

1 **Biotic challenges in the city: Dietary restrictions and body fat content of female sexuals**
2 **in urban ant populations**

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8

9 **Abstract**

10 Urban habitats represent an important challenge for many organisms. Besides the abiotic
11 changes, urban habitats are also characterized by changes in the biotic conditions, such as a
12 more uniform species composition and declining population sizes. For urban ants this can
13 result in dietary shortages. In our study, we tested whether urban ant colonies might suffer
14 from dietary restrictions by carrying out a common garden experiment in which ant colonies
15 from urban and rural habitats were exposed to high carbohydrate, protein, and fat / protein
16 diets. We also investigated the body fat content of individuals from both habitat types. Our
17 findings suggest a lower availability of high-quality carbohydrates in urban areas.
18 Additionally, while not statistically significant, rural colonies exhibited a tendency to
19 consume greater quantities of proteins and fat compared to urban colonies. This trend was in
20 line with a higher body fat content observed in female sexuals (gynes) from rural colonies.
21 These results might indicate the outcome of an evolutionary feedback process in which ant
22 colonies adapt to nutritional constraints in urban environments. They achieve this by
23 minimizing the investment in gynes, which might require fewer reserves for survival during
24 colony foundation due to reduced competition for nesting sites within urban green spaces.

25 **Keywords**

26 Urbanization, homogenization, food preferences, macronutrients, body fat content, gyne

28 **Introduction**

29 During the last decades, urban ecology has received an increasing interest in the scientific
30 community. Several studies have demonstrated how the anthropogenic transformation of the
31 habitat has caused numerous behavioural and physiological changes in organisms (Ditchkoff
32 et al., 2006; Calfapietra et al., 2015; Brans et al., 2018; Łopucki et al., 2021; Jacquier et al.,
33 2023; Trigos-Peral et al., 2024; among others). The best-known consequences of urbanization
34 are the biotic homogenization of the habitat and the establishment of invasive species (Vilà et
35 al., 2011; Trigos-Peral et al., 2020, 2021; Brassard et al., 2021). Both affect species
36 composition and habitat-niche partitioning, thereby triggering additional alterations in the
37 local ecological networks. For example, the decrease in the availability or quality of food
38 sources can disrupt fragile food webs (Shrewsbury & Raupp, 2006; Qu et al. 2022), influence
39 food size preferences (Chen & Neoh 2023) and threaten the survival of species.

40 Low nutritional quantity and quality negatively affect growth, behavioural performance,
41 reproduction, immunological defence, and lifespan (i.e., Spann & Schumann, 2009;
42 McWilliams, 2011; Simpson & Raubenheimer, 2012; Nwaogu et al., 2020; Shik & Dussutour,
43 2020; Abellán et al., 2023) and thus endanger the survival of both species of plants and
44 animals. Scarcity and low quality of nutrition particularly challenge organisms with low
45 mobility, in which the chances of moving to new areas to find more suitable food sources are
46 limited. For example, most ants are central-place foragers and their foraging efficiency is
47 influenced by the distance between their stationary nest and the food source (Devigne &
48 Detrain, 2006). Though many ant species have adapted to the ecological conditions in urban
49 areas (Brassard et al., 2021), the potential nutritional deficiencies in this habitat type might
50 nevertheless influence individual survival or brood development and consequently affect
51 colony growth.

52 Ants obtain essential micronutrients, such as vitamins, salts, amino acids, or lipids, by
53 consuming macronutrients from plant and animal sources. They gain proteins, fat, and salts by
54 hunting or feeding on cadavers and in many species, carbohydrates and essential amino acids
55 are provided in secretions from aphids (honeydew) (Csata et al., 2020). Honeydew is an easily

56 accessible nutritional source due to the ubiquitous and cosmopolitan distribution of aphids
57 (Alyokhin et al., 2022). Several aphid species appear to benefit from urban habitats, in which
58 the number of their predators may be substantially reduced (Korányi et al., 2020).
59 Nevertheless, honeydew composition heavily relies on the host plant species and its
60 nutritional state (Fischer et al., 2005; Leroy et al., 2011). It is therefore possible that
61 honeydew from urban aphids is of lower quality. The combined effects of a decline in ground-
62 dwelling arthropods (Vergnes et al., 2013) and the potential impoverishment of aphid
63 honeydew may jeopardize the variety and quality of the diet of ants.

64 In addition to carbohydrates and proteins, lipids are also important macronutrients (Blüthgen
65 & Feldhaar, 2009), which influence the growth and survival of ant colonies. Ants can obtain
66 fatty acids either directly from their diet or synthesise them from carbohydrates (Heath &
67 Rock, 2002). Fat stored in the fat body of insects is crucial in numerous physiological
68 processes. For example, it increases resistance to starvation (Dussutour et al., 2016),
69 stimulates egg development (Legaspi & Legaspi, 1998; Legaspi & O’Neil, 1994), and affects
70 the division of reproductive labour in queenless ants (Bernadou et al., 2020).

71 We therefore hypothesize that urban habitats represent an important challenge to the survival
72 of ant colonies due to the potentially reduced quantity and quality of available natural food
73 sources (i.e., Kaspari et al., 2008; Bujan & Kaspari, 2017; Kaspari et al., 2019). In a common
74 garden study, we compared the foraging preferences of the ant *Lasius niger* from rural areas
75 and urban parks to determine whether there is a nutritional shortage in the city and how it
76 impacts ant colonies. Specifically, we investigated i) whether urban and rural colonies differ
77 in their preference for three types of diet with different carbohydrate, protein, and fat content,
78 and ii) if workers and female sexuals (gynes) from the two types of habitat differ in body fat
79 content.

80 **Material and Methods**

81 *Food source choice and consumption*

82 The study was carried out in July 2021 using colonies of *Lasius niger* collected in three urban
83 parks located in the city centre of Warsaw, Poland, and three rural areas (free of human
84 influence) in the surroundings (Supplementary table 1). We collected three colony fragments
85 in each of three urban and three rural areas (total 18 colony fragments). Each fragment
86 consisted of a minimum of 500 workers, a few hundred larvae, and a few dozen pupae of
87 female sexuals (gynes) and workers (differenced by the size and shape).

88 Immediately after collection, from each fragment we set up two experimental colonies
89 consisting of 150 workers each. Brood was not included since it would have influenced both
90 the food selection and the amount consumed depending on their developmental status, which
91 could not easily be standardized (Dussutour & Simpson, 2008). The workers were placed in
92 small plastic containers (18 cm × 12 cm × 6 cm) with a humid piece of sponge covered by a
93 dark plastic plate serving as nest. Each container was connected to three different foraging
94 arenas (10 cm x 6.5 cm x 5 cm) via silicone tubes. The 36 experimental colonies were
95 deprived of food for one day, while the ants remaining in the 18 original fragments were
96 provided with sugar-water and mealworms *ad libitum* until they were used in the later
97 experiments.

98 After starving the experimental colonies for one day, we started the nutrition choice
99 experiment by placing into each foraging arena a feeder (a plastic plate of 3 cm diameter)
100 with a different type of food: carbohydrates, protein, and fat / protein. The carbohydrate
101 source was a saturated sucrose solution (1 M), protein was canned tuna packed in its own
102 juice, and the fat / protein source was canned tuna in soybean oil (Supplementary table 2). To
103 avoid differences in food retrieval caused by different food consistency, both protein and fat /
104 protein were blended using mineral water (same that the one used for the sucrose solution) to
105 achieve a liquid consistency similar to the carbohydrate solution. After placing the food
106 sources, we opened the access to the arena and recorded the feeding activity of ants for half an
107 hour using a video camera (Sony HDR-AS20 Full HD). Food sources were placed randomly
108 across the observations.

109 One week later we repeated the experiment to determine whether food preferences are
110 consistent or change after *ad libitum* feeding in the laboratory. The 36 experimental colonies
111 were maintained at room temperature (approximately 24 °C) under a natural light regimen and
112 fed *ad libitum* by each day randomly providing new feeders with fresh prepared
113 carbohydrates, protein, and fat / protein diets. After one week, we starved the colonies again
114 for one day and then repeated the food preference experiment.

115 To estimate the food choice by the ants, we analysed the videos and counted the total number
116 of ants present in each foraging arena every five minutes. To determine how much food was
117 consumed by the ant workers, we weighed the amount of each type of food placed in the
118 feeders before and after each observation using a laboratory balance (Ohaus Scout SKX123;
119 error: ± 1 mg).

120 *Body fat content and gyne size*

121 To test if body fat content is higher in gynes of rural colonies due to the presumed richer
122 nutritional availability, we collected five gynes and ten workers from five nests each located
123 in the three urban parks and rural areas that had been sampled for the food choice experiment
124 (Supplementary table 1). Samples were collected shortly before the massive nuptial flight of
125 *L. niger*, which occur in Poland in mid-July (Van der Have et al. 2011 and pers. observations).
126 We therefore can assume that all gynes collected for this experiment were produced
127 approximately at the same time, since gynes that had been produced earlier should have
128 already abandoned the nest during previous small nuptial flights. Each collected individual
129 was placed in an individually labelled 2 ml vial and frozen at -25 °C. To determine whether
130 the differences in fat content reflected differences in the food consumed in the two different
131 habitat types or differences in the genetic background of the two populations, we also
132 measured body fat content in gynes and workers born and reared in the laboratory in the
133 colonies collected one month before for the previous experiment and equally fed *ad libitum*
134 with identical food (honey water and tenebrids/*Drosophila*).

135 Body fat content was measured following Bernadou et al. (2015). Individuals were dried at 60
136 °C for five days and weighed individually to the nearest 0.0001 mg with a microbalance
137 (Radwag MYA 5.4Y) to measure their dry mass. Subsequently, fat was extracted by soaking
138 each worker for two days in 2 ml petroleum ether (boiling range 40–60 °C, Merck, Darmstadt,
139 Germany) at room temperature. After two days, the workers were transferred into new vials,
140 the petroleum ether was renewed, and each worker was kept in petroleum ether again for two
141 days. Afterwards, the ants were dried at 60 °C for six days and weighed again to determine
142 their lean mass. The percentage of fat was calculated according to the standard equation: (dry
143 mass - lean mass) * 100/dry mass.

144 **Statistical analyses**

145 *Food source choice and consumption*

146 We tested whether urban and rural colonies were differently attracted by the different types of
147 food (carbohydrates, protein, or fat / protein) sources by carrying out a GLMM (zero inflated
148 Poisson) in which the number of foragers observed in each foraging arena was used as the
149 dependent variable. The three-way interaction of habitat type, type of food, and the round of
150 the experiment was included as explanatory factors, colony identity, and round of observation
151 as nested random factors.

152 We checked whether the total amount of food consumed differed between habitat types and
153 repetitions by carrying out a LMM (Gamma distribution) in which the total amount of food
154 consumed was used as explanatory variable and the interaction between habitat type and
155 round of the experiment as explanatory factors. We also tested for differences in the actual
156 quantity of each type of food consumed by the colonies from each habitat type and across
157 rounds with a LMM approach in which the $\log+1$ transformed quantity of carbohydrates,
158 protein, fat / protein consumed was used as response variable, and the interaction between
159 habitat type, type of food, and round of the experiment were used as the explanatory factors.
160 In all LMMs, colony identity was included as random factor. Finally, paired t-tests were

161 carried out on the consumption of each nutrient per each population to compare differences
162 between the first and second round of observations.

163 *Body fat content and gyne size*

164 To test for differences in body fat content between ants from urban and rural habitats, we
165 performed a LMM with fat content as response variable and the interaction of the habitat type,
166 caste, and origin (field or laboratory) as explanatory factors. The origin of the individuals was
167 included in the model to avoid an influence of genetic background. Finally, since larger gynes
168 can potentially accumulate larger quantities of body fat, we tested for size differences in
169 gynes between habitat types using dry mass as a proxy of individual size. Comparisons were
170 performed using a LMM approach, in which individual dry mass was introduced as dependent
171 variable, the interaction between habitat type and origin of the individual (field or laboratory)
172 as explanatory factors, and colony identity was used as random factor.

173 Statistical analyses were performed using R v4.1.2 (R Core Team, 2021) and RStudio (Posit
174 Team, 2023). Linear mixed models (LMM) were performed by using the function *lmer* from
175 the package *lme4* (Bates et al., 2013). Models were tested for overdispersion by using the
176 function *testdispersion* of the package DHARMA (Hartig, 2022). When overdispersion was
177 found in LMMs, the dependent variable was transformed using the most suitable
178 transformation approach obtained using the function *bestNormalize* from the R-package
179 *bestNormalize* (Peterson, 2021). Zero-inflated Poisson regression was performed by using the
180 *zeroinfl* function of the *pscl* package (Jackman, 2020). The significance of the explanatory
181 factors was determined by performing the Anova of the LMMs and GLMMs using the
182 function *Anova* from the *car* package (Fox & Weisberg, 2019). To assess differences in urban-
183 rural trends for the tested factors, we performed post-hoc pairwise comparisons of all models
184 using the *emmeans* function of the *emmeans* package (Lenth, 2023) for GLMMs. For LMMs
185 we used the *posthoc_Pairwise* function of the *grafify* package (Shenoy, 2021). Graphical
186 representations were performed using the packages *ggplot2* (Wickham, 2016), *magick* (Ooms,

187 2023), png (Urbanek, 2022) and ggpubr (Kassambara, 2022). Mean and error values were
188 calculated using the Rmisc package (Hope, 2022).

189 **Results**

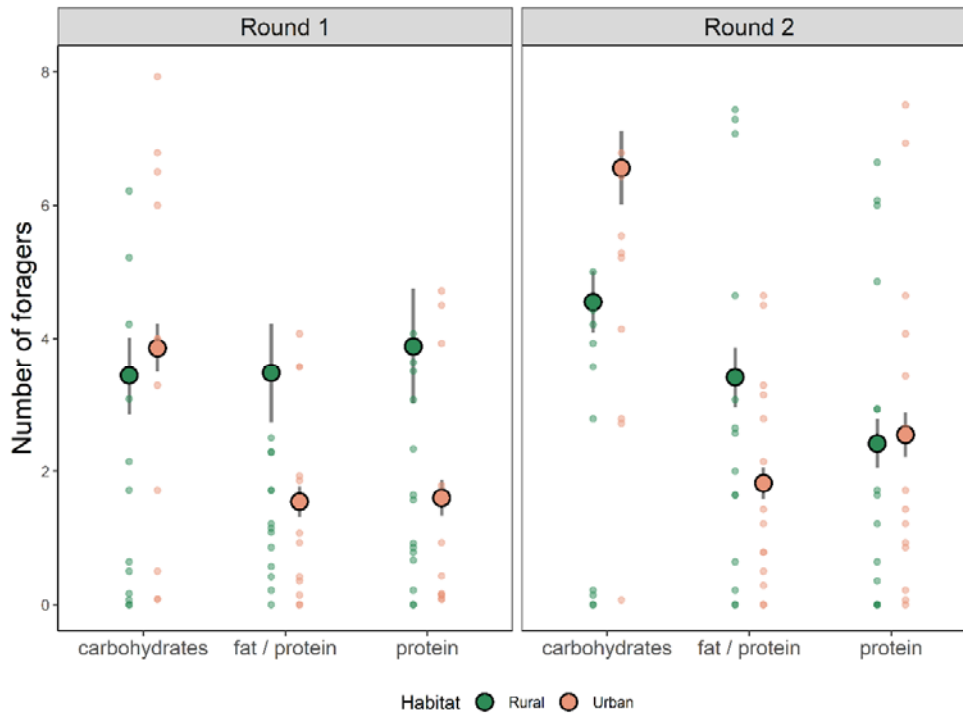
190 *Food source choice and consumption*

191 Our results show that the interest of workers in exploring the different arenas was
192 significantly influenced by food type ($\chi^2 = 41.64$, $p < 0.001$), habitat type ($z = 6.84$, $p <$
193 0.001), the round of the experiment ($\chi^2 = 15.06$, $p < 0.001$), and the interactions between these
194 factors (Table 1). Just after collection (round 1), workers of urban and rural colonies did not
195 differ in their interest in carbohydrates ($z = -0.09$; $p = 1$). In contrast, rural colonies were
196 significantly more foraging for protein and fat / protein diets (protein: $z = 3.85$, $p = 0.006$; fat
197 / protein: $z = 3.31$, $p = 0.043$). One week later (round 2), rural colonies were less interested in
198 carbohydrates ($z = -5.21$, $p < 0.001$) and more interested in the fat / protein diet ($z = 4.83$, $p <$
199 0.001) than urban colonies (Figure 1).

200 Table 1. Influence of the study factors in the foraging interest of the workers in the food
201 selection experiment.

Number of workers attracted by each type of food			
Factor	Df	χ^2	p-value
Type of food	2	41.64	< 0.001
Habitat type	1	6.84	< 0.001
Round of observation	1	15.06	< 0.001
Type of food * Habitat type	2	57.45	< 0.001
Type of food * Round of observation	2	15.96	< 0.001
Habitat type * Round of observation	1	26.84	< 0.001
Type of food * Habitat type * Round of observation	2	6.72	0.035

202



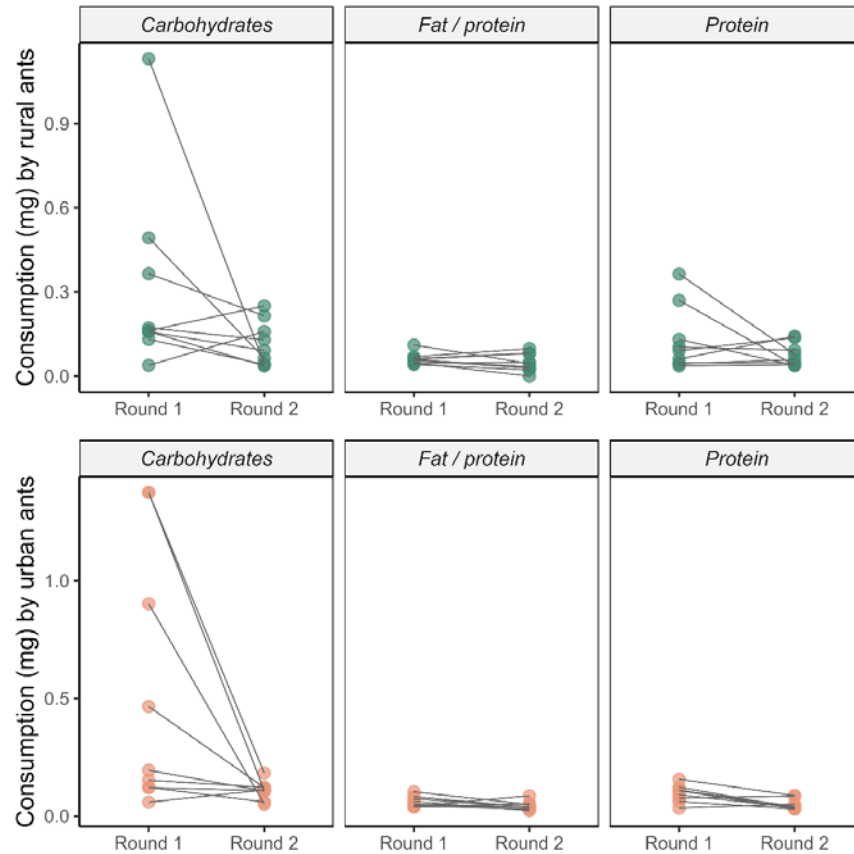
203

204 Figure 1. Mean and error bar plot showing the difference in the number of workers of the ant
205 *Lasius niger* from rural and urban colonies present in the foraging arena containing different
206 types of diet. The filled circles indicate the mean value of the consumption by the rural and
207 urban colonies, the whiskers represent the standard deviation and the dots are the individual
208 worker numbers for each colony.

209 When investigating the actual food intake, the total food consumed by the colonies decreased
210 in the second round of the experiment ($t = -2.19$, $p = 0.028$; Supplementary figure 1).
211 Colonies from urban and rural habitats consumed different quantities of each diet in the first
212 round of observations. After collection, urban ants consumed more carbohydrates than rural
213 colonies ($t = 3.75$, $p < 0.001$), but no clear differences were found in the consumption of
214 protein ($t = 0.75$, $p = 0.675$) and fat / protein diets ($t = 0.05$, $p = 0.971$).

215 After one week of *ad libitum* feeding in the laboratory (round 2), no significant differences
216 were found in food consumption between ants coming from different habitat types
217 (carbohydrates: $t = 0.07$, $p = 0.971$; protein: $t = 0.41$, $p = 0.848$; fat / protein: $t = 0.137$, $p =$
218 0.971 ; Supplementary figure 2).

219 Finally, we observed a consistent decrease in the consumption of various types of nutrients
220 the experimental colonies from both rural and urban populations between the first and second
221 round of observations (Figure 2, Supplementary table 3).



222

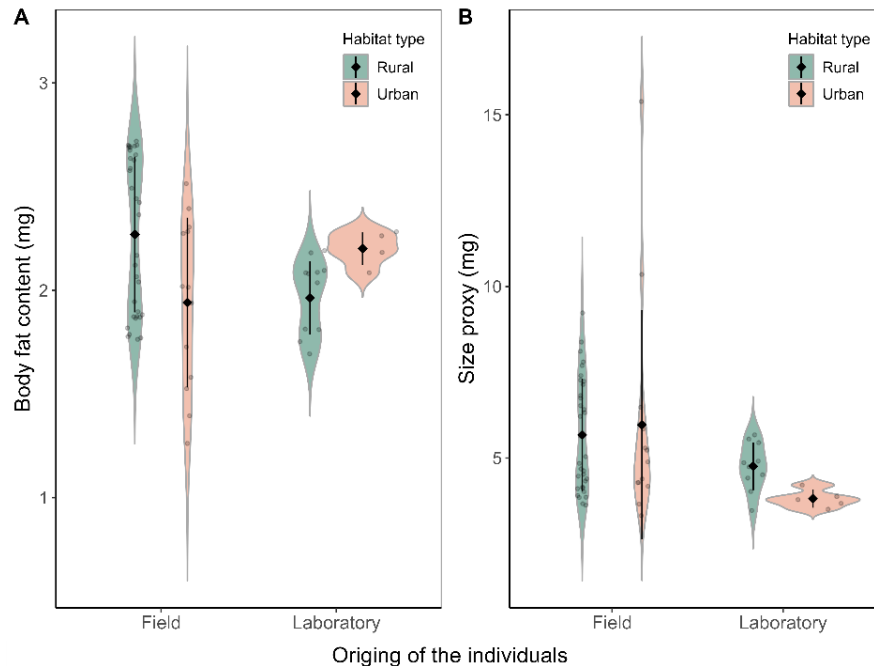
223 Figure 2. Paired dot plot showing the consumption of each diet (mg) by *Lasius niger* workers
224 from urban and rural colonies during the two rounds of the experiment (one day after
225 collection and one week after collection and feeding on a standard diet).

226

227 *Body fat content and gynes size*

228 Body fat content of gynes collected in the field differed between urban and rural habitats.
229 Rural gynes had a significantly higher fat content than urban gynes ($t = 3.52$, $p = 0.003$),
230 although laboratory-reared gynes from the two habitats did not differ ($t = -1.51$, $p = 0.262$).
231 Workers from the two habitat types did not differ in body fat content, regardless of whether

232 collected from the field ($t = 0.78$, $p = 0.635$) or reared in the laboratory ($t = -1.76$, $p = 0.169$).
233 Finally, using the dry mass (mg) as a proxy of individual size, we found no significant
234 difference between urban and rural gynes collected either in the field ($t = -0.13$, $p = 0.895$) or
235 reared in the laboratory ($t = -1.93$, $p = 0.072$).



236

237 Figure 3. Violin plot and mean and error plot showing the body fat content and (in
238 milligrams) size (using the dry mass as a proxy) of gynes of the ant *Lasius niger* reared under
239 natural conditions in the field and under laboratory conditions. The black diamonds indicate
240 the mean value of the consumption by the rural and urban colonies, and the whiskers
241 represent the standard deviation.

242

243 Discussion

244 Workers of the ant *Lasius niger* from urban and rural colonies exhibited distinct preferences
245 for three offered diets. Whereas the foraging activity in the arena containing carbohydrates
246 did not differ between colonies from the two habitat types, workers from rural colonies

247 showed significantly more interest in diets rich in protein or fat and protein compared to
248 workers from urban ones.

249 Immediately after collection, workers from urban colonies showed a significantly higher
250 intake of carbohydrates than workers from rural colonies, while no significant differences
251 were found in the consumption of the other two diets. However, after one week of feeding on
252 a standard diet in the laboratory, rural ants exhibited a significantly greater interest for the diet
253 rich in fat / protein and less interest in carbohydrates, in contrast to urban ants. Ants from
254 urban and rural habitats did not differ in the quantities they consumed from each diet.

255 Gynes from rural colonies were similar in size to those from urban colonies but had a
256 significantly higher fat content. No differences in fat content were found when gynes from
257 different habitat types were reared in the laboratory. Fat content was also identical in workers
258 from urban and rural areas regardless of whether they were reared in the field or the
259 laboratory.

260 We found a high general attraction of the ants for carbohydrates, which matches the well-
261 known symbiotic association of *L. niger* with aphids (Czechowski et al., 2012; Seifert, 2018).
262 The higher intake of carbohydrates in urban colonies immediately after collection suggests
263 that carbohydrate sources, mainly honeydew, are less abundant and potentially of lower
264 quality in urban habitats compared to sources in rural areas. Lower plant diversity and their
265 growth in poor soil (Lescano et al., 2022) might negatively affect the honeydew production by
266 aphids (Fisher et al., 2005) in urban areas, although it is worth noting that no specific studies
267 have yet been carried out to test this assumption.

268 Contrary to our expectation that urban colonies would consume more protein and fat than
269 rural colonies, we found that rural colonies were more interested in these diets, although
270 differences were not significant. However, we attribute the lack of significance to the high
271 concentration of nutrients in these diets, as found that ants the volume of food ingested by
272 ants decreases with the increase of concentration in the diet (Dussutour & Simpson, 2008).
273 Besides, we cannot exclude that recruitment during the initial observation round (one day

274 after collection) still reflected natural factors, such as colony size and productivity (Mailleux
275 et al., 2003). For example, colonies in rural areas might have been larger and more productive
276 than urban colonies, explaining the unexpected, increased interest in protein and fat. While
277 urban colonies can prolong their production period due to the elevated temperatures in urban
278 environments (Trigos-Peral et al., 2024), rural colonies tend to have shorter reproduction
279 periods and may need to optimize their productivity particularly during summer. As a result,
280 rural colonies might have a greater demand for protein and fat to ensure an adequate brood
281 development (Dussutour & Simpson, 2008; Rosumek et al., 2017).

282 Moreover, rural habitats present additional challenges in the search for proteins and fats.
283 While greater biodiversity can theoretically provide a wider array of food sources, it also
284 results in an increased number of neighbouring colonies competing for these resources.
285 Penick et al. (2015) suggested that certain urban ant species can compensate the lack of
286 natural food sources by feeding on human food waste. However, the observed consumption of
287 leftover food varied with the ants' origin (native or invasive), location (parks or traffic
288 islands), and trophic level (predator or herbivore). For example, consumption of food waste
289 was only evidenced in the omnivorous, exotic ants *Tetramorium* spp. and *Nylanderia flavipes*
290 in traffic islands, while *Lasius cf. emarginatus* appeared to avoid human food waste (Penick et
291 al., 2015).

292 After being provided with similar diets for one week in the laboratory, rural colonies not only
293 again foraged more for fat / protein but also exhibited an increased consumption of this diet.
294 Though this might suggest that rural ants suffer more from protein and fat shortage, we found
295 that rural gynes had a higher body fat content than urban counterparts. Body fat content plays
296 a critical role in the success of solitary colony foundation, as it significantly affects queen
297 survival and egg production during the development of the first workers (Heinze & Tsuji,
298 1995; Helms & Kaspari, 2015; Negrone et al., 2021). Body fat content increases in gynes after
299 emergence due to feeding (Boomsma & Isaaks, 1985), so the differences might in principle
300 result from a later emergence of urban gynes. However, the annual activity starts earlier in

301 urban ants than in rural ones (GT unpublished data), which should lead to opposite results
302 (higher body fat content in urban ants). Furthermore, prior to the massive nuptial flight in
303 July, there are a few smaller nuptial flights in which the earlier emerged gynes leave the nest.
304 Notwithstanding, further studies are needed to determine whether the lower fat content
305 observed in urban gynes might result from different timing of emergence or indeed indicates
306 an evolutionary adaptation to dietary constraints in their habitat. Moreover, although workers
307 from both habitat types did not differ in body fat content, the nutritional shortage may not be
308 apparent in this caste throughout our experiment. For instance, although Rosumek et al.
309 (2017) did not find differences in body fat content of ant workers when testing diets with low
310 and high fat content, they found a change of their fatty acid profile.

311 To summarize, our research offers new insights into the potential dietary shortages in urban
312 areas and its consequences on ants. Further studies with controlled diets and genetic
313 approaches are needed to accurately determine the interplay between the availability of food
314 sources, foraging behaviour, and reproductive success in ants. In addition, our findings
315 highlight once more the significance of diet quality in ants (Csata et al., 2020; Wendt &
316 Czaczkes, 2020) and emphasize the importance of meticulously selecting the diets for use in
317 baiting assays.

318

319 **Data availability**

320 The data used in this study are available through the link to figshare
321 (<https://figshare.com/s/20b4ecf6e7b571b9ca13>) in the manuscript. Scripts and outputs are
322 also available through the former link. Doi: 10.6084/m9.figshare.25513309

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- 502

503 **Supplementary material**

504

505 **Supplementary table 1.** Locations for the collection of the fragments of urban and rural

506 colonies in Warsaw (Poland).

507

Urban areas	
Location	GPS coordinates
<i>Ogród Saski Park</i>	52.240482, 21.008921
<i>Morskie Oko Park</i>	52.205943, 21.026827
<i>Marshal Edward Rydz-Śmigły Park</i>	52.225446, 21.033746
Rural areas	
Location	GPS coordinates
<i>Gmina Michałowice</i>	52.159636, 20.873293
<i>Klaudyn</i>	52.272952, 20.861246
<i>Warsaw Airport</i>	52.146279, 20.987392

508

509 **Supplementary table 2.** Nutritional information in 100 gr of canned tuna in own juice
510 (protein) and tuna in soybean oil (fat / protein) used in the experiments.

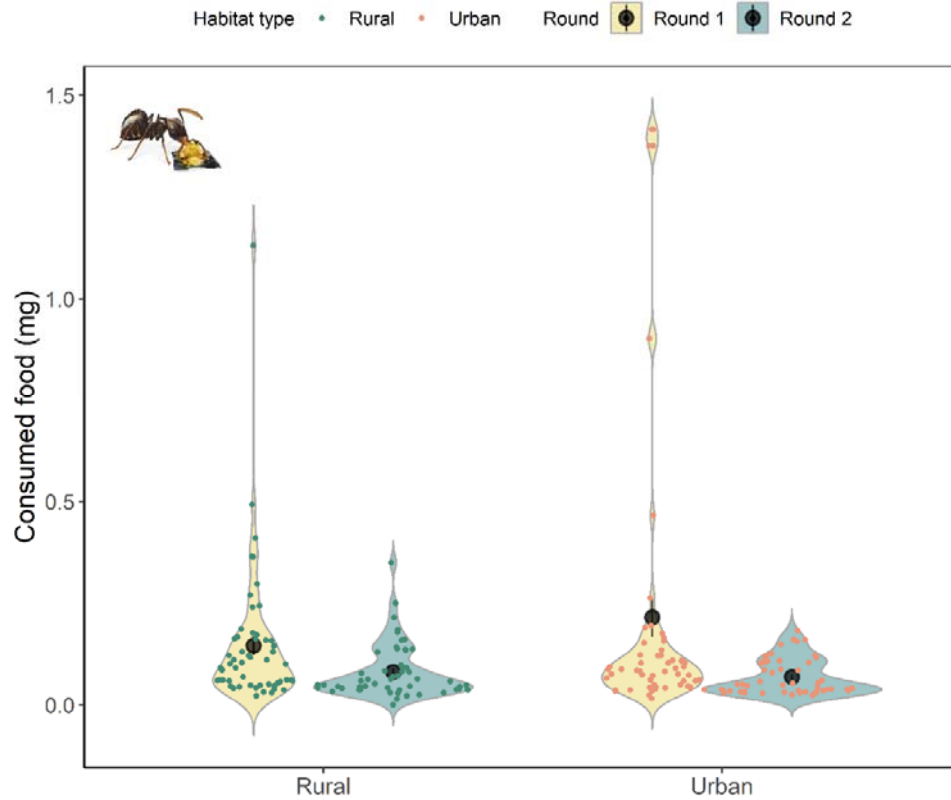
511

Proteins (tuna in own juice)	
Nutrient	In 100 gr of product
<i>Proteins</i>	23 gr
<i>Fat</i>	0.6 gr
<i>Salt</i>	1.05 gr
<i>Carbohydrates</i>	< 0.1 gr
Fat / proteins (tuna in soybean oil)	
Nutrient	In 100 g of product
<i>Proteins</i>	23.5 gr
<i>Fat</i>	9.5 gr
<i>Salt</i>	1.05 gr
<i>Carbohydrates</i>	< 0.1 gr

512

513

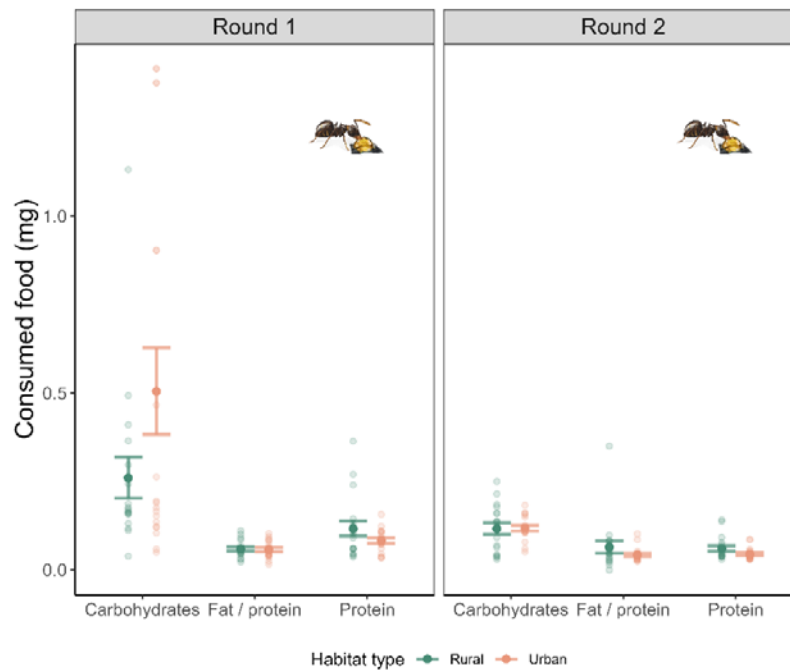
514 **Supplementary figures**



515

516 **Supplementary figure 1.** Violin plots showing the amount of food consumed (mg) by the
517 colonies from urban and rural habitats during the first round of observations (one day after
518 colonies collection) and the second round of observations (one week after collection and
519 feeding at the laboratory under the same type of diets). The black circles show the average
520 consumption per each population, whereas coloured dots represent the individual values for
521 each urban (in pink) and rural (in green) experimental colony.

522



523

524 **Supplementary figure 2.** Mean and error bar plot showing the difference in the amount of
525 food (mg) consumed by *Lasius niger* workers from urban and rural colonies during the two
526 rounds of the experiment (one day after collection and one week after collection and feeding
527 on a standard diet). The full circles indicate the means of the consumption by the rural and
528 urban colonies, and the whiskers represent the standard deviation. Open circles represent the
529 individual values per each experimental colony.

530

531 **Data availability statement** - The data used in this study are available through the link to
532 figshare (<https://figshare.com/s/20b4ecf6e7b571b9ca13>) in the manuscript. Scripts and
533 outputs are also available through the former link. Doi: 10.6084/m9.figshare.25513309