## SHORT COMMUNICATION

# Microsatellites for the Neotropical ant, Camponotus leydigi (Hymenoptera: Formicidae)

Salatiel GONÇALVES-NETO<sup>1</sup>, Marianne AZEVEDO-SILVA<sup>2</sup>, Alessandra S. M. LEMOS<sup>1</sup>, Anete P. SOUZA<sup>3</sup> and Paulo S. OLIVEIRA<sup>4</sup> ©

<sup>1</sup>Graduação em Ciências Biológicas, Departamento de Biologia Animal, Universidade Estadual de Campinas, Campinas, Brazil, <sup>2</sup>Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ecologia, Departamento de Biologia Animal, Universidade Estadual de Campinas, Campinas, Brazil, <sup>3</sup>Departamento de Biologia Vegetal, Centro de Biologia Molecular e Engenharia Genética, Universidade Estadual de Campinas, Campinas, Brazil and <sup>4</sup>Departamento de Biologia Animal, Universidade Estadual de Campinas, Campinas, Brazil

#### **Abstract**

Ants (Hymenoptera: Formicidae) are dominant social insects that play important ecological roles in terrestrial ecosystems. Camponotus leydigi (Forel) is widely distributed in the Neotropical region and is frequently found in the Brazilian cerrado savanna interacting with plants and other insects. Field observations indicate that C. leydigi has a polydomous nesting habit, but little is known about the genetic relationship among workers. In this study, we identify the first nine microsatellite loci for C. leydigi that will allow further investigation on its genetic diversity. We used a microsatellite-enriched library method. According to this method, repetitive sequences are captured with  $(CT)_8$  and  $(GT)_8$  biotin-linked probes, with subsequent recovery by streptavidin magnetic-coated beads. We observed that eight loci were polymorphic. The mean ( $\pm$  standard error) observed and expected heterozygosities were  $0.55 \pm 0.23$  and  $0.73 \pm 0.28$ , respectively. The rarified allelic richness ranged from 1 to 5.32. The polymorphism contents were similar to diversity estimates found in markers previously developed for other Camponotus ants. These markers will be useful for future studies on population genetics and ecology of Camponotus ants in cerrado, including nesting ecology, colony structure, dispersal and conservation.

Key words: Camponotus leydigi, cerrado savanna, formicinae, molecular markers, neotropics, simple sequence repeat, social insects.

Ants are distributed worldwide and outnumber all other terrestrial animals (Wheeler 1910). In tropical rainforests, ants account for over 80% of the arthropod biomass and up to nearly 90% of the arthropod individuals inhabiting the canopy environment (Majer 1990; Tobin 1995). Ants are abundant and occur in large numbers of species throughout the Brazilian cerrado savanna (Vasconcelos *et al.* 2008), where they feed on sweet secretions of extrafloral nectaries and insect trophobionts, scavenge for animal matter, hunt for arthropod prey, and collect fleshy seeds and fruits (Oliveira & Freitas 2004; Christianini &

Correspondence: Paulo S. Oliveira, Departamento de Biologia Animal, Universidade Estadual de Campinas, 13083-862 Campinas, São Paulo, Brazil. Email: pso@unicamp.br

Received 22 July 2020; accepted 19 October 2020.

Oliveira 2010; Kaminski et al. 2010; Lange et al. 2019). Carpenter ants (genus Camponotus) are widely distributed in cerrado savanna (Vasconcelos et al. 2008). The ground-nesting species Camponotus leydigi (Forel) (Fig. 1) is frequently seen on the leaflitter hunting for insect prey, and on leaves collecting extrafloral nectar and insect honeydew (Costa et al. 1992; Schoereder et al. 2010; Bächtold et al. 2012; Soares 2018). Behavioral and spatial data support the existence of polydomy (i.e. physically separated but socially connected nests; Debout et al. 2007) in C. leydigi colonies in the cerrado (Soares 2018). However, little is known about the genetic relationship among workers from different nest units. Genetic polymorphism influences the species ability to respond to environmental changes, with implications for their conservation in nature (Romiguier et al. 2014; Ellegren & Galtier 2016). In ants, due to the haplodiploid sex determination and eusocial organization (with few



Figure 1 Worker of *Camponotus leydigi* (Photo by Sebastián Sendoya).

reproductive individuals), genetic diversity is potentially low and make ants vulnerable to climate change, demographic fluctuations, and extinction (Hedrick & Parker 1997; Chapman & Bourke 2001). Therefore, elucidating patterns and processes underlying genetic variation is important to preserve ant populations and maintain their ecological functions and services (Del-Toro *et al.* 2012).

Microsatellites are molecular tools commonly employed to investigate species genetic diversity (Sunnucks 2001). They consist of tandem repetitive sequences of one to six nucleotides, which are frequent and randomly distributed in the genomes of eukaryotes (Selkoe & Toonen 2006). These regions are highly polymorphic and have codominant inheritance, being neutral markers considered as (Goldstein Schlötterer 1999). Microsatellites are of interest to ecologists due to their applicability in understanding ecological and evolutionary patterns and processes at fine scales (Selkoe & Toonen 2006; Katada et al. 2007). For ants in particular, microsatellites are useful tools to investigate colony genetic structure (Bolton et al. 2006; Qian et al. 2012), breeding systems (e.g. number of queens and queen mating frequency in colonies; Goodisman & Hahn 2005; Azevedo-Silva et al. 2020), kinship between individuals, population and colony delimitation (e.g. identification of polydomy; Elias et al. 2005; Ellis et al. 2017). Here, we identify and characterize microsatellite markers for the ant species Camponotus leydigi. We provide nine new microsatellite loci that will allow further investigation on the behavioral ecology and genetic structure of C. leydigi colonies, and which can also be tested as potential molecular tools in other *Camponotus* species.

We sampled 10 nests from a polydomous colony of C. leydigi in the cerrado reserve in Itirapina (22°15′10"S, 47°49′22" W), state of São Paulo, southeast Brazil. The whole foraging area of the colony covered nearly 1700 m<sup>2</sup>, with nest units at least 10 m apart from one another (Soares 2018). The total genomic DNA was extracted from entire workers, following the protocol by Saghai-Maroof et al. (1984). The method consisted of individual maceration in a 2% CTAB solution (200 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0; 50 mM EDTA pH 8.0; 700 mM NaCl) followed by 10-30 min of incubation at 65°C. DNA was purified with chloroform/isoamyl alcohol (24:1) and precipitated with isopropanol. A microsatellite-enriched library was built based on Billotte et al. (1999), using six workers of C. leydigi from the same nest. Repetitive sequences were selected using (CT)<sub>8</sub> and (GT)<sub>8</sub> biotin-linked probes and recovered with streptavidin magnetic coated beads (Promega, Madison, WI, USA). The recovered fragments were cloned into pGEM-T vectors (Promega). The plasmids were inserted into Escherichia coli XL1-Blue, and recombinant colonies containing inserts were identified by colorimetric detection. Fortyeight positive clones were sequenced (forward and reverse) using the 3500 Genetic Analyzer sequencer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). The electropherograms were analyzed and edited with the program CLC Genomics Workbench v 4.9 (CLC bio, Arhus, Denmark). Any vector sequences and enzyme restriction sites were identified and removed from the sequences using the software Segman (DNAStarInc, Madison, WI, USA). We used Blastn (Altschul et al. 1990) to compare the edited sequences with public database (NCBI) and to eliminate possible contamination. Microsatellites were identified in the sequences using the web-based program SSRIT (Temnykh et al. 2001). For the primer design, we used the programs Primer Select (DNAStar Inc.) and Primer3Plus (Untergasser et al. 2007), with the following criteria: (i) total fragment sizes between 100 bp and 300 bp; primers size between 18 and (iii) hybridization temperature (Tm) between 45°C and 65°C; (iv) maximum difference of 3°C between the Tm of each primer in the pair; (v) GC content above 35%; and (vi) absence of complementarity between the primer pair. At the 5' end of each forward primer of the pair, a M13 tail (5'-CACGACGTTGTAAAACGAC - 3'; Schuelke 2000) was added, enabling genotyping in the sequencer 3500 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems). Four fluorescents (6-FAM, VIC, NED and PET; Applied Biosystems) were used to optimize the

Table 1 Characteristics of 9 microsatellite markers for Camponotus leydigi

Locus	Primer sequences $(5'-3')$	Motif	TD (°C)	SR	A	$H_{ m E}$	Но	PIC	Null	GenBank accession
C105	F:CACGACGTTGTAAAACGAC CGATTAGAATTATTAACGGTTG R:CGAGAAATTACCCTCTGAG	(GT) <sub>2.5</sub>	57–52	130–176	5.32	0.84	0.75	0.80	0.075	MT674622
Cl10	F:CACGACGTTGTAAAACGA CCTTCATAGTAGGACTGTTGTG R:AAAGTAGACGGATTGTAGCG	(AC)7 (CA)22 (AT)3	57–52	266–380	4.67	92.0	0.80	0.73	0	MT674623
Cl17	F:CACGACGTTGTAAAACGAC GCCGAGTGAACTGTGATT R:GTGTCTACGAAAGCAAATGTA	(AT <sub>3</sub> (AG <sub>3</sub> (AT <sub>3</sub> (TA) <sub>3</sub> (TG) <sub>16</sub> (TGTA) <sub>3</sub>	57–52	238–256	2.27	0.52	0.83	0.41	0.001	MT674624
Cl22	F:CACGACGTTGTAAAACG ACGGCCGCACTGTGTCTCA R:CGCGAACAAAAACGAAAAA	(GT) <sub>7</sub> (TG) <sub>7</sub>	57-52	185-277	1.4	0.10	690.0	0.097	0.00005	MT674625
Cl26	F:CACGACGTTGTAAAAC GACTTCGTTACGTATATGCTGGAA R:CGGGAGATTACTTCTTTATGTG	$(TAA)_3$	57–52	96–102	2.12	0.46	99.0	0.36	0	MT674626
Cl36	F:CACGACGTTGTAAAAC GACTTCATGAAAGATGCGATACTC R:TTTGCCTAGCGACTAAGTTC	$(TC)_5(CG)_3(CT)_{25}$	60–55	346–364	3.79	0.70	0.83	0.64	0.0164	MT674627
Cl39	F:CACGACGTTGTAAAAC GACAATGATTAATATACTTCGTGAA R:CACAACTTTGATTTCTGAA	(TTTA) <sub>3</sub>	57–52	142	$\leftarrow$	0	0	0	ı	MT674628
Cl42	F:CACGACGTTGTAAAACG ACAGGCAGCTATTGAACACTCTAA R:GCCGAACAGAAGAGAAA	(TC) <sub>4</sub>	57-52	124–144	2.31	0.54	0.93	0.42	0	MT674629
Cl49	F:CACGACGTTGTAAAAC GACGGCAGCGAATCCCTTAG R:CGCTTCATTTTGTATGTGTATG	(CA) <sub>4</sub> (AC) <sub>4</sub> (CA) <sub>3</sub> (CA) <sub>3</sub> (CA) <sub>3</sub> (CG) <sub>3</sub>	57-52	213–223	1.99	0.50		0.37	0	MT674630
Mean					2.77	0.55	0.73	0.48	0.01	

TD, range of temperature for touchdown PCR amplification; SR, size range after addition of M13 tail; A, rarified allelic richness; H<sub>E</sub> and H<sub>O</sub>, expected and observed heterozygosities; PIC, polymorphism content; Null, estimate of null allele frequency; and GenBank accession number. Mean values of A, H<sub>E</sub>, H<sub>O</sub>, PIC and Null are shown.

genotyping process. The loci were amplified using two touchdown PCR protocols (Don et al. 1991), with the following steps: (i) 94°C for 4 min; (ii) 10 cycles of [94°C for 45 s, 60° or 57°C (- 0.5°C / cycle) for 1 min and 72°C for 1 min and 15 sl; (iii) 25 cycles of [94°C for 45 s, 50°C for 1 min and 72°C for 1 min and 15 s], and (iv) 72°C for 10 min. Amplifications were evaluated with polyacrylamide gel in the sequencer 3500 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems), using the program Geneious prime 2019.2 (Biomatters Limited, New Zealand). Loci that amplified according with expected sizes, and without nonspecificity, were chosen for further characterization. For this purpose, three workers per nest, totalling 30 workers were used. Observed and expected heterozygosity (H<sub>O</sub> and H<sub>E</sub>, respectively) and polymorphism content (PIC) (Botstein et al. 1980) were calculated in the Excel based program Microsatellites Toolkit (Park 2008). Rarefied allelic richness was estimated with the software HP-Rare (Kalinowski 2005). Linkage disequilibrium (LD) between each pair of markers was evaluated using the program FSTAT 2.9.4 (Goudet 1995). For LD estimates, the significance value (0.05) was corrected for multiple comparisons using Bonferroni correction. Microsatellite loci were evaluated for the occurrence of stuttering and reduced amplification of large fragments using the Micro-Checker program (Oosterhout et al. 2004). The frequency of null alleles was estimated with the software FreeNA (statistical significance not provided; see Chapuis & Estoup 2007).

From the initial 48 clones, 44 presented more than one microsatellite sequence. We were able to design primer pairs for 13 microsatellite loci. We successfully amplified nine of these markers, eight of which were polymorphic. Average  $H_{E}$  $(mean \pm SE)$  $0.55 \pm 0.23$ , with the loci Cl5 (0.84), Cl10 (0.76) and Cl36 (0.70) presenting the highest values (Table 1) whereas  $H_O$  (mean  $\pm$  SE) was 0.73  $\pm$  0.28, whereas PIC was  $0.48 \pm 0.23$  (Table 1). The rarified allelic richness ranged from 1 to 5.32 alleles per locus (Table 1). We did not find any pair of loci under linkage disequilibrium. Additionally, there was no evidence of allele stuttering, or reduced amplification of large fragments. The frequency of null alleles is close to zero for most of the markers (Table 1).

The microsatellites we developed showed a high level of polymorphism, with diversity estimates (Table 1) similar to markers previously developed for other *Camponotus* ants. Booth *et al.* (2009), analyzing microsatellite markers of *C. femoratus* (Fabricius) found a variation in the observed heterozygosity ranging from 0.28 to 0.71. Macaranas *et al.* (2011) obtained values from 0.17 to 0.54 for *C. ephippium* (F. Smith). The allelic richness in our markers are also

in agreement with other markers developed for other tropical *Camponotus*. For instance, Azevedo-Silva *et al.* (2015) also using 30 individuals found 1 to 19 alleles per locus for *C. renggeri* Emery and 1 to 15 for *C. rufipes* (Fabricius).

Ecological evidence indicates that *C. leyidigi* has a polydomous colony (Soares 2018). Ants with polydomous nesting habits are often successful due to diversification of the diet and increased rate of resource exploitation (through expansion of the foraging area and/or increase in foraging efficiency; Debout *et al.* 2007). Identifying polydomy is therefore essential to understand the life history and evolutionary success of particular ant species.

These are the first molecular markers developed for *C. leydigi*, and could be used as a tool to better explore the nesting ecology and colony structure in this ant species. Our microsatellite data may hopefully be useful for future research on the preservation of *C. leydigi* and other *Camponotus* species, and of their numerous interspecific interactions in tropical cerrado savanna.

## **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

We are grateful to Gustavo M. Mori and Prianda R. Laborda for helpful comments on the manuscript, to Hélio Soares Jr. for help during field work, and to Sebastián Sendoya for the photograph. The Instituto Florestal de São Paulo and the staff of the Estação Experimental de Itirapina provided logistic support during field work. The study was supported in part by the Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior (CAPES, Finance Code 001). SGN and ASML were supported by the Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico (CNPq; 124122/2019-1; 116435/2019-4), and the Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa do Estado de São Paulo (FAPESP, 2019/12683-1). MAS was funded by the CNPq (167161/2017-2), and FAPESP (2017/18291-2). APS was supported by CAPES (Computational Biology Program). PSO was supported by research grants from the CNPq (306115/2013-1, 302219/2017-0), and FAPESP (Biota Program, 2014/23141-1, 2017/16645-1).

### REFERENCES

Altschul SF, Gish W, Miller W, Myers EW, Lipman DJ (1990) Basic local alignment search tool. *Journal of Molecular Biology* 215, 403–410.

Azevedo-Silva M, Mori GM, Souza AP, Oliveira PS (2015) Microsatellites for two Neotropical dominant ant species, Camponotus renggeri and C. rufipes (hymenoptera: Formicidae). Conservation Genetics Resources 7, 459–462.

- Azevedo-Silva M, Mori GM, Carvalho CS, Côrtes CM, Souza AP, Oliveira PS (2020) Breeding systems and genetic diversity in tropical carpenter ant colonies: Different strategies for similar outcomes in Brazilian Cerrado savanna. Zoological Journal of the Linnean Society. 190, 1020–1035. https://doi.org/10.1093/zoolinnean/zlaa035.
- Bächtold A, Del-Claro K, Kaminski LA, Freitas AVL, Oliveira PS (2012) Natural history of an ant-plantbutterfly interaction in a Neotropical savanna. *Journal of Natural History* 46, 943–954.
- Billotte N, Lagoda PJL, Risterucci AM, Baurens FC (1999) Microsatellite-enriched libraries: Applied methodology for the development of ssr markers in tropical crops. Fruits 54, 277–288.
- Bolton A, Sumner S, Shreeves G, Casiraghi M, Field J (2006) Colony genetic structure in a facultatively eusocial hover wasp. *Behavioral Ecology* 17, 873–880.
- Booth W, Youngsteadt E, Schal C, Vargo EL (2009) Characterization of 8 polimorphic microsatellite loci in the neotropical ant-garden ant, *Camponotus femoratus* (Fabricius). *Conservation Genetics* 10, 1401–1403.
- Botstein D, White RL, Skolnick M, Davis RW (1980) Construction of a genetic linkage map in man using restriction fragment length polymorphisms. *American Journal of Human Genetics* **32**, 314–331.
- Chapman RE, Bourke AFG (2001) The influence of sociality on the conservation biology of social insects. *Ecology Letters* **4**, 650–662.
- Chapuis MP, Estoup A (2007) Microsatellite null alleles and estimation of population differentiation. *Molecular Biology and Evolution* **24**, 621–631.
- Christianini AV, Oliveira PS (2010) Birds and ants provide complementary seed dispersal in a Neotropical savanna. *Journal of Ecology* **98**, 573–582.
- Costa FMCB, Oliveira-Filho AT, Oliveira PS (1992) The role of extrafloral nectaries in *Qualea grandiflora* (Vochysiaceae) in limiting herbivory: An experiment of ant protection in Cerrado vegetation. *Ecological Entomology* 17, 363–365.
- Debout G, Schatz B, Elias M, Mckey D (2007) Polydomy in ants: What we know, what we think we know, and what remains to be done. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* 90, 319–348.
- Del-Toro I, Ribbons RR, Pelini SL (2012) The little things that run the world revisited: A review of ant-mediated ecosystem services and disservices (hymenoptera: Formicidae). *Myrmecological News* 17, 133–146.
- Don RH, Cox PT, Wainwright BJ, Baker K, Mattick JS (1991) Touchdown PCR to circumvent spurious priming during gene amplification. *Nucleic Acids Research* 19, 4008
- Elias M, Rosengren R, Sundström L (2005) Seasonal polydomy and unicoloniality in a polygynous population of the red wood ant *Formica truncorum*. *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology* **57**, 339–349.
- Ellegren H, Galtier N (2016) Determinants of genetic diversity. *Nature Reviews Genetics* 17, 422–433.

- Ellis S, Procter DS, Buckham-Bonnett P, Robinson EJH (2017) Inferring polydomy: A review of functional, spatial and genetic methods for identifying colony boundaries. *Insectes Sociaux* **64**, 9–37.
- Goldstein DG, Schlötterer C (1999) Microsatellites. Evolution and Applications. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Goodisman MD, Hahn D (2005) Breeding system, colony structure, and genetic differentiation in the *Camponotus festinatu* species complex of carpenter ants. *International Journal of Organic Evolution* **59**, 2185–2199.
- Goudet J (1995) FSTAT (version 1.2): A computer program to calculate F-statistics. *Journal of Heredity* 86, 485–486.
- Hedrick PW, Parker JD (1997) Evolutionary genetics and genetic variation of haplodiploids and x-linked genes. *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics* **28**, 55–83.
- Kalinowski ST (2005) Program note HP-rare 1.0: A computer program for performing rarefaction on measures of allelic richness. Molecular Ecology Notes 5, 187–189.
- Kaminski LA, Freitas AVL, Oliveira PS (2010) Interaction between mutualisms: Ant-tended butterflies exploit enemy-free space provided by ant-treehopper associations. The American Naturalist 176, 322–334.
- Katada S, Suzuki T, Tsucida K (2007) Application of microsatellite primers for the social wasp *Polistes* to another social wasp genus, *Parapolybia*, to estimate genetic relationships among nestmates. *Entomological Science* 10, 1–5.
- Lange D, Calixto ES, Rosa BB, Sales TA, Del-Claro K (2019) Natural history and ecology of foraging of the Camponotus crassus Mayr, 1862 (hymenoptera: Formicidae). Journal of Natural History 53, 1737–1749.
- Macaranas JM, Colgan DJ, Major RE, Cassis G, Gray MR (2011) Species discrimination and population differentiation in ants using microsatellites. *Biochemical Systematics and Ecology* **29**, 125–136.
- Majer JD (1990) The abundance and diversity of arboreal ants in northern Australia. *Biotropica* **22**, 191–199.
- Oliveira PS, Freitas AVL (2004) Ant-plant-herbivore interactions in the Neotropical Cerrado savanna. *Naturwissenschaften* **91**, 557–570.
- Oosterhout CV, Hutchinson WF, Wills DPM, Shipley P (2004) Micro-checker: Software for indentifying and correcting genotyping errors in microsatellite data. *Molecular Ecology Notes* 4, 535–538.
- Park S (2008) MStools v 3.1.1: Excel Spreadsheet Toolkit for Data Conversion. Animal Genomics Lab, University College, Dublin.
- Qian Z, Schlick-Steiner BC, Steiner FM et al. (2012) Colony genetic structure in the Australian jumper ant Myrmecia pilosula. Insectes Sociaux 59, 109–117.
- Romiguier J, Gayral P, Ballenghien M *et al.* (2014) Comparative population genomics in animals uncovers the determinants of genetic diversity. *Nature* **515**, 261–263.
- Saghai-Maroof MA, Soliman KM, Jorgensen RA, Allard RW (1984) Ribosomal DNA spacer-length polymorphismis in barley: Mendelian inheritance, chromosomal location, and population dynamics. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 81, 8014–8018.

- Schoereder JH, Sobrinho TG, Madureira MS, Ribas CR, Oliveira PS (2010) The arboreal ant community visiting extrafloral nectaries in the Neotropical cerrado savanna. *Terrestrial Arthropod Reviews* 3, 3–27.
- Schuelke, M. (2000) An economic method for the fluorescent labeling of PCR fragments. *Nature Biotechnology*, **18**, 233–234.
- Selkoe KA, Toonen RJ (2006) Microsatellites for ecologists: A practical guide to using and evaluating microsatellite markers. *Ecology Letters* 9, 615–629.
- Sunnucks P (2001) Efficient genetic markers for population biology. *Trees* 15, 199–203.
- Soares, H. Jr. 2018. Natural History, Behavior, and Ecology of Camponotus leydigi (Hymenoptera: Formicidae) in Cerrado Vegetation. Master's Thesis, Universidade Estadual de Campinas, Campinas, Brasil. (In Portuguese.)

- Temnykh S, DeClerck G, Lukashova A, Lipovich L, Cartinhour S, McCouch S (2001) Computational and experimental analysis of microsatellites in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.): Frequency, length variation, transposon associations, and genetic marker potential. *Genome Research* 11, 1441–1452.
- Tobin JE (1995) Ecology and diversity of tropical forest canopy ants. In: Lowman MD, Nadkarni NM (eds) *Forest Canopies*, pp. 129–147. Academic Press, London.
- Untergasser A, Nijveen H, Rao X, Bisseling T, Geurts R, Leunissen JAM (2007) Primer3Plus, an enhanced web interface to Primer3. Nucleic Acids Research 35, 71–74.
- Vasconcelos HL, Araujo BB, Mayhe-Nunes AJ (2008) Patterns of diversity and -abundance of fungus-growing ants (Formicidae: Attini) in areas of the Brazilian Cerrado. *Revista Brasileira de Zoologia* 25, 445–450.
- Wheeler WM (1910) Ants: Their Structure, Development, and Behavior. Columbia University Press, New York.