-Calzada et al. 2009). Putative
domestication loci included *ZmHMA1* and *ZmHMA7*, two genes encoding members of the
P1$_b$-ATPases protein superfamily, also known as Heavy Metal ATPases (P-type ATPases)
characterized by the generation of a phosphorylated intermediate during the transport
reaction cycle. Members of this superfamily contain 8 to 12 transmembrane domains as
well as conserved ATP binding, phosphorylation and dephosphorylation sites (Solioz and
Vulpe 1996; Axelsen and Palmgren 2001; Voskoboinik et al. 2003; Williams and Mills
2005). The superfamily can be divided in subfamilies that include H±ATPases (type 3$_A$) in

plants and fungi, Na+/K ATPases (type $2_{C/D}$) in animals, Ca2±ATPases (type $2_{A/B}$), and

heavy metal (HM) transporting ATPases (type 1_B) capable of transporting a large variety

of HM cations across cell membranes. *ZmHMA1* and *ZmHMA7* are type 1_B ATPases that

include a conserved Cys-Pro-Cys/His/Ser motif within a transmembrane domain necessary

for the translocation of HMs cations through the membrane channel. A third *Palomero*

toluqueño/B73 IdSR included *Skewed Root Growth Similar5* (*ZmSKUs5*)*,* a gene encoding

a Skewed5 (SKU5)-similar (SKS) protein classified as a multi-copper oxidase containing

cuperdoxin domains (Sedbrook et al. 2002). All three genes map to chromosome five

(chr.5), with *ZmHMA1* and *ZmSKUs5* within a genomic region that fractionates into

multiple QTLs under selection during the *parviglumis* to maize transition (Doebley and

Stec 1993; Lemmon and Doebley, 2014). Contrary to major domestication loci showing a

single highly pleiotropic gene responsible for important domestication traits, in this chr.5

genomic region the smallest 1.5-LOD support interval contained more than 50 genes,

suggesting that phenotypic effects are due to multiple linked QTLs (Lemmon and Doebley,

2014). While the functional characterization of all three maize genes remains elusive, the

Arabidopsis and barley *ZmHMA1* homologs act during heavy metal transport in the

chloroplast (Boutigny et al. 2014), demonstrating their functional involvement in

homeostasis.

To investigate the possibility that HM response had an effect on the origin and

domestication of maize, we compared the phenotypic changes that teosinte *parviglumis*

and maize undergo when grown in the presence of sublethal concentrations of Cu and Cd.

We show for the first time that teosinte *parviglumis* responds to HM stress by acquiring an

aerial architecture reminiscent of extant maize and unusual proliferation of female

inflorescences. *Tb1* expression is upregulated in teosinte *parviglumis* meristems when

grown under HM stress. Analysis of nucleotide variability across 11.46 Mb of chr.5

indicates that many genes within the *ZmHMA1 to ZmSKUs5* genomic region show reduced

nucleotide variability in maize as compared to teosinte *parviglumis*. Although the reduction

is not specific to these genes, large-scale transcriptional analyses suggests that contrary to

genes involved in other types of abiotic stress, a large number of loci that contain HM

response genes were affected by positive selection during the teosinte *parviglumis* to maize

transition. Both *ZmHMA1* and *ZmHMA7* are active throughout maize and teosinte *parviglumis* development, and their expression responds to HM stress. In addition, mutations in *ZmHMA1* show domestication-related defects such as the absence of seminal roots and increased height, both manifested under exposure to HMs. Paleoenvironmental studies reveal a temporal and geographical convergence that relates the history of volcanic eruptions in the TMVB with the emergence of maize at times of climatic instability. Overall, this evidence indicates that the evolutionary transition that gave rise to extant maize was influenced by heavy metal stress through the activity of P1b-ATPases, presumably responding to edaphological consequences of volcanic activity.

Results

Teosinte parviglumis responds to heavy metal stress by acquiring an architecture reminiscent of extant maize.

To compare HM response in teosinte *parviglumis* and maize, we exposed wild-type W22 maize inbred and CIMMYTMA 29791 teosinte *parviglumis* individuals to sublethal concentrations of Cu (400 mg/kg of $CuSO_4$) and Cd (16mg/kg of $CdCl_2$). $CuSO_4$ and $CdCl_2$ were homogenized in soil before transplant and grown under controlled greenhouse conditions. HM concentrations were based on preliminary dose responses that allowed maize plants to reach reproductive stages and complete their life cycle (AbdElgawad et al. 2020). Whereas higher doses impair flowering or are lethal, lower Cu/Cd concentrations do not consistently show conventional phenotypic responses such as reduced plant growth (AbdElgawad et al. 2020; Atta et al., 2023). As previously reported (Atta et al. 2023), maize individuals grown in the presence of HMs showed a significant reduction in aerial traits such as stem diameter, size of leaves, size and number of roots, and size of female inflorescences (Figure 1; Tables 1 and S1). On average, stem diameter showed a significant reduction of about 17% (P<0.05) as compared to plants grown in absence of HM stress (Figure 1f to 1j). Similarly, the length and width of developing leaves showed significant reductions of 12%, and mature leaves of 6% (P<0.05). Reproductive traits such as the number of female inflorescences (NFI) and their average weight (WFI) showed reductions,

as previously reported (NFI = 1.20 ± 0.42 in absence of HMs and NFI = 0.70 ± 0.67 in presence of HMs; WFI = 40.06 ± 14.39 in absence of HMs and WFI = 37.75 ± 18.83 in presence of HMs; Table 1). However, the most significant effects occurred in the root system, with an increase in the number of brace roots under HMs (NBR = 12.90 ± 4.33 in absence of HMs; NBR = 16.30 ± 4.99 in presence of HMs; Table 2), and a significant decrease in their length (LBR = 16.15 ± 9.75 cm in absence of HMs; LBR = 4.00 ± 2.04 cm in presence of HMs; P<0.001; Table 1). The number and length of crown roots were reduced on average by 33% and 18%, respectively (NCR = 11.30 ± 2.11 in absence of HMs; NCR = 7.60 ± 0.97 in presence of HMs; LCR = 58.90 ± 21.87 cm in absence of HMs; LCR = 48.85 ± 11.80 cm in presence of HMs; Table 1). Nodal roots also showed a significant reduction in their number and length (P<0.01 and P<0.001, respectively; NNR = 10.50 ± 2.27 in absence of HMs; NNR = 6.70 ± 2.79 in presence of HMs; LNR = 87.20 ± 16.80 cm in absence of HMs; LNR = 55.30 ± 21.10 cm in presence of HMs; Table 1). By contrast, the number (NSR) and length (LSR) of seminal roots was significantly increased in the presence of HMs (P<0.001 and P<0.01, respectively: NSR = 4.10 ± 1.45 in absence of HMs; NSR = 6.60 ± 1.35 in presence of HMs; LSR = 27.70 ± 13.38 cm in absence of HMs; LSR = 43.50 ± 14.01 cm in presence of HMs) when measured 50 days after transplant (Table 1).

Interestingly, teosinte *parviglumis* exhibited a maize-like phenotype when grown in the presence of HMs, with complete absence of tillering in most plants (Figure 1; Tables 2, S1 to S3). This phenotype had never been reported for teosinte *parviglumis* plants grown under HM stress or any other type of edaphological conditions. From a total of 30 plants tested, 28 showed total absence of tillering, and two initiated secondary stems during vegetative stages but arrested their growth early during development, resulting in the presence of a single stem at reproductive stages (Figure 1a to 1d; and Table 2). Additionally, all 30 plants tested showed complete absence or residual lateral branching with unusual proliferation of female inflorescences arising from independent axillary meristems in primary stems (Figure 1e). This additional phenotype had not been reported for teosinte *parviglumis* under any type of environmental conditions. The increase in the number of female inflorescences clustered within a single stem (NFI = 1.80 ± 0.63 in absence of HMs; NFI = 3.90 ± 1.66 in

presence of HMs; Figure 1e and Table 2) was associated with shorter flowering time as
compared with normal growing conditions in absence of HMs (Figure 1d). In addition,
teosinte *parviglumis* grown in the presence of HMs showed reduced leaf length (LIL =
71.30 ± 11.32 cm in absence of HMs; 56.25 ± 7.80 cm in presence of HMs; Table 2). The
absence of lateral branches resulted in lower values of aerial dry weight (DWAP = 133.49
± 28.28 gr in the absence of HMs; DWAP = 82.72 ± 11.67 gr in presence of HMs; Table
2). Teosinte *parviglumis* grown under HMs showed a significant reduction in the length of
brace roots (P<0.01; LBR = 20.00 ± 11.49 cm in absence of HMs; LBR = 2.88 ± 0.66 cm
in presence of HMs; Table 2), but no significant changes in their number. The number
crown and nodal roots was significantly decreased by HM stress (P<0.001 and P<0.01
respectively; NCR=12.88 ± 4.34 in absence of HMs; 9.6 ± 1.43 in presence of HMs;
NNR=16.2 ± 4.69 in absence of HMs; NNR= 14 ± 3.2 in presence of HMs; Table 2). By
contrast, the length of nodal roots was significantly increased by HM stress (P<0.001;
LNR=83 ± 15.76 in absence of HMs; 104 ± 8.46 in presence of HMs). The presence of
HMs did not modify the absence of seminal roots intrinsic to teosinte *parviglumis*
accessions (Perkins and Lynch 2021)*.* Taken together, these results suggest that the
response of maize and teosinte *parviglumis* to HM stress can give rise to phenotypes
previously shown to distinguish both subspecies at the light of the domestication syndrome.
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267   ***Genomic regions encompassing ZmHMA1, ZmHMA7 and ZmSKUs5 show reduced***
268   ***nucleotide variability in extant maize as compared to teosinte parviglumis.***
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ZmHMA1 and *ZmSKU5* mapped 52.1 and 41.8 cM, respectively, in a genetic map of chr.5
calculated to be 86.64 cM, with an average megabase pair to centimorgan ratio of 1.873
Mbp/cM (Lemmon and Doebley, 2014; Figure S1). The corresponding mapping population
used isogenic recombinant inbred lines (NIRILs) with informative cross-over events
concentrated in the region of interest and replicated phenotypic assessments in block
experiments. Multiple QTLs were detected in a region spanning across 82 cM, none with
single large effect genes such as those found in other chromosomes (Wang et al., 2005;
Studer et al. 2011; Wills et al., 2013), suggesting that several associated domestication

traits are due to multiple linked QTLs of small effect (Lemmon and Doebley, 2014). The

location of *ZmSKU5* overlaps with a single wide 1.5-LOD support interval that spreads

across 50.6 cM (number of kernels per rank; Figure S1). By contrast, *ZmHMA1* overlaps

with a contiguous region containing no less than five QTL 1.5- LOD support intervals (ear

diameter; number of kernels per rank; percentage of staminate spikelets; tassel branch

number; and tillering index; Figure S1).

To determine if the regulatory and coding regions of *ZmHMA1, ZmHMA7,* and *ZmSKUs5*

were affected by human selection, we calculated their level of nucleotide variability based

on single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) for all extant maize and teosinte *parviglumis*

accessions included in the diversity panel HapMap3, using the corresponding sequences of

Tripsacum dactyloides as an outgroup. The levels of the nucleotide variability index - π(m)

and π(t) for maize and teosinte *parviglumis*, respectively - were determined in bins of 100

nt using VCFtools, including alignments encompassing a genomic region that included 15

kb upstream of the START codon, the corresponding coding region for each gene, and 15

kb downstream of the STOP codon (Figure 2 and Table S4). In the case of *ZmHMA1*, the

upstream region values were π(m)= 0.00071 and π(t)= 0.00870, and for the downstream

region, π(m)=0.00097 and π(t)=0.00248. By contrast, the *ZmHMA1* coding sequence

showed low values in both subspecies: π(m)= 0.0050 and π(t)= 0.00106. These results

indicate that human selection in the *ZmHMA1* locus preferentially affected its upstream

and downstream regulatory regions (Figure 2a and Table S4). *ZmHMA7* showed

contrasting values of π(m) and π(t) across the entire coding sequence and its regulatory

regions (Figure 2b). For the upstream region, values were π(m)= 0.0009 and π(t)=0.00411;

for the *ZmHMA7* coding region, π(m)= 0.00015 and π(t)= 0.00148; and for the downstream

region, π(m)=0.00066 and π(t)=0.00454. *ZmSKUs5* also showed contrasting nucleotide

variability in the entire coding and flanking regions (Figure 2c and Table S4). Values were

π(m)= 0.0011 and π(t)= 0.00735 for the upstream region, π(m)= 0.00044 and π(t)= 0.00754

for the coding sequence, and π(m)=0.00203 and π(t)=0.00626 for the downstream region

(Table S4). For all three genes, similar π values in the coding region of maize landraces

and improved lines indicates that the loss of nucleotide variability occurred during the

teosinte *parviglumis* to maize transition, and not during subsequent contemporary breeding

(Table S4). By contrast, the *ZmGLB*1 neutral control locus shows equivalent levels of
nucleotide variability in maize and teosinte *parviglumis* (Eyre-Walker et al. 1998).
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We also compared the level of genetic variability in *ZmHMA1*, *ZmSKUs5*, and *ZmHMA7*
(and their neighboring regions) to all chr.5 genes categorized as likely affected by
domestication (Hufford et al., 2012), and to the full collection of neutral genes distributed
across the whole chromosome. The analysis was conducted using 100 bp bins and sliding
windows of 50 bp; for a total of 385,829 bins in the case of chr.5 domestication genes, and
2,373,010 bins for neutral genes. As shown in Figure S2, the levels of nucleotide variability in
the three candidate genes and their six neighboring loci are significantly reduced in maize
landraces as compared to teosinte *parviglumis* inbred lines. When compared to the full neutral
gene set of chr.5, this reduction is more severe than the reduction affecting 304 previously
identified domestication genes, confirming the exceptional selective pressure that was imposed
in those three loci during the evolutionary transition from teosinte *parviglumis* to extant
maize.
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325 ***Large-scale genomic and transcriptomic comparisons indicate that many HM response***
326 ***genes were positively selected across the maize genome.***
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To expand the results well beyond the analysis of the three genes previously described, we
performed a detailed analysis of genetic diversity across the 11.47 Mb genomic region
comprised between *ZmSKUs5* and *ZmHMA1*. This additional analysis reveals general
tendencies in the quantity and nature of loci that were affected by positive selection during
the teosinte *parviglumis* to maize transition in region identified via LOD score on chr.5.
We compared nucleotide variability by using 100 bp bins covering loci composed of two
30 Kb segments up and downstream of coding sequences, respectively, and the coding
sequence itself, for 173 genes present within the genomic region comprised between
ZmSKUs5 and *ZmHMA* (Figure S1 and Supplementary File 6). Two types of statistical tests
(ANOVA and Wilcoxon) were applied to nucleotide variability comparisons using the
entirety of each locus. The Benjamini-Hochber procedure allowed an estimation of the
false discovery rate (FDR<0.05) to avoid type I errors (false positives). Although some
individual loci appear as differently classified depending on the statistical test applied (22

out of 173 loci), the general differences in nucleotide variability are consistently

maintained within the subregions described below. We found that 166 out of 173 loci show

signatures of positive selection and are roughly organized in five independent subregions

of variable length. The first six loci are consecutively ordered in a 402 Kb subregion that

includes *ZmSKUs5*. A second group of 13 consecutive loci expands over a 1.44 Mb

subregion that contains *NRAMP ALUMINUM TRANSPORTER1*, also involved in HM

response through uptake of divalent ions. A third group of 17 consecutive loci expands

over 1.28 Mb; eleven contain genes encoding for uncharacterized proteins. The fourth

group is composed of 57 consecutive loci expanding over 3.22 Mb and contains genes

encoding for *DEFECTIVE KERNEL55, AUXIN RESPONSE FACTOR16*, and peroxydases

involved in responses to oxydative stress. The fifth group contains 12 consecutive loci

expanding over 713 Kb and contains *ZmHMA1*. An additional segment of approximately

1.17 Mb and containing 25 consecutive loci that were positively selected expands away

from the *ZmSKUs5-ZmHMA1* segment; it also contains several genes encoding for

peroxydases. Although multiple loci include genes that could be involved in abiotic stress

and oxidative responses, these results suggest that multiple factors other than HM stress

could have played a role in the evolutionary mechanisms that affected the genetic diversity

of chr.5 during the teosinte *parviglumis* to maize transition.

To further analyze the possibility that HM response could have played a role in maize

emergence and subsequent domestication, we analyzed large scale transcriptomic data

corresponding to independent experiments aiming at understanding the response of maize

roots to HM stress. Six available transcriptomes were selected for in-depth analysis because

they presented a fold change strictly higher than 1, and their results were supported by false

discovery rates (FDR<0.05). These six transcriptomes (Table S5) included HM response

datasets corresponding to growth conditions that not only incorporated Cu, but also lead

(Pb) and chromium (Cr) that were not included in the substrate of our experiments.

Transcriptional profiles were obtained from roots of plants at different stages: maize

seedlings (Shen et al., 2012; Gao et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2024a), three week old plantlets

(Yang et al., 2023), and plants at V2 stage (Zhang et al., 2024b; Fengxia et al., 2025). A

total of 120 genes shared by all six transcriptomes were found to be differentially expressed

under HM stress conditions (66 upegulated and 54 downregulated; Figure S3), including

ZmSKUs5, *ZmHMA1* and *ZmHMA7*; 52 of them (43.3%) are located in maize loci showing

less than 70% of the nucleotide variability found in teosinte *parviglumis*, suggesting that

they were affected by positive selection (Yamasaki et al., 2005; Supplementary File 7). Of

18 mapping in chr.5, twelve are within the 82 cM that fractionates into multiple QTLs

under selection during the *parviglumis* to maize transition. Interestingly, five additional

loci containing HM response genes completely lack SNPs within their total length in both

parviglumis and maize, and 19 additional loci lack SNPs in at least one 30 Kb segment or

their coding region (Supplementary File 7), suggesting the frequent presence of

ultraconserved genomic regions in many loci containing HM response genes. When this

same analysis was conducted in a set of loci comprising 63 genes previously identified as

differentially expressed in response to abiotic stress not directly related to HM responses

(hypoxia; nutritional deficiency; soil alkalinity; drought; soil salinity), 18 loci (28.6%)

showed less than 70% of the nucleotide variability found in teosinte *parviglumis*. Only one

of them maps in chr.5 and none contained segments or coding regions lacking SNPs in

parviglumis or maize. These results suggest that in contrast to other types of abiotic stress

response genes, loci comprising a large set of genes that unambiguously respond to HM

stress caused by chemical elements of diverse nature were affected by positive selection

during the *parviglumis* to maize transition, irrespectively of their position in the genome.

ZmHMA1 and ZmHMA7 are active throughout development and their expression is

influenced by the presence of heavy metals.

The gene structure of *ZmHMA1, ZmHMA7,* and *ZmSKUs5* is shown in Figure 3. The coding

sequence of *ZmHMA1* and *ZmHMA7* is approximately 21.6 Kb and 4.5 Kb, respectively,

while *ZmSKUs5* is approximately 4.2 Kb in length. Within the short arm of chromosome

5, *ZmHMA1* and *ZmSKUs5* are separated by 9.16 Mb, with *ZmHMA1* approximately 15

Mb away from the maximum likelihood prediction of a QTL involved in maize

domestication (Doebley and Stec 1993; Vielle-Calzada et al. 2009). *ZmHMA7* maps to the

centromeric region of chromosome 5. A detailed PlantCARE-based analysis identified

several conserved binding sites and regulatory elements in the promoter region of these

three genes (Lescot et al. 2002). *ZmHMA1* and *ZmHMA7* share binding sites to basic Helix-

Loop-Helix (bHLH) transcription factors, as well as abscisic acid response (ABRE),

ethylene responsive (ERF), and G-box (CACGTG) elements recognized by leucine zipper

family (bZIP) and bHLH transcription factors (Figure 3a). The regulatory region of both

ZmHMA1 and *ZmSKUs5* contain a binding site for MIKC-type MADS box transcription

factors (Figure 3a), whereas *ZmHMA7* and *ZmSKUs5* share a jasmonic acid-response

TGACG-motif (Figure 3a), as well as a Myb-binding (MBS) and GATA binding site. In

addition, *ZmHMA1* contains a binding site for TCP proteins such as Tb1, increasing the

number of families of transcription factors that could be involved in shared or individual

regulation of these three genes (Figure 3a).

To elucidate the expression patterns of *ZmHMA1* and *ZmHMA7*, we conducted reverse

transcriptase PCR (RT-PCR) in leaves, stems, roots, and flowers at two vegetative (V2 and

V6) and one reproductive (R1) developmental stage, in teosinte *parviglumis* and wild-type

W22 maize individuals (Figure 3b). In the case of maize, *ZmHMA1* was expressed in

leaves, stems, roots and flowers throughout development in either absence or presence of

HMs. *ZmHMA7* was also expressed in aerial organs throughout development in both

absence and presence of HMs but was not expressed in roots at reproductive stage R1. In

teosinte *parviglumis, ZmHMA1* was also expressed throughout development in either

absence or presence of HMs. By contrast, ZmHMA7 was constitutively expressed in aerial

organs, but only expressed in roots under HM stress during V2 and V6 stages. To further

determine if the level of expression of these two genes is influenced by the presence of

HMs, we conducted quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR) using the primary root of teosinte

parviglumis and maize plantlets at four weeks after germination (Figures 3c and 3d). In

wild-type W22 maize, the expression of *ZmHMA1* was not significantly different in the

presence and absence of HMs. By contrast, in teosinte *parviglumis* the expression of

ZMHMA1 was significantly increased in presence of HMs (Figure 3c). In the case of

ZmHMA7, expression was significantly increased in both maize and teosinte *parviglumis*

when plants were grown in the presence of HMs (Figure 3d). Overall, these results indicate

that the activity of both *ZmHMA1* and *ZmHMA7* is influenced by HM stress in teosinte

parviglumis and maize.

ZmHMA1 null mutant individuals show phenotypic defects related to the domestication

syndrome.

Transposon *Mu* insertional lines have been widely used to elucidate gene function in maize.

To elucidate the function of *ZmHMA1*, we phenotypically analyzed *LANMu1029790*, a 4-

generation backcross of line *mu1029790* into the W22 background selected for single copy

insertions in *ZmHMA1* (McCarty et al. 2005). In *LANMu1029790,* a single *Mu* insertion is

in the first exon of *ZmHMA1*, 65 bp downstream of the START codon (Figure 3a). RT-

PCR analysis showed that expression of Z*mHMA1* is completely absent in homozygous

individuals for the *LANMu1029790* insertion (Figure S4), confirming that the

corresponding mutant is a null allele. Plants harboring a homozygous *LANMu1029790*

insertion are subsequently designated as *zmhma1-m1::MuDR* (abbreviated *zmhma1-m1*).

To determine the function of *ZmHMA1* in maize, we compared the phenotype of wild-type

W22 and homozygous *zmhma1-m1* individuals at the reproductive R1 stage (Table 1).

Under normal growing conditions, homozygous *zmhma1-m1* individuals generated

significantly less leaves than wild-type (P<0.001; NL = 13.4 ± 0.84 in wild-type, and NL

= 11.4 ± 0.84 in *zmhma1-m1*). Whereas the length of mutant leaves was smaller than wild-

type (LML = 77.4 ± 6.64 cm in wild-type, and LML = 69.85 ± 9.18 cm in *zmhma1-m1*),

their width was significantly larger (P<0.001; WML = 6.75 ± 1.3 cm in wild-type, and

WML = 9.75 ± 1.4 cm in *zmhma1-m1*), resulting in an increase of the total dry weight of

aerial organs in mutant plants (DWAP = 18.43 ± 8.04 grams in wild-type, and DWAP =

28.46 ± 9.54 grams in *zmhma1-m1*). Homozygous *zmhma1-m1* individuals also produced

significantly more female inflorescences per plant (P<0.001; NFI = 1.2 ± 0.42 in wild-type,

and NFI = 1.9 ± 0.32 in *zmhma1*) a difference that reflected in the total dry weight of female

inflorescences per plant (P<0.001; WFI = 40.06 ± 14.39 gr in wild-type and WFI = 69.5 ±

11.2 gr in *zmhma1*); and significantly more spikes per male inflorescence (P<0.001; NSB

= 9 ± 1.63 in wild-type, and NSB = 13.4 ± 2.32 in *zmhma1-m1*). Interestingly, the general

length of roots was significantly smaller in homozygous *zmhma1-m1* individuals, in

particular nodal roots (P<0.001; LNR = 87.2 ± 16.8 cm in wild-type, and LNR = 50.9 ±

12.83 cm in *zmhma1-m1*). By contrast, mutant plants showed a significant increase in the

number of seminal roots per plant (P<0.001; NSR = 4.1 ± 1.45 in wild-type, and NSR =

7.3 ± 1.16 in *zmhma1-m1*). When wild-type and mutant individuals were grown under HM

stress, differences in the size of leaves, number of female inflorescences per plant, and

number of spikes per male inflorescence were maintained. In addition, mutant individuals

exposed to HM stress were significantly taller than wild-type (P<0.01; HEI = 82.2 ± 34.94

cm in wild-type, and HEI = 125.9 ± 18.81 cm in *zmhma1-m1*). In addition, total root and

seminal root length were equivalent in wild-type and mutant individuals, mainly because

the length of wild-type roots was significantly reduced under HM stress; however, the

number of seminal roots was again significantly higher in mutant individuals (P<0.05; NSR

= 6.6 ± 1.35 in wild-type, and NSR = 8.2 ± 1.62 in *zmhma1-m1*). These results indicate

that in maize aerial organs, *ZmHMA1* is involved in promoting leaf growth, restricting the

number of female inflorescences per plant, and restricting the number of spikes in male

inflorescences. In underground organs, *ZmHMA1* is involved in promoting root growth and

restricting the number of seminal roots per individual. Under HM stress, *ZmHMA1* shows

an additional role in restricting plant height, a function that was not identified under normal

growing conditions. Overall, these results suggest that *ZmHMA1* is involved in the control

of some of the aerial and underground phenotypic traits that distinguish maize from teosinte

parviglumis, especially under HM stress conditions.

Under heavy metal stress, Tb1 is overexpressed in the apical meristem of teosinte

parviglumis.

The absence of secondary ramifications in teosinte *parviglumis* grown under HM stress is

reminiscent of the aerial architecture of wild-type maize. Previous QTL and molecular

analysis suggested that *Tb1* contributed to the architectural difference between maize and

teosinte, as *tb1* maize mutants develop secondary stem ramifications ending in male

inflorescences, resembling teosinte in their overall architecture (Doebley et al. 1997).
Interestingly, the regulatory region of *ZmHMA1* contains a specific binding site for
members of the Teosinte-branched 1/Cycloidea/Proliferating (TCP) family of transcription
factors that includes Tb1 (Figure 3a). To investigate the possibility that the phenotypic
response of teosinte *parviglumis* under HM stress could be regulated by *Tb1*, we conducted
quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR) to determine the expression of *ZmHMA1* and *Tb1* in
the shoot apical meristem (SAM) of one month old W22 maize and teosinte *parviglumis*
plantlets (Figure 4a and 4b). The expression *ZmHMA1* was downregulated in W22 wild-
type maize meristems in the presence of HMs. By contrast, HM stress resulted in a
significant increase of *ZmHMA1* expression in teosinte *parviglumis*, confirming that in the
maize ancestor the level of *ZmHMA1* activity is influenced by the presence of HMs in the
soil. In addition, the expression of *Tb1* was significantly upregulated in teosinte
parviglumis meristems in the presence of HMs. These results do not allow to directly link
the regulation of *ZmHMA1* expression to the function of *Tb1*; however, they open an
opportunity to further investigate the possibility that under HM stress, the formation of
secondary ramifications in teosinte *parviglumis* could be repressed by transcription factors
of the TCP family, including Tb1.
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514   ***Paleoenvironmental studies reveal periods of climatic instability in the presumed region***
515   ***of maize emergence during the early Holocene.***
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It is well accepted that temperature fluctuations, volcanism and anthropogenic impact
shaped the distribution and abundance of plant species in the Transmexican Volcanic Belt
(TMVB) during the last 14,000 years (Torrescano-Valle et al. 2019). The TMVB has
produced close to 8000 volcanic structures (Ferrari et al., 2011), transforming the relief
multiple times, and causing hydrographic and soil changes that actively modified the
distribution and composition of plant communities in Central Mexico. Detailed
paleoenvironmental data for the Pleistocene and Holocene is available for several
lacustrine zones located within the 50 to 100 km range of the region currently considered
the cradle of maize domestication (Matzuoka et al. 2002; Figure 5a). In Lake Zirahuén

(102°44′ W; 19°26′ N and approximately 2075 meters above sea level; index [i] in Figure
5a), pollen, microcharcoal and magnetic susceptibility analyses of two sedimentary
sequences reveals three periods of major ecological change during the early and middle
Holocene. Between 9500 and 9000 calibrated years before present (cal yr BP), pine forests
seem to have been associated with summer insolation increases. A second peak of forest
change occurred at around 8200 cal yr BP, coinciding with cold oscillations documented
in the North Atlantic. Finally, events occurred between 7500 and 7100 cal yr BP shows an
abrupt change in the plant community related to humid Holocene climates and a presumed
volcanic event (Lozano-García et al., 2013). The environmental history of the central
Balsas watershed has also been documented by pollen, charcoal, and sedimentary analysis
conducted in three lakes and a swamp of the Iguala valley (Piperno et al. 2007).
Paleoecological records of lake Ixtacyola (8°20N, 99°35W and approximately 720 meters
above sea level; index [ii] in Figure 5a) and lake Ixtapa (8°21N, 99°26W) indicate that an
important increase in temperature and precipitation occurred between 13000 and 10000 cal
yr BP. The pollen record of Ixtacyola showed that members of the genus *Zea* were already
part of the vegetation coverage by 12900 to 13000 cal yr BP, suggesting that some teosintes
– likely including *parviglumis* - were commonly found at elevation areas where they do
not presently occur. Lake Almoloya (also named Chignahuapan; 19°05N, 99°20E and
approximately 2575 meters above sea level; index [iii] in Figure 5a) in the upper Lerma
basin is only 20 Km from the crater of the Nevado de Toluca that is responsible for creating
the late Pleistocene Upper Toluca Pumice layer over which the Lerma basin is deposited.
Pollen records indicate the presence of *Zea* species by 11080 to 10780 cal yr BP. As for
other locations, an important period of climatic instability prevailed between 11500 and
8500 cal yr BP (Ludlow-Wiechers et al., 2005). Humidity fluctuations occurred until 8000
cal yr BP, with a stable temperate climate between 8500 and 5000 cal yr BP. Although
pollen and diatom studies are often difficult to interpret at a regional scale, the overall
reported results suggest consistent periods of *Zea* plants present in periods of
environmental and climatic instability that correlate with the history of volcanic activity
during the early Holocene, as described in the next section.
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Temporal and geographical convergence between volcanic eruptions and maize

emergence during the Holocene.

Current evidence indicates that the emergence and domestication of maize initiated in

Mesoamerica some time around 9,000 yr BP (Matsuoka et al. 2002). The current location

of teosinte *parviglumis* populations that are phylogenetically most closely allied with maize

are currently distributed in a region located between the Michoacan-Guanajuato Volcanic

Field (MGVF) at their northwest, and the Nevado de Toluca and Popocatéptl volcanoes at

their east and northeast (Figure 5a; Matsuoka et al. 2002). Precise records of field data

indicate that ten accessions were collected in the Balsas river drainage near Teloloapan and

Sierra de Huautla (Guerrero), at approximately 100 km south of the Nevado de Toluca

crater (Matzuoka et al. 2002). Three other accessions were collected near Tejupilco de

Hidalgo and Zacazonapan (Estado de México), at approximately 50 to 60 km from the

Nevado de Toluca crater (8762, JSG y LOS-161, and JSG-391). And four other accessions

were located in Michoacan, at a location within the MGVF (accession 8763), or at mid-

distance between the MGVF and the Nevado de Toluca crater (accessions JSG y LOS-130,

8761, and 8766).

The most important source of HMs in ancient soils of Mesoamerica is TMBV-dependent

volcanic activity through short- and long-term effects related to lava deposits, ores,

hydrothermal flow, and ash (Torrescano-Valle et al. 2019). Interestingly, TMVB activity

in the center of Mexico was particularly intense during the Holocene, as compared to other

regions and time frames (Marcias and Arce, 2019). The Nevado de Toluca volcano

produced one of the most powerful eruptions from central Mesoamerica in the Holocene,

giving rise to the Upper Toluca Pumice deposit at 12621 to 12025 cal yr BP (Arce et al.,

2003; Figure 5b). The pumice fallout blanketed the Lerma and Mexico basins with 40 cm

of coarse ash (Bloomfield and Valastro 1977; Arce et al. 2003). A second eruption dated

by ^{36}Cl exposure occurred at 9700 cal yr BP (Arce et al. 2003; Figure 5b), and the most

recent eruption occurred at 3580 to 3831 cal yr BP (Macías et al. 1997). During the early

and middle Holocene, the Popocatéptl volcano produced at least four eruptions dated

13037-12060, 10775–9564, 8328-7591, and 6262-5318 cal yr BP (Siebe et al. 1997); three

other important eruptions occurred during the late Holocene, between 2713 and 733 cal yr

BP (Siebe and Macías, 2006). In addition, the MGFV is a monogenetic volcanic field for

which 23 independent eruptions have been documented during the Holocene, 21 of them

located towards the southern part of the field, in close proximity to the region harboring

some of the teosinte *parviglumis* populations most closely related to maize. Three of these

eruptions occurred in the early Holocene (El Huanillo 1130 to 9688 cal yr BP; La Taza

10649 to 10300 cal yr BP; Cerro Grande 10173 to 9502 cal yr BP; Figure 5b), and three

others during the initial period of the middle Holocene, between 8400 and 7696 cal yr BP

(La Mina, Los Caballos, and Cerro Amarillo; Figure 5b). On average, a new volcano forms

every ~435 years in the MGFV (Macías and Arce, 2019). No less than 16 other eruptions

occurred between 7159 cal yr BP and the present time (Figure 5b). Soils of volcanic origin

(andosols) are currently distributed in regions north-west from the Nevado de Toluca and

Popocatéptl craters, in close proximity with teosinte *parviglumis* populations most closely

related to maize (Figure S5). Although modern distribution of teosinte populations may

differ from their distribution around 9000 yr BP, and unknown populations more closely

related to maize may yet to be discovered, this data indicates that the date and region where

maize emerged is convergent with the dates and locations of several volcanic eruptions

occurred during the Holocene in that same region.

Discussion

Although the evolutionary transition from teosinte *parviglumis* to maize resulted in

important phenotypic divergence between landraces and their wild progenitor, the

relevance of teosinte *parviglumis* phenotypic plasticity and its genetic consequences during

domestication remain poorly understood. Our study offers the first evidence showing that

a specific environmental factor (HM stress) influenced the teosinte *parviglumis* to maize

transition through specific gene function (HM-response ATPases). The comparison of HM

responses between both subspecies indicates that teosinte *parviglumis* phenotypically

responds to HM stress acquiring phenotypes reminiscent of maize. Low temperatures and

low CO_2 concentrations caused a significant decrease in lateral branching but not in

tillering. This decrease of lateral branching correlated with a decrease in teosinte seed yield

(Piperno et al. 2015). Similar results were reported for *parviglumis* plants grown under low

Nitrogen conditions (Gaudin et al. 2011). Our results under HM stress also show an

increase in the number of female inflorescences per plant. This HM stress-dependent

proliferation of several closely associated female inflorescences in a single teosinte

parviglumis stem has not been previously reported. Female inflorescences arose from

individual axillary meristems in multiple internodes, significantly increasing teosinte

parviglumis seed yield. Under HM stress, we also show that *Tb1* is overexpressed in the

apical meristem of teosinte *parviglumis,* suggesting that formation of secondary

ramifications is repressed by *Tb1* function under HM stress, as in extant maize. At this

stage we cannot discard the possibility that *Tb1* upregulation in *parviglumis* reflects a more

generalized response to abiotic stress; however, the expression *ZmHMA1* is downregulated

in W22 wild-type maize meristems in the presence of HMs but upregulated in teosinte

parviglumis meristems, suggesting that a specific regulatory shift relating HM responses

and *ZmHMA1* function occurred during the teosinte *parviglumis* to maize transition.

We also show that *ZmHMA1*, *ZmHMA7* and *ZmSKUs5* exhibit reduced genetic diversity in

extant maize as compared to teosinte *parviglumis*, suggesting that all three loci were

affected by the evolutionary transition that gave rise to maize. The maize regulatory region

and downstream 3' area of the *ZmHMA1* locus exhibit pronounced reduction in SNPs

compared to teosinte *parviglumis* lines, likely affecting the molecular scope of its

regulatory proteins, including transcription factors of the TCP family (Martín-Trillo and

Cubas 2010). By contrast, *ZmHMA7* and *ZmSKUs5* showed a selective sweep across the

entire maize locus. Although loss of genetic diversity is usually the result of human

selection during domestication, it can also represent a consequence of natural selective

pressures favoring fitness of specific teosinte *parviglumis* allelic variants better adapted to

environmental changes and subsequently affected by human selection during the

domestication process. This possibility is reflected by widely spread selective sweeps

affecting a large portion of chr.5 that contains hundreds of genes showing signatures of

positive selection. The analysis of 11.47 Mb covering the *ZmHMA1-ZmSKUs5* segment
confirms the presence of large but discrete genomic subregions that were positively
selected during the teosinte *parviglumis* to maize transition. Although several contain
genes involved in HM response and oxidative stress, the diversity of gene functions does
not necessarily favor abiotic stress over other factors that could be at the origin of selective
forces affecting these regions. By contrast, a large scale transcriptomic survey indicates
that genes consistently responding to HMs (Cu, Cd, Pb and Cr) show signatures of positive
selection at unusual high frequencies (43.3%) as compared to loci containing genes
responding to other types of abiotic stress (28.6%). Our identification of HM response
genes affected by positive selection is far from being exhaustive. Nevertheless, it agrees
with the expected effects of a widespread selective sweep caused by environmental
changes that influenced the *parviglumis* to maize transition at the genetic level. Of
intriguing interest are 24 loci that partially or completely lack SNPs in both teosinte
parviglumis and maize, suggesting possible genetic bottlenecks occurred before the
teosinte to maize transition. Examples of other edaphological factors driving genetic
divergence either in the teosintes or maize include local adaptation to phosphorus
concentration in *mexicana* and *parviglumis* (Aguirre-Liguori et al. 2019), and fast maize
adaptation to changing iron availability through the action of genes involved in its
mobilization, uptake, and transport (Benke and Stich 2011). Our results reveal a teosinte
parviglumis environmental plasticity that could be related to the function of HM response
genes positively selected during the teosinte *parviglumis* to maize transition. Previous
studies have demonstrated that transposable elements (TEs) contribute to activation of
maize genes in response to abiotic stress, affecting up to 20% of the genes upregulated in
response to abiotic stress, and as many as 33% of genes that are only expressed in response
to stress (Makarevitch et al., 2015). It is therefore possible that the HM response of some
specific genes that influenced maize emergence or domestication could be mediated by
TEs influencing or driving their transcriptional regulation.

The maize genome contains 12 genes encoding for members of the P1b family of ATPases
(Cao et al. 2019). They are subdivided according to their preferential substrate affinity: the
Copper (Cu)/Silver (Ag) group includes *ZmHMA1* to *ZmHMA4*; and the Zinc (Zn)/Cobalt

(Co)/Cadmium (Cd)/Lead (Pb) includes *ZmHMA5* to *ZmHMA12*. Initial studies suggested

that *ZmHMA1* is expressed at low levels in vegetative, reproductive or root organs

throughout development, contrary to *ZmHMA7* that is strongly expressed in developing

seeds 10 days after pollination; however, both genes appeared downregulated in plants

grown under either Cu or Cd stress (Zhiguo et al. 2018). Additional studies by Cao et al

(2019) indicated low expression of *ZmHMA1* and high levels of *ZmHMA7* expression in

12 tissues: roots, nodes, shoots, leaves, tassel, shoot apical meristem and young stem,

internodes, anthers, silks, whole seedlings, endosperm, embryo, and pericarp. Under Cd

stress, expression of both *ZmHMA1* and *ZmHMA7* was significantly upregulated in roots

and downregulated in stems (Cao et al. 2019), contradicting previous results by Zhiguo et

al. (2018). In Arabidopsis and barley, the corresponding *ZmHMA1* structural homologs

(*AtHMA1* and *HvHMA1*, respectively) can transport a wide range of metals into the

chloroplast (Mikkelsen et al. 2012; Boutigny et al. 2014). In the case of the Arabidopsis

structural homolog of ZmHMA7, AtHMA7 (also called RAN1) is proposed to act as a

metallochaperone located in the Golgi apparatus, delivering Cu to the ethylene receptor

located in the plasma membrane (Hirayama et al. 1999). Our evidence complements

previous studies by showing that in maize, *ZmHMA1* root expression is restricted to

vegetative developmental stages, and that *ZmHMA7* is expressed in roots in response to

HM stress. We also show through qPCR analysis that under HM stress, the expression of

both *ZmHMA1* and *ZmHMA7* is upregulated in teosinte *parviglumis* primary roots of 4-

week-old plantlets. Overall, these results confirm that both *ZmHMA1* and *ZmHMA7* are

HM response genes active throughout teosinte and maize development.

In maize, the phenotypic analysis of null mutant individuals indicates that *ZmHMA1* is

involved in the control of aerial and underground developmental traits, some of which are

related to important functional adaptations that distinguish maize from its wild ancestor. In

addition to changes in leaf number, leaf length, and number of spikes per male

inflorescence, *zmhma1-m1* mutant individuals grown under normal edaphological

conditions showed an increase in the number of female inflorescences per plant, a reduction

in the length of nodal roots, and an increase in the number of seminal roots per plant.

Whereas the promotion of nodal root growth is a distinctive trait of maize phenotypic

plasticity and adaptation, previous studies showed that contrary to maize, plants of teosinte
parviglumis lack seminal roots. This absence is also characteristic of paleobotanical maize
specimens dating more than 5,000 cal yr BP, confirming that the acquisition of seminal
roots is an important trait acquired during domestication (Lopez-Valdivia et al. 2022). The
presence of seminal roots distinguishes extant maize from the teosintes (Burton et al. 2013),
suggesting a possible involvement in domestication (Perkins and Lynch 2021; Lopez-
Valdivia et al. 2022). Our results suggest that the allelic variants of the *ZmHMA1* locus
selected during domestication could have contributed to promote seminal root formation
in maize, optimizing their number in accordance to seed endosperm availability and
carbohydrate reserves (Perkins and Lynch 2021; Lopez-Valdivia et al. 2022). Interestingly,
ZmHMA1 plays an important role in contributing to restricting plant height in response to
HM stress, a phenotype that is also an important distinction between teosinte *parviglumis*
and maize. Taken together, these results indicate that *ZmHMA1* function was involved in
the phenotypic transition from teosinte *parviglumis* to maize through the influence of HM
stress; however, a better definition of its role in the origin and domestication of maize will
require a functional analysis of the *ZmHMA1* teosinte *parviglumis* homolog, and a detailed
molecular analysis of the corresponding allelic variants and their phenotypic effects in both
subspecies.
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731 ***Ideas and Speculation.***
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Our results point to an evolutionary model in which environmental changes in the form of
edaphological HM stress imposed natural selective forces that acted on native teosinte
parviglumis populations, causing phenotypic responses and a severe genetic bottleneck
(Figure S6). Adapted plants developed phenotypic traits such as shorter height and
emergence of seminal roots, progressively giving raise to primitive maize individuals with
reduced genetic variation in HM response genes such as *ZmHMA1*. The subsequent action
of human selection caused a drastic reduction in allelic variation of HM response genes,
and genetic fixation of the resulting domestication traits.

The history of eruptive activity in the TMVB during the early Holocene coincides with the temporal estimation of initial stages in the evolutionary transition that gave rise to maize. Intense and recurrent eruptions occurred 12,000 to 6,000 years ago near the region presumed to be the cradle of maize domestication (Matsuoka et al. 2002; Macias and Arce, 2019). Located less than 60 Km from the region that harbors some of the natural teosinte *parviglumis* populations most closely related to maize (Matsuoka et al. 2002), the Nevado de Toluca volcano underwent three major eruptions approximately 12621-12025, 9700, and 3580- 3831 yr BP (Macias and Arce*,* 2019). The large 9700 yr BP eruption caused in the region a period of climatic instability that lasted until 8500 yr BP (Ludlow-Wiechers et al., 2005). Could volcanic eruptions during the early Holocene have modified soil composition and influence the initial evolutionary transition from teosinte *parviglumis* to primitive maize? The possibility of environmental cues influencing maize emergence was mentioned by Benz and Iltis (1992), but not in relation to volcanic activity. Deciphering the ancient DNA sequence of HM response genes such as *ZmHMA1* in paleobotanical maize specimens found in Central Mexico could help determine if its genetic diversity was already reduced by 5,300 to 6,200 yr BP (Ramos-Madrigal et al., 2016 ; Vallebueno-Estrada et al., 2016; Benz, 2001). Our results open the possibility for environmental changes caused by volcanic activity acting as a driving force in the selection of loci involved in adaptive responses such as heavy metal tolerance.

Materials and Methods

Plant materials and growth conditions.
Seeds from maize inbred line W22, teosinte *parviglumis* accession CIMMYTMA 29791, and insertional line *LANMu1029790* were sterilized using a 1:1 distilled water and bleach solution, rinsed three times in water, and germinated in MS solid medium. One week-old seedings were transplanted into PVC tubes (length: 90 cm; diameter: 20 cm) or 20-liter pots filled with a pre-sterilized mix composed of 30% peat moss, 10% vermiculite, 10% perlite, and 50% ground litter, complemented with 15-9-12 (N-P-K) Osmocote™ fertilizer.

For HM growth conditions, 16 mg/kg of cadmium chloride ($CdCl_2$) and 400 mg/kg of

copper sulfate ($CuSO_4$) were added to the substrate before seedling transplant. All plants

were grown under glasshouse conditions at 28°C during day and 24°C during night, with

relative humidity comprised between 40 and 50%.

Phenotypic analysis.

All plants were harvested at 15 days (V2 stage), 30 days (V6 stage), and 50 days (R1 stage)

after transplant. No less than ten plants per biological replicate were measured for each

trait and stage, with three biological replicates per experiment. The width and length of

immature leaves was measured in the 5th leaf. The length and width of mature leaves in the

3rd leaf. The total number of leaves, total number of stem internodes, plant height, basal

stem diameter, total number of stem ramifications, and total fresh and dry weight of the

aerial biomass were estimated at the R1 stage. Estimated root traits included the number

and length of brace roots (aerial roots), the number and length of crown roots (underground

roots originating within 2 cm below the basal node), number and length of nodal roots

(underground roots originating more than 2 cm below the basal node), the number and

length of seminal roots and maximum length of the root system. Statistical analyses were

conducted using RStudio, version 4.3.0 (Horton and Kleinman 2015). The data are

presented as mean ± standard deviation and were tested by a paired Student's T-Test. When

the effects were significant according to T-Test, the treatments were compared with the

Welch two sample T-Test at $P < 0.05$.

Genetic diversity analysis.

The SNP collection of maize chromosome 5 was analyzed on the basis of the HapMap

V3.2.1 dataset (Bukowski et al. 2018), selecting individuals from maize landraces (LR)

(Table S6) and teosinte *parviglumis* inbred line accessions (Teo; Table S7). A sliding

window diversity (π) was calculated using VCFtools v0.1.13 (Danecek et al. 2011) with a

window size of 100 bp (--window-pi 100) and a sliding step of 50 bp (--window-pi-step

50). Regions under selection were extracted from a list of 304 genes with domestication-

related selection signatures across the whole chromosome (Hufford et al. 2012; Tables S8),

for a total of 385,829 sliding windows (Table S9 and S10). A second set of neutral gene

regions comprising 2,373,010 windows was also extracted across the entirety of

chromosome 5. These two collections were compared to *ZmHMA1* (GRMZM2G067853),

ZmHMA7 (GRMZM2G029951), and *ZmSKUs5* (GRMZM2G076985), encompassing

2,743 windows (Table S11 and S12). Additionally, we analyzed genetic diversity in the

neighboring regions of these candidate genes, which included six genes

(*GRMZM2G701784*, *GRMZM2G014508*, *GRMZM2G367857*, *GRMZM2G375607*,

GRMZM2G374375, and *GRMZM2G067883*), totaling 3,088 windows. We employed a

custom Perl script (Vallebueno GitHub repository) to calculate two diversity metrics: fold

change (FC= π(LR)/π(Teo)) and the proportional diversity (FP=π(LR)/(π(LR) + π(Teo)).

Data visualization was performed using violin plots generated in R v4.2.2.

For an arbitrary locus encompassing 30 Kbs up and downstream of the coding sequence of

ZmMA1, *ZmHMA7*, and *ZmSKUs5*, the number of segregating sites (S), the number of

unique sequences (haplotypes, h), and the nucleotide diversity index (θ) were estimated

using DnaSP version 6.0 for all accessions included in HapMap3 (Rozas et al. 2017;

Bukowski et al. 2018). DnaSP was also used to estimate Tajima's D, Fu and Li's D, and

Fu and Li's F indexes (Tajima 1989; Fu and Li 1993). The average proportion of pairwise

nucleotide differences per nucleotide site (π) was calculated with VCFtools using bins of

100 bp and steps of 25 bp (Tajima 1983; Weir and Cockerham 1984). Null hypothesis of

equality of parameters followed two-tailed tests as previously described (Rozas et al.

2017).

To characterize genetic diversity across a 11.47 Mb genomic interval encompassing the

ZmHMA1 to *ZmSKUs5* segment on chr.5, we quantified nucleotide diversity (π)

differences between maize and teosinte *parviglumis*. For each gene found within the

segment, three regions were defined: an upstream region, the coding sequence (CDS), and

a downstream region. Nucleotide diversity for each subspecies was calculated within each

region and expressed as the ratio πMaize/πTeosinte (πM/πT). Subregions in which maize

retained less than 70% of teosinte *parviglumis* diversity ($\pi\_M/\pi\_T \approx 0.7$) were highlighted

in Supplemental File 6. Genome-wide π estimates were derived from non-overlapping 100

bp windows that had been intersected between species. Two complementary statistical

approaches were used to evaluate species differences per region. First, a parametric

analysis of variance (ANOVA) was fitted for each region using π as the response variable

and subspecies (maize vs teosinte *parviglumis*) as a fixed factor. ANOVA was used when

its assumptions (approximate normality of residuals and homogeneity of variances) were

considered acceptable following Fischer. Second, a paired Wilcoxon signed-rank test was

applied to the paired π values from maize and teosinte *parviglumis* within each region as a

distribution-free alternative robust to departures from normality and to outliers (Wilcoxon,

1945). P-values from both methods were adjusted to control the false discovery rate (FDR)

using the Benjamini–Hochberg procedure (Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995). All data

processing and statistical analyses were performed in R (version 4.3.1). Gene annotations

were obtained from Phytozome using the *Zea mays* PHJ40 v1.2 annotation (Bornowski et

al., 2021).

Gene expression analysis.

Leaves, stems, tassels, female inflorescences, as well as primary, nodal, and crown roots

were manually isolated, frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at 4°C. Total RNA was

extracted using TRIZOL (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). For reverse-transcriptase PCR

(RT-PCR), RNA was converted to coding DNA using the One-step RT-PCR kit (QIAGEN,

USA). The full list of primers is presented in Table S8. *ZmCDK* was used as a positive

control. PCR amplification was conducted using the following parameters: at 94°C for 5

min.; 94°C 30 sec., 60°C 30 sec., 72°C 1 min. for 35 cycles; final stop after 72°C for 10

min. For quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR), total RNA was isolated from 4-week-old

meristems using TRIZOL. Complementary DNA (cDNA) was synthesized using 4 μg of

total RNA, 10 mM oligodTs and Superscript reverse transcriptase II (Invitrogen, USA).

Primers for PCR were designed using the online program Primer 3 Plus (v.0.4.0) and

verified with Oligocalculator (Sigma Chemical, St Louis MO) to discard dimer formation.

PCR efficiencies of target and reference gene were determined by generating standard

curves based on serial dilutions prepared for cDNA templates. PCR efficiency was

calculated according to the slope of the standard curve (primers with 100% efficiency, the

fold equals 2). Each quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR) reaction was performed in a 10 μl

volume consisting of 5 μl of 23 SYBR Green PCR reaction Mix (Applied Biosystems,

Foster City, CA). 3.5 μl of the DNA template (100 ng/ml), 0.5 μl of the forward primer (5

mM), 0.5 μl of the reverse primer (5 mM), and 0.5 μl of ultrapure water. The qPCR

reactions were performed using the CFX96 Touch Real-Time PCR detection System and

the data were analyzed using the Bio-Rad CFX Manager software v3.1. The thermal profile

consisted of 10 min at 95°C, 40 cycles of 15 sec at 95°C, and 1 min at 60°C. Amplification

results were collected at the end of the extension step. Primer sequences for qPCR

amplification are listed in Table S7. A comparative 2-ΔΔCT method was used for

determining a relative target quantity of gene expression (Schefe et al. 2006), and the

cyclin-dependent kinase gene *ZmCDK* (GRMZM2G149286) was used as a control (Hu et

al. 2019). Reproducibility of the results was evaluated for each sample by running three

technical and three biological replicates of each of the reactions and each sample.

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Competing interests

None declared.

Author contributions

J. A-B and J.P.V-C designed the study. J. A-B and J.P.V-C coordinated and managed the

project. M.V.E. designed and performed computational analysis. J.A-B performed the

experiments, J. A-B, M.V.E and J.P.V-C generated, analyzed and interpreted data J. A-B and J.P.V-C wrote the article. All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

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Legend of Figures.

Figure 1. Phenotypic response of teosinte *parviglumis* and wild-type W22 maize grown under heavy metal stress. (**a**) to (**e**), teosinte *parviglumis*; (**f**) to (**j**), W22 maize. (**a**) Teosinte *parviglumis* in absence of heavy metal stress at early flowering stage. (**b**) Teosinte *parviglumis* grown under heavy metal stress at early flowering stage. (**c**) Teosinte *parviglumis* in absence of heavy metal stress at late flowering stage. (**d**) Teosinte *parviglumis* grown under heavy metal stress at late flowering stage. (**e**) Teosinte *parviglumis* showing absence of lateral branching, and proliferation of female inflorescences arising from independent axillary meristems under heavy metal stress (detail of d). (**f**) W22 maize in absence of heavy metal stress at early flowering stage. (**g**) W22 maize grown under heavy metal stress at early flowering stage. (**h**) W22 maize in absence of heavy metal stress at late flowering stage. (**i**) W22 maize grown under heavy metal stress at late flowering stage. (**j**) W22 maize female inflorescences at late flowering stage (detail of i). Scale bars: 10 cm.

Figure 2. Genetic diversity of loci encompassing *ZmHMA1, ZmHMA7*, and *ZmSKUs5*. The nucleotide variability index (π) was calculated for all HapMap3 accessions of teosinte *parviglumis* (blue line), maize (red line), and *Tripsacum dactyloides* (orange line), taking in consideration the coding sequence (arrow) and an upstream and downstream region of 15 Kb encompassing each gene. (**a**) Nucleotide variability in the *ZmHMA1* locus. (**b**) Nucleotide variability in the ZmHMA7 locus. (**c**) Nucleotide variability in the *ZmSKUs5* locus. (**d**) Nucleotide variability in the *ZmGLB1* locus.

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Figure 3. Structure and gene expression of *ZmHMA1* and *ZmHMA7* in teosinte
***parviglumis* and W22 maize.** (**a**) Structural analysis of *ZmHMA1*, *ZmHMA7*, and
ZMSKUs5. Blue triangles indicate the location of motifs predicted in the regulatory region
of each gene. The insertion site of *Mu* line *LANMu1029790* is indicated by a red triangle.
(**b**) RT-PCR analysis of *ZmHMA1* and *ZMHMA7* expression throughout development of
teosinte *parviglumis* and W22 maize in presence or absence of heavy metal stress; L=leaf;
S=stem; PR=primary root; NR=nodal root; CR=crown root. V2: 15 days after transplant;

V6: 30 days after transplant; R1: 50 days after transplant. Controls: (-) absence of DNA;

(+) genomic DNA. (**c**) qPCR analysis of *ZmHMA1* expression in 1-month old primary

roots, in absence or presence of heavy metal stress. (**d**) qPCR analysis of *ZmHMA7*

expression in 1-month old primary roots, in absence or presence of heavy metal stress.

Histograms in (**c**) and (**d**) show the relative fold-change (normalized to actin, based on

technical and biological triplicates); standard deviations are shown by vertical lines and

Student T-test P-values represented by asterisks. * P<0.01; ** P<0.001.

Figure 4. *Tb1* and *ZmHMA1* expression in the shoot apical meristem of plantlets grown under heavy metal stress. (a) qPCR analysis of *Tb1* expression in 1-month old teosinte *parviglumis* plantlets grown in absence or presence of heavy metal stress. (**b**) qPCR analysis of *ZmHMA1* expression in 1-month old teosinte *parviglumis* and W22 maize plantlets in absence or presence of heavy metal stress. Histograms show the relative fold-change (normalized to actin, based on technical and biological triplicates); standard deviations are shown by vertical lines and Student T-test P-values represented by asterisks; * P<0.01.

Figure 5. Location and age of volcanic eruptions occurred during the Holocene in

comparison to collection sites of teosinte *parviglumis* populations most closely related

to maize. (**a**) Black asterisks correspond to the location and accession numbers of collected

teosinte *parviglumis* populations that are phylogenetically most closely allied with extant

maize, following Matzuoka et al. 2002. The location of 21 volcanoes belonging to the

Michoacan-Guanajuato Volcanic Field is indicated with yellow circles. The locations of

the Nevado de Toluca and Popocatéptl craters are indicated with a red and brown circle,

respectively. Orange squares indicate the location of paleoenvironmental studies covering

from 14,000 cal yr BP to current era, as described in Lozano-García et al. 2013 (i), Piperno

et al. 2007 (ii), and Ludlow-Wiechers et al. 2005 (iii). (**b**) Time versus age of volcanic

eruptions occurred in the map area of the Transmexican Volcanic Belt during the Holocene;

numbers correspond to volcanoes illustrated in (**a**). Adapted from Macías and Arce (2019).

Legend of Appendix and Supplementary Files.

Figure S1. Cumulative plot of QTL detected in a region of chromosome five that includes *ZmSKUs5* and *ZmHMA1* (modified from Lemmon and Doebley, 2014).

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Figure S3. Large scale transcriptional comparison of HM response genes across six maize experiments based on fold change >1 and false discovery rate (FDR) < 0.05.

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Figure S5. Distribution of soils of volcanic origin (andosols; pink) in geographic regions of teosinte *parviglumis* populations most closely related to extant maize.

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Supplementary File 6. Genetic diversity in loci across 11.47 Mb of chr.5 in the *ZmSKUs5* to *ZmHMA1* segment

Supplementary File 7. Genetic diversity in loci encompassing heavy metal response genes shared by six transcriptomes with fold change strictly higher than 1 and FDR<0.05

Figure 1

Figure 2.

Figure 3.

Figure 4.

Figure 5.

Table 1. Estimation of phenotypic traits in wild-type and z*mhma1* maize grown in absence and presence of heavy metal stress.

		W22			zmhma1			W22	zmhma1		W22	zmhma1	
		Cu/Cd (-)	Cu/Cd (+)		Cu/Cd (-)	Cu/Cd (+)		Cu/Cd (-)	Cu/Cd (-)		Cu/Cd (+)	Cu/Cd (+)	
	Description	Mean ± SD	Mean ± SD	P value	Mean ± SD	Mean ± SD	P value	Mean ± SD	Mean ± SD	P value	Mean ± SD	Mean ± SD	P value
NL	Number of Leaves	13.40 ± 0.84	12.00 ± 1.70	1.20E-02*	11.40 ± 0.84	11.10 ± 0.74	4.70E-01	13.40 ± 0.84	11.40 ± 0.84	5.00E-05***	12.00 ± 1.70	11.10 ± 0.74	1.42E-01
LML	Length of Mature Leaf (cm)	77.40 ± 6.64	72.35 ± 8.81	1.54E-01	69.85 ± 9.18	63.85 ± 7.31	1.32E-01	77.40 ± 6.64	69.85 ± 9.18	4.93E-02*	72.35 ± 8.81	63.85 ± 7.31	3.05E-02*
WML	Width of Mature Leaf (cm)	6.75 ± 1.30	7.20 ± 1.42	4.37E-01	9.75 ± 1.40	9.95 ± 0.86	6.42E-01	6.75 ± 1.30	9.75 ± 1.40	1.00E-04***	7.20 ± 1.42	9.95 ± 0.86	6.00E-05***
LIL	Length of Immature Leaf (cm)	59.50 ± 6.10	51.90 ± 9.97	5.90E-02	48.25 ± 6.88	45.35 ± 9.43	4.56E-01	59.50 ± 6.10	48.25 ± 6.88	1.12E-03**	51.90 ± 9.97	45.35 ± 9.43	1.49E-01
WIL	Width of Immature Leaf (cm)	7.45 ± 0.80	6.60 ± 1.10	6.70E-02	9.25 ± 0.72	8.85 ± 0.85	2.78E-01	7.45 ± 0.80	9.25 ± 0.72	5.00E-05***	6.60 ± 1.10	8.85 ± 0.85	7.00E-05***
HEI	Height (cm)	99.60 ± 32.61	82.20 ± 34.94	3.30E-01	103.15 ± 10.76	125.90 ± 18.81	2.00E-03**	99.60 ± 32.61	103.15 ± 10.76	7.48E-01	82.20 ± 34.94	125.9 ± 18.81	2.66E-03**
SD	Stem Diameter (cm)	3.24 ± 0.52	2.60 ± 0.53	1.70E-02*	3.02 ± 0.51	2.86 ± 0.59	5.19E-01	3.24 ± 0.52	3.02 ± 0.51	3.49E-01	2.60 ± 0.53	2.86 ± 0.59	3.12E-01
DWAP	Dry Weight of Aerial Part (g)	28.43 ± 8.04	25.22 ± 8.26	4.38E-01	28.46 ± 9.54	31.44 ± 18.85	6.15E-01	28.43 ± 8.04	28.46 ± 9.54	2.04E-02*	25.22 ± 8.26	31.44 ± 18.85	1.56E-03**
NSB	Number of Spike Branches	9.00 ± 1.63	7.20 ± 3.16	1.21E-01	13.40 ± 2.32	13.60 ± 1.96	7.87E-01	9.00 ± 1.63	13.40 ± 2.32	1.10E-04***	7.20 ± 3.16	13.60 ± 1.96	4.00E-05***
NFI	Number of Female Inflorescences	1.20 ± 0.42	0.70 ± 0.67	9.70E-02	1.90 ± 0.32	1.60 ± 0.52	1.42E-01	1.20 ± 0.42	1.90 ± 0.32	5.40E-04***	0.70 ± 0.67	1.60 ± 0.52	3.57E-03***
WFI	Weight of Female Inflorescences (g)	40.06 ± 14.39	37.75 ± 18.83	7.43E-01	69.53 ± 11.20	76.06 ± 25.04	4.56E-02	40.06 ± 14.39	69.53 ± 11.20	7.00E-05***	37.75 ± 18.83	76.06 ± 25.04	1.13E-03**
NBR	Number of Brace Roots	12.90 ± 4.33	16.30 ± 4.99	1.60E-01	10.60 ± 6.29	9.50 ± 6.79	6.82E-01	12.90 ± 4.33	10.60 ± 6.29	3.54E-01	16.30 ± 4.99	9.50 ± 6.79	2.00E-02*
LBR	Length of Brace Roots (cm)	16.15 ± 9.75	4.00 ± 2.04	1.00E-03***	15.75 ± 14.03	2.67 ± 2.01	4.00E-03**	16.15 ± 9.75	15.75 ± 14.03	9.42E-01	4.00 ± 2.04	2.67 ± 2.01	1.59E-01
NCR	Number of Crown Roots	11.30 ± 2.11	7.60 ± 0.97	1.00E-03***	12.10 ± 2.42	9.00 ± 2.58	1.00E-02**	11.30 ± 2.11	12.10 ± 2.42	4.42E-01	7.60 ± 0.97	9.00 ± 2.58	1.26E-01
LCR	Length of Crown Roots (cm)	58.90 ± 21.87	48.85 ± 11.80	2.02E-01	50.50 ± 1344	44.40 ± 20.75	3.92E-01	58.90 ± 21.87	50.50 ± 1344	3.14E-01	48.85 ± 11.80	44.40 ± 20.75	5.63E-01
NNR	Number of Nodal Roots	10.50 ± 2.27	6.70 ± 2.79	4.00E-03**	8.50 ± 2.42	8.00 ± 1.56	6.03E-01	10.50 ± 2.27	8.50 ± 2.42	7.26E-02	6.70 ± 2.79	8.00 ± 1.56	2.15E-01
LNR	Length of Nodal Roots (cm)	87.20 ± 16.80	55.30 ± 21.10	1.00E-03***	50.90 ± 12.83	53.90 ± 31.59	7.51E-01	87.20 ± 16.80	50.90 ± 12.83	4.00E-05***	55.30 ± 21.10	53.90 ± 31.59	9.09E-01
NSR	Number of Seminal Roots	4.10 ± 1.45	6.60 ± 1.35	1.00E-03***	7.30 ± 1.16	8.20 ± 1.62	1.23E-01	4.10 ± 1.45	7.30 ± 1.16	4.00E-05***	6.60 ± 1.35	8.20 ± 1.62	2.74E-02*
LSR	Length of Seminal Roots (cm)	27.70 ± 13.38	43.50 ± 14.01	1.00E-02**	21.33 ± 10.31	53.90 ± 20.85	1.00E-03***	27.70 ± 13.38	21.33 ± 10.31	2.48E-01	43.50 ± 14.01	53.90 ± 20.85	2.07E-01

Aerial traits (NL–WFI); *Roots traits* (NBR–LSR)

* P<0.05; ** P<0.01; *** P<0.001.

Table 2. Estimation of phenotypic traits in teosinte *parviglumis* grown in absence and presence of heavy metal stress.

| | | | T. *parviglumis* | | |
| | | | Cu/Cd (-) | Cu/Cd (+) | |
		Description	Mean ± SD	Mean ± SD	P value
Aerial traits	LIL	Length of Immature Leaf (cm)	71.30 ± 11.92	56.25 ± 7.80	5.70E-02
	SB	Stem Branches	5.30 ± 1.83	0.60 ± 0.84	2.00E-04***
	DWAP	Dry Weight of Aerial Part (g)	133.49 ± 28.28	82.72 ± 11.67	7.43E-01
	NFI	Number of Female Inflorescences	1.80 ± 0.63	3.90 ± 166	6.70E-02
	LFI	Length of Female Inflorescences (cm)	15.40 ± 1.35	12.50 ± 2.12	6.50E-02
Roots traits	NBR	Number of Brace Roots	10.60 ± 6.13	11.60 ± 4.55	1.21E-01
	LBR	Length of Brace Roots (cm)	20.00 ± 11.49	2.88 ± 0.66	4.50E-03**
	NCR	Number of Crown Roots	12.80 ± 4.34	9.60 ± 1.43	2.00E-04***
	LCR	Length of Crown Roots (cm)	60.70 ± 16.95	62.80 ± 14.10	2.22E-01
	NNR	Number of Nodal Roots	16.20 ± 4.69	14.00 ± 3.20	3.90E-03**
	LNR	Length of Nodal Roots (cm)	83.00 ± 15.76	104.00 ± 8.46	1.60E-03***

** P<0.01; *** P<0.001.

1
2 **<u>Appendix</u>**
3
4 **Article title**: The influence of heavy metal stress on the evolutionary transition of
5 teosinte to maize
6
7 **Authors**: Jonathan Acosta-Bayona, Miguel Vallebueno-Estrada, and and Jean-Philippe
8 Vielle-Calzada
9

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culm: diameter of culm
dtp: days to pollen shed
eard: ear diameter
earl: ear length
kpr: kernels per rank
krn: kernel row number
lblh: primary lateral branch legth
plht: plant height
prol: prolificacy, ears on lateral branch
splh: spikelet length
stam: % of staminate spikelets
tbn: tassel branch number
till: tillering index

Figure S2. Comparison of chromosome 5 nucleotide variability between maize landraces and teosinte *parviglumis*. Violin plots represent all neutral regions comprised chromosome 5 (blue), domestication genes previously reported in chromosome 5 (Hufford et al., 2012; green), the three candidate genes in this study (white), and their six neighboring genes (red). ANOVA-Tukey tests are represented by letters.

Figure S3. Large scale transcriptional comparison of HM response genes across six maize experiments based on fold change >1 and false discovery rate (FDR) < 0.05. Black dots mark the column of individual transcriptomes, and vertical black lines mark pairwise comparisons between two different transcriptomes included in the histogram. The red vertical red line indicates the column corresponding to common HM response genes included in all six transcriptomes.

Figure S4. Expression of *ZmHMA1* in wild-type and homozygous *zmhma1* maize individuals. A fragment of *ZmHMA1* was the target of RT-PCR amplification in fourteen W22 wild-type and fourteen *zmhma1* homozygous individuals. *ZmCDK* was used as a positive control in Wild-type individual number 1. A reaction without cDNA addition was used as a negative control. Corresponding primers are presented in Table S7.

Figure S5. Distribution of soils of volcanic origin (andosols; pink) in geographic regions of teosinte *parviglumis* populations most closely related to extant maize. Andosols are illustrated in pink, teosinte *parviglumis* accesssions represented in Fig. 5a are marked by black asterisks. The Nevado de Toluca and Popocatéptl craters are maked by a red and brown circle, respectively. Adapted from Mapas de INEGI, Edafología (2025). *https://www.inegi.org.mx/temas/edafologia/*

Figure S6. Model illustrating the influence of heavy metal stress on the evolutionary transition of teosinte *parviglumis* to maize.

Table S1 Additional estimation of phenotypic traits in teosinte *parviglumis* grown in absence or presence of heavy metal stress.

		Description	Cu/Cd(-)		Cu/Cd(+)		
			Mean	**SD**	**Mean**	**SD**	**P Value**
Aerial traits	NL	Number of Leaves	11.00	2.21	11.40	1.71	0.0360[*]
	LML	Length of Mature Leaf	84.50	4.74	81.30	8.33	0.1662
	WML	Width of Mature Leaf	5.45	0.50	6.00	1.25	0.4685
	WIL	Width of Immature Leaf	7.10	1.02	6.90	0.61	0.0650
	NN	Number of Nodes	9.30	0.95	9.80	1.55	0.0770
	HEI	Height	127.30	27.33	134.56	18.51	0.2648
	SD	Stem Diameter	2.94	0.66	3.12	0.46	0.0130[**]
	FWAP	Fresh Weight of Aerial Part	667.04	141.02	358.94	49.84	0.7397
	NSB	Number of Spike Branches	22.10	4.75	24.70	4.90	0.1323
	LLBS	Length of Longest Branch in Spike	21.25	4.57	20.80	5.95	0.3917
Root traits	TRL	Total Root Length	105.10	7.10	94.34	44.47	0.3021
	FWR	Fresh Weight of Complete Root System	244.60	101.99	225.70	40.05	0.0892
	DWR	Dry Weight of Complete Root System	34.21	14.29	31.84	3.57	0.0892

* P<0.05; ** P<0.01.

Table S2 Additional estimation of phenotypic traits in wild-type and *zmhma1* maize grown in absence or presence of heavy metal stress.

| | | | Cu/Cd(-) | | | | | Cu/Cd(+) | | | | |
| | | W22 | | *zmhma1* | | | W22 | | *zmhma1* | | |
	Description	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	P value	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	P value
Aerial traits NN	Number of Nodes	11.00	2.36	10.50	1.35	0.56800	9.10	2.18	10.10	1.52	0.25038
FWAP	Fresh Weight of Aerial Part	242.56	105.73	218.93	73.36	0.56867	226.39	108.55	318.78	145.03	0.12420
LLBS	Length of Longest Branch in Spike	21.60	1.66	17.85	4.59	0.02596[*]	20.45	3.74	15.75	6.99	0.07720
LFI	Length of Female Inflorescences	24.20	2.97	24.10	3.38	0.94479	21.50	3.17	25.50	4.60	0.03618[*]
Root traits TRL	Total Root Length	91.90	17.12	72.29	9.51	0.00535[**]	83.98	16.19	82.33	17.27	0.82821
FWR	Fresh Weight of Complete Root System	162.20	76.45	78.76	26.24	0.00431[**]	104.14	47.28	79.85	31.95	0.19497
DWR	Dry Weight of Complete Root System	6.81	3.21	5.51	1.84	0.28136	4.37	1.98	5.59	2.24	0.21342

P<0.05; ** P<0.01

Table S3 Full comparison of phenotypic values for wild-type W22, *zmhma1*, and teosinte *parviglumis* individuals grown under absence or presence of heavy metal stress.

| | | W22 | | | | *zmhma1* | | | | Teosinte *parviglumis* | | | |
| | | Cu/Cd(-) | | Cu/Cd(+) | | Cu/Cd(-) | | Cu/Cd(+) | | Cu/Cd(-) | | Cu/Cd(+) | |
	Description	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
NL	Number of Leaves	13.40	0.84	12.00	1.70	11.40	0.84	11.10	0.74	11.00	2.21	11.40	1.71
LML	Length of Mature Leaf	77.40	6.64	72.35	8.81	69.85	9.18	63.85	7.31	84.50	4.74	81.30	8.33
WML	Width of Mature Leaf	6.75	1.30	7.20	1.42	9.75	1.40	9.95	0.86	5.45	0.50	6.00	1.25
LIL	Length of Immature Leaf	59.50	6.10	51.90	9.97	48.25	6.88	45.35	9.43	71.30	11.92	56.25	7.80
WIL	Width of Immature Leaf	7.45	0.80	6.60	1.10	9.25	0.72	8.85	0.85	7.10	1.02	6.90	0.61
NN	Number of Nodes	11.00	2.36	9.10	2.18	10.50	1.35	10.10	1.52	9.30	0.95	9.80	1.55
HEI	Height	99.60	32.61	82.20	34.94	103.15	10.76	125.90	18.81	127.30	27.33	134.56	18.51
SD	Stem Diameter	3.24	0.52	2.60	0.53	3.02	0.51	2.86	0.59	2.94	0.66	3.12	0.46
SB	Stem Branches	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	5.30	1.83	0.60	0.84
FWAP	Fresh Weight of Aerial Part	242.56	105.73	226.39	108.55	218.93	73.36	318.78	145.03	667.04	141.02	358.94	49.84
DWAP	Dry Weight of Aerial Part	18.43	8.04	17.22	8.26	28.46	9.54	41.44	18.85	133.49	28.28	82.72	11.67
NSB	Number of Spike Branches	9.00	1.63	7.20	3.16	13.40	2.32	13.60	1.96	22.10	4.75	24.70	4.90
LLBS	Length of Longest Branch in Spike	21.60	1.66	20.45	3.74	17.85	4.59	15.75	6.99	21.25	4.57	20.80	5.95
NFI	Number of Female Inflorescences	1.20	0.42	0.70	0.67	1.90	0.32	1.60	0.52	1.80	0.63	3.90	1.66
LFI	Length of Female Inflorescences	24.20	2.97	21.50	3.17	24.10	3.38	25.50	4.60	15.40	1.35	12.50	2.12
WFI	Weight of Female Inflorescences	40.06	14.39	37.75	18.83	69.53	11.20	76.06	25.04	1.29	0.74	1.29	0.56
NBR	Number of Brace Roots	12.90	4.33	16.30	4.99	10.60	6.29	9.50	6.79	10.60	6.13	11.60	4.55
LBR	Length of Brace Roots	16.15	9.75	4.00	2.04	15.75	14.03	2.67	2.01	20.00	11.49	2.88	0.66
NCR	Number of Crown Roots	11.30	2.11	7.60	0.97	12.10	2.42	9.00	2.58	12.80	4.34	9.60	1.43
LCR	Length of Crown Roots	58.90	21.87	48.85	11.80	50.50	13.44	44.40	20.75	60.70	16.95	62.80	14.10
NNR	Number of Nodal Roots	10.50	2.27	6.70	2.79	8.50	2.42	8.00	1.56	16.20	4.69	14.00	3.20
LNR	Length of Nodal Roots	87.20	16.80	55.30	21.10	50.90	12.83	53.90	31.59	83.00	15.76	104.00	8.46
NSR	Number of Seminal Roots	4.10	1.45	6.60	1.35	7.30	1.16	8.20	1.62	ND	ND	ND	ND
LSR	Length of Seminal Roots	27.70	13.38	43.50	14.01	21.33	10.31	53.90	20.85	ND	ND	ND	ND
TRL	Total Root Length	91.90	17.12	83.98	16.19	72.29	9.51	82.33	17.27	105.10	7.10	94.34	44.47
FWR	Fresh Weight of Complete Root System	162.20	76.45	104.14	47.28	78.76	26.24	79.85	31.95	244.60	101.99	225.70	40.05
DWR	Dry Weight of Complete Root System	6.81	3.21	4.37	1.98	5.51	1.84	5.59	2.24	34.21	14.29	31.84	3.57

Aerial traits (NL–WFI); Root traits (NBR–DWR)

Table S4 Nucleotide variability across the *ZmSKUS5, ZmHMA*1 and *ZmHMA7* locus; and their upstream and downstream neighboring genes in maize landraces, maize improved lines, and teosinte *parviglumi*s accessions included in HapMap3.

Gene ID	GeneLength(Kp)	DistanceOfGene(Kp)	Upstream(30Kb)			Coding Region			Downstream(30Kb)		
			π(Maize)	π(Teosinte)	**πM/πT**	π(Maize)	π(Teosinte)	**πM/πT**	π(Maize)	π(Teosinte)	**πM/πT**
GRMZM2G375607[a]	0.17	37.3	0.00105	0.000675	1.5556	0.037894	0.0304718	1.2436	0.00041	0.00064	0.6406
GRMZM2G076985[b]	4.17	-	0.011884529	0.017749593	0.669566282	0.000437979	0.007541557	0.058075436	0.002030405	0.006264344	0.324120984
GRMZM2G014508[c]	22.8	97.2	0.00844561	0.005282053	1.598925645	0.037149063	0.011257665	3.299890491	0.002433718	0.017648094	0.13790262
GRMZM2G367857[d]	8.72	25.7	0.005243813	0.006394847	0.820006014	0.008991137	0.011367691	0.790937843	0.002425106	0.006884682	0.352246578
GRMZM2G067853[e]	21.6	-	0.01329488	0.01772011	0.750270738	0.005748	0.0010578	5.433919455	0.00096874	0.0024874	0.389458873
GRMZM2G067883[f]	0.78	24.9	0.005048118	0.007825611	0.645076531	0.00119172	0.000102418	11.63584526	0.003030221	0.00681471	0.444658834
GRMZM2G374375[g]	1.84	228.6	0.0007481	0.000974	0.768069815	0.00974	0.01495	0.651505017	0.00054	0.00948	0.056962025
GRMZM2G029951[h]	4.5	-	0.000678	0.010784	0.06287092	0.00015	0.00148	0.101351351	0.00066	0.00454	0.145374449
GRMZM2G701784[i]	0.54	56	0.0005974	0.009748	0.061284366	0.00074	0.01784	0.041479821	0.00017	0.00009	1.888888889
GRMZM2G067919[j]	2.4	-	0.00611	0.00809	0.755253399	0.01035	0.01058	0.97826087	0.01417	0.01254	1.129984051

[a]Uncharacterized gene; [b]*ZmSKUS5* (Multicopper oxidase); [c]*ZmDds_sub1* (Decaprenyl-diphosphate synthase subunit 1); [d]Uncharacterized gene; [e]*ZmHMA1;* [f]Uncharacterized gene; [g]*Zmpgl20* (Exopolygalacturonase-like); [h]*ZmHMA7*; [i]Uncharacterized gene; [j]*ZmGLB1* (Globulin1)

Table S5. Description of six transcriptomes reporting heavy metal response genes under different growing conditions and developmental stages.

	Experimental design	Analysis	DEGs[a] upregulated	DEGs[a] downregulated	Statistics	Reference
1	Mutant lines of ZmbZIP54-OE and zmbzip54 were compared with W22 as control. Plants in V2 were transferred to the modified Hoagland solution supplemented with 3 mM Pb(NO3)2 for 48 h	Root Transcriptome	437	180	Gene expression was calculated using FPKM. Genes that exhibited fold change ≥1 and false discovery rate (FDR) < 0.05 were considered differentially expressed.	Fengxia, H et al., 2025. Complex regulatory network of ZmbZIP54-mediated Pb tolerance in maize. *Plant Physiology and Biochemistry* 224:109945
2	Seven-day-old seedlings of the maize hybrid line Zhendan958 were grown in Petri dishes supplemented with 0.5- or 10-mM Cu for 1 week, seedlings without Cu were used as control	Root Transcriptome	362	257	Gene expression was calculated using FPKM and differential expression was estimated using DESeq2. Genes that exhibited fold change >2 and an adjusted p-value 0.05 were considered differentially expressed.	Zhang, M et al., 2024. Comparative transcriptome analysis of maize (*Zea mays* L.) seedlings in response to copper stress. *Open Life Sciences* 19(1): 20220953.
3	Maize inbred line BY001, in V2 stage were treated with modified Hoagland solution containing different Pb concentrations. The Pb(NO3)2 concentrations were 0 (control), 500, 1000, 2000 and 3000 mg/l for 48 h	Root Transcriptome	1356	577	Gene expression was calculated using FPKM and differential expression was estimated using DESeq2. Genes that exhibited fold change ≥1 and false discovery rate (FDR) < 0.05 were considered differentially expressed.	Zhang, X et al., 2024. Transcriptomics combined with physiology and metabolomics reveals the mechanism of tolerance to lead toxicity in maize seedlings. *Physiologia Plantarum* 176: e14547.
4	Maize plants of QS101 a Cr-sensitive cultivar of three weeks were transplanted to nutrient solution with 100 µM of K2Cr2O7 to induce Cr stress for seven days, plants without treatment were used as control	Root Transcriptome	3988	5156	Gene expression was calculated using FPKM and differential expression was estimated using Cuffinks software. Genes that exhibited fold change >1 and false discovery rate (FDR) < 0.05 were considered differentially expressed.	Yang, X et al., 2023. Melatonin alleviates chromium toxicity in maize by modulation of cell wall polysaccharides biosynthesis, glutathione metabolism, and antioxidant capacity. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* 24(4): 3816.

5	Seedlings of maize inbred line 9782, were randomly divided into two groups, CK–grown seedlings, grown only in half-strength Hoagland solution, Pb1000–grown in CK + Pb1000 (1000 mg L−1 Pb(NO3)2) for Pb stress for 12, 24 and 48 h	Root Transcriptome	195	189	Gene expression was calculated using FPKM and differential expression was performed using Cuffinks software. Genes that exhibited fold change >1 and false discovery rate (FDR) < 0.001 were considered differentially expressed.	Gao, J et al., 2015. The development dynamics of the maize root transcriptome responsive to heavy metal Pb pollution. *Bio.Biophysical Research Comm. 458(2): 287-293.*
6	Seedlings of maize inbred line 178, were randomly divided into two groups, one was transferred to a fresh control solution, and the other was transplanted into an identical solution but containing 3 mM Pb(NO3)2 for 24, 48 and 72 h	Root Transcriptome	2379	1832	A combination of FDR < 0.001 and the absolute value of log2 Ratio ≥ 1 were used as the threshold to determine the significance of gene expression difference, between compared libraries.	Shen, Y et al., 2012. Genome expression profile analysis reveals important transcripts in maize roots responding to the stress of heavy metal Pb. *Physiologia Plantarum* 147(3): 270-282.

[a] Differentially expressed genes

Table S6. Collection of primers used in this study.

Primer Name	Gene ID	Forward	Reverse
*ZmHMA1*_PCR/qPCR	GRMZM2G067853_T02	TGAACACTCCGACATGGTCC	GGTGTAGCTTGAGGGAGAGC
*ZmHMA7*_PCR/qPCR	GRMZM2G029951_T01	ATCTCCTGCGCTTCTTGTGC	CCTCTGGCCTGTACTGAACC
*ZmTb1*_qPCR	Zm00001eb054440	CCCATGGACTTACCGCTTTA	GGGAGCATGGGTAGCAGTAG
*ZmCDK*_PCR	Zm00001eb215750_T001	GGAAGGTATGCACAGGACAGAT	TTCAGCACAATCTTGGCAAAAC
*ZmCDK*_qPCR	Zm00001eb215750_T001	CCGTCATCGCCTCACGAAGAG	AGAGCCTGCCTTACGGAATTGG
ZmHMA1 genotyping	GRMZM2G067853_T02	GACGACACAAGCCAAAACAG	AGGGAGATGCAGCAGAGGT

Table S7. Maize landrace accessions used in the genetic diversity analysis of chr5.

1	BKN009
2	BKN010
3	BKN011
4	BKN014
5	BKN015
6	BKN016
7	BKN017
8	BKN018
9	BKN019
10	BKN020
11	BKN022
12	BKN023
13	BKN025
14	BKN026
15	BKN027
16	BKN029
17	BKN030
18	BKN031
19	BKN032
20	BKN033
21	BKN034
22	BKN035
23	BKN040

Table S8. Teosinte *parviglumis* accessions used in the genetic diversity analysis of chr5.

1	TIL01
2	TIL01-JD
3	TIL02
4	TIL03
5	TIL04-TIP285
6	TIL04-TIP454
7	TIL05
8	TIL06-TIP260
9	TIL06-TIP496
10	TIL07
11	TIL09
12	TIL10
13	TIL11
14	TIL12
15	TIL14-TIP498
16	TIL15
17	TIL16
18	TIL17