1	Common practice tissue extraction in solvent does not
2	reflect actual emission of a sex pheromone during
3	courtship in a butterfly
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20	analyzed the data, wrote and edited the manuscript.
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29	
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31	communication; Female choice

32 Abstract

33 Olfactory communication can be of critical importance for mate choice decisions. Lepidoptera are important model systems for understanding olfactory communication, 34 35 particularly considering sex pheromone signaling in the context of sexual selection. The extraction or rinsing of pheromone-producing structures is a widespread method for 36 quantifying sex pheromones, but such measures reflect what is stored and not what is 37 actually emitted by an individual during courtship. Here, we address this point by 38 quantifying male sex pheromone (MSP) levels of interacting *Bicyclus anynana* butterflies 39 using headspace sampling and tissue extraction after completion of experiments. Our 40 results show that tissue extracts do not accurately predict pheromone quantities emitted 41 by live butterflies. We further show that MSP quantities estimated by headspace sampling 42 correlate with male mating success and that males actively control pheromone emission 43 when faced with increasing male-male competition. Common practice tissue extracts 44 45 thus do not reflect pheromone signals as they are perceived by choosy females, which should be taken into account in studies on sexually selected olfactory signals. Our easy-46 to-use entrainment system can readily be adapted and used for headspace sampling live 47 individuals of any small- to medium-sized insect. 48

49

51 Introduction

52 Sexual selection was first defined by Charles Darwin and Alfred Russel Wallace as a type of natural selection where access to reproduction depends on a specific part of the 53 54 environment, i.e. the other sex^{1,2}. In many distinct taxa, differential investment in reproduction by the two sexes, including anisogamy, has led to the emergence of a choosy 55 sex, usually females, which use phenotypic traits of the other sex, usually males, to select 56 mating partners. Such male phenotypic traits have evolved as sexually dimorphic, 57 secondary sexual traits^{3,4}. Sexual selection can be a major driver shaping the evolution of 58 secondary sexual traits and can also lead to the evolution of reproductive isolation^{5,6}. It 59 is, therefore, essential to accurately quantify sexually selected traits as they are perceived 60 by the other, choosy sex, because it is this information that sexual selection acts upon. 61

While sexual selection research has had a large focus on morphological and 62 acoustic traits, it is likely that many organisms interact mostly through chemical signals, 63 and this is particularly true for sex⁷⁻⁹. Sex pheromones are chemical, usually olfactory, 64 sexually selected traits that can be critical for reproductive success, because these signals 65 can convey information on the location, quality, sex, and species identity of potential 66 mates^{8,10,11}. For a wide array of invertebrate and vertebrate taxa it is common practice to 67 quantify olfactory signals, such as sex pheromones, by tissue extraction (or rinsing) of 68 pheromone-producing structures, which are removed and subsequently soaked in a 69 solvent^{8,12}. A recent overview of pheromone signaling in 34 species of moth, for example, 70 reported that at least 85% of studies used tissue extraction/rinsing of pheromone-71 producing glands to quantify pheromone levels¹³. Tissue extraction or soaking of 72 olfactory signals has indeed proven very efficient over the last decades to assess inter-73 individual variation in pheromone amounts. The quantification of a chemical compound 74

may, however, differ depending on whether it is collected by tissue extraction/rinsing or 75 collected from the air when it is emitted by the animal. Differences in storage capacity or 76 emission rate of pheromone-producing structures, as well as sexual activity (such as 77 courtship) can limit or aid the dissemination of chemical compounds in the air. In 78 79 addition, the intrinsic volatility and chemical affinity of the compound to the tissue where it is produced or stored may also affect its emission in the air. The practice to soak or 80 rinse pheromone-producing tissues may thus not reliably quantify olfactory sexual 81 signals as they are emitted and perceived by the choosing sex during courtship behavior. 82 Lepidoptera have become important model organisms in studies on sexual 83 selection of olfactory communication⁸. After identification of the first sex pheromone in 84 the silk moth *Bombyx mori*¹⁰, early work on sexually selected olfactory signals focused on 85 female moths that release remarkably long-range pheromone plumes to attract 86 conspecifics¹⁴. The quantification of sex pheromone as it is released in the air by 87 individuals performing courtship behavior has occasionally been done using female 88 moths, which have the advantage of remaining immobile when "calling" for males at 89

night. This approach remains an exception in the field of chemical ecology, however, 90 particularly in sexual selection studies. Moreover, olfactory signals emitted by males are 91 hardly ever estimated using methods other than tissue extraction. Male moths and 92 butterflies also emit pheromones during courtship, and sex pheromones in male 93 Lepidoptera are usually emitted at close range¹⁵⁻¹⁹. A diverse array of specialized 94 structures, including sex scales (macula), coremata, and hairpencils, located on the 95 abdomen, legs, or wings, are involved in the emission of a blend of compounds shortly 96 before and during courtship behavior^{15,18,20–22}. The emission of male sexually-selected 97 olfactory signals is further accompanied by stereotyped movements, leading to a 98

99 stereotyped courtship behavior that is expected to play a role in the emission of sex
 100 pheromones¹⁹.

In this study, we evaluated whether common practice tissue extraction provides 101 an accurate estimate of chemical signals emitted during courtship. To test this, we 102 developed a method for quantifying male olfactory signals emitted in the air by live, 103 courting, males and compare that to tissue extracts of the same individuals after 104 completion of experiments. If differences are found between classical tissue 105 extraction/rinsing methods and our new method this would suggest that our 106 understanding of how sexual selection affects the evolution of olfactory traits is biased, 107 which could affect the conclusions of hundreds, if not thousands, of published studies. We 108 use the butterfly Bicyclus anynana (Lepidoptera: Nymphalidae) as a model system, 109 because much information is already available about sexual selection through olfactory 110 communication in this species^{9,19,23–29}. *B. anynana* males compete for access to females 111 and perform a stereotyped courtship sequence that includes wing flickering (rapid 112 movement of the wings) and thrusting (contact made by the male with his head, antenna, 113 or legs to the side of the female)¹⁹. During thrusting, the androconial hairs (i.e. 114 115 pheromone-producing structures) become visible as they fan out and reach beyond the male's wing surface¹⁹ (Figure 1), a time at which males emit the sex pheromone. The sex 116 pheromone is formed by three active components: (Z)-9-tetradecenol (Z9-14:OH or 117 "male sex pheromone 1"; MSP1), hexadecanal (16:Ald; MSP2), and 6,10,14-118 trimethylpentadecan-2-ol (MSP3). Females do not emit these MSP components, but 119 readily perceive them through their antenna^{19,28}. Males with artificially reduced MSP 120 production after surgical removal of androconia or after androconia are covered with 121 varnish indeed suffer from reduced mating success^{19,24}. MSP composition was further 122 found to be a reliable indicator of male identity, level of inbreeding, level of starvation, 123

and age^{26,27}, i.e. females were shown to use variation in absolute and relative amounts of 124 these three components in deciding with whom to mate. Selection on male-specific wing 125 chemical compounds among *Bicyclus* species was further shown to play a key role in 126 reproductive isolation within this genus, containing over 80 different species⁹. All these 127 studies used the classical wing extraction method, and showed that male wings produce 128 larger amounts of MSP3 (usually $\sim 10 \,\mu g$ per individual) than MSP1 ($\sim 2 \,\mu g$ per individual) 129 and that MSP2 is only a minor component ($\sim 0.4 \mu g$ per individual). Here, we asked 130 whether these absolute amounts of MSP components are similar when emitted in the air 131 by courting males, because sex pheromone emission, not storage on wings, is what sexual 132 selection acts upon through female choice. We further determined whether MSP emission 133 is linked to mating success and if males control the emission of MSP. 134

To quantify sex pheromone emission during *B. anynana* courtship, we designed an 135 experimental set-up that uses dynamic headspace sampling followed by gas 136 chromatography to measure emitted MSP components in the air and compared that with 137 MSP amounts obtained by the classical wing extraction method, using the same 138 individuals. Our results revealed that tissue extracts provide inaccurate estimates of what 139 140 is emitted by courting males when compared with headspace sampling. MSP was also found to contribute to mating success, but only when measured by headspace sampling. 141 Our results further showed that males actively control the amount of emitted MSP, 142 depending on the level of competition they experience. Overall, our results reveal that 143 solvent-based tissue extraction can blur the quantification of olfactory signals as they are 144 perceived by potential mates. Our findings can have broad implications in the field of 145 olfactory communication, particularly sexual selection studies, and we propose that the 146 entrainment system designed here, which is easy to set up, could readily be adapted for 147 pheromone sampling of other lepidopterans (producing similar compounds³⁰) or 148

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- 149 medium-sized insects that use airborne chemicals for any function of chemical
- 150 communication.
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- 152



153

- 154 Figure 1 Male ventral forewing containing sex scales (top) and dorsal hindwing containing
- 155 *both sex scales and androconia (bottom).*

156

157 **Results**

- 158 Do tissue extracts reflect olfactory signals emitted during courtship?
- 159 We aimed to determine if one of the most commonly used methods in studies on olfactory
- 160 communication, tissue extraction in a solvent, reliably reflects olfactory signals as they

161 are emitted in the air. To test this, quantities of MSP components emitted in the air during courtship were determined using headspace sampling and compared with wing extracts 162 in hexane of the same individual after experiments ended. Our null hypothesis was that 163 both methods would measure similar amounts of MSP components. Average MSP 164 amounts per male differed strongly between methods for MSP2 and MSP3, but not for 165 MSP1. For MSP1, MSP quantities found on the wing at the end of behavioral experiments 166 were similar to what was emitted by males during a day of courtship activity (wing 167 extract mean \pm 1SE: 5.4 \pm 0.6 μ g; headspace sampling mean \pm 1SE: 4.8 \pm 0.5 μ g; t-test, t = 168 -1.18; df = 74.84; p = 0.241). In contrast, MSP3 was detected in the air at a concentration 169 eleven times lower than what was extracted from the wings (wing extract mean ± 1SE: 170 $19.5 \pm 2 \mu g$; headspace sampling mean $\pm 1SE$: $1.8 \pm 0.3 \mu g$; t-test t = -10.65; df = 59.66; p 171 < 0.0001). MSP3 is thus not the most abundant chemical perceived by *B. anynana* females. 172 We further found a correlation in MSP1 and MSP3 quantities between wing extracts and 173 headspace sampling of individual males (MSP1: MSP1: $R^{2}_{adj} = 0.52$, $F_{1,41} = 46.87$, p < 174 0.0001; MSP3: $R^{2}_{adj} = 0.23$, $F_{1,45} = 13.71$, p < 0.001; Figure 2). Surprisingly, we did not find 175 any MSP2 in headspace samples, while MSP2 was present in typical amounts in male wing 176 extracts^{19,26,28} (wing extract mean \pm 1SE: 1978 \pm 193 ng). 177

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Figure 2: Correlation between MSP1 (left) and MSP3 (right) amounts (in ng/individual)
obtained by headspace sampling live butterflies during 22.5 hours (Y axis) or wing tissue
extraction after completion of behavioral experiments (X axis).

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184 *Does MSP amount contribute to mating success?*

We produced different sex ratios to manipulate the level of male-male competition: 185 female-biased, equal, or male-biased sex ratios (1:3, 1:1 and 3:1, male:female). The 186 relative number of mated males (i.e. the number of matings divided by the number of 187 males within one treatment) decreased with increasing male-biased sex ratios (R_{adj} = 188 0.31; $F_{1,41} = 19.9$; p < 0.001). Increased male-male competition was thus associated with 189 increasing male-biased sex ratio, as expected^{31,32}. We further expected that increasing 190 male competition would induce males to produce and/or emit more MSP during 191 courtship. We, therefore, tested whether MSP levels obtained through headspace 192 193 sampling or wing extracts best explained male mating success. We found that amounts of MSP1 and MSP3 components quantified in the air using headspace sampling increased 194 195 with the number of matings (Table 1). In contrast, MSP1 and MSP3 components

- 196 quantified by wing extraction did not covary with number of matings (Table 1). We could
- 197 not compare the role of MSP2 as the latter was not detected in headspace samples.

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Table 1: Su	ummary of models testing for the	effects of sex ratio and	mating	number on M	MSP1 and MSP3			
		Heads	bace		Wing extract			
Variables	Model terms	Estimate +/- 1SE	LRT	р	Estimate +/- 1SE	LRT	р	
MSP1	Intercept	2994.6 +/- 1678.1			1850.0 +/- 627.4			
	Sex ratio	3347.6 +/- 809.3 15.2		< 0.0001	2396.5 +/- 334.8	26	< 0.0001	
	Mating number	4022.5 +/- 1055.2	8.0	0.005				
	Sex ratio*Mating number	-1146.4 +/- 486.1	6.8	0.009				
MSP3	Intercept	-2116.2 +/- 1036.4			6655 +/- 2353			
	Sex ratio	1520.4 +/- 460.2	1.4	0.241	8649 +/- 1258	24.7	< 0.0001	
	Mating number	2710.4 +/- 635.6	6.9	0.008				
	Sex ratio*Mating number	-864.7 +/- 283.8	9.3	0.002				

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201 Do males actively control MSP emission?

We aimed to assess whether males can actively control MSP emission or whether MSP 202 203 components are emitted passively¹⁹. We hypothesized that if MSP emission is actively controlled by males, MSP headspace amounts should correlate with courtship activity, 204 205 but not with general mobility because MSP should be emitted specifically when MSP are 206 useful, i.e. when courting females. We contrasted two types of male behaviors that were recorded during mating experiments: male sexual activity as represented by male 207 courtship (fluttering and thrusting) and male general movements (walking, flying) as an 208 internal control. Both MSP1 and MSP3 headspace amounts increased significantly with 209 male courtship activity (Table 2; Figure 3), while MSP1 and MSP3 headspace amounts 210 decreased significantly when male general movements increased (Table 2). No MSP2 was 211 found to be emitted at any sex ratio. 212

Table	2: Summary of models testing for	the effects courtship b	ehavio	rs and				
	general movements on MSP1 and	d MSP3 headspace am	ounts					
VariablesModel termsEstimate +/- 1SELRTp								
MSP1	Intercept	1714.6 +/- 1338.3						
	Courtship behaviors	2451.7 +/- 916.9	7.2	0.0007				
	General movements	-1670.9 +/- 655.0	6	0.014				
MSP3	Intercept	-1186.4 +/- 996.7						
	Courtship behaviors	1215.2 +/- 567.9	5.8	0.016				
	General movements	-1104.4 +/- 421.9	7.5	0.006				
LRT = log-lik	elihood ratio test							

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Figure 3: Headspace amounts (in ng/individual) in response to increasing courtship activity
(left) or general movement (right) for MSP1.

219

220 **Discussion**

We designed an easy-to-use entrainment system for quantifying sex pheromones emitted during courtship behavior of *Bicyclus anynana*, the first butterfly to date for which such data has been obtained. Our results show that one of the most common methods used to quantify olfactory signals, tissue extraction, does not accurately reflect pheromone quantities as they are available in the air for female perception. MSP2 and MSP3 indeed

displayed strikingly different average amounts when sampled using headspace collection 226 or wing extraction. We further showed that MSP1 and MSP3 were correlated across 227 sampling methods. MSP components quantified in the air, but not in wing extracts, were 228 then shown to increase with the number of matings; hence pheromone quantities emitted 229 in the air, rather than stored on the wings, contribute to mating success. MSP amounts 230 emitted in the air were further found to increase with courtship activity, but to decrease 231 in relation to general movements. Males thus actively control the emission of MSP when 232 courting females. 233

Accurately quantifying olfactory sexually selected signals using air extracts is 234 critical, because presence of pheromones in the air is a way by which the other sex can 235 collect olfactory information about potential mates¹³. Whilst our study is the first to link 236 courtship behavior to pheromone emission in the air, measuring sex pheromone release 237 in live individuals is not new. Byrne (1975)³³ already recognized that tissue extraction 238 may not reflect pheromone emission and designed a headspace sampling method for 239 insects using absorption on Porapak Q. This method was then successfully used to 240 measure sex pheromones of several lepidopteran species^{34,35}. What is striking is that 241 most studies using Byrne's method found that pheromone quantities or ratios were not 242 similar when determined by headspace sampling or tissue extracts^{33,36,37} (but see³⁸), 243 similar to our own findings. The need to collect pheromones from air rather than tissues 244 was thus already clear in the $70s^{37,39-41}$. 245

How do the discrepancies between headspace sampling and wing extracts affect our understanding of sexual selection acting on olfactory communication in *B. anynana*? Earlier studies revealed that *B. anynana* males produce, and females perceive, 3 components forming the male sex pheromone. MSP1 and MSP2 amounts were repeatedly found to be present in higher amounts in wing extracts of males with high mating success

and were indicative of male age and inbreeding level^{19,26,27}, while the amount of MSP3 did 251 not correlate with male genetic quality and mating success²⁷. In addition, MSP2 quantity 252 was suspected²⁶, and recently proven⁴², to be of central importance in determining male 253 mating success compared to MSP1 or MSP3. These short-range MSP components were 254 thus indeed found to be reliable signals for estimating the suitability and quality of a 255 potential mating partner. Contrary to these findings, in this study male mating success 256 correlated to increasing amounts of MSP1 and MSP3 when collected using headspace 257 sampling, but not in wing extracts, and males mated despite the absence of MSP2 in 258 headspace extracts. For wing extractions male wings were collected right after behavioral 259 experiments had ended in previous studies, as well as this study. This excludes the 260 possibility that differences in MSP wing extraction methodology would be responsible for 261 the lacking correlation between MSP quantities from wing extracts and mating success in 262 this study. We can further reasonably assume that headspace extracts are more reliable 263 estimates of olfactory signals as they are perceived, and under sexual selection, by 264 females compared to wing extracts (although olfactory perception of chemical signals 265 remains understudied compared to signal emission). As MSP1 and MSP3 amounts covary 266 267 between wing extracts and headspace sampling (Figure 2), we suggest that the relative quality of males in a group of competitors can be reliably estimated based on 268 269 quantification both by wing tissue extraction or headspace sampling, and that this is likely what females use for assessing potential mates. Absence of a link between wing 270 extracts and mating success in the experiments reported here may thus be due to the 271 272 reduced cage volume used for assessing mating success, because butterflies could not really take off and fly. 273

The most striking difference between MSP wing extracts and headspace sampling was the absence of MSP2 in the latter. Absence of MSP2 in headspace extracts could be

due either to technical limitations or to a behavioral decision by males, which were 276 indeed found to control MSP1 and MSP3 emission. Technical limitations are unlikely for 277 several reasons. First, we have collected MSP1 (tetradecen-1-ol) in expected amounts in 278 headspace samples, and this fatty acid derived component is a long-chain molecule like 279 MSP2 (hexadecanal). Second, we used different types of cartridges (Tenax TA, Super Q, 280 Poropak, HayeSep and Silice), as well as two cartridges in series (Tenax-TA) during pilot 281 experiments. Third, during pilot experiments a range of flow rates was used for 282 headspace collection, ranging from 75 mL min⁻¹ up to 800 mL min⁻¹. We further used 283 males of different ages and densities of up to ten males. None of these trials led to 284 collection of even trace amounts of MSP2. Absence of MSP2 in headspace samples thus 285 suggests that MSP2 emission is actively controlled by males and that the experimental 286 environment used did not elicit active emission of MSP2. A plausible explanation for the 287 absence of MSP2 may be the limited volume of the entrainment chamber (1.4 L). This 288 could have prevented MSP2 emission, for example if MSP2 is an arrestant pheromone, i.e. 289 a signal emitted by flying males to stimulate landing by females before males start their 290 land-based courtship sequence⁴³. It could also be that males did not invest in the emission 291 of this costly MSP component⁴⁴, because females could not escape this unnaturally small 292 arena, providing males with an overall high chance of mating. 293

The second main problem brought to light by the comparison of headspace samples and wing extracts was that the relative amounts of MSP1 and MSP3 were inverted between the two methods of quantification: there was about three times more MSP1 than MSP3 in the air, while less MSP1 than MSP3 is usually found in wing extracts. Relative proportions of sex pheromone components are known to be of great importance for species identification in many Lepidoptera⁴⁵. In addition, sexually selected traits involved in assessing male quality are usually under strong directional selection⁴. We were thus biased in previous studies with *B. anynana* by believing that MSP3 was possibly
under strongest directional sexual selection as this MSP was present in highest amounts
on male wings. Our current experiments reveal that MSP1 was 3 times more abundant
than MSP3 in the air, and although MSP3 amount increased with mating success, this may
simply be due to the fact that MSP3 amount correlates to MSP1 amount²⁶ (this study).
The unimportance of MSP3 compared to MSP1 is further suggested by a significant
change in MSP1, but not MSP3, amounts in response to inbreeding levels²⁷.

In conclusion, as short-range sex pheromone quantities can be under strong 308 sexual selection it is important to accurately estimate and measure sex pheromone 309 emission during actual courtship behaviors, because these are the chemical signals 310 perceived by choosy females. We suggest that studies interested in mate choice and 311 sexual selection based on olfactory communication should thus take into account that 312 tissue extracts might not reflect what individuals actually perceive. In order to determine 313 the importance of a chemical for interacting individuals, we need to establish what is 314 actually emitted in the air and assess how that affects behavioral responses and we 315 propose a novel experimental setup to do just that. 316

317

318 Materials and methods

319 *Model organism* B. anynana

An outbred laboratory population of *B. anynana* was established at the Université catholique de Louvain (Belgium) in 2012 from an existing laboratory population that was established in 1988 from over 80 gravid field-caught females in Malawi, Africa. Larvae were reared on maize (*Zea mays mays*) and adults were fed bananas (*Musa acuminata*) *ad libitum*. Population sizes were maintained at around 400 to 600 adults for each generation to preserve high levels of heterozygosity⁴⁶. Experiments were performed on
individuals reared in a climate chamber under a standardized temperature regime at 26.0
±2.0°C, a relative humidity of 70 ±15% and a photoperiod of 12:12 L:D, representing the
tropical wet season under natural conditions. Sexes were separated on the day of
emergence and virgin males and females between 7 to 10 days and 4 to 6 days of age,
respectively, used for experiments.

331

332 Experimental set-up for headspace sampling

A custom-built headspace entrainment arena with a capacity of 1.8 L (Pierre E. ltd., 333 Vilvoorde, Belgium) was used to collect volatile chemical components produced by live 334 *B. anynana* males. Custom-made sorbent cartridges were prepared with 60 mg Tenax-TA 335 20/35 sorbent (04914, Grace Davidson Discovery Science, IL) in glass tubes (Figure 4). 336 Sorbent cartridges were coupled to Teflon tubings (BOLA PTFE 8 mm i.d.) at both sides 337 with one side facing the arena and the other side facing an air pump (Escort ELF Personal 338 Air Sampling Pump, Zefon International Inc., Florida USA) operating at 0.8 L min⁻¹. 339 Airflow was verified prior to connection to the system using a digital flowmeter 340 341 (MesaLabs Bios Defender 520, Colorado, USA). Sorbent cartridges were further cleaned by flushing with 1.5 ml of 90:10 v/v mixture of n-hexane and diethyl ether and left to dry 342 before each experiment. Prior to use the whole entrainment system was thoroughly 343 cleaned. 344

345

346 Behavioral observations

Before individuals were used in experiments, male abdominal tips were dusted with a
U.V. fluorescent powder dye ('rodent-tracking' fluorescent dust, chartreuse "TP35"
Radiant Color NV, Houthalen, Belgium) to allow tracking of copulation events through

350 dust transfer between genitalia⁴⁷. We produced three treatments with increasing malebiased sex ratio: 1:3, 1:1 and 3:1 males to females, using different virgin males and 351 females, using 14, 15 and 14 replicates, respectively. The entrainment chamber was 352 headspace sampled over a 22.5 hour period. To link pheromone emission to male activity, 353 354 behaviors were observed and recorded using the program The Observer v. 5.0 (Noldus, Hilversum, the Netherlands). Recorded behaviors included the number and duration of 355 general activities (walking, flying), as well as the number and duration of courtship 356 behaviors (i.e. courtship sequences that included male wing fluttering) and the number 357 of matings. As courtship activity peaks in the afternoon (unpublished data), behavioral 358 observations started around 12:00. Male activity was examined during 15 minutes at the 359 start of the experiment, and for another 15 minutes one hour later (starting at 13:00). 360 Courtship activity takes place during the entire daylight phase, but observations of 30 361 minutes during peak activity provide an accurate measurement of all activities (pers. obs. 362 CMN and BV). To avoid stress during the entrainment period, a non-sterile cotton wool 363 segment (\sim 60 mm x \sim 40 mm) containing \sim 5 ml of cane sugar solution diluted in water 364 (5 g in 200ml⁻¹) was added to the entrainment arena. This allowed *ad libitum* feeding 365 without volatile contamination. Control entrainments in which no insects were added to 366 the arena were also performed to verify the absence MSPs (levels < LOD). After the 367 entrainment was terminated, male genital regions were viewed under UV light at 365nm 368 (18W Blacklight-Blue F18W/T8/BLB, Havells-Sylvania, Antwerp Belgium) to determine 369 if mating had occurred during the 22.5 hour entrainment period. Males were then 370 collected and frozen at -80 °C, after which wings were removed and used for MSP 371 quantification by wing extraction (see below). 372

374 MSP quantification using headspace sampling and wing extracts

After each entrainment experiment, sorbent cartridges were eluted twice with 200 µl 375 90:10 v/v n-hexane-diethyl ether. Ten µl of trans-4-tridecenyl acetate was then added to 376 the elution solvent to provide an internal standard with a final concentration of $5 \text{ ng } \mu l^{-1}$. 377 378 This enabled direct comparison with obtained peak areas. As elution from the cartridge was expected to be less than the full solvent volume applied, 10 μ l of a second standard 379 (C10 butylbenzene; final concentration of 1 ng μ l⁻¹) was added directly prior to cartridge 380 elution. Analysis of the butylbenzene peak area within a complete 220 µl solvent volume 381 enabled us to quantify actual solvent loss in every elution. GC analyses were carried out 382 on an Agilent GC7890A gas chromatograph fitted with a flame ionisation detector 383 (Agilent Technologies, Belgium) and a splitless injector at 250 °C. A 30m x 0.32 mm DB-5 384 (df=0.2 µm) column (Agilent, 19091J-413) was used with H₂ as the carrier gas at a 385 constant flow of 30 ml.min⁻¹. The temperature program was as follows: initial 386 temperature of 75°C for 3 minutes which was then programmed to 220°C at 20°C min⁻¹ 387 until 300 °C at 30°C min⁻¹ with a final hold of 7 min. The FID was maintained at 250°C. 388 Injections were made using a 7693 ALS autosampler (Agilent), injecting 1µl. All 389 acquisitions and integrations were examined with GC Chemstation B.04.03-SP2 (Agilent). 390 Wing extractions were performed according to Nieberding et al¹⁹ and Heuskin et al²⁸. 391 Briefly, MSP components were extracted by placing one fore- and one hind-wing of each 392 male in 350ul n-hexane, which contained an internal standard (trans-4-tridecenyl acetate 393 at 10 ng ul⁻¹), for 10 min. Separations were carried out in the aforementioned 394 chromatographic conditions. This allowed for a direct comparison between 'on-wing' 395 MSP levels and headspace MSP collections. 396

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Figure 4: Top: Headspace entrainment arena. Left: side view (with two smaller ports omitted from the lid). Right: viewed from above showing all ports. Labels: 01: culture flask injection head; 02: stainless steel band; 03: corresponding culture flask lid with added ports;
04: 8mm PTFE tubing; 05: 3mm glass with 45 degree cut; 06:5.5mm outer diameter PTFE;
07: 7 mm outer diameter PTFE; 08: 7mm outer diameter glass; 09: 8 mm PTFE tubing; 10:
metal grid; 11: Tenax-TA 20/35; 12: silicone rubber sealed plastic hose connector; 13: GL45
centralised screwthread with cap; 14: glass wool plug; 15: activated dry carbon; 16: GL14

408 screwthread and cap with aperture; 17: PTFE 'O' ring. Inset: magnified annotated sorbent
409 cartridge design. Bottom: magnified view from side and from above.

- 410
- 411 *Statistics*

Statistical analyses were done using R 3.3.1 (R Core team, 2016)⁴⁸ via the RStudio 412 Desktop v0.99.903 (RStudio Inc., Boston, Massachusetts, USA). We used a linear model to 413 test for a correlation between MSP amounts obtained using headspace sampling and wing 414 extracts (for MSP1 and MSP3 separately). MSP1 and MSP3 quantities were further 415 compared between methods using t-tests. A linear mixed effects model (GLMM; lme4 416 package) was then used to test for the effect of mating number and sex ratio on MSP 417 quantities with the following structure: *Y* ~ *sex ratio* (fixed) + *mating number* (fixed) + *sex* 418 *ratio x mating number + male age* (random) + *female age* (random). All replicates were 419 used for this model (n = 43). To test for the effect of courtship behaviors, general 420 movements and sex ratio on MSP quantities the following linear mixed effects model was 421 fitted: $Y \sim sex ratio$ (fixed) + log courtship behaviors (fixed) + log general movements 422 (fixed) + log courtship behaviors x log general movements (fixed) + male age (random) + 423 *female age* (random). For the latter model, only experiments where a single male was 424 present were used (n = 28). Full models went through model simplification to obtain the 425 minimal adequate model. 426

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