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POLYAMINE ANALYSES OF SEED PLANT ORGANS OF CROPS, VEGETABLES AND FRUIT/FLOWERING TREES IN AGRICULTURE, AND FORESTRY PLANTS IN NATURAL ENVIRONMENTS: CO₂ CAPTURED BY POLYAMINES ARE USED FOR CARBON ASSIMILATION IN PLANT LEAVES

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ABSTRACT

To determine taxonomically species-specific and organ-specific plant polyamines, cellular polyamines were acid-extracted from 95 seed plant organs, including agricultural, flowering and forestry products, and were quantitatively analyzed by high-performance liquid chromatography and high-performance gas chromatography. The distribution of 15 polyamines (e.g. diaminopropane, putrescine, cadaverine, norspermidine, spermidine, homospermidine, canavalmine, norspermine, spermine, thermospermine, aminopropylhomospermidine, homospermine, caldopentamine, homocaldopentamine and agmatine) were shown in 55 plant species of Eudicots of Angiosperms, 15 species of Monocots of Angiosperms, and 9 species of Polyamine profiles are compared and considered among mangrove plants, parasitic plants, salt-tolerant plants, saprophytic plants, aquatic plants, and succulent plants, furthermore among the organs; root, stem, normal green leaf, fallen leaf, evergreen leaf, acupuncture leaf, flower, flower bud, fruit without seed, fruit skin, seed, seedling, sprout, tuber, skin of tuber, tuberous root, and skin of tuberous root. Over the past 40 years, we have analyzed 261 species of seed plants and their 1-5 organs in our 21 reports. Therefore, we have drawn four conclusions "Novel polyamines and polyamine derivatives in seed plants", "Polyamine change in microbial symbiosis and infection in seed plants", "Polyamines of seed plant organs as a food nutrient for human health", and "Polyamines in CO₂ assimilation of photosynthetic plant cells".

Keywords: Angiosperms, Gymnosperms, Polyamine analysis, Plant organ, Seed plant

ISSN: 2455-6939

Volume: 11, Issue: 02 "March-April 2025"

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Characteristics of biogenic polyamines

High-basic and low-molecular biogenic polyamines (containing -NH₃⁺, =NH₂⁺, =N⁺=) ionically interact with biogenic acidic components such as ATP (-H₂PO₄), Acetyl-CoA (-H₂PO₄, -COO⁻), nucleic acids RNA and DNA (-H₂PO₄⁻), polyphosphoric acids (-H₂PO₄⁻), fatty acids (-COO⁻), amino acids (-COO) and acidic polysaccharides (-COO, -HSO₄), for the protection of the biomolecules in biological cells of life. Polyamines can interact with nucleic acids and proteins through hydrogen bonds (N-H---N, N-H---O). Biogenic polyamines are needed as a controller of hydrogen ion concentration (pH) as a unique base in cells. Nucleobases (purines and pyrimidines) (-NH₃⁺, =NH₂⁺) are included in ATP and Acetyl-CoA as well as DNA and RNA. Therefore, more than 35 kinds of natural biogenic polyamines (linear diamines, triamines, tetra-amines, pentaamines and hexa-amines, and tertiary and quaternary branched triamines, tetra-amines and pentaamines, and guanidinoamines) have been found in life on the Earth. These polyamines have various respective functions in the adaptation to environment for cell growth, the differentiation of cells to multicellular organization, and fertilization of organisms (Hamana, 2002b, 2023, 2024; Hamana and Hayashi, 2025: Hamana and Hosoya, 2006; Hamana and Matsuzaki, 1992). Various biomolecules covalently binding with polyamines were found in microbes. It has been known that polyamines stimulate the incorporation of carbonic acid (CO₂+H₂O = HCO₃⁻ + H⁺) into cells (Yasumoto et al., 2014, 2018; Kubota et al., 2024) and the binding of silicic acid (H₃SiO₄-) into biomolecules (Mizutani et al., 1998; Maddala et al., 2021). Silicon (Si) is a major element of the Earth's crust, therefore the biomineralization of Si is important for all organisms. Plant-specific carbonic acid assimilation through photosynthesis exposes terrestrial plants to light irradiation and heating. Polyamines can act as free radical scavengers in plant cells from oxidative damage by O₂-radical (Das and Misra, 2004; Fujisawa and Kadoma, 2005). Polyamines are one of the most versatile compounds in plant cells as well as in human cells, and we humans are ingesting various seed plant organ-derived foods containing plant polyamines. Plant polyamines are important for carbon dioxide (CO₂) assimilation into plants and to control global warming, ocean acidification, and the carbon cycle.

1.2 Development of biogenic polyamine analysis

Extraction methods of polyamines from plant organs and concentration and purification of polyamine fractions are a problem. Quantitatively chromatographic techniques for analyzing more than 35 kinds of polyamines are difficult. Chemically synthesized 35 polyamines are essential for chromatographic and mass-spectrometric polyamine analyses. Therefore, few studies on cellular polyamine distributions in various differentiated plant organs of taxonomically diverse seed plants have been reported, except for our studies. Using the excellent high-performance liquid

ISSN: 2455-6939

Volume: 11, Issue: 02 "March-April 2025"

chromatography (HPLC), (standard) gas chromatography (GC), gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS), and high-performance gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (HPGC-MS) developed to specialize for plant polyamine analysis (Figs. 1-3), we have analyzed simultaneously more than 35 kinds of normal linear and branched polyamines, as well as *N*-acethylpolyamines, *N*-methylpolyamines, 2-hydroxypolyamines and alkanolpolyamines. Except for a few commercially available diamines, linear triamines and linear tetra-amines (free, HCl salt or H₃PO₄ salt), more than 30 polyamines and various polyamine derivatives (HCl salt or HClO₄ salt) as analytical standards were chemically synthesized in our laboratories (Furuchi et al., 2015; Niitsu et al., 1993, 2014). White powders of diamine carbonate were observed on the bottle mouth of the free diamines (Dap, Put, etc.) in our laboratories at room temperature. However, polyamine weak acid (H₂CO₃) salt is biologically important in photosynthetic plant cells.

1.3 History of polyamine analysis of seed plants

A seed plant or spermatophyte is any plant that produces seeds. It is a category of embryophyte (i.e. land plant) that includes most of the familiar land plants, including the flowering plants (Angiosperms) and gymnosperms (Gymnosperms). By the transgenic studies of cellular polyamine synthetic and catabolic enzymes using a seed plant model Brassica, Arabidopsis thaliana, and a little of other seed plants, it has been proved that the common plant polyamines (e.g. diaminopropane (Dap) (3), putrescine (Put) (4), spermidine (Spd) (34), Spermine (Spm) (343) and thermospermine (TSpm) (334)) are involved in plant cell proliferation and differentiation and play a defensive role against various stresses and microbial infections (Chen et al., 2019; Hanzawa et al., 2002; Kusano et al., 2008; Minocha et al., 2014; Naka et al., 2010; Sheng et al., 2022; Takahashi and Kakehi, 2010; Takahashi and Motose 2021). Dap, Put and cadaverine (Cad) (5) (a diamine) and agmatine (Agm) (a guanidinoamine belonging to polyamines) are produced by the decarboxylation of diaminobutylic acid, ornithine, lysine and arginine, respectively and are precursor for triamine production. Dap is also produced from triamines and tetra-amines from polyamine oxidases (Salvi and Tavladoraki, 2020). Homospermidine (HSpd) (44) is generally found in plants and is believed to originate as a by-product of deoxyhypusine synthase and is a key intermediate in the biosynthesis of pyrrolizidine alkaloids (Ober et al., 2003; Zakaria et al., 2022). Furthermore, the transport system of the polyamines in plant cells has been studied (Fujita and Shinozaki, 2017; Stolarska et al., 2023).

We comprehensively and systematically have examined endogenous cellular polyamines in the roots, leaves, pods, flowers and seeds of vegetables belonging to the orders *Brassicales* and *Solanales* (Hamana et al., 2015, 2017; Niitsu et al., 2014), in the osmotic-resistant bodies of aquatic plants (Hamana et al., 1994, 1998, 2000), and in the seeds, seedlings (or sprouts), roots and leaves of agricultural crop plants belonging to the families *Fabaceae* (formerly *Leguminosae*) (Hamana and Matsuzaki, 1985b, 1993; Hamana et al., 1991, 1992a, 1992b, 1992c, 1996, 2019; Matsuzaki

ISSN: 2455-6939

Volume: 11, Issue: 02 "March-April 2025"

et al., 1990a, 1990b; Otsuka et al., 2005) and *Poaceae* (formerly *Gramineae*) (Hamana et al., 1994). We attempted first to analyze cellular polyamines in mosses (Bryophyta), ferns (Pteridophyta) and some gymnosperms (Hamana and Matsuzaki, 1985a) and recently extended our analysis to *Roseales* and *Fagales* organ polyamines (Hamana et al., 2025) in our 20 previous reports.

1.4 Poupous of the present polyamine analysis of seed polyamines

We reported here the distributions of the 15 normal linear polyamines; Dap (5), Put (4), cadaverine (Cad) (5), norspermidine (NSpd) (33), Spd (34), HSpd (44), norspermine (NSpm) (333), Spm (343), TSpm (334), aminopropylhomospermidine (APHSpd) (344), canavalmine (Can) (434), homospermine (HSpm) (444), caldopentamine (CPen) (3333), homocaldopentamine (HCPen) (3334) and Agm (Tables 1-3), detected in the additional 95 plant organs of agricultural crops (4 species), vegetables (13 species), fruit trees (7 species), flowering trees (4 species), forestry plants (18 species) and related plant organs previously analyzed, within the seed plants (Spermatophyte) belonging to angiosperms (Phylum Angiospermae) and gymnosperms (Phylum Gymnospermae), as shown in Tables 1-3. Polyamine distributions in taxonomically related plant organs previously reported are cited in Tables. Following our three recent reports in this journal, Int. J. Agri. Environ. Res. (Hamana et al., 2017, 2019, 2025), we present our fourth/final report, as a review of seed plant polyamine analysis, and expect plant polyamine analysis in agriculture, forestry and environmental research in Asia.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Cultivation and collection of plant organs

Although seed plants are distributed and cultivated in various environments on the Earth, we focused on collecting additional 95 plant organs of crops, vegetables, fruit trees, flowering plants and forestry plants, available in Japan. Although these additional plant organs in the present study are cultivated or collected as agricultural, floral, and forestry products in Japan, these polyamine analyses are provided and contributed to global applicability of the findings for species-specific and organ-specific polyamines. Seedlings or young trees of strawberry, mangrove, moringa, ice plant, fish mint, tea-plant, and olive were purchased from nursery companies located in various places in Japan and cultivated in Hamana home garden, Maebashi, Gunma, Japan. Organs of cherry (Japanese national flower), rose (Gunma prefectural flower), azalea (Maebashi City flower), pin oak, camellia, saprophyte, persimmon, maple, chinaberry, mistletoe, artichoke, and oyster plant were collected in Hamana home forest, Tsumagoi, Gunma, Japan. Apple fruits, kiwifruits, lotus roots, buckwheat seeds and *Brassica* plants (grown in Gunma), powder of tea leaves (made in Shizuoka, Japan) and powder of *Eucommia* leaves (made in Nagano, Japan), sea asparagus (made in J.O.R. Farm, Israel) and dried rooibos leaves (Rooibos tea) (made in South

ISSN: 2455-6939

Volume: 11, Issue: 02 "March-April 2025"

Africa) were purchased from food markets in Maebashi. Seedlings of konjac plants (a Gunma specialty), aloe plants, taro plants, and ginger plants of Monocots were purchased in Maebashi and then cultivated in Hamana home garden. Brown rice, seed powder of barley and banana fruit (produced by Banana Freaks Maebashi, Maebashi) were purchased from food markets in Maebashi. Rice bran and pickled rice bran (fermented for 2 months) were produced from brown rice. Organs of conifers of Gymnosperms were collected in Hamana home forest. Ginkgo organs were collected in the garden of Maebashi Institute of Technology, Maebashi. Root samples of tree plants were collected from the seedlings/young trees cultivated in the home garden and home forest. Seeds were water-cultured axenically to obtain buds, sprouts and seedlings (these three are not accurately differentiated in our studies).

2.2 Polyamine analysis

2.2.1 Polyamine fractions

After washing and weighting, plant organs (10-100g) were homogenized in the same weight of 10% (1.0M) perchloric acid (PCA) by a mixer and a sonicator. After three extractions with 5% PCA by centrifugation and filtration, the supernatant of the PCA extract was applied to a column (3cm I.D. × 1cm) of a cation-exchange resin (-SO₃-), DOWEX W50x8, and then polyamines were concentrated by the eluted with 6M HCl from the column. After evaporating, dissolving in water, and then neutralizing, the supernatant of the polyamine fraction was subjected to a column of cation-exchange carboxymethyl-cellulose (-COO-), Whatman CM23 (3cm I.D. × 1cm). Polyamines were eluted with 1 M HCl from the column and evaporated as polyamine • HCl.

2.2.2 HPLC analysis

HPLC of the concentrated/purified polyamine fraction by a high-speed, high-pressure elution have been performed on a Hitachi L6000 (Tokyo, Japan) using a column of cation-exchange resin, Hitachi 2619F (=Hitachi 2720) (4mm I.D. × 50mm) (Fig. 1) (Hamana, 2002a; Hamana et al., 2015). HPLC on a Kyowa Seimitsu K-101AS (Tokyo, Japan) using a column of cation-exchange resin (62210F, 4.8 mm I.D. × 8cm) (Kyowa Seimitsu) had been used in our initial studies.

ISSN: 2455-6939

Volume: 11, Issue: 02 "March-April 2025"



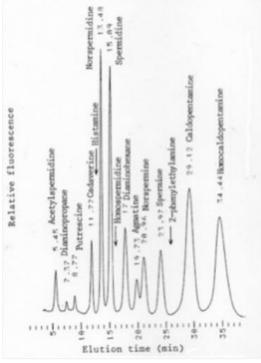


Fig. 1: HPLC elution chart of 12 standard polyamines (1-1,000 pmol) (Right) (Hamana, 2002a) by Hitachi L6000 (Left) constructed in Maebashi Institute of Technology (Hamana and Hayashi, 2025).

2.2.3 GC and HPGC-MS analyses

After heptafluorobutyrization of the polyamine fraction, (standard) GC on a SHIMADZU GC-9A (Kyoto, Japan) equipped with a packed column (3% SE-30/Chromosorb WHP, 3mm I.D. × 2.1 m) (Gasukuro Kogyo) (Fig. 2) or HPGC on a SHIMADZU GC-17A equipped with a long capillary column (0.32mm I.D. × 30m) of Inert Cap 1MS (GL Sciences, Tokyo, Japan) had been performed (Niitsu et al., 1993; Hamana et al., 2005). Furthermore, (standard) GC-MS on a JEOL JMS-DX 300 (Tokyo, Japan) equipped with the packed column or HPGC-MS on a JEOL JMS-700 equipped with the long capillary column, were performed (Fig. 3) (Niitsu et al., 1993, 2014; Furuchi et al., 2015; Hamana et al., 2015, 2019).

ISSN: 2455-6939

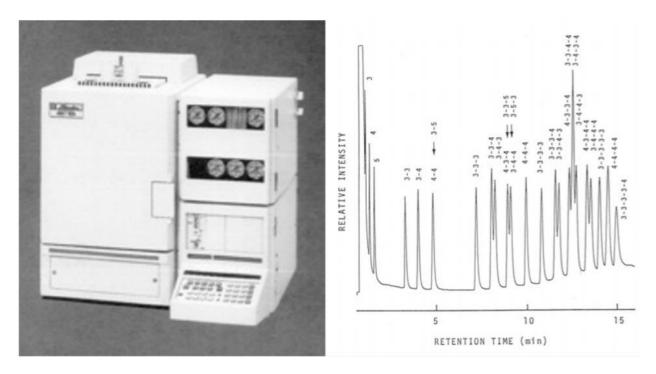


Fig. 2: GC retention chart of 24 standard polyamines (1 nmol) (Right) (Niitsu et al., 1993) by SHIMADZU GC-9A (Left) installed in Josai University. The photograph was provided from SHIMADZU Co. (Hamana and Hayashi, 2025). Abbreviations for polyamines in the GC charts are shown in Table 1.

ISSN: 2455-6939

Volume: 11, Issue: 02 "March-April 2025"

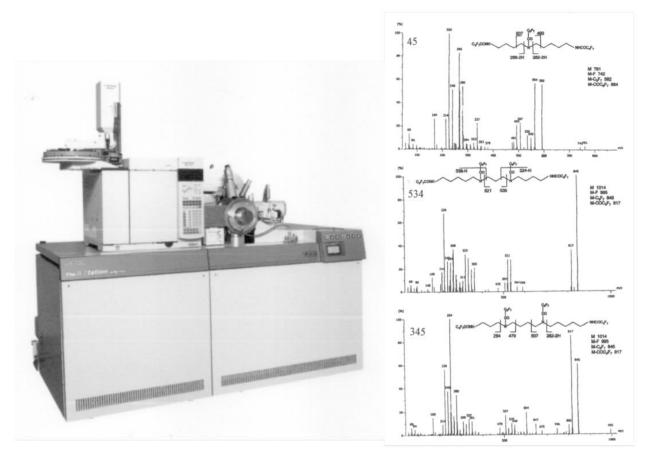


Fig. 3: Mass spectrum (MS) of three standard polyamines in HPGC-MS (Right) (Hamana et al., 2018) by JEOL JMS-700 (Left) installed in Josai University. The photograph was provided from JEOL Co. (Hamana and Hayashi, 2025). Abbreviations for polyamines; 45, aminobutylcadaverine (ABCad); 534, N^1 -aminopentylspermidine (AP1Spd); 345, N^8 -aminopentylspermidine (AP8Spd). The three polyamines were not detected in the seed plants analyzed in our studies.

2.2.4 Calculation of polyamine concentration

The molar concentrations of endogenous polyamines per gram of wet weight of the organ (µmol/g wet weigh) were roughly estimated from the charts of the HPLC, GC-MS and HPGC-MS analyses of the polyamine extracts and are shown in Table 1. Although the numerical values of cellular polyamine concentrations per wet weight of starting plant organ samples depend on its moisture, the major and minor polyamine components are measurable, therefore polyamine distribution profiles specific to plant species and plant organs can be discussed without statistical analysis of polyamine concentrations. Since we spend a lot of time and effort to extraction, HPLC and GC/HPGC-MS of polyamines of a plant organ, we cannot repeat polyamine analysis for a plant

ISSN: 2455-6939

Volume: 11, Issue: 02 "March-April 2025"

organ to obtain statistical validation in the present polyamine data for the 95 plant organs, as well as in our 20 previous reports.

Table 1: Polyamine concentrations in plant organs in Eudicots of Angiosperms

Plant species	Organs	References						Polya	amines	(µmol	/g wet	weight)				
Eudicots in Angiosperms																	
Rosids			Dap	Put	Cad	NSpd	Spd	HSpd	NSpm	TSpm	Spm	AHSpd	Can	HSpm	CPen	HCPen	Agm
Order Roseales			3	4	5	33	34	44	333	334	343	344	434	444	3333	3334	
Cerasus sargentii (Prunus sargentii) (Cherry)	root	Hamana et al ., 2025	-	0.02	-		0.56	0.20		0.02	0.14						•
"Ohyama-Sakura"	stem	Hamana et al ., 2025		0.02	-	-	0.58	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.27			-			
	leaf			0.15	-	-	1.80	0.03	0.01	0.02	0.75			-		-	
	fallen red leaf		0.03	0.25	-	-	1.40	0.02	•		0.25	•	•	-	-	-	•
	flower		•	0.16	-	-	0.75	- 0.01	•	0.01	0.15	•	•	•	•	•	•
Melus pumile (Apple) "Fuji since"	fruit stem	Hamana at al. 2025	0.10	0.16	-	-	0.80	0.01	•	0.01	0.35	•	•	•	•	•	•
Malus pumila (Apple) "Fuji-ringo"	fruit	Hamana et al ., 2025	0.10	0.10			0.72	0.10			0.03						
	fruit skin			0.30	0.05		0.70				0.12						
Eriobotrya japonica (Japanese loquat) "Biwa"	fruit	Hamana et al., 2025		0.44	0.07		2.10	0.10			0.15						
	seed	Hamana et al., 2025		0.17	0.02		1.60	0.02			0.27						
	leaf	Hamana et al., 2025		0.02	0.15		1.30				0.19						
Ficus carica (Fig tree) "Ichijiku"	leaf	Hamana et al., 2025		0.10	0.02		0.53				0.03						
	fruit	Hamana et al ., 2025		1.30	-	-	0.60	-			0.37	-		-		-	0.04
Fragaria ananassa (Strawberry) "Ichigo"	root			0.07	-	-	0.92	0.17		-	0.56	-		-		-	
	leaf			0.05	-	-	0.85	0.01		-	0.70	-		-		-	
	fruit			0.32	-	-	1.40	0.13	•	-	0.04	-	•	-	-	•	0.01
Morus alba (Mulberry) "Maguwa"	root	Hamana et al ., 2025		0.03		-	1.36	0.45	•	•	0.15	•	•	•	•	•	0.10
	leaf	Hamana et al., 2025		0.05		•	0.63	0.01	•		0.71		•	•	•		•
	fallen leaf fruit	Hamana et al., 2025		0.10		•	0.88 1.50	-	•		0.15	•	•	•	•	•	
Mama kambusis (Malkama) "Vamasuura"		Hamana et al., 2025	•	0.30		•	0.65	0.25	•	•	0.20	•	•	•	•	•	0.02
Morus bombycis (Mulberry) "Yamaguwa"	root leaf	Hamana et al ., 2025 Hamana et al ., 2025		0.25			1.80	0.25	•		0.03		-				0.02
	fallen leaf	Hamana et al ., 2025		0.04			0.55				0.03						
	fruit	Hamana et al ., 2025		0.80	0.10		0.25				0.10						
Prunus mume (Japanese apricot) "Ume"	fruit	Hamana et al ., 2025		0.90	0.01		0.25				0.01						0.03
Prunus persica (Peach) "Momo"	fruit	Hamana et al., 2025	0.03	0.85	-		1.40	0.01			0.15						
Prunus salicina (Plum) "Sumomo-soldum"	fruit	Hamana et al ., 2025		1.80	0.01		1.90	0.02			0.10		-				0.02
Pyrus pyrifolia (Nashi pear) "Nashi"	fruit	Hamana et al ., 2025		0.96	-	0.02	1.40	0.01			-	-	-	-		-	0.03
	fruit skin	Hamana et al ., 2025		0.85	-	-	1.04	-			•	-	-				1.00
Rosa multiflora (Multiflora rose) (Wild rose) "Noib	oara" leaf		0.05	0.17		•	1.10	0.01	•	•	0.45	•	-	•	•	•	•
	root			0.03	-	-	0.34	0.22	•	-	0.02	-	•	-	-	•	0.02
	flower			0.25		-	0.65		•	•	0.20	•	•	•	•	•	0.07
O-1-WI-LUL	fruit			0.10		•	1.40	0.04	•		0.45		•	•	•		0.50
Order Malpighiales	and arresses loof		0.02	0.60	0.01		0.40	0.01			0.05						0.03
Bruguiera gymnorhiza "Ohirugi" [Mangrove pl	ant] evergreen leaf root		0.03	0.60	0.01		0.40	0.01		-	0.05	0.02	-				0.03
Kandelia obovata "Mehirugi" [Mangrove p	lant]evergreen leaf			0.40	0.02		0.80	0.20		_	0.03	0.02					0.02
ranacia otovata inciningi [mangrove p	root			0.50	0.02		1.80	0.35		_	0.03	0.02					0.02
Rhizophora mucronata "Yaeyamahirugi" [Mangrove pl	ant] evergreen leaf			0.55			0.90	0.02		_	0.03	0.02					0.01
	root			0.40			1.15	0.18		-	0.08	0.02					0.01
Order Fagales																	
Quercus serrata (Pin oak) "Konara"	root			0.10			0.30	0.10		0.01	0.70						0.10
Querens servina (1 in out)	stem			0.40			0.75	0.10	0.01	0.01	0.70						0.02
						0.02		-					-	-			
	stem leaf		0.01	0.35	0.01	0.02	1.10 0.75	•	0.02	0.01	0.42	•	•	•	•		0.04
	fallen red leaf		0.01	0.65	0.01	-	1.45	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.75		•				
	seed			0.45	0.10		2.20	0.01			0.45		:				
Order Fabales				0.00			2.20				0.00						
Aspalathus linearis (Rooibos)	leaf [Rooibos tea]	Hamana et al., 2019		0.04	0.02		1.05	0.01	0.13	0.06	0.75				0.01	0.03	

ISSN: 2455-6939

	leaf [Rooibos tea]		0.05	0.25			1.20	0.03	0.32	-	0.18						0.35
	leaf [Rooibos tea]		0.04	0.12			0.75	0.01	0.05	-	0.10						0.10
Glycine max (Soy bean) (Soybean) "Daizu"	boiled soybean	Otsuka and Hamana, 2006		0.02	0.03		0.24	0.01			0.06						0.07
	fermented soybean ["Natto"]	Otsuka and Hamana, 2006		0.16	0.09		0.74				0.09						0.77
	seed	Otsuka et al ., 2005		0.80	0.10		1.56	0.03			0.29	0.01					0.30
	inmature seed	Hamana et al., 2019		0.17		٨	1.07		0.01	0.03	0.87						
Phaseolus vulgaris (Kidney bean)	seed	Otsuka et al., 2005		0.30			1.40	0.02			0.70	0.01	0.02				
	seed	Hamana et al., 2019		0.06			1.07	0.05			1.05	0.03					
Visia sative (Vetch)	seed	Otsuka et al., 2005		0.20	0.03		0.80	0.04	-	-	0.40	0.01		0.03	-		
Vigna mungo (Black gram)	seed	Otsuka et al., 2005	0.08	0.09			1.35	0.01			1.20	0.02	0.02				
Order Brassicales																	
Family Moringaceae																	
Moringa oleifera (Moringa) (Horseradish tree)	leaf			0.25			0.50			-	0.25						
	seed			0.15			1.02			-	0.10						
Family Brassicaceae																	
Brassica oleracea var. capitata (Cabbage)	leaf	Hamana et al., 2015		0.64			1.33	0.02		0.02	0.16						0.03
	root	Hamana et al., 2015		0.07			0.70	0.02			0.02						0.28
Brassica oleracea var. italica (Broccoli)	leaf	Hamana et al., 2015		0.27			1.46			0.02	0.17						0.35
	flower bud	Hamana et al., 2015	0.02	0.36			1.57			0.05	0.22						2.82
	root	Hamana et al., 2015		0.03			0.63	0.03		0.01	0.12						0.25
	seed	Hamana et al., 2015		0.08			2.40				1.26						0.30
Brassica oleracea var. botrytis (Cauliflower)	flower bud	Hamana et al., 2015	0.06	0.38			1.62	0.01		0.08	0.42						0.31
Brassica oleracea var. acephala (Kale)	leaf			0.47			0.69			-	0.27						
Brassica oleracea var. gongylodes (Kohlrabi) "Kabukanran	"stem		1.10	0.40		0.03	1.70	0.03		-	0.18						0.45
Brassica rapa var. perviridis (Japanese mustard spinach)	leaf	Hamana et al., 2015		0.46			0.75	0.01		0.04	0.21						0.01
"Komatsuna"	root	Hamana et al., 2015	0.01	0.18			1.19	0.08		0.07	0.32						0.08
	seed	Hamana et al., 2015	0.06	0.34			3.70	0.01		0.02	0.30						
Brassica rapa var. rapa (Turnip) "Kabu"	stem (root in 2015)	Hamana et al., 2015	0.09	0.17			1.42	0.01			0.03						0.01
Brassica rapa var. glabra (Chinese cabbage) "Hakusai"	leaf		0.05	0.73			1.89	0.02		-	0.40						
Brassica napus (Rapeseed) "Seiyou-aburana"	root	Hamana et al., 2015	-	0.18			1.12			0.02	0.10						
	leaf	Hamana et al., 2015		0.25			2.10			0.04	0.45						0.08
	flower bud	Hamana et al., 2015		0.45			1.35			0.02	0.08				-		0.16
	flower	Hamana et al., 2015	0.02	0.45			0.96			0.01	0.04				•	•	0.13
	seed	Hamana et al., 2015	0.02	0.50			3.10			0.02	0.25						
Raphanus sativus (Japanese radish) "Daikon"	root			0.50			0.32			-	0.06						0.50
Nasturium officinales (Watercress) (Cresson) "Kresson"	leaf	Hamana et al., 1994		0.30			1.90	0.01		0.01	0.08						0.01
	root	Hamana et al., 1994		0.10			0.80	0.01			0.04						0.01
	leaf		•	0.10			0.20	0.01		-	0.25			•		•	0.01
	root		•	0.02	-	•	0.50	0.01	-	-	0.20	-	-	-	-	•	-
Order Solanale s																	
Solanum tuberosum (Poteto)	skin of tuber	Hamana et al., 2017	•	0.29	•	•	1.00	0.04	•	0.01	0.16		•	•	•	•	0.02
	peeled tuber	Hamana et al., 2017	•	0.36	•	•	0.85	0.02	•	0.02	0.12		•		•	•	0.02
Ipomoea batatas (Sweet potato)	skin of tuberous root	Hamana et al., 2017	•	1.13	-	•	1.46	0.08	-	0.05	1.08	-	-	-	-	•	•
	peeled tuberous root	Hamana et al., 2017	•	0.55	•	٠	0.81	0.04	•	0.03	0.80		•	•	•	•	•
Order Proteales																	
Nelumbo nucifera (Lotus) "Hasu" [Aquatic plant	leaf	Hamana et al ., 1994	0.01	0.14	0.04		1.50	1.06			0.45	0.05				•	
	root	Hamana et al ., 1994		0.32	0.01		0.53	•			0.03				•		0.01
"Renkon"	root [lotus root]		•	0.55	0.03	•	1.60	0.12	•	-	0.12		•	•	•	•	0.18
Order Sapindales																	
Acer palmatum (Japanese maple) "Iroha-momigi"	leaf		0.20	0.40			1.90	0.18		-	0.60			•	•	•	
Melia azedarach (Chinaberry) "Sendan"	fruit		•	0.51			0.39	•	•	-	0.02			•	•	•	
Order Santalales																	
Viscum album (Mistletoe) "Yadorigi" [Parasitic plant]	evergreen leaf			0.56			1.80			-	0.50					-	
	fruit			0.20			1.20			-	0.05					•	
Order Caryophyllales																	
Salicornia europaea (Sea asparagus) [Salt-tolerant plant]	leaf and stem			0.10	0.02		1.65	0.03		-	0.06					•	0.02
(Salicornia) (Samphire) "Atsukeshisou"																	
Mesembryanthemum crystallinum [Salt-tolerant plant]	leaf		•	0.32	0.15		1.34	•	•	-	0.02		•	•	•	•	0.05

ISSN: 2455-6939

Volume: 11, Issue: 02 "March-April 2025"

(Ice plant)	root		0.02	0.04	0.03	•	0.70	0.04		-	0.02		•	•	•	•	•
Fagopyrum esculentum (Buckwheat) "Soba"	seed	Hamana et al ., 1994		0.30	0.09	•	1.30 0.95	0.20		-	0.65		•	•	•	•	0.01
Order Piperales	seed	riamana et at ., 1994	•	0.52	0.09	•	0.93	0.03		•	0.50	•	•	•	•	•	0.01
Houttuynia cordata (Fish mint) (Fish plant) "Dokudami"	leaf			0.25	0.05	0.02	0.75	0.20		_	0.25	0.02		0.02			
Trontagnia comina (150 mm) (150 piam) Doublam	root			0.42		0.02	1.33	0.55			0.32	0.02		0.02			
Asterids																	
Order Ericales			Dap	Put	Cad	NSpd	Spd	HSpd	NSpm	TCom	Com	AHSpd	Can	UCam	CDan	HCDon	Agm
Family Theaceae			1)ap	rut A	Cau 5	33 33	34	144	333	334	343	344	434	444	3333	3334	Agm
Camellia sinensis (Tea plant) "Chano-ki "	root		-	0.02	-		0.15	0.07	333	-	0.35		7,77	- 111	3333	3334	
"Yabukita-cha"	evergreen leaf			0.25			1.80	-		_	0.32						
	leaf powder [Matcha powder]			0.35			1.60			-	0.53						
	fruit peel (fruit skin)			0.12			0.60			-	0.02						
	seed			0.02			0.90			-	0.10						
Camellia japonica (Camellia) "Tsubaki"	seed	Hamana et al ., 1994	0.25	1.25	0.19		2.21	0.18			0.30						0.03
	evergreen leaf			0.04	•	•	0.70	•		-	0.40	•	•	•	•	•	•
Family Ericaceae																•	
Rhododendron molle (Japanese azalea) "Renge-tsutsuji"	leaf		-	0.24	•	•	0.65	-	•	-	0.10	•	•	-	•	-	•
	flower		-	0.29	•	•	0.43			-	0.02	•	•	•	•	•	
Pyrola japonica "Ichiyakusou"	leaf			1.50 0.06	•	•	0.83	0.08		-	0.06		•	•	•	•	0.03
Mantena la cita BCL la cina alla GC analazi ala	root					•	0.75	0.13	•	-	0.06	•	•	•	•	•	0.05
Monotropa hypopitys "Shakujou-sou" [Saprophytic pla	•			0.16	•	•	0.45	•		-		•	•	•	•	•	
Monotropastrum humile "Ginryou-sou" [Saprophytic plan Family Actinidiaceae	it whole plant		•	0.05	•	•	0.50	•		-	0.06	•	•	•			•
Actinidia deliciosa (Kiwifruit)	fruit		-	1.40			1.40	0.08		-	0.34			-			0.01
Family Ebenaceae																	
Diospyros kaki (Kaki) (Persimmon) "Kakino-ki"	leaf		-	0.60			1.30			-	0.35			-			
	fruit			0.10			0.70			-	0.22						
Order Garryales																	
Eucommia ulmoides "Touchu"	leaf [Eucommia tea]		-	0.01	•	•	1.80	•	•	-	0.02	•	•	-	•	•	0.02
Order Lamiales																	
Olea europaea (Olive)	evergreen leaf		-	0.05	•	•	1.60	-	•	-	0.40	•	•	-	•	-	0.02
	fruit			0.51	•	•	1.25	•	-	-	0.35	•	•	-	•	•	0.02
Osmsnthus fragrans (Fragrant orange-colored olive)	evergreen leaf		-	0.18	-	•	0.45	-	•	-	0.03		•	-	•	-	-
"Kin-mokusei"	fruit			0.16			0.55			-	0.05	-					
Order Asterales																	
Helianthus tuberosus (Jerusalem artichoke) "Kikuimo"	leaf		•	0.40	•	•	0.62	0.01	•	-	0.75	•	•	•		•	
	tuber			0.35			0.90	0.01		-	0.17						

Alphabetical abbreviations and numeric codes (number of methylene (CH₂) groups between amino (NH₂) or imino (NH) groups) of polyamines are used. Dap, diaminopropane [NH₂(CH₂)₃NH₂]; Put, putrescine [NH₂(CH₂)₄NH₂]; Cad, cadaverine [NH₂(CH₂)₃NH₂]; NSpd, norspermidine [NH₂(CH₂)₃NH₂]; NSpm, norspermine [NH₂(CH₂)₃NH₂]; NSpm,

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Polyamine distribution analysis of various organs of typical, characteristic or distinctive species in Angiosperms and Gymnosperms

Since the polyamines of the most of the 95 plant organs were analyzed by our HPLC only in the present study, quantitatively analyzing TSpm in the Spm peak on the HPLC charts was difficult. Previously published data and newly published data previously analyzed were determined by GC-

ISSN: 2455-6939

Volume: 11, Issue: 02 "March-April 2025"

MS/HPGC-MS in addition to HPLC. Tertiary branched polyamines, *N*-methylpolyamines, 2-hydroxypolyamines and alkanolpolyamines were not detected in the 95 plant organs and are not shown in Tables. Species-specific and organ-specific polyamine distribution profiles and polyamine distributions for adapting for growth environment are shown in Table 1 (Rosids and Asterids of Eudicots in Angiosperms), Table 2 (Monocots in Angiosperms) and Table 3 (Gymnosperms) and are described in 1-14. Though polyamine distribution profiles did not chemotaxonomically depend on chemotaxonomic positions within seed plants, we don't really care about phylogenetic classification in detail, therefore orders are arranged within classes randomly in Tables. Unfortunately, cellular polyamines of citrus fruit tree of Rosids of Eudicots and cacti of the order *Caryophyllales* of Eudicots were not analyzed in the present study.

Table 2: Polyamine concentrations in plant organs in Monocots of Angiosperms

Plant species	Organs	Reference	es						Polya	mines	(µmol/	g wet	weight)								
Monocots in Angiosperms				Dap	Put	Cad	NSpd	Spd	HSpd	NSpm	TSpm	Spm	AHSpd	Can	HSpm	CPen	HCPen	Agm			
Order Poales			-	3	4	5	33	34	44	333	334	343	344	434	444	3333	3334				
Hordeum vulgare (Barley) "Ohmugi"	seed [Rolled barley]		_	0.05	0.12			1.05				0.80									
,,	seed	Hamana et al .,	1994	0.02	0.95			0.80	0.01			0.35						0.05			
	seedling	Hamana et al		0.02	2.74	0.02		0.95	0.01			0.10						0.40			
Oryza sativa (Rice plant) "Ine" "Sasanishiki	brown rice	,		0.01	0.09			0.33	0.01			0.84									
, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	rice bran			-	0.22			1.06	0.01			1.40		-							
	fermented rice bran			0.02	3.00	2.00		0.90	0.01			1.50									
	seed	Hamana et al .,	1994		0.35	0.25		0.25	0.01			0.04						0.15			
	seedling	Hamana et al .,			1.65	0.13		1.07				0.07						0.37			
	leaf	Hamana et al .,	1994		0.10			0.86	0.02			0.42									
	root	Hamana et al .,			0.20	0.01		0.45	0.04			0.13									
Coix lacryma-jobi (Pearl barley) "Hatomugi"	seed	Hamana et al .,		0.10	0.20	0.10		0.50	0.02		0.01	0.10	0.01					0.02			
Panicum miliaceum (Proso millet) "Kibi"	seed	Hamana et al .,		0.08	0.80	0.02		0.45	0.01			0.25	0.01								
Sorghum bicolor (Great millet) "Morokoshi"	seed	Hamana et al .,	1994	0.07	0.45	0.10		2.04	0.02			0.09	0.01								
Phleum pratense (Timothy)	seed	Hamana et al .,	1994	0.08	0.20			0.50	0.01			0.04	0.01								
Zea mays (Corn) "Toumorokoshi"	seed	Hamana et al .,	1994	0.01	0.95	0.05		1.51	0.01			0.84									
	seedling	Hamana et al .,		0.12	3.42	0.35		1.37	0.01			0.12						0.12			
Order Alismatales	.,	,																			
Spirodela polyrhiza (Duckweed) "Ukikusa"	leaf	Hamana et al .,	1994	0.10	0.42			0.90	0.04	0.02		0.06				0.01		0.02			
[Aquatic plant]	root	Hamana et al .,		0.26	1.99			1.90	0.32	0.01		0.01						-			
Amorphophallus konjac (Konjac) "Konjac"	leaf	,			0.10	0.06		1.80	0.35		-	0.34									
	tuber (corm)			0.01	0.48			0.65	0.02		-	0.06	-								
	flower			0.01	0.10	0.52		0.75	0.15		-	0.50						0.04			
Colocasia esculenta (Taro) "Satoimo"	leaf			0.35	0.50	0.01		1.13			-							0.02			
,	tuber			-	0.35			1.27	0.05		-	0.10		-				0.05			
Order Commelinales																					
Eichhornia crassipes (Water hyacinth) "Hoteiaoi	"leaf	Hamana et al .,	1994	0.15	0.42		0.04	2.12	0.10	0.08	0.02	0.26			0.01			0.01			
[Aquatic plant]	root	Hamana et al .,	1994	0.40	1.95	0.04		0.90	0.42			0.02						0.01			
Tradescantia ohiensis (Spiderwort) (Oyster plant	t)root	,		0.02	0.22			0.82	0.10		-	0.09									
"Murasaki-tsuyukusa"	stem			0.31	0.35			0.06			-	0.02	-								
•	leaf			0.55	0.85	0.02		0.22			-	0.07									
	flower			0.40	0.33	0.20		0.10			-	0.01									
Order Asparagales																					
Aloe arborescens (Aloe) "Kidachialoe" [succuler	ı leaf				0.05			0.63	0.02		-	0.07						0.02			
Order Zingiberales																					
Musa acuminata 'Gros Michel' (Banana)	fruit				1.40	0.01		0.90	0.08		-	0.02						0.01			
Zingiber officinale (Ginger) "Shouga"	root				0.67			0.74	0.04		_	0.02									
, b-/	leaf			0.23	0.40			0.27	-		-	0.02									
	flower			0.19	0.14			0.40	0.01		_	0.03						0.13			

ISSN: 2455-6939

Volume: 11, Issue: 02 "March-April 2025"

3.1 Organs of Eudicots (Rosids and Asterids) (Table 1.)

Since the commercial cultivation of tea plants is thriving in Japan and that of rose and strawberry is prominent in Maebashi city, Gunma, these plant organs were included for analysis in the present study. Plant communities of *Cerasus sargentii* (cherry), *Rhododendron molle* (Japanese azalea), *Houttuynia cordata* (fish mint) and *Pyrola japonica* are protected in Hamana home forest, Tsumagoi, Gunma. *Helianthus tuberosus* is a naturalized plant in Japan and its tuber contains inulin. Therefore, polyamines of these plant organs were also analyzed in the present study. A part of polyamine analysis is described in 4. Organs of Asterids.

Polyamines of leaf, fallen red leaf, flower and fruit of cherry were additionally analyzed in the present study (Fig. 5). TSpm was detected in the leaf, flower, fruit as well as the root and stem but not in the fallen red leaf. HSpd was not detected in the flower. The polyamine profiles found in cherry organs is a typical polyamine profile in Rosids. In cherry, red fallen leaves contained lower levels of polyamines than green leaves, and flower lacked Put and HSpd. In wild rose root, high HSpd and low Spm levels were found. The rose flower lacked HSpd. The rose fruit contained a high concentration of Agm. In the fruit of strawberry, Put, Spd, HSpd, Spm and Agm were found. Fish mint contained high concentrations of HSpd in its leaf and root. This is the highest HSpd level observed alongside mulberry root among the seed plant roots analyzed in our studies. Furthermore, AHSpd (344) and HSpm (444) were detected in its leaf. In tea plant of Asterids, high Put, Spd and Spm levels were found in the leaves cultivated in Hamana home garden and similarly in the leaf powder as a food [Matcha powder] made in Shizuoka, Japan. The roots of the tea plant contained HSpd.

ISSN: 2455-6939

Volume: 11, Issue: 02 "March-April 2025"

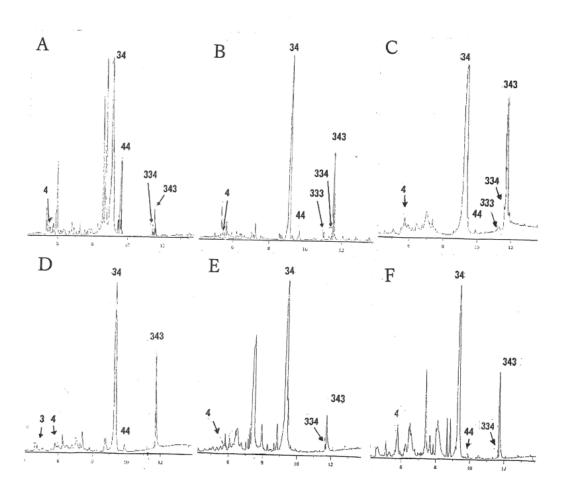


Fig. 5: HPGC retention charts of cherry polyamines extracted from roots (A), stems (B), leaves (C), fallen red leaves (D), flowers (E) and fruits (F) of *Cerasus sargentii*, by JEOL JMS-700. Polyamine peaks were identified by MS. Abbreviations for polyamines are shown in Table 1.

3.2 Brassicales plant organs (Table 1)

Brassicales plants are important vegetables, furthermore Arabidopsis thaliana as the type species of seed plants, belongs in the order Brassicales. Polyamine analysis of Moringa oleifera of the family Moringaceae and some Brassicacea species were added in the present study. Moringa (horseradish tree) is a short-lived, fast-growing, drought-resistant tree and is widely cultivated for its young seed pods and leaves, which are used as vegetables and for traditional herbal medicine. Put, Spd and Spm were the major polyamines found in the leaves and seeds of moringa. The stem of Brassica oleracea var. gongylodes contained Dap, NSpd, HSpd and Agm in addition to Put, Spd and Spm, detected as common polyamines in other Brassicales leaves (Hamana et al., 2015). Raphanus sativus and Nasturium officinales, newly analyzed in the present study, contained

ISSN: 2455-6939

Volume: 11, Issue: 02 "March-April 2025"

common polyamines. HSpd and TSpm were distributed as a minor polyamine in *Brassicales* plants (Hamana et al., 2015). The large root of *Raphanus sativus* have lower Spm concentrations. The morphology of the large stem of turnip (*B. rapa*) and kohlrabi (German turnip or turnip cabbage) (*B. oleracea*) and the large root of Japanese radish (*R. sativus*) is different. The flower buds of broccoli and cauliflower have a specific morphology and were rich in agmatine, however its level was higher in the green flower buds of broccoli rather than the white flower bud of cauliflower (Hamana et al., 2015). The polyamine distribution profile of their organs may be influenced by their species-specific organ morphology within the order *Brassicales*.

3.3 Leguminous plant organs (Table 1)

Leguminous plants consist of 650-745 genera (12,000-19,500 species) belonging to a large taxon, family *Fabaceae* (formerly *Leguminosae*) of the order *Fabales* in angiosperms and are important for agriculture products and food usage (Kondo et al., 1989). Unusual tetra-amines such as TSpm, AHSpd, Can and HSpm had been detected in the mature seeds but not in the immature seeds (Fig. 4) (Otsuka et al., 2005). An unusual long aliphatic diamine, 1,6-diaminohexane (Dah) (6), had been found in the roots of ten species and the seeds of two species (Hamana et al., 2019). In the sprout (seedling), the root region increased in the levels of Put and Cad levels, and the stem and seed parts increased in cadaverine level. Dap, NSpd, NSpm and/or CPen were distributed in some roots and leaves (Hamana et al., 2019).

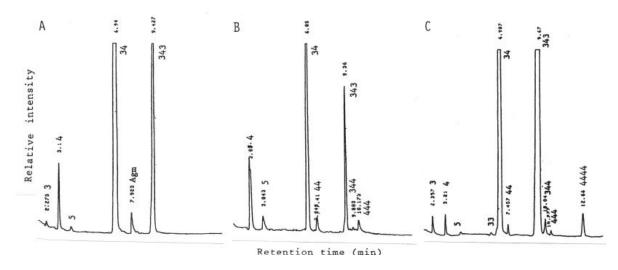


Fig. 4: GC retention charts of leguminous polyamines extracted from immature seeds (A), mature seeds (B) and mature seeds stored for 5 years after harvest (C) of *Vicia sativa* by SHIMADZU GC-9A (Otsuka et al., 2005). Abbreviations for polyamines are shown in Table 1.

ISSN: 2455-6939

Volume: 11, Issue: 02 "March-April 2025"

We have reported the occurrence of HSpd, NSpm, TSpm, CPen and HCPen polyamines in addition to common polyamines in the leaves of rooibos, *Aspalathus linearis* (Hamana et al., 2019). HSpd and NSpm were detected also in two different leaf products [Rooibos tea], reanalyzed in the present study. It is suggested that the occurrence of NSpm is universal within Rooibos tea products.

Natural occurrence of the two guanidinoamines, γ-guanidinooxypropylamine decarboxylated product of L-canavanine and homoagmatine (HAgm) decarboxylated product of L-homoarginine in the wisteria *Wisteria floribunda* and the sword bean *Canavalia gladiate* was reported (Hamana and Matsuzaki, 1985b). L-Canavanine and L-homoarginine are non-proteinogenic amino acids found in certain leguminous plant seeds. Leguminous seeds are rich in various polyamines and a treasure trove of biogenic amino acids and polyamines.

3.4 Organs of Asterids (Table 1)

Asterids are a large clade (monophyletic group) of seed (flowering) plants, composed of 17 orders and more than 80,000 species, about a third of the total seed plant species. The asterids are divided into two unranked clades lamiids (8 orders) and campanulids (7 orders) and the single orders *Cornales* and *Ericales*. The evergreen leaf of the tea plant is used as green tea. Olive oil and camellia oil as a food are extracted from their fruits. The fruits of kaki and kiwifruit (*Actinidia deliciosa*) are used as an edible fruit. *Eucommia ulmoides* is a species of small tree native to China and is highly valued in herbology such as traditional Chinese medicine. Olive is self-incompatible plant whereas the fragrant orange-colored olive is a dioecious plant.

A major occurrence of Spm was found in the evergreen leaves of *Camellia sinensis* (tea plant), *Camellia japonica* (camellia) and *Olea europaea* (olive), and in the leaves of *Diospyros kaki* (kaki), and *Helianthus tuberosus* (Jerusalem artichoke). A little amount of Spm was detected in the leaves of *Pyrola japonica*, *Rhododendron molle* (Japanese azalea), *Eucommia ulmoides* and *Osmanthus fragrans* (fragrant orange-colored olive). HSpd was detected in the roots. A chemotaxonomically specific polyamine profile was not found in Asterids.

3.5 Edible root, tuberous root, tuber and corm (bulbotuber) (Table 1 and 2)

Polyamine components of the stem of kohlrabi, the stem (root in Hamana et al., 2015) of turnip and the root of Japanese radish in *Brassicales*, and the tuber of potato and the tuberous root of sweet potato in *Solanales* and the root of lotus in *Proteales*, and the tuber of Jerusalem artichoke in *Asterales*, and the corm (bulbotuber) of konjac, the tuber of taro, and the root of ginger in Monocots, resemble those of the normal stem or root within the same orders of each other.

3.6 Aquatic plants under low osmotic pressure (Table 1 and 2)

ISSN: 2455-6939

Volume: 11, Issue: 02 "March-April 2025"

Although aquatic plans are sporadically distributed in seed plants, new polyamine analysis was not contained in the present study. The leaf of *Nelumbo nucifera* (lotus) of the order *Proteales* of Rosids contained HSpd and AHSpd, the leaf of *Spirodela polyrhiza* (duckweed) of the order *Alismatales* of Monocots contained HSpd, NSpm and CPen, and the leaf of *Eichhornia crassipes* (water hyacinth) of the order *Commelinales* of Monocots contained NSpd, HSpd, NSpm, TSpm and HSpm, as reported in Hamana et al., 1994. The occurrence of these unusual triamines, tetraamines and penta-amines is possible to be aquatic plant-specific polyamines for osmotic stress.

3.7 Salt-tolerant plants of the order Caryophyllales (Table 1)

Salicornia europaea and Mesembryanthemum crystallinum belonging to the order Caryophyllales of Rosids are salt-tolerant seed plants. The two contained Put and Spd as the major polyamines and Cad, HSpd, Spm and Agm as minor polyamines. The occurrence of Cad and the low concentration of Spm is possibly related to their salt tolerance.

3.8 Saprophytic plants of *Ericales* and parasitic plants of *Santalales* (Table 1)

Monotropa and Monotropastrum are small genera of non-photosynthetic, myco-heterotrophic (saprophytic) plants, with monotropoid mycorrhizae, belonging to the order *Ericales* of Asterids of Eudicots in Angiosperms. They have a short underground stem (rhizome), roots and chloroplast-deficient scale leaves. Although *Pyrola japonica*, a close relative to them, contained HSpd and Agm in addition to Put, Spd and Spm, the simple polyamine profile of the saprophytic species *Monotropa hypopitys* and *Monotropastrum humile* was Put, Spd, and Spm.

Viscum album, belonging to the order *Santalales* of Rosids of Eudicots in Angiosperms, is an evergreen semi-parasitic plant on deciduous trees. The leaf of *V. album* was rich in Put, Spd and Spm. The Spm level was poor in the roots. Within the present analyses, HSpd was not detected in a semi-parasitic plant nor in the two myco-heterotrophic plants.

3.9 Mangrove plants (Table 1)

Mangrove plants belonging to the order *Malpighiales* of Rosids of Eudicots in Angiosperms are salt-tolerant and are adapted to live in harsh coastal conditions and have evergreen leaves. The three red mangrove species (*Bruguiera gymnorhiza*, *Kandelia obovata*, *Rhizophora mucronata*) survives in the most inundated areas, props itself above the water level with stilt or prop roots and then absorbs air through lenticels in its bark. In the three species, evergreen leaves contained high levels of Put and Spd and low levels of Spm. Agm was detected in the leaves. The roots of three species contained AHSpd in addition to high concentration of HSpd. These polyamine-characteristics seems to adapt to coastal conditions and are salt-tolerant.

3.10 Succulents in seed plants (Table 2)

ISSN: 2455-6939

Volume: 11, Issue: 02 "March-April 2025"

The succulent plant *Aloe arborescens* belonging to the order *Asparagales* of Monocots in Angiosperms was analyzed in the present study. Put, Spd, HSpd, Spm and Agm were detected in the leaf of the succulent plant. Low Put level of the leaf was lower than other seed plant leaves.

3.11 Evergreen leaves and fallen leaves in broadleaf trees (Table 1)

Three types of carbon assimilation cycle are known in plant leaves. The C3 plant in which the first photosynthetic product is 3 carbon compounds, is the majority in seed plants. The C4 plant in which the first photosynthetic product is 4 carbon compounds is found in some seed plants and adapt to dry, strong light and hot environments. The CAM (Computer Aided Manufacturing) plant in which CO₂ is absorbed at night and photosynthesis occurs during the day enabling them to adapt to arid areas and deserts. A relation between the three types and polyamine distribution profiles was not found in our studies and polyamine data from plants grown in different climatic zones were not found in others.

In evergreen leaves of evergreen broadleaf trees of Eudicots of Angiosperms, Spm was detected in mistletoe, tea plant, camellia and olive as a major polyamine, whereas in three mangrove plants and in fragrant orange-colored olive it was present as a minor polyamine. When polyamines of leaves (green leaves) and fallen leaves in the deciduous broadleaf trees, cherry, mulberry and pin oak, in Eudicots were analyzed, a decreased Spm level was found in the three fallen leaves. In addition to Spm, other polyamines were present at high levels in photosynthetically active green leaves in the deciduous broadleaf trees. On the other hand, Spm level increased in the fallen leaves of two species of gymnosperms, as described in 13. Organs of Gymnosperms.

3.12 Organs of Monocots (Table 2)

Polyamines of the organs of Amorphophallus konjac (konjac), Colocasia esculenta (taro), Musa acuminata (banana), Zingiber officinale (ginger) and Tradescantia ohiensis (spiderwort) were analyzed in the present stuy. The leaf and flower of konjac were rich in HSpd and Spm whereas its corm (bulbotuber) was poor in the two polyamines. A high concentration of Cad was found in the flower. A low Spm level was found in the fruit of banana and the ginger organs. Dap was found in the ginger leaf and flower, furthermore the flower was rich in Agm. Dap, Put, Cad and Agm were widely distributed within Monocots and the distribution profiles seems to be organ specific (Hamana et al., 1994). As described in INTRODUCTION of this report, the identification of polyamines in the silica bodies of rice and analysis of their function in silica formation is interesting (Ozaki, 2018). Polyamines of brown rice, rice bran and fermented rice bran are described in CONCLUSION 3.

3.13 Organs of Gymnosperms (Table 3)

ISSN: 2455-6939

Volume: 11, Issue: 02 "March-April 2025"

The gymnosperms include conifers, cycads, ginkgo, and gnetophytes, forming the clade Gymnospermae. Some genera have ectomycorrhiza fungal associations with roots (*Pinus*), while in some others (Cycas) small specialized roots called coralloid roots are associated with nitrogenfixing cyanobacteria. A long time ago, the presence of mobile sperms of cycad and ginkgo was found in Japan. We had analyzed polyamines of the three groups (a cycad, ginkgo (a single living species) and some conifers) (Hamana and Matsuzaki, 1985). Unfortunately, HPGC-MS analysis of the polyamines of the three groups encountered issues in the present study. TSpm was estimated to be detected in the leaves and seeds of ginkgo based on our ion-exchange/post-labeled HPLC analysis (Fig. 7), therefore 0.01 (µmol/g wet weight) is tentatively filled in Table 3. The occurrence of TSpm in some seed plants including ginkgo had been reported by reversed-phase (RP) HPLC after benzovlation (Takahashi et al., 2018; Takano et al. (2012). The leaves of Ginkgo biloba, a deciduous conifer, and the deciduous conifer Larix kaempferi, as well as evergreen leaves of Cycas revoluta and other conifers analyzed contained a low level of Spm. Its level increased in the fallen yellow leaves of the former two. HSpd was found in the roots of three conifers as a major polyamine in the present study. The polyamine distribution profiles were slightly different among the three gymnosperm groups and their polyamine profiles are distinguished slightly from the profiles of another seed plant clade, Angiosperms.

Table 3: Polyamine concentrations in plant organs of Gymnosperms

Plant species	Organs	References						Polyar	nines (μmol/	g wet	weight)					
Gymnosperms			Dap	Put	Cad	NSpd	Spd	HSpd	NSpm	TSpm	Spm	AHSpd	Can	HSpm	CPen	HCPen	Agm
Class Cycadopsida			3	4	5	33	34	44	333	334	343	344	434	444	3333	3334	
Cycas revoluta (Sago palm) "Sotetsu"	evergreen leaf	Hamana and Matsuzaki, 1985	-	0.41			0.36			-	0.01						
	root	Hamana and Matsuzaki, 1985	-	0.62	0.02		0.05			-	0.01				-		0.07
	coralloid root	Hamana and Matsuzaki, 1985	-	1.30	0.68	-	0.68	0.02	-	-	0.13		-	-	-		0.39
Class Ginkgoopsida																	
Ginkgo biloba (Ginkgo) "Icho"	leaf	Hamana and Matsuzaki, 1985		0.16	-	-	0.64		-	-	0.14		-	-	-		
inkgo biloba (Ginkgo) "Icho"	root	Hamana and Matsuzaki, 1985		0.10	-	-	0.10	0.08	-	-	0.01		-	-	-		
	seed	Hamana and Matsuzaki, 1985	0.01	0.14	-	-	0.16	•	-	-	0.03	•	-	-	-	-	•
	fallen yellow leaf		-	0.30	-	-	0.85	-	-	0.01	0.40	•	•	-	-	•	-
	seed		-	1.10	-	-	0.50	0.08	-	0.01	0.10	•	•	-	-	•	-
Class Pinopsida [conifer]																	
Cedrus deodara (Deodar cedar) "Himaraya-sugi"	evergreen leaf	Hamana and Matsuzaki, 1985		0.85	-	-	0.71	-	-	-	0.16	•	-	-	-	•	-
Torreya nucifera (Japanese totteya) "Kaya"	evergreen leaf	Hamana and Matsuzaki, 1985	-	0.14	-	-	0.14	-	-	-	0.01		-	-	-	-	-
	female inflorescence	Hamana and Matsuzaki, 1985	-	0.10			0.01			-	0.01				-		
Pinus thunbergii (Japanese black pine) "Kuro-ma	t evergreen leaf	Hamana and Matsuzaki, 1985	-	0.25			0.26			-	0.08						
	female inflorescence	Hamana and Matsuzaki, 1985	-	2.40			0.11			-	0.09						
	male infrorescence	Hamana and Matsuzaki, 1985		0.38			0.25			_	0.03						
	fruit	Hamana and Matsuzaki, 1985		1.59			0.28			_	0.16						
	root	Hamana and Matsuzaki, 1985		0.16	0.01		0.21	0.01		_	0.01						
Metaseqequoia glyptostroboides (Dawn redwood)	leaf	Hamana and Matsuzaki, 1985		0.12			0.30			_	0.06						
Abies firma (Momi fir)	evergreen leaf	, , , , ,		0.47			0.75	0.01		_	0.25						0.02
weether (went in)	acupuncture leaf		0.09	0.30	0.02		1.35	-		_	0.13						0.02
	root (young)		-	0.47	-		0.45	0.35		_	0.26						0.03
Larix kaempferi (Japanese larch) "Kara-matsu"	leaf			0.10			0.78			-	0.10						0.01
7,7	fallen yellow leaf			0.01	0.01		0.20			-	0.26						
	root (young)		-	0.20	0.02	-	0.37	0.15		-	0.22				-		-
Class Taxopsida [conifer]	- 0																
Taxus cuspidata (Japanese yew) "Ichii"	evergreen leaf		0.02	0.20	-	-	0.73	0.02		-	0.06				-		
	root (voung)			0.15	0.02		0.22	0.15		_	0.18						

ISSN: 2455-6939

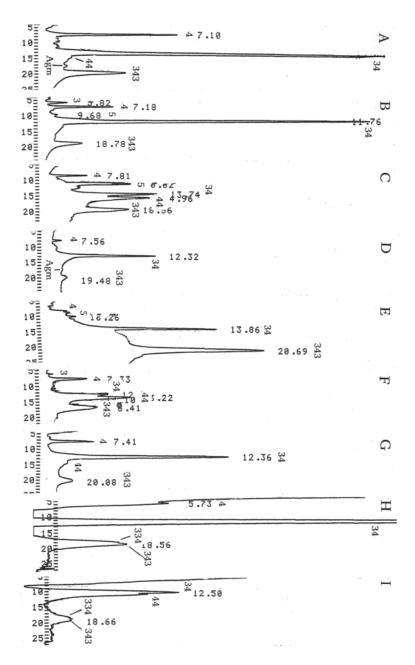


Fig. 7: HPLC elution charts of the conifer polyamines extracted from evergreen leaves (A) and acupuncture leaves (witches' broom disease) (B) of *Abies firma*, the roots (C), leaves (D) and fallen yellow leaves (E) of *Larix kaempferi*, and the roots (F) and evergreen leaves (G) of *Taxus cuspidate*, and the gymnosperm polyamines extracted from fallen yellow leaves (H) and seeds (I) of *Ginkgo biloba* by Hitachi L6000. In the low attenuation peaks in H and I, a shoulder peak corresponding to 334 in the broad peak of 343 was estimated. Abbreviations for polyamines are shown in Table 1.

ISSN: 2455-6939

Volume: 11, Issue: 02 "March-April 2025"

3.14 Polyamines in green algae, mosses and ferns in plant evolution and classification

The Archaeplastida (or kingdom Plantae) comprise the photoautotrophic glaucophytes (Glaucophyta), red algae (Rhodophyta), green algae and land plants (known as Embryophyta). Viridiplantae (green plants) include green algae of Chlorophyta and Streptophyta including Charophyta, as a higher evolved part of green algae, and land plants. Embryophytes have a common ancestor with green algae, having emerged within the Phragmoplastophyta clade of fresh water charophyte green algae as a sister taxon of Charophyceae, Coleochaetophyceae and Zygnematophyceae. Living embryophytes include hornworts, liverworts, mosses, lycophytes, ferns, gymnosperms and angiosperms.

We have analyzed polyamines in green algae (Hamana et al., 2018, 2023), mosses (Bryophyta) (Hamana and Matsuzaki, 1985a) and ferns (Polypodiophyta) (synonym Pteridophyta, Pteridopsida) (Hamana and Matsuzaki, 1985a; Hamana et al., 1988). Dap, Put, NSpd, Spd, HSpd, NSpm, Spm and TSpm were widely distributed in unicellular chlorophyte green algae. However, the tetra-amines, NSpm, Spm and TSpm were major polyamines in multicellular species. CPen and HCPen were detected in the multicellular green algal species. All polyamines detected in Chlorophyta green algae were distributed within unicellular and multicellular species of streptophyte green algae. Although major polyamines of species of mosses (14 species) and ferns (15 species) were analyzed by HPLC analysis, similar distributions of polyamines were observed in them. All polyamines distributed within seed plants as described in the present study had been distributed already through green algae, mosses and ferns in plant evolution.

4. CONCLUSIONS

4.1 Novel polyamines and polyamine derivatives in seed plants

Although novel polyamines and polyamine derivatives were not detected in the additional 95 plant organs analyzed in the present study, various unusual polyamines and polyamine derivatives had been found in our course of plant polyamine analyses. N^1 -Aminopropylagmatine (3Agm) and N^1 -aminobutylagmatine (4Agm) found in bacteria (Oshima, 2023; Ohnuma et al. 2005) have never been found in plants and algae.

4.1.1 Linear and branched polyamines in seed plants

Legume crops of seed plants are rich sources of long polyamines, especially in their mature seeds (Fig. 4). When we analyzed the mature seeds of 73 leguminous plant species, the tetra-amines aminopropylhomospermidine (AHSpd) (344), canavalmine (Can) (434) and homospermine (HSpm) (444), and the penta-amines caldopentamine (CPen) (3333), aminopropylcanavalmine (APCan) (3434), aminobutylcanavalmine (ABCan) (4434) and homopentamine (HPen) (4444), were sporadically distributed in leguminous seeds (Hamana et al., 1991, 1992a, 1996; Matsuzaki

ISSN: 2455-6939

Volume: 11, Issue: 02 "March-April 2025"

et al., 1990b; Otsuka et al., 2005). Tertiary branched N^5 -aminobutylhomospermine (AB5HSpm) (4(4)44) was detected in the seeds of *Vicia villosa*, *Vicia sativa* and *Phaseolus coccineus* (Hamana et al., 1991, 1992a, 1996). Quaternary branched N^4 -bis(aminopropyl)spermidine (BAPSpd) (3(3)(3)4) was detected in the seeds of *Crotalaria spectabilis* (Hamana et al., 1996). Penta-amines were not detected in immature seeds (Fig. 4). The occurrence of unusual long polyamines may be significant in protecting the seed against water deficiency and heat. Leguminous seeds are important for agriculture and foods are good sources for plant polyamines.

In the roots of ten leguminous species and the seeds of two leguminous species, a novel long aliphatic diamine, 1,6-diaminohexane (Dah) (6), has been detected (Hamana et al., 2019). Biological decarboxylation of L-homolysine (L-2,7-diaminoheptanoic acid), a non-natural amino acid, to produce 1,6-diaminohexane is unknown.

A novel tetra-amine, N,N'-bis(3-aminopropyl)-1,2-ethanediamine (323) was detected in the aquatic plant $Nuphar\ japonicum$ (Hamana et al., 1998). Two tertiary branched polyamines, N^4 -aminopropylnorspermidine (AP4NSpd) (3(3)3) and N^4 -aminopropylspermidine (AP4Spd) (3(3)4) were found in aquatic plants (Hamana et al., 2000). NSpd (333) and AHSpd (344) were widely distributed in aquatic seed plants (Hamana et al., 1994, 1998, 2000). The presence of unusual tetra-amines in aquatic plants suggested that active polyamine metabolism may be essential for the control of osmotic stress in land seed plants submerged in water.

4.1.2 Methylpolyamines (*N*-methylated polyamines) in seed plants

 N^4 -methylthermospermine (3(M)34) and N^6 -methylagmatine (MAgm) were first found in several leguminous mature seeds (Hamana et al., 1992a, 1993, 1996; Matsuzaki et al., 1990a). MAgm has been found in several gramineous plant seed and seedlings (Hamana et al., 1994). methylspermidine (3(M)4) was discovered in an aquatic plant (Hamana et al., 1998). N^1 , N^4 -dimethylputrescine N^1 -methylputrescine (M4),methylhomospermidine (M44) and N^1 . N^9 -dimethylhomospermidine (M44M) were identified in Solanales plant roots (Hamana et al., 2017; Niitsu et al., 2014). The occurrence of N^1 methylcadaverine (M5) was found in the root of Canavalia gladiate which is rich in cadaverine (5) (Hamana et al., 2019). N^1 -Methylputrescine (M4), N^1 , N^4 -dimethylputrecine (M4M), N^8 methylspermidine (34M), N^4 -methylspermidine (3(M)4), N^1 -methylhomospermidine (M44) and/or N^5 -methylhomospermidine (4(M)4) were detected in the roots, roots containing nodules or root nodules of Glycine max, G. soja, Phaseolus vulgaris, Pueraria montana, Vigna angularis, V. umbellate and V. unguiculata (Hamana et al., 2019). 3(M)4 was found in the seedling of Vigna mungo (Hamana et al., 2019). The endogenous distribution of N-methylated polyamine derivatives in plants is attractive for considering polyamine metabolism in relation to the route to some alkaloids and its function in plants.

ISSN: 2455-6939

Volume: 11, Issue: 02 "March-April 2025"

N-Acetylpolyamines have never been reported in plant samples. Ac-Put, N^1 -Ac-Spd, N^8 -Ac-Spd and Ac-Spm, have been found in bacteria and mammals in our studies and others, but were not detected in seed plant organs in our studies.

4.1.3 Hydroxypolyamines in seed plants

The hydroxy derivatives of polyamines, 2-hydroxyputrescine (1,4-diamino-2-butanol, 1,4-diaminobutan-2-ol) (abbreviated as H-4 or H-Put) and $\gamma(3)$ -hydroxyagmatine (H-Agm) were found in some leguminous seeds and seedlings (Hamana and Matsuzaki, 1993). H-Put and 2-hydroxyspermidine (H-Spd) produced from H-Put, were found in some bacteria as a major polyamine.

4.1.4 Alkanolpolyamines (Polyaminoalkylalcohols) in seed plants

In the 95 plant organs analyzed in the present study, no alkanolpolyamines or polyaminoalkylalcohol were found. The two aminopropylaminoalcohols *N*-(3-aminopropyl) aminoethanol (32OH) and *N*-(3-aminopropyl) aminopropanol (33OH) were first found in the seeds of a leguminous plant, *Dolichos lablab* (Hamana et al., 1992b). 33OH was also detected in the seeds of leguminous *Cassia obtusefolia*, *Sesbania rostata* and *Gleditschia japonica* (Hamana et al., 1996). *N*-(7-amino-4-azaheptyl)aminopropanol (333OH) had been found in the seeds of leguminous *Vigna mungo* (*Rudua mungo*) (Otsuka et al., 2005). 33OH have been found in gramineous sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor*) and timothy (*Phleum pratense*) seeds (Hamana et al., 1994). *N*-(4-aminobutyl)aminoethanol (42OH) and *N*-(4-aminobutyl)aminopropanol (43OH), were found in the root (containing nodules) of *Glycine soja* (Hamana et al., 2019). 42OH was detected in the root nodule of *Phaseolus vulgaris*, *Vigna angularis*, *Vigna umbellata* and *Vigna unguiculata* (Hamana et al., 2019). Although biological function of polyaminoalkylalcohols (alkanolpolyamines) is not clear, the occurrence of alcohol-derivatives of polyamines in leguminous roots, leguminous seeds and gramineous seeds is interesting.

4.2 Polyamine change in microbial symbiosis and infection in seed plants

In the present study, polyamines of acupuncture (witches' broom disease) leaves caused by the infection of the fungus *Melampsorella caryophyllacearum* in the leaf of a conifer, *Abies firma*, were analyzed (Table 3). In comparison with normal green leaves of *Abies firma*, Spd and Spm increased, whereas Dap and Cad appeared in the acupuncture leaves, suggesting an activation of polyamine synthesis and/or degradation in the infected leaves.

It has been suggested that polyamines are able to play a defensive role against microbial infections in seed plants, and may also contribute to cooperative interactions between host and symbiont in the microbial symbiosis of seed plants. The coralloid root of a fern palm, *Cycas revoluta*, containing a symbiotic cyanobacterium, *Anabaena cycadeae*, have HSpd (Hamana and Mastuzaki,

ISSN: 2455-6939

Volume: 11, Issue: 02 "March-April 2025"

1985; Hamana et al., 1988). Legumes belonging to the family Fabaceae are notable in that most of them have symbiotic relation with the nitrogen-fixing rhizobia Azorhizobium, Bradyrhizobium, Mesorhizobium, Rhizobium and Sinorhizobium. We found Cad, HSpd and new aminobutylcadaverine (ABCad) (45) in leguminous root nodules (Hamana et al., 2019). We showed a change in polyamine distributions in several plant disease conditions: Brassica clubroots caused by the infection of a cercozoan Plasmodiophora brassicae, in root-knot galls of tomato and eggplant by a root-knot nematode Meloidogyne incognita, and in powdery scab of potato tuber caused by the cercozoa Spongospora subterranean (Hamana et al, 2015, 2017). Though phytopathogenic tumor inducing (Ti) strains of Rhizobium radiobacter (formerly Agrobacterium tumefaciens), R. rhizogenes, R. vitis, R. rubi and R. larrymoorei are the causal agents of crown gall disease in higher land plants, we have shown the increase of HSpd in the crown galls of Roseales and Fagales plants (Hamana et al., 2025).

On the other hand, the closed leaf pockets of the ferns $Azolla\ imbricata$ and $Azolla\ japonica$ belonging to the phylum Polypodiophyta (Pteridophyta) contains a symbiotic cyanobacterium, $Anabaena\ azollae$. A significant amount of HSpd has been detected in the N_2 -fixing Anabaena-symbiotic organs (Hamana et al., 1988).

4.3 Polyamines of seed plant organs as a food nutrient for human health

In the present study, the polyamine profile of fermented rice bran for the pickled rice bran "Nucazuke" in Japan was compared to those of brown rice and original rice bran obtained from brown rice (Fig. 6) (Table 2). Polyamine profiles of bran and brown rice were closely similar, and polyamine concentration was much higher in bran, suggesting that polyamines of brown rice are localized in bran. After fermentation, Dap, Put, Cad levels were increased in bran, indicating that the three diamines were derived from plant lactic acid bacteria, plant propionic acid bacteria and film yeasts grown in the fermented bran. The levels of polyamine components, especially agmatine, in soybean seeds increased during fermentation using *Bacillus subtilis* to produce the fermented soybean known as "Natto" in Japan (Otsuka and Hamana, 2006), as cited in Table 1. Ordinally it is expected that fermented seed plant organs as a food result in increased polyamine levels. On the other hand, comparison of soybean cultivars for enhancement of the polyamine content in soybean "Natto" has been reported (Kobayashi et al., 2017). Phyto-polyamine supplements extracted from rice germs, soybeans (soya beans) and yeasts derived from Sake are commercially available in Japan.

ISSN: 2455-6939

Volume: 11, Issue: 02 "March-April 2025"

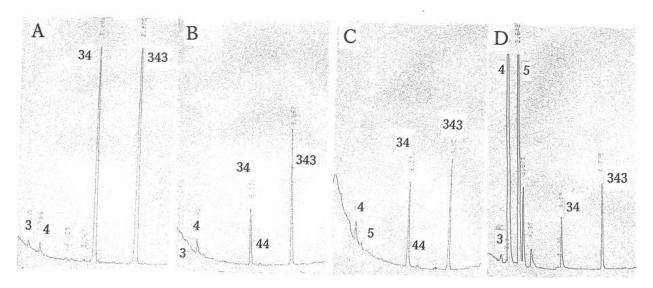


Fig. 6: GC retention charts of polyamines extracted from rolled barleys (A) of *Hordeum vulgare*, and grains of brown rice (seeds) (B), rice bran (C) and pickled rice bran (D) of *Oryza sativa*, by SHIMADZU GC-9A. Unknown tow peaks between the peaks of 5 and 34 were detected. Abbreviations for polyamines are shown in Table 1.

Polyamines are considered to play a role in the longevity of living animals and in prolonging mammalian lifespan as well as in the growth of plants (Handa et al., 2018; Madeo et al., 2018), so that ingestion of polyamines from foods have been proposed to combat the decrease in mammalian cellular polyamine levels caused by aging (Nishimura et al., 2006; Soda, 2015). It has been reported that oral supplementation of Spd and Spm increased blood levels of Spd and Spm and enhanced their possible biochemical and physiological functions in mammals (Soda, 2015, 2021).

Dietary spermidine for lowering high blood pressure was reported (Eisenberg et al., 2017). Al-Habsi, et al. (2022) reported that spermidine activates mitochondrial trifunctional protein and improves antitumor immunity in mice.

Polyamine analyses of leaves, fruits, seeds, and tubers of seed plants reported in our previous and present studies contribute provide valuable nutritional information on polyamine ingestion. In addition to a phylogenetic polyamine distribution catalogue in seed plants, the polyamine distribution profile in various differentiated plant organs as a plant-based food is significant, as suggested by Tiburcio and Alcazar, 2018. In humans, the common major polyamines of plants, Put, Spd and Spm, included in plant-derived foods are released by food digestion in the stomach under strong acidic conditions and in the small intestine under weak acidic conditions, and then absorbed in the intestinal tract (Soda, 2015, 2021). Green leaf powder of seed plants as well as bacterial and algal powders is a good polyamine source. Though polyamines derived from

ISSN: 2455-6939

Volume: 11, Issue: 02 "March-April 2025"

intestinal bacteria in human intestines are also absorbed, the enhancement of the growth of intestinal bacteria is needed for total polyamine intake (Matsumoto, 2021).

4.4 Polyamines in CO₂ assimilation of photosynthetic plant cells

Carbon dioxide assimilation is the process by which organisms convert carbon dioxide (CO₂) into organic compounds. This process is also known as biological carbon fixation or the Calvin-Benson cycle. CO₂ can be adsorbed chemically into biogenic amines, polyamines and alkanolamines (aminoalcohols) (Yasumoto and Hirose, 2018). It has been known that polyamines stimulate the incorporation of carbonic acid (CO₂+H₂O = HCO₃- + H⁺) in bacteria and eukaryotic cells (Yasumoto et al., 2014, 2018; Kubota et al., 2024). Biogenic polyamines capture CO₂ and accelerate extracellular bacterial CaCO₃ formation (Yasumoto et al., 2014). Furthermore, atmospheric CO₂ icaptured by biogenic polyamines is transferred as a possible substrate to Rubisco for the carboxylation reaction (Yasumoto et al., 2018). Since polyamines can adsorb and hold CO₂, plant polyamines are essential for CO₂ assimilation in photosynthesizing plant cells. However, high concentration (level) of Put, Spd and Spm were found in photosynthetically active leaves of seed plants, as shown in the present study. Furthermore, alkanolpolyamines (polyaminoalkylalcohols) were found in seed plants and algae. Non-photosynthetic, saprophytic seed plants have low polyamine levers, as shown in the present study.

For separating/collecting CO₂ from the atmosphere in DAC (Direct Air Capture) technology, membranes of amines (aminoethanol NH₂CH₂CH₂OH, etc.) are used. The absorbed CO₂ is released from amines by hot water vapor. CO₂ in the exhaust gas from thermal power stations is absorbed in an aminoalcohol solution. This process is similar to the biological CO₂-separating/collecting mechanism in the CO₂ assimilation during the photosynthesis of plants and algae. For the fixation of CO₂ in exhaust gas through microalgal liquid culture, CO₂ can be absorbed by endogenous algal polyamines and is used for carbon assimilation in algae.

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