

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

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Background. Taro is an important potato crop in the world, which can be used as food, vegetable, feed and industrial raw materials. The yield and quality of taro are mainly determined by the expansion degree of taro bulb and the filling condition of starch, while the expansion of taro bulb is a complex biological process. However, few information is reviewed on research progress on the bulb expansion and starch enrichment in taro.

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

Results. This article introduces the formation and development of taro bulb for the workers engaged in taro research. The content includes 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.

Conclusions. The future research directions and research focus about the development of taro bulb were prospected. 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 above research will become the key research direction in the future.

1 **Research progress on the bulb expansion and** 2 **starch enrichment in taro**

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12 13 **Abstract**

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31 research direction in the future.

32 33 **Introduction**

34 Taro is an underground bulbous crop planted in the tropical and subtropical regions. It
35 originated in China, India, Malaysia, and other regions, and is widely cultivated in Asia, Africa,
36 and other regions. It has a cultivation history of more than 2,000 years in China. At present, taro
37 can be classified using three methods. According the ecological type, it can be classified into two
38 classification which we called aquatic taro planted in paddy field and dry taro planted in orchard
39 soil. According the eating part, it can be classified into three classifications which we called
40 petiole taro whose mainly edible part is the petiole, flower taro whose mainly edible part is the
41 flower, and bulb taro whose mainly edible part is the bulb. According the bulb tillering habit, it

42 can be classified into three classifications which we called Kui taro, multi-cormels taro, and
43 multi-head taro. (Wu et al., 2021). The three classifications of taros in agricultural production of
44 China exhibit various characteristics (Figure 1). Kui taro has few sub taro and single mother-taro
45 which is the main edible part. In multi-cormels taro, the sub taros are numerous and grow in
46 groups which have strong tillering ability. In multi-head taro, there are few sub taros and the
47 tillers of the mother taros grow in groups. The fundamental difference of taro bulb tiller is the
48 difference of expansion between mother and sub taro. This phenomenon is caused by the
49 difference in the number of chromosome and differential expression of genes (Zhu et al., 2018).
50 Studies on taro chromosomes has proved that Kui taro is diploid ($2n=2x=28$), while the multi-
51 head and multi-cormels taro are triploid ($2n=3x=42$) (Huang et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2021). The
52 chromosome multiples are related to the geographical distribution. Diploid is more common in
53 hot and humid areas with low altitudes, and triploid is more common in dry and cold areas with
54 high altitudes.

55 The taro bulb, which is rich in starch and carbohydrates, is one of the staple food (Njintang
56 et al., 2008). In comparison with potato, sweet potato, and cassava, taro starch granules are small
57 and has a diameter of approximately $1.5 \mu\text{m}$, making it easy to digest and providing therapeutic
58 and health care functions. Taro starch particles are small and uniform and have good cold and
59 hot stability, good whiteness, and good adhesion. Therefore, it can be used as a brightener in
60 cosmetics (Qi et al., 2015). Taro bulbs are rich in many nutrients, such as starch, and the starch
61 content of different varieties of taro could reach 10%–36% (Falade et al., 2013). Taro starch can
62 be used as an industrial raw material. It could improve the stability of Pickering emulsion (Zhang
63 et al., 2020), and it could be used for the treatment of wastewater generated in the printing and
64 dyeing process (Zhou et al., 2018) and as an enhancer of starch film (Dai et al., 2015).
65 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 leaf contain flavonoids, but its biosynthesis of
68 flavonoids in taro bulb is still unknown (Iwashina et al., 1999). Taro is a food and medicine
69 homologous crop, which is often used for the treatment of diarrhea, internal bleeding, asthma,
70 and skin diseases (Prajapati et al., 2011). It could also lower blood sugar and cholesterol
71 (Sebnem et al., 2012). Therefore, taro has good prospects for medicinal development.

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

81 **Survey methodology**

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

92

93 **Taro expansion and development process**

94 Taro is a perennial herbaceous plant, which belongs to the Araceae family, but it is
95 generally cultivated as an annual crop in agricultural production. According to the growth and
96 development characteristic of taro (Figure 2), its life cycle is divided into five periods, namely,
97 embryonic stage, seedling stage, plant vigorous growth stage, taro expansion stage, and bulb
98 dormancy stage (Sun et al., 2014). Taro bulbs undergo metamorphosis during evolution. Take
99 multi-cormels taro and multi-head taro for example. The bulb of taro is composed of mother and
100 sub taro, and some varieties include grandson and great grandson taro (Figure 3). The mother
101 taro of taro bulb is developed by the top bud of the seed taro. The sub taro is developed from the
102 lateral bud on the mother taro, and the grandson taro is developed from the lateral bud of the sub
103 taro. An axillary bud is present on each node of mother taro, and it can develop into sub taro. The
104 axillary bud grown in the leaf axil and the leaf have a cogrowth relationship. The growth site
105 grows clockwise, and the angle between adjacent axillary buds is 144° . The positions of each
106 axillary bud are roughly in a straight line, showing typical 2/5 phyllodes features (Xu et al.,
107 2020). The sub taro of Kui taro grows first and then thickens, and the top swells to form a
108 smaller sub taro; the sub taro of taro with multi-cormels elongates and thickens, and the whole
109 bulb also swells to form a conical shape; three small-molecular-weight specific proteins during
110 bulb development (CSP) in the sub taro, namely, CSP2, CSP3 and CSP4, have spatiotemporal
111 specificity and are related to the occurrence and expansion of the sub taro. The relative
112 differences in the contents of CSP1, CSP2, and CSP4 in the mother taro are related to the apical
113 dominance of the terminal buds of the mother taro. The greater the difference is, the more
114 obvious the apical dominance and the lower the developmental degree of the sub taro is (Zhu et
115 al., 2018). However, Luiz found that the expression of the gene (TC1), which encodes a corm
116 globulin protein (G1d) related to curculin, during bulb development is spatiotemporal globulin
117 protein (Castro et al., 1992). The gene that determines bulb expansion is present at the beginning
118 of bulb differentiation. The role of TC1 gene in the process of bulb expansion remains to be
119 further studied. The proportion of fresh weight of taro first increases and then decreases in the
120 growth process. Similarly, the water content of the bulbs first increases and then decreases, while

121 the dry matter content gradually increases, showing an S-shaped growth trend. The dry matter
122 accumulation of the sub taro in the later stage is greater than that of mother taro (Xu et al., 2020).

123 During the growth and development process of mother taro, from the perspective of
124 component content, the weight gradually increased and the water content also gradually
125 decreased. At the same time, the total starch content gradually increased and the soluble sugar
126 content first increased and then decreased. From the point of Cytology, the volume of
127 parenchyma cells continued to increase, and the internal starch content gradually increased. The
128 number and diameter of starch bodies showed an upward trend, and the number of starch
129 granules in a single amyloplast also increases (Zhu et al., 2017). During taro bulb expansion, the
130 number of annual rings on the surface of the bulb gradually increased. From the point of
131 Cytology, the volume of the parenchyma cells in the bulb continued to increase. At the same
132 time, the number and size of amyloplasts gradually increased so that the entire cell was enriched;
133 with the expansion of the bulb, the vascular tissue gradually developed and perfected, and the
134 area of the sieve tube increased in number and became irregularly arranged; the taro bulb was
135 densely covered with mucous cavities, which spread out from the center of the bulb, but no
136 mucus cavity was observed in the epidermal cells (Sheng et al., 2021).

137 **Amyloplast enrichment process of taro bulbs**

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

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

158 Generally, the accumulation process of taro bulb starch is divided into three stages, namely,
159 starch formation, rapid starch accumulation, and amyloplast enrichment. The specific
160 performance is the formation of amyloplasts and the continuous increase in diameter, followed

161 by the continuous increase in the number of starches, and finally the increase in the number of
162 starches in the amyloplasts. The surface of taro amyloplast is mostly round and oval, belonging
163 to complex starch, containing multiple polyhedral starch granules. Take Kui taro for example. in
164 the early stage of development, amyloid was mostly distributed at the edge of the cell, and then
165 gathered at the center of the cell. Later in development, the number and size of amyloplasts
166 continued to increase (Figure 4). Transmission electron microscopy showed that the amyloplasts
167 of taro bulbs were large, and the large amyloplasts split into several small starch granules. Some
168 small starch granules (Figure 5A) were observed close to the free state at the edge of
169 amyloplasts, and these granules were loosely arranged and smaller in size. With the development
170 of the bulb, the starch granules with large diameters in the amyloplasts were mostly concentrated
171 in one area, and their arrangement was relatively compact. The small starch granules were
172 mostly distributed on the other side or around, and their arrangement was loose (Figure 5B).

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

187 **Effects of environment and cultivation methods on the development** 188 **of taro bulbs**

189 Taro adapts to high temperature and humidity environment and is not resistant to low
190 temperature and frost. The optimum temperature for germination is 12–15 °C. The optimum
191 temperature for growth is generally 25–30 °C. If the temperature is very low, the growth of taro
192 will slow down or stop. If the temperature is very high, the condition will not be conducive to the
193 development and expansion of taro bulb. (Wang et al., 2007) Different varieties of taro have
194 different requirements for temperature. Taro with Multi-cormels can be planted at low
195 temperatures, making it widely distributed in temperate zones. Kui taro has strict requirements
196 for high temperature. Therefore, Kui taro is mostly produced in tropical and subtropical regions
197 with high temperature and humidity (Chang et al., 2019). Taro requires sunlight, and the light
198 saturation point is approximately 50,000 lux. Taro is shade tolerant and can grow under scattered
199 light. The light intensity, composition, and light time remarkably affect the growth of taro, but
200 strong light is conducive to the growth of taro and improves yield and quality. Under blue violet

201 light, the leaves of taro are large and thick, and the petioles are thick and short, and this condition
202 is conducive to the growth and development of bulbs. In red and yellow light, the leaves are
203 small, and the petioles are slender, and this condition is not conducive to the growth and
204 development of bulbs. In the early stage of taro development, a longer light time is required to
205 promote the increase of leaf area and the accumulation of photosynthetic products. The later
206 stage of taro development requires a shorter light time to facilitate the formation and expansion
207 of bulbs (Chang et al., 2019). Taro requires dampness, but there are differences between
208 classifications. Aquatic taro is grown in paddy fields, but dry taro cannot be flooded for a long
209 time. Taro has different requirements for humidity before different growth stages. The field
210 should be kept moist during the germination stage to induce the germination of taro. During the
211 plant vigorous growth stage, the water demand is large, and the water supply needs to be
212 guaranteed; the soil should be kept dry before harvesting to maintain good condition for the
213 harvesting and storage of bulbs (Huang et al., 2016). Taro does not require very strict soil
214 texture. Loose and fertile soil with deep soil layer and convenient irrigation and drainage is
215 conducive to the growth of taro and the expansion of bulbs. Taro can grow normally in soil with
216 pH of 4.1–9.1, but the optimum pH is 5.5–7.0. A highly acidic or highly alkaline soil is not
217 conducive to the growth and development of taro (Huang et al., 2016).

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

238 **Regulation of hormones on bulb development**

239 **Regulation of endogenous hormones on bulb expansion and starch enrichment**

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

260 Plant endogenous hormone regulation is closely related to starch anabolism (Kim et al.,
261 2005). The enlargement of plant bulbs mainly depends on starch accumulation and cell division
262 enlargement, and starch accumulation mainly depends on sucrose synthesis and transportation.
263 Plant hormone signal transduction affects starch accumulation. ABA can induce the expression
264 of starch synthesis genes and enhance the transduction of sugar signals to promote starch
265 accumulation (Akihiro et al., 2005). The level of GA at the grain filling stage of wheat is
266 positively correlated with the final grain yield and starch yield. GA plays an important role in
267 starch accumulation in wheat grains. Changes in endogenous hormone levels may indirectly
268 affect starch accumulation in grains by affecting regulatory enzymes and regulatory processes
269 (Xie et al., 2003). Scientists added IAA to MS medium, and the potato tuber starch content and
270 starch granule size increased by 15%–30% (Gukasyan et al., 2005). In the study of tulip bulbs,
271 IAA and ZR indirectly promoted starch accumulation by increasing the activity of ADP-glucose
272 pyrophosphorylase (AGPase), thus catalyzing the production of a large number of products.
273 Endogenous hormones may promote starch accumulation by participating in the starch synthesis
274 pathway (Miao et al., 2016). Hormones have multiple roles and interact to form a regulatory
275 network, thereby regulating tuber development (Jung et al., 2013). In the early stage of taro
276 development (bulb is about 1cm in diameter), the content of endogenous hormones ABA, bulb
277 endogenous zeatin (Z), and ZR showed an upward trend, while the content of IAA, GA3, and JA
278 showed a downward trend. In the later stage of development (bulb is about 13cm in diameter),
279 the content of endogenous hormones ABA, IAA, Z, and GA3 showed an upward trend. The

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

284 **Regulation of growth, development, and starch enrichment of bulbs by** 285 **exogenous hormones**

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

320 controls the expansion of the cell by regulating the synthesis of intracellular sugar (Takahashi et
321 al., 1995). This phenomenon induces the formation of the apical meristem of potato stolon and
322 promotes tuber development (Cenzano et al., 2003).

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

334 **Role of key enzyme genes in starch synthesis during starch** 335 **enrichment**

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

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

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

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

367 **Conclusions and future direction**

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

378 Therefore, the following research will become the key research direction in the future.

379 **Expansion of taro bulbs and the regularity of the development and spatial 380 distribution of starch bodies**

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

391 **Role of key enzyme genes in starch synthesis in starch enrichment**

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

400 Regulation of hormones on bulb swelling and starch enrichment

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

407 Hormone-regulated pathways promoting bulb expansion and starch enrichment

408 Exogenous hormones and plant growth regulators have important regulatory effects on taro
409 bulb swelling, starch enrichment, and yield increase. The effects of exogenous substances such
410 as 6-BA, 2,4-D, GA3, PP333, and 5-aminolevulinic acid (5-ALA) on the development, yield, and
411 quality of taro corn, as well as the type and concentration of the best exogenous hormone to
412 promote corm expansion and starch enrichment need to be studied, and plant growth regulators
413 for increased yield and improved quality of taro should be developed to provide an important
414 theoretical basis for taro production.

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

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424 Author Contributions

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

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

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

428 All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

429 Data Avail

430 The following information was supplied regarding data availability:

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

432 Ability Statement

433 All data were collected from the published research papers.

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Figure 1

three classifications of taros in agricultural production of China

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

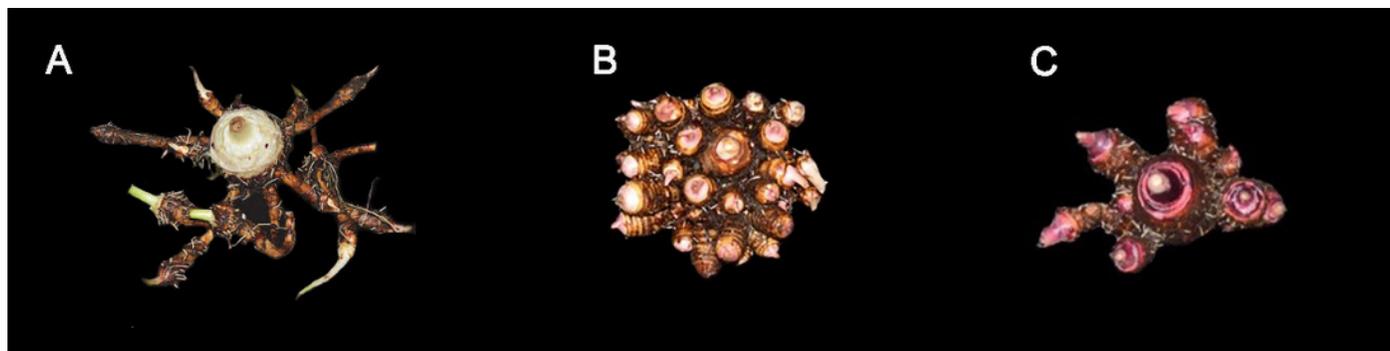


Figure 2

The development of taro according to the diameter

The taro bulb is developed by the bud and the diameter increases with the development process.



Figure 3

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

(A) Multi-head taro; (B) Multi-cormels taro. Mother taro: it is developed by the top bud of the seed taro. Sub taro: it is developed from the lateral bud on the mother taro. Grandson taro: it is developed from the lateral bud of the sub taro.

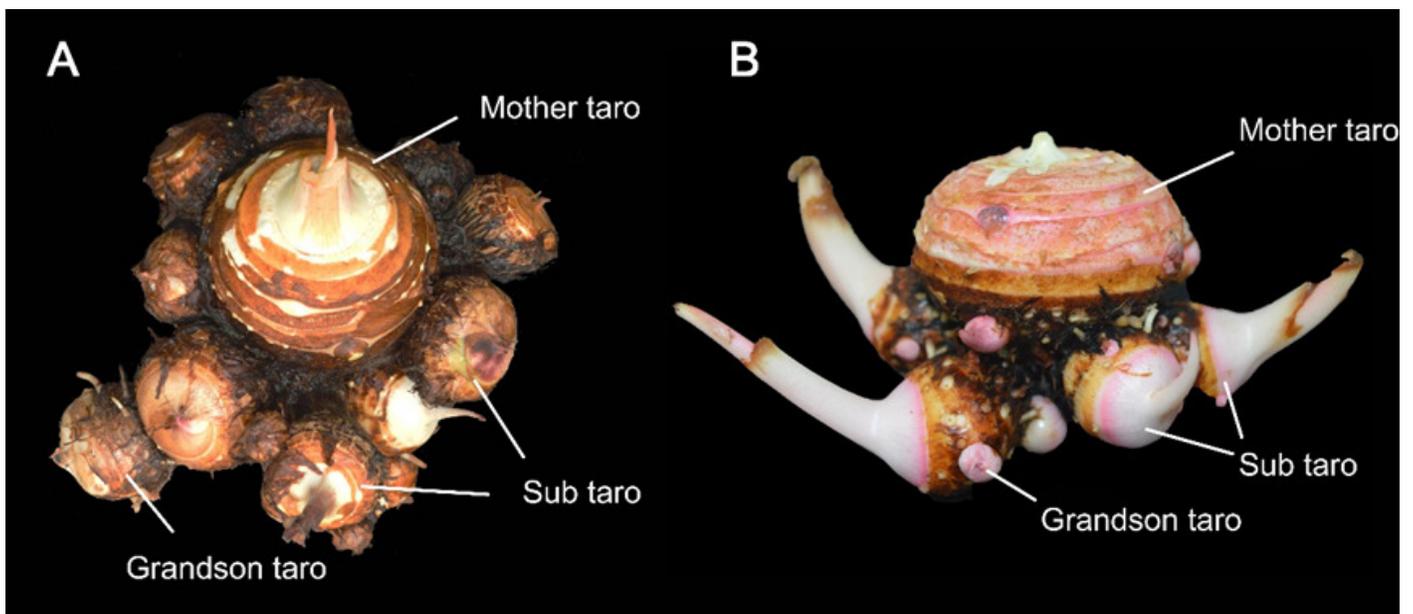


Figure 4

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.

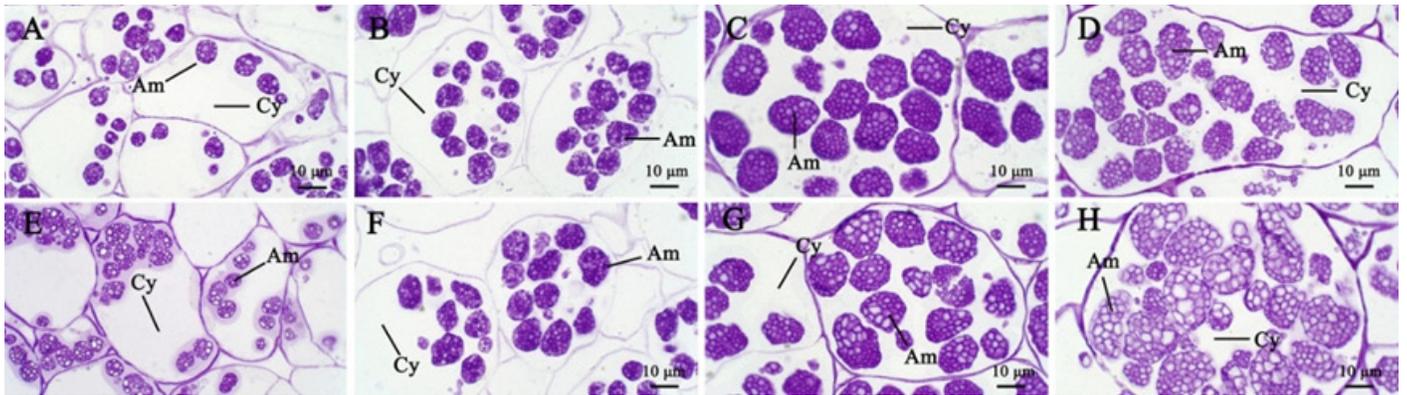


Figure 5

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 diameter 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.

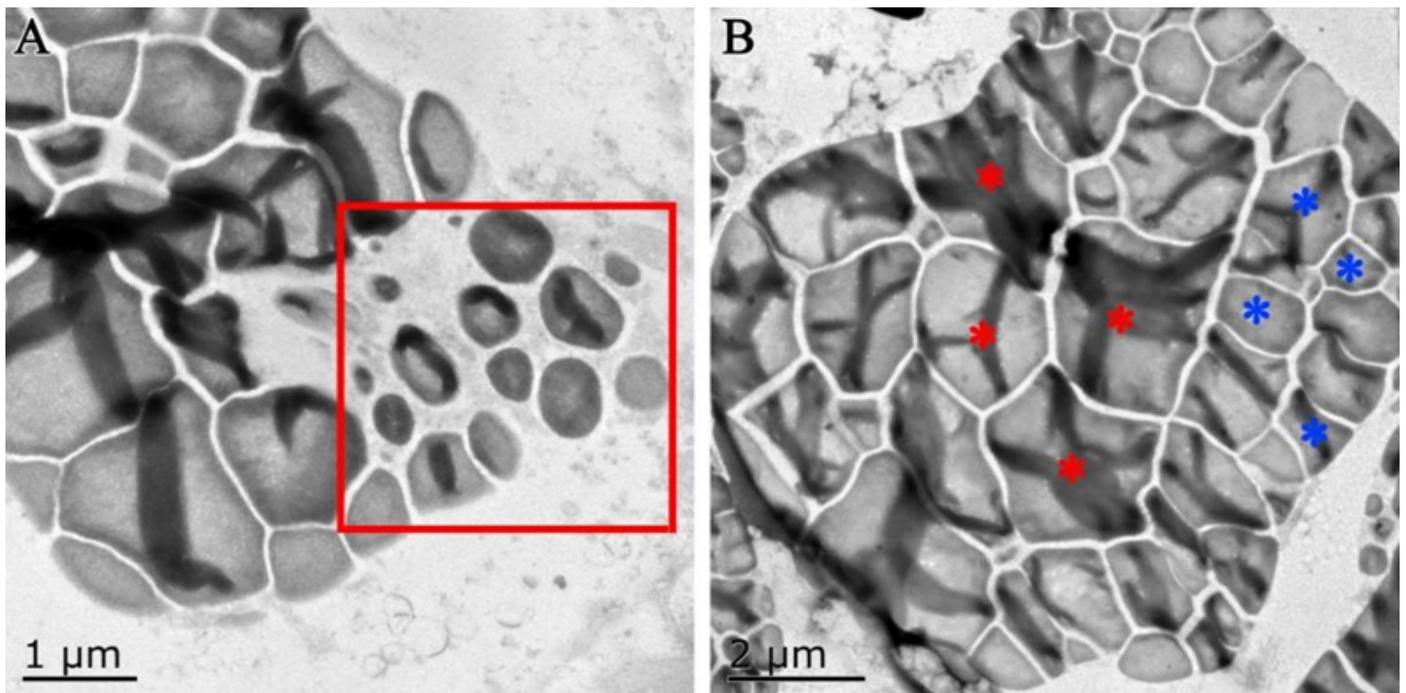


Figure 6

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

