

1 **Analysis of ergot alkaloid gene expression and ergine**  
2 **levels in different parts of *Ipomoea asarifolia***

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## 15 Abstract

16 Ergot alkaloids are renowned for their pharmacological significance and were historically  
17 attributed to fungal symbioses with cereal crops and grasses. Recent research uncovered a  
18 symbiotic relationship between the fungus *Periglandula ipomoea* and *Ipomoea asarifolia*  
19 (Convolvulaceae), revealing a new source for ergot alkaloid synthesis. While past studies have  
20 emphasized the storage of both the fungus and alkaloids in leaves and seeds, recent work has  
21 found they also occur in other plant parts. This study aimed to (1) examine expression of the  
22 *dmaW* gene, which plays a crucial role in ergot alkaloid biosynthesis, and (2) quantify ergot  
23 alkaloid levels across various organs and growth stages of *I. asarifolia*. Our findings revealed the  
24 highest levels of *dmaW* gene expression in young seeds and young leaves, whereas the highest  
25 ergine concentrations were found in mature leaves followed by young leaves. In light of previous  
26 studies, we propose three hypotheses to reconcile these conflicting results: (1) the possibility of  
27 an inefficient ergot alkaloid biosynthesis pathway, (2) the possibility that different types of ergot  
28 alkaloids are produced, and (3) the existence of an ergot alkaloid translocation system within the  
29 plant. Furthermore, ergine concentration and ergot alkaloid biosynthesis gene expression were  
30 detected in stems, roots, and flowers, indicating that ergot alkaloids are produced and  
31 accumulated in all studied parts of *I. asarifolia*, rather than being solely confined to the leaves  
32 and seeds, as previously reported.

## 34 Keywords

35 Ergoline alkaloids, morning glory, ~~plant-fungal-symbiosis~~, secondary metabolites, vertically  
36 transmitted fungi

## 38 Introduction

39 Ergot alkaloids are mycotoxins produced by several species of fungi, particularly those  
40 belonging to the Clavicipitaceae family. One well-known representative is the *Claviceps*  
41 *purpurea* fungus, which infects a wide range of cereal crops and grasses (e.g., rye, wheat, barley,  
42 oats, millet, and triticale) and replaces the host grain with dark, ergot-filled structures called  
43 sclerotia or ergots (Flieger, Wurst & Shelby, 1997; Krska & Crews, 2008). Interest in ergot  
44 alkaloids grew after the discovery of their pharmacological properties and clinical applications  
45 (Chen ~~et al.~~ *et al.*, 2008). For instance, ergometrine is widely used in postpartum treatment as it  
46 stimulates uterine contraction (De Costa, 2002). Ergotamine and its derivatives show remarkable  
47 anti-migraine efficacy through their interactions with receptors in the central nervous system  
48 (Silberstein & McCrory, 2003; Saper & Silberstein, 2006). Additionally, several ergot alkaloids,  
49 such as  $\alpha$ -dihydroergocryptine, bromocriptine, cabergoline, and pergolide, are effective in  
50 treating Parkinson's disease (Bergamasco et al., 2000; Mizuno et al., 2003; Curran & Perry, 2004;  
51 Van Camp ~~et al.~~ *et al.*, 2004). Cabergoline is also commonly used as a first-line agent in the treatment  
52 of prolactinomas (Corsello et al., 2003; Ono et al., 2008).

53

54 In addition to cereal crops and grasses, some plant species in the Convolvulaceae family have  
55 been reported to contain toxic bioactive compounds, including ergot alkaloids, indole-diterpene  
56 alkaloids, and swainsonine (Lee, Gardner & Cook, 2017; Cook et al., 2019; Beaulieu et al.,  
57 2021). Previous research has shown that these ergot alkaloids in Convolvulaceae species are  
58 produced by a new genus of symbiotic fungi in the Clavicipitaceae family, *Periglandula* (Kucht  
59 et al., 2004; Steiner et al., 2011; Steiner et al., 2012). These fungi contain the dimethylallyl-  
60 tryptophan synthase gene (*dmaW*), which is the determinant step in ergot alkaloid biosynthesis  
61 (Steiner et al., 2011). The types of ergot alkaloids vary among Convolvulaceous host plant,  
62 including chanoclavine, lysergic acid, lysergol, elymoclavine, agroclavine, lysergic acid amide  
63 (ergine), lysergic acid  $\alpha$ -hydroxyethylamide, ergonovine (ergometrine), penniclavine, setoclavine,  
64 festuclavine, ergobalansine, ergonovine, cycloclavine, and others (Beaulieu et al., 2015; Nowak  
65 et al., 2016; Steiner & Leistner, 2018). *Ipomoea asarifolia* (Desr.) Roem. & Schult. has been  
66 found to contain chanoclavine, lysergic acid amide (ergine), lysergic acid  $\alpha$ -hydroxyethylamide,  
67 ergonovine (ergometrine), and ergobalansine (Ahimsa-Müller et al., 2007; Steiner & Leistner,  
68 2018), while other host plant species are known to contain different ergot alkaloids.

69

70 *Periglandula* fungi are primarily associated with the leaves and seeds of their host plants  
71 (Ahimsa-Müller et al., 2007; Steiner & Leistner, 2018), and ergot alkaloids have been detected in  
72 both the leaves and seeds of the plants (Markert et al., 2008; Nowak et al., 2016). Our recent  
73 study examined numerous parts of *Ipomoea asarifolia* and discovered *Periglandula ipomoeae* on  
74 six out of eight plant parts: young folded leaves, mature leaves, flower buds, mature flowers,  
75 young seeds, and mature seeds (Olaranont et al., 2022). However, it is still uncertain which parts  
76 of *I. asarifolia* (both fungus-associated and non-associated) contain ergot alkaloids. To confirm  
77 the sites of ergot alkaloid biosynthesis in *I. asarifolia*, this study (+) examined gene expression  
78 levels of the *dmaW* gene, which is essential for the determining step in ergot alkaloid  
79 biosynthesis (Steiner et al., 2006; Ahimsa-Müller et al., 2007), and (-) quantified the amount of  
80 ergot alkaloids in different parts of *I. asarifolia*. Such knowledge will better our understanding of  
81 symbioses between ergot alkaloid-producing fungi and their host plants.

82

## 83 **Materials & Methods**

### 84 **Sample collection**

85 **We** collected *Ipomoea asarifolia* (Desr.) Roem. & Schult. from its natural habitat in Na Di  
86 District, Prachin Buri province, Thailand (14° 08' N, 101° 44' E). The plant was identified by P.  
87 Traiperm and voucher specimen (Y. Olaranont 07) is stored in the Department of National Parks,  
88 Wildlife and Plant Conservation, Bangkok, Thailand. All institutional and national guidelines  
89 and legislation were adhered to in the production of this study. Permission to collect plant  
90 specimens was granted by private land owners. **We** collected the following plant parts and  
91 developmental stages of interest: young (folded) leaves, mature (opened) leaves, stems, roots,  
92 flower buds, mature flowers, young (still green) seeds, and mature (completely ripe) seeds. **We**  
93 kept samples on ice during transport to the lab and, upon arrival, transferred gene expression

94 samples to a -80°C freezer and placed ergot alkaloid quantification samples in an oven at 40°C to  
95 dry. Moreover, before conducting gene expression and ergot alkaloid analyses, we first wanted to  
96 ensure that the fungus was present on our study plants. We therefore used additional fresh young  
97 leaves that we had collected from our study plants to confirm the presence of the fungus via  
98 staining (see below) before proceeding with the remaining analyses.

99

### 100 **Confirmation of fungal presence**

101 We confirmed the presence of the fungus using a staining method with lactophenol cotton blue  
102 (Sangeetha & Thangadurai, 2013). We cut fresh young leaves and soaked them in 10% KOH  
103 until clear. After a gentle rinse with water, we stained the adaxial surface of the samples with  
104 lactophenol cotton blue, which stained the fungal hyphae blue and facilitated observation under a  
105 light microscope (Olympus CX21). We previously confirmed that the fungal species was  
106 *Periglandula ipomoeae* using molecular analysis (Olaranont et al., 2022). As all examined leaves  
107 were found to exhibit the fungus, we proceeded to use our remaining samples for the gene  
108 expression and ergot alkaloid analyses.

109

### 110 **Total RNA extraction and cDNA synthesis**

111 We extracted total RNA from frozen samples (stored at -80°C) of each plant part (five replicates  
112 per plant part) using the CTAB method (slightly modified from Morante-Cariel et al. (2014)).  
113 We ground each sample with liquid nitrogen and incubated approximately 200 mg of the ground  
114 sample with a CTAB extraction buffer (300 mM Tris-HCl, 25 mM EDTA, 2 M NaCl, 2%  
115 CTAB, 2% PVPP, and 2% β-mercaptoethanol) at 65°C, before treating samples with  
116 chloroform-isoamylalcohol (24:1), 3 M sodium acetate, isopropanol, and 10 M LiCl. We  
117 purified total RNA by treating it with DNase using the DNA-free™ DNA Removal Kit  
118 (Invitrogen). We then used the purified RNA as a template for synthesizing first-strand cDNA  
119 with the iScript™ cDNA Synthesis Kit (Bio-Rad, CA, USA) following manufacturer's protocol.  
120 We stored the synthesized cDNA at -20°C until use.

121

### 122 **Quantitative real-time PCR**

123 We used quantitative RT-PCR (qRT-PCR) to measure expression of the *dmaW* gene compared to  
124 three reference genes, all of which are fungal genes. Primers for the *dmaW* gene and reference  
125 genes (*actG*, *atp6*, *tefA*) are listed in Table 1. We developed primers using sequences from the  
126 NCBI database. We BLAST searched each primer against the whole genome of *I. asarifolia* to  
127 confirm that they are specific to the fungus, with no matches in the plant genome. We conducted  
128 qRT-PCR using KAPA SYBR® FAST qPCR Master Mix (2X) with 10 ng of template per  
129 reaction (Supplemental file S2). We analyzed each of the five samples per plant part in triplicate  
130 using 7,500/7,500 Fast Real-Time PCR Systems (Applied Biosystems, CA, USA). We calculated  
131 the relative expression of the *dmaW* gene using the  $2^{-\Delta Ct}$  method (Livak & Schmittgen, 2001).  
132 The Ct value of the *dmaW* gene was compared to the average Ct value of the three reference  
133 genes in each plant part to obtain the  $\Delta Ct$ .

134 **Table 1: List of primers used in this study. Some Examples of Genes and Primer sequences**

135  
136 **Ergot alkaloid analysis**

137 We quantified ergine concentration (a representative of ergot alkaloids) using high-pressure  
138 liquid chromatography (Waters Alliance 2695 HPLC). We dried fresh samples (three replicates  
139 per plant part) at 40°C in forced convection oven for 3 days. The dried samples stored in closed  
140 container with silica gel before alkaloid extraction. We then ground each sample until it was fine  
141 enough to pass through a 425-µm sieve. We soaked approximately 50 mg of the fine powder in 1  
142 ml of gradient-grade methanol (Lichrosolv® by Merck) for 3 days at 4°C and vortexed samples  
143 daily (Beaulieu et al., 2015). We filtered the methanol extract of each sample through a 0.45-µm  
144 filter and analyzed the extracts via reverse-phase HPLC on a C18 column (Zorbax Eclipse Plus  
145 C18: 4.6 × 150 mm i.d., 5 µm; Agilent, USA) with a fluorescence detector set to excitation and  
146 emission wavelengths of 310 nm and 410 nm, respectively. We performed the multilinear  
147 gradient procedure following Panaccione et al. (2012). We used commercial lysergamide (ergine)  
148 as a standard solution (purchased from TRC Canada) and diluted it with acetonitrile to create  
149 calibration standards at 50, 500, 1500, 3000, and 6000 ng/ml. We used the Empower  
150 Chromatography Data System for quantitative analysis of ergine.

151  
152 **Statistical analysis**

153 We performed all statistical analyses in R version 4.2.1 (R Core Team, 2016). We compared  
154 differences in relative gene expression across plant parts using the nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis  
155 test with Wilcoxon's multiple comparisons test, given the non-normality of the residuals  
156 (Shapiro–Wilk test). We compared differences in ergine concentrations across plant parts using a  
157 one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey's multiple comparisons test. Finally, we  
158 examined the correlation between relative gene expression and ergot alkaloid concentration  
159 using Pearson's correlation coefficient.

160  
161 **Results**

162 Fungal presence on *I. asarifolia* was confirmed via staining with lactophenol cotton blue. Blue  
163 fungal mycelia were detected on the adaxial surface of all young leaves examined (Fig. 1a).  
164 Fungal hyphae were observed associating with plant glandular trichomes (Fig. 1b). Our previous  
165 experiment confirmed that this fungus is *P. ipomoea* (Olaranont et al., 2022).

166  
167 **Figure 1: Fungal hyphae stained by with lactophenol cotton blue.**

168 (a) Groups of hyphae on the adaxial surface of a young leaf. (b) Close up photo showing the  
169 association between fungal hyphae and glandular trichomes (indicated by black arrows) on the  
170 leaf surface.

171  
172 The highest relative expression of the *dmaW* gene was found in young seeds, followed by young  
173 leaves, flower buds, mature leaves, mature seeds, mature flowers, stems, and roots, respectively

174 (Fig. 2). The expression level of the *dmaW* transcript in young seeds was 200 times greater than  
175 in roots, which had the lowest expression levels. Comparing young and mature stages revealed  
176 higher expression in young leaves, flower buds, and young seeds compared to their mature  
177 counterparts (4, 3, and 15 times greater expression, respectively). Our results revealed significant  
178 differences in relative expression levels across all plant parts ( $\chi^2 = 98.154$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), except for  
179 between mature leaves and flower buds and between mature flowers and mature seeds (Fig. 2).  
180 Similar to our *dmaW* results, expression of the three reference genes (*actG*, *atp6*, and *tefA*) was  
181 highest in young leaves and young seeds (Fig. S1a). The positive correlation between *dmaW*  
182 expression and that of the three reference genes in different plant parts was significant (Fig. S1b;  
183  $r = 0.841$ ,  $p = 0.009$ ).

184

185 **Figure 2: Relative expression (fold change) of the *dmaW* gene in different plant parts.**

186 Expression was relative to the reference genes *actG*, *atp6*, and *tefA*. Plant parts with different  
187 letters are significantly different ( $p < 0.05$ ). Abbreviations: YL, young leaf; ML, mature leaf; S,  
188 stem; R, root; FB, flower bud; MF, mature flower; YS, young seed; MS, mature seed.

189

190 The concentration of ergot alkaloids in *I. asarifolia* was analyzed and quantified through the use  
191 of ergine as a representative. Statistical analysis of ergine concentration revealed significant  
192 differences across plant parts ( $F = 963$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). The highest concentration of ergine was found  
193 in mature leaves (68.7  $\mu\text{g/g}$ ), followed by young leaves, young seeds, mature seeds, stems,  
194 flower buds, roots, and mature flowers (48.97, 15.24, 11.71, 4.41, 4.16, 3.20, and 1.72  $\mu\text{g/g}$ ,  
195 respectively) (Fig. 3). Similar to our gene expression results, young plant parts tended to exhibit  
196 higher levels of ergine compared to mature parts, as seen in flowers and seeds. However, mature  
197 leaves were found to contain a higher concentration of ergine compared to young leaves. There  
198 were no significant differences in concentration among stems, roots, flower buds, and mature  
199 flowers, where only minimal amounts of ergine were found (Fig. 3).

200

201 **Figure 3: Concentration of ergine in different parts of *I. asarifolia*.**

202 Plant parts with different letters are significantly different ( $p < 0.05$ ). Abbreviations: YL, young  
203 leaf; ML, mature leaf; S, stem; R, root; FB, flower bud; MF, mature flower; YS, young seed; MS,  
204 mature seed.

205

206 The correlation between relative gene expression and ergine concentration was not significant ( $r$   
207  $= 0.266$ ,  $p = 0.525$ ; Fig. 4). While some plant parts had comparable levels of gene expression and  
208 ergine concentrations, other plant parts exhibited unexpected results. Notably, mature leaves  
209 exhibited relatively low gene expression but had the highest concentrations of ergine, while  
210 young seeds exhibited the highest levels of gene expression but had only moderate  
211 concentrations of ergine.

212 **Figure 4: Correlation between relative *dmaW* expression and ergine concentration for the  
213 eight plant parts examined in *I. asarifolia*.**

214 (r = 0.266, p = 0.525). Abbreviations: YL, young leaf; ML, mature leaf; S, stem; R, root; FB,  
215 flower bud; MF, mature flower; YS, young seed; MS, mature seed.

216

## 217 **Discussion**

218 This study reveals the relative expression levels of the *dmaW* gene, which is required for the  
219 determinant step in ergoline alkaloid biosynthesis, in eight different parts of *I. asarifolia*. The  
220 expression of the gene was found in all parts of the plant, with the highest levels in young seeds  
221 and young leaves, and the lowest in roots. In addition, ergine concentration was also detected in  
222 all studied parts, with the highest concentration in mature and young leaves, and the lowest in  
223 mature flowers. **This study is the first to** develop primers and investigate *dmaW* expression, as  
224 well as the first report of ergot alkaloid quantification across multiple parts of the host plant, not  
225 just leaves and seeds.

226

227 Differential gene expression of *dmaW* was observed across the studied plant parts of *I. asarifolia*.  
228 The three parts of *I. asarifolia* found to have the highest *dmaW* expression levels were young  
229 seeds, young leaves, and flower buds. When comparing the expression of the three reference  
230 genes to each other, the fold differences across plant organs were similar, which also confirms  
231 variation in fungal biomass across different plant parts, with the highest biomass in young seeds  
232 and young leaves (Fig. S1a). These results correspond with our previous observation of high  
233 densities of fungal hyphae on these same plant parts (Olaranont et al., 2022). Nonetheless, the  
234 relative expression of the *dmaW* gene was still found to be exceptionally high in both young  
235 seeds and young leaves, even when compared with the average reference gene expression level.  
236 These results suggest that these two organs do not just harbor substantial fungal biomass, but that  
237 the fungi within these organs also have elevated expression of the ergot alkaloid biosynthesis  
238 gene (Fig. S1b). Thus, it appears that ergot alkaloid production is notably amplified in young  
239 seeds and young leaves.

240

241 One possible explanation for differential *dmaW* expression is that genes can have specific  
242 functions within different plant tissues. Expression level and site are known to vary based on  
243 function and environmental conditions (Alberts et al., 2002; Palande et al., 2022). Previous  
244 research has demonstrated that environmental or abiotic stress can impact the relative expression  
245 of genes involved in secondary metabolite biosynthesis in fungi (Medina et al., 2015). The  
246 fungal genus *Metarhizium*, belonging to the Clavicipitaceae family, has been observed to  
247 produce ergot alkaloids under certain conditions but not others (Leadmon et al., 2020).

248 Comparing the high level of gene expression in young seeds with the low level in mature seeds  
249 observed in our study, it is possible that the soft and moist tissue of young seeds provides a more  
250 suitable environment for fungal growth and functioning, compared to the dry conditions  
251 experienced in hard mature seeds. Variation in gene expression can also be attributed to the  
252 specific functions of the gene. For instance, when *Cucurbit* species were subjected to heat shock,  
253 gene expression associated with heat tolerance differed between stems and roots (Ara et al.,



254 2013). The *dmaW* gene is known to play a vital role in synthesizing ergot alkaloids. These  
255 alkaloids are believed to serve as a defense mechanism for the plant against insects and  
256 herbivores (Jakubczyk, Cheng & O'Connor, 2014; Beaulieu et al., 2021), with the fungi  
257 receiving protection and nutrition from the plant in return (Jakubczyk, Cheng & O'Connor, 2014).  
258 On the other hand, it is also possible that the fungi produce ergot alkaloids for their own benefit,  
259 but these compounds also happen to be beneficial to their host plants. In *I. asarifolia*, a possible  
260 explanation for high fungal biomass and *dmaW* gene expression in young seeds and young leaves  
261 may be due to the higher nutrient content in these organs compared to others. Further insights  
262 will be gained once the specific function of the gene is better understood.

263  
264 **Our** gene expression analysis also revealed two other noteworthy results. First, we detected low  
265 levels of *dmaW* expression in both the stems and roots of *I. asarifolia*. This finding is noteworthy  
266 given that previous studies were not able to confirm the presence of *Periglandula* in the stems  
267 and roots of its host plant through molecular, histochemical, or anatomical techniques (Olaranont  
268 et al., 2022). Thus, it appears that stems and roots do host small quantities of the fungus, which  
269 can be detected with qRT-PCR due to its higher sensitivity compared to normal PCR (Deprez et  
270 al., 2002; Peters et al., 2004). Second, we observed higher expression levels in the young stages  
271 of the plant parts, as compared to the mature stages, and this also corresponds with the fungal  
272 densities reported in our previous study (Olaranont et al., 2022). However, while the densities of  
273 fungal hyphae in flower buds and mature flowers were similar (Olaranont et al., 2022), gene  
274 expression levels in flower buds were significantly higher than in mature flowers (Fig. 2). Thus,  
275 the higher *dmaW* expression observed in young developmental stages is not solely due to fungal  
276 density, and additional research is still needed to understand the drivers of *dmaW* expression.

277  
278 **We also observed** differences in the concentrations of ergine (a representative of ergot alkaloids)  
279 found across different parts of the host plant. Previous research has shown that ergot alkaloids  
280 are produced by clavicipitaceous fungi, not the host plants themselves (Kucht et al., 2004;  
281 Markert et al., 2008), and several Convolvulaceae species were previously found to contain ergot  
282 alkaloids, but only the leaves and seeds had been studied (Markert et al., 2008; Beaulieu et al.,  
283 2013; Nowak et al., 2016; Beaulieu et al., 2021). Our findings show that leaves are the major  
284 accumulation site of ergine, followed by seeds, with other plant parts containing low  
285 concentrations of ergine (Fig. 3). Variation in ergot alkaloid concentration across plant parts was  
286 expected. A study on *I. asarifolia* and *Turbina corymbosa* (L.) Raf found that even different  
287 developmental stages of leaves contain unequal amounts of ergot alkaloids (Steiner et al., 2015).  
288 Similarly, Beaulieu et al. (2013) reported that in some Convolvulaceae species the total amount  
289 of ergot alkaloids differed significantly in different parts of the seed (cotyledon, embryonic axis,  
290 endosperm, and seed coat). The authors suggested that the differential allocation of ergot  
291 alkaloids may be influenced by the plant's need for protection against pests and diseases, as these  
292 alkaloids are known for their defensive qualities (Beaulieu et al., 2013). If the seedlings are  
293 exposed to more pests and diseases above ground, then it is expected that they will allocate more



294 ergot alkaloids to their cotyledons and hypocotyl. Conversely, if the species experiences higher  
295 pressure from below-ground pests like nematodes or soil-borne pathogens, then it is anticipated  
296 that more ergot alkaloids will be allocated to their roots (Beaulieu et al., 2013). The significantly  
297 greater concentrations of ergine found in *I. asarifolia* leaves, compared to stems, roots, flowers,  
298 and seeds, therefore suggests that *I. asarifolia* may require the most protection from foliar pests  
299 and pathogens.

300

301 Interestingly, **we did not observe** a correlation between ergot biosynthesis gene expression and  
302 ergine concentration across plant parts. Two outliers are particularly noteworthy: young seeds  
303 had the highest *dmaW* expression but only moderate ergine concentrations, while mature leaves  
304 had low gene expression but the highest concentrations of ergine. Several factors may contribute  
305 to these results. First, the biosynthesis pathway of ergot alkaloids is inefficient and it is possible  
306 that the necessary precursors needed for ergine production in each part of the plant vary in  
307 quantity (Panaccione, 2005). Therefore, even if gene expression is high, as **we** observed in young  
308 seeds, ergine concentrations may be relatively low if there are not enough precursors. Instead,  
309 these plant parts may end up containing other intermediates or end products (i.e., other ergot  
310 alkaloids) instead of producing high amounts of ergine. Other ergot-producing fungi (e.g.,  
311 *Epichloë*, *Claviceps*, and *Aspergillus*) were also found to have inefficient biosynthesis pathways,  
312 which may actually be advantageous if they produce diverse alkaloids within the fungus or its  
313 host plant (Beaulieu et al., 2015; Florea, Panaccione & Schardl, 2017).

314

315 Second, **our study only examined** one type of ergot alkaloid (ergine) due to the inability to obtain  
316 the other types of ergot alkaloids. Yet *I. asarifolia* is known to contain other ergot alkaloids as  
317 well, such as chanoclavine, lysergic acid alpha-hydroxyethylamide, ergonovine (ergometrine),  
318 and ergobalansine (Steiner & Leistner, 2018). Therefore, it is possible that high *dmaW*  
319 expression can lead to the biosynthesis of ergot alkaloids other than ergine. The *dmaW* gene  
320 initiates the first step of the ergot alkaloid biosynthesis pathway, potentially resulting in a variety  
321 of ergot alkaloids beyond just ergine during subsequent steps in the cascade (Liu, Panaccione &  
322 Schardl, 2009; Young et al., 2015).

323

324 A third factor that may contribute to the conflicting gene expression and ergine concentration  
325 results is differential ergot alkaloid translocation and accumulation within the plant. If the sites  
326 of metabolite biosynthesis and accumulation differ, the correlation between gene expression and  
327 compound levels can be relatively low (Delli-Ponti, Shivhare & Mutwil, 2021). For example,  
328 nicotine alkaloids are synthesized in the root before being transported and accumulated in the  
329 aerial parts of the tobacco plant (Kato et al., 2005). The transportation of ergoline alkaloids  
330 between and within *Periglandula* and Convolvulaceous plants is complex and still unclear. The  
331 first part of the process involves exchanging sesquiterpene and ergot alkaloids between the fungi  
332 and host plant, and the second part involves distributing the ergot alkaloids throughout different  
333 parts of the plant (Steiner et al., 2015; Leistner & Steiner, 2018). One study published prior to

334 the discovery of ergot alkaloid-producing fungi reported that ergot alkaloids in the leaves of *I.*  
335 *tricolor* can be translocated throughout the plant (Mockaitis, Kivilaan & Schulze, 1973).  
336 Beaulieu et al. (2013) also reported the differential allocation of ergot alkaloids within  
337 Convolvulaceae plant species. Detailed information about how the plant translocates ergot  
338 alkaloids is still unknown. Previous studies have reported three families of plant alkaloid  
339 transporters, including ATP-binding cassette (ABC) proteins, multidrug and toxic compound  
340 extrusion (MATE) transporters, and purine permease (PUP) families (Yazaki, 2006; Shitan, Kato  
341 & Shoji, 2014), which could potentially serve as channels for transporting ergot alkaloids in *I.*  
342 *asarifolia*. In addition to these transporters, there are two other potential mechanisms for alkaloid  
343 transport: simple diffusion followed by membrane trapping and vesicle-mediated transport  
344 (Shitan & Yazaki, 2007; Shitan, Kato & Shoji, 2014). In the case of young and mature *I.*  
345 *asarifolia* leaves, it is also possible that gene expression is high in young leaves, and that ergine  
346 continues to accumulate in the leaves as they grow, such that mature leaves contain high  
347 concentrations of ergine even though they exhibit low levels of gene expression. The relationship  
348 between gene expression and metabolite concentration is complex and further research is  
349 required to fully understand ergot alkaloid synthesis, transport, and storage.

350

## 351 **Conclusions**

352 It was previously a matter of debate as to where the main site of ergot alkaloid biosynthesis was  
353 located. According to previous studies, glandular trichomes on the leaves of the plant were  
354 considered to be the prerequisite site for ergoline alkaloids, thus, the leaves were believed to be  
355 the biosynthesis site of ergot alkaloids, some of which were then transported to the flowers and  
356 seeds of the host plant (Steiner et al., 2015; Leistner & Steiner, 2018). However, our findings  
357 indicate that ergot alkaloids are produced and accumulated in most, if not all, parts of *I.*  
358 *asarifolia*. Additionally, there may be a transportation system in place to distribute the  
359 compounds throughout the various parts of the plant. Although our study only quantified ergine,  
360 a broader analysis using multiple types of ergot alkaloids could offer a clearer understanding of  
361 each metabolite's synthesis, transport, and storage. To date, at least 40 species of morning glory  
362 have been found to contain ergot alkaloids (Eich, 2008; Beaulieu et al., 2021), and the seeds of  
363 these Convolvulaceae species can contain ergot alkaloids at 1000 times greater concentrations  
364 than the seeds of grasses infected by other clavicipitaceous fungi (Kucht et al., 2004; Ahimsa-  
365 Müller et al., 2007). Considering the beneficial pharmaceutical properties of ergot alkaloids, the  
366 biosynthesis gene expression and metabolite concentration across different parts of *I. asarifolia*  
367 are particularly noteworthy.

368

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375

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