1	Trophic niche variation and niche overlap between invasive mrigal carp and native mud
2	carp in southern China
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23 Abstract

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25 The ecological impacts of freshwater invasive fishes can develop through elevated interspecific competition where they share similar resources to native species, but with this potentially 26 mitigated by high resource availability. The trophic ecology of invasive mrigal carp Cirrhinus 27 mrigala and native mud carp Cirrhinus molitorella were assessed in the Pearl River, Southern 28 China, through application of DNA metabarcoding (based on the 18S rDNA V4 region) on 29 samples collected across the basin in both the wet and dry seasons between 2019 and 2021, 30 31 enabling assessment of their trophic niche variation and niche overlap versus prey diversity across time and space. Both fishes were revealed to have diets comprising of items including 32 algae, ciliates, arthropods, plants and rotifers, with the extent of their niche overlap varying 33 34 according to both the year and season of sampling, but being highest during the 2021 dry season. Whilst there was a positive association between prey diversity (described by the ecological 35 opportunity) and population niche width (PNW), this was not significant, with the negative 36 relationships between PNW and interspecific niche overlap suggesting interspecific 37 interactions were constraining the ability of the species to increase their niche sizes during 38 periods of limited resource diversity, and indicating the importance of resource availability in 39 determining the extent to which invasive and native species will compete for resources. These 40 results thus demonstrate that the dynamic nature of the trophic interactions of these fishes, 41 indicating the importance of considering temporal and seasonal variability within invasion risk 42 43 screening processes and impact assessments.

45 Introduction

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Biological invasions are a substantial driver of environmental change and economic damage at 47 global scales (Crystal-Ornelas and Lockwood 2020, Haubrock et al. 2021, Leroy et al. 2022), 48 with freshwater ecosystems being especially susceptible to invasion (Gallardo et al. 2016). 49 Ecological impacts from freshwater invaders include the adverse consequences of elevated 50 inter-specific competition that can result from the invading population (Gozlan et al. 2010). 51 The strength and direction of ecological impacts from elevated competition is then dependent 52 53 on the extent to which the invader and native species exploit similar prey resources, coupled with prey resource availability (Tran et al. 2015, Jackson et al. 2016). High convergence in 54 resource use of native species and the invader on limiting prey resources could result in intense 55 56 asymmetric competition, where the weaker competitor will potentially be competitively excluded from their trophic niche through having to exploit alternative prey to maintain their 57 energetic requirements (Huxel 1999, Britton et al. 2018, Britton 2022). 58

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The range of prey resources exploited by a consumer species can be described through their trophic niche width (Roughgarden 1972), where the diversity of available prey resources that could contribute to the trophic niche is referred to as the ecological opportunity (Sánchez-Hernández et al. 2021). The ecological opportunity of a population has been assumed to be constrained by its competitors (Van Valen 1965), but is also affected by the effects of seasonality in rivers (e.g. differences in prey availability in wet versus dry and summer versus winter) (Xenopoulos and Lodge 2006, Wang et al. 2009, Costa-Pereira et al. 2017). The extent

to which two competitior populations can coexist is also influenced by the extent of their niche 67 overlap, where in periods of low prey availability, increaed sharing of resources could result in 68 detrimental consequences for one or both the populaions (Chesson 2000, Chesson 2018, 69 Pastore et al. 2021). Conversely, periods of increased ecological opportunity could reduce the 70 extent of interspecific niche overlap (Pastore et al. 2021) and/ or enable trophic niche expansion 71 (Van Valen 1965, Sjodin et al. 2018, Herrmann et al. 2021). The resultant increase in population 72 trophic niche width (PNW) can arise either by an expansion in individual trophic niche width 73 (INW) or individual specialisation (IS). For INW (the within-individual component (WIC) of 74 75 PNW), all individuals became more generalized in their resource use, while for IS, niche width increases as specialization increases the extent of inter-individual niche partitioning (affecting 76 the between individual component (BIC) of PNW) (Roughgarden 1972, Sjodin et al. 2018, 77 78 Baker et al. 2022). The niche variation hypothesis predicts that population niche expansion is achieved mainly through individual specialization, irrespective of variation in the WIC (Van 79 Valen 1965, Maldonado et al. 2017, Sjodin et al. 2018), with this having some empirical support 80 81 (Bolnick et al. 2007, Costa et al. 2008, Maldonado et al. 2017, Costa et al. 2023).

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Testing how the availability of prey resources (as diversity and/ or abundance) affects trophic niche sizes and overlaps of co-existing fishes can take advantage of freshwaters invaded by non-native fish. This is because these freshwater systems provide scenarios for studying novel trophic interactions through the presence of the invasive fish within a food web otherwise comprised of native species; these relatively large-bodied consumer species are also able to be sampled with some ease, coupled with well recognised methods for describing their diet

composition (Britton 2018). In the Pearl River basin, southern China, the introduction in 1982 89 of the non-native mrigal carp Cirrhinus mrigala and its subsequent invasion has resulted in its 90 co-existence with its native congener mud carp Cirrhinus molitorella across a wide 91 geographical range (Yu et al. 2019). Both species are ilyophagous, with the combination of 92 their feeding in soft sediments and sharing of similar habitats raising concerns over their extent 93 of resource sharing. Indeed, while mud carp is a dominant native fish species in freshwaters 94 across southern China (Bowen et al. 2006, Zhang et al. 2020), the mrigal carp has become an 95 abundant invader (Yu et al. 2019). As the specific dietary composition of these co-existing 96 97 species has yet to be fully understood then they provide the opportunity for investigating their competitive interactions via testing effects of ecological opportunity on PNW and interspecific 98 niche overlap, and PNW in relation to changes in INW and BIC. With testing the diet 99 100 composition and trophic interactions of ilyophagous fishes being challenging and often resulting in taxonomic ambiguity (Bowen et al. 2006), the development of DNA metabarcoding 101 now provides a powerful tool for more precise dietary analyses (Roslin and Majaneva 2016, 102 103 Ando et al. 2022, Villsen et al. 2022b). Its application relies on the relative read abundance (Deagle et al. 2019) and the standardised DNA-based diversity analysis (Alberdi and Gilbert 104 2019), and it has been applied to a wide variety of taxa, including fish (Villsen et al. 2022a, 105 Villsen et al. 2022b), shrimp (Siegenthaler et al. 2019), bat (Alberdi et al. 2020), and rodents 106 (Lopes et al. 2020, Shaner and Ke 2022). 107

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Accordingly, DNA metabarcoding is applied here to reveal the trophic interactions of
native mud carp and invasive mrigal carp across the Pearl River basin during both wet and dry

seasons between 2019 and 2021. By combining the metabarcoding with eDNA analysis of 111 water samples, fish diet composition was also tested in relation to the available prey (i.e. the 112 ecological opportunity) (Wang et al. 2019, Carraro et al. 2020). The metabarcoding results also 113 enabled testing of the trophic niche overlap between the two fishes, determination of how WIC 114 and BIC vary for each species in relation to PNW (i.e. whether increased PNW is through 115 increased individual specialization or generalization), and how this was affected by individual 116 fish condition. Finally, the results of these analyses were used to assess the management 117 implications regarding both invasion risk screening and ecological impact assessment. 118

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120 Materials and Methods

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122 Fish and water sample collection

Samples of mud carp and mrigal carp were collected in dry (November 2019, January 2021) 123 and wet seasons (July/September 2019, July 2021) in the West River, North River, East River 124 125 and the central delta of the Pearl River, China (Fig. 1). To provide representative samples across the length range of fish present, fish were captured using a combination of gill nets, cage traps, 126 and cast nets following Zhang et al. (2022b). Following their capture, fish were euthanized 127 using an anaesthetic overdose, held on ice, and transported to the laboratory, where they were 128 identified to species and measured (standard length, nearest mm; total weight 0.1 g), before 129 their gut was dissected. Where the gut was > 50 % full, the gut contents were collected, with 130 the contents of the fore-, mid- and hind-gut removed by applying gentle pressure on the gut. 131 During each sampling event, 1 litre of river water was also collected (from ≤ 1 m from the 132

riverbed), which was filtered using precombusted Whatman® glass fibre filter (GFF; diameter: 133 47 mm; pore size: 0.7 µm) and then used for environmental DNA (eDNA) detection. The GFF 134 had been combusted for 4 hours at 450 °C before filtering. Both the extraction of gut contents 135 and filtering of water filtration was completed in sterile conditions to avoid contamination, 136 with all samples then frozen in liquid nitrogen. The water temperature at the bottom ≤ 1 m from 137 the riverbed was measured using the Aqua TROLL 400 instrument (In-Situ[®], Fort Collins, 138 USA). Daily river discharge gauged by the hydrometric stations nearby the sampling sites were 139 collected from the national water regime and precipitation website. Before statistical analysis, 140 daily discharge was averaged during the period from one week prior to the sampling date until 141 one week after. 142





Sampling sites in the West River (WR), North River (NR), East River (ER) and the central
delta (CD) of the Pearl River, China.

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149 *Metabarcoding*

Total genomic DNA of the gut contents for each individual and the eDNA from the filtered 150 water were extracted using the DP812 TGuide S96 Magnetic Soil/Stool DNA Kit (TIANGEN®, 151 Beijing, China). The V4 region of the 18S rDNA was amplified using the primer with barcode 152 TAReuk454FWD1 (5'-CCAGCA(G/C)C(C/T)GCGGTAATTCC-3') and TAReukREV3 (5'-153 ACTTTCGTTCTTGAT(C/T)(A/G)A-3') (Stoeck et al. 2010). All PCR products were purified, 154 quantified and homogenized to get a sequence library. The library concentration was quantified 155 using Qubit 3.0 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, USA) and the quality control were performed by Qsep 156 157 400 fragment analyser (BiOptic, Taiwan, China). The criterion of qualified library is a concentration > 1 ng/µl in a range of 380 bp ~ 630 bp fragments. Qualified libraries were then 158 sequenced on Illumina Novaseq 6000. 159

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Raw data of paired sequences were demultiplexed and denoised using DADA2 methods following the workflows in QIIME2 (Bolyen et al. 2019). The features produced by denoising are amplicon sequence variant (ASV). The ASVs with reads number < 10 or being present in only a single sample were removed as these could have resulted from contamination. The taxonomy of the ASV was classified using a pre-trained Naive Bayes classifier of the Silva v138 database (Robeson et al. 2020). The ASVs with taxonomy confidence ≥ 0.85 and their relative read abundance (i.e. their proportional representation) were used in subsequent data analyses. To avoid the contamination of the mud carp/mrigal carp DNA in the gut content DNA,
ASVs were removed that were assigned under the order of Teleostei. The unassigned ASVs or
ASVs that were assigned to the kingdom of bacteria, the phylum of Acanthocephala,
Apicomplexa, Nematozoa or Platyhelminthes (parasites), were also removed, as they were the
non-targeted taxa.

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174 *Statistical analysis*

To assess spatial and temporal differences in ecological opportunity and diet composition 175 176 between the two fishes, the permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) (Anderson 2017) was applied. It was conducted on the Bray-Curtis distance matrix of organism 177 composition in the river and individual dietary compositions after applying a Hellinger 178 179 transformation to the relative read abundance of the ASVs. The PERMANOVA was completed using the *adonis2* function in the vegan package, with 999 permutations. To identify which 180 taxa contributed most to the differences between groups (e.g. between the fishes, and fish 181 versus water), an indicator species analysis was applied using the *signassoc* function in the 182 indicspecies package in R (Cáceres and Legendre 2009). This analysis tested the null 183 hypothesis that the relative abundance of one taxa in samples from one group is not greater 184 than those in samples of the other (Cáceres and Legendre 2009). 185

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187 Niche width is measured as the diversity of prey items consumed (Bolnick et al. 2007) 188 and was quantified as INW (WIC), BIC, and PNW. The INW, related to α diversity, was 189 estimated as the Hill number with q = 1 (¹D) using the hilldiv package (Alberdi and Gilbert

2019). The ¹D in the sampling water were also calculated as an indicator of 'ecological 190 opportunity' (i.e. the extent of prey available for ingestion). Spatial and temporal differences 191 in ¹D (positive continuous data) was analysed by fitting generalized linear models (GLM) in 192 Gamma distribution using lme4 package. In the model, the terms of sampling region, site, year, 193 season, sampling sources and their interaction terms were set as fixed factors. Difference in ¹D 194 between groups were determined using the emmeans function in emmeans package (Lenth 195 2021). The WIC, BIC (related to β diversity) and PNW (related to γ diversity) were estimated 196 for each population with ≥ 2 individuals captured and analysed during each sampling campaign 197 (specified to site and date). The WIC was calculated as mean INW among individuals for each 198 population. The BIC was firstly estimated as the average of the pairwise individual 199 dissimilarities for each population based on ¹D (BIC_D) using the *pair dis* function in hilldiv 200 201 package (Alberdi and Gilbert 2019). Based on the individual specialization index (IS) proposed by Bolnick et al. (2002), the BIC was secondly estimated as individual specialization (BIC_V) 202 and calculated as $BIC_V = 1 - IS$ following Bolnick et al. (2007). IS was calculated using the 203 PSicalc function in the RInSp package (Bolnick et al. 2007, Zaccarelli et al. 2013). It is an 204 average of proportional similarity between individual and population's diet, thus lower values 205 suggest decreasing similarity and high individual specialization (Bolnick et al. 2002). The 206 PNW was calculated as ¹D and standardized with different sample sizes at 90% sample 207 coverage using the function *EstimateD* from the package iNEXT (Hsieh et al. 2016). 208 Spatiotemporal and interspecific variation in PNW, BIC_D, and BIC_V were then analysed using 209 linear models. Interspecific niche overlaps were calculated at both individual and population 210 levels as the Sørensen-type overlap by running the pair dis function in hilldiv package 211

(Alberdi and Gilbert 2019). At the individual level, niche overlap was averaged across
individual pairs to derive an average value for each individual. Spatial and temporal variation
in niche overlap was then analysed using linear models.

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Effects of river discharge and water temperature on ecological opportunity, then on 216 interspecific niche overlap, WIC, BIC, and PNW were analysed by structural equations 217 modelling (SEM). To minimise the difference in the magnitude of variances between variables, 218 river discharge, ecological opportunity, WIC, and PNW were natural log transformed before 219 220 testing. Due to the significant positive correlations between river discharge and water temperature (Pearson's correlation: 0.44; P = 0.01), and between BIC_D and BIC_V (Pearson's 221 correlation = 0.86, P < 0.001), river discharge and BIC_D were retained but water temperature 222 223 or BIC_V were removed for the SEM. The SEM was performed in the lavaan (Rosseel 2012) and lavaanPlot packages in R, where model fit was assessed using a combination of Chi-224 square tests (P > 0.05 indicated the absence of significant discrepancy between data and model), 225 226 the comparative fit index (CFI; 0.90 - 1, good fit; < 0.90, poor fit), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; ≤ 0.05 , close fit; ≥ 0.08 , poor fit) (Rosseel 2012). The 227 relationships between ecological opportunity, inter-specific niche overlap and PNW were 228 further analysed by building linear models. The niche variation hypothesis was also tested by 229 regressing WIC, BIC_D, and BIC_V respectively on PNW and species in linear models. Pairwise 230 Pearson correlations among ecological opportunity, inter-specific niche overlap, WIC, BIC_D, 231 BIC_V and PNW were also estimated. The normality and the homogeneity in variance of the 232 residuals of linear models, and GLM models were checked using the DHARMa package (Hartig 233

2022). The importance of fixed factors in these models was determined using the individual
marginal R² (i.e. the variance explained the individual fixed factor) by running the glmm.hp
package (Lai et al. 2022). All calculations and statistical analyses were completed in R 4.2.3
(R Core Team 2023).

238

239 **Results**

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241 *Fish diet composition and ecological opportunity*

A total of 188 samples were analysed (98 mud carp, 71 mrigal carp and 19 water samples; Table S1). Across these samples, there were 3722 ASVs retained that were classified into 55 phyla, 109 classes, 160 orders, 188 families and 296 genera. The ASVs indicated that mud carp and mrigal carp had broad diets that mainly comprised of algae, ciliates, arthropods, plants, rotifers and fungi (Fig. 2; Fig. S1). These phyla contributed to accumulated read abundances of consistently \geq 0.79 in the fish diets during each sampling campaign (Fig. 2), while they contributed on average of 0.59 (range 0.34 – 0.85) in the water samples..

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Across the fish and water samples, PERMANOVA indicated that the largest variation in taxa composition was the sample source (i.e. fish vs water), followed by the nested sampling season, site, region and year (Table 1). Comparisons of fish diet composition versus the water samples indicated that Rotifera were significantly more abundant in mud carp diets, Phragmoplastophyta were significantly more abundant in mrigal carp diets, but with Cryptophyceae, Mollusca, Chytridiomycota, and Protalveolata being more abundant in the

256	water (Table S3, S4). Differences in diet composition between the two fishes were mostly
257	explained by the nested sampling season, followed by the nested sampling site and fish length
258	(PERMANOVA; Table S5). During the wet season in each site, there were higher relative
259	abundances of Ciliophora, Dinoflagellata, Ascomycota, and Tardigrada in fish diets, while in
260	the dry season there were more Arthropoda and Vertebrata (Table S6).



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Fig. 2. Relative abundance of taxonomy at the phylum level in the gut contents of mrigal carp and mud carp, and the water sampled during the dry season and the wet season of 2019 and 2021 in the West River (WR), North River (NR), East River (ER), and the central delta (CD) of the Pearl River. Taxonomy with low relative abundance (< 0.015) were categorized as "Others".

267 **Table 1**. Permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) results on variation

268 of organism composition across sampling region, year, season, and sampling sources.

	df	Sum Sqs	R ²	F	<i>P</i> (>F)
region	3	3.85	0.08	10.71	<0.001 ***
region: site	5	5.00	0.11	8.35	<0.001 ***
region: site: year	3	2.94	0.06	8.17	<0.001 ***
region: site: year: season	11	8.01	0.17	6.08	<0.001 ***
region: site: year: season: source	38	12.62	0.27	2.77	<0.001 ***
Residual	127	15.21	0.32		
Total	187	47.62	1.00		

269 * P < 0.05; ** P < 0.01; *** P < 0.001

271 Spatiotemporal variation in trophic niche metrics

Differences in individual trophic niche width (INW) of mud carp and mrigal carp, and 272 ecological opportunity were mostly significantly driven by sampling source, and the interaction 273 between year and season (Table 2; Table S7). For both fishes, the INW was generally lower 274 than the ecological opportunity provided by river water (mud carp INW: 23.2 ± 13.8 ; mrigal 275 carp INW: 23.1 ± 13.4 ; river water: 51.6 ± 32.1) (Fig. 3; Table 2, S8). Between the two fishes, 276 INW did not differ significantly in general (t = 0.01, P = 0.996), or in 11 of 12 samplings across 277 regions, years, and seasons (P > 0.05; Table S8). The INW and ecological opportunity were 278 generally higher in the wet season than in the dry season Table 2), with the seasonal difference 279 larger and of higher significance in 2021 than in 2019 (Fig. S2; Table S9). 280

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For population niche width (PNW), no significant interspecific difference was detected, with the interaction of year and season explaining most variation across the samples (LMM; Table S10-11). PNW was significantly lower in the dry than in the wet season of 2021, while no significant seasonal differences in 2019 were detected (Fig. S2). Variation in BIC_D and BIC_V were not significantly influenced by spatiotemporal variation and species (Table S11), despite the interaction between year and season explaining most of the variation (Table S10).

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Mud carp and mrigal carp had varying interspecific trophic niche overlaps at both population (mean: 0.56 ± 0.22 ; range: 0.09 - 0.86) and individual levels (mean: 0.42 ± 0.19 ; range: 0.04 - 0.96). Variation in interspecific overlaps at both individual and population levels was mostly explained by the interaction of year and season (Table 3; Table S12). In 2021, niche overlap was higher in the dry season than in the wet season (population level: P = 0.06, individual level: P < 0.05), whereas there was no significant seasonal difference in niche overlap in 2021 (Fig. 4; Fig. S2). The nested sites in region also significantly contributed to variation in individual niche overlap (Table S12; Fig. S3).

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Mechanisms underlying interspecific niche partitioning and population niche expansion 298 The structural equation model was a good fit to the data (Chi-square test (P = 0.63), CFI = 1 299 and RMSEA = 0.00), with the results suggesting a causal path from river discharge to PNW 300 (Fig. 5). Increasing river discharge and water temperatures led to significant increases in 301 ecological opportunity, which then resulted in significant decreases in interspecific niche 302 303 overlap. This decrease in interspecific niche overlap drove a significant increase in BIC and non-significant increase in WIC, with both WIC and BIC contributing positively to the larger 304 PNW (Fig. 5). 305

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The nonsignificant positive correlations between ecological opportunity and PNW (Fig. 6a, Table S13), and the components of PNW (WIC, BIC_D , and BIC_V in Fig. S4), indicated that increasing ecological opportunity did not contribute increased PNW. The significant negative linear relationships between ecological opportunity and interspecific niche overlap does suggest the important role that increasing ecological opportunity has on interspecific niche partitioning (Fig. 6b, Table S13),. Interspecific niche overlap was not significantly correlated with PNW (Fig. 6c, Table S13). Although WIC, BIC_D , and BIC_V had positive linear relationships with PNW between fishes, these were not significant (Fig. 6d-f; Table S13).



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Fig. 3. The average value (mean \pm SE) of Hill number (q = 1) in the river water, mud carp gut content, and mrigal carp gut content over dry and wet seasons in 2019 and 2021 across the West River (WR), North River (NR), East River (ER), and the central delta (CD).

Predictor	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	P (> t)
(Intercept)	3.52	0.13	27.10	<0.001***
region NR	0.13	0.17	0.74	0.46
region ER	-0.61	0.22	-2.81	<0.01**
region CD	-0.47	0.16	-3.06	<0.01**
region:site CD lanhe	0.26	0.19	1.38	0.17
region:site CD zuotan	0.37	0.16	2.36	0.02*
region:site ER heyuan	0.89	0.24	3.69	<0.001***
region:site NR qingyuan	0.20	0.21	0.94	0.35
region:site WR wuzhou	-0.32	0.21	-1.57	0.12
year 2021	-0.12	0.16	-0.75	0.45
season wet season	0.90	0.12	7.28	<0.001***
year:season 2019 wet	-1.00	0.19	-5.38	<0.001***
source mud carp	-1.03	0.15	-7.03	<0.001***
source mrigal carp	-1.04	0.15	-6.90	<0.001***

Table 2. Effects of region, site, year, season, sampling source on variation in Hill number (q =

322 1).

323 * P < 0.05; ** P < 0.01; *** P < 0.001



Fig. 4. Interspecific trophic niche overlap at individual level (small grey dots) and population
level (big blue dots) over dry and wet seasons in 2019 and 2021 across the West River (WR),

North River (NR), East River (ER) and the central delta (CD).

Response	Predictor	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	Р
Population	region	3	0.12	0.04	1.15	0.39
niche	year	1	0.01	0.01	0.15	0.71
overlap	season	1	0.17	0.17	4.72	0.07
	region: site	5	0.14	0.03	0.81	0.58
	year: season	1	0.17	0.17	4.68	0.07
	Residuals	7	0.25	0.04		
Individual	region	3	0.47	0.16	7.51	<0.001***
niche	year	1	0.08	0.08	3.81	0.05
overlap	season	1	0.17	0.17	8.02	<0.01**
	species	1	0.03	0.03	1.48	0.23
	region: site	5	1.35	0.27	12.99	<0.001***
	year: season	1	0.80	0.80	38.48	<0.001***
	Residuals	142	2.94	0.02		

region, year, season, and their interaction suggested by analysis of variance.

 Table 3. Dependence of interspecific niche overlap at population and individual levels on

* P < 0.05; ** P < 0.01; *** P < 0.001333

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Fig. 6. Associations between ecological opportunity, population niche width (PNW) and interspecific niche overlap (a-c) and mechanisms underlying PNW expansions (d-f) for mud carp
(mud) and mrigal carp (mrigal). WIC: within-individual component; BIC_D, between individual
component based on Hill number (q=1); BIC_V: BIC calculated from individual specialization.

350 **Discussion**

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352 This assessment of the trophic relationships of invasive migral carp and native mud carp across two years and seasons for the three main tributaries of the Pearl River and its central delta using 353 18S DNA metabarcoding revealed differences in the fish diets from the total prey available as 354 indicated by the eDNA, and some distinct temporal patterns between the diets of the two fishes. 355 The interaction of year and season was the most important predictor driving variation in the 356 dietary composition and trophic niche variation of the two fishes, with the ecological 357 opportunity (which increased with increasing river discharge and water temperature) 358 significantly influencing the extent of interspecific niche overlap, and was positively associated 359 with PNW and its components (WIC and BIC). For each species, the increased PNW resulted 360 361 from increasing in its components of WIC and BIC.

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363 Spatiotemporal variation in dietary composition and niche metrics

The results relating to the taxonomy and abundance of prey for mud carp and mrigal carp in 364 the Pearl River were novel, given dietary studies on these ilyophagous fishes usually provide 365 limited taxonomic detail on prey (e.g. Bowen et al. 2006). The DNA metabarcoding results 366 indicated that both species were mainly feeding on algae, ciliates, arthropods, plants, rotifers, 367 and fungi, with their diets not only differing significantly from the organism composition of 368 the river water, but also between the two species. For example, mud carp diet fed more on 369 Rotifera while mrigal carp fed more on Phragmoplastophyta. However, there was no significant 370 interspecific differences in either PNW or its components of WIC and BIC. 371

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The interaction between year and season significantly influenced the fish diet composition, 373 the INW, PNW and interspecific niche overlap, along with the ecological opportunity, with 374 significantly higher seasonal differences in 2021 versus 2019. This could be due to an artefact 375 of sampling, given differences in the sampling months in the dry season that potentially affected 376 prey availability (November 2019 vs January 2021). For example, river discharge rates, 377 sediment loadings and water temperature are lowest in January, whereas in November they are 378 still relatively high as they remain affected by the wet season that lasts between July and 379 380 September (Liu et al. 2022). The resulting differing influences of the wet season between the dry season sampling periods and 2019 and 2021 would thus result in some differences in the 381 ecological opportunity of this fishes via phytoplankton biomass (Townsend and Douglas 2017) 382 383 and aquatic insect resource pulses (Anderson et al. 2019). In January, the lower discharge which could also have suppressed the available habitat area e for the fishes by decreasing the drainage 384 area and ecosystem size (Sabo et al. 2010), which when coupled with the lower ecological 385 opportunity, could have been the driver of the elevated interspecific competition for resources, 386 as indicated by the higher niche overlap (Porter and Dueser 1982, Shaner and Ke 2022; Zhang 387 et al. 2022a). 388

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390 Mechanisms underlying niche variation and interspecific niche partitioning

The ecological opportunity, being influenced by river discharge and water temperature fluctuations, had positive but non-significant influences on PNW and its components, suggested there might have been some effects of prey availability and diversity on changes in population niche sizes (Van Valen 1965, Costa-Pereira et al. 2019, Herrmann et al. 2021). The negative relationships between PNW (or its components) and niche overlap indicated the constraining effects of interspecific competition on PNW, where PNW and its components increased following a reduction in interspecific competition (the phenomenon of ecological release; Herrmann et al. 2021). Their association also suggested the consequences of population niche expansion on interspecific niche partitioning.

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The positive association of PNW with its components of WIC, BIC_D, and BIC_V, 401 suggested the importance of both individual niche expansion and individual specialization in 402 population niche expansion. This is a dual expansion case of the niche variation hypothesis 403 (Sjodin et al. 2018), which is also found in brook trout in lakes by Baker et al. (2022), despite 404 405 strict individual specialization without individual generalization being commonly treated as the only realization of the niche variation hypothesis (Sjodin et al. 2018). Accordingly, the increase 406 in WIC and PNW driven by the addition of new prey items to diets at individual and population 407 408 levels, indicated that individuals possess substantial abilities to utilize alternative resources (Toscano et al. 2016, Costa-Pereira et al. 2019). However, there is a cost of individual 409 generalization, i.e. a resource-acquisition trade-off between individual niche width and total 410 consumption rate, which determined the ways of population niche expansion by switching from 411 individual generalization when the cost is low to individual specialization when the cost is high 412 (Sjodin et al. 2018). The increases in both WIC and BIC when PNW increased for the fishes 413 suggested that the cost of individual generalization had driven individual specialization, but 414 this was not high enough to constrain individual generalization. Conversely, individual 415

416 specialization is not solely dependent on interspecific competition and ecological opportunity 417 (Costa-Pereira et al. 2018), which is consistent with the correlation between the BIC_D/BIC_V , 418 ecological opportunity, and interspecific niche overlap, but also on intraspecific competition 419 (which was not addressed here).

420

The ecological opportunity also had strong influences on interspecific niche overlap 421 between mud carp and mrigal carp. Under this influence, the niche overlap was higher under 422 more limited prey availability, which can result in elevated interspecific competition (Shaner 423 424 and Ke 2022) and competitive exclusion, with the overlap reducing as prey resource diversity increased, which can lead to enhanced probability of co-existence (Pastore et al. 2021). 425 Although, we did not directly measure competitive differences, the other components 426 427 determining species coexistence in modern coexistence theory suggested no significant effects of ecological opportunity on competitive differences (Chesson 2000, 2018; Pastore et al. 2021). 428 Thus, in environments with varying ecological opportunity, niche overlap (rather than the 429 430 competitive difference) was considered as likely playing a key role in driving the interspecific interactions of the two fishes here. 431

432

433 Management considerations

The results here highlight some important considerations for how invasive fishes can be managed in sub-tropical rivers. The results indicated that the extent of resource sharing between the two fishes was temporally variable and, although assessment was not made on how this resource sharing translated into ecological consequences for the fishes, increased resource

sharing generally indicates elevated competition and the potential for detrimental impacts in at 438 least one species (e.g. decreased growth rates; Britton 2018, 2022 and reproductive interference; 439 Tarkan et al. 2012). That the extent of resource sharing was temporally variable, being driven 440 primarily by year and season, indicates that impact assessments of invasive fishes in similar 441 systems must consider seasonality in prey availability as a factor driving competitive 442 interactions, with wet season likely to have reduced competitive interactions versus dry season 443 due to higher prey availability. Thus, in considering both pre-introduction risk screening (e.g. 444 Vilizzi et al. 2021) and post-introduction management decision-making (e.g. Britton et al. 445 446 2022), it must be considered that any impacts from species such as mrigal carp are not constant, but are dynamic and context dependent according to the differences in the seasonal availability 447 of prey resources, with impacts likely to be elevated in dry seasons when availability is lower. 448 449 Moreover, with mrigal carp being ilyophagous, it is unclear as to whether their invasive populations will be a driver of prey availability or be limited by the available prey in substrata, 450 with this aspect of their invasion ecology requiring further work. 451

452

In summary, this work has generated novel insights into the niche variation and interspecific niche overlap of invasive mrigal carp and native mud carp across an extensive geographical range in the Pearl River, southern China. Through the demonstration that the trophic niche overlap of the two species were not fixed but dynamic according to seasonal variability in prey availability then the results demonstrate the importance of considering the temporal sampling of fish and prey resources within invasion risk and impact assessment processes.

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