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Unveiling the efficacy of pre-emergent application of young *Eucalyptus globulus* leaves as a weed control strategy: Bridging macroscopic effects and cellular responses

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1 **Unveiling the efficacy of pre-emergent application of young *Eucalyptus globulus***
2 **leaves as a weed control strategy: bridging macroscopic effects and cellular**
3 **responses**

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16 **Abstract**

17 Allelopathy, the inhibition of neighbouring plant growth by certain plants, can be
18 particularly useful if applied in a targeted way for weed management. So, this study
19 aimed to assess and characterize the herbicidal activity of fresh and dried leaves from
20 young *Eucalyptus globulus* Labill. trees applied as a soil amendment. For this, fresh and
21 dried leaves (FL and DL, respectively) were incorporated into the soil at different
22 concentrations (0, 1, 5, and 10% w/w), where *Portulaca oleracea* L. seeds were sown.
23 After 5 weeks of exposure, results revealed that the soil incorporation of DL at 10% (w/w)
24 presented the strongest herbicidal properties, inhibiting seed germination by 63% and
25 inducing the loss of cell viability. To unravel the possible mode of action and the main
26 targets at both cellular and subcellular levels, an *in vitro* experiment was performed.

27 Purslane seeds were sown in a nutritive medium containing different dilutions of an
28 aqueous extract prepared with dried eucalyptus leaves. After 5 days of exposure,
29 germinated seedlings were processed for transmission electron microscopy and
30 histological analyses as well as for reactive oxygen species (ROS) *in vivo* detection by
31 confocal laser scanning microscopy. Results revealed that the allelochemical release
32 from DL induced ROS overproduction, resulting in the loss of cell integrity and
33 organization, which was characterized by damage to several cellular sub-structures,
34 along with enhanced accumulation of lipid droplets. Overall, the incorporation of DL into
35 the soil can represent a sustainable alternative to reduce synthetic herbicide application
36 and subsequent environmental contamination.

37 **Keywords:** Sustainable agriculture; bioherbicide; post-fire management; allelopathy;
38 phytotoxic effects; weed management.

39 1. INTRODUCTION

40 To increase crop yield and quality in an ever-changing environment, farmers are
41 increasingly dependent on synthetic pesticide applications to eliminate pests and
42 pathogens, such as bacteria, fungi, molluscs insects, rodents, nematodes, and weeds
43 (Aktar et al., 2009; Dar et al., 2020). In fact, according to recent data, pesticide application
44 has been increasing since 1990, having surpassed, on average, the mark of 2.5 kg ha⁻¹
45 at the global level (<http://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#data/EP/visualize>).

46 Of all the existing pesticides, herbicides are the most applied in the world, followed
47 by insecticides and fungicides (Hernandez et al., 2013), which account for over 60% of
48 all the pesticides used in agriculture (Kaur, 2019). Indeed, the herbicide market is a high-
49 volume, growing business worldwide, with herbicide sales increasing nearly 14%
50 compared to the previous year
51 ([https://www.spglobal.com/commodityinsights/en/ci/products/crop-science-
52 pesticides.html](https://www.spglobal.com/commodityinsights/en/ci/products/crop-science-pesticides.html)). However, despite its great effectiveness in eliminating weeds, major

53 drawbacks have arisen from its continuous and cumulative application, such as
54 resistance acquisition by several weed species (Benchaa et al., 2018) and contamination
55 of the environmental spheres (air, water, and soil) with potential effects on different living
56 organisms (Hernandez et al., 2013;Geetha, 2019;Soares et al., 2019b;Shahena et al.,
57 2020). In this sense, new ecological solutions that can be used in the short term to
58 prevent weed proliferation, allowing for more sustainable and affordable weed
59 management, must be found. This has motivated the scientific community in the last
60 decade to find environmentally friendly alternatives that could be implemented in modern
61 agriculture practices to reduce the application of synthetic herbicides (Hammermeister,
62 2016;Balaure et al., 2017;Pinto et al., 2021;Zhang et al., 2022). These strategies can
63 range from the application of organic mulches (Abouzienna and Radwan, 2015),
64 nanoparticles encapsulating synthetic herbicides (Sousa et al., 2018) or plant-based
65 bioherbicides (Lins et al., 2019;Pinto et al., 2021). Despite the multiple approaches
66 proposed by several authors, most scientists agree that the employment of an integrated
67 weed management, through the combination of preventive, mechanical, cultural,
68 biological, and chemical practices, is crucial to avoid weed resistance and reduce
69 detrimental environmental impacts (Ofosu et al., 2023).

70 Throughout evolution, plants have developed an effective specialized metabolism
71 that enables them to cope with challenges not directly involved with growth and
72 reproduction. These challenges can range from herbivore attacks, intra- or inter-specific
73 competition to phytopathogenic infections (Korkina, 2007). One of the most remarkable
74 examples of this feature of the plant kingdom is the allelopathy phenomenon (Rice,
75 1984). Through the release of allelochemicals, some plant species can prevent the
76 growth of surrounding plants, thus avoiding competition for natural resources, such as
77 light, water, and nutrients (Rice, 1984). Areas dominated by eucalyptus trees are a
78 classic example of the potency of allelopathy, as other plants are rarely found in those
79 plantations. Therefore, the natural allelopathic properties of eucalyptus, especially

80 attributed to their leaves, could be used in a targeted way to inhibit the growth of
81 undesirable plant species, such as weeds.

82 At the same time, the use of eucalyptus' specialized metabolism for bioherbicide
83 production may represent a new way of controlling this species' dispersion outside
84 managed plantations, thus decreasing fire risk, by reducing the fuel supplied by the trees.
85 Indeed, the favourable wood characteristics of eucalyptus trees, mainly *Eucalyptus*
86 *globulus* Labill., for pulpwood production, along with their great adaptability to different
87 environmental conditions, have contributed to its wide geographic distribution outside its
88 native range, southeast Australia (Catry et al., 2015). However, in a monoculture regime,
89 *E. globulus* creates, around and between them, a drier and warmer environment that
90 gives rise to fire-prone scenarios (Louro, 2016). Moreover, due to its fire-adaptive
91 reproduction traits, *E. globulus* displays a unique vegetative regeneration strategy,
92 resprouting, which allows a rapid and efficient plant recovery after wildfire occurrence
93 (Catry et al., 2013). These eucalyptus characteristics confer them a competitive
94 advantage over other species, and most, if not all, affected eucalyptus trees are expected
95 to survive and regrow more quickly in a post-fire environment (ICNF, 2006), complicating
96 post-fire management efforts carried out by rural inhabitants. Therefore, taking
97 advantage of the allelopathic properties of post-fire regenerated eucalyptus trees to
98 develop an eco-friendly and easily obtainable herbicide could be a way of valuing their
99 foliar biomass and would benefit rural-urban inhabitants.

100 The biocidal potential of the leaves from young *E. globulus* trees has already been
101 explored in a previous study of our research group (Pinto et al., 2021), where aqueous
102 extracts prepared with fresh or dried leaves were foliar-applied to *Portulaca oleracea* L.
103 (purslane) seedlings. The study showed that the dried leaf extract had strong herbicidal
104 activity against purslane seedlings by inducing severe redox disorders in the roots (Pinto
105 et al., 2021). However, the pre-emergent biocidal potential of eucalyptus leaf biomass
106 regenerated after wildfire occurrence is still unclear. Until now, only two works have
107 tested the herbicidal potential of incorporating eucalyptus leaf biomass into the soil (El-

108 Rokiek et al., 2011;Puig et al., 2013). Although in these studies different types of
109 eucalyptus leaves were tested - El-Rokiek et al. (2011) incorporated dried and powdered
110 leaves into the soil, while Puig et al. (2013) mixed fresh leaf fragments into the soil - both
111 concluded that leaf residues from adult *E. globulus* trees can be used in weed control
112 (El-Rokiek et al., 2011;Puig et al., 2013). Still, the mode-of-action and cellular targets of
113 eucalyptus-based herbicides remain to be uncovered.

114 In this sense, the present work aimed to evaluate the pre-emergent herbicidal
115 potential of the leaf biomass of young trees of *E. globulus* regenerated after a wildfire
116 occurrence in *P. oleracea* and to understand the cellular and subcellular repercussions
117 of the most effective dose of the bioherbicide in the physiological processes involved in
118 weed control. By employing a multidisciplinary approach, it was concluded that the
119 incorporation of dried leaves into the soil in a pre-emergence context exhibited potent
120 herbicidal activity. This activity was attributed to the induction of strong ROS bursts,
121 which caused significant alterations in cell structure and ultrastructure.

122 **2. MATERIALS & METHODS**

123 **2.1. Collection and processing of the eucalyptus leaves**

124 Leaf biomass from post-fire regenerated *E. globulus* trees with about six months old was
125 collected in a recently burnt forest area of Porto, Portugal (GPS coordinates: 41.197288,
126 -8.534506). The collected leaves were detached from the stems and, after oven-drying
127 part of the leaves (at 60 °C until reaching a constant weight), dried (DL) and fresh leaves
128 (FL) were reduced to small fragments, to promote the release of allelochemicals, and
129 directly used as a pre-emergent bioherbicide. Leaf processing also allowed the
130 determination of the water content of eucalyptus leaves, which is $59 \pm 0.6\%$ (w/w).

131 **2.2. Plant species**

132 Seeds of *Portulaca oleracea* L. (purslane) were acquired from a local supplier and used
133 as a weed plant model. Seeds were surface disinfected with 70% (v/v) ethanol, followed

134 by 20% (v/v) commercial bleach (5% active chlorine) for 10 min each, and successively
135 washed with deionised water. Visually damaged seeds were discarded before sowing.

136 **2.3. Evaluation of the pre-emergent herbicidal potential of the young eucalyptus** 137 **leaves against purslane plants**

138 **2.3.1. Experimental design and growth conditions**

139 To assess the herbicidal potential of young *E. globulus* leaves in a pre-emergent context,
140 FL or DL were incorporated, individually, at different percentages [1, 5, and 10 % (w/w)]
141 into an artificial soil (OECD, 2006). This soil consisted of 70% (w/w) sand, 20% (w/w)
142 kaolin, and 10% (w/w) peat, with pH KCl 6.0 ± 0.5 that was prepared following the
143 Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) guidelines (OECD,
144 2006). Eucalyptus leaves were incorporated into this artificial soil at different percentages
145 for a total of 150 g_{dry weight} per replicate (defined as each pot). For the highest
146 concentration tested, 15 g_{dry weight} of DL were incorporated into 135 g_{dry weight} of soil and 9
147 g_{dry weight} of DL were incorporated into 141 g_{dry weight} of soil. For the control (CTL) situation,
148 only standard artificial soil was used. At the beginning of each assay, the maximum soil
149 water holding capacity (WHC_{max}), previously determined (ISO, 2005), was adjusted to
150 60%. Then, mixtures of leaves and soil were left to stabilize for two weeks, at room
151 temperature, shaking three times a week, to facilitate the release of allelochemicals from
152 the leaves into the soil. As a positive CTL, s-metolachlor (EFICA™ 960EC; 960 g L⁻¹ s-
153 metolachlor), a synthetic pre- and post-emergent herbicide, was considered. Based on
154 the manufacturer's recommendations, an application rate of 1 L ha⁻¹ was selected.
155 According to the pot area (0.011 m²) and the concentration of s-metolachlor, the
156 conversion of this rate to the amount of the active ingredient per kg of soil equals 7.04
157 mg kg⁻¹. In this case, the adequate water volume for the WHC_{max} adjustment was used
158 as a carrier to obtain the recommended concentration of s-metolachlor in the soil. Each
159 situation comprised 4 biological replicates in which 20 seeds of *P. oleracea* were sown.

160 The assays were carried out in plastic pots, which had a cotton rope inserted at the
161 bottom that was responsible for establishing the communication between the pot and a
162 cup where the irrigation solution was placed. At the beginning of the assay, cups were
163 irrigated with 100 mL of Hoagland solution (Taiz et al., 2015) to ensure nutrient
164 availability, and then in the following weeks, irrigation was performed with deionised
165 water. Experiments were conducted in a growth chamber with controlled conditions
166 [temperature: 25 °C; photoperiod: 16 h/8 h light/dark; photosynthetically active radiation
167 (PAR): 120 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$]. The number of germinated seeds and macroscopic
168 phytotoxicity symptoms were monitored twice a week. At the end of the growth period (5
169 weeks), purslane plants were collected and used for biometric evaluation and cell viability
170 analysis.

171 **2.3.2. Biometric evaluation**

172 After separating purslane plants into roots and shoots, the length and fresh weight of
173 both organs were evaluated. The fresh biomass of each replicate was measured using
174 a digital scale. Shoot length was measured from the apex to the shoot-root transition.

175 **2.3.3. Histochemical detection of cell death**

176 The cell death was evaluated according to Romero-Puertas et al. (2004), with brief
177 modifications. For this purpose, excised leaves were infiltrated with 0.25% (w/v) Evans
178 Blue through the petioles for 5 h. For each situation, leaves from three purslane plants
179 were used. At the end of the incubation period, leaves were transferred to boiling 96%
180 (v/v) ethanol for removing the photosynthetic pigments and to develop the blue
181 precipitates. The presence of blue spots on the leaf surface is indicative of cell death.
182 The results were photographically recorded.

183 **2.4. Assessment of the phytotoxic effects induced by the pre-emergent application** 184 **of young eucalyptus leaves**

185 2.4.1. Experimental design and growth conditions

186 To unravel the cellular targets of the allelochemicals released by DL, an *in vitro* assay
187 using an aqueous extract prepared with DL (250 g_{dry weight} L⁻¹) was performed. The extract
188 was prepared according to Pinto et al. (2022) and, then, filtered through 0.2 µm
189 nitrocellulose filters. Purslane seeds, disinfected as previously referred, were placed in
190 Petri dishes containing half-strength Murashige and Skoog (1962) medium, 1.5% (w/v)
191 agar, and the aqueous extract at 250 g_{dry weight} L⁻¹. A lower concentration of the aqueous
192 extract was also included (31.25 g_{dry weight} L⁻¹) to get a better insight into the potential
193 mode-of-action of eucalyptus allelochemicals in purslane cells. The control situation was
194 prepared by replacing the aqueous extract with deionised water. For each experimental
195 situation, four replicates were considered. Then, seeds were transferred to a growth
196 chamber (temperature: 25 °C; photoperiod: 16 h/8 h light/dark; PAR: 120 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹)
197 and left for germination for 7 days. At the end of the incubation period, the seedlings
198 were separated into radicles and primordial shoots and processed to be analysed by
199 optical microscopy (OM), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), and confocal laser
200 scanning microscopy (CLSM).

201 2.4.2. Histological analysis by OM

202 Shoots and radicles of treated and untreated purslane seedlings were firstly fixed in a
203 5% (v/v) glutaraldehyde and 4% (v/v) paraformaldehyde mixture (2.5% glutaraldehyde:
204 2% paraformaldehyde) and then post-fixed in 1.5 mL of 1% (w/v) osmium tetroxide
205 (OsO₄), which was prepared in 0.1 M sodium cacodylate buffer (pH 7.2) (Soares et al.,
206 2020). After that, samples were dehydrated using increasing concentrations of ethanol
207 (70, 80, 90, and 100% v/v), followed by EMBed-812 embedding. Semi-thin sections were
208 obtained using an ultramicrotome (RMC Ultramicrotome PowerTome PT XL, USA).
209 Then, semithin sections (≈1 µm) were stained with 1% (w/v) toluidine blue and observed

210 in a Zeiss Axio Imager AZ microscope with differential interference contrast optics (Zeiss,
211 Göttingen, Germany).

212 **2.4.3.** Ultrastructural analysis by TEM

213 Both organs of purslane seedlings were processed for TEM as described by Soares et
214 al. (2020). Sample fixation, post-fixation, dehydration, and embedding were performed
215 as described in 2.4.2. Afterwards, ultra-thin sections were performed using an
216 ultramicrotome. To assure random pictures, from control and treated samples, ultra-thin
217 sections were obtained from different blocks, mounted in grids, and contrasted with
218 uranyl acetate and lead citrate. Lastly, ultra-thin sections were observed under a Zeiss
219 EM C10 TEM (Zeiss, Göttingen, Germany).

220 **2.4.4.** ROS *in vivo* detection by confocal laser scanning microscopy

221 The analysis of hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) and superoxide anion ($\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$) in cells of purslane
222 radicles and cotyledons was performed based on the method of Spormann et al. (2022),
223 by using fluorescent probes - 2',7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate (DCF-DA, Sigma-
224 Aldrich) and dihydroethidium (DHE, Sigma-Aldrich)-, respectively. In brief, sections of
225 both organs of the seedlings exposed to different concentrations (0, 31.25, and 250 g_{dry}
226 weight L^{-1}) of the aqueous extract were incubated with 25 μM DCF-DA and DHE solutions,
227 both prepared in 10 mM Tris-HCl buffer (pH 7.5) at 37 °C for 45 min. Additionally, plant
228 sections from all treatments were incubated with Tris-HCl buffer and considered as a
229 negative control in the analysis. Upon the incubation period, the plant material was
230 washed with 10 mM Tris-HCl buffer (pH 7.5) to remove the excess of fluorescent probes
231 and samples were mounted in Tris-HCl buffer between a slide and a coverslip. The
232 analysis and image acquisition was carried out using a Laser Point Scanning Confocal
233 System (Leica TCS SP5-Leica Microsystems, Germany), detecting the fluorescent probe
234 by monitoring the excitation and emission wavelengths of 480 and 530 nm, respectively.
235 Image processing was performed using the ImageJ-Fiji program (Schindelin et al., 2012).

236 2.5. Statistical analysis

237 Results were expressed as mean \pm standard deviation (SD) and all experimental
238 situations comprised, at least, three replicates ($n \geq 3$). For determining significant
239 differences between treatments, a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was
240 performed, followed by Tukey's post-hoc test, whenever $p \leq 0.05$. The statistical analysis
241 was performed using GraphPad Prism[®] 7.0 software (GraphPad Software, USA).

242 To test significant differences through time in the number of germinated seeds
243 between treatments, a repeated-measures ANOVA was employed, defining the factors
244 "within subjects" and "between subjects" as "weeks" and "applied concentration of
245 FL/DL". When significant differences were found ($p \leq 0.05$), by assuming the correction
246 of Greenhouse-Geisser, a one-way ANOVA, followed by Dunnett's post-hoc test, was
247 performed for each factor. This analysis was performed in SPSS Statistics 22 (IBM
248 SPSS[®], USA).

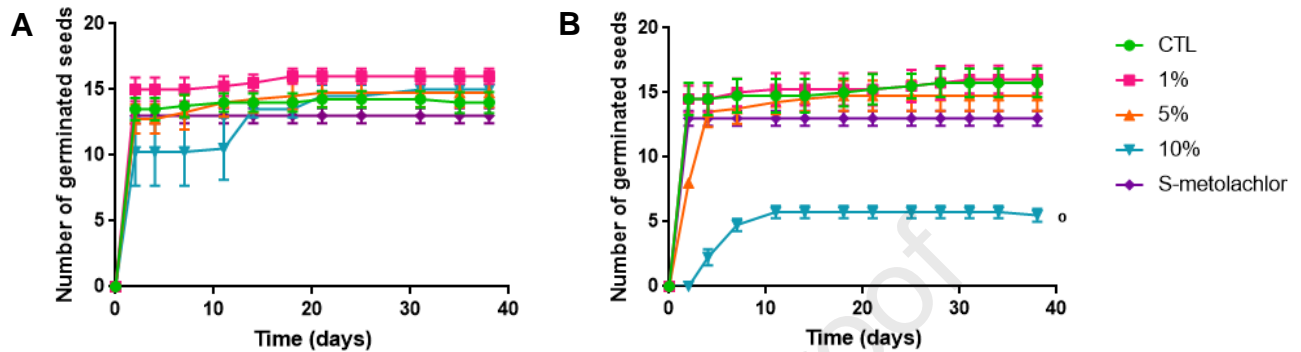
249 3. RESULTS

250 3.1. Pre-emergent biocidal potential of young eucalyptus leaves against purslane 251 plants

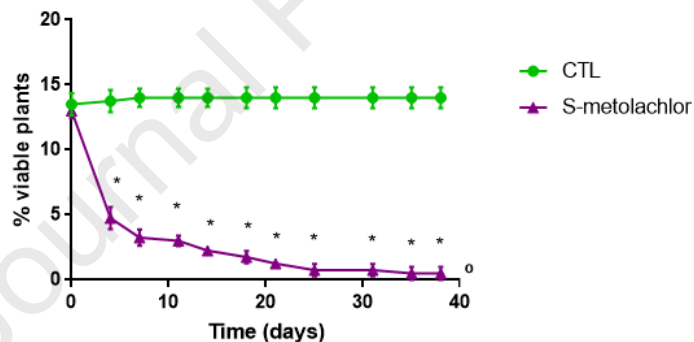
252 3.1.1. Number of germinated seeds over time

253 The number of germinated seeds was not affected by the addition and mixture of FL into
254 the soil, in any of the tested concentrations in comparison to the negative (0% w/w) and
255 positive (s-metolachlor) CTL situations (**Fig. 1A**). Regarding the incorporation of DL into
256 the soil, the highest concentration inhibited seed germination over the five weeks,
257 compared to both negative (0% w/w) and positive (s-metolachlor) CTLs (**Fig. 1B**),
258 reaching, at the end of the experiment, an inhibition of seed germination of 63%,
259 compared to the negative CTL (**Fig. 1B**).

260 Although the number of germinated seeds remained high throughout the
 261 experiment with the s-metolachlor treatment (**Fig. 1A and B**), the resulting seedlings
 262 quickly started to die over time, leading to a 96% decrease in the percentage of viable
 263 plants in the last week of treatment (**Fig. 2**).



264 **Fig. 1** – Number of germinated seeds over the five weeks of treatments with deionised water (CTL), s-
 265 metolachlor, and different concentrations [1, 5, and 10% (w/w)] of fresh leaves (A) and dried leaves (B)
 266 incorporated into the soil. Results are expressed as mean \pm SD. $^{\circ}$ refers to statistically significant differences
 267 ($p \leq 0.05$) between treatments and the control (CTL), for the last week.

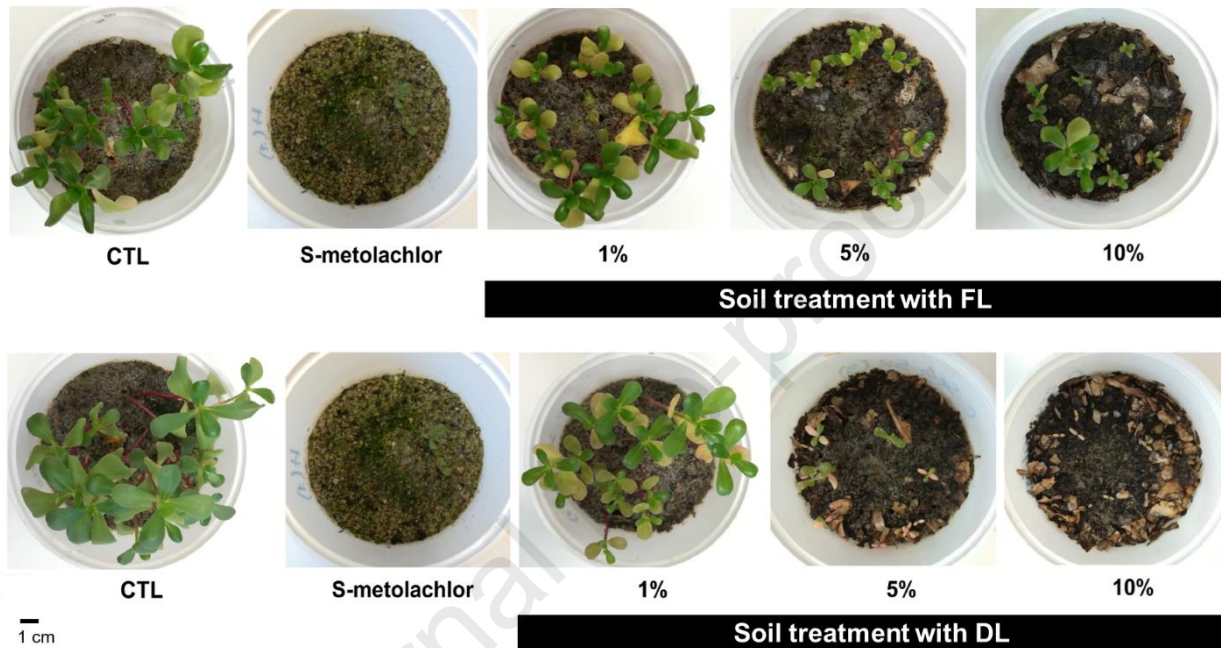


268 **Fig. 2** – Percentage of viable plants over the five weeks of treatments with deionised water (CTL) and s-
 269 metolachlor. Results are expressed as mean \pm SD. $^{\circ}$ refers to statistically significant differences ($p \leq 0.05$)
 270 between s-metolachlor and the control (CTL), for the last week; * refers to statistically significant differences
 271 ($p \leq 0.05$) between weeks, for each treatment and the CTL.

273 3.1.2. Macroscopic phytotoxicity symptoms

275 The addition of FL and DL into the soil induced leaf chlorosis and repressed plant growth
 276 and development in a dose-dependent manner, compared to the negative CTL plants
 277 (**Fig. 3**). From both leaf fragments, the inclusion of DL into the soil at 10% (w/w) had the

278 most accentuated inhibitory effects, preventing seed germination and the development
 279 of any leaves besides the cotyledons, which displayed a yellow-brown colour. This effect
 280 was different from that obtained with the positive CTL, in which plants suffered a great
 281 reduction in number, and those that survived became dwarf and presented anomalous
 282 leaf morphology, as shown in **Fig. 4**.



283 **Fig. 3** – Macroscopic phytotoxicity symptoms of purslane plants after five weeks of treatments with deionised
 284 water (CTL), s-metolachlor, and different concentrations [1, 5, and 10% (w/w)] of fresh leaves (FL) and dried
 285 leaves (DL) incorporated into the soil.

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291 **Fig. 4** – **Phenotype** of purslane seedlings grown for five weeks in the soil treated with s-metolachlor.

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297 **3.1.3. Biometric parameters and biomass production**

298 The soil incorporation of FL and DL impaired the growth of purslane seedlings in a
 299 concentration-dependent manner, as confirmed by the significant interaction between
 300 the factors “type of incorporated leaves” and “applied concentration” of the two-way
 301 ANOVA for all the growth-related parameters. This suggests that the pre-emergent
 302 herbicidal potential of eucalyptus leaves depends on whether the leaves added to the
 303 soil were fresh or dried as well as their concentration. Indeed, the application of FL to
 304 the soil at 1%, 5%, and 10% (w/w) decreased shoot length by about 30%, 52%, and
 305 49%, respectively, compared to the CTL situation (**Table 1**). Regarding DL, shoot length
 306 was also affected, but in a dose-dependent manner, with reductions of approximately
 307 17%, 68%, and 80%, in relation to the CTL (**Table 1**). About shoot biomass, a decrease
 308 of 46%, 73%, and 74% was registered with the incorporation of FL at 1%, 5%, and 10%
 309 (w/w) into the soil, respectively, compared to CTL (**Table 1**). On the other hand, the soil
 310 treatment with DL at 5% and 10% (w/w) reduced the shoot biomass of purslane plants
 311 by 94% and 96%, respectively, in comparison to CTL plants (**Table 1**).

312 **Table 1-** Shoot and root length and biomass of the purslane plants treated for five weeks with deionised
 313 water (CTL), s-metolachlor, and different concentrations [1, 5, and 10% (w/w)] of fresh leaves (FL) and dried
 314 leaves (DL) incorporated into the soil. Since the number of individuals that survived s-metolachlor treatment
 315 was considerably low ($n < 3$), it was not possible to obtain a robust statistic for this treatment. Results are
 316 expressed as mean \pm SD. Different letters (capital letters: shoots; lowercase letters: roots) after the numbers
 317 denote significant differences ($p \leq 0.05$), according to Tukey’s post hoc test.

| Treatment | | Length (cm) | | Fresh weight (g) | |
|-----------|-----------|-------------------|-------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|
| | | Shoot | Root | Shoot | Root |
| CTL | | 7.81 \pm 0.49 A | 9.02 \pm 0.70 a | 0.35 \pm 0.02 A | 0.030 \pm 0.005 a |
| S-met | | - | - | - | - |
| FL | 1% (w/w) | 5.43 \pm 0.71 B | 8.97 \pm 1.64 a | 0.19 \pm 0.06 B | 0.023 \pm 0.005 a |
| | 5% (w/w) | 3.79 \pm 0.18 C | 5.36 \pm 0.52 b | 0.093 \pm 0.05 C | 0.0090 \pm 0.0026 b |
| | 10% (w/w) | 3.95 \pm 0.66 C | 4.93 \pm 1.53 b | 0.089 \pm 0.02 C | 0.0085 \pm 0.0015 b |
| CTL | | 7.34 \pm 0.15 A | 6.47 \pm 0.39 a | 0.27 \pm 0.04 A | 0.028 \pm 0.002 a |

| S-met | | - | - | - | - |
|-------|-----------|---------------|---------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| DL | 1% (w/w) | 6.07 ± 0.47 B | 6.07 ± 0.47 a | 0.27 ± 0.029 A | 0.028 ± 0.004 a |
| | 5% (w/w) | 2.36 ± 0.29 C | 1.73 ± 0.76 b | 0.022 ± 0.007 B | 0.0047 ± 0.0015 b |
| | 10% (w/w) | 1.44 ± 0.43 C | 1.49 ± 0.14 b | 0.016 ± 0.008 B | 0.0013 ± 0.0003 b |

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319 Concerning root length, only the two highest concentrations of both treatments (DL
 320 and FL) significantly altered this growth parameter (**Table 1**). While the incorporation of
 321 FL at 5% and 10% (w/w) into the soil decreased root elongation by about 41% and 45%,
 322 respectively (**Table 1**), the soil treatment with DL at the same concentrations, induced a
 323 greater reduction (73% and 77%, respectively), compared to CTL plants (**Table 1**).
 324 Likewise, soil treatment with FL or DL at the two highest concentrations reduced root
 325 fresh biomass of purslane plants by approximately 70% and 71% (FL) and 84% and 96%
 326 (DL), compared to CTL plants (**Table 1**).

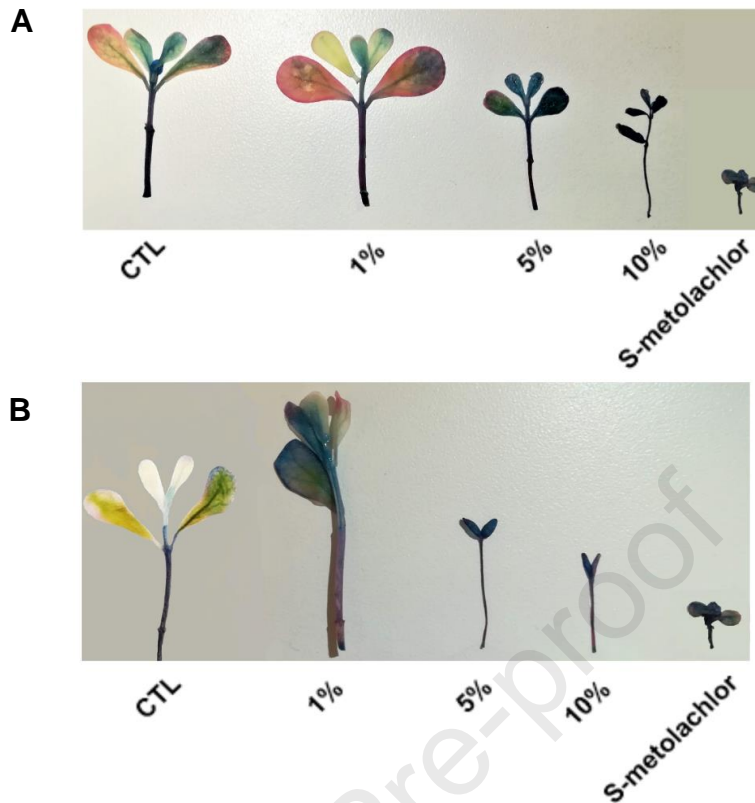
327 However, the effects of both types of eucalyptus leaves in shoot and root length
 328 and fresh biomass were not comparable to those obtained with s-metolachlor, where
 329 plant growth was completely repressed (**Table 1**).

330

331 3.1.4. Cell viability

332 As shown in **Fig. 5A**, the incorporation of FL into the soil at 5% and 10% (w/w) reduced
 333 the cell viability of purslane plants, showing effects quite similar to those of s-metolachlor.
 334 Likewise, soil treatment with DL at the two highest concentrations induced severe cell
 335 damage and showed a pattern of cell death close to that of s-metolachlor (**Fig. 5B**).

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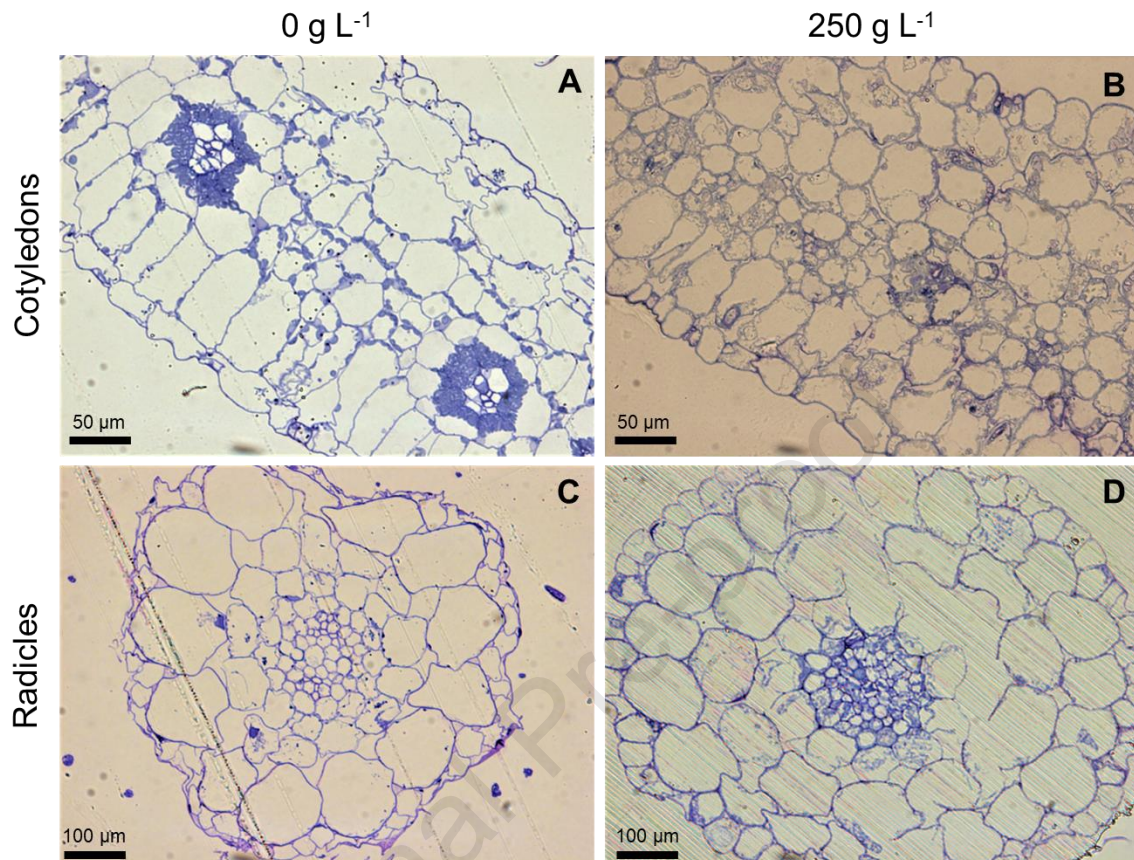
352 **Fig. 5** – Cell death staining in shoots of purslane plants treated for five weeks with deionised water (CTL),
 353 s-metolachlor, and different concentrations [1, 5, and 10% (w/w)] of fresh (A) and dried (B) leaves
 354 incorporated into the soil.

355 **3.2. Potential phytotoxic effects induced by the pre-emergent application of young** 356 **eucalyptus leaves**

357 **3.2.1. Cell structure analysis**

358 In general, the germination of purslane seeds in the medium containing the extract
 359 prepared from DL of eucalyptus caused a strong cellular disorganization, leading to the
 360 loss of the characteristic anatomy of C4 plants (**Fig. 6**). More specifically, in cotyledons,
 361 in comparison with those from CTL seedlings (0 g L⁻¹; **Fig. 6A**), the treatment with the
 362 eucalyptus extract led to an atypical anatomical pattern, with the loss of the Kranz
 363 anatomy (in which the mesophyll cells are arranged in a ring-like shape around bundle-
 364 sheath cells), and absence of chloroplasts in the bundle sheath cells being observed
 365 (**Fig. 6B**). Concerning radicles, the exposure to the extract induced the structural

366 disorganization of vascular tissue cells, whereas peripheral root cells preserved their
 367 anatomy (**Fig. 6D**).



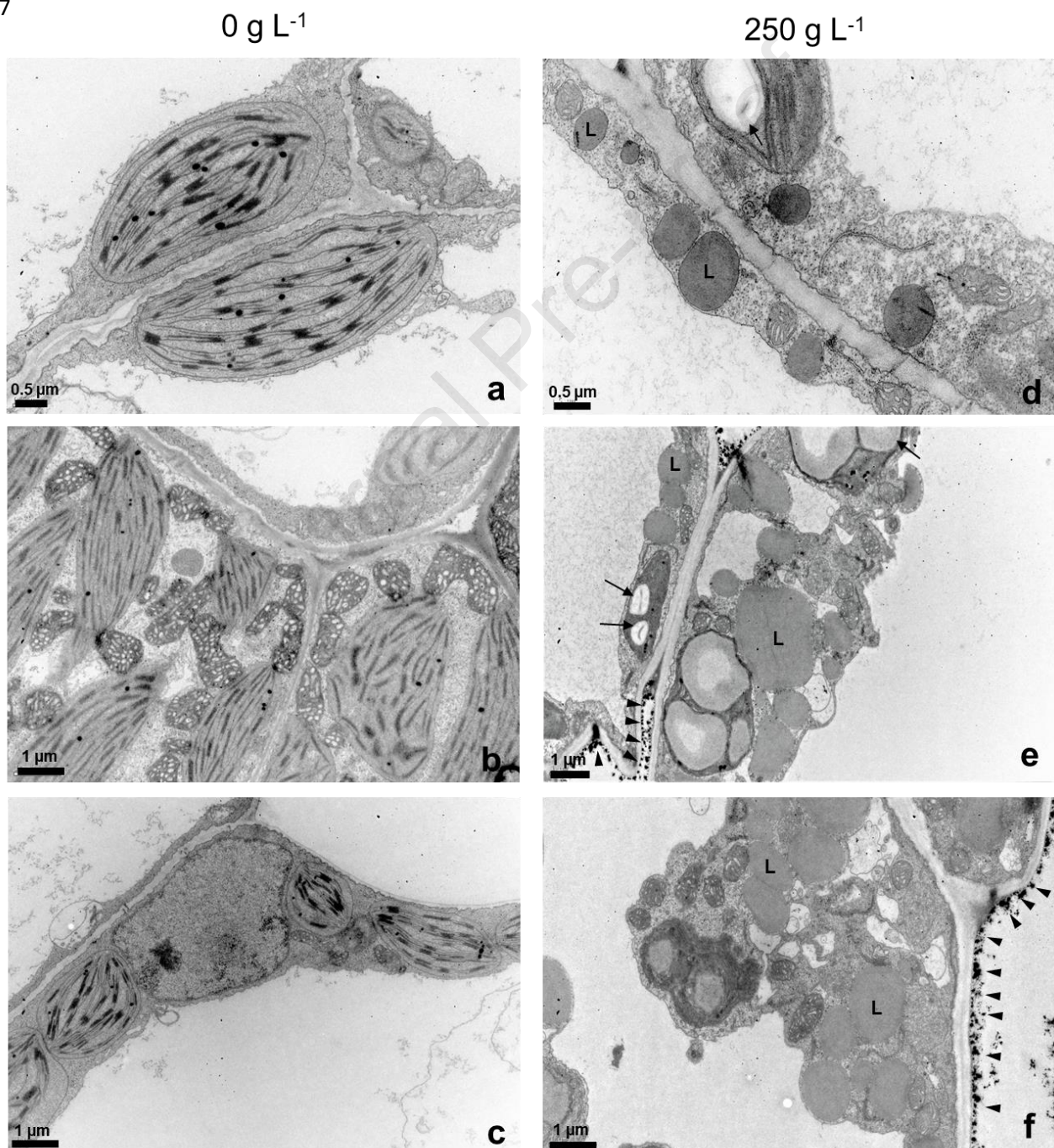
368 **Fig. 6** – Structure of the cotyledons (A and B) and radicles (C and D) of purslane seedlings germinated in
 369 MS medium containing deionised water (0 g L^{-1}) and an aqueous extract prepared with dried eucalyptus
 370 leaves (250 g L^{-1}). (A) mesophyll cells showing the typical Kranz anatomy of C4 plants; (B) mesophyll cells
 371 presenting an atypical pattern of organization, without chloroplasts aligned next to the bundle sheath cells;
 372 (C) characteristic anatomy of primary radicle cells; (D) disorganized primary radicle cells.

373 3.2.2. Ultrastructure analysis

374 The ultrastructural effects of eucalyptus leaf extract exposure on purslane seedlings
 375 were evaluated to better understand the response of mesophyll and radicle cells to the
 376 extract treatment. Seedlings exposed to the eucalyptus leaf extract showed significant
 377 subcellular disorganization in both analysed organs (**Figs. 7 and 8**). In cotyledons, the
 378 treatment with the aqueous extract caused evident alterations in mesophyll cells, which
 379 displayed an abundance of large lipid droplets (**Fig. 7d-f**), which were observed only
 380 sporadically in control cells (**Fig. 7a-c**). Additionally, the screening of a high number of

381 mesophyll cells of treated seedlings also showed the presence of cellular debris next to
382 cell walls, a lower number of mitochondria and chloroplasts with decreased size, but with
383 huge starch grains (Fig. 7d-f), features that were not observed in control cells (Fig. 7a-
384 c). As illustrated in Fig. 7c, in cotyledons of control seedlings the presence of
385 proteinoplasts was noted, but they were absent in cells of eucalyptus extract-treated
386 seedlings (Fig. 7d-f).

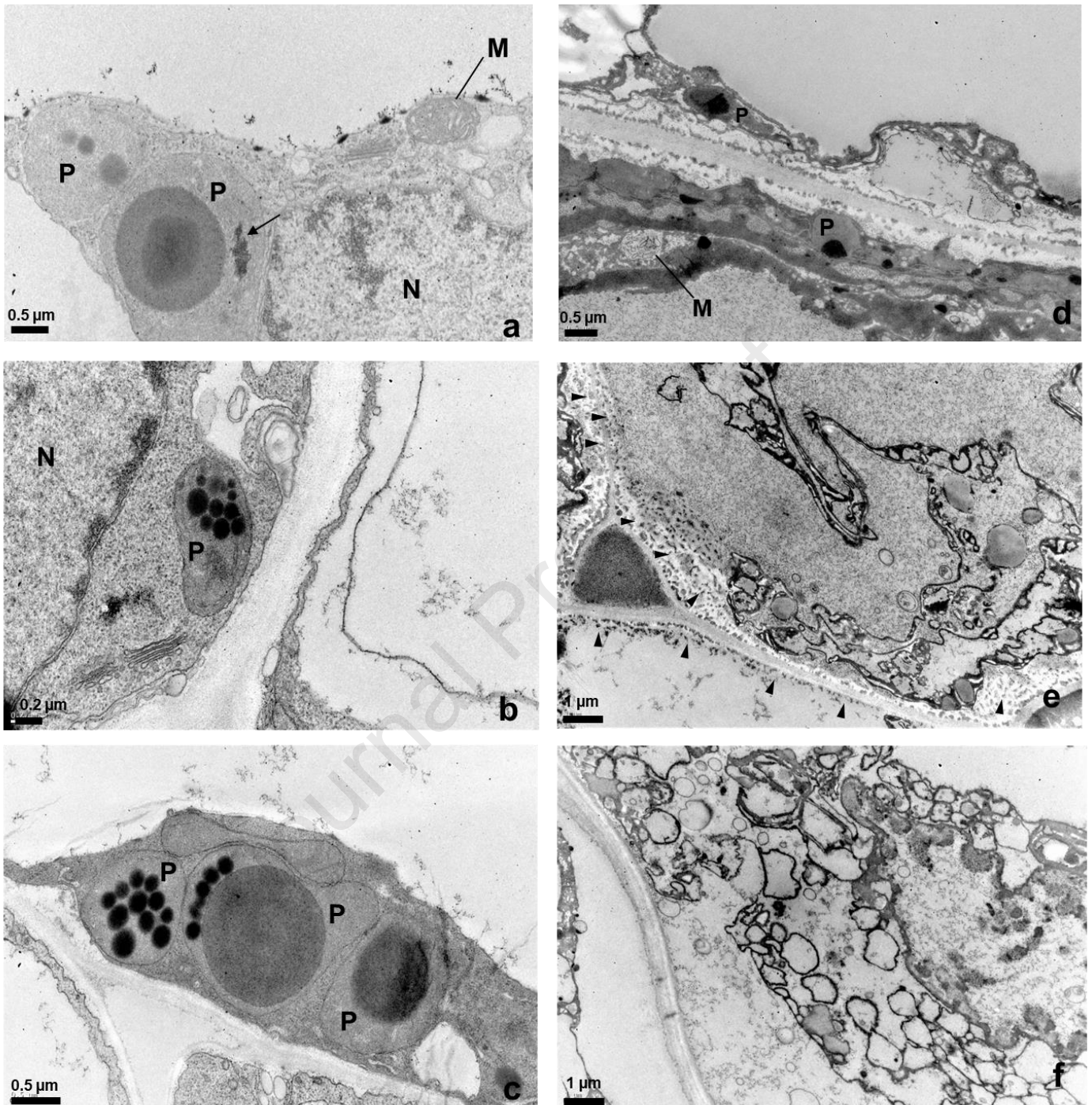
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388 **Fig. 7** – Cell ultrastructure of mesophyll cells of cotyledons of purslane seedlings germinated in MS medium
389 containing deionised water (0 g L^{-1}) and an aqueous extract prepared with dried eucalyptus leaves (250 g L^{-1}). (a, b, c) Region of control mesophyll cells displaying well-preserved chloroplasts, mitochondria, and
390 nucleus. (d, e, f) Portions of treated mesophyll cells, showing several lipid droplets (L), a feature only
391 observed in treated mesophyll cells, which also displayed chloroplasts with large starch grain deposition
392 (arrows; 7d, e) and accumulation of cellular debris (arrowheads; 7e, f) at the periphery of cells near the cell
393 wall (arrowheads; 7f) or even in the intercellular space (arrowheads; 7e). In treated cells, loss of cell integrity
394 and organization was commonly observed (7e, f).
395

396 The exposure of seedlings to the eucalyptus extract resulted in the loss of structural
397 organization of radicle cells, clearly indicating that their integrity was greatly affected by
398 the extract (**Fig. 8d-f**). Upon observation of numerous ultra-thin sections of cells treated
399 with the extract, severe damage to cellular components was perceived, as well as the
400 deposition of lipid droplets and aggregates of cellular debris resulting from organelle lysis
401 (**Fig. 8d-f**). These features were not observed in control cells, which exhibited cellular
402 preservation (**Fig. 8a-c**). Like mesophyll cells in the control group, proteinoplasts were
403 present in radicle cells (**Fig. 8a-c**). However, in cells exposed to eucalyptus extract, the
404 occurrence of proteinoplasts was only occasional (**Fig. 8d-f**).

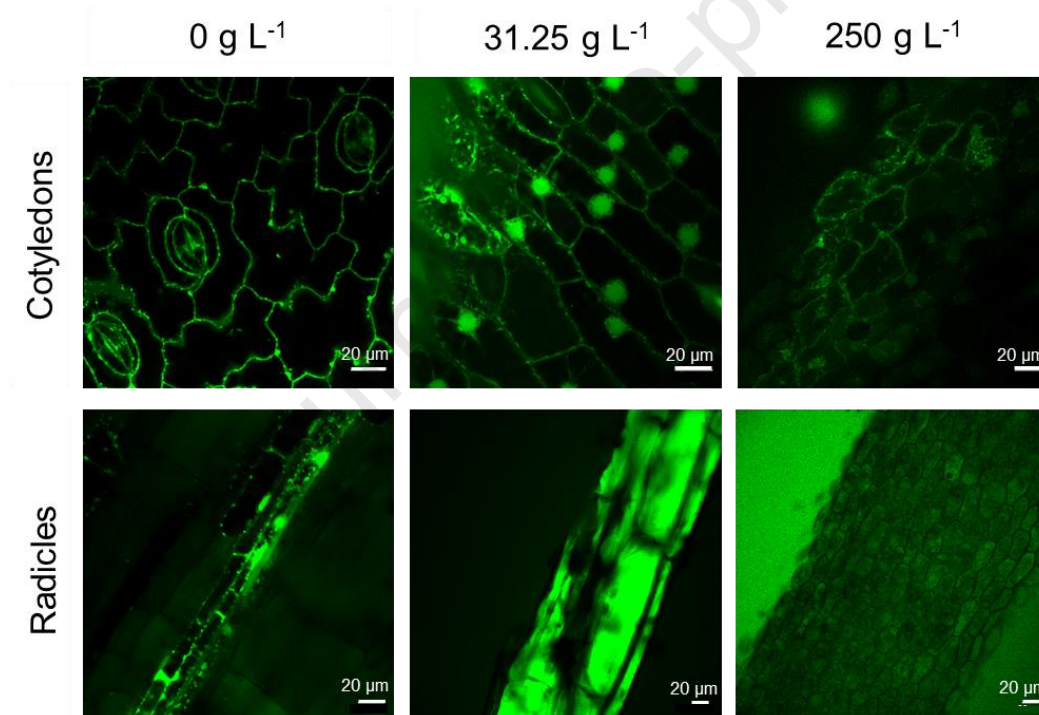
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0 g L⁻¹250 g L⁻¹

406 **Fig. 8** – Cell ultrastructure of radicle cells of purslane seedlings germinated in MS medium containing
 407 deionised water (0 g L⁻¹) and an aqueous extract prepared with dried eucalyptus leaves (250 g L⁻¹). (a, b, c)
 408 Portions of control cells with proteinoplasts (P), one of them containing ferritin (arrow; 8a), nucleus (N; 8a,
 409 b), and well-preserved mitochondria (M; 8a); (d, e, f) Regions of treated radicle cells showing a high degree
 410 of disorganization and loss of cell integrity. Negative effects of the treatment on mitochondria (M; 8d), on the
 411 accumulation of cellular debris near the cell wall (arrowheads; 8d, e) and lipid droplets are noticeable.

412 **3.2.3. ROS *in vivo* detection**

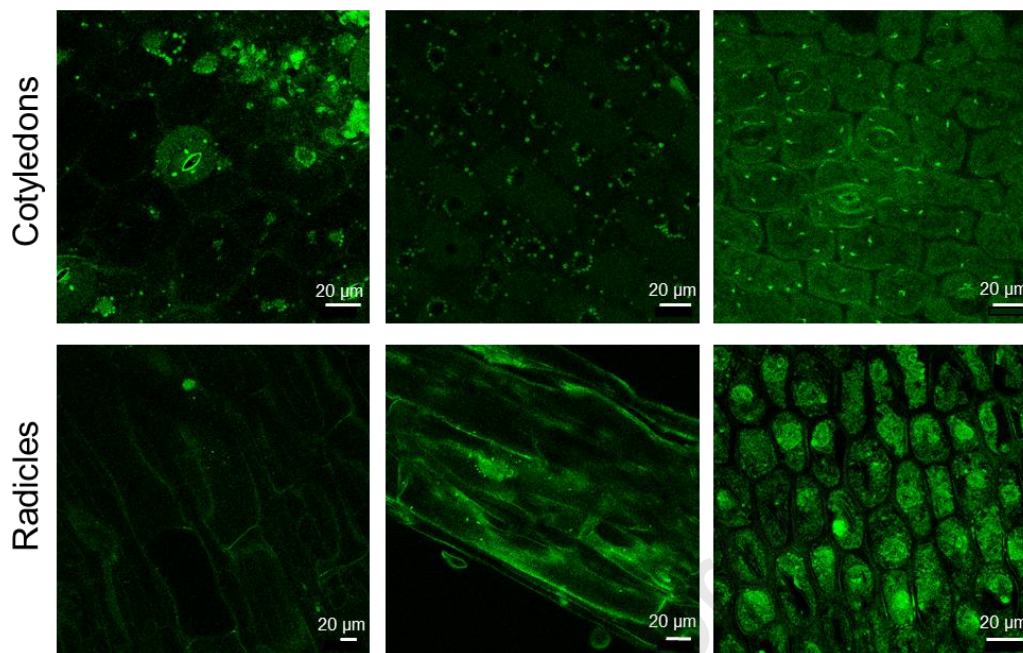
413 The exposure of purslane seedlings to the lowest concentration of the eucalyptus extract
 414 (31.25 g L⁻¹) induced an increase in H₂O₂ staining signal intensity in both cotyledons and
 415 radicles, while exposure to the highest concentration (250 g L⁻¹) of the extract resulted
 416 in a decrease in signal intensity in both organs, compared to the control situation (**Fig.**
 417 **9**). In contrast, exposure to 31.25 g L⁻¹ of the eucalyptus extract led to a decrease in O₂⁻
 418 staining signal intensity in both cotyledons and radicles. However, in seedlings
 419 germinated in the medium containing the highest concentration of eucalyptus extract, the
 420 signal intensity of O₂⁻ staining increased in both organs compared to the controls (**Fig.**
 421 **10**).



431 **Fig. 9** – H₂O₂-associated fluorescence [by using 2',7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate (DCF-DA)] of cotyledons
 432 (upper images) and radicles (bottom images) of purslane seedlings treated with deionised water (0 g L⁻¹)
 433 and two concentrations of an aqueous extract prepared with dried eucalyptus leaves (31.25 and 250 g L⁻¹).
 434 Note the increased signal intensity of H₂O₂ staining in both cotyledons and radicles when exposed to the
 435 31.25 g L⁻¹ concentration of the eucalyptus extract, while the exposure to the highest concentration (250 g
 436 L⁻¹) resulted in decreased signal intensity in both organs.

437

438

0 g L⁻¹31.25 g L⁻¹250 g L⁻¹

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441

442 **Fig. 10** – O₂⁻-associated fluorescence [by using dihydroethidium (DHE)] of cotyledons (upper images) and
 443 radicles (bottom images) of purslane seedlings treated with deionised water (0 g L⁻¹) and two concentrations
 444 of an aqueous extract prepared with dried eucalyptus leaves (31.25 and 250 g L⁻¹). It is noticeable a decrease
 445 and an increase in the signal intensity of O₂⁻ staining in both cotyledons and radicles upon the exposure to
 446 the lowest and the highest concentration of the eucalyptus extract, respectively.

447 4. DISCUSSION

448 4.1. Young eucalyptus leaves, applied as a soil amendment, have great pre-emergent
 449 biocidal potential, especially when prepared with DL

450 The soil incorporation of plant debris from species with allelopathic properties,
 451 resembling naturally occurring litter decomposition, can represent a sustainable strategy
 452 to prevent weed proliferation (El-Rokiek et al., 2011). In forest ecosystems, this leaf layer
 453 gradually releases the allelochemicals in the soil rhizosphere, inhibiting seed
 454 germination, and the subsequent development and growth of other plants . Although this
 455 natural property of eucalyptus leaves seems promising, especially in terms of economic
 456 costs, only a couple of authors have investigated this strategy using *E. globulus* biomass
 457 (El-Rokiek et al., 2011; Puig et al., 2013). While El-Rokiek et al. (2011) used DL, Puig et
 458 al. (2013) incorporated FL into the soil. Both studies concluded that the incorporation of

459 mature *E. globulus* leaves into the soil can be used for weed control. However, there is
460 a lack of knowledge regarding the pre-emergent biocidal potential of leaves from young
461 *E. globulus* trees and their potential cellular targets. In order to address this gap, fresh
462 (FL) and dried (DL) eucalyptus leaves were incorporated into the soil at different
463 percentages [1, 5, and 10% (w/w)] along with purslane seeds to evaluate the herbicidal
464 potential of young eucalyptus trees' biomass in a pre-emergent scenario.

465 The incorporation of FL into the soil did not detain an efficient pre-emergent
466 biocidal activity against *P. oleracea*. The number of germinated seeds with the FL
467 treatment was very similar to that of the negative CTL, indicating that the presence of
468 the leaves in the soil did not inhibit seed germination. Still, the presence of FL in the soil
469 severely affected the growth and development of purslane seedlings in a dose-
470 dependent manner – the higher the concentration of leaf fragments, the lower the growth
471 performance of seedlings. In fact, shoot elongation and biomass production were found
472 to greatly decrease upon exposure to increasing concentrations of the FL. However, the
473 same trend was not observed for root-related growth parameters, which exhibited similar
474 decreases when FL were applied at both 5% (w/w) and 10% (w/w). This reduction in root
475 growth was further supported by a decrease in cell viability, particularly at the higher
476 concentrations of 5% and 10% (w/w). These findings agree with the study of Abdelmigid
477 and Morsi (2017), where it was shown that allelochemicals released from fresh mature
478 *E. globulus* leaves caused DNA breakages, leading to senescence and programmed cell
479 death (PCD) in soybean seedlings, when fragmented leaves were incorporated into the
480 soil at different concentrations. Moreover, in response to allelopathic stress, various
481 types of proteases involved in PCD were also upregulated (Abdelmigid and Morsi, 2017).

482 Concerning the treatment with DL, a strong biocidal potential in a pre-emergent
483 context was verified, since seed germination was considerably inhibited when DL were
484 incorporated into the soil at 10% (w/w). In addition to the inhibition effect of seed
485 germination, the inclusion of DL into the soil at 10% (w/w) repressed the growth and
486 development of purslane seedlings in such a way that they did not develop any true

487 leaves, besides cotyledons. Furthermore, regardless of the applied concentration, the
488 number of germinated seeds in eucalyptus leaf-treated soils was also comparable to
489 those treated with s-metolachlor at the recommended application dose. S-metolachlor is
490 a selective herbicide that belongs to the chemical family of chloroacetanilides (Maronić
491 et al., 2018). This synthetic herbicide can be applied in both pre-emergent and early post-
492 emergent stages of weeds (Liu et al., 2012b). In fact, s-metolachlor characteristically
493 interferes in the earliest metabolic processes of seedling growth (Sherwani et al., 2015),
494 thus explaining the constant number of germinated seeds and the pronounced decrease
495 in the percentage of viable plants throughout the experiment. On the other hand, the
496 synthetic herbicide not only significantly impaired the growth of *P. oleracea* seedlings,
497 but also induced caused abnormal morphology. These divergent outcomes may rely on
498 distinct modes-of-action between the eucalyptus-based herbicide and the chemical
499 herbicide. S-metolachlor, classified as a shoot-growth inhibitor, exerts its effects on plant
500 cells by binding to acetyl co-enzyme A and molecules containing sulfhydryl groups. This
501 binding suppresses the production of very long-chain fatty acids (VLCFA) during seedling
502 growth (Sherwani et al., 2015).

503 Therefore, s-metolachlor disrupts cell development by inhibiting cell division and
504 elongation (Bach and Faure, 2010). In turn, the phenolic compounds present in plant-
505 based herbicides, when applied in a pre-emergence context, can reduce the activity of
506 α -amylase in seeds, thereby impairing nutrient supply for the embryo and affecting seed
507 germination (Radhakrishnan et al., 2018). This could potentially explain the significant
508 inhibition of seed germination observed when DL were incorporated into the soil at the
509 concentration of 10% (w/w), in comparison with the effect produced by the incorporation
510 of FL. While the chemical composition of an extract obtained from FL from young *E.*
511 *globulus* trees revealed a great content of compounds, like carbohydrates, ellagitannins,
512 hydroxycinnamic acids, and terpenoid derivatives, the drying process of eucalyptus
513 leaves enriched the aqueous extract prepared with dried leaves of young *E. globulus*

514 with low molecular weight compounds with known allelopathic activity like gallic and
515 benzoic acids, fatty acid derivatives, and flavonoids (Pinto et al., 2022).

516 Furthermore, due to the thin cell layers of primary root surfaces, the allelochemicals
517 present in bioherbicides can easily enter into root cells, affecting the cell cycle and cell
518 membranes' ultrastructure, as discussed below, which results in the inhibition of root
519 growth (Radhakrishnan et al., 2018). In fact, root length and biomass were severely
520 impaired upon the incorporation of DL into the soil at the highest concentrations. In this
521 way, the inhibition of shoot growth in plants grown in DL-treated soils [10% (w/w)] may
522 have occurred as a consequence of higher absorption of phytotoxic compounds by roots,
523 and/or impairment of nutrient uptake caused by the presence of allelochemicals in the
524 soil (Radhakrishnan et al., 2018), similar to what was observed with a post-emergent
525 treatment of purslane seedlings with an aqueous extract prepared with DL (Pinto et al.,
526 2021). Therefore, the treatment with DL at 10% (w/w) exhibited stronger herbicidal
527 activity in a pre-emergent context compared to the soil application of FL at the same
528 concentration. However, this activity differed from that of the synthetic herbicide, as they
529 affected different stages of weed development: s-metolachlor primary hindered early
530 seedling growth, while the eucalyptus-based herbicide primary impeded seedling
531 development.

532 4.2. Allelochemicals released from young eucalyptus leaves profoundly altered cellular
533 and subcellular structure and induced severe redox disorders

534 To unravel the potential mode-of-action and cellular targets of this pre-emergent
535 bioherbicide on the initial developmental stages of purslane seedlings, a complementary
536 experiment was conducted where purslane seeds germinated in a nutritive medium
537 containing an aqueous extract prepared with DL. The metabolomic profile of this extract
538 had been extensively characterized in a previous study, which revealed its richness in
539 phenolic acids, like gallic acid and benzoic acid, flavonoids, fatty acids, organic acids,

540 and amino acids (Pinto et al., 2022). To analyse the cellular and subcellular targets of
541 these allelochemicals present in eucalyptus leaves, cotyledons and seedling radicles
542 were studied at histological and ultrastructural levels. Furthermore, the production of two
543 important ROS, H_2O_2 and $O_2^{\cdot-}$, on both organs exposed to the extract was detected *in*
544 *vivo*, to assess if the eucalyptus leaf extract induces a burst in ROS accumulation that
545 could explain the overall herbicidal activity.

546 Synthetic and plant-based herbicides usually interfere with weed growth by
547 inducing severe oxidative bursts of ROS that the plant antioxidant system cannot surpass
548 as a primary target or as a consequence of their mode-of-action (Kaur, 2019; Šoln et al.,
549 2022). This condition can lead to serious oxidative stress disorders, like the degradation
550 of membrane lipids, thus causing lipid peroxidation and strong cell membrane damage,
551 which, in turn, can promote programmed cell death (Šoln et al., 2022). The contrasting
552 patterns of H_2O_2 and $O_2^{\cdot-}$ accumulation in both organs of purslane seedlings treated with
553 low and high concentrations of the eucalyptus extract indicate that at low doses,
554 phytochemicals may induce ROS production at levels that the antioxidant system can
555 effectively counteract. On the other hand, the exposure to high concentrations of the
556 eucalyptus extract may lead to an overwhelming burst of ROS, surpassing the capacity
557 of the antioxidant system. This explains the reduced intensity of the H_2O_2 -associated
558 signal and the great accumulation of $O_2^{\cdot-}$ in both organs of purslane seedlings treated
559 with the eucalyptus extract. These results were supported by the study of Babula et al.
560 (2009), in which cultured tobacco cells treated with naphthoquinones, such as juglone
561 and plumbagin, exhibited a clear overproduction of $O_2^{\cdot-}$. Additionally, it has been reported
562 that phenolic acids like benzoic acid and cinnamic acid, major components of the
563 eucalyptus extract used in the present study (Pinto et al., 2022), considerably impaired
564 the growth of *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *Cucumis sativus* plants, by inducing great redox
565 disorders, characterized by ROS overproduction (Ding et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2018).

566 In turn, this severe ROS oxidative burst induced by the allelochemicals present
567 in the eucalyptus extract can explain the marked loss of cell integrity and organization
568 registered in both organs of purslane seedlings treated with the extract. In fact, the
569 exposure of *P. oleracea* to the eucalyptus extract led to the loss of the typical leaf
570 anatomy of C4 plants, known as Kranz anatomy (Ferrari et al., 2020), thus showing that
571 the photosynthetic process could have been majorly compromised. In fact, the number
572 of chloroplasts of treated seedlings was strongly reduced and their morphology visibly
573 altered, presenting decreased size and huge starch grains. Accordingly, flavonoids, one
574 of the major phytochemical classes present in the eucalyptus extract, have been reported
575 to affect the photosynthetic activity of plants and to disrupt adenosine triphosphate (ATP)
576 production, leading plants to create energy supplies in the attempt of guaranteeing their
577 survival (Palma-Tenango et al., 2017).

578 Besides impairing photosynthetic activity, compounds belonging to chemical
579 classes of phenolic acids and flavonoids can affect the respiration process by reacting
580 with mitochondrial membranes, leading to the death of mitochondria (Palma-Tenango et
581 al., 2017; Radhakrishnan et al., 2018; Anwar et al., 2021). As a matter of fact, cotyledon
582 cells of treated seedlings showed decreased numbers of mitochondria. However, the few
583 remain had a similar morphology to the ones present in control cells. Besides preserved
584 membranes, mitochondrial cells of both situations presented dilated cristae, indicative of
585 a high respiration activity, which is a very common feature in seedlings of such young
586 age.

587 Radicles of *P. oleracea* exposed to the eucalyptus extract exhibited significant
588 cellular and subcellular alterations, characterised by pronounced cell disorganization and
589 disruption of cellular content, particularly in central cells. These central cells undergo
590 differentiation to form conducting vessels, which possibly make them more vulnerable to
591 the phytochemicals present in the eucalyptus extract, when compared to cortical cells.
592 Therefore, the observed ultrastructural damage can be attributed to the direct effect of

593 allelochemicals present in eucalyptus extract, which interfere with root nutrient uptake
594 (Palma-Tenango et al., 2017;Radhakrishnan et al., 2018a;Šoln et al., 2022). Additionally,
595 the substantial burst of ROS induced by eucalyptus metabolites in purslane radicles may
596 contribute to the observed damage.

597 The highly reactivity of ROS can target lipids of cell membranes and organelles
598 (Anwar et al., 2021;Šoln et al., 2022), contributing to the observed oxidative damage. In
599 fact, the accumulation of cellular debris in the cytoplasm of radicle cells exposed to the
600 eucalyptus extract might result from the induced organelle lysis. In line with this, Cruz-
601 Ortega et al. (1998) demonstrated that the allelochemical stress caused by the
602 application of an aqueous extract of *Sicyos deppei* resulted in significant cell
603 disorganization and reduced cell differentiation in the roots of *Phaseolus vulgaris*.

604 Furthermore, the exposure of purslane seedlings to the eucalyptus extract led to
605 the accumulation of lipid droplets in both organs and a reduction in the number of
606 proteinoplasts in radicles, with their absence in cotyledons. Lipid droplets, produced in
607 the endoplasmic reticulum, play a crucial role in transporting neutral lipids for energy
608 metabolism and membrane synthesis (Huang et al., 2019). They are involved in cell
609 signalling and respond to various stresses, including nitrogen depletion, by participating
610 in lipid membrane restoration (Huang et al., 2019).

611 The significant accumulation of lipid droplets in purslane seedlings treated with the
612 eucalyptus aqueous extract may represent a defence mechanism of plant cells against
613 the toxicity caused by the release of allelochemicals from eucalyptus DL. In fact, the
614 accumulation of lipid droplets has been reported as a common response of cells to the
615 application of plant-based herbicides (Radhakrishnan et al. (2018). Proteinoplasts are
616 organelles commonly found in *P. oleracea* cells, reflecting the species' richness in
617 proteins and fatty acids like omega-3 (Petropoulos et al., 2019). The oxidative stress
618 induced by the eucalyptus extract exposure may have resulted in the degradation of

619 proteins and lipids, which are primary targets of ROS attack under allelochemical-
620 induced stress conditions (Anwar et al., 2021;Šoln et al., 2022), potentially leading to
621 proteinoplast lysis in both organs. Indeed, at the ultrastructural level, a notable difference
622 observed in root cells of treated seedlings compared to control cells was a reduction in
623 the number of proteinoplasts and an increased presence of cellular aggregate deposits.
624 These deposits likely formed as a result of organelle lysis, indicating the occurrence of
625 early senescence events in these cells.

626 5. CONCLUSIONS

627 In conclusion, our findings demonstrated, for the first time, the promising herbicidal
628 potential of young *E. globulus* leaves as a pre-emergent treatment against *P. oleracea*.
629 Particularly, the application of dried leaves at the concentration of 10% (w/w) exhibited
630 great herbicidal activities. Additionally, our results emphasize that this eucalyptus-based
631 herbicide exerts its effects on purslane physiology by inducing excessive production of
632 ROS, leading to severe cell disorganization and loss of cell integrity in both cotyledons
633 and radicles.

634 To further enhance our understanding of the biocidal activity of this eucalyptus-
635 based herbicide, it is crucial to conduct tests under real environmental conditions and
636 evaluate its potential non-target effects on soil organisms and crops. These studies will
637 provide valuable insights into the efficacy and safety of this herbicide for practical
638 applications.

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649

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HIGHLIGHTS:

1. Dried leaves of young *E. globulus* had the greatest pre-emergent herbicidal activity;
2. Allelochemicals caused redox disorders in purslane cotyledons and radicles;
3. Phytochemicals induced the loss of cell organization and integrity;
4. Dried leaf soil incorporation can represent an alternative for weed control.

Author's contributions

MP: conceptualization, experimental design, investigation, writing of original draft, and manuscript review and editing. BS and MM: investigation. CP: investigation, manuscript review and editing, supervision, and resources. CS: conceptualization, experimental design, investigation, manuscript review and editing, and supervision. FF: conceptualization, experimental design, investigation, manuscript review and editing, supervision, resources, project administration, and funding acquisition.

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Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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