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2 STRUCTURAL CHANGES IN ARBOREAL ANT ASSEMBLAGES IN AN AGE-
3 SEQUENCE OF COCOA PLANTATIONS IN THE SOUTHEAST OF BAHIA,
4 BRAZIL

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26 Running title: Ant assemblage changes in cocoa fields

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28

29 ABSTRACT

30 A study of succession of ant species in plantations of different ages and development
31 may assist with our understanding of the dynamics of their assemblages. The aim of this
32 study was to characterize the relationship between development of Brazilian cocoa
33 plantations and the nature of their dominant ant assemblages. A chronosequence of
34 cocoa plantations aged 1, 3, 4, 8, 15 and 33 years was sampled by several
35 methodologies. Data were analyzed in terms behavioural dominance and the Berger-
36 Parker's dominance index (here based on frequency data), and also by PCA and analysis
37 of co-occurrence. Apart from lower numbers of species being found in the 1-year old
38 plantation, there was no consistent trend in ant richness with plantation age. According
39 to the criteria we adopted, only one species reached behavioural dominance in most age
40 classes of plantation, although this increased to three in the 8-year old one, before
41 declining to zero in the oldest plantation. No species reached Berger-Parker dominance
42 in the youngest plantation, whereas all other age classes contained one to three
43 dominants. Particular species showed non-age-related variations in their degree of
44 Berger-Parker dominance and this could in part be related to which species initially
45 colonized the plantation. PCA Axis 1 was partly related to plantation age, indicating an
46 age-related change in assemblage composition. Ant species co-occurrence could only be
47 effectively detected in cocoa plantations from 3 to 15 years of age. The arboreal ant
48 assemblage is dynamic in nature, with the competitive hierarchy among species
49 oscillating along the cocoa development chronosequence. The assemblage structure
50 could be influenced by the initial founding ants, as well as by the invasive *Monomorium*
51 *floricola*.

52

53 Key words: *Theobroma cocoa*, competition, territoriality, dominance, Formicidae

54

55 INTRODUCTION

56 Plantations of cocoa (*Theobroma cocoa* L., Malvaceae) tend to be characterized by the
57 occurrence of numerically and/or behaviourally dominant arboreal ants, distributed in a
58 mosaic-like fashion (Leston, 1973, 1978; Majer, 1992; Majer *et al.*, 1994; Hora *et al.*,
59 2005). The establishment of large territories of dominant ants is a feature of plantations
60 (Philpott, 2006), in which food is plentiful and more easily monopolized than in forest
61 where, due to the higher diversity of fauna and flora as well as higher vegetation
62 structural complexity, resources are much more dispersed and more diverse in
63 composition. This can lead to competition for territory, with resources being more
64 acute, and occupation of space by ant species being much more fragmented. Thus, in the
65 understorey of forest areas with poor soil, low solar energy input, and where resources
66 are dispersed, large, mutually exclusive territories of dominant ants tend not to be found
67 (Floren & Linsenmair, 2000), although this is not necessarily the case in the uppermost,
68 insolated stratum where resources are more abundant (Ribeiro *et al.*, 2013). The
69 assemblage of arboreal ants associated with cocoa plantations, focussing on the mosaic
70 structure, was first studied in Ghana, West Africa (Leston 1973; Majer, 1976a; 1976b)
71 and since then in other countries such as Papua New Guinea (Room, 1975), Central
72 America (Adams 1994), and most recently in the Ivory Coast (Kone *et al.*, 2012). It has
73 also been extensively studied in Brazilian forests and cocoa plantations (Leston 1978;
74 Majer & Delabie, 1993; Majer *et al.*, 1994; Medeiros *et al.*, 1995; Delabie *et al.*, 2000;
75 Dejean *et al.*, 2003).

76 Dominant ant species are numerically superior to other ant species and may
77 mediate the structure of the rest of the community (Leston, 1973; Majer & Delabie,
78 1993; Majer *et al.*, 1994), although another study suggests that they can disaggregate
79 the organization of other species (Sanders *et al.*, 2007). Although the evidence is
80 conflicting, non-dominant species can occur randomly, with their occurrence being
81 governed by a mixture of factors (Majer *et al.*, 1994). The establishment of ant
82 territories is partly a function of which species arrive first (Egler, 1954), and partly a
83 function of the aggressiveness of the species, which is modulated by defense and
84 conquest, and where competition with enemies is the main behavioural mechanism
85 involved in regulating the assemblage. This can result in a mosaic-like structure
86 (Hölldobler, 1983). The nature of this mosaic can also be influenced by the presence of
87 invasive ant species, which pose novel interactions with the native ant fauna. Examples

88 of such situations include the exotic *Wasmannia auropunctata* in Africa (Mikissa *et al.*,
89 2013), *Pheidole megacephala* in Asia (Greenslade, 1971) and *Monomorium floricola* in
90 Brazil (Wetterer, 2010; this study).

91 The dynamic nature of the ant assemblage can be better understood by assessing
92 the ontogenetic succession of species that nest or forage in trees representing several
93 ages of development, and assessing the accompanying changes in those biotic and
94 abiotic factors that might provide ecological conditions favourable for new species to
95 enter the canopy (Kenne *et al.*, 2003; Dejean *et al.*, 2008).

96 Perennial arboreal crops offer an excellent opportunity to study the processes
97 involved in assemblage organization and how this can result in the formation of a
98 mosaic, since this type of agriculture favours a diverse ant fauna. The structure of
99 arboreal ant assemblages of cocoa plantations in the southeast of Bahia is considered to
100 be close to that of the original Brazilian Atlantic forest (Majer & Delabie, 1993; Delabie
101 & Mariano, 2000; Delabie *et al.*, 2007). This may be because cocoa trees are often
102 planted under the original forest trees (the "cabruca" system) or are located near
103 remnant areas of primary or secondary forest (Majer & Delabie, 1993; Delabie &
104 Mariano, 2000; Delabie *et al.*, 2007). Thus, like coffee, cocoa is a crop that contributes
105 to the preservation of ant biodiversity (Perfecto *et al.*, 1996; Kone *et al.*, 2012), as well
106 as that of invertebrates (Delabie *et al.*, 2000; 2007) and certain other organisms
107 (Cassano *et al.*, 2009; Schroth *et al.*, 2011). This reinforces the interest in supporting
108 this crop as a major agricultural activity in the southeast of Bahia, ensuring the
109 preservation of a representative fraction of the biodiversity of the Atlantic Forest. In this
110 region, the "derruba" system, in which the original forest trees is totally cleared and
111 shade trees are planted concurrently or prior to cocoa establishment (for details see
112 Delabie *et al.*, 2007; Cassano *et al.*, 2009; Schroth *et al.*, 2011), is also commonly used
113 by cocoa producers (Delabie *et al.*, 2007); this also contributes, albeit to a lesser extent,
114 to maintaining invertebrate diversity.

115 Studies on ant assemblages and mosaics are extremely important, especially for
116 revealing how their structure tracks the development of the vegetation. Such studies
117 may contribute to our understanding of the factors governing ant assemblage
118 organization, not only in cocoa plantations, but also in many other perennial tree crops
119 and natural forests (Philpott *et al.*, 2008; Ribeiro *et al.*, 2013; Rizali *et al.*, 2013). For
120 example, the plant provides a range of conditions that change according to the tree's

121 development, influencing the activities of the ant assemblages that develop on it, and
122 their interactions with other insects, to name just two. Another benefit is that
123 conservation of ant diversity in cocoa contributes to improving the local economy, as
124 some species act as biological control agents for protecting the plant (Delabie *et al.*,
125 2007). This is because dominant species can determine the distribution of certain pests
126 by processes such as exclusion, selective predation or competition (Seguni *et al.*, 2011).

127 The aim of this study was to characterize the relationship between the
128 development of Brazilian, derruba-type cocoa plantations with their dominant ant
129 assemblage, and how the invasive tramp ant species *M. floricola* can influence its
130 organization as the plantation changes with age. Not only should this contribute to our
131 understanding of ant assemblage and mosaic dynamics, it should also provide insight
132 into to why mosaics have not necessarily been observed in lower forest canopies (Floren
133 & Linsenmair, 2000).

134

135 MATERIALS AND METHODS

136 The study was carried out in a chronosequence of cocoa plantations aged 1, 3, 4,
137 8, 15 and 33 years, planted under the derruba system (supplementary material, Figure
138 1). These were located in the blocks E, F, G and H in the experimental areas of the
139 Cocoa Research Center (CEPEC - CEPLAC) (supplementary material, Figure 2),
140 Ilhéus, in the State of Bahia, Brazil (14°47'55"S 39°02'01"W).

141 Ilheus has a hot and humid climate type AF (Köppen, 1936), with annual
142 temperatures ranging between 20-25⁰C (Santana *et al.*, 2003; IBGE, 2010). The
143 predominant ecosystem is the wet forest of the Brazilian Atlantic forest biome, with
144 regional precipitation varying between 2,000 and 2,400 mm per year, with the rain
145 irregularly distributed throughout the year. The terrain is flat or with gently rolling hills,
146 and consists of stratified layers of sand and clay sediments, with an average elevation of
147 60 m above sea level (Santana *et al.*, 2003).

148 All plantations were shaded with planted, non-native *Erythrina* spp. (Fabaceae)
149 shade trees. Broadly speaking, the *Erythrina* trees corresponded to the emerging canopy
150 trees of the original forest, while the cocoa trees represented the understory layer. To
151 adequately describe the areas, litter thickness, the heights and canopy volumes of cocoa
152 trees and the heights of the *Erythrina* shade trees were measured for each age-class of

153 plantation. The cocoa trees had a height ranging from 1.94 ± 0.35 m (1-year old trees),
154 increasing progressively to 7.29 ± 1.01 m (33-year old trees), with a canopy volume
155 varying from 0.78 ± 0.72 m³ to 104.76 ± 61.53 m³ (Table 1). The *Erythrina* shade trees,
156 ranged from 11.45 ± 6.06 m (15-year old plantation) to 19.23 ± 9.97 m (4-year old
157 plantation); there was no relationship between shade tree height and age of plantation
158 because some areas had been established in previous cocoa plantations where the
159 original planted shade trees had been retained. The litter thickness varied from
160 1.05 ± 0.60 cm (1-year old plantation), progressively increasing to 5.67 ± 0.96 cm (33-
161 year old plantation).

162 Ants were sampled from September 2008 to March 2009, a period in which no
163 chemicals at all were used in the experimental areas. Furthermore, no insecticides had
164 been applied for the last 20 years in the region, partly due to economic considerations
165 that followed the introduction of the witches' broom disease in Bahia (Pereira *et al.*,
166 1990), although fungicides have been continuously and heavily used elsewhere. Fifty
167 trees were chosen randomly within each age class of plantation, with sampled trees
168 spaced at least 25 m apart (a distance greater than that recommended by Majer *et al.*,
169 1994). This was done to ensure relative independence of sampling, where the
170 probability of two successively sampled plants being occupied by the same ant colony
171 was almost zero. All trees conformed to a minimum distance of 25 m from the edge.
172 Although we cannot exclude the possibility that the shade trees contribute to structuring
173 part of the ant assemblage on the cocoa trees, ants were not sampled on them, a matter
174 which we discuss later. On each cocoa tree, four conventional methods for sampling
175 arboreal ants were applied according to the recommendations of Bestelmeyer *et al.*
176 (2000), namely: 1) sardine baits placed in an 50 ml plastic cup set at 1.5 m for 2 hours
177 during the earlier hours of the day (08:00-10:00 h); 2) honey baits set at the same height
178 and time; 3) manual collection on the trunk and foliage for 10 minutes per tree; and 4)
179 tree beating using a 9 m² sheet placed beneath each tree. For the bait sampling, all ants
180 on the bait at the end of the two hours were caught and sealed in vials of ethanol for
181 subsequent identification and counting. The number of baits occupied by different
182 species was recorded as well as the number of different species co-occurring on the same
183 baits at the same time. For the other sampling methods only a single or few individuals
184 of each species were collected, as only their identification was necessary. Each type of
185 sampling was performed once on each tree, since we consider that weather conditions

186 during this warmer part of the year have a minimum influence on our data. Ants were
187 placed into 70% alcohol and returned to the laboratory for determination using the
188 CEPLAC (CPDC) reference collection, where vouchers are deposited.

189 Ant occurrence matrices for each species (1: presence; 0: absence) were first
190 compiled for each collecting method in each age-class of plantation. A presence/absence
191 matrix was then prepared for all methods combined.

192 Behavioural dominance of species was analyzed according to recommendations
193 of Blüthgen and Stork (2007) and Parr and Gibb (2010), and was based on abundances
194 at honey and/or sardine baits. The criterion for behavioural dominance was arbitrarily
195 set at one third of the maximum value obtained, this being 7. This conservative criterion
196 captured the species that we know from previous observations are behaviourally
197 dominant. The Berger-Parker index of dominance of the most frequently occurring ant
198 species, as well as the less frequent *Crematogaster carinata* and *Ectatomma*
199 *tuberculatum* (both of them considered as dominant in Majer *et al.*, 1994), was
200 calculated using frequency in samples values (May, 1975; Sofia & Suzuki, 2004;
201 Magurran, 1988). Once again, the criterion for Berger-Parker dominance was
202 conservatively set at one third of the maximum value, resulting in a cut-off of 0.193.

203 The data (ant species frequency) were analyzed by Principal Components
204 Analysis (PCA) using the program PAST version 1.97. This analysis allowed us to
205 check how the species frequency ordered according to plantation age. This method is
206 used to sort samples according to the criterion of Majer (1976a), for example, by the
207 number of occurrences of a species. The species chosen for this analysis were the most
208 frequently occurring according to the 95 percentile.

209 In order to test whether the interactions between species progressively changes
210 with increasing age of plantation, an analysis of co-occurrence was performed with the
211 aid of *EcoSim* software (Gotelli & Entsminger, 2012), testing for non-randomly co-
212 occurring species using the array of presence/absence ant data (Gotelli, 2000). Species
213 with a non-random occurrence were examined using three different groups of species,
214 namely, the entire array of species, the most frequently occurring species (95 percentile)
215 and the entire array of species excluding the invasive ant *M. floricola*. The default
216 program for random samples was used (C-Score index, where the expected values
217 simulate a critical point in the distribution of probability, corresponding to the null
218 model, fixed columns and rows, and 1000 arrays) (Pacheco *et al.*, 2009; Ribas &

219 Schoereder, 2002). Co-occurrence was assessed by the parameter indicated by Parr and
220 Gibb (2010); i.e. when the C-score is high compared with the null model, there is no
221 suggestion that the species that predominated in the assemblage were avoided, and
222 when it is low this suggests that the species tended to aggregate. We used this analysis
223 of co-occurrence as it allows verification of the occurrence of competition between
224 species in each plantation age-class. Using this analytical method, in conjunction with
225 our own and previous ethological observations, the detection of patterns in the
226 arrangement of arboreal ants during the development of the cocoa tree could be
227 ascertained, enabling us to understand cohabitation between species or their mutual
228 exclusion (see, for example, Davidson *et al.*, 2007; Dejean *et al.*, 2007).

229

230 **RESULTS**

231 A total of 113 ant species was found in the plantations (Supplementary
232 Appendix 1). Apart from lower numbers of species being found in the 1-year old
233 plantation (26), there was no consistent trend in richness with plantation age, with
234 values being 52, 45, 42, 62 and 51 passing through the rest of the age series.

235 When considering behavioural dominance, we cannot exclude the possibility
236 that a species found to be more abundant at a bait is because it is nesting close by, or
237 even because the hour of sampling (morning) coincides with its maximum activity
238 rhythm, rather than it exhibiting truly dominant behaviour. Notwithstanding this
239 possibility, the conservative cut-off of at least 7 at one or both bait types was considered
240 to genuinely signify behavioural dominance. As expected, since behavioural dominance
241 is based on abundance, three of the numerically dominant species also stood out as
242 being behaviourally dominant at baits (*Linepithema neotropicum*, *M. floricola* and *W.*
243 *auropunctata*), although *E. tuberculatum* also scored highly in this regard (Table 2).
244 *Linepithema neotropicum* dominated both bait types in the 1-year old plantation, as did
245 *W. auropunctata* in the 8-year old one. The influence of *E. tuberculatum* prevailed at
246 honey baits in the 8- old plantations, while *M. floricola* dominated in all but the
247 youngest and oldest plantations. Thus, only one species reached behavioural dominance
248 in most age classes of plantation, although this increased to three in the 8-year old one,
249 before declining to zero in the oldest plantation (Table 2).

250 *Monomorium floricola* and *W. auropunctata* were the most frequent in co-
251 occurrence (same time, same place). The ages at which these co-occurred with other
252 species, ranked by their number of co-occurrences, were 8, 3, 4, 15 and 33 years. In the
253 8-year cocoa plantation there were a larger number of occurrences of more than a single
254 species at the same time. This is precisely the age at which we observed the co-
255 occurrence of species in all situations tested (Tables 3a and b).

256 There was considerable variation in the frequency of individual ant species in
257 relation to the stage of plantation development. The most frequent species, regardless of
258 plantation age (5% most frequent, all the plantations together), are shown in Table 4.
259 Most of these species tended to be more frequent in different age-bands, with *W.*
260 *auropunctata* predominating in mid-aged and oldest plantations, *M. floricola* and
261 *Crematogaster erecta* being more frequent in the young and mid-aged plantations, and
262 *Cr. carinata*, predominating in the oldest plantation.

263 These trends were partly reflected by the Berger-Parker dominance index values
264 (Table 4), although these were extremely variable through time. Nine of the 13 most
265 frequently occurring species failed to reach dominance in any of the plantations (*A.*
266 *paraensis*, *B. patagonicus*, both *Camponotus* spp., *Ce. atratus*, *Cr. curvispinosa*, *E.*
267 *tuberculatum*, *L. neotropicum* and *Pa. inversa*). No species reached our criteria for
268 Berger-Parker dominance in the youngest plantation (Table 4). *Crematogaster erecta*,
269 *M. floricola* and *W. auropunctata* reached dominance in the 3-year old plantation and
270 the first mentioned maintained dominance in the 4-year old plantation. *M. floricola* once
271 again attained dominance in the 15-year old plantation. *Crematogaster carinata* reached
272 dominance status in the oldest plantation only, where once again *W. auropunctata*
273 attained dominance status. In conclusion, no species reached Berger-Parker dominance
274 in the youngest plantation, whereas all other age classes contained one to three
275 dominants (Table 4).

276 The ordering of sites on the PCA (Figure 1) did not exhibit a clear
277 chronosequence, although the 15-year old plantation received the highest positive score
278 on component 2 and the 1-year old plantation the lowest. The 3- and 4-year old
279 plantations scored low on component 1 and the 8- and 33-year old plantations scored
280 high. The separation of the 15-year old plantation was associated with the frequency of
281 *M. floricola*, *Cr. erecta* and *Ce. atratus*, the youngest plantations with *L. neotropicum*
282 and the 8-year plantations with *E. tuberculatum* and *W. auropunctata*.

283 When using the entire array of species, the variation in C-score values of co-
284 occurrence was significant in all but the youngest and oldest age groups of plantations
285 (3, 4, 8 and 15 years) (Table 5), which indicates the non-randomness of co-occurrence
286 among species in these areas. Using the analysis of the most frequent species, there was
287 significance in 3-, 8- and 15-year old cocoa plantations. When the entire array of species
288 without *M. floricola* was tested, we only detected significance in the 3- and 8-year old
289 cocoa plantations (Table 5).

290

291 **DISCUSSION**

292 It was observed that while the dominance of some arboreal species is higher
293 during certain periods as the plantation matures, they can be less dominant at other
294 times. The existence of this oscillation is not congruent with the observations on
295 African pioneer trees by Dejean *et al.* (2008), where there is a tendency for species to
296 change their level of dominance in a more orderly fashion as the plants mature. There is
297 no evidence of a consistent trend in the hierarchical relationship between ant species,
298 although *M. floricola* maintained behavioural dominance throughout much of the
299 developmental period.

300 The presence of pre-existing mature shade trees in some plantations may have
301 obscured the pattern of succession in the ant assemblage, as such trees may have
302 harboured colonies of ants which spread on to the cocoa trees, regardless of their state
303 of maturity. Ideally, investigations such as this should be performed in plantations in
304 which shade trees had been planted close to the period of plantation establishment.

305 Nevertheless, the dominance hierarchy, based on each species' competitive
306 ability, is clearly dynamic because factors such as resource type, host tree structure,
307 temperature, trophobionts or even the occurrence of parasitoids, can affect the ants'
308 status within this hierarchy (Parr & Gibb, 2010; Ribeiro *et al.*, 2013). These can change
309 their status as dominant or subdominant (Medeiros *et al.*, 1995; Armbrrecht *et al.*, 2001).
310 Co-occurrence of dominants (*M. floricola*) could only be effectively detected in 4- to
311 15- year old cocoa trees. Probably, throughout the various stages of development of
312 cocoa trees, the populations of ants influence each other and settle in the spaces
313 available. This pattern of co-occurrence observations may result from the reduction in
314 degree of interactions between species in older cocoa plantations. According to

315 Blüthgen and Stork (2007), the co-occurrence analysis between species can be used to
316 detect the occurrence of a mosaic. A significant pattern of co-occurrence does not
317 necessarily indicate that competition is the structuring mechanism in the mosaic,
318 because certain environmental factors are also important (Parr & Gibb, 2010).
319 According to some analyses, no significant patterns of co-occurrence were detected in
320 many of the assemblages that have been studied (Pacheco *et al.*, 2009; Dejean *et al.*,
321 2010), including some mosaics of cocoa trees, so stochastic factors, such as the nature
322 of the founding species, may also mediate the assemblage organization or preclude its
323 detection. The influence of founding species could certainly explain why *W.*
324 *auropunctata* rises and falls in frequency in an inconsistent manner throughout the
325 chronosequence.

326 The variations in size and crown volume of cocoa trees as a function of
327 development (Table 1) showed less effect on mosaic structuring than did the influence
328 of the dominant species such as *M. floricola*. This is probably because this species
329 dominated the available resources, displacing other species. The randomness of space
330 occupation by other ants must have caused changes in the organization of the species
331 under its influence.

332 During succession, the colonization of plants by ants moves from a relatively
333 homogeneous occupation to a random one, where the organization becomes more
334 complex, with segregation among species and assemblages (Zorrila *et al.*, 1986). In the
335 mosaic of cocoa tree ants, although variations occur depending on the tree age, there
336 may be reversals in the structural hierarchy of specific organization, mainly due to the
337 invasion or proliferation in the crop of invasive species such as *M. floricola*.

338 According to the concept of ontogenetic succession, the age of the vegetation
339 type and size of plants seems to play an important role in the composition of mosaics
340 (Djiéto-Lordon *et al.*, 2004; Dejean *et al.*, 2008; Kone *et al.*, 2012). However, the
341 cooperative interactions and competition between species influence the spatial
342 relationship, which reflects the way in which a given habitat is colonized (Zorrila *et al.*,
343 1986). Ant species that co-occur tend to differ in their adaptations and strategies for
344 gathering, handling and defense of food resources, and this reflects the dynamics of
345 mosaic (Lynch, 1981).

346 *Monomorium floricola* is able to reduce the populations of other insects
347 (Wetterer, 2010) and in Brazilian mangroves this ant was twice as common as any other

348 exotic ant (Delabie et al., 2006). This may be due to its diminutive size or its behaviour,
349 by which workers avoid directly encountering arboreal dominant ants, thus allowing co-
350 occurrence or avoidance of competition for food or nesting sites (Delabie et al., 2006).
351 It appears to be a dominant species that influences the use of food or maybe the nesting
352 resources by the other species. The invasiveness of this species may be a condition for
353 species coexistence, by which it can increase within a stable or persistent population of
354 another ant (Kotler & Brown, 2007). This influence of *M. floricola* particularly occurred
355 in 4- and 15-year old cocoa plantations (Table 2). As previously mentioned, *M. floricola*
356 showed behavioural dominance in almost all of the plantation ages, with the exception
357 of 1- and 33-year old plantations. These are precisely the ages where it was not possible
358 to define what was the main factor regulating the community structure. This suggests
359 that the species can remain in this state throughout most of the plantation's
360 development, influencing and changing the organization of other species. This occurs
361 most effectively when its frequency is higher, especially in relation to *W. auropunctata*.
362 Although this ant is not usually considered dominant and invasive (Way & Bolton,
363 1997), the occurrence of *M. floricola* can be particularly prominent in habitats where
364 competition with other arboreal ants is very low (Wetterer, 2010). Invasive species can
365 contribute to the reconfiguration of the entire network of interactions and lead to
366 changes in ecosystem balance (Croll *et al.*, 2005).

367 *Wasmannia auropunctata* showed remarkable variation in its frequency as a
368 function of plant development. Although of Neotropical origin, it is generally
369 considered invasive, even in its home range (Medeiros *et al.*, 1995, Le Breton *et al.*,
370 2004; Grangier *et al.*, 2007), and in some circumstances this ant is able to eliminate
371 virtually the entire ant fauna of a particular location (Hölldobler & Wilson, 1994; Ward
372 & Beggs, 2007). The aerial parts of the plants are only dominated by this ant under
373 certain conditions, especially when the surrounding trees are not occupied by dominant
374 ants, such as those of the genera *Azteca*, *Crematogaster*, or *Ectatomma* (Majer *et al.*,
375 1994, Delabie & Mariano, 2000).

376 Small-scale spatial variations in structural complexity have an effect on resource
377 use by many of the ant species (Luque & Lopez, 2007). This suggests that the nature of
378 microhabitats may be a factor influencing the outcome of dominance hierarchies among
379 ants. The complexity of the habitat, even on a small scale, can produce differences

380 among species that contribute to the sharing of resources and hence allow the
381 subordinate species to avoid competition (Luque & Lopez, 2007).

382 In the cocoa plantations studied, the nature of ant dominance varied depending
383 on age although, generally, in intermediate-aged cocoa trees the species present and
384 their respective frequencies were relatively similar. Plant development in relation to
385 age, along with differences in their life histories and the selective attraction they exert
386 on the different species of arboreal ants, means that dominant ant assemblages are
387 dynamic (Dejean *et al.*, 2008; Kone *et al.*, 2012). The age-related oscillation in the
388 frequencies of these species may, in part, arise from this phenomenon.

389 Variations in the assemblage along the plantation age gradient were observed in
390 terms of dominance among the species, with the mosaic on 15-year old cocoa trees
391 being possibly more structured (following the criteria of Majer *et al.*, 1994). These
392 variations occurred as a result of fluctuations in the dominance status of the species that
393 comprise the mosaic. According to Armbrecht *et al.* (2001), population fluctuations
394 correspond to periodic pulses in the area of the territories of each species, with a
395 consequent reduction or extension of each one, suggesting that the spaces occupied by
396 each species do not have sharp boundaries; they are constantly reshaped.

397 We conclude that the assembly of arboreal ants of the cocoa plantations that we
398 studied is extremely dynamic, with competitive hierarchy among species oscillating
399 throughout the plantation's development, and with no obvious chronosequence linking
400 plant development and ant species number. Thus, the dominance of certain ant species
401 varies according the plant's growth, while an invasive species can greatly contribute to
402 reconfiguring the assemblage structure.

403

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410

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577

578 Table 1. Mean and standard deviation of environmental parameters in the cocoa
 579 plantations of different ages at Ilheus, Bahia, Brazil.

580

Plot Age (yr)	1	3	4	8	15	33
Litter thickness (cm) \pm SD	1.05+0.60	1.61+0.86	2.13+1.17	2.9+1.54	4.53+0.43	5.67+0.96
Height of cocoa trees (m) \pm SD	1.9+0.35	2.8+0.64	3.1+0.40	3.6+0.69	3.9+0.68	7.3+1.01
Height of the cocoa tree crown (m) \pm SD	0.9+0.27	1.6+0.43	1.8+0.53	2.5+0.67	3.1+0.69	5.6+1.23
Cocoa tree crown diameter (m) \pm SD	1.6+0.47	3.9+0.43	4.3+0.57	4.0+0.53	5.8+0.92	8.1+1.77
Cocoa tree crown volume (m ³) \pm SD	0.8+0.72	6.6+2.88	9.3+5.51	10.8+4.07	29.3+15.21	104.8+61.53
Height of shading eritrina (m) \pm SD	14.3+8.19	17.2+10.24	19.2+9.97	11.9+8.51	11.4+6.06	14.3+6.53

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Table 2. Behavioural dominance (according Parr & Gibb, 2010), based on abundance of arboreal ant species at honey and sardine baits in cocoa plantations ordered according to their ages at Ilhéus, Bahia, Brazil. Species with exceptionally high behavioural dominance values (≥ 7 in at least one of the two bait types) are boldfaced.

Species	1 year		3 years		4 years		8 years		15 years		33 years	
	Honey	Sardine	Honey	Sardine	Honey	Sardine	Honey	Sardine	Honey	Sardine	Honey	Sardine
<i>Azteca chartifex</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
<i>Azteca paraensis</i>	0	0	0	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	3
<i>Brachymyrmex heeri</i>	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0
<i>Brachymyrmex patagonicus</i>	3	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Brachymyrmex</i> sp.2	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Camponotus bidens</i>	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Camponotus cingulatus</i>	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Camponotus fastigatus</i>	0	0	1	1	0	2	2	0	3	0	1	0
<i>Camponotus crassus</i>	0	0	2	4	5	2	2	0	2	1	0	0
<i>Camponotus trapezoides</i>	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
<i>Cephalotes atratus</i>	0	1	0	2	2	4	0	4	3	3	0	0
<i>Crematogaster acuta</i>	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
<i>Crematogaster carinata</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2
<i>Crematogaster curvispinosa</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	2	0	1	0	0
<i>Crematogaster erecta</i>	0	0	3	4	0	6	3	5	2	4	0	0
<i>Crematogaster limata</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
<i>Crematogaster longispina</i>	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	1
<i>Crematogaster near crucis</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
<i>Crematogaster victima</i>	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Dolichoderus attelaboides</i>	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1
<i>Dolichoderus bidens</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0
<i>Dolichoderus bispinosus</i>	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Dolichoderus imitator</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
<i>Ectatomma brunneum</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Ectatomma permagnum</i>	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0

<i>Ectatomma tuberculatum</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	5	3	4	1	0
<i>Gnamptogenys annulata</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
<i>Hypoponera</i> sp.1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
<i>Linepithema neotropicum</i>	10	14	0	2	4	2	4	3	0	1	1	0
<i>Monomorium floricola</i>	0	1	7	9	0	9	6	11	9	21	1	0
<i>Mycocepurus smithi</i>	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Pachycondyla inversa</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	4
<i>Pachycondyla subversa</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
<i>Pachycondyla unidentata</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0
<i>Nylanderia fulva</i>	1	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	0	0	0	0
<i>Nylanderia guatemalensis</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Paratrechina longicornis</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
<i>Pheidole diligens</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Pheidole manuana</i>	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
<i>Pheidole nitidula</i>	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Pheidole radoszkowskii</i>	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Pheidole</i> gp. <i>fallax</i> sp.1	2	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
<i>Pheidole</i> gp. <i>flavens</i> sp.4	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0
<i>Pheidole</i> gp. <i>fallax</i> sp.9	1	2	2	2	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0
<i>Pheidole</i> gp. <i>flavens</i> sp.15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
<i>Pseudomyrmex gracilis</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
<i>Pseudomyrmex oculatus</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Pseudomyrmex termitarius</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
<i>Solenopsis geminata</i>	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Solenopsis saevissima</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
<i>Solenopsis</i> sp.2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	2
<i>Solenopsis</i> sp.3	0	0	1	0	1	1	3	2	0	1	0	0
<i>Tetramorium simillimum</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
<i>Wasmannia auropunctata</i>	0	0	1	2	1	2	11	12	0	1	2	4
<i>Wasmannia rochai</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0

No. of species exhibiting behavioural dominance

1

1

1

3

1

0

Table 3. Number of (a) baits occupied by co-occurring ant species and (b) number of species that co-occur on the same baits at the same time on cocoa trees at Ilhéus, Bahia, Brazil.

(a)

Age	Number of co-occurrences	
	Honey	Sardine
1 year	2 (16)*	1 (18)
3 years	4 (19)	5 (26)
4 years	2 (18)	8 (31)
8 years	20 (36)	8 (39)
15 years	3 (29)	6 (40)
33 years	1 (13)	4 (17)

* In the brackets, total number of baits with ants.

(b)

Age	Number of co-occurrences	
	Honey	Sardine
1 year	7	1
3 years	1	6
4 years	2	7
8 years	10	10
15 years	3	6
33 years	1	4

Table 4. Berger-Parker's index of ant dominance, based on frequency data, for the most frequently occurring species in the cocoa plantations ordered according to their ages at Ilhéus, Bahia, Brazil. Species with exceptionally high dominance values (≥ 0.193) are boldfaced.

Species	Age of cocoa plantation (years)					
	1	3	4	8	15	33
<i>Azteca paraensis</i>	0.000	0.002	0.031	0.000	0.005	0.086
<i>Brachymyrmex patagonicus</i>	0.054	0.022	0.002	0.000	0.001	0.000
<i>Camponotus fastigatus</i>	0.003	0.006	0.006	0.001	0.005	0.002
<i>Camponotus crassus</i>	0.004	0.005	0.026	0.000	0.004	0.000
<i>Cephalotes atratus</i>	0.000	0.008	0.019	0.000	0.017	0.002
<i>Crematogaster carinata</i>	0.000	0.004	0.009	0.000	0.000	0.214
<i>Crematogaster curvispinosa</i>	0.002	0.003	0.001	0.010	0.001	0.024
<i>Crematogaster erecta</i>	0.002	0.211	0.201	0.104	0.177	0.000
<i>Ectatomma tuberculatum</i>	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.019	0.023	0.030
<i>Linepithema neotropicum</i>	0.058	0.058	0.062	0.042	0.006	0.001
<i>Monomorium floricola</i>	0.085	0.284	0.167	0.063	0.440	0.036
<i>Pachycondyla inversa</i>	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.006
<i>Wasmannia auropunctata</i>	0.003	0.213	0.001	0.579	0.070	0.250
Number of species exhibiting dominance	0	3	1	1	1	2

Table 5. Index of co-occurrence of ant species, based on presence/absence, in cocoa plantations in relation to age of the plantation at Ilhéus, Bahia, Brazil. Boldfaced numbers correspond to the index of co-occurrence values that are significant at $p \leq 0.05$.

Age of cocoa plantation (years)	Selection of species								
	The entire array			The most frequent species			The entire array excluding <i>Monomorium floricola</i>		
	C-score	Null	P	C-score	Null	P	C-score	Null	P
1 year	7.06	6.64	0.15	15.69	14.18	0.07	7,28	6.82	0.08
3 years	10.29	10.06	0.001	57.18	55.48	0.003	9.05	8.90	0.02
4 years	12.16	11.89	0.01	65.33	65.49	0.59	10.91	10.75	0.09
8 years	10.01	9.52	0.003	62.28	60.71	0.01	9.33	8.89	0.001
15 years	10.68	10.23	0.001	50.15	48.48	0.01	9.26	9.18	0.17
33 years	8.85	8.83	0.39	24.38	24.25	0.32	9.05	9.05	0.42

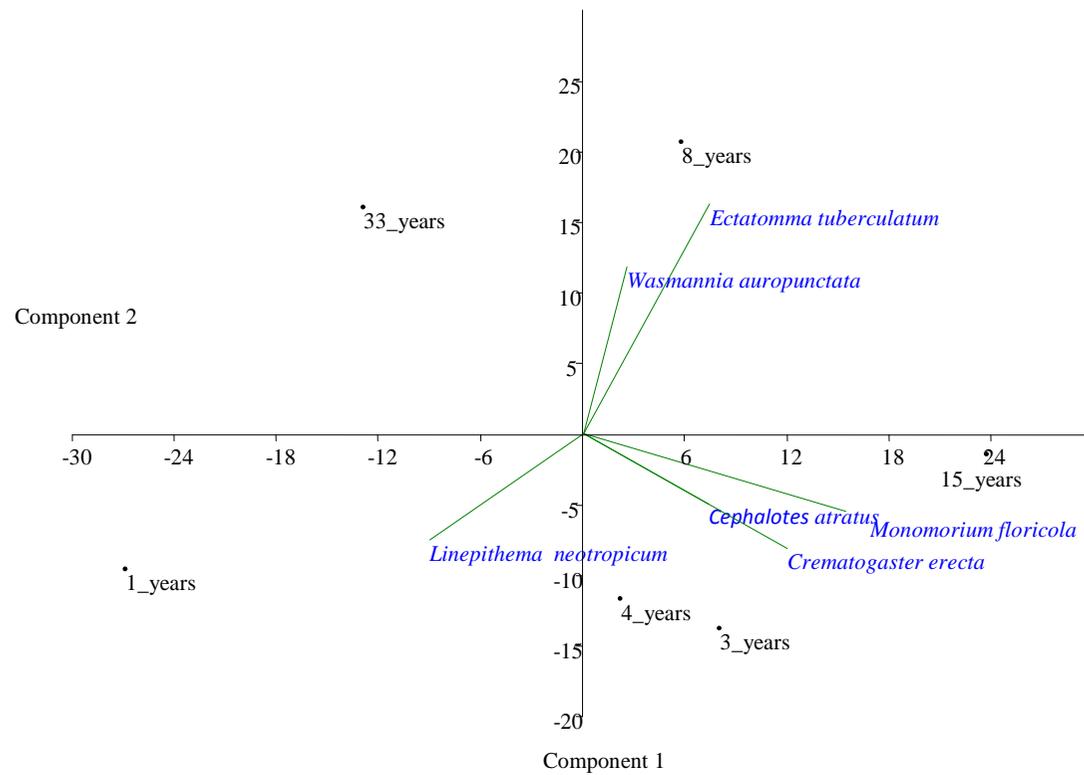


Figure 1. Principal components analysis of the various plantations, analyzed according to the frequency (number of samples where the ant appeared) of the ant species within them. The diagonal lines show the ant species that have the most important influence on the separation of sites.