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4	Temnothorax rugatulus ants do not change their nest walls in response to environmental
5	humidity
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28 Abstract

29 Animal architectures are interesting biological phenomena that can greatly increase the 30 fitness of the builder and exist in a variety of forms and functions across taxa. Among the most 31 intricate architectures are social insect nests, which may have several functions, one of which is 32 the control of internal microclimate. In social insects, the regulation particularly of humidity in 33 the nest can be crucial for the survival and growth of the brood. Though much is known on how 34 nest *excavating* social insects respond to environmental humidity, little is known about how ants 35 that build on to pre-existing cavities respond. Here we use the rock ant Temnothorax rugatulus to 36 determine whether and how colonies respond to environmental humidity by building and 37 changing their nest architectures in pre-existing nest spaces. We specifically test the hypothesis that T. rugatulus colonies build different nest walls, e.g. wider or denser ones, in response to 38 39 lower environmental humidity. We allowed T. rugatulus colonies to build nest walls with two 40 substrates across a 0-100% relative humidity gradient. We further compare the porosity - empty 41 volume in built nest walls - of natural *T. rugatulus* nest walls with these artificial building 42 substrates and the substrate compositions of built walls from our experiment. We found that 43 humidity did not influence the nest walls T. rugatulus colonies built in our experiment, 44 concluding that regulating humidity is likely not a key function of *T. rugatulus* nest wall 45 architecture. We also found that the porosities of the artificial substrate that was predominantly 46 used by the ants in our experiment were like the porosity of natural T. rugatulus nest walls, 47 indicating that ants had constant preferences for particular substrates. Physical nest wall features, 48 including porosity, are therefore unlikely to be flexibly regulated in response to external 49 humidity, but may be adaptations in other ways.

51 Introduction

72

52	Ants are some of the most ecologically diverse and evolutionarily successful organisms [1] likely
53	at least in part due to the existence of nests that span in complexity from simple one-chambered
54	spaces to complex spaces with several dozen chambers [2-8]. Nests serve as a stable and
55	defensible space that likely facilitated the development of the social lifestyle and reproductive
56	division of labor, i.e. a separation between reproducing individuals and non-reproducing
57	'workers' [1, 9]. Due to this intimate tie to their nest, social insect colonies have been referred to
58	as a 'factory within a fortress' [9].
59	
60	Many social insects modify their nests to respond to different environmental conditions to
61	control their microclimate [10]. Regulating humidity for example has been shown to be a key
62	role in the nest architecture in some social insects, such as leaf cutter ants, in which workers plug
63	nest holes to prevent desiccation [11, 12] and mound building termites which construct a
64	sophisticated nest ventilation system that constantly changes throughout the day [13-15]
65	Humidity is particularly relevant to ants since larvae and eggs desiccate in dry conditions [16-
66	18]. Though we know much about how humidity influences social insect colonies such as the
67	above that excavate their nests by removing substrate from the ground, the effect of the abiotic
68	environment on social insect colonies that build nests by adding material, such as walls in rock
69	crevices (additive nest builders), are not well studied.
70	
71	Temnothorax rugatulus ants are found in pine and juniper zones in northern Mexico, the

73 [19]. They reside in preexisting structures such as rock crevices and acorns (i.e. arboreal and

western United States and southwestern Canada, and have a colony size between 50 to 400 ants

74 hypogaeic), thus creating a dark, cool, and humid nest space. Members of the *Temnothorax* 75 genus are additive builders that utilize stones (i.e. what might, at this scale, be called sand grains) 76 and other environmental substrates to produce walls that change their occupied nest space [20-77 21]. Temnothorax colonies choose a smaller-grained substrate when carrying is less energetically 78 expensive (e.g. placed closer to the nest) [22-23], but larger stones are preferred during nest 79 expansion and contraction [24], possibly because of the need for speed in building. *Temnothorax* 80 *rugatulus* colonies both build thicker walls when they have more brood, and build longer, larger 81 area walls in higher environmental humidity [25]. However, in that study, colonies were only 82 offered one grain type. Walls built with two stone sizes that are well mixed produce a higher 83 angle stability and thus are more structurally stable, because smaller grains can fill in the gaps of 84 larger grains [23]. We propose that mixed walls may also regulate nest microclimate more 85 efficiently than single substrate walls by creating a more compact structure.

86

87 In this study we asked whether the ant *Temnothorax rugatulus* produces different nest walls in 88 response to differing environmental humidity. Response to humidity is reasonable since T. 89 rugatulus colonies live inside crevices found in granite boulders in a desert environment that 90 likely experience occasional high ground temperatures and low environmental humidity. In this 91 study, we had *Temnothorax rugatulus* build nests under different relative humidity levels, and 92 then quantified differences in nest properties. We also tested whether the nest properties scaled 93 with colony size. To confirm whether environmental humidity constitutes a selective force on 94 these ants, we also measured worker and brood mortality under the humidity experienced in this 95 experiment. Brood and workers are vulnerable to desiccation, so we would expect lower 96 environmental humidity to cause more death. We also compared the porosity of T. rugatulus

walls from our experiment and natural walls collected in the field, which may relate to the degreeof moisture saturation that the nest wall may exhibit.

99

100 Methods

101 Colony collections

102 We collected twenty-two colonies of *Temnothorax rugatulus* from the Santa Catalina Mountains

103 (GPS: 32.395, -110.688), USA, Pima County, Arizona in a pine-forest zone (altitude

approximately 2500m) in October 2018. From February to October 2018, we further collected

105 ten separate *T. rugatulus* complete nest walls (e.g. in Fig 1a), which were obtained after the

entire colony was removed. We only collected unbroken walls to be certain that all substrate wasaccounted for.

108

109 Fig 1. Comparing a natural nest wall of a *Temnothorax rugatulus* colony in the field (a) and

110 wall built by a *T. rugatulus* colony experimentally (b). Notably, the natural nest wall is moist

111 and caked together, where the stone (sand) walls in the lab can easily be pushed apart. In both

112 photos, the outer and inner boundaries represent the built nest wall and inside of the inner

boundary is where the queen(s), workers, and brood reside (internal nest area).

114

115 Colony acclimation period

We first acclimated our experimental colonies in a controlled environment produced in a climate chamber for five days (see Initial housing and care). We determined experimental length through a preliminary building assay, where we allowed the colonies to build nests using experimental

building substrates (see description below) for twenty days and found no substantial nest wall
changes after 10 days. We therefore set 10 days as the building duration for our future
experimental building phases.

122

123 Initial housing and care

124 During the acclimation period, we housed the colonies in 17.5cm x 12.5cm x 6cm plastic 125 containers with inside walls coated in 'insect-a-slip' (BioQuip product #2871A) to prevent 126 escape. We gave each colony a nest space made of two glass panes (102mm x 76mm) separated 127 by a 1.5-mm-thick strip of cardboard at the back and smaller piece of cardboard at the front [25]. 128 On the opposite end of the container, we gave each colony a water-filled 5 ml plastic tube with a 129 cotton ball stopper and fed each colony ad libitum weekly with both a 2ml microcentrifuge tube 130 of honey water with a concentration of 1/4 teaspoon per 50ml water, and 1/8 of a fresh-frozen 131 cockroach (approximately 0.075g) (Nauphoeta cinerea). During acclimation and between 132 experimental trials, we kept colonies in a climate chamber with a 12:12 h light cycle (8 a.m. to 8 133 p.m.), constant temperature (approximately 20° C) and relative humidity (approximately 20-134 25%).

135

136 **Experimental timeline**

We exposed each colony to one of nine humidity levels (see S1 Table). We allowed the humidity in each container to stabilize for one day, at which point we then provided the experimental building substrates for colonies to build for 10 days. We photographed the colony on days 1, 5, and 10 to determine the average number of workers and brood, but only considered day 10 for calculating nest wall properties. We gave colonies a 10-day rest period in ambient temperature

142	and humidity before the second trial in which we placed the colonies into the humidity three
143	places forward along the gradient (i.e. 55% went to 85%, and 85% went to 1%).

144

145 Experimental building substrates

146 We chose two distinct building substrates to allow *T. rugatulus* colonies to modify their nest

spaces. We offered 10g of both 1.25mm diameter white aquarium substrate (CaribSea Super

148 NaturalsTM white aquarium substrate: substrate I - weight of 100 pieces = 0.529g) and 0.65mm

149 diameter black aquarium substrate (Flourite[®] black sand: substrate II - weight of 100 pieces =

150 0.035g) as building materials. Though substrate I would cover more area per grain when

building, its weight per grain is 15x larger than substrate II, making it harder to transport.

152

153 Experimental setup

154 Experimental nest housing

We placed colonies in new nest sites and containers following the same protocol as during theacclimation period (see Fig 2 for a full set visualization).

157

Fig 2. Experimental set up for each humidity treatment. Ants are confined to the nest
container, which contains a small pile of each building substrate and food and water. A small fan
gently circulated air above the saturated salt water to ensure homogenous humidity across the
system. While this system was closed (locked airtight), a small hole was cut from the lid
allowing access to the nest container to deposit each building substrate, thus temporarily opening
the system when needed.

165 **Experimental humidity levels**

166 For each experimental trial, we placed the nine individual colonies and their nest containers into 167 larger plastic containers (31.3cm x 23cm x 10.2cm). We created a discrete-step humidity 168 gradient consisting of 9 separate boxes, each with a different, constant, regulated humidity level. 169 Eight of these were achieved by using saturated salt solutions, which produce highly replicable 170 humidity levels at 20°C in a closed, airtight system (Fig 2; S1 Table; Winston and Bates 1960; 171 Greenspan 1977). We used the desiccant phosphorous pentoxide to produce nearly 0% RH 172 (Winston and Bates 1960). We placed each saturated salt solution and desiccant in a plastic 173 container (17.5cm x 12.5cm x 6cm) next to the nest container in the experimental setup (Fig 2). 174 We used a DC current fan (4cm x 4cm x 4cm, 12V, 0.1A) in the top left corner of the 175 experimental setup to circulate air in the closed system, since saturated salt solutions require air 176 circulation for reproducibility (Winston and Bates 1960). This fan was placed in the top left 177 corner above the saturated salt solution, angled horizontally, facing parallel to the length of the 178 box (Fig 2).

179

180 Substrate, food, and water placement

We inserted substrates, food, and water through a small 3.5cm hole above the nest section, which only temporarily broke the closed, airtight system of the colony box. We placed individual 10.0g piles of each building substrate at the opposite end of the housing nest, such that one substrate type was on the left and the other on the right. On day 7 of the experiment, we provided new 5ml cotton-ball-clogged water tubes, 5ml honey water microcentrifuge tubes, and 1/8 fresh-frozen cockroaches to continue *ad libitum* feeding. We randomized the arrangement of the building substrates such that half of the colonies had the heavier substrate on the left side and the other

188 half on the right side (Fig 2). During the second trial we flipped each colony's substrate

placement. We performed this procedure to prevent a side bias from affecting building substratechoice.

191

192 Data collection

193 Environmental data

During each experimental round, we recorded the temperature (°C) and relative humidity (%) of our experimental closed systems every 45 minutes using permanently imbedded U12-012 HOBO data loggers (Onset, Bourne, MA, USA) to ensure stability and reproducibility of each section of the relative humidity gradient (S1 Table for experimentally produced humidity levels).

198

199 Image capture and analysis

We photographed each colony with an HD camera (Nikon D7000 with 60mm lens). We used the image analysis software *Fiji* [28] to measure the wall length (mm), wall area (mm²), and nest area (mm²) for every colony, which are measurement methods we derived from [25].

203 Additionally, we assigned coordinates to every worker and brood item in the nest. We

standardized all measurements and coordinates from Fiji using the x-distance between the top

left and bottom right of the glass pane as reference points as the known distance of 102mm.

206

207 Nest wall composition

After each building period, we collected each built wall by gently tilting a colony's housing nest

space and extracting the grains while the ants were inside the nest, allowing us to prevent panic.

210 We sieved the nest walls built by each colony using a 1mm colander to separate the two

substrates, and then weighed each substrate using a digital scale (Ohaus, USA) to the nearest

212 0.00001g.

213

214 Nest wall weight and density

215 We determined wall weight by weighing the substrates each colony used to build their nest walls.

216 We calculated wall volume (mm³) as the nest area multiplied by 1.5 mm (the height of the

217 provided nest cavity). We then calculated nest wall density as total wall weight (g) / wall volume

218 (mm^3) .

219

220 Building substrate porosity

221 We used the collected substrates (see colony collections) of real *T. rugatulus* nest walls to

compare the porosity between natural nests and our artificial building substrates. We allowed the

substrates to dry in open air for seven days before storing them again. Our final sample size was

224 10 measures of porosity for the natural and each experimental substrate. Porosity (*Pt*) is

225 calculated by determining the void space (*Vp*) in which water can fill in a substrate and dividing

it by the bulk volume (Vt) which is the void and substrate (Vs) volumes: Vt = Vp + Vs; Pt = Vp + Vs

227 $(Vp/Vt) \ge 100.$

228

229 Experimental substrates

We measured the porosity of each artificial substrate by filling a 5 ml tube with 2 ml of eachsubstrate (total volume: *Vt*). We determined the pore volume by fully saturating the substrate

with deionized water injected through a syringe to the 2 ml mark. We took water from a

container of water (weighed to the nearest 0.001g) and then determined the volume used (Vp) by

subtracting the remaining container weight from the original weight of water. We converted water weight to volume per the 1g/ml standard conversion for pure water. We then calculated porosity for each substrate using the formula: $Pt = (Vp/Vt) \ge 100$.

237

238 Natural nest walls

239 To compare the porosities of natural and experimentally built nest walls, we measured the 240 porosity of natural wall substrates by filling 5 ml tubes with each natural nest's substrates and 241 then marking where the tube was filled. We again filled the container with deionized water from 242 a container of water (weighed to the nearest 0.001g) to complete saturation at the marked 243 substrate volume line, then we subtracted the remaining container weight from the original 244 weight of water to determine the pore volume (Vp). We removed the substrates from the 245 containers and filled water to the line representing the volume of each substrate and weighed that 246 amount to the nearest 0.001g (Vt). We again converted volume from water weight to volume per 247 the standard 1g/ml conversion for pure water. We then calculated porosity for each substrate 248 using the formula: $Pt = (Vp/Vt) \ge 100$.

249

250 Final data and analyses

We conducted all data wrangling, analyses, and visualizations in the software R (*v4.1.1*) [29] in
RStudio (*v1.2.5042*) [30], primarily utilizing the tidyverse language ('tidyverse' *v1.3.1*) [31]. We
have made the final data and R script used for this study openly available in a GitHub repository:
<u>https://github.com/Gchism94/HumidityProject</u>

255

256 Humidity treatment final data set

257	We had different final sample sizes for the first (trial 1) and second (trial 2) humidity treatments
258	a colony experienced. We did not include three colonies in our final trial 1 data set due to colony
259	death (trial 1 final $N = 19$ colonies). Three colonies were not placed into a second treatment since
260	the first relative humidity produced in the first trial was not reliable (trial 2 final $N = 16$).
261	
262	Humidity treatment analyses
263	Substrate preference: we used Mann-Whitney U tests to see whether colonies built their walls
264	with a preferred substrate.
265	
266	Influence of humidity and colony size on built walls: we took average values for worker and
267	brood number (see image capture and analysis) to reduce measurement error from worker and
268	brood occlusion in nest containers. We used linear mixed effects models using the packages to
269	examine whether relative humidity or colony size influenced nest wall feature, or internal nest
270	area. All linear mixed effects models here and below were conducted using the R package 'lme4'
271	(v1.1-27.1; Bates et al., 2014), where p values were calculated through the R package 'lmerTest'
272	($v3.1-3$; Kuznetsova et al., 2017). We found that an order effect was present when considering a
273	colony's first and second trial placement, which we could not separate from the humidity
274	treatment placement due to unequal sample sizes (lower:higher $N = 14$; higher:lower = 5). We
275	therefore assigned the first and second trial ('Trial') as a random effect in our models, and by
276	comparing the variation explained by the fixed effects alone (marginal R^2) and with the random
277	effect included (conditional \mathbb{R}^2), we determined the amount of variation that Trial number
278	explained (marginal and conditional R ² values calculated through the R package 'MuMIn'
279	v1.43.17; Kamil Bartoń 2020).

280

281 Worker and brood mortality and humidity exposure: we first used a linear regression to test 282 whether brood and worker death were correlated. We then calculated worker and brood mortality 283 as the proportion of average workers or brood in trial 2 over the average in trial 1, signifying 284 how many of each died in between trials (10 days). We used binomial family generalized linear 285 models to test whether the relative mortality of workers and brood was affected by the level of 286 relative humidity each colony experienced in trial 1. Finally, we tested whether colony mortality 287 was higher in smaller or larger colonies (average number of brood or workers) by comparing the 288 two linear regressions with an ANOVA: formula = $\log(\text{Trial } 2 \text{ colony size}) \sim \log(\text{Trial } 1 \text{ colony})$ 289 size); formula = $\log(\text{Trial } 2 \text{ colony size}) \sim 1 + \text{offset}(\text{Trial } 1 \text{ colony size})$. The offset function 290 changes the model intercept to 1, where smaller colonies experienced higher mortality with a 291 model intercept smaller than 1 and larger colonies experienced higher mortality with a model 292 intercept greater than 1.

293

Building substrate porosity analysis

We used pairwise Dunn's tests with False Discovery Rate corrected p values [35] to compare the median porosity of our experimental and collected natural nest wall substrates (each N = 10).

298 Post hoc power analyses

We used the R package simr (*v1.0.6*) [36, 37] to calculate post hoc power analyses for each of our linear mixed effects models where we used 0.5 and 0.8 as biologically relevant Cohen's d effect sizes (moderate and high effect sizes) [38]. We first derived the appropriate effect size for each model ('Humidity' fixed effect β coefficient) from the formulas: Cohen's d = $\beta/(\text{sqrt}(N) \times N)$ 303 SE), where N = sample size and SE = standard error of each 'Humidity' term. The simr package 304 determines statistical power by (i) simulating new values for the response variable from our 305 models; (ii) refitting our models to the simulated response variable; (iii) applying a likelihood 306 ratio test to the simulated model fit. Statistical power is then determined by the ratio of 307 significant p values over non-significant.

308

309 **Results**

310 Ants prefer smaller-grained substrate but show no side bias

311 We used two-sided Wilcoxon tests with a predicted median value of 0.5 to show that ants

showed a substrate preference in trial 1 (W = 183, p < 0.001) and trial 2 (W = 132, p < 0.001).

313 The predominant substrate that ants used for building was the smaller-grained substrate: in trial

314 1, the median weight of substrate I that colonies used to build walls 0.160g, and 0.516g for

substrate II, with the median proportion of substrate II per substrate I being 0.746, while in trial 2

the median grams of substrate I used was 0.011, and 0.073 substrate II, with the median

317 proportion of substrate II per substrate I being 0.849.

318

319 Relative humidity did not influence any measured nest trait

320 In our experiment, ants did not change any wall characteristics with environmental relative

humidity levels (linear mixed effects models: wall weight - p = 0.772; Fig 3a, S2 Table; wall

322 length - p = 0.459; Fig 3b, S3 Table, wall area - p = 0.978; Fig 4c, S4 Table, wall density - p = 0.459; Fig 3b, S3 Table, wall area - p = 0.978; Fig 4c, S4 Table, wall density - p = 0.459; Fig 3b, S3 Table, wall area - p = 0.978; Fig 4c, S4 Table, wall density - p = 0.459; Fig 3b, S3 Table, wall area - p = 0.978; Fig 4c, S4 Table, wall density - p = 0.459; Fig 4c, S4 Table, wall density - p = 0.459; Fig 3b, S3 Table, wall area - p = 0.978; Fig 4c, S4 Table, wall density - p = 0.459; Fig 4c, S4

323 0.653; Fig 4d, S5 Table, wall substrate composition - p = 0.248; Fig 4e, S6 Table, internal nest

area - p = 0.215; Fig 4f, S7 Table). 'Humidity' as a fixed effect explained little to none of the

325	variation in the data, while random effects did explain most of the data variation (S2-6 Tables),
326	except for internal nest area (S7 Table). Since we did not find an effect of humidity on any of our
327	measured nest traits, but our sample sizes may be argued to be small, we ran post hoc power
328	analyses to determine the statistical power of each linear mixed effects model. Our models had
329	80%-85.0% power (therefore at least conventional power) [38] to find any effects of 0.5 (mean
330	difference, β , divided by standard deviation) or higher and 98%-100% power to find any effects
331	of 0.8 or higher, indicating that our negative results are likely not a consequence of low power
332	(S8 Table), and we can conclude that if any effects existed they are likely to be small.
333	
334	Fig 3. The built nest wall traits measured show no relationship with external humidity
335	levels for trial 1 or 2. Wall weight (a), length (b), area (c), density (d), proportion of substrate II
336	in nest wall (e), and internal nest area (f). Here, and below, trial 1 data points are circles and trial
337	2 are triangles.
338	

339 No evidence for colony size influencing nest traits

340 Colonies used in our experiment varied in their demography (note that colony size was 341 calculated by averaging observations of workers and brood from days 1, 5, and 10 of the 342 experiment): the median colony size was 84 workers in trial 1 (range 13-300; 65.3 brood items, 343 range 2-259; 2 queens, range 1-11) and 65.5 workers in trial 2 (range 15-159; 65.7 brood items, 344 range 11 - 190; 2 queens, range 1-11). In our experiment, ant colony size (number of brood or 345 workers) did not influence any wall characteristics (linear mixed effects models: wall weight -346 brood: p = 0.275, workers: p = 0.517; Fig 4a, S9 Table, wall length - brood: p = 0.054, workers: 347 p = 0.367; Fig 4b, S10 Table, wall area - brood: p = 0.178, workers: p = 0.625; Fig 4c, S11

348	Table, wall density - brood: $p = 0.288$, workers: $p = 0.448$; Fig 4d, S12 Table; wall substrate
349	composition - brood: $p = 0.622$, workers: $p = 0.142$; Fig 4e, S13 Table, internal nest area - brood:
350	p = 0.488, workers: $p = 0.730$; Fig 4f, S14 Table). Since we did not find an effect of colony size
351	on any of our measured nest traits, but our sample sizes may be argued to be small, we ran post
352	hoc power analyses to determine the statistical power of each linear mixed effects model. Our
353	models had 64%-81% power to find any effects of 0.5 (mean difference, β , divided by standard
354	deviation) or higher and 99%-100% power to find any effects of 0.8 or higher, indicating that our
355	negative results are likely not a consequence of low power (S15 Table). Notably, in [25] nest
356	wall area increasing with brood number with an effect size (calculated as we did above) of 0.52
357	and our model testing for this relationship had 78% statistical power, so we likely had sufficient
358	power to detect an analogous effect.
359	
360	Fig 4. The built nest wall traits measured show no relationship with the number of brood
361	(blue) or workers (red) in a colony for trial 1 or 2. Wall weight (a), length (b), area (c),
362	density (d), proportion of substrate II in nest wall (e), and internal nest area (f).

363

364 Colony mortality did not relate to relative humidity, but larger

365 colonies had higher mortality

366 We found that worker and brood mortality was highly correlated ($\beta = 1.042 \pm 0.168$, p < 0.001;

367 S1 Fig, S16 Table). We however found no relationship between relative humidity and the

- 368 proportion of colony member deaths between trials (10-days) in our generalized linear models
- 369 (Workers: p = 0.694; Brood: p = 0.756; S2 Fig, S17 Table). We lastly found that the slopes in
- 370 our linear models predicting colony size in trial 2 from trial 1 were less than 1 (S2 Fig, S18

Table) and were significantly different than models with a slope of 1 (ANOVA: Brood: F = 8.47, p = 0.021; Workers: F = 6.79, p = 0.011; S19 Table). Slopes smaller than 1 indicate that mortality was lower in larger colonies, but since there was no correlation with humidity, the cause is likely not desiccation from low relative humidity or disease (e.g. fungal infection) from high relative humidity.

376

377 Colonies preferred the more porous building substrate, which

378 resembled natural nest walls

We found that ants prefer a more porous substrate: substrate I, the one with smaller grains and thus lower porosity, was not preferred; and in fact, the walls built in our experiment had similar porosity to natural walls collected in the field (Z = 154, p = 0.077), as well as being similar to pure substrate II (Z = 134, p = 0.345) (Fig 5, S20 Table). However, the natural wall substrate was likely not as compact in our porosity assays as in nature, which could possibly change the results. In natural walls, substrate appears tamped down, whereas it was loosely shaken into the test vial for our porosity assays.

386

387 Fig 5. Comparison of porosity between the artificial and natural *Temnothorax rugatulus*

nest wall substrates. Bars denote sample medians, boxes represent the first and third quantiles,
lines denote the data range. Stars denote significant Dunn's pairwise multiple comparisons tests.

391 **Discussion**

Our study does not support the hypothesis that environmental humidity affects nest building in 392 393 Temnothorax rugatulus. We found no influence of external humidity on any measured nest 394 property (Fig 3). This might indicate that the nest wall properties are not under selection for 395 maintaining a certain humidity level inside the nest space, or that if they are, they are not plastic 396 (ants do not flexibly adapt them to changing needs for insulation from the environment). We also 397 did not find the effect reported in [25], that nest wall area scales up with brood number in a 398 colony (Fig 4), nor did any other nest property increase with colony size (Fig 4). This 399 inconsistency could stem from different experimental designs – the authors in [25] considered 400 low and high humidity while our study had nine humidity levels - or from the low statistical 401 power of our study. We additionally did not find a relationship between the first relative 402 humidity level that colonies experienced in our study and worker or brood mortality; we did find 403 that larger colonies had overall higher relative mortality (S1-2 Figs). We lastly saw that both our 404 small experimental substrate (substrate II) and the built experimental walls are significantly more 405 porous than the larger experimental substrate but had similar porosity to natural T. rugatulus 406 built nest walls. This may be because ants are aiming for porous walls, or it may result from a 407 preference for carrying larger sand grains (which may make the building process more efficient) 408 [23].

409

Humidity regulation is only one function of social insect nests; however, the internal humidity of
the nest can be so important that social insects build structural modifications towards its strict
regulation. Examples of these structures include ventilation turrets and thatched nests in *Atta*leafcutter ants [11, 12, 39, 40] and thicker, reinforced mounds along the east-to-west nest axes of *Macrotermes* termites towards retaining water in the nest [13-15]. Here we show in contrast that

415 environmental humidity does not influence Temnothorax rugatulus nest wall structure inside nest 416 cavities, suggesting that humidity regulation is not a function of *Temnothorax* nests. Indeed, 417 intrinsic (genetics) rather than extrinsic (temperature and humidity) factors are shown to be more 418 influential towards the nest architectures that harvester ants build [41]. In addition, our T. 419 rugatulus colonies selected a less energetically expensive substrate to build with (substrate II), 420 consistent with previous work on wall building substrate choice in *Temnothorax albipennis* 421 colonies [22]. Changing built nest walls in response to humidity might be energetically 422 expensive, which may constrain the flexibility that *T. rugatulus* has in regulating in-nest 423 humidity through wall composition. Additionally, in the desert, external humidity and 424 temperature can change quickly and thus plastic adjustment of nest walls may not be possible, 425 leading to ants building a nest wall structure that is suitable at all levels of humidity. 426 Alternatively, humidity may not be regulated in *T. rugatulus* nests, but instead are 427 physiologically resistant to varying environmental humidity. Instead, T. rugatulus colonies may 428 consider other purposes such as nest defense or regulating worker interactions through changing 429 nest densities. 430

The innate internal humidity of nest cavities may be an important consideration for *Temnothorax*nest site selection. *Temnothorax* ants demonstrate extensive decision-making in house-hunting
[42-46], which relates several properties in potential nest cavities. For example, emigrating
colonies determine nest size through interactions with other exploring nest mates (quorum
sensing) [47]. Also, nest cavities that have smaller nest entrances [44, 48] are more sought after
by *Temnothorax* ants for properties such as less light invasion [48]. Additionally, rock-dwelling *Temnothorax albipennis* colonies have been shown to remove substrate from new nest cavities in

relation to worker density in the nest (i.e. nest 'molting') [27], posing an alternative mechanism
that may also regulate in-nest humidity. Therefore, either innate nest cavity properties, or
alternative mechanisms to nest wall building, may produce a desirable humidity inside of the
nest space (i.e. rock crevices), where *Temnothorax* ants do not need to build nest walls towards
its regulation.

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444 Our study is also the first to consider the porosity of the natural and artificial substrates used by 445 *Temnothorax* ants for wall building. Porosity, i.e. the amount of void space between the packed 446 substrate, may influence nest properties in a variety of ways, including thermoregulation and 447 moisture retention, as well as costs of building per volume of wall, none of which has been well 448 studied so far in Temnothorax ants. In addition, the soil available to Temnothorax ants in nature 449 likely exhibits a variety of properties that don't exist in grains of sand, such as the ability to 450 retain moisture in extremely small soil and cellulose grain sizes. The natural nest walls of 451 Temnothorax rugatulus ants can be very densely packed which translated to very slow water 452 penetration in our porosity assays when compared to the virtually instantaneous water 453 penetration of our experimental walls. The mud-brick-like natural T. rugatulus nest walls (GC 454 personal observation, but also see Fig 1) may therefore trap humidity differently than loosely 455 packed stone walls. A separate experiment would test this by providing substrates with a variety 456 of weights, types, and sizes could allow rock dwelling ants to select material that produces more 457 compact nest walls than previously possible in both ours and past studies [22, 23, 25]. 458 Alternatively, *Temnothorax* ants may just build with what is available and produce walls with a 459 random mix of substrates that are more energetically efficient to build and those that retain more 460 moisture. Notably, colonies of the ponerine ant *Rhytidoponera metallica* also dwell in rocks and

461	build nest modifications from environmental substrates [49, 50], and other rock dwelling ants
462	differ in their nest size preference [50]. We suggest that exploring the traits of substrates that
463	rock-dwelling ants build nest walls with will provide greater insight to the purpose of these nest
464	walls.
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484 Acknowledgements

485	We thank Dr.	Nicholas	DiRienzo	for his	insights	and help	p with the	photo analy	sis.
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619 Supporting information

- 620 S1 Fig. Percentage of brood and worker death in each colony after trial 1 shows no
- 621 relationship with external humidity levels.
- 622 S2 Fig. Relatively fewer brood and workers died in larger colonies during the experiment.
- 623 Points are the average brood or workers, black lines denote a slope of 1 and red lines are slopes
- 624 derived from linear models (e.g., formula: log(BroodTrial2) ~ log(BroodTrial1)).
- 625 S1 Table. Predicted and empirical levels of relative humidity (%) produced from saturated
- 626 salt solutions. Predicted relative humidity levels (mean \pm standard deviation) are in 20 25°C
- and empirical in 20.40° C $\pm 0.18^{\circ}$ C. Note that magnesium acetate was not used in trial 2 because
- 628 it produced an inconsistent RH % in trial 1.
- 629 S2 Table. Relationship between built nest wall weight (g) and relative humidity (%). Linear
- 630 mixed effects model: WallWt ~ Humidity + (1 | Trial)
- 631 S3 Table. Relationship between built nest wall length (mm) and relative humidity (%) for
- 632 each experimental trial. Linear mixed effects model: Length ~ Humidity + (1 | Trial)
- 633 S4 Table. Relationship between built nest wall area (mm²) and relative humidity (%) for
- 634 each experimental trial. Linear mixed effects model: Area ~ Humidity + (1 | Trial)
- 635 S5 Table. Relationship between built nest wall density (g/mm³) and relative humidity (%)
- 636 **for each experimental trial.** Linear mixed effects model: Density ~ Humidity + (1 | Trial)

637	S6 Table	Relationshin	between the	wall substrate	composition ((proportion o	f substrate	II
037	ou rabic.	NUIAUUUISIUU		, wan substrate	COMPOSITION (a subsuate	11

- 638 in build walls) and relative humidity (%) for each experimental trial. Linear mixed effects
- 639 model: PropIIWall ~ Humidity + (1 | Trial)

640 S7 Table. Relationship between the internal nest area (mm²) and relative humidity (%) for

- 641 each experimental trial. Linear mixed effects model: Nest.Area ~ Humidity + (1 | Trial)
- 642 S8 Table. Statistical power analyses of linear mixed effects models assessing the effect of
- 643 humidity on nest properties. Power analyses considered a moderate (Cohen's d = 0.5) and high
- 644 (Cohen's d = 0.8) effect size. The direction of the effect was taken from the corresponding linear
- 645 mixed effects model.
- 646 S9 Table. Relationship between built nest wall weight (g) and colony size (number of brood
- 647 and workers). Linear mixed effects model: CollWallWt ~ Number.Colony + (1 | Trial)
- 648 S10 Table. Relationship between built nest wall length (mm) and colony size (number of
- 649 **brood and workers**). Linear mixed effects model: Length ~ Number.Colony + (1 | Trial)
- 650 S11 Table. Relationship between built nest wall area (mm²) and colony size (number of
- **brood and workers).** Linear mixed effects model: Area ~ Number.Colony + (1 | Trial)
- 652 S12 Table. Relationship between built nest wall density (g/mm³) and colony size (number
- 653 of brood and workers). Linear mixed effects model: Density ~ Number.Colony + (1 | Trial)
- 654 S13 Table. Relationship between built nest wall composition (proportion of substrate II)
- 655 and colony size (number of brood and workers). Linear mixed effects model: PropIIWall ~
- 656 Number.Colony + (1 | Trial)
- 657 S14 Table. Relationship between internal nest area (mm²) and colony size (number of
- **brood and workers**). Linear mixed effects model: Nest.Area ~ Number.Colony + (1 | Trial)

- 659 S15 Table. Statistical power of our linear mixed effects models assessing the effect of colony
- 660 size on nest properties. Power analyses considered a moderate (Cohen's d = 0.5) and high
- 661 (Cohen's d = 0.8) effect size. The direction of the effect was taken from the corresponding linear
- 662 mixed effects model.
- 663 S16 Table. Relationship between brood and worker mortality (%) after trial 1. Linear
- 664 regression: Brood.Death ~ Worker.Death
- 665 S17 Table. Relationship between the percentage of worker and brood death in a colony (%)
- and relative humidity (%). The percent death was taken after the first experimental trial.
- 667 Generalized linear model: worker or brood death ~ Humidity, family = Binomial
- 668 S18 Table. Relationship between the log of average brood or workers in trials 1 and 2.
- 669 Linear regression: Model 1 = Formula: $log(avg.worker Trial 2) \sim log(avg.worker Trial 1);$ Model
- 670 2 = Formula: log(avg.brood Trial2) ~ 1+ offset(log(avg.brood Trial1))
- 671 S19 Table. Comparing linear models from Table S18 to models with an intercept of 1.
- 672 Model comparison: ANOVA(Model 1 ~ Model 2); Model 1 = Formula: log(avg.worker Trial 2)
- $\sim \log(avg.worker Trial 1); Model 2 = Formula: log(avg.brood Trial2) \sim 1 + offset(log(avg.brood Trial2)) = Formula: log(avg.brood Trial2) = Formula: log(avg.brood Tri$
- 674 Trial1))
- 675 S20 Table. Comparing the artificial and natural wall substrates porosities (%). Dunn's
- 676 pairwise tests for wall substrate types: Porosity ~ SubstrateType
- 677







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Relative humidity (%)







Porosity comparison

Sub I Built Sub II Natural Substrate category