

# Tropical arboreal ants form dominance hierarchies over nesting resources

Senay Yitbarek <sup>Corresp., 1</sup>, Stacy Philpott <sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> University of California, Berkeley, Berkeley, United States

<sup>2</sup> University of California, Santa Cruz, Santa Cruz, United States

Corresponding Author: Senay Yitbarek  
Email address: senay@berkeley.edu

Interspecific dominance hierarchies have been widely reported across animal systems. High-ranking species are expected to monopolize more resources than low-ranking species via resource monopolization. In some ant species, dominance hierarchies have been used to explain species coexistence and community structure. However, it remains unclear whether or in what contexts dominance hierarchies occur in tropical ant communities. This study seeks to examine whether arboreal twig-nesting ants competing for nesting resources in a Mexican coffee agricultural ecosystem are arranged in a linear dominance hierarchy. We described the dominance relationships among 10 species of ants and measured the uncertainty and steepness of the inferred dominance hierarchy. We also assessed the orderliness of the hierarchy by considering species interactions at the network level. Based on the randomized Elo-rating method, we found that the twig-nesting ant species *Myrmelachista mexicana* ranked highest in the ranking, while *Pseudomyrmex ejectus* was ranked as the lowest in the hierarchy. Our results show that the hierarchy was intermediate in its steepness, suggesting that the probability of higher ranked species winning contests against lower ranked species was fairly high. Motif analysis and significant excess of triads further revealed that the species networks were largely transitive. This study highlights that some tropical arboreal ant communities organize into dominance hierarchies.

1 **Tropical arboreal ants form dominance hierarchies over nesting resources**

2

3 Senay Yitbarek<sup>1§</sup>

4 Stacy M. Philpott<sup>2</sup>

5

6 <sup>1</sup>Department of Integrative Biology

7 University of California, Berkeley

8 VLSB 5017, Berkeley, California 94720

9

10 <sup>2</sup>Environmental Studies Department

11 University of California, Santa Cruz

12 1156 High Street

13 Santa Cruz, CA 95064

14

15 Corresponding Author:

16 Senay Yitbarek

17 VLSB 5017, Berkeley, CA 94720. USA

18 Email address: [senay@berkeley.edu](mailto:senay@berkeley.edu)

19

20

**21 Abstract**

22 Interspecific dominance hierarchies have been widely reported across animal systems. High-  
23 ranking species are expected to monopolize more resources than low-ranking species via  
24 resource monopolization. In some ant species, dominance hierarchies have been used to explain  
25 species coexistence and community structure. However, it remains unclear whether or in what  
26 contexts dominance hierarchies occur in tropical ant communities. This study seeks to examine  
27 whether arboreal twig-nesting ants competing for nesting resources in a Mexican coffee  
28 agricultural ecosystem are arranged in a linear dominance hierarchy. We described the  
29 dominance relationships among 10 species of ants and measured the uncertainty and steepness of  
30 the inferred dominance hierarchy. We also assessed the orderliness of the hierarchy by  
31 considering species interactions at the network level. Based on the randomized Elo-rating  
32 method, we found that the twig-nesting ant species *Myrmelachista mexicana* ranked highest in  
33 the ranking, while *Pseudomyrmex ejectus* was ranked as the lowest in the hierarchy. Our results  
34 show that the hierarchy was intermediate in its steepness, suggesting that the probability of  
35 higher ranked species winning contests against lower ranked species was fairly high. Motif  
36 analysis and significant excess of triads further revealed that the species networks were largely  
37 transitive. This study highlights that some tropical arboreal ant communities organize into  
38 dominance hierarchies.

39

**40 Key Words: dominance hierarchy, arboreal ants, interspecific competition, networks**

41

## 42 **Introduction**

43           A long-standing goal in ecology has been to determine the underlying mechanisms that  
44 give rise to species coexistence in local communities, especially in assemblages with multiple  
45 competing species (MacArthur 1958, Hutchinson 1959). Numerous mechanisms have been  
46 proposed for maintaining species coexistence (Wright 2002, Silvertown 2004). Interspecific  
47 competitive trade-offs, whereby the dominance of a particular species in one environment is  
48 offset by the dominance of another species in a different environment, can lead to spatial  
49 segregation between species (Tilman 1994, Levine et al. 2004). These interspecific interactions  
50 are thought to lead to the long-term stable coexistence of ecologically similar species (Levins  
51 1979, Holt et al. 1994, Chesson 2000, Bever 2003, Rudolf and Antonovics 2005), and may also  
52 be characterized by dominance hierarchies. Dominance hierarchies have been observed in a wide  
53 range of taxa, from vertebrates to invertebrates (Chase and Seitz 2011). Species can be ranked  
54 into a hierarchy based on their behavioral dominance during interspecific competitive encounters  
55 for resources. (Davidson 1998). For example, dominance ranking was positively associated with  
56 body mass in bird species, with heavier species more likely to monopolize food sources in  
57 contrast to lighter species(Francis et al. 2018). However, dominance rankings can be determined  
58 by many other factors including age, sex, aggressiveness, and previous encounters(Haley et al.  
59 1994, Zucker and Murray 1996). Furthermore, interspecific dominance hierarchies have been  
60 used to understand patterns of local species coexistence in ecological communities (Morse 1974,  
61 Schoener 1983).

62           In ant communities, dominance hierarchies have been used to examine interspecific  
63 tradeoffs that may explain species coexistence patterns (Stuble et al. 2013). These trade-offs  
64 include the discovery-dominance trade-off, the discovery-thermal tolerance tradeoff, and the

65 discovery-colonization trade-offs (Cerdá et al. 1998a, Stanton et al. 2002a, Lebrun and Feener  
66 2007, Stuble et al. 2013). In addition to testing interspecific trade-offs, dominance hierarchies  
67 have been used to understand the role of dominant species in structuring local communities and  
68 species composition, such as partitioning dominant and subdominant species within guilds  
69 (Baccaro et al. 2010, Arnan et al. 2012). Dominant ant species can play an important role in the  
70 structuring of local communities. For example, *Formica* species dominating a boreal ecosystem  
71 divert resources away from subdominant competitors (Savolainen and Vepsäläinen 1988). In  
72 Mediterranean ecosystems, subdominant species forage at nearly lethal environmental conditions  
73 while dominant species reduce their own mortality risk by foraging at more favorable  
74 temperatures (Cerdá et al. 1998b). In tropical ecosystems, competing arboreal ants can be  
75 structured into a dominance hierarchy with higher ranked ant species having greater access to  
76 nesting sites and extrafloral nectaries (Blüthgen et al. 2004). However, levels of uncertainty  
77 associated with outcomes of interspecific interactions between ants are often not quantified  
78 (Stuble et al. 2017). Furthermore, it remains unclear how arboreal ants or tropical ants are  
79 structured at the community level, such as when interspecific interactions are viewed as a  
80 network.

81         In this study, we examine dominance hierarchies for a community of arboreal twig-  
82 nesting ants in a coffee agroecosystem. Both arboreal and ground-dwelling twig-nesting ants in  
83 coffee agroecosystems are nest-site limited (Philpott and Foster 2005)(Philpott and Foster 2005a)  
84 in terms of number (Philpott and Foster 2005), diversity (Armbrecht et al. 2004, Gillette et al.  
85 2015), and size (Jiménez-Soto and Philpott 2015) of nesting resources. For twig-nesting ants,  
86 nest takeovers are common, and therefore dominance in this system is defined as competition for  
87 nest sites (Brian 1952), and in one case dominance over nest sites has been experimentally

88 demonstrated (Palmer et al. 2000). This present study aims to describe dominance hierarchies for  
89 twig-nesting ants due to competition for nest resources in a Mexican coffee agricultural  
90 ecosystems. We adopt statistical methods to infer a dominance hierarchy from competitive  
91 interactions over nest resources and estimate uncertainty and steepness of that dominance  
92 (Shizuka and McDonald 2012, Pinter-Wollman et al. 2014, Sánchez-Tójar et al. 2018).  
93 Furthermore, we estimate the orderliness of the hierarchy within the community. Specifically, we  
94 tested the hypothesis that tropical, arboreal twig-nesting ants form a clear, dominance hierarchy  
95 for nesting sites.

96

## 97 **Methods**

### 98 *Study Site and System*

99 We conducted fieldwork at Finca Irlanda (15°20' N, 90°20' W), a 300 ha, privately owned  
100 shaded coffee farm in the Soconusco region of Chiapas, Mexico with ~250 shade trees per ha.  
101 The farm is located between 900-1100 m a.s.l (Perfecto et al. 2014). Between 2006-2011, the  
102 field site received an average rainfall of 5726 mm per year with most rain falling during the rainy  
103 season between May and October. The farm hosts ~50 species of shade trees that provide  
104 between 30-75% canopy cover to the coffee bushes below. The farm has two distinct  
105 management areas -- one that is a traditional polyculture and the other that is a mixture of  
106 commercial polyculture coffee and shade monoculture coffee according to the classification  
107 system of (Moguel and Toledo 1999).

108         The arboreal twig-nesting ant community in coffee agroecosystems in Mexico is diverse.  
109 There are ~40 species of arboreal twig-nesting ants at the study site including *Brachymyrmex* (3  
110 species), *Camponotus* (8), *Cephalotes* (2), *Crematogaster* (5), *Dolichoderus* (2), *Myrmelachista*

111 (3), *Nesomyrmex* (2), *Procryptocerus* (1), *Pseudomyrmex* (11), and *Technomyrmex* (1) (Philpott  
112 and Foster 2005, Livingston and Philpott 2010).

113

#### 114 ***'Real-estate' experiments***

115 We examined the relative competitive ability of twig-nesting ants by constructing  
116 dominance hierarchies based on 'real estate' experiments conducted in the lab. We collected ants  
117 during systematic field surveys in 2007, 2009, 2011, and 2012 in the two different areas of the  
118 farm, and then used ants in lab experiments.

119 Once in the lab, we selected two twigs, each hosting a different species, removed all ants  
120 (i.e. all workers, alates and brood) from the twigs and placed them into sealed plastic tubs with  
121 one empty artificial nest (15 cm high by 11 cm diameter cylindrical tubs). The artificial nest, or  
122 'real estate', consisted of a bamboo twig, 120 mm long with a 2-4 mm opening. All trials started  
123 between 12-2 pm and after 24 hours, we opened the bamboo twigs to note which species had  
124 colonized the twig. All ants collected and brought to the lab were used in 'real estate' trials  
125 within two days of collection, or were otherwise discarded.

126 We conducted trials between pairs of the ten most common ant species encountered  
127 during surveys: *Camponotus abditus*, *Camponotus (Colobopsis) sp. 1*, *Myrmelachista mexicana*,  
128 *Nesomyrmex echinatinodis*, *Procryptocerus scabriusculus*, *Pseudomyrmex ejectus*,  
129 *Pseudomyrmex elongatus*, *Pseudomyrmex filiformis*, *Pseudomyrmex PSW-53*, and  
130 *Pseudomyrmex simplex*. We selected a priori to use the 10 most common species and did not run  
131 trials between other ant species. We replicated trials for each species pair on average 5.73 times  
132 (range: 1-18 trials per pairs of species); four species pairs were replicated once, nine species  
133 pairs were replicated twice, and 31 species pairs were replicated three or more times. Only one

134 species pair (*M. mexicana* and *P. filiformis*) was not tested. We conducted 42 trials in 2007, 105  
135 trials in 2009, 82 trials in 2011, and 30 trials in 2012 for a total of 259 trials (Supplementary  
136 Materials).

137

### 138 ***Dominance hierarchy***

139 We used the trial outcomes to infer the dominance hierarchy and estimate the level of  
140 uncertainty and steepness. All simulations were conducted in R version 3.3.3 (R Core  
141 Development Team 2017). We used the R package “aniDom” version 0.1.3 to infer dominance  
142 hierarchies using the randomized Elo-rating method (Farine and Sánchez-Tójar 2017,  
143 Sánchez-Tójar et al. 2018). To analyze competitive interactions we used the R package  
144 “compete” version 0.1 and graphics were completed in the “igraphs” package version  
145 1.2.4.1 (Csardi and Nepusz 2006, Curley 2016).

146 We subsampled the observed data to determine whether the population had been  
147 adequately sampled to infer reliable dominance hierarchies. The subsampling procedure consists  
148 of estimating the randomized Elo-rating repeatability values as more data is added to determine  
149 if the repeatability values remain stable or decline. Thus, the repeatability values provide insights  
150 into the steepness of the hierarchy (Sánchez-Tójar et al. 2018).

151 Additionally, we also calculated the ratio of interactions to species to determine sampling  
152 effort. An average sampling effort ranging from 10-20 interactions is sufficient to infer  
153 hierarchies in empirical networks (Sánchez-Tójar et al. 2018). We estimated the dominance  
154 hierarchy using the randomized Elo-rating method. The matrix of interactions was converted to a  
155 sequence of interactions 1000 times such that different species individual Elo-ratings were  
156 calculated each time to obtain mean rankings. We estimated uncertainty in the hierarchy by

157 splitting our dataset into two halves and estimated whether the hierarchy in one half of the matrix  
158 correlated with the hierarchy of the other half of the matrix (Sánchez-Tójar et al. 2018).

159 In addition to examining the role of ant species attributes and levels of uncertainty in  
160 dominance hierarchies, we examined the formation of dominance hierarchies using motif  
161 analysis to identify network structures composed of transitive and cyclical triads (Faust 2007).  
162 Motif analysis is commonly used in social network analysis to detect emergent properties of the  
163 network structure by comparing the relative frequencies of motifs in the observed network to the  
164 expected value for the null hypothesis of a random network (Holland and Leinhardt 1972, Faust  
165 2007). We carried out motif analysis with customized randomization procedures (McDonald and  
166 Shizuka 2013) to compare the structure of our network model against random network graphs.  
167 Species interaction data were represented as a network plot of the dominance interactions  
168 between the 10 species (Fig. 1). The nodes in the network represent ant species and the one-way  
169 directional arrows of the edges represent dominant-subordinate relationships. In the random  
170 networks, we maintained the same number of nodes and edges as in the observed network, but  
171 the directionality and placement of edges were generated randomly. Using the adjacency matrix,  
172 we calculated the triad census (Shizuka and McDonald 2012, McDonald and Shizuka 2013). The  
173 triad census allows us to examine directed species interactions (Pinter-Wollman et al. 2014). We  
174 used the seven possible triad configurations fully composed of three nodes that either have  
175 asymmetric or mutual edges (Holland and Leinhardt 1972).

176

## 177 **Results**

### 178 *'Real estate' experiments.*

179 Across the vast majority of the trials, there was a clear winner of the 'real estate' battle

180 after 24 hours, meaning that one of the two species had occupied the artificial nest. From  
181 examining the wins and losses, a clear hierarchy emerged, with some species winning the vast  
182 majority of trials in which they were involved, and other species winning few trials. The ranking  
183 shows that the twig-nesting species *Myrmelachista mexicana* is the highest ranked species, while  
184 *Pseudomyrmex ejectus* is the lowest ranked species in the hierarchy (Table 1). The one trial that  
185 did not result in a winner was a trial involving *P. elongatus* and *P. ejectus*.

186

187

### 188 ***Dyadic interactions: Estimating Dominance Hierarchy Uncertainty***

189 The total number of interactions among the 10 species was 258. The ratio of interactions  
190 to species (25.8) shows an adequate sampling effort beyond the 10-20 recommended range  
191 (Sánchez-Tójar et al. 2018). Using the randomized Elo-rating method, we found that the  
192 hierarchy was intermediate in steepness showing that rank in the hierarchy largely predicts the  
193 probability of winning an interaction (Fig 1). The Elo-rating repeatability was 0.578 which also  
194 indicates an intermediate level of uncertainty. We further estimated the uncertainty in the  
195 hierarchy by splitting the database into two, and estimating whether hierarchy from one half  
196 resembles the hierarchy estimated from the other half. We find that the degree of  
197 uncertainty/steepness in the hierarchy is intermediate (mean=0.43, 2.5 % and 97.5%  
198 quantile = (-0.12, 0.85)).

199

### 200 ***Triad census analysis.***

201 The triad census analysis of the triad distribution showed that the observed network has a  
202 significant excess of transitive triads followed by a significant deficit of cyclical triads

203 (Ttri=0.66, p-value=0.002). Triad types that are positive (i.e. non-overlapping at 0) occurred in  
204 excess in the observed network, while triad types that are negative showed a deficit in the  
205 observed network as compared to the random null network (Fig. 2).

206 The remaining five triads in the network did not show any significant differences in the  
207 mean triad percentage rates between the observed and expected network. While the data showed  
208 a clear excess of transitive triangles (34.55 %) and deficit for cyclical triangles (3.6%), the  
209 distribution for pass-along triads shows a less typical pattern with the 95% confidence intervals  
210 crossing the zero line but the mean percentage still showing a deficit.

211

## 212 **Discussion**

213 In this study, we used a novel set of statistical approaches to determine that tropical twig-  
214 nesting ants competing for nesting resources are arranged in a linear dominance hierarchy.  
215 Although many studies have documented ant dominance hierarches, it is important to note that  
216 ranking methods vary considerably among studies (Stuble et al. 2013). Traditionally, field  
217 studies have quantified dominance relationships on the basis of proportion of contests won.  
218 Other studies have use more sophisticated methods to account for competitive reversals (Vries  
219 1998) or have updated rankings based on relative wins and losses during contests (Colley 2002).  
220 In this study, we used the randomized Elo-rating by calculating the mean of species Elo-ratings  
221 (Sánchez-Tójar et al. 2018). With this method, we find that the probability of a higher ranked  
222 species winning a contest against a lower ranked species is relatively high, which corroborates  
223 our finding that the hierarchy has intermediate steepness. Moving beyond simple pair-wise  
224 interactions, we used motif analysis of the network to infer a significant excess of transitive  
225 interactions. Transitive interactions were significantly over-represented in the network. Thus the

226 combination of techniques allowed us to determine that the dominance hierarchy in this  
227 community is intermediate in steepness and transitive.

228         Dominance hierarchies over food resources have been commonly documented in ant  
229 communities in a variety of ecosystems, but may vary depending on environmental conditions or  
230 the amount of food resource provided. For instance, in Mediterranean ecosystems, dominant and  
231 subordinate ants are partitioned on the basis of their life-history traits (Arnan et al. 2012).  
232 Dominant ant species had more abundant colonies and displayed increased defense for resources  
233 in contrast to subordinate ant species. Meanwhile, subordinate ants exemplified greater tolerance  
234 to higher temperatures (Cros et al. 1997, Cerdá et al. 1998a). In addition, outcomes of  
235 interspecific interactions within the dominance hierarchy are contingent on environmental  
236 conditions (Arnan et al. 2012). In a temperate forest ecosystem of North Carolina, dominance  
237 was context dependent (Stuble et al. 2017). Rankings on the basis of food bait monopolization  
238 revealed that dominance correlated positively with relative abundance since the most abundant  
239 species were ranked higher in the dominance hierarchy. In contrast, rankings based on aggressive  
240 encounters did not correlate with abundance. In some habitats, dominance patterns are largely  
241 determined by the time of day that foraging occurs (Bestelmeyer 2000). In the North Carolina  
242 system, the most abundant ant species, *Aphaenogaster rudis*, was most active during the morning  
243 hours, whereas the cold-tolerant ant species, *Prenolepis imparis*, was dominant during the night  
244 hours (Stuble et al. 2017). Species rankings can also strongly depend on the size of food  
245 resources provided in trials. In an assemblage of woodland ants, smaller-sized ants were more  
246 efficient at acquiring and transporting fixed resources and larger-sized solitary ants excelled at  
247 retrieving smaller food that were mobile during competitive interactions (LeBrun 2005).  
248 However, the introduction of phorid parasitoids in this system reduced the transitive hierarchy

249 facilitating the coexistence of subdominant ants (LeBrun 2005, LeBrun and Feener 2007). In our  
250 study on competition for nesting sites in the lab, we were able to use fixed resources and to a  
251 certain degree control variation in colony size.

252         Although the twig-nesting ant community that we studied here in lab experiments showed  
253 a strong dominance hierarchy, there were some factors that could not be explicitly considered.  
254 Species with larger colony sizes might have a competitive advantage over other species. For  
255 instance, large colony sizes of invasive Argentine ants are indicative of strong competitive  
256 abilities relative to native species (Holway 1999). However, smaller ant colonies can sometimes  
257 overtake larger colonies depending on competitive traits, such as chemical defenses in the  
258 example of African Acacia ants (Palmer 2004). Although there might be some colony to colony  
259 variation in the number of individuals used in each trial (unpublished data), the focus of our  
260 study did not involve ant colony size variation. Preferences for nest entrance sizes is another  
261 important consideration that can determine competitive outcomes (Powell et al. 2011,  
262 Jiménez-Soto and Philpott 2015). While it is certainly the case that ant species prefer different  
263 nest entrance sizes, the distribution of natural nest sizes for most of our species (7 out of 10) are  
264 statistically indistinguishable. One notable exception is the arboreal ant *P. scabriusculus* which  
265 tends to prefer slightly larger nest entrances (in the field) than we provided in the real estate  
266 experiments (Livingston and Philpott 2010). However, we have found that *P. scabriusculus* nests  
267 in twigs as small as 2-3 mm in diameter.

268         Dominance hierarchies are often highly context-dependent and species ranking may vary  
269 across geographical regions or disturbance regimes (Palmer 2004). Previous research involving  
270 ant competition for variable resources in temperate ecosystems showed that intransitive  
271 competitive interactions at local spatial scales mediates ant coexistence (Sanders and Gordon

272 2003). Microclimatic factors also disrupt dominance hierarchies. For instance, environmental  
273 variation in coffee systems is likely to influence dominance hierarchies (Philpott and Foster  
274 2005, Perfecto and Vandermeer 2002, Perfecto and Vandermeer 2011)(Philpott and Foster 2005,  
275 Perfecto and Vandermeer 2011). Occurrence of fire can disrupt dominance hierarchies in  
276 specialist ants in *Acacia* trees resulting in increased abundance of subordinate ants (Sensenig et  
277 al. 2017). Top down processes such as predation and parasitism likely mediate twig-nesting ant  
278 competition in natural communities (Philpott et al. 2004, Feener et al. 2008, Hsieh and Perfecto  
279 2012)(Philpott et al. 2004, Feener et al. 2008a, Hsieh and Perfecto 2012). In addition,  
280 competition and disturbance from ground- and arboreal carton-nesting ants may influence the  
281 colonization and community composition of arboreal twig-nesting ants (Philpott 2010, Ennis and  
282 Philpott 2018). Therefore, more comparative research is needed to examine how variable field  
283 conditions may affect the hierarchy and ultimately the distribution and relative abundance of  
284 different arboreal, twig-nesting ant species.

285         In addition to dominance hierarchies, there are other factors that can drive the distribution  
286 and co-existence patterns of arboreal ant communities (Yamaguchi 1992, Palmer et al.  
287 2000)(Yamaguchi 1992, Palmer et al. 2000). For instance, variation in life-history trade-offs can  
288 influence dominance patterns. Competition-colonization trade-offs have been identified between  
289 competitive colonies expanding into nearby trees and foundress queens establishing new nest  
290 sites (Stanton et al. 2002). Twig-ant communities are strongly influenced by canopy structure  
291 and habitat complexity (Philpott et al. 2018). Tree size correlates positively with ant abundance  
292 (Yusah and Foster 2016), species richness (Klimes et al. 2015), and composition (Dejean et al.  
293 2008). Canopy connectivity, in turn, impacts local species coexistence as lower connectivity  
294 decreases species richness and canopy connections augment access to tree resources (Powell et

295 al. 2011). Limited access to cavity nesting sites hampers growth and reproduction of arboreal  
296 ants (Philpott and Foster 2005) and differences in nest entrance size can (Philpott and Foster  
297 2005) affect abundance and richness of arboreal ant species competing for cavity resources  
298 (Powell et al. 2011, Jiménez-Soto & Philpott 2015). For some cavity-nesting ants (e.g. species in  
299 the genus *Cephalotes*), nest entrance size impacted survival and colony fitness (Powell 2009)  
300 with important implications for changes in relative abundance over time. Therefore translating  
301 lab competitive hierarchies for nesting sites to ant species co-existence and abundance patterns is  
302 not straightforward, but needs to be viewed while considering other factors that simultaneously  
303 drive patterns of distributions and diversity.

304

### 305 **Conclusion**

306 While we find that twig-nesting ants from this tropical agricultural system form a  
307 dominance hierarchy, it is likely that behavioral dominance will vary across ecosystems and  
308 habitats. Subsequent studies should link dominance patterns with relative abundance patterns in  
309 the field in order to assess if particular species traits are important in structuring local  
310 communities. While competitive outcomes in our experiment are static, dominance hierarchies  
311 exhibit considerable variation and field studies should therefore include spatial and temporal  
312 variation. Dominance hierarchy studies are typically designed to assess antagonistic interactions,  
313 but less focus has been placed on collecting data with neutral interactions (Stuble et al. 2017).  
314 Differences in food preference and temporal foraging patterns suggest that neither species alter  
315 their behavior in the presence of the other. Therefore, more studies noting neutral interactions  
316 will shed greater light on the prevalence of dominance hierarchies under natural conditions.

317

**318 Acknowledgements**

319 The following people assisted with field and lab data collection: G. Domínguez Martínez, U.  
320 Pérez Vasquez, G. López Bautista, F. Sanchez-López, D. López, P. Bichier, B. Chilel, A. De la  
321 Mora, D. Gonthier, G. Livingston, K. Mathis, K. Ennis, E. Jiménez-Soto, J. Vandermeer, I.  
322 Perfecto, D. Jackson, H. Hsieh, and A. Iverson. J. Rojas and E. Chamé Vasquez of El Colegio de  
323 la Frontera Sur (ECOSUR) provided logistical support. Permission for arthropod collection was  
324 granted by SEMARNAT (Secretaria de Medio Ambiente y Recursos Naturales). We thank Finca  
325 Irlanda and Don Walter Peters for access to the farm and housing for field research. We also  
326 wish to thank the participants of the NIMBios workshop on “Animal Social Networks”. Funding  
327 was provided by NSF DEB-1262086 to SP, and a NSF Postdoctoral Fellowship in Biology DEB-  
328 1612302 to SY.

329

330 **Data Accessibility** Twig-ant competition data and scripts to calculate dominance rankings and  
331 interaction network are made available on Dryad. doi:10.5061/dryad.1t0s20m

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

342

343 **References**

344 Andersen, A. N. 1997. Functional Groups and Patterns of Organization in North American  
345 Ant Communities: A Comparison with Australia. *Journal of Biogeography* 24:433–  
346 460.

347 Armbrrecht, I., I. Perfecto, and J. Vandermeer. 2004. Enigmatic Biodiversity Correlations: Ant  
348 Diversity Responds to Diverse Resources. *Science* 304:284–286.

349 Arnan, X., X. Cerdá, and J. Retana. 2012. Distinctive life traits and distribution along  
350 environmental gradients of dominant and subordinate Mediterranean ant species.  
351 *Oecologia* 170:489–500.

352 Baccaro, F. B., S. M. Ketelhut, and J. W. D. Morais. 2010. Resource distribution and soil  
353 moisture content can regulate bait control in an ant assemblage in Central  
354 Amazonian forest. *Austral Ecology* 35:274–281.

355 Bestelmeyer, B. T. 2000. The trade-off between thermal tolerance and behavioural  
356 dominance in a subtropical South American ant community. *Journal of Animal  
357 Ecology* 69:998–1009.

358 Bever, J. D. 2003. Soil community feedback and the coexistence of competitors: conceptual  
359 frameworks and empirical tests. *New Phytologist* 157:465–473.

360 Blüthgen, N., N. E. Stork, and K. Fiedler. 2004. Bottom-up control and co-occurrence in  
361 complex communities: honeydew and nectar determine a rainforest ant mosaic.  
362 *Oikos* 106:344–358.

363 Brian, M. V. 1952. The Structure of a Dense Natural Ant Population. *Journal of Animal  
364 Ecology* 21:12–24.

- 365 Cerdá, X., J. Retana, and A. Manzaneda. 1998a. The Role of Competition by Dominants and  
366 Temperature in the Foraging of Subordinate Species in Mediterranean Ant  
367 Communities. *Oecologia* 117:404–412.
- 368 Cerdá, X., J. Retana, and A. Manzaneda. 1998b. The role of competition by dominants and  
369 temperature in the foraging of subordinate species in Mediterranean ant  
370 communities. *Oecologia* 117:404–412.
- 371 Cerdá, X., J. Retana, and A. Manzaneda. 1998c. The role of competition by dominants and  
372 temperature in the foraging of subordinate species in Mediterranean ant  
373 communities. *Oecologia* 117:404–412.
- 374 Chase, I. D., and K. Seitz. 2011. Chapter 4 - Self-Structuring Properties of Dominance  
375 Hierarchies: A New Perspective. Pages 51–81 *in* R. Huber, D. L. Bannasch, and P.  
376 Brennan, editors. *Advances in Genetics*. Academic Press.
- 377 Chesson, P. 2000. Mechanisms of Maintenance of Species Diversity. *Annual Review of*  
378 *Ecology and Systematics* 31:343–366.
- 379 Colley, W. 2002. Colley's Bias Free College Football Ranking Method: The Colley Matrix  
380 Explained.
- 381 Cros, S., X. CERDÁ, and J. RETANA. 1997. Spatial and temporal variations in the activity  
382 patterns of Mediterranean ant communities. *Écoscience* 4:269–278.
- 383 Csardi, G., and T. Nepusz. 2006. The igraph software package for complex network  
384 research. *InterJournal Complex Systems*:1695.
- 385 Curley, J. P. 2016. Analyzing competitive interaction data: R package version 0.1.
- 386 Davidson, D. W. 1998. Resource discovery versus resource domination in ants: a functional  
387 mechanism for breaking the trade-off. *Ecological Entomology* 23:484–490.

- 388 Dejean, A., J. Grangier, C. Leroy, J. Orivel, and M. Gibernau. 2008. Nest site selection and  
389 induced response in a dominant arboreal ant species. *Naturwissenschaften* 95:885–  
390 889.
- 391 Ennis, K. K., and S. M. Philpott. 2017. Strong influences of a dominant, ground-nesting ant  
392 on recruitment, and establishment of ant colonies and communities. *Biotropica*  
393 49:521–530.
- 394 Farine, D., and A. Sánchez-Tójar. 2017. aniDom: Inferring dominance hierarchies and  
395 estimating uncertainty.
- 396 Faust, K. 2007. Very Local Structure in Social Networks. *Sociological Methodology* 37:209–  
397 256.
- 398 Feener, D. H., M. R. Orr, K. M. Wackford, J. M. Longo, W. W. Benson, and L. E. Gilbert. 2008a.  
399 Geographic variation in resource dominance-discovery in Brazilian ant  
400 communities. *Ecology* 89:1824–1836.
- 401 Feener, D. H., M. R. Orr, K. M. Wackford, J. M. Longo, W. W. Benson, and L. E. Gilbert. 2008b.  
402 Geographic variation in resource dominance–discovery in brazilian ant  
403 communities. *Ecology* 89:1824–1836.
- 404 Francis, M. L., K. E. Plummer, B. A. Lythgoe, C. Macallan, T. E. Currie, and J. D. Blount. 2018.  
405 Effects of supplementary feeding on interspecific dominance hierarchies in garden  
406 birds. *PLOS ONE* 13:e0202152.
- 407 Gillette, P. N., K. K. Ennis, G. D. Martínez, and S. M. Philpott. 2015. Changes in Species  
408 Richness, Abundance, and Composition of Arboreal Twig-nesting Ants Along an  
409 Elevational Gradient in Coffee Landscapes. *Biotropica* 47:712–722.

- 410 Haley, M. P., C. J. Deutsch, and B. J. Le Boeuf. 1994. Size, dominance and copulatory success  
411 in male northern elephant seals, *Mirounga angustirostris*. *Animal Behaviour*  
412 48:1249–1260.
- 413 Holland, P. W., and S. Leinhardt. 1972. Holland and Leinhardt Reply: Some Evidence on the  
414 Transitivity of Positive Interpersonal Sentiment. *American Journal of Sociology*  
415 77:1205–1209.
- 416 Holt, R. D., J. Grover, and D. Tilman. 1994. Simple Rules for Interspecific Dominance in  
417 Systems with Exploitative and Apparent Competition. *The American Naturalist*  
418 144:741–771.
- 419 Holway, D. A. 1999. Competitive Mechanisms Underlying the Displacement of Native Ants  
420 by the Invasive Argentine Ant. *Ecology* 80:238–251.
- 421 Hsieh, H.-Y., and I. Perfecto. 2012. Trait-Mediated Indirect Effects of Phorid Flies on Ants.  
422 *Psyche: A Journal of Entomology* 2012:e380474.
- 423 Hutchinson, G. E. 1959. Homage to Santa Rosalia or Why Are There So Many Kinds of  
424 Animals? *The American Naturalist* 93:145–159.
- 425 Jiménez-Soto, E., and S. M. Philpott. 2015. Size matters: nest colonization patterns for twig-  
426 nesting ants. *Ecology and Evolution* 5:3288–3298.
- 427 Klimes, P., P. Fibich, C. Idigel, and M. Rimandai. 2015. Disentangling the Diversity of  
428 Arboreal Ant Communities in Tropical Forest Trees. *PLOS ONE* 10:e0117853.
- 429 LeBrun, E. G. 2005. Who Is the Top Dog in Ant Communities? Resources, Parasitoids, and  
430 Multiple Competitive Hierarchies. *Oecologia* 142:643–652.

- 431 Lebrun, E. G., and D. H. Feener. 2007. When trade-offs interact: balance of terror enforces  
432 dominance discovery trade-off in a local ant assemblage. *Journal of Animal Ecology*  
433 76:58–64.
- 434 Levine, J. M., P. B. Adler, and S. G. Yelenik. 2004. A meta-analysis of biotic resistance to  
435 exotic plant invasions. *Ecology Letters* 7:975–989.
- 436 Levins, R. 1979. Coexistence in a Variable Environment. *The American Naturalist* 114:765–  
437 783.
- 438 Livingston, G. F., and S. M. Philpott. 2010. A metacommunity approach to co-occurrence  
439 patterns and the core-satellite hypothesis in a community of tropical arboreal ants.  
440 *Ecological Research* 25:1129–1140.
- 441 MacArthur, R. H. 1958. Population Ecology of Some Warblers of Northeastern Coniferous  
442 Forests. *Ecology* 39:599–619.
- 443 McDonald, D. B., and D. Shizuka. 2013. Comparative transitive and temporal orderliness in  
444 dominance networks. *Behavioral Ecology* 24:511–520.
- 445 Moguel, P., and V. M. Toledo. 1999. Biodiversity Conservation in Traditional Coffee Systems  
446 of Mexico. *Conservation Biology* 13:11–21.
- 447 Morse, D. H. 1974. Niche Breadth as a Function of Social Dominance. *The American*  
448 *Naturalist* 108:818–830.
- 449 Neumann, C., J. Duboscq, C. Dubuc, A. Ginting, A. Irwan, and A. Widdig. 2011. Assessing  
450 dominance hierarchies: validation and advantages of progressive evaluation with  
451 Elo-rating. *Animal Behaviour* 82:911–921.
- 452 Palmer, T. M. 2004. Wars of attrition: colony size determines competitive outcomes in a  
453 guild of African acacia ants. *Animal Behaviour* 68:993–1004.

- 454 Palmer, T. M., T. P. Young, M. L. Stanton, and E. Wenk. 2000. Short-Term Dynamics of an  
455 Acacia Ant Community in Laikipia, Kenya. *Oecologia* 123:425–435.
- 456 Perfecto, I., and J. Vandermeer. 2011. Discovery Dominance Tradeoff: the Case of Pheidole  
457 Subarmata and Solenopsis Geminata (Hymenoptera: Formicidae) in Neotropical  
458 Pastures. *Environmental Entomology* 40:999–1006.
- 459 Perfecto, I., J. Vandermeer, and S. M. Philpott. 2014. Complex Ecological Interactions in the  
460 Coffee Agroecosystem. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics*  
461 45:137–158.
- 462 Philpott, S. M., and P. F. Foster. 2005. Nest-Site Limitation in Coffee Agroecosystems:  
463 Artificial Nests Maintain Diversity of Arboreal Ants. *Ecological Applications*  
464 15:1478–1485.
- 465 Philpott, S. M., J. Maldonado, J. Vandermeer, and I. Perfecto. 2004. Taking trophic cascades  
466 up a level: behaviorally-modified effects of phorid flies on ants and ant prey in coffee  
467 agroecosystems. *Oikos* 105:141–147.
- 468 Philpott, S. M., Z. Serber, and A. De la Mora. 2018. Influences of Species Interactions With  
469 Aggressive Ants and Habitat Filtering on Nest Colonization and Community  
470 Composition of Arboreal Twig-Nesting Ants. *Environmental Entomology* 47:309–  
471 317.
- 472 Pinter-Wollman, N., E. A. Hobson, J. E. Smith, A. J. Edelman, D. Shizuka, S. de Silva, J. S.  
473 Waters, S. D. Prager, T. Sasaki, G. Wittemyer, J. Fewell, and D. B. McDonald. 2014. The  
474 dynamics of animal social networks: analytical, conceptual, and theoretical  
475 advances. *Behavioral Ecology* 25:242–255.

- 476 Powell, S. 2009. How ecology shapes caste evolution: linking resource use, morphology,  
477 performance and fitness in a superorganism. *Journal of Evolutionary Biology*  
478 22:1004–1013.
- 479 Powell, S., A. N. Costa, C. T. Lopes, and H. L. Vasconcelos. 2011. Canopy connectivity and the  
480 availability of diverse nesting resources affect species coexistence in arboreal ants.  
481 *Journal of Animal Ecology* 80:352–360.
- 482 R Core Development Team. 2017. R: A language and environment for statistical computing.  
483 R Foundation for Statistical Computing.
- 484 Rudolf, V. H. W., and J. Antonovics. 2005. Species Coexistence and Pathogens with  
485 Frequency-Dependent Transmission. *The American Naturalist* 166:112–118.
- 486 Sánchez-Tójar, A., J. Schroeder, and D. R. Farine. 2018. A practical guide for inferring  
487 reliable dominance hierarchies and estimating their uncertainty. *Journal of Animal*  
488 *Ecology* 87:594–608.
- 489 Sanders, N. J., and D. M. Gordon. 2003. Resource-Dependent Interactions and the  
490 Organization of Desert Ant Communities. *Ecology* 84:1024–1031.
- 491 Savolainen, R., and K. Vepsäläinen. 1988. A Competition Hierarchy among Boreal Ants:  
492 Impact on Resource Partitioning and Community Structure. *Oikos* 51:135–155.
- 493 Schoener, T. W. 1983. Field Experiments on Interspecific Competition. *The American*  
494 *Naturalist* 122:240–285.
- 495 Sensenig, R. L., D. K. Kimuyu, J. C. R. Guajardo, K. E. Veblen, C. Riginos, and T. P. Young. 2017.  
496 Fire disturbance disrupts an acacia ant–plant mutualism in favor of a subordinate  
497 ant species. *Ecology* 98:1455–1464.

- 498 Shizuka, D., and D. B. McDonald. 2012. A social network perspective on measurements of  
499 dominance hierarchies. *Animal Behaviour* 83:925–934.
- 500 Silvertown, J. 2004. Plant coexistence and the niche. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* 19:605–  
501 611.
- 502 Stanton, M. L., T. M. Palmer, and T. P. Young. 2002a. Competition–Colonization Trade-Offs in  
503 a Guild of African Acacia-Ants. *Ecological Monographs* 72:347–363.
- 504 Stanton, M. L., T. M. Palmer, and T. P. Young. 2002b. Competition–colonization trade-offs in  
505 a guild of african acacia-ants. *Ecological Monographs* 72:347–363.
- 506 Strandburg-Peshkin, A., D. R. Farine, I. D. Couzin, and M. C. Crofoot. 2015. Shared decision-  
507 making drives collective movement in wild baboons. *Science* 348:1358–1361.
- 508 Stuble, K., I. Juric, X. Cerda, and N. Sanders. 2017. Dominance hierarchies are a dominant  
509 paradigm in ant ecology (Hymenoptera: Myrmecological News 24:71–81.
- 510 Stuble, K. L., M. A. Rodriguez-Cabal, G. L. McCormick, I. Jurić, R. R. Dunn, and N. J. Sanders.  
511 2013. Tradeoffs, competition, and coexistence in eastern deciduous forest ant  
512 communities. *Oecologia* 171:981–992.
- 513 Tilman, D. 1994. Competition and Biodiversity in Spatially Structured Habitats. *Ecology*  
514 75:2–16.
- 515 Vries, H. de. 1998. Finding a dominance order most consistent with a linear hierarchy: a  
516 new procedure and review. *Animal Behaviour* 55:827–843.
- 517 Wright, J. S. 2002. Plant diversity in tropical forests: a review of mechanisms of species  
518 coexistence. *Oecologia* 130:1–14.
- 519 Yamaguchi, T. 1992. Interspecific interference for nest sites between *Leptothorax congruus*  
520 and *Monomorium intrudens*. *Insectes Sociaux* 39:117–127.

- 521 Yusah, K., and W. Foster. 2016. Tree size and habitat complexity affect ant communities  
522 (Hymenoptera: Formicidae) in the high canopy of Bornean rain forest.  
523 Myrmecological News 23:15–23.
- 524 Zucker, N., and L. Murray. 1996. Determinants of Dominance in the Tree Lizard *Urosaurus*  
525 *ornatus*: the Relative Importance of Mass, Previous Experience and Coloration.  
526 Ethology 102:812–825.
- 527
- 528
- 529
- 530

531 **Figures & Tables.**

532

533 **Table 1. Estimation of dominance hierarchy using Elo-rating method.** The ranking shows  
534 that the twig-nesting species *Myrmelachista mexicana* is the highest ranked species,  
535 while *Pseudomyrmex ejectus* is the lowest ranked species in the hierarchy.

536

Species	Rankings
Myrmecalista mexicana	1.402
Pseudomyrmex (PSW-53)	3.833
Nesomyrmex echinatinodis	3.859
Camponotus abditus	5.008
Camponotus (Colobopsis) species 1	5.173
Pseudomyrmex filiformis	5.517
Procryptocerus scabriusculus	6.911
Pseudomyrmex simplex	7.091
Pseudomyrmex elongatus	7.903
Pseudomyrmex ejectus	8.303

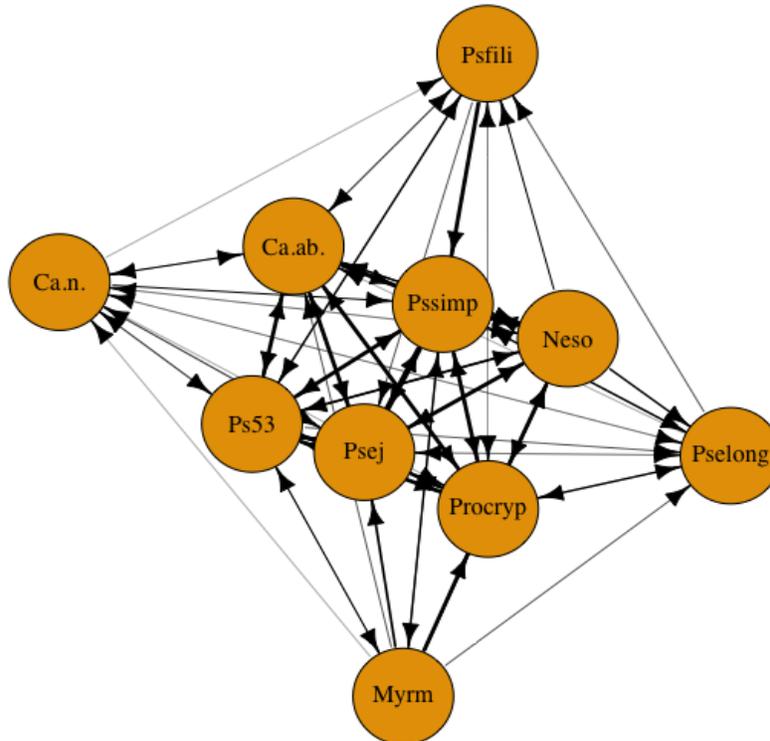
537

538

539

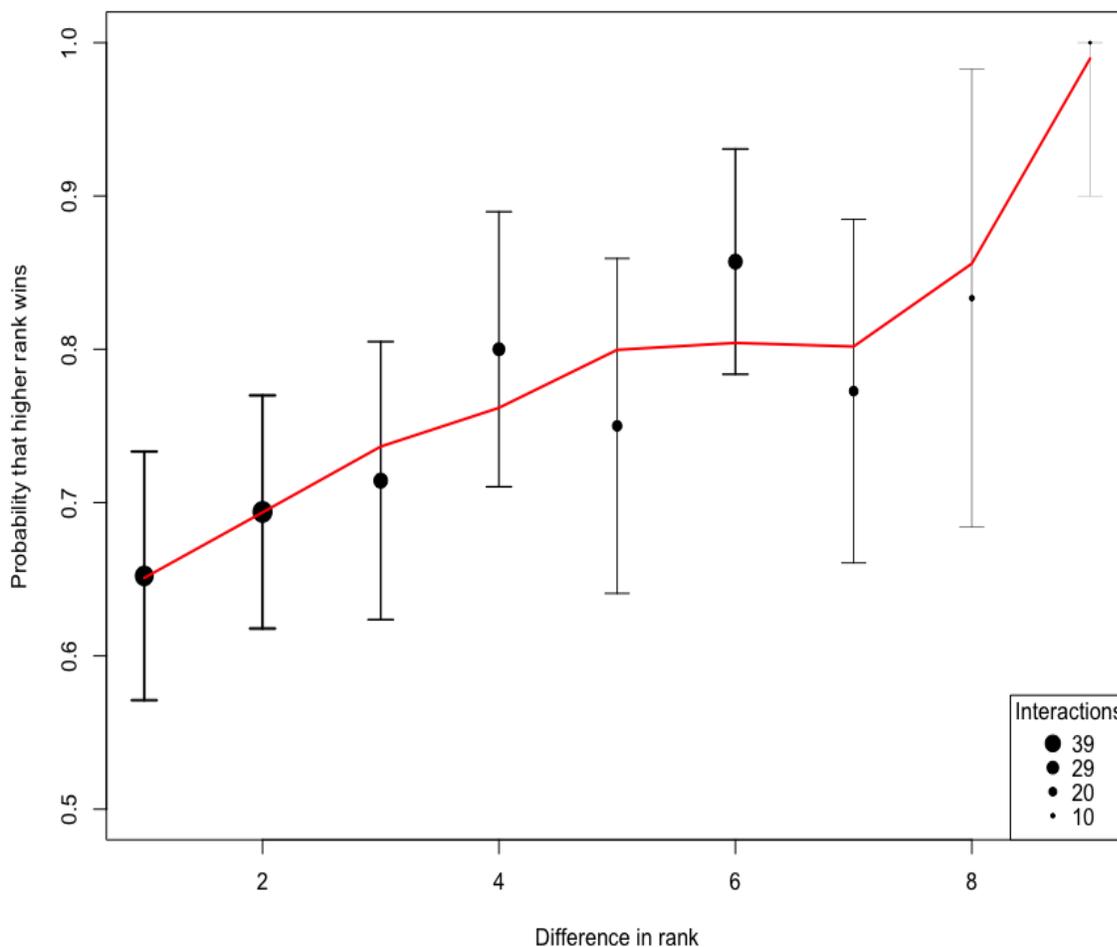
540

541 **Figure 1. Competitive network of arboreal ants.** Network representing all 10 arboreal  
542 species. Directed edges with arrows represent asymmetrical relationships between  
543 species. Species are as follows: Myrm = *Myrmelachista mexicana*, Ps53 =  
544 *Pseudomyrmex PSW-53*, Neso = *Nesomyrmex echinatinodis*, Ca.ab. = *Camponotus*  
545 *abditus*, Ca.n. = *Camponotus (Colobopsis) sp. 1*, Psfili = *Pseudomyrmex filiformis*,  
546 Pssimp = *Pseudomyrmex simplex*, Procryp = *Procryptocerus scabriusculus*, Pselong =  
547 *Pseudomyrmex elongatus*, Psej = *Pseudomyrmex ejectus*.



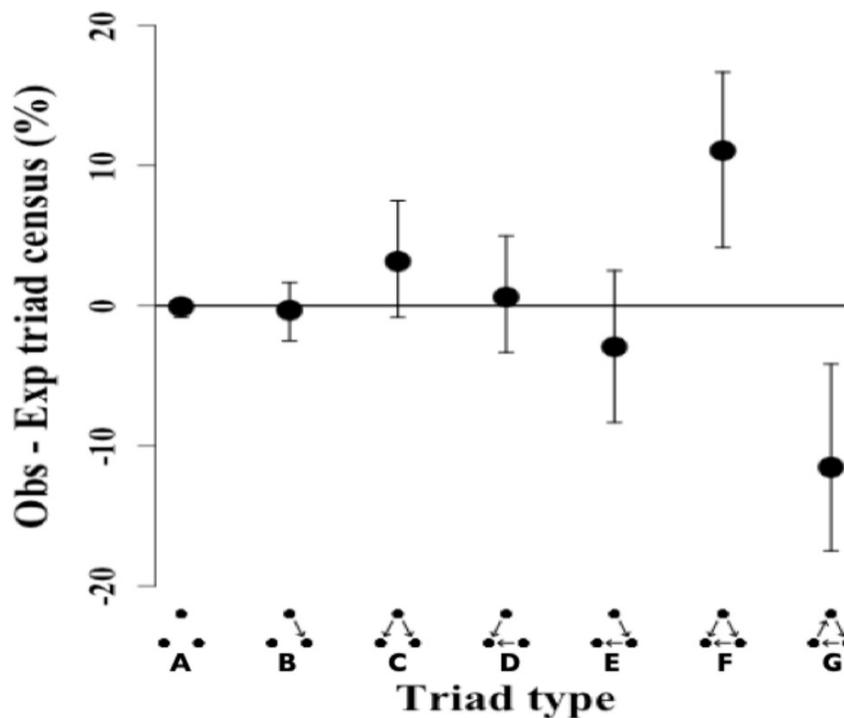
548

549 **Figure 2. The probability of a higher ranked species winning.** The shape of the hierarchy  
550 indicates that the rank is intermediate. We quantified the uncertainty/steepness of the hierarchy  
551 based on Elo-rating repeatability which is independent of group size and the ratio of interactions  
552 to species (Sánchez-Tójar et al. 2018). Based on the Elo-rating, we find that the value obtained is  
553 0.578 which corroborates our qualitative results showing that the hierarchy is intermediate. Thus,  
554 rank in this network is a relatively good predictor that a higher ranked species is more like to win  
555 from lower-ranked species even though that is not always the case.  
556



557

558 **Figure 3. Triad census of twig-nesting arboreal ants.** We determined the orderliness of  
 559 hierarchy by estimating the transitivity of interactions. The y-axis represents the mean difference  
 560 between the observed (ten ant species network) and expected (10,000 random networks)  
 561 percentage of the triad subtypes (shown on the x-axis) and error bars show 95% confidence  
 562 intervals. The twig-nesting ant data shows a significant excess of transitive triads (Tri=0.66, p-  
 563 value=0.002) and a significant deficit of cyclical triads. All the other triad sub-types found were  
 564 not significantly different from the expected random network (zero horizontal line). The  
 565 following symbols define seven possible triad types: A= Null, B=Single-edge, C=Double-  
 566 dominance, D=Double-subordinate, E=Pass-along, F=Transitive, G=Cycle.



567

568

569

570

571

572

573

574

575

576

577

578

579

580

581

582

583

584

**Table 1** (on next page)

Estimation of dominance hierarchy using Elo-rating method.

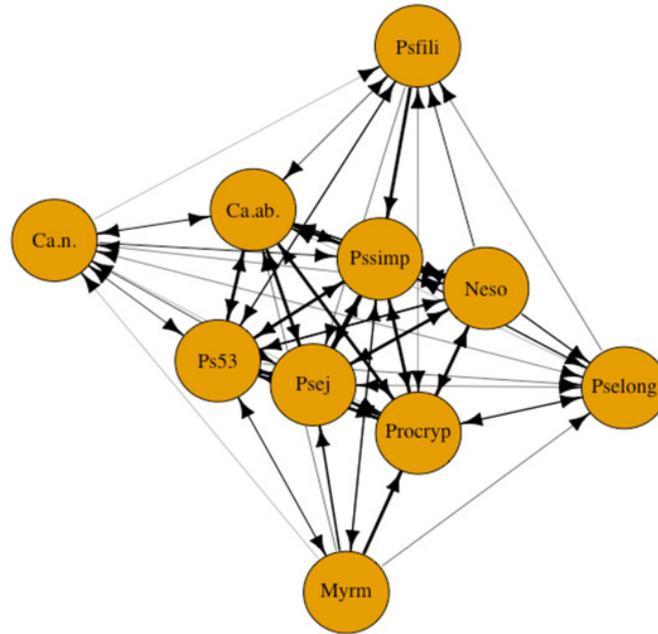
The ranking shows that the twig-nesting species *Myrmelachista mexicana* is the highest ranked species, while *Pseudomyrmex ejectus* is the lowest ranked species in the hierarchy.

<b>Species</b>	<b>Rankings</b>
Myrmecalista mexicana	1.402
Pseudomyrmex (PSW-53)	3.833
Nesomyrmex echinatinodis	3.859
Camponotus abditus	5.008
Camponotus (Colobopsis) species 1	5.173
Pseudomyrmex filiformis	5.517
Procryptocerus scabriusculus	6.911
Pseudomyrmex simplex	7.091
Pseudomyrmex elongatus	7.903
Pseudomyrmex ejectus	8.303

# Figure 1

Competitive network of arboreal ants.

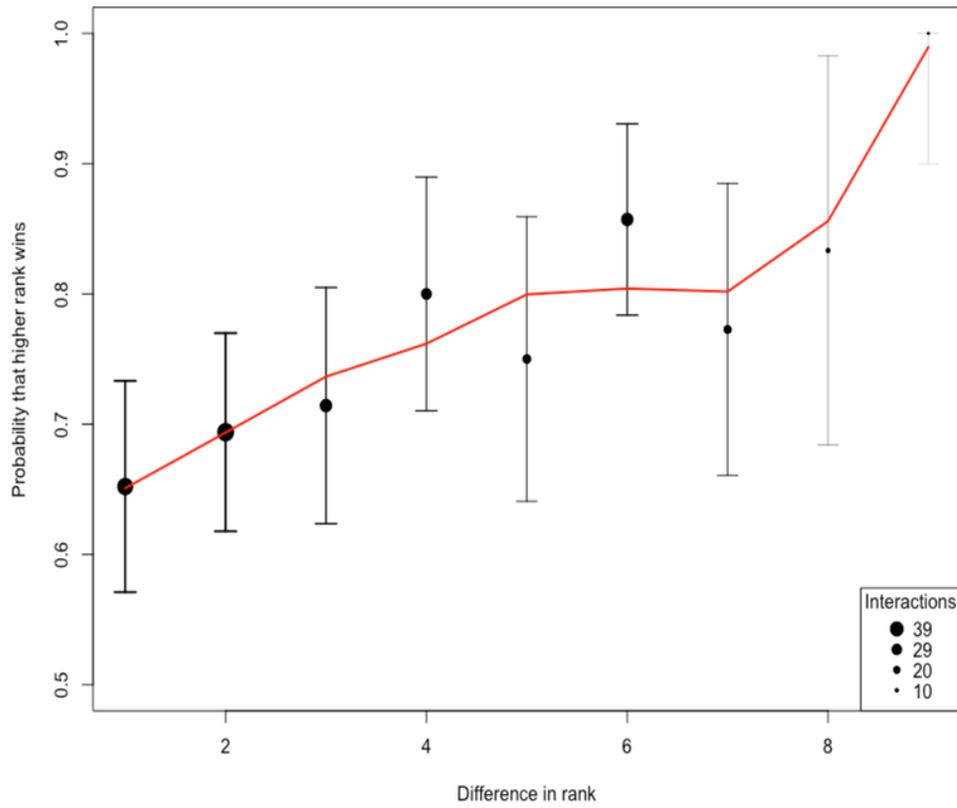
Network representing all 10 arboreal species. Directed edges with arrows represent asymmetrical relationships between species. Species are as follows: Myrm = *Myrmelachista mexicana*, Ps53 = *Pseudomyrmex PSW-53*, Neso = *Nesomyrmex echinatinodis*, Ca.ab. = *Camponotus abditus*, Ca.n. = *Camponotus (Colobopsis) sp. 1*, Psfili = *Pseudomyrmex filiformis*, Pssimp = *Pseudomyrmex simplex*, Procryp = *Procryptocerus scabriusculus*, Pselong = *Pseudomyrmex elongatus*, Psej = *Pseudomyrmex ejectus*.



## Figure 2

The probability of a higher ranked species winning.

The shape of the hierarchy indicates that the rank is intermediate. We quantified the uncertainty/steepness of the hierarchy based on Elo-rating repeatability which is independent of group size and the ratio of interactions to species (Sánchez-Tójar et al. 2018) . Based on the Elo-rating, we find that the value obtained is 0.578 which corroborates our qualitative results showing that the hierarchy is intermediate. Thus, rank in this network is a relatively good predictor that a higher ranked species is more like to win from lower-ranked species even though that is not always the case.



## Figure 3

Triad census of twig-nesting arboreal ants.

We determined the orderliness of hierarchy by estimating the transitivity of interactions. The y-axis represents the mean difference between the observed (ten ant species network) and expected (10,000 random networks) percentage of the triad subtypes (shown on the x-axis) and error bars show 95% confidence intervals. The twig-nesting ant data shows a significant excess of transitive triads (Tri=0.66, p-value=0.002) and a significant deficit of cyclical triads. All the other triad sub-types found were not significantly different from the expected random network (zero horizontal line). The following symbols define seven possible triad types: A= Null, B=Single-edge, C=Double-dominance, D=Double-subordinate, E=Pass-along, F=Transitive, G=Cycle.

