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1 Title: Social and private information influence the decision making of Australian meat ants (*Iridomyrmex*
2 *purpureus*)

3

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15

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17 Collective decision-making, trail pheromone, route memory, private information, public information, synergy

18

19 Abstract

20 For social animals, decision-making is influenced by both social information provided by the group, and private
21 information based on the individual's personal experience. Social insects make excellent study systems for
22 understanding how social and private information is used by individuals to influence their navigational route
23 choice, and thereby influence the collective decision-making strategy of the group. Using colonies of the
24 Australian meat ant, *Iridomyrmex purpureus*, we demonstrate that when individual workers are trained to a
25 rewarding arm in a Y maze, the trained ants use private information (memory) in route choice when social
26 information (trail pheromone) is experimentally removed and have no preference when private information and
27 social information are in direct conflict with each other. Additional experience did not provide a strong training
28 effect, such that ants returning after their first training trip tended to choose the path they had been trained on
29 (private information) and subsequent trips did not have a significant additional effect on this initial preference.

30

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33

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35 We have no competing interests.

36

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40

41 Introduction

42 Animals, including ants, can increase their probability of successfully travelling from one point to the other by
43 using a range of navigational information including memory of landmarks (Collett and Collett 2002, Cheng et
44 al. 2012), the position of the sun, moon or stars (Wehner 1984, Warrant and Dacke 2016), magnetic fields
45 (Gould 1984, Banks and Srygley 2003, Buehlmann et al. 2012), the number of steps taken (Wolf 2011)
46 chemosensory (Aron et al. 1989, Evison et al. 2008), and/or visual cues (Graham and Cheng 2009). Some
47 animals can also incorporate ‘social information’ provided by other animals to make their own trips more
48 efficient or reliable. Social information can be passed from one individual to another either deliberately (e.g. the
49 pheromone trails of ants) or incidentally (e.g. game trails, see; Perna and Latty 2014). Social information can
50 provide reassurance that an individual is on the correct path thereby reducing cognitive load (Czaczkes et al.
51 2011), provide information about the shortest route to a resource (Goss et al. 1989), warn of predator risks
52 (Abbott and Dukas 2009), and provide information about food quality (Beckers et al. 1990, Seeley et al. 1991,
53 Seeley et al. 2000, Reid et al. 2012, Latty and Beekman 2013).

54

55 Social information can be relatively cheap to collect, as the individual need not explore the environment to
56 select a route (Laland 2004). However the costs of collecting social information can vary depending on a wide
57 variety of factors such as the distribution of resources in the environment, the risk of predation, the rate of
58 environmental change, the strategies of other individuals and the time it takes to collect information (Grüter and
59 Leadbeater 2014). For example, if resources are common and easy to locate, then the cost of exploration might

60 be relatively low compared to the potential cost of trail-following to a resource which might rapidly become
61 overcrowded and depleted.

62

63 Social and private information can act synergistically when they are in agreement, providing the animal with
64 reassurance that it is heading in the appropriate direction. For example, trained *Lasius niger* workers will travel
65 faster along a memorised route when pheromone is present; the pheromone appears to improve individual
66 confidence in the selected route (Czaczkes et al. 2011). Trouble can arise, however, when socially acquired
67 information conflicts with the routing information stored in an individual's memory. For example, an ant forager
68 leaving the nest can choose between pheromone trails laid by nestmates (social information) or her personal
69 route memory associated with a particularly rich food source in the opposite direction. Similarly, foraging honey
70 bees often choose between prioritising their own memory of previously located food sources, or abandoning
71 these sites in favour of foraging at a novel location communicated to them by the waggle dances of other
72 foragers (Grüter and Ratnieks 2011). These conflict scenarios allow us to determine in which situations an
73 organism will prioritise socially acquired information over individually acquired information and vice versa.
74 Social insects vary in their use of social and private information with some species prioritising social
75 (*Iridomyrmex humilis* and *Lasius niger* Aron et al. 1993, *Apis mellifera* Grüter and Ratnieks 2011), and others
76 prioritising private (e.g. *Paraponera clavata* Harrison et al. 1989, Dechaume-Moncharmont et al. 2005, *L. niger*
77 Grüter et al. 2011, for a review see; Grüter and Leadbeater 2014). Experience and memory can influence the use
78 of social and private information; for example, Argentine ants are more likely to ignore trail information in
79 favour of memory if they have made >4 trips to a rewarding food source (Aron et al. 1993). Similarly, honey
80 bees will disregard directional information encoded in the waggle dance if they remember the route to a
81 particular flower (Grüter et al. 2008).

82

83 Here we study the social navigation strategy of the Australian meat ant (*Iridomyrmex purpureus*) when faced
84 with conflicts between individually acquired and socially available information. Studying social navigation
85 under natural field conditions allows ants to take advantage of the wide variety of informational cues that are
86 normally denied them in lab studies, such as the complex field and sky panorama, changing light intensities, and
87 environmental weather variations, and also allows the use of complete colonies, rather than colony fragments. A
88 recent study conducted by Card et al. (2016) showed that meat ants were more likely to prioritise private over
89 social information when navigating back to their nest. Another field study on social navigation in *Acromyrmex*

90 *lobicornis* also demonstrated that private information was more influential than social information. However, if
91 social information was experimentally increased most individuals would switch to social information, increasing
92 the flexibility of colony decisions based on broader environmental fluctuations (Elizalde and Farji-Brener 2012).
93 Our work examines the relative importance of private and social information at the individual level for
94 recruitment purposes, and further examines the influence of knowledgeable individuals on naïve foragers.

95

96 Some studies of social navigation remove focal ants immediately after they make a decision about which path to
97 choose. This is done to prevent focal ants from influencing the decision making of following ants by, for
98 example, laying pheromones. However, we chose not to remove returning ants so as not to disrupt their natural
99 pheromone deposition behaviour. Pheromone deposition by ‘trained’ ants is part of the colony’s behavioural
100 repertoire and thus may play a key role in dictating how social and private information are integrated as part of a
101 colony-level social navigation strategy. Further, we use the opportunity to examine the impact of multiple
102 journeys upon the behaviour of ants, rather than a binary examination of trained versus untrained, as the level of
103 experience may significantly contribute to individual and group behaviour. Rather than removing ants after they
104 cross a decision line, we use statistical techniques to investigate the interplay between social and private
105 information.

106

107 Methods

108 *Study species*

109 *Iridomyrmex purpureus* is an ecologically dominant ant species found in savannah woodlands and grasslands
110 throughout Australia (Shattuck 2000). They feed on a variety of foods including seeds (Campbell and Clarke
111 2006), small invertebrates (Mobbs et al. 1978) and the honeydew secreted by sap sucking insects (Greaves and
112 Hughes 1974). Mature *Iridomyrmex purpureus* colonies can contain hundreds of thousands of individuals inside
113 large, distinct nest mounds which the ants clear of vegetation and cover with small sticks and rocks (Greaves
114 and Hughes 1974). Workers of this species build distinct trunk trails between their food sources and their nests,
115 often clearing the trails of vegetation so that they resemble roads through the undergrowth (Greaves and Hughes
116 1974).

117

118 *General experimental setup*

119 Colonies of *I. purpureus* were studied on the grounds of the Western Sydney University Hawkesbury campus in
120 Richmond, New South Wales, Australia, from October 2015 through to February 2016. The field site was within
121 a large remnant patch of Cumberland plains woodland, dominated primarily by open stands of *Eucalyptus* trees.
122 Colonies tended to be located in bright sunny areas such as beside the dirt track and in forest clearings.

123

124 Our general experimental design consisted of Y decision mazes constructed from Corflute™ plastic sheets. On
125 each of the arms of the Y, a clean piece of paper covered the Corflute™ as a substrate for the deposition of
126 pheromone. The Y maze was elevated off the ground on plastic containers to prevent ants from bypassing the
127 maze and climbing directly to the food source (Fig. 1). We started the training phase of experiments by placing
128 the base of the Y onto the edge of a colony. The 0.5M sucrose syrup food source was then moved in stages from
129 the junction of the Y to the final location at the end of the training arm as follows. When 5 ants were seen
130 feeding at the junction of the Y, the feeder was then moved halfway up the arm that served as the training arm
131 for that replicate. After 5 minutes, the feeder was then moved to its final location at the end of the training arm.
132 The training arm was chosen randomly to be on the right or left, to remove any underlying turning bias.
133 Experiments commenced once 30 ants had been trained to the feeder at its final location. Each of the 30 colonies
134 was tested once.

135

136 *Experiment 1: Social vs private information*

137 Using the general setup described above, we examined the choice of trained ants under three treatments:
138 Pheromone Removal, Social-Private Conflict, or a Control. To distinguish trained ants from untrained ants (who
139 had never visited the feeder during the training phase), we marked all ants that arrived at the feeder during the
140 training phase with a paint mark on the gaster (Reeves acrylic paints). The experiment began once 30 ants were
141 paint-marked as ‘trained’ (so had visited the feeder at least once) at which time the feeder was removed and new
142 ants were blocked from entering the Y maze. We then applied one of the three treatments described below. Once
143 the treatment was set up, food sources were placed at the end of each arm of the Y maze. Ants were then
144 allowed to return to the Y maze. To assess the number of ants travelling on each maze arm, we filmed the
145 behaviour of ants for 5 minutes after the treatment began.

146

147 During the Pheromone Removal treatment (n = 11 colonies), the pieces of paper lining the maze floor were
148 removed and replaced with new clean papers to remove any pheromone signal. If ants are capable of using route

149 memory, then we expect trained individuals to travel down the previously trained arm, while untrained ants
150 would have an equal chance of going down either arm. During the Social-Private Conflict treatment (n = 9
151 colonies), the pieces of paper lining the floor of each maze arm were swapped so that the pheromone trail led to
152 the previously untrained arm. This treatment created an informational conflict such that trained ants needed to
153 decide whether to follow the trail (social information) or their own internal route memory produced during
154 training. Finally, during the Control treatment (n = 10 colonies), the pieces of paper were lifted and replaced in
155 the same configuration. The Control treatment replicated the same disturbance to the apparatus as in the
156 previous two experiments, but with no change in the direction of the pheromone trail.

157

158 For each treatment, we recorded the choice (training arm or non-training arm) for the first 20 ants to cross the
159 decision line two thirds of the way up each arm, measured from the Y junction. It is possible that an ant's
160 decision is influenced by the decision of ants that go before it, particularly if those ants deposit pheromones.
161 Thus, for each of the first 20 ants (with the exception of the very first ant), we also recorded the decisions of all
162 previous ants.

163

164 *Statistical analysis*

165 To assess the effect of experience and social information on arm choice we used a mixed effects logistic
166 regression model with focal ant choice as a dependent variable (right arm coded as 1 and left arm as 0,
167 regardless of which arm was the training arm). As independent variables we used ant experience (untrained vs
168 trained, binary indicators), the identity of the training arm in the focal replicate (-1 for left, 1 for right), the
169 number of previous ants choosing the left arm (Number Left), and the number of previous ants choosing the
170 right arm (Number Right). The effect of training was encoded as an interaction term and a random intercept
171 term was also included, based on a unique identifier for each experiment. This analysis allows us to tease apart
172 the relative role of social and private information, including the influence of the decisions of previous ants.

173

174 In our model, the treatment type was encoded as an interaction with each term, such that we identified a separate
175 effect for training and social influences for each treatment. This encoding can be described in two ways: (i)
176 absolute encoding, where we identify effects for each of Control, Pheromone-Removal and Social-Private
177 Conflict treatments; and (ii) relative encoding, where we identify a baseline effect for the Control group and
178 then identify effects for the other two treatments relative to this baseline. These two models are fundamentally

179 mathematically equivalent. We present results from the first to describe effect sizes for each treatment. The
180 second is used to test whether these effect sizes are significantly different between treatments.

181

182 In Table 1, we present the count data of the absolute numbers of ants (trained and untrained) to choose the
183 training side in the Control, Pheromone Removal, and Social-Private Conflict treatments, as well as the number
184 of individuals choosing the correct arm as a percentage.

185

186 *Experiment 2: How does experience affect information use?*

187 We wanted to determine if workers which had made more visits to the feeder during training (i.e. were more
188 experienced) were more likely to ignore conflicting social information. We used the same setup described above
189 to train ants toward one arm of the feeder (n = 11 colonies). To quantify experience, we marked every ant at the
190 feeder with a small dot of acrylic paint on its gaster. The colour of the paint corresponded to the number of
191 times the ant had been observed at the feeder, meaning that ants who visited multiple times were marked with a
192 new paint colour each time. Ants were marked at 5-minute intervals. This interval was chosen because the high
193 density of foraging ants prevented us from maintaining a full record of every ant's trip count simultaneously. To
194 determine the appropriate timing intervals for marking individuals, feeding times were recorded from foraging
195 trips pooled across all treatments in experiment 1, as treatment had no significant impact on feeding time (two-
196 way ANOVA, $p=0.099$). Trained ants fed for 2:20 mins \pm 7 secs (n = 50), and untrained ants fed for 2:59 mins \pm
197 8 secs (n = 50), and the travel distance from the nest to the food source was roughly 1 minute, thus, we can be
198 confident that our 5-minute interval was appropriate for keeping track of the number of visits of each ant, while
199 being unlikely to result in false trips being recorded for ants which were stationary for long periods. Once at
200 least 5 ants had each experienced at least 3 return trips or 40 minutes had elapsed, the food source was removed,
201 ants were blocked from the Y maze, and the paper on each arm was moved to the other arm (as in the Social-
202 Private Conflict treatment). New food sources were placed at the end of each arm and ants were allowed access
203 to the Y maze.

204

205 *Statistical analysis*

206 A further analysis was carried out in the same manner as Experiment 1, that is, we recorded the choice (training
207 arm or non-training arm) for the first 20 ants to cross the decision line. We used a mixed effects logistic
208 regression model with focal ant choice as a dependent variable (right arm coded as 1 and left arm as 0). As

209 independent variables we used ant experience (marked, marked > once, not marked), the identity of the training
210 arm in the focal replicate (-1 for left, 1 for right), the number of previous ants choosing the left arm (Number
211 Left), and the number of previous ants choosing the right arm (Number Right). The effect of multiple training
212 trips was encoded as an interaction term between the independent variables and the identity of the training arm,
213 to assess the degree to which multiple training trips influenced the decisions of experienced ants. A random
214 intercept term was also included, based on a unique identifier for each experiment. Note that ants which visited
215 the feeder at least once were all labelled as 'marked', while those that visited the feeder more than once were
216 labelled as both 'marked' and 'marked > once'. Therefore, 'marked > once' represents the marginal effect of
217 additional experience beyond the first visit to the feeder.

218

219 Results

220 *Experiment 1: Social vs private information*

221 *Summary statistics*

222 During the Control treatment (trails left in original position), 90% of trained ants chose the training side,
223 compared to 83% of untrained ants (Table 1).

224

225 During the Pheromone Removal treatment, 80 % of trained ants chose the side to which they were trained,
226 compared to 68% of the untrained ants choosing the training side (Table 1).

227

228 In the Social-Private Conflict treatment, 57% of trained ants chose the training side, while only 33% of
229 untrained ants chose the training arm (Table 1).

230

231 *Regression model results*

232 The result of the absolute coding regression model for the Control showed that both the trained and untrained
233 ants were significantly attracted to the training arm ($p < 0.001$ and $p = 0.002$, respectively; Fig 2). For the
234 Pheromone Removal, trained ants showed a significant attraction to the training arm ($p < 0.001$), whereas
235 untrained ants showed no significant attraction ($p = 0.163$; Fig 2). For the Social-Private Conflict, trained ants
236 showed no significant attraction ($p = 0.283$), whereas untrained ants were significantly attracted to the non-
237 training arm containing the newly relocated pheromone trail ($p = 0.017$; Fig 2; for full absolute coding

238 regression statistics, see Table S1). In each case, the choices of previous ants had no significant effect on
239 decisions made by each ant ($p > 0.2$ across all treatments).

240

241 In the relative coding regression model, there was no significant difference in the preference of trained ants for
242 the training arm between the Control and Pheromone Removal treatments ($p = 0.095$), that is, trained ants were
243 attracted to the training arm to a similar degree when presented with the Control, or the Pheromone Removal
244 treatments. Untrained ants were marginally more attracted to the training arm in the Pheromone Removal
245 treatment than in the Control treatment ($p = 0.049$). Comparing the Control with the Social-Private Conflict
246 treatment, there was a significant difference between the preferences of trained ants and untrained ants for the
247 training arm ($p = 0.001$, and $p < 0.001$, respectively; for full relative coding regression statistics, see Table S1) -
248 both trained ants and untrained ants were more attracted to the training arm during the Social-Private Conflict
249 treatment than they were during the Control.

250

251 *Experiment 2: How does experience affect information use?*

252 Our secondary analysis shows that there is no significant additional effect of extra training trips to the feeder (p
253 $= 0.484$), once the first trip is accounted for ($p = 0.008$; Fig. 3 and Table S2). Ants returning after their first
254 training trip have a significant preference for the training arm (i.e. their private information), but subsequent
255 trips do not show a significant additional preference for the training arm. The number of ants returning for 3 or
256 more training trips was low, so we grouped all return trips into either singly returning ants ($n = 66$) or multiply
257 returning ants ($n = 19$). The number of trips on the training arm did not have a significant effect on the
258 behaviour of following ants. These results suggest that trained ants rely on their private information for the first
259 return journey, and subsequent journeys provide no additional fidelity to the use of private information - the
260 training arm does not become more attractive when compared to the first return journey, regardless of the
261 number of times the ant returns to that arm. This supports the findings of Experiment 1, where the number of
262 journeys was not accounted for and the time period suggests the possibility of multiple return visits. Here we
263 find that there is no significant preference of trained ants for the training arm in the Social-Private Conflict
264 treatment.

265

266 Discussion

267 When faced with a conflict between trail-encoded social information and private route memory, our results
268 show an impact of training, and utilisation of private route memory by trained individuals, however this result
269 was inconsistent. In our first experiment, our regression model showed that untrained ants tended to follow the
270 pheromone (i.e. the social information) while trained ants had no significant preference for the social or private
271 information. However, in our second experiment, we found that a single training trip was all that was required to
272 induce a preference, demonstrating a preference of trained ants for their private information when social and
273 private information are in conflict, with additional training trips having no additional effect on preference
274 (though the number of ants returning for many multiple trips may be too low to allow us to make a strong
275 statement on this). These results do not show a strong impact of memory on routing decisions in meat ants, but
276 does indicate a slight preference for private information after an initial experience; one previous trip was
277 sufficient to negate the effect of trail pheromones in trained ants, while untrained ants showed a significant
278 preference for the pheromone in both the Control and Social-Private Conflict scenarios. Our study provides an
279 interesting insight into the development of trail following behaviour and would complement future studies that
280 examine the longer term development of trail foraging in this species.

281

282 A prior experiment on meat ants (conducted independently of our study) found that trained meat ants were also
283 more likely to prioritise memory in a navigational context (Card et al. 2016). The researchers examined the role
284 of memory and pheromone trails in the navigation of meat ants when displaced from their foraging trails. In this
285 instance, individual memories are prioritised. Our study examined the role of memory and pheromone during
286 recruitment and multiple visits to a food source, and when combined with Card et al's (2016) work, indicate that
287 memory has a strong impact on the routing decisions of these ants in several behavioural contexts. Our results
288 also agree with experimental findings on *Lasius niger* (Grüter et al. 2011) and on the modelling results of
289 Letendre and Moses (2013). However, while *L. niger* and *I. purpureus* preferentially use private route memory,
290 the Argentine ant *Linepithema humile* appears to prioritise trail based information (Aron et al. 1993). Resource
291 stability is likely to play a role by influencing the potential accuracy of both memory and pheromones. For long-
292 lasting, renewable resources that are fixed in space, either private or social information will lead a forager to a
293 food source. When a resource disappears, or a new one is discovered, then neither source of information is
294 correct. Prioritising private memory information allows the handful of foragers in possession of new, accurate
295 information to override the defunct social information. They can then update and correct the social information

296 by laying their own pheromone trail to the new location, which is reinforced through positive feedback of trail
297 laying by their nestmates.

298

299 Although no long term data exists, the foraging environment for meat ants is thought to be quite stable, as their
300 main source of carbohydrate is the sugary secretions of sap sucking insects located in trees (Greaves and Hughes
301 1974, van Wilgenburg and Elgar 2007). However, meat ants also scavenge and hunt prey items for protein,
302 which are far more ephemeral resources. It is possible that the foraging system is optimised for the retrieval of
303 protein, rather than carbohydrate, or has evolved towards a compromise method for obtaining both resources.
304 Future research would do well to determine how the persistence and stability of a resource influences the
305 tendency of meat ants to prioritise route memory over pheromone trails.

306

307 Alternatively, the prioritising of memory might be due to the instability and impermanence of the trail networks.
308 The decay rate of pheromones is related to temperature such that at high temperatures, ants can no longer follow
309 trails (Van Oudenhove et al. 2011). Ruano et al. (2000) found that ant species known to be active at high soil
310 temperatures tend not to use trail pheromones as a recruitment signal. Meat ants live in arid zones where
311 temperatures can be high; indeed, meat ants seem to prefer to build nests in sunny, open areas. In a field study,
312 Andrew et al. (2013) found meat ants walking across soil surfaces that exceeded 57°C. Under such hot
313 conditions, trail pheromones likely evaporate too quickly to be of use. In the face of such ephemeral trail
314 pheromones, it might make sense for meat ants to prioritise memory-based information. Few studies before ours
315 have examined the use of social and private information in ants under natural field conditions, so little is known
316 about which ecological correlates drive the relative use of each information type. Field based studies allow
317 social insects to utilise informational cues available only under natural field conditions, including, but not
318 limited to, patterns of polarised light, the field panorama and its complexity, fine scale environmental weather
319 variations, other chemosensory cues, and further work can build upon these findings to understand which of
320 these variables influence the use of private and social information.

321

322 Trail laying ant species are often conceptualised as being heavily reliant on trail following in order to organise
323 their foraging efforts. Recent work has shown that this view is overly simplistic, with ants using and integrating
324 navigational information from a variety of sources (For examples see; Collett 1996, Collett and Collett 2002,
325 Reid et al. 2011, Buehlmann et al. 2012, Ramsch et al. 2012, von Thienen et al. 2016). It now appears that at

326 least some ant species use trail pheromones in much the same way as humans use GPS systems; inexperienced
327 individuals rely heavily on social information provided by the GPS/trail, while experienced individuals can
328 override social directions if they conflict with their own knowledge of the environment. The ability to
329 selectively use or ignore social information may be a key feature of many, if not all, trail-laying ant species.

330

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Figure legends:

Fig. 1 Y-maze choice experiment in contact with a meat ant colony in the field

Fig. 2 Without pheromone, trained ants rely more on their experience, while untrained ants show no preference. When pheromone and experience are in conflict, trained ants have no preference, while untrained ants rely on public information. Results of mixed effects logistic regression model of Y-maze arm choice of foragers in each treatment in Experiment 1. Stars denote groups in which a significant difference was found in route choice ($p < 0.05$, Table S1). Positive values indicate a preference for the training arm, negative values indicate a preference for the other arm. Figure created in R version 3.3.3

Fig. 3 A single training trip (Training side: Marked) is enough to create a foraging preference. Results of mixed effects logistic regression model of Y-maze arm choice of foragers in each treatment in Experiment 2, separated into level of experience of the training arm. Positive values indicate a preference for the training arm, negative values indicate a preference for the other arm. All ants that visited the feeder at least once are labelled as 'marked'. Ants that visited the feeder more than once are labelled as both 'marked' and 'marked > once' effects, and thus 'marked > once' represents the marginal effect of extra experience beyond the first visit. Figure created in R version 3.3.3

Table 1. Social versus private information summary statistics.

Supplementary Table 1. Results of the absolute and relative coding regression analysis for Experiment 1; bold indicates significant values ($p < 0.05$).

Supplementary Table 2. Results of mixed effects logistic regression model for Experiment 2; bold indicates significant values ($p < 0.05$).

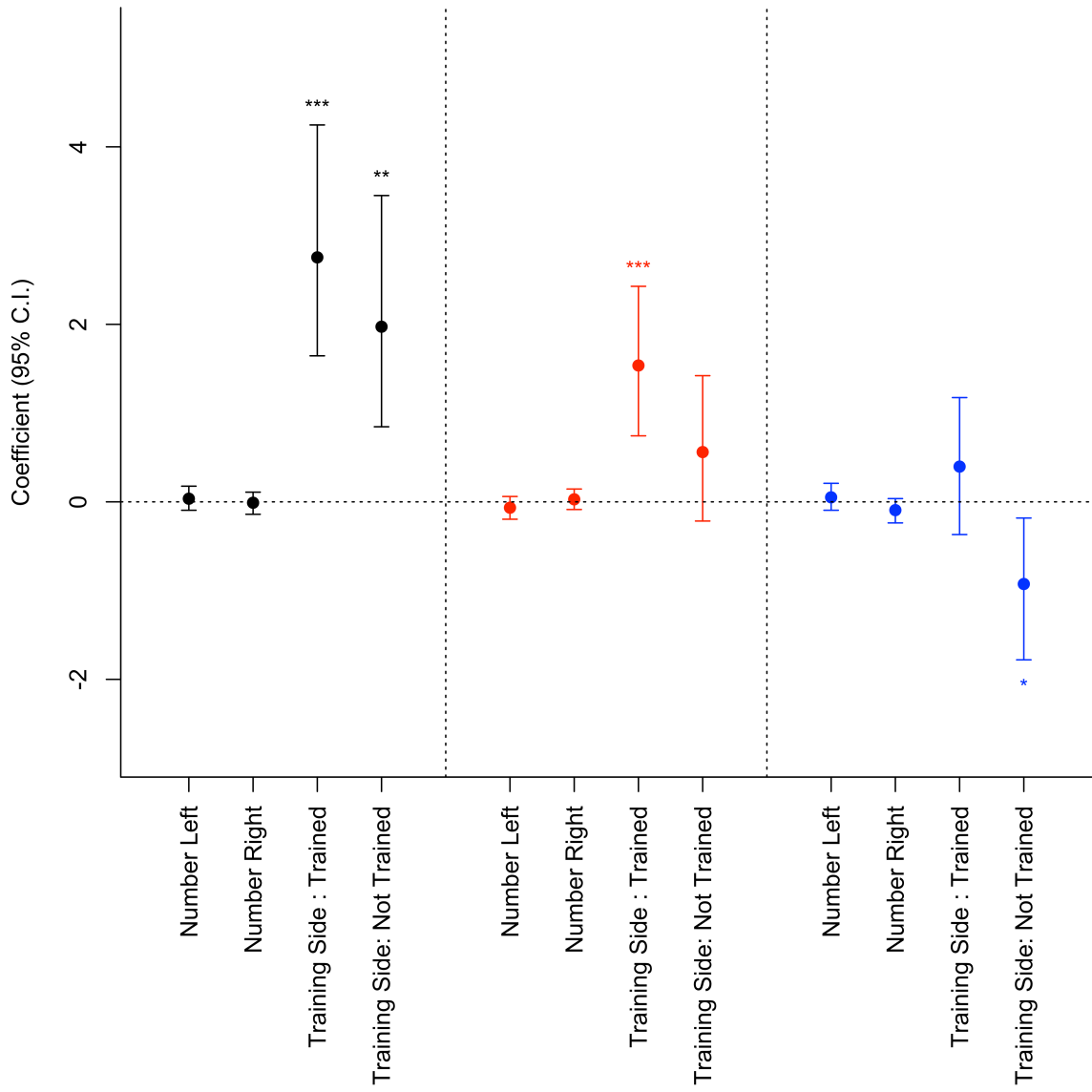


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Figure 1



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Figure 2

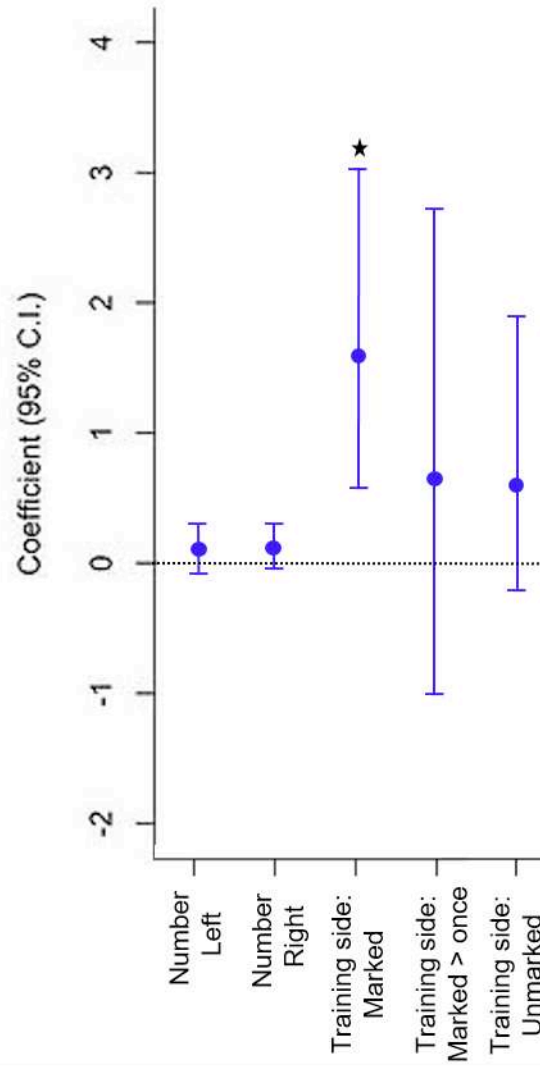


Figure 3

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Control	count	success
all ants	172/200	86%
marked	76/84	90%
unmarked	96/116	83%

**Pheromone
Removal**

all ants	149/200	75%
marked	86/107	80%
unmarked	63/93	68%

Conflict

all ants	80/180	44%
marked	48/84	57%
unmarked	32/96	33%

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Table 1

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