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► To cite this version:

István Maák, Gábor Lőrinczi, Pauline Le Quinquis, Gábor Módra, Dalila Bovet, et al.. Tool selection during foraging in two species of funnel ants. Animal Behaviour, 2017, 123, pp.207 - 216. 10.1016/j.anbehav.2016.11.005 . hal-01681237

HAL Id: hal-01681237 https://hal.science/hal-01681237

Submitted on 29 Dec 2023

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Tool selection during foraging in two species of funnel ants

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Tool selection during foraging in two species of funnel ants

Highlights

- Some ant species use debris as tools to transport liquid food to the nest.
- When given the choice between different kinds of potential tools ants are selective.
- They show preference for materials with optimal handling and/or soaking properties.
- They can employ artificial materials novel to them, thus tool use is flexible in ants.

1 Tool selection during foraging in two species of funnel ants

2 ABSTRACT

3 Tool use by non-human animals has received much research attention in the last couple of 4 decades. Nonetheless, research has focused mostly on vertebrates, particularly primates and 5 corvids, even though tool use has also been documented in insects. One of the best-6 documented examples involves ants using debris (e.g., sand grains, mud, leaf fragments) to 7 collect and transport liquid food to their nest. However, little is known about the factors that 8 determine the selection of materials to be used as tool. We investigated tool selection in two 9 species of *Aphaenogaster* ants by giving them the choice between different kinds of potential 10 tools (natural and artificial objects). Ant workers showed a clear preference for certain materials to be used as tool objects. Tool selection was also shaped by familiarity with the 11 12 material as ants developed a preference for artificial tools with a good soaking capacity that 13 cannot be found in their natural environment. Our results indicate that ants of this genus 14 evolved unique foraging strategies and show plasticity in their behaviour.

15 Keywords: ants, Aphaenogaster, foraging, food transport, tool use

16 INTRODUCTION

17 Once considered unique to humans, tool use is now known to be widespread in the animal 18 kingdom (Bentley-Condit & Smith, 2010; Shumaker, Walkup, & Beck, 2011). Moreover, in 19 the last two decades our general understanding of the mechanisms underlying flexible tool use 20 has significantly increased (Sanz, Call, & Boesch, 2013). Some species can make tools to 21 meet specific task demands (e.g., Auersperg, Szabo, von Bayern, & Kacelnik, 2012; Bird & 22 Emery, 2009; Sanz, Call, & Morgan, 2009), use multiple tools in succession to fulfil the sub-23 goals required to complete a task (Martin-Ordas, Schumacher, & Call, 2012; Mulcahy, Call, 24 & Dunbar, 2005; Wimpenny, Weir, Clayton, Rutz, & Kacelnik, 2009) or select appropriate 25 tools depending on their physical attributes or functional properties (Bird & Emery, 2009; 26 Chappell & Kacelnik, 2002; Manrique, Gross, & Call, 2010; Visalberghi et al., 2009).

27 Although these findings are concerned with vertebrates, mostly primates 28 (chimpanzees, orangutans and capuchin monkeys) and passerine birds (New Caledonian 29 crows, rooks, woodpecker finches) (Sanz et al., 2013), tool use also occurs in invertebrates. 30 For instance, a recently compiled catalogue reports about 50 cases of tool use in insects, 31 involving 30 different genera (Bentley-Condit & Smith, 2010). However, little is known about 32 the occurrence of flexible tool use in invertebrates. For instance, weaver ants use the silk 33 produced by their larvae in nest building but this is not considered "true" tool use because 34 ants use an animate object (Pierce, 1986). Antlions and wormlions throwing out sand to make 35 small prey fall inside their conical pits does qualifies as tool use. Although it is a fairly 36 stereotyped behaviour, it is not completely fixed: antlions modify the characteristics of their 37 trap according to hunger level, prey availability, predation threat and other environmental 38 conditions such as light and temperature; however, the influence of experience upon this 39 flexibility is unclear (Scharf, Lubin & Ovadia, 2011). Antlions and wormlions also prefer 40 specific substrates for pit building or ambushing prey (Devetak & Arnett, 2015). The use of pebbles to close burrows containing eggs and prey in some apoid wasps (Ammophila, Sphex) 41 42 is flexible because it requires the selection of suitable pebbles (Evans & Eberhard, 1970).

One of the best documented examples of tool use by insects involves using debris to
transport food by some species of ants including the harvester ant *Pogonomyrmex badius*(Morrill, 1972), *Solenopsis invicta* (Barber, Ellgaard, Thien, & Stack, 1989), and several

species of Aphaenogaster (Agbogba, 1985; Fellers & Fellers, 1976; McDonald, 1984; Tanaka 46 47 & Ono, 1978), all belonging to the subfamily Myrmicinae. Many of the species from this 48 subfamily are characterised by a very chitinous gaster (abdomen) and by the lack of a 49 distensible crop, which prevents the transportation of large amounts of liquid food inside their 50 bodies, a feature very common in other subfamilies, such as Formicinae or Dolichoderinae 51 (Davidson, Cook, & Snelling, 2004; Hölldobler & Wilson, 1990). Furthermore, some 52 myrmicine genera, namely Aphaenogaster, do not perform trophallaxis (Delage & Jaisson, 53 1969) (i.e., mouth-to-mouth exchange of liquid food, also common in other subfamilies) and 54 as a consequence the foragers of these species cannot exchange liquids stored in their crops 55 with in-nest workers performing other tasks, such as feeding the larvae. The characteristic 56 anatomy of the digestive tract in myrmicine ants, in particular the absence of an expandable 57 crop, may have favoured the evolution of tool using behaviour, which allows for an efficient 58 gathering, transport and sharing of liquid food (Fellers & Fellers, 1976; Tanaka & Ono, 59 1978).

60 When foragers of these myrmicine species encounter liquid food sources (e.g., fruit pulp, body fluids of dead arthropods) they drop debris of various kinds (e.g., sand grains, soil 61 62 particles, leaf fragments) into the food source and then transport the food-soaked debris back into the nest. Furthermore, some evidence suggests that these ants do not drop debris into non-63 64 food substances (Agbogba, 1985; Banschbach, Brunelle, Bartlett, Grivetti, & Yeamans 2006). 65 Tool-assisted food transportation has been observed in both field and laboratory experiments with artificial baits (Agbogba, 1985; Banschbach et al., 2006; Barber et al., 1989; Fellers & 66 Fellers, 1976; Fowler, 1982; Lőrinczi, 2014; McDonald, 1984; Morrill, 1972; Tanaka & Ono, 67 68 1978). Ants use as tools different objects found near the food source including mud clods, leaf 69 fragments, pine needles, sand grains, or any particles of a suitable size (Banschbach et al., 70 2006; Fellers & Fellers, 1976; Lőrinczi, 2014; Morrill, 1972; Tanaka & Ono, 1978). So far, 71 however, only one comprehensive study has been carried out on tool selectivity in these ants 72 (Tanaka and Ono, 1978). Other studies have reported limited observations that might indicate 73 selectivity in use of tools in Aphaenogaster species (e.g., Banschbach et al., 2006; Fellers & 74 Fellers, 1976; Lőrinczi, 2014; Morrill, 1972).

75 This putative material selectivity is important because it may indicate that ants choose 76 materials flexibly, something that has been mainly documented in vertebrates. However, little 77 is known about the factors that determine ants' preference for various materials as suitable 78 tools for liquid transportation. The aim of this study was to comprehensively investigate 79 material selectivity in liquid food transportation in two Aphaenogaster ant species in the 80 laboratory to assess their flexibility and establish a possible link with the literature on tool use 81 in vertebrates. We adopted Bentley-Condit and Smith's (2010) definition of tool use, which in 82 turn closely followed that of St Amant and Horton's (2008): "the exertion of control over a freely manipulable external object (the tool) with the goal of (1) altering the physical 83 84 properties of another object, substance, surface or medium (the target, which may be the tool 85 user or another organism) via a dynamic mechanical interaction, or (2) mediating the flow of 86 information between the tool user and the environment or other organisms in the 87 environment" p.1203. We chose this definition instead of Beck's (1980) or Pierce's (1986) 88 because it provided a good balance between specificity and generality and crucially, it fully 89 captured the behaviour that we investigated here.

We confronted ants with a liquid food source away from the nest and a set of natural or artificial (novel) objects with different weight/soaking properties. One might expect that tools with more efficient soaking properties would be preferred over alternative choices. Additionally, we expected that ants would preferentially drop debris in nutritious baits. The presentation of natural objects allowed us to link this study with previous ones while the inclusion of the artificial objects allowed us to explore the ants' flexibility in learning to use the most efficient novel materials.

97 METHODS

98 Study species and housing

We studied two monogynous Mediterranean ant species belonging to the subfamily *Myrmicinae*, *Aphaenogaster subterranea* and *Aphaenogaster senilis* (Czechowski,
Radchenko, Czechowska, & Vepsäläinen, 2012; Stukalyuk & Radchenko, 2011). *A. subterranea* (Latreille, 1798) is a highly thermophilous species distributed in southern and
central Europe (Czechowski et al., 2012; Seifert, 2007). It lives in moderately wet and warm

104 deciduous and pine forests, and builds nests under stones, in the soil, litter or occasionally in 105 fallen branches. Colony size can vary from several hundred up to 2000 workers (Czechowski 106 et al., 2012; Seifert, 2007; Stukalyuk & Radchenko, 2011). A. senilis (Mayr, 1853) inhabits 107 open, sunny locations such as forest edges, lawns, fields and sand dunes. The nests are built 108 into the soil, often sheltered by stones. Workers forage individually mostly at the ground 109 level, but they can occur on shrubs and trees. Since these habitats have scarce food sources, 110 workers can cover large areas with the help of their long legs. Colony size can vary between a 111 few hundred to a few thousand workers (Boulay et al., 2007).

112 Eight medium sized colonies of A. subterranea (two queenright and 6 queenless, 113 between 500-1500 workers) were collected in a black pine forest near the village of Litér 114 (Hungary) and kept under standard conditions (temperature 24±4 °C; relative humidity 42-115 43%; 12 L: 12 D cycle) in the laboratory. Together with some material coming from the original habitat (soil, dried pine needles and leaf fragments), the colonies were kept in plastic 116 117 boxes (44 cm \times 31 cm \times 23 cm) with their cover cut in a circular shape (diameter 15 cm) and 118 covered with a fine-wired metal mesh for ventilation and easy moistening of the nest. Every 119 box containing a colony was connected with a 10 cm long plastic tube to an arena (60 cm \times 120 $30 \text{ cm} \times 15 \text{ cm}$). They were watered daily, and fed every second day with a commonly used 121 artificial diet (Bhatkar & Whitcomb, 1970) in a distant location of the foraging arena. During 122 the experimental period the colonies were not fed, to increase motivation for food found on 123 the baits. Water was always provided ad libitum.

124 Three queenright colonies of A. senilis (colony size 500-1500 workers) were collected 125 at Banyuls-sur-Mer (France) in a sandy area and kept in the laboratory under standard 126 conditions (temperature 24 ± 4 °C; relative humidity 50–60%; 12 L: 12 D cycle). They were housed in artificial nests, each consisting of a cylindrical plastic box (diameter 12.5 cm) with 127 128 regularly moistened plaster floor, and a hole giving access to the foraging area, which was 129 represented by the space left in a larger plastic box ($18 \text{ cm} \times 25.5 \text{ cm} \times 7.7 \text{ cm}$) containing the 130 circular nest. The standard diet for each colony consisted of five dead crickets (Acheta 131 *domestica*) and about 5 g of apple/honey mix two times per week. During the experimental period, to increase motivation for food, colonies were fed with only three crickets and 2 g of 132 133 apple/honey mix (twice a week); water was always provided ad libitum.

134 Experimental setup

Ant colonies were presented with food baits and different types of potential tools in the foraging arena (Fig. 1, 2). The methodology used in *A. subterranea* and *A. senilis* and described below is slightly different because this study is the combined output of two initially separate studies conducted independently in two different laboratories.

139 Aphaenogaster subterranea

140 The duration of the experiments was 3 hours, which was enough time to observe the transport 141 of tools into the nests. Each observation period lasted one minute, repeated every four minutes 142 until the end of the experiment. During this time we noted the number of tools transported to 143 the bait and from the bait into the nests. Tool preference was tested for tools found and used 144 in nature: small soil grains (diameter 1 mm), large soil grains (diameter 2-3 mm), and fragments of pine needles and leaves. Additionally, we also used a fifth tool type of 145 anthropogenic origin with good soaking/weight ratio: small pieces of sponges (diameter 5 146 147 mm) (Fig. 1 and Fig. A1, appendix). Tools were placed at a distance of 12 cm from the baits in a random order. To estimate the soaking properties, the weight of 10 tools of each type was 148 149 measured with a precision analytical balance (10 mg accuracy) before and after soaking them 150 in the different types of baits (Table 1). The objects were placed on the surface of the baits 151 and left there for 10 minutes. Three different baits were tested: water, honey diluted in water (1:3 ratio; further honey-water) and honey (condensed with sugar powder; further honey) 152 153 placed in plastic plates (diameter 4 cm, Fig. 1 and A1). The baits were given to the colonies in 154 a random order.

155

156 Aphaenogaster senilis

The experiments lasted 3 hours, during which the activity of the colonies was videotaped. The tapes were analysed as for *A. subterranea*. The experiments with the same setup were repeated 10 times per each colony.

160 Tool use preference was tested for a total of 6 different, novel potential tools, such as pieces 161 of paper, sponges, artificial foam, twigs, string and parafilm (Fig. 2). Groups of 10 tools of each type (average weight for each tool: 2.5 mg) were placed 12 cm from the food source
(diluted honey on a piece of aluminium foil). The soaking properties were estimates by
measuring the weight of 10 tools of each type with a precision analytical balance (10 mg
accuracy) before and after soaking them in diluted honey (Table 2).

166 Ethical Note.

Ant colonies were collected with care in the field and maintained in nearly natural conditions in the laboratory. Ants were provided with suitable nesting sites, food and water thus minimizing any adverse impart on their welfare. Our experimental designs include only beahvioural observations, no insect was harmed or stressed during the experimental procedure and all ant colonies were healthy at the end of the experiments.

172 Statistical analysis

173 In A. subterranea, we did not observe any transport of tools into the nests in the case of water 174 baits; furthermore, the transport rate towards the water baits was much lower than towards the 175 other baits, so we focused on the analysis of tool use in honey-water and honey baits. The 176 effect of the bait type on the total number of tools dropped into the baits was analysed using a 177 GLMM model (Poisson errors, maximum likelihood fit, log link). In the full model, bait type 178 was included as a factor and colony ID as a random factor (N = 12) to account for within 179 colony similarities. Differences in the number of tools dropped into baits by different colonies 180 according to different tool types were analysed with GLMM models (Poisson errors, maximum likelihood fit, log link). In the full model, tool type was included as a fixed factor 181 182 and colony ID as a random factor ($N_{A,su} = 30, N_{A,se} = 18$).

The transport rate of tools towards the baits for the colonies of both species was analysed with the help of Log-rank test with Montecarlo (100.000) simulations ($N_{A.su}$ = 60 corpses, $N_{A.se}$ = 30). The removal rate was tested until at most the 10th piece of tools was removed. The different tool types were included as dummy variables, while colony ID was included as a random factor. The transport rate of the different tools into the nests was analysed with the same model construction in both species.

189 In A. subterranea, the transport of tools to the different baits was analysed in separate 190 models, and because 2 colonies did not transport anything to the baits, only 6 colonies were 191 used for the analysis. In A. senilis, the same model constructions were used for the analysis of the 1st, the 5th and 10th experiment. The three-hour experimental period was enough in the 192 193 case of both species to observe the transport of tools into the nests. In A. subterranea, 3 194 colonies in the case of honey-water, and 6 colonies in the case of honey baits were actively 195 transporting tools into their nests, so only these colonies were used in the analysis with the 196 same model constructions as described before ($N_{honey-water} = 15$, $N_{honey} = 30$). All statistical 197 analyses were carried out in R (version 3.0.2, The R Foundation for Statistical Computing, 198 Vienna, Austria, http://www.r-project.org). GLMMs were performed using *glmer* function in 199 *lme4* package (Bates, Maechler, Bolker, & Walker, 2013). In the analyses, all tools used were 200 included. Log Rank Test was carried out with the surv_test function in coin package 201 (Hothorn, Hornik, van de Wiel, & Zeileis, 2008). Pairwise comparisons were performed with 202 separate Log Rank Tests and the Relevel function was used to carry out post-hoc sequential 203 comparisons among factor levels when performing GLMM analyses. We applied table-wide 204 sequential Bonferroni-Holm correction to reveal the exact significance levels in these cases.

205 **RESULTS**

206 Aphaenogaster subterranea: transport to the baits

Workers of *A. subterranea* dropped significantly more tools into honey-water (GLMM: z = 12.5, N = 24, P < 0.001) and honey (z = 11.97, P < 0.001) than into water, but no difference was observed between the honey-water and honey (z = -0.96, NS). We therefore concentrate on honey-water and honey baits in the following analyses.

Overall, small soil grains were the most frequently transported tool to the honey-water, and their number was significantly different from the number of sponges (z = -3.33, P < -3.33) 213 0.001) and leaf fragments (Fig. 3), with the latter being the least frequently dropped tools 214 compared to every other tool type (z < -3.22, P < 0.01). Furthermore, leaf fragments were 215 transported at the lowest rate (Log Rank Test: $13 < \chi^2 < 29.76$, P < 0.001) while sponges were 216 transported at a slower rate than small soil grains ($\chi^2 = 29.76$, P < 0.01) (Fig A2).

In the case of honey baits, the preferred tools were the small soil grains and pine needles, which were transported in significantly higher numbers than leaf fragments (z < -3.07, P < 0.001) and large soil grains (z < -2.65, P < 0.05); sponges were also used more frequently than leaf fragments (z = -2.83, P = 0.03) (Fig. 3). Every tool type was transported at a faster rate than leaf fragments ($11.5 < \chi^2 < 40.29$, P < 0.003) (Fig. A2).

222 Aphaenogaster subterranea: transport into the nests

In the case of honey-water baits, small soil grains were transported into the nest in higher numbers than pine needles (z = 3.43, N = 24, P < 0.001), leaf fragments (z = 3.56, P < 0.001) and sponges (z = 2.91, P < 0.001) (Fig 4). Small soil grains were transported also at a faster rate than every other tool type (11.43 < χ^2 < 29.26, P < 0.003) (Fig. A3).

In the case of honey baits, sponges were transported into the nest in highest numbers, which differed significantly from every other tool type (z < -4.02, P < 0.001). The second most preferred tools were small soil grains, which were transported significantly more often than leaf fragments (z = -2.79, P = 0.03) (Fig 4). Sponges were transported at a faster rate than every other tool type ($8.56 < \chi^2 < 37.39$, P < 0.01). Leaf fragments were transported at the slowest rate, which significantly differed from the small ($\chi^2 = 22.31$, P < 0.001) and large soil grains ($\chi^2 = 7.07$, P < 0.05) (Fig A3).

234 Aphaenogaster senilis: transport to the baits

Overall, the number of tools used by *A. senilis* workers significantly changed across trials (from the 1st, to the 5th and the 10th trials: GLMM: z = 3.09, N = 36, P < 0.01), and there was no significant difference between the 5th and the 10th trial (z = 0.95, NS), therefore the use of potential tools was analysed separately for each trail (Fig. A4).

In the 1st and 5th trials, there was no significant difference in the number of different 239 tools transported to the bait (between every tool type $1^{st} z > 0.2$, N = 18, NS; $5^{th} z > -2.2$, N =240 18, NS) (Fig. 5), although in the 1st trial paper was transported at a significantly faster rate 241 than the artificial foam (Log Rank Test: $\chi^2 = 12.72$, P < 0.01; Fig. A5). In the 5th trial, the 242 sponges (Log Rank Test: $\chi^2 = -4.33$, P < 0.05; Fig. A5) and the pieces of paper (Log Rank 243 Test: $\gamma^2 = -3.82$, P < 0.05) were transported significantly faster than every other tool types, but 244 there was no significant difference between these two tool types (Log Rank Test: $\chi^2 = -0.28$, 245 NS), and paper did not differ significantly from string (Log Rank Test: $\chi^2 = -2.33$, NS; Fig. 246 247 S5).

In the 10th trial, the preferred tools were paper and sponges ($\chi^2 = 0.89$, NS), which were used more frequently than artificial foam (z > 3.24, N = 18, P < 0.01, Fig. 5) and transported at a significantly faster rate than parafilm and twigs (respectively: $\chi^2 > 8.66$, P < 0.05 and $\chi^2 > 8.22$, P < 0.05, Fig. A5). Artificial foam was transported at a significantly slower rate than every other tool type ($\chi^2 = 9.3$, P < 0.05, Fig. A5).

253 Aphaenogaster senilis: transport into the nest

Overall, the number of tools transported into the nest by *A. senilis* workers significantly changed across trials (GLMM: z = 2.79, N = 36, P < 0.01), and there was no significant difference between trial 5th and 10th (z = 1.01, NS), therefore the use of artificial tools was analysed separately for the 1st, 5th and 10th trials (Fig. A4).

258 In the first trial, there was no significant difference in the number (GLMM: 1.82 > z>0.001, NS) and transport speed (Log Rank Test: $0 > \gamma^2 > 1$, NS) of different tools brought 259 into the nest (Fig. 6 and Fig. A5). In contrast, in the 5th trial the pieces of papers and sponges 260 were transported in a significantly higher number than the foam (z > -3.16, P < 0.05) and 261 parafilm tools (z > -3.38, P < 0.01; Fig. 6). Moreover, paper and sponge (Log Rank Test: $\gamma^2 =$ 262 0.29, NS) were transported at a higher rate than every other tool type ($\chi^2 > 2.85$, P < 0.05; 263 Fig. S5). Strings and twigs ($\chi^2 = -0.91$, NS) were transported at a higher rate than foam ($\chi^2 > -$ 264 6.24, P < 0.01) and parafilm ($\chi^2 > 2.48$, P < 0.05; Fig. A5). 265

In the 10th trial, paper was the most frequently transported tool to the nest, differing significantly from the number of artificial foam (z = 2.73, P < 0.05) and parafilm tools (z = 2.73, P < 0.05) (Fig. 6). The fastest transport rate was observed for paper tools, which differed significantly from every other tool type ($\chi^2 > 8.2$, P < 0.05, Fig. A5) except for sponges and strings ($\chi^2 > 6.78$, NS, Fig. A5). Parafilm and artificial foam ($\chi^2 = 3.35$, NS) were transported at a significantly slower rate than every other tool type ($\chi^2 > 8.66$, P < 0.05).

272 **DISCUSSION**

273 We observed the occurrence of tool use to transport liquid food in two ant species of the 274 genus Aphaenogaster thus confirming previous observations (Agbogba, 1985). More 275 importantly, ant workers were selective in both the materials they chose and the baits that they 276 exploited. A. subterranea was mainly tested with natural materials. Small soil grains were the 277 most preferred item and leaf fragments, despite having a superior soaking power than soil 278 grains, the least preferred item. Ants showed a remarkable preference for sponges despite being novel (they were the only artificial material tested in this species). Interestingly, ant 279 280 workers in more than 80% of the trials broke the sponges into smaller fragments, presumably 281 to facilitate handling. Once tools were dropped into the baits, ants behaved differently 282 depending on the bait's viscosity (honey-water or pure honey). Imbibed small soil grains were 283 transported to the nest in the highest numbers and faster than other tool types from honey-284 water baits, while sponges were the preferred transported tools from the honey baits (small 285 soil grains were the second preferred tool to be brought to the nest). Additionally, ants threw 286 much fewer items into water baits compared to those baits that contained honey.

A. *senilis* could choose among six materials that differed in terms of soaking power (paper, sponges, artificial foam, twigs, sting and parafilm). It is likely that ants of this species, which live in sandy areas, were unfamiliar with most of these materials. Initially, *A. senilis* showed no preference for any of the tools for dropping them into the baits, although paper was transported faster to the bait compared to the artificial foam. However, along trials, ants significantly preferred dropping paper and sponges into the baits, thus choosing in accordance with the tools' soaking properties. A similar pattern was observed for tool transportation to the nest: ants developed a preference for paper, followed by sponges, thus optimizing their foraging effort by using the tools with the best soaking properties and ease of grasping compared to other tool types.

297 Our results suggest that tool use to transport liquid to the nest in the two studied ant 298 species is not behaviourally fixed. Ants incorporated novel tools, many of them made of 299 artificial materials, into their foraging activities. Moreover, A. senilis learned within 10 trials 300 to select the best tool options available based on their soaking properties and A. subterranea 301 chose tools in relation to the characteristic of the food itself, e.g., food viscosity. This means 302 that ants can select tools according to both food and tool properties. Nevertheless, other 303 factors (besides a tool's soaking properties) may have played a role in determining ants' 304 preferences. One possibility is that the low density of some materials in the natural habitat 305 (e.g., leaf fragments are not abundant in the pine forest inhabited by these A. subterranea 306 colonies) may have been the reason for largely ignoring this item. However, a lack of 307 familiarity with potential tools cannot explain why A. subterranea used sponge pieces, which 308 were totally novel objects. Even more compelling are the data on A. senilis, which developed 309 a preference for unfamiliar materials during testing.

310

311 Handling effort is another factor that could have played an important role in tool 312 selection, perhaps in combination with the tool's soaking properties. During our observations 313 we noticed that A. subterranea workers had problems with grasping, handling and orienting 314 the leaf fragments, while the pieces of sponges could be grasped more easily. In fact, ants may 315 have torn apart sponges to reduce their size and facilitate handling. Although the soaking 316 power of sponges was lower when dropped into honey than into honey-water, their relatively low weight made them more buoyant than other tool types and their irregular texture 317 318 increased their potential for being grasped. We found that the preference for particular items 319 often depended on the type of task that ants carried out. In particular, sponges may have been 320 preferentially transported to the nest, but small soil grains were the most dropped tools into 321 the baits. This suggests that selection among different tool types occurred both when first 322 encountered and also at the food source after the tools had been dropped into the baits. This 323 two-stage selection process might be especially important in the case of novel tools whose 324 properties are still unknown. Indeed, A. senilis ants transported very few foam fragments to the bait in the first trial but subsequently increased their transportation during the 5th trial. Nevertheless, foam fragments were rarely transported from the bait to the nest and by the 10th trial ant workers even reduced their transportation to the baits. This suggests that tool selection, after familiarization with novel material, may have also occurred at the baits. Other authors observed that not all the tools dropped into the baits were transported into the nest (Fowler, 1982; McDonald, 1984), corroborating our interpretation that further tool selection can occur once the tools have been dropped into the liquid food source.

332 Availability, weight, soaking properties, easy handling and the possibility of shaping 333 the material to a desired form are therefore important factors in tool selection. The assessment 334 of these characteristics appears to be the result of a familiarization and learning process, at 335 least for the novel objects offered to the ants in our experiments. As the natural availability of 336 certain kinds of tools varies both spatially and seasonally, plasticity in tool selection is likely 337 to be adaptive. Tool use behaviour in ants may have evolved from the tendency shown by 338 many species to cover with debris liquid or viscous substances, which may otherwise cause 339 drowning or entanglement of workers near their nest (Fellers & Fellers, 1976; McDonald, 340 1984). Note, however, that it has been experimentally shown that Aphaenogaster ants typically drop debris in food substances (Agbogba 1985; Banschbach et al., 2006) and our 341 342 experiments confirm this. The adaptive advantage of tool use in Aphaenogaster ants is that, 343 by using tools, foragers are capable of efficiently exploiting ephemeral food sources by 344 transporting much larger quantities of liquid nutrients than they could do by internal transport (Fellers & Fellers, 1976; Tanaka & Ono, 1978), given the non-expandable crop characteristic 345 of myrmicine ants. Tool use might help these ants to compete with more dominant ant species 346 347 which are able to monopolize food sources by numbers: if the food is quickly covered by 348 debris, other ant species cannot exploit it and tool users can take the necessary time to bring 349 the soaked debris back to their nest (Banschbach et al., 2006; Fellers & Fellers, 1976).

We began our paper by referring to the research on flexible tool use in vertebrates hoping to establish a link with the existing observations on invertebrate tool use. Our experiments showed some indication that ants preferred materials with good soaking power although other aspects such as ease of grasp may have also contributed to their choices. Chimpanzees create a vegetable mass with good absorbent properties by chewing leaves that

they use to extract liquid from crevices (Goodall, 1986). It is unknown, however, whether 355 356 chimpanzees select certain plant species for their high soaking power. In a liquid extraction 357 task in the laboratory, Lehner, Burkart and van Schaik (2011) reported that captive orangutans 358 developed liquid extraction techniques based on materials with high soaking power (e.g., 359 wood wool, paper) over those with low soaking power (e.g., leafless branch). Although this 360 may indicate that orangutans, like ants, were sensitive to the properties of such materials, the 361 lack of a direct and systematic comparison between different kinds of materials considerably reduces the conclusions that one may be able to draw from that study. Nevertheless, other 362 363 studies with vertebrates in non-liquid extractive foraging tasks have systematically varied the 364 materials presented and have found evidence of selectivity in terms of hardness and weight 365 (Visalberghi et al., 2009), weight (Bird & Emery, 2009) or rigidity (Manrique et al., 2010). 366 Our findings with ants are in some ways comparable to those studies although admittedly, our 367 results are less clear than those reported in vertebrates. This is partly understandable because 368 our study is only the second systematic study on material selectivity in ants (besides Tanaka 369 and Ono, 1978) and we may have not fully considered a number of factors. For instance, 370 dropping a substantial number of tools (e.g., pine needles) inside the liquid and abandoning 371 them there may seem puzzling from the point of view of efficiency. Note, however, that 372 dropping those materials on the liquid may have accomplished another function (e.g., 373 preserving the liquid food against exploitation from other species). Also, the absorbed liquid 374 may have altered the potential for grasping the potential tool object or increased its weight in 375 excess. Another possibility is that ants can only identify suitable materials *after* observing its 376 effect on the substance to be collected instead of selecting them *prior* to their use (e.g., 377 artificial foam). Although selecting materials to collect liquid has not been described in 378 corvids or primates, selecting and manufacturing tools prior to their use is well-documented in 379 those taxa (e.g., Manrique et al., 2010; Sanz, Call & Morgan, 2009; Visalberghi et al., 2009; 380 Wimpeny et al., 2009). Whether ants (or any other species) can also select new materials prior 381 to experiencing its absorbent properties is an open question that future studies should address.

382 Some authors may question our use of the term tool use to describe the behaviour of 383 the ants. Tool use is after all a contentious term in the literature typically characterized by 384 rather long definitions, a number of clear examples, and some areas of substantial

disagreement (see Bentley-Condit & Smith, 2010; Shumaker et al., 2011). Although we 385 386 would be ready to accept a less contentious terminology such as 'material use', it is difficult 387 to do so when chimpanzees using leaves to extract liquid from crevices is considered a 388 classical example of tool use (Goodall, 1986). More importantly, we think that the behaviour 389 of the ants meets one of the most important criteria that define tool use in foraging contexts 390 (Beck, 1980; Bentley-Condit & Smith, 2010; St Amant & Horton, 2008), i.e., the use of an 391 external object to affect the position or location of another object or substance. Obviously 392 one could argue that nest building materials affect the position of other nesting materials, which is why some authors object to the idea of tool use and would perhaps like to see either a 393 394 more restricted use of the term, or its complete abandonment for a wider term such as construction behaviour (Hansell & Ruxton, 2008). Although we understand this position and 395 396 the reasons for it, given the above considerations, we still prefer to refer to the behaviour of 397 the ants as tool use, or the similar denomination of object use.

In conclusion, we observed *A. senilis* and *A. subterranea* using natural and artificial debris to collect and transport liquid food to their nests. We also documented the development of a preference for materials with optimal soaking properties in *A. senilis* although other factors such as familiarity and ease of grasping may have played a role in determining ants' choices. Additional studies are needed to better characterize the extent and limits of this form of flexible tool use particularly in relation to the existing forms of flexible tool use displayed by vertebrates.

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Table 1. Soaking properties of the different tools used by *Aphaenogaster subterranea*.

	Imbibed /Initial weight (weight ratio)		
Tool type	Honey-water	Honey	
Sponges	7.45	1.29	
Leaf fragments	1.94	11.9	
Pine needles	1.33	1.85	
Small soil grains	1.1	1.48	
Large soil grains	0.7	0.64	

Table 2. Soaking properties of the different tools used by *Aphaenogaster senilis*.

Imbibed /Initial weight (weight ratio)

Tool type	Honey-water
Paper	28.37
Sponges	23.31
Artificial foam	6.37
Twigs	3.06
String	2.00
Parafilm	1.47

509 Figure legends

510 **Figure 1**. Experimental setup and tool types offered to *Aphaenogaster subterranea*.

511 **Figure 2.** Experimental setup and tool types offered to *Aphaenogaster senilis*.

Figure 3. Number of different tools transported to honey-water (a) and honey (b) baits by *Aphaenogaster subterranea* workers. Box plots show the median (internal line), quartiles and range (whiskers). Different letters above boxes represent groups that differ significantly from each other.

Fig. 4. Number of different tools transported into the nest from the honey-water (a) and honey
(b) baits by *Aphaenogaster subterranea* workers. Box plots show the median (internal line),
quartiles and range (whiskers). Different letter s above boxes represent groups that differ
significantly from each other.

Figure 5. Number of different tools transported to the baits in the 1st, 5th and 10th trials by *Aphaenogaster senilis* workers. Box plots show the median (internal line), quartiles and range
(whiskers).

Figure 6. Number of different tools transported into the nest in the 1^{st} , 5^{th} and 10^{th} experiment by *Aphaenogaster senilis* workers. Box plots show the median (internal line), quartiles and range (whiskers).

526 Appendix - Figure legends

Figure A1. Different tool types used for experiments with *Aphaenogaster subterranea* (a)
from left to right: small soil grains, sponges, pine needles, large soil grains, leaf fragments; (b)
the dynamics of bait covering with tools.

Figure A2. Estimated functions of tool transport time to honey-water (a) and honey (b) by workers of *Aphaenogaster subterranea* (Log-rank test). Different tool types are depicted by different colours. 533 Figure A3. Estimated functions of tool transport time into the nest from the honey-water (a)

and honey (b) baits by Aphaenogaster subterranea workers (Log-rank test). Different tool

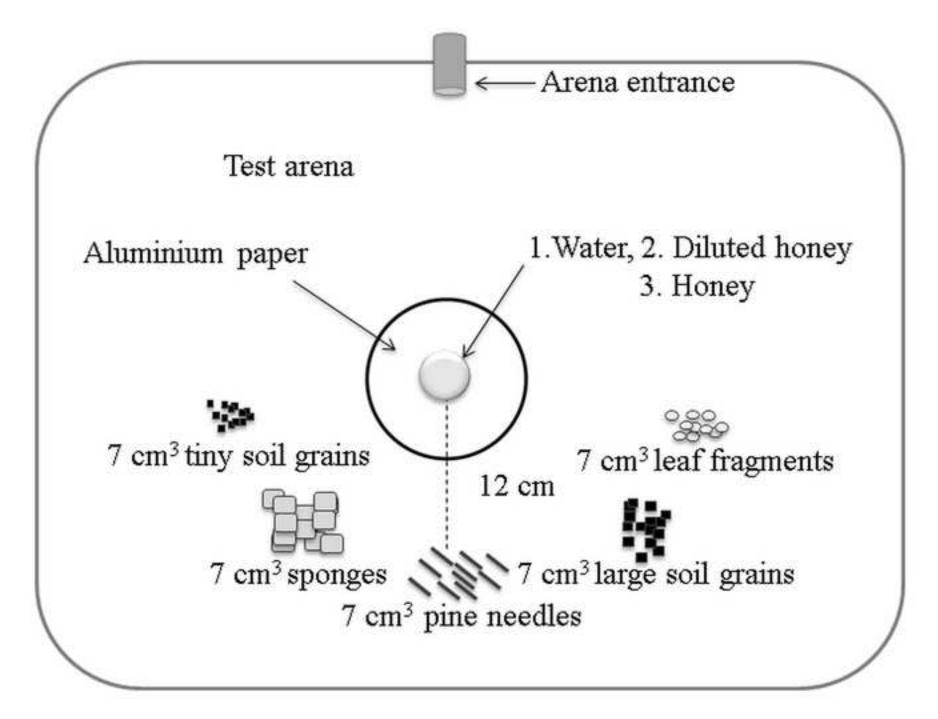
535 types are depicted by different colours.

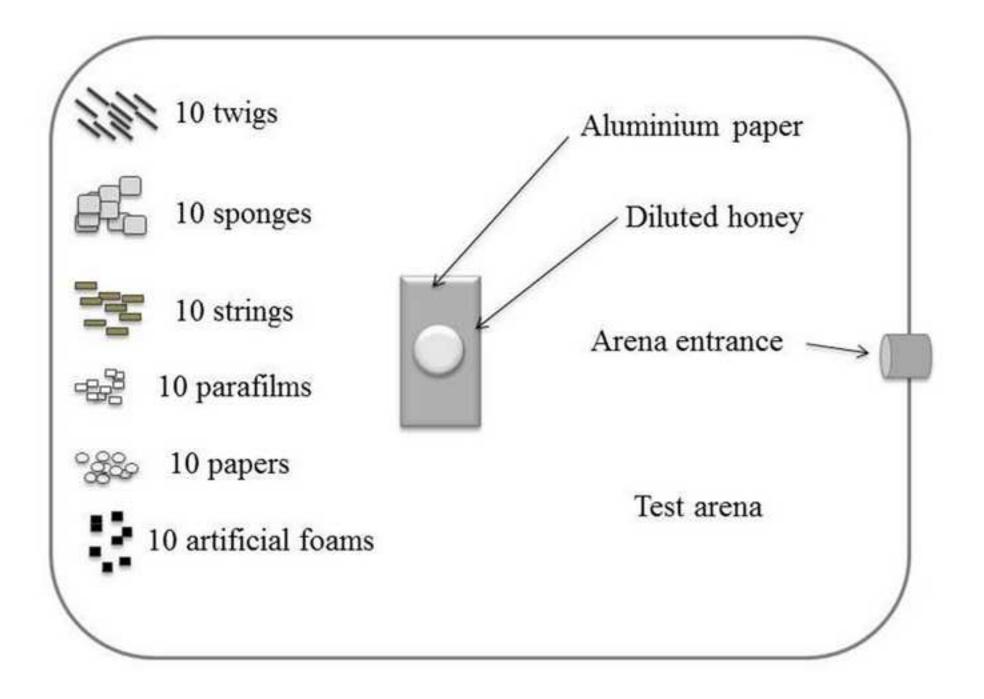
Figure A4. Summed number of tools transported on the baits and into the nest during the
three trials (box plots show: median, quartiles and range). Different letters above boxes
represent groups that differ significantly from each other.

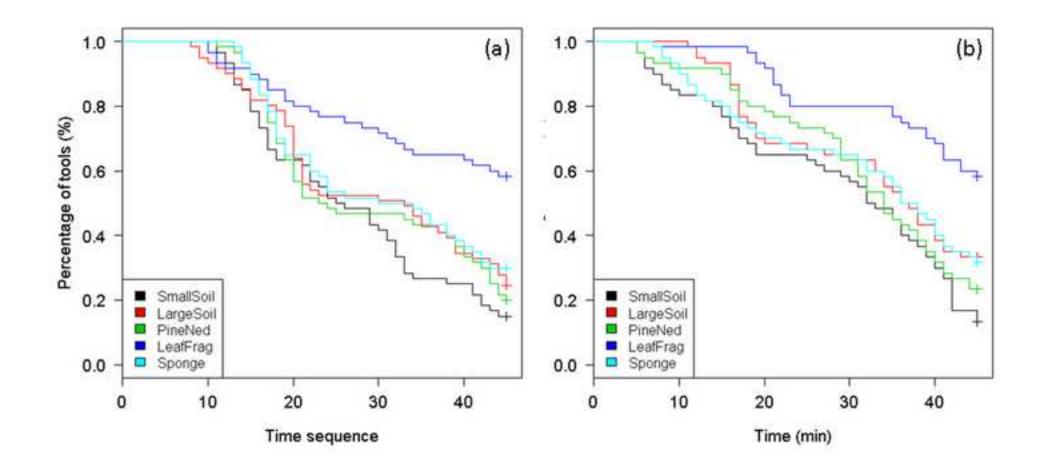
- 539 Figure A5. Estimated functions of tools transport time on the baits (a; c; e) and into the nests
- 540 (b, d, f) in the 1st (a, b), 5th (c, d) and 10th (e, f) experiment by *Aphaenogaster senilis* workers
- 541 (Log-rank test). Different tool types are depicted by different colours.

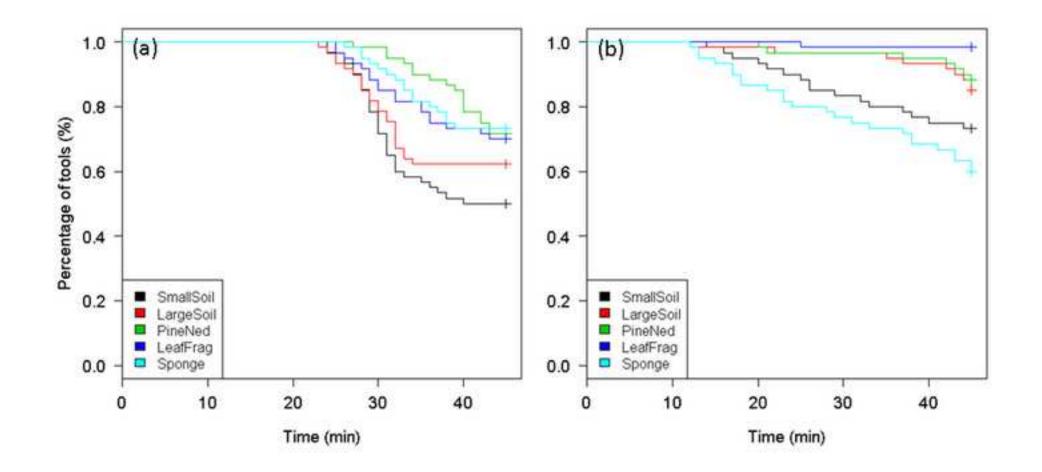
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

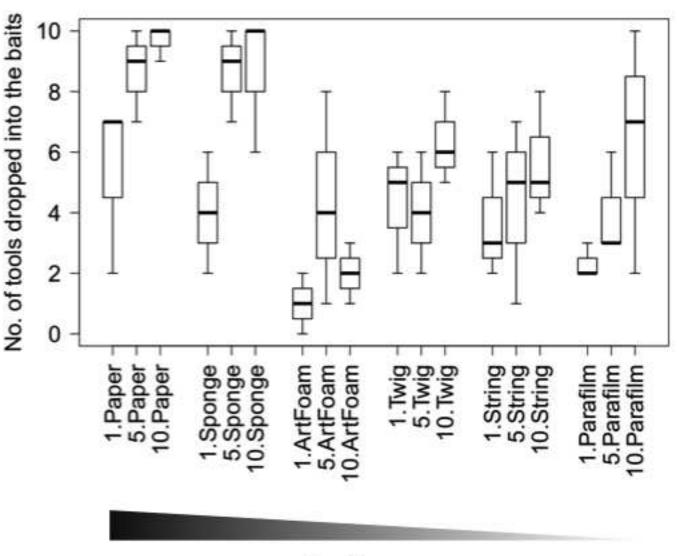
Supported by European Commission (FP7-MC-ERG-2009-256524 to PdE). We thank Paul Devienne for technical advice and support and Christophe Féron for statistical advice. We are grateful to anonymous reviewers for their comments and suggestions.



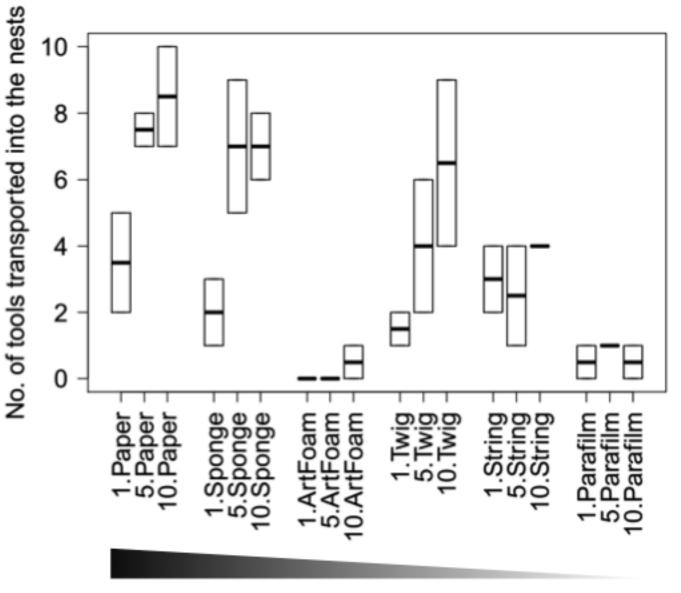




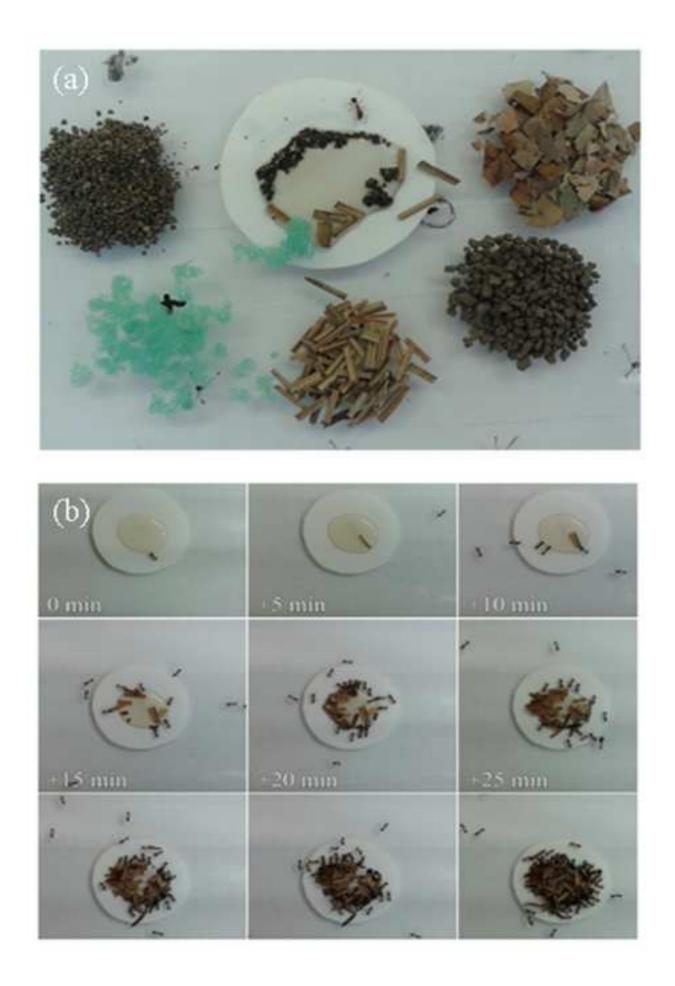


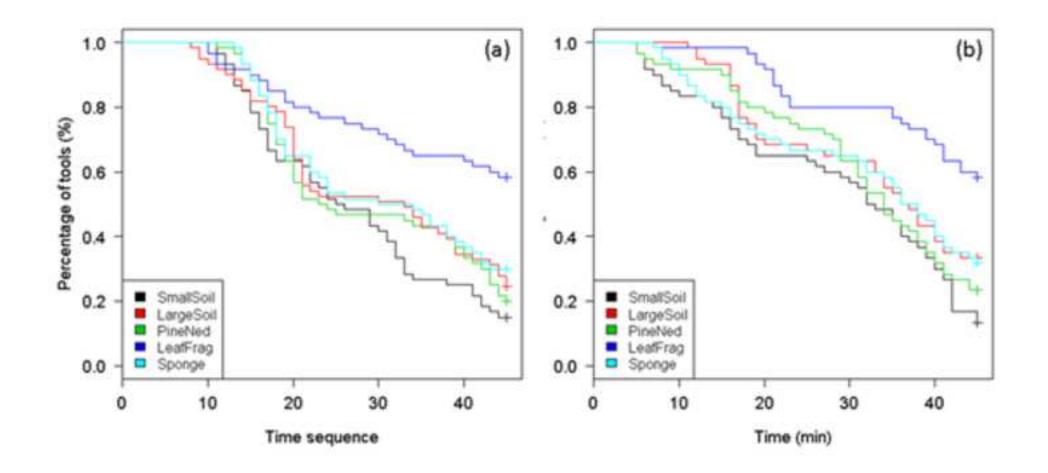


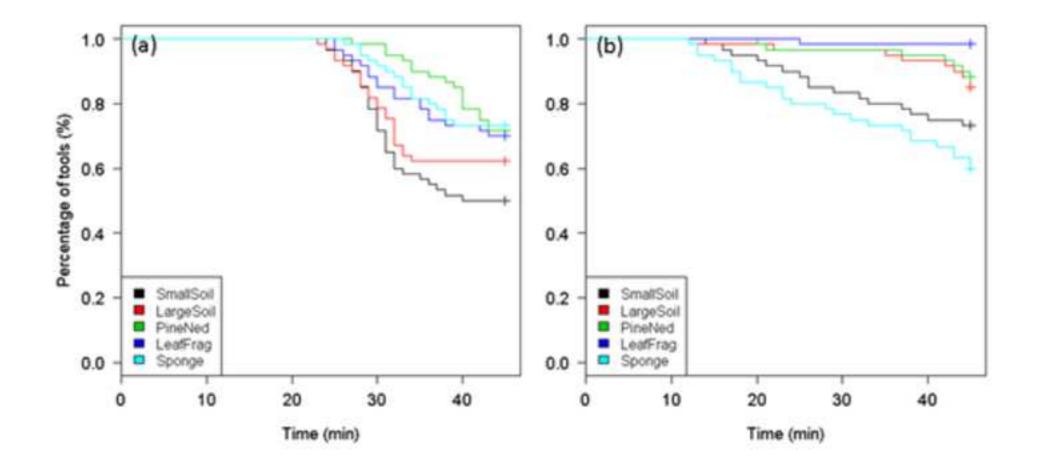
Soaking power



Soaking power







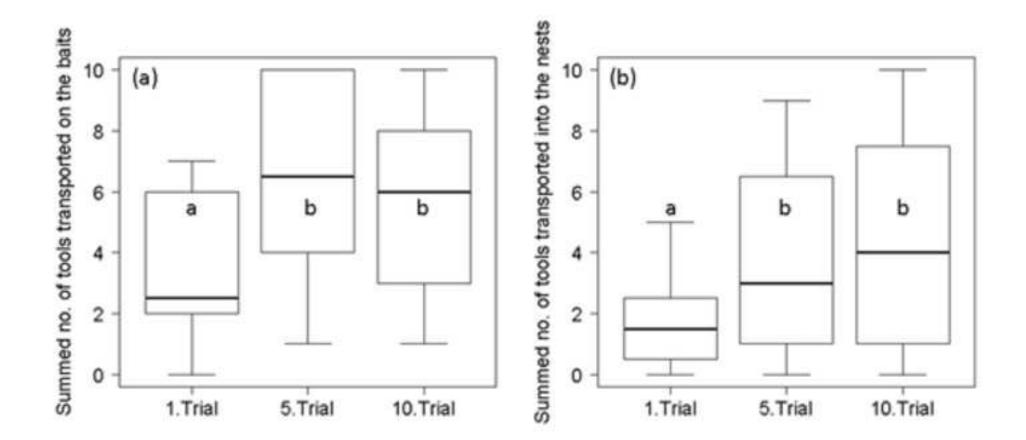
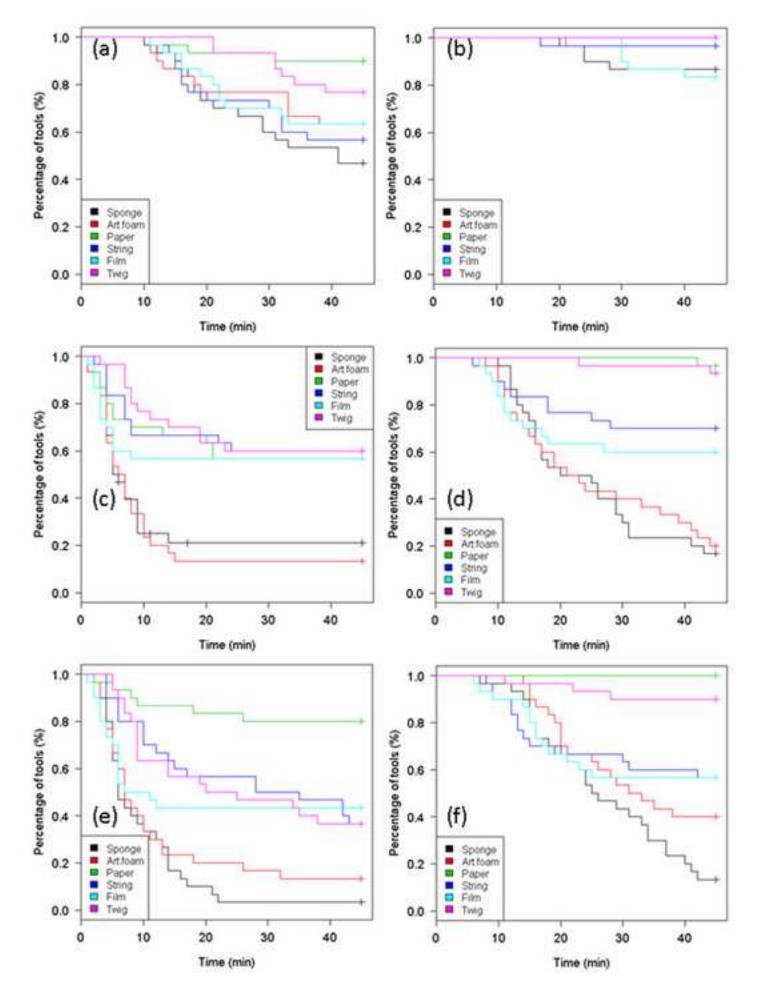


Figure 5A Click here to download high resolution image



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