

Propagation Methods of Yam (*Dioscorea Species*) with Special Attention to *In Vitro* Propagation

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Abstract

Yam is a monocotyledonous plant in the genus *Dioscorea*. It is a multi-species tuber crop cultivated in Africa, Asia and parts of South America. Yam is an important crop in South and Southwestern parts of Ethiopia. Many species of *Dioscorea* genus are economically important crops and many of them have been used in the pharmaceutical industry. Yam is propagated from seed tubers or sections of tuber and corms. Seed tubers are expensive, bulky to transport and the multiplication rate in the field is very low. Shortage of seed tubers for planting is one of the major constraints for yam production in Ethiopia. To overcome such problems and to increase production, different propagation methods have been implemented for many *Dioscorea* species. Conventional and *In vitro* propagation of *Dioscorea* species pave the way to meet the demand of this economically important plant. The protocols are designed to provide the optimal levels of mineral nutrients, environmental factors, vitamins and carbohydrates to achieve the high regeneration rate of the different species of *Dioscorea* *in vitro*. This review summarizes some of the important reports on different propagation technique of *Dioscorea* from the literature data.

Keywords: *Dioscorea*, *In vitro*, micropropagation, Yam, Minisett technique

1. Introduction

The genus *Dioscorea* is the type genus of the family *Dioscoreaceae* and is the largest genus within this family of about 644 species (Govaerts et al., 2007). All *Dioscorea* species are *Dioecious* twining climbers producing dry capsules, although occasionally both male and female flowers can be found on the same plant. All species of economic importance are tuberous (Lebot, 2009).

Yam is a traditional crop that has long been cultivated in Southern, Western and Southwestern parts of Ethiopia as staple or co-staple with enset (*Ensete ventricosum*), cereals, and other root and tuber crops (Westphal, 1975; Edwards, 1991; Mie'ge & Demissew, 1997; Wilkin, 1998; Gemed, 2000). As the crop is adapted to dry season planting (mainly at the onset of the dry season in October) early harvests in May could fill a seasonal gap in food supply in Ethiopia (Tamiru et al., 2005; Tamiru, 2006; Tamiru, 2008). Their storage organs (underground and/or aerial tubers) are sources of proteins, fats, and vitamins for millions of people in Africa (Hahn et al., 1987; Lebot, 2009). In addition, *Dioscorea* is a well-known edible and traditional medicinal plant, since the genus is rich in steroidal saponins and as a source of biologically active compounds in pharmaceutical industries (Wang et al., 2006; Kole, 2011).

Yams are principally grown for food and have organoleptic qualities that make them the preferred carbohydrate food where they are grown. However, their storage organs (underground and/or aerial tubers) are also sources of proteins, fats, and vitamins for millions of people in West Africa (Kole, 2011). Chemical composition depends mainly on the species, the cultivar or wild form. Their protein, mineral and vitamin content are higher. When processed into flour, yams have a nutritional value comparable to cereals. The food value is composed of carbohydrates (starch, sugars, and fibers), proteins, minerals, vitamins and a negligible amount of lipids (Lebot, 2009). Nutritional qualities have been investigated for the major species, but there is less work on other *Dioscorea* species. In countries where yams are generally cultivated, wild yams are used as food in times of shortage or famine (Coursey, 1967). These wild species, although consumed only under famine conditions, also makes enormous contribution to human welfare. Apart from food, *Dioscorea* species are also used in pharmaceutical industries as sources of biologically active compounds or their precursors. A wide range of saponins and steroidal sapogenins (mostly diosgenin) have been extracted from various *Dioscorea* spp. with the aim of providing the pharmaceutical industry with compounds for oral contraceptives. It regulates the female reproductive system, particularly during menstrual distress and menopause, and is also used in treating infertility (Kole, 2011).

Yam is propagated from seed tubers or sections of tubers and corms. Seed tubers are expensive, accounting sometimes for about as much as 50% of total variable cost (Manyong, 2000); they are bulky to transport and have extended dormancy period. The multiplication ratio in the field is very low (less than 1:10) compared, for instance, to some cereals (1:300) (Balogun, 2009). Traditionally farmers obtain seed tubers by selecting small tubers (e.g. 200–500 g) from each harvest. Unfortunately these seed tubers are often produced by diseased plants by nematodes and Insects such as yam shoot beetle, which often interact with fungi (*Botryodiplodia*, *Fusarium*) and bacteria (*Erwinia* spp.) that damage tubers in the field and in storage (Aighevi et al., 2003a; Lebot, 2009). Diehl's (1982) survey report in Nigeria also showed shortage of planting material (owing to low reproductive rate) which may lead to future decline in yam production.

In Ethiopia there is shortage of seed tubers for planting, lack of formal seed supply system and specialization in the production of yam planting-materials (Tamiru et al., 2005; Tamiru et al., 2008). Farmers mostly rely on their own planting-materials saved from the previous

cropping season; some farmers partly meet their demand for seed tubers through purchases from local markets or exchanges with neighbors. This has led to a decrease in production (Tamiru et al., 2008) due to insufficient quantity and poor quality of planting material. In addition, productivity is hampered by pests and diseases and the limited availability and high cost of planting materials (Balogun et al., 2004). So, some farmers keep a reserve batch of seed yams (up to a third of the quantity planted) for replacement of seeds that do not germinate. Poor quality planting materials that germinate tend to carry disease and pest (viruses, fungi, nematodes and insects) from the storage barns to the field the next season resulting in low tuber yields, followed by poor shelf life (Ghosh et al., 1988; Asiedu & Sartie, 2010).

To overcome such problems and increase production, conventional methods such as partial sectioning, layering, vine rooting and minisett technique have been used to produce high amount of planting material (Okoli et al., 1982; Wilson, 1989). Minisett technique has significantly increased propagation rates, but it has been associated with less uniform and poor rate of sprouting when applied to white yam (Okoli et al., 1982). The partial sectioning requires considerable manpower for the repeated examining and digging out of tubers to excise sprouted sections for field planting. In case of vine rooting technique, either tubers did not develop due to early senescence of rooted vines (Acha et al., 2004), or small tubers are produced when applied to *D. rotundata* (Okoli et al., 1982). The layering technique is unsuitable for farm use due to rigorous procedures involved (Acha et al., 2004) and it is genotype specific (Acha et al., 2004; Shiwachi et al., 2005b).

Therefore, other methods of rapid propagation such as micropropagation have been developed (Balogun et al., 2004) including production of microtubers from plantlets *in vitro* (Aighewi et al., 2003b; Feng et al., 2007). Micropropagation of yam offers the distinct advantage of large scale multiplication of high quality, clonally propagated planting materials (Ng, 1988; Asha & Nair, 2007). It provides many advantages over conventional methods including: (1) it enables mass propagation of specific species, (2) it helps to produce pathogen-free planting material, (3) it enables clonal propagation of parental stock for hybrid seed production, and (4) it enables year-round nursery production (Hartmann et al., 2002).

This review summarizes some of the recent reports on the propagation of *Dioscorea* species with special focus on the significant achievements on *in vitro* propagation of yam.

2. Yam Cultivation

High yam yields depend on good planting material and husbandry and, in particular, timely weed control to permit establishment of a sufficient leaf area (Asiedu & Sartie, 2010). They also depend on adequate and near optimum temperatures (25-30° C). The most important constraints to production are the high labour requirements, the quality of the planting material and difficulties in mechanization (Lebot, 2009).

2.1 Soil Preparation for Yam Cultivation

Yams, being light-loving and shade-sensitive plants, require sites which are well exposed to solar radiation (Shiwachi et al., 2005a). If planted in traditional agroforestry systems, they

need to be established in the middle of the plot and to be staked in order to benefit from maximum sunlight (Lebot, 2009). Unlike cassava and sweet potato roots, which initially penetrate the soil and then expand, the yam tuber penetrates the soil while expanding (Asiedu and Sartie, 2010). It is therefore important that the soil is light, well drained and friable. Land preparation is the most important input and necessitates almost half of the total 1800 man-hours/ha in West Africa (Hahn et al., 1987).

2.2 Nutrient Requirement of Yam

Degradation of soil fertility is the major constraint identified by growers in yam production in West Africa (Asiedu & Sartie, 2010). Although farmers perceive the decline in soil fertility as their most important difficulty in improving yield and profit, they often lack suitable and practical solutions to correct the situation (Kang & Wilson, 1981; Lebot, 2009).

Responses to fertilizers are erratic and usually much less significant than the effects of sett size or staking (Okoli et al., 1982). No responses to N fertilization or even depressive effects have been reported. Kang and Wilson (1981) reported no significant effect of NPK fertilizer on tuber yield at all three locations where their experiments were conducted and noticed some depression in the yield of plants grown on flats. To complicate the situation, yams appear to depend on an effective mycorrhizal association to meet their P requirements. Apparently, yams respond well to N and K fertilizers, while their response to P is slight. This could be due to very efficient P uptake, possibly as a result of mycorrhizal contribution (Lebot, 2009).

2.3 Conventional Vegetative Propagation of Yam

Traditionally, yams are propagated by planting whole tubers or large pieces weighing 200 g or more (Okoli *et al.*, 1982; Balogun, 2009). A sizable portion of otherwise consumable tubers are therefore reserved for planting yearly, and this leads to scarcity of planting materials. Most farmers propagate yams by “milking” (Balogun, 2009). In this technique, tubers are harvested two thirds into the growing season without destroying the root system. This provides early yam for home consumption and market. There is regeneration of fresh small tubers from the corm at the base of the vine and these are used as planting materials for the following season (Lebot, 2009).

The major constraint of planting materials to yam production is being tackled by the development of more efficient propagation methods. These include partial sectioning technique, vine rooting (Acha et al., 2004); the layering and minisett technique (Okoli et al., 1982) and these techniques do have their advantages and disadvantages (Table 1).

Table 1. Different types of yam propagation with their importance and limitation

Types	Advantages	Limitation	Reference
Minisett technique	Reduce the bulkiness of the planting material. Significantly increased propagation rates	Species-specific and requires considerable manpower for the repeated examining and digging out of tubers to excise sprouted sections for field planting.	Okoli et al., 1982
The layering technique	Some genotypes perform much better than others, i.e., it is genotype specific.	Technique is unsuitable for farm use due to rigorous procedures involved and it is genotype specific.	(Acha et al., 2004; Shiwachi et al., 2005b)
Vine cutting	Used for production of planting setts this not only accelerates propagation of selected clones but produces minitubers. These vine cuttings can be used to produce minitubers within 100–120 days	Either tubers did not develop due to early senescence of rooted vines, or small tubers are produced when applied to <i>D. rotundata</i> relative to other species	Okonmah 1980; Acha et al., 2004, Acha et al., 2005; Shiwachi et al., 2005b
Micropropagation	Offers very high multiplication rates and healthy propagules	Cost of propagation is high	(Ng, 1992).

2.4 Yam Tissue Culture

Tissue culture is the rapid method developed to address limitations of the traditional practices in yam propagation. Micropropagation *in vitro* following culture of apical meristems and nodal cuttings offers very high multiplication rates and healthy propagules (Ng, 1992). Other methods of rapid propagation developed at IITA include production of microtubers (Balogun et al., 2004) from plantlets *in vitro*, and the production of seed tubers using slips (sprouts) and peels (Aighewi et al., 2003b).

In vitro propagation protocols have been developed for many of the *Dioscorea* species. Multiplication of yam by *in vitro* growth of nodal segments is a practical way for rapid clonal multiplication and some international tissue culture companies like VitroBio Valenda SL in

Spain are involved in commercial propagation of yam through the use of those protocols developed and there is also mass propagation in some African and Arabian countries (Omar & Aouine, 2007) but, in tropical countries, only a few agricultural research stations can afford to do it. All the protocol developed pass through different stages of *in vitro* propagation (Mantell *et al.*, 1978). In 1974, Murashige outlined four stages that can be followed in tissue culture, each with specific nutritional and incubation conditions requirements. Such stages are shoot initiation, multiplication, rooting and acclimatization stages but before that the mother plant need to be grown on an appropriate condition.

2.4.1 Mother Plant Preparation

According to Omar and Aouine, 2007, mother plants were established from healthy seed yams (weighing 200 ± 5 g) which had broken dormancy, and were planted singly in 40 cm black polybags filled with sterilized top soil and kept in a greenhouse. Light watering with tap water was carried out twice daily until sprouts were produced. Young healthy sprouts were removed from mother plants after two months of growth, deleafed, and cut into smaller pieces (Mbanaso *et al.*, 2007; Obsi *et al.*, 2015).

In addition Behera and his co-workers had used the tubers of various yam genotypes were put in a greenhouse for germination to obtain the mothers plants and the explants were obtained from the established experimental site after 35 to 60 days after germination (Behera *et al.*, 2008; Behera *et al.*, 2009; Behera *et al.*, 2010). And vines / top shoot cuttings having 5-8 nodes, excised from greenhouse grown, healthy plants of about 2 m height, raised from the tubers under uniform manorial conditions, served as source of explants (Adeniyi *et al.*, 2008). On the other hand vines/shoot top cuttings, single nodal segments (1-2 cm) were excised and used as explants for *in vitro* experiments (Asha & Nair, 2007; Obsi *et al.*, 2015).

2.4.2 Initiation of Aseptic Culture

Out of the various treatments tried, the treatment with HgCl_2 (0.1%) for 4 minutes followed by washing thrice with sterile water and then dipping in ethanol (70%) for 1 minute exhibited maximum establishment of aseptic as well as proliferating cultures, i.e., 78.67 and 76.00% respectively (Kharat *et al.*, 2008; Ahanhanzo *et al.*, 2010; Obsi *et al.*, 2015). Mwirigi *et al.*, (2010) reported that sequential sterilization that involved the use of bleach at concentration of 40% for 30 minutes followed by 20% for 20 minutes which gave the best results, 85% of the explants has survived.

According to many scholars the combination of plant growth regulators (auxins and cytokinin) had highest effect on initiation of aseptic culture (Adeniyi *et al.*, 2008; Obsi *et al.*, 2015). The highest shoot induction of 75% was obtained in the medium containing $0.10 \mu\text{M}$ NAA + $0.20 \mu\text{M}$ BAP and there was significant NAA x BAP interaction, indicating that the effectiveness of each of the phytohormone in inducing shoots and plantlets was influenced by the presence or absence of the other (Adeniyi *et al.*, 2008).

2.4.3 Multiplication of Propagules *in vitro*

Different scholars have optimized a protocol for *in vitro* shoot multiplication for different

genus of *Dioscorea* species using different explant source (Table 2). According to those scholars different genus of *Dioscorea* species require different growth regulator formulation for optimal shoot multiplication (Table 3). A difference in the composition of the plant tissue culture media like carbon source and plant growth regulator concentrations also has resulted in a difference in the response. Sucrose levels greater than 20 g l^{-1} in culture media appeared to be a prerequisite for optimal *in vitro* plantlet growth of *D. composita* micro plants (Alizadeh et al., 1998).

Nodal explants of tender stem cuttings of *D. nipponica* Makino were planted on basal media supplemented with hormone combinations at different concentrations. After 4–7 days in culture, the lateral buds displayed visible growth, and most of them grew into 35–50-mm-long shoots within 4 weeks. Multiple buds growing on a suitable initiation medium developed into plantlets, with part of the plantlet producing microtubers (Chen et al., 2007). The nodal segments of 15mm length produced higher percentage of shoot (77.33%) (Kharat et al., 2008; Ahanhanzo et al., 2010). Supplementing the media with 2.0 mg/l BAP (Benzyl amino purine), increased the rate of shoot induction and length of shoot but a further increase of BAP concentration up to 4.0 mg/l dropped the shoot number. A combination of cytokinin and auxin has also been reported to have best shooting. Chen *et al.*, (2007) reported highest shoot induction frequency with a growth regulator combination of 2.0 mg/l BAP and 1.0 mg/l NAA.

On the other hand Ahanhanzo et al., (2010) reported that BAP (0.5 mg l^{-1}) induced a significant increase ($p < 0.05$) in leaf number of varieties *Kounondakou* and *Gnon-boya* and a significant increase ($p < 0.01$) in the height of *vitro* plants for three varieties) and growth inhibitory effect of kinetin on shoot numbers of *D. oppositifolia* and *D. pentaphylla* micro plants was observed. But the promotive effects of kinetin ($46.4 \mu\text{M}$) on plantlet growth for *D. bulbifera*, which increased the number of shoots per plantlet (Mahesh et al., 2010).

Belarmino and Gonzales indicated that no break in leaf growth was observed on the control medium (without cytokinin) but media with BAP presented a good plants aerial part development (Belarmino & Gonzales, 2008). Similarly Ahanhanzo et al., (2010) also reported, improvement of axillary bud sprouting for all yam varieties studied and facilitated development of the stems and leaves of some varieties during the second week of culture. But the results of Yan et al. (2011) showed significantly higher shoot length, frequency of proliferation of *Dioscorea fordii* in MS basal medium supplemented with 1.0 mg l^{-1} BAP, 0.1 mg l^{-1} NAA, 30 g l^{-1} sucrose and 1.5 g l^{-1} AC (activated charcoal) in liquid culture)

In addition Ramirez-Magon et al. (2001) has reported that when *Spathiphyllum floribundam* was cultured on a media with BAP and IAA, there was increase in shoot multiplication from 1.8 shoots per cultured explant to average of 11.6 shoots per explant. Explants grown on a media with 0.5 mg l^{-1} BAP and 0.01 mg l^{-1} NAA showed the highest rate of multiplication and survival as compared with explants in media with other growth regulators (Thankappan & Patell, 2011). Up to 9 shoots was observed from a single node (Thankappan & Patell, 2011). Of the combination tested by Behera et al. (2008) MS +BAP (2.0 mg l^{-1}) + NAA (0.5 mg l^{-1}) with ascorbic acid 100 mg l^{-1} , elicited optimal response in which

an average of 6 ± 0.18 shoot lets with a mean shoot length of 5 ± 0.29 cm per explants was recorded. With the second best shoot multiplication 4.5 ± 0.12 was obtained on the medium MS + Kinetin (1.5mg l^{-1}) + NAA (0.5 mg^{-1}) + 100 mg^{-1} ascorbic acid with a mean shoot length of 4 ± 0.29 cm. In addition Behera *et al.* (2009) obtain average of 10.5 ± 0.51 shoot lets with a mean shoot length of 5.4 ± 0.24 cm per explants. The second best shoot multiplication 5.5 ± 0.43 was obtained in the medium MS + Kinetin (1.5mg l^{-1}) + BAP (1.0 mg^{-1}) + NAA (0.5 mg^{-1}) + 100 mg^{-1} ascorbic acid with a mean shoot length of 4.2 ± 0.21 cm on MS+ Kinetin (2.0 mg^{-1}) +BAP (1.0 mg l^{-1}) + NAA (0.5 mg l^{-1}) with ascorbic acid 100 mg l^{-1} .

Table 2. In vitro multiplication of genus *Dioscorea* by using different explant

Plant Name	Explant source	References
<i>Dioscorea spp. (Aw-004/00)</i>	Nodal segment	Obsi et al., 2015
<i>D. floribunda</i>	Nodal segment	Chaturvedi, 1975 Lakshmi sita et al., 1976 Uduebo, 1971
<i>D. deltoidea</i>	Axillary meristem	Furmanowa et al., 1984 Grewal et al., 1977
<i>D. composita</i>	Nodal segment	Ammirato, 1982 Datta et al., 1981
<i>D. bulbifera</i>	Axillary meristem	Uduebo, 1971
<i>D. rotundata</i>	Nodal segment	Mantell et al., 1978
<i>D. opposita</i>	tuber	Xu et al., 2009
<i>D. zingiberensis</i>	Nodal segment	Chen et al., 2003
<i>D. oppositifolia , D. pentaphylla</i>	Nodal segment	Poornima & Ravishankar, 2007
<i>D. oppositifolia</i>	Nodal segment	Behera et al., 2009
<i>D. alata</i>	Nodal segment	Borges et al., 2004

<i>D. wightii</i>	Nodal segment	Mahesh et al., 2010
<i>D. zingiberensis</i>	Stem, leaves, petioles	Shu et al., 2005
<i>D. opposita</i>	Stem segment	Nagasawa & Finer, 1989
<i>D. zingiberensis</i>	tuber	Heping et al., 2008
<i>D. alata</i>	Nodal segment	Wheatley et al., 2003
<i>D. balcanica</i>	tuber	Savikin- Fodulovic et al., 1998
<i>D. zingiberensis</i>	inflorescence	Huang et al., 2009
<i>D. bulbifera</i>	Nodal segment	Narula et al., 2007
<i>D. alata</i>	Nodal segment	Jova et al., 2011
<i>D. deltoidea</i>	Nodal segment	Mascarenhas et al., 1976.
<i>D. floribunda</i>	internode	Ammirato, 1978
<i>D. alata</i>	root	Twyford & Mantell, 1996
<i>D. cayenensis-D. rotundata complex & D. praehensilis</i>	Meristem tip	Malaurie et al., 1995

Behera et al. (2010) also reported that yam showed optimal response with an average of 9.5 ± 0.61 shootlets and with a mean shoot length of 6.7 ± 0.44 cm per explants on MS + Kinetin (2.0 mg^{-1}) + BAP (1.0 mg^{-1}) + NAA (0.5 mg^{-1}). The second best shoot multiplication (6.5 ± 0.42) was obtained in the medium MS + Kinetin (2.0 mg^{-1}) + BAP (0.5 mg^{-1}) + NAA (0.25 mg^{-1}) with a mean shoot length of 5.8 ± 0.63 cm. The frequency and rate of bud break and multiplication depends on the cytokinin type and its concentration either alone or in combination with an auxin (Poornima & Ravishankar, 2007).

Mwirigi et al. (2010) also reported that the best treatment for shoot multiplication was 0.5 mg^{-1} BAP with a mean number of 1.1 shoots and 0.5 mg^{-1} BAP + 0.02 mg/l NAA gave the best shoot formation with an average of 2.1 shoots followed by 1.0 mg^{-1} BAP + 0.04 mg^{-1} NAA with an average of 1.6. In general, the effectiveness of each phytohormone in inducing

plantlet regeneration was influenced by the presence or absence of the other (Table 3). But some scholars report that shoot multiplication was highest in medium cytokinin only which is most probably due to difference in variety and explant source (Table 2).

Table 3. Growth Regulators used for shoot multiplication by different workers

Plant name	Explant Source	Growth Regulators	References
<i>Dioscorea spp.</i> (Aw-004/00)	Nodal segments	MS + 1.5 mg/l-1 BAP + 0.15 mg/l-1 NAA	Obssi et al., 2015
<i>D. japonica</i>	Shoot tips	LS + 0.44 μ M BA	Kadota & Niimi, 2004
<i>D. zingiberensis</i>	Nodal segment	MS + 4.4 μ M BAP + 1.1 μ M NAA	Chen et al., 2003
<i>D. oppositifolia</i> <i>D. pentaphylla</i>	Nodal segment	MS + 8.8 μ M BAP+ 0.3% charcoal	Poornima & Ravishankar , 2005
<i>D. oppositifolia</i>	Nodal segment	MS+2mg/LKN+1.0mg/LBAP+0.5mg/LNAA+ 100mg/L ascorbic acid	Behera et al., 2009
<i>D. opposita</i>	Nodal segment	MS+ 1.0mg/L NAA+0.5-1.0mg/L BA	Shin et al., 2004
<i>D. hispida</i>	Nodal segment	MS+2.0mg/LBAP + 0.5mg/LNAA + 100mg/L ascorbic acid	Behera et al., 2008
<i>D. bulbifera</i>	Nodal segment	MS+0.5 μ M/LNAA+5mg/L KN	Narula et al., 2007

2.4.4 Rooting of Propagules

According to different scholars the effectiveness of *in vitro* rooting of propagules of *Dioscorea* species depends on types of growth regulators, plant species and explant source (Table 4). The plantlets propagated with axillary segments could easily be rooted and transplanted, and were found suitable for the *ex vitro* rooting to produce mini tubers. The number of roots and leaves and the height of each young sprout could be determined after 5 weeks in culture (Ahanhanzo et al., 2010). Behera and his co-workers reported that NAA was

found more effective than IBA in induction of rooting as days required for rooting was only 6-8 as against 10 to 15 in the case of IBA (Behera et al., 2008; Behera et al., 2009; Behera et al., 2010).

Behera et al. (2008) obtained highest rooting of *Dioscorea alata* L. cv. Hinjilicatu in 1/2 MS + 2.0 mg⁻¹ NAA where about 90% cultures responded with an average number of 5.2 ± 0.28 roots per plantlet and an average root length 3.5 ± 0.12 cm. The same rooting success (90%) has been obtained when a different species; *Dioscorea oppositifolia* L. was cultured on the same media but the average root number and length has been found to be improved. Repeating the same experiment with *Dioscorea alata* L species also gave an improved rooting (92%) with an average roots number of 5.5 ± 0.48 per plantlet and an average root length 5.2 ± 0.26 cm (Behera et al., 2008). On the other hand Behera and his co-workers in 2009 were obtained 6.5 ± 0.30 roots per plantlet with an average root length of 4.5 ± 0.16 cm. And highest response (77%) was recorded at 2.0 mg⁻¹ of IBA (Behera et al., 2010). However, Poornima and Ravishankar, (2007) obtained best rooting on a very less concentration of IBA, 0.5 mg⁻¹ NAA. The same concentration of IBA but in combination with 0.01 mg⁻¹ NAA has been used to, induce profuse root of 12.5 to 14.5 cm in length in 8 to 10 weeks and there was no rooting on media free of auxin (basal media) (Thankappan & Patell, 2011).

Compared with the plantlet without microtubers, the plantlets with microtubers produced roots more easily with the highest rate being 100% (with 0.5 mg⁻¹ IBA and NAA supplements). Maximum rooting of the plantlets without microtubers (94.67%) was on a medium with 1.0 mg⁻¹ IBA and 0.5 mg⁻¹ NAA. Compared with the control, low concentrations of IBA could increase the rooting frequency in regenerated plantlets without microtubers, but 2.0 mg⁻¹ IBA was optimal only for plantlets without microtubers, and thus decreased the overall rooting frequency (Chen et al., 2007).

Table 4. Growth regulators, explant sources and species used for *in vitro* rooting

Plant Name	Explant source	Growth Regulators	References
<i>Dioscorea spp.</i> (Aw-004/00)	Nodal segments	1/2 MS+2.0 mg ⁻¹ NAA + 0.5 mg ⁻¹ IBA	Obssi et al., 2015
<i>D. hispida</i>	Nodal segments	1/2 MS + 2.0 mg ⁻¹ NAA	Behera et al., 2008
		0.5 mg ⁻¹ IBA + 0.01 mg ⁻¹ NAA	Thankappan & Patell, 2011
<i>D. alata</i>	Vine Nodes	1/2 MS + 2.0 mg ⁻¹ NAA	Behera et al.,

			2010
<i>D. oppositifolia</i>	Nodal segments	1/2 MS+2.0 mg ⁻¹ NAA	Behera et al., 2009
		1.0 mg l ⁻¹ IBA + 0.5 mg l ⁻¹ NAA & 2.0 mg l ⁻¹ IBA	Chen et al., 2007
<i>D. esculenta</i>	Nodal segments	0.1 mg l ⁻¹ , 2, 4-D + 80 mg l ⁻¹ + adenine sulphate	Kharat et al. 2008

2.4.5 *In vitro* Microtubers Induction

Differ scholars have developed different media supplement for *in vitro* microtubers induction of different *Dioscorea species* (Table 5). *In vitro* microtuber production has been studied as an alternative for safely propagating and distributing germplasm, as microtubers have been reported as less vulnerable to transport conditions and easier to establish in the soil. Culturing the plants on tuberization medium for 8 and 10 weeks, followed by MS medium, reported to have the highest induction of microtubers, the best frequency and yield and highest individual microtuber weights (Klu et al., 2005). The morphogenesis, growth and *in vitro* microtuber formation have been found to be controlled by external factors. The number of shoots and nodes is increased by the addition of jasmonic acid, which also induces an increase in microtuber numbers (Ovono et al., 2007). However, this technique is not being used on a routine basis and *in vitro* plantlets are still the most practical way of distributing germplasm internationally. The preferred medium for axillary shoot proliferation and tuberization of *D. fordii* was reported to be MS basal medium supplemented with 1.0 mg l⁻¹ BAP, 0.1 mg l⁻¹ NAA, 30 g l⁻¹ sucrose and 1.5 g l⁻¹ AC in liquid culture (Yan et al., 2011)

Table 5. Growth regulators used for tuber formation by different workers

Plant Name	Explant	Growth Regulators	References
<i>D. opposita</i>	Nodal segment	MS+30gm/Lsucrose+2.0mg/LKN+1.0mg/LBAP +0.5mg/LNAA	Behera et al., 2009
<i>D. opposita</i>	Nodal segment	MS+3% sucrose+8.9 μMBAP	Kohmura et al., 1995
<i>D. bulbifera</i>	Nodal segment	MS+2-8% sucrose+23.2-46.4 μM KN	Forsyth & van staden, 1984
<i>D. composita</i>	Nodal segment	MS+2.5 μM KN	Alizadeh et al., 1998

2.4.6 Acclimatization

Rooted plantlets grown *in vitro* need to be washed thoroughly to remove the adhering gel, transplanted to sterile poly pots (small plastic cups) containing pre-soaked vermiculite and maintained inside growth chamber set at temperature 28 °C and 70-80% relative humidity. After three weeks they should be transplanted to earthen pots containing mixture of soil + sand + manure in 1:1:1 ratio and should be kept under shade house for a period of three weeks for acclimatization. The potted plants need to be irrigated with Hoagland's solution every 3 days for period of 3 weeks. Survival rate of the plantlets could be recorded after 3 weeks (Behera et al., 2009).

Behera et al., (2010) reported that about 90% of the rooted plantlets have established in the greenhouse within 2-3 weeks of transfer. The plants grew well and attained a 6-8 cm height within 4 weeks of transfer. The acclimatized plants were established in the field condition and grew normally without morphological variation. According to Chen et al., (2007), the acclimated plantlets with 5-8 roots which showed obvious growth 1 week after being removed from culture flasks could be transferred to sterilized soil in the greenhouse. One month after transferring, the survival rate of the plantlets was found to be 91%, and the young plants grew vigorously in the greenhouse.

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