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The effect of nest topology on spatial organization and recruitment in the red ant *Myrmica rubra*

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18

19 **Abstract**

20 Nests of social insects are an important area for the exchange of food and information among workers.
21 We investigated how the topology of nest chambers (as opposed to nest size or environmental factors)
22 affects the spatial distribution of nestmates and the foraging behavior of *Myrmica rubra* ant colonies.
23 Colonies were housed in artificial nests, each with same-sized chambers differing in the spatial
24 arrangement of galleries. A highly connected central chamber favored higher occupancy rates and a
25 more homogeneous distribution of ants across chambers. In contrast, a chain of successive chambers
26 led to a more heterogeneous distribution of ants, with the occupancy of a chamber chiefly mediated
27 by its distance to the entrance. Irrespective of nest topology, the entrance chamber housed the largest
28 proportion of ants, often including the queen, which exhibited a preference for staying in densely
29 populated chambers. Finally, we investigated how nest topology influenced nestmate recruitment.
30 Surprisingly, a highly connected chamber in the center of the nest did not promote a greater
31 recruitment nor activation of ants. At the onset of foraging, the largest number of moving ants was
32 reached in the topology where the most connected chamber was the nest entrance. Later in the
33 process, we found that a chain of successive chambers was the best topology for promoting ant's
34 mobilization. Our work demonstrates that nest topology can shape the spatial organization and the
35 collective response of ant colonies, thereby taking part in their adaptative strategies to exploit
36 environmental resources.

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38 Keywords: Ant; Collective foraging; Nest topology; Network; Queen location; Spatial organization

39 Introduction

40 Nests of social insects serve multiple functions: they maintain a homogeneous internal environment
41 (e.g., Korb 2003; Turner 2009; King et al. 2015), contribute to organize the division of labor (e.g.,
42 Tschinkel 1987; Tschinkel 2004; Tschinkel and Hanley 2017) and act as a protective fortress for the
43 colony (e.g., Noirot and Darlington 2000; reviewed in Perna and Theraulaz 2017). The nest also
44 represents an important area for the exchange of food and information within the colony. Ant colonies
45 are capable of complex forms of collective behavior such as digging large and complex nests (Tschinkel
46 2015) or taking efficient collective foraging decisions (Detrain & Deneubourg 2008; Jeanson et al.
47 2012). Such complex collective organization depends on multiple interactions between nestmates
48 (Theraulaz et al. 2003; Detrain & Deneubourg 2006; Gordon 2010). Most importantly, these
49 interactions often take place in the constrained physical space of the nest. By constraining the
50 movement and the interactions of nestmates, the nest becomes more than a passive setting for
51 information sharing and colony activities. Indeed, the form of the nest contributes to determine where
52 and when interactions occur, which work-related stimuli (larvae, wastes, corpses, etc.) become
53 available to each individual ant, and ultimately the organization and behavior of the entire colony
54 (Mersch et al. 2013; Jeanson & Weidenmüller 2014; Lehue & Detrain 2019).

55 As interactions between workers are related to non-linear, self-amplifying processes, even small
56 variations in interactions at a local scale can potentially generate large differences in colony-level
57 behavior (Camazine et al. 2003; Detrain & Deneubourg 2006). In particular, the chamber closest to the
58 entrance (i.e., ‘the entrance chamber’) is inevitably the first place visited by returning foragers and
59 thus appears as a crucial location for information-sharing and initiation of collective recruitment. Some
60 studies (Pinter-Wollman et al. 2013; Davidson & Gordon 2017) showed that the number of ants waiting
61 in this particular chamber affects the rate at which outgoing ants will leave the nest. Assuming that
62 the volume of the entrance chamber limits the maximum number of foragers that can be present at
63 any one time, it could also shape the collective dynamics of food exploitation. However, Pinter-
64 Wollman (2015) showed that the volume of the entrance chamber did not influence the speed of
65 recruitment, suggesting that colony-level behavior was more dependent on the topological features
66 than on the carrying capacity of this chamber. This study highlighted for the first time the importance
67 of nest topology on the emergence of collective behavior in ants.

68 The nests made by different species of ants, and sometimes also by different colonies of the same
69 species, can take many different forms. Examples range from complex network of galleries excavated
70 in soil or wood cavities, to nests made out of leaves woven together (Hölldobler & Wilson 1990). On
71 the one hand, nest size is often related to the size of the colony (Mikheyev & Tschinkel 2004; Tschinkel

72 1999, 2005). On the other hand, nest shape and topology change depending on season (Hart &
73 Tschinkel 2012), soil type (Toffin et al. 2010), ants' body size (Kwapich et al. 2018) as well as the
74 presence of brood or food (Römer & Roces 2014). The opposite is also true, and some species dig nests
75 with clearly recognizable shapes across a wide range of ecological contexts (Tschinkel 2004, 2013).

76 Regardless of its complexity, the structure of most underground ant nests can be broken down into a
77 set of chambers interconnected by galleries. These structures can easily be described in terms of the
78 tools derived from network theory (Gravish et al. 2012; Pinter-Wollman 2015, Kwapich et al. 2018). In
79 this case, the chambers are the nodes of the network, and the galleries are the edges. A node (i.e., a
80 chamber) can be characterized by its connectivity degree, which corresponds to the number of edges
81 (i.e., galleries) directly connected to it. A node can also be characterized by its distance to another
82 specific node, called the "path length" or by its average distance to all other nodes in the network,
83 called the "average path length". Because of the importance of the entrance chamber for foraging
84 recruitment and exchanges with the external environment, one can assume that nodes closer to the
85 entrance -having a shorter path length to the entrance chamber -are more likely to be influenced by
86 the external environment.

87 Many underground ant nests, particularly those excavated by small-sized colonies, are tree-like
88 networks meaning that they have no cycles (Antonialli-Junior & Giannotti 1997; Lévieux 1976;
89 Tschinkel 2003). Likely, this is because cycles are only formed when the growing tip of one gallery
90 encounters another gallery, an event that is relatively unlikely at low gallery density in three-
91 dimensional soil. Conversely, larger colonies build nests of higher complexity with a high number of
92 cycles (Gautrais et al. 2014), a factor that could facilitate the rapid mobilization of foraging ants (Pinter-
93 Wollman 2015). Tree-like networks are simpler to characterize because some of their topological
94 properties are fixed: the number of edges is always equal to the number of nodes minus one, and the
95 time that it takes to move between two chambers is always proportional to the path length,
96 independently of the type of movement of ants, e.g. if they follow a completely random walk or they
97 move directly to a destination.

98 Network theory has proved to be a powerful tool to describe and compare the nests of social insects.
99 For example, a network analysis of nests constructed by termites of the genus *Cubitermes* enabled
100 Perna et al. (2008) to highlight the highly efficient network of galleries that created effective
101 communication and transportation paths. In addition to acting as a tool to describe complex structures,
102 network analysis allows researchers to explore relationships between specific properties of the
103 network and collective behavior. In order to isolate the effects of nest topology, the behavior of a
104 colony should be compared across nests with different topologies but otherwise similar characteristics.

105 For example, in the Argentine ant, *Linepithema humile*, the partial obstruction of nest exits
106 counterintuitively enhanced the outgoing flows of alarmed ants (Burd et al. 2010). In the harvester
107 ant, *Veromessor andrei*, a study by Pinter-Wollman (2015) showed that the speed of recruitment to
108 food increased in relation to the degree of connectivity of the entrance chamber and with the
109 ‘meshedness’ of the nest network. Such field studies have paved the way for establishing a causative
110 relationship between nest structure and collective behavior.

111 Some nest casting techniques allow researchers to identify the ants’ location within the nest when the
112 cast is dissolved/melted (Tschinkel 2010). However, in field studies it is not always possible to
113 accurately relate the colony-level behavior to its underlying mechanisms because the spatial
114 distribution of workers, their mobility and their interaction patterns are usually not known (but see
115 Pinter-Wollman et al. 2013). Even when the distribution of ants inside the nest can be observed, it
116 remains difficult to discern if it is determined by the size and topology of different nest parts, or instead
117 it matches environmental gradients of temperature, humidity and other physico-chemical parameters.
118 The same limitations apply to the study of ant queens. Ant queens have primarily been observed deep
119 down in the nest and/or in areas of high density of workers (Tschinkel 1993; Walin et al. 2001), but
120 observations of queen location are relatively scarce and do not allow to tell apart the effect of
121 environmental gradients and nest topology.

122 Laboratory studies represent an interesting alternative to field studies as ant colonies can be housed
123 in artificial nests designed to control directly nest properties such as the size, number of chambers,
124 and the spatial arrangement of chambers and corridors. Many laboratory studies have focused on ant
125 nest occupancy and behavior inside the nest (Moreau et al. 2011; Pinter-Wollman et al. 2011; Mersch
126 et al. 2013), but most of these studies have focused on relatively simple nests comprising only one or
127 very few chambers. One recent exception is Tschinkel (2018), who compared colony growth and
128 worker production for colonies housed in either artificial nests of a single chamber or nests of equal
129 total volume but made up of multiple small chambers.

130 In our study, we want to specifically address the question of how nest topology affects the nest
131 occupation and the collective recruitment to food in the red ant *Myrmica rubra*. This ant species is
132 widespread in temperate regions, nesting from Europe to Western Asia but also North America where
133 it is considered as invasive. We know that this species uses various types of microhabitats for nesting;
134 it is mostly found under or inside dead wood as well as beneath leaf litter. Brood is stored in curled
135 leaves but also under rocks and even in moss tussocks (Grodén et al. 2005). Nest relocation has been
136 observed (Dobrzańska & Dobrzański 1976; Bernard 2014) but remains understudied (Abraham &

137 Pasteels 1980). The variety of nest structures dug/occupied by the red ant makes it an ideal species for
138 studying the effect of different nest topologies.

139 Here, we address the question how nest topology shapes the spatial distribution of the ant population
140 and thus the emergent collective behavior of the colony. We characterized the spatial organization of
141 workers inside the nest as well as the process of recruitment to food in colonies of the red ant *M. rubra*
142 which were housed in artificial nests with three different topologies. Each nest had unique topological
143 properties, while all nests had identical size and number of chambers. Specifically, we compared the
144 dynamics of nest occupancy over a week focusing on the distribution of workers across the chambers.
145 We investigated whether the connectivity of a chamber or its distance to the entrance influenced the
146 level of occupancy by the ants. We paid particular attention to whether the queen had a higher
147 tendency to occupy chambers located far from the entrance and/or chambers characterized by high
148 connectivity and/or densely occupied by workers. Eventually, we compared the intensity of nestmate
149 recruitment in the different nests to see if some topological features facilitated the spreading of
150 recruiting stimuli to the whole colony.

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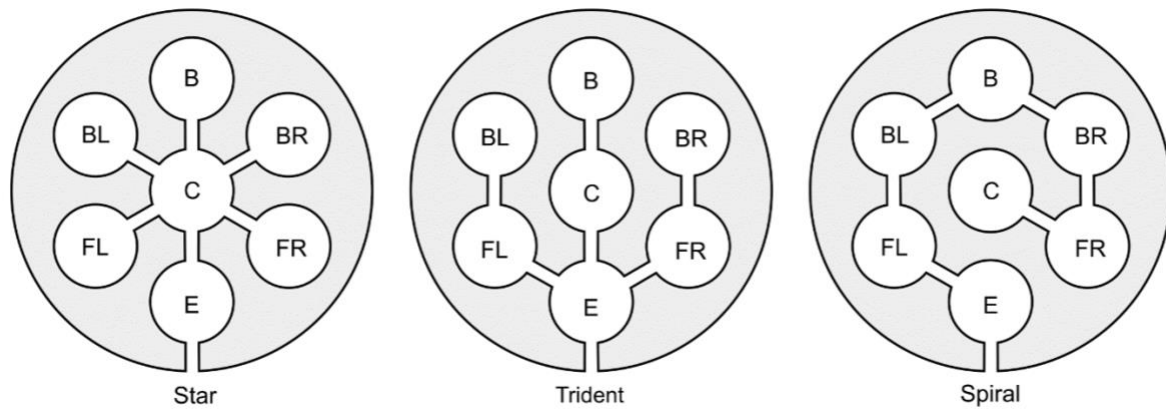
152 Methods

153 The species used in this study is the red ant, *M. rubra* (Linnaeus, 1758) (Hymenoptera: Formicidae). A
154 total of nine ant colonies were collected in the summer of 2016, 2017 or 2018, in woodlands located
155 at Sambreville (Namur district: N 50°25.210'; E 004°37.878') and Aiseau-Presles (Hainaut district: N
156 50°25.657'; E 004°35.764') in Belgium. *M. rubra* nests are found in a variety of substrates such as dead
157 wood, leaf litter or soil and are typically composed of 100 up to 1500 workers and a highly variable
158 number of queens from one up to 20 (based on our personal observation and Elmes 1973). For the
159 nests that were dug under stones or under wood logs, the superficial nest chambers covered a total
160 area of 20 to 50 cm², housing a few hundred individuals and consisting of a large single chamber or of
161 multiple chambers of a few square-centimeters each, separated by loose walls or well- defined ridges
162 (personal observations). The colonies were kept under controlled laboratory conditions (21°C ± 1°C;
163 50% ± 5% humidity and 12L – 12D daylight cycle) for a minimum duration of 30 days before any
164 experiment. We provided colonies with water, sucrose solution (0.3M) and freshly killed mealworms
165 (*Tenebrio molitor*) ad libitum.

166 Each experiment took place in a 15x25cm plastic tray with sides covered with Fluon®
167 (polytetrafluoroethylene) to prevent the ants from escaping. The nests were made from 2mm thick,
168 laser-cut Plexiglas discs of 6.5cm diameter (see Online Resource 1 for nest pictures). Each nest chamber
169 was 1.5cm in diameter and each gallery connecting two adjacent chambers was 0.5cm long and 0.2cm
170 wide. The nest had access to the outside through a single opening connected to the so-called “entrance
171 chamber”. This agrees with previous results (Lehue & Detrain 2019) showing that *M. rubra* ants located
172 within a 2-centimeter radius from the nest opening were oriented towards the entrance and were the
173 most likely to interact with nestmates coming back from the outside. The overall nest size was chosen
174 in order to be sufficiently large to comfortably host the entire colony as well as to have chamber
175 dimensions that were broadly in the same range of sizes as those observed in natural *M. rubra* nests.
176 The nest ceiling consisted of another Plexiglas disc of the same size as the nest (diameter 6.5cm) and
177 was covered by a red filter paper to create darkness inside the nest. The nest floor was made from
178 plaster and sat over a 3mm thick, highly water-absorbing synthetic fabric to ensure homogeneous
179 humidity across the whole nest area. This absorbent plaster base and the entire foraging arena were
180 watered daily (4mL/day). The nests were off-centered in the tray and placed 2cm away from one of
181 the short sides with the entrance facing the large foraging area.

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185

186 **Fig. 1** The three different nest topologies studied. Chamber abbreviation letter: E=Entrance; C=Center; B=Back; FL=Front Left;
187 FR=Front Right; BL=Back Left; BR=Back Right

188 The three topologies studied will be referred henceforth as: the “star”, the “trident” and the “spiral”
189 (Fig. 1). Several characteristics were shared by these three topologies. The first common feature is that
190 all nests were “tree” networks and were open to the outside environment by a single entrance. All
191 three topologies contained the same number of equally sized chambers (seven chambers), thus
192 offering a similar volume to host nestmates. Finally, all nests had the same number of galleries (i.e., six
193 galleries, plus one entrance gallery) with an average connectivity per nest chamber of 1.7. Although
194 the three nests had the same number of chambers, they markedly differed in the way these chambers
195 were interconnected by galleries leading to different topological properties (Tab. 1).

196

197 **Table 1** Main topological differences among the three nest topologies studied. All values are expressed in terms of number
198 of chambers (nodes)

	Star	Trident	Spiral
Average Path Length (n nodes)	1.71	2.29	2.67
Average Distance to Entrance (n nodes)	1.57	1.29	3.00
Maximum Distance to Entrance (n nodes)	2	2	6
Maximum Connectivity (n nodes)	6	3	2

199

200 The “star” nest had the lowest average path length of all three topologies. The central chamber was
201 highly connected with a degree of connectivity of 6, while every other chamber was little connected
202 with a degree of connectivity of 1. This feature created a nest topology with five chambers that were
203 dead-ends and that inevitably went through a central hub before reaching the entrance chamber.

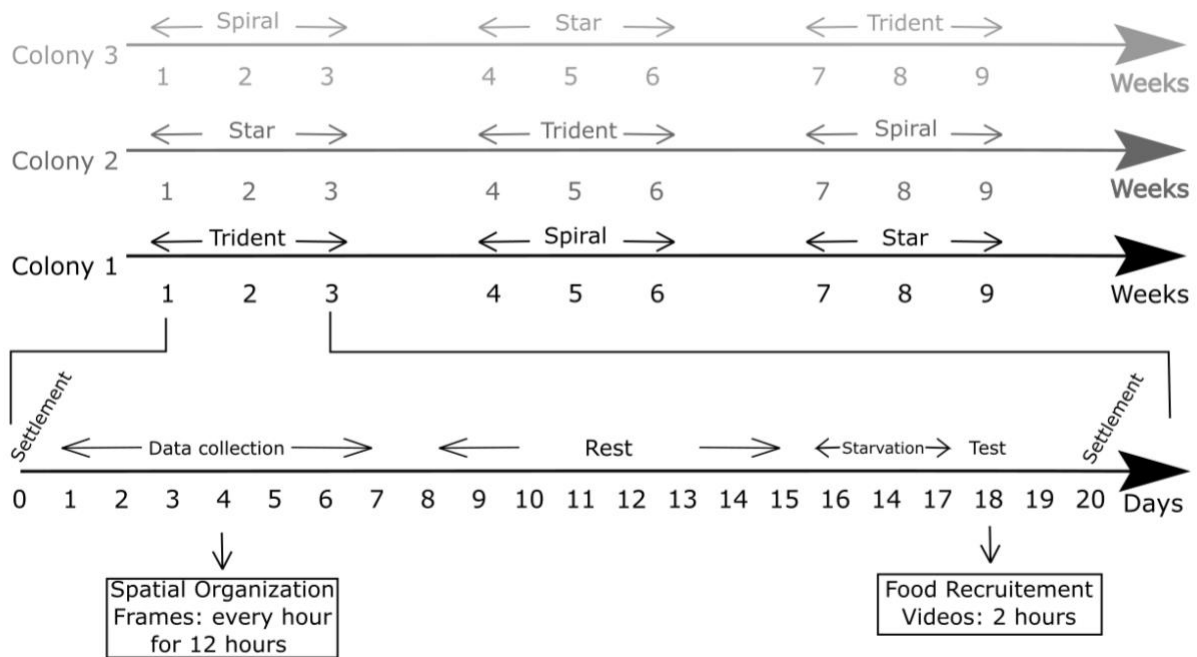
204 The “spiral” nest had the highest average path length of all three topologies. The chambers were
205 connected in series, and the degree of connectivity of the chambers was 2 except for the entrance
206 chamber and the terminal chamber where the degree was 1. By consequence, the distance to the
207 entrance gradually increased until a maximum of 6.

208 The “trident” nest had an intermediate average path length. It was the only topology where the
209 entrance chamber was connected to more than one chamber, with a degree of connectivity of 3. In
210 this network, the entrance was the most connected chamber in a way that is reminiscent of the top-
211 heavy connectivity of natural ant nests (Tschinkel 2015). In terms of connectivity and average path
212 length, the “trident” was intermediate between the two other topologies but provided a unique
213 feature with the highly connected entrance chamber and the lowest average distance to the entrance.

214 Experimental procedure

215 The experiments lasted for nine weeks, and three colonies were tested simultaneously (Fig. 2). This
216 process was repeated three times to reach a total of nine tested colonies. Each experiment consisted
217 of the same consecutive events, starting by the settlement of ant workers in one of the three nest
218 topologies, followed by a week of data collection on the spatial organization of the colony. After a
219 resting period of eight days, the colony was starved for 72 hours prior to the recording of the food
220 recruitment process. After two days, we removed the artificial nest and replaced it with a new artificial

221 nest characterized by another topology. The procedure was repeated until every colony was tested in
 222 each of the three nest topologies. The testing order of nest topologies was randomized.



223
 224 **Fig. 2** Timeline of the experiments

225 **Spatial organization of nest population**

226 Each colony was placed in an experimental tray and could freely occupy the artificial nest characterized
 227 by one of the tested topologies. Ants started to settle inside the nest as it was the only place offering
 228 them suitable conditions of humidity and darkness. Because some colonies were slower than others
 229 to discover the nest, we started recording data as soon as at least 30% of the workers' population was
 230 settled in. Once this threshold was reached, video frames of the nests were taken every hour for 12
 231 hours, during seven consecutive days. We then followed the hourly and daily location of the queen as
 232 well as the number of workers per nest chamber. The population size of each colony was standardized
 233 to approximately 100 randomly picked workers, one queen and 15 larvae (first to third instars). We
 234 counted and removed every ant that died during the experiment and did not replace them. Throughout
 235 the experiment, the daily mortality remained very low, with an average of 0.22 ant dying per day. The
 236 highest and lowest mortality values observed in a colony were 0.42 and 0.10 dead ants per day
 237 respectively. In order to assess the impact of nest topology on the dynamics of ants' settlement, a daily
 238 occupancy index was calculated by averaging the total number of ants inside the nest for each day and
 239 each topology. The dynamics of daily occupancy indices were then compared between topologies to
 240 see if one type of nest structure promoted a faster/larger settlement of ant colonies during the seven

241 days of experiment. Then, we observed the location of workers to see if the distribution of ants was
242 homogeneous across all chambers (same percentage of ants in the chambers) and if it was influenced
243 by the properties of the chambers (for instance if its occupancy changed with distance to the entrance
244 or connectivity degree).

245 Furthermore, we tracked the queen's movements between successive frames and measured, for each
246 chamber, its level of occupancy by the queen. This was done by counting how many times a queen was
247 observed in a chamber for each day and each topology. This chamber's level of occupancy was then
248 related to the topological properties of the chamber. We also recorded the frequency at which the
249 queen moved from a chamber to another (assessed as its mobility) as a function of the number of
250 workers locally occupying the abandoned chamber. Information about brood location was also
251 collected on the last day of the experiment. In particular, we checked for possible effects of nest
252 topology on the relocation of brood pile between the first hour and the last hour of observation.

253 Recruitment to food

254 Before carrying out the experiments on food recruitment, the colonies were starved for 72h. Then, a
255 single food source of 600 μ L of sucrose solution (1M) was placed at 10 cm from the nest entrance, and
256 the whole tray was video recorded for 2 hours.

257 We noted the exact moment the first ant entered the entrance chamber right after drinking at the
258 food source, that is, the moment when the recruitment process started. We counted the resulting flow
259 of workers leaving the nest after the arrival of the first recruiter. To measure the outgoing flow, we
260 counted the total number of ants leaving the nest during a period of either 30 seconds or 3 minutes.
261 We also assessed ants' mobility in each nest chamber as a proxy for the spread of recruiting stimuli,
262 before and during the recruitment to food. To this aim, during short periods of 10 seconds, we counted
263 the number of ants that were moving in each chamber, 20 seconds before the arrival of the first
264 recruiter ant as well as 30 seconds, and 3 minutes after its arrival. An ant had to walk for a minimum
265 distance of half of its body length during that 10 seconds period to be considered as "moving".

266 Data analyses

267 Spatial organization of the colony

268 All statistical tests were done using the R software v3.3.1. (R Core Team 2018).

269 Data were analyzed on the seven colonies whose workers were well-settled in the artificial nest, with
270 more than 30% of the worker population staying inside the nest. Two colonies that showed an
271 abnormally low occupancy were discarded from the analysis. In order to investigate the effect of the

272 nest topology, time, and colony on the occupancy of chambers, we used the R package lme4 (v1.1-21;
273 Bates et al. 2015) to fit a linear mixed model (LMM). In this model, the colony and the topology were
274 treated as categorical variables, whereas the day was treated as a continuous variable. The colony was
275 specified as random effect whereas the topology and the day were specified as fixed effects. In order
276 to detect a possibly faster occupancy for certain nest topologies, we added the interaction effect
277 between the day and the nest topology to our model. The significance of our variables was tested using
278 the two-tailed Wald X^2 -tests. When significant, pairwise comparisons were made by using the Tukey
279 test.

280 To compare the homogeneity of nest occupancy, we carried out a permutation test on the values of
281 chamber occupancy after the ants had settled in the nest (the average daily occupancy index at day 7).
282 In the test, the empirical values of chamber occupancy for each nest and for each colony were
283 randomly permuted across the chambers of the same nest and the same colony to generate a new set
284 of values in which the total number of ants and their heterogeneous distribution across different
285 chambers were preserved, but the identity of the chambers was lost. We extracted 1000 such
286 permutation samples that were used to calculate chamber occupancy indices, averaged across all
287 samples for each particular nest topology. The distribution of these average values gave us the 95%
288 confidence intervals (CI) that allowed us to spot chambers with significantly different daily occupancy
289 indices. Furthermore, by comparing the width of the CI between the three nest topologies, we were
290 able to determine which topology favored a homogeneous occupancy of its chambers. Finally,
291 Spearman tests were performed in order to detect a correlation between the chamber's level of
292 occupancy by the ants and the distance to the entrance value as well as the connectivity degree of
293 these chambers.

294 Spearman tests were also performed between the level of chamber occupancy by the queen and the
295 distance to the entrance or the connectivity degree of that chamber. We used generalized linear mixed
296 models (GLMM, R package lme4) with binomial distribution to assess whether the probability of the
297 queen to leave a chamber was influenced by nest topology and by the number of workers in this
298 chamber. In the model, the colony and the topology were treated as categorical variables, whereas
299 the number of workers staying in the chamber with the queen was treated as a discrete variable. The
300 colony was specified as a random effect, while the topology and the number of workers were specified
301 as fixed effects. Fixed effect significance was calculated using the two-tailed Wald X^2 -tests, and the
302 pairwise comparisons were done with the Tukey method. The impact of nest topology on the
303 distribution of brood across chambers as well as the relative occurrence of brood relocation were
304 analyzed using X^2 tests.

305 Recruitment of food

306 Data analyses on food recruitment were performed on eight of the nine colonies since one colony
307 showed an abnormally low nest occupancy at the time of food recruitment, with less than 30% of the
308 worker population staying inside the nest. By using a Spearman correlation test, we related the number
309 of ants in the entrance chamber to the flow of workers exiting the nest after the arrival of the first
310 recruiter. In order to see if nest topology influenced the flow of outgoing ants, we used a GLMM with
311 a Poisson distribution. In this model, the nest topology and the colony were both treated as categorical
312 variables. The colony was specified as a random effect, whereas the topology was set as a fixed effect
313 whose significance was calculated using the two-tailed Wald X^2 -tests followed by pairwise comparisons
314 using Tukey method. Similarly, the effect of nest topology on the proportion of moving ants inside the
315 nest was assessed using a GLMM with binomial distribution.

316 Finally, for each nest topology, we identified the chambers in which workers were significantly
317 activated by the recruitment signal. To this aim, we used a GLMM with a binomial distribution
318 considering the chamber as a fixed effect and the colony as a random effect. If the “chamber” had a
319 significant effect (two-tailed Wald X^2 -tests), we then performed pairwise comparisons with the Tukey
320 method to spot chambers within a significantly different proportion of moving workers.

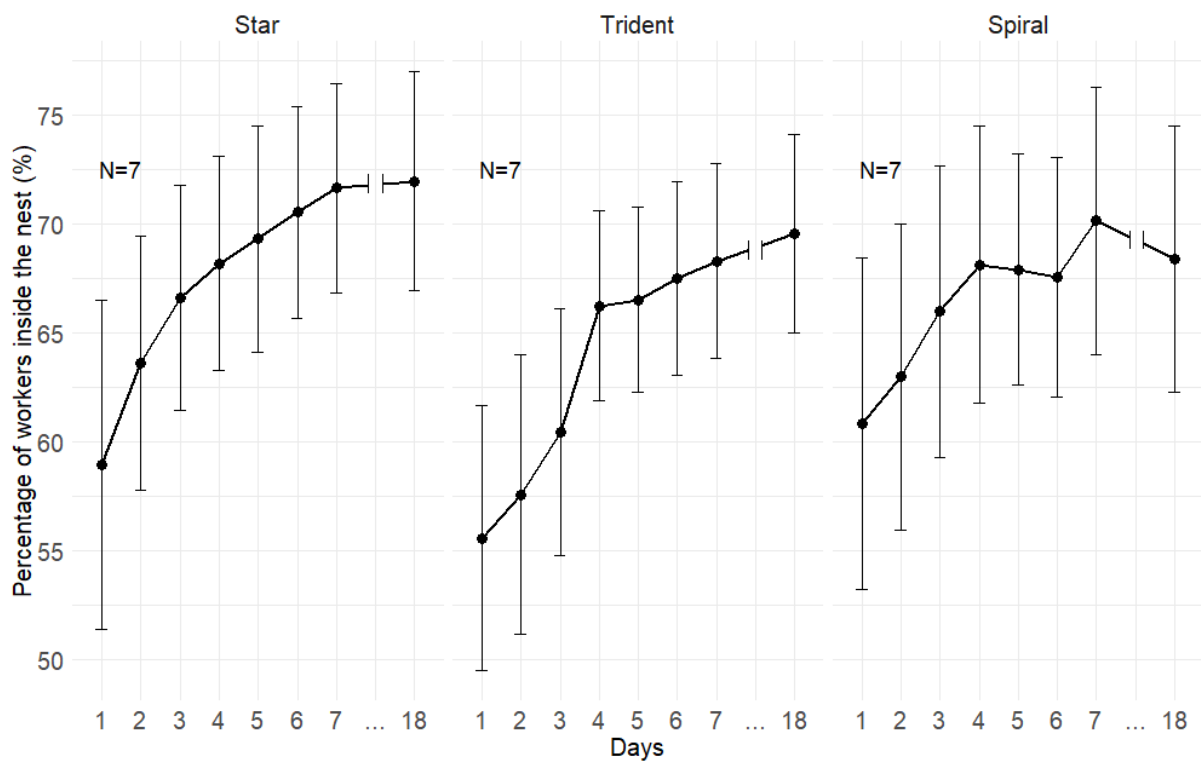
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323 Results

324 Spatial organization of workers inside the nest

325 The topology of nest chambers had a significant impact on the overall level of nest occupancy by ant
326 colonies (LMM: $X^2_2=20.58$, $P<0.0001$). Indeed, when looking at the whole week of experimentation,
327 the “star” topology with a central hub housed on average more ants than the “spiral” and the “trident”
328 topologies (Post hoc comparisons with Tukey method: star-trident $P=0.0001$ | star-spiral $P=0.0047$ |
329 trident-spiral $P=0.47$) (Fig. 3). Moreover, the occupation of the nest was influenced by the number of
330 days that the colonies spent in the setup, as gradually more ants were counted inside as time passed
331 (LMM: $X^2_1=50.47$, $P<0.0001$). However, no topology promoted a significantly faster occupancy of the
332 nest as there was no interaction effect between nest topology and time on the nest occupancy (LMM:
333 $X^2_2=1.91$, $P=0.38$).

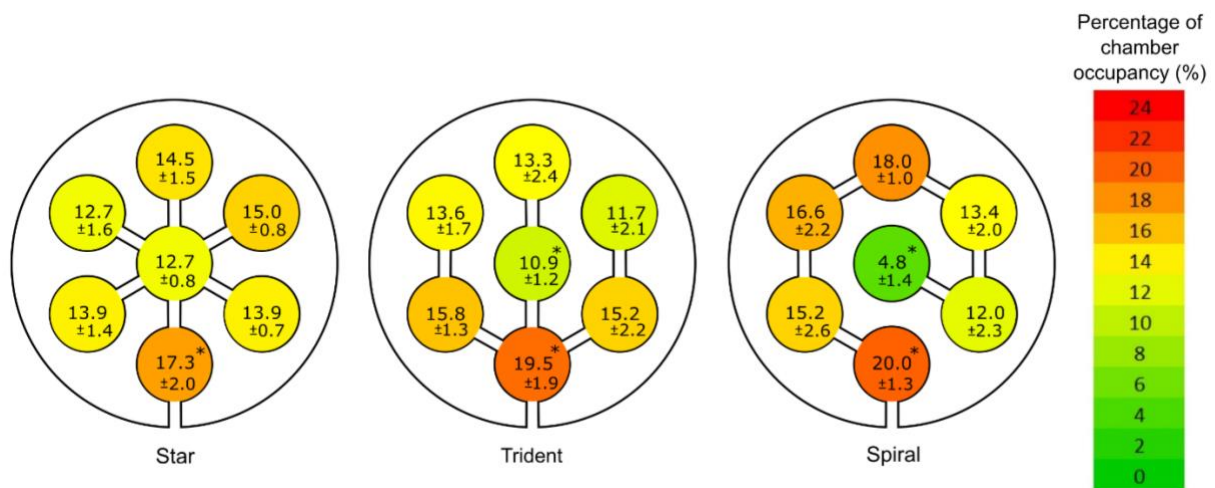


334

335 **Fig. 3** Occupancy dynamics of *Myrmica rubra* colonies in the three different nest topologies for 7 days and on the 18th day.
336 Each point is a mean percentage of nest occupancy, based on the daily occupancy indices of seven replicates (N=7). The
337 represented error bars are the standard error associated with each mean percentage

338 On day 7, the settlement of ants was stabilized since for each topology the percentage of housed
339 workers did not differ from the ones observed on day 18 (Paired Wilcoxon-test: star: $W = 12$, $N=7$,
340 $P=0.81$ | trident: $W = 14$, $N=7$, $P=1.0$ | spiral: $W= 24$, $N=7$, $P=0.11$). The average percentages of ants
341 occupying each nest chamber were compared to the expected value of 14.3%, this latter value

342 corresponding to a perfectly homogeneous distribution of all the ants being equally split between the
 343 seven chambers (Fig. 4). On the last day of the occupancy dynamics (day 7), we observed the most
 344 homogeneous distribution of ants across all the chambers in the “star” topology, as shown by the
 345 width of its 95% confidence intervals (Permutation test-star: CI- = 12.2, CI+ = 16.7, Width-CI = 4.6, see
 346 Online Resource 2 for the results in a table). The most heterogeneous occupancy of nest chambers was
 347 observed for the “spiral” topology (Permutation test-spiral: CI- = 10.2, CI+ = 18.2, Width-CI = 8.0). In
 348 particular, the average occupancy of the entrance chamber in the “spiral” topology was four times
 349 greater than the average occupancy of the most remote chamber (i.e., chamber C for “spiral” topology
 350 on Fig. 1). The spatial distribution of the workers in the “trident” topology showed an intermediate
 351 level of heterogeneity across nest chambers (Permutation test-trident: CI- = 10.9, CI+ = 17.5, Width-CI =
 352 6.5).



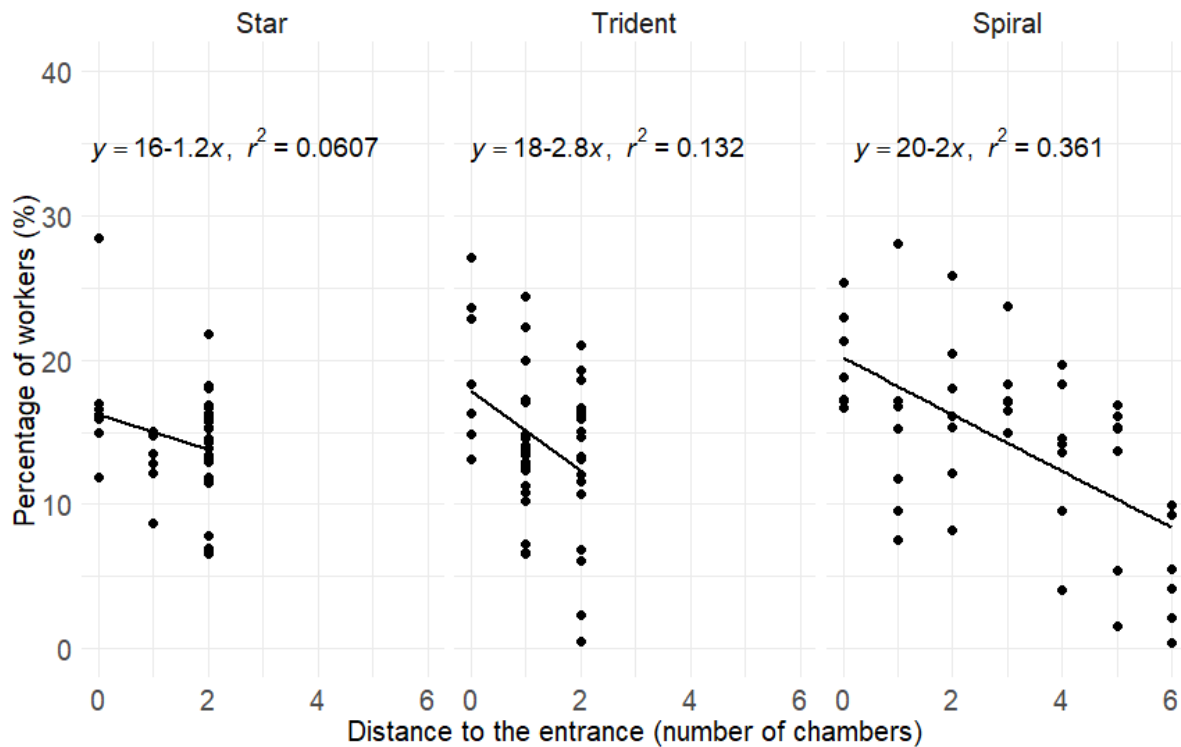
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354 **Fig. 4** Percentage (mean ± standard error) of *Myrmica rubra* workers located in a given chamber over the total ant population
 355 hosted inside the nest on day 7. The color-scale enables to visualize how ants are distributed inside the nest. In the case of a
 356 perfectly homogenous distribution, the average expected occupancy per chamber is 14.3% as there are 7 chambers (100% /
 357 7 = 14.3%). Proportions colored in yellow are close to this expected average whereas proportions colored in red and green
 358 are higher and lower respectively. Mean numbers with (*) are values outside of the 95% CI of the permutation test

359 For all the tested topologies, the mean percentage of workers standing in the entrance chambers (E
 360 chamber Fig. 1) on day 7 were always significantly higher than the upper confidence interval obtained
 361 from the permutation test (Fig. 4) (star: mean=17.3+2.0, CI+=16.7 |trident: mean=19.5+1.9, CI+=17.5
 362 |spiral: mean=20.0+1.3, CI+=18.2). On the contrary, the central chamber from the “spiral” topology,
 363 which was the most distant from the entrance, as well as the central chamber from the “trident”
 364 topology, were significantly less occupied (trident: mean=10.90+1.2; CI-=10.93 |spiral: mean=4.8+1.4;
 365 CI-=10.2).

366 In the “spiral” and the “trident” topologies, the number of *M. rubra* workers decreased in chambers
367 that were located further from the nest entrance (Fig. 5). Indeed, when looking at the first day of
368 settlement, we observed a significant negative correlation between proportion of ants in a chamber
369 and its distance to the entrance except for the “star” topology (Spearman test – day 1: star: $r_s = -0.24$,
370 $N=49$, $P=0.098$ |trident: $r_s = -0.40$, $N=49$ $P=0.0048$ |spiral: $r_s = -0.66$, $N=49$, $P<0.0001$). Distance to the
371 entrance still influenced the local occupancy of nest chambers until the end of the experiment for the
372 “spiral” topology but had no longer a significant impact for the “trident” and for the “star” topologies.
373 (Spearman test – day 7: star: $r_s = -0.11$, $N=49$, $P=0.46$ |trident: $r_s = -0.28$, $N=49$, $P=0.053$ |spiral: $r_s = -$
374 0.59 , $N=49$, $P<0.0001$). The “star” topology showed the less steep decrease of chamber occupation
375 with distance to the entrance (Fig. 5) suggesting that this topology facilitated ants shifting across
376 chambers. Throughout the week of experiment, the influence of the distance to the entrance on the
377 distribution of workers was most important in the “spiral” topology which is the topology that offers
378 the largest possible values of distances to the entrance.

379 We found no relation between the connectivity degree of the chambers and the proportion of workers
380 residing in them except for the “trident” topology which showed a positive correlation on the first day
381 of the experiment (Spearman test – day 1: star: $r_s = -0.09$, $N=49$, $P=0.53$ |trident: $r_s = 0.40$, $N=49$,
382 $P=0.005$ |spiral: $r_s = 0.04$, $N=49$, $P=0.76$). On the last day, that tendency was no longer significant for
383 the “trident” (Spearman test – day 7: star: $r_s = -0.24$, $N=49$, $P=0.092$ |trident: $r_s = 0.28$, $N=49$,
384 $P=0.053$ |spiral: $r_s = 0.09$, $N=49$, $P=0.54$). It is worth noticing here that in the “trident” topology the
385 connectivity degree of a chamber is inversely proportional to the distance to the entrance (Fig. 1).
386 Consequently, for this nest it is not possible to disentangle the impact of these two network
387 parameters on chamber occupancy.



388

389 **Fig. 5** Percentage of *Myrmica rubra* workers inside a nest chamber on day 7 as a function of its relative distance to the
 390 entrance. Each dot represents the percentage of ants in a given chamber over the total ant population inside the nest that
 391 was averaged over the 12 observations made at day 7. The trend line is the linear regression of the data with its corresponding
 392 equation. The distance of the chamber to the entrance (expressed as number of nodes) ranges from 0 to 2 for the “trident”
 393 and the “star” topologies and from 0 to 6 for the “spiral” topology

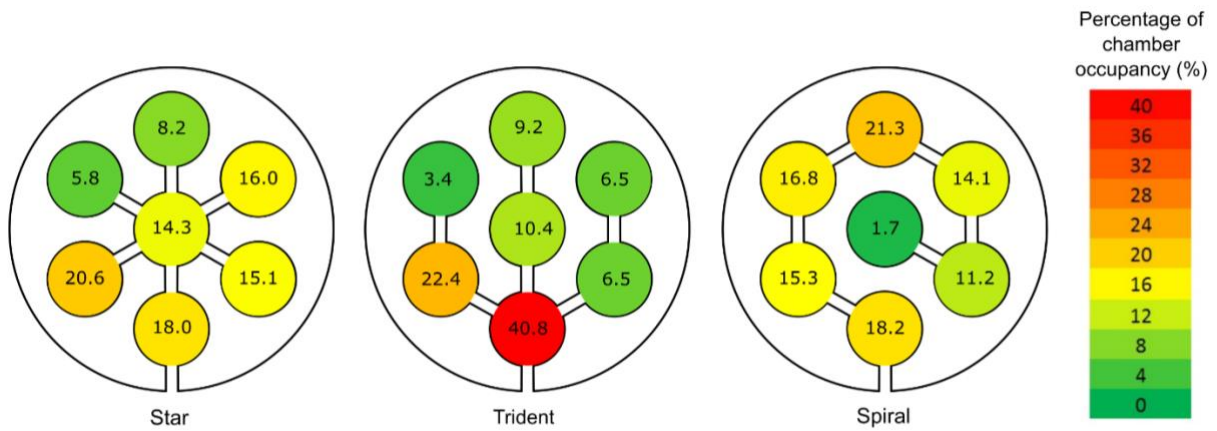
394 **Spatial localization of the queen and larvae inside the nest**

395 For each nest topology, every chamber was occupied at least once by the queen when considering all
 396 the observations made on the seven tested colonies (Fig. 6). The least occupied chamber by the queen
 397 was the terminal chamber of the “spiral” nest where the queen was recorded on 1.7% of all
 398 observations for that nest ($N=588$). The chamber in which the queen was found most often was the
 399 entrance chamber of the “trident” nest where the queen was recorded on 40.8% of all observations.

400 We found no correlation between the distance to the entrance of a chamber and its level of occupancy
 401 by the queen, on the first day of experiment (Spearman test – day 1: star: $r_s = -0.03$, $N=49$, $P=0.86$
 402 |trident: $r_s = -0.18$, $N=49$, $P=0.20$ |spiral: $r_s = -0.26$, $N=49$, $P=0.066$). On the last day, however, we found
 403 a negative correlation in the “trident” topology (Spearman test – day 7: star: $r_s = 0.13$, $N=49$, $P=0.36$
 404 |trident: $r_s = -0.47$, $N=49$, $P=0.0007$ |spiral: $r_s = -0.26$, $N=49$, $P=0.07$).

405 We found no correlation between the connectivity of a chamber and its level of occupancy by the
 406 queen, on the first day of experiment (Spearman test – day 1: star: $r_s = -0.13$, $N=49$, $P=0.38$ |trident: r_s
 407 $= 0.18$, $N=49$, $P=0.20$ |spiral: $r_s = -0.03$, $N=49$, $P=0.81$). On the last day, however, we found a negative

408 correlation in the “trident” topology (Spearman test – day 7: star: $r_s = -0.12$, $N=49$, $P=0.41$ | trident: r_s
 409 $= 0.47$, $N=49$, $P=0.0007$ | spiral: $r_s = 0.12$, $N=49$, $P=0.42$).



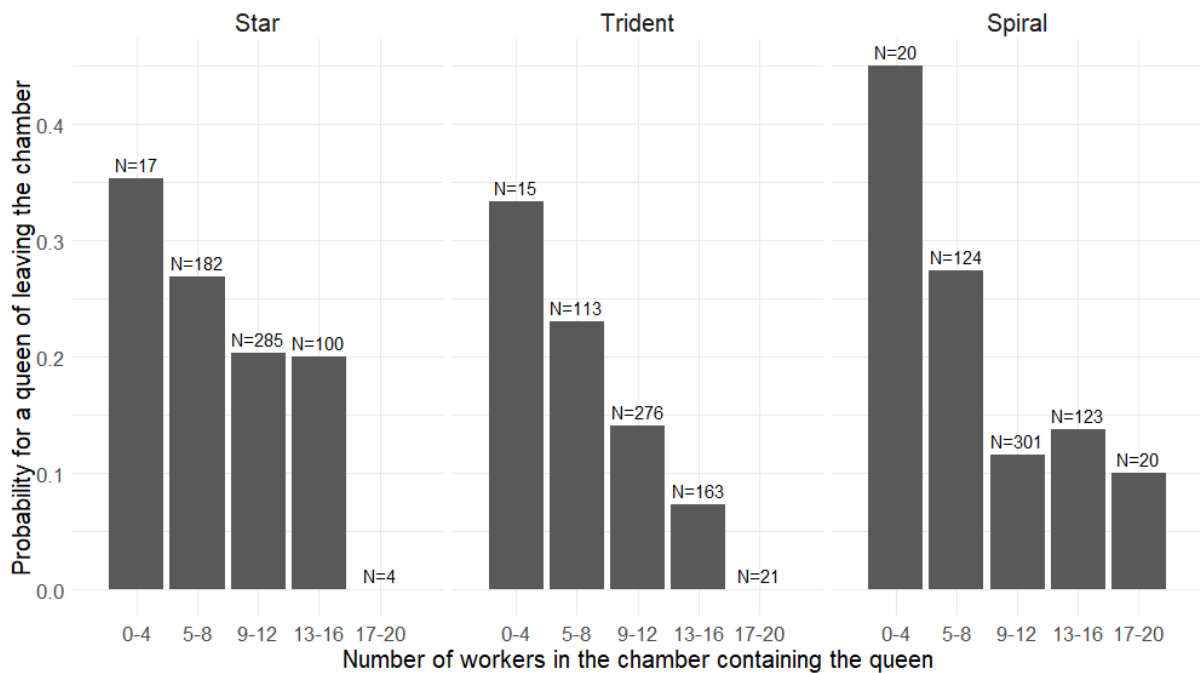
410

411 **Fig. 6** Percentage of chamber occupancy by the *Myrmica rubra* queen for each nest topology. The percentage is given by the
 412 number of occurrences of queen presence in a chamber over 588 observations (12 observations per day for 7 days and for 7
 413 colonies)

414 In each colony, the queen frequently moved from one chamber to another throughout the day. The
 415 probability for the queen to relocate significantly differed between nest topologies (GLMM: $X^2_2=11.68$,
 416 $P=0.0029$). The queen’s position was less stable in the “star” topology as she moved from one chamber
 417 to another on average 2.7 ± 2.1 times per day, compared to 1.7 ± 2.1 in the “trident” and 2.0 ± 1.8 in
 418 the “spiral” (Post hoc comparisons with Tukey method: star-trident $P=0.004$ | star-spiral $P=0.036$ |
 419 trident-spiral $P=0.72$). Furthermore, we found that the number of workers standing in the chamber
 420 was the explanatory variable from the generalized linear mixed model (GLMM: $X^2_1=15.61$, $P<0.0001$),
 421 the queen being more likely to leave sparsely populated chambers (Fig. 7). When staying in a chamber
 422 with very few workers (at most 4 workers), the queen had a probability of 0.4 to be observed in another
 423 chamber the next hour whereas this probability decreased to less than 0.05 in a populous chamber
 424 (with 17 to 20 workers).

425 With respect to larvae, on the last day of the experiment, brood could be located in a single chamber
 426 (5 out of 21 experiments) but was most often split between two chambers (8 out of 21 experiments)
 427 or even between three to five chambers (8 out 21 experiments). The nest topology did not influence
 428 the number of chambers in which larvae were staying (Khi² test: $X^2_2=1.4$, $P=0.497$). Moreover, in each
 429 of the three tested nest designs, the queen was observed in the same chamber as larvae in four out of
 430 the seven replicates. The occurrence of brood relocation was not influenced by the nest topology (Khi²
 431 test: $X^2_2=1.376$, $P=0.503$). Over the course of the last day, larvae were scarcely moved from one
 432 chamber to another. In the “star”, “trident,” and “spiral” topology, we observed respectively only 4, 5

433 and 2 relocation events among the 49 observed chambers (seven nest chambers observed during
 434 seven replicates).

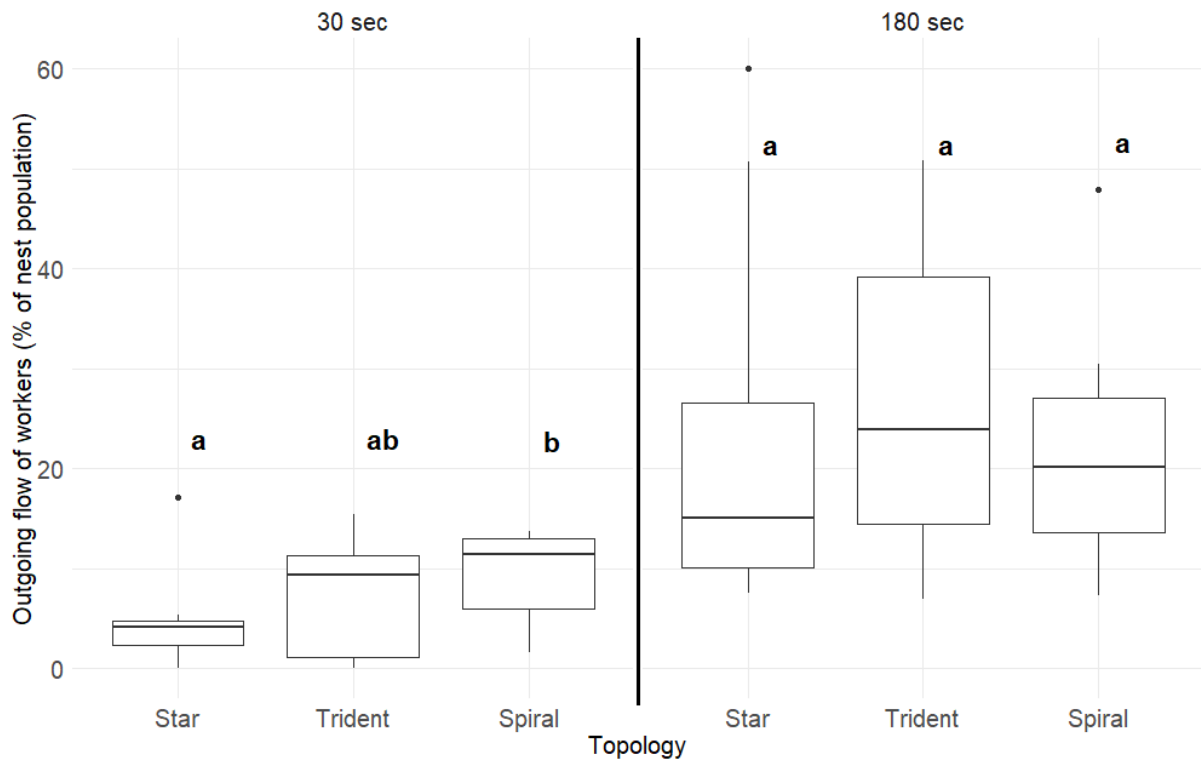


435

436 **Fig. 7** Probability for *Myrmica rubra* queen of leaving a nest chamber as a function of the number of workers in this chamber

437 **Recruitment to food**

438 We found a significant influence of the nest topology on the outgoing flow of ants from the nest during
 439 the 30 seconds that followed the arrival of a recruiter ant inside the nest (GLMM: $X^2_2=6.64$, $P=0.036$).
 440 The mean outgoing flow was the lowest in the “star” topology and was significantly different from the
 441 one observed in the “spiral” nest (Fig. 8; Pairwise-test - Tukey method: star-spiral $P=0.039$ | star-
 442 trident $P=0.71$ | trident-spiral $P=0.21$). Intermediate values of ant flows were observed in the “trident”
 443 nest. After 3 minutes, the outgoing flow of workers tended to even out as no nest topology significantly
 444 differed (GLMM: $X^2_2=0.38$, $P=0.82$). One can however notice that the average outgoing flow of ants
 445 was the lowest in the “star” topology at all times. Furthermore, a higher number of workers in the
 446 entrance chamber did not result in higher numbers of recruited ants. Indeed, we found that the
 447 number of ants standing in the entrance chamber did not influence the outgoing flow of ants 30
 448 seconds after the arrival of the first recruiter ant (Spearman test: $r_s = -0.17$, $N=24$, $P=0.44$) nor 3
 449 minutes after (Spearman test: $r_s = -0.10$, $N=24$, $P=0.64$).

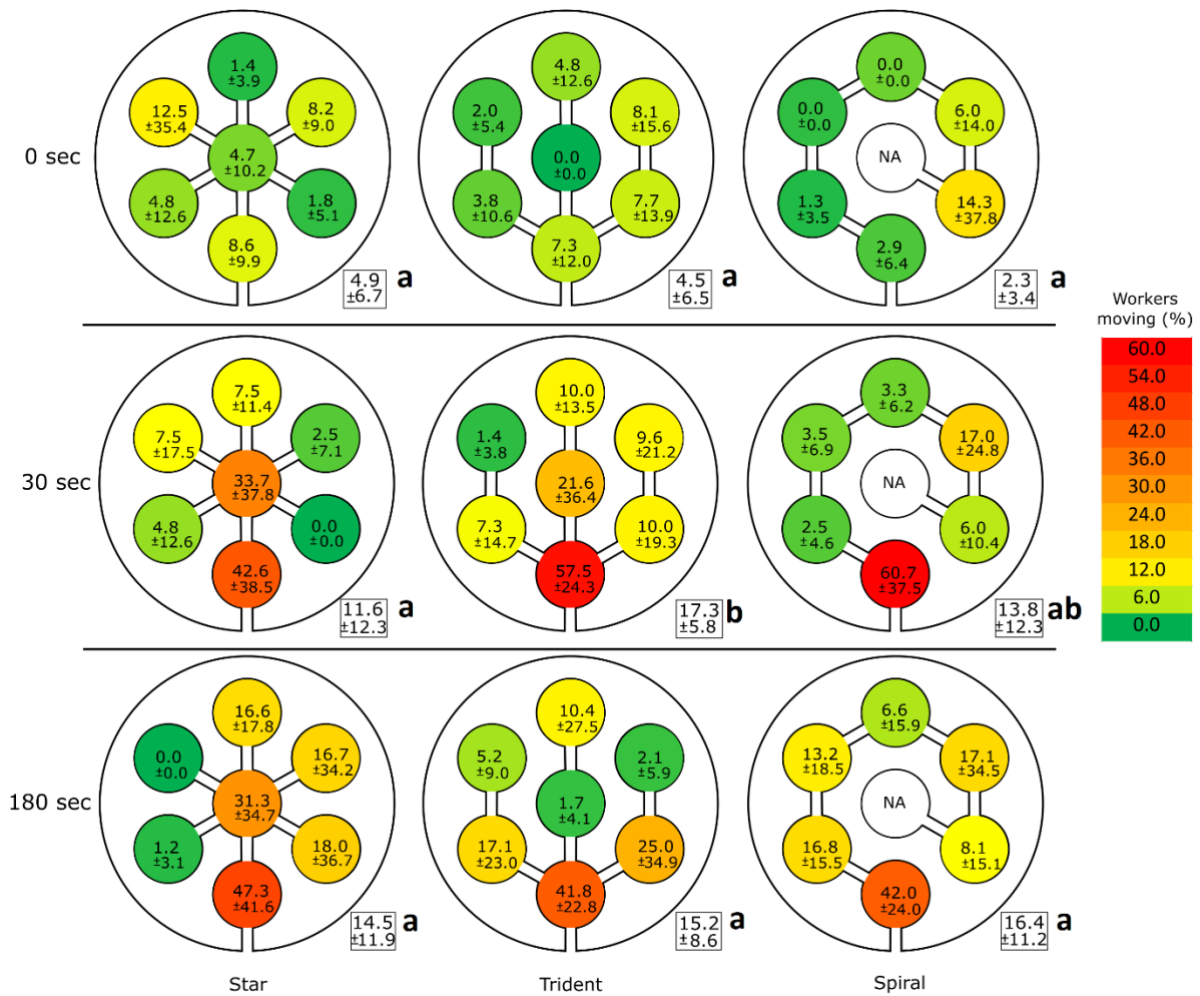


451

452 **Fig. 8** Cumulative outgoing flow of *Myrmica rubra* ants, 30 and 180 seconds after the arrival of the first recruiter. The outgoing
 453 flows were expressed in percentages given by the cumulated numbers of outgoing foragers over the total number of ants
 454 present inside the nest. N=8 per nest topology. Post-hoc pairwise comparisons were made using the Tukey method. Boxplots
 455 sharing a common letter for a given time, are not significantly different

456 Before the arrival of a recruiter, the total percentage of moving ants did not differ between the three
 457 topologies (Fig. 9; GLMM: $X^2_2=4.67$, $P=0.097$). Furthermore, the percentage of active ants did not differ
 458 across chambers from a same nest (GLMM: star: $X^2_6=7.03$, $P=0.32$ | trident: $X^2_6=4.14$, $P=0.66$ | spiral:
 459 $X^2_6=2.87$, $P=0.82$). However, the arrival of a recruiter ant induced, after 30 seconds, an increase in the
 460 total percentages of ants in movement, which differed between nest topologies. (Fig. 9; GLMM:
 461 $X^2_2=7.12$, $P=0.028$). The “star” and the “trident” nests showed respectively the lowest and the highest
 462 total percentage of activated ants while the spread of recruiting stimuli was intermediate in the “spiral”
 463 nests (Pairwise-test - Tukey method: star-spiral $P=0.699$ | star-trident $P=0.028$ | trident-spiral $P=0.18$).
 464 After 180 seconds, the three nest topologies no longer differed by their total percentages of moving
 465 ants (GLMM: $X^2_2=0.16$, $P=0.925$). Furthermore, in each nest topology, the percentage of moving ants
 466 in a given chamber differed across nest chambers at 30 seconds (GLMM: star: $X^2_6=46.90$, $P<0.0001$
 467 | trident: $X^2_6=70.67$, $P<0.0001$ | spiral: $X^2_6=69.46$, $P<0.0001$) and at 180 seconds after the arrival of the
 468 first recruiter (GLMM: star: $X^2_6=37.08$, $P<0.0001$ | trident: $X^2_6=31.02$, $P<0.0001$ | spiral: $X^2_6=35.18$,

469 $P < 0.0001$). In all cases, the percentage of active ants was higher in the entrance chamber than in the
 470 other ones (see Online Resource 3 for each pairwise comparisons across all chambers).



471

472 **Fig. 9** Percentage of moving *Myrmica rubra* ants observed 0, 30 and 180 seconds after the arrival of the first recruiter ant.

473 The values in each nest chamber are the percentages of moving ants \pm SE out of the number of workers present in this

474 chamber. Percentages of moving ants are calculated only when at least two ants were present in a chamber. NA: Non-

475 available data when less than two ants were present in the chamber for more than two replicates. N=8 replicates per nest

476 topology. The total percentages of moving ants in the whole nest are written in the square boxes at the bottom right of each

477 nest and post-hoc pairwise comparisons were made using the Tukey method. The percentages of moving ants in the whole

478 nest are not significantly different if they share a common letter at a given time

479

480 Discussion

481 The spatial organization of *M. rubra* colonies within a nest is highly dependent on its topology.
482 Environmental parameters such as the availability of food (Mailleux et al. 2011) or the
483 weather/seasonality (Porter & Tschinkel 1993; Caut et al. 2013; Murdock & Tschinkel 2015) are already
484 known to impact the localization of workers inside and outside the nest. However, our study indicates
485 that, even in a homogeneous environment, the nest topology alone is enough to influence the level of
486 nest occupancy as well as the distribution of workers among nest chambers.

487 A nest topology with a highly connected chamber acting as a hub (i.e. the “star” topology) promoted
488 a significantly greater occupancy of the whole nest. However, at a local scale, the connectivity degree
489 of one chamber was not correlated to the number of ants housed in the chamber. In fact, the highly
490 connected central hub of the “star” topology had a very high connectivity degree of 6 and yet it housed
491 the same number of ants as the five terminal chambers with a lower connectivity degree of 1. The
492 “star” topology favored a more homogeneous distribution of the workers across all the chambers.
493 Furthermore, the little impact of distance to the entrance on the occupation of nest chambers as well
494 as the high mobility of the queen observed in the “star-shaped” nest suggests that this topology favors
495 exchanges and movements of nestmates between chambers. Interestingly, this homogeneous
496 distribution of workers parallels the homogeneous distribution of network parameters: five of the
497 seven chambers in the “star” topology were characterized by the same connectivity degree as well as
498 the same distance to the entrance or to the other nodes.

499 In contrast, the two nest topologies that showed series of successive chambers (i.e. one series for the
500 “spiral” and three series for the “trident” topology) led to more heterogeneous patterns of chambers’
501 occupancy. In the case of the “trident” topology, the occupancy of one chamber in each branch seemed
502 to depend not only on its topological location but also on the geometry of the whole nest structure:
503 ants were more likely to occupy the lateral branches of the “trident” topology. This geometric effect
504 could possibly result from the thigmotactic tendency of ants to walk along the walls to reach deeper
505 nest parts.

506 Our data also revealed that a single series of successive chambers, as for the “spiral” topology, favored
507 a heterogeneous spatial distribution of workers, with the number of ants decreasing in chambers that
508 were the most remote from the nest entrance. These results differed from field data on the vertical
509 distribution of ants inside natural nests as it can be obtained from wax or dental plaster casts (Tschinkel
510 2010)-that showed lower ant densities in the upper chambers close to the nest openings (Tschinkel
511 2004; Murdock & Tschinkel 2015). These lower ant densities could, however, be partially explained by
512 the top-heavy structure of the studied ant nests, which were characterized by larger and more

513 numerous chambers excavated in the upper nest regions. Furthermore, when considering the number
514 of workers (instead of their density), the upper half part of the nest hosted the majority of the ant
515 population. Finally, in these field studies, ant workers positioned themselves not only according to
516 nest topology but also in response to temperature (Ceusters 1986), light (Pamminger et al. 2014) or
517 even carbon dioxide levels (Hangartner 1969; Kleineidam 1999 but see Tschinkel 2013), which vary
518 from the entrance until deeper nest chambers. Because of the small size of artificial nests used in our
519 study and the strictly controlled laboratory conditions, variations in temperature, humidity or CO₂ level
520 were limited inside the nest interior and unlikely to play a major role on the spatial distribution of
521 workers nor on their clear-cut preference for the entrance chamber in all nest topologies. This suggests
522 that workers tend to aggregate near the entrance, and indirectly, that workers can detect proximity to
523 the entrance without necessarily relying on sensing environmental gradients. The distance that they
524 cover inside the nest when returning from foraging or their rate of encounters with returning foragers
525 are some of the possible cues that they could use.

526 As regards the impact of nest topology on the location of the ant queen, she was most frequently
527 present in the chamber close to the entrance. The entrance chamber was the most occupied by the
528 queen in the “trident” topology and the second most occupied chamber in the “star” and the “spiral”
529 topologies. This is quite surprising knowing that selection for disease control is believed to have shaped
530 the spatial organization of insect societies in a way that mitigates risks for pathogens’ transmission
531 (Stroeymeyt et al. 2014). This “organizational immunity” implies that key-individuals and susceptible
532 colony members such as the queen or the larvae should stay further from the entrance (Varoudis et
533 al. 2018) so as to reduce encounters with potential pathogen vectors like foragers (Mersch et al. 2013).
534 In natural nests, queens were often observed in deeper parts of the nest and/or in areas of high density
535 of workers (Tschinkel 1993; Walin et al. 2001). The preferred location of the queen in the entrance
536 chamber of artificial nests suggests that a high density of nestmates for grooming and humidity
537 conservation could outweigh the higher sanitary risks associated with interactions with foragers.

538 The queen was very mobile and ended up visiting chambers in response to the presence of workers.
539 Indeed, queen relocation from one chamber to another were more frequent in the “star” topology.
540 This may be a consequence of the homogeneous distribution of workers throughout the chambers for
541 this nest topology, leading to evenly attractive chambers from the queen’s perspective. Furthermore,
542 we found that the queen preferred chambers that were highly populated regardless of their
543 topological properties. The tendency of a queen to stay in the most occupied chambers relates to a
544 well-known phenomenon in gregarious insects where the probability of leaving a group decreases non-
545 linearly with the group size (e.g. in cockroaches (Jeanson et al. 2005), crickets (Sword et al. 2005) or
546 ants (Deneubourg et al. 2002; Tennenbaum et al. 2016). This decision rule adds to the ability of ant

547 queens, including queens of *M. rubra*, to produce attractant pheromones (Vienne et al. 1998), that
548 trigger and maintain the aggregation of ant workers around them. A high density of workers also
549 implies more mutual grooming as well as a more thorough sanitization of the chamber, which both
550 reduce transmission rates of pathogens (e.g. in leaf-cutting ants, Hughes et al. 2002).

551 Because spatial proximity is a prerequisite for ants to interact, the entrance chamber that harbors most
552 encounters between outside foragers and inner-nest workers plays a key role in the emergence of
553 collective foraging behavior (Greenee et al. 2013; Pinter-Wollman et al. 2013; Davidson & Gordon
554 2017). On the one hand, we found that the number of *M. rubra* workers in the entrance chamber did
555 not influence the speed of recruitment. On the other hand, we noticed that the highest number of
556 moving ants 30 seconds after the return of a recruiter was observed in the “trident” topology for which
557 the entrance chamber showed the highest level of connectivity. These two findings somehow
558 corroborate previous studies made on the harvester ant *Veromessor andrei* (Pinter-Wollman 2015)
559 where the connectivity of the entrance chamber had a greater impact on the recruitment speed than
560 the number of workers this chamber can potentially hold. Indeed, as the connectivity of the entrance
561 chamber increases, so does the number of locations from which ants can be aroused and mobilized
562 for foraging. As regards the average distance of nest chambers to the entrance, it did not influence the
563 recruitment intensity. Indeed, neither the outgoing flow of foragers nor the total number of moving
564 ants differed between the “trident” and the “spiral” nest, even though these two topologies showed
565 respectively the lowest and the highest average distance to the entrance. This finding could be
566 explained by a propagation of information mostly limited to the entrance chamber which showed the
567 highest percentage of moving ants stimulated by the arrival of successful recruiting ants.

568 Interestingly, the “spiral” topology was the one that most facilitated the activation of deeper nest
569 chambers with at least 5% of the workers moving in every chamber 3 minutes after the first
570 recruitment events. This may result from the serial arrangement of chambers that canalizes the
571 recruitment signals along a single axis extending from the entrance chamber to the deepest one. The
572 “spiral” topology could promote a delayed, yet more efficient sharing of information and food
573 throughout the whole nest. Further studies should investigate the differential timescales at which a
574 given nest structure shows its optimal functionality. Indeed, a topology could be more functional on
575 long time scales because it optimizes food transfer within the whole nest while another topology could
576 be optimal on short time scales because it facilitates the rapid activation of workers and the
577 recruitment of many individuals to a new outside task.

578 Our study confirms that the nest topology alone affects the pattern of nest occupation by workers as
579 well as their activation in the context of foraging. This potentially opens new questions about the

580 adaptive value of different topologies. One can hypothesize that ant species relying on collective
581 foraging and on a strategy of food monopolization could benefit from a high level of connectivity of
582 near-surface nest chambers. Conversely, for small-sized population and/or ant species using signals of
583 poor recruiting efficiency, high connectivity between chambers may no longer be beneficial or may
584 even hamper any recruitment process to take place. Previous research on social insect nests has mainly
585 focused on the mechanisms of nest digging (Theraulaz et al. 2003; Buhl et al. 2006) and of nest size
586 regulation (Rasse & Deneubourg 2001; Buhl et al. 2004). Topology characterizes a whole set of nest
587 properties that are not captured by size descriptors alone. Our study confirms that topological features
588 of nests are important for understanding not only the mechanisms but also the function of insect-built
589 architecture. Together with previous studies, our work is now casting light on how the topology of nest
590 structures can shape the spatial organization of workers and can thus affect the efficiency of
591 information flow inside the nest. By extending our approach to the study of other ant species with
592 different social organizations and different ecology we will gain a better understanding of the
593 functional value of different nest architectures in relation to the species-specific modes of food
594 exploitation.

595

596 **Declaration of Interest** We declare no conflict of interest.

597

598 **Acknowledgements** We wanted to thank Luc Dekelver for helping us to collect ants on the field. We
599 also thank Nell Foster for proofreading the manuscript.

600

601 **Fundings** O. Vaes was financially supported by a PhD grant from Seed Money ULB and by the F.R.I.A
602 (Fonds pour la formation à la Recherche dans l'Industrie et dans l'Agriculture). A. Perna was financially
603 supported by funds from the F.N.R.S. (Belgian National Fund for Scientific Research). C. Detrain is
604 Research Director from the Belgian National Fund for Scientific Research (F.N.R.S).

605

606 **Ethical approval** All applicable international, national, and/or institutional guidelines for the care and
607 use of animals were followed.

608

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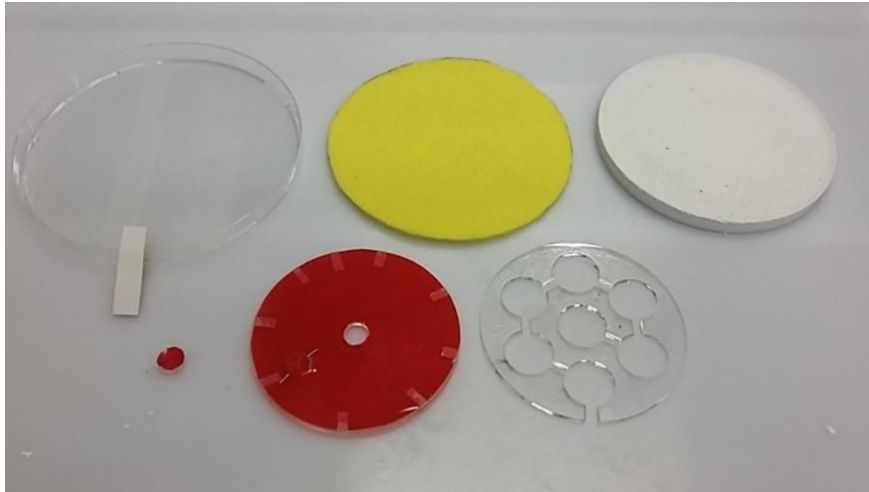
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785 Supplementary

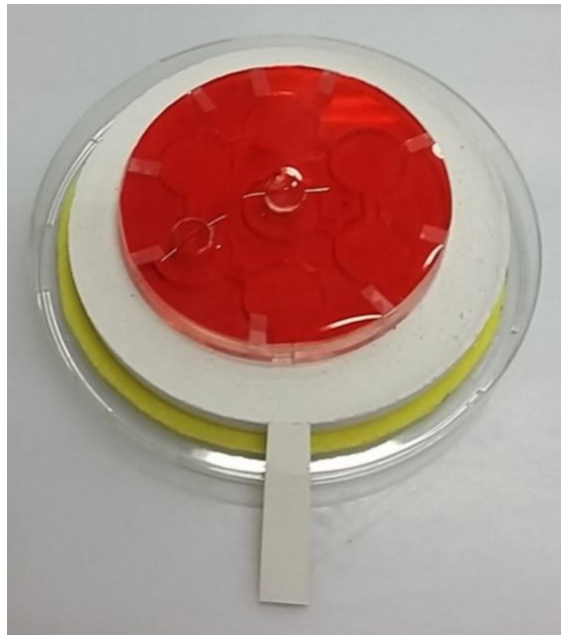
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788 Supplementary 1a: Separated components of the artificial ant nest. From Left to Right and Top to Bottom: Petri dish with
789 access ramp, water-absorbing fabric, plaster disc, ceiling plug, ceiling with red filter paper, Plexiglas nest.

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Supplementary 1b: Artificial ant nest with the spiral topology.

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Supplementary 1c: Artificial nest with the star topology, occupied by *Myrmica rubra* ants. The queen, indicated by a black arrow and characterized by a larger thorax, can be observed in a chamber.

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Topology	95% Confidence Interval		
	Lower	Upper	Difference
Star	12.2	16.7	4.6
Trident	10.9	17.5	6.5
Spiral	10.2	18.2	8.0

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Supplementary 2: Results from the permutation test performed on the occupation of the seven nest chambers by *Myrmica rubra* ants for each nest topology separately, on day 7, for 1000 samples. The numbers express the expected percentage of ants in each chamber.

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30 seconds						180 seconds					
Star		Trident		Spiral		Star		Trident		Spiral	
pairs	p.value	pairs	p.value	pairs	p.value	pairs	p.value	pairs	p.value	pairs	p.value
B - BL	0.9859	B - BL	0.8005	B - BL	0.9998	B - BL	1.0000	B - BL	0.4087	B - BL	0.9606
B - BR	0.6450	B - BR	0.9999	B - BR	0.2120	B - BR	0.9999	B - BR	0.2233	B - BR	0.9989
B - C	0.0064	B - C	0.7890	B - C	1.0000	B - C	0.2276	B - C	0.5722	B - C	1.0000
B - F	0.0003	B - F	0.0001	B - F	<.0001	B - F	0.0014	B - F	0.2948	B - F	0.0002
B - FL	0.7896	B - FL	0.9859	B - FL	1.0000	B - FL	0.2553	B - FL	0.9971	B - FL	0.5235
B - FR	1.0000	B - FR	0.9988	B - FR	0.9963	B - FR	0.9989	B - FR	0.9981	B - FR	1.0000
BL - BR	0.9694	BL - BR	0.8970	BL - BR	0.4683	BL - BR	1.0000	BL - BR	0.9700	BL - BR	0.9995
BL - C	0.0116	BL - C	0.2237	BL - C	1.0000	BL - C	1.0000	BL - C	0.9996	BL - C	1.0000
BL - F	0.0025	BL - F	0.0009	BL - F	<.0001	BL - F	1.0000	BL - F	0.0025	BL - F	0.0057
BL - FL	0.9914	BL - FL	0.9731	BL - FL	0.9987	BL - FL	1.0000	BL - FL	0.6256	BL - FL	0.9798
BL - FR	1.0000	BL - FR	0.5616	BL - FR	1.0000	BL - FR	1.0000	BL - FR	0.1472	BL - FR	0.9821
BR - C	0.0053	BR - C	0.5381	BR - C	1.0000	BR - C	0.2968	BR - C	0.9996	BR - C	1.0000
BR - F	0.0017	BR - F	<.0001	BR - F	0.0002	BR - F	0.0013	BR - F	0.0093	BR - F	0.0030
BR - FL	1.0000	BR - FL	0.9993	BR - FL	0.2624	BR - FL	0.1629	BR - FL	0.3500	BR - FL	0.8747
BR - FR	1.0000	BR - FR	0.9756	BR - FR	0.6574	BR - FR	0.9881	BR - FR	0.1120	BR - FR	0.9996
C - F	0.9989	C - F	0.0054	C - F	1.0000	C - F	0.6092	C - F	0.0537	C - F	1.0000
C - FL	0.0113	C - FL	0.2278	C - FL	1.0000	C - FL	0.0081	C - FL	0.7279	C - FL	1.0000
C - FR	1.0000	C - FR	0.9357	C - FR	1.0000	C - FR	0.1696	C - FR	0.3514	C - FR	1.0000
F - FL	0.0040	F - FL	<.0001	F - FL	<.0001	F - FL	0.0003	F - FL	0.0244	F - FL	0.0315
F - FR	1.0000	F - FR	<.0001	F - FR	<.0001	F - FR	0.0031	F - FR	0.5417	F - FR	0.0035
FL - FR	1.0000	FL - FR	0.8012	FL - FR	0.9904	FL - FR	0.5050	FL - FR	0.8757	FL - FR	0.7048

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Supplementary 3: Results from the pairwise comparison of the percentage of *Myrmica rubra* ants moving between each nest chamber with the Tukey method. In **bold** are the significantly different chambers. Abbreviations for each chamber: F=Front (Entrance); C=Center; B=Back; FL=Front Left; FR=Front Right; BL=Back Left; BR=Back Right.