# Trail-laying during tandem running recruitment in Temnothorax albipennis ants 

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#### Abstract

Tandem running is a recruitment strategy whereby one ant leads a single naïve nest mate to a resource. While tandem running progresses towards the goal, the leader ant and the follower ant maintain contact mainly by tactile signals. In this paper, we investigated whether they also deposit chemical signals on the ground during tandem running. We filmed tandem running ants and analysed the position of the gasters of leaders and followers. Our results show that leader ants are more likely to press their gasters down to the substrate compared to follower ants, single ants and transporter ants. Forward tandem run leaders (those moving towards a new nest site) performed such trail marking procedures three times more often than reverse tandem leaders (those moving towards an old nest site). That leader ants marked the trails more often on forward tandem runs may suggest that it is more important to maintain the bond with the follower ant on forward tandem runs than on reverse tandem runs. Overall, our experiments provide evidence that during tandem running in ants, particularly in T. albipennis, the leader ants lay chemical trails probably to give the follower the freedom momentarily to stop following and to look around to learn landmarks, and yet later successfully re-unite with the tandem leader. The trails on the ground may serve as a safely line that improves both the efficiency of tandem runs and their completion rates.


Keywords
Navigation, communication, landmark, pheromone, tandem running, ant, Temnothorax albipennis.

## Introduction

Social insects use various types of communication to influence one another's behaviour often so that another individual can also utilize useful resources (see review in Billen 2006). Such communication leads to the spread of information among members of a colony (von Frisch 1973; Jackson and Ratnieks 2006). In ants, communication via pheromone trails is common and it is probably especially frequent in species with large colony sizes (Franks et al. 1991; Witte and Maschwitz 2002; Planqué et al. 2010; Loreto et al. 2013). The reason large ant colonies use recruitment pheromone trails rather than one-to-one communication (see Franks and Richardson 2006) is that in a large colony such broadcasting is likely to be efficient. This is because with so many ants present the information is likely to be encountered and acted on and conversely is unlikely to be lost. In fact, when there are many ants present, such broadcast information can be rapidly reinforced if it is useful (Witte and Maschwitz 2002; Jackson and Ratnieks 2006; Collignon and Detrain 2010; Czaczkes et al. 2013). By contrast, in a small society information could easily be lost because with low numbers no ant may be available to encounter a timely and pertinent pheromone trail. Therefore, one-to-one communication, of which tandem running is an example, is a more effective solution for ants living in small colonies (Franks and Richardson 2006). Moreover, tandem running is now of general interest. It is widely known in the animal behaviour and behavioural ecology literature as a prime example of teaching, orientation and social decision-making (e.g., Davies et al. 2012).

Recruitment by tandem running is important to many species of ant (Wilson 1959; Hölldobler et al. 1974; Möglich et al. 1974; Lane 1977; Hölldobler and Traniello 1980; Traniello and Hölldobler 1984; Pratt 2008). Various studies have been conducted in order to understand the mechanisms of tandem running (Hölldobler et al. 1974; Maschwitz et al. 1974; Möglich 1979; Traniello and Hölldobler 1984; Franks and Richardson 2006; Richardson et al. 2007). Previous study has shown that in certain species a leader ant may display "tandem calling" behaviour by secreting pheromones into the air from its gaster to attract and recruit a follower ant (Möglich et al. 1974; Möglich 1979). Researchers have also discovered that feedback between leaders and followers occurs during tandem running such that each adjusts their speed so that the gap between them does not become too great (Franks and Richardson 2006). This strategy reduces the chances that they will lose one another before reaching their goal.

During nest emigration in the ant T. albipennis, it is common to observe forward and reverse tandem running (Franks et al. 2009). In forward tandem running, one ant leads one other from the old nest to the new one and the follower maintains intermittent contact with its leader by tapping the leader with her antennae. During nest emigrations such tandem running is followed by social carrying. Typically the switch from tandem running to social carrying occurs when a quorum threshold has been met in a new nest (Pratt 2005). Later in an emigration, tandem runs may originate at the new nest and return to the old one (Franks et al. 2009). This is known as reverse tandem running (Richardson et al. 2007; Planqué et al. 2007; Planqué et al. 2010). While forward tandem runs function mainly to teach naïve ants a route between the old and the new nests (Franks and Richardson 2006), reverse tandem runs help to speed up emigrations (Planqué et al. 2007). A need for this could arise if forward tandem runs have been limited, as may occur when a colony has used a low quorum threshold in an emergency (Planqué et al. 2007), or tandem run followers are in short supply at the old nest but not at the new one (Franks et al. 2009).

Despite extensive studies of tandem running in T. albipennis (see review in Franklin 2014), very little is known about possible mechanistic differences between forward and reverse tandem runs. An important question is whether or not tandem run leaders (or indeed followers) lay trails on the ground during tandem running? Although it has been shown that these ants produce an attractive tandem run pheromone (Möglich et al. 1974; Möglich 1979), it is not clear if this is ever deposited on the substrate. Temnothorax ants lay individually specific orientation trails rather than recruitment pheromone trails (Maschwitz and Buschinger 1986; Aron et al. 1988; Mallon and Franks 2000). Thus, it is also possible that tandem run followers may lay their own trail pheromones as they track their leader. Pratt et al. (2001) showed that in an emigration experiment, pheromone trails are used by T. albipennis ants. Removal of an acetate sheet that lay between the old nest and a new nest confused the ants. This indicates that they lay a pheromone trail onto the substrate and may use it as one of their navigational cues (Pratt et al. 2001). However, we still do not know whether these trails are laid mainly by single ants or mostly by the members of tandem pairs.

In another fairly closely related myrmicine ant, Lepthothorax acervorum, tandem leaders are known to extend their stings slightly whilst tandem running (Möglich 1979). This may indicate that this ant secretes a tandem pheromone either from its poison gland or its Dufour's gland. However, Möglich (1979) also noted that the sting of the leader was not
dragged over the surface as it is in other species that lay chemical trails. Thus it is far from clear that tandem leaders continually secrete and deposit pheromones on the substrate during tandem running. Hence, we believe that further investigations into the mechanics of the behaviours that are utilised within tandem running are much needed.

Fortunately, because the behaviour of pheromone depositing ants is highly stereotyped, it is possible to use postural cues to infer if pheromone trails are being produced (Hölldobler et al. 1974; Maschwitz and Buschinger 1986). Such postural cues can be highly informative (Holldobler and Wilson 1990). For example, if at some point during tandem running a leader ant releases 'calling pheromone', typically one should see the leader's gaster raised to a much higher position than its normal horizontal one: i.e. the posture is very likely to be similar to that exhibited by L. acervorum during tandem calling (Möglich et al. 1974). In addition, one should expect to see that the leader's gaster touches, or is dragged over, the substrate if such an ant is laying a trail. Thus, one good way to study whether the ants secrete 'calling pheromone' or whether they lay pheromone trails on the substrate during tandem running is by observing the positions of the gasters of the ants during tandem running and comparing them with the gaster positions of non-tandem running ants. We are aware, of course, that even if a tandem running ant's gaster is deployed downward so that it brushes the substrate, one cannot be completely sure that this ant is laying a chemical trail. However, we can be fully confident that if the gaster is held by the ant in a horizontal or higher position so that the gaster tip or sting cannot touch the substrate the ant cannot be laying a trail from its poison gland or Dufour's gland. Hence, our approach is to compare the gaster positions of tandem leaders and tandem followers on both forward and reverse tandem runs with ants running as isolated individuals or ants carrying nestmates (either other adults or brood).

In addition, the position of an ant's antennae may indicate if it is following a pheromone trail laid on the substrate. If such is the case, an ant will typically touch the substrate with its antennae lowered rather than deporting them in a horizontal or raised position. We carried out emigration experiments in which we filmed tandem running and non-tandem running ants, the latter being individuals running alone or carrying. We then analysed the footage to determine the positions of the gasters and the antennae of the ants: 1) during tandem runs, 2) when moving alone and 3) when acting as transporters (ants that carry brood items or adult nestmates). We also counted the number of trail-marking events by the leaders of tandem running ants. Our
goal is to understand in more detail the mechanisms of tandem running, especially in $T$. albipennis.

## Materials and methods

The sixteen colonies of Temnothorax albipennis (Curtis) used for these experiments were collected in September 2011, on the Dorset coast, England, UK. In the laboratory, each colony was housed in an artificial nest, consisting of a cardboard perimeter, sandwiched between two microscope slides ( $75 \mathrm{~mm} \times 50 \mathrm{~mm} \times 1 \mathrm{~mm}$ ). The cardboard formed an inner nest cavity measuring $50 \mathrm{~mm} \times 35 \mathrm{~mm} \times 2 \mathrm{~mm}$, with a 2 mm wide entrance. The colonies were provided with water, honey solution and Drosophila flies ad libitum.

Each colony was given at least six 'emigration-free' days before it was used again for the next trial to make sure that any effect of previous emigration experience had faded (Langridge et al. 2004). Two Petri dishes were connected by a bridge of acetate sheet 1 mm wide and 102 mm long (Fig. 1). The bridge was narrow to make sure only one ant or tandem pair of ants could cross the bridge at one time. The narrowness of the bridge also ensured that the ants remained within the depth of focus of the camera's lens to produce the clearest possible images. The ants started tandem running from either the new or the old nests inside the Petri dishes. Thus we could easily determine beforehand whether the ants that were running on the bridge were tandem running ants or single moving ants. In addition, because the body length of T. albipennis workers is just about 2 to 3 mm , these small ants can move along the $1-\mathrm{mm}$ wide bridge without difficulty.

During the trials, the old nest was placed in the right Petri dish and the new nest in the other. To induce an emigration the roof of the old nest was removed. Once a pair of ants started tandem running across the bridge, all other ants not involved in the tandem run were removed and the entrance of the old nest Petri dish was closed to prevent other ants interrupting the tandem-run pair. These removed ants were then put back in the old nest Petri dish. After a tandem run had been recorded, the old nest Petri dish's entrance was opened again to let another pair of tandem running ants cross the bridge. A Canon (EOS 60D) camera with a Canon Macro Photo Lens (MP-E) $65 \mathrm{~mm} 1-5 \mathrm{x} / 2.8$ was set to focus at the centre of the bridge. This camera produces high definition videos and still images. Within the camera field of view, under effectively 3.2 times magnification, the maximum length of tandem run that could be measured
was 10 mm . Tandem run pairs were filmed as they travelled across the bridge (Fig. 1). Ants that had been recorded were isolated from the rest of the nest before we started another recording. They were reunited with their colony members only at the end of each trial. All videos were recorded at 50 frames per second. After each trial, the bridge and the Petri dishes were cleaned with water and $70 \%$ alcohol to remove any traces of pheromones. Single moving ants and transporter ants were also filmed following the same protocol.

## Analysis of tandem-running behaviour

Frame by frame video analyses were carried out using the VirtualDub video processing utility v.1.10.4 (Lee 2001).

To determine the position of the antennae and gaster, we used a reference picture as the standard for determining posture: antennae or gaster 'up'; 'middle'; or 'down’ (Fig. 2). Normally, the gasters of these ants are in a horizontal position, i.e., at a 'middle' position approximately level with the head and thorax. Thus in the gaster 'up' position, it can be seen clearly that the gaster is raised higher than the head and thorax. While in the gaster 'down' position, the gaster is always deployed lower than the head and thorax. Analogous criteria were applied to the analysis of the antennae position. The leader and follower of a tandem-run pair were analysed independently when determining the positions of their antennae and gaster.

## Trail-marking

We also counted the number of trail-marking events, i.e., the number of times the leaders of forward and reverse tandem runs briefly dragged their stings on the substrate. For this, we only re-analysed the videos for leader and follower ants exhibiting the gaster 'down' posture and only when the stings of the ants were clearly and visibly protruded from the tip of the ants' gasters. Our analyses were conservative and pragmatic and we restricted them to cases in which the behaviours in question were very conspicuous.

To determine the differences in the behaviour of both leaders and followers during forward and reverse tandem runs, we pooled the results for the ants that deployed their gasters 'up' (i.e., above horizontal) or 'in the middle' (i.e., at a horizontal position) into a gaster 'not down' category. We then performed a Fisher's ( $2 \times 2$ ) exact test to determine whether there was a significant difference between the numbers of ants that deploy their gasters 'down' against the numbers with gasters 'not down'. A Chi-square test for goodness-of-fit was performed to test for any differences in gaster position between the leader and follower within the same tandem pair during forward and reverse tandem runs.

A binomial (two-tailed) test was performed to determine the difference between the leaders and followers according to the frequency of keeping their gasters in the 'up' position. In this test, we pooled the result of gaster 'up' from forward and reverse tandem runs for both the leaders and followers. A Mann-Whitney test was conducted to determine whether there was a significant difference in the number of trail-marking events between forward and reverse tandem runs.

## Results

Overall, we analysed 50 forward tandem run pairs ( 50 tandem leaders and 50 tandem followers) and 50 reverse tandem run pairs ( 50 tandem leaders and 50 tandem followers). In addition we analyzed video sequences of 30 single ants and 63 transporters of brood or adult nestmates to compare their behaviour with tandem-running ants.

We found that all non-tandem-running ants deployed their antennae down and their gasters at the middle position (Fig. 2) irrespectively of whether they were moving alone ( $\mathrm{n}=$ 30 ), transporting brood items ( $\mathrm{n}=30$ ) or carrying adult nestmates ( $\mathrm{n}=33$, Fig. 3). During tandem running (combined data for forward and reverse tandem runs), $91 \%$ of the leaders ( $\mathrm{n}=$ $100)$ and $80 \%$ of followers $(\mathrm{n}=100)$ also deployed their antennae down. Thus for the statistical analysis, we will focus only on the results of the gaster positions for the leaders and followers during forward and reverse tandem runs.

During forward tandem runs, $66 \%$ of the leader ants deployed their gaster down while the rest had their gaster either 'up' or in the 'middle' position (Table 1, Fig. 4a and b). In contrast, during reverse tandem runs, only $42 \%$ of leaders deployed their gaster 'down' while
the rest of the reverse tandem leaders deployed their gaster in either the 'up' or 'middle' position (Table 1, Fig. 4c). This shows that the leader ants' behave differently during forward and reverse tandem runs (Fisher's exact test, two-tailed, $\mathrm{p}=0.03$, Table 1). Follower ants, however, showed no significant differences in their behaviour during forward and reverse tandem runs (Fisher's exact test, two-tailed, p=1.00, Table 1).

We also found differences between forward and reverse tandem runs when we compared the positions of the gasters of the leader and follower within the same tandem pair (Table 2). Leaders and followers deploy their gasters differently during forward tandem runs but not during reverse ones. In forward tandem runs, the vast majority of pairs were those where the leader deployed her gaster 'down' and the follower deployed her gaster 'not down'; pairs with the reverse combination of gaster positions were rare (Chi-square test, $\chi^{2}=15.12$, d.f. $=3$, $\mathrm{p}=0.002$, Table 2). By contrast, in reverse tandem runs, the most common pairs were those where both the leader and the follower had their gasters deployed 'not down' while pairs where the leader had her gaster 'not down' and the follower had her gaster 'down' were rare as in forward tandem runs ( $\chi^{2}=16.08$, d.f. $=3, p=0.001$, Table 2). Finally, when we extracted the results from the gaster 'not down' posture, we found that the total number of gaster 'up' observations (for both forward and reverse tandem runs) was also significantly different between leaders and followers (11 leaders versus 2 followers; Binomial test, two-tailed, $\mathrm{p}=0.02$, Table 1 ).

The leaders of forward tandem runs briefly dragged their stings and gasters (Fig. 4d) on the substrate on average three times per 10 mm distance (median $\pm$ interquartile range $=3.0$ $\pm 2.0$ ) while reverse tandem leaders dragged their stings and gasters on average only once per 10 mm distance (median $\pm$ interquartile range $=1.0 \pm 0.0$ ). There was a significant difference between these two frequencies suggesting that leaders of forward tandem runs marked trails more often compared to the leaders of reverse tandem runs (Mann-Whitney test, two-tailed, $\mathrm{N}_{1}=23, \mathrm{~N}_{2}=8 ; \mathrm{W}=443.5 ; \mathrm{p}<0.01$ ).

## Discussion

Through analysing the positions of the gasters of the ants, we found that single ants and transporting ants seem never to have their gasters in the downward position when running between old and new nest sites. In contrast, when the ants engaged in tandem running, most of
the leader ants' gasters were deployed downward while most of the follower ants' gasters were either horizontal (middle position) or were raised a bit higher than the horizontal position. Even though the results of the current experiments showed that the gasters of single running ants were mostly deployed in a horizontal position, previous experiments have demonstrated that single Temnothorax ants do lay pheromone trails especially when they start exploring new environments, for example to determine the interior floor area of a new potential nest site (Mallon and Franks 2000) and for their orientation cues (Pratt et al. 2001). In contrast, we are confident that transporter ants do not lay chemical trails because they did not drag their gasters on the substrate. This is probably because they are not involved in recruitment. Furthermore, single ants will only begin transporting when the quorum threshold has been met in the new nest (Pratt et al. 2002; Pratt 2005; Langridge et al. 2008). Hence, there might be enough trails on the floor laid by the other ants (or by themselves) previously, during tandem running, making it unnecessary for them to lay any additional trails during carrying. Moreover, in previous experiments transporter ants of T. albipennis had been observed to use different pathways on their outbound and inbound journeys (Pratt et al. 2001). This suggests that transporter ants do not retrace their own chemical trails on their inbound paths. They probably depend on other cues such as landmarks and celestial cues or may also follow other colony members' trails for homing (see later). In addition, carrying a nest mate to a new nest is three time faster than tandem running (Franks and Richardson 2006) and so it seems likely that when travelling at such a speed transporters may not be able to lay trails.

The behaviour of leaders is different during forward tandem runs compared to reverse tandem runs. In forward tandem runs, the gasters of leaders were significantly more frequently deployed downward compared to those of leaders of reverse tandem runs. Leaders changed the way they deployed their gasters between forward and reverse tandem runs in a way that is consistent with them doing some trail laying during both but doing so more often on forward than reverse tandem runs. Comparing the gaster positions of leaders and followers during forward tandem runs shows that they are significantly associated in a way consistent with much more trail laying by leaders than by followers. In contrast, gaster positions for leaders and followers during reverse tandem runs show no significant differences. It also seems unlikely that the follower ants in forward tandem runs marked the trails when leaders did not. This is because, as our results show, the most common posture combination within forward tandem run pairs is for the leader's gaster to be 'down' and the follower's gaster to be 'not down' while the opposite posture combination is rare. Taken altogether, this suggests that it may be
important for leaders to invest more in marking their route and maintaining the bond with their follower during a forward rather than a reverse tandem run.

Our results also show that during forward tandem runs, leader ants mark the trails three times more often than during reverse tandem runs. This is probably because nest emigrations may not occur at all without a sufficient number of forward tandem runs. The ants need to reach a quorum threshold in the new nest before they initiate an emigration of the whole colony (Pratt et al. 2002). Thus the leader ant may provide a trail to ensure a connection between her and the follower ant all the way from the old nest until they reach the goal (i.e., the new nest). Leaders often lead more than one tandem run (Basari, personal observations) and hence a well-marked path may help them to do this more efficiently. Perhaps the trail is also important to help other ants to find the goal and thus for a colony to achieve a quorum threshold more rapidly. Although Temnothorax may lay individual specific trails, this does not mean that such trails are undetectable to their nestmates. Hence even though they may not be used for mass recruitment in which specific narrow paths become stronger and stronger as they are reinforced by more and more traffic (Beckers et al. 1993; Witte and Maschwitz 2002; Planqué et al. 2010; Collignon and Detrain 2010), a loose set of trails heading more or less in the same direction may still provide major orientation cues (Franks et al. 2010).

In tandem running ants, the leader may use a trail pheromone to help keep the bond between the follower and herself and also to facilitate learning by the follower (Maschwitz et al. 1974; Hölldobler and Traniello 1980; Traniello and Hölldobler 1984). Tandem runs are slow in part because followers frequently produce tight loops in the wake of their leader (Franks and Richardson 2006). During this time, leaders stand still waiting for further contact from their follower. Such looping behaviour may help followers to learn landmarks (Pratt et al. 2001; McLeman et al. 2002; Basari et al. 2014) but they also put completion of the tandem run at risk if the pair does not come together again (Richardson et al. 2007; Pratt 2008; Franks et al. 2010). Such risks may be minimized by leaders of forward tandem runs laying trails. While the leader ant marks the trail with pheromone, the follower can concentrate on learning other cues along the route such as landmarks. Hence such trail laying may facilitate landmark learning by followers of forward tandem runs. Although the use of chemical signals during tandem running had been reported previously in another species of ants (Maschwitz et al. 1974; Hölldobler and Traniello 1980; Traniello and Hölldobler 1984; Maschwitz and Buschinger 1986; Jessen and

Maschwitz 1986), no reports to our knowledge have established, as we have done, a difference in trail laying behaviour between forward and reverse tandem runs.

That tandem run leaders deploy their gasters down more frequently on forward rather than reverse tandem runs may imply that it is more important to maintain the path and the bond with follower ants on forward rather than reverse tandem runs. This is because, reverse tandem runs only occur after many ants have made the journey between the old and new nest. Hence, by this stage many ants may have learned the route through individual exploration. Even though trail laying during forward tandem running may help prevent break-ups, perhaps they are less needed on reverse tandem runs because if the tandem does break up, the follower ants should still be able to get to the goal. In addition, because reverse tandem runs occur later in emigrations by that time multiple pheromone trails are likely to indicate the general route between the old and the new nest sites (Franks et al. 2009).

Overall, we have demonstrated that leaders of forward and reverse tandem runs in $T$. albipennis may frequently be laying trails compared to the follower ants. In tandem running ants, the presence of a pheromone trail can provide at least three benefits to the ants. Firstly, it maintains the bond between the leader and the follower; secondly, it facilitates learning by follower ants; and thirdly, it assists both leaders and followers in their navigational strategies. The results of our experiments support earlier findings showing that both tactile and chemical cues are important for successful tandem running recruitment (Maschwitz et al. 1974; Hölldobler and Traniello 1980; Traniello and Hölldobler 1984; Maschwitz and Buschinger 1986; Jessen and Maschwitz 1986). However, our experiments provide additional evidence that during tandem running in ants, particularly in T. albipennis, leaders lay chemical trails probably to give followers the freedom momentarily to stop following and to look around to learn landmarks and later re-unite with the tandem leader. In other words, trails on the ground may serve as a safely line that improves both the efficiency of tandem runs and their completion rates. Our experiments also show that among T. albipennis ants, both forward and reverse tandem run leaders lay trails but do so more often during forward tandem runs, probably because by the time reverse tandem runs start lots of pheromone trails have been laid and followers are less likely to become lost.

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Bristol for their comments. The authors are grateful to the three anonymous reviewers for their very helpful comments on an earlier version of the manuscript. the tandem direction (forward/reverse) and the position of their gaster (down/not down).

| Role | Tandem <br> direction | Gaster |  | Fisher's exact <br> test, 2-tailed |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Down | Not down: <br> Either up or at <br> middle position |  |
| Tandem <br> leader | Forward | 33 | $\mathbf{1 7}(\mathbf{4 u})$ | $\mathbf{p}=\mathbf{0 . 0 3}$ |
| Tandem <br> follower | Reverse | 21 | $\mathbf{2 9}(\mathbf{7 u})$ | $\mathbf{p = 1 . 0 0}$ |

Numbers in brackets represent the number of ants with their gaster in the 'up' (u) position, this number is extracted from the total number of ants with gaster 'not down'.

Table 2. The number of pairs of ants according to the roles of the tandem members (leader/follower), the positions of the ants' gaster (down/not down) and the tandem direction (forward/reverse).

| Gaster's posture (in pair) |  |  | Forward <br> tandem |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Leader | Follower | Reverse tandem |  |
| Down | Down | $10(0.50)$ | $9(0.98)$ |
| Down | Not down | $23(8.82)$ | $12(0.02)$ |
| Not down | Down | $4(5.78)$ | $5(4.50)$ |
| Not down | Not down | $13(0.02)$ | $24(10.58)$ |

Numbers in brackets represent the contribution of each cell to the $\overline{\chi^{2} \text {-value for the respective }}$ test; one for the forward tandems and one for the reverse tandems (see Results). For both, forward and reverse tandem runs, the goodness-of-fit $\chi^{2}$-test has the null hypothesis that all four categories of pairing between the gaster positions of leader and follower are equally likely, namely that the probability of each is 0.25 .

## Figures legend

Fig. 1. Diagram showing a top view of the experimental set-up (not drawn to scale).

Fig. 2. Reference picture for the position analysis of gaster and antennae.
Fig. 3. Transporter ants: a) carrying an adult nestmate; b) carrying a brood item.
Fig. 4. Tandem running ants. Examples of the leader ants' gasters at various positions. a) 'down' position; b) 'up' position (both (a) and (b) are in forward tandem runs), c) 'middle' position in a reverse tandem run and d) the sting of the leader ant (in circle) was protruded from the tip of her gaster for trail marking. The follower ants' gasters are all at the middle position.

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510


Fig. 2
517


Figure 3

