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COLONY SIZE AS A BUFFER AGAINST SEASONALITY:
BERGMANN'S RULE IN SOCIAL INSECTS

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Abstract.—In eusocial species, the size of the superorganism is the summed sizes of its component individuals. Bergmann's rule, the cline of decreasing size with decreasing latitude, applies to colony size in ants. Using data from the literature and our own collections, we show that colony sizes of tropical ant species are about one-tenth the average size of temperate species. This pattern holds when species or genera are sample units. Further, this trend is shown in 17 of 19 genera and five of six subfamilies. Bergmann's rule may arise if seasonal famine favors larger organisms, given their increased energy reserves. We constructed three colony sizes of the ant *Solenopsis invicta*. We deprived these colonies of food, or food and water. Queens, when surrounded by 10^2 workers or 10^4 workers, survived longer than solitary queens. When deprived only of food, days of queen survival had an allometry of $M^{0.21}$ (where M is mass), not significantly different from the predicted $M^{0.25}$ for unitary organisms. We propose that shorter growing seasons in the temperate latitudes cull small-colony species through overwintering starvation, which contributes to Bergmann's rule in social insects.

Body size plays a critical role in understanding the distribution of organisms (MacArthur 1972; Brown and Maurer 1989). One common pattern is Bergmann's rule, the cline of decreasing body size—within and between species—from the polar to the tropical latitudes (Bergmann 1947; Mayr 1956). Heat conservation was initially proposed as a mechanism for Bergmann's rule (Bergmann 1947; but see McNab 1971). The fasting endurance hypothesis has since been suggested as an alternative mechanism (Lindstedt and Boyce 1985; Millar and Hickling 1991). Since metabolic rate scales to mass (M) as $M^{0.75}$ and body reserves scale to mass as $M^{1.0}$ (Peters 1983; Calder 1984), food reserves are predicted to scale as $M^{0.25}$. Larger vertebrates may thus have the energy reserves to survive better the shortages that come with temperate winters (Lindsey 1966; Boyce 1978, 1979; Murphy 1985). Hence, the fasting endurance hypothesis is a possible mechanism for Bergmann's rule.

Less is known about the ecogeography of invertebrates. One place to start is the social insects (ants, termites, social wasps, and bees) since they are critical predators, mutualists, and competitors in the world's ecosystems (Wilson 1971;

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Hölldobler and Wilson 1990). Most social insect colonies consist of a queen surrounded by her sterile offspring, which feed and defend her (Wilson 1971). As a result, the mass of a social insect colony has two components under separate control: the mass distribution among the individuals (body size) and the total number of individuals in that colony (colony size).

The body size of ant species in northern Europe follows Bergmann's rule (Cushman et al. 1993). The fasting endurance hypothesis clearly predicts that increases in body size should increase an individual ant's time to starvation (Kondoh 1977). But why should increasing colony size buffer a colony against famine? Picture two single-queen colonies, one with 100 workers, the second with 1,000. In effect, these two colonies have the same amount of reproductive tissue and an order of magnitude difference in somatic tissue. Social insects can devour brood and workers, catabolizing somatic tissue, under times of environmental stress (Wilson 1971; Taylor 1978; Sorensen et al. 1983). Larger colonies thus have more somatic tissue to catabolize to keep the same amount of reproductive tissue alive. If so, then increasingly seasonal environments should favor larger mean colony sizes if a population is to persist through the periodic famine.

Species in the family Formicidae produce a remarkable range of colony sizes (from eight to 300,000,000 workers). What can cause such morphological diversity from a single common ancestor? Here we look for evidence of Bergmann's rule in ant colony size. Next, we test the fasting endurance hypothesis (Millar and Hickling 1991) as one mechanism underlying Bergmann's rule in ants.

METHODS

Colony Size and Bergmann's Rule

We test a simplified version of Bergmann's rule by asking whether tropical species have smaller colony sizes than temperate species. We do this primarily because there is surprisingly little data on colony size in social insects (Tschinkel 1991) compared to Lindsey's 1966 exhaustive analysis of thousands of vertebrate ectotherms. A tropical/temperate comparison seems a good starting point. We used data from the literature combined with data from 88 species from nest collections in tropical Costa Rica and Panama (Kaspari 1993a; M. Kaspari, unpublished data). Species means were log transformed for analysis.

We defined colony size as the total number of adult individuals serving a queen or set of queens. We generally avoided citations that failed to provide methods (e.g., those having many "personal communications") or were not reviewed by peers. If a range of colony sizes was given without the distribution, we used the mean. Rarely, a colony size was given as "greater than x ." We then used the value $2x$, noting here that a $10x$ increase did not change any results in the following analysis. Individuals may be distributed over a number of nests (e.g., *Formica yessensis*) (Higashi and Yamauchi 1979). Where it was clear that species had multiple nests per queen—and authors did not provide an average colony size—we calculated average colony size by dividing mean nest size by the fraction of nests occupied by queens, which yielded an average number of workers per queened nest.

We assigned species to temperate or tropical ($<23.3^\circ$ latitude) groups on the basis of where the colonies were observed. Range maps of ants are practically nonexistent, and some species likely skirt 23.3° , which will tend to obscure any differences. We compared colony size between these two regions using both species and genera as sample units. In addition, for 19 genera and six subfamilies of ants that have tropical and temperate species, we looked for statistical differences among the fraction of taxa with larger colonies in temperate/tropical species and the temperate/tropical means of those taxa with $n > 4$ in both regions.

The Fasting Endurance Hypothesis and Colony Size

We tested the fasting endurance hypothesis by constructing colonies of three sizes from pooled colonies of *Solenopsis invicta*, the red imported fire ant. *Solenopsis invicta* is a widespread pest species (Porter and Savignano 1990) that is abundant in central Texas in a multiple-queen form. Since multiple-queen forms of *S. invicta* readily accept other workers into their nest (Mirenda and Vinson 1982), they provide an opportunity to construct colonies of various sizes from a homogenous beginning. To do this, we dug up 10 large multiple-queen nests on the grounds of the Brackenridge Field Lab in Austin, Texas. We separated ants from soil by slowly dripping water into the bucket until the ants formed a floating mat on the water (Jouvenaz et al. 1977). In large trays coated with Fluon to prevent ant escape, we separated queens from workers through a combination of sifting and sorting with forceps. We consolidated the workers from all 10 nests to form the random pool from which experimental colonies were constructed.

We chose three colony sizes: single queen, "small colony" (ca. 10^2 workers), and "large colony" (ca. 10^4 workers). We chose these sizes for a number of reasons. First, they represent the approximate colony sizes of single-queen populations of *S. invicta* at colony founding, after 1-2 mo, and after 9 mo (Tschinkel 1988). Nine months is the growing season of *S. invicta* in southern North America (Tschinkel 1988), and thus the number of workers from this period represents the largest size the colony could attain in a single year before a period of forced inactivity. Second, 10^2 workers and 10^4 workers represent common colony sizes of tropical and temperate ant species (see below). Colony sizes were constructed volumetrically by gently tamping workers and brood into a calibrated test tube. After setting up the colonies, five counts of this volume method yielded 278–448 workers (mean = 354) for the small-colony treatment, and 9,971–14,524 workers (mean = 12,255) for the large-colony treatment.

Colonies were placed in 14-cm petri dishes with plaster bottoms and two entrance holes. These nests were placed in 26×16 -cm plastic trays, the sides of which were coated in Fluon. The nests were placed on shelves in a room kept at 30°C , ca. 70% relative humidity, on a natural photoperiod. Queens, which move little during founding, were placed in smaller 4.5-cm cups with dental plaster bottoms.

The colonies were exposed to two types of stress. The first group (20 colonies of queen, small, and large size) was given no water. The second group (20 colonies each) was given only water (sprayed three times weekly on the nest substrate and ad lib. in test tubes plugged with cotton). We checked for queen death twice

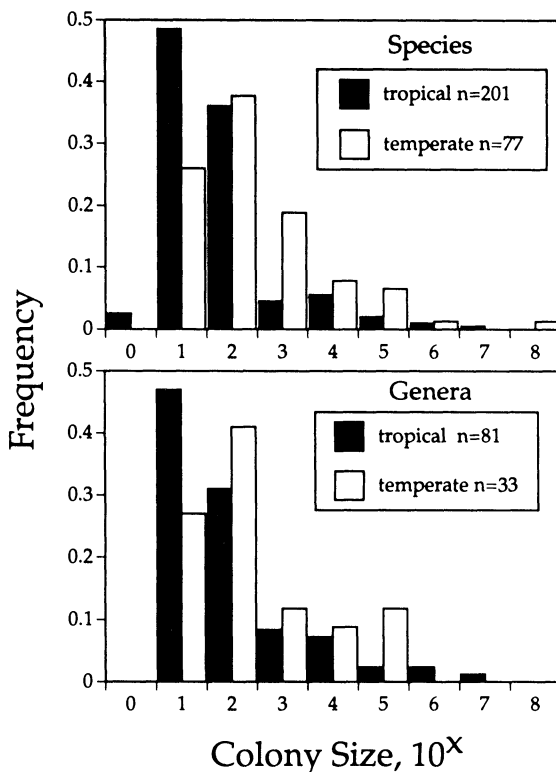


FIG. 1.—The colony sizes of temperate zone ants are larger on the average than those of tropical species, using species as sample units (*above*) and genera as sample units (*below*).

a week. Queens typically were the last ants alive in the colony. One queen each from the wet single-queen and wet large-colony treatments were crushed during observation and deleted from the analysis.

RESULTS

Our survey yielded 77 temperate and 201 tropical ant species from 14 of 16 extant ant subfamilies (Baroni Urbani et al. 1992). The family Formicidae has generated colony sizes that range over eight orders of magnitude (fig. 1; appendix). The 14 ant subfamilies differed greatly in the range of colony sizes shown by their constituent species. This is not due completely to uneven sampling. Three subfamilies in this study (Apomyrminae, Aneuretinae, Nothomyrmecinae) are represented currently by one species. The army ants (Dorylinae, Ecitoninae, and Aenictinae) and Cerapachines are less species rich than the myrmecines, ponerines, and formicines (Hölldobler and Wilson 1990). Only the dolichoderines appear conspicuously undersampled in this study.

Weighting all species equally, the modal colony size of temperate and tropical ant species was 10^3 and 10^2 workers, respectively (fig. 1). The mean colony size

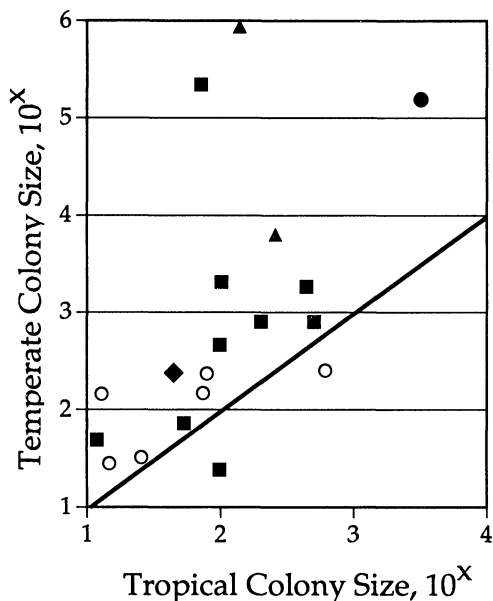


FIG. 2.—Sizes of temperate and tropical species. In 17 of 19 genera, tropical species are smaller than temperate species. The line is unity. *Triangles*, the genera in the subfamily Formicinae; *diamonds*, Cerapachinae; *squares*, Myrmicinae; *open circles*, Ponerinae; *solid circle*, Dolichoderinae.

of temperate species is also considerably larger ($10^{2.9}$ vs. $10^{2.2}$; Kruskal-Wallis $\chi^2_{77,201} = 27.2$, $P < .0001$; temperate and tropical sample sizes are given as subscripts, respectively). While the ranges of colony sizes were roughly equal in both groups, species with colony sizes less than 1,000 workers account for 86% of tropical species versus 64% of temperate species (fig. 1).

Since constraints on colony size may act differentially within different lineages, we performed three additional analyses to build the case for small colony sizes in the tropics. First, using the mean colony size per genus as the sample unit yielded the same statistical result: genera in the temperate zone had larger colony sizes than those in the tropics by the same magnitude ($10^{2.9}$ vs. $10^{2.4}$; Kruskal-Wallis $\chi^2_{33,81} = 5.4$, $P < .015$; fig. 1).

Six of the 14 subfamilies yield colony sizes from both tropical and temperate species. Five of these show a trend toward larger temperate colonies (binomial probability = 0.16). We compared the species means of the three subfamilies with at least $n = 4$ in both regions. The Formicinae ($P = .0001$) and the Myrmicinae ($P = .0004$), the two subfamilies with the most species and greatest size range, have significantly larger species in temperate genera. The Ponerinae show the same trend, but not significantly ($P = .14$).

Nineteen genera had tropical and temperate samples. If Bergmann's rule is true, we would expect tropical species of each genus to have smaller colony sizes. Seventeen of 19 genera (90%) had smaller average colony sizes in the tropics (binomial probability = 0.0004; fig. 2). *Pheidole*, the only genus with four

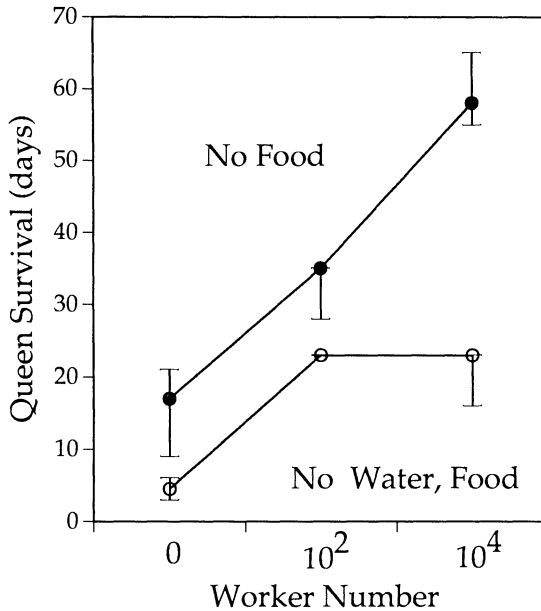


FIG. 3.—Queen survival rate in artificial colonies. Queens stressed by lack of food and water (open circles) and lack of food (solid circles) survive longer when they have more workers. Medians are given with 25% and 75% quartiles.

or more species sampled per region, had smaller colonies in tropical species ($10^{2.0}$ vs. $10^{3.3}$; Kruskal-Wallis $\chi^2_{28,4} = 10.2$, $P = .0014$).

The Fasting Endurance Hypothesis

In the test of the fasting endurance hypothesis, queens survived longer in larger colonies (fig. 3) in both water and food deprivation treatments. In colonies provided no water, all solitary queens were dead by day 6 (median = 4.5 d), while both small and large colonies survived up to 28 d (median for both = 23 d), a significant difference (Kruskal-Wallis $\chi^2_{20,20,20} = 44$, $P < .0001$).

In colonies provided water but no food there was a smooth increase in queen survival time with colony size, from medians of 16 to 31 to 57 d (Kruskal-Wallis $\chi^2_{19,20,19} = 42$, $P < .0001$). This increase follows the allometry: days of queen survival = $1.13M^{0.214}$ (standard errors = 0.05, 0.02, $F = 122$, $df = 1,56$, $P = .0001$, $r^2 = 0.67$), indistinguishable by 95% confidence intervals from the predicted $M^{0.25}$ for unitary organisms.

DISCUSSION

The “size” of a social insect colony is the summed size distribution of its members. Ant species range over eight orders of magnitude in colony size. If average body size is unrelated to colony size, the family Formicidae includes half the range of mass recorded for all the animals (10^{-5} – 10^9 g) (Bonner 1988). What

factors may help us understand such variation arising from a single common ancestor?

The Pattern: Bergmann's Rule and Colony Size

Bergmann's rule, the cline of decreasing body size with decreasing latitude (Bergmann 1947; Mayr 1956), has been shown for many, but not all, unitary organisms (Lindsey 1966; Johnston and Selander 1971). Here we show that colony size in social insects follows Bergmann's rule: tropical species and genera are smaller than their temperate counterparts. The causes of Bergmann's rule are still unclear (Scholander 1955; McNab 1971). However, if there is a principal overriding mechanism, it needs to act on both colony size in social organisms and body size in unitary organisms.

Different ranges of colony size are used by different subfamilies. Colony size is thus conserved to some extent in higher taxa (fig. 2). Does Bergmann's rule hold up within lineages? Given the uncertain phylogenies even at the subfamily level (Baroni Urbani et al. 1992), we explored this question in two rather simple ways. First, five of six subfamilies show Bergmann's rule in colony size, and the two most species-rich subfamilies show it significantly. Second, and we think most convincingly, 17 of 19 genera from five subfamilies show a trend toward smaller tropical species. If genera are independent assays of this pattern, this is a highly unlikely result due to chance alone. Colony sizes of ants, from all the data currently available, seem to be generally smaller in the tropics.

Surveys of this kind are not without bias. Since there has been little emphasis on colony size as a subject of theoretical interest (Tschinkel 1991; but see Oster and Wilson 1978), colony size data are sparse and undercount inconspicuous species (e.g., subterranean and arboreal nesters). More thorough studies of these taxa, other social insects (e.g., bees, termites), and colonial organisms (e.g., bryozoans) would give us a better idea as to the generality of this pattern.

Another potential bias is that litter-nesting species, which may be constrained by nest size, may be overrepresented in tropical samples. However, we feel this bias is negligible since litter-nesting ants are the most numerous form of ground ants in the tropics (Wilson 1959; Kaspari 1993a). Further, swarm-founding polistine wasps, which build their own nests, may also show Bergmann's rule for colony size (Jeanne 1991).

Seasonality and Bergmann's Rule

Clines in body size likely arise from a number of interacting causes (for a recent review, see Cushman et al. 1993). We suggest Bergmann's rule in colony size may arise because seasonal famines in the temperate zone are longer, more severe, and more likely to cull species with small colonies. Colony sizes of around 12,000 individuals allow *Solenopsis invicta* queens to survive colony food deprivation for almost 2 mo. Colony mass scales well ($r^2 = 0.67$) with queen longevity in time of food stress, which suggests that large colonies can buffer the queen against environmental insults better than small colonies. Further, the scaling of queen longevity to colony mass ($1.13M^{0.21}$) approaches the predicted $M^{0.25}$ also found for plankton (Threlkeld 1976). We did not directly test the mechanisms behind

this increased queen survival rate, but they likely include the ability of workers in large colonies to catabolize and concentrate nutrients from workers and brood for the queen. Water is apparently less easy to shepherd and conserve, since there was no apparent difference in queen longevity from colonies of 10^2 – 10^4 workers.

The fasting endurance hypothesis makes predictions that may further gauge its importance underlying Bergmann's rule in social insects. First, species with small colonies will tend to accumulate in impoverished but stable environments (Millar and Hickling 1991). Second, since tropical habitats vary greatly in the duration of their dry season (Holdridge et al. 1972; Leigh et al. 1982), colony size should increase from the aseasonal to the seasonal tropics. In both cases, further tests would benefit from a more quantitative definition of seasonality than is given here (Peters 1983), since seasonal changes in cold, aridity, and other conditions likely limit growth and reproduction in different habitats.

A third prediction is that species that can store food may be able to maintain smaller colonies in seasonal environments than those that do not. Fungus-growing ants and seed harvesters are classic cases of food storage. However, even tiny omnivorous colonies may put away seeds (Kaspari 1993a; Levey and Byrne 1993), and the size of these stores need to be gauged against the requirements of the colony. Further, colonies may store "live" food in the form of larvae that can be consumed when necessary (see also Nonacs 1991). Thus, the economics of storage are likely complicated.

Finally, Bergmann (1947) initially pointed out clines within species. There are few samples from multiple sites for any species in this survey, but this would be a powerful test of the fasting endurance hypothesis.

Other Mechanisms for a Cline in Colony Size

What other mechanisms might favor smaller colony sizes in the tropics? Not only are the tropics less seasonal, but tropical forests tend to be humid and warm, with the humidity of the forest floor rarely dipping below 85% (Kaspari 1993b). Litter is the most common nest site in many Neotropical habitats (Wilson 1959; Kaspari 1993a), with up to 80 litter-nesting species in the same tropical habitat (M. Kaspari, unpublished data). The benign climate of a tropical rain forest may make litter accessible as a nest site, secondarily constraining colony sizes in the bargain.

Second, social insect predators (e.g., army ants) are conspicuous, periodic predators in the tropics, although their impact is largely unexplored. If predation rates increase toward the tropics, they may select for reproduction at smaller sizes (Richards 1953; Wilson 1971; Jeanne 1991; Kozłowski 1992). This old hypothesis remains untested, largely for lack of quantitative data on colony mortality in temperate or tropical habitats.

Although heat conservation was the original hypothesis for Bergmann's rule (Bergmann 1947; McNab 1971), it is difficult to see how this may work for individual insects (Scholander 1955; Cushman et al. 1993). However, large numbers of workers, massed around the queen, may provide a barrier against heat loss in the dead of winter.

Finally, perhaps the temperate latitudes, more recently freed from glacial ice, have been differentially colonized by taxa with large colonies. This idea would gain credibility if populations of large-colony taxa dispersed farther than those of small colonies. Such a situation may be possible if large colonies produce larger, harder reproductions.

Schoener and Janzen (1968) found insects sampled from the forests of Massachusetts were smaller on the average than those collected in Costa Rica. This result runs counter to Bergmann's rule (if $n = 2$ is a representative sample). Interestingly, they also focus on seasonality in their explanation, suggesting that the longer growing seasons of the tropics allow larger maximum body sizes. This hypothesis is intriguing and may be most applicable to annual species. We, on the other hand, focus on the tactics of perennial species that need to survive the cold/dry season and reproduce over multiple years. The further exploration, and perhaps integration, of these hypotheses may yield a theory of body mass distribution for large, diverse biotas.

Bergmann's rule is a statistical pattern; there is much variation in colony size unexplained by latitude. For example, there are temperate genera with small colonies (e.g., *Leptothorax*) and tropical genera with spectacularly larger colonies (e.g., *Atta*, *Eciton*). Certainly other factors, including body size (Cushman et al. 1993), queen size, and dormancy, may influence the ability of a colony to found, grow, and survive the vagaries of the environment. So far, however, genera with tropical and temperate counterparts are very consistent in expressing Bergmann's rule (fig. 2), and large colonies can buffer a queen against famine better than small colonies (fig. 3). Given the fascinating range and biological importance of colony size in social organisms, exploring the historical and extant forces shaping colony size should be productive. The first author is currently collecting new colony size data to tease apart the effects of within-latitude seasonality and nest site constraints on colony size in ants.

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APPENDIX

TABLE A1

MEAN COLONY SIZES OF ANT SPECIES

Subfamily and Genus	Species	Site	Mean	N	Citation
Aenictinae: <i>Aenictus</i>	<i>currax</i>	tr	200,000	1	Wilson 1959
	<i>laeviceps</i>	tr	85,000	—	Schneirla 1971
Dorylinae: <i>Dorylus</i>	<i>wilverthi</i>	tr	12,000,000	—	Raignier and van Boven 1955
Ecitoninae: <i>Eciton</i>	<i>burchelli</i>	tr	825,000	—	Schneirla 1957; Rettenmeyer 1963
	<i>hamatum</i>	tr	300,000	—	Rettenmeyer 1963
<i>Labidus</i>	<i>praedator</i>	tr	2,000,000	1	Rettenmeyer 1963
<i>Neivamyrmex</i>	<i>nigrescens</i>	te	110,000	—	Schneirla 1971
Leptanillini: <i>Leptanilla</i>	<i>japonica</i>	te	150	—	Masuko 1990
Cerapachyinae: <i>Cerapachys</i>	<i>cf. cribrinodis</i>	te	235	1	Villet et al. 1991
	<i>opaca</i>	tr	100	1	Wilson 1959
<i>Sphinctomyrmex</i>	<i>polynikes</i>	tr	20	1	Wilson 1959
	<i>cf. steinhelli</i>	te	240	2	Buschinger et al. 1989
Ponerinae: <i>Amblyopone</i>	<i>pluto</i>	tr	33	3	Gotwald and Levieux 1972
<i>Anochetus</i>	sp.	tr	89	12	Ito 1991
	<i>bequaerti</i>	te	84	1	Villet et al. 1991
<i>Centromyrmex</i>	<i>diegensis</i>	tr	13	9	BCI:odont
	<i>faurei</i>	te	434	2	Villet et al. 1991
<i>Cryptopone</i>	<i>katoniae</i>	te	84	2	Villet et al. 1991
	<i>sellaris</i>	tr	408	1	Levieux 1976
<i>Diacamma</i>	<i>motschulskyi</i>	tr	20	1	Wilson 1959
<i>Dinoponera</i>	<i>rugosum</i>	tr	40	2	Wilson 1959
<i>Ectatomma</i>	<i>australis</i>	tr	30	—	Fowler 1985
<i>Gnamptogenys</i>	<i>rudivum</i>	tr	105	15	Breed et al. 1990
	<i>horni</i>	tr	28	46	BCI:gnam2
<i>Geoponinae</i>	<i>ingeborgae</i>	tr	15	1	Brown 1992
	<i>macretes</i>	tr	40	1	Wilson 1959
	sp. 1	tr	24	1	LS:gnam1

TABLE A1 (Continued)

Subfamily and Genus	Species	Site	Mean	N	Citation
<i>Hypoponera</i>	<i>?gleadowi</i>	te	32	1	Villet et al. 1991
	sp. 2	tr	34	41	LS:hypo2
	sp. 3	tr	24	31	LS:hypol
	sp. b	tr	21	27	BCI:hypob
<i>Leptogenys</i>	<i>attenuata</i>	te	90	4	Villet et al. 1991
	<i>bituberculata</i>	tr	300	1	Wilson 1959
	<i>castanea</i>	te	289	4	Villet et al. 1991
	<i>chinensis</i>	tr	367	7	Maschwitz and Schönege 1983
	<i>diminuta</i>	tr	245	4	Wilson 1959
	<i>nitida</i>	te	595	6	Villet et al. 1991
	<i>ocellifera</i>	tr	32,000	1	Maschwitz and Mühlenberg 1975
	<i>purpurea</i>	tr	1,250	2	Wilson 1959
	sp. 2	tr	53	2	BCI:lept1
	sp. 1	tr	60	1	Wilson 1959
<i>Myopias</i>	sp. 2	tr	55	2	Wilson 1959
	sp. 3	tr	30	1	Wilson 1959
	<i>bauri</i>	tr	300	40	Jaffé and Marcuse 1983
<i>Odontomachus</i>	<i>chelifer</i>	tr	130	1	Medeiros et al. 1992
	<i>laticeps</i>	tr	15	7	LS:odonbg
	<i>apicalis</i>	tr	23	1	Oliveira and Hölldobler 1990
<i>Pachycondyla</i>	<i>berthoudi</i>	te	517	4	Peeters and Crewe 1987
	<i>commutata</i>	tr	800	1	Mill 1982
	<i>foetens</i>	tr	518	2	Levieux 1976
	<i>obscuricornis</i>	tr	57	1	Fresneau 1984
	<i>pergandei</i>	tr	19	3	BCI:hypo2
	<i>stigma</i>	tr	9	13	LS:pach1
	<i>striatulus</i>	tr	15	2	Wilson 1959
	<i>krugeri</i>	te	43	15	Wildman and Crewe 1988
	<i>tarsatus</i>	tr	600	—	Levieux 1976
	<i>clavata</i>	tr	1,019	2	Janzen and Carroll 1983
	<i>conradii</i>	tr	400	—	Levieux 1976
	<i>parallela</i>	tr	50	1	Wilson 1959
	<i>amabilis</i>	tr	298	3	Hölldobler and Wilson 1986; LS: pram
<i>Prionopelta</i>	<i>opaca</i>	tr	20	1	Wilson 1959
<i>Proceratium</i>	<i>silaceum</i>	te	28	—	Kennedy and Talbot 1939
	sp. 1	tr	17	2	BCI:proc
	sp. 2	tr	13	2	LS:procl

TABLE A1 (Continued)

Subfamily and Genus	Species	Site	Mean	N	Citation
<i>Paratrechina</i>	<i>ha</i>	tr	351	76	BCI:paha
	<i>pallida</i>	tr	500	1	Wilson 1959
	sp. 1	tr	200	1	Wilson 1959
	<i>steinheili</i>	tr	143	60	LS:PAST
<i>Polyrachis</i>	sp. 2	tr	150	1	Wilson 1959
	<i>debilis</i>	tr	325	3	Wilson 1959
	<i>dives</i>	te	876,096	1	Yamauchi et al. 1987
	<i>hirsutula</i>	tr	150	1	Wilson 1959
	<i>limbata</i>	tr	100	1	Wilson 1959
	<i>omymymex</i>	tr	60	1	Wilson 1959
<i>Prenolepis</i> <i>Pseudolasius</i> Myrmecinae: <i>Myrmecia</i>	<i>rufiventris</i>	tr	200	1	Wilson 1959
	<i>imparis</i>	te	3,370	21	Talbot 1943; Tschinkel 1987
	<i>breviceps</i>	tr	325	2	Wilson 1959
	<i>dispar</i>	te	124	20	Gray 1971
	<i>gulosa</i>	te	887	2	Haskins and Haskins 1950
Nothomyrmecinae: <i>Nothomyrmecia</i> Pseudomyrmecinae: <i>Pseudomyrmex</i>	<i>nigrocincta</i>	te	821	2	Gray 1971
	<i>pilosula</i>	te	678	2	Haskins and Haskins 1950
	<i>vindex</i>	te	181	2	Haskins and Haskins 1950
	<i>macrops</i>	te	60	5	Taylor 1978
	<i>spiniola</i>	tr	10,021	—	Janzen 1967
Myrmicinae: <i>Acanthognathus</i> <i>Acanthomyrmex</i>	<i>termitarius</i>	tr	200	—	Jaffé et al. 1986
	<i>ocellatus</i>	tr	10	6	LS:ACEL1
	<i>ferox</i>	tr	49	1	Moffett 1985
	<i>notabilis</i>	tr	37	1	Moffett 1985
	<i>ocotospinosus</i>	tr	55,000	1	Weber 1972
<i>Acromyrmex</i> <i>Adelomyrmex</i> <i>Aphaenogaster</i>	<i>biroi</i>	tr	10	1	Wilson 1959
	<i>dromedarius</i>	tr	100	1	Wilson 1959
	<i>rudis</i>	te	303	118	Headley 1949; Talbot 1951
	<i>treatae</i>	te	682	30	Talbot 1954
	<i>angulatum</i>	tr	155	1	Weber 1941
<i>Apterostigma</i>	GR	tr	27	1	BCI:aptegr
	SH	tr	46	1	BCI:aptesh
	SQ	tr	41	5	BCI:aptesq
	<i>columbica tonsipes</i>	tr	1,750,000	1	Martin et al. 1967

<i>Basiceros</i>	<i>manni</i>	tr	32	3	Wilson and Hölldobler 1986
	<i>sp. 1</i>	tr	9	1	LB:BASI
<i>Cardiocondyla</i>	<i>paradoxa</i>	tr	50	1	Wilson 1959
	<i>thoracica</i>	tr	70	1	Wilson 1959
<i>Cephalotes</i>	<i>atratus</i>	tr	11,267	1	Corn 1980
<i>Crematogaster</i>	<i>BB</i>	tr	99	1	LS:CRBB
	<i>dohrni</i>	tr	28,982	2	Ayyar 1937; Roonwal 1954
	<i>elegans</i>	tr	300	1	Wilson 1959
	<i>KA</i>	tr	39	1	LS:CRKA
	<i>larrae</i>	te	789	13	MacKay et al. 1984
	<i>LO</i>	tr	221	7	BCI:cremlo
	<i>RE</i>	tr	125	1	LS:CRRE
<i>Cyphomyrmex</i>	<i>subtilis</i>	tr	10,000	1	Wilson 1959
	<i>cornutus</i>	tr	28	3	LS:CYCO
	<i>minutus</i>	tr	29	163	BCI:cymimi
	<i>rimosus</i>	tr	115	20	Weber 1947; BCI:CYDO
<i>Daceton</i>	<i>cibdela</i>	tr	10	1	Wilson 1959
<i>Daceton</i>	<i>armigerum</i>	tr	5,100	3	Wilson 1962a
<i>Eurhopalothrix</i>	<i>biroi</i>	tr	50	1	Wilson 1959
<i>Hylomyrma</i>	<i>sp. 1</i>	tr	16	11	LS:HYLO1
<i>Leptothorax</i>	<i>acervorum</i>	te	34	7	Heinze and Ortius 1991
	<i>allardycei</i>	te	53	30	Cole 1984
	<i>ambiguus</i>	te	37	50	Talbot 1965
	<i>curvispinosus</i>	te	83	38	Headley 1943
	<i>longispinosus</i>	te	46	97	Headley 1943
<i>Lordomyrma</i>	<i>sp.</i>	tr	13	—	Wilson 1959
<i>Megalomyrmex</i>	<i>driftii</i>	tr	9	2	BCI:dibe
	<i>ph</i>	tr	26	1	BCI:megaph
	<i>silvestrii</i>	tr	36	5	BCI:me gal, megafs
<i>Meranoplus</i>	<i>spinosus</i>	tr	150	1	Wilson 1959
<i>Monomorium</i>	<i>rothsteini</i>	te	36,500	—	Davison 1982
	<i>whitell</i>	te	20,225	—	Davison 1982
<i>Myrmecina</i>	<i>americana</i>	te	24	5	Talbot 1957
	<i>transversa</i>	tr	100	1	Wilson 1959
<i>Myrmica</i>	<i>punctiventris</i>	te	86	63	Snyder and Herbers 1991
	<i>ruginodis</i>	te	1,216	12	Brian 1950
	<i>schencki emeryana</i>	te	255	36	Talbot 1945
	<i>sulcinodis</i>	te	167	224	Elmes 1987
<i>Myrmicaria</i>	<i>eumenoides</i>	tr	19,899	2	Levieux 1983
<i>Myrmicocrypta</i>	<i>buenzlii</i>	tr	1,716	1	Weber 1972
<i>Neostruma</i>	<i>zeteki</i>	tr	30	34	BCI:strummi
<i>Ocymyrmex</i>	<i>barbiger</i>	te	200	4	Marsh 1985
	<i>foreli</i>	te	873	2	Forster and Marsh 1986

TABLE A1 (Continued)

Subfamily and Genus	Species	Site	Mean	N	Citation
<i>Oligomymex</i>	<i>overbecki</i>	tr	400	1	Moffet 1986 <i>b</i>
	<i>nevermanni</i>	tr	179	1	Wilson 1986
	<i>urichi</i>	tr	783	2	Wilson 1962 <i>b</i>
<i>Orectognathus</i> <i>Phetidole</i>	<i>versicolor</i>	tr	104	1	Carlin 1981
	bic	tr	275	6	BCI:pbic
	BSH	tr	206	3	LS:pbsh
	CCC	tr	375	68	LS:pccc
	CCR	tr	134	5	LS:pccr
	cho	tr	88	40	BCI:pcho
	<i>cramptoni</i>	tr	172	1	LS:pbgc
	<i>dentata</i>	te	946	42	Calabi and Traniello 1989
	DSS	tr	22	3	LS:pdss
	eye	tr	36	4	BCI:peye
	<i>fervida</i>	te	4,635	43	Ito and Higashi 1990
	GLO	tr	44	1	LS:pglo
	hfb	tr	205	4	BCI:phfb
	int	tr	126	33	LS:PANN, PINT
	MGA	tr	152	4	LS:pmga
	MGS	tr	159	1	LS:pmgs
	MIC	tr	62	11	LS:pmic
	MIN	tr	80	4	LS:pmim
	<i>morrisi</i>	te	2,500	—	Johnson 1988
	NEB	tr	61	14	LS:pneb
	NGA	tr	62	52	LS:pnga
	NIT	tr	547	11	LS:pnit
	<i>pallidula</i>	te	1,600	—	Passera 1985
	PEB	tr	300	2	LS:ppeb
	pnig	tr	113	21	LS:pnig
	pnigb	tr	105	56	BCI:pnigb, ppebb
	poc	tr	58	55	BCI:ppocb
	renb	tr	60	4	BCI:prenb
	rpc	tr	60	3	BCI:prpc
	sbi	tr	42	1	BCI:psbi
	sp.	tr	150	1	Wilson 1959
	spe	tr	56	2	LS:pspe
	<i>zeteki</i>	tr	81	2	BCI:prsp

<i>Pheidologeton</i>	<i>diversus</i>	tr	157,000	4	Moffet 1988
	<i>silenus</i>	tr	72,250	4	Moffet 1988
	sp.	tr	6,000	1	Wilson 1959
<i>Pogonomyrmex</i>	<i>badius</i>	te	4,736	25	Gentry and Stirtz 1972
	<i>barbatus</i>	te	12,358	1	Wildermuth and Davis 1931
	<i>californicus</i>	te	4,533	11	Erickson 1972
	<i>imberbiculus</i>	te	21	10	Heinze et al. 1992
	<i>magnacathus</i>	te	163	—	Cole 1968
	<i>marcusi</i>	te	450	2	Marcus and Marcus 1951
	<i>montanus</i>	te	1,665	70	MacKay 1981
	<i>occidentalis</i>	te	3,024	33	Lavigne 1969
	<i>rugosus</i>	te	7,740	20	MacKay 1981
	<i>subnitidus</i>	te	5,934	26	MacKay 1981
<i>Pristomyrmex</i>	sp.	tr	100	1	Wilson 1959
<i>Proatta</i>	<i>butteli</i>	tr	5,500	—	Moffett 1986a
<i>Procryptocerus</i>	<i>scabrusculus</i>	tr	62	1	Wheeler 1984
<i>Rhopotromyrmex</i>	<i>melleus</i>	tr	10,000	2	Wilson 1959
<i>Rogeria</i>	sp. 1	tr	107	1	BCI:roge1
<i>Sericomyrmex</i>	<i>anabilis</i>	tr	300	—	Wheeler 1925
	<i>urichi</i>	tr	946	—	Weber 1941
<i>Smithistruma</i>	sp. 1	tr	57	8	LS:smit2
	sp. 2	tr	55	3	LS:smit1
	sp. 3	tr	99	1	BCI:smit3
	<i>rostrata</i>	te	72	1	Talbot 1957
	st	tr	26	7	BCI:smitst
<i>Solenopsis</i>	COR	tr	47	27	LS:dicor
	GA	tr	19	4	LS:diga
	<i>invicta</i>	te	220,000	—	Tschinkel 1988
	MI	tr	16	1	LS:dimi
	OR	tr	140	92	BCI:dior
	PL	tr	54	12	LS:dipl
	PO	tr	185	12	LS:dipo
	SO	tr	555	14	LS:diso
	SS	tr	184	33	BCI:diss
	TT	tr	44	55	BCI:ditt
	CO	tr	42	11	LS:dico
<i>Stenamma</i>	<i>diecki</i>	te	41	7	Francoeur 1965
	<i>brevicorne</i>	te	70	10	Talbot 1965
	<i>impar</i>	te	54	8	Talbot 1957
	<i>schmittii</i>	te	121	4	Talbot 1957
	<i>meridionale</i>	te	15	2	Talbot 1957
	sp. 1	tr	12	1	LS:prug

TABLE A1 (Continued)

Subfamily and Genus	Species	Site	Mean	N	Citation
<i>Strumigenys</i>	<i>bajarii</i>	tr	400	1	Wilson 1959
	br	tr	15	1	BCI:strumbr
	<i>frivaldszkyl</i>	tr	15	1	Wilson 1959
	gl	tr	18	2	BCI:strumgl
	lj	tr	16	13	BCI:strumlj
	ljls	tr	48	2	LS:STLJS
	<i>loriai</i>	tr	400	2	Wilson 1959
	<i>mayri</i>	tr	100	1	Wilson 1959
	mi	tr	48	30	LS:struimil
	nf	tr	26	4	LS:strunf
	sp. 1	tr	80	6	LS:struml
	wk	tr	26	3	LS:struwk
	<i>alluaudi</i>	tr	27	7	Alpert 1992
	<i>foreli</i>	tr	12	9	Alpert 1992
<i>Terataner</i>	sp. a	tr	18	4	Alpert 1992
	sp. b	tr	39	8	Alpert 1992
	sp. c	tr	10	22	Alpert 1992
	sp. d	tr	7	3	Alpert 1992
	<i>caespitum</i>	te	10,975	49	Brian et al. 1967
<i>Tetramorium</i>	<i>ruthae</i>	tr	280	1	Weber 1941
<i>Trachymyrmex</i>	<i>septentrionalis</i>	te	800	99	Lenczewski 1985
	<i>zeteki</i>	tr	151	1	Weber 1972
<i>Vollenhovia</i>	<i>brachycera</i>	tr	150	1	Wilson 1959
<i>Wasmannia</i>	<i>aeropunctata</i>	tr	839	66	LS:waua; BCI:wabf

NOTE.—N, Total number of colonies used to calculate colony size; dash (—), no sample size is given in the citation. tr, Tropical zone records; te, temperate zone records. Where no citation is listed, collections are by the first author at Barro Colorado Island, Panama (BCI), or La Selva Field Station, Costa Rica (LS). These abbreviations are followed by the code name used for the species deposited in the Museum of Comparative Zoology, Harvard University.

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