High-quality assemblies for three invasive social wasps from the *Vespula* genus

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germanica) and JACSEA000000000 (Vespula vulgaris). The annotations used in
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Abstract

52 to chemical control.

38	Social wasps of the genus $\mathit{Vespula}$ have spread to nearly all landmasses worldwide and
39	have become significant pests in their introduced ranges, affecting economies and
40	biodiversity. Comprehensive genome assemblies and annotations for these species are
41	required to develop the next generation of control strategies and monitor existing
42	chemical control. We sequenced and annotated the genomes of the common wasp
43	(Vespula vulgaris), German wasp $(Vespula germanica)$, and the western yellowjacket
44	(Vespula pensylvanica). Our chromosome-level Vespula assemblies each contain 176-
45	179 Mb of total sequence assembled into 25 scaffolds, with 10–200 unanchored
46	scaffolds, and 16,566–18,948 genes. We annotated gene sets relevant to the applied
47	management of invasive wasp populations, including genes associated with
48	spermatogenesis and development, pesticide resistance, olfactory receptors, immunity
49	and venom. These genomes provide evidence for active DNA methylation in Vespidae
50	and tandem duplications of venom genes. Our genomic resources will contribute to the
51	development of next-generation control strategies, and monitoring potential resistance

Introduction

53 Social wasps (Hymenoptera: Vespidae) are remarkable because their highly eusocial 54 lifestyle appears to have evolved independently of other eusocial Hymenoptera 55 (Piekarski et al. 2018; Hines et al. 2007; Peters et al. 2017). The eusocial lifestyle is characterized by overlapping generations of adults living together, cooperative care of 56 57 offspring and reproductive division of labor (Michener and Brothers 1974). Along with 58 their foraging flexibility and predatory ability, eusociality appears to play a major role in 59 the ecological success of social waps (Grimaldi and Engel 2005; Lester and Beggs 2019). 60 Vespid wasps can be effective pollinators of plants including ivy or orchid species 61 (Cheng et al. 2009; Jacobs et al. 2010). They are generalist predators and effect 62 biological control of some pest species (Donovan 2003). Their ecological success can 63 also be problematic. Invasive colonies of common wasps (Vespula vulgaris) can contain 64 up to 230,000 workers, while nests of the western yellowjacket (*Vespula pensylvanica*) 65 containing up to half a million individuals have been observed (Lester and Beggs 2019). 66 Colonies are smaller in the native ranges (Archer and Turner 2014 p. 61). In New 67 Zealand's native beech forests, Vespid wasp populations can reach up to 40 nests per 68 hectare and have a biomass similar to, or greater than, the combined biomasses of birds 69 and mammals (Thomas et al. 1990; Lester et al. 2017). These invasive Vespid 70 populations (Figure 1; Lester and Beggs 2019) have major impacts on ecosystems 71 because of their large colony sizes, reproductive capacity and flexible predation. 72 Current control methods for vespid wasps are limited, with pesticides containing 73 Fipronil being the most common and widespread chemical control method (Edwards et 74 al. 2017). The use of this neurotoxic pesticide over large areas, and over consecutive 75 years, may select for resistance. Fipronil resistance has been observed in other 76 economically important insect pests (Matsumura et al. 2008; reviewed in Feyereisen et 77 al. 2015). Next-generation pest control technologies, including gene drives, have been 78 proposed as part of an alternative solution for controlling or eradicating invasive social 79 wasps (Dearden et al. 2018). Targets for genetic modification include developmental 80 genes associated with wasp fitness or fecundity (Lester and Beggs 2019; Dearden et al. 81 2018). Gene drives that have immune system targets have been proposed and developed 82 in the laboratory for other pests such as mosquitoes (e.g. Gantz et al. 2015; Dong et al. 83 2018). Detailed knowledge of *Vespula* genomes is required to ensure that targeted 84 control of Vespids does not affect other beneficial Hymenoptera, such as honeybees or 85 biocontrol agents. 86 Five genomes from the *Polistes* genus of the Vespidae subclade are available in the NCBI 87 Genome database. Genomes for *Polistes canadensis* and *Polistes dominula* were 88 assembled from short reads (Standage et al. 2016; Patalano et al. 2015). Genomes for 89 Polistes dorsalis, Polistes fuscatus and Polistes metricus, based on Pacific Biosciences 90 single-molecule sequencing, were recently deposited in the NCBI database (Miller et al. 91 2020). The three long-read genomes have improved contiguity compared to the short-92 read genomes produced for *P. dominula* and *P. canadensis* (Standage *et al.* 2016; 93 Patalano et al. 2015; Miller et al. 2020). Here, we report chromosome-level assemblies 94 for three Vespula species that are invasive pests in their introduced ranges (Figure 1; 95 Lester and Beggs 2019). We undertake manual and computational annotation and 96 phylogenomic analyses, with emphasis on sets of genes relevant to chemical control, olfaction, venom and DNA methylation. These resources will be useful for 97 98 understanding the biology of vespid wasps, developing next-generation control 99 strategies, and monitoring resistance to current chemical control.

Figure 1: Vespula species are major invasive pests. A–C. Examples of (A) Vespula germanica, (B) Vespula pensylvanica (Jon Sullivan, public domain), and (C) Vespula vulgaris (Sid Mosdell, CC BY 2.0). D. Native and invaded ranges of the sequenced Vespula species. E. Rooted phylogenetic species tree of Vespula species and other sequenced Hymenoptera, with Drosophila melanogaster as an outspecies, derived from 415 orthogroups using OrthoFinder.

100

Materials and Methods

101	Genome assembly and scaffolding : Vespula pensylvanica samples were collected
102	in Volcano, Hawaii in August, 2017 (lat 19.43, lon -155.21). The V. pensylvanica
103	assembly was produced by Dovetail Genomics (https://dovetailgenomics.com/),
104	starting with an Illumina library generated from a single haploid male to produce 115.5
105	Gb of 150bp paired-end reads. After trimming adaptors and removing bases or
106	truncating reads with low quality scores, the draft genome was assembled with
107	Meraculous 2.2.6 using a kmer size of 55, which produced the best fit with a constrained
108	heterozygous model (Chapman ${\it et~al.}$ 2011, 2016). Chromosome-scale scaffolds were
109	generated using Chicago and Dovetail Hi-C data from diploid females, and implemented
110	using Dovetail's proprietary HiRise software.
111	We collected <i>V. vulgaris</i> samples in May 2015, from Richmond Hill Forest Park, New
112	Zealand (lat -41.3292, lon 173.4637). V. germanica samples were collected in March
113	2018, from Lincoln, New Zealand (lat -43.6384, lon 172.4784). We used libraries
114	generated from a single, haploid male to produce 17.1 Gb of 150b paired-end reads and
115	27.3 Gb of 125b paired-end reads, respectively. After trimming adaptor sequences,
116	removing contaminants and verifying pairing with BBMap 38.00 (Bushnell 2014), we
117	assembled draft genomes with Meraculous 2.2.6 (Chapman $\it et~al.~$ 2011, 2016). We
118	repeated assembly with a range of parameters, and used BUSCO analysis (Simão $et\ al.$
119	2015), assembly size and contiguity statistics to choose the best set of parameters for
120	each dataset. Code for running and assessing the assemblies is hosted at
121	https://github.com/tomharrop/vger-illumina and https://github.com/tomharrop/vvul-
122	illumina. Draft genomes were scaffolded by Phase Genomics using Hi-C data generated
123	from pools of 20 larvae. Chromatin conformation capture data was generated using
124	Phase Genomics Proximo Hi-C 2.0 Kit, which is a commercially available version of the
125	Hi-C protocol (Lieberman-Aiden ${\it et~al.}$ 2009). The Phase Genomics Proximo Hi-C
126	genome scaffolding platform was used to create chromosome-scale scaffolds from the
127	corrected assembly as described Bickhart et al. (2017).
128	Genome curation: Command-line arguments and scripts can be found at
129	https://github.com/jguhlin/vespula_paper. Assembled genomes were cleared of

- contamination by removing contigs which had BLAST taxonomy results which did not
- include *Polistes*, *Vespula*, or the word "wasp". Contigs without BLAST results were kept
- if they contained predicted genes found in a Hymenoptera orthogroup from an initial
- 133 gene prediction. Remaining contigs were only kept if they fell within 2 standard
- deviations of mean GC% of our kept contigs. The largest 25 chromosomes of V.
- 135 *pensylvanica* were renamed to chromosomes and ordered according to size. Our *V*.
- 136 *vulgaris* and *V. germanica* assemblies were aligned to the *V. pensylvanica* genome
- using D-GENIES, which inserts contigs into syntenic locations, flanked by 100 Ns, to
- assign chromosome names to those most related to those in *V. pensylvanica*
- 139 (Cabanettes and Klopp 2018). Scaffolds were numbered with four digits in order of size.
- 140 **Repeat Masking**: Repeats were identified using RepeatModeler 2.0.1
- 141 (github.com/ Dfam-consortium/ RepeatModeler) and RepeatMasker 4.0.9
- 142 (repeatmasker.org/RMDownload.html) via the funannotate pipeline (Palmer and
- 143 Stajich 2019).
- 144 **RNA sequencing**: *Vespula vulgaris* queens, workers, and larvae were sampled from
- 145 mature nests in the native range of Belgium and the introduced range in New Zealand
- and total RNA transcriptome data was generated as described by Gruber et al. (2019).
- 147 **Gene Prediction**: We performed iterative gene prediction using the Funannotate
- 148 pipeline v1.6.0, manual annotation, and extrinsic protein evidence (Palmer and Stajich
- 149 2019). For *V. vulgaris* we used RNA-seq reads (described in the previous section) from
- 150 V. vulgaris gueens, workers, and larvae as additional evidence. The reads were trimmed
- 151 with sickle (github.com/ najoshi/ sickle) and aligned to our assembly using STAR in two-
- pass mode (Dobin *et al.* 2012). Gene predictions were performed on the assembly using
- 153 funannotate predict with the RNA alignments and extrinsic protein of all *Vespula*
- proteins from NCBI, Apis mellifera, Nasonia vitripennis, and the UniProt SWISS-PROT
- database (Boutet et al. 2007; Pruitt et al. 2005; The Honeybee Genome Sequencing
- 156 Consortium 2006; Werren *et al.* 2010).
- 157 Initial predictions were evaluated with GeneValidator with UniProt SWISS-PROT
- database as the high-quality targets. Genes whose protein predictions scored > 90 were
- used to train Augustus via the optimize augustus.pl script (Drăgan et al. 2016). The

160	prediction step of funannotate was then re-run as before using the trained vvulg
161	AUGUSTUS species definition. This allowed retention of high-quality gene predictions
162	from the target species to be used as a training set for AUGUSTUS gene prediction, a
163	component of the funannotate pipeline. This process was repeated for <i>V. pensylvanica</i>
164	and $\emph{V. germanica}$ using $\emph{V. vulgaris}$ species definition as the initial AUGUSTUS species
165	in the first iteration of gene prediction, generating a species-specific configuration in the
166	following round. This two-step gene prediction with validation and training using high-
167	confidence gene calls between the first and second round allowed for the creation of
168	species-specific AUGUSTUS models.
169	Manual Curation: Genes were manually curated in WebApollo (Lee et al. 2013).
170	These manual annotations took precedence over intersecting computational gene
171	predictions. Manual annotation was performed on V . $vulgaris$ and lifted over to V .
172	germanica and V. pensylvanica where possible.
173	Gene Family Specific Predictions: Gene-family specific predictions were enhanced
174	using AUGUSTUS-PPX for the LGIC and Olfactory families (Keller et al. 2011). Protein
175	sequences of interest from external sources were clustered based on bitscore using
176	BLAST+ and MCL (Dongen 2000). Clusters of protein sequences were converted to
177	protein profiles via AUGUSTUS tool msa2prfl.pl Assemblies were searched with
178	fastBlockSearch and gene prediction was performed on matched regions with an
179	additional flanking sequence of 1kbp. These predictions took precedence over
180	intersecting computationally predicted genes.
181	Annotation: Further annotation was performed with funannotate using InterProScan
182	5.32-71.0 (Mitchell $\it et~al.~$ 2019). Genes were renamed using custom scripts. Protein
183	predictions were compared with GeneValidator to both our Hymenoptera + $Drosophila$
184	Protein Set and UniProt-SwissProt to generate GV scores and statistics. Proteins were
185	compared with the publicly available genomes from Hymenoptera base using
186	OrthoFinder (Elsik <i>et al.</i> 2016; Emms and Kelly 2019).
187	Methylation analysis: Nucleotide and dinucleotide content of gene body sequences
188	were calculated using a custom perl script. CpG[o/e] was calculated as the number of
189	CpG dinucleotides divided by the number of C nucleotides times the number of G

190	nucleotides. The number of components in CpG[o/e] distributions was estimated in R
191	(R Core Team 2015) using mclust model-based clustering (Scrucca $et\ al.\ 2016$). The best
192	fitting model was identified among several non-nested models using Bayesian
193	information criteria (BIC).
194	Data availability: Raw sequence data are hosted in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive
100	'
195	under accession PRJNA643352. Assembled genomes are available on GenBank under
195	under accession PRJNA643352. Assembled genomes are available on GenBank under accessions JACSDY000000000 (<i>Vespula pensylvanica</i>), JACSDZ000000000 (<i>Vespula pensylvanica</i>)

Results and discussion

198 Genome assemblies and annotation: We used a combination of short-read 199 Illumina sequencing and Hi-C scaffolding to assemble draft genomes for V. germanica, 200 V. pensylvanica, and V. vulgaris. The genomes each contain 176–179 Mb of total 201 sequence assembled into 25 superscaffolds (Figure 2A; Supplementary table 1; N₅₀ 202 length 8.30–8.53 Mb), which likely represent the 25 chromosomes observed in Vespula 203 karyotypes (Hoshiba et al. 1989). Each draft genome also contains 10–200 unanchored 204 scaffolds (N₅₀ lengths 1.77–2.28 kb; Supplementary table 2). These genomes are similar 205 in size to the genomes of the closely related European paper wasp, *Polistes dominula* (Standage et al. 2016), and the red paper wasp, Polistes canadensis (Patalano et al. 206 207 2015). However, the contiguity in our *Vespula* assemblies is higher than Illumina-based 208 assemblies of other Vespidae, and comparable to the latest-generation Apis mellifera 209 assembly (Table 1). We ordered and named scaffolds in the Vespula assemblies based on 210 scaffold length in *V. pensylvanica*. The three genomes are highly syntenic, with evidence 211 of some structural rearrangements (Figure 2B; Supplementary Figure 1). Repeat 212 masking masked 17.86%, 18.75% and 18.71% of the V. vulgaris, V. pensylvanica, and V. 213 germanica genomes, respectively. We predicted 16,751, 17,854, and 19,142 genes for V. 214 vulgaris, V. germanica, and V. pensylvanica, respectively. We found between 92.2% and 96.0% of expected single-copy orthologs using BUSCO with the Hymenoptera 215 216 lineage dataset (Simão et al. 2015). The contiguity of our Vespula assemblies and 217 completeness of our annotations indicates that the combination of short-read 218 sequencing and Hi-C scaffolding on haploid material is an effective strategy for assembling high-quality hymenopteran genomes. 219

220

Figure 2: A. Assembled chromosome lengths of the three Vespula species. Chromosomes were named in order of scaffold length in V. pensylvanica. B. Synteny between selected chromosomes of Vespula species. Chromosome 1 has minor translocations and inversions but is syntenic overall. Chromosome 2 has a larger inversion between V. pensylvanica and V. germanica that is not present in V. vulgaris. Chromosome 5 has a large translocation and inversion between V. pensylvanica and V. germanica. Chromosome lengths are scaled to chromosome 1. C. Shared orthogroups between the three Vespula species. D. The pan and core genomes of Hymenoptera. The core genome (the set of orthogroups present in all genomes sampled) decreases as more genomes are sampled, to a final core genome size of 3,092

orthogroups when all 26 hymenopteran genomes are compared. The pan genome (the total set of orthogroups present in one or more of the sampled genomes) does not continue to grow as more genomes are sampled, indicating a closed hymenopteran pan genome. We predicted more orthogroups (13,141–14,022 orthogroups) in Vespula species than in non-Vespula Hymenoptera (median 9,193 orthogroups), which resulted in a larger pan genome in comparisons that included Vespula species. We only analysed genes that were assigned to an orthogroup, and we plotted a random subset of 1,000 comparisons for genome numbers that resulted in more than 1000 comparisons.

221 To predict divergence time of Vespula species from Polistes, we reconstructed a 222 phylogeny using other hymenopteran genomes. Based on a published estimate for 223 Hymenoptera (Peters et al. 2017), the divergence time of Vespid wasps from their last 224 common ancestor with P. dominula is estimated to be 51 million years (95% CI: 34-71 225 million years). Mitochondrial genomes suggest a divergence time of 75 mya (Huang et 226 al. 2019). Scaling our ultrametric phylogenetic tree to the former estimate places 227 separation of V. vulgaris from V. pensylvanica and V. germanica at \sim 6 mya, and 228 separation of V. pensylvanica from V. germanica at 4.5 mya (Supplementary Figure 2). 229 We manually curated 361 gene models in V. vulgaris and used these curations to 230 improve automated prediction steps for the other two species. During manual curation, 231 we focused on a range of gene sets relevant to the evolution and applied management of 232 invasive Vespula spp., including olfactory receptors, pesticide resistance, immunity and 233 viruses, venom, and spermatogenesis and development. 234 To investigate relationships between *Vespula* genes, we clustered predicted proteins 235 into orthogroups with predicted proteins from the Hymenoptera Genome Database, 236 using *Drosophila melanogaster* as the outgroup (Hoskins et al. 2015; Elsik et al. 2016; 237 Emms and Kelly 2019). Each orthogroup contains a set of genes putatively descended 238 from a single gene in the last common ancestor of the species represented in the 239 orthogroup. Between 82.6% and 88.4% of our predicted Vespula proteins belonged to 240 orthogroups. V. vulgaris shares 12,560 and 12,084 orthogroups with V. pensulvanica 241 and V. germanica, respectively, and V. pensylvanica shares 13,209 orthogroups with V. germanica (Figure 2C). Orthogroups including other hymenopteran species allowed us 242 243 to predict the core- and pan-genomes for Hymenoptera (Figure 2D). This analysis 244 suggests that Hymenoptera have a closed pan-genome, because as we include more

245 genomes the rate of discovery of new orthogroups decreases. We also observed more 246 orthogroups in our Vespid genomes than in other Hymenoptera, which could indicate 247 over-prediction resulting from our annotation. 248 93.7–94.5% of predicted orthogroups in *P. canadensis* and 96.0–96.9% in *P. dominula* 249 clustered into orthogroups that contained a Vespula gene. Vespula genes from our 250 annotations were present in 58.9–62.8% of all orthogroups across Hymenoptera and D. 251 melanogaster, compared to 40.7% and 41.2% for P. canadensis and P. dominula. 252 respectively (Table 2). Other hymenopteran species had a member in 37.8-44.5% of 253 othogroups, indicating gene families may be missing in predictions amongst other 254 species. Most of the genes we annotated were in shared orthogroups, with 100 genes 255 (0.1–0.4% per species) in species-specific orthogroups. Other hymenopteran genomes 256 had 0-3.3% (mean 1.7%) of genes in species-specific orthogroups. Our annotation 257 results suggest that Vespid wasps have more genes than other Hymenoptera and/or 258 gene annotation in other Hymenoptera is incomplete. This could be resolved by re-259 annotation of other hymenopteran genes using a comparative approach.

Table 1. Comparison of Vespidae and honeybee genome assembles.

1. Apart from our Vespula assemblies, repeat content was counted from lowercase nucleotides in published assemblies.

Species	Sequenc ing Strategy	Total Sequence	Largest	Scaffol ds/ contigs	N_{50} length	Ns	Gaps	Repea ts¹ (%)
Vespula	Illumin	176,275,1	19,426,3	35	8,304,5	4,147,6	49,6	17.12
vulgaris	a + Hi-C	34	32		10	10	79	
Vespula	Illumin	178,312,2	19,524,1	133	8,396,1	1,783,8	18,9	18.89
germanic	a + Hi-C	46	35		54	64	63	
a								
Vespula	Illumin	179,379,5	19,704,3	225	8,532,7	444,951	4,98	19.15
pensylva	a + Hi-C	62	15		20		7	
nica								
Polistes	Illumin	211,202,2	3,185,66	3,836	521,566	14,106,	15,7	41.60
canadens	a	12	1			256	55	
is								
Polistes	Illumin	208,026,	7,126,31	1,483	1,625,5	7,426,6	14,2	44.50
dominula	a	220	5		92	26	86	
Polistes	PacBio	219,116,7	19,629,7	187	9,116,0	4,436,1	1,20	41.79
fuscatus	Sequel	42	04		88	70	4	
	+							
	Illumin							
	a +							
D 1' '	Dovetail	010 000	45.070.0	040	4.004.0	1 000 0	450	44.40
Polistes	PacBio	219,838,		216	4,634,0	1,082,6	459	44.48
metricus	Sequel +	961	25		47	19		
	T Illumin							
	a							

Polistes	10x	209,288,	20,305,	5,129	5,372,6	4,771,9	8,81	42.35
dorsalis	Genomi	276	868		33	23	6	
	CS							
Apis	Sanger	250,287,		5,321	13,219,	21,165,	12,6	5.28
mellifera	+	000	408		345	099	90	
4.5	SOLID							
	+ 454							
Apis	PacBio	225,250,	27,754,2	177	13,619,	1,313,61	51	44.63
mellifera	+ 10x	884	00		445	4		
HAv3.1	Chromi							
	um +							
	BioNan							
	o + Hi-							
	С							

Table 2. Gene content and orthogroup representation for selected hymenopteran genomes

					Genes in
					species-
			Orthogroups	Species-	specific
		Orthogroups	represented	specific	orthogroups
Species	Genes	represented	(%)	orthogroups	(%)
Vespula	16,751	13,141	58.9%	5	0.1%
vulgaris					
Vespula	17,854	13,739	61.6%	23	0.4%
germanica					
Vespula	19,142	14,022	62.8%	11	0.1%
pensylvanica					
Polistes	10,518	9,086	40.7%	12	0.2%
canadensis					
Polistes	11,069	9,193	41.2%	27	0.5%
dominula					
Apis mellifera	14,064	8,949	40.1%	35	0.6%
Nasonia	14,647	8,901	39.9%	616	11.1%
vitripennis					

Evidence for active DNA methylation: DNA methylation has been functionally linked to caste specification in honeybees and ants and division of labour in honeybees (Herb *et al.* 2012; Kucharski *et al.* 2008; Bonasio *et al.* 2012; Guan *et al.* 2013). DNA methylation may be integral for aspects of eusociality (reviewed by Li-Byarlay *et al.* 2013), although recent studies have found no consistent link (Bewick *et al.* 2017; Glastad *et al.* 2017). In mice, Dnmt3 enzymes catalyse *de novo* DNA methylation (reviewed by Goll and Bestor 2005). The genomes of *P. canadensis* and *P. dominula* do not encode a *Dnmt3* homolog (Standage *et al.* 2016; Patalano *et al.* 2015; Bewick *et al.* 2017). While this manuscript was under revision, three new *Polistes* genomes based on Pacific Biosciences single-molecule sequencing were deposited in the NCBI database

270 (Miller et al. 2020). Genome annotations have not been reported for the three long-read 271 *Polistes* genomes. We aligned all five *Polistes* genomes and our *V. germanica* and *V.* 272 pensylvanica genomes against Chr11 of the V. vulgaris genome, which encodes Dnmt3. 273 None of the five *Polistes* genomes have a region that aligns to the *V. vulgaris Dnmt3* 274 locus (Figure 3A). All three Vespula genomes encode an ortholog of Dnmt3, indicating 275 the lack of this gene in *Polistes* is due to gene loss following the divergence from the 276 Vespula lineage approximately 50 million years ago (Peters et al. 2017). Vespula 277 genomes all contain a single ortholog of *Dnmt1* and have evidence of active DNA 278 methylation (Figure 3B; Supplementary Figure 3).

279

Figure 3: A. Whole-genome alignments of five Polistes genomes and genomes of V. germanica and V. pensylvanica against Chr11 of the V. vulgaris genome, showing the Dnmt3 locus (Vvulg11g01820) and the surrounding 20 kb. None of the Polistes assemblies have regions that are homologous to the Dnmt3 locus, and annotations for P. canadensis and P. dominula do not include a Dnmt3 gene (Standage et al. 2016; Patalano et al. 2015; Bewick et al. 2017). All three Vespula genomes encode an ortholog of Dnmt3. B. Frequency histograms of CpG[o/e] observed in coding sequences of Drosophila melanogaster, Apis mellifera, Polistes canadensis, Polistes dominula, Vespula germanica, Vespula vulgaris and Vespula pensylvanica. The y-axis depicts the number of genes (Frequency) with CpG[o/e] values given on the x-axis. The distribution of CpG[o/e] in Vespid wasps is a trimodal distribution, with a low-CpG[o/e] peak consistent with the presence of historical DNA methylation in all five Vespid species.

- 280 **Gene content and duplications**: We found more olfactory receptor (OR) genes in
- 281 *Vespula* genomes than in the genomes of *P. dominula* and *P. canadensis*. We predicted
- 282 120 OR genes in *V. vulgaris*, 133 in *V. germanica*, and 102 in *V. pensylvanica*.
- 283 Annotations for *P. dominula* and *P. canadensis* contain 94 and 72 OR genes,
- respectively (Supplementary table 3). In contrast, honeybee and *Nasonia* genomes
- 285 encode more OR genes (170 and 301, respectively; Robertson and Wanner 2006;
- 286 Robertson et al. 2010). Vespula OR genes cluster into 28 orthogroups. The co-receptor
- 287 Orco is present in all genomes and forms a stable orthogroup (orthogroup 7148; Larsson
- 288 et al. 2004; Jones et al. 2005). In contrast, there are significant expansions of particular
- 289 OR orthogroups in the Vespid wasps, and these differ from the groups expanded in
- 290 *Nasonia* and honeybee (Robertson *et al.* 2010; Robertson and Wanner 2006).
- 291 Orthogroup members are arranged in expanded tandem arrays on chromosome 3

292 (orthogroup 51), chromosome 13 (orthogroup 2434), and chromosome 25 (orthogroup 293 232) of Vespula genomes. In these clusters, numbers of genes vary between species, 294 implying that duplications and deletions are recent and ongoing. Variation in olfactory 295 receptors between wasp species, and between these wasps and other Hymenoptera may 296 indicate species-specific olfactory biology. These may be key to understanding the social 297 behavior and pheromone signalling systems present within these species. 298 Some of the genes encoding venom components also have variable copy numbers in 299 Vespula genomes. The major allergens in Vespula venoms are phospholipase A1, 300 hyaluronidase, and antigen 5 (Biló et al. 2005; Kolarich et al. 2007). Phospholipase A1 301 is found in three tandem copies in the P. dominula and V. germanica genomes 302 (chromosome 9 in Vespula), and one copy in each of the V. pensulvanica and V. 303 *vulgaris* genomes. The phylogenetic placement of these duplicates in *Polistes* and *V*. 304 germanica (Figure 4) implies that these are independent amplifications. The 305 hyluronidase gene is duplicated in our three Vespid genomes, but not *P. dominula*. 306 These are tandem duplications that appear to have been present in the last common 307 ancestor of the three Vespula species. P. dominula, V. germanica and V. pensylvanica 308 also have two Antigen 5 genes, but these duplications appear ancient before the 309 common ancestor of Hymenoptera (Figure 4). In Vespula species, one copy is on 310 chromosome 6 and one is on chromosome 7. In V. vulgaris, the chromosome 6 copy is 311 absent. Duplication of venom genes in Vespids is no surprise, given the importance of 312 venom to their life cycle.

313

Figure 4: Ultrametric trees of orthogroups encoding Vespid wasp venom components in insect genomes. A. Venom hyaluronidase phylogram showing duplication of this gene in Vespid genomes but not Polistes. B. Venom phospholipase phylogram indicating independent duplications in Polistes and V. germanica from a single gene ancestor in related Hymenoptera. C. Antigen 5 phylogram, indicating two genes encode this venom component in Vespid wasps and Polisties, one of which is missing from the V. vulgaris genome.

- 314 Primary chemical control of *Vespula* populations is through the use of baits containing a
- 315 low concentration of the phenylpyrazole insecticide, Fipronil (Lester and Beggs 2019;
- Edwards *et al.* 2017). We used targeted prediction to identify ligand-gated ion channel

317 (LGIC), olfactory receptor, and spermatogenesis genes using Augustus protein profiles (Keller et al. 2011). Our annotation of the Fipronil target site, the GABA receptor 318 319 Resistant to dieldrin (Rdl), did not suggest the presence of the classical Ala301 mutation 320 that confers high resistance. Vespula LGIC receptors are highly conserved, with one-to-321 one orthology in Apis and Bombus (Supplementary Figure 4). This suggests that any 322 chemicals targeting *Vespula* LGICs will also affect bees, as is the case with Fipronil. 323 **Conclusions**: We have produced chromosome-level genome assemblies for three 324 invasive social wasps in the Vespula genus. Our approach of short-read sequencing and 325 Hi-C scaffolding using haploid material allowed us to produce assemblies that exceed 326 the genome quality targets suggested by the i5k insect genome sequencing initiative 327 (scaffold N_{50} length > 300 kb; Richards and Murali 2015). Using manual curation and 328 computational prediction, we have identified genes that may encode specific biology 329 suitable for targeting with next-generation control technologies, and genes that may be 330 affected by selection by current chemical controls. 331 These are the first three genomes from this branch of the Aculeata subclade, which will 332 be useful in phylogenetic comparisons of the remarkable life history characteristics of 333 Hymenoptera. In particular, these genomes will be valuable for understanding the 334 evolution of eusociality, which has appeared twice in Vespid wasps independently of 335 other Hymenoptera (Piekarski et al. 2018; Hines et al. 2007; Peters et al. 2017). 336 Comparing the genomes of Vespid wasps, which are highly eusocial, with the closely 337 related paper wasps, which are primitively eusocial, may also help our understanding of 338 how evolution elaborates mechanisms of colonial living. 339 Vespid wasps are significant invasive pests in many parts of the world. These genomes 340 will be of major importance for applied management of Vespula, in programs using both 341 chemical control methods and for next-generation applications. Our assemblies will 342 provide species-specific targets for novel control methods, such as RNA interference. 343 gene drives and the deployment of damaging viruses. The genomic resources we have 344 developed will also be essential for monitoring the effects of next-generation control 345 methods and measuring genomic variation across natural populations.

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360	GenBank under accessions JACSDY000000000 (Vespula pensylvanica),
361	JACSDZ000000000 (Vespula germanica) and JACSEA000000000 (Vespula
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