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What's for dinner? Diet and trophic impact of an invasive anuran *Hoplobatrachus tigerinus* on the Andaman archipelago

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Amphibian invasions have considerable detrimental impacts on recipient ecosystems; however, reliable risk analysis of invasive amphibians still requires research on more nonnative amphibian species. An invasive population of the Indian bullfrog, Hoplobatrachus *tigerinus*, is currently spreading on the Andaman archipelago and may have significant trophic impacts on native anurans through competition and predation. We assessed the diet of the invasive Hoplobatrachus tigerinus (n = 358), the native Limnonectes spp. (n = 375) and *Fejervarya* spp. (n = 65) in three sites, across four habitat types and two seasons, on the Andaman archipelago. We found a significant dietary overlap of H. tigerinus with Limnonectes spp., which may lead to competition. Small vertebrates, including several endemic species, constituted a majority of *H. tigerinus* diet by volume, suggesting potential impact by predation. Diets of the three species were mostly governed by the positive relationship between predator-prey body sizes. Niche breadth analyses did not indicate any significant changes in diet between seasons. *Hoplobatrachus tigerinus* and *Fejervarya* spp. chose evasive prey, suggesting that these two species are mostly ambush predators; Limnonectes spp. elected sedentary prey; although a large portion of its diet consisted of other prey types, such electivity indicates 'active search' as its major foraging strategy. All three species of anurans mostly consumed terrestrial prey. This intensive study on a new genus of invasive amphibian contributes to the knowledge on impacts of amphibian invasions, and elucidates the feeding ecology of H. tigerinus, and species of the genera Limnonectes and Fejervarya. We stress on the necessity to evaluate prey availability and volume in future studies for meaningful insights into diet of amphibians.

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11 ABSTRACT

Amphibian invasions have considerable detrimental impacts on recipient ecosystems. However, 12 13 reliable risk analysis of invasive amphibians still requires research on more non-native amphibian species. An invasive population of the Indian bullfrog, Hoplobatrachus tigerinus, is 14 15 currently spreading on the Andaman archipelago and may have significant trophic impacts on native anurans through competition and predation. We assessed the diet of the invasive 16 Hoplobatrachus tigerinus (n = 358), and native Limnonectes spp. (n = 375) and Fejervarya spp. 17 (n = 65) in three sites, across four habitat types and two seasons, on the Andaman archipelago. 18 19 We found a significant dietary overlap of *H. tigerinus* with *Limnonectes* spp. Small vertebrates, 20 including several endemic species, constituted the majority of *H. tigerinus* diet by volume,

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21 suggesting potential impact by predation. Diets of the three species were mostly governed by 22 the positive relationship between predator-prey body sizes. Niche breadth analyses did not 23 indicate any significant changes in diet between seasons. Hoplobatrachus tigerinus and 24 Fejervarya spp. chose evasive prey, suggesting that these two species are mostly ambush 25 predators; Limnonectes spp. elected sedentary prey; although a large portion of its diet consisted of evasive prey, such electivity indicates 'active search' as its major foraging strategy. 26 27 All three species of anurans mostly consumed terrestrial prey. This intensive study on a genus 28 of newly invasive amphibian contributes to the knowledge on impacts of amphibian invasions, 29 and elucidates the feeding ecology of *H. tigerinus*, and species of the genera *Limnonectes* and 30 Fejervarya. We stress the necessity to evaluate prey availability and volume in future studies for 31 meaningful insights into diet of amphibians.

32 Key Words: diet overlap, ecological niche, resource use, predator-prey, food electivity;

33 Dicroglossidae; invasive impact; Anura

34 INTRODUCTION

Accelerating rates of biological invasions (Seebens et al., 2017) and their consequent negative impacts (Simberloff et al., 2013) have led to increased efforts towards pre-invasion risk assessment and prioritization based on impacts (van Wilgen et al. *in review*; Blackburn et al., 2014). Amphibian invasions have considerable detrimental impacts on recipient ecosystems (Pitt et al., 2005; Kraus, 2015), the magnitude of impact being comparable to that of invasive freshwater fish and birds (Measey et al., 2016). Impact mechanisms of amphibian invaders remain relatively understudied (Crossland et al., 2008) and are varied. Impact via predation and

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competition (*sensu* Blackburn et al., 2014) in particular has been frequently examined, with
documented impact on invertebrates (Greenlees et al. 2006; Choi and Beard 2012; Shine 2010),
fishes (Lafferty and Page 1997), amphibians (Kats & Ferrer, 2003; Wu et al., 2005; Measey et al.,
2015; but see Greenlees et al., 2007) and birds (Boland, 2004), though other taxa may also be
affected (Beard & Pitt, 2005).

47 However, reliable risk analysis of invasive amphibians still requires research on more non-native 48 amphibian species (van Wilgen et al., *in review*), as the existing knowledge on impacts is mostly based on the cane toad Rhinella marina and the American bullfrog Lithobates catesbianus 49 50 (Measey et al., 2016; van Wilgen et al., in review). Comparisons of impact across taxonomic groups for management prioritization (Blackburn et al., 2014; Kumschick et al., 2015) may also 51 be impeded by the relatively understudied category of amphibian invasions as compared to 52 53 other vertebrate invasions (Pyšek et al., 2008). This knowledge gap is further compounded by geographic biases in invasion research, with limited coverage in Asia and Africa (Pyšek et al., 54 2008); developing countries also have relatively less invasion research (Nunez & Pauchard 2010; 55 Measey et al., 2016). 56

An invasive population of the Indian bullfrog, *Hoplobatrachus tigerinus* (Daudin, 1802), is
currently spreading on the Andaman archipelago, Bay of Bengal, following its introduction in
the early 2000s (Mohanty & Measey, *in review*). The bullfrog has its native range on the Indian
sub-continent encompassing low to moderate elevations in Nepal, Bhutan, Myanmar,
Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, and Afghanistan (Dutta, 1997). The bullfrog has previously been
introduced to Madagascar (Glaw & Vences, 2007), and possibly to the Maldives (Dutta, 1997)

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63 and Laccadive Islands (Gardiner 1906). This large bodied frog (up to 160 mm) has high 64 reproductive potential (up to 20,000 eggs per clutch, Khan & Malik 1987) and is uncommon or 65 absent in forested and coastal regions, but occurs as a human commensal (Daniels 2005). It is considered a dietary generalist, feeding on invertebrates and even large vertebrates such as 66 67 Duttaphrynus melanostictus (Padhye et al., 2008; Datta & Khaledin, 2017); however, quantitative diet assessment with adequate sample size across habitats and seasons is lacking 68 69 (but see Khatiwada et al., 2016 for diet of *H. tigerinus* in rice fields of Nepal). 70 Hoplobatrachus tigerinus on the Andaman archipelago co-occurs with native anurans of the 71 genera Duttaphrynus, Fejervarya, Limnonectes, and Microhyla (NPM unpublished data; 72 Harikrishnan et al., 2010). Given the large size of *H. tigerinus*, it is likely to feed on 73 proportionately large prey, including amphibians and other vertebrates (Datta & Khaledin, 74 2017; Measey et al., 2015). The high volume of prey consumed by *H. tigerinus* (Padhye et al., 75 2008) may lead to direct competition with native anurans, especially under relatively high densities of *H. tigerinus* in human modified areas (Daniels, 2005). Although the diet of native 76 77 anurans has not been assessed on the Andaman Islands, Fejervarya limnocharis is considered to be a generalist forager on terrestrial invertebrates (Hirai & Matsui, 2001), Limnonectes spp. are 78 79 known to feed on vertebrates in addition to arthropods (Emerson, Greene & Charnov 1994; Das 80 1996), and Microhyids and Bufonids are considered to be myrmephagous. In terms of size, H. 81 *tigerinus* is much larger than native anurans of the Andaman archipelago (Fig. 1) and may 82 impact the native anurans through both predation and competition.

83 Niche overlap, in combination with prey availability (electivity), can be used to assess trophic 84 competition between species (e.g. Vogt et al., 2017). In addition to taxonomic evaluation and 85 enumeration of the prey consumed, it is crucial to consider prey volume and frequency of prey occurrence to ascertain overall importance of a particular category of prey (Hirschfield & Rödel, 86 87 2011; Boelter et al., 2012; Choi and Beard 2012); classification by functional type (hardness and 88 motility of prey) is useful in understanding predator behaviour (Toft 1980; Vanhooydonck et al., 89 2007; Carne & Measey 2013). Further, seasonality in prey availability may influence diet in 90 amphibians (Hodgkison & Hero 2003; de Oliveira & Haddad, 2015), therefore, there is also a 91 need to assess diet across seasons, to fully capture the range of prey. Another important driver 92 of prey choice may be the positive relationship between predator-prey body sizes (Werner et 93 al., 1995; Wu et al., 2005).

94 We aimed to assess the trophic impact of the invasive *Hoplobatrachus tigerinus* on the native anurans of the Andaman Islands through competition and predation. We carried out diet 95 analyses of the invasive H. tigerinus and native anurans, across four habitat types and two 96 97 seasons, to ascertain the nature and magnitude of trophic impact. We hypothesized that i) 98 small vertebrates constitute a majority of the *H. tigerinus* diet, particularly, by volume and ii) 99 the diet of *H. tigerinus* significantly overlaps with the diet of native anurans, thereby, leading to 100 potential competition. Additionally, we aimed to characterize the predation behaviour of these 101 anurans in terms of electivity and predation strategy (ambush or active search).

102 METHODS

103	We carried out the study in the Andaman archipelago for six months, from February to July
104	2017. The Andaman archipelago is part of the Indo-Burma biodiversity hotspot (Myers et al.
105	2000) and with 40% endemism in herpetofauna (Harikrishnan et al., 2010). This group of nearly
106	300 islands is situated between 10°30'N to 13°40'N and 92°10'E to 93°10'E (Fig. 2). The tropical
107	archipelago receives an annual rainfall of 3000 mm to 3500 mm (Andrews and Sankaran 2002);
108	primary and secondary forests encompass nearly 87% of the entire archipelago (Forest
109	Statistics 2013), whereas the remaining human modified areas comprise of settlements,
110	agricultural fields, and plantations. Of the nine species of native amphibians recorded, four
111	species (Ingerana charelsdarwinii, Blythophryne beryet, Microhyla chakrapani, and Fejervarya
112	andamanensis) are endemic to the Andaman Islands (Das 1999; Harikrishnan et al., 2010;
113	Chandramouli et al., 2016), however, taxonomic uncertainties still persist (Chandramouli et al,
114	2015; Harikrishnan Surendran, Pers. Comm.). The range restricted Ingerana charlesdarwinii, the
115	semi-arboreal Blythophryne beryet, the arboreal Kaloula baleata ghosi and the littoral
116	Fejervarya cancrivora are unlikely to co-occur with H. tigerinus at present (Das 1999;
117	Chandramouli 2016; Chandramouli et al., 2016). Thus, we constrained our choice for
118	comparative species to those which were strictly syntopic. As the taxonomy of the Andaman
119	amphibians remains in flux, we limited our identifications to the genus level as the taxonomic
120	identities of these species are pending formal re-assessments (Chandramouli et al., 2015).
121	Hereafter, Fejervarya spp and Limnonectes spp are referred to as Fejervarya and Limnonectes,
122	respectively.

We conducted the study in two sites (Webi and Karmatang) on Middle Andaman Island and onesite (Wandoor) on South Andaman Island (Fig. 2). We chose sites with moderately old invasions

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125 of Hoplobatrachus tigerinus (more than 3 years since establishment; Mohanty & Measey in review), assuming that a relatively longer time since establishment would indicate an adequate 126 127 population to sample from. In each site, we established four 1 ha plots with varying land use-128 land cover types: agriculture, plantations (Areca nut and Banana), disturbed (logged) and 129 undisturbed forest (minimal use). To capture the variation in diet with respect to seasons, we 130 carried out the sampling in both dry (January to April) and wet (May to July) seasons, the latter coinciding with the south-westerly monsoon. 131 Our protocol was approved by the Research Ethics Committee: Animal Care and Use, 132 133 Stellenbosch University (#1260) and permission to capture anurans, was granted under the permit of the Department of Environment and Forests, Andaman and Nicobar Islands 134 135 (#CWLW/WL/134/350). Diet of anurans was determined using stomach flushing, a standard and 136 low-risk technique to determine prey consumed (Patto, 1998; Solé et al., 2005). Anurans were hand-captured between 1800 to 2200 hrs; stomach flushing was carried out within 3 h of 137 138 capture. We consciously avoided capture bias towards any particular size class, by actively searching for anurans of all size classes. As our sampling focussed on sub-adult and adult 139 Hoplobatrachus tigerinus and was completed in July (presumably before breeding and 140 141 emergence of metamorphs) we did not examine the diet of metamorphs. In order to avoid 142 mortality, we did not stomach flush individuals below 20 mm SVL and hence, individuals of co-143 occurring Microhyla chakrapanii (ca. 10-30 mm SVL; Pillai, 1977) were not sampled. After excluding native anurans which did not co-occur with H. tigerinus, we sampled Duttaphrynus 144 145 melanostictus (although its taxonomic and geographic status is uncertain, Das 1999), 146 Limnonectes spp., and Fejervarya spp. (hereafter, Limnonectes and Fejervarya). We conducted

stomach flushing using a syringe (3 ml to 10 ml for anurans of 20 mm-50 mm SVL and 60 ml for anurans >60 mm SVL), soft infusion tube, and water from site of capture. In addition to SVL, we noted the sex and measured head width (HW) and lower jaw length length (LJL) of the anurans. The stomach flushed individuals were toe-clipped (following Hero, 1989; Grafe et al., 2011) to ensure that sampling bias, if any, was recorded. Individuals were released back to the capture site post completion of the procedure.

We collected the expelled prey items in a transparent beaker and sieved the contents using a mesh of 0.5 mm. Prey items from each individual were classified up to a minimum of order level, and further characterized by functional traits (hardness and motility, following Vanhooydock et al., 2007). Length and width of intact prey were measured under an 8x magnifying lens to the nearest 0.01 mm using a Vernier calliper and recorded along with the prey's life stage (adult/larvae). We preserved all prey items in 70% ethanol.

159 We also determined electivity of prey, based on prey consumption as compared to prey availability. Terrestrial prey were measured using five pitfall traps in each 1 ha plot, which were 160 161 visited twice daily for a duration of three days (total of 30 trap occasions). Within each 1 ha plot, the pitfalls were arranged in the four corners and one in the centre of the plot. We used 162 163 plastic traps, 80 mm in diameter and 300 mm high. A wet cloth was kept at the bottom to provide refuge to trapped animals, so as to prevent any predation before sample collection. We 164 used chloroform soaked cotton balls to euthanize the invertebrate prey, prior to collection. 165 These prey items were also identified up to the order level and measured for length and width. 166

- 167 Our approach of estimating prey availability excludes flying evasive orders (e.g. adult
- 168 lepidopterans) and vertebrate prey.

169 Data analyses

- 170 We did not obtain adequate numbers of Duttaphrynus melanostictus (n = 4) individuals and
- 171 hence they were not included in the analyses. We pooled samples from the three sites to
- 172 examine the diet of the three species of anurans. At the species level, we assessed the number,
- volume, and frequency (number of individuals with a given prey item in their stomach) of
- 174 consumed prey under each taxonomic category. Volume was calculated using the formula of an

175 ellipsoid, following Colli and Zamboni (1999),

176 volume
$$=\frac{4}{3}\pi \left(\frac{1}{l}\right) \left(\frac{1}{w}\right)^2$$
,

where, I is prey length and w is prey width. Prey items for which volume could not be calculated
due to lack of measurement data (i.e. fragmented prey) were assigned the median prey volume
for that order.

In order to assess the overall importance of a prey category, based on the percentage of
number, frequency and volume, we used the Index of Relative Importance (IRI, Pinkas et al.,
1971). We characterized the niche breadth of each anuran species with the Shannon-Weaver's
measure of evenness (*J'*), which is a modified from the Shannon-Weaver index (*H'*, Shannon
and Weaver 1964). For the niche breadth analyses, we only included habitat types where the *Hoplobatrachus tigerinus* and the native anurans co-occurred (plantation and agriculture); we

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186	did not find <i>H. tigerinus</i> in undisturbed and disturbed forest plots, although there have been
187	observations of a few individuals along forest streams (Harikrishnan & Vasudevan, 2013).
188	To test for diet overlap between the three species, we employed the MacArthur and Levins'
189	index Ojk (MacArthur and Levins 1967) in the pgirmess package (Giraudoux 2017); we built null
190	models using the 'niche_null_model' function of the EcoSimR package (Gotelli et al. 2015) to
191	test for statistical significance of <i>Ojk</i> . We also assessed prey availability for each site across both
192	dry and wet seasons, using the Simpson's diversity index (Supplemental Information 1). We
193	determined electivity of terrestrial invertebrate prey by the three species of anurans, using the
194	Relativized Electivity Index (Vanderploeg & Scavia 1979). Following Measey (1998), we
195	computed electivity for only those prey taxa with $n \ge 10$ prey items for <i>Hoplobatrahus tigerinus</i>
196	and <i>Limnonectes</i> ; given the low sample size for <i>Fejervarya</i> (Table 1), we fixed the cut-off at $n \ge 1$
197	5. Further, electivity for <i>H. tigerinus</i> was calculated only for agriculture and plantations;
198	electivity for Fejervarya was considered only for one site with adequate sample size: Wandoor
199	(Table 1). All analyses were carried out in the statistical software R 3.4.1 (R Core Team 2017).
200	RESULTS

Overall, we sampled 798 individuals of two native anurans and the invasive *Hoplobatrachus tigerinus* (Table 1). We obtained 1478 prey items belonging to 35 taxonomic categories in the
stomach of 688 anurans (Table 2, Supplemental Information 2). Vacuity index (i.e. proportion of
empty stomachs) was higher in the dry season (19.68%) as compared to the wet season
(8.67%). Less than 4% of prey items remained unidentified, mostly due to advanced levels of
digestion. *Hoplobatrachus tigerinus* consumed prey items under the most numbers of

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207 taxonomic categories (29), followed by *Limnonectes* (25), and *Fejervarya* (14). Vertebrates were 208 consumed by both H. tigerinus and Limnonectes, although the numeric and volumetric 209 percentage of vertebrates consumed was higher in the case of *H. tigerinus* (2.62%, 58.03%) as compared to Limnonectes (0.48%, 5.16%; Table 2). Based on IRI, coleopterans and orthopterans 210 211 constituted the major prey of H. tigerinus and Limnonectes, whereas, formicids and coleopterans formed the majority in the diet of *Fejervarya* (Table 2). 212 Niche breadth (J') varied only slightly between dry and wet seasons in all three anurans (Fig. 3). 213 It was highest for *Limnonectes*, followed by *Hoplobatrachus tigerinus*, and *Fejervarya* (Fig. 3). 214 The diet of *H. tigerinus* overlapped significantly with that of *Limnonectes* (*Ojk* = 0.87, lower-tail 215 p > 0.999, upper-tail p < 0.001 but there was no significant overlap with Fejervarya (Ojk = 0.35, 216 lower-tail p = 0.919, upper-tail p = 0.08). The diet of the two native anurans overlapped 217 significantly (Ojk = 0.58, lower-tail p = 0.967, upper-tail p = 0.03). 218 219 Based on availability of terrestrial invertebrates, prey electivity of all three species appeared to be driven by the relationship between predator-prey body sizes (Fig. 4). While the largest 220 221 species, *Hoplobatrachus tigerinus*, strongly selected for moderately large to large prey (≥ 100 mm³), the smallest anuran, Fejervarya, selected for prey items smaller than <10 mm³; the 222 medium sized Limnonectes chose small and moderately large prey items (10 mm³ – 500 mm³), 223 224 although the magnitude of electivity (positive or negative) was lowest for this species (Fig. 1; 225 Fig. 4). Most of the prey consumed by the three species was terrestrial, hard, and evasive; diet 226 of *Limnonectes* included a relatively high proportion of soft and sedentary prey.

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We observed several endemic vertebrate species in the diet of *H. tigerinus*, including the
Andaman emerald gecko *Phelsuma andamanensis*, Chakrapani's narrow mouthed frog *Microhyla chakrapani*, the Andaman skink *Eutropis andamanensis*, and Oates's blind snake *Typhlophs oatesii*. We also found *Limnonectes*, one unidentified rodent, and the invasive *Calotes versicolor* in the diet of *H. tigerinus*.

232 DISCUSSION

We expected the diet of *H. tigerinus* to overlap significantly with the diet of both species of native anurans. However, we found a significant overlap only with *Limnonectes*, such that when prey is limited competition may arise. As expected, small vertebrates constituted a majority of *H. tigerinus* diet by volume, suggesting potential impact by predation on a large proportion of the endemic island fauna. Diets of the three species were mostly governed by a strong positive relationship between predator-prey body sizes. Niche breadth analyses did not indicate significant changes in diet between seasons.

240 We observed 86% niche overlap between Hoplobatrachus tigerinus and Limnonectes, which was statistically significant in comparison to the constructed null model; whereas, niche overlap 241 242 of *H. tigerinus* with *Fejervarya* was not significant. On the other hand, prey electivity (based on 243 prey availability) suggests that *H. tigerinus* strongly elected for moderately large to large prey whereas small and moderately large prey were elected by *Limnonectes* (Fig. 4). This may result 244 245 in competition for prey ranging from $10 - 500 \text{ mm}^3$ between the two species, under the conditions of limited prey. Although there was a clear positive relationship between predator-246 prey body sizes at the species level (Fig. 4), we did not observe increased dietary overlap (in 247

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248 terms of prey taxa) for relatively large *Limnonectes* and relatively small *H. tigerinus*. Trophic 249 competition in amphibians may lead to a decrease in fitness (e.g. growth rate) and affect 250 population level processes (Benard & Maher, 2011). Impact of invasive amphibians (postmetamorphic) via trophic competition has been documented in fewer studies as compared to 251 252 predation (Measey et al., 2016), but this mechanism may affect taxa at various trophic levels 253 (Smith et al., 2016). Metamorphs of *H. tigerinus* may also compete with both *Fejervarya and* 254 *Limnonectes* as they would fall under the same size class (20 mm-60mm; Daniels, 2005). 255 Although our sampling did not evaluate the diet of *H. tigerinus* metamorphs, we think this may 256 be relevant as competition between juvenile *Lithobates catesbianus* and small native anurans 257 has been previously documented in Daishan Island, China (Wu et al., 2005). Evaluating dietary overlap is a pre-cursor to determining trophic competition due to invasive 258 259 populations, which do not have shared evolutionary history with native species. Dietary overlap 260 in co-occurring species may be independently influenced by prey availability (Kuzmin, 1995), prey taxa (Lima, 1998), prey size (Toft, 1981; Vignoli et al., 2009; Crnobrnja-Isailović, 2012) and 261 262 a combination of these factors. Therefore, it is essential to design studies and interpret diet patterns with reference to all three factors, in order to arrive at meaningful inferences on prey 263 264 consumed, dietary overlap, and probable subsequent competition (Kuzmin, 1990; but see 265 Kuzmin, 1995 regarding criteria for competition). Further, prey size should ideally be measured in terms of volume, as it is known to be a better dietary descriptor (Vignoli & Luiselli 2012). 266 Hoplobatrachus tigerinus preved upon three classes of vertebrates (Amphibia, Reptilia, and 267 268 Mammalia), which accounted for a significant proportion of its diet by volume, although

269 vertebrate prey was numerically inferior to invertebrates in the diet. Such major contribution to 270 the volume of prey by vertebrates (despite numerical inferiority) has been observed for 271 Lithobates catesbianus and Xenopus laevis (Boelter et al., 2012; Vogt et al., 2017); anurophagy may also contribute significantly to the diet of many amphibians (Measey et al., 2015; Courant 272 273 et al., 2017). We observed several endemic species in the diet of *H. tigerinus*, which may be vulnerable if frequently preyed upon. *Limnonectes* was also consumed by *H. tigerinus*, thereby, 274 275 indicating a potential two-pronged impact through predation and competition. However, 276 demographic change (if any) in *Limnonectes*, due to predation and competition by *H. tigerinus*, 277 was not evaluated in this study. The invasive *H. tigerinus* on the Andaman Islands reportedly 278 consume poultry (Manish Chandi pers comm., Mohanty & Measey, in review) and stream fish 279 (NPM unpublished data). Despite the presence of a large portion of vertebrates in the diet of H. 280 *tigerinus*, its trophic position (consistency of vertebrate prey consumption) can only be 281 ascertained with stable isotope analyses (Huckembeck et al., 2014). Although, diet analysis of 282 invasive species can identify vulnerable taxa and confirm at least 'minimal' to 'minor' levels of impact through predation and competition (sensu Blackburn et al., 2014; Hawkins et al. 2015), 283 such analysis must be complimented with evidence of trophic level effects to evaluate the 284 285 degree of impact (Smith et al., 2016).

The large proportion of ants in the diet of *Fejervarya* does not necessarily prove specialization for myrmecophagy. Hirai and Matsui (2000) inferred relatively weaker avoidance of ants by *Glandirana rugosa* as compared to other anurans. Although we found the same pattern for *Fejervarya* based on prey electivity (*E*= -0.02), it does not prove weak avoidance either. As social insects, ants may be disproportionately captured in the pitfall traps, it is necessary to

291 compliment diet studies on potentially myrmephagous predators with additional evidence (e.g. 292 cafeteria experiments). Hoplobatrachus tigerinus and Fejervarya chose evasive prey, suggesting 293 that these two species are mostly ambush ('sit and wait') predators; Limnonectes elected 294 sedentary prey along with other prey types, indicating a combination of 'active search' and 'sit 295 and wait' foraging (Huey & Pianka, 1981; Vanhooydonck et al., 2007). Generally, soft bodied 296 prey are considered to provide more nutrition by size as compared to hard prey and therefore, 297 it is hypothesized that species will select soft prey more often than hard prey, which in turn is 298 dependent on prey availability by season (Measey et al., 2011; Carne & Measey 2013). 299 However, we find that diet does not vary considerably across the seasons (Fig. 3) and is 300 governed more by size than hardness of prey (Fig. 4; Werner et al., 1995).

Although our sampling for diet analysis by stomach flushing was adequate (Table 1), our
 assessment of prey availability did not include flying invertebrates and vertebrates, which
 prevents us from carrying out electivity analyses on these taxa.

304 CONCLUSION

Diet analyses of *Hoplobatrachus tigerinus* revealed significant predation on endemic
vertebrates and a high diet overlap with large-bodied native anurans, indicating direct
predation. Given the observed high density of *H. tigerinus* in human modified habitats on the
Andaman archipelago (NPM unpublished data), trophic competition and predation by *H. tigerinus* may have a significant impact on native anuran populations in these habitats. In
addition to quantifying the trophic niche of anurans belonging to three genera, we stress the

- 311 necessity to evaluate prey availability and volume in future studies for meaningful insights into
- 312 diet of amphibians.

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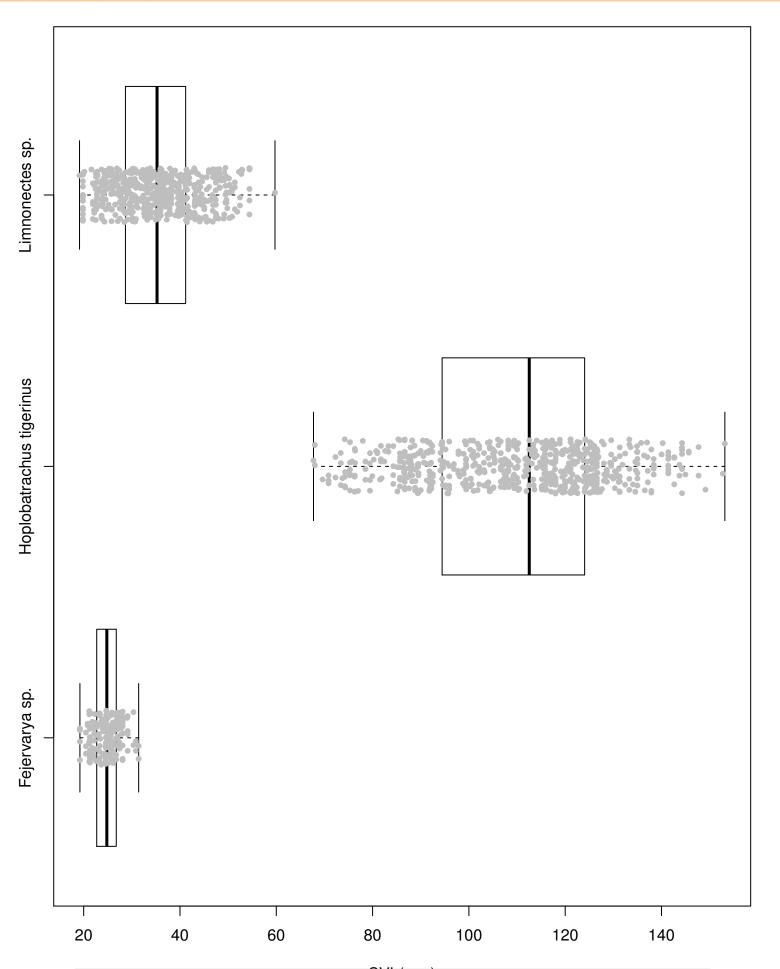
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Figure 1(on next page)

Snout-vent length of three species of anurans used for dietassessment.

Individuals belong to the invasive Indian bullfrog *Hoplobatrachus tigerinus* and the native *Limnonectes* spp. and *Fejervarya* spp., sampled at three locations on the Andaman archipelago.



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Figure 2

Study area map showing the major islands of theAndaman archipelago and the three sampling locations.

Diet assessment of *Hoplobatrachus tigerinus*, *Limnonectes* spp., and *Fejervarya* spp. were carried out from February 2017 – July 2017.

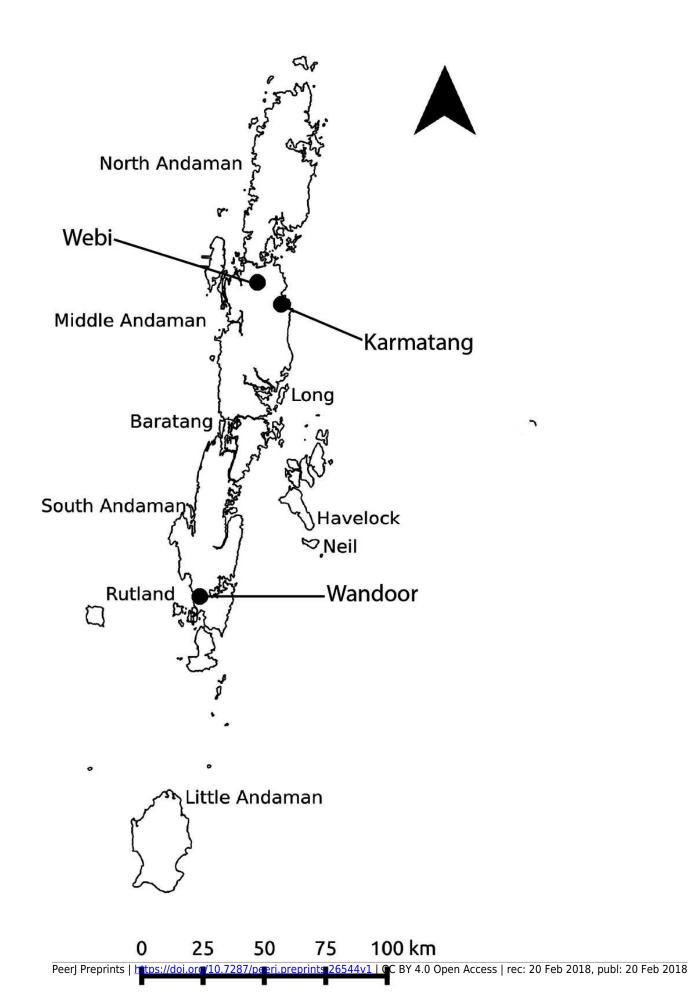


Figure 3

Niche breadth (J') of the invasive *Hoplobatrachustigerinus* and the native *Limnonectes* spp.and *Fejervarya* spp., across dry(February-April) and wet seasons (May-July).

Niche breadth calculated for anuran individuals captured from agricultural fields and plantations, where both invasive and native anurans co-occur at the three sampling locations on the Andaman archipelago.

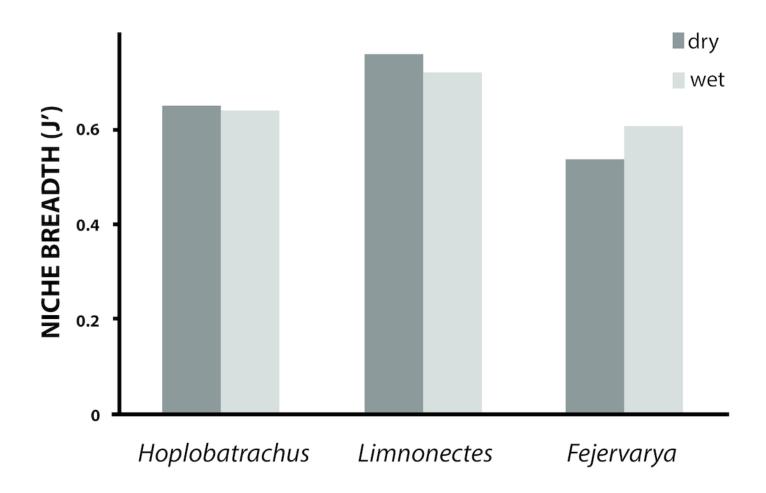


Figure 4

Prey electivity in terms of volume, by the invasive *Hoplobatrachustigerinus* and native *Limnonectes* spp.and *Fejervarya* spp.

Prey electivity based on prey consumption and availability, at three sites on the Andaman archipelago.

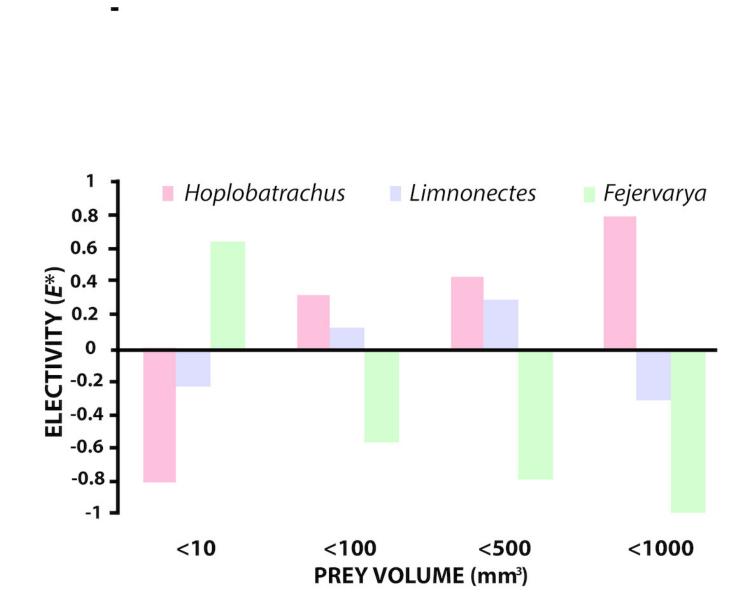


Table 1(on next page)

Sampling effort for diet assessment of theinvasive *Hoplobatrachus tigerinus* andnative *Limnonectes* spp. and *Fejervarya* spp.

Sampling carried out in four habitat types across two seasons, at three sampling locations on the Andaman Islands.

- 1 **Table 1:** Sampling effort for diet assessment of the invasive *Hoplobatrachus tigerinus* and native
- 2 Limnonectes spp. and Fejervarya spp. Sampling carried out in four habitat types across two
- 3 seasons, at three sampling locations on the Andaman Islands.
- 4

	Agriculture Plan		Plant	tation	Disturbe	Undisturbed Fore		
	dry	wet	dry	wet	dry	wet	dry	wet
H. tigerinus								
Karmatang	41	35	29	29	0	0	0	0
Webi	32	35	48	38	0	0	0	0
Wandoor	0	0	38	33	0	0	0	0
Limnonectes								
Karmatang	0	17	5	26	0	25	0	22
Webi	14	17	19	26	13	17	13	17
Wandoor	7	21	17	29	19	11	30	10
Fejervarya								
Karmatang	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Webi	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Wandoor	19	17	13	2	10	0	2	0

6

Table 2(on next page)

Diet of three species of anurans on the Andamanarchipelago

Diet of *Hoplobatrachus tigerinus*, *Limnonectes* spp. and *Fejervarya* spp. described in terms of percentage N – prey abundance, V – volume, F – frequency of occurrence in anurans, and IRI – Index of relative importance.



- 1 Table 2: Diet of three species of anurans on the Andaman archipelago, described in terms of percentage N prey abundance, V –
- 2 volume, F frequency of occurrence in anurans, and IRI Index of relative importance.
- 3

H	loplobat	rachus tig	gerinus			Limn	onectes		Fejervarya				
Prey	N%	V%	F%	IRI	N%	V%	F%	IRI	N%	V%	F%	IRI	
Acari	0	0	0	0	0.32	0.006	0.39	0.12	0.57	0.14	0.84	0.61	
Agamidae	0.43	50.44	0.57	29.07	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Amphipoda	0	0	0	0	0.48	0.07	0.58	0.32	0	0	0	0	
Anura	0.87	4.95	1.14	6.65	0.32	5.12	0.39	2.12	0	0	0	0	
Aranae	3.20	0.73	4	15.74	7.60	2.27	8.59	84.93	7.51	7.75	10.16	155.23	
Arthropoda	6.55	0	8.57	56.22	5.50	0	6.64	36.53	0.57	0	0.84	0.48	
Blattaria	1.45	0.33	1.90	3.42	1.29	0.71	1.56	3.14	0	0	0	0	
Chilopoda	3.35	6.15	2.85	27.15	3.23	2.75	3.9	23.41	1.15	7.62	1.69	14.88	
Coleoptera	29.73	12.14	24.57	1029.14	15.85	10.34	15.42	404.29	9.24	20.50	12.71	378.16	
Crab	0.58	2.40	0.76	2.27	0.16	0.81	0.19	0.19	0	0	0	0	

Dermaptera	0.14	0.009	0.19	0.02	1.61	0.20	1.95	3.55	0	0	0	0
Dermapteru	0.14	0.005	0.19	0.02	1.01	0.20	1.55	5.55	Ŭ	Ū	0	Ũ
Diplopoda	0.87	0.07	0.76	0.72	3.55	0.73	3.12	13.41	0	0	0	0
Diptera	1.89	0.56	1.52	3.74	4.04	0.09	3.9	16.15	14.45	3.38	14.40	256.95
Formicidae	3.93	0.37	3.80	16.42	10.19	0.24	8.00	83.58	38.72	5.80	23.72	1056.60
Gastropoda	4.22	0.71	4	19.76	3.23	1.5	3.32	15.72	0	0	0	0
Geckonnidae	0.14	0.45	0.19	0.11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Hemiptera	0.58	0.19	0.76	0.59	2.10	0.35	2.34	5.77	5.20	10.96	5.08	82.18
Hymenoptera	0.14	0.004	0.19	0.02	0	0	0	0	1.15	0.86	0.84	1.70
Insecta	1.45	0	1.90	2.77	1.29	0	1.36	1.76	6.35	0	9.32	59.27
Isoptera	2.62	0.24	2.09	6.01	7.44	1.88	4.49	41.89	2.31	0.87	3.38	10.81
Lacertidae	0.29	0.90	0.38	0.45	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Lepidoptera	1.31	0.24	1.33	2.07	0.48	0.14	0.39	0.24	0	0	0	0
Leplarva	6.26	3.01	7.42	68.95	6.63	5.95	6.64	83.59	3.46	15.08	4.23	78.61
Mantodea	0.29	0.72	0.38	0.38	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Odonata	0.72	0.07	0.95	0.76	0.16	0.04	0.19	0.04	0	0	0	0

Oligochaeta	1.31	0.77	1.52	3.18	4.69	54.54	4.10	242.95	0	0	0	0
Opilionida	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Orthoptera	24.48	12.62	24.19	897.74	13.26	9.45	14.84	337.34	3.46	20.01	5.08	119.39
Rodent	0.14	0	0.19	0.02	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Scincidae	0.14	0.62	0.19	0.14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Serpentes	0.58	0.67	0.76	0.95	0.16	0.04	0.19	0.04	0	0	0	0
Siphonaptera	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.57	0.075	0.84	0.55
Slug	0.29	0.27	0.38	0.21	0.80	1.97	0.78	2.17	0	0	0	0
Unidentified	1.89	0.26	2.47	5.35	5.33	0.69	6.44	38.87	5.20	6.92	6.77	82.19
Zygentoma	0	0	0	0	0.16	0.01	0.19	0.03	0	0	0	0

4