Short running title: *In vitro* culture of zoysiagrass

Rapid and efficient callus induction and plant regeneration from seeds of zoysiagrass (*Zoysia japonica* Steud.)

Xun Wang\(^1\), Yoichiro Hoshino\(^2\) and Toshihiko Yamada\(^2\)

\(^1\) Graduate School of Environmental Science, Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Japan

\(^2\) Field Science Center for Northern Biosphere, Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Japan

Correspondence

Toshihiko Yamada, Field Science Center for Northern Biosphere, Hokkaido University, Sapporo 060-0811, Japan.

E-mail: yamada@fsc.hokudai.ac.jp

Tel & fax: +81 11 706 3644
Abstract

A rapid and efficient in vitro culture system has been established in zoysiagrass (Zoysia japonica Steud.). Embryos isolated from mature seeds were used to induce callus, which improved callus formation and shortened the culture period. A high concentration of 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid (5 mg L\(^{-1}\)) in a combination with low concentration of 6-benzyladenine (0.2 mg L\(^{-1}\)) was proved to be suitable for callus induction in zoysiagrass. Eight types of calli were observed; friable callus was the most regenerable type. Shoot regeneration efficiency was improved by using 1 mg L\(^{-1}\) of thidiazuron with 1-naphthaleneacetic acid (0.05 mg L\(^{-1}\)) and gibberellic acid (0.1 mg L\(^{-1}\)). Zoysiagrass shoots continued to grow in MS medium, and rooted in half-strength MS medium. With this system, it appears the duration of in vitro regeneration could be shortened to 16 weeks for zoysiagrass, i.e. from inoculation of embryos to regeneration of plantlets with shoots and roots.

Key words
Gibberellic acid (GA\(_3\)); in vitro culture; mature embryos; thidiazuron (TDZ); zoysiagrass.
Introduction

Zoysiagrass (Zoysia japonica Steud.) is a perennial warm-season grass which is indigenous in eastern Asia countries including Japan, China and Korea and used for forage and turf purposes (Engelke and Anderson 2003; Cai et al. 2005). In Japan zoysiagrass grasslands dominate most of the native grasslands being continuously grazed for years (Dhital et al. 2010). These grasslands are highly productive and can support a livestock population of a high density (Ito and Takatsuki 2005). Zoysiagrass utilizes the C₄ photosynthetic pathway (Carmo-Silva et al. 2009), which has higher rates of photosynthesis and higher water-use efficiency than C₃ pathway (Osborne and Freckleton 2009). The grassland is therefore noted for low maintenance requirement (Mao et al. 2009) and effortless management (Kitagawa et al. 2007). Zoysiagrass is also widely used as a sustainable turf grass in transitional and warm climatic regions throughout the world (Patton and Reicher 2007).

Forage breeding by traditional methods of hybridization and selection has been devoted to increase yields and improve the nutritional quality of forage. It also enhances the tolerance to abiotic and biotic stresses, and improves ecological environment. Breeding program of zoysiagrass for forage use has been carried out by using traditional breeding method in Japan (Sugihara et al. 1999). Traditional breeding methods such as
phenotypic evaluation, selection and hybridization still continue to be used. However, forage crop breeding programs have entered into the biotechnology era using molecular biology tools. Molecular breeding, namely the use of genomic and transgenic biotechnologies, is now applied to forage improvement programs (Yamada and Spangenberg 2009). Molecular markers have been developed on zoysiagrass (Yaneshita et al. 1997; Cai et al. 2004, 2005; Tsuruta et al. 2005; Li et al. 2009b). Transformation as one of important biotechnologies has also been developed in many forage grass species and it has produced abundant gene-modified plants, for example, reduction of lignin content to increase forage digestibility (Li et al. 2008). It is also expected an inspiring technique for genetic improvement of zoysiagrass as forage use.

To receive successful transformations on grass species, an efficient in vitro culture system is essential, since the identification and propagation of embryogenic calli are key factors affecting transformation frequency (Wang and Ge 2006). For zoysiagrass, while there have been reports of successful establishment of an in vitro culture system (Asano et al. 1996; Inokuma et al. 1996; Dhandapani et al. 2008), it was generally considered recalcitrant to the production of embryogenic callus and regeneration (Al-Khayri et al. 1989; Asano 1989; Asano et al. 1996; Dhandapani et al. 2008). The duration of more than 3 months for callus induction was mentioned in experiments using mature seeds of
zoysiagrass as explants (Asano et al. 1996; Inokuma et al. 1996; Toyama et al. 2003), which was longer than commonly 4-6 weeks of other grass species (Hu et al. 2005; Wang et al. 2001; Altpeter et al. 2000). An alternative method of using immature inflorescences and stem nodes was suggested in Zoysia matrella Merr. (Dhandapani et al. 2008), but it is season- and genotype-dependent. Zoysiagrass regeneration also was described as a tough task (Toyama et al. 2003). Only few papers focused on optimizing the regeneration medium and regeneration efficiency (Dhandapani et al. 2008; Li et al. 2009a).

The development of a rapid and efficient in vitro culture protocol is therefore of high importance for zoysiagrass genetic improvement. The objective of this study was to establish the in vitro culture system of zoysiagrass, which should be high efficient callus induction and shoot regeneration, and time-saving protocol. This in vitro system is expected to lay a foundation for transgenic molecular breeding of zoysiagrass.

Materials and methods

Mature embryo isolation

Mature seeds of a commercial cultivar of zoysiagrass ‘Japanese lawngrass’ (Snow Brand Co., Sapporo, Japan) with the ability of high germination rate were soaked in
distilled water for 2 days. Then the seeds were stirred in sodium hypochlorite (1% active chlorine) for 2 h for sterilization, followed by rinsing three times with sterile water. Glumes were removed and the embryos were cut off on a microscope platform. Each of twenty-five isolated embryos were placed on a separate callus-induction medium plate. Husked seeds (i.e. without glumes) and intact seeds were also incubated in callus induction medium as a means of comparison.

Callus induction

Different combinations of 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2,4-D) (1, 2, 5, 10 mg L⁻¹) and 6-benzyladenine (BA) (0, 0.02, 0.2, 2 mg L⁻¹) were supplemented in MS basal medium (Murashige and Skoog 1962) containing 30 g L⁻¹ sucrose, 4 mg L⁻¹ thiamine-HCl, and 100 mg L⁻¹ α-ketoglutaric acid to induce callus. A combination of 2,4-D 1 mg L⁻¹ and BA 2 mg L⁻¹ was not included in the study, since the responding to callus induction auxin is generally regarded determinant and cytokinin plays an assistant role (Jimenez 2005). All media were solidified with 2 g L⁻¹ gelrite, pH 5.8, and autoclaved. Each treatment included approximately 100 mature embryos with three replications. After 2 months under cultured conditions, embryos were subcultured once in the same media. Different callus types were classified and examined for regenerating
ability in regeneration medium. Callus was induced in darkness at 27 ± 1°C.

**Plant regeneration**

MS basal medium was supplemented with 30 g L\(^{-1}\) maltose, 1 mg L\(^{-1}\) thidiazuron (TDZ), 1-naphthaleneacetic acid (NAA) (0.05, 0.1 or 0.5 mg L\(^{-1}\)), and gibberellic acid (GA\(_3\)) (0 or 0.1 mg L\(^{-1}\)). GA\(_3\) was filter sterilized and added in media after media cooled down after being removed from an autoclave. Friable-type calli, also known as embryogenic calli were divided into 5 mm pieces. Approximately 20 callus pieces were inoculated in each medium with three replications. The weight of callus pieces was measured before the inoculation. After two weeks of culture, shoots as well as bud primordia were observed. After counting the number of shoots, both shoots and bud primordia were subcultured in MS basal medium supplemented with 30 g L\(^{-1}\) maltose, which was labeled Re-free (M) medium. Two weeks later, shoots were counted and then transferred into half-strength (both macro- and micro-elements were reduced to half strength) MS medium supplemented with 30 g L\(^{-1}\) sucrose to examine whether the shoots had the capability to root. Culture for plant regeneration was kept in a 16h/8h light/dark photoperiod at 26 ± 1°C.
Results

Callus induction from mature embryos, husked seeds and intact seeds

Calli were formed from excised embryos earlier than those from husked seeds and intact seeds (Figure 1). Three days after inoculation, some tissues began to swell at the basal of shoot coleoptiles and around the hypocotyls, which was defined as callus. Callus appeared in husked seeds and intact seeds 4 and 6 days after inoculation, respectively. In addition, the efficiency of callus formation from embryos was significantly greater than those from husked seeds and intact seeds ($P = 0.001$). Almost all embryos formed callus (97.1%) at 18 days after callus formation except for those that were likely damaged by cutting or were inactive embryos. The rate of callus formation at four weeks under cultured conditions was 65.9 and 55.2% using husked seeds and intact seeds, respectively.

Callus induction medium and callus types

Two months after inoculation, eight types of calli were observed (Figure 2). These included Type a, shoot callus, which appeared only in medium containing 1 mg L$^{-1}$ 2,4-D and were derived from mature embryos. Type b, bud callus, was observed
frequently in medium containing a relatively lower concentration of 2,4-D (1 or 2 mg L$^{-1}$) with a relatively higher concentration of BA (0.2 or 2 mg L$^{-1}$). Type c callus was white, tight, and dry. Type d callus was light yellow, friable and loose, and was similar to embryogenic callus (Asano et al. 1996). Type e callus was watery, transparent, sticky, and without definable structure. Type f callus was soft and transparent, but neither watery nor sticky. Soft callus type was initiated at the start of callus formation and other callus types were subsequently derived from it. Type g callus was characterized as callus covered by adventitious roots and were observed in 1 mg L$^{-1}$ 2,4-D containing medium. Type h callus was brown and stopped growing after the first few days of culture, and subsequently died. The eight types of calli were transferred into the regeneration medium to investigate the regenerable capability. Friable callus, which was also embryogenic callus, was confirmed as the most regenerable callus type (Figure 2).

Calli formed in the different media were all tested, in the regeneration medium (detailed in next part) had the competence to regenerate. A range of 1.7–20% of calli was confirmed as regenerable. Calli induced in the medium 5 mg L$^{-1}$ 2,4-D and BA 0.2 mg L$^{-1}$ showed high (20%) regeneration ability ($P = 0.003$) (Figure 3), which was labeled MT4 medium, was suitable as callus induction medium for zoysiagrass.
**Plant regeneration**

After two weeks in culture, both shoots and bud primordia regenerated. In the present study, TDZ has been shown better plant regeneration response than other cytokinins, e.g. BA, kinetin and zeatin (data not shown). The regeneration efficiency was expressed as the percentage of callus pieces regenerated (either shoot [Figure 4b] or bud primordia [Figure 4a]) out of total callus pieces, which ranged from 42.1 to 59.6% ($P = 0.948$) (Table 1). The numbers of shoots were counted in different duration of the culture. In all the media, shoots as well as bud primordia formed after 2 weeks of the culture, then the number of shoots increased greatly as many bud primordia grew into shoots in 4 weeks; after 6 weeks of culture, it decreased as many shoots could not root and eventually died. The initiatory shoots were mostly slim, rosette and green-white in color. Such kind of shoots were generally formed significantly more ($P = 0.013$) in the media supplemented with GA$_3$ than those without GA$_3$. In the media without GA$_3$, bud primordia being capable of initiating shoots were dominant. Shoots and bud primordia were subcultured in Re-free(M) medium to allow the growth of shoots. After another two weeks in Re-free(M) medium, bud primordia developed to shoots. Most shoots were green-white in color. There were no differences ($P = 0.641$) in numbers of shoots among different regeneration media.
Following shoot growth in Re-free(M) medium, all shoots were subcultured in half-strength MS medium supplemented with 30 g L\(^{-1}\) sucrose for rooting. After 6 weeks, the shoots which were tough and dark green in color with developed roots were counted (Figure 4c). The number of such shoots developed from the regeneration media containing GA\(_3\) were significantly greater \((P = 0.040)\) than those without GA\(_3\). The optimal medium contained 0.1 mg L\(^{-1}\) GA\(_3\) and 0.05 mg L\(^{-1}\) NAA, in which 71.1 shoots per gram of callus developed (Table 1). However, 0.1 and 0.5 mg L\(^{-1}\) of NAA did not result in the development of significant numbers of shoots (Table 1). Hence, medium supplement 1 mg L\(^{-1}\) TDZ, 0.1 mg L\(^{-1}\) GA3 and 0.05 mg L\(^{-1}\) NAA, which was named TNG medium, was used as the regeneration medium for zoysiagrass.

The minimum period for zoysiagrass in \textit{in vitro} regeneration was as little as 16 weeks (Figure 5), beginning with inoculation of mature embryos to regeneration of plantlets with shoots and roots (Figures 4d).

\textbf{Discussion}

Advances in the \textit{in vitro} culture system have been enhanced to enable the production of embryogenic callus and convert callus into plant efficiently. It also allows to make the stable genetic engineered plants (Thorpe 2007), as embryogenic callus has high level of
activity of cell division and is recognized as one of the best target explants of monocotyledonous species (Cheng et al. 2004). In our study, rapid and efficient in vitro culture system was established in the important sustainable forage and turf species, *Zoysia japonica*.

Excising mature embryos from zoysiagrass seeds induced improved callus formation and shortened the culture period. In forage and turf grass species, most explants used for genetic transformation studies are calli derived from intact mature seeds (Smith et al. 2002; Aswath et al. 2005; Lee et al. 2006; Wu et al. 2007; Dong et al. 2008; Liu et al. 2008). Mature seeds were also used to induce callus formation on zoysiagrass (Asano et al. 1996; Inokuma et al. 1996) and *Z. sinica* Hancev (Li et al. 2006b). The required duration for callus induction was nearly 3 months in these studies, which is considered longer than the normal duration of 4-6 weeks of other turf and forage grasses species such as triploid bermudagrass (*Cynodon dactylon* [L.] Pers. × *C. transvaalensis* Burtt-Davy) (Hu et al. 2005), tall fescue (*Festuca arundinacea* Schreb.) (Wang et al. 2001) and perennial ryegrass (*Lolium perenne* L.) (Altpeter et al. 2000). By using mature embryos of zoysiagrass in the present study, 97.1% of embryos developed into calli just after 18 days of culture, which was greater than the frequencies of 50–70% in previous researches (Asano et al. 1996; Inokuma et al. 1996; Li et al. 2006b). Young
inflorescences, nodes of stems, and shoot tips were alternative explants to induce callus (Dhandapani et al. 2008), but they were genotype or growth-season dependent. In fact, Al-Khayri et al. (1989) used mature embryos in zoysiagrass in vitro culture; their results also mentioned that 90 to 98% of the excised embryos from zoysiagrass seeds produced callus. However, there appeared to be no discussion of the advantages of using mature embryos in this research literature. Excising zoysiagrass mature embryos from seeds to culture would eliminate some barriers. One possible barrier may be waxy glumes contributing to the inhibition of germination and/or the promotion of dormancy by reducing permeability to environmental elements (Yeam et al. 1988). Another barrier is likely seed dormancy that would be released by excising mature embryos due to desertion of dormancy-regulating hormones such as abscisic acid and small molecules such as nitrogen-containing compounds in endosperm (Finkelstein et al. 2008). Mature embryos have also been reported in transformations of some other grass species, e.g. perennial ryegrass (Altpeter et al. 2000; Cao et al. 2006), darnel ryegrass (Lolium temulentum L.) (Ge et al. 2007), tall fescue (Gao et al. 2008; Cao et al. 2006) and buffelgrass (Cenchrus ciliaris L.) (Colomba et al. 2006).

As certain auxin levels in combination with low levels of BA improve the rate of callus induction, suggested by previous researchers working on barley (Hordeum
vulgare L.) (Sharma et al. 2005) and bermudagrass (*Cynodon dactylon* [L.] Pers.) (Chaudhury and Qu 2000), high concentration of 2,4-D (5 mg L\(^{-1}\)) with the addition of 0.2 mg L\(^{-1}\) BA was shown to produce good callus induction in zoysiagrass (Figure 3). Embryogenic calli were maintained in the subculturing medium (MT4-S), which contained a reduced concentration of 2,4-D (i.e. 2 mg L\(^{-1}\)), since it was shown that optimal embryogenic callus proliferation occurred at auxin concentrations lower than those required for optimum initiation of embryogenic callus (Ho and Vasil 1983; Jimenez 2005).

Eight types of calli were observed in zoysiagrass. Four of them were dry, friable, soft and watery types and four types were morphologically similar to types indicated by Toyama et al. (2003). Friable callus type, which was identified as the embryogenic callus by Asano et al. (1996), was the most regenerable callus type (Figure 2). Other four types such as shoot, bud, root and brown types were not characterized in previous researches; the usage of 1 m L\(^{-1}\) or 2 mg L\(^{-1}\) 2,4-D often resulted in these types. However, 2,4-D used in such concentrations for zoysiagrass callus induction was preferred by other researchers (Al-Khayri 1989; Toyama et al. 2003). The concentration of 5 mg L\(^{-1}\) 2,4-D was proved to be the most optimal in this study (Figure 3), probably for use of mature embryos.
By usage of TDZ at 1 mg L$^{-1}$ to regenerate zoysiagrass in this research, the regeneration efficiency was ranged from 42.1 to 59.6% (Table 1), which was generally higher than 13–59% in previous literature (Al-Khayri et al. 1989). Multiple shoots were induced by TDZ in many species, including African redwood (Hagenia abyssinica [Bruce] J.F. Gmel.) (Feyissa et al. 2005), witloof chicory (Cichorium intybus L.) (Yucesan et al. 2007), barley and wheat (Triticum aestivum L.) (Sharma et al. 2007). It also appeared to help regenerate shoots from callus in species in Gramineae (Shan et al. 2000; Gallo-Meagher et al. 2000). Whereas, TDZ is a type of substituted phenylurea (Shan et al. 2000), which inhibits shoot elongation (Bhagwat et al. 1996; Fasolo et al. 1989). Though TDZ induced shoot buds efficiently, it also reduced shoot growth (Sinha et al. 2000; Akasaka et al. 2000). Bud primordia of zoysiagrass formed in regeneration medium were therefore transferred onto Re-free(M) medium to grow into shoots.

Regenerating shoots from callus by combination of cytokinin and auxin in concentration lower than that of cytokinin was often recommended for use in vitro culture. Various combinations, including BA plus 2,4-D, kinetin plus 2,4-D, BA plus NAA, or BA plus IAA were applied to the culture of different explants (Holme et al. 1997; Yu et al. 2000; Tariq et al. 2008; Zambre et al. 2002). Our study also supported that a combination of 1 mg L$^{-1}$ TDZ plus 0.05 mg L$^{-1}$ NAA was the best combination of
cytokinin and auxin. In addition, another plant growth regulator, GA₃, was proved to play a key role in regeneration of zoysiagrass (Table 1). It has been reported that GA₃ stimulates in plant regeneration (Fiuk and Rybczynski 2008) and it generally induce regeneration from callus by interacting with cytokinin and auxin (Li and Qu 2004; Li et al. 2006a). It seems that GA₃ stimulated zoysiagrass regeneration possibly by acting as a remedy of the slow growth of the species. Zoysiagrass is known to grow relatively slowly (Richardson and Boyd 2001; Patton et al. 2007), while GA₃ is noted for increasing seedling growth (Arabi and Jawhar 1999). It should be noted, however, that not all regenerated shoots of zoysiagrass grew to plantlets. Many shoots were green-white in color, rosette-shaped, and lacked root initiation and development. Shoots which developed roots were dark green, straight, and tough. The usage of GA₃ improved the development of the latter type of shoots.

Our success on in vitro culture system is expected to contribute to forage and turf molecular breeding in zoysiagrass. The following factors contributed to the success of this system; it is also expected to be adopted in some other grass species: First, using mature embryos rather than mature seeds will allow efficient callus induction and rapid in vitro culture duration in the species which have troubles of seed dormancy and slow growth. Second, the high level of auxin (2,4-D) in combination with a low level of
cytokinin (BA) will be beneficial for the embryogenic callus production. Third, cytokinin TDZ with lower concentration of auxin will regenerate plantlets efficiently. Further GA₃ will remedy the slow regeneration in the case of low-growing species such as zoysiagrass.

Acknowledgements

We gratefully acknowledge Dr. J. Ryan Stewart, Department of Crop Science, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign for careful critical reading of the manuscript and Ms. Kumi Green for English correction of the manuscript. This work was supported by Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research from the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture, Japan (19380148).

References


Richardson MD, Boyd JW (2001) Establishing *Zoysia japonica* from sprigs: effects of

Shan X, Li D, Qu R (2000) Thidiazuron promotes *in vitro* regeneration of wheat and

frequency somatic embryogenesis and plant regeneration from multiple cultivars of

high-morphogenetic competence in barley and wheat. *Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult* 88:
21-33.


Smith RL, Grando MF, Li YY, Seib JC, Shatters RG (2002) Transformation of


Yamada T, Spangenberg G (2009) Molecular breeding of forage and turf. Springer,
New York, 1-352.


Table 1 Regeneration efficiency which expressed as the percentage of callus pieces regenerated (either shoot or bud primordia) out of total callus pieces in 2 weeks regeneration culture and numbers of shoots per gram of callus counted at 2, 4 and 6 weeks of culture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TDZ (mg L⁻¹)</th>
<th>NAA (mg L⁻¹)</th>
<th>GA₃ (mg L⁻¹)</th>
<th>Regeneration efficiency (%)</th>
<th>Numbers of shoots at different durations of culture</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>59.6 ± 31.0</td>
<td>9.7 ± 10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>52.1 ± 20.3</td>
<td>14.3 ± 14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>53.3 ± 19.6</td>
<td>9.5 ± 8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>42.1 ± 4.0</td>
<td>25.9 ± 18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>56.3 ± 16.5</td>
<td>1.8 ± 3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>52.9 ± 24.2</td>
<td>29.0 ± 20.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>44.2 ± 9.5</td>
<td>12.9 ± 15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>50.8 ± 17.5</td>
<td>44.1 ± 37.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TDZ, thidiazuron; NAA, 1-naphthaleneacetic acid; GA₃, gibberellic acid.
Values are mean ± SD.
Figure legends

Figure 1 Callus formed from mature embryos, husked seeds and intact seeds of zoysiagrass.

Figure 2 Eight callus types of zoysiagrass. (a) shoot, (b) bud, (c) dry callus, (d) friable callus, (e) watery callus, (f) soft callus, (g) callus rooting, (h) brown callus. The frequency of regeneration (%) is in the brackets.

Figure 3 Percentage of regenerable callus of zoysiagrass in different media.

Figure 4 Regeneration of plantlet in zoysiagrass. (a) bud primordia; (b) shoots which were slim, rosette and green-white in color; (c) shoots which were tough and dark green in color; (d) plantlet in half-strength MS medium.

Figure 5 Procedure of *in vitro* culture system in zoysiagrass. Friable calli were maintained in MT4-S medium.
Wang et al. / Figure 1
Wang et al. / Figure 2
Wang et al. / Figure 3
Wang et al. / Figure 4