Testing and optimizing metabarcoding of iDNA from dung beetles to sample mammals in the hyperdiverse Neotropics

Running title: iDNA from dung beetles to sample mammals

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6 Abstract

7 Over the past few years, insects have been used as samplers of vertebrate diversity by assessing the 8 ingested-derived DNA (iDNA), and dung beetles have been shown to be a good mammal sampler given 9 their broad feeding preference, wide distribution and easy sampling. Here, we tested and optimized the 10 use of iDNA from dung beetles to assess the mammal community by evaluating if some biological and 11 methodological aspects affect the use of dung beetles as mammal species samplers. We collected 403 12 dung beetles from 60 pitfall traps. iDNA from each dung beetle was sequenced by metabarcoding using 13 two mini-barcodes (12SrRNA and 16SrRNA). We assessed whether dung beetles with different traits 14 related to feeding, nesting, and body size differed in the number of mammal species found in their iDNA. 15 We also tested differences among four killing solutions in preserving the iDNA and compared the 16 effectiveness of each mini barcode to recover mammals. We identified a total of 50 mammal OTUs 17 (operational taxonomic unit), including terrestrial and arboreal species from 10 different orders. We 18 found that at least one mammal-matching sequence was obtained from 70% of the dung beetle 19 specimens. The number of mammal OTUs obtained did not vary with dung beetle traits as well as 20 between the killing solutions. The 16SrRNA mini-barcode recovered a higher number of mammal OTUs 21 than 12SrRNA, although both sets were partly non-overlapping. Thus, the complete mammal diversity 22 may not be achieved by using only one of them. This study refines the methodology for routine 23 assessment of tropical mammal communities via dung beetle 'samplers' and its universal applicability 24 independently of the species traits of local beetle communities. 25

Keywords: invertebrate-derived DNA, metabarcoding, biodiversity, biomonitoring, Amazonian rain
 forest.

28 Introduction

29 Improving current biodiversity assessments and knowledge is essential to guide 30 international conservation efforts. Vertebrate biodiversity can be assessed through various 31 methods, such as field observations (Keeping and Pelletier, 2014; Varman and Sukumar, 1995), 32 acoustic surveys (Marques et al., 2013) and camera traps (Nichols and Karanth, 2010). While 33 these methodological approaches have improved our understanding of many species' behavior, 34 distribution, and responses to environmental changes (Kiffner et al., 2020; Smith et al., 2020, 35 Marques et al., 2013), they have several limitations, particularly to species with low-density and 36 elusive behavior, as many mammal species (Kinoshita et al., 2019). These traditional methods of 37 surveying species generally require extensive field effort and a high level of taxonomic expertise 38 (Carvalho et al., 2022). These drawbacks have created a demand for alternative techniques to 39 sample biodiversity, particularly within tropical ecosystems, which host most of the global 40 species richness (Barlow et al., 2018), yet are disproportionately under-sampled (Hughes et al., 41 2012).

42 Assessing biodiversity through DNA present within environmental samples (i.e., 43 environmental DNA [eDNA]) such as water, soil and snow (Bohmann et al., 2014; Cristescu and 44 Hebert, 2018) has been successful to overcome these limitations of traditional biodiversity 45 monitoring techniques (Kelly et al., 2014; Pikitch et al., 2018). This approach has recently been 46 used to survey several vertebrate taxa (e.g., amphibians, McKee et al., 2015; fish, Olds et al., 47 2016; reptiles, Kirtane et al., 2019; mammals, Leempoel et al., 2020) and can be more efficient 48 than traditional species survey methods (Carvalho et al., 2022). A more recent approach named 49 iDNA (invertebrate-derived DNA or ingested DNA) has been used for the detection of 50 vertebrates DNA from the gut content of invertebrates (Carvalho et al., 2022 for review), which 51 has become a complementary tool for detecting local mammal communities (Calvignac-Spencer 52 et al., 2013; Gogarten et al., 2019). Mammal biodiversity monitoring can especially benefit from 53 iDNA approaches as many species have elusive behavior and can be rare or present in low 54 population densities, especially within degraded habitats (Ripple et al., 2014). Several groups of 55 invertebrates have been proven to be efficient for sampling vertebrate DNA, such as carrion 56 flies (Calvignac-Spencer et al. 2013, Rodgers et al., 2017; Massey et al., 2021), mosquitoes

(Massey et al., 2021; Saranholi et al., 2023), leeches (Fahmy et al., 2019), and dung beetles
(Gillet et al., 2016; Gómez and Kolokotronis, 2016; Drinkwater et al., 2021; Nimalrathna et al.,
2023).

60 Different authors have already used guts or feces to assess mammal DNA, using single-61 gene PCR (D-loop) to capture horse DNA in guts of different species of dung beetles (Gómez and 62 Kolokotronis 2016), or metabarcoding to investigate diet in adult and larval stage individuals of 63 a flightless dung beetle (Circellium bacchus) by comparing the DNA from fecal samples (Kerley et 64 al., 2018), for instance. However, to our knowledge, only three previous studies have adopted 65 iDNA from dung beetles to survey mammal species in the tropics: in African savannas with 66 shotgun sequencing (Gillet et al., 2016), and in Malaysian Borneo rainforest (Drinkwater et al., 67 2021) and in a Chinese seasonal forest (Nimalrathna et al., 2023) using the metabarcoding 68 protocols. These studies successfully detected some mammal species in the dung beetle iDNA. 69 Nonetheless, it is still unclear whether the dung beetle effectiveness as mammal samplers is 70 affected by their biology, as well as whether methodological features during insect collection, 71 preservation and target DNA to be amplified can impact the iDNA recovered from dung beetles. 72 Many dung beetles are coprophages, exhibiting trophic relationships with mammals, 73 whilst others are necrophages. In addition to dung consumption, dung beetles also use dung to

74 nest and protect their offspring (Scholtz et al., 2009), being classified into three functional 75 nesting categories. Rollers move dung away from the original dung pad, tunnellers excavate 76 tunnels closely beneath dung pads, while dwellers live on the dung pad itself (Tonelli, 2021). 77 Given their different feeding habit (coprophagous and necrophagous), nesting behavior (roller, 78 tunneller and dweller), easy and cost-effective sampling (Nichols and Gardner, 2011; Gardner et 79 al., 2008), dung beetles can provide a good representation of mammalian biodiversity. Although 80 coprophagous dung beetles may visit a higher number of diet resources (Frank et al., 2018), if 81 they are more efficient as iDNA samplers have not been evaluated thus far. On the other hand, 82 body size would improve the chances of mammal DNA detection, by ingesting higher volumes of 83 dung (Gómez and Kolokotronis, 2016), while, among nesting behavior, rollers may identify a 84 minor number of mammals, tending to rely on a single dung source (Nimalrathna et al., 2023). 85 Dung beetle surveys carried out with distinct ecological purposes commonly use different killing

solutions to preserve the dung beetle bodies (e.g. Aristophanous, 2010; Mora-Aguilar et al.,
2023), but as far as we know, no previous study evaluated its efficiency for iDNA studies. Also,
previous studies in the neotropical region indicated that the combination of two mini-barcodes
(e.g., 12SrRNA and 16SrRNA) could provide broader representativeness of the mammal diversity
detected in carrion-fly and mosquito iDNA (Rodgers et al., 2017; Saranholi et al., 2023), but this
pattern was not tested with dung beetles.

92 Here, we tested the effectiveness of iDNA for sampling a broad range of hyperdiverse 93 mammal fauna and evaluated if some biological and methodological aspects affect the use of 94 dung beetles as mammal species samplers. To achieve this, we sampled dung beetles with pitfall 95 traps in the Brazilian Amazonia and evaluated the dung beetles as samplers of the local mammal 96 biodiversity using iDNA metabarcoding. We obtained the number of mammal species that can 97 be detected in a single dung beetle individual, and tested if distinct dung beetle nesting 98 behavior, feeding strategies, and body size can affect mammals sampled through iDNA. We also 99 evaluated differences among killing solutions in preserving the DNA, by evaluating the number 100 of reads recovered from each detected mammal through dung beetle iDNA. Finally, we 101 compared the effectiveness of two mini-barcodes to identify mammals from dung beetle iDNA 102 within a highly biodiverse tropical forest. For that, we contrasted the number of OTUs and reads 103 of mammals detected and the exclusive mammal species identified by each mini-barcode.

104

105 Material and Methods

106 Study area and insect sampling

107 We collected dung beetles in March 2019, within the Tapajós National Forest (FLONA-108 Tapajós; Fig. 1), a Brazilian protected forest of 527,319 ha within the Amazon biome (Carvalho 109 et al. 2023), with around 4,000 people from local communities living in it (ICMBio, 2019). We 110 used 48 dung-baited traps distributed in six 700-m transects (8 traps/transect) placed at least 111 4,000 meters from each other. Most traps (n = 36) consisted of 1-L plastic containers (19 cm 112 diameter and 11 cm deep) containing approximately 200 mL of a killing solution (water and salt, 113 alcohol, or ethylene-glycol). To evaluate differences in the iDNA preservation between killing 114 solutions, we also collected dung beetles with no-killing funnel pitfall traps (n = 12) made from

115 2-L clear plastic bottles adapted to prevent beetles from escaping (10 cm diameter and 20 cm 116 deep; Fig. S1). We cut off the complete tapering part and the small neck of the bottle top, 117 forming a funnel. This funnel was placed upside down into the bottom of the bottle. Around 8-118 10 punctures were made with a needle in the bottom part to prevent it from flooding and soil 119 was added to it when placing traps in the field (Fig. S1). All pitfall and funnel traps were buried 120 with their opening at ground level and had a suspended bait container with a mixture of pig (Sus 121 scrofa) and human feces (4:1 pig to human ratio; as in previous studies (Marsh et al., 2013; 122 Carvalho et al., 2023), which was protected from dung beetles by a fine netting. Each transect 123 had two traps with each killing solution (n = 6) and two funnel traps, all separated by 100 124 meters (Fig. 1). After 48h, all traps were examined and the dung beetles were collected, 125 preserved in 96% ethanol, and stored at -20 °C until laboratory procedures.

All sample collections were conducted in accordance with Brazilian legislation and under
 the appropriate permits: SISBIO—Sistema de Autorização e Informação em Biodiversidade –
 MMA/ICMBIO (53271-9) and National System of Genetic Resource Management and Associated
 Traditional Knowledge (SisGen A9F8717).

130

131 Morphological identification and gut extraction

We analyzed a total of 403 dung beetles. All individuals were identified at the species level whenever possible according to recent taxonomic revisions and morphological comparison with the reference collection from the "Entomological Section of the Zoological Collection in the Federal University of Mato Grosso" (CEMT,

136 https://collectory.sibbr.gov.br/collectory/public/show/dr435). A total of 37 different dung

137 beetle species were identified (Supplementary Table S1). Based on the species identification,

dung beetles were divided into three groups according to their feeding habit (coprophagous and

necrophagous), nesting behavior (roller, tunneller and dweller), and species size (small,

140 medium, and large) (Supplementary Table S1). The gut from each dung beetle individual was

141 dissected from the abdominal cavity using sterilized forceps and a stereomicroscope; and stored

142 in 96% ethanol at -20 °C until iDNA extraction. All collected dung beetles are deposited in the

143 CEMT dung beetle collection (Supplementary Table S1), Brazil.

144 DNA extraction, Mini-barcode amplification, and Metabarcoding sequencing

145 The iDNA from the gut of each dung beetle individual was extracted separately using 146 DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen[®]) following the manufacture protocol, in an iDNA-dedicated 147 laboratory, including negative controls. The obtained DNA was eluted in 100µl of elution buffer. 148 For each specimen, mitochondrial 12SrRNA and 16SrRNA rRNA genes were amplified using the 149 primers 12SV5F and 12SV5R (Riaz et al., 2011) and 16Smam1 and 16Smam2 (Taylor, 1996) to 150 produce amplicons of approximately 130-140 bp. These mini-barcodes are commonly used in 151 iDNA studies for mammal community detection (Rodgers et al., 2017; Lynggaard et al., 2019; 152 Massey et al., 2021; Saranholi et al., 2023), and identified reference sequences of Amazonian 153 mammals are available for both genes, mainly for the 12SrRNA mini-barcode used (Kocher et al., 154 2017). The 12SV5F primer was made degenerate at the first base (5' - YAGAACAGGCTCCTCTAG -155 3'), to broaden its taxonomic range (Kocher et al., 2017). Unique identifiers (tags) obtained from 156 Axtner et al. (2019) were added to both forward and reverse primers to label each PCR amplicon 157 (Supplementary Table S2), allowing to obtain the individual information of each dung beetle. 158 The PCR protocols for both mini-barcodes followed Rodgers et al. (2017), with minor 159 modifications: 1x buffer (Tris–HCl 20 mM pH 8.4 and KCl 50 mM), 0.4 mM of each primer, 0.2 160 mM dNTP (Invitrogen), 4 and 2 mM MgCl₂ for 16SrRNA and 12SrRNA, respectively, 1.5 U 161 Platinum Taq polymerase (Invitrogen), and 3 µl of template DNA. Cycling conditions were 10 162 min at 95°C, followed by 42 cycles of 30 s at 95°C, 30 s at 64°C and 50°C for 16S rRNA and 12S 163 rRNA, respectively, and 1 min at 72°C, with a final extension of 10 min at 72°C. All DNA 164 extractions and PCRs were prepared in dedicated rooms within a UV-sterilized hood, sanitized 165 with 2% bleach solution before each new procedure. We also included a no-template DNA as 166 negative control to check for contamination. PCR amplification success was checked in 1.5% 167 agarose gel. A second PCR amplification was conducted for the DNA samples that failed in the 168 first attempt following the same conditions of the first reaction. The PCR products of each 169 individual for both mini-barcodes were aliquoted, and these aliquots were pooled into 54 170 samples for large-scale sequencing (Supplementary Table S2). PCR negative controls were also 171 included for large-scale sequencing.

For the metabarcoding sequencing, the pools were cleaned using magnetic beads (1.2μl Agencourt AMPure XP[®] Beckman Coulter per 1μl PCR product), quantified in a Qubit fluorimeter (Thermo Fisher), normalized to 50ng/μl, and indexed using the Nextera Index kit[®] (Illumina). The paired-end metabarcoding sequencing was performed in two runs, processed in the Illumina iSeq[®] equipment, using the iSeq 100 v2 300 (2x150 bp) cycles reagent kit, for a total of 70,000 to 100,000 reads per metabarcoding sequencing sample (Supplementary Table S2).

178 Bioinformatic, Sequence analysis and taxonomic identification assignment

179 The resulting sequences were demultiplexed using *process_radtags* in Stacks v2.59 180 (Catchen et al., 2013), in which the identifier barcodes (tags) were used to trace back the 181 information to each individual (Axtner et al., 2019). At this step, the barcode option - -inline-182 inline was used to eliminate misassignments caused by occasional tag-jumping events, which 183 could result in incorrect matching forward and reverse tag sequences (Schnell et al., 2015; 184 Axtner et al., 2019). For the reads obtained from each dung beetle individual, we used PEAR 185 v.0.9.11 (Zhang et al., 2014) to merge the correspondent forward and reverse sequences and 186 trimmed them to a minimum quality score threshold (-q) of 15, a minimum overlap (-v) of 100 187 base pairs, and minimum length (-n) of 100 base pairs. Then, we separated the 12SrRNA and 188 16SrRNA sequences, by setting 20% of the maximum mismatch within the primer region, and 189 removed primer sequences with the *cutadapt* function (Martin, 2011). After these steps, we 190 performed clustering of OTUs (Operational Taxonomic Units) for the reads of each mini-barcode 191 separately for each tagged sample using USEARCH (Edgar, 2010), considering 97% of similarity 192 among sequences and discarded all singletons from the analysis. We also discarded OTUs with 193 relative abundance lower than 0.05% reads within each sequenced pool (corresponding to 14 – 194 38 reads for a given pool of metabarcoding sequencing). The final OTUs sequences were 195 identified against GenBank (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/) for vertebrate species 196 identification. Species-level assignments followed the criteria of high percentage of matches (at 197 >98% nucleotide similarity). When a sequence had a match for two or more species, we 198 assigned the species identity according to the expected species occurrence in the study area 199 based on the information available in the IUCN (International Union for Conservation of Nature) 200 and GBIF (Global Biodiversity Information Facility) databases and information from local

201 mammal species surveys (Brocardo et al., 2022; Ravetta and Brocardo, 2022). Similarity matches 202 to species not previously recorded from the study area were assigned to a close relative from 203 the same genus with known occurrence in the region. Where high-similarity matches were 204 obtained to more than one species from one genus, only the genus level was assigned. 205 Sequences with <98% similarity to a Genbank entry were assigned to genus, family, or order 206 level only, and sequences with less than <90% similarity were not assigned taxonomically, as 207 commonly used in iDNA studies (Rodgers et al., 2017; Massey et al., 2021). Negative controls of 208 both the DNA extraction and PCR only detected human and S. scrofa sequences, which were 209 excluded from the analyses.

210

211 Data Analysis

First, to characterize the mammal detection success according to the sampling effort and the used mini-barcodes, we performed an accumulation curve, based on a permutation (10,000 permutations) procedure and random method (Gotelli and Colwell, 2001) using *specaccum* function from vegan package (Oksanen et al., 2013).

216 We used a generalized linear model (GLM) to assess whether the traits of the dung beetles 217 (size, nesting strategy, feeding habit), as well as the type of killing solution (non-killing, water 218 salt, ethylene glycol, ethanol solutions) or mini-barcode used (12SrRNA, 16SrRNA) influenced 219 the number of mammal OTUs obtained per specimen. We used a poisson distribution where the 220 count of the unique mammal OTUs obtained per specimen was our response variable, and 221 beetle size, beetle nesting strategy, beetle feeding strategy, killing solution, and mini-barcode 222 were explanatory variables. We also included random intercepts for the dung beetle species and 223 transects to remove such effects and ensure that results were not being primarily driven by 224 these factors.

Finally, we used a GLM to assess whether the type of killing solution or mini-barcode used influenced the number of mammal reads obtained. The fitted model used a negative binomial distribution and a zero-inflation term to account for overdispersion and zero-inflation in the residuals. The model also includes an offset for the total number of reads achieved per metabarcoding run after bioinformatic filtering to ensure the observed effects were not simplyan artifact of successful metabarcoding runs.

All GLMs were run using the glmmTMB package (Brooks et al., 2017) in R v.4.2.1 environment (R Core Team, 2022), whilst assumptions were tested using the DHARMa package (Hartig, 2022). Random effects were chosen in accordance with sampling design rather than model selection criteria; though the OTU model used had a lower AIC than the same model without random effects. We used the contrast and comparisons functions from the emmeans package (Lenth, 2023) to identify significant differences between levels of our explanatory variables at the 95% confidence interval level.

238

239 Results

240 From an initial total of 3,215,211 paired sequence reads, we retained 243,198 reads 241 assigned to mammals, with a mean of 574 ± 930 (SD) mammal reads per successfully amplified 242 beetle specimen (12SrRNA: 337 ± 620 SD, N=148; 16SrRNA: 718 ± 1051 SD, N=243), totaling 47 243 OTUs of wild mammal species, from ten orders. From that, we assigned 32 OTUs at the species 244 level, eleven at genus, and eight at the order level (Table 1). In addition, 13 non-mammal OTUs 245 were detected only when using the 12SrRNA mini-barcode (birds: pigeons - Columba sp., eared 246 dove - Zenaida auriculata, Southern mealy amazon - Amazona farinosa, short-tailed parrot -247 Graydidascalus brachyurus, house sparrow - Passer domesticus, white-throated tinamou -248 Tinamus guttatus, antshrike - Thamnophilus sp., dove - Geotrygon sp., woodpecker - Veniliornis 249 sp., dark-winged trumpeter - Psophia viridis; and amphibia: frog - Leptodactylus sp., tropical 250 bullfrog - Adenomera sp., Pristimantis sp.), although in a smaller number of individual dung 251 beetles (Supplementary Table S3).

Mammal species accumulation curves indicated that the number of new mammal species detected decelerated beyond a sample count of 150 beetle specimens (Fig. 2). Some mammal OTUs were recovered from multiple dung beetle individuals and were present in up to 73 beetle samples, such as crab-eating fox (*Cerdocyon thous*) and Brazilian porcupine (*Coendou prehensilis*) (Table 1). Still, many mammal species were detected in only one dung beetle individual – e.g., jaguarundi (*Herpailurus yagouaroundi*), bush dog (*Speothos venaticus*), kinkajou (*Potos flavus*), 258 raccoon (Procyon cancrivoros), Southern naked-tailed armadillo (Cabassous unicinctus), opossum 259 (Marmosops sp.), woolly mouse opossum (Micoureus demerarae), giant anteater 260 (Myrmecophaga tridactyla), Southern tamandua (Tamandua tetradactyla), black-capped 261 capuchin (Sapajus apella), and tuff-tailed spiny tree rat (Lonchothrix emiliae) (Table 1). At least 262 one mammal species was detected in 70% of the 403 dung beetles analyzed. The mean number 263 of species detected in each dung beetle DNA extract was 1.59 ± 1.51 (range: 0 - 7). The number 264 of OTUs obtained per dung beetle did not differ according to beetle size, nesting or feeding 265 strategies (Fig. 3). There was also no significant difference in the OTU numbers obtained per 266 beetle due to differences in killing solution used. However, there was a significant difference in 267 numbers of mammal species detected with 12SrRNA and 16SrRNA (ratio = 0.45, 95% CI = [0.384, 268 0.533]; Fig. 3), with 16SrRNA retrieving 40% more OTUs than 12SrRNA. Yet, 8 and 20 mammal 269 OTUs were exclusively obtained by 12SrRNA and 16SrRNA, respectively (Table 1). Consequently, 270 the rate of accumulation of mammal species was much higher for both mini-barcodes combined 271 than for each marker separately (Fig. 2).

In general, 16SrRNA recovered more mammal reads than 12SrRNA (ratio = 0.55, 95% CI = [0.436, 0.694]; Fig. 4A). The number of mammal reads detected by dung beetle iDNA significantly differed between specimens killed using ethanol and ethylene (ratio = 0.42, 95% CI = (0.246, 0.718)), as well as ethanol and water (ratio = 0.43, 95% CI = (0.248, 0.727)), where significantly fewer reads were obtained from specimens killed using ethanol than those using water or ethylene, but did not differ between any other pairs of killing solutions (Fig. 4B).

278

279 Discussion

280 Our study shows that iDNA from dung beetles associated with metabarcoding is suitable 281 for detecting many tropical forest mammals. We successfully assessed a large representation of 282 the mammal community from Tapajós National Forest, as suggested by the species 283 accumulation curve (Fig. 2), totaling 47 native mammal OTUs from ten orders. Considering only 284 the species-level assignments (N = 32), our iDNA survey recovered about 70% of the terrestrial 285 medium and large non-primate mammals (100% of Perissodactyla and Myrmecophagidae, 75% 286 Cingulata, 60% Rodentia, 57% Carnivora and 25% Artiodactyla), and 54% of primates previously recorded within FLONA-Tapajós (Brocardo et al., 2022; Ravetta and Brocardo, 2022). Some
species (e.g., *Cerdocyon thous, Pecari tajacu, Dasypus* sp., and *Coendou* sp.) were more
frequently registered than others, potentially reflecting their higher abundance, as noted in
previous studies (Gillet et al., 2016; Drinkwater et al., 2021). Our study also revealed rare
terrestrial or arboreal mammal species that are not easily detected using traditional survey
methods (e.g., *Priodontes maximus, Speothos venaticus, Potos flavus*), highlighting the potential
of dung beetle iDNA to sample these more elusive mammals.

294 Three domestic mammal species were also identified (Table 1). Similar results were found 295 by Massey et al. (2021), who also identified the same domestic species in the iDNA of flies, sand 296 flies, and mosquitoes in the Brazilian savanna ecotone. The presence of local communities living 297 in the FLONA - Tapajós forest reserve (ICMBio, 2019) may explain the detection of these species 298 in the iDNA, possibly entering the forest via alternative pathways, such as ingestion and 299 defecation from humans or mobile predators. Even though we have found no evidence of 300 contamination in our negative controls, this result may not provide unambiguous proof of no 301 contamination, as these species are often considered contaminants in metabarcoding (e.g. 302 Champlot et al. 2010) and some caution while investigating the true meaning of their detection 303 is still necessary.

304 The detection of non-mammals among the recovered OTUs reinforce the suggestion that 305 some dung beetles also utilize other vertebrates in Amazonia (e.g., Correa et al., 2023; Carvalho 306 et al., 2023). Feeding on dung and carrions of birds has previously been recorded in an avian-307 dominated island where mammals were depleted (Stavert et al., 2014). Our results suggest the 308 behavior can also be found in regions with rich mammal faunas, broadening our understanding 309 of the resources used by dung beetles. Scarabaeinae dung beetles are well known for 310 necrophagy in particular in the Neotropics, e.g. in the spectacular large beetles of the genus 311 *Coprophaeneus*, which bury carcasses for breeding. The detection of bird and amphibian OTUs 312 thus may reflect the consumption of small carcasses. Clearly the primers used here are not 313 appropriate to detect a broad range of vertebrates, which revealed this poorly recorded feeding 314 source of dung beetles. But, even with the current strategy this finding greatly extends the 315 utility of dung beetles as 'samplers' of a much wider range of potentially rare or elusive

vertebrate groups. Further investigation is also required to understand if dung beetles are using
carrion or feces from these non-mammal species, and if certain dung beetles are specialists.

318 No statistically significant differences were found in the number of OTUs obtained by dung 319 beetles of different feeding and nesting behavior, body size and taxonomic affiliation. These 320 findings support the universal applicability of dung beetles for sampling of vertebrate 321 communities without bias from differences in morphological and functional traits. Yet, we 322 recommend further investigation to better explore the composition of mammal species in the 323 diet of distinct dung beetle groups. For instance, Frank et al. (2018) showed that coprophagous 324 dung beetles may visit a high number of diet resources, which may result in a diversity of 325 mammal species in their iDNA (Gillet et al., 2016; Drinkwater et al., 2021; Nimalrathna et al., 326 2023). The absence of difference in the number of mammal OTUs detected here by 327 coprophagous and necrophagous dung beetles, suggests that both groups are able to assess the 328 diversity of mammals. The similarity of the two groups could also represent preferences rather 329 than strict associations, and the high level of plasticity in this trait which allows species ability to 330 adapt their diets depending on resource availability (e.g., Salomão et al. 2018). Thus, the 331 classification of feeding style is not definitive, as many species switch between coprophagy and 332 necrophagy, in part driven by seasonal changes in substrate quality in dry and wet periods (e.g., 333 Cambefort, 1991; Medina and Lopes, 2014).

334 The diversity of mammals obtained here was also similar among the different dung beetle 335 nesting behaviors studied. These findings contrast with previous research showing that 336 tunnellers detected a higher number of mammal hosts (Nimalrathna et al. 2023). These 337 contrasting results are probably a consequence of differences in the sampling effort. 338 Nimalrathna et al. (2023) analyzed 18 dung beetle specimens from three species (only one 339 tunneller: Onthopagus diabolicus), while our results are based on 37 species and a larger 340 sampling (229 tunnellers, 91 roller and 83 dweller specimens), which may provide better 341 representativeness of the diversity of dung beetles and nesting behaviors. Rather than allowing 342 conclusions about the feeding style, iDNA is unequivocal about the identity of the host species 343 and as such will enhance our understanding of dung beetle-mammal interaction networks and

how they might respond to environmental changes in the tropics (Chiew et al. 2021; Raine et al.2018).

346 Up to seven mammal OTUs were recovered in a single dung beetle, which may be 347 explained by the capability of metabarcoding for detection of small amounts of iDNA deriving 348 from different feeding events. This higher number of OTUs occurred in rare events (only four 349 cases within our whole data) and the mean number of mammal OTUs per dung beetle individual 350 (1.5 ± 1.5) was lower. Although most iDNA study did not show insect individual results (Rodgers 351 et al., 2017; Lynggaard et al., 2019; Gogarten et al., 2020; Massey et al., 2021), the mean 352 detection of mammal species per individual here was similar to those previously reported in 353 dung beetles (Nimalrathna et al., 2023) and in flies (Calvignac-Spencer et al., 2013). Although 354 Saranholi et al. (2023) reported higher mean values in mosquitoes $(3.6 \pm 4.3 \text{ OTUs})$ and carrion 355 flies (saprophagous flies: 2.7 ± 1.7 OTUs, hematophagous flies: 2.8 ± 1.4 OTUs), it is important to 356 note that these latter study was conducted in a Zoo with several confined animals, which likely 357 increased the number of mammal species encountered by each individual.

We found no differences in the number of mammal OTUs associated with dung beetle size. It might be expected that body size is correlated with successful detection of mammalian DNA because larger dung beetles consume more dung (Gómez and Kolokotronis, 2016). However, other factors such as the time beetles spent feeding before capture and for dung digestion since the last feeding might influence mammal detection (Gómez and Kolokotronis 2016; Drinkwater et al., 2021).

364 On the level of the entire mammal community, the number of OTUs obtained in our study 365 was higher than in previous research using iDNA from dung beetles. Drinkwater et al. (2021) 366 detected only six wild mammal species obtained with one-primer pair (16SrRNA) iDNA 367 metabarcoding of at least 300 dung beetles captured during one-day collection using 108 pitfall 368 traps in Borneo. In turn, Gillet et al. (2016) detected seven mammals in Essuatini (Africa), using 369 iDNA shotgun sequencing of 11 dung beetles captured in two-day passive collection, with two 370 flight interception traps. The higher number of mammal species detected in our study could be 371 explained by difference in the sampling design and intensity, such as our higher number of traps 372 (N = 48), longer trap exposure in the field (N = 48h), broader spatial distribution of traps and

373 transects (N = six 700-m transects separated by at least 4 km), and the greater number of 374 specimens tested (N = 403), which increased the chance of sampling more beetle and diet 375 diversity. In addition, while the 16SrRNA mini-barcode was more effective for mammal species 376 detection, the total species number increased by using the 12SrRNA barcode (Fig. 2). Similar 377 trends were also reported when both primer pairs were used to amplify iDNA obtained from 378 mosquitoes and carrion flies (Saranholi et al., 2023), suggesting that combining both markers 379 may provide a fuller representation of the targeted biodiversity. In addition, the high richness of 380 the Amazonian mammal community present in the study area, which is expected to hold around 381 35 large and medium size terrestrial mammals (Brocardo et al., 2022), and 13 species of 382 arboreal primates (Ravetta and Brocardo, 2022), can also explain the high number of mammals 383 detected here.

384 Of the OTUs detected in our study, 68% were assigned at the species level, as identified 385 either by the 12SrRNA or 16SrRNA markers, or both. This value is higher than that obtained by 386 Drinkwater et al. (2021) using only 16SrRNA and dung beetle iDNA (50%), and higher (40% and 387 45%, Lynggard et al., 2019) and similar (66%, Massey et al., 2021) to those based on iDNA from 388 samplers of other insect groups. The number of OTUs identified at species level is highly 389 dependent on the completeness of the reference sequence dataset, and altogether these 390 results indicate that the representativeness of the reference library is still a challenge, mainly in 391 the hyperdiverse tropics. In our study, we noticed that even using two mini-barcodes to improve 392 the species-level assignments, the lack of reference sequences for all mammals inhabiting the 393 study area led us to use the species distribution information to confirm the correct OTU 394 assignment in 13 cases (Table 1), representing 28% of the native mammal OTUs detected. 395 Rodgers et al. (2017), using iDNA from carrion flies to survey mammals on a tropical island, 396 assigned 60% of the OTUs at the species level, although when taking into account information 397 about local species occurrences, an assignment to species was achieved in 100% of samples. 398 Occurrence records need to be at the species level, and thus, our study reinforces the urgent 399 need for enhancing reference sequences available in global library databases.

We found here no effect of the different trapping approaches on the iDNA quality,
 represented by the number of OTUs obtained from dung beetles, although the number of reads

differed between the killing solutions. Surprisingly, using water and salt to kill and keep dung
beetles for the first 48h had better results than ethanol in the number of reads obtained.
Considering that all dung beetles were preserved in ethanol after 48h, we are not aware of any
plausible explanation for ethanol not being a good killing solution. Despite differences in the
number of reads obtained from different killing solutions, the total number of OTUs identified
did not differ, suggesting that all solutions are equally good at inferring species presence and
associated metrics such as richness.

409 It should be noted that the paired-end reads which matched with human and S. scrofa 410 and were discarded from the analysis, were likely due to contamination by human handling and 411 the sampling bait used, respectively, despite the care during trap manipulation and placement. 412 Indeed, Massey et al. (2021) found that 80% of the total sequences of the iDNA from 413 mosquitoes were from humans, which were assumed as contamination. As such, it appears that 414 iDNA methods can still be made more efficient, through improved laboratory methods and 415 alternative practices of sample acquisition such as the use of unbaited traps including flight 416 interception traps. We also suggest the use of blocking primers for human and pig, which could 417 reduce contamination by human handling and from the bait used in the pitfall traps, 418 respectively. Utilizing blocking primers for non-target species might increase both the quantity 419 and diversity of DNA detected, thereby enhancing the detection of wild species, particularly rare 420 ones (Boessenkool et al., 2012). However, concerns about blocking primer specificity and 421 concentration used should always be considered to avoid inhibiting DNA amplification, if 422 primates and artiodactyla are target.

423 In summary, we found that our metabarcoding of the iDNA of dung beetles was able to 424 sample many of the non-volant mammal species inhabiting Tapajós National Forest, including 425 rare species, highlighting the potential of iDNA from dung beetles to sample elusive mammals. 426 No interrelationship between number of mammal OTUs and the dung beetles feeding and 427 nesting behavior, body size and taxonomic affiliation was observed. Therefore, neither 16SrRNA 428 or 12SrRNA alone successfully detected all mammal OTUs observed, and we recommend the 429 use of both primer pairs for metabarcoding, which appears to be essential to a more secure 430 detection and identification of a broader representation of the mammal community, especially

in the hyperdiverse areas. The reliable detection of target vertebrate groups by using iDNA from
dung beetles provides a powerful tool for mammal survey and monitoring worldwide.

433

434 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

BHS, FMF, APV, FZVM, JB, CBL and PMGJ conceptualized and performed the study design. FMF
conducted fieldwork. MEM and EC conducted beetle sorting out and species identification. BHS
performed the laboratory activities and led data analysis with inputs from FMF, APV, JB, FZVM,
CBL and PMGJ. The first draft of the manuscript was written by BHS, FMF, CBL and PMGJ. All
authors contributed to discussing the results and revising the manuscript.

440

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455

456 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT**

457 The authors declare no competing interests

458	DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT
459	Raw sequence data are available in the NCBI BioProject and in the Sequence Read Archive
460	repository under Accession Number PRJNA1075326. Dung beetle community data (species and
461	abundances) are available through the TAOCA biodiversity database (<u>https://www.taoca.net/</u>).
462	
463	BENEFIT-SHARING STATEMENT
464	Benefits from this research accrue from the sharing of our data and results on public databases
465	as described above.
466	
467	SUPPORTING INFORMATION
468	Additional information is available in the electronic supplementary material.
469	
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661 FIGURE CAPTIONS

662

Fig. 1. Study area and the dung beetle sampling scheme composed of the six transects with
different killing solutions. a) Location of the study area, "Floresta Nacional de Tapajós". b)
Scheme of the six transects used for dung beetle collection (live trap: none killing solution; W+S:
water salt; Etyl: ethylene glycol; alcohol: ethanol solution). c) Homemade pitfall trap used to
capture dung beetles.

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Fig. 2. Mammal species accumulation curves for 12SrRNA (red), 16SrRNA (blue), and both mini barcodes (gray) against the number of dung beetle individuals. Error bars indicate standard
 errors of estimates.

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673 Fig. 3. Results from a post-hoc analysis of a Poisson generalized linear mixed model. Lines 674 represent comparisons of levels of ecological: beetle feeding strategy (A), beetle size (B), beetle 675 nesting strategy (C); and methodological aspects: mini-barcodes (D), killing solution (E). Lines of 676 levels that do not overlap are significantly different from one another at the 95% level. 677 Significantly more mammals OTUs are found per specimen using the 16SrRNA mini-barcode 678 compared to the 12SrRNA mini-barcode (D). 679 680 Fig. 4. Results obtained from post-hoc analysis of a negative binomial generalized linear model 681 using emmeans. Lines represent comparisons of levels of mini-barcodes (A) and killing solutions 682 (B), and levels whose lines do not overlap are deemed significantly different from one another

at the 95% level. Significantly more mammal reads were retrieved using 16SrRNA than 12SrRNA

684 (A), as well as using water or ethylene killing solution compared to ethanol.







696 **Table 1.** Mammal species detection and reads recovered from the iDNA from dung beetles using

697 12SrRNA and 16SrRNA mini-barcodes.

	Common name	Occurrence	Number of reads per OTUs (range per detection)		Detections by number of dung beetles				
Taxon ID			12SrRNA	16SrRNA	12SrRNA	16SrRNA	Total	Both mini- barcodes	
Mammalia									
Artiodactyla									
Bos taurus	cattle	Domestic	16408 (22-3574)	41897 (27-9480)	40	55	76	19	
<i>Mazama</i> sp.	brocket	Native	824 (31-171)	530 (74-456)	8	-	10	0	
Pecari tajacu	collared peccary	Native	1830 (19-445)	1232 (53-350)	17	7	24	0	
Carnivora									
Canis lupus	domestic dog	Domestic	6768 (18-2021)	11973 (16-3774)	26	34	46	14	
Cerdocyon thous ¹	crab-eating fox	Native	81 (81-81)	21076 (17-2327)	1	73	73	1	
Felis catus	domestic cat	Domestic	4440 (26-3314)	6123 (31-2456)	6	7	11	2	
Herpailurus yagouaroundi ¹	jaguarundi	Native	200 (200-200)	122 (122-122)	1	1	2	0	
Leopardus sp.	wild cat	Native	-	819 (819-819)	-	1	1	0	
Nasua nasua	coati	Native	-	141 (29-112)	-	2	2	0	
Panthera onca	jaguar	Native	1685 (36-434)	2224 (39-693)	9	14	23	0	
Potos flavus	kinkajou	Native	-	199 (199-199)	-	1	1	0	
Procyon cancrivoros ¹	raccoon	Native	-	15 (15-15)	-	1	1	1	
Puma concolor	cougar	Native	228 (228-228)	5223 (16-2600)	1	14	15	0	
Speothos venaticus	bush dog	Native	-	33 (33-33)	-	1	1	0	
Chiroptera									
Pteronotus rubiginosus	mustached bat	Native	-	23 (23-23)	-	1	1	0	
Cingulata									
Cabassous unicinctus¹	southern naked-tailed armadillo	Native	19 (19-19)	-	1	-	1	0	
Dasypus sp.		Native	42	9146	1	46	47	0	

	long nosed		(42-42)	(18-953)				
Function	armaulio		1005	221				
Euphractus	six-banded	Native	1325	221	9	3	11	1
sexcinctus-	armadillo		(25-411)	(46-88)				
Priodontes	giant armadillo	Native	151	35	4	1	5	0
maximus	0		(28-53)	(35-35)				
Didelphir	norphia							
Didelphimorphia	marsunial	Native	1781	95	1	1	1	1
Diacipininorpina	marsapia	Nutive	(1781-1781)	(95-95)	1	1	-	1
Didalahiana		Mativa		1407		F	-	0
Dideiphis sp.	opossum	Native	-	(22-641)	-	5	Э	0
			842					_
Marmosops sp.	opossum	Native	(842-842)	-	1	-	1	0
Micoureus	woolly mouse		28					
demerarae		Native	(28-28)	-	1	-	1	0
Lagomorpha	opossum		(20 20)					
Culuilague				1520				
Sylvilayus	tapeti	Native	-	1529	-	8	8	0
brasiliensis-				(16-731)				
Perissodactyla								
Tapirus terrestris	lowland tapir	Native	30	1044	1	2	2	1
			(30-30)	(18-1026)		_		-
Pilosa								
Myrmecophaga	giant antostor	Nativo	41		1		1	0
tridactyla	giant anteater	Mative	(41-41)	-	T	-	T	0
Tamandua	Southern	N 1 11		102				0
tetradactyla	tamandua	Native	-	(102-102)	-	1	1	0
Primates				. ,				
			303	1078				
Primates	wild primates	Native	(37-124)	(19-371)	4	7	10	1
	red-banded		2102	7502				
Alouatta discolor ¹	howling	Nativo	2195	7502	11	23	27	7
Albuuttu uistoioi	monkov	Native	(25-730)	(16-2075)	11	25	27	,
Atolog	white checked		2615	2426				
Ateles	white-cheeked	Native		2420	1	2	2	1
marginatus	spider monkey		(3615-3615)	(57-2369)				
Aotus azarai	Azara's night	Native	2105	20852	13	46	54	5
	monkey		(42-665)	(32-1939)				
Mico argentatus ¹	silvery	Native	_	329	_	4	4	0
Whee argentatus	marmoset	Nutive		(54-133)		-	-	Ū
Placturacabus sp	titi mankav	Native	400	873	1	F	6	0
Piecturocebus sp.	titi monkey	Native	(400-400)	(27-530)	T	5	0	0
a · · · · 1	Golden-backed	Native	1580	3118	_	9	12	2
Saimiri ustus¹	squirrel monkey		(31-1118)	(42-1252)	5			
	black-capped		, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	57				
Sapajus apella¹	capuchin	Native	-	(57-57)	-	1	1	0
Rodentia				(
nouchtu				664				
Rodentia 1	wild rat	-	-	(16/1_215)	-	3	3	0
Rodontia 2	wild rat			(104-212)		С	С	0
Rouellua Z	wiiu fat	-	-	233	-	Z	2	U

				(33-200)				
Rodentia 3	wild rat	-	-	99 (44-55)	-	2	2	0
Rodentia 4	wild rat	-	-	2173 (152-1148)	-	3	3	0
Rodentia 5	wild rat	-	-	87 (87-87)	-	1	1	0
Rodentia 6	wild rat	-	-	354 (34-172)	-	3	3	0
Akodon sp.	wild rat	Native	-	64 (64-64)	-	1	1	0
Coendou prehensilis ¹	Brazilian porcupine	Native	40 (40-40)	19034 (15-2259)	1	54	55	0
Cuniculus paca	lowland paca	Native	166 (41-76)	-	3	-	3	0
Dasyprocta sp.	agouti	Native	299 (40-188)	-	3	-	3	0
Hydrochoerus hydrochaeris	capybara	Native	1759 (23-461)	9454 (19-1931)	15	32	43	4
Lonchothrix emiliae ¹	tuff-tailed spiny tree rat	Native	199 (199-199)	-	1	-	1	0
Oligoryzomys sp.	wild rat	Native	-	230 (101-129)	-	2	2	0
Colomys sp.	wild rat	Native	415 (32-325)	-	3	-	3	0
Trinomys sp.	spiny rat	Native	-	617 (20-597)	-	2	2	0
Total OTUs			30	42	-	-		
Total Reads			49797	174453	-	-		

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⁶⁹⁹ ¹High match to more than one species or with a species not native to the region. Then, the

⁷⁰⁰ species level was achieved after consulting the species with natural occurrence in the study site,

based on the most recent inventories (Brocardo et al. 2022; Ravetta and Brocardo 2022), IUCN

702 (International Union for Conservation of Nature) and GBIF (Global Biodiversity Information

703 Facility).

704 SUPPORTING INFORMATION

- **Table S1.** Detailed information about the 403 dung beetles analyzed.
- **Table S2.** Pools of dung beetle iDNA for the metabarcoding sequencing.
- **Table S3.** Non mammal species detection and reads recovered from the iDNA from dung beetles
- vsing 12SrRNA mini-barcode.
- **Fig. S1.** Funnel pitfall trap preparation from 2-L plastic bottle.