

Developmental characteristics and genetic diversity of the two-spotted cricket *Gryllus bimaculatus* De Geer, 1773 (Orthoptera: Gryllidae) in South Korea

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Abstract

In this study, we investigated the developmental characteristics and genetic diversity of seven populations of two-spotted crickets (*Gryllus bimaculatus* De Geer, 1773 (Orthoptera: Gryllidae)) raised in South Korea. Regarding the developmental characteristics of the species, we observed no statistically significant difference in the weight of the nymphs in the six populations we tested. After molting, although weight differences were observed between the populations in each stage of the developmental period, the average weight for each developmental stage was constant. We also analyzed mitochondrial *COI* gene sequences (DNA barcoding region) of the reared crickets collected from five insect farms and two national insect rearing facilities and the resultant sequences were analyzed together with the 12 sequences from foreign countries specimens obtained from public data. We detected six haplotypes from 111 specimens, indicating a low intraspecific genetic distance (~1.8%). The most dominant haplotype was overwhelmingly haplotype 1, which was found in all South Korean specimens and four specimens from China, Indonesia, and Germany. These findings indicate that the low genetic diversity of South Korean specimens can be explained by the fact that the *G. bimaculatus* population imported for feed from Japan in the early 2000s became a maternal group that spread throughout cricket farms in South Korea. In order to breed healthy cricket strains, it is necessary to increase genetic diversity by importing them from other countries through appropriate quarantine procedures.

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Introduction

Gryllus (*Gryllus*) *bimaculatus* De Geer (GB, English name: two-spotted cricket, Korean name: Ssang-byeol-gwi-ttu-ra-mi) belongs to the family Gryllidae (Orthoptera), and the subfamily Gyllinae and is the only species in South Korea belonging to the

genus *Gryllus* Linnaeus (Korean Society of Applied Entomology, 2022). GB is easily distinguished from other cricket species by its morphological feature of a yellow dot at the base of the forewing (Song *et al.*, 2016). The size of this pattern and the color of their body, however, vary according to the environment (Iba *et al.*, 1995).

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GB is not native to South Korea but has been developed through indoor breeding (Jung and Bae, 2007). Predominantly distributed in Laos, Indonesia, Malaysia, and Africa (Jung and Bae, 2007; Keum *et al.*, 2012), GB was introduced to South Korea from Japan for pet food in the early 2000s (Jung and Bae, 2007; Park *et al.*, 2013; Rural Development Administration, 2014; 2017).

Unlike the domestic species *Teleogryllus (Brachyteleogryllus) emma* Ohmachi & Matsuura (English name: emma field cricket, Korean name: Wang-gwi-ttu-ra-mi), GB can reproduce in all seasons, as long as the temperature is suitable, without experiencing a wintering period, and can also be bred in groups. In addition, GB has a shorter breeding period than other edible insects such as *Tenebrio molitor* (Linnaeus) and *Protaetia brevitaris seulensis* (Kolbe) (Rural Development Administration, 2017) and has the advantage of a high protein content (Ghosh *et al.*, 2017; Phesatcha *et al.*, 2022). To date, approximately 2,000 types of insects have been identified as edible insects worldwide (Ghosh *et al.*, 2017; Wilkinson *et al.*, 2018); however, GB is commonly used in the global food industry because of its physiological advantages described above (van Huis, 2020). On account of its commercial advantages, GB was the first cricket species to be registered as a raw food ingredient by the Ministry of Food and Drug Safety in South Korea in 2016, and since then, GB has become the most widespread edible insect in South Korea and is bred at farms in various regions for commercial use and supply (Kim *et al.*, 2019; Kim *et al.*, 2022; Song *et al.*, 2016).

Research on GB has been mainly conducted for commercial purposes to investigate the differences in feeding ability according to cricket weight, size, fertility, and status under various breeding conditions. Iba *et al.* (1995) reported that the growth, behavior, and levels of biogenic amines in GB differ according to the density of individuals during breeding, whereas Song *et al.* (2016) reported a change in the survival rate and body weight of GB depending on the type of food. Tsukamoto *et al.* (2014) revealed that female GBs tended to ingest a larger amount of food, particularly protein, after mating. In addition, several publications have reported beneficial effects of GB consumption on human physiological activity, mainly through protective effects against alcoholic and non-alcoholic liver disease, anti-obesity effects, anti-aging effects, and immunomodulatory effects (Ahn *et al.*, 2015; 2020; Hwang *et al.*, 2019; Im *et al.*, 2018; Seo *et al.*, 2004). However, no previous studies have attempted to

select superior lines of GB or analyzed the genetic diversity of GB reared in cricket farms.

To maximize the benefits of the edible insect industry, it is necessary to establish mass production technology, which in turn requires developing and distributing insect lines with excellent quality and developing a model for each development stage that can be installed in an automated breeding device. To this end, several populations of the species must be collected to understand their basic genetic characteristics and select superior lines according to their growth characteristics. In this study, we collected multiple populations of GB specimens raised in public institutions specializing in breeding and insect farms, then compared the developmental characteristics between populations and evaluated the genetic diversity of GB raised in South Korea.

Materials and Methods

Collection methods and breeding conditions

Eight GB populations (B101–B106, B111–B112) were obtained: the National Institute of Agricultural Sciences (B101); the Silkworm and Insect Management Center, Gyeongbuk Provincial Government (B111); and six insect farms in South Korea such as Thegonchung (Gyeonggi, B102), 153Farm (Gyeonggi, B103), Jipyongseon (Jeonbuk, B104), Saramgwagonchung (Gangwon, B105), Ramiaenbyeori (Gangwon, B106), and Hanbangmeogingonchung (Chungbuk, B112). In the population label, the first digit 'B' denotes *Gryllus bimaculata* and the second digit '1' indicates the population with traits related to developmental characteristics and fertility. The third and fourth digits together represent the number assigned by the National Institute of Agricultural Sciences (Wanju, South Korea). Six populations (B101–B106) were selected to compare differences in the developmental characteristics between populations of GB (developmental period and weight of the nymph stage, weight of adults, body length and width, survival rate between populations, and period from hatching to adults). After hatching, we compared the developmental characteristics from the first-instar nymph stage to the adult stage through two successive experiments. In the first experiment, we investigated the characteristics of each developmental stage. In the second experiment, group B105 was excluded because of death. To ensure equal growth conditions for all collected populations, we maintained the collected populations under specific breeding

conditions (i.e., 26 ± 1.0 °C, $60 \pm 5\%$ relative humidity, 9:15 h light:dark photoperiod) and compared the developmental characteristics of the second generation of offspring. Eggs were collected from 15 pairs of males and females per group three times per day. Eggs from the second and third sampling times were selected for the experiments. Forty individuals from each group were individually bred in insect-breeding jars (cat. No. 310122, 120×80 (mm); ventilation hole size, 40 mm; mesh hole size, 0.053 mm; SPL Life Science Co., Pocheon, South Korea) and predominantly fed a mixture of wheat bran and fishmeal (1:1) and bran (100%) alternately every three days (0.1 g for 14 days after hatching, 0.2 g from day 15 to day 35, and 0.7 g after day 36). For 35 days after hatching, hydration was provided by moistening the oasis with water to prevent drowning, and after 35 days, by moistening cotton with water. Radishes were provided as a supplementary food source.

Growth trial

The developmental period and weight of each stage were investigated in each group by checking the specimens daily for molting and then weighing the nymphs of each instar one day after molting to prevent mortality. The weight, body width, and length of the nymphs and adults were measured weekly.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS 27.0 statistical software (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Significant differences among the six populations (B101–B106) were analyzed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). If any significant differences were found, the means were then compared using a post-hoc Scheffé or Games-Howell test (depending on the homogeneity of variance).

Molecular analysis

A total of 99 individuals, with 10 to 18 per group, were selected from seven populations (B101–B104, B106, B111–B112, excluding B105) to analyze the genetic diversity; one field cricket (*Teleogryllus emma*) was included as the external group. For molecular analysis, total genomic DNA was extracted from the tarsi of the GBs, which were previously stored at -18 °C in a freezer in 20-ml tubes, using QuickExtract DNA Extraction Solution (QE09050, Lucigen, WI, USA).

For amplification of the mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase subunit I (*COI*) gene, 1 μ l of forward primer, 1 μ l of reverse

primer, 16–17 μ l of distilled water, and 1–2 μ l of DNA template were added to the analysis site with 5X PCR Premix (TP1230, GenomicsONE, Seoul, South Korea), which contains a tracking dye (bromophenol blue), recombinant Taq DNA polymerase, reaction buffer, MgCl₂, dNTPs mixture, and enzyme stabilizer. We used the universal primer set LCO1490 / HCO2198 (Folmer *et al.*, 1994) and set the PCR cycle as follows: 95 °C for 5 min, (95 °C for 30 s, 48 °C for 25 s, 72 °C for 45 s) \times 35 cycles, and 72 °C for 5 min. The PCR products were sent to Macrogen (Daejeon, South Korea) for purification and sequence analysis. All sequences obtained were aligned to approximately 658 bp by removing the primer binding site after aligning the forward and reverse sequences using Geneious Prime software (Geneious, CA, USA). Twelve foreign GB specimens available from GenBank and the Barcode of Life Data Systems (BOLD) were also analyzed. Pairwise genetic distance and neighbor-joining trees were calculated using the Kimura 2-parameter model (Kimura, 1980) in MEGA X (Kumar *et al.*, 2018). Bootstrap support values for each node were evaluated using MEGA X based on 1,000 replicates. Genetic distances were calculated using an uncorrected pairwise distance method (Srivathsan and Meier, 2012). Further, we constructed a median-joining haplotype network based on the COI gene sequences (COI barcoding region) using PopART (Leigh and Bryant, 2015). The output was processed in Adobe Illustrator.

Results

Developmental characteristics

We investigated the developmental period and weight of each nymphal instar stage and the weight, body length, and width of the adult stage for 145 individuals in six populations (Table 1). The average period for first-instar nymphs to reach the adult stage was 63.3 ± 4.9 days, or approximately two months. The developmental characteristics of the nymphs were also compared for each instar stage between the populations. All developmental stages showed statistically significant differences in the length of the developmental period between populations, except for the third and fourth nymphal instars (Fig. 1). However, we observed no statistically significant difference in the weight of each nymphal instar stage between populations (Fig. 2).

We observed a statistically significant difference in the survival rate between populations in the first experiment but not in the

Table 1. Developmental characteristics of *Gryllus bimaculatus* in each developmental stage

Developmental stage	Developmental period (days)	Weight (mg)	Body length (mm)	Body width (mm)
Nymphal instar	1	6.8±0.9	-	-
	2	5.9±0.8	2.6±0.6	-
	3	5.9±0.8	7.1±1.3	-
	4	6.4±0.7	14.6±3.3	-
	5	7.0±1.0	33.5±8.1	-
	6	7.9±1.2	77.9±18.1	-
	7	9.9±1.9	168.8±38.1	-
	8	12.4±2.3	361.2±81.9	-
	9	14.6±1.0	429.6±75.6	-
Adult (from 1st instar to the day of adult emergence)	63.3±4.9	670.9±119.0	24.3±1.2	6.7±0.5

Developmental period, weight, and adult body length and width are based on measurements of total 145 individuals from six populations (B101–B106). Values are the mean ± SD. Dash indicates not measured.

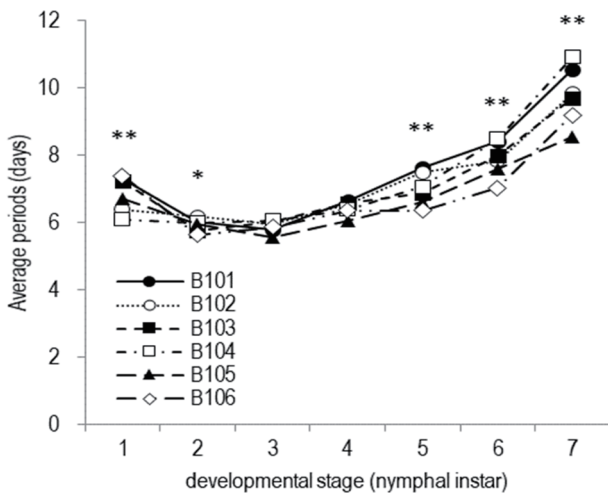


Fig. 1. Comparison of average nymphal periods among B101–B106 populations of *Gryllus bimaculatus*. Values are the means; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$ (determined by one-way analysis of variance).

second. The survival rate was highest for populations B103 and B104 in the first experiment and dropped sharply in group B105 from the third week (Fig. 3). The period from hatching to adulthood differed significantly between the populations in the first experiment, with populations B105 and B106 reaching the adult stage in the shortest time (Table 2). However, in the second

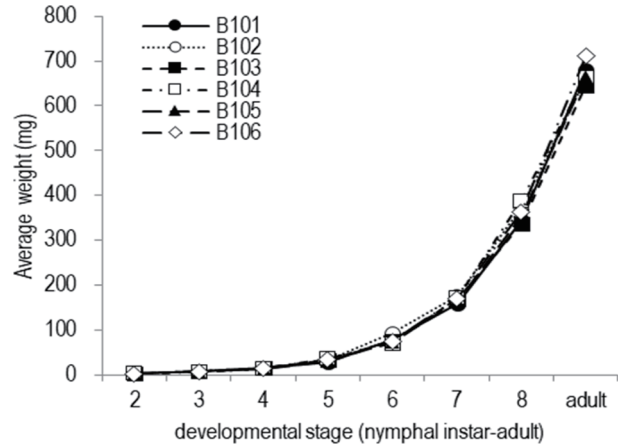


Fig. 2. Comparison of average nymph and adult weights by developmental stage for B101–B106 populations of *Gryllus bimaculatus* (Values are the means).

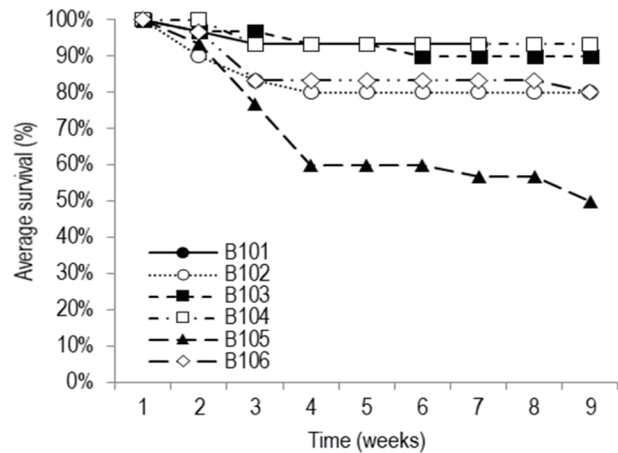


Fig. 3. Comparison of average nymphal survival rate among B101–B106 populations of *Gryllus bimaculatus* as a percentage of the total number of nymphs in that week ($n = 30$).

experiment, no statistically significant differences were observed between populations (Table 2). In the first experiment, no significant difference was found between populations regarding the weight of adults, whereas in the second experiment, B103 had the highest weight, with a statistically significant difference between populations (Table 2). The weight of nymphs by week showed a significant difference in almost all weeks, except for three weeks during the first experiment and two weeks during the second experiment (Figures 4 and 5). Around the eighth week, when the first adult was observed, B105 and B106 exhibited the highest weights in the first experiment (Fig. 4), whereas B103 and B104 exhibited the highest weights in the second experiment (Fig. 5).

Table 2. Comparison of survival rate, developmental period, and adult weight among six GB populations (B101–B106) in two experiments

Population	Survival rate (%)		Developmental period (days)		Adult weight (mg)	
	1 st	2 nd	1 st	2 nd	1 st	2 nd
B101	87 ^{ab}	83	67.6±5.9 ^c	60.6±3.3	680.2±128.7	679.0±148.8 ^{ab}
B102	80 ^{ab}	83	63.5±2.4 ^b	61.4±5.3	657.7±100.5	663.9±139.9 ^{ab}
B103	90 ^a	90	64.3±3.9 ^{bc}	58.4±4.0	642.6±125.3	769.2±166.1 ^a
B104	93 ^a	90	64.1±3.5 ^b	60.7±3.6	664.9±118.7	616.2±121.1 ^b
B105	50 ^b	-	58.9±4.1 ^a	-	673.2±115.8	-
B106	80 ^{ab}	83	59.9±2.7 ^a	61.0±2.7	711.1±120.6	623.5±124.8 ^b
p-value	**	0.816	**	0.097	0.467	**

Values are the mean ± SD. Dash indicates not applicable. ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05 (obtained by one-way analysis of variance); a–c superscript letters indicate significant differences according to Scheffé's multiple range comparison test at α = 0.05

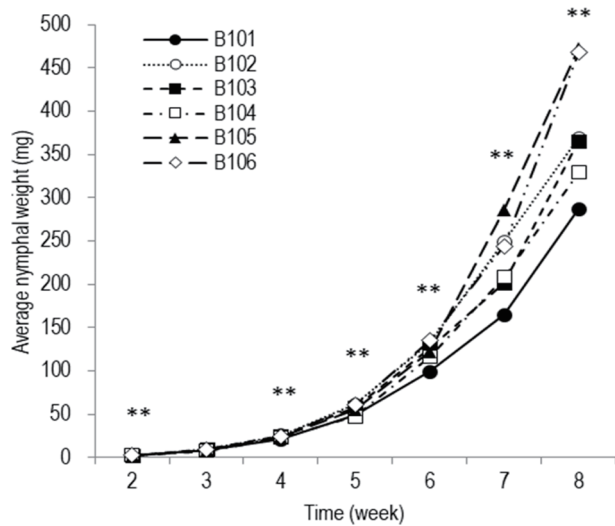


Fig. 4. Average nymphal weight among B101–B106 populations of *Gryllus bimaculatus*, determined weekly until eight weeks (when the first emergence of adults was observed). Values are the means; ** p < 0.01 (obtained by one-way analysis of variance).

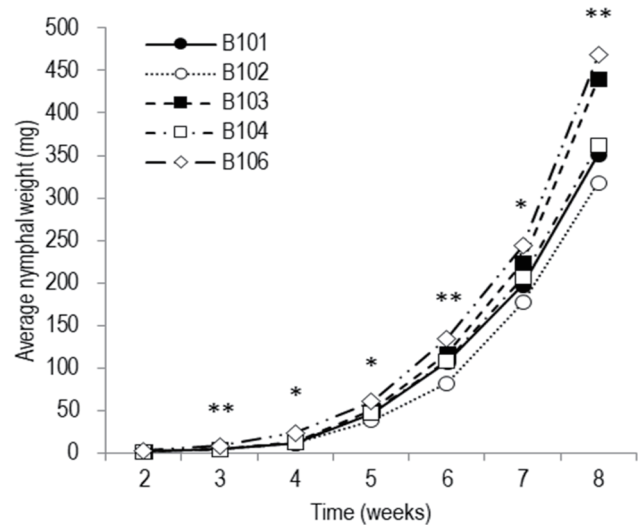


Fig. 5. Average nymphal weight among B101–B104 and B106 populations of *Gryllus bimaculatus*, determined weekly until eight weeks (when the first emergence of adults was observed). Values are the means; ** p < 0.01; * p < 0.05 (obtained by one-way analysis of variance).

Molecular characteristics

In total, we obtained 100 new sequences from seven populations (B101–B104, B106, B111–B112) of GB and one new sequence from *Teleogryllus emma* as an outgroup (653 bp of the partial COI gene region). All new sequences were deposited in GenBank (accession numbers: OP142775–OP142874, Table 3).

Within the 112 GB individuals, intraspecific genetic distances were low, ranging from 0.0% to 1.3%, as shown by the neighbor-joining tree (Fig. 6A, Table 4). In particular, GBs of the seven populations from South Korea had no genetic differences, with

an intraspecific genetic distance of 0.0% (Table 4), and were genetically consistent with those collected from Germany, China, and Indonesia, forming a lineage in the neighbor-joining tree (Fig. 6A). A genetic difference of 0.0–1.8% was observed between the GB populations from South Korea and those from other countries, with the largest between those collected from Pakistan and India (2.3 %, Table 4).

Haplotype network analysis detected a total of six haplotypes, and all populations collected in South Korea were identified as

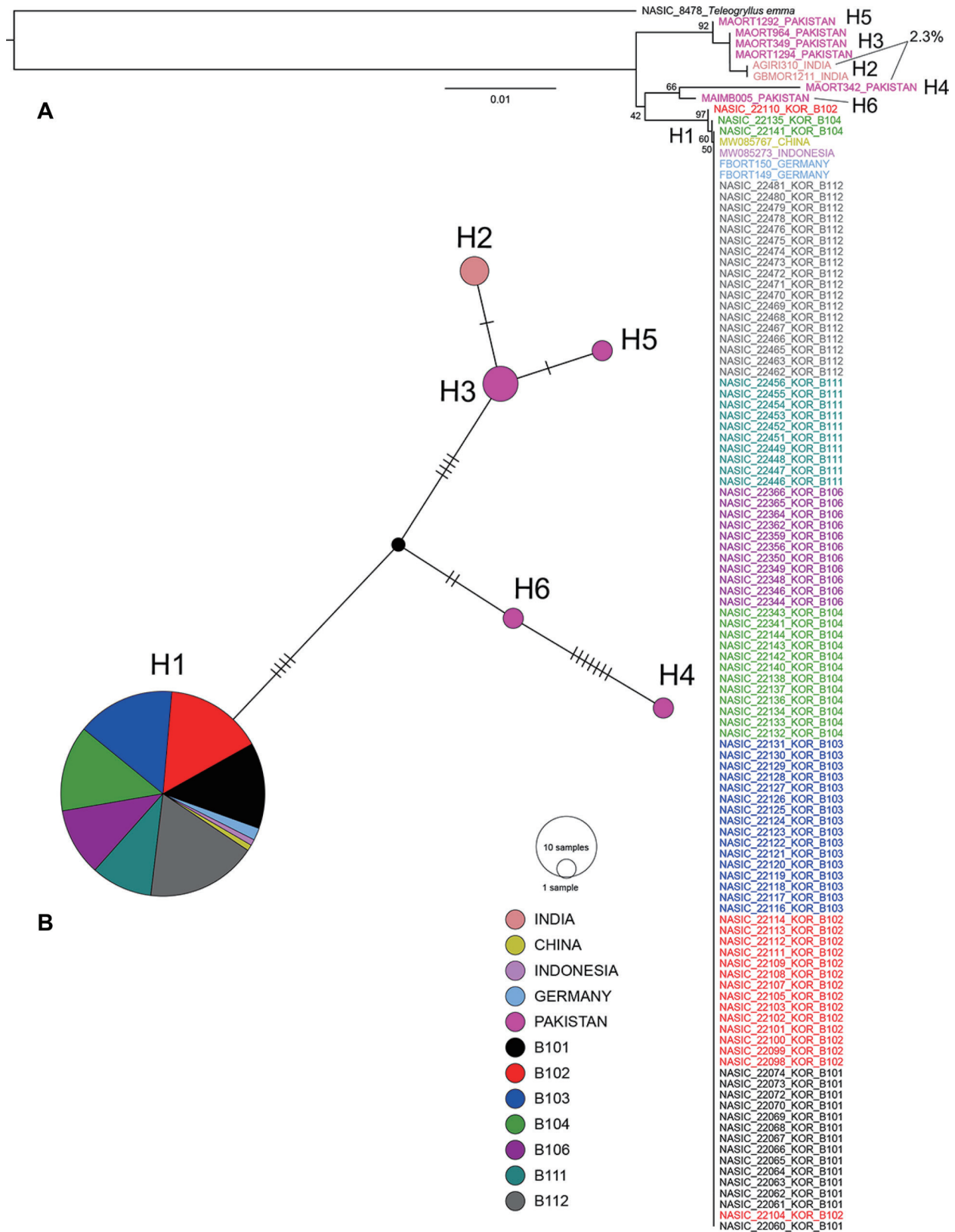


Fig. 6. (A) Neighbor-joining tree of 111 samples of *Gryllus bimaculatus* collected from five insect farms and two national insect rearing facilities, including 12 foreign samples. The tree shows six haplotypes distributed within the maximum intraspecific genetic distance of 2.3%. (B) Median-joining haplotype network for the *COI* gene. Populations from South Korea (B101–B104, B106, B111–B112) are differentiated by color, whereas other populations are separated by country.

Table 3. List of specimens investigated in this study, showing their locality data, population code, haplotype, voucher code, and GenBank accession number for COI.

Species	Population	Haplotype	NASIC voucher code	Collection locality	COI
<i>Gryllus bimaculatus</i>	B101	H1	22060–22074	Wanju, Jeonbuk, Korea	OP142775– OP142788
<i>G. bimaculatus</i>	B102	H1	22098–22114	Yangju, Gyeonggi, Korea	OP142789– OP142804
<i>G. bimaculatus</i>	B103	H1	22116–22131	Goyang, Gyeonggi, Korea	OP142805– OP142820
<i>G. bimaculatus</i>	B104	H1	22132–22343	Gimje, Jeonbuk, Korea	OP142821– OP142834
<i>G. bimaculatus</i>	B106	H1	22344–22366	Goseong, Gangwon, Korea	OP142835– OP142845
<i>G. bimaculatus</i>	B111	H1	22446–22456	Sangju, Gyeongbuk, Korea	OP142846– OP142855
<i>G. bimaculatus</i>	B112	H1	22462–22481	Jecheon, Chungbuk, Korea	OP142856– OP142873
<i>G. bimaculatus</i>	-	H1	-	Germany	FBORT149*
<i>G. bimaculatus</i>	-	H1	-	Germany	FBORT150*
<i>G. bimaculatus</i>	-	H6	-	Pakistan	MAIMB005*
<i>G. bimaculatus</i>	-	H5	-	Pakistan	MAORT1292*
<i>G. bimaculatus</i>	-	H3	-	Pakistan	MAORT1294*
<i>G. bimaculatus</i>	-	H4	-	Pakistan	MAORT342*
<i>G. bimaculatus</i>	-	H3	-	Pakistan	MAORT349*
<i>G. bimaculatus</i>	-	H3	-	Pakistan	MAORT964*
<i>G. bimaculatus</i>	-	H1	-	Indonesia	MW085273**
<i>G. bimaculatus</i>	-	H1	-	China	MW085767**
<i>G. bimaculatus</i>	-	H2	-	India	GBMOR1211*
<i>G. bimaculatus</i>	-	H2	-	India	AGIRI310*
<i>Teleogryllus emma</i>	-	-	8478	Wanju, Jeonbuk, Korea	OP142874

All sequences of *G. bimaculatus* and *Teleogryllus emma* in South Korea were newly generated for this study. *Sequences were downloaded from BOLD (Barcode of Life Data Systems). **Sequences were downloaded from GenBank.

Table 4. Inter- and intraspecific genetic differences in the two species *Gryllus bimaculatus* and *Teleogryllus emma* for COI (658 bp) calculated using p-distance.

Individual	Haplotype	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1 AGIRI310_INDIA	H2														
2 FBORT149_GERMANY	H1	0.015													
3 FBORT150_GERMANY	H1	0.015	0.000												
4 GBMOR1211_INDIA	H2	0.000	0.015	0.015											
5 MAIMB005_PAKISTAN	H6	0.011	0.010	0.010	0.011										
6 MAORT1292_PAKISTAN	H5	0.003	0.011	0.011	0.003	0.011									
7 MAORT1294_PAKISTAN	H3	0.002	0.013	0.013	0.002	0.010	0.002								
8 MAORT342_PAKISTAN	H4	0.023	0.018	0.018	0.023	0.011	0.023	0.022							
9 MAORT349_PAKISTAN	H3	0.002	0.013	0.013	0.002	0.010	0.002	0.000	0.022						
10 MAORT964_PAKISTAN	H3	0.002	0.013	0.013	0.002	0.010	0.002	0.000	0.022	0.000					
11 MW085273_INDONESIA	H1	0.015	0.000	0.000	0.015	0.010	0.011	0.013	0.018	0.013	0.013				
12 MW085767_CHINA	H1	0.015	0.000	0.000	0.015	0.010	0.011	0.013	0.018	0.013	0.013	0.000			
13 B101–112_KOREA	H1	0.015	0.000	0.000	0.015	0.010	0.011	0.013	0.018	0.013	0.013	0.000	0.000		
14 NASIC8478_Teleogryllus emma	-	0.120	0.120	0.120	0.120	0.122	0.120	0.122	0.128	0.122	0.122	0.120	0.120	0.120	

haplotype H1 (Fig. 6B), along with the German, Chinese, and Indonesian specimens (Fig. 6B). Specimens collected from Pakistan were identified as four different haplotypes (H3 to H6), and H3 was close to H2, which was the haplotype of specimens collected in India (Fig. 6, Table 3–4).

Discussion

To understand the developmental characteristics of GB, we measured the breeding performance of six populations grown in South Korea, compared the developmental characteristics among breeding populations, and performed preliminary experiments to select superior lines. Performance was compared by using two experiments for each developmental characteristic. Characteristics that differed between the populations included weekly nymph weight in the first and second experiments, developmental period and survival rate in the first experiment, and adult weight in the second experiment. Characteristics that did not differ between populations included the developmental period and survival rate in the second experiment and adult weight in the first experiment. As such, some characteristics exhibited statistically significant differences only in the first experiment or only in the second experiment. The only characteristic that showed a statistically significant difference in both experiments was the weight of the nymphs in each week, with group B106 exhibiting the highest nymph weight in week 8 (Figs. 4 and 5). Furthermore, regarding the developmental characteristics of nymphs by instar stage, which were investigated based on the molting date, we observed that the developmental period of each instar varied between populations, except for instars 3 and 4 (Fig. 1); however, no statistically significant difference in instar weight was found in any of the six populations (Fig. 2). Therefore, we believe that the difference in nymph weight between the populations results from the different developmental period for each nymphal instar. That is, populations B105 and B106 had a shorter development period for instar stages 5 to 7 than the other populations (Fig. 1), as well as higher growth rates at week 8 (Fig. 4). However, the results were not consistent, as differences in adult weight between populations were only observed in the second experiment (Table 2).

In recent years, as insects have emerged as a solution to the global shortage of protein sources, edible insects have

begun to attract the attention of many countries (van Huis *et al.*, 2013; Liu *et al.*, 2020; Moruzzo *et al.*, 2021; Riekkinen *et al.*, 2022; Rodríguez-Rodríguez *et al.*, 2022; Veldkamp *et al.*, 2022; Verneau *et al.*, 2021; Żuk-Gołaszewska *et al.*, 2022). As such, there are growing demands for high-performance lines that exhibit disease resistance (Grau *et al.*, 2017) and excellent growth to maximize the output (van Broekhoven *et al.*, 2015; Lee and Roh, 2010; Song *et al.*, 2018) of the edible food industry. In addition, the distribution of such lines to farms is very important in improving quality and increasing uniformity. In this respect, a superior line of GB requires the following characteristics: adult weight must be high at the time of shipment, the developmental period must be short to accelerate harvesting time, and the survival rate must be high to increase the production rate (Table 2). However, it was difficult to determine a superior group in this experiment. To solve this problem, more populations should be collected to verify the developmental characteristics of each generation through passage breeding. Despite differences between populations regarding the developmental period of each GB instar raised in South Korea, the weight was constant for each developmental stage. Therefore, we suggest measuring nymph weight as a method of identifying the corresponding instar stage and using the data to develop a GB growth model that can be installed in an automated rearing system.

We also analyzed the genetic diversity in seven GB populations raised in South Korea. All South Korean GB specimens belonged to a single haplotype, and no genetic differences were found (Fig. 6, Table 4). Compared to individuals from other countries, only a small difference of approximately 2% was observed, which can be attributed to genetic variations between individuals within the order Orthoptera (Kim *et al.*, 2022; Tantrawatpan *et al.*, 2011). We suggest that the low genetic diversity of Korean GB specimens is because the group imported from Japan for animal breeding in the early 2000s served as a maternal group for the current GB bred in South Korean farms and institutions (Park *et al.*, 2013; Rural Development Administration, 2014; 2017). As previously mentioned, this low genetic diversity may explain the lack of distinct developmental characteristics between populations. Even in the case of *Protaetia brevitarsis seulensis*, the most cultivated domestic edible insect, the genetic diversity of the farm breeding group is very low. Han *et al.* (2022) suggested that this phenomenon occurred because most breeding insects in farm households are obtained through exchange and

distribution between farms rather than collection, even for native domestic species. As the GB population size was small at the time of its introduction to South Korea, and its introduction period was relatively short, we believe that the low genetic diversity can be attributed to the breeding of a small number of individuals and their distribution between farms.

This low genetic diversity may be one of the factors that make domestic GB susceptible to disease. Indeed, the lower the genetic diversity within a species, the higher the probability of disease (Hughes and Boomsma, 2004; King and Lively, 2012; Spielman *et al.*, 2004). Therefore, it is necessary to increase the genetic diversity of GB, which is currently a promising insect resource in the domestic insect industry (van Huis, 2020; Kim *et al.*, 2019; Kim *et al.*, 2022; Song *et al.*, 2016), to maintain a healthy population. To this end, resources native to foreign countries should be secured and introduced into the country according to relevant quarantine procedures to ensure diversity of the group. Based on the result of this study, we first suggest Pakistan and India as candidates for GB-importing countries because these regions have haplotypes that have not been found in South Korea and have various haplotypes (Fig. 6, Table 3). Interestingly, Panagiotopoulou *et al.* (2016) previously reported the genetic hybridization of GB and *G. campestris* Linnaeus. Thus, crossbreeding of related species should be considered to increase the genetic diversity of domestic GB, which is estimated to be a single maternal line, as long as it poses no risks to the environment, economy, or public health.

In conclusion, Korean GB do not consistently differ in developmental characteristics between populations, which is thought to be related to their low genetic diversity. This study is the first attempt to compare developmental characteristics between populations of GB and understand their genetic diversity together and provides the basis for further research on selecting industrially useful, superior strains of GB.

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