

1 **Title**

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3 The root proteomes of *Mimosa acutistipula* provide insights into the stress response mechanisms in plants grown in
4 native ecosystems and eastern Amazon's rehabilitating minelands.

5

6 **Authors**

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8 Sidney Vasconcelos do Nascimento^{1,2}, Héctor Herrera³, Paulo Henrique de Oliveira Costa², Felipe Costa Trindade²,
9 Isa Rebecca Chagas da Costa², Cecílio Frois Caldeira¹, Markus Gastauer¹, Silvio Junio Ramos¹, Guilherme
10 Oliveira¹, Rafael Borges da Silva Valadares^{1*}

11

12 **Affiliations**

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14 ¹ Instituto Tecnológico Vale, Rua Boaventura da Silva 955, Belém Cep 66050-090, PA, Brazil.

15 sidney.nascimento@pq.itv.org (S.V.d.N.); isarebeccacc@gmail.com (I.R.C.d.C.); (P.H.d.O.C.);

16 felipe_ct33@hotmail.com (F.C.T.); paulo.henrique.costa@pq.itv.org; cecilio.caldeira@itv.org (C.F.C.);

17 markus.gastauer@itv.org (M.G.); silvio.ramos@itv.org (S.J.R.); guilherme.oliveira@itv.org (G.O.)

18 ² Programa de Pos-Graduação em Genética e Biologia Molecular, Universidade Federal do Pará, Belém Cep 66075-
19 110, PA, Brazil

20 ³ Laboratorio de Silvicultura, Departamento de Ciencias Forestales, Facultad de Ciencias Agropecuarias y
21 Medioambiente, Universidad de La Frontera, Temuco 4811230, Chile. hector.herrera@ufrontera.cl (H.H.)

22 * Correspondence: rafael.borges.valadares@itv.org (R.B.d.S.V)

23

24 **Corresponding author**

25

26 Dr. Rafael Borges da Silva Valadares. email: rafael.borges.valadares@itv.org

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28

29 **Abstract**

30

31 *Mimosa acutistipula* is endemic to Brazil and grows in ferruginous outcrops (*canga*) in Serra dos Carajás, eastern
32 Amazon, where one of the largest iron ore deposits in the world is located. Plants that develop in these ecosystems
33 are subject to severe environmental conditions and must have adaptive mechanisms to grow and thrive in *cangas*.
34 *Mimosa acutistipula* is a native species used to restore biodiversity in post-mining areas in *canga*. Understanding the
35 molecular mechanisms involved in the adaptation of *M. acutistipula* in *canga* is essential to deduce the ability of
36 native species to adapt to possible stressors in rehabilitating minelands over time. In this study, the root proteomic
37 profiles of *M. acutistipula* grown in a native *canga* ecosystem and rehabilitating minelands were compared to
38 identify essential proteins involved in the adaptation of this species in its native environment and that should enable
39 its establishment in rehabilitating minelands. The results showed differentially abundant proteins, where 436
40 proteins with significant values ($p < 0.05$) and fold change ≥ 2 were more abundant in *canga* and 145 in roots from
41 the rehabilitating minelands. Among them, a representative amount and diversity of proteins were related to
42 responses to water deficit, heat, and responses to metal ions. Other identified proteins are involved in biocontrol
43 activity against phytopathogens and symbiosis. This research provides insights into proteins involved in *M.*
44 *acutistipula* responses to environmental stimuli, suggesting critical mechanisms to support the establishment of
45 native *canga* plants in rehabilitating minelands over time.

46

47 **Keywords**

48

49 Abiotic Stress; Amazon; *Canga*; Iron mining; Mineland Rehabilitation; Proteomics; Symbiosis

50

51 **1. Introduction**

52

53 Iron mining in the eastern Amazon occurs in one of the world's most significant biodiversity hotspots, where the
54 Carajás Mineral Province is located [1]. The iron ore deposits in the Carajás Mineral Province are found in
55 ferriferous savannas, known as *canga* [1,2]. *Canga* environments are considered severe due to high temperatures,
56 strong winds, and soils characterized by low availability of essential nutrients, especially phosphorus, acidic pH (pH

57 ~ 4), low water retention capacity, and high levels of heavy metals such as iron [2-4]. These factors impair plant
58 adaptations, providing a selection of plant species adapted to establish themselves in these environments [5].

59
60 Iron ore extraction occurs mainly in open-cast mines, transforming landscapes and altering soil's physical, chemical,
61 and biological properties [6-9]. Soils in open pits after mining are poor in nutrients and organic matter, showing
62 resistance to root penetration and plant growth to compaction and drying out [10,11]. These changes underline the
63 loss of specific ecological services, affecting the biodiversity and sustainability of native areas [12]. In this context,
64 mineland rehabilitation is necessary to reduce net biodiversity loss and reestablish the ecosystem characteristics
65 [13]. The steps that contribute to the recovery of areas impacted by iron mining include restoring the physical and
66 chemical properties of the soil, selecting native species, controlling invasive species, and monitoring the success of
67 rehabilitation [6,14-17]. Thus, screening native plants capable of adapting to these harsh environments represents a
68 fundamental step [2,3,18,19]. These species must have a facilitating role, ease of propagation, importance in the
69 composition of native *canga* communities, and ease growth in the rehabilitating minelands [10]. Such species
70 represent a potential for the revegetation of mined areas, contributing to the reduction of the loss of local
71 biodiversity and the recovery of ecosystem services [15].

72
73 Plants from the Fabaceae family have been described as one of the pioneer species to be used in rehabilitation
74 programs in the eastern Amazon [14,16,19,20]. Among them, *Mimosa acutiflora* var *ferrea* Barneby (Fabaceae)
75 has been classified as one of the native plants with high performance in rehabilitating minelands [14,16,17]. Nutrient
76 use efficiency and non-specific interactions with soil microorganisms have been revealed as principal mechanisms
77 underlying the establishment of this species in post-mining areas [16,21]. Modifications in plant metabolism are
78 common characteristics of plants growing in minelands [22,23]. However, little is known about the adaptive
79 molecular mechanisms developed by this species throughout its evolutionary history. Identifying these modifications
80 is essential to understanding the critical process underlining the adaptation of native plants to rehabilitating
81 minelands.

82
83 In recent years, proteomics has become a powerful tool for studying environmental processes, including abiotic
84 stress tolerance, plant diseases, phytohormone metabolism, and growth promotion [24-26]. Recent studies have

85 demonstrated that proteomics can be a valuable tool to explore the metabolisms of plants and microorganisms
86 growing in severe ecosystems, including their capabilities to improve ecosystem-related services in rehabilitating
87 minelands [20,27]. We hypothesized that *M. acutistipula* develops mechanisms of stress tolerance in the native
88 *canga*, which allow its establishment in rehabilitating minelands. Analyzing protein profiles makes it possible to
89 identify critical proteins involved in responses to environmental stresses. The adaptation capacities of these species
90 can be deduced in the face of potential stressors in rehabilitating minelands. Thus, this study aims to identify critical
91 proteins in the responses to environmental stresses in the roots of *M. acutistipula* grown in *canga*, which may
92 support the establishment of this species in rehabilitating minelands in the eastern Amazon.

93

94 **2. Materials and methods**

95

96 **2.1. Sampling**

97

98 Roots of *M. acutistipula* were sampled in a native shrub *canga* ($60^{\circ} 00' 41.0''$ S $50^{\circ} 17' 45.0''$ W) and in waste piles
99 of a rehabilitating mineland ($60^{\circ} 20' 32.0''$ S $50^{\circ} 07' 04.0''$ W) in Serra dos Carajás, Pará state, northern Brazil. The
100 rehabilitation program of the mining area started in 2014, where native seeds were dispersed with hydroseeding
101 containing NPK fertilization (04-14-08). Five grams of secondary roots (depth of 5 to 30 cm) from four individuals
102 were collected, kept in a cold phenol/SDS buffer, and transported to the laboratory for further processing.

103

104 **2.2. Protein isolation**

105

106 The roots of each plant were pooled and submitted to a standard protein extraction protocol from plant tissues,
107 according to Wang, *et al.* [28], with the modifications of Nascimento, *et al.* [29]. The roots of the four selected
108 plants (300 mg each) were macerated in liquid nitrogen using a mortar and a pestle. Then, 10 ml of a buffer
109 containing 1.5 M sucrose, 1.5 M Tris-Hydrochloride pH 8, 10 % sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), 100 mM
110 phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF), polyvinylpolypyrrolidone (PVPP), ultrapure water with the addition of 100
111 μ L of protease inhibitor (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) and 500 μ L of β -mercaptoethanol was added to each
112 sample. After that, the samples were sonicated five times for 30 seconds at room temperature. The extracts were

113 divided into ten microtubes, and 700 μ l of phenol was added per microtube. The samples were vortexed for 15
114 minutes and centrifuged for 8 minutes at 14000 rpm to allow the phenolic phase separation. Afterward, the phenolic
115 phase was transferred to a new microtube and repeated to eliminate any aqueous phase or SDS residue. About 1.3 ml
116 of 100 mM ammonium acetate was added to each microtube, and the proteins were precipitated for 24 h at -80 °C.
117 The samples were centrifuged at 14000 rpm for 8 min, and the supernatants were discarded. The precipitates were
118 transferred to new microtubes and washed with 80 % acetone four times. The last washing step was made with 70 %
119 ethanol, and the precipitates were dried at room temperature in a vacuum concentrator for 7 min. Finally, the
120 extracts were solubilized in 200 μ L of 0.2 % RapiGest (Waters, Milford, MA, USA) and stored for further analysis.

121

122 2.3. Protein identification and data analysis

123

124 Five micrograms of the peptides were analyzed in a NanoACQUITY UPLC ultra-performance liquid
125 chromatography (Waters, Milford, MA, USA)), configured for fractionation in two dimensions as reported in
126 Herrera, *et al.* [30] and five analytical replicates. The first dimension used a 5 μ m XBridge BEH130 C18 (300 μ m x
127 50 mm) and a Symmetry C18 5 μ m (180 μ m x 20 mm) trapping column at a flow rate of 2000 μ L min⁻¹. The second
128 dimension used a 1.7 μ m BEH130 C18 1.8 μ m (100 μ m x 100 mm) analytical column at a flow rate of 400 μ L
129 min⁻¹. The samples were separated into five fractions with a gradient of 10.8, 14.0, 16.7, 20.4, and 65.0 %
130 acetonitrile. The chromatograph was coupled to a NanoLock ESI-Q-ToF SYNAPT G2-S (Waters) mass
131 spectrometer. The acquisition ranged from 50 to 2000 Da, in MS^E mode (data-independent
132 analysis) at a scan rate of 0.5 s and an interscan delay of 0.1 s. For each sample, two replicates were obtained.
133 The data were processed using the Progenesis QI software (Waters) for identification and quantification, using the
134 Viridiplantae database from UniProt (UniProtKB/swiss-prot, uniprot.org). Protein identification was accepted if the
135 probability of identifying peptides was greater than 90 % and proteins with 95 %. The significance levels of the
136 differentially abundant proteins were determined by applying the ANOVA test (*p*-value < 0.05). To verify the
137 influences of the sets of differentially abundant proteins with *p*-value < 0.05 and Fold Change (FC) \geq 2 in the
138 samples, a principal component analysis (PCA) was performed using the R software v3.6.3 (R Core Team 2018;
139 <https://www.R-project.org>), with the packages FactoMineR, Factoshiny and Factoextra. Gene Ontology analyses of
140 differentially abundant proteins were performed using the OmicsBox v1.2.4 (bioBam) and Uniprot

141 (UniProtKB/swiss-prot, uniprot.org). Heatmaps of differentially abundant proteins were developed using R software
 142 v.3.6.3 (package pheatmap v.1.0.12, ggplot2 v.3.3.5, colorspace 2.0-2, and grid 4.0.4).

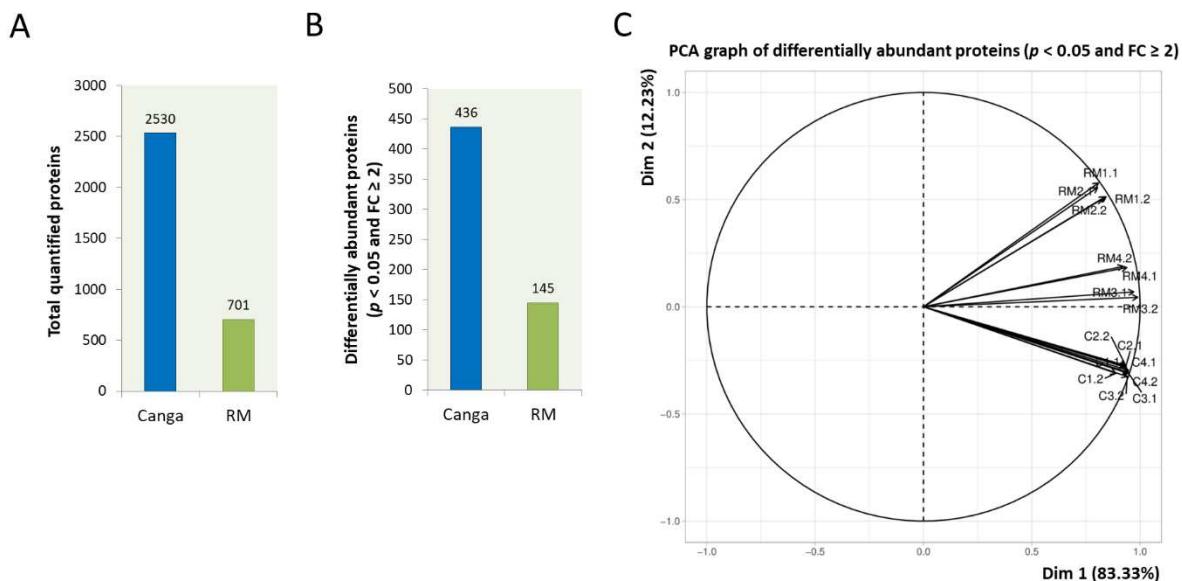
143

144 **3. Results**

145

146 A total of 3,231 proteins were identified and quantified in the roots of *M. acutistipula* from *canga* and rehabilitating
 147 minelands (Figure 1A; Dataset S1). Among them, 436 differentially abundant proteins were significant in plants
 148 from *canga* and 145 in plants from RM (Figure 1B; Dataset S1). All proteins with significant differential
 149 abundances were identified in samples from both environments. The PCA of the differentially abundant proteins
 150 showed the separation of samples from the different sampling sites (Figure 1C). The PCA result suggests that, even
 151 though these proteins were present in the samples from both sampling sites, the difference in abundance is
 152 influenced by the characteristics of the areas where the plants were sampled. *Canga* samples formed a closer group,
 153 while RM samples showed the greater distance from each other.

154



155

156 **Figure 1.** Differentially abundant proteins and PCA from the proteomes of *M. acutistipula* roots sampled in a rehabilitating mineland (RM) and a
 157 native shrub *canga*. A) Total quantified proteins in roots from each environment. B) Number of most abundant proteins in roots from each
 158 environment considering a *p*-value < 0.05 and Fold Change ≥ 2 . C) PCA of differentially abundant proteins with *p*-value < 0.05 and Fold change \geq
 159 2 comparing replicates of roots from RM (RM1.1, RM1.2, RM2.1, RM2.2, RM3.1, RM3.2, RM4.1, and RM4.2) and *canga* (C1.1, C1.2, C2.1,
 160 C2.2, C3.1, C3.2, C4.1, and C4.2). The proteins used for analysis are presented in Dataset S1.

161
162 The most abundant proteins identified in the roots from the RM were assigned to 48 categories. Proteins from *canga*
163 were related to 37 biological processes (Figure 2A), including proteins involved in responses to abiotic and biotic
164 stimuli. Despite identifying exclusive categories in RM plants, the proteins attributed to these processes were also
165 included in other terms common to plants from both environments. Therefore, they were not made up of exclusive
166 proteins in RM plants. Among the categories to which the proteins involved in responses to abiotic stimuli were
167 assigned, we highlight responses to water deprivation, salt stress, temperature (heat and cold), and to metal ions
168 (Figure 2B). Proteins involved in responses to biotic stimuli have been attributed, among others, to responses to
169 viruses, bacteria, and fungi, including biological processes involved in symbionts (Figure 2C).

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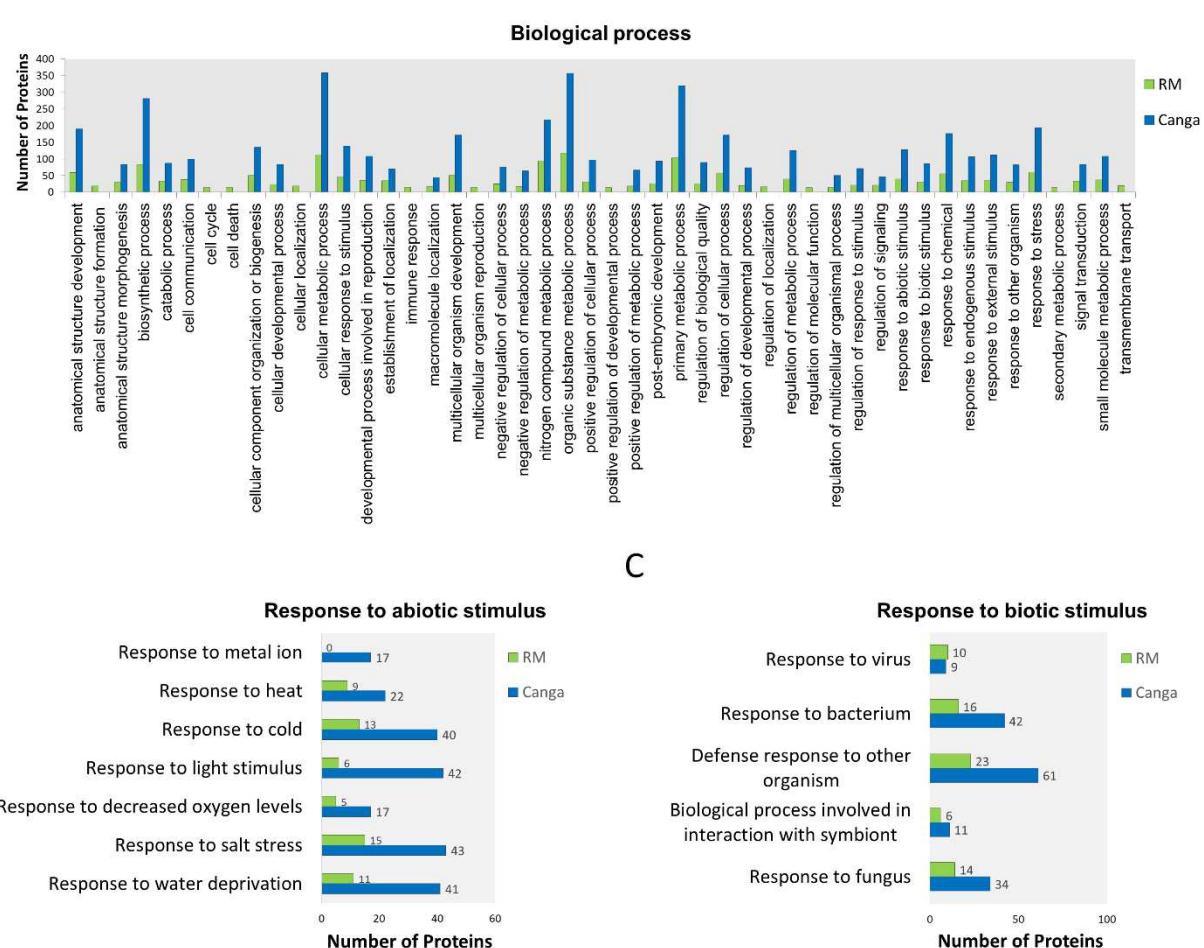


Figure 2. Gene Ontology (GO) annotation of differentially abundant proteins identified in *M. acutistipula* sampled from RM and *canga*. A) GO annotation showing the GO terms in the category of Biological Process of more abundant proteins in plants from RM or *canga*. B) Subgraph of the term Response to abiotic stimulus. C) Subgraph of the term Response to biotic stimulus.

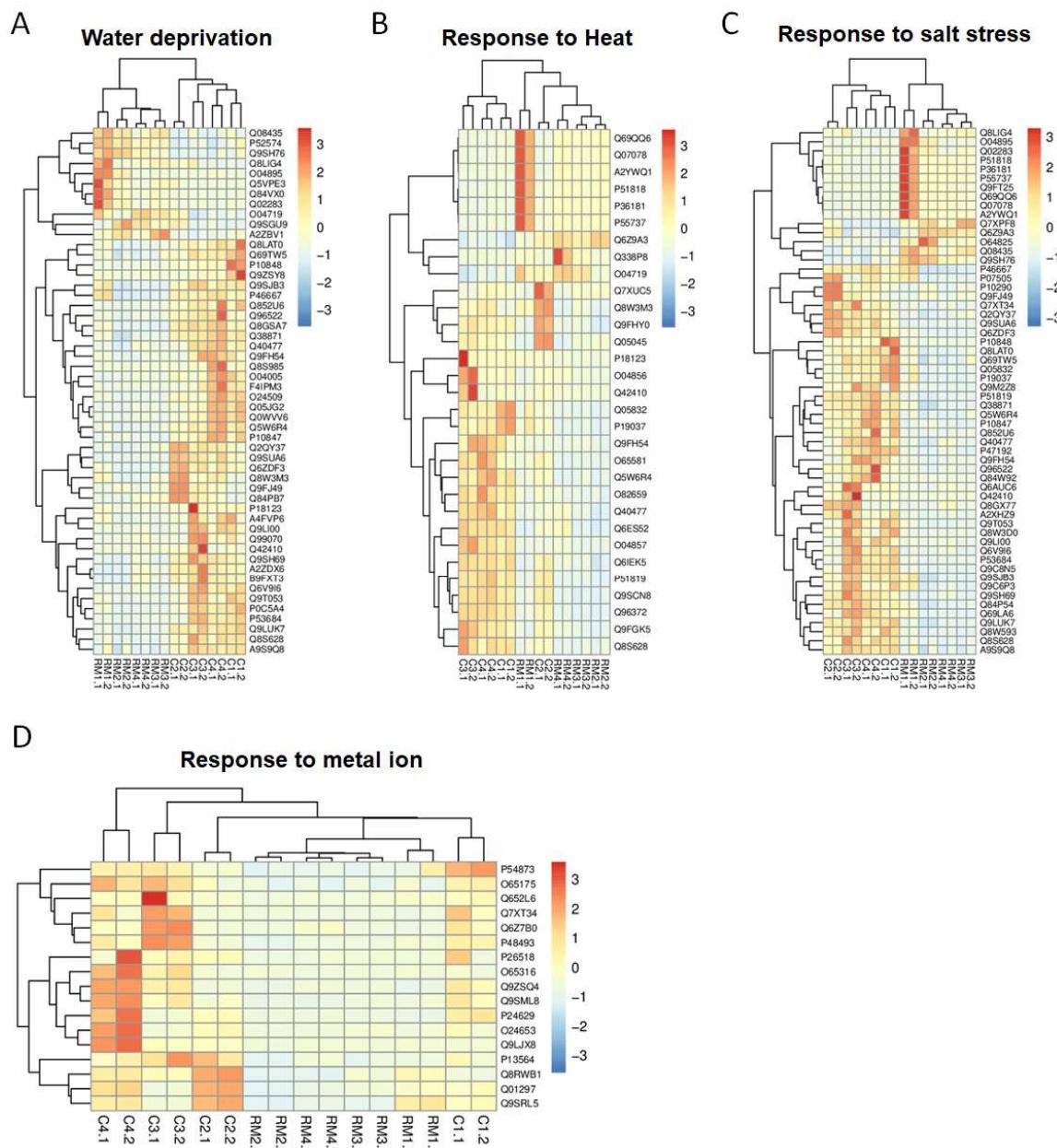
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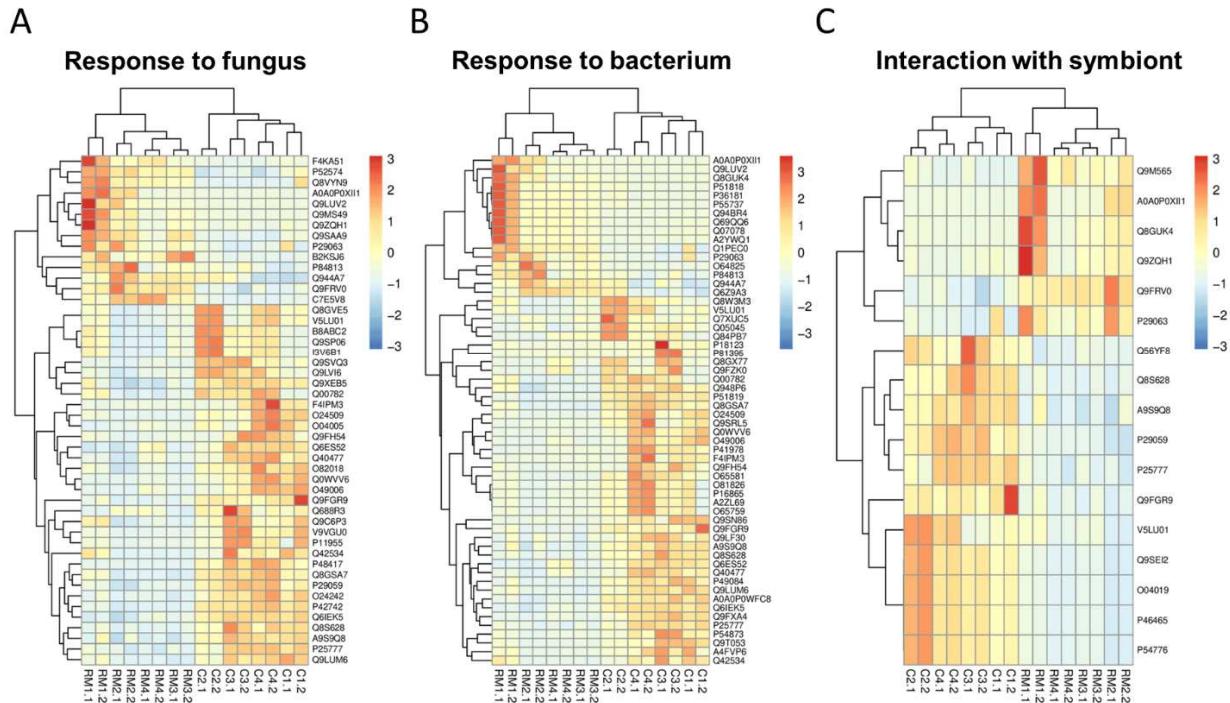
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176 Heatmaps were created with the proteins included in the most representative categories of response to abiotic (Figure 3)
 177 and biotic (Figure 4) stimuli, also considering the characteristics of the environments. The hierarchical groupings
 178 separated the most abundant proteins in the roots of *canga* or RM plants into two well-defined groups, according to the
 179 patterns of intensities of the proteins identified in each one (Vertical axis). Most replicates of RM and *canga* plants
 180 samples were also grouped separately by their similarity in protein intensity values (Horizontal axis).
 181



182
 183 **Figure 3.** Hierarchical clustering of differentially abundant proteins related to abiotic stimulus in *M. acutistipula* sampled from RM (RM1.1, RM1.2,
 184 RM2.1, RM2.2, RM3.1, RM3.2, RM4.1, and RM4.2) and *canga* (C1.1, C1.2, C2.1, C2.2, C3.1, C3.2, C4.1, and C4.2). A) Water deprivation. B)

185 Response to heat. C) Response to salt stress. D) Response to metal ion. The red and blue colors represent the highest and lowest intensity values,
 186 respectively. The accession numbers represent the proteins used for the analysis and can be viewed in Dataset S1.
 187



188
 189 **Figure 4.** Hierarchical clustering of differentially abundant proteins related to biotic stimulus in *M. acutistipula* sampled from RM (RM1.1, RM1.2,
 190 RM2.1, RM2.2, RM3.1, RM3.2, RM4.1, and RM4.2) and *canga* (C1.1, C1.2, C2.1, C2.2, C3.1, C3.2, C4.1, and C4.2). A) Response to fungus. B)
 191 Response to bacterium. C) Interaction with symbiont. The red and blue colors represent the highest and lowest intensity values, respectively. The
 192 accession numbers represent the proteins used for the analysis and can be viewed in Dataset S1.
 193

194 In the heatmaps of Figures 3 and 4, it can be seen, therefore, that the highlighted proteins related to responses to water
 195 deficit (Figure 3A), heat (Figure 3B), salt stress (Figure 3C), and metal ion, as well as those attributed to responses to
 196 fungus (Figure 4A), bacterium (Figure 4B) and symbionts (Figure 4C), were identified in plants from both
 197 environments, being more abundant in *canga* plants. Response to metal ion (Figure 3D) represents the only group in
 198 which all proteins showed higher levels in *canga* plants.
 199

200 **4. Discussion**
 201

202 PCAs from the proteomes of *M. acutistipula* suggested that the differential abundance of proteins was related to the
203 environments where the plants grew. *Canga* samples were more clustered, while distances between RM plant
204 samples indicate more significant heterogeneity of plants grown in these ecosystems. This same pattern was
205 observed in a study of the proteome of *Dioclea apurensis* from plants growing in rehabilitating minelands
206 (Nascimento et al., 2022). However, there is still no knowledge about other factors, such as the differences in the
207 genotypic variability of these populations between RM and *canga* plants, which are determinants in the observed
208 patterns.

209

210 The proteins identified provide new evidence at the molecular level about adaptive mechanisms in native species in
211 *canga* ecosystems. Differentially abundant proteins are highlighted here, especially those attributed to water deficit,
212 heat, response to metal ions, and associations with soil microorganisms. These proteins are the most representative,
213 especially in *canga* plants, indicating that this environment is severe. In addition to these proteins being involved in
214 the good development of this species in stressful environments, the results also suggest a relationship with the
215 effects of changes in the RM ecosystem, which interfere with the biological properties of the root system and the
216 average growth of plants. These traits are advantages that favor the establishment of these species in RM.

217

218 A recent study has characterized the protein profile and the symbiotic interactions that allow the growth of *Dioclea*
219 *apurensis* in post-mining areas, showing that proteins involved in the responses to abiotic stresses and associations
220 with soil microorganisms are at the core of the metabolic modifications evolved in *canga* [20]. The same study
221 observed that *D. apurensis* establishes non-specific interactions with soil microorganisms in *canga* and RM. Costa,
222 et al. [21] showed that *M. acutistipula* also establishes non-specific interactions with soil microorganisms, including
223 beneficial taxa such as nitrogen-fixing bacteria, mycorrhizal fungi, and other beneficial endophytes, both in *canga*
224 and in RM. Such characteristics seem to be conserved between the species *M. acutistipula* and *D. apurensis*, both
225 belonging to the Fabaceae family. Hence, molecular adaptations acquired in *canga* are transmitted to subsequent
226 generations allowing a favorable gene regulation for tolerance to stressful environments [31-33]. Therefore,
227 identifying these proteins in plants grown in RM can indicate the acquired adaptation of this species to stressful
228 situations over the years.

229

230 4.1. Proteins related to abiotic stimulus

231

232 It was identified a pool of enzymes related to water deprivation, temperature variations, salt stress, and response to
233 metal ions (Figures 2B and 3), which are considered limiting factors to which native species need to adapt for their
234 establishment in *canga* [3,16,19] or even in rehabilitating minelands [6-9]. These proteins were more abundant in
235 *canga*. Among them are transcription factors such as two sensitive to proton rhizotoxicity 1 (also known as STOP
236 1), a zinc finger protein that plays a critical role in stress tolerance [34] (Dataset S1). Additionally, were also
237 identified a high level of the dehydration-responsive element-binding protein 2 transcriptional activator (Dataset
238 S1). This family of transcription factors is known to confer tolerance to abiotic stresses such as salt, drought, and
239 heat [35]. Although the highest levels of transcription factors occur in *canga* plants, the presence of these molecules
240 in RM plants suggests the importance of the species' adaptation in both environments due to possible environmental
241 stresses.

242

243 Proteins involved in Ca^{2+} and abscisic acid (ABA) signaling are among the most representative of those attributed to
244 abiotic stresses. These results help to understand the importance of incorporating Ca^{2+} and ABA signaling pathways
245 for the adaptations of species such as *M. acutistipula* to stressful environments. These proteins were also identified
246 in plants grown in both environments, with higher levels in *canga* plants.

247

248 Calcium-dependent protein kinases (CPKs) act in stimulus-specific recognition of environmental stresses, being the
249 primary Ca^{2+} sensors that trigger responses to specific stimuli [36-38]. In our dataset, proteins involved in Ca^{2+} signaling
250 were the most plentiful ones (Dataset S1, Figure 3). CPK proteins participate in several abiotic stresses tolerance responses,
251 including regulation of ABFs subfamily bZIP transcription factors [39], regulation of aquaporins and hydraulic
252 conductivity of the roots [38,40], regulation of the abscisic acid-induced stomatal closure via S-type anionic channels
253 (SLAC1) [36], regulation of ABA-responsive transcriptional factors and ion channels [36,37], among others. Therefore, the
254 higher levels of CPKs are a standard mechanism in plants growing under abiotic stress conditions and contribute to the
255 establishment of *M. acutistipula* in the rehabilitating minelands by regulating several stress-responsive proteins.

256

257 Among the proteins involved in Ca^{2+} dependent signal decoding identified in this study are calmodulins (CaMs), CaM-like
258 proteins, Calcineurin-like proteins (CBLs), and CBL-interacting protein kinases (CIPKs) [41-43]. Studies have shown that
259 these proteins play an essential role in the biosynthesis and sensitivity of ABA in responses to osmotic stress [41,42]. These
260 results highlight the importance of Ca^{2+} and ABA signaling in the adaptation of *M. acutistipula* in *canga* and RM.

261

262 In our study, several proteins involved in the ABA pathway were identified, including ABA receptor pyrabactin resistance
263 (PYL12), ABC transporter G family member 51, abscisic acid 8'-hydroxylase 1, and protein phosphatase 2C (PP2C), which
264 were more abundant in *canga* plants (Dataset S1, Figure 3). In RM plants, the abscisic stress-ripening protein 5 and PP2C
265 77 were more abundant (Dataset S1, Figure 3). Under drought conditions, salt concentration increases, producing osmotic
266 stress on plant cells. In response, plants synthesize ABA triggering a signaling cascade to induce stomatal closure and
267 reduce water loss [44-46]. The main ABA signaling pathway includes key regulators of osmotic stress and ABA responses,
268 including ABA receptor (PYR1/PYLs), PP2C, as well as SNF1-related protein kinase 2 (SnRK2) family proteins [47,48].
269 Similarly, ABC transporter G family member 51 is a member of the ATP-binding cassette (ABC) family associated with
270 ABA transport in response to water deficit [45,49].

271

272 PP2C proteins mediate the ABA signaling pathway by negative feedback, dephosphorylating SnRK2s, preventing the
273 phosphorylation necessary to activate ABRE-binding transcription factors and the transcription of ABA-responsive genes.
274 PP2Cs also downregulate the activation of SLAC1, a vital ion channel in guard cells that regulates stomatal closure and
275 controls water loss and CO_2 supply under stress [50]. These proteins are essential for the stomatal opening and closing in
276 response to environmental stresses [36,49], contributing to greater tolerance of plants to drought events reported mainly in
277 *canga*. Furthermore, one of the primary catabolic pathways for controlling ABA content is triggered by the abscisic acid 8'-
278 hydroxylase [51], which also was identified in this study (Dataset S1, Figure 3).

279

280 *Canga* plants also showed higher levels of dehydrin RAB16C (Dataset S1, Figure 3). Dehydrins are included in a group of
281 late embryogenesis-abundant proteins involved in growth, development, and stress responses [32]. This protein was
282 assigned to drought (Figure 3), agreeing with studies indicating that dehydrin genes are induced by dehydration stress in
283 plants [32,52]. Other studies also point to the increased dehydrins in the salt stress response and osmotic change [32].
284 Additionally, the dehydrin network involves the ABA signal transduction pathways, including PYLs, PP2Cs, SnRKs, and

285 BZIPs, and the Ca^{2+} signal transduction pathways, including the CaMs, CDPKs, CBLs, and CMLs [32]. This result
286 suggests dehydrin as a critical protein in adapting *M. acutistipula* to drought events.

287
288 Ethylene response factors (ERFs) showed higher levels in *canga* plants. ERF4 and ERF114 were also assigned to drought
289 and salt stress in *M. acutistipula*, while RAP2-9 was assigned to heat. This group of proteins regulates genes involved in
290 biological processes such as growth, development, and responses to environmental stresses [53]. In addition, a subset of
291 ERFs recognizes the dehydration-responsive element with a conserved sequence in stress-responsive genes to regulate
292 responses to these stresses [35,53]. In agreement with these studies, a dehydration-responsive element-binding protein 2B
293 was also identified with higher levels in *canga* plants (Dataset S1, Figure 3).

294
295 Ethylene has an antagonistic interaction with ABA in response to abiotic stresses, including drought, heat, and high salinity
296 [53]. This interaction is essential in regulating stomatal movement for balance during osmotic stress [53]. Ethylene and
297 ABA also interact with auxin in different tissues and stages of plant development and response to environmental stresses
298 [53,54]. In this study, the proteins auxin response factor 15 and auxin-responsive protein IAA27 were identified, showing
299 higher levels in *canga* plants (Dataset S1, Figure 3). These proteins are involved in auxin signaling pathways and are
300 attributed to positive responses to environmental stresses such as drought [55,56], agreeing with what was shown by the
301 GO analyses (Figure 2B, Figure 3).

302
303 Iron and other metal residues available in substrates can cause damage to plants established in *canga* or rehabilitating
304 minelands [10,11,57,58]. One of the principal causes of excess metal toxicity is the displacement of essential metals in key
305 biomolecules [59]. To survive in these environments, plants need to develop strategies to prevent root uptake and reduce
306 long-distance transport of metal ions [60,61], suggesting that these are the main causes of all highlighted proteins with
307 functions attributed to metal ion response that were more abundant in *canga* plants (Figure 3). Among them are heavy
308 metal-associated isoprenylated plant protein 21 (HIPP) and ferritin 2 (FER), chloroplast. HIPPs and FER are among the
309 most studied proteins for their roles in the homeostasis and detoxification of heavy metals in plants. HIPPs belong to a
310 metal-binding metallochaperone group characterized by a heavy metal-associated domain and a C-terminal isoprenylation
311 motif [62]. HIPPs are involved in tolerance to biotic stresses, such as defense against pathogen attack, and abiotic stresses,
312 such as salt stress and water deficit [63]. However, efforts to characterize its functionalities mainly focus on its role in the

313 homeostasis and detoxification of plants stressed by heavy metals [63,64]. They are found only in vascular plants, acting as
314 critical proteins to safely transport metal ions within the cell to avoid harmful reactions [62,63,65]. Regarding FER, it
315 represents one of the main proteins involved in free iron homeostasis in plants by carrying out the cytoplasmic
316 sequestration of high amounts of soluble iron [66,67], transporting and accumulating excess iron safe and bioavailable in
317 vacuoles, reducing the adverse effects of this metal in the intracellular environment.

318

319 4.2. Proteins related to biotic stimulus

320

321 Several proteins related to interaction with microorganisms showed higher levels in *canga* plants. On the other hand, these
322 proteins were also identified in the roots of *M. acutistipula* from RM (Figure 2C). Among them, critical proteins with a
323 reported role in biocontrol activity against phytopathogenic species, including endochitinases [68], farnesene synthase [69],
324 pectinesterase inhibitor [70], heat shock proteins [71], and chitin elicitor receptor [72] (Dataset S1, Figure 3B). This is
325 directly related to microbial diversity in rehabilitating areas after mining [21], modifying the microbes interacting with the
326 plant roots, many of which can have a pathogenic lifestyle. This study also detected several proteins that have roles in
327 establishing symbiosis (Figure 4). This group of proteins includes LysM receptor kinases [73], chitin receptor kinases [74],
328 heat shock proteins [75], and subtilisin-like proteases [76]. The accumulation of these proteins underlines active symbiosis,
329 which can support the establishment of *M. acutistipula* in RM. The symbiosis with beneficial microbial taxa has been
330 described as essential to improving plant establishment in post-mining areas [21,77,78]. Symbiosis with arbuscular
331 mycorrhizal fungi and nitrogen-fixing bacteria are the most crucial studied in microbial-assisted phytoremediation in
332 metalliferous soils such as Amazonian *cangas* [79,80]. Therefore, the accumulation of proteins involved in response to the
333 infection of microorganisms and the ones involved in symbiosis is an additional mechanism that characterizes the growth
334 of *M. acutistipula* in the RM.

335

336 **5. Conclusion**

337

338 The root proteomic profiles showed that *M. acutistipula* growing in native *canga* has a set of proteins to cope with
339 abiotic stresses such as drought, heat, and high salinity. Similarly, the expression of proteins involved in biocontrol
340 activity and symbiosis suggests that these mechanisms are also critical to supporting the establishment of *M.*

341 *acutistipula* in *canga* and make it possible for this species to withstand challenging conditions that occur in
342 rehabilitating minelands over time. Therefore, the molecular adaptations acquired in the severe *canga* ecosystem
343 explain why *M. acutistipula* is one of the most promising native species used in minelands rehabilitation programs
344 in the eastern Amazon. Further studies must evaluate the presence of specific molecular traits that can help to
345 understand the survival of native species established in mined areas and used in minelands rehabilitation programs.

346

347 **Supplementary materials:** Supplementary Dataset 1. Protein report of *Mimosa acutistipula* in *canga* and RM
348 plants.

349

350 **Author Contributions:** Conceptualization, S.V.d.N., and R.B.d.S.V.; methodology, S.V.d.N., P.H.d.O.C., and
351 R.B.d.S.V.; validation, S.V.d.N., R.B.d.S.V., and G.O.; formal analysis, S.V.d.N., P.H.d.O.C., C.F.C., H.H., M.G.
352 and R.B.d.S.V.; resources, G.O. and R.B.d.S.V.; data curation, S.V.d.N.; writing—original draft preparation,
353 S.V.d.N.; writing—review and editing, S.V.d.N., C.F.C., R.B.d.S.V., H.H., M.G., S.V.d.N., S.J.R. and G.O.;
354 supervision, R.B.d.S.V., and G.O.; funding acquisition, G.O. All authors have read and agreed to the published
355 version of the manuscript.

356

357 **Funding:** This research was funded by Vale S.A., project "Canga Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services". G.O. is a
358 CNPq fellow and received funding from CAPES (88887.130628/2016-00), CNPq (444227/2018-0, 402756/2018-5,
359 and 307479/2016-1), and the CABANA project (RCUK (BB/P027849/1))

360

361 **Institutional Review Board Statement:** Not applicable.

362

363 **Informed Consent Statement:** Not applicable.

364

365 **Data Availability Statement:** All data are included in the article and supplementary material.

366

367 **Acknowledgments:** Hector Herrera is thankful for the financial support of the Fondo Nacional de Desarrollo
368 Científico y Tecnológico, grant number 3200134.

369

370 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest. The funders had no role in the study's design, in
371 the collection, analyses, or interpretation of data, in the writing of the manuscript, or in the decision to publish the
372 results.

373

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