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Abstract: The herbicide glyphosate reduces plant growth and causes plant death by inhibiting the biosynthesis of aromatic amino acids. The objective of this work was to determine whether glyphosate-treated plants show a carbon metabolism pattern comparable to that of plants treated with herbicides that inhibit branched-chain amino acid biosynthesis. Glyphosate-treated plants showed impaired carbon metabolism with an accumulation of carbohydrates in the leaves and roots. The growth inhibition detected after glyphosate treatment suggested impaired metabolism that impedes the utilization of available carbohydrates or energy at the expected rate. These effects were common to both types of amino acid biosynthesis inhibitors. Under aerobic conditions, ethanolic fermentative metabolism was enhanced in the roots of glyphosate-treated plants. This fermentative response was not related to changes in the respiratory rate or to a limitation of the energy charge. This response, which was similar for both types of herbicides, might be considered a general response to stress conditions.

Running title: Physiological effects of glyphosate

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Impairment of carbon metabolism induced by the herbicide glyphosate

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Summary

1 The herbicide glyphosate reduces plant growth and causes plant death by inhibiting the
2 biosynthesis of aromatic amino acids. The objective of this work was to determine whether
3 glyphosate-treated plants show a carbon metabolism pattern comparable to that of plants treated
4 with herbicides that inhibit branched-chain amino acid biosynthesis. Glyphosate-treated plants
5 showed impaired carbon metabolism with an accumulation of carbohydrates in the leaves and
6 roots. The growth inhibition detected after glyphosate treatment suggested impaired metabolism
7 that impedes the utilization of available carbohydrates or energy at the expected rate. These
8 effects were common to both types of amino acid biosynthesis inhibitors. Under aerobic conditions,
9 ethanolic fermentative metabolism was enhanced in the roots of glyphosate-treated plants. This
10 fermentative response was not related to changes in the respiratory rate or to a limitation of the
11 energy charge. This response, which was similar for both types of herbicides, might be considered
12 a general response to stress conditions.
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32 *Keywords:* glyphosate; herbicide, carbohydrates, fermentation, herbicide action.
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37 *Abbreviations:* ADH, alcohol dehydrogenase; AEC, adenylate energy charge; ALS, acetolactate
38 synthase; EPSPS, 5-enolpyruvylshikimate-3-phosphate synthase, PDC, pyruvate decarboxylase;
39 RC, redox charge.
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Introduction

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2 Glyphosate (*N*-(phosphonomethyl) glycine) is a wide-spectrum, non-selective
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4 postemergence herbicide that is currently the most popular herbicide; since its commercial
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6 introduction in 1974, glyphosate has become the dominant herbicide worldwide. Glyphosate
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8 inhibits the biosynthesis of aromatic amino acids, which takes place in chloroplasts via the
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10 shikimate pathway. Glyphosate specifically inhibits the activity of the enzyme 5-
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12 enolpyruvylshikimate-3-phosphate synthase (EPSPS; EC 2.5.1.19) (Steinrücken and Amrhein,
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14 1980) by acting as an analog of the second substrate, phospho *enol* pyruvate.
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18 Although the primary target site of this herbicide is widely known, it is not entirely clear how
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20 glyphosate-induced inhibition of the shikimate pathway actually kills plants. In contrast with contact
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22 herbicides, the phytotoxic symptoms of systemic glyphosate injury often develop slowly. Actual
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24 plant death can require several days or even weeks (Gruys and Sikorski, 1999). Nevertheless,
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26 specific biochemical effects can be observed much more rapidly (Foley et al., 1983). Among these
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28 effects is the accumulation of massive levels of shikimate in plant tissues because inhibition at the
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30 level of EPSPS deregulates the carbon flow through this pathway by decreasing feedback
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32 inhibition (Duke, 1988). Some authors have supported the view that this increased carbon flow
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34 results in shortages of carbon for other essential pathways (Siehl, 1997). In contrast, many authors
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36 assume that aromatic amino acid production at a level insufficient to maintain necessary protein
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38 synthesis is the main effect, and this mechanism is consistent with the slow development of
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40 symptoms (Duke and Powles, 2008). More recently, the effects of glyphosate have been studied
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42 using new molecular methods such as transcriptional comparison (Yu et al., 2007; Zhu et al., 2008;
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44 Das et al., 2010), proteomic approaches (Ahsan et al., 2008), and metabolomic profiling
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46 (Trenkamp et al., 2009) but the full picture of the sequence of metabolic disturbances after EPSPS
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48 inhibition is not yet clear.
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54 Inhibitors of acetolactate synthase (ALS, EC 4.1.3.18; also termed acetohydroxyacid
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56 synthase) are another class of herbicides that inhibit amino acid biosynthesis. ALS is the first
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58 enzyme in the biosynthesis of the three branched-chain amino acids (valine, leucine and
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60 isoleucine). These inhibitors have become one of the most important herbicide groups because of
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1 their wide-spectrum weed control activity, high crop selectivity, low application rates and low
2 mammalian toxicity (Zhou et al., 2007). More than 40 structurally different active ingredients have
3 ALS as their primary target.
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5 Although the primary effect of these herbicides is widely known, as it is for glyphosate, it is
6 not fully understood how plants actually die after the inhibition of ALS. Many important effects
7 following treatments with these herbicides have been described. Among them, ALS inhibitors have
8 been reported to alter the carbon metabolism of treated plants. Carbohydrates are accumulated in
9 the leaves of treated plants due to a decrease in sink strength, and carbohydrates are also
10 accumulated in the roots of treated plants (Zabalza et al., 2004). In the roots of treated plants,
11 carbon consumption is diverted to the low-efficiency fermentative pathway and the alternative
12 respiratory pathway (Zabalza et al., 2005; Gaston et al., 2002; Gaston et al., 2003). This
13 impairment indicates that the effect of these herbicides on primary metabolism has broader
14 physiological consequences than solely a lack of branched-chain amino acids.
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27 Both types of herbicides, the EPSPS inhibitor and ALS inhibitors, have been reported to
28 arrest the growth of treated plants; the growth arrest is followed by a slow death (Wittenbach and
29 Abell, 1999; Gruys and Sikorski, 1999). Moreover, several physiological effects common to both
30 glyphosate and ALS inhibitors have been reported recently (Orcaray et al., 2010); these mainly
31 include a general increase in total free amino acid content with a transient decrease in the
32 proportion of the amino acids whose pathways are specifically inhibited. In addition, both types of
33 inhibitors caused quinate accumulation. Considering this evidence, similarities at the level of
34 carbon metabolism might be expected in plants treated with glyphosate and ALS inhibitors, but
35 there have been no exhaustive studies on the effect of glyphosate on these parameters.
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48 The objective of this work was to evaluate the physiological effects of glyphosate on the
49 carbon metabolism of treated plants to determine whether the secondary effects of this herbicide
50 are similar to those of branched-chain amino acid biosynthesis inhibiting-herbicides. To achieve
51 this goal, glyphosate was applied to pea plants, and its effects on carbohydrate content, energy
52 status, redox charge, root respiration and fermentation were assessed because all of these
53 parameters are altered after ALS inhibition.
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Materials and methods

Plant material and treatment application

Pisum sativum L. cv Snap Sugar Boys was grown in aerated hydroponic culture as described in Zabalza et al. (2005). Plants were 12-days old when glyphosate herbicide (commercial formula, Glyphos, BayerGarden, Valencia, Spain) was applied to the nutrient solution (to half of the plants) at a concentration of 0.23 mM (53 mg active ingredient l⁻¹). In similar previous studies, we found this concentration to arrest plant growth and to cause plant death after 20 days (Orcaray et al., 2010). For carbohydrate analysis, leaf and root samples were taken 5 h after the beginning of the photoperiod at 0, 1, 3, and 7 days after glyphosate treatment. Leaf and root samples were taken and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at – 80 °C for analytical determinations.

In other set of experiments, glufosinate was added to the nutrient solution. Preliminary experiments were conducted to determine a dose with effects on growth similar to those caused by 0.23 mM glyphosate. Finally, glufosinate (commercial formula, Finale, BayerCropscience, Valencia, Spain) was applied at 280 µM (5.56 mg active ingredient l⁻¹).

Metabolite content determination

The extraction of amino acids and determination of their concentrations using capillary electrophoresis was performed as described previously (Orcaray et al., 2010). Shikimate was extracted and analyzed by HPLC as described before (Orcaray et al., 2010). The glucose, fructose and sucrose contents were determined in ethanol-soluble extracts, and the ethanol-insoluble residue was extracted for starch analysis. Starch and soluble sugar concentration determinations were performed using high-performance capillary electrophoresis as described in Zabalza et al. (2004).

The adenylate energy charge (AEC=(ATP+0.5 ADP)/(ATP+ADP+AMP)) was calculated after measuring adenylates by capillary electrophoresis as described by Galvez et al. (2005). The

redox charge ($RC=(NADH^++NADPH)/(NAD^++NADH +NADP^++NADPH)$) was calculated after measuring pyridine nucleotide contents as described previously (Zabalza et al., 2011).

Respiration and fermentation measurements

Respiratory oxygen consumption was measured using Clark-type electrodes (Rank Brothers, Bottisha, UK) using small (5-10 mm) root pieces as described in Zabalza et al. (2009).

Pyruvate decarboxylase (EC 4.1.1.1) and alcohol dehydrogenase (EC 1.1.1.1) activities were assayed in desalted extract as described Gaston et al. (2002). Western blots were produced according to standard techniques as described by Zabalza et al. (2009).

Statistical analysis

Unpaired student t-test was used as test of significance. Each mean value was calculated using samples from different single plants as replications. In figures, an asterisk (*) indicates a significant difference between control and treated plants ($p \leq 0.05$) at a given day of treatment using the t-test.

Results and Discussion

1 The application of 0.23 mM glyphosate to the nutrient solution of pea plants caused a rapid
2 inhibition of plant growth. Plant death required 20 days from the onset of herbicide treatment
3 (Orcaray et al., 2010). The measurements carried out in this work at the initial phase of the
4 treatment (one week) allowed the evaluation of the effects on carbon metabolism in the short term.
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10 The roots of glyphosate-treated plants showed a noticeable increase in the free amino acid
11 pool and accumulation of shikimate (Fig. 1). These two physiological effects have been also
12 detected in leaves of the same type of plants (Orcaray et al., 2010). The glyphosate concentration
13 used in our experiment caused similar effects in the growth arrest, shikimate accumulation and
14 amino acid content increase described in pea plants in previous studies (Lydon and Duke, 1988;
15 Becerril et al., 1989; Hernandez et al., 1999; Moldes et al., 2008).
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23 This glyphosate supplementation of the nutrient solution led to soluble carbohydrate
24 accumulation in both the leaves and roots (Figs. 2 and 3). Sucrose and glucose accumulation were
25 significant from days 3 and 1, respectively (Figs. 2B and C). Starch content was not affected by the
26 herbicide (Fig. 2D). The soluble carbohydrate accumulation in the leaves of treated plants might be
27 related to an increase in photosynthesis or a lack of translocation of photoassimilates.
28 Photosynthesis and conductance inhibition after glyphosate treatment have already been reported.
29 Depending on the plant tested, such inhibition has been reported to be precipitous, as in sugar
30 beets (Geiger et al., 1986) and barley (Olesen and Cedergreen, 2010),²⁷ or progressive, as in
31 velvetleaf (Fuchs et al., 2002) and peas (Orcaray et al., 2010).
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44 Previous studies have shown that this concentration of glyphosate (0.23 Mm) caused a
45 significant photosynthesis inhibition from day 3 (Orcaray et al., 2010). Thus, the soluble
46 carbohydrate accumulation can be only due to a lower translocation to sink tissues as soluble
47 carbohydrate accumulation occurred before (Fig. 2) than phytosynthetic decline.
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53 Despite the carbohydrate accumulation in leaves, there was no carbohydrate shortage in
54 the roots. Indeed, carbohydrates also accumulated in the roots of glyphosate-treated plants.
55 Sucrose accumulation was significant from day 3 (Fig. 3A), and starch content was increased by
56 day 1 but then decreased to control values by day 7 (Fig. 3B).
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1 Although changes in glycolysis have been reported in glyphosate-treated leaves (Zhu et al.,
2 2008), few studies have evaluated the carbohydrate content in both the leaves and sinks of plants
3 treated with glyphosate. The simultaneous study of the carbohydrate content pattern allows an
4 evaluation of the effect on phloem transport. The increase in the sucrose and starch contents in the
5 sinks suggests that sucrose is transported from the leaves to the roots at a higher rate than the
6 sinks are able to use it. Under these conditions, the gradient of sugars required for long-distance
7 transport is abolished; phloem transport is inhibited by a decrease in sink strength. A similar
8 physiological effect has been reported after ALS-inhibiting herbicide treatment (Zabalza et al.,
9 2004). Nevertheless, the leaves of plants treated with ALS inhibitors showed starch accumulation
10 and glyphosate-treated plants did not, as described previously (Geiger et al., 1986). Despite the
11 different starch patterns, it can be concluded that both ALS and EPSPS inhibitors share another
12 aspect in their mode of action: carbohydrates accumulate in the leaves due to a decrease in sink
13 strength.
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27 Both types of herbicides stopped plant growth, but this inhibition was not due to a lack of
28 respiratory substrates, as carbohydrates accumulated both in source and sink organs. The growth
29 arrest detected after the inhibition of the biosynthesis of amino acids suggests impaired
30 metabolism that does not allow the utilization of the available carbohydrates at the expected rate.
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36 The effect of glyphosate on the general redox charge (Fig. 4) and energy state (Fig. 5) in
37 leaves and roots of the treated plants was assessed. These ratios are important measurements of
38 the cellular energy status, and deviations from the standard values are considered to be sensitive
39 indicators of metabolic disturbances. Fig. 4 shows the redox charge (RC) defined as
40 $(\text{NADH} + \text{NADPH}) / (\text{NAD}^+ + \text{NADH} + \text{NADP}^+ + \text{NADPH})$, and Fig. 5 shows the adenylate energy charge
41 (AEC) calculated as $(\text{ATP} + 0.5 \text{ADP}) / (\text{ATP} + \text{ADP} + \text{AMP})$. The leaves of the treated plants showed
42 no modification of the RC or AEC (Figs. 4A and 5A). Glyphosate caused a significant decrease in
43 RC in the roots from day 1 that lasted throughout the treatment (Fig. 4B). The AEC showed that
44 energy was not a limitation at any time point because the AEC of treated plants was even higher
45 than that of control plants during the study period (Fig. 5B). Similarly, growth inhibition with no
46 associated energy restriction was recently shown after ALS herbicide treatments (Zabalza et al.,
47 2011). As discussed before, the growth inhibition detected after glyphosate treatment suggests
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1 impaired metabolism that does not allow the utilization of the available carbohydrates at the
2 expected rate. Moreover, this finding should be considered together with the fact that the available
3 energy is also not being consumed at the expected rate. These circumstances were common to
4 both the ALS- and EPSPS-inhibiting herbicides.
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7 To evaluate other key parameters of carbon metabolism in the roots, ethanolic fermentation
8 and respiration rates were determined. After 3 and 7 days from the supply of glyphosate to the
9 nutrient solution, the induction of pyruvate decarboxylase (PDC) (Fig. 6A) and alcohol
10 dehydrogenase (ADH) (Fig. 6B) activity was detected, respectively. These activities correlated well
11 with the induction of PDC and ADH protein expression by the herbicide treatment (Fig. 6D).
12 Therefore, the induction of the catalytic activities of PDC and ADH is a result of the overexpression
13 of the proteins. Previous studies have also reported induction of aerobic fermentation after ALS
14 inhibition due to an increase in the amount of fermentative enzymes (Zabalza et al., 2005),
15 providing evidence that both types of herbicides have similar effects on the fermentative pathway.
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18 The increased free amino pool detected after ALS and EPSPS inhibition (Fig. 1A; Orcaray
19 et al., 2010) has been proposed to be derived from an increase in protein turnover (Rhodes et al.,
20 1987). Indeed, it was shown that although protein synthesis occurs after ALS inhibitor treatment,
21 the amino acids that comprise these proteins do not contain newly incorporated nitrogen; they
22 contain nitrogen that is mainly scavenged from protein degradation (Zabalza et al., 2006). It is
23 noticeable that plants treated with both classes of herbicides had increased levels of PDC and
24 ADH protein synthesis in a situation in which amino acids have to be scavenged from existing
25 proteins. This re-use of existing proteins in the synthesis of fermentative enzymes suggests that
26 fermentation plays an important role in the plant's response to both types of herbicides and
27 therefore in their mode of action.
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30 The addition of glyphosate to the nutrient solution did not affect root respiration measured
31 polarographically as oxygen consumption of intact root pieces (Fig. 6C), as has been reported
32 before for suspension-cultured cells (Gout et al., 1992; Aubert et al., 1996). Consequently, the
33 increased fermentative activity was not associated with changes in oxygen consumption. Usually,
34 under low-oxygen conditions, changes in the AEC or RC correlate well with the induction of PDC
35 and ADH. A decrease in ATP availability has been proposed as an indirect low-oxygen sensing
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1 mechanism in plants (Bailey-Serres and Chang., 2005; Zabalza et al., 2009). Nevertheless, in
2 glyphosate-treated roots, the induction of fermentation did not correlate with a decrease in the AEC
3 of the tissue (Fig. 5B). On the contrary, although fermentation was induced, the AEC of these
4 plants was higher than that of the control plants Recently, another case of induction of fermentation
5 with higher AEC values was reported after ALS-inhibiting herbicide treatment (Zabalza et al.,
6 2011).

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12 Taken together, these results lead us to propose that after these herbicide treatments, the
13 resulting metabolic imbalances prevent the optimal utilization of available carbohydrates and
14 energy; however, less efficient metabolic pathways are activated.

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18 The decrease in the redox charge detected in glyphosate-treated plants from day 1 (Fig.
19 4B) provides evidence of a higher rate of consumption of pyridine nucleotides in the reduced form.
20 This increased consumption cannot be explained by an increase in ADH activity only, as ADH was
21 only induced at the end of the treatment. Nicotinamide nucleotides function as co-substrates for a
22 variety of enzyme reactions in biological oxidation-reduction processes; therefore, any change in
23 their ratio cannot be easily explained by the activity of a single enzyme.

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27 This is the first study to report aerobic fermentation after glyphosate application (Fig. 6).
28 Because this effect was common to ALS inhibitors (Zabalza et al., 2005; 2011), it can be
29 established that both types of amino-acid biosynthesis inhibitors elicit fermentation in the roots. It
30 remains to be determined whether other types of amino acid biosynthesis inhibition share the same
31 physiological effects on treated plants. Glufosinate inhibits amino acid biosynthesis by specifically
32 inhibiting glutamine synthetase in the biosynthetic pathway of glutamine (Leason et al., 1982). The
33 application of glufosinate to pea plants resulted in ethanolic fermentation in pea roots, similar to
34 what was observed after the application of glyphosate (Fig. 7). The specific activities of both PDC
35 and ADH were increased after 6 and 10 days from the onset of the glufosinate treatment. Western
36 blotting showed that these increases corresponded to increases in the amounts of the respective
37 proteins (Fig. 7C). This result suggests that fermentation induction is a common effect of all types
38 of herbicides that inhibit amino-acid biosynthesis, although this effect occurred later after glutamine
39 synthetase inhibition than after ALS or EPSPS inhibition.

Two characteristics have been proposed to be related to the induction of fermentation under aerobic conditions after ALS inhibition. First, pyruvate is a common substrate of ALS and PDC. ALS inhibition would involve an increased availability of pyruvate for use by other enzymes, such as PDC (Gaston et al., 2002). Second, some abiotic stresses not related to hypoxia have been reported to induce the expression of ADH and PDC (Dolferus et al., 1994; Kürsteiner et al., 2003). Indeed, it has been proposed that fermentation has a general function in aerobic metabolism under stress conditions and that it might be an important switch in regulating carbohydrate metabolism (Tadege et al., 1999). Fermentative induction after treatment with glyphosate or glufosinate cannot easily be related to substrate availability because neither of these herbicides inhibits a pyruvate-consuming enzyme. Thus, it seems that the fermentative response can be considered a physiological effect induced under stress. Moreover, other genes related to stress situations have been reported to be induced after glyphosate treatments. Bioinformatic analysis suggested that glyphosate-induced transcriptional alteration may be partially similar to that induced by other stress factors in plants (Yu et al., 2007). Gene expression profiling revealed an increased level of alternative oxidase after herbicide treatment (Zhu et al., 2008). Recently, alternative oxidase has been suggested to have a role in counteracting deleterious short-term metabolic fluctuations, especially under stress conditions (Rasmusson et al., 2009). Thus, alternative oxidase induction (Yu et al., 2007) and fermentative induction (Fig. 6) detected after glyphosate treatment can be considered part of a general plant response to the stress conditions caused by the herbicide treatment.

A toxic level of ethanol for the plant can be one of the consequences of the ethanolic pathway activation, although ethanol is not accumulated in many organs because it is lost by diffusion to surrounding hydroponic solution during the course of the experiment. This possibility can be considered in glyphosate-treated plants. Nevertheless, in hypoxic pea plants grown in the same hydroponic system, a similar activation of the ethanolic pathway did not induce toxic ethanol accumulation, as the imposed hypoxia was not lethal (Zabalza et al., 2009). Taking into account these results together with the similar increase in fermentative activities detected in herbicide-treated plants (Figs. 6 and 7) and in hypoxic roots (Zabalza et al., 2009), a toxic ethanol level is not expected in herbicide-treated plants.

1 We propose that the growth arrest provoked by the EPSPS inhibition is due to a metabolic
2 alteration that impairs carbohydrate utilization, leading to carbohydrate accumulation first in the
3 roots and then in the shoots, by phloem transport inhibition. This metabolic alteration would be
4 derived from the inhibition of amino acid biosynthesis itself because this metabolic alteration
5 involves inherent changes in the relative ratios of amino acids (Orcaray et al., 2010) and also
6 induces carbon flux through the inhibition of the shikimate pathway (Lydon and Duke, 1988;
7 Becerril et al., 1989; Hernandez et al., 1999). Both processes, although they originate from the
8 nitrogen metabolism, can cause the mentioned effects on carbon and general metabolism.
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16 Herbicides inhibiting branched-chain amino acid or aromatic amino acid biosynthesis
17 showed similar short-term patterns with respect to the content of carbohydrates. The other
18 common pattern found after ALS or EPSPS inhibitor treatment involved the induction of the
19 ethanolic fermentative pathway. As both common effects have been detected after the application
20 of different types of herbicides, these effects can be considered to represent physiological markers
21 of herbicidal activity. Such markers can help in the search for new herbicidal active ingredients that
22 are based on natural products to decrease the use of synthetic compounds. Thus, the use of
23 physiological markers to evaluate the potential herbicidal activity of natural compounds can be very
24 useful.
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39 **Conclusion**

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41 Glyphosate-treated plants showed impaired carbon metabolism. Carbohydrate
42 accumulation was detected in both the leaves and roots of treated plants. Accumulation in the
43 roots was due to a lack of utilization of available sugars as growth was arrested, which elicited
44 soluble carbohydrate accumulation in the leaves due to a decrease in sink strength. Under aerobic
45 conditions, ethanolic fermentative metabolism was enhanced in the roots of glyphosate-treated
46 plants. This fermentative response was not related to a change in respiratory rates or to a
47 decrease in the energy charge, as the energy charge was actually increased. This impaired carbon
48 metabolism is similar to that in plants treated with herbicides inhibiting branched-chain amino acid
49 biosynthesis, providing evidence of similar modes of action of both types of herbicides.
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Legends of Figures

1 **Fig. 1.** Total free amino acid (A) and shikimate (B) contents in the roots of control pea plants or
2 plants treated with glyphosate. Each value is the mean \pm standard error (n=5). * indicates a
3 significant difference between the control and glyphosate-treated plants on a given day ($p \leq 0.05$).
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6 **Fig. 2.** Fructose (A), glucose (B), sucrose (C) and starch (D) contents in the leaves of control pea
7 plants or those treated with glyphosate. Each value is the mean \pm standard error (n=4). * indicates
8 a significant difference between the control and glyphosate-treated plants on a given day ($p \leq$
9 0.05).
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11 **Fig. 3.** Sucrose (A) and starch (B) contents in the roots of control pea plants or those treated with
12 glyphosate. Each value is the mean \pm standard error (n=4). * indicates a significant difference
13 between the control and glyphosate-treated plants on a given day ($p \leq 0.05$).
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16 **Fig. 4.** Adenylate energy charge (AEC), calculated as $(ATP+0.5 ADP)/(ATP+ADP+AMP)$ in the
17 leaves (A) or roots (B) of control pea plants or plants treated with glyphosate. Each value is the
18 mean \pm standard error (n=3). * indicates a significant difference between the control and
19 glyphosate-treated plants on a given day ($p \leq 0.05$).
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22 **Fig. 5.** Redox charge (RC), calculated as $(NADH+NADPH)/(NAD^++NADH+NADP^++NADPH)$ in the
23 leaves (A) or roots (B) of control pea plants or plants treated with glyphosate. Each value is the
24 mean \pm standard error (n=3). * indicates a significant difference between the control and
25 glyphosate-treated plants on a given day ($p \leq 0.05$).
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28 **Fig. 6.** Pyruvate decarboxylase (A) and alcohol dehydrogenase (B) activities and respiratory rate
29 (C) in the roots of control pea plants or those treated with glyphosate. Each value is the mean \pm
30 standard error (n=4). * indicates a significant difference between the control and glyphosate-
31 treated plants on a given day ($p \leq 0.05$). D: Western blots of root pyruvate decarboxylase (PDC)
32 and alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH) activities in roots of control (C) pea plants or those treated with
33 glyphosate (Gly) 1, 3 or 7 days after treatment. Each lane contained 40 μ g protein.
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36 **Fig. 7.** Pyruvate decarboxylase (A) and alcohol dehydrogenase (B) activities in the roots of control
37 pea plants or those treated with glufosinate. Each value is the mean \pm standard error (n=3). *
38 indicates a significant difference between the control and glufosinate-treated plants on a given day
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($p \leq 0.05$). C: Western blots of root pyruvate decarboxylase (PDC) and alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH) activities in the roots of control (C) plants or those treated with glufosinate (Glu) 6 or 10 days after treatment. Each lane contained 20 μg protein.

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Figure

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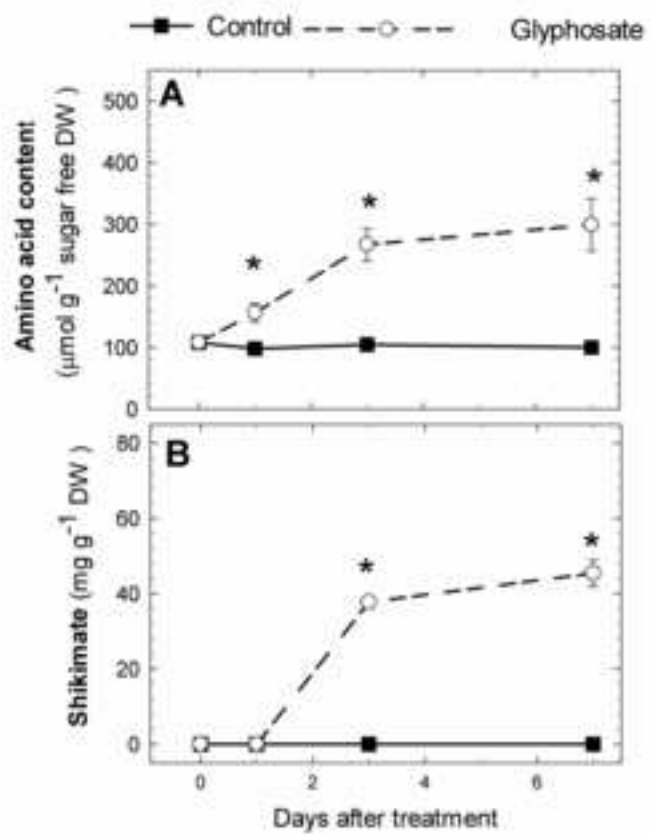


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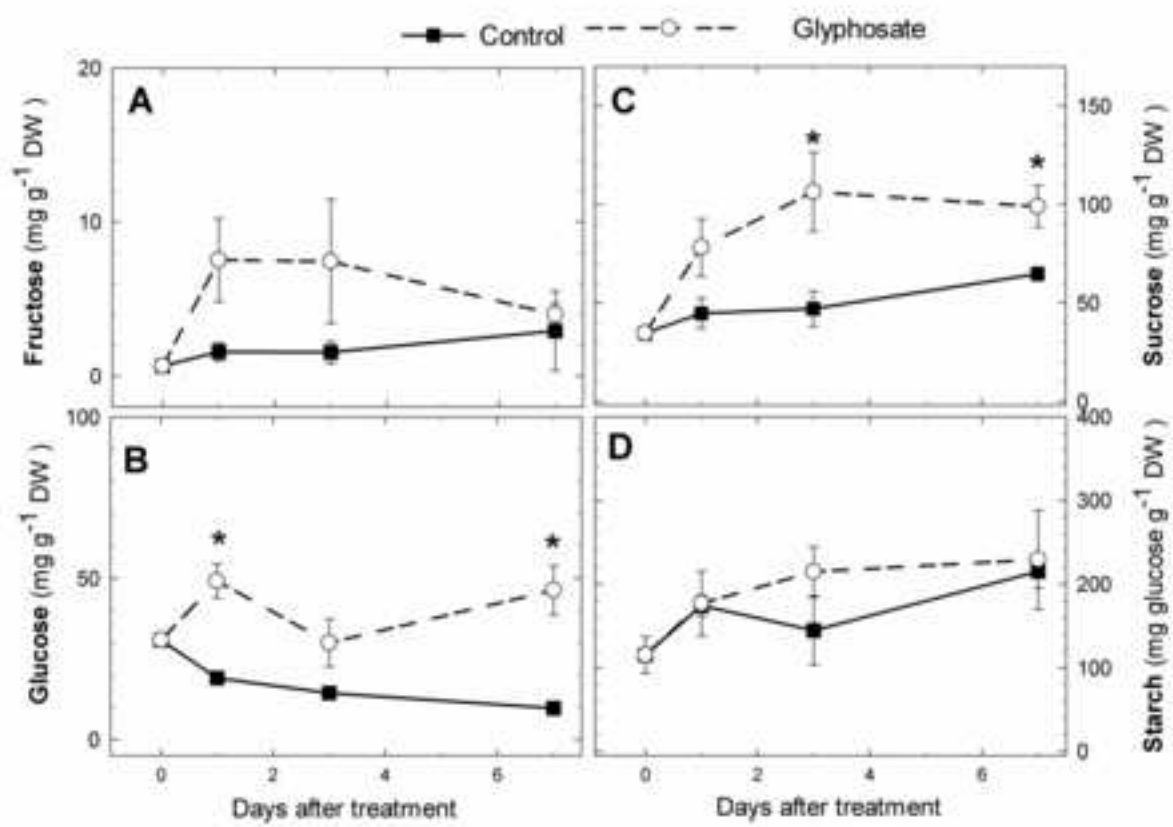


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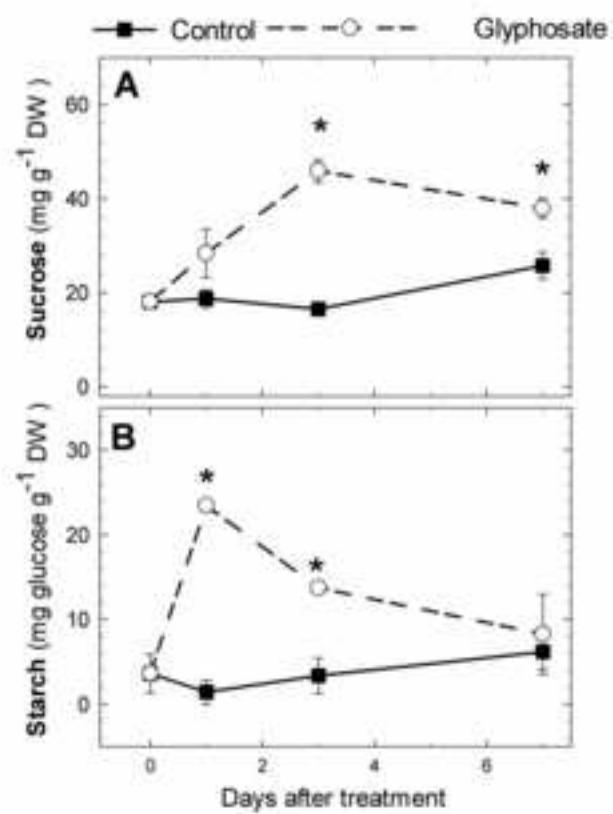


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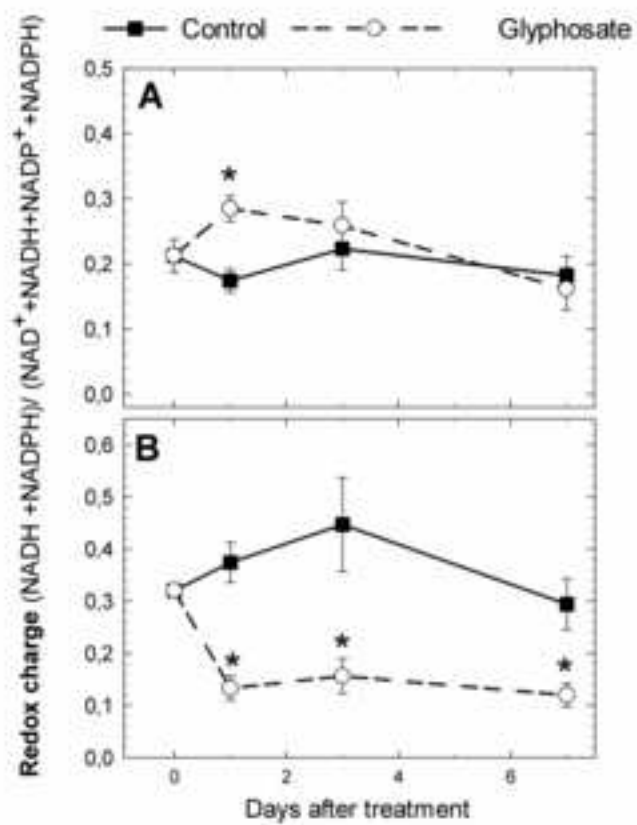


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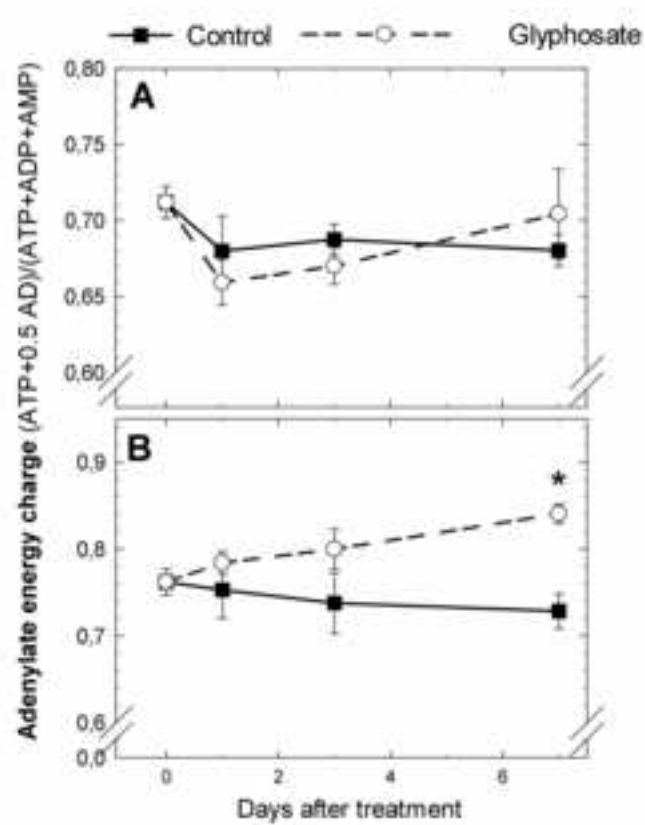


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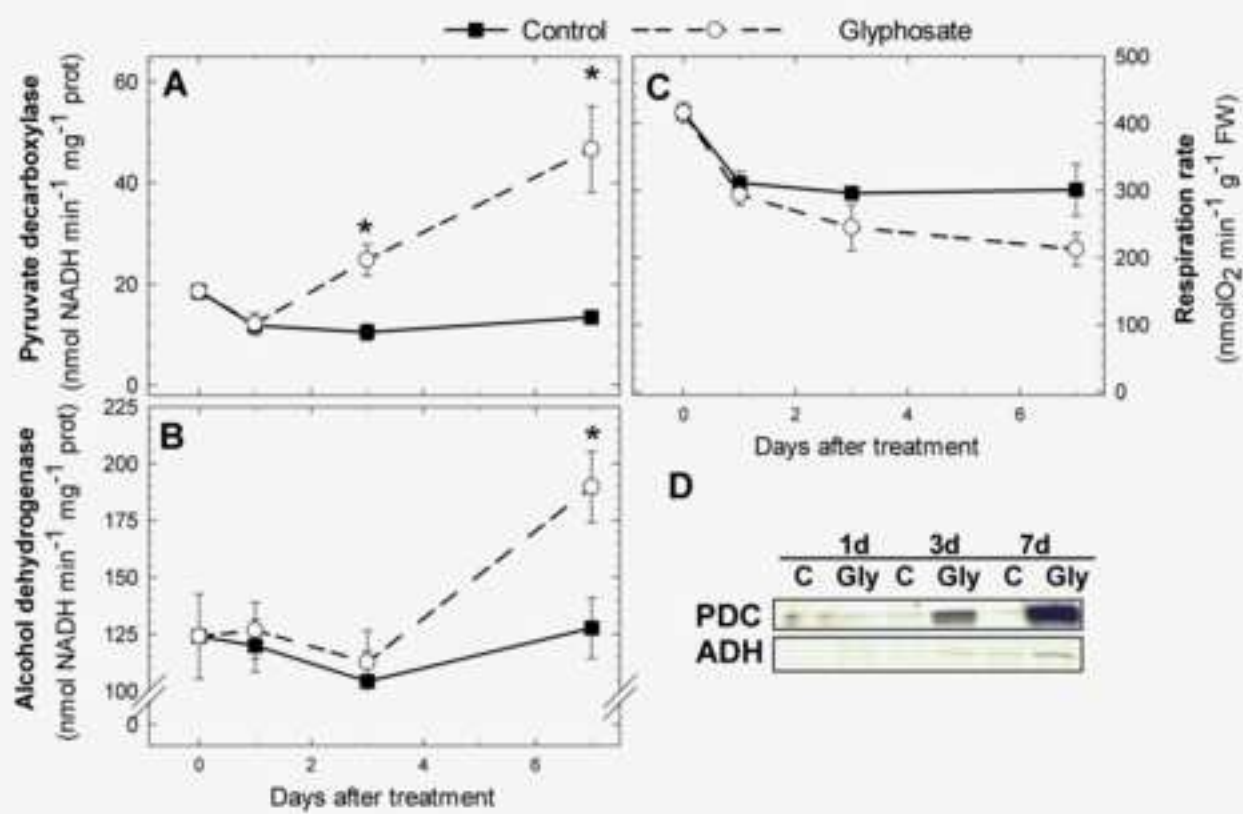


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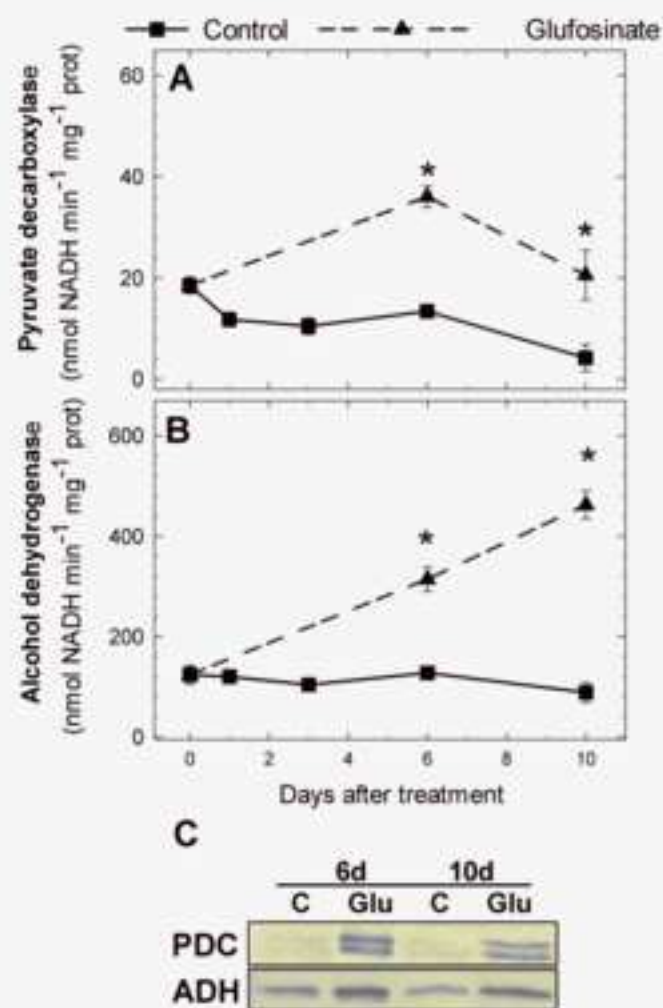


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