

1 **Genetic diversity and population structure of *Metaphire***
2 ***vulgaris* based on the mitochondrial COI gene and**
3 **microsatellites**

4
5 **Yu fang^{1#}, Jie Chen^{2#}, Honghua Ruan¹, Nan Xu¹, Ziting Que¹, Hongyi Liu^{1*}**
6

7 ¹ College of Biology and the Environment, Nanjing Forestry University, No.159
8 Longpan Road, Nanjing, 210037, Jiangsu, China

9 ² Key Laboratory for Ecology and Pollution Control of Coastal Wetlands
10 (Environmental Protection, Department of Jiangsu), School of Environmental Science
11 and Engineering, Yancheng Institute of Technology, Yancheng, 224051, China
12

13 *: Corresponding author

14 Hongyi Liu

15 Address: College of Biology and the Environment, Nanjing Forestry University,
16 No.159 Longpan Road, Nanjing 210037, Jiangsu province, People's Republic of
17 China

18 E-mail: hongyi_liu@njfu.edu.cn
19

20 #: Contributed equally

21 **Abstract**

22 The earthworm species *Metaphire vulgaris* (a member of the Clitellata class) is widely
23 distributed across China, and has important ecological functions and medicinal value.
24 However, investigations into its genetic diversity and differentiation are scarce.
25 Consequently, we evaluated the genetic diversity of five populations of *M. vulgaris*
26 (GM, HD, NYYZ, QDDY, and QDY) in Yancheng, China via the mitochondrial COI
27 gene and the novel microsatellites developed there. A total of nine haplotypes were
28 obtained by sequencing the mitochondrial COI gene, among which NYYZ and QDDY
29 populations had the greatest number of haplotypes (nh=5). Further, the nucleotide
30 diversity ranged from 0.00437 to 0.1243. The neighbor-joining trees and the TCS
31 network of haplotypes indicated that earthworm populations within close geographical
32 range were not genetically isolated at these small scale distances. Results of the
33 identification of microsatellite molecular markers revealed that the allele number in
34 12 microsatellite loci ranged from four to 13. The observed heterozygosity ranged
35 from 0.151 to 0.644, whereas the expected heterozygosity ranged from 0.213 to 0.847.
36 The polymorphism data content of most sites was > 0.5, which indicated that the
37 designed sites had high polymorphism. Structural analysis results indicated that GM,
38 HD, and NYYZ had similar genetic structures across the five populations. The Nei's
39 genetic distance (Ds) between HD and NYYZ populations was the smallest
40 (Ds=0.0624), whereas that between HD and QDY populations was the largest
41 (Ds=0.2364). The UPGMA tree showed that HD were initially grouped with NYYZ,
42 followed by GM, and then with QDDY. Furthermore, cross-species amplification tests
43 were conducted for *Metaphire guillelmi*, which indicated that the presented markers
44 were usable for this species. This study comprised a preliminary study on the genetic
45 diversity of *M. vulgaris*, which provides basic data for future investigations into this
46 species.

47 **Keywords:** COI; Microsatellite; Genetic diversity; *Metaphire guillelmi*; *Metaphire*
48 *vulgaris*.

49 **1 Introduction**

50 Earthworms have key roles in myriad soil processes, including soil turnover, aeration
51 and drainage, and the breakdown and incorporation of organic matter (Edwards et al.,
52 1996). Studies have revealed that direct interactions between earthworms and seeds
53 can influence the formation of plant communities (Asshoff et al., 2010). Against the
54 backdrop of escalating terrestrial pollution, earthworms can accelerate the degradation
55 of soil permeating pesticide residues (Liang et al., 2006; Lin et al., 2018).
56 Furthermore, from a medical perspective, earthworms can be employed for the
57 prevention and cure of arteriosclerosis, promotion of blood circulation and removal of
58 blood stasis, as well as the prevention and treatment of cardiovascular and
59 cerebrovascular diseases. Thus, it is important to elucidate the diversity and
60 population structures of earthworms. Traditional morphological studies begin with
61 phenotypes; however, phenotypes are generally controlled by genes and are
62 significantly influenced by the environment (Gilbert et al., 2008). Therefore, it is
63 difficult to accurately determine the level of genetic variation between species through

64 phenotypic differences.

65 At present, mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) and microsatellites are extensively
66 employed for species identification, population genetic diversity, and genetic
67 differentiation (Guichoux et al., 2011; Hodel et al., 2016; Qin et al., 2017). Mt DNA is
68 a type of extranuclear genetic material (Herrera et al., 2015). Some authors have
69 analyzed mtDNA to investigate the genetic diversity and population structures of
70 earthworms (Chang and Chen, 2005; Minamiya et al., 2009; Lang et al., 2012;
71 Siqueira et al., 2013;) Mitochondrial COI genes are also the most commonly used
72 molecular markers. Molecular genetic studies have demonstrated that the relative
73 paucity in morphological characteristics conceals a high genetic diversity
74 (Shekhovtsov et al., 2014). Microsatellites are simple repeat sequences with 1-6 bases
75 as the repeating unit (Babaei et al., 2017), which have been confirmed to be very
76 suitable markers for the study of population genetics. However, cross-species
77 amplification experiments have revealed that earthworm microsatellite marker possess
78 a high specificity for species (Guichoux et al., 2011). Only a few sets of microsatellite
79 markers of Megascolecidae earthworms have been developed (e.g., *Amyntas*
80 *corticis*) (Cunha et al., 2017). Further, studies on the genetic diversity of earthworms
81 via microsatellites have been mostly for the Lumbricidae family (Somer et al., 2011;
82 Dupont et al., 2017).

83 In response to the growing need for genetic and genomic tools for the study of
84 earthworm biology, we isolated 12 microsatellite markers for *Metaphire vulgaris*
85 using RAD sequencing technologies. *M. vulgaris* belongs to the genus *Metaphire* of
86 the family Megascolecidae, which can be found in many provinces across China,
87 including Jiangsu, Shanghai, Zhejiang, and Guizhou (Xu and Xiao, 2011). To provide
88 theoretical data for the level of genetic diversity of this species, which belonged to
89 different ecosystems in Yancheng City of Jiangsu Province, the genetic diversity and
90 population structures were evaluated using mitochondrial COI gene and the novel
91 microsatellites. These data can contribute to elucidating the genetic diversity and
92 differentiation of the *M. vulgaris* group of earthworms, as well myriad other species.

93 **2. Materials and methods**

94 **2.1 Sample collection and DNA extraction**

95 All earthworm samples were selected from five sites in Yancheng City, Jiangsu
96 Province, China and grouped according to their geographic origin (**Fig. 1, Table 1**). A
97 total of 112 earthworms were collected as follows: 15 earthworms from Guomeng
98 Town (GM) (120°28'41.4" E, 33°15'23.6"N), 30 from Seawall Road (HD)
99 (120°30'24.8"E, 33° 36'2.5"N), 21 from rape and pea fields in Qingdun Town
100 (QDDY) (120°11'11.3"E, 33° 29'14.9"N), 21 from a rape field in Qingdun Town
101 (QDY) (120°11'55.5"E,33° 29'18.5"N), and 25 from the Nanyang Experimental
102 Station (NYYZ) (120°12'5.1"E, 33° 25'13.1"N). GM and QDDY reside in long-term
103 cultivated lands (GM was sampled on the ridge of the field), whereas HD and NYYZ
104 dwell in agricultural wastelands, and QDY is present in newly cultivated land. The
105 earthworms were anaesthetized in the field with 10% ethanol, and subsequently

106 preserved in 70% ethanol. The *M. vulgaris* were from 130-150 mm in length and 5-7
107 mm wide. The body surface has no setae, and the color of the middle line on the back
108 is dark cyan. The mating cavity is deep and wide, and the inner wall is wrinkled, often
109 with three flat-topped mastoid processes. The anterior and posterior margin of the
110 seminal vesicle is swollen, and the size of the mastoid process can be seen outside the
111 lumen (Xu and Xiao, 2011). Once the earthworms were identified with similar *M.*
112 *vulgaris*, samples from each individual were sectioned and preserved in 95% ethanol
113 for genomic DNA extraction using a genomic DNA extraction kit (Vazyme Biotech,
114 Beijing, China) in the laboratory. The extracted DNA was stored at -20°C for an
115 extended duration.

116 2.2 COI gene amplification and molecular identification of species

117 The primers used for gene amplification were designed with reference to the entire mt
118 DNA sequences of *M. vulgaris* (KJ137279.1), *Metaphire guillelmi* (KT429017.1), and
119 *Metaphire californica* (KP688581.1) from NCBI (QY-COI-F:5'-
120 TTTGGGCACCCAGAAGTATA-3'; QY-COI-R:5'-GTAATAATACCTGTTTCYCT-
121 3'). Amplifications were performed in 25 µl reaction volumes containing 12.5 µl of
122 2×Taq Master Mix (Dye Plus), 1 µl of genomic DNA, 0.5 µl of each primer, and 10.5
123 µl of deionized water. The PCR procedure was as follows: an initial denaturation step
124 at 95°C for 5 min, followed by 32 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 30 s, annealing at
125 55°C for 30 s, and extension at 72°C for 30 s, with a final extension at 72°C for 5
126 min. After being detected by agarose gel electrophoresis, the PCR products were sent
127 to the TSINGKE Biotech Company (Nanjing, China) for sequencing. Species
128 identification was performed via DNA barcoding by sequencing a fragment of the
129 COI gene. Ultimately, we obtained 78 *M. vulgaris* and 22 *M. guillelmi* earthworms.

130 2.3 Microsatellite identification and amplification

131 The genomic DNA of a *M. vulgaris* specimen was used for RAD-seq, where RAD
132 library construction and Illumina sequencing were conducted by Novogene
133 Bioinformatics Technology Co. Ltd. (Beijing, China) following the standard protocol.
134 Approximately 1.287 G bases of raw reads were obtained from the RAD library, with
135 average Q30 and GC contents of 92.41% and 43.51%, respectively. Subsequent to the
136 filtering and assembly of the raw reads, we obtained 33,069 contigs, with average
137 contig lengths of 346 bp. A total of 1975 microsatellites were obtained that were
138 suitable for the design of primers. The primers were designed using the primer 3.0
139 subprogram of the SR search software (Novogene, Beijing, China). A total of 20 pairs
140 of primers were randomly designed and employed to amplify the DNA templates of
141 three *M. vulgaris* individuals, of which 12 pairs of primers produced clean products.
142 These primers were labeled with fluorescent dye 5' 6-FAM, 5' HEX or 5' TAMRA for
143 randomly testing the amplification in 24 *M. vulgaris* individuals. Finally, 12
144 microsatellite loci with high polymorphisms and 12 corresponding primers were
145 successfully screened (**Table3**)

146 Except for different primers, the reaction system and reaction conditions were as
147 above. The PCR products were also checked using a 1% agarose gel electrophoresis

148 method. To validate the developed microsatellites in other *Metaphire* species, *M.*
149 *guillelmi* (n=22) were sampled for cross-amplification analysis. All PCR products
150 were sent to the SINGKE Biotech Company (Nanjing, China) for genotyping using an
151 ANI 3730 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystem).

152 2.4 Statistical analyses

153 2.4.1 mtDNA sequence data

154 The sequences of each gene region were edited and aligned in SeqMan (Swindell and
155 Plasterer, 1997) Pro v9 (DNASTAR Inc., Madison, WI, USA). Molecular genetic
156 diversity indices for each population were calculated in DnaSP v5.0 (Librado and
157 Rozas, 2009). The diversity indices included nucleotide diversity (π), number of
158 haplotypes (nh), haplotype diversity (Hd), and number of segregation sites (S). A
159 Neighbor Joining (NJ) tree was constructed by MEGA v7.0 (Sudhir et al., 2016)
160 according to the haplotype of the population, and with *M. guillelmi* as an outgroup.
161 The confidence levels at nodes after 1000 repetitions employed the Bootstrap method
162 (Adeniran et al., 2021). The phylogenetic relationships between mtDNA haplotypes of
163 *M. vulgaris* were estimated from a TCS network using PopART v1.7 (Leigh et al.,
164 2015).

165 2.4.2 Microsatellite data

166 Cervus version 3.0 software (Kalinowski et al., 2007) was used to determine the
167 following parameters: The number of alleles (N_A), observed heterozygosity (H_O),
168 expected heterozygosity (H_E), polymorphism information content (PIC) values, and
169 Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) test for each locus. Arlequin 3.0 software
170 (Excoffier et al., 2007) was employed to estimate the fixation indices (F_{IS} , F_{ST} , and
171 F_{IT}) per locus. Through an AMOVA analysis using Arlequin 3.0 software, the
172 distribution patterns of genetic diversity were compared. Popgene 3.2 software was
173 employed to calculate the genetic distance (D_s), and construct a phylogenetic tree via
174 UPGMA. An analysis of the population genetic structure was performed with
175 Structure 2.3.4 software (Pritchard et al., 2000), where the Set population K 2-5, Each
176 K value repeats 10 times, Length of Burnin Period and McMc Reps were 100,000 and
177 100,000. The results were uploaded to the Structure Harvester
178 (<http://taylor0.biology.ucla.edu/>) (Rosenberg et al., 2001) website to obtain the best K
179 value.

180 3. Results

181 3.1 Population genetic diversity and differentiation of mitochondrial COI gene

182 3.1.1 Genetic diversity of mitochondrial COI gene

183 A total of 100 COI sequences (737 bp) were obtained, of which 78 were *M. vulgaris*
184 and 22 were *M. guillelmi*, following amplification and species identification.
185 (GenBank accessions: MW861684-MW861693). The average frequencies of T, C, A,
186 and G were 32.6%, 22.3%, 27.9, and 17.2%, respectively. The A+T contents (60.5%)
187 were higher than the C+G contents (39.5%). The nucleotide diversity (π), number of

188 haplotypes (nh) and haplotype diversity (Hd) are presented in **Table 1**. The NYYZ
189 and QDDY had the most haplotypes (nh= 5). The highest haplotype diversity was the
190 HD population (Hd=0.705), whereas the lowest was the QDY population (Hd=0.189).
191 The genetic diversity of the GM and QDY populations was significantly lower than
192 that of the other three populations (HD, NYYZ, and QDDY). There were 10
193 haplotypes in total, among which only one was a *M. guillelmi* haplotype. There were
194 nine haplotypes within the five populations of *M. vulgaris*, among two haplotypes
195 (Hap 1 and Hap 2) were found in four populations, two haplotypes (Hap 3 and Hap 9)
196 were found in two populations, and the remaining five haplotypes were designated as
197 “private haplotypes” (**Table 2**).

198 3.1.2 Population genetic structure of mitochondrial gene markers

199 As was visible from the constructed N-J tree (**Fig.2A**), the *M. guillelmi* outgroup was
200 obviously different from the *M. vulgaris* group as one branch, and five populations of
201 *M. vulgaris* were divided into two large branches. A total of nine haplotypes were
202 distributed between the two branches, which was similar to the aggregation of the
203 overall TCS network (**Fig.2B**) haplotype distribution. For most haplotypes, two (Hap
204 1, Hap 2) were used as the central radiation distribution. Other haplotypes were
205 formed by one or two mutations of these two haplotypes. Among them, Hap 1 was
206 likely the most primitive haplotype, which evolved into others. The NJ tree and the
207 network between haplotypes revealed that there was no significant lineage
208 differentiation between the five *M. vulgaris* populations.

209 3.2 Population genetic diversity and structure based on microsatellites

210 3.2.1 Genetic diversity of microsatellite loci

211 An innovative design of the 12 microsatellite loci and their corresponding 12 pairs of
212 primers (GenBank accessions: MW858330 - MW858341), a genetic diversity
213 assessment of 73 individuals in five populations of *M. vulgaris*, and cross-species
214 amplification of polymorphic microsatellite markers from *M. guillelmi*, showed that
215 most microsatellite loci could be successfully amplified (**Table 4**). The allele number
216 of all the loci in the five different populations of *M. vulgaris* ranged from four to 13
217 with an average number of eight. The observed (H_O) and expected (H_E)
218 heterozygosity ranged from 0.151 to 0.644 (mean value, 0.430), and from 0.213 to
219 0.847 (mean value, 0.619), respectively. The average polymorphism information
220 content (PIC) was 0.571, while the highest was 0.823 for the Mv07 locus, and the
221 lowest was 0.200 for the Mv08 locus.

222 3.2.2 Population genetic diversity and structure

223 The number of alleles between the five populations of *M. vulgaris* ranged from 3.250
224 (GM) to 5.250 (QDDY), where the average allele number was 4.42 (**Table 5**). The
225 observed heterozygosity ranged from 0.403 (HD) to 0.458 (QDDY). The expected
226 heterozygosity ranged from between 0.504 (QDY) and 0.633 (HD). The average of
227 the observed and expected heterozygosity was 0.426 and 0.581, respectively. The
228 polymorphism information content (PIC) was from between 0.446 and 0.546, as the

229 lowest in the QDY population, and the highest in the HD population, with an average
230 of 0.504. The best K (K=3) values were obtained from the Structure Harvester
231 (<http://taylor0.biology.ucla.edu/>) website. The genetic structure of the population was
232 analyzed using Structure 2.3.4 software, setting K=3, that is, the five populations
233 could be divided into three genetic groups (red, blue, and green) (**Fig.3A.**) All five
234 populations had three simultaneous genetic groups, among which three in the QDDY
235 population were uniformly distributed. The GM, HD, and three NYYZ populations
236 consisted primarily of red and blue-derived genetic populations, whereas QDY were
237 more of the green-derived genetic populations.

238 3.2.3 Genetic differentiation of five populations

239 F-statistics (**Table 4**) were estimated in a fixation index as a coefficient within
240 populations (F_{IS}), genetic differentiation (F_{ST}), and inbreeding coefficient in the
241 overall populations (F_{IT}). The F_{IS} ranged from -0.107 (Mv11) to 0.466 (Mv09), with
242 an average value of 0.255. The F_{ST} ranged from 0.011 (Mv07) to 0.164 (Mv03), with
243 an average value of 0.085. The F_{IT} ranged from -0.018 (Mv11) to 0.522 (Mv12), with
244 an average of 0.318. From these three indices, it was observed that there was a certain
245 inbreeding phenomenon; however, the genetic differentiation coefficient was small,
246 which indicated that the degree of genetic differentiation of the population was not
247 high.

248 According to the allele frequencies of the five populations at 12 microsatellite loci,
249 the genetic identity and genetic distance (D_s) of Nei was calculated by Popgene v3.2
250 software. The results indicated that the genetic distance between the HD and NYYZ
251 populations was the smallest ($D_s=0.0624$) and the genetic distance between the HD
252 and QDY populations was the largest ($D_s=0.2364$) (**Table 6**). The genetic distances
253 between the GM and HD and NYYZ were also small at 0.1137 and 0.1186,
254 respectively. While the genetic distances between QDY and the other four populations
255 were all larger than 0.16. AMOVA analysis (**Table 7**) revealed that the total variability
256 observed between different populations was 9.35%, whereas 90.65% of variation was
257 found within populations. The genetic variation of *M. vulgaris* primarily occurred
258 within the population. The UPGMA tree based on codominant genotypic distances
259 matrix of the 12 microsatellite markers from five populations showed that HD were
260 initially grouped with NYYZ, followed by GM, and then with QDDY (**Fig. 3B**).

261 4 Discussion

262 4.1 Amplification of microsatellite primers

263 Microsatellites are markers of neutrality, co-dominance, and high polymorphism.
264 They have been shown to be highly suitable markers for population genetics
265 (Guichoux et al., 2011). However, cross-species amplification tests revealed that the
266 microsatellite markers of earthworms were highly species-specific (*Lumbricus*
267 *rubellus*, 2006; *Aporrectodea longa* (Ude). 2012; *Lumbricus terrestris*, 2016) (Harper
268 et al.,2006; Strunk et al. 2012; Souleman et al., 2016). At present, there are few
269 studies on the genetic diversity of earthworms using microsatellite molecular markers.

270 For this study, we designed 12 pairs of microsatellite primers for *M. vulgaris*. The PIC
271 values greater than 0.5 for most of the 12 microsatellite loci indicated that these
272 microsatellite markers were highly polymorphic (Yuan et al., 2015). Cross-species
273 amplification tests revealed that the presented markers were usable for *M. guillelmi*.
274 The results of cross-species amplification tests may vary for different families, which
275 can be successfully amplified in Moniligastridae and Megascolecidae, but not in
276 *Lumbricus* (Liu et al., 2020).

277 4.2 Genetic diversity of *M. vulgaris* in Yancheng City

278 Genetic diversity is the foundational core of ecosystems and species diversity, and the
279 basic condition for species to sustain their evolutionary potential (Spielman et al.,
280 2004; Frankham et al., 2004). For mtDNA, the COI gene was used to evaluate the
281 genetic diversity of *M. vulgaris* in Yancehng City. In the present study, the QDY
282 population had the lowest genetic diversity and the HD population had the highest.
283 The COI gene fragment species produced nine haplotypes in 78 samples of the *M.*
284 *vulgaris* population with a nucleotide diversity of $\pi=0.01088\pm0.00633$. This was
285 lower than *Amyntas triastriatus* in China by Dong Yan ($\pi=0.0309$) (Dong Yan et al.,
286 2020), which was primarily related to the small sample size obtained in this study. For
287 the microsatellite makers, 12 microsatellite loci were selected to evaluate the genetic
288 diversity of 73 *M. vulgaris* individuals from the five populations in this study. The
289 mean H_o , H_E , and PIC values were 0.430, 0.619, and 0.571 at 12 microsatellite loci,
290 respectively (**Table 4**). The N_A , H_E , and PIC values of the GM and QDY populations
291 were lower than those of the other populations. The observed heterozygosity (H_o) and
292 the expected heterozygosity (H_E) were 0.426 and 0.581, respectively, based on the
293 microsatellite markers. Compared with *Lumbricus terrestris* (Souleman et al., 2016)
294 (H_o : from 0.132 to 0.839; H_E : from 0.407 to 0.926) studied by Dima Souleman, the
295 population of *M. vulgaris* showed a moderate genetic diversity. The results based on
296 mitochondrial COI gene and microsatellites showed that the genetic diversity of QDY
297 and GM populations was low, whereas that of the HD population was the highest.
298 However, the evaluation of genetic diversity with different molecular markers may
299 give different results (Siqueira et al., 2013). The consistent results of different
300 molecular markers in *M. vulgaris* further indicated the objective existence of genetic
301 diversity in this study (Jiang et al., 2016).

302 4.3 Population differentiation and structure of *M. vulgaris* in Yancheng City

303 For microsatellites, Nei's genetic diversity (D_S) was calculated to evaluate the level of
304 differentiation between populations. The D_S values between QDY and any other
305 populations was greater than 0.16, which implied that they possessed medium genetic
306 differentiation. The $F_{ST} = 0.09349$ ($P < 0.01$) based on microsatellite markers also
307 indicated that genetic differentiation had occurred between the five populations,
308 forming different genetic clusters. According to Bayesian analysis in Structure 2.3.4
309 software, the five populations of *M. vulgaris* were divided into three genetic clusters.
310 The AMOVA results revealed that the source of genetic differences emerged
311 primarily from within the populations. However, the phylogenetic NJ tree and

312 network based on the species haplotypes of the mitochondrial gene showed no
313 obvious lineage structure. The results of population differentiation based on
314 mitochondrial COI gene and microsatellite molecular markers were inconsistent,
315 which may have been because microsatellites are nuclear genes, while COI are
316 cytoplasmic genes, and the two have different inheritance patterns (Taanman, 1999).
317 In general, earthworms may be considered to be less transmissible animals (Lise et al.,
318 2015) and more likely to form in geographical isolation. However, the results of this
319 study showed that the GM, HD, and NYYZ populations had similar genetic structures,
320 and the three populations were also on a branch in the UPGMA tree. This may have
321 been due to the geographic proximity of the sampling sites and the lack of geographic
322 isolation. Although the geographic locations of the QDDY and QDY populations were
323 similar, the population structures of the two groups varied significantly in the
324 STRUCTURE cluster. The author believes that this may have been related to land use
325 (QDDY was present in perennial agricultural land; however, QDY was present in
326 newly cultivated land. As a result, QDDY were subjected to greater anthropogenic
327 interference).

328 With the development of sequencing technology, a Reduced-Representation
329 Genome Sequencing (RRGS) method with high-throughput single-nucleotide
330 polymorphisms (SNPs) discovery was used for the genetic differentiation of
331 earthworms (Marchán et al., 2020; Yuan et al., 2020). With the further availability of
332 reference genomes, this method will be more useful for earthworm genetics.

333 **5 Conclusion**

334 In summary, we developed microsatellite molecular markers and designed 12 pairs of
335 corresponding polymorphic primers for *M. vulgaris*. The genetic diversity and
336 population structures of five *M. vulgaris* populations were explored via mitochondrial
337 COI genes and microsatellites. The genetic diversity was at a moderate level and the
338 genetic structure revealed that the five populations could be divided into three genetic
339 groups. *M. vulgaris* populations were not genetically isolated by distance at small
340 scales, and different land use patterns will lead to genetic differences in population.
341 The aim of the present study was to further inspire and facilitate intense research on
342 *M. vulgaris* genetics.

343 **Acknowledgements**

344 This study was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No.
345 32071594), the National Key Research and Development Program of China
346 (2016YFD0600204), the Postdoctoral Science Foundation of Jiangsu Province
347 (2019K253), the Innovation and Entrepreneurship Training Program for College
348 Students of China (201910298064Z), the Priority Academic Program Development of
349 Jiangsu Higher Education Institutions (PAPD) and the Funding for school-
350 level research projects of Yancheng Institute of Technology (Grant No. xjr2019042).

351 **References**

352 Adeniran, A.A., Hernández-Triana, L.M., Ortega-Morales, A.I., Garza-

353 Hernández, J.A., Cruz-Ramos, J., Chan-Chable, R.J., Vázquez-Marroquín, R.,
354 Huerta-Jiménez, H., Nikolova, N.I., Fooks, A.R., Rodríguez-Pérez, M.A.
355 (2021). Identification of mosquitoes (Diptera: Culicidae) from Mexico State,
356 Mexico using morphology and COI DNA barcoding. *Acta. Trop.* 213.

357 Asshoff, R., Scheu, S. Eisenhauer, N., (2010). Different earthworm ecological
358 groups interactively impact seedling establishment. *Eur. J. Soil Biol.* 46, 330-
359 334.

360 Babaei, H., Zeinalian, H, Emami, M.H., Hashemzadeh, M., Farahani, N., Salehi,
361 R. (2017). Simplified microsatellite instability detection protocol provides
362 equivalent sensitivity to robust detection strategies in Lynch syndrome
363 patients. *Cancer Biol. Med.* 14, 142-150.

364 Chang, C., Chen, J. (2005). Taxonomic status and intraspecific phylogeography
365 of two sibling species of *Metaphire* (Oligochaeta: Megascolecidae) in Taiwan.
366 *Pedobiologia* 49, 591-600.

367 Cunha, L., Thornber, A., Kille, P., Morgan, A.J., Novo. M. (2017). A large set of
368 microsatellites for the highly invasive earthworm *Amyntas corticis* predicted
369 from low coverage genomes. *Appl. Soil Ecol.* 119, 152-155.

370 Dong, Y., Jiang, J.B., Yuan, Z., Zhao, Q., Qiu, J.P. (2020). Population genetic
371 structure reveals two lineages of *Amyntas triastriatus* (Oligochaeta:
372 Megascolecidae) in China, with notes on a new subspecies of *Amyntas*
373 *riastriatus*. *Int. J. Env. Res. Pub. H.* 15, 1538-1543

374 Dupont, L., Pauwels, M., Dume, C., Deschins, V., Audusseau, H., Gigon, H.,
375 Dubs, F., Vandebuluvke, F. (2017). Genetic variation of the epigeic
376 earthworm *Lumbricus castaneus* populations in urban soils of the Paris region
377 (France) revealed using eight newly developed microsatellite markers. *Appl.*
378 *Soil Ecol.* 135, 33-37.

379 Edwards, C.A., Bohlen, P.J. (1996). Biology and Ecology of Earthworms. *Agr.*
380 *Ecosyst. Environ.* 64, 426.

381 Excoffier, L., Laval, G., Scheider, S. (2007). Arlequin (version 3.0): an integrated
382 software package for population genetics data analysis. *Evol. Bioinform.* 1,
383 25-47.

384 Frankham, R., Ballou, J.D., Briscoe, D.A. (2004). Introduction to Conservation
385 Genetics Cambridge University Press. Press. Cambridge. *Genet. Res.* 83, 221-
386 222.

387 Guichoux, E., Lagache, L., Wagner, S., Chaumeil, P., Léger, P., Lepais, O.,
388 Lepoittevin, C., Malausa, T., Revardel, E., Salin, F., Petit, R.J. (2011). Current
389 trends in microsatellite genotyping. *Mol. Ecol. Resour.* 4, 591-611.

390 Gilbert, J.S., Nijland, M.J. 2008. Sex differences in the developmental origins of
391 hypertension and cardiorenal disease. *Am. J. Physiol-Reg. I* 295, 1941-1952.

392 Harper, G. L., Cesarini, S., Casey, S. P., Morgan, A. J., Kille, P., Bruford, M. W.
393 (2006). Microsatellite markers for the earthworm *Lumbricus rubellus*. *Mol.*
394 *Ecol. Notes.* 6, 325–327

395 Herrera, A., Garcia, I., Gaytan, N., Jones, E., Maldonado, A., Gilkerson, R.
396 (2015). Endangered species: mitochondrial DNA loss as a mechanism of

397 human disease. *Front. Biosci. (Schol. Ed.)* 7, 109-124.

398 Hodel, R.G.J., Claudia Segovia-Salcedo, M., Landis, J.B., Crowl, A.A., Sun, M.,
399 Liu, X., Gitzendanner, M.A., Douglas, N.A., Germain-Aubrey, C.C., Chen, S.,
400 Soltis, D.E., Soltis, P.S. (2016). The report of my death was an exaggeration:
401 A review for researchers using microsatellites in the 21st century. *Appl. Plant*
402 *Sci.* 4.

403 Jiang, J., Yu, J., Li, J., Li, P., Fan, Z., Niu, L., Deng, J., Yue, B., Li, J. (2016).
404 Mitochondrial genome and nuclear markers provide new insight into the
405 evolutionary history of macaques. *Plos One*, 11, e0154665.

406 Kalinowski, S.T., Taper, M.L., Marshall, T.C. (2007). Revising how the computer
407 program CERVUS accommodates genotyping error increases success in
408 paternity assignment. *Mol. Ecol.* 16, 1099-1106.

409 Leigh, J.W., Bryant, D. (2015). Popart: full-feature software for haplotype
410 network construction. *Methods Ecol. Evol.* 6, 1110-1116

411 Lang, S.A., Garcia, M.V., James, S.W., Sayers, C.H., Shain, D.H. (2012).
412 Phylogeny and Clitellar Morphology of the Giant Amazonian Earthworm,
413 *Rhinodrilus priollii* (Oligochaeta: Glossoscolecidae). *Am. Midl. Nat.* 14, 142-
414 150.

415 Librado, P., Rozas, J. (2009). DnaSP v5: a software for comprehensive analysis of
416 DNA polymorphism data. *Bioinformatics* 25, 1451-1452.

417 Lise, D., Ysoline, G., R Benoît, Thibaud, D., M Jérôme. (2015). Dispersal
418 constraints and fine-scale spatial genetic structure in two earthworm species.
419 *Biol. J. Linn. Soc.* 114, 335-347.

420 Liang, J., Zhou, Q. (2006). Influences of acetochlor and copper on the
421 degradation process of methamidophos in phaeozem by earthworms. *Acta Sci.*
422 *Circum.* 26, 306-311.

423 Lin, Z., Zhen, Z., Ren, L., Yang, J., Luo, C., Zhong, L., Hu, H., Liang, Y., Li, Y.,
424 Zhang, D. (2018). Effects of two ecological earthworm species on atrazine
425 degradation performance and bacterial community structure in red soil.
426 *Chemosphere* 196, 467-475.

427 Liu, H.Y., Zhang, Y.F., Wang, G.B., Chen, J., Zhang, Q.Z., Ruan, H.H., (2020).
428 Development and characterization of microsatellite markers in the earthworm
429 *drawida gisti* michaelson, 1931 and cross-amplification in two other
430 congeners. *Mol. Biol. Rep.* 47, 8265–8269.

431 Marchán, D. F., Novo, M., Sánchez, N., Domínguez, J., Fernández, R. (2020).
432 Local adaptation fuels cryptic speciation in terrestrial annelids. *Mol.*
433 *Phylogenet. Evol.* 146, 106767.

434 Minamiya, Y., Yokoyama, J., Fukuda, T. (2009). A phylogeographic study of the
435 Japanese earthworm, *Metaphire sieboldi* (Horst, 1883) (Oligochaeta:
436 Megascolecidae): Inferences from mitochondrial DNA sequences. *Eur. J. Soil*
437 *Biol.* 45, 423-430.

438 Pritchard, J.K., Stephens, M., Donnelly, P. (2000). Inference of population
439 structure using multilocus genotype data. *Genetics* 115, 945-959.

440 Qin, H., Yang, G., Jim, P., Liu, J., Gao, L. (2017). Using MiddRAD-seq data to

441 develop polymorphic microsatellite markers for an endangered yew species.
442 *Plant Diversity* 39, 294-299.

443 Rosenberg, N.A., Burke, T., Elo, K., Feldman, M.W., Freidlin, P.J. Groenen,
444 M.A., Hillel, J., Mäki-Tanila, A., Tixier-Boichard, M., Vignal, A., Wimmers,
445 K., Weigend, S. (2001). Empirical evaluation of genetic clustering methods
446 using multilocus genotypes from 20 chicken breeds. *Genetics* 159, 699-713.

447 Spielman, D., Brook, J.D., Briscoe, D.A. (2004). Introduction to Conservation
448 Genetics Cambridge University Press. Proceedings of the National Academy
449 of Sciences of the United States of America 101, 15261-15264

450 Souleman, D., Grumiaux, F., Frérot, H., Vandenbulcke, F., Pauwels, M. (2016).
451 Isolation and characterization of eight polymorphic microsatellites markers
452 for the earthworm *Lumbricus terrestris*, *Eur. J. Soil Biol.* 74, 76-80.

453 Sudhir, K., Glen, S., Koichiro, T. (2016). MEGA7: Molecular Evolutionary
454 Genetics Analysis Version 7.0 for Bigger Datasets. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* 33, 1451-
455 1452.

456 Shekhovtsov, S.V., Golovanova, E.V., Peltek, S.E. (2014). Genetic diversity of the
457 earthworm *Octolasion tyrtaeum* (Lumbricidae, Annelida). *Pedobiologia* 57,
458 245-250.

459 Strunk, H., Hochkirch, A., Veith, M., Hankeln, T., Emmerling, C. (2012).
460 Isolation and characterization of eleven polymorphic microsatellite markers
461 for the earthworm *Aporrectodea longa* (Ude). *Eur. J. Soil Biol.* 48, 56-58.

462 Somer, C.M., Neudorf, K., Jones, K.L., Lance, S.L. (2011). Novel microsatellite
463 loci for the compost earthworm *Eisenia fetida*: A genetic comparison of three
464 North American vermiculture stocks. *Pedobiologia* 54, 111-117.

465 Swindell, S.R., Plasterer, T.N. (1997). SEQMAN. Contig assembly. *Methods Mol.*
466 *Biol.* 70, 75-89.

467 Siqueira, F.D.F., Sandes, S.H.D.C., Drumond, M.A., Campos, S.H., Martins, R.P.,
468 Fonseca, C.G.D., Carvalho, M.R. (2013). Genetic diversity and population
469 genetic structure in giant earthworm *Rhinodrilus alatus* (Annelida: Clitellata:
470 Glossoscolecidae). *Pedobiologia* 56, 15-23.

471 Taanman, J.W. (1999). The mitochondrial genome: structure, transcription,
472 translation and replication. *Biochimica et biophysica acta.* 1410, 103-123.

473 Xu, Q., Xiao, N. (2011). Terrestrial earthworms (Oligochaeta: Opisthoptora) of
474 China, China Agricult. Press, pp. 51-52 (in Chinese).

475 Yuan, Z., Jiang, J., Dong, Y., Zhao, Q., Qiu, J. (2020). Unearthing the genetic
476 divergence and gene flow of the earthworm *Amyntas_yn2017* sp.
477 (Oligochaeta: Megascolecidae) populations based on restriction site-
478 associated DNA sequencing. *Eur. J. Soil Biol.* 99, 103210.

479 Yuan, Y., Shangguan, J.B., Li, Z.B., Ning, Y.F., Huang, Y.S., Li, B.B., Mao, X.Q.
480 (2015). Isolation and characterization of new microsatellite markers in red tail
481 prawn, *Fenneropenaeus penicillatus*, an endangered species in China. *Genet.*
482 *Mol. Res.* 14, 15412-15416.

483

Table 1

Geographic locations of sampling sites and haplotypes.

Species	ID name	Site	N	π	nh	Hd	S
<i>M.vulgaris</i>	GM	120°28'41.4"E33°15'23.6"N	5	0.00868±0.01042	2	0.400±0.05632	16
	HD	120°30'24.8"E 33° 36'2.5"N	15	0.01243±0.00751	3	0.705±0.00286	18
	NYYZ	120°12'5.1"E 33° 25'13.1"N	19	0.01184±0.00738	5	0.684±0.00841	19
	QDDY	120°11'11.3"E33°29'14.9"N	19	0.01060±0.00776	5	0.637±0.01093	20
	QDY	120°11'55.5"E33°29'18.5"N	20	0.00437±0.00650	2	0.189±0.01169	17
All <i>M.vulgaris</i>			78	0.01088±0.00633	9	0.776±0.00061	23
All <i>M.guillelmi</i>			22	0.00000±0.00000	1	0.000±0.00000	0
Overall			100	0.02646±0.01441	10	0.817±0.00024	55

N: number of sequences, π : nucleotide diversity, nh: number of haplotypes, Hd: haplotype diversity, S: number of segregation sites.

Table 2Haplotypes of COI sequences identified in *M.vulgaris* populations

Haplotype	GM	HD	NYYZ	QDDY	QDY	Total	Relative frequency
Hap 1	1	5	10	11	0	27	34.62%
Hap 2	4	0	4	4	2	14	17.95%
Hap 3	0	6	3	0	0	9	11.54%
Hap 4	0	4	0	0	0	4	5.13%
Hap 5	0	0	1	0	0	1	1.28%
Hap 6	0	0	1	0	0	1	1.28%
Hap 7	0	0	0	1	0	1	1.28%
Hap 8	0	0	0	1	0	1	1.28%
Hap 9	0	0	0	2	18	20	25.64%

Table 3

Characteristics of the 12 microsatellite primers.

Locus	Primer sequences (5'-3')	Repeat type	Fluorescent markers	T _m /° C
Mv01	F:GTTTTGAAATTATCTGTCG R:TCTCGCCACTTTTATCACAC	(CA) ₉	HEX	55
Mv02	F:ATTATTTTGACGCTTCCATAC R:GTTCCCTTTGATCTCTCGTAA	(GT) ₇	HEX	55
Mv03	F:TGGAGCTCAGTCTGTCTGTC R:TGAACCCTTCTCTCTACCCC	(CTGT) ₇	HEX	55
Mv04	F:TCCCAAGAGTATTGAGGATTT R:ACTAGCATAGCGTGTGCGTG	(CT) ₁₅	TAMRA	55
Mv05	F:TAAACTTCGACCCACACTGA R:CGTCTGACCTAAGAAGTCCC	(CAG) ₄	TAMRA	55
Mv06	F:ATATGGTTGCAAAAACAATCA R:GTTGTGCATTCTGTTTAGAA	(GT) ₁₁	TAMRA	55
Mv07	F:CATAATTAGCTCCACTCGG R:GTTGTGCATTCTGTTTAGAA	(AG) ₁₅	HEX	55
Mv08	F:GAAATGAAGCTGAGATGACA R:TGGAACGAAACATAGAGGG	(CTCA) ₉	TAMRA	55
Mv09	F:TGAGGACTGGTTTGACACTT R:TAACCAGTTCCGTTTGCTCTC	(CTG) ₆	FAM	55
Mv10	F:AGGTCAGCATCGACGACGACAAC R:CCTTTCCACCACCCTATCGT	(CCG) ₅	FAM	55
Mv11	F:AGGAGGAGATGAAAATATCG R:AGCACCAAAGATGAGATGGA	(GAGG) ₅	FAM	55
Mv12	F:CGACGTCCATCTACTTTGAA R:CAAAAATAGTTTGACAAGCA	(TG) ₁₆	FAM	55

Table 4Polymorphism of the 12 microsatellite loci for *Metaphire*.

Locus	<i>M. vulgaris</i>									<i>M. guillelmi</i>		
	N _A	H _O	H _E	PIC	HW	F _{IS}	F _{ST}	F _{IT}	N _A	H _O	H _E	
Mv01	13	0.644	0.733	0.739	NS	0.091	0.101	0.183	6	0.471	0.683	
Mv02	7	0.507	0.616	0.538	NS	0.086	0.124	0.200	5	0.235	0.652	
Mv03	7	0.315	0.608	0.568	*	0.399	0.164	0.498	4	0.235	0.478	
Mv04	11	0.548	0.801	0.770	NS	0.267	0.086	0.330	8	0.529	0.736	
Mv05	5	0.397	0.579	0.485	NS	0.228	0.141	0.337	7	0.647	0.724	
Mv06	4	0.411	0.513	0.440	NS	0.172	0.043	0.208	2	0.529	0.487	
Mv07	11	0.575	0.847	0.823	ND	0.317	0.011	0.324	8	0.647	0.838	
Mv08	4	0.151	0.213	0.200	ND	0.280	0.027	0.300	5	0.294	0.410	
Mv09	7	0.247	0.492	0.448	***	0.466	0.081	0.509	5	0.353	0.711	
Mv10	9	0.411	0.621	0.581	NS	0.334	0.012	0.342	6	0.412	0.697	
Mv11	5	0.548	0.529	0.452	NS	-0.107	0.080	-0.018	3	0.588	0.594	
Mv12	12	0.411	0.836	0.808	ND	0.460	0.114	0.522	5	0.294	0.768	
Mean	8	0.430	0.619	0.571	—	0.255	0.085	0.318	5.3 33	0.436	0.648	

N_A: number of alleles, H_O: observed heterozygosity, H_E: expected heterozygosity, PIC: polymorphism information content, F_{IS}: fixation index inbreeding coefficient within populations, F_{IT}: fixation index inbreeding coefficient in the overall populations, F_{ST}: fixation index genetic differentiation, HW: Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium, ND: no deviation from Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium, NS: no significance *:p<0.05, ***:p<0.01

489

490

Table 5Genetic information for the 12 microsatellite loci observed in *M. vulgaris*.

Population	Locus	N _A	H _O	H _E	PIC
GM	Mv01	4	0.400	0.711	0.581
	Mv02	2	0.600	0.467	0.332
	Mv03	2	0.000	0.356	0.269
	Mv04	4	0.600	0.733	0.596
	Mv05	3	0.400	0.689	0.548
	Mv06	2	0.400	0.356	0.269
	Mv07	6	0.600	0.889	0.772
	Mv08	2	0.200	0.200	0.164
	Mv09	3	0.200	0.511	0.410
	Mv10	3	0.200	0.511	0.410
	Mv11	3	1.000	0.733	0.586
	Mv12	5	0.400	0.867	0.745
	Mean		3.250	0.416	0.585
HD	Mv01	6	0.417	0.717	0.641
	Mv02	4	0.333	0.591	0.501
	Mv03	5	0.333	0.638	0.553
	Mv04	8	0.500	0.801	0.737
	Mv05	3	0.500	0.554	0.428
	Mv06	2	0.333	0.522	0.375
	Mv07	8	0.750	0.855	0.800
	Mv08	2	0.083	0.228	0.195
	Mv09	4	0.417	0.685	0.595
	Mv10	6	0.417	0.710	0.643
	Mv11	4	0.500	0.598	0.483
	Mv12	4	0.250	0.692	0.600
	Mean		4.667	0.403	0.633
NYYZ	Mv01	6	0.778	0.687	0.625
	Mv02	2	0.500	0.475	0.355
	Mv03	4	0.167	0.257	0.237
	Mv04	8	0.389	0.694	0.635
	Mv05	3	0.611	0.538	0.412
	Mv06	3	0.278	0.510	0.416
	Mv07	11	0.444	0.910	0.873
	Mv08	4	0.278	0.348	0.321
	Mv09	4	0.222	0.611	0.531
	Mv10	4	0.611	0.554	0.494
	Mv11	4	0.444	0.529	0.429
	Mv12	9	0.333	0.816	0.769
	Mean		5.167	0.421	0.577

Population	Locus	N _A	H _O	H _E	PIC
QDDY	Mv01	6	0.500	0.675	0.617
	Mv02	6	0.611	0.741	0.679
	Mv03	4	0.556	0.679	0.597
	Mv04	7	0.444	0.808	0.755
	Mv05	3	0.167	0.417	0.370
	Mv06	3	0.389	0.338	0.300
	Mv07	7	0.611	0.830	0.780
	Mv08	2	0.222	0.286	0.239
	Mv09	6	0.389	0.527	0.474
	Mv10	7	0.333	0.665	0.593
	Mv11	4	0.833	0.600	0.504
	Mv12	8	0.444	0.702	0.632
	Mean		5.250	0.458	0.606
QDY	Mv01	6	0.850	0.754	0.694
	Mv02	4	0.500	0.453	0.406
	Mv03	4	0.300	0.605	0.504
	Mv04	4	0.800	0.688	0.604
	Mv05	4	0.350	0.501	0.438
	Mv06	4	0.600	0.633	0.554
	Mv07	6	0.550	0.738	0.676
	Mv08	1	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Mv09	3	0.050	0.099	0.094
	Mv10	3	0.350	0.573	0.497
	Mv11	2	0.300	0.262	0.222
	Mv12	4	0.550	0.737	0.667
	Mean		3.750	0.433	0.504

Table 6

Nei's genetic identity (above diagonal) and genetic distance (below diagonal) of the five populations of *M. vulgaris* based on microsatellites

Population ID	GM	HD	NYYZ	QDDY	QDY
GM	****	0.8925	0.8882	0.8578	0.8266
HD	0.1137	****	0.9395	0.8596	0.7895
NYYZ	0.1186	0.0624	****	0.8591	0.8084
QDDY	0.1534	0.1513	0.1519	****	0.8332
QDY	0.1904	0.2364	0.2171	0.1825	****

492

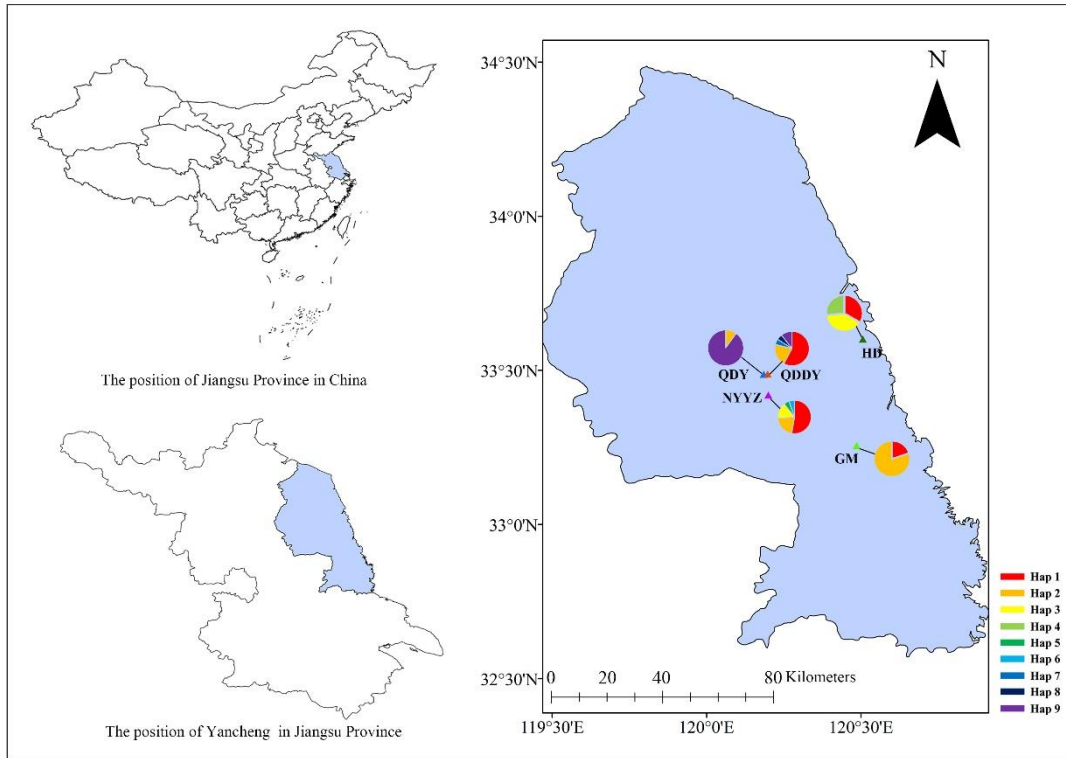
493

Table 7Analysis of molecular variance for the five populations of *M. vulgaris* based on microsatellites.

Source of variation	d.f.	Sum of squares	Variance components	Percentage variation
Among populations	4	53.683	0.35418	9.34872
Within populations	141	484.239	3.43432	90.65128
Total	145	537.877	3.78849	

494

495



496

497

498

Figure 1. Distribution of sampling locations and haplotypes.

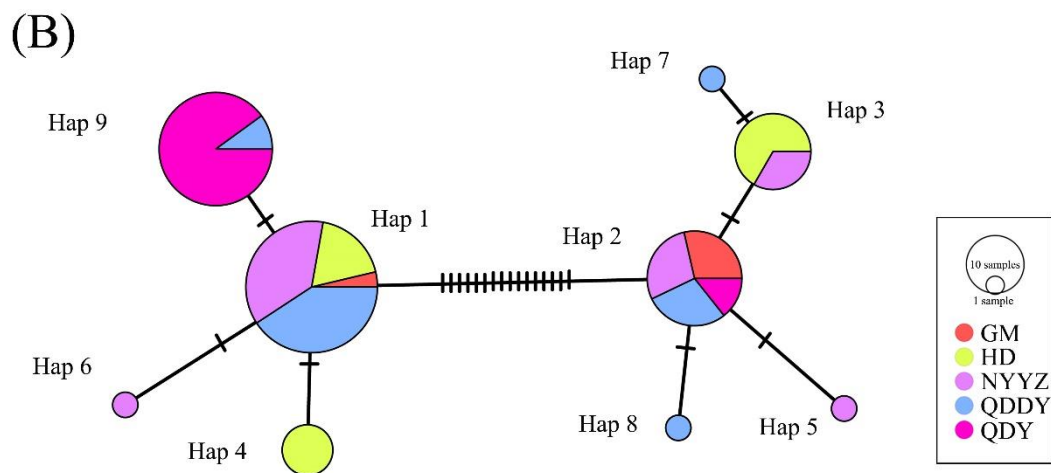
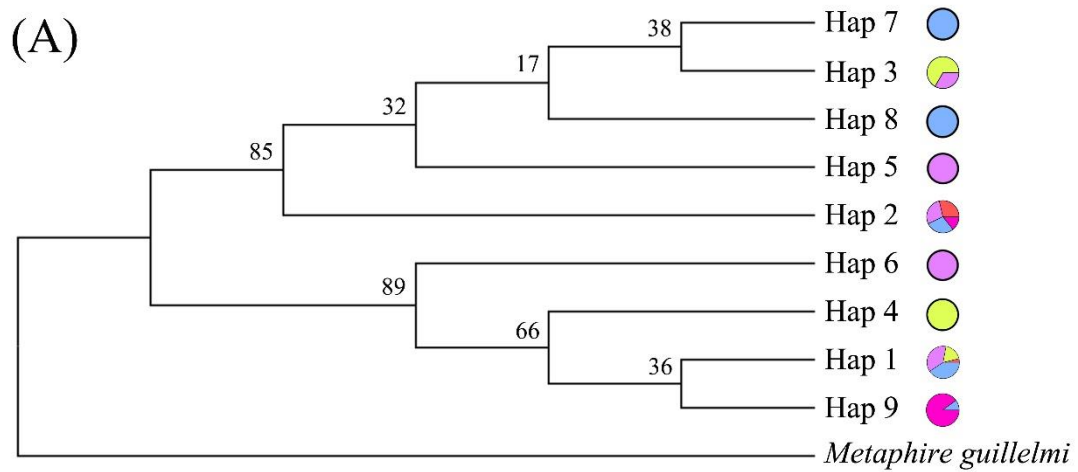
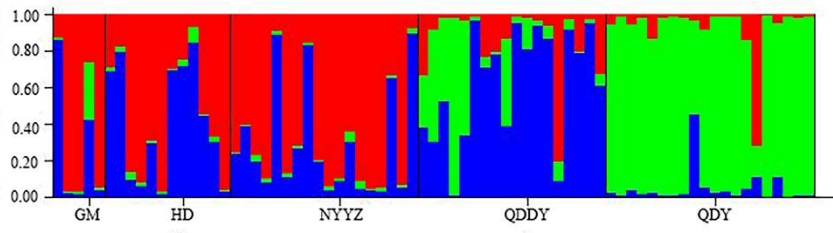


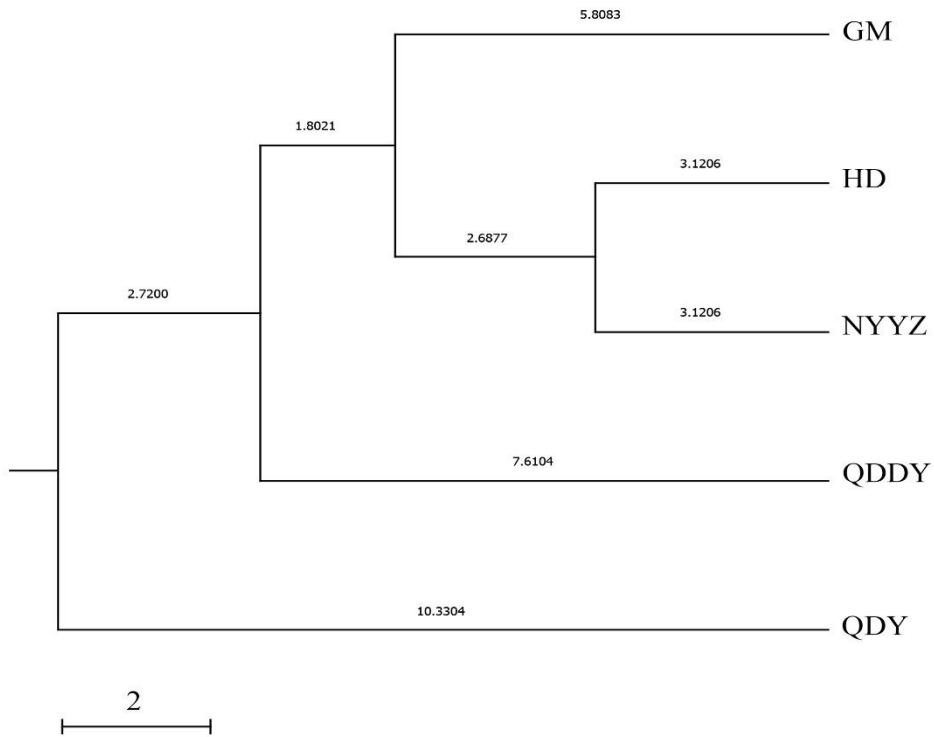
Figure 2. Neighbor-Joining Tree (A) and TCS network (B) based on COI gene. Circle sizes indicate the probability of haplotypes. Different colored in the circles indicate the distribution in different populations, and the oblique lines indicate mutations between haplotypes.

499

500



(A)



(B)

Figure 3. STRUCTURE cluster analysis of the five populations. These populations were grouped in three ancestral clusters(A). The UPGMA tree from 12 microsatellite loci of five *M. vulgaris* populations(B).