Succession of dung-inhabiting beetles and flies reflects the succession of dung-emitted volatile compounds

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1	SUCCESSION OF DUNG-INHABITING BEETLES AND FLIES REFLECTS
2	THE SUCCESSION OF DUNG-EMITTED VOLATILE COMPOUNDS.
3	
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15	
16	Abstract – Chemical cues, such as volatile organic compounds (VOCs), are often essential for
17	insects when locating food. Contrary to communication between insects and plants, the
18	relationships between insect decomposers and the VOCs emitted by dung and carrion are
19	understudied. Such relationships may provide mechanistic understanding of the temporal axis
20	of community assembly processes in decomposing insect communities. We focused on the
21	temporal succession of volatiles released by cow dung pats and their potential influence on
22	dung-inhabiting insects. Using gas chromatography/mass spectrometry we identified the
23	spectrum and total amount of volatile compounds released from dung of one hour, one, two,
24	three, five and seven days old. We then related changes in the spectrum of VOCs to successional
25	patterns of dung-inhabiting beetles and flies. We detected 54 VOCs which formed two

26 successional groups with chemical turnover peaking in two-day-old dung. The early 27 successional group consisted primarily of aliphatic alcohols and phenols, the late one of 28 aliphatic esters, nitrogen- and sulfur-bearing compounds. Flies were predominately associated 29 with the early successional group, mainly with 1-butanol. Beetles were associated 30 predominately with the late successional group, mainly with dimethyl trisulfide. This 31 association between insect and chemical successional patterns supports the idea that habitat 32 filtering drives community assembly of dung-inhabiting insects on ageing resources. Moreover, 33 the affinity of both insect groups to specific VOC groups provides a mechanistic explanation 34 for the predictability of successional patterns found in dung inhabiting insect communities.

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Key Words – Diptera, dung beetles, environmental filtering, ephemeral habitats, temporal
 segregations.

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INTRODUCTION

51 The ability to locate food is of utmost importance for animals and it is achieved by utilizing 52 tactile cues, visual cues, chemical cues (smell, taste) or a combination of all three (Balkenius et al. 2006; Karmakar et al. 2016; Milet-Pinheiro et al. 2015; Schneider et al. 2017). The 53 54 importance of chemical cues has been highlighted recently and there has been an increasing number of studies, e.g., in the field of pollination, reporting that species rely on chemical cues 55 56 when looking for food, even in taxa previously considered to rely heavily on visual cues (Milet-57 Pinheiro et al. 2015; Omura and Honda 2009; Primante and Dötterl 2010). Although there is an 58 abundance of studies focusing on importance of chemical cue utilization in herbivores, 59 including pollinators, and their predators (de Mendonca et al. 1999; Hulcr et al. 2006; Segura 60 et al. 2012), there are proportionally fewer studies focusing on decomposer communities 61 (Frederickx et al. 2012).

62 Insect decomposers locate their resources using volatile organic compounds (VOC) 63 (Frank et al. 2018; Wurmitzer et al. 2017), even to the extent that they can be deceived by plants 64 that mimic the scent of their natural food resources (Jürgens et al. 2006; Jürgens et al. 2013; 65 Marino et al. 2009; Midgley et al. 2015). Communities of insect decomposers inhabit decaying 66 ephemeral resource patches, such as dung and carrion, that are temporally unstable, yet energy 67 rich (Finn 2001). The physical properties of ephemeral resource patches change significantly 68 during their decomposition, e.g. decreasing dung moisture (Gittings and Giller 1998), which is 69 accompanied by changes in chemical composition and profile of volatile compounds emitted, 70 e.g. an increase in alcohols and phenols with time (Varma et al. 2018).

Such changes in VOC profiles should be the primary cue used by insect decomposer communities to identify the specific resource ages and thus be a main mechanism of insect succession along gradient of resource ageing. As such, they would play a major role in the assembly of such communities. This would explain why succession of insect decomposers already seems to reflect the habitat filtering assembly rule (Sladecek et al. 2017a) which is based upon aggregation of species with similar traits induced by environmental conditions (e.g.
variation in chemical cues) (Keddy 1992; Kraft et al. 2015). Moreover, preferences of
decomposer species for certain resource ages seem to be conservative (Sladecek et al. 2013).
Specifically, dung beetle species retain preferences for dung of certain ages even when
introduced to communities that are not native for them (e.g. beetles from Europe to America)
(Wassmer 2014). We assume that these profile preferences indicate habitat suitable for foraging
or breeding (e.g. low dung moisture).

83 We are not aware of any study that focuses on the role of volatile organic compounds in determining the assembly of the whole insect decomposer communities, which inhabit 84 85 ephemeral resource patches. Studies targeting the relations between decomposers and VOCs 86 emitted from their resource generally focus on responses to specific VOCs by few species 87 within a single genus or family (Frederickx et al. 2012; Podskalska et al. 2009; von Hoermann 88 et al. 2011; von Hoermann et al. 2013) or small subset of much larger community (Frank et al. 89 2018; Recinos-Aguilar et al. 2020) and the vast majority of them targeted the carrion-inhabiting 90 insect community. Nevertheless, there is an evidence for potential effects of VOCs on assembly 91 of insect communities along resource ageing. Abundances of carrion-visiting flies increased 92 with increased amounts of VOCs emitted (Recinos-Aguilar et al. 2020). The early successional 93 burying beetles (Silphidae) (Podskalska et al. 2009) and blowflies (Calliphoridae) (Frederickx 94 et al. 2012) prefer the oligosulfides characteristic of early-mid successional carrion, while late 95 successional hide beetles (Dermestidae) respond to carboxylic derivates that are mainly 96 released from more mature carrion (von Hoermann et al. 2011).

97 Our study connects the changes in volatile compounds emitted with the successional 98 composition of the insect decomposer community of dung-inhabiting insects. We sampled both 99 VOCs and insect community in field, using cow dung as a model resource. Cow dung is 100 inhabited by a wide array of organisms, among which beetles and flies play the main ecological

101 role in dung degradation (Wu and Sun 2010), either by destroying dung directly (Slade et al. 102 2007) or by facilitating the activity of other dung-inhabiting biota (Holter 1979; Stevenson and 103 Dindal 1987). Succession in both beetles (Hanski and Koskela 1977; Sladecek et al. 2013) and 104 flies (Hammer 1941; Sladecek et al. 2017b) has been well studied. For succession of dung-105 emitted VOCs, we are aware of just one study carried out in vitro (Varma et al. 2018). The in 106 vitro approach has some limitations, the omission of soil microbiota likely has serious 107 implications relating to volatile emissions, especially since they remove anaerobic microbita 108 (Perez-Valera et al. 2019), and thus probably their VOCs (Saito et al. 2018). Our study therefore 109 represents the first exploration of volatiles as emitted from dung during succession in natural 110 conditions.

111 We asked the following questions:

112 1) Do the total amount of VOCs (total volumes of VOCs in samples in ng.min⁻¹, similarly to 113 abundances in animal/plant communities), compound richness (number of VOCs emitted, 114 similarly to species richness in animal/plant communities) and VOCs composition (multivariate 115 analysis of VOC changes in samples, similarly to changes in species composition in 116 animal/plant communities) change along dung pat ageing?

117 2) Do abundance and species richness of beetles and flies correlate to compound richness and118 total amount of VOCs during ageing of dung pats?

119 3) Are changes in insect community affected by the turnover of VOC with aging?

We expect that the dynamics of dung emitted VOCs will differ to those found by (Varma et al. 2018). In particular, we expect a significant input of alcohols and phenols as produced by gut microbiota (Saito et al. 2018). This microbiota shall later be suppressed by soil microbiota in natural conditions (Perez-Valera et al. 2019), and thus VOCs emitted shall change from anaerobic products (alcohols and phenols) to products of aerobic organisms. Similarly to evidence from carrion communities (Frederickx et al. 2012; Podskalska et al. 2009; von

126	Hoermann et al. 2011), we expect that insect abundances and species richness will change as to
127	reflect both the total amount of VOCs and compound richness. Overall, we expect that dung
128	VOCs will provide a reliable cue for dung-inhabiting insects and explain, at least in part, their
129	successional patterns.
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132	METHODS AND MATERIALS
133	Study site
134	We carried out this study on a 23 ha pasture, 10 km west of Ceske Budejovice, Czech Republic
135	(48°59'2.4"N, 14°24'34.957"E), Central Europe. This pasture hosts a permanent herd of 30
136	adult cows and has been continuously grazed for decades. It is situated at 380 m a.s.l., in a
137	region with a mean annual temperature of 8.1 °C, mean annual precipitation of 620 mm, and a
138	vegetation season spanning from March to October (Sladecek et al. 2013).
139	
140	Volatile sampling
141	We sampled the volatiles released by dung in June 2015 ($22 - 29$ th June) from cow dung pats
142	of 1.5 litres volume. The pats were artificially created to ensure that they were of the same age
143	at the time of their creation and of the same volume (Krell 2007). We collected fresh dung
144	immediately after defecation from 20 stalled cows, to avoid any potential insect colonization in
145	the barn where those cows are stalled, and homogenized it. We then created five dung pats at
146	the study site, forming a line with pats placed 10 m apart. We used clean metallic tools to
147	manipulate the dung in order to avoid / minimize contamination potentially induced by using
148	plastic equipment. Each of the pats represented a replicate, of which we repeatedly collected
149	volatiles at one hour, one, two, three, five and seven days after the pats establishment, summing
150	up to 30 samples of volatiles.

151 We sampled the volatiles by placing a glass funnel of 9 cm diameter on the surface of a 152 dung pat. We then trapped volatiles into the adsorbent tubes (quartz microvials, 15 mm length, 153 2 mm inner diameter) filled with 1.5 mg of Tenax-TA 60-80 and 1.5 mg of Carbotrap 20-40 154 (both Supelco), fixed in the tube with glass wool. We sampled volatiles by sucking air with 155 volatiles into those tubes with a 9V operated membrane pump (G12/01 EB, Rietschle Thomas, 156 Puchheim, Germany) (Dötterl et al. 2006; Mitchell et al. 2015). We adjusted the flow by a flow 157 meter to 200 ml.min⁻¹. To validate that our volatile samples are truly emitted by dung, we 158 sampled two blank control samples of volatiles (two per each five dung age samples, e.g. two 159 for samples of 1 hour dung age, two for samples of 1 day dung age, etc.) from the meadow using 160 the same setup, with the glass funnel above the grass layer (~ 10 cm above ground). After 161 preliminary trials using dung of various ages, we decided to sample one hour old dung for five 162 minutes, while we sampled other dung ages, which released smaller amounts of volatiles, for 163 ten minutes.

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165 Chemical analyses

166 We analyzed the volatile samples using gas chromatography/mass spectrometry (GC/MS) to 1) 167 determine the concentration of volatiles released ("Total amount of VOCs", i.e. volume of 168 VOCs in samples, similarly to abundance of species in animal/plant communities) and 2) 169 indentify the volatile compounds present ("compound richness", similarly to species richness 170 in animal/plant communities); and in dung of various ages. We carried out GC/MS analyses 171 using an automatic thermal desorption (TD) system (TD-20, Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan) coupled 172 to a Shimadzu GCMS-QP2010 Ultra equipped with a ZB-5 fused silica column (5% phenyl 173 polysiloxane; 60 m, i.d. 0.25 mm, film thickness 0.25 µm, Phenomenex). For more details on 174 GC/MS and column settings see Heiduk et al (2016). We ran the samples with a 1:1 split and a 175 constant helium carrier gas flow of 1.5 ml/min. The GC oven temperature started at 40°C, then

176 increased by 6°C/min to 250°C and held for 1 min. The MS interface worked at 250°C. Mass 177 spectra were taken at 70 eV (EI mode) from m/z 30 to 350. GC/MS data were processed using 178 the GCMSolution package, Version 2.72 (Shimadzu Corporation 2012). We tentatively 179 identified the compounds by using both, the mass spectral libraries ADAMS (2007), FFNSC 2, 180 W9N11, ESSENTIAL OILS (available in MassFinder 3), and the Kovats retention indices of 181 the compounds (based on n-alkane series). We only considered compounds which had a 182 calculated Kovats index \pm 10 compared to various data bases (Adams 2007; El-Sayed 2018; 183 Nist11). Some of the components were confirmed by comparison of mass spectra and retention 184 times with standard components available in the reference collection of the Plant Ecology Lab 185 of the University of Salzburg. For quantitative analysis, we injected VOCs, 100 ng each of ca. 186 150 components, among them monoterpenes, aliphatic, and aromatic compounds, into the GC-187 MS system. We used the mean of the peak areas (total ion current) of these compounds to 188 estimate the total amount of scent available in the scent samples collected from the pats (see Etl 189 et al. 2016). The total amount of VOCs was standardized to the amount of VOCs trapped per 190 minute, to control for different sampling times (see above).

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192 Insect Sampling

We sampled both adult beetles and adult flies from artificially created dung pats of 1.5 litres volume, which we created in the same manner as we did with the pats for volatile sampling. While collecting the dung used for insect sampling, cows were also fed with hay/silage, the same food offered to the cows while collecting dung for volatile sampling.

We sampled beetles during five sampling sessions in 2009 (11 – 29 April, 17 May – 4
June, 4 – 22 July, 15 August – 2 September and 23 September – 11 October), and flies during
three sampling sessions in 2011 (23 April – 1 May, 16 – 24 July, 26 August – 3 September) and
three sampling sessions in 2012 (9 – 17 May, 27 July – 4 August, 14 – 22 September). We

201 floated the beetles from the dung pats and the underlying portion of soil in a bucket of water. 202 We sampled adult flies from the dung pats' surface using a sweep net. Both beetles and flies 203 were collected from 1, 2, 3, 5 and 7 day old dung pats, while flies were additionally sampled 204 from 1 hour old pats (each successional time was replicated five times in each season). In 205 temperate communities, there are virtually no beetles presented in 1 hour old dung (personal 206 observation), while adult flies reach their maximum abundance on dung 1 hour or less old 207 (Hammer 1941; Mohr 1943; Sladecek et al. 2017b). For additional details on insect sampling, 208 see Sladecek et al. (2013; 2017b).

209 To create a unified dataset from the three separate samplings, we pooled our insect and 210 volatile data. To merge insect data (6 dung ages, 5 replications, 5 (beetles) and 6 (flies) sampling 211 seasons) with the volatile data (6 dung ages, 5 replications), we created "average" insect 212 communities for individual dung ages and replications across seasons to match the insect data 213 with volatile data. Therefore the abundance of flies in 1 hour old dung in replication 1 was a 214 mean abundance of fly abundances in 1 hour old dung in replication 1 across 6 sampling 215 seasons. We conserved the replication structure in our insect data, assigning the respective 216 replication in volatile data to it (e.g. replication 1 in our insect data was associated with replication 1 in our volatile data). In total, we thus obtained 30 samples of insect + volatile data 217 218 (6 dung ages, 5 replications).

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222 Statistical analyses

All data used in this paper are available at the figshare.com repository
(https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.7039553.v1) (Sladecek et al. 2018).

1) Do the total amount of VOCs, compound richness and VOCs composition change alongdung pat ageing?

228 To analyze changes in total amount of VOCs and compound richness across dung age class, we 229 fitted a Generalized Linear Model (GLM) with total amount of scent captured or compound 230 richness as response variables and dung pat age as explanatory variable; in R 4.0.3 (Team 231 2020). We used Gamma (total amount of VOCs; with log as link function) and Poisson 232 (compound richness) distributions of errors for the two models. We validated our models using 233 the DHARMa package (Hartig 2019), checking especially for overdispersion in model with 234 Poisson distribution. We did not include dung pat identity as random effect factor in the models as it explained negligible variance ($<10^{-6}$) in the Generalized Linear Models with Mixed effects 235 236 that were originally calculated (lme4 package) (Bates et al. 2015).

237 We analyzed the temporal changes in VOCs composition along dung pat ageing using 238 Detrended Canonical Correspondence Analysis (DCCA), with detrending by second order 239 polynomial, using CANOCO 5 for Windows (Ter Braak and Smilauer 2012). DCCA is a 240 multivariate technique suitable for datasets with unimodal response variables along predictor 241 variable gradient (Leps and Smilauer 2003). In addition, it also eliminates the 'arch effect' 242 artefact (which was present in the volatile data in non-detrended Canonical Correspondence 243 Analysis that we computed first). We $\log(x+1)$ transformed total amounts of individual VOCs 244 (total volume of each VOC in each sample) prior to the analysis. We used dung pat age as a 245 predictor variable and affinity to replication was included as a block covariate (equivalent to 246 random effect in regressions). We then assessed statistical significance using Monte Carlo 247 permutation tests (999 permutations). Finally, we used Ward's hierarchical clustering in R 4.0.3 248 (Team 2020) to identify successional groups of compounds. This clustering was performed 249 using the compound position (optimum) on the first canonical axis computed by DCCA. Such 250 optima numerically represent compound position on dung age gradient.

2) Do abundance and species richness of beetles and flies correlate to compound richness andtotal amount of VOCs during ageing of dung pats?

254 To test the relationship between beetle and fly abundance/species richness and the total amount 255 of VOCs/compound richness, we ran eight different generalized linear models (GLMs) in R 256 4.0.3 (Team 2020). Each model consisted of one of the above insect related variables (e.g. fly 257 species richness) as the response variable and with the explanatory variable total amount of 258 VOCs or compound richness (a total of eight combinations). All models had a Poisson 259 distribution of errors. We then validated each model using DHARMa (Hartig 2019), to check 260 for overdispersion. Since overdispersion was high in all our models, we fitted final models with 261 quasipoisson distribution of errors.

262

3) Are changes in insect community composition affected by changes in the composition ofvolatiles emitted by dung?

First, we analysed the successional patterns of beetles and flies with Detrended Canonical Correspondence Analysis (DCCA) in CANOCO 5 for Windows (Ter Braak and Smilauer 2012). Separate DCCAs were fitted for beetle and fly community composition, with successional time as an predictor variable. We assessed the statistical significance using Monte Carlo permutation test (999 permutations).

We then analyzed the potential effect of dung emitted volatiles on the dung-inhabiting insect community at two scales. First we ran a Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA) in CANOCO 5 for Windows (Ter Braak and Smilauer 2012) with the multivariate insect data as the response variable. For predictors, we used our VOC data. We chose the volatiles with the highest potential influence on insect community using forward selection of predictor variables in CANOCO 5 for Windows (Ter Braak and Smilauer 2012). We then ran another CCA with insect data as response variables and successional groups of volatiles, retrieved in question one
as the predictor variables. Again, we assessed statistical significance using Monte Carlo
permutation test (999 permutations).

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RESULTS

We recorded a total of 54 dung volatile compounds representing; one aromatic heterocyclic compound, one ionon, two aldehydes, two esters, two ketons, two sulfur-bearing compounds, four terpenoids, four nitrogen-bearing compounds, five aliphatic alcohols, and seven phenols. We were not able to fully identify 24 compounds (Table S1), which were mostly suggested to be derivates of carboxylic acids, although with low support for specific compound identity. We collected a total of 28,284 beetle individuals from 86 species (five families) and 5,139 fly individuals from 37 species and morpho species (17 families).

288

289 1) Do the total amount of VOCs, compound richness and VOCs composition change along dung290 pat ageing?

Both total amount of VOCs (Deviance = -3.208, P < 0.001) and compound richness (F = -3.89, P = 0.007) decreased along dung pat ageing (Fig. 1A) (model coefficients: Table 1). Total amount of VOCs decreased from one hour old pats to two days old pats. There was a subsequent peak of total amount of VOCs in three days old dung pats followed by a relatively steady decline, with a lower total amount of VOCs in five and seven day old pats (Fig. 1B). The compound richness decreased more steadily with its lowest values in two days old dung, while the compound richness was almost identical in one and three days old pats (Fig. 1B).

The composition of volatile compounds was significantly structured along dung pat ageing (F = 14.6, P = 0.001, the first horizontal axis explains 35.5 % of variability in VOC data). Ward's clustering along the successional axis resulted into two major clusters: 1) early301 successional compounds that occurred until two days of dung pat age; and 2) late-successional 302 compounds that occurred after two days of dung pat age (Fig. 2, Fig. S1). Samples from early 303 successional stages were dominated by aliphatic and aromatic alcohols, such as 1-butanol, 304 phenol, and p-cresol. Some of the compounds, such as 3-methylbutanal, were even found only 305 in samples collected from pats one hour or one day old. Dung from late successional stages 306 released mainly nitrogen- (e.g. 2,6-dimethylpiridine) and sulfur-bearing compounds (dimethyl 307 trisulfide), and aromatic esters (isobutyl benzoate). Such stages also released unknown 308 compounds in relatively high amounts (UNK 1365 and 1378). See Fig. S2 for changes of 309 amounts per sample in individual VOCs over the course of dung pat ageing.

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311 2) Do abundance and species richness of beetles and flies correlate to compound richness and312 total amount of VOCs during ageing of dung pats?

313 Fly abundance and species richness were both positively correlated with total amount of VOCs 314 (fly abundance: Deviance = 92.160, P = 0.025; fly species richness: Deviance = 6.658, P = 315 0.016) and compound richness (fly abundance: Deviance = 281.600, P < 0.001; Fly species 316 richness: Deviance = 16.957, P < 0.001) (Table 2). For beetles, only beetle species richness 317 was marginally negatively correlated with compound richness (Deviance = 33.291, P = 0.051). 318 Otherwise, we found a very weak negative association between total amount of VOCs and 319 beetle abundance (Deviance = 35.558, P = 0.487), species richness (Deviance = 26.941, P = 320 0.080), and between beetle abundance and compound richness (Deviance = 10.202, P = 0.710).

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322 3) Are changes in insect community affected by the turnover of compounds with aging?

Both beetle (F = 16.7, P = 0.001, all canonical axes explain 42.11% of variability) and fly (F = 10.0, P = 0.001, all canonical axes explain 26.38% of variability) communities were significantly structured by dung pat age. The majority of fly species reached their highest

abundance in dung that was 1 hour to 2 days old (Fig. S3). In contrast, the majority of beetlespecies reached their highest abundances in dung older than 2 days (Fig. S3).

Among individual volatile compounds, 1-butanol and dimethyl trisulfide had the strongest correlation with insect community structure (F = 21.9, P = 0.001, all canonical axes explain 61.89% of variability) (Fig 3A). Fly species were predominantly associated with 1butanol, with the exception of few late successional groups (e.g. Chironomidae), while beetles were predominantly associated with dimethyl trisulfide.

As we previously identified two prominent successional groups of volatiles (early and late), we analysed their effect on insect community composition. Insect community was significantly structured by volatile successional groups (F = 5.5, P = 0.001, all canonical axes explain 29% of variability). Fly species were predominantly associated with early successional volatiles, again with exception of few very late successional species/families (Fig. 3B), while beetles were predominantly associated with late successional volatiles, with exception of few very early successional species (e.g. *Aphodius erraticus* and *Onthophagus joanne*).

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DISCUSSION

As we expected, the pattern of volatile organic compounds sampled under natural conditions differ markedly from that retrieved from *in vitro* sampling (Varma et al. 2018). Our field samples contained two prominent successional groups of dung emitted volatiles. The early successional group comprised primarily of aliphatic alcohols and phenols (present in dung less than 48 hours old). Late successional group comprised mainly of aliphatic esters, nitrogen and sulphur bearing compounds (present in dung older than 48 hours). In contrast to our expectations, only fly abundance and species richness were negatively associated with the total amount of scents captured, primarily due to a decrease in early successional VOCs amounts in 48 hours old dung. Finally, mostly early successional fly species were associated with early successional VOC compounds (represented by 1-butanol) while later occurring beetles were associated with late successional VOC compounds (represented by dimethyl trisulfide).

355

356 Succession of volatiles emitted from dung

357 The turn-over between early and late successional group of volatiles seems to reflect the 358 interchange in dung microbial community. During dung ageing the early successional anaerobic 359 microbial community, originating in defecators' gut, gets replaced by aerobic microbiota 360 originating in soil (Perez-Valera et al. 2019). Such replacement is facilitated by burrowing 361 activity of macrofauna, primarily by dung-inhabiting insects (Stevenson and Dindal 1987). 362 This explains the exclusive presence of aliphatic alcohols and phenols in early succession, 363 which are either by-products of anaerobic sugar assimilation (alcohols) (Boumba et al. 2008; 364 Dekeirsschieter et al. 2009; Forbes and Perrault 2014) or products of protein asimilation 365 (phenols) (Saito et al. 2018). Late successional group of compounds could be a result of 366 combined activity of insects and aerobic microbiota. A direct contribution by insects to the pool 367 of late successional compounds is highly probable, yet only indirect evidence is available at 368 present. The majority of unidentified volatiles are likely derivates of carboxylic acids, which in 369 turn constitute insect pheromones (Burger et al. 2002). Among other late successional 370 compounds, terpenoids, citrals and their derivates were found to be products of insect defensive 371 glands, especially in Staphylinidae (Dettner and Schwinger 1982; Huth and Dettner 1990), who 372 are the most species rich group of dung-inhabiting beetles at our study site (Sladecek et al. 373 2013). Finally, the nitrogen- and sulphur- bearing compounds could be a result of nucleotide 374 and protein degradation of insects killed by predators or previous anaerobic microbiota 375 (Dekeirsschieter et al. 2009). These connections should be tested directly in future studies.

376 The interchange in anaerobic and aerobic microbial community might explain the 377 pattern in the total amount of VOCs and compound richness, which both decreased between 1 378 hour and 48 hours old dung and peaked in dung 72 hours old before steadily decreasing again. 379 Our results are therefore in strong contrast to previous studies of compound turnover in dung 380 (Varma et al. 2018), which reported general increase in total amounts of VOCs until 7-14 days. 381 It is important to note, however, that the study of Varma (2018) presents results of in vitro 382 experiments, which lack aerobic soil bacteria and insects. Thus, differences between the two 383 studies might be linked to the prescence/absence of insects and as a consequence the prescence 384 or absence of soil bacteria. Further field experiments with exclusion of insects are needed to 385 investigate this assumption.

386 In contrast to carrion, which emits the highest total amounts of VOCs during the mid 387 to mid-late phases of its ageing (Dekeirsschieter et al. 2009; Paczkowski et al. 2015; Stadler et 388 al. 2015), dung emits the highest compound richness and highest total amount of VOCs at the earliest stages. In dung, insect activity leads to lower emission of VOCs via moisture reduction 389 390 and hardening the dung crust (Skidmore 1991), although the crust is still permeable to dung 391 emitted VOCs (Laubach et al. 2013). In carrion, insect activity leads to increase of compound 392 richness and total amount of VOCs due to increase of carrion surface (Matuszewski et al. 2011). 393 In contrast to dung, there are more distinct successional stages along carrion ageing when it 394 comes to the composition of compounds emitted (Dekeirsschieter et al. 2009; Paczkowski et al. 395 2015; Stadler et al. 2015). Indeed there are rather conflicting results for both the identification 396 of individual stages and the succession of carrion VOCs (namely what are very early and very 397 late successional compounds) making a comparison between dung and carrion VOCs 398 succession, in terms of volatile compounds, impossible for now.

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400 Interplay of insect and dung-released VOC succession

401 The most peculiar result of our study is that the two most abundant and species-rich dung-402 inhabiting insect groups reflect the separation between early and late successional compounds. 403 As dung-inhabiting insects depend on chemical cues when locating their food (Frank et al. 404 2018; Wurmitzer et al. 2017), the preference for either early or late successional compounds 405 may allow recognition of environmental conditions suitable for their activity (habitat filtering) 406 (Keddy 1992; Kraft et al. 2015). Alternatively, it may help to avoid inter-specific competition 407 (niche differentiation) (Silvertown 2004), or to assist in locating dung pats with a high number 408 of prey (resource availability) (Hulcr et al. 2006; Segura et al. 2012).

409 The habitat filtering scenario appears as the most probable, at least in temperate 410 communities, where beetles co-occur with fly larvae, the main potential competitors for 411 coprophagous beetles during succession (Sladecek et al. 2017a). In this case, the early 412 successional compounds, their compound richness and total amount of scent captured, may 413 signal to adult flies that the dung is fresh, without a firm crust (personal observation). Such 414 dung pats are ideal feeding and oviposition resources for adult flies (Erzinclioglu 1996; 415 Hammer 1941). The late successional compounds could signal to the adult flies that there is a 416 hard crust on the dung pat with empty galleries underneath (unsuitable for oviposition) 417 (Skidmore 1991). Additionally, such galleries host an ever increasing community of beetle 418 predators which feed on adult flies (Hanski and Koskela 1977; Sladecek et al. 2013). For 419 beetles, in general, the early successional compounds could signal a lethal level of dung 420 moisture (Whipple et al. 2013). Moreover, individual early successional compounds were found 421 to attract fewer beetles than complete bouquets of volatiles released from dung (Frank et al. 422 2018; Wurmitzer et al. 2017). The late successional compounds might provide a cue, signalling 423 prey density to dung-inhabiting predators. Indeed predators inhabiting ephemeral resource 424 patches are well known to use chemical signals for prey localization (Hulcr et al. 2006; Segura 425 et al. 2012).

426 Despite the apparent association between both insect groups and their respective VOC 427 successional groups (e.g. flies and early successional volatiles), there were some exceptions 428 from this pattern. Such exceptions are species that are usually better/worse in dealing with dung 429 characteristics (e.g. dung moisture) than other species from their group. These exceptions 430 included fly species that develop in very old dung that resembles other decaying materials (e.g. 431 humus), like dipteran Chironomidae species (Hammer 1941). Moreover, some beetles oviposit 432 directly into the soil and are as such able to avoid lethal dung moisture in fresh dung pats (e.g. 433 Aphodius erraticus) (Gittings and Giller 1997). Both such exceptions further support the idea 434 that habitat filtering dominates this system.

435 Distinct separation of dung-inhabiting insects among early (represented by 1-butanol) 436 and late (represented by dimethyl trisulfide) successional groups of volatiles suggests that dung-437 inhabiting insects might be associated with more complex clusters of VOCs. This is in 438 agreement with contemporary studies pinpointing dung beetle preference to complex bouquets 439 rather than to single compounds (Frank et al. 2018; Wurmitzer et al. 2017). In contrast, there 440 are finer scale beetle preferences for volatiles emitted from carrion of different age, namely the 441 burying beetles and mid-successional oligosulfides (Kalinova et al. 2009; Podskalska et al. 442 2009; von Hoermann et al. 2013), and late successional hide beetles and carboxylic derivates 443 (von Hoermann et al. 2011). The association between dung beetles and dimethyl trisulfide is, 444 however, a pertinent result because dimethyl trisulfide attracts beetles to carrion (Podskalska et 445 al. 2009), which could explain why dung-inhabiting beetles (both coprophages and predators) 446 are also attracted to carrion (Kadlec et al. 2019; Weithmann et al. 2020). It is also one of the 447 main compounds used by plants for deceptive pollination (Jürgens et al. 2006), which could 448 explain why they are deceived by such plants (Sakai and Inoue 1999).

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450 **Conclusions and directions for future studies**

We present another piece of evidence supporting the hypothesis that the succession of dunginhabiting insects is driven by habitat filtering (Sladecek et al. 2017a), with dung emitted volatiles used as a signal for other dung conditions (dung moisture, etc.). Our data also suggest a point at which microbes originating in the herbivores gut are naturally surpassed by the activity of aerobic soil microbes. It appears that this switch is facilitated by insects burrowing and aerating the dung (48 – 72 hours old dung) (Perez-Valera et al. 2019).

For the first time we demonstrate a correlation between the structure of the insect decomposer
community and its dynamics, and the volatile organic compounds emitted from their resource.
This connection is likely to play a crucial role in insect community assembly.

Future studies should A) manipulate the availability of insects in natural conditions to test which dung volatiles are produced or induced by the availability insects; and B) investigate the relationship between insects and volatiles in different dung types (e.g. horse, sheep) and other types of habitat (e.g. carrion, rotting fruit) to further test our hypothesis of habitat filteringdriven succession in ephemeral resource patches (Sladecek et al. 2017a).

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466 Data accessibility

- 467 Data are available from the figshare.com repository (doi:10.6084/m9.figshare.7039553.v1)
- 468 (Sladecek et al. 2018).

469 Supplementary Materials

- 470 Table S1: Dung emitted volatile compounds sampled in our study.
- 471 Figure S1: Hierarchical clustering of dung volatile compounds along the gradient of dung pat472 ageing.
- 473 Figure S2: Total amount of each VOC per dung ages.
- 474 Figure S3: DCCA ordination diagrams presenting the successional patterns of dung-inhabiting
- 475 beetles and flies.

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Table 1. Model coefficients for GLMs focusing on trends in the total amount of VOCs andcompound richness along the gradient of dung pat ageing.

All models were fitted with Poisson distribution of errors. amount = total amount of VOCs (in ng.min⁻¹), richness = compound richness, Est. = slope estimate for relation between total amount of scents captured /compound richness and dung age, Std.Err. = standard error of mean for Est., z = z value for each model, p = statistical significance, Null. D. (df) = null deviance of each model (degrees of freedom), Res. D. (df) = residual deviance of each model (degrees of freedom), GoF = goodness of fit estimate for each model, calculated as; GoF = 1- (residual deviance/null deviance).

		Est.	Std.Err.	Ζ	р	Null. D. (df)	Res. D. (df)	GoF
_	amount	-0.003	0.001	-3.894	< 0.001	35.631(29)	20.011(28)	0.438
	richness	-0.006	0.002	-3.099	0.004	9.920(29)	7.258(28)	0.268

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Table 2. Model coefficients for GLMs focusing on the relationship between the community ofdung-inhabiting insects and dung-released VOCs.

708 All models were fitted with quasipoisson distribution of errors. Two sets of four models were 709 fitted; four models with insect (beetles, flies) abundances as response variables and total amount 710 of VOCs as explanatory variable, and four models with insect species richness response 711 variables and compound richness as explanatory variable. Est. = slope estimate for relation 712 between dung-inhabiting insects' abundance/species richness and total amount of scents 713 captured /compound richness, Std.Err. = standard error of mean for Est., t = t value for each 714 model, p = statistical significance, Null. D. (df) = null deviance of each model (degrees of 715 freedom), Res. D. (df) = residual deviance of each model (degrees of freedom), GoF = goodness 716 of fit estimate for each model, calculated as; GoF = 1- (residual deviance/null deviance).

t

Est.

Std.Err.

Insects ~ total amount of VOCs									
Beetle abundance	-0.009	0.014	-0.684	0.500	2789.300(29)	2753.800(28)	0.013		
Beetle richness	-0.019	0.011	-1.691	0.102	432.950(29)	406.010(28)	0.062		

Р

Null. D. (df)

Res. D. (df)

GoF

Fly abundance	0.037	0.016	2.343	0.026	631.080(29)	538.920(28)	0.146
Fly richness	0.014	0.006	2.468	0.020	39.744(29)	33.086(28)	0.168
			Insects ~ c	ompound	richness		
Beetle abundance	-0.008	0.022	-0.372	0.713	2789.300(29)	2779.100(28)	0.004
Beetle richness	-0.032	0.016	-1.944	0.062	432.950(29)	399.660(28)	0.077
Fly abundance	0.120	0.027	4.518	< 0.001	631.080(29)	349.480(28)	0.446
Fly richness	0.038	0.008	4.525	< 0.001	39.744(29)	22.787(28)	0.427

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Figure 1: Total amount of VOCs and compound richness of volatiles released from dungthroughout dung pat ageing.

A) GLM curves for total amount of VOCs (solid line) and compound richness (dashed line) of

volatiles released from dung throughout dung pat ageing. Grey bands represent the standard

rror of the mean.

B) Mean total amount of VOCs (light grey) and compound richness (dark grey) from individual

dung pat ages. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean.

727 Time (Hours) = time after dung pat creation on the pasture

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Figure 2: DCCA ordination presenting changes in dung-emitted volatile compounds profilealong dung pat ageing.

The arrow represents the dung pat age as a quantitative predictor, black triangles represent individual dung ages plotted as the supplementary variable, grey stars represent the early successional compounds (with highest abundance until 2 days old dung), white diamonds represent the late successional compounds (with highest abundance in dung older than 2 days). Classification into early and late successional groups is based upon clustering of individual 736 compounds on the horizontal canonical axis (their relation with dung age variable) as presented

737 in Fig. S1. For abbreviations of individual volatiles see Table S1

Figure 3: CCA ordinations of relations between dung-emitted volatiles and dung-inhabitinginsects.

Arrows represent compound/volatiles' successional groups used as predictors, symbols
represent insect species or morphospecies (triangle = beetles, star = flies). Named insect species
represent exceptions in general patterns (e.g. beetles that are, unlike the majority of beetle
species, not associated with late successional volatiles). Such species are, for beetles: Adisti = *Aphodius distinctus*, Aerrat = *Aphodius erraticus*, Cuni = *Cercyon unipunctatus*, Ojoan = *Onthophagus joanne*, Pmarg = *Philonthus marginatus*; for flies: Chir = Chironomidae spp.,
Dolicho = Dolichopodidae spp., Hnig = *Hebecnema nigricolor*, Scat = Scatopsidae spp.

A) Relation between insect community structure and two compounds with highest impact on
insect community. Those two compounds were chosen from the whole pool of compounds by
forward selection (see methodology for question 3).

B) Relation between insect community and successional groups of volatiles (early and late

successional groups). Early VOCs = total amount of scents captured for early successional

compounds (e.g. aliphatic alcohols, phenols), Late VOCs = total amount of scents captured

for late successional compounds (e.g. esters, sulphur-bearing compounds). For membership of

individual compounds within those successional groups see Table S1.

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