- Female body size, weight and fat storage rather than nestmateship determine male attraction
- 3 in the invasive yellow-legged hornet Vespa velutina nigrithorax
- 4 CAPPA F. 1,\*, CINI A. 1,2, PEPICIELLO I. 1, PETROCELLI I. 1 and CERVO R. 1
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9 In the early stage of the invasion process, alien species may face costs linked to pioneer effect due 10 to genetic bottleneck, drift and the consequential inbreeding depression. Thus, introduced species 11 that show an immediate exponential growth in their invasive population should have some 12 mechanisms to reduce such costs minimizing the chance of inbreeding or allowing them to cope 13 with them. The yellow-legged hornet Vespa velutina nigrithorax has been spotted in France in 14 2004; since then, the species has been invading Europe with a relentless pace. In their native range, 15 males and reproductive females of a Chinese non-invasive sub-species of V. velutina seem to leave 16 their nests to search for unrelated partners. However, previous studies showed a low genetic 17 diversity and a high rate of diploid males in colonies of the invasive population, suggesting that 18 mating could occur inside nests, where males should be able to discriminate between reproductive 19 gynes and sterile workers. Here, we used laboratory behavioural assays to investigate the mating 20 preferences of yellow-legged hornet males from the recent invasive population in Italy. We 21 assessed the importance of nestmateship and female morpho-physiological traits, likely indicators 22 of caste, in determining male attraction towards potential partners. Our results demonstrate that 23 males are more attracted to bigger females with more abundant fat storage, good indicators of 24 female reproductive caste in wasps, regardless of nestmateship. Our findings represent a first step in 25 understanding the reproductive biology of V. velutina nigrithorax in its invasive range, providing a 26 framework for future research in the field to prevent or reduce the species expansion.

KEY WORDS: invasive alien species, nestmate recognition, reproductive biology, Asian hornet.

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Running head: Male reproductive attraction in Asian hornets

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- 35 Highlights
- **-** We investigated mating preferences of invasive hornet males under laboratory standard conditions
- Males attraction was influenced by female caste, with more attraction toward reproductive females
- Unexpectedly, males were not more attracted by non-nestmate females than nestmate ones.
- Our results might explain the high level of inbreeding found in invasive populations of *V. velutina*

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41 INTRODUCTION

Invasive species and their management have represented a major issue in recent years (Chapin et al. 2000; Lowe et al. 2000; Mooney & Cleland 2001). As the volume of global trade has expanded enormously in the last decades, so has the risk of invasive alien species (IAS) reaching new regions with dramatic consequences in terms of biodiversity, ecosystem services' loss and economic or public health issues (Lonsdale 1999; Mooney & Cleland 2001; Levine & D'antonio 2003; Lockwood et al. 2005; Pejchar & Mooney 2009). Thus, it is important to understand the processes that promote and accompany the spread of introduced IAS to find sustainable management solutions (Sakai et al. 2001; Lee 2002; Allendorf & Lundquist 2003; Mehta et al. 2007; Pyšek & Richardson 2010).

The invasion process can start with either a single introduction or multiple introductions over time of a scant number of individuals able to endure sudden habitat transitions (Lee 2002).

Because of their low number, introduced individuals might likely face reproduction via inbreeding, which could strongly affect their fitness by allowing for the expression of deleterious recessive alleles and decreasing allelic diversity within the gene pool in the emerging population (i.e. inbreeding depression) (Fonseca et al. 2000; Tsutsui et al. 2000; Rasner et al. 2004). Thus, in order to be successful in their invasion, IAS should present effective mechanisms to either avoid or minimize inbreeding, or be able to cope with its costs (Sakai et al. 2001; Lee 2002; Frakham 2005). Unfortunately, the mating behaviour in IAS pioneer populations is relatively understudied, as research often focuses on other aspects of the invasion process such as population genetics related to the rapid spread or IAS impact in the invaded range (Sakai et al. 2001; Lee 2002; Davidson et al. 2011).

Eusocial Hymenoptera are especially successful IAS because of their reproductive strategies and social habit (Moller 1996; Hingston & McQuillan 1999; Chapman & Bourke 2001; Holway et al. 2002; Paini & Dale Roberts 2005; Inoue et al. 2008; Beggs et al. 2011). A single mated queen can found a new colony and its social organization, with a considerable number of sterile workers engaged in rearing and defending the immature brood and the production of a high number of reproductive individuals each season, can favour the rapid establishment of a new population (Moller 1996; Holway et al. 2002; Beggs et al. 2011).

However, small colonizing populations may face difficulties due to the production of genetic 'misfits' known as diploid males (Whiting 1933; Liebert et al. 2010), which pose fitness costs to the colony because they consume resources without contributing to colony productivity, and are functionally sterile (Liebert et al. 2004). Diploid males are produced because of the Hymenopteran complementary sex determination (CSD) mechanism, which requires heterozygosity at sex-determining loci to produce normal diploid females (Crozier 1971; van Wilgenburg et al. 2006). Homozygosity at these loci results in diploid males instead of females (Whiting 1933, 1943). Individuals in an incipient invasive population may at first have limited or no access to unrelated partners and the fitness costs of not mating is likely to be greater than producing a reduced worker

brood alongside diploid males (Liebert et al. 2010). Thus, for individuals may be advantageous to have a low acceptance threshold for inbreeding avoidance when choosing their potential mates (Starks et al. 1998a, 1998b; Liebert et al. 2010) and this characteristic could contribute to the success of invasive species.

Among the IAS which have recently invaded Europe, one causing major concern is undoubtedly the Asian yellow-legged hornet, *Vespa velutina nigrithorax* (Monceau et al. 2014). The alien hornet was accidentally introduced into Europe from China probably in a single event (Arca 2012), and was first observed in 2004 in South-West France (Rortais et al. 2010; Monceau et al. 2014). The species poses serious concerns both from the ecological and economic point of view, with its impact on both wild and managed pollinators populations as well as on native competitive species (Shah & Shah 1991; Tan et al. 2007; Gallai et al. 2009; Villemant et al. 2011; Cini et al. 2018), and for public health, since the hornet is adapted to nest in urban environments (Choi et al. 2012) and its sting can induce severe allergic reactions, resulting in organ failure and death (Choi et al. 2012; Liu et al. 2015). Thus, it is of crucial importance to know the biology of the invader in order to adopt the most successful strategies for managing it with the lowest impact on native species communities (Mehta et al. 2007; Beggs et al. 2011).

To date, however, scarce information is available on the reproductive behaviour of *V. velutina nigrithorax* both in its native and invasive range (Monceau et al. 2014). In the invasive populations it has been hypothesized that mating could occur inside the nest because of the high rate of diploid males and inbreeding in the European population (Monceau et al. 2014; Darrouzet et al. 2015). Moreover, aggregations of courting males, observed in other Vespinae species (Matsuura & Yamane 1990; Ross & Carpenter 1991; Wen et al. 2017) have never been described in the invasive population of *V. velutina nigrithorax* (Monceau et al. 2014; Darrouzet et al. 2015), although males of a different Asian subspecies of *V. velutina* distributed in Yunnan are attracted in the field by a volatile sex pheromone produced by the sixth intersegmental sternal glands of virgin gynes (i. e. reproductive females) (Wen et al. 2017).

Here, we use behavioural bioassays in the laboratory to investigate the first phase of the reproductive behaviour of the invasive *V. velutina nigrithorax*, by focusing on the male attraction towards females to assess the potential effect of nestmateship and physiological features (weight, body size, fat stores) linked to caste in the male search for a potential partner. Reproductive gynes start to emerge in Autumn, after the emergence of males (Monceau et al. 2014; Darrouzet et al. 2015; Rome et al. 2015), while workers are still present inside the nest. Thus, males are likely to encounter and interact with female nestmates of both castes inside their colonies. Since mating with a related nestmate female may be detrimental for males and the two female caste greatly differ in their reproductive potential, with only reproductive gynes providing males with a return in terms of fitness, we might expect *V. velutina nigrothorax* males to prefer non-nestmate females over nestmates and to distinguish between female castes preferring bigger reproductive gynes compared to sterile workers (Liebert et al. 2010; Cappa et al. 2013; Beani et al. 2014).

Given the recent arrival and rapid spread of the species starting from a very low number of individuals (Arca 2012), disentangling the variables influencing the mating behaviour of the yellow-legged hornet might provide useful insights into the mechanisms regulating reproduction in an alien species in the first phases of the invasion process, which, hopefully, might help in preventing or reducing its spread.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

## Sample collection

V. velutina nigrithorax males and females issued from laboratory reared combs belonging to four different field colonies located at least 9 Km apart. Combs were collected in Liguria region in Autumn 2015 and 2016. Combs were transferred to the laboratory and maintained under standard laboratory condition (natural daylight cycle, 25 °C) in closed cages. Everyday newly emerged adults were sexed and transferred into separate male and females exclusive glass cages (size 15 × 15 cm) where they were fed with ad libitum water and sugar until behavioural tests. Each cage

contained a comb fragment (around 20 empty cells) from the hornets' nest of origin to allow the newly emerged individuals to acquire the chemical cues and form a template for nestmate recognition as occurs in other social wasps (Gamboa et al. 1986; Signorotti et al. 2014). Daily removal of newly emerged hornets guaranteed male and female virginity as well as knowledge of adult age.

### Behavioural assays

We assessed male attraction toward females by comparing interest of groups of focal males towards different stimuli: (a) nestmate female, (b) non-nestmate female, (c) non-nestmate male as control. Focal male groups were transferred to a transparent plastic experimental cage (size  $20 \times 13 \times 12$  cm). Cages had a round Ø 6 cm steel mesh  $(1.5 \times 1.5 \text{ mm})$  at the centre of the top roof, 3 cm from the cage sides. Groups consisted of five nestmate males, aged between 10 and 20 days, in order to have sexually mature males (see Poidatz et al. 2017). After 10 min of habituation, the stimulus, i.e. female or male hornet, was introduced in a Ø  $2.5 \times 5$  cm plastic tube over the mesh and the trial started. Stimuli were free to move within the tube during the trial and mesh density  $(1.5 \times 1.5 \text{ mm})$  allowed male antennae to stick through and directly come into contact with the stimulus body on the other side of the screen. Focal males were presented with one of three stimuli (a, b or c) and their antennation rate under the stimulus was evaluated. We chose antennation as a clear sign of male interest towards the presented stimulus (Cappa et al. 2013). All the individuals used as stimuli (N = 56: 15 males, 41 females) were apparently healthy when tested. Males were used from 1 to 3 times; females used from 1 to 5 times.

As an index of male interest towards the different stimuli, we recorded the number of males antennating in the  $\emptyset$  2.5 cm circle of wire mesh under the stimulus every minute for 10 min An (antennation score, AS: total number of males observed antennating during the 10-min trial as the sum of antennating males at each of the 10 check per trial; AS score could range from 0, no male antennating during checks, to 50, all five males antennating at each check). After 10 min the

stimulus was removed. Trials were performed during the central hours of the day (11 am—3 pm) when males were more active, in October, when both workers and reproductive gynes are present in the nests (Monceau et al. 2014; Rome et al. 2015). Overall we tested 29 five-male groups, belonging to 3 colonies, for a total of 172 trials of 10 min. Each group was tested in a random order with all the stimuli.

#### Female caste assessment

After behavioural trials, females used as stimuli (N = 41) were weighted on KERN PCB 350-3 scale, dissected under a Wild M5A stereomicroscope and the presence of fat bodies was assessed. In *V. velutina* female caste is hard to recognize and morphological differences between castes have been expressed in various ways (Rome et al. 2015; Pérez-de-Heredia et al. 2017). Some authors have reported differences linked to the capability of gynes to overwinter using female weight, both wet and dry, and fat storage to distinguish between workers and gynes (Monceau et al. 2014; Rome et al. 2015). Also the mesoscutum width (MW), from tegula to tegula. is often used as parameter to discriminate castes in some Vespidae species (Noll et al. 2004; Felippotti et al. 2009; Felippotti et al. 2010; Pérez-de-Heredia et al. 2017). Given the relative degree of uncertainty linked to each single measure, we decided to combine different parameters (see below) by using weight and fat storage alongside MW (index of overall linear size) of each female stimulus as potential indicators of caste (Noll & Zucchi 2002; Ohl & Thiele 2007; Beani et al. 2011; Pérez-de-Heredia et al. 2017).

# Statistical analysis

In order to account for the non-independence of data we used a generalized estimating equations (GEE) approach, which extends the generalized linear model in order to allow the analysis of correlated observations, such as occurs for clustered data (Burton et al 1998). Moreover

GEE are robust even when the error structure model is unknown and/or misspecified, and are more relaxed on distributional assumptions (Overall & Tonidandel 2004; Hubbard et al. 2010). For both GEEs, we selected the final model on the basis of the "quasi-likelihood under the independence model" criterion QIC, by choosing the model parameters that provided the smallest QIC (Pan 2001).

We first assessed whether male were more attracted by females (i.e. higher number of antennations below female stimulus) than by male stimuli. We did it by using a GEE with the following parameters: antennation score as dependent variable; Negative binomial distribution with log link function; independent working correlation matrix; fixed effect: stimulus sex; subject effect: focal male group, stimulus identity, and nest trial (repeated trials for the different focal male groups) as intra-subject effect.

We then focused only on trials with female stimuli to assess the importance of individual weight, mesoscutum width, presence/absence of fat bodies and nestmateship (i.e. whether the stimulus came from the same colony of the focal males). As individual weight, mesoscutum width, presence/absence of fat bodies were positively correlated (Pearson correlation test, Weight X Mesoscutum width: r = 0.862, P < 0.001, n = 37; Weight X Fat body: r = 0.786, P < 0.001, n = 37; Mesoscutum width X Fat body: r = 0.724, P < 0.001, n = 37; Fig. 1) we used principal component analysis to create a single predictor explaining most variance of the three original individual features (86.1% of variance explained, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.727) retaining the first principal components (hereafter female physical condition, FPC). Weight, mesoscutum width, presence/absence of fat bodies had loadings of 0.953, 0.930, 0.899 respectively). We used the following model parameters in GEE: antennation score as dependent variable; Negative binomial distribution with log link function; independent working correlation matrix; fixed effect: female physical condition, nestmateship and the interaction between nestmateship and female physical condition; subject effect: focal male group, stimulus identity and

nest trial as intra-subject effect. All analyses used a model-based estimater and a type III analysis. Stastistical Analyses were performed in SPSS 20.0 (SPSS 2011).

210 RESULTS

Overall antennation response was rather low, with at least one antennation present only in the 34 % of the tests. Antennation score was higher when the stimulus was female than when it was a male (Wald  $\chi^2 = 21.111$ , df = 1, P < 0.001, estimated marginal means  $\pm$  SE: Female stimuli 2.212  $\pm$  0.220; male stimuli: 0.292  $\pm$  0.125). When considering only trials with female stimuli, antennation score was significantly affected by female physical condition (Wald  $\chi^2 = 69.329$ , df = 1, P = 0.002) with heavier, larger females with fat bodies evoking a higher antennation response (Fig. 2). Neither nestmateship nor the interaction between nestmateship and female physical condition were significant (respectively Wald  $\chi^2 = 1.688$ , df = 1, P = 0.194; Wald  $\chi^2 = 2.206$ , df = 1, P = 0.137).

221 DISCUSSION

Our results demonstrated that males respond differentially to the presented stimuli showing a higher interest towards those females which could provide the highest potential return in terms of fitness, regardless of nestmateship.

As expected, males in our laboratory bioassays were more attracted to females than males, preferring bigger heavier females, with more abundant fat storage, compared to smaller ones. Vespinae wasps usually show morphological differences between female castes, with reproductive females being larger than workers (Jeanne & Suryanarayanan 2011). However, not all species present the same degree of caste differentiation. In the genus *Vespa* some species, such as *Vespa mandarinia*, *V. affinis*, *V. crabro* or *V. simillima*, have castes characterized by clear size separation. By contrast, hornets like *V. tropica* and *V. analis*, show an overlap of caste sizes (Matsuura & Yamane 1990). Also in *V. velutina nigrithorax*, female caste is hard to recognize (Pérez-de-Heredia

et al. 2017), however, as in other temperate social wasps (Spradberry 1973; Strassmann et al 1984; O'Donnell 1998; Toth et al. 2009; Perrard et al. 2012) reproductive gynes, that are the only females surviving winter, are usually bigger and show more abundant fat bodies, whereas smaller workers, that do not overwinter, have very scarce or absent fat bodies. Female body size, weight and fat storage appear therefore as reliable indicators of female caste (Strassmann et al 1984; Hunt et al. 2007, 2010; Cervo et al. 2008; Toth et al. 2009). Thus, the observed male preference for bigger heavier females, with more abundant fat storages, might due to the fact that such females are the more likely to survive the winter diapause and found a new colony the following season, as in other Vespidae species (Hunt et al. 2007, 2010; Cervo et al. 2008), and we may expect males to have evolved accurate systems to detect the most suitable partners. Moreover, it seems likely that reproductive females could actively signal their condition, while there might be a lack of male-attractive signal production by non-reproductive workers (Wen et al. 2017); thus, variability in female signal production may underlies the difference in male interest response towards the two female castes.

Due to the conditions of our laboratory set-up, we were able to highlight mainly short-range attractiveness. The observed male attraction towards putative reproductive females could be due to short-range chemical cues, such as cuticular hydrocarbons (CHCs), which can be perceived at distances of few cm (Ferveur 2005; Saïd et al. 2005). It is possible that males walking around the cage could sense the cuticular blend of receptive females inside the tubes through the separating mesh. Indeed, CHCs of *V. velutina nigrithorax* differ according to caste and sex (Gévar et al. 2017). Also in the European hornet, *Vespa crabro*, males are attracted by caged reproductive gynes or workers treated with gynes extracts, suggesting the cuticular alkenes and methyl-branched compounds, different between the two castes, as short-range sexual attractants (Spiewok et al. 2006).

Contrary to expectations, our males did not show any preference for non-nestmate females over nestmates ones. This lack of preference together with the alleged intra-nest mating could

explain the very low genetic diversity and high level of male diploidy observed inside V. velutina nigrithorax colonies in the European invasive range (Monceau et al. 2014; Darrouzet et al. 2015). If mating takes place, at least in part, inside the nest, males may rely on CHCs as chemical cues to identify receptive females. Such hypothesis is corroborated by the fact that yellow-legged hornet males present an olfactory subsystem for CHCs perception similar to females (Couto et al. 2017). However, also long-range attractants, such as the putative sex pheromone recently identified in the other V. velutina Asian subspecies (Wen et al. 2017), could be at work in the attraction process. In fact, males might leave the nest in order to find receptive gynes attracting them away from their nests via sex pheromones (Wen et al. 2017). Thus, males would not need to discriminate female caste and nestmateship in order to find the most suitable partner. Although we did not observed any clear sign of immediate attraction towards the preferred females, which could be expected in the case of rapidly spreading volatile sex attractants, it is possible that our laboratory setting may have influenced the results. Indeed, both female and male hornets in our behavioural assays emerged in the lab and they did not experience field conditions. This might have had an impact on their sexual behaviour, which might require other triggers that we were not able to reproduce under laboratory conditions, especially if males leave the nest in search for receptive females emitting sex pheromones (Wen et al. 2017). Finally, inbreeding avoidance could also be the result of a separate decision that occurs after attraction. Males might be attracted via a long-distance sex pheromone, but then copulation could be inhibited by nestmate chemical or behavioural cues upon the initiation of mating behaviour, therefore avoiding inbreeding. Although males were able to contact the body of the stimuli through the mesh, they could not directly interact with them, it is therefore possible that behavioural interactions between the two potential partners might prevent or favour successful copulations (e.g. females might actively reject mating attempts from nestmate males).

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Overall, our findings deepen the knowledge on the reproductive behaviour of this invasive species investigating for the first time the extent of male sexual preference by *V. velutina nigrithorax* males. Our results show that males from an invasive population of *V. velutina* 

nigrithorax do not seem capable of nestmate recognition in a sexual context. We might hypothesize that in the invasive population the chemical distance among nests' signature mixtures, although present (Gévar et al. 2017) may be less marked than in the native population because of the high rate of inbreeding, not providing males with the cues needed for nestmate discrimination. Such hypothesis, however, is unlikely, since the chemical signature of the invasive population of V. velutina nigrithorax is quite heterogeneous with each colony, caste, and gender characterized by a specific CHC profile (Gévar et al. 2017). Alternatively males could have not evolved the ability to recognize nestmates when choosing a mate in their invasive range: in native populations, nestmate recognition at natural mating sites may not be of great importance due to a lower probability of encountering relatives in the field where females seem to attract males from a distance via sex pheromones (Wen et al. 2017). However, the absence of inbreeding avoidance by males and the consequent costs could be counterbalanced by the relative degree of polyandry recorded in V. velutina nigrothorax queens, which could compensate the low genetic diversity due to the single introduction event and inbreeding inside nests (Arca 2012; Monceau et al. 2014). Comparative studies examining acceptance thresholds for mating with relatives and chemical signature differences among colonies across native and invasive populations would help illuminate whether colonizing populations do indeed shift their mate acceptance thresholds in a new environment. Overall, our findings, although limited by the laboratory settings, give new insights in the understanding of the largely unknown reproductive biology of the yellow-legged hornet in its invasive range. Further research should aim at investigating male attraction also in the field, even if the task may not be easy since current management practice call for an early detection and destruction of nests.

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326	F. Cappa, A. Cini, I. Pepiciello and R. Cervo conceived and designed research. A. Cini, F. Cappa, I.
327	Pepiciello and I. Petrocelli performed the assays and collected the data. A. Cini analyzed the data.
328	F. Cappa and A. Cini wrote the manuscript. All authors read and approved the manuscript. F.
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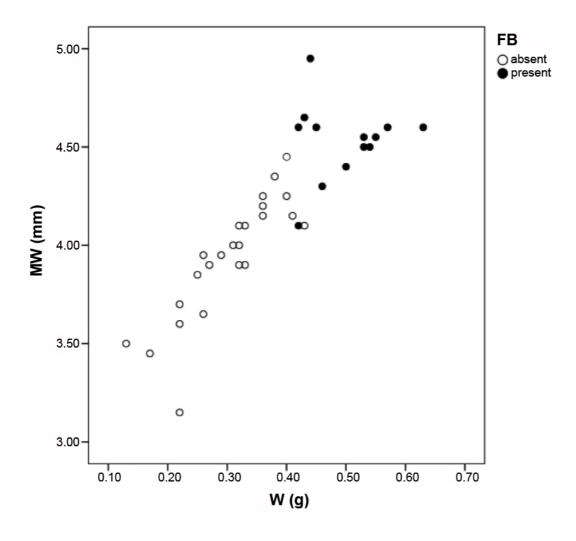
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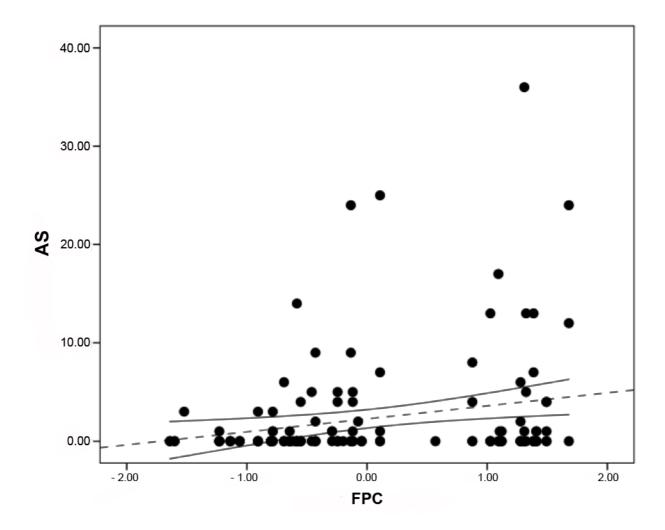
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Fig. 2. — Differences in antennation score (AS) by focal males according to the physical condition (defined as in the text, higher values of FPC means heavier, larger females with more developed fat bodies) of the females presented as stimuli. Solid and dotted lines respectively represent linear regression line and 95% confidence interval.



604 Fig.1



606 Fig.2