

# Research progress on the bulb expansion and starch enrichment in taro (*Colocasia esculenta* (L). Schott)

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**Background.** Taro is an important crop in the world, and it can be used as food, feed, and industrial raw material. The yield and product of taro are mainly determined by the expansion degree and the state of starch enrichment. The expansion of taro bulb is a complex biological process, which involves the increase in the number and volume of bulb cells and the starch enrichment in the cells.

**Results.** This article introduces the formation and development of taro bulb through the process of amyloplast formation at the cytological level and the changes in bulb expansion and starch enrichment at physiological levels, which involve endogenous hormones and key enzyme genes for starch synthesis. The effects of environment and cultivation methods on taro bulb expansion were also reviewed. Finally, the future research directions and research focus about the development of taro bulb were prospected.

**Conclusions.** The development of taro bulbs is a complex biochemical process, including the accumulation of morphogenesis and assimilation products, involving gene expression, material metabolism, nutrient input, and the effect of external environmental conditions. At present, the research on the development of taro mainly focuses on evolutionary classification, genotype and isozyme analysis, cultivation, production, processing, and utilization. Limited research has been conducted on the physiological mechanism and hormone regulation pathway of taro growth and development, taro bulb expansion, key gene expression, and starch enrichment. Therefore, the following research will become the key research direction in the future.

# 1 **Research progress on the bulb expansion and starch** 2 **enrichment in taro (*Colocasia esculenta* (L.) Schott)**

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12

## 13 **Abstract**

14 **Background.** Taro is an important crop in the world, and it can be used as food, feed, and  
15 industrial raw material. The yield and product of taro are mainly determined by the expansion  
16 degree and the state of starch enrichment. The expansion of taro bulb is a complex biological  
17 process, which involves the increase in the number and volume of bulb cells and the starch  
18 enrichment in the cells.

19 **Methodology.** PubMed, Web of Science and China National Knowledge Infrastructure  
20 databases were searched for relevant articles. After removing duplicate articles and the articles  
21 with little relevance, 73 articles were selected for the review.

22 **Results.** This article introduces the formation and development of taro bulb for the workers  
23 engaged in taro research. The content includes the process of amyloplast formation at the  
24 cytological level and the changes in bulb expansion and starch enrichment at physiological  
25 levels, which involve endogenous hormones and key enzyme genes for starch synthesis. The  
26 effects of environment and cultivation methods on taro bulb expansion were also reviewed.  
27 Finally, the future research directions and research focus about the development of taro bulb  
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29 **Conclusions.** The development of taro bulbs is a complex biochemical process, including the  
30 accumulation of morphogenesis and assimilation products, involving gene expression, material  
31 metabolism, nutrient input, and the effect of external environmental conditions. At present, the  
32 research on the development of taro mainly focuses on evolutionary classification, genotype  
33 and isozyme analysis, cultivation, production, processing, and utilization. Limited research has  
34 been conducted on the physiological mechanism and hormone regulation pathway of taro  
35 growth and development, taro bulb expansion, key gene expression, and starch enrichment.  
36 There-fore, the following research will become the key research direction in the future.

37

## 38 **Introduction**

39 Taro is an underground bulbous crop planted in the tropical and subtropical regions (Figure  
40 1). It originated in China, India, Malaysia, and other regions, and is widely cultivated in Asia,  
41 Africa, and other regions. It has a cultivation history of more than 2,000 years. At present, taro

42 can be classified using three methods. According to the ecological type, it can be divided into  
43 aquatic taro and dry taro, and it can be classified into petiole, flower, and bulb taro according to  
44 the eating part, and it can be classified into Kui taro, multi-cormels taro, and multi-head taro  
45 according to bulb tillering habit (Wu et al., 2021). The three classifications of taros in  
46 agricultural production of China exhibit various characteristics (Figure 2). Kui taro has few sub  
47 taro and single mother-taro which is the main edible part. In multi-cormels taro, the sub taros are  
48 numerous and grow in groups which have strong tillering ability. In multi-head taro, there are  
49 few sub taros and the tillers of the mother taros grow in groups. The fundamental difference of  
50 taro bulb tiller is the difference of expansion between mother and sub taro. This phenomenon is  
51 caused by the difference in the number of chromosome and differential expression of genes (Zhu  
52 et al., 2018). Studies on taro chromosomes has proved that Kui taro is diploid ( $2n=2x=28$ ), while  
53 the multi-head is triploid ( $2n=3x=42$ ) (Huang et al., 2014). The chromosome multiples are  
54 related to the geographical distribution. Diploid is more common in hot and humid areas with  
55 low altitudes, and triploid is more common in dry and cold areas with high altitudes [4]. Taro is  
56 essential for the body, and it can be used as food, vegetable, feed, and health product. The taro  
57 bulb, which is rich in starch, carbohydrates, and energy, is one of the staple food in Asia, Africa,  
58 and India (Njintang et al., 2008). In comparison with potato, sweet potato, and cassava, taro  
59 starch granules are small and has a diameter of approximately  $1.5 \mu\text{m}$ , making it easy to digest  
60 and providing therapeutic and health care functions. It has been used for the preparation of infant  
61 food in Hawaii and some other islands in the Pacific. Taro starch particles are small and uniform  
62 and have good cold and hot stability, good whiteness, and good adhesion. Therefore, it can be  
63 used as a brightener in cosmetics (Qi et al., 2015). Taro bulbs are rich in many nutrients, such as  
64 starch, and the starch content of different varieties of taro could reach 10%–36% (Falade et al.,  
65 2013). Taro contains a large amount of dietary fiber and various essential amino acids, but its fat  
66 content is low (Sefa-Dedeh et al., 2002). It is also rich in vitamins and amino acid, making it is a  
67 food for people of all ages (Han et al., 2018). Taro is a food and medicine homologous crop,  
68 which is often used for the treatment of diarrhea, internal bleeding, asthma, and skin diseases  
69 (Prajapati et al., 2011). It could also lower blood sugar and cholesterol (Sebnem et al., 2012).  
70 Therefore, taro has good prospects for medicinal development. Taro starch can be used as an  
71 industrial raw material. It could improve the stability of Pickering emulsion (Zhang et al., 2020),  
72 and it could be used for the treatment of wastewater generated in the printing and dyeing process  
73 (Zhou et al., 2018) and as an enhancer of starch film (Dai et al., 2015).

74 According to the statistics of the Food and Agriculture Organization of United Nations, taro  
75 is the 14th largest vegetable crop, with a global planting area of 1.6 million hectares and an  
76 annual output of 11.7 million tons. The cultivation area in China ranks first in the world and has  
77 a large number of wild resources and local varieties, which are mainly distributed in southern  
78 regions such as Yunnan, Taiwan, and the Yangtze River Basin. In recent years, taro has become  
79 an important input and export trade industry. The total export trade volume and total value were  
80 higher than the imports (Chang et al., 2019). With the rapid development of the taro industry, the

81 demand for taro has increased. It has also introduced new and high requirements for taro  
82 production and basic theoretical research.

### 83 **Survey methodology**

84 PubMed, Web of Science and China National Knowledge Infrastructure databases were  
85 searched for relevant articles. A total of 2525 articles appeared in the Pubmed database using “taro” as  
86 the search term and the date of publication from 1975/1/1 to 2022/5/1. After narrowing the  
87 search with keywords including “bulb of taro”, “bulb expansion in taro”, “bulb starch  
88 enrichment in taro”, “amyloplast enrichment process of taro bulbs”, “development of taro  
89 bulbs”, “regulation of hormones on bulb development”, “genes in starch synthesis”, and  
90 “regulation of hormones on bulb swelling”, 1532 studies were obtained. With “taro” as the  
91 search term, 2525 articles published between 1975–2022 appeared in the Web of Science  
92 database, of which 914 articles were selected as above. After removing duplicate articles and the  
93 articles with little relevance, 73 articles were selected for the review.

94

### 95 **Taro expansion and development process**

96 Taro is a perennial herbaceous plant, which belongs to the Araceae family, but it is  
97 generally cultivated as an annual crop in agricultural production. According to the growth and  
98 development characteristic of taro, its life cycle is divided into five periods, namely, the  
99 germination, seedling, growth, taro expansion, and bulb dormancy period (Sun et al., 2014). Taro  
100 bulbs undergo metamorphosis during evolution. Take multi-cormels taro and multi-head taro for  
101 example. The bulb of taro is composed of mother and sub taro, and some varieties include  
102 grandson and great grandson taro (Figure 3). The mother taro of taro bulb is developed by the top  
103 bud of the sub taro. The sub taro is developed from the lateral bud on the mother taro, and the  
104 grandson taro is developed from the lateral bud of the sub taro. An axillary bud is present on  
105 each node of mother taro, and it can develop into sub taro. The axillary bud grown in the leaf axil  
106 and the leaf have a co-growth relationship. The growth site grows clockwise, and the angle  
107 between adjacent axillary buds is  $144^\circ$ . The positions of each axillary bud are roughly in a  
108 straight line, showing typical  $2/5$  phyllodes features (Xu et al., 2020). The sub taro of Kui taro  
109 grows first and then thickens, and the top swells to form a smaller sub-taro; the sub taro of taro  
110 with multi-cormels elongates and thickens, and the whole bulb also swells to form a conical  
111 shape; three small-molecular-weight proteins, namely, CSP2, CSP3 and CSP4, are present in the  
112 sub taro, which have spatiotemporal specificity and are related to the occurrence and expansion  
113 of the sub taro. The relative differences in the contents of CSP1, CSP2, and CSP4 in the mother  
114 taro are related to the apical dominance of the terminal buds of the mother taro. The greater the  
115 difference is, the more obvious the apical dominance and the lower the developmental degree of  
116 the sub taro is (Zhu et al., 2018). However, Luiz found that the expression of TC1 gene during  
117 bulb development is spatiotemporal and acts by encoding globulin Gd1, but TC1 gene is not a  
118 regulator gene of bulb expansion (Castro et al., 1992). The gene that determines bulb expansion  
119 is present at the beginning of bulb differentiation. The role of TC1 gene in the process of bulb  
120 expansion remains to be further studied. The proportion of fresh weight of taro first increases and

121 then decreases in the growth process. Similarly, the water content of the bulbs first in-creases  
122 and then decreases, while the dry matter content gradually increases, showing an S-shaped  
123 growth trend. The dry matter accumulation of the sub taro in the later stage is greater than that of  
124 mother taro (Xu et al., 2020).

125

126 Figure 3. **The taro bulb's mother taro, sub taro and grandson taro.** (A) Multi-head taro; (B) Multi-cormels taro.

127 During the growth and development process of mother taro, the weight gradually increased,  
128 the water content gradually decreased, the total starch content gradually increased, and the  
129 soluble sugar content first increased and then decreased. The volume of parenchyma cells  
130 continued to increase, and the internal starch content gradually increased. The number and  
131 diameter of starch bodies showed an upward trend, and the number of starch granules in a single  
132 starch body also increases (Zhu et al., 2017). During taro bulb expansion, the number of links on  
133 the surface of the bulb gradually increased, the fresh and dry weight of a single bulb continued to  
134 increase; the volume of the parenchyma cells in the bulb continued to increase, the number and  
135 size of amyloplasts gradually increased, and the entire cell was enriched; with the expansion of  
136 the bulb, the vascular tissue gradually developed and perfected, and the area of the sieve tube  
137 increased in number and became irregularly arranged; the taro bulb was densely covered with  
138 mucous cavities, which spread out from the center of the bulb, but no mu-cus cavity was  
139 observed in the epidermal cells (Sheng et al., 2021).

#### 140 **Amyloplast enrichment process of taro bulbs**

141 At present, the research on the development and proliferation of amyloplasts mainly focuses  
142 on the endosperm cells of grains. In the development of endosperm amyloplasts, the number of  
143 plastids continued to divide, and the number increased; then the number and volume of starch  
144 granules increased in the plastid; individual starch granules increased in size and then began to  
145 form small amyloplasts. As the development progressed, the envelope of the small amyloplasts  
146 was further extended and expanded. Finally, the newly expanded envelope is filled with starch  
147 granules, thereby forming the large amyloplasts. The amyloplasts of the large starch granules in  
148 the wheat endosperm formed small starch granules by budding, while the amyloplasts of the  
149 small starch granules proliferated by constriction or budding (Wei et al., 2002; Wei et al., 2008).

150 A few reports have focused on the proliferation mode of amyloplasts in under-ground  
151 rhizome crops. The starch bodies of the complex starch contained in sweet potato tubers exist in  
152 the form of "diplex", "triad", and "multiple"; for the growth mode of the amylosome, single  
153 grain starch directly expands and grows; the amyloplasts of multigranular starch first split into  
154 monomers, and then grow in the form of mono-mers; the amyloplasts of complex starch do not  
155 divide during the growth process and form large complex amyloplasts (Jing et al., 2013).  
156 According to the morphology of amyloids observed by scanning electron microscope, the  
157 cassava root amyloid membrane is either "constricted", "wrinkled", or "sprouted", forming  
158 multiple differentiation centers of amyloplasts; with the continuous expansion of the starch body,  
159 the membrane structure was degraded and disappeared, and the irregular starch granules were  
160 released (Min et al., 2010).

161       Zhu et al. (2018) divided the accumulation process of taro bulb starch into three stages,  
162 namely, starch formation, rapid starch accumulation, and starch body enrichment (Zhu et al.,  
163 2017). The specific performance is the formation of amyloplasts and the continuous increase in  
164 diameter, followed by the continuous increase in the number of starch-es, and finally the increase  
165 in the number of starch granules in the amyloplasts. The surface of taro starch body is mostly  
166 round and oval, belonging to complex starch, containing multiple polyhedral starch granules.  
167 Take Kui taro for example. in the early stage of development, amyloid was mostly distributed at  
168 the edge of the cell, and then gathered at the center of the cell. Later in development, the number  
169 and size of amyloplasts continued to increase (Figure 4). Transmission electron microscopy  
170 showed that the amyloplasts of taro bulbs were large, and the large amyloplasts split into several  
171 small starch granules. Some small starch granules (Figure 5A) were observed close to the free  
172 state at the edge of amyloplasts, and these granules were loosely arranged and smaller in size.  
173 With the development of the bulb, the starch granules with large diameters in the amyloplasts  
174 were mostly concentrated in one area, and their arrangement was relatively compact. The small  
175 starch granules were mostly distributed on the other side or around, and their arrangement was  
176 loose (Figure 5B).

177       Taro bulb starch originates from the precursor plastid, and starch granules are formed in the  
178 plastid and free in the cytoplasm of the membrane (Sheng, 2021). As the starch granules  
179 increase, the volume of the plastids increases, and the starch granules develop from the original  
180 irregular shape to a round shape. In the later stage, they gradually extruded each other into  
181 polygons. The starch bodies of taro bulbs were mostly com-plex starches. Amyloid proliferation  
182 is divided into two stages. In the first stage, the number of starch granules in the starch body  
183 changes; the starch granules gradually increase, fill up, squeeze, and deform each other. The  
184 large starch granules split into many small starch granules. The second stage involves the  
185 proliferation of amyloplasts. Taro amyloplasts can be split via membrane constriction  
186 proliferation and capsular vesicle proliferation. Capsule constriction and proliferation squeeze  
187 the starch gran-ules in the starch body to both sides through the inward depression of the  
188 amylosome envelope. Further, it is constricted into multiple amyloplasts, and the encapsulated  
189 vesicles proliferate in which the original amyloplasts spit out vesicles from the envelope, and  
190 new amyloplasts are generated and proliferated in the vesicles.

## 191 **Effects of environment and cultivation methods on the development** 192 **of taro bulbs**

193       Taro adapts to high-temperature and -humidity environment and is not resistant to low  
194 temperature and frost. The optimum temperature for germination is 12–15 °C. The optimum  
195 temperature for growth is generally 25–30 °C. If the temperature is very low, the growth of taro  
196 will slow down or stop. If the temperature is very high, the condition will not be conducive to the  
197 development and expansion of taro bulb. Different varieties of taro have different requirements  
198 for temperature. Taro with Multi-cormels can be planted at low temperatures, making it widely  
199 distributed in temperate zones. Kui taro has strict requirements for high temperature. Therefore,  
200 Kui taro is mostly produced in tropical and subtropical regions with high temperature and

201 humidity (Chang et al., 2019). Taro requires sunlight, and the light saturation point is  
202 approximately 50,000 lux. Taro is shade-tolerant and can grow under scattered light. The light  
203 intensity, composition, and light time remarkably affect the growth of taro, but strong light is  
204 conducive to the growth of taro and improves yield and quality. Under blue-violet light, the  
205 leaves of taro are large and thick, and the petioles are thick and short, and this condition is  
206 conducive to the growth and development of bulbs. In red and yellow light, the leaves are small,  
207 and the petioles are slender, and this condition is not conducive to the growth and development  
208 of bulbs. In the early stage of taro development, a longer light time is required to promote the  
209 increase of leaf area and the accumulation of photosynthetic products. The later stage of taro  
210 development requires a shorter light time to facilitate the formation and expansion of bulbs  
211 (Chang et al., 2019). Taro requires dampness. Calla taro is grown in paddy fields, but dry taro  
212 cannot be flooded for a long time. Taro has different requirements for humidity before different  
213 growth stages. The field should be kept moist during the germination stage to induce the  
214 germination of taro. During the taro-forming stage, the water demand is large, and the water  
215 supply needs to be guaranteed; the soil should be kept dry before harvesting to maintain good  
216 condition for the harvesting and storage of bulbs (Huang et al., 2016). Taro does not require very  
217 strict soil texture. Loose and fertile soil with deep soil layer and convenient irrigation and  
218 drainage is conducive to the growth of taro and the expansion of bulbs. Taro can grow normally  
219 in soil with pH of 4.1–9.1, but the optimum pH is 5.5–7.0. A highly acidic or highly alkaline soil  
220 is not conducive to the growth and development of taro (Huang et al., 2016).

221 Different cultivation methods remarkably affect the yield of taro. Film mulching can  
222 provide soil temperature in the early stage of taro growth, which is beneficial to the growth of  
223 taro and the expansion of bulbs. The growth and yield of taro bulbs in perforated film-covering  
224 cultivation was better than that in ridge film-covering cultivation. However, considering the  
225 inconvenience of cultivating a large amount of soil during the growth period of taro, ridge and  
226 perforation film-covering cultivation easily form green taro, thus affecting the quality of bulbs  
227 and the taste of eating (Wang et al., 2001). If no freezing damage is observed after emergence,  
228 early sowing is conducive to the development of taro root. The plant height of taro increases, the  
229 number of taro and taro increases, and the yield increases, but these changes only slightly affect  
230 the number of taro and the shape index of taro. If the planting is late, the life cycle of the taro  
231 will be shortened, which is not conducive to the growth and development of the bulb. This  
232 condition will lead to insufficient bulb expansion, thereby reducing the yield (Zheng, 2008).  
233 Nitrogen and potassium fertilizers have obvious effects on the yield and quality of taro, and  
234 potassium fertilizer has a greater effect than nitrogen fertilizer. A significant interaction effect  
235 was observed among nitrogen, potassium, and phosphorus fertilizer. Within the reasonable range  
236 of potassium and nitrogen fertilizer application, the yield gradually increases with the increase of  
237 the amount of fertilizer. Excessive fertilizer application will reduce the yield. Phosphate fertilizer  
238 alone only slightly affects the development of taro bulbs, and no obvious rule has been  
239 established. Reasonable fertilization is beneficial to the growth, development, and yield increase  
240 of taro bulbs (Song et al., 2004).

## 241 **Regulation of hormones on bulb development**

### 242 **Regulation of endogenous hormones on bulb expansion and starch enrichment**

243 Hormones is an important endogenous substance that regulates plant growth and is a key  
244 factor in bulb formation (Durbak et al., 2012). Some genes and proteins related to bulb for-  
245 mation are also closely related to plant hormone signaling pathways (Aksenova et al., 2012).  
246 Different plant hormones have different functions in bulb expansion, and gibberellin (GA) can  
247 inhibit or delay tuber formation (Vreugdenhil et al., 1989). Abscisic acid (ABA) does not  
248 participate in the induced metamorphosis process of tubers, but it counteracts the antagonism of  
249 other hormones (Shu et al., 2017). Auxin (IAA) can promote the metamorphic development of  
250 tubers and promote plant root development, and its concentration affects tuberous root  
251 thickening (Wang et al., 2006). Although GA and ABA are not directly related to tuber  
252 formation, they are related to the ratio of GA3/ABA. The balance of “inducing substances” and  
253 “inhibiting substances” is a key factor for tuber formation (Liu, 2001). Cytokinins (CTK) are  
254 mainly in-volved in the formation of tubers. Matsuo and Mitsuzono (1988) reported that the  
255 content of zeatin riboside (ZR) is significantly positively correlated with the formation and  
256 thickening of sweet potato tubers (Matsuo et al., 1988). The overexpression of CTK synthesis  
257 gene *ipt* in potato could form more tubers (Tao et al., 2010). IAA-related genes such as ARFs  
258 and Aux/IAAs are specifically expressed in early tuber development (Kloosterman et al., 2008).  
259 IAA and GA3 are necessary for potato stolon elongation. ABA and jasmonic acid (JA) are  
260 positive regulators for inducing tuber formation. GA3 is a negative regulator (Liu et al., 2019).  
261 JA and methyl jasmonate (MeJA), as classes of plant growth regulators, play an important role in  
262 tuber and bulb formation (Sarkar et al., 2006).

263 Plant endogenous hormone regulation is closely related to starch anabolism (Kim et al.,  
264 2005). The enlargement of plant bulbs mainly depends on starch accumulation and cell divi-sion  
265 enlargement, and starch accumulation mainly depends on sucrose synthesis and transportation.  
266 Plant hormone signal transduction affects starch accumulation. ABA can induce the expression  
267 of starch synthesis genes and enhance the transduction of sugar signals to promote starch  
268 accumulation (Akihiro et al., 2005). The level of GA at the grain filling stage of wheat is  
269 positively correlated with the final grain yield and starch yield. GA plays an important role in  
270 starch accumulation in wheat grains. Changes in endogenous hormone levels may indirectly  
271 affect starch accumulation in grains by affecting regulatory enzymes and regulatory processes  
272 (Xie et al., 2003). Scientists added IAA to MS medium, and the potato tuber starch content and  
273 starch granule size increased by 15%–30% (Gukasyan et al., 2005). In the study of tulip bulbs,  
274 IAA and ZR indirectly promoted starch accumulation by increasing the activity of ADP-glucose  
275 pyrophosphorylase (AGPase), thus catalyzing the production of a large number of products.  
276 Endogenous hormones may promote starch accumulation by participating in the starch synthesis  
277 pathway (Miao et al., 2016). Hormones have multiple roles and interact to form a regulatory  
278 network, thereby regulating tuber development (Jung et al., 2013). In the early stage of  
279 development, the content of endogenous hormones ABA, Z, and ZR showed an upward trend,  
280 while the content of IAA, GA3, and JA showed a downward trend. In the later stage of

281 development, the content of endogenous hormones ABA, IAA, Z, and GA3 showed an upward  
282 trend. The content of ZR and JA showed a downward trend, but the contents of IAA, GA3, and  
283 JA hormones were generally high during the whole development process (Sheng, 2021). Other  
284 related studies on endogenous hormones on the growth and development of taro bulbs and starch  
285 enrichment have not been conducted.

### 286 **Regulation of growth, development, and starch enrichment of bulbs by** 287 **exogenous hormones**

288 The effect of exogenous hormones on the rhizome expansion of potato, sweet potato, and  
289 other potato crops has been studied. Yang (2005) used four auxins to spray potatoes (Yang,  
290 2005). The results showed that the four auxins increased plant height and stem diameter and  
291 prolonged the photosynthetic accumulation in the later stage. This condition allowed the tubers  
292 to accumulate more organic matter during the expansion stage, thereby substantially increasing  
293 the yield. The exogenous application of IAA can promote the formation of potato stolons and the  
294 development of tubers. It is achieved by accelerating starch accumulation and starch granule  
295 enlargement, which are beneficial to the formation and development of tubers (Gukasyan et al.,  
296 2005; Roumeliotis et al., 2012). GA also promotes the occurrence of stolons. In the present  
297 experiment, stolons appeared on the second day after the medium containing GA3 and IAA was  
298 added, and the occurrence continued throughout the tuber setting period (Lian et al., 2002).  
299 However, the addition of GA alone could inhibit or delay the formation of potato tubers, and  
300 inactivation of the active GA gene could promote potato tuber formation (Xu et al., 1998;  
301 Roumeliotis et al., 2012). Treatment with exogenous GAs inhibited SS and SSS activity, thus  
302 decreasing the sucrose and starch contents in tubers (Vreugdenhil et al., 1999). ABA is a  
303 promoting factor for the formation of potato tubers, and timely spraying is beneficial to potato  
304 formation (Krauss et al., 1982; Garcia et al., 2014). Varying results have been obtained about the  
305 role of ABA in the development of tuber plants. GA3 inhibits the formation of potatoes in vitro,  
306 while ABA promotes its tuber formation (Hu et al., 2017). Exogenously applied ABA can  
307 promote tuber expansion (Xu et al., 2022). However, in vitro, ABA cannot make stolons  
308 metamorphose into tubers smoothly (Yang, 2005). ABA does not participate in the induced  
309 metamorphosis process of tubers, but its presence counteracts the respective physiological ac-  
310 tivities of other hormones (Xu et al., 2022). CTK can promote potato tuber development,  
311 regulate the balance between source and sink, and participate in the transport of nutrients to  
312 storage organs (Roitsch et al., 2000). When a certain concentration of CTK is applied  
313 exogenously, the biomass of tubers remarkably increases, and the transformation of stolons to  
314 tubers is accelerated (Romanov, 2009). In vitro, CTK inhibits sucrose invertase activity but  
315 activates phosphorylase and AGPase, thereby promoting starch accumulation (Zhu et al., 2016).  
316 Therefore, CTK is an important factor in inducing tuber formation (Quan et al., 2002). The  
317 exogenous application of JA and its derivatives can induce the swelling of the stolon top, and the  
318 content of endogenous JA increases during this process (Abdala et al., 2002). After exogenous  
319 JA treatment, the in-tracellular sucrose accumulates, thus increasing the osmotic pressure of the  
320 cell wall, changing the structure of the cell wall, and increasing the cell ductility. More

321 polysaccharides such as cellulose, hemicellulose, and pectin accumulate, indicating that JA  
322 controls the expansion of the cell by regulating the synthesis of intracellular sugar (Takahashi et  
323 al., 1995). This phenomenon induces the formation of the apical meristem of potato stolon and  
324 promotes tuber development (Cenzano et al., 2003).

325 The development of taro bulbs is remarkably affected by exogenous hormones. The  
326 diameter of taro bulbs that were irrigated with auxin increased significantly, the weight  
327 increased, and the filling degree of amyloplasts in parenchyma cells increased. Low  
328 concentration of 6-BA can promote the development of bulbs, but it is not conducive to the  
329 enrichment of amyloplasts, and high concentrations of 6-BA have a certain inhibitory effect on  
330 the development of bulbs. GA3 promotes the elongation of the petioles of taro plants, but it does  
331 not promote the expansion of the bulbs. High concentrations of GA3 (100–200 mg/L) have an  
332 inhibitory effect on the development of taro bulbs, but it promotes the development of taro and  
333 increases the number of taro (Sheng, 2021). Limited studies have focused on the effects of  
334 exogenous hormones on the development of taro bulbs and their enrichment of amyloplasts, and  
335 further research is need-ed.

### 336 **Role of key enzyme genes in starch synthesis in starch enrich-ment**

337 In crops mainly harvesting underground storage organs, the synthesis and accumulation of  
338 starch is a complex physiological and biochemical process, which is the result of the synergistic  
339 interaction of multiple enzymes. The key enzymes of starch synthesis in root crops, such as  
340 potato and lotus root, have been widely studied. The changes in AGPase and soluble starch  
341 synthase (SSS) activities have important effects on starch synthesis in potato tubers (Tang,  
342 2015). However, SS and AGPase can remarkably promote the synthesis of starch in the process  
343 of lotus root rhizome expansion, and their activities affect the starch content of lotus root  
344 rhizomes at the mature stage (Li et al., 2006). Based on the study of substance accumulation and  
345 changes in related enzyme activities during the development of yam, sucrose phosphate synthase  
346 activity plays a key regulatory role in the development of yam tubers and is closely related to the  
347 main functional substances (Liang et al., 2011). Based on the study of taro bulbs, AGPase  
348 activity is positively correlated with total starch content (Zang et al., 2016). With the gradual  
349 deepening of the re-search on starch metabolism pathways, people have new understanding of  
350 the key enzyme gene sequences and related expression regulators in the pathway.

351 In sweet potato, the key enzyme genes of starch synthesis such as AGPase and SS have  
352 been cloned into the gene sequence. The expression and regulation of these genes have been  
353 studied, and these key enzyme genes play a key role in the sweet potato starch metabolism  
354 pathway (Tang et al., 2011). The genes controlling sweet potato starch synthesis include granule  
355 bound starch synthase (GBSS) gene I, SSS genes I and II, starch branching enzyme (SBE) genes  
356 I and II, starch de-branching enzyme (DBE) gene, AGPase gene A/B/C, sucrose synthase (SS)  
357 genes I and II, and isoamylase (ISA) gene (Kim et al., 2009).

358 GBSS I is a key enzyme that controls starch synthesis, and it catalyzes the synthe-sis of  
359 amylose. Otani et al. (2007) interfered with the expression of GBSS I by RNAi technology to  
360 make sweet potato taste more glutinous. SSSII can affect the structure of amylopectin and reduce

361 the gelatinization temperature of starch (Otani et al., 2007). The reduction of starch gelatinization  
362 temperature is conducive to simplifying the starch hydrolysis process and reducing the  
363 production cost of starch fermentation (Takahata et al., 2010). AGPase improves the starch  
364 content of potato tubers (Song et al., 2005). However, the synergistic expression of starch  
365 synthesis-related genes under exogenous sucrose treatment promotes the conversion of sucrose  
366 to starch (Ahn et al., 2010). Peak synthase has been widely studied, but no direct research has  
367 been conducted on taro starch synthase.

## 368 **Conclusions and future direction**

369 The development of taro bulbs is a complex biochemical process, including the  
370 accumulation of morphogenesis and assimilation products, involving gene expression, material  
371 metabolism, nutrient input, and the effect of external environmental conditions (Figure 6).  
372 Limited studies have been conducted locally and abroad. Understanding the development  
373 process, expansion mechanism, and regulation mechanism of taro bulbs has a guiding role in the  
374 production of taro and is important to ensuring food security and responding to food crises. At  
375 present, the research on the development of taro mainly focuses on evolutionary classification,  
376 genotype and isozyme analysis, cultivation, production, processing, and utilization. Limited  
377 research has been conducted on the physiological mechanism and hormone regulation pathway  
378 of taro growth and development, taro bulb expansion, key gene expression, and starch  
379 enrichment. Therefore, the following research will become the key research direction in the  
380 future.

## 381 **Expansion of taro bulbs and the regularity of the development and spatial** 382 **distribution of starch bodies**

383 Starch is the main storage material of taro bulbs, and amyloplasts are the organelles that  
384 synthesize and accumulate starch. The development of amyloplasts determines the yield and  
385 quality of taro. Limited studies locally and abroad have focused on the development of taro corm  
386 and amyloplast, and they remain in the preliminary stage. The fine structure observation of  
387 amyloplast development, its proliferation mode, and the spatial distribution characteristics of taro  
388 corm amyloplast are not clear. In the future, the occurrence, division, proliferation, and  
389 enrichment of amyloplasts in parenchyma cells of different types of taro bulbs, the differences of  
390 physical and chemical properties of taro starch at different development stages, and the develop-  
391 ment and enrichment characteristics of amyloplasts in different spatial parts should be focused  
392 on.

## 393 **Role of key enzyme genes in starch synthesis in starch enrichment**

394 Starch is the main storage material of taro bulbs. The expansion process of taro is closely  
395 related to the synthesis of starch, and the genes related to starch synthesis are closely related to  
396 starch synthesis, which directly determine the starch content of taro. The research on starch  
397 synthase gene has remarkably progressed in wheat, rice, potato and other crops, but limited  
398 research has been conducted on taro starch synthase gene. Therefore, the differences in the  
399 expression of key enzyme genes (e.g., AGPase, GBSS, SSS, and SBE) for taro starch synthesis,

400 the roles of these genes in regulating the starch enrichment process, and the exploration of  
401 individual gene functions will become the focus of research.

### 402 **Regulation of hormones on bulb swelling and starch enrichment**

403 The expansion of taro bulbs mainly depends on the increase in the number and volume of  
404 parenchyma cells, and this process results from the synergistic action of various hormones,  
405 especially IAA, GA, CTK, and other hormones. The changes of hormones during bulb  
406 development, the relationship between hormones and bulb expansion, and the relationship  
407 between the expression of hormone synthesis genes and signal transduction-related genes and  
408 taro starch enrichment need to be investigated.

### 409 **Hormone-regulated pathways promoting bulb expansion and starch enrichment**

410 Exogenous hormones and plant growth regulators have important regulatory effects on taro  
411 bulb swelling, starch enrichment, and yield increase. The effects of exogenous substances such  
412 as 6-BA, 2,4-D, GA<sub>3</sub>, PP333, and 5-aminolevulinic acid (5-ALA) on the development, yield, and  
413 quality of taro corm, as well as the type and concentration of the best exogenous hormone to  
414 promote corm expansion and starch enrichment need to be studied, and plant growth regulators  
415 for increased yield and improved quality of taro should be developed to provide an important  
416 theoretical basis for taro production.

417 In a word, the development of taro bulbs still requires a lot of research. With the deepening  
418 of research and the solution of key problems, the production of taro will continue to improve,  
419 and the development and utilization of taro will be more efficient.

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425 The authors declare there are no competing interests.

### 426 **Author Contributions**

427 E.J.Z., F.X. and W.Y.S. conceived the outline of the manuscript.

428 E.J.Z. and F.X. wrote the manuscript.

429 W.Y.S., W.J.J., W.L.L., X.R.Y., X.P.W. provided revisions.

430 All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

### 431 **Data Avail**

432 The following information was supplied regarding data availability:

433 There is no raw data or code in this literature review.

### 434 **Ability Statement**

435 All data were collected from the published research papers.

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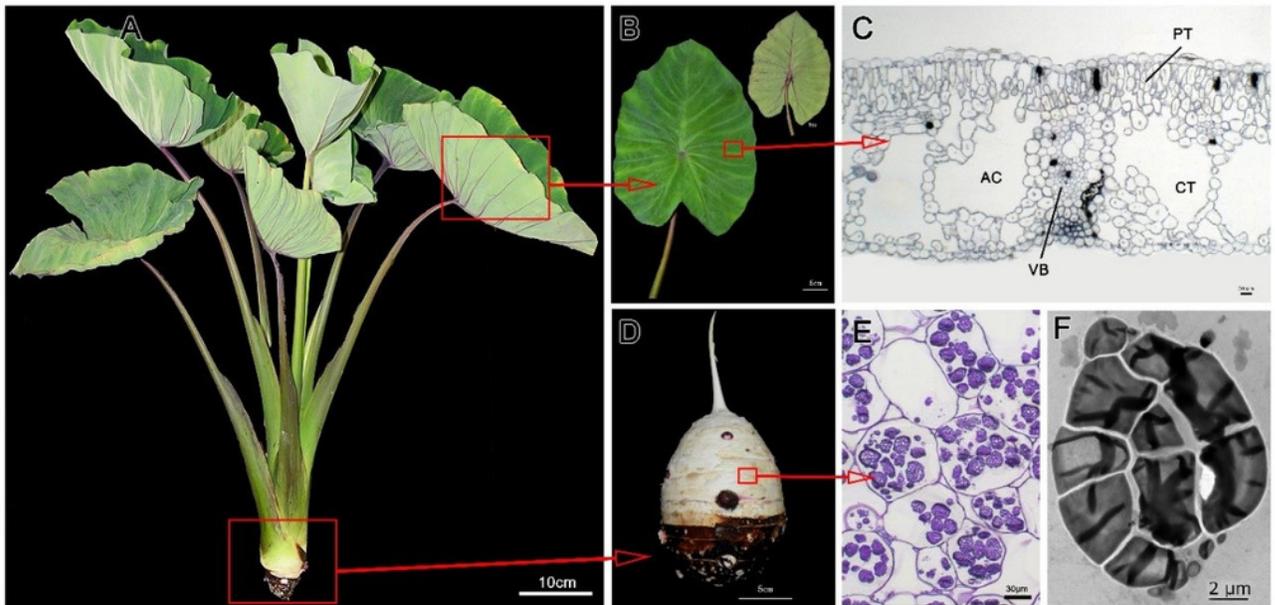
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# Figure 1

Macrostructure and microstructure of taro

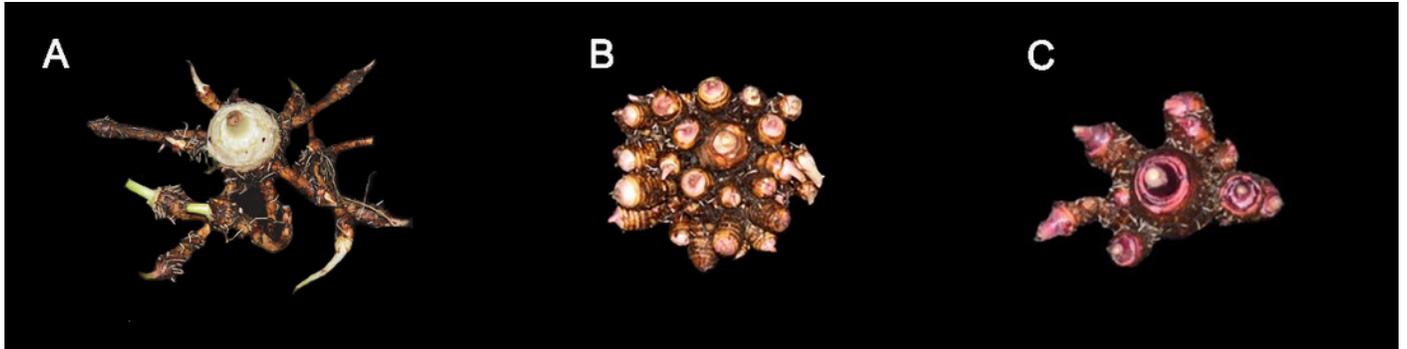
(A) plant; (B) leaf; (C) Leaf microstructure; (D) bulb; (E) Amyloid microstructure; (F) Amyloid ultrastructure; (AC) air cavity; (CT) spongy tissue; (PT) palisade cell; (VB) vascular bundle



## Figure 2

Three classifications of taros in agricultural production of China

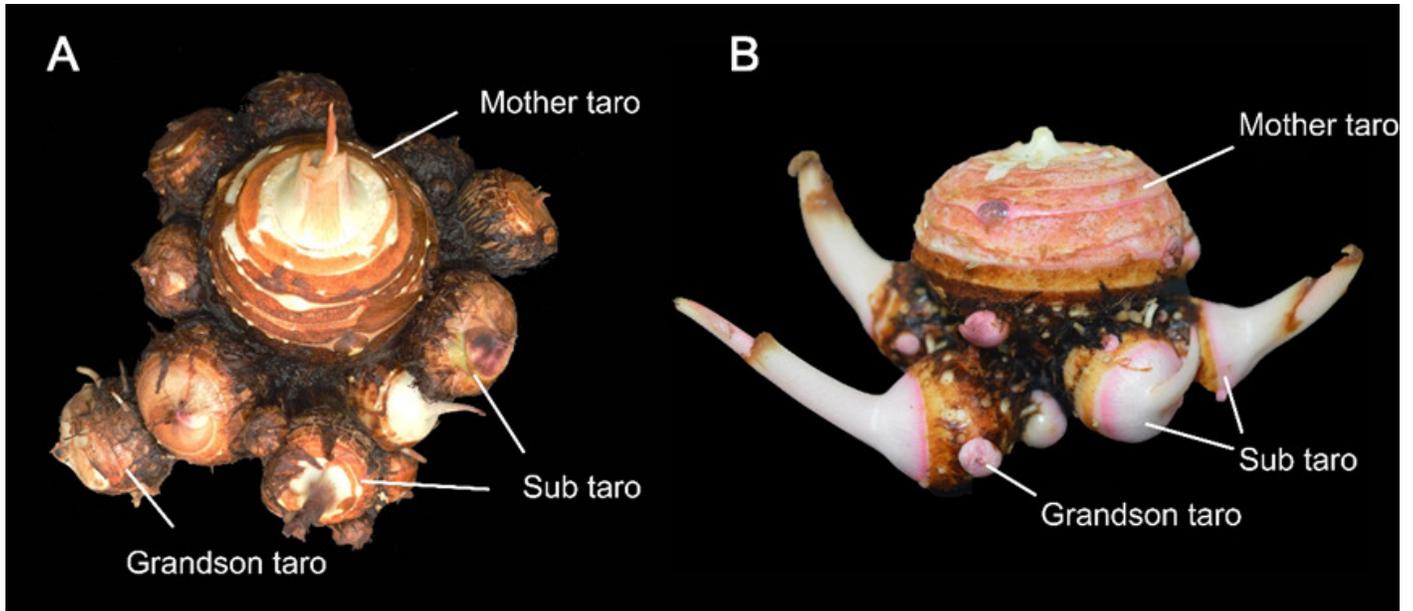
(A) Kui taro; (B) Multi-cormels taro; (C) Multi-head taro.



## Figure 3

The taro bulb's mother taro, sub taro and grandson taro.

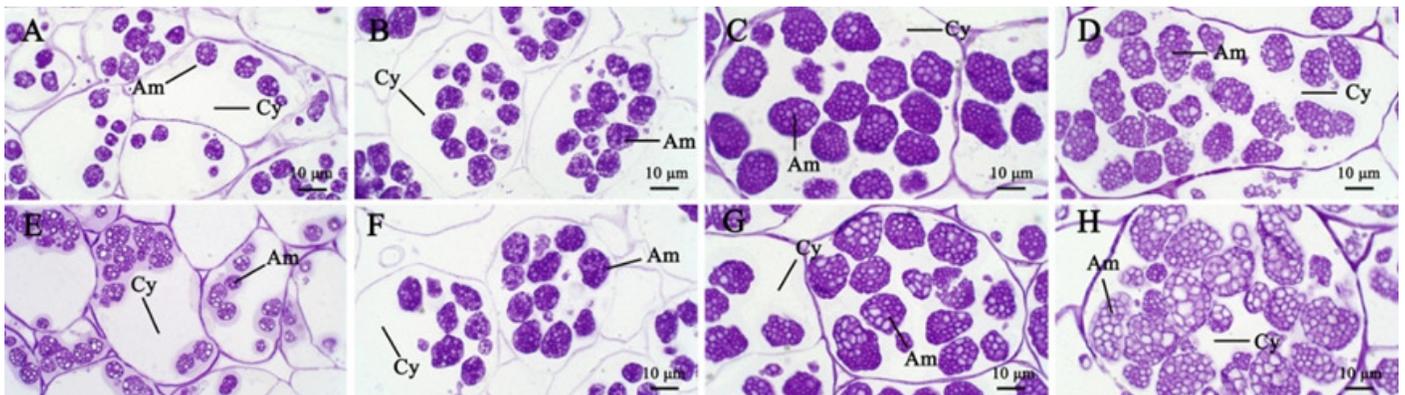
(A) Multi-head taro; (B) Multi-cormels taro.



## Figure 4

The development process of amyloplasts in the parenchyma cells of Kui taro bulbs

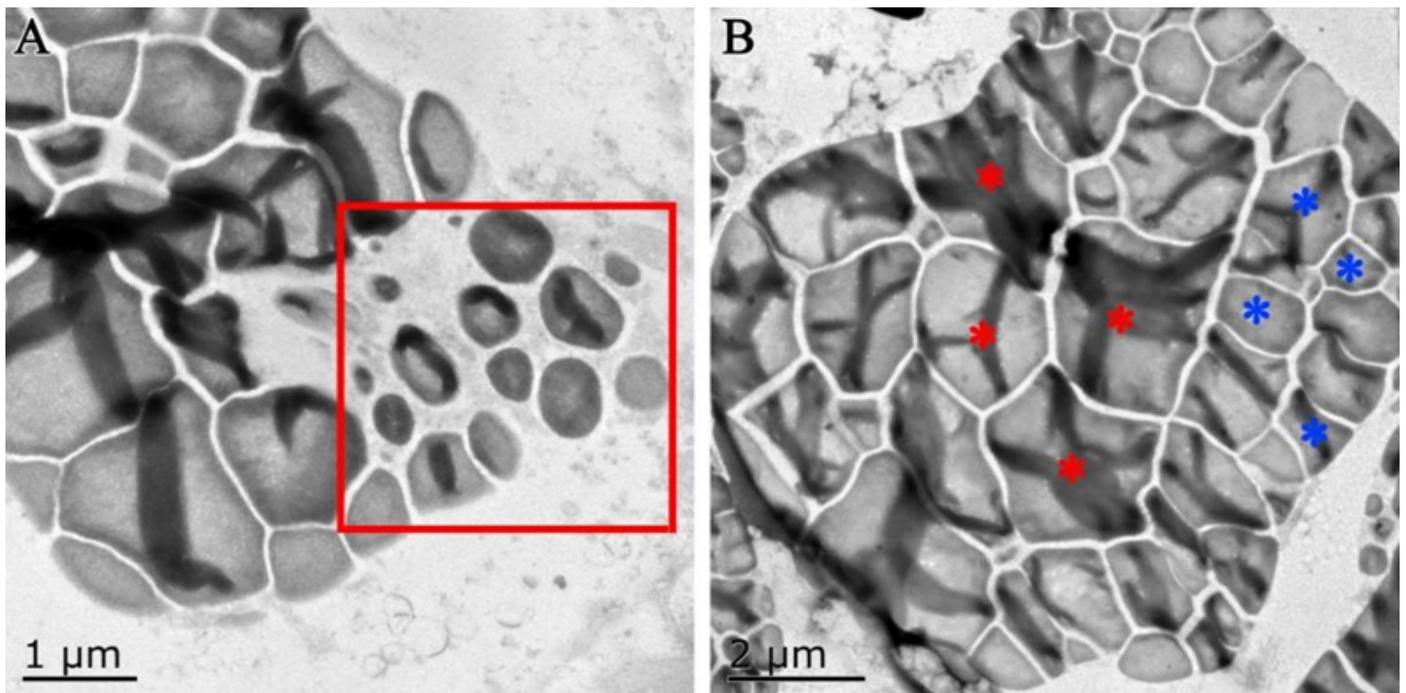
(A,E) Bulb diameter 1 cm; (B,F) Bulb diameter 5 cm; (C,G) Bulb diameter 9 cm; (D,H) Bulb diameter 13 cm; (Am) amyloid; (Cy) cytoplasm.



## Figure 5

Transmission electron microscope pictures of starch grains of Kui taro bulbs

(A) Bulb diameter 1 cm; The proliferation of amyloplasts, the red box shows the small starch granules after the overflow and shrinkage, and the shape has changed from irregular to spherical. (B) Bulb di-iameter 5 cm; The arrangement of small starch granules in large starch bodies, red asterisks represent large starch granules, blue asterisks represent small starch granules, two types of starch granules are distributed on both sides of starch bodies.



## Figure 6

Effects of external environmental factors and internal factors on taro bulb swelling and starch enrichment.

