

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.

Research progress on the bulb expansion and starch enrichment in taro

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Abstract

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.

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Introduction

Taro is an underground bulbous crop planted in the tropical and subtropical regions. It originated in China, India, Malaysia, and other regions, and is widely cultivated in Asia, Africa, and other regions. It has a cultivation history of more than 2,000 years in China. At present, taro can be classified using three methods. According the ecological type, it can be classified into two classification which we called aquatic taro planted in paddy field and dry taro planted in orchard soil. According the eating part, it can be classified into three classifications which we called petiole taro whose mainly edible part is the petiole, flower taro whose mainly edible part is the 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. Lebot V identified the plants as
96 *Colocasia esculenta* based on its morphological examination (Ivancic A, 1999). According to
97 the growth and development characteristic of taro (Figure 2), its life cycle is divided into five
98 periods, namely, embryonic stage, seedling stage, plant vigorous growth stage, taro expansion
99 stage, and bulb dormancy stage (Sun et al., 2014). Taro bulbs undergo metamorphosis during
100 evolution. According to the authoritative book (Huang et al., 2006), some terms such as "mother
101 taro", "grandson taro", "great grandson taro" and so on are merely direct translation of the local
102 Chinese terms. Here take multi-cormels taro and multi-head taro for example. The bulb of taro is
103 composed of mother and sub taro, and some varieties include grandson and great grandson taro
104 (Figure 3). The mother taro of taro bulb is developed by the top bud of the seed taro. The sub
105 taro is developed from the lateral bud on the mother taro, and the grandson taro is developed
106 from the lateral bud of the sub taro. An axillary bud is present on each node of mother taro, and it
107 can develop into sub taro. The axillary bud grown in the leaf axil and the leaf have a cogrowth
108 relationship. The growth site grows clockwise, and the angle between adjacent axillary buds is
109 144°. The positions of each axillary bud are roughly in a straight line, showing typical 2/5
110 phyllodes features (Xu et al., 2020). The sub taro of Kui taro grows first and then thickens, and
111 the top swells to form a smaller sub taro; the sub taro of taro with multi-cormels elongates and
112 thickens, and the whole bulb also swells to form a conical shape; three small-molecular-weight
113 specific proteins during bulb development (CSP) in the sub taro, namely, CSP2, CSP3 and CSP4,
114 have spatiotemporal specificity and are related to the occurrence and expansion of the sub taro.
115 The relative differences in the contents of CSP1, CSP2, and CSP4 in the mother taro are related
116 to the apical dominance of the terminal buds of the mother taro. The greater the difference is, the
117 more obvious the apical dominance and the lower the developmental degree of the sub taro is
118 (Zhu et al., 2018). However, Luiz found that the expression of the gene (TC1), which encodes a
119 corm globulin protein (G1d) related to curculin, during bulb development is spatiotemporal
120 globulin protein (Castro et al., 1992). The gene that determines bulb expansion is present at the
121 beginning of bulb differentiation. The role of TC1 gene in the process of bulb expansion remains

122 to be further studied. The proportion of fresh weight of taro first increases and then decreases in
123 the growth process. Similarly, the water content of the bulbs first increases and then decreases,
124 while the dry matter content gradually increases, showing an S-shaped growth trend. The dry
125 matter accumulation of the sub taro in the later stage is greater than that of mother taro (Xu et al.,
126 2020).

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

141 **Amyloplast enrichment process of taro bulbs**

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

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

162 Generally, the accumulation process of taro bulb starch is divided into three stages, namely,
163 starch formation, rapid starch accumulation, and amyloplast enrichment. The specific
164 performance is the formation of amyloplasts and the continuous increase in diameter, followed
165 by the continuous increase in the number of starches, and finally the increase in the number of
166 starches in the amyloplasts. The surface of taro amyloplast is mostly round and oval, belonging
167 to complex starch, containing multiple polyhedral starch granules. Take Kui taro for example. in
168 the early stage of development, amyloid was mostly distributed at the edge of the cell, and then
169 gathered at the center of the cell. Later in development, the number and size of amyloplasts
170 continued to increase (Figure 4). Transmission electron microscopy showed that the amyloplasts
171 of taro bulbs were large, and the large amyloplasts split into several small starch granules. Some
172 small starch granules (Figure 5A) were observed close to the free state at the edge of
173 amyloplasts, and these granules were loosely arranged and smaller in size. With the development
174 of the bulb, the starch granules with large diameters in the amyloplasts were mostly concentrated
175 in one area, and their arrangement was relatively compact. The small starch granules were
176 mostly distributed on the other side or around, and their arrangement was 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 amyloplast of taro bulbs were mostly complex starches. Amyloid proliferation is
182 divided into two stages. In the first stage, the number of starch granules in the amyloplast
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 granules in the amyloplast 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. (Wang et al., 2007) Different varieties of taro have
198 different requirements for temperature. Taro with Multi-cormels can be planted at low
199 temperatures, making it widely distributed in temperate zones. Kui taro has strict requirements
200 for high temperature. Therefore, Kui taro is mostly produced in tropical and subtropical regions
201 with high temperature and humidity (Chang et al., 2019). Taro requires sunlight, and the light

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

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

242 **Regulation of hormones on bulb development**

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

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

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

282 showed a downward trend. In the later stage of development (bulb is about 13cm in diameter),
283 the content of endogenous hormones ABA, IAA, Z, and GA3 showed an upward trend. The
284 content of ZR and JA showed a downward trend, but the contents of IAA, GA3, and JA
285 hormones were generally high during the whole development process (Sheng, 2021). Other
286 related studies on endogenous hormones on the growth and development of taro bulbs and starch
287 enrichment have not been conducted.

288 **Regulation of growth, development, and starch enrichment of bulbs by** 289 **exogenous hormones**

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

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

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

338 **Role of key enzyme genes in starch synthesis during starch** 339 **enrichment**

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

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

361 GBSS I is a key enzyme that controls starch synthesis, and it catalyzes the synthesis of
362 amylose. Otani et al. (2007) interfered with the expression of GBSS I by RNAi technology to
363 make sweet potato taste more glutinous. SSSII can affect the structure of amylopectin and reduce
364 the gelatinization temperature of starch (Otani et al., 2007). The reduction of starch gelatinization
365 temperature is conducive to simplifying the starch hydrolysis process and reducing the
366 production cost of starch fermentation (Takahata et al., 2010). AGPase improves the starch
367 content of potato tubers (Song et al., 2005). However, the synergistic expression of starch
368 synthesis related genes under exogenous sucrose treatment promotes the conversion of sucrose to
369 starch (Ahn et al., 2010). Peak synthase has been widely studied, but no direct research has been
370 conducted on taro starch synthase.

371 **Conclusions and future direction**

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

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

383 **Expansion of taro bulbs and the regularity of the development and spatial** 384 **distribution of starch bodies**

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

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

396 Starch is the main storage material of taro bulbs. The expansion process of taro is closely
397 related to the synthesis of starch, and the genes related to starch synthesis are closely related to
398 starch synthesis, which directly determine the starch content of taro. The research on starch
399 synthase gene has remarkably progressed in wheat, rice, potato and other crops, but limited
400 research has been conducted on taro starch synthase gene. Therefore, the differences in the

401 expression of key enzyme genes (e.g., AGPase, GBSS, SSS, and SBE) for taro starch synthesis,
402 the roles of these genes in regulating the starch enrichment process, and the exploration of
403 individual gene functions will become the focus of research.

404 **Regulation of hormones on bulb swelling and starch enrichment**

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

411 **Hormone-regulated pathways promoting bulb expansion and starch enrichment**

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

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

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427 The authors declare there are no competing interests.

428 **Author Contributions**

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

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

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

432 All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

433 **Data Avail**

434 The following information was supplied regarding data availability:

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

436 **Ability Statement**

437 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.

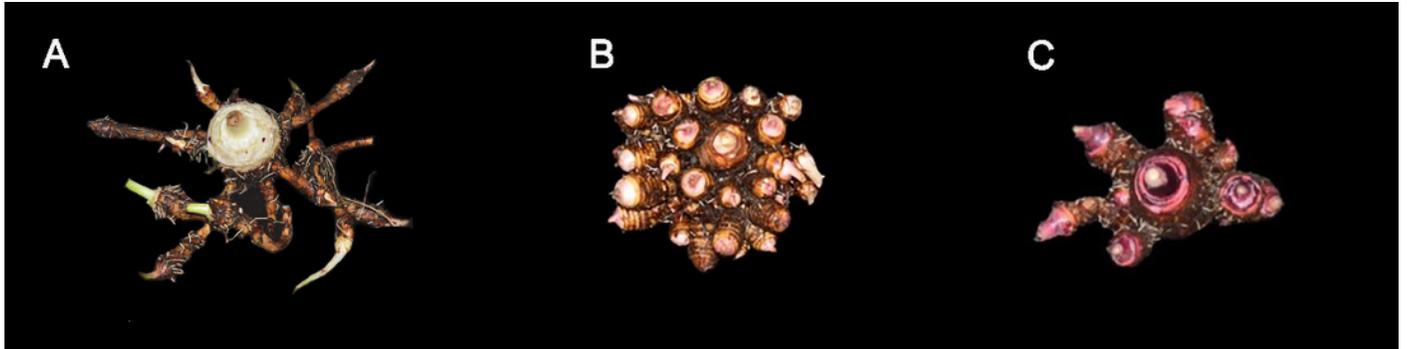


Figure 2

The development of taro according to the diameter

The taro bulb is developed by the bud and the diameter increases with the development process. From left to right, the age is 2 weeks,4 weeks,8 weeks,14 weeks and 16 weeks.



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.

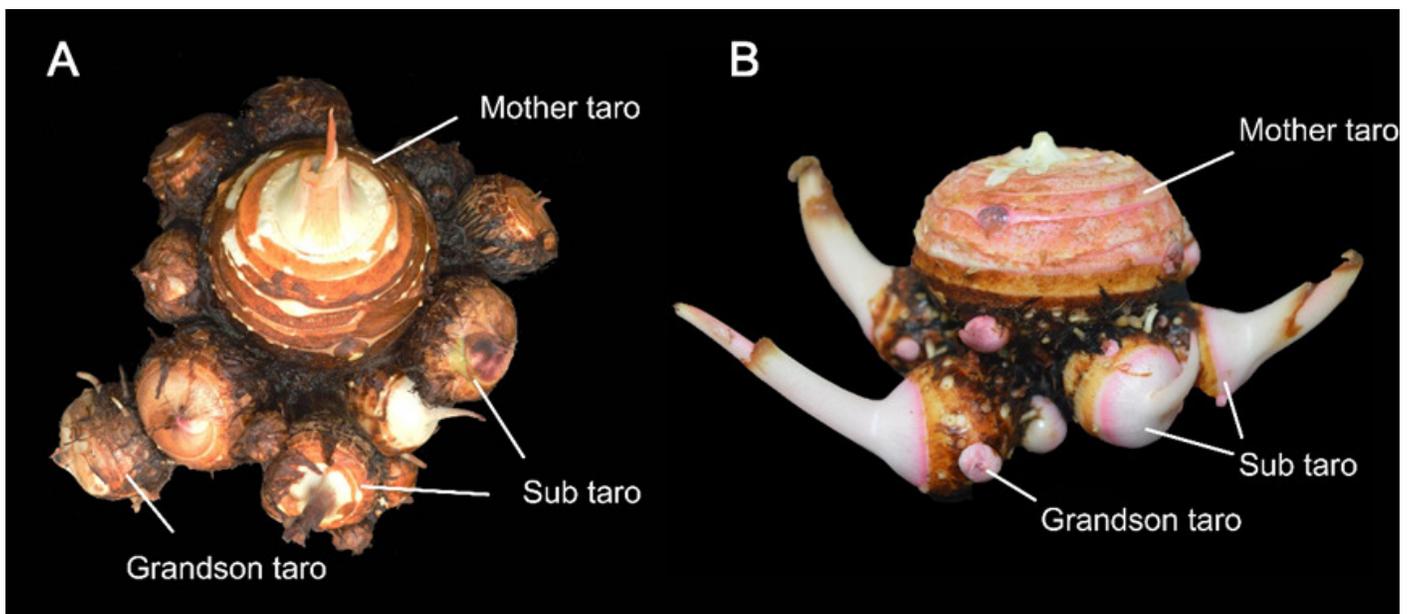


Figure 4

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.

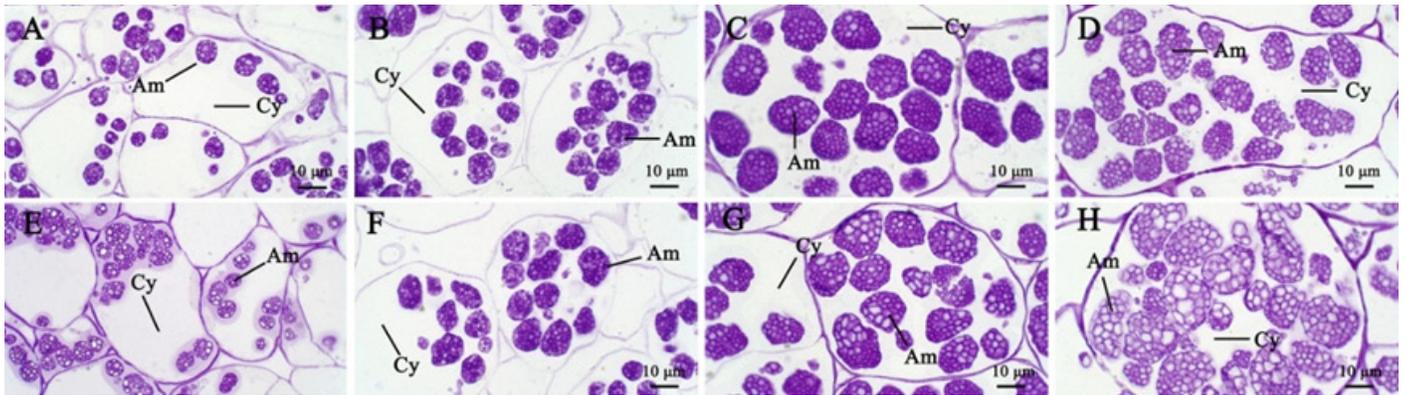


Figure 5

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 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.

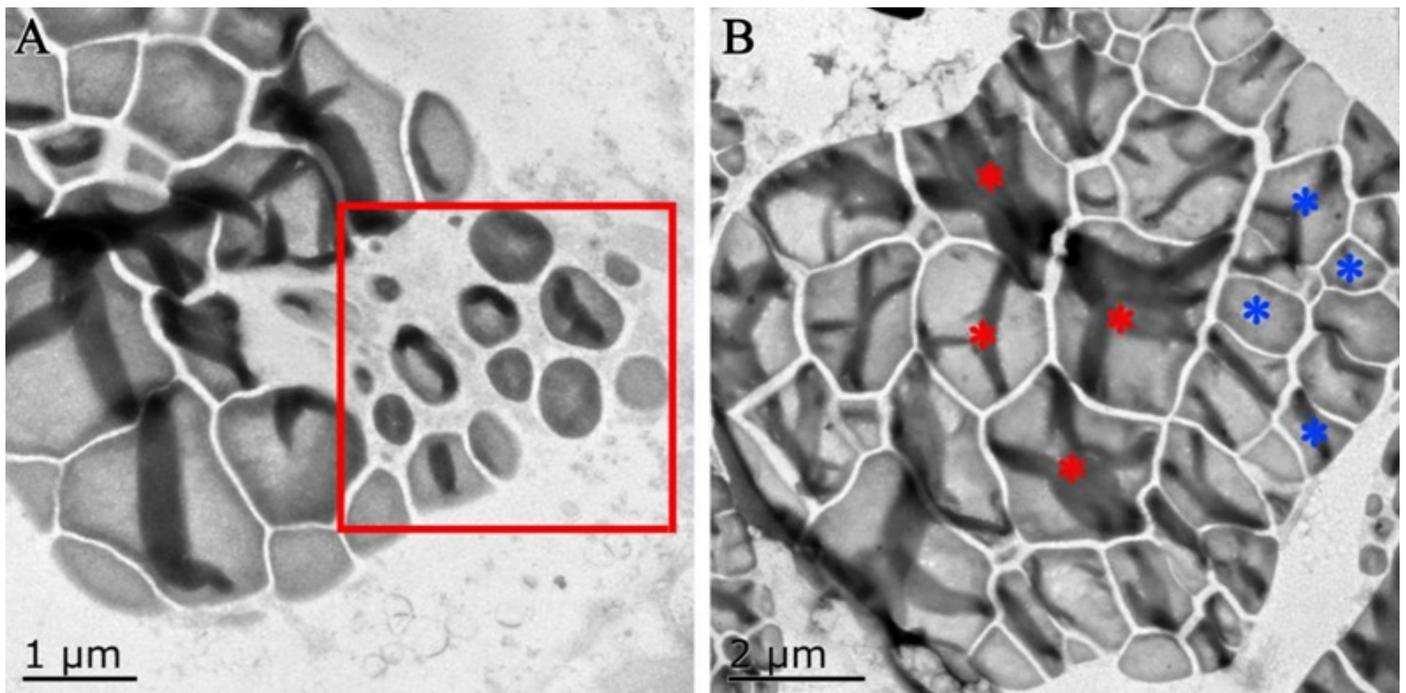


Figure 6

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

