

# DNA metabarcoding of prey reveals spatial, temporal and diet partitioning of an island ecosystem by four invasive wasps

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1	DNA metabarcoding of prey reveals spatial, temporal, and diet partitioning of an island
2	ecosystem by four invasive wasps
3	
4	Authors
5	Julia Marion Schmack <sup>1</sup> *, Gavin Lear <sup>1</sup> , Carmen Astudillo-Garcia <sup>1</sup> , Stéphane Boyer <sup>2</sup> , Darren
6	F. Ward <sup>1,3</sup> , Jacqueline R. Beggs <sup>1</sup>
7	
8	Affiliations
9	1. Centre for Biodiversity and Biosecurity, School of Biological Sciences, University of
10	Auckland, PB 92019, Auckland 1142, New Zealand
11	2. Institut de Recherche sur la Biologie de l'Insecte (IRBI) – UMR 7261 CNRS / 20
12	Université de Tours, Parc Grandmont, 37200 Tours, France
13	3. Landcare Research, PB92170, Auckland, New Zealand
14	
15	Phone: +64 27 4868644
16	Email: j.schmack@auckland.ac.nz
17	
18	Abstract
19	1. Invasive alien species can cause detrimental changes in native ecosystems, but our
20	understanding of the interactions between multiple exotic species is limited. To evaluate the
21	joint effect of multiple sympatric invaders on an ecosystem, we must first understand how
22	they interact with each other.
23	2. Here, we quantified the spatial distribution, dietary composition and overlap of four

24 invasive generalist vespid species (two Vespula and two Polistes) that co-occur on Ahuahu

off the north-east coast of New Zealand. We used DNA metabarcoding of larval faecalmaterial to identify prey species, and mapped the locations of nests.

3. We observed clear spatial partitioning, with different wasp species aggregating in different
habitats. Diet differed both among wasp species (diet partitioning) and among seasons
(temporal partitioning). There was stronger competition (highest diet overlap) between *V*. *germanica* and *V. vulgaris* than between other wasp species, but partitioning resources
minimised spatial and diet overlap between the four species.

4. Additionally, we obtained high-resolution diet inventories that help assess the combined
ecological impact of invasion by multiple wasps. These species consumed mostly native and
endemic invertebrates from multiple trophic levels, but particularly herbivores (Lepidoptera).
We provide direct evidence that in combination they exploited a wide range of endemic
invertebrates.

5. Synthesis and applications. Our study demonstrates resource partitioning among four
invasive wasps, facilitating coexistence of these generalist invaders. We conclude that
coexistence probably amplifies their ecological impact. Quantifying how multiple invaders
exploit and partition resources provides insights into how communities assemble and helps to
assess the cumulative effects of multiple invaders on the recipient community.

42

#### 43 Keywords

44 *Vespula, Polistes*, diet overlap, invasive species, environmental DNA, Lepidoptera, resource
45 competition, niche partitioning

46

#### 48 Introduction

49 A fundamental question in invasion ecology is how multiple invaders interact in native 50 ecosystems. When an invader colonises a novel habitat, one of the key factors for its success 51 is access to resources (Tilman, 2004; Stachowicz & Byrnes, 2006). Accordingly, the presence 52 of multiple invaders can result in competition between them. An invader may avoid this 53 competition by shifting its ecological niche (e.g. foraging behaviour, habitat use, or activity 54 patterns), thereby partitioning resources to minimise overlap with its sympatric counterpart 55 (Schoener, 1974; Shea & Chesson, 2002). In the absence of niche shifting, either or both 56 species may suffer deleterious effects (e.g. competitive exclusion, Gause, 1934; Griffen & 57 Delaney, 2007). Understanding the degree of interspecific competition and the mechanisms 58 that partition resources will provide insights into how communities assemble. It may also 59 help invasion ecologists to predict which invaders are likely to co-exist, and to assess the 60 cumulative effects of multiple invaders on the receiving community.

61 Invasive species can minimise competition with each other across many dimensions. 62 Competing species can coexist in one region by utilizing different habitats (spatial 63 partitioning, Chesson, 2000; Raby, Johnson, Kessel, Stewart, & Fisk, 2019). Species may 64 also avoid competition by exploiting different food resources (diet partitioning, Schoener, 65 1974; Takahashi et al., 2020). Finally, should species rely on the same resource – be it space, 66 food, or both - coexistence can be facilitated by exploiting this resource at different times 67 (temporal partitioning, Chesson, 2000; Valeix, Chamaillé-Jammes, & Fritz, 2007; Mori, 68 Ferretti, & Fattorini, 2019). Many studies have investigated resource partitioning between 69 invaders and their native counterparts to estimate ecological impacts of invasion (e.g. Junker, 70 Bleil, Daehler, & Blüthgen, 2010; Coccia et al., 2016; Culbertson & Herrmann, 2019). 71 However, comparatively few have asked how multiple invaders partition resources among themselves (e.g. Boyer & Rivault, 2006; Freed & Leisnham, 2014), despite the potentially
important role of resource competition in determining coexistence.

74 Darwin (1859) proposed that close relatives should compete more intensely with one 75 another than with distant relatives (competition-relatedness hypothesis, CRH), as they are 76 more ecologically similar regarding habitat use, food resources and predators. Darwin's 77 hypothesis could be applied to biological invasions in two ways. Firstly, phylogenetic 78 relatedness between invasive species and native species may predict the strength of 79 competitive interactions and subsequently the ecological impact of invasion. However, recent 80 studies are mixed in their support for this (Venail et al., 2014; Alexandrou et al., 2015; Tan, 81 Pu, Ryberg, & Jiang, 2015). Secondly, relatedness among multiple invaders should predict 82 the extent to which they compete with each other and thereby the probability of coexistence. 83 According to the CRH, competition should be strongest between closely related invaders, 84 resulting in either the displacement of the inferior competitor or niche partitioning. The 85 present study will help inform the debate about Darwin's hypothesis in regards to invader-86 invader relatedness.

87 Four invasive vespid species, Vespula vulgaris, V. germanica, Polistes chinensis 88 antennalis, and P. humilis, have established on New Zealand's 'mainland' and many of the 89 surrounding offshore islands (Beggs et al., 2011; Schmack et al., 2019; Schmack, Schleuning, 90 Ward, & Beggs, 2020). The specific invasion history of vespid wasps on New Zealand's 91 offshore islands is unknown, but all four species are found on many islands (Schmack et al., 92 2020) and they have been widespread throughout New Zealand for many decades 93 (Clapperton, Moller, & Sandlant, 1989). They outcompete the native community for 94 resources and prey heavily on native taxa (Beggs & Wardle, 2006; Beggs et al., 2011; Ward 95 & Ramón-Laca, 2013). Vespula and Polistes exploit carbohydrate resources such as 96 honeydew produced by scale insects (Beggs, 2001) and prey on invertebrates, with

97 Lepidoptera constituting one of their main protein resources (Beggs et al., 2011). Vespid
98 invaders are likely to compete strongly with each other because they have similar resource
99 requirements; demonstrated by competition between *Vespula vulgaris* and *V. germanica* for
100 honeydew resources in southern beech (*Fuscospora* spp.) forests (Harris, 1991; Harris,
101 Moller, & Winterbourn, 1994). However, little is known of the interactions in other habitats
102 or between other invasive vespid species introduced to New Zealand.

103 The co-occurrence of four invasive wasp species on a small offshore island provides a 104 unique opportunity to investigate resource partitioning among multiple closely related 105 invaders. Because small islands are typically species depauperate and host less complex 106 communities than mainland habitats of equivalent size (MacArthur & Wilson, 1963) they 107 offer model ecosystems for studying invasion ecology against a less complicated ecological 108 background (Wardle, 2002). By assessing the distribution of nests and diet of wasp species, 109 we examined whether these four generalist invaders partition resources.

110 We evaluated the interactions of four sympatric wasp species on an offshore island to 111 address the following research questions: (a) do the four species spatially partition the island? (b) do they partition food resources? To do this, we systematically mapped wasp nests in 112 113 seven different habitats on the island, and we collected larval faecal samples from the nests, 114 utilising next generation sequencing (NGS) of DNA to identify diet composition. Given New 115 Zealand's Lepidopteran fauna is characterised by an exceptionally high rate of endemism 116 (Hoare, 2010) and predation by invasive wasps represents a threat to indigenous biodiversity, 117 we additionally asked which invasive wasp species consumed the most endemic Lepidoptera. 118 Overall, this approach produces results at a high taxonomic resolution that can be utilised by 119 conservation practitioners to assess the ecological impacts of invasive species.

120

#### 121 Materials and methods

#### 122 *Study site and habitat types*

123 We collected Polistes and Vespula nests on Ahuahu (Great Mercury Island), an island off 124 north-eastern New Zealand (Fig. 1). We classified seven habitat types on Ahuahu based on 125 vegetation cover using the Land Cover Data Base v. 4.1 (Land Resource Information 126 Systems) coastal grassland; *Kanuka/Manuka* (*Kunzea ericoides*; *Leptospermum scoparium*) 127 forest; exotic pine *Pinus radiata* plantation with native undergrowth; native restorations; 128 residential gardens; clear-cutting; and mature native forest (dominated by Pohutukawa 129 Metrosideros excelsa, Kohekohe Dysoxylum spectabile, Puriri Vitex lucens) (Wright, 1976). 130 We used ArcGIS 10.5.1 (Environmental Systems Research Institute (ESRI) 2011) to 131 calculate the cumulative area covered by these habitat types (1830 ha) which comprised 98% 132 of the total island area (1860 ha). The remaining areas were sand and gravel.

133

### 134 Nest sampling

135 Two researchers searched 10 m x 500 m strip plots (0.5 ha) for nests during the peak of the 136 wasp season (March 2019). We covered approximately 70% of the island, allocating our 137 search effort proportional to the size of each habitat (Table 1) and avoiding inaccessible or 138 unsafe areas. Our search effort totalled 52 hours over nine days between 9 am and 7 pm when 139 foraging wasps were most active. We visually located nests by following the flight paths of 140 foraging wasps. GPS coordinates and habitat of each nest site were recorded. We collected 64 141 active nests (Table 1). Polistes nests were cut from branches or scraped off rocks and placed 142 in sealable plastic bags. Vespula nests were poisoned using a permethrin-based product 6 - 24 143 hours before being dug out of the ground and placed in sealable plastic boxes. All nests were 144 transported in chilly bins and stored at -20°C within 5 hours.

145

146 DNA extractions

147 Of the nests collected for the first part of this study, 51 were used to identify prey species that

148 adult wasps have fed their young over an entire wasp season. We collected three faecal 149 samples deposited at the base of a cell from each nest using tweezers, which were flame 150 sterilized before and after the collection of each faecal pellet to avoid cross-contamination. 151 Samples were collected from three nest layers containing different batches of brood 152 (Spradbery, 1973) to explore seasonal (early, mid, late) differences in prey composition (see 153 Supplementary Text S1, Fig. S1). One small nest of P. chinensis contained faecal matter 154 sufficient for one sample only. Samples were placed directly in microcentrifuge tubes and 155 disrupted for DNA extraction using a DNeasy Power Soil DNA extraction kit (Qiagen, 156 Germany) following manufacturers instructions, except for the bead-beating step where we 157 used a TissueLyser (Qiagen, Germany) at 30,000 rpm for 1 min. The DNA was extracted 158 following manufacturers procedures. DNA concentrations in the resulting eluates were 159 measured by fluorometry using a Qubit® with the dsDNA HS Assay Kit (Life Technologies, 160 Carlsbad, CA).

161

## 162 DNA amplification and sequencing

163 For DNA amplification, primers targeting a short (313 bp) gene region of the mitochondrial 164 gene COI were used (namely m1COIintF: 5'-TCGTCGGCAGCGTCAGATGTGTAT 165 AAGAGACAGGGWACWGGWTGAACWGTWTAYCCYCC-3'; Leray et al., 2013) and 166 HCO2198: 5'-GTCTCGTGGGCTCGGAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGTAAACTTCAGG 167 GTGACCAAAAAATCA-3'; Folmer, Black, Hoeh, Lutz, & Vrijenhoek, 2013). This primer 168 pair performs well across a range of metazoan samples (Leray et al., 2013), and has 169 successfully been used for faecal samples of Polistes (Lefort et al., 2020). Primers include the 170 Illumina adapter sequences (underlined) required for downstream sequencing. The following 171 PCR conditions were applied to our DNA templates: 12.5 µL KAPA HiFi Hotstart ReadyMix 172 (Kapa Biosystems, catalog number KK2602), 0.75 µL of each primer at 10 µM (mICOIintF 173 and HCO2198), 3.5 µL fecal DNA extraction and 7.5 µL PCR water to fill the reaction up to 174 25 µL. Negative controls containing DNA-free water instead of the DNA template were 175 included in all PCR runs. PCR cycling conditions were 95 °C for 3 min followed by 14 176 cycles of 95°C for 10 s, 62°C (- 1°C per cycle) for 30 s and 72 °C for 60 s. We then 177 conducted 25 cycles of 95°C for 10 s, 48°C for 30 s and 72°C for 60 s and a final elongation 178 of 7 minutes at 72 °C. PCR products were electrophoresed in 1 % agarose gel stained with 179 SYBR Safe (Thermo Fisher, US) and visualized by UV light. According to standard protocol 180 (Support Illumina 2016), PCR products were purified using ZR-96 DNA Cleanup kits (Zymo 181 Research). DNA concentrations in the resulting eluates were measured by fluorometry using 182 a Qubit<sup>®</sup> with the dsDNA HS Assay Kit (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA) and standardised 183 to 2 µM before being submitted to New Zealand Genomics Ltd. (Auckland, New Zealand) 184 for sequencing on an Illumina MiSeq instrument using 2-by-300-bp chemistry. Prior to 185 sequencing, a unique combination of Nextera XT dual indices (Illumina Inc., USA) was 186 attached to the DNA to allow multiplex sequencing; two sequencing runs were performed 187 with 151 samples multiplexed per sequencing run.

188

189 Bioinformatics

190 We used USEARCH v 10 (Edgar, 2010) for quality filtering of DNA sequences. Primer 191 sequences were removed by trimming 24 bp of each read and paired end reads were merged. 192 Merged reads were filtered using an expected error threshold of one and replicates removed 193 to identify unique sequences. Quality filtered reads were clustered at 100% identity to 194 generate zero-radius operational taxonomic units (zOTUs) using the UNOISE algorithm in 195 USEARCH. zOTUs were then compared to the Barcode of Life Database (BOLD). Only 196 zOTUs for which read relative abundance within a sample was higher than 0.5% of the total 197 reads per sample were retained to limit false positives. We used a conservative approach and kept only zOTUs identified at species level above the percentage identity of 98 %. We
checked suggested matches of Lepidoptera with a taxonomic index (Hoare, 2010). zOTUs
identified as terrestrial and aquatic invertebrates or vertebrates were used for further analysis,
while reads corresponding to fungi and plant DNA as well as *Vespula* and *Polistes* DNA
were removed to avoid contamination. We assigned prey as native, endemic, or exotic using
the New Zealand Organisms Register (www.nzor.org.nz).

204

205 Statistical analysis

All analyses were performed in RStudio; the main packages used were *vegan* (Oksanen et al.,
207 2019), *mvabund* (Wang, Naumann, Wright, & Warton, 2012), *EcoSimR* (Gotelli & Ellison,
208 2013) and *spaa* (Zhang & Zhang, 2013). To answer whether wasp species partition spatially,
209 we quantified whether the nests of a given species were more aggregated than expected by
210 chance alone using Stone and Roberts' (1990) c-score (see Text S2).

211 The model-based approach *mvabund* uses simultaneous generalized linear models 212 (ManyGLM; Wang et al., 2012), which specify the mean-variance relationship instead of 213 relying on the assumptions of a distance-based approach. We used multivariate generalised 214 linear models with binomial distribution to investigate differences in prey composition 215 among wasp species, seasonal samples and seasonal samples of a given wasp species. 216 Likelihood ratio tests (LRT) and resampled p-values were used to test effects of wasp species 217 and seasonality on diet composition In two different input data: a zOTU table containing 218 presence/absence of all prey species and a zOTU table containing presence/absence of 219 Lepidopteran prey species.

We quantified dietary niche width of wasps using Levin's index (Levin, 1968) and calculated trophic niche overlap between all pairs of wasp species (0 = no overlap, 1 =complete overlap) using the Pianka index (Pianka, 1973). We visualized diet overlap with network diagrams generated using the *bipartite* package (v.2.15, Dormann, Gruber, & Fründ,
2008). We calculated mean prey richness (number of species per sample) for each wasp
species and compared it among wasp species and nest layers, using a non-parametric
Kruskall-Wallis test and the non-parametric Dunn's test (*p*-values adjusted with the Holm
method) to determine significant differences between means.

When quantifying the ecological impact of wasps on the endemic community, we intentionally did not account for differences in sample size. Instead, we counted all endemic taxa identified as prey of the four wasp species.

- 231
- 232 Results

233 Spatial partitioning

234 We observed clear spatial partitioning among all four species of invasive wasps (Fig. 1, Table 235 1). Nests of all four species were significantly more aggregated than if they were randomly 236 distributed across habitats as expected under null simulation (*P. chinensis*,  $c_{observed} = 0.476$ , 237  $c_{simulated} = [0.824, 0.877], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001; P. humilis, c_{observed} = 0.429, c_{simulated} = [0.713, 0.964], p = 0.001;$ 238 0.001; V. germanica,  $c_{observed} = 0$ ,  $c_{simulated} = [0.667, 1]$ , p = 0.02; V. vulgaris,  $c_{observed} = 0.533$ , 239  $c_{simulated} = [0.783, 0.9], p = 0.001$ ). For V. vulgaris nests (n=16), 50% of nests occurred in 240 Kanuka/Manuka forest and 50% occurred in pine plantation. In contrast, V. germanica nests 241 (n=3) were only found in coastal grassland. Both P. humilis and P. chinensis nests were 242 exclusively found in open habitats. However, while P. chinensis occurred in four types of 243 open habitat (n=25 in coastal grassland, n=1 in residential gardens, n=9 in native restorations, 244 n=3 in clear cutting), P. humilis inhabited solely grassy habitats (n=5 in coastal grassland, 245 n=2 in residential gardens). No nests of any species were found in mature native forest.

248 DNA was successfully amplified and sequenced from 148 (n=67 for P. chinensis, n=24 for P. 249 *humilis*, n=9 for V. germanica, n=48 for V. vulgaris) of the 151 faecal samples (three samples 250 per nest, except for one small nest where faecal matter was sufficient for one sample only). 251 We obtained an average of 4703 DNA reads (± 497 SE) per sample. Out of 1,729 zOTUs, 252 262 (15%) could be assigned to species level using the Barcode of Life Database (BOLD); 253 85% yielded no match and were discarded before analysis. Seven zOTUs were assigned to 254 the four predators (n = 2 P. chinensis, n = 2 P. humilis, n = 2 V. vulgaris, n = 1 V. 255 germanica), and were discarded prior to analysis to account for potential cross-256 contamination. We identified 105 species belonging to 16 orders of animals (Table 2). 257 Individual faecal samples contained between one and six prey orders and between one and 17 258 prey species (Table S1, for a list of prey species per wasp species). Out of the 105 identified 259 prey species, 59 (i.e. 56%) occurred exclusively in the diet of different wasp species and only 260 10 were shared among all four wasp species. Lepidoptera, Diptera and Hymenoptera were 261 important prey orders consumed by all four wasp species (Fig. 3). Of the 105 prey species 262 identified, 44 (42%) were endemic, 18 (17%) were native and 41 (39%) were exotic. For two 263 prey species, their status in New Zealand could not be identified (Amblyseius sp. JCS08, 264 Spilomelinae gen. spiloBioLep01). Lepidoptera comprised the majority of identifications (46 265 taxa) and occurred in 95% of all samples (Table 2). Of the 45 Lepidopteran species 266 identified, 18 were endemic species, 12 were native, 14 exotic and one was of unknown 267 status (Spilomelinae gen. spiloBioLep01).

Rarefaction curves (Fig. 2) with the samples collected for this study did not reach an asymptote, suggesting that more prey species could have been identified with more samples. *V. germanica* had particularly few samples (n=3 nests equivalent to 9 samples). Nevertheless, we are confident that although diets may be incomplete, the main prey taxa were detected. Furthermore, indices used to compare diets among wasps (i.e. speciesrichness, niche width) are calculated taking sample size into account.

274

#### 275 Diet and temporal partitioning

Diet composition (at the zOTU level) differed significantly between wasp species and seasonal samples (Table 3, Fig. 3). The diet of each wasp species varied across seasonal samples, indicating a change in prey species detected as the season progressed. Lepidoptera diet composition (at the zOTU level) differed significantly between wasp species and seasonal samples (Table 3, Fig. 3). The Lepidopteran diet of each wasp species varied across seasonal samples, indicating a change in Lepidopteran prey species detected as the season progressed.

283

### 284 *Comparison of diet composition*

285 Average prey richness per sample varied significantly among wasp species (Chi = 39, p =286 0.001) (Table 4, Fig. 4). P. chinensis fed on fewer species than V. germanica (z = -3.09, p =287 0.005) and V. vulgaris (z = -5.96, p < 0.001). P. humilis fed on fewer species than V. vulgaris 288 (z = -2.80, p = 0.01). Niche width (Table 4) and overlap varied among wasp species (Fig. 5). 289 V. germanica had the widest and V. vulgaris the narrowest trophic niche. Pianka index for 290 trophic niche overlap was highest between V. germanica and V. vulgaris (0.68). It was lowest 291 between P. chinensis and V. vulgaris (0.27) as well as between P. humilis and V. vulgaris 292 (0.27). Trophic niche overlap was 0.33 between P. chinensis and P. humilis, 0.45 between P. 293 chinensis and V. germanica, and 0.3 between P. humilis and V. germanica.

Lepidoptera were an important part of the diet of all wasp species, although they consumed different families and species (Fig. 3, Fig. 5). While *P. humilis* and *P. chinensis* preyed predominantly on Geometridae (80% and 46%, respectively), *V. germanica* and *V.*  *vulgaris* consumed mainly Tortricidae (37% and 57%, respectively) (Fig. S2). Lepidopteran prey richness per sample differed significantly among wasp species (*Chi* = 18, p = 0.001), as did niche width (Table 4) and overlap of Lepidopteran diet. *P. chinensis* fed on fewer Lepidopteran species than *V. vulgaris* (z = -4, p < 0.001) and *P. humilis* (z = -3, p < 0.05). This trend was not significant in *V. germanica* (z = -1, p > 0.05). *P. humilis* had the widest and *V. vulgaris* the narrowest Lepidopteran trophic niche.

*V. vulgaris* consumed the most endemic species overall (n=36) and the most endemic Lepidoptera species (n=16). In contrast, *V. germanica* fed on 12 endemic species, of which five were endemic Lepidoptera. *P. humilis* and *P. chinensis* consumed 10 and 15 endemic species respectively, of which eight and seven were endemic Lepidoptera (Fig. 6).

307

#### 308 Discussion

309 We provide evidence of spatial, trophic and temporal partitioning among four 310 invasive social wasps co-occurring on Ahuahu, New Zealand. Using DNA metabarcoding, 311 we identified 105 prey species in the seasonal diet of the four wasp species. This highlights 312 the large number of species, particularly Lepidoptera, that are potentially impacted when 313 generalist introduced predators co-occur. Although we could not assign the majority of 314 zOTUs to species level, we did reveal trophic interactions with soft-bodied species that would 315 have been impossible to detect using morphological techniques. For example, we recorded 316 the basket-cocoon parasitoid Meteorus pulchricornis and their Lepidopteran hosts (Berry & 317 Walker, 2004) in the same samples for all four wasp species. It is likely that wasps preyed on 318 Lepidoptera larvae parasitised by *M. pulchricornis* rather than directly preying on the 319 parasitoid. Our interpretation of wasp diet is a conservative description because of the limited 320 availability of reference sequences for New Zealand, particularly for endemic species. This 321 improves the robustness of our ecological conclusions (Calderón-Sanou et al., 2019) although we note that differences in barcoding efforts for taxonomic groups may have led toover- or underrepresentation of some groups.

324

#### 325 Spatial partitioning

326 Wasps partitioned Ahuahu spatially as different wasp species aggregated in different habitats. 327 Only two out of seven habitat types were occupied by more than one wasp species. Maximum 328 overlap occurred in grassland habitat, where P. chinensis, P. humilis and V. germanica were 329 present. Mature native forest was not utilised by any species, but we did find V. vulgaris nests 330 in both the more open exotic pine plantation and in native Kanuka/Manuka forest that had an 331 abundant honeydew resource produced by the endemic scale insect *Coelostomidia wairoensis* 332 (Gardner-Gee & Beggs, 2012). This is consistent with prior research suggesting that dense 333 canopy cover without honeydew resources inhibits wasp invasion on islands (Schmack et al., 334 2020). P. chinensis was the only species found in native restorations and clear cutting, which 335 are human-modified habitats characterized by young native vegetation and recent succession 336 of exotic weeds, respectively. P. humilis nests were less abundant than P. chinensis nests and 337 restricted to grassy habitat.

338 Spatial partitioning may result from intense competition between closely related 339 species. V. germanica was only found in coastal grassland. It is probably displaced from 340 Kanuka/Manuka forest by V. vulgaris competing for honeydew. Competitive exclusion in this 341 habitat is in line with earlier studies from New Zealand's honeydew-producing southern 342 beech (Fuscospora spp.) forests, which demonstrated that V. vulgaris outcompetes V. germanica for honeydew (Harris, 1991; Harris et al., 1994). The co-existence of both Vespula 343 344 species at broader spatial scales suggests alterations to other aspects of their niche, preventing 345 total displacement (Crowder & Snyder, 2010).

#### 347 *Diet and temporal partitioning*

348 There was also evidence of both diet and temporal partitioning amongst the four wasp 349 species. Seasonal changes in diet composition are likely due to seasonal differences in prey 350 availability. For example, the second most consumed species in our study was Plantain moth 351 Scopula rubraria, which are most abundant from summer to mid-autumn (Gerard, Philip, 352 Ferguson, & Eden, 2017). We recorded twice as many occurrences of S. rubraria in late 353 season samples compared to earlier in the season. We have interpreted a difference between 354 nest layers/circles as a seasonal difference in diet. However, an alternative explanation is that 355 differences between layer/circle may instead reflect differences in DNA degradation over 356 time. Further research is needed to resolve this, but we have no reason to expect that DNA 357 degradation would vary within taxa (such as Lepidoptera). Trophic partitioning has been 358 demonstrated in a range of closely related sympatric species. For example, partitioning of 359 food resources allowed invasive round gobies Apollonia melanostoma and bighead gobies 360 Neogobius kessleri to coexist in the Danube river (Borza, Erős, & Oertel, 2009). Similarly, 361 diet partitioning occurred in four sympatric Gomphocerinae grasshopper species in subalpine 362 grassland in the French Alps (Ibanez et al., 2013). Future assessments on whether an 363 introduced species will establish should consider the potential for resource partitioning with 364 other species.

*Polistes* are known to feed predominantly on Lepidoptera (Kasper et al., 2004; Todd et al., 2015; Ward & Ramon-Laca, 2013), while *Vespula* also consume other invertebrates such as Diptera and Araneae (Harris & Oliver, 1993; Kasper et al., 2004). Our research confirms this, but we also show that the four wasp species partition within Lepidoptera; while both *Polistes* mainly fed on Geometridae, *V. germanica* and *V. vulgaris* mostly consumed Tortricidae. This contrasts with *Polistes* in New Zealand kiwifruit orchards, which collected more Noctuidae rather than Geometridae (Todd et al., 2015). We suggest that the diet of 372 generalist Vespids reflects differences in prey availability in different habitats and seasons,373 although foraging preferences likely play a role as well.

374 Prey richness and niche width differed considerably among wasp species. V. 375 germanica had the most species rich diet and the widest trophic niche, while both Polistes 376 species had a relatively narrow niche. Likewise, V. germanica in Australia had a wide niche 377 that entirely included the comparatively narrow niche of P. humilis (Kasper et al., 2004). 378 Theoretically, the species with an included niche must be a superior competitor for the shared 379 resource on a per capita basis to coexist with its more generalist counterpart (Chase, 1996; 380 Guevara & Avile's, 2011). Our findings are consistent with theoretical predictions about 381 included niche and may at least partly explain why V. germanica, P. humilis and P. chinensis 382 can coexist in the same habitat. Alternatively, our results could demonstrate that instead of 383 being the stronger competitor, *P. humilis* avoids competition with *V. germanica* by separating 384 spatially.

385 We observed the highest diet overlap between V. vulgaris and V. germanica, 386 indicating stronger competition between these closely related species than between Vespula 387 and Polistes. This supports Darwin's (1859) competition-relatedness hypothesis. In contrast, 388 we found P. chinensis shared more prey species with V. vulgaris than with its congeneric P. 389 humilis. In fact, other studies also show that phylogenetic relatedness does not always predict 390 the nature and strength of competition among species (Venail et al., 2014; Alexandrou et al., 391 2015; Lyu, Liu, Venail, & Zhou, 2017), but rather that species interactions and resource 392 overlap shape the assembly and evolution of communities (Wilcox, Schwartz, & Lowe, 393 2018).

394

395 *Ecological impact* 

396 Coexistence of multiple generalist invaders is likely to intensify their ecological effect 397 (Crowder & Snyder, 2010). The four wasp species in our study fed on a broad range of both 398 herbivores (e.g. Lepidoptera) and predators (e.g. Araneae), potentially affecting the native 399 community on multiple trophic levels. Furthermore, the majority of prey species were 400 endemic or native to New Zealand. By partitioning resources, the four species in combination 401 would impact a wide range of endemic species in the ecosystem. Vespula vulgaris are known 402 to cause ecological damage to New Zealand's native ecosystems (Beggs et al., 2011), 403 particularly to the Lepidopteran fauna (Beggs & Rees, 1999). We conclude that coexistence 404 of V. vulgaris and three other vespid wasps probably amplifies their ecological impact 405 because they partition resources spatially and trophically.

406

#### 407 *Conclusion*

408 DNA metabarcoding of faecal material revealed novel insights into the nature and strength of 409 trophic interactions among four sympatric social wasp species. We conclude that these 410 invaders were avoiding competition with each other by shifting their ecological niche, 411 partitioning resources to minimise overlap with their counterparts. There was stronger 412 competition (highest diet overlap) between V. germanica and V. vulgaris than between other 413 wasp species. Indeed, in one habitat we found evidence of competitive exclusion between the 414 two Vespula species, probably because of competition for honeydew resources. In contrast, P. 415 chinensis shared more species with V. vulgaris than with its congener P. humilis. We 416 therefore provide further evidence that competitive interactions and resource overlap rather 417 than taxonomic relatedness shape the structuring of ecological communities. We suggest 418 coexistence of these generalist invaders on Ahuahu intensified their ecological effect, 419 particularly on endemic Lepidoptera that comprised a large part of the diet of all wasp 420 species. By providing a better understanding of resource partitioning by these four generalist

- 421 species, we have gained an improved assessment of the total ecological impact when there
- 422 are multiple invaders.

423

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### 431 Authors' Contributions

432 JMS and JRB designed the study. JMS collected wasp nests, performed laboratory analysis,

433 analysed the data, prepared the figures and led the writing. SB provided the method. GL and

- 434 CAG supported laboratory analysis. All authors contributed critically to the drafts and gave
- 435 final approval for publication.

## 436 Data Availability Statement

- 437Data available via the Dryad Digital Repository https://doi:10.5061/dryad.r4xgxd2bq
- 438 (Schmack et al., 2021). .
- 439
- 440
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Table 1. Number of wasp nests of P. chinensis, P. humilis, V. germanica, and V. vulgaris collected from seven habitat types on Ahuahu off the

east coast of New Zealand. For each habitat type, we give its size, the proportion of the total island area it covers, the search effort spent finding

Habitat type	Size		Search effort		Number of nests per species				
	[ha]	[%]	[h]	[%]	P. chinensis	P. humilis	V. germanica	V. vulgaris	
Coastal grassland	683	37.3	15	28.9	26	6	3	0	
Residential garden	2	0.1	2	3.9	1	2	0	0	
Clear cutting	5	0.3	2	3.9	3	0	0	0	
Native restorations	38	2.1	4	7.7	7	0	0	0	
<i>Kanuka/Manuka</i> forest	297	16.2	9	17.3	0	0	0	8	
Pine plantation	772	42.2	18	34.6	0	0	0	8	
Mature native forest	29	1.6	2	3.9	0	0	0	0	

nests and its proportion of the total search effort for the whole island. Table 2. Numbers and percentages of prey identified from 148 wasp faecal samples of four invasive vespid wasps co-occurring on Ahuahu off

637 the east coast of New Zealand: Polistes chinensis (Pc), P. humilis (Ph), Vespula germanica (Vg) and V. vulgaris (Vv). The most common taxa

638 for each order and the number of samples it was identified from is given, along with its status in New Zealand.

Order (# species)		Percentage	e of total die	et		Number	of prey tax	a	Most common species (# samples it was recorded in)	NZ Status
	Pc	Ph	Vg	Vv	Pc	Ph	Vg	Vv		
Number of nests	24	8	3	16	24	8	3	16		
Number of samples	70	24	9	48	70	24	9	48		
Insecta										
Lepidoptera (45)	77	87.5	46.9	62	27	19	13	31	Ctenopseustis obliquana (72)	endemic
Hymenoptera (6)	2.8	7.2	3.1	5.2	5	3	2	6	Meteorus pulchricornis (22)	exotic
Diptera (13)	3.2	2	22.4	5.2	3	2	8	10	Oxysarcodexia varia (21)	exotic
Hemiptera (8)	7.3	0	9.2	11.5	6	0	2	4	Kikihia ochrina (43)	endemic
Orthoptera (3)	0	0	8.2	0.2	0	0	2	1	Hemiandrus pallitarsis (6)	endemic
Coleoptera (2)	0.6	0	0	0.2	1	0	0	1	Eucolaspis sp. PRCD2015c (2)	endemic
Neuroptera (2)	0	0	0	2.5	0	0	0	2	Wesmaelius subnebulosus (6)	exotic
Psocodea (2)	1.3	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	Liposcelis paeta (4)	exotic
Annelida										
Haplotaxida (1)	0.3	0	0	0.2	1	0	0	1	Enchytraeus buchholzi (2)	exotic
Mollusc										
Stylommatophora (1)	0	0	0	0.2	0	0	0	1	Athoracophorus bitentaculatus (1)	endemic
Octopoda (1)	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	Argonauta nodosa (1)	native

Arachnida										
Araneae (12)	1.6	0	5.1	12.6	2	0	3	12	Eriophora pustulosa (28)	native
Mesostigmata (2)	0	2	0	0	0	2	0	0	Amblyseius sp. JCS08 (2)	exotic
Opliliones (1)	0.3	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	Phalangium opilio (1)	exotic
Vertebrata										
Rodentia (1)	5.7	1.3	0	0.2	1	1	0	1	Mus musculus (21)	exotic
Charadriiformes (1)	0	0	3.1	0	0	0	1	0	Chroicocephalus novaehollandiae (3)	native

Table 3. Analysis of deviance tables for differences in diet among four invasive wasp species
(*P. chinensis*, *P. humilis*, *V. germanica* and *V. vulgaris*); seasonal samples across all wasp
species and seasonal samples of each wasp species are given. Differences were calculated
among all prey and within the main prey order Lepidoptera.

	Prey cor	nposition	Lepidopterar	Lepidopteran prey composition		
	LRT	р	LRT	р		
Wasp species	1508.5	0.001***	1084.9	0.001***		
P. humilis	125.41	0.001***	89.88	0.001***		
V. germanica	189.03	0.001***	75.96	0.001***		
V. vulgaris	306.43	0.001***	219.79	0.001***		
Time of season	424.0	0.002**	224.6	0.039*		
Mid-season	75.71	0.006**	43.81	0.002**		
Late season	97.29	0.002**	69.81	0.001***		
Wasp species x Time of season	224.1	0.003**	164.9	0.001***		
P. humilis x mid season	41.93	0.007**	32.97	0.003**		
V. germanica x mid season	28.90	0.006**	13.45	0.032*		
V. vulgaris x mid season	31.82	0.008**	22.07	0.005**		
P. humilis x late season	26.17	0.004**	21.97	0.003**		
V. germanica x late season	26.47	0.003**	9.00	0.127		
V. vulgaris x late season	29.91	0.008**	19.21	0.003**		

Table 4. Diet indices of *P. chinensis*, *P. humilis*, *V. germanica* and *V. vulgaris* based on DNA
metabarcoding of faecal samples collected from nests on Ahuahu, New Zealand. Given are
the mean prey species richness and Levin's index of trophic niche width. This was calculated
for all prey taxa and for only Lepidopteran prey taxa.

Species	Prey richness	Niche width	Lepidopteran prey	Lepidopteran	
	(±SE)		richness (±SE)	niche width	
P. chinensis	$4.73\pm0.05$	9.54	$3.64\pm0.04$	6.02	
P. humilis	$6.33\pm0.16$	11.13	$5.54\pm0.15$	8.48	
V. germanica	$10.89\pm0.76$	16.56	$5.11\pm0.38$	5.94	
V. vulgaris	$9.27\pm0.08$	9.32	$5.75\pm0.06$	3.53	

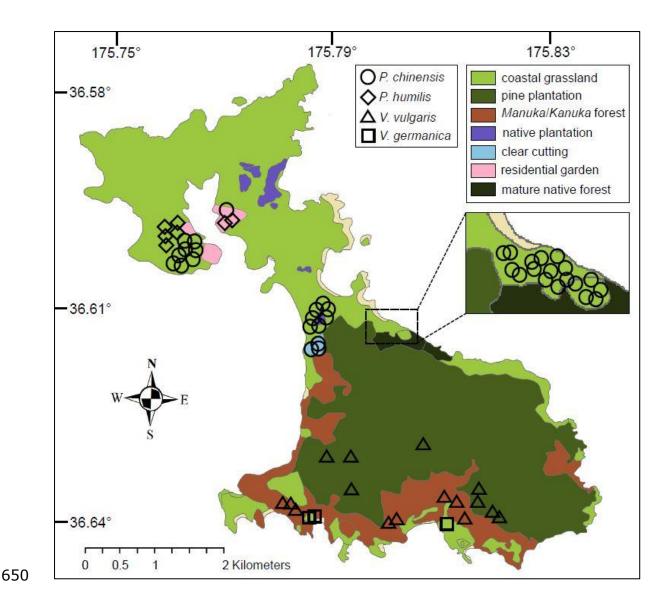


Figure 1. Location of nests of four invasive wasp species (*Polistes chinensis*, *P. humilis*, *Vespula vulgaris* and *V. germanica*) systematically searched for on Ahuahu, located 9 km off
the north-east coast of New Zealand. The pale cream colour denotes sand/gravel, a habitat
that was not included in this study.

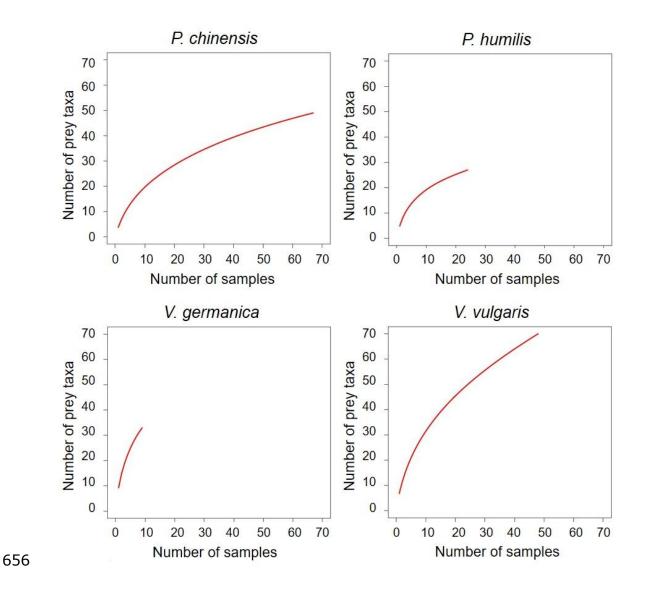


Figure 2. Rarefaction curves of prey taxa identified in faecal samples collected from vespidnests on Ahuahu, New Zealand.

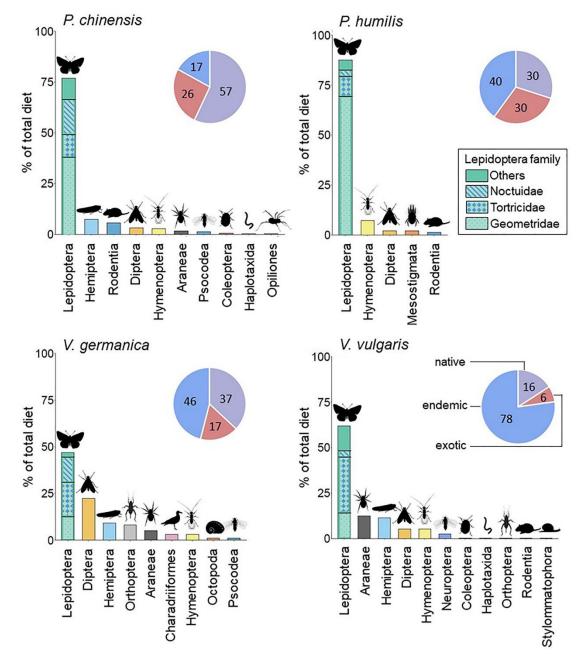


Figure 3. Diet composition (% prey taxa detected) of four invasive vespid species inhabiting
Ahuahu, New Zealand. The Lepidopteran families detected are also shown. Pie charts show
the percentages of endemic, native and exotic Lepidoptera taxa.

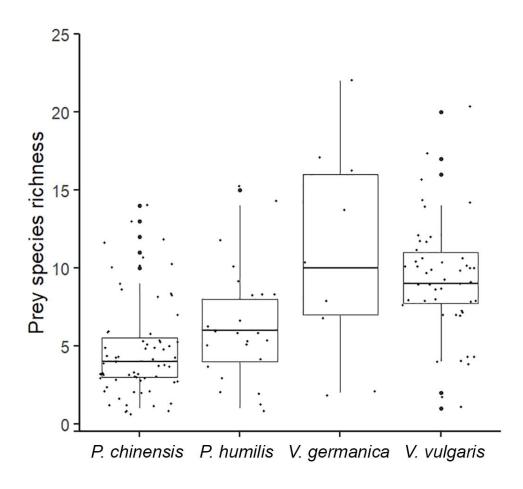


Figure 4. Boxplot of mean prey richness per sample identified in faecal samples from *P*. *chinensis* (n=70), *P. humilis* (n=24), *V. germanica* (n=9) and *V. vulgaris* (n=48). Presented
are 25th and 75th percentiles (lower and upper box boundaries), median (line inside box) and
10th and 90th percentiles (lower and upper error lines).

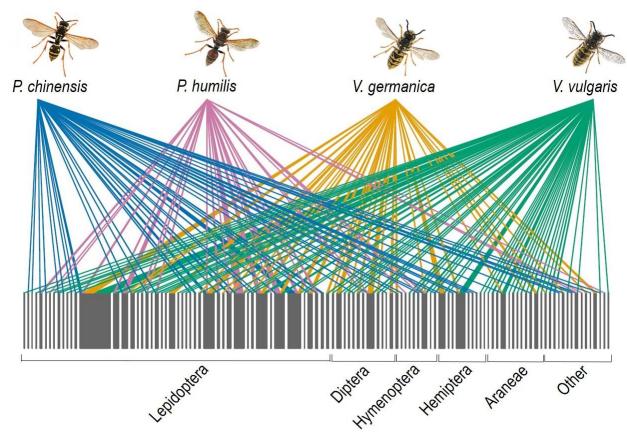


Figure 5. Network diagram showing the diet overlap between four invasive wasp species coexisting on Ahuahu. Presented are the nature (denoted by grey bars) and strength (denoted by thickness) of predation on 105 prey species identified from faecal samples. Note that strength of predation is proportional to sample size. Photos of wasps courtesy of Bryce McQuillan.

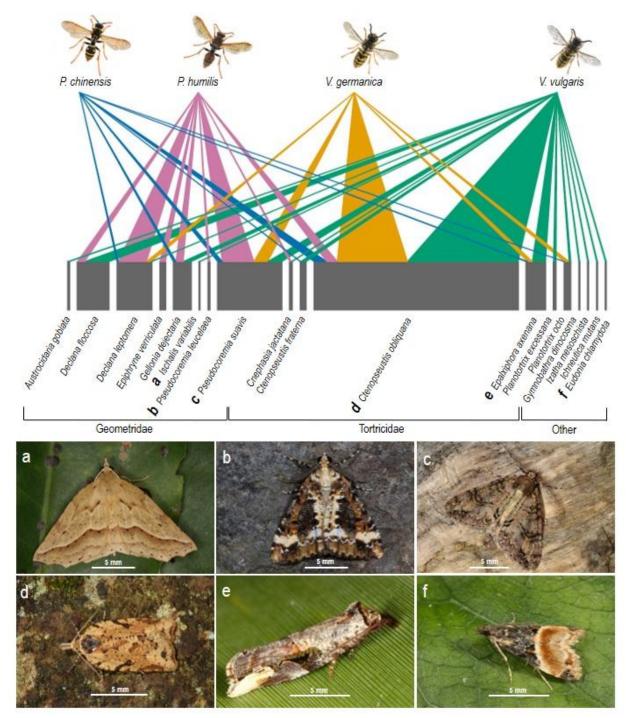


Figure 6. Network diagram showing the predation of endemic Lepidopteran species by four
invasive wasp species coexisting on Ahuahu. Presented are the nature (denoted by grey bars)
and strength (denoted by bar thickness) of predation on 18 endemic Lepidoptera identified
from faecal samples. Note that strength of predation is proportional to sample size. Photos of
wasps and Lepidoptera courtesy of Bryce McQuillan and Olivier Ball, respectively.