Article

Foraging, Fear and Behavioral Variation, a Lesson from Hum-mingbirds

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**Abstract:** Traditionally, foraging behaviour has been explained as the response to a trade-off between energetic gain from feeding resources and potential costs from concomitant risks. However, increasing number of studies has shown that this view fails to explain an important fraction of the variation in foraging across a variety of taxa. One of potential mechanisms that may account for this variation is that various behaviors associated with foraging may have different fitness consequences and that may further depend on environmental context. Here, we explored this mechanism by evaluating foraging efficiency of Long-billed Hermit hummingbirds (*Phaethornis longirostris)* with regard to three behaviors: a) exploration (number of feeders used during the foraging visit), b) risk avoidance (latency to start feeding) and c) arousal (amount of movements during the foraging visit) in conditions of two different levels of perceived threat (low – control, and high – experimental, with a threatening bullet ant model). Foraging efficiency decreased in response to threatening conditions. However, behavioral traits explained additional variation in foraging efficiency in a condition-dependent manner. More exploration was associated with higher foraging efficiency in control conditions, but this was reversed when exposed to a threat. Regardless of conditions, arousal was positively associated with foraging efficiency while risk avoidance was negatively related. Importantly, exploratory behaviour and risk avoidance were quite repeatable behaviors suggesting that they may be related to intrinsic traits of individuals. Our findings highlight the importance of taking into account additional behavioral dimensions to better understand foraging strategies of individuals.

**Keywords:** risk allocation hypothesis; risk avoidance; exploratory behavior; arousal; repeatability

1. Introduction

A variety of ecological factors has been identified as major determinants in shaping foraging strategies of animals (i.e. resource exploitation). Of those the most commonly evoked are the amount and distribution of available food resources [1,2] and animal motivation (both in the sense of marginal value theorem [3] and/or body condition [4]), but predation pressure is also frequently considered [5,6] The intensity of a prey vigilance increases with the level of risk predation (probability of predator presence), affecting its foraging efficiency. As the risk allocation hypothesis imposes, a prey allocates time for foraging inversely proportionately to the predation pressure [5–7]. Thus, in a given food resources–predation landscape, a fixed foraging strategy is expected to evolve [8]. However, increasing number of studies demonstrates a high variation in foraging strategies [9–11], which is hard to explain using only food- and predation-based arguments [4].

Variation in foraging strategies of individuals remains an intriguing topic [1,12–16]. Existing evidence demonstrates not only the variation *per se* but consistent inter-individual differences in the average level of a behaviour displayed across a range of contexts (Carere and Maestripieri 2013) and in response to environmental variation (Nussey et al. 2007; Dingemanse et al. 2009). Within a species/population, individuals usually represent a full continuum of a given behavioral display, with two polar-opposite phenotypes (e.g. high and low exploratory behaviour) and various intermediate forms in between. Importantly, fitness advantages of contrasting behaviors may differ in various contexts, sometimes dramatically [18]. For example, highly exploratory behaviour can be advantageous in conditions of resource competition but disadvantageous in a higher predation pressure environment [18–21]. Despite growing number of studies showing, both directly and indirectly, behavioral variability in animals performance, it is still not entirely recognized what could be fitness consequences of this variation.

The fitness payoff of a behavior is likely to be a main source of the observed variation in foraging strategy [11,18,22]. Under variable conditions, a diversity of behavioral strategies can be maintained if different performance results in different cost and benefits in different contexts. If so, performance may vary as a function of interactions between social and/or ecological selective forces, which can help to reveal the complex interplay of intrinsic and extrinsic factors shaping behavioral variability [23–26].

Here, we examined the fitness consequences of various behavioral strategies during foraging in wild ranging hummingbirds. This avian group is known for their extreme metabolism with a high need for energy intake that makes them constantly motivated to forage [27]. As such, they are expected to be under strong selection for maximizing foraging efficiency, which can have a considerable effect on the fitness. This is particularly significant for trap-lining foraging species, which to use flowers dispersed across the habitat move around in a route-like fashion [28,29]. Such a free foranging strategy entails a period of high vulnerability of foraging individuals, exploited by a wide range of predators [30–35], which in turn, results in a trade-off between efficient foraging and risk avoidance. The differential payoffs in the selective landscape given by these two factors are expected to shape foraging strategies of the hummingbirds.

In this study we focused on the Long-billed Hermit hummingbird (LBH, *Phaethornis longirostris*). The species It around[29][29]

To examine the payoffs of different behavioral strategies under a trade-off between food resource exploitation and risk avoidance, we considered the issue in the context of low and high level of perceived threat. We also analyzed the issue in regard to three behavioral axes, commonly linked to the exploitation of food resources. These behavioral axes were: a) exploration (number of foraging spots (i.e. feeders) used during the foraging visit), b) risk avoidance (latency to approach the foraging spot to forage), and c) arousal (amount of movements during the foraging event) [1,18,19,36,37]. Firstly, we hypothesized that foraging efficiency (expressed as the amount of time spend on feeding in respect to the total time of the visit at the feeder), may be lower at threatening conditions. Then, we hypothesized that foraging efficiency is further modulated by the three behavioral traits (exploration, risk avoidance and arousal), expecting that high level of each of the trait negatively affects the foraging efficiency, i.e. frequent changes of the foraging spot, long latency to approach the feeder and lot of movement around the feeder all it may limit the time for feeding.

2. Methods

2.1. Fieldwork

We carried out the study at La Selva Biological Station, Costa Rica (10 o23’ N, 84o10’ W) between May and June 2015. Firstly, to follow behavior of focal individuals, we captured and marked 21 individuals with foam tags (total weight of 0.02 g, which is ~0.3 % of LBH body mass, 6g) with unique color combinations, attached to the bird’s back and chest with nontoxic eyelash glue (Araya-Salas et al. 2018). Then, to evaluate foraging efficiency of the marked individuals and quantify it in low and high threat context, we applied a field experiment using a set-up of hummingbird feeders. Commercial feeders (Perky model Pet #209B, 900 ml) were used and modified to have a single opening for accessing “nectar”. Three feeders were arranged in a line (separated by ca 10 cm distance from each other, Fig. 1) and filled with a fresh nectar (~30% sugar-water). The set-up was located in a distance of ca 100 m from the lek border. The feeders (filled with nectar filled/changed daily) were exposed in the field for two weeks before the onset of proper experiment, to habituate birds to the study design and feeders location. A. However, location of the feeders did not overlap with foraging area of all the captured individuals and in total we had 12 visitors at the feeders area.

Obraz zawierający tekst, diagram, zrzut ekranu, Czcionka

Opis wygenerowany automatycznie

**Figure 1.** Scheme of the foraging visit – the total time spent by focal bird at the feeders area with at least one feeding event. Time-points crucial for the data analysis denoted with black circles and labelled with letters to denote particular events, being components of the foraging visit: **a)** onset of the foraging visit (appearance in the feeder area, usually hovering in front of the feeder); **b)**, **d)** and **f)** onsets of consecutive feeding events (i.e. inserting the bill into the flower-hole of the feeder; **c)** and **e)** end of the respective feeding events (i.e. removal of the bill from the flower-hole of the feeder); **g)** end of the foraging visit (i.e. the end of the very last feeding event during the foraging visit). Multiple feedings intervals are possible (1-26, mean: 4.9).

The experiment session consisted of two consecutive phases performed on the same day, in the low (first phase, control) and high threat contexts (second phase, experimental). During the whole experiment birds were allowed to forage on the nectar spontaneously and their behaviour was recorded by a commercial camera (continuous recording mode; model: Fujifilm HS30); camera set up on a tripod in a distance of ca 10 m from the feeders (zoomed on the feeders area). During the second phase, to simulate a threat we glued a dead bullet ant (*Paraponera clavata*; found dead in the forest) to each of the three feeders, 2 cm from the flower-hole. Although the ant is not a predator of hummingbirds, presence of large insects on flowers often scares various hummingbird species (e.g. Carr and Golinski 2020), including Long-billed Hermits (MAS., pers. obs, Supplementary Online Materials: videos 1 and 2). Importantly, attached bullet ants did not completely scare birds off, allowing the quantification of their foraging behaviour in these circumstances. Hence attaching the bullet ant to the feeders was expected to resemble situations of increased risk of being injured while still exploiting the feeding resource.

We performed three complete experiment sessions (with two phases) and two incomplete sessions (with control phase only, due to weather conditions), all within two weeks (with 2-3 days between sessions). The two complete (two phases) and two incomplete sessions (control phase only) were conducted in the mornings when the foraging activity peak occurs (Stiles & Wolf, 1979), and only a single complete experiment session was performed during an afternoon, when the activity is lower. Since the time of the day, which we considered in the present study, did not affect foraging efficiency considerably (generalized mixed effect model: foraging efficiency ~ hour (fixed effect; numeric) + birdID (random effect); estimate: -0.009 ± SE 0.005, t = -1.74, df = 137.97, P = 0.08), we did not consider it in further analyses. Besides, since the whole experiment session was completed within relatively short window of time (up to three hours), we believe that potential day effect should not bias comparisons of the control and experimental phases.

The duration of control phases, including those from incomplete sessions, varied from 0.5 to 3 hours. Owing to regular visits of birds in these control conditions (ranging from 1 to 12 per hour per individual), we could record multiple visits of focal individuals, on average of 6 visits per individual (range 2-18). For experimental phases, we kept recording until all visitors observed during the preceding control phase returned to the feeders, resulting in an average of 3 visits per individual during this phase (range: 1-7). The control phase was performed always before the experimental one as doing so we could ensure recruitment of individuals to both phases. The presence of the bullet ant on their very first encounter with the feeders in a given day might preclude birds to explore the resource. To mitigate the potentially negative effect of bullet ant exposure on the frequency of visits, we performed the sessions with 2-3 days gap in between. For all these practical reasons, we could not randomize treatments and controls phases. The fixed sequence of the experiment phases could bias results on foraging efficiency if that would decrease over the time of experiment session (e.g. due to satiation effect over the whole experiment duration). To address this concern, we analyzed foraging efficiency over the consecutive visits using data from control phases (see Supplementary Online Materials). We found that although foraging efficiency may change over the time, that apparently happens only after a considerable number of visits of an individual. Since in our data set, considerable number of visit was the issue with single individuals at single control phases, we considered that issue of not particular importance. Besides, foraging efficiency improved over the time, and given the fact that experiments with bullet ants were always performed after the control phases, if the fixed sequence of the phases biased the results, we would observe an increase or no difference, instead of decrease in foraging efficiency. Since that did not happen, the results of the experiment are apparently solid (Supplementary Online Materials: Fig. S1 and S2). Consequently, we treated all the visits of particular individuals as independent data points but obviously controlling for their identity in further analyses.

2.2. Videos analysis

We screened the video recordings with VLC software (www.videolan.org), to locate and cut out video fragments with foraging visits of focal birds. Events of two or more individuals (Long-billed Hermits or a different species) visiting the feeders at the same time were uncommon and were excluded from analysis as interactions disrupted their regular foraging behaviour. A foraging visit was considered whenever a bird inserted the bill into a feeder at least once. For each bird’s visit we established key time-points (black circles on Fig. 1), with 0.1 seconds precision, using Cowlog software [38]. Based on these time-points we calculated the duration of latency to forage, defined as the interval between appearance in the feeder area (when started to hover in front of the feeder in a distance of around 0.5 m) and the onset of foraging (time from *a* to *b* on Fig. 1); duration of feeding interval/s (time from *b* to *c* on Fig. 1; on average 4.9 events, with a range of 1-26); duration of feeding break/s (time from *c* to *d* on Fig. 1); duration of total foraging (time from *b* to *g*, Fig. 1) and duration of total foraging visit (time from *a* to *g* on Fig. 1). For each visit we also noted which and how many times each of the three feeders were used by the focal bird.

To quantify bird movements around the feeders, we took advantage of the line-arrangement of the feeders that greatly restricted birds activity into two axis. That simplified further analyses, as operating in two-dimensional space we could establish Cartesian coordinates of a bird position for each video frame using the software Tracker version 5.1.5 (physlets.org/tracker). Based on those coordinates we calculated distances between each two bird’s positions using Pythagorean theorem.

2.3. Parameters

We calculated foraging efficiency as the ratio of the total duration of foraging (sum of the duration of all feeding intervals) to the total duration of the foraging visit. To characterize foraging strategies we measured three behavioral features that have been linked to intrinsic individual characteristics in other species and shown to affect foraging: exploration, risk avoidance and arousal [1,18,19,36,37]. As a proxy for **exploration** we utilized the rate of visited feeder; the number of feeders divided by the total duration of the visit, as the absolute number of feeder changes is likely to be a function of time spend at the feeders. As a proxy for **risk avoidance** we used latency to start to forage (the very first use of the feeder during the visit); as defined above (time from *a* to *b* on Fig. 1). For both parameters, the higher the value, the stronger was the exhibited behavior. As **arousal** we considered the coefficient of variance in spatial distances covered by an individual during the whole foraging visit, divided by the number of visited feeders. Birds changing the position frequently (of high value of the coefficient) were assumed to exhibit higher arousal.

2.4. Data analysis

All the analyses were performed in R [39]. Since all parameters had skewed distribution, we log-transformed them prior to analyses (Supplementary Online Materials: Fig. S2). To examine how consistent birds are in their behavior during the foraging, we estimated the repeatability of all the examined parameters (foraging efficiency, exploration, risk avoidance, and arousal) using *rptR* package [40]. For that we used behavioral features measured during the low risk (control) treatment only, which represented undisturbed conditions, and for which we recorded multiple visits per individual. While fitting the repeatability model, we considered given behavioral variable (response variable) and birds identity [explanatory variable/random effect [40]].

To assess variation in foraging efficiency (response variable) as a function of threat level and intrinsic behavioral features (exploration, latency and arousal as predictors) we applied a Bayesian generalized linear mixed model with individuals as a random effect. We fitted three models representing alternative hypotheses explaining variation in foraging efficiency. The first model represents a more traditional view of foraging behaviour in which efficiency is only affected by the level of threat. The second model included an interaction among behavioral traits and threat level, which represents a more nuanced scenario in which the interplay between threat level and intrinsic behavioral differences determines foraging efficiency. There was only little collinearity between predictors (VIF for each of the parameters in the model <1.5 also correlation coefficient ranged from -0.21 to -0.10; Supplementary Online Materials: Fig. S3). We run this model with a single predictor for intrinsic behavioral trait (separately considering arousal, exploration and risk avoidance) as well as in a form of a global model, with all behavioral predictors included. The two approaches yield qualitatively similar results, therefore we presented here only the outcome of the global model. while the outcome of the single behaviour-predictor models are presented in Supplementary Online Materials: Table S1, Table S2, Fig. S4). Finally, we fitted an intercept-only model representing the scenario in which the proposed predictors do not affect efficiency. All the three alternative models were compared using model selection based on the deviance information criteria (DIC) [41]. Models were fitted using the R package *MCMCglmm* [42].

3. Results

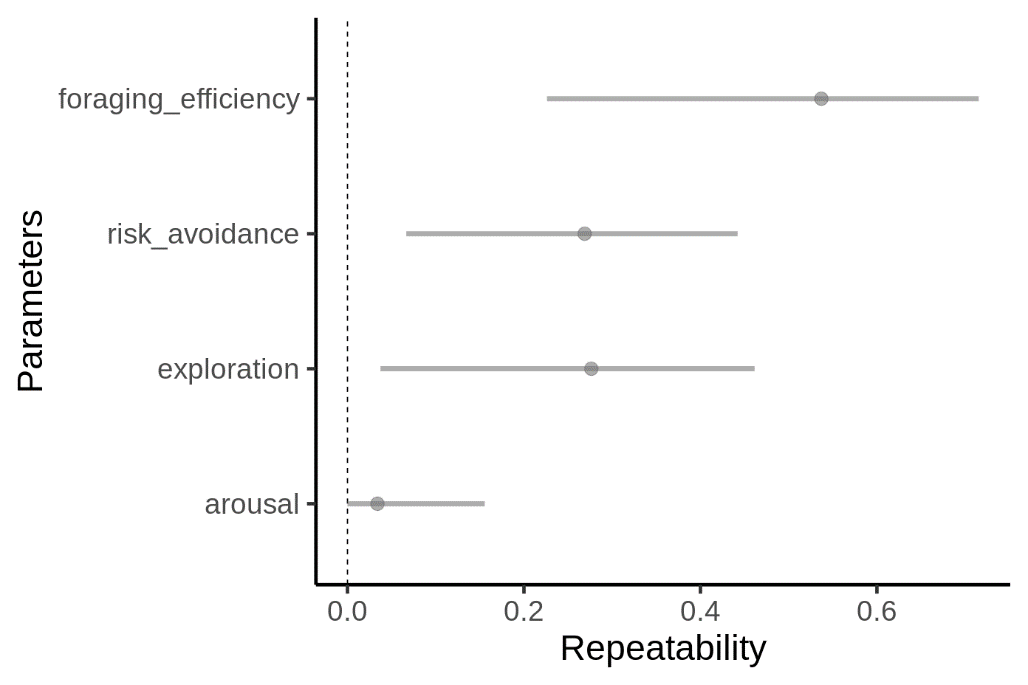
Repeatabilityof all the parameters was moderate but significant for all the parameters except for arousal (Fig. 2). When predicting foraging efficiency, the model including all intrinsic behavioral traits and their interaction with the risk predation context performed significantly better than a simpler model including only threat context (Table 1). All parameters and their interaction were significant in this model except for risk avoidance (Table 2). Overall, foraging efficiency was lowered in the higher threat context (Fig. 3) and the effect of behavioral parameters on the foraging efficiency was context dependent (Table 2). The most dramatic effect was found in respect to exploratory behavior, which was positively related to foraging efficiency in low threat context but the opposite pattern was observed in the higher threat context (Fig. 4). Arousal was positively related to foraging efficiency and this was particularly pronounced when birds faced higher threat (Fig. 4). Risk avoidance overall tended to decrease foraging efficiency but that was not significant and did not differ between threat levels (Fig. 4).

**Table 1.** Ranking of models explaining foraging efficiency of Long-billed Hermits, ordered by delta Deviance Information Criterion (DIC; Akaike’s Information Criterion AIC yields to same conclusions).

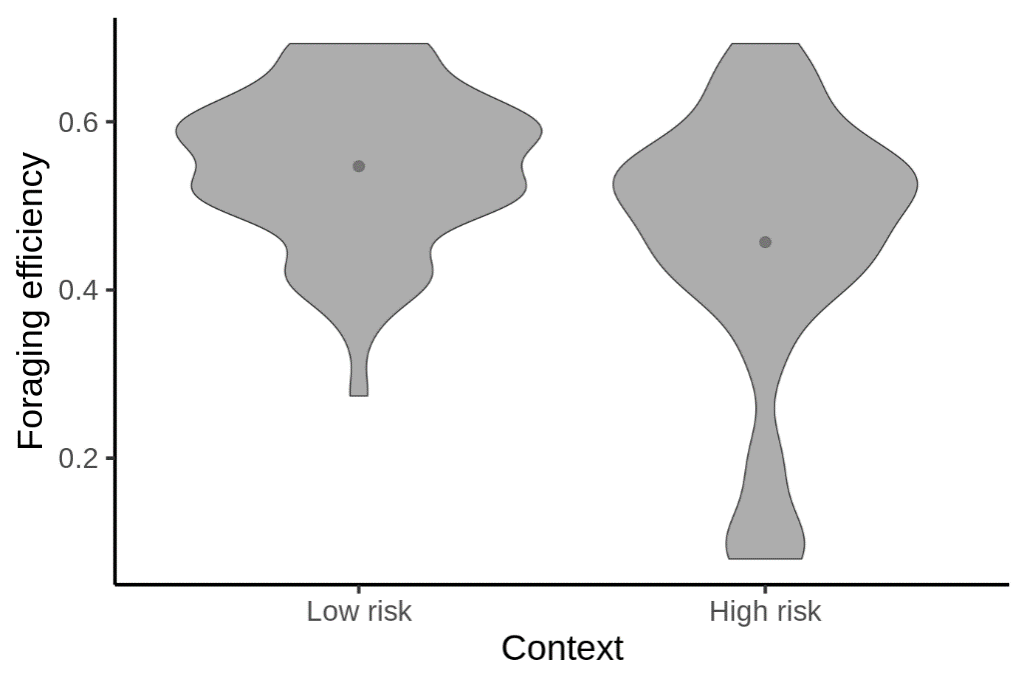
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Predictors | df | DIC | ΔDIC | weight DIC | AIC | ΔAIC | weight AIC |
| md\_all\_interactions | 10 | -400.0909 | 0.00 | 1 | -396.3073 | 0.00 | 0.99 |
| md\_arousal\_exploration | 8 | -388.2385 | 11.85 | 0 | -386.2831 | 10.02 | 0.01 |
| md\_arousal\_risk\_avoidance | 8 | -378.9807 | 21.11 | 0 | -376.8184 | 19.49 | 0.00 |
| md\_arousal | 6 | -363.3410 | 36.75 | 0 | -363.2509 | 33.06 | 0.00 |
| md\_risk\_avoidance\_exploration | 8 | -350.1568 | 49.93 | 0 | -348.8140 | 47.49 | 0.00 |
| md\_exploration | 6 | -345.7716 | 54.32 | 0 | -346.4065 | 49.90 | 0.00 |
| md\_risk\_avoidance | 6 | -315.2258 | 84.87 | 0 | -315.0929 | 81.21 | 0.00 |
| md\_context | 4 | -308.6036 | 91.49 | 0 | -310.7995 | 85.51 | 0.00 |
| md\_null | 3 | -296.3098 | 103.78 | 0 | -299.8347 | 96.47 | 0.00 |

**Table 2.** Effects of behavioral variables and experimental context (low/high risk) on foraging efficiency of Long-billed Hermits (N individuals = 12, N data points = 192). Common intercept = 0.4548, effects are slope estimates derived from the fist top Bayesian MCMC generalized linear model (Table 1). Significant effects denoted in bold.

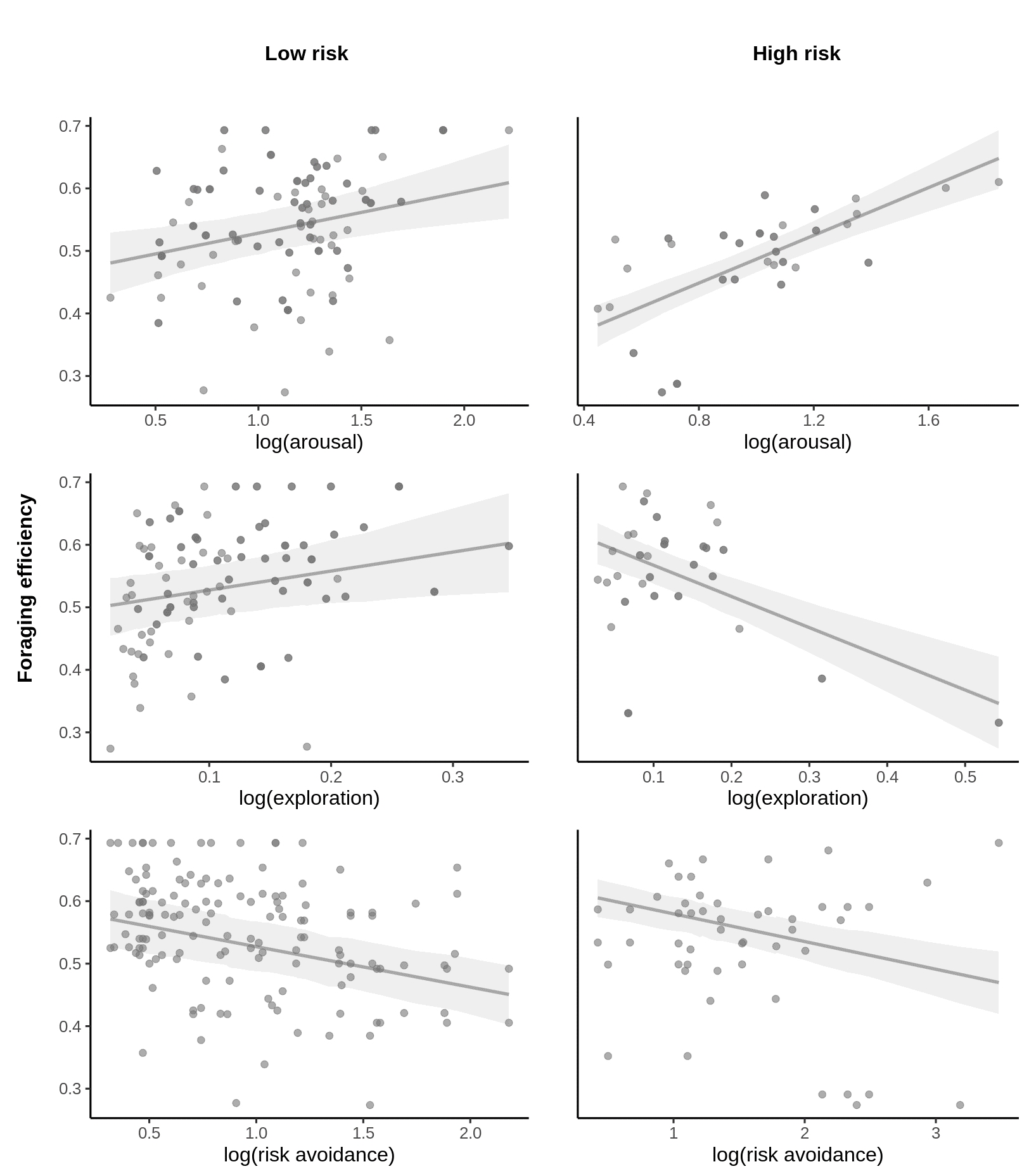
|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Predictor | Effect size | CI 2.5% | CI 97.5% | pMCMC |
| contextHigh risk | -0.1409 | **-0.2732** | **-0.0132** | 0.0322 |
| arousal | 0.0684 | **0.0275** | **0.1083** | 0.0006 |
| exploration | 0.3686 | **0.1244** | **0.6167** | 0.0023 |
| risk\_avoidance | -0.0327 | -0.0663 | 0.0023 | 0.0641 |
| contextHigh risk:arousal | 0.2445 | **0.1541** | **0.3436** | 0.0001 |
| contextHigh risk:exploration | -0.8355 | **-1.1641** | **-0.4925** | 0.0001 |
| contextHigh risk:risk\_avoidance | -0.0270 | -0.0793 | 0.021 | 0.2918 |



**Figure 2.** Repeatability estimates of foraging efficiency and behavioral parameters in the Long-billed Hermit measured in control conditions, analyzed with linear mixed-effects models (Nakagawa and Schielzeth 2010). Dots represent the value of repeatability coefficient, and bars 95% confidence intervals.



**Figure 3.** Foraging efficiency in the context of low and high levels of perceived risk of predation. Dots represent mean value of the foraging efficiency in given context, and shaded area is data density.



**Figure 4.** Foraging efficiency of Long-billed Hermits in regard to their behavioral performance (exploration, risk avoidance and arousal) in the context of low and high levels of perceived risk of predation. Regression lines presented with 95% confidence intervals (shadow area).

4. Discussion

As we could expect under the risk allocation hypothesis [5,6] foraging efficiency of Long-billed Hermits decreased in response to threatening conditions. However, behavioral performance related to exploration, risk avoidance and arousal, additionally affected the foraging efficiency, and interestingly, it was affected in a condition-dependent manner. These results suggest that a range of strategies, instead of a single fixed strategy, should be considered when modelling foraging behaviour in a different contexts. The results also highlight the importance of behavioral variability in shaping evolution of foraging strategy.

Despite not being a specific prey target, hummingbirds may be opportunistically hunted by a wide range of predators, including insects [31,33–35,43]. That imposes a considerable predation risk and favors evolution of vigilance behaviour. Indeed, we found that experimental exposure of an ant, potentially representing just a threat of being bitten (but not eaten), was enough for LBHs to exhibit some behavioral changes. Importantly, despite of the threat, birds did forage although with a lower efficiency. This places LBHs in a group of species representing so call paradox of risk-allocation hypothesis - in conditions of a frequent predator presence, prey might need to forage actively even though a threat (either potential or real predator) is present [5,6,44] In that context, it is worth to evoke one of assumptions of the risk allocation hypothesis, which is ‘living on the edge’ in terms of meeting energy demands [5,7]. This assumption seems to be rarely met in most of animal species used to test the hypothesis so far ([44]). Hummingbirds, given their extreme metabolism rate, could be a rare example when the assumption is actually true.

In control conditions individuals exhibiting more exploratory behavior had also overall higher efficiency during the foraging visit. Reversed pattern was observed for the experimental conditions. A simple reason of the reversed pattern could be that each time an individual stopped feeding to change a feeder it had longer time intervals, probably associated with the need to analyze “*de novo*” the risk situation. Importantly, individuals were consistent over the time in their exploration which could indicate that this behaviour is related to personality [19,22,45,46]. If the exploratory behaviour was indeed a personality trait, and that trait had different fitness consequences in regard to predation, the predation pressure is likely to shape distribution of exploration phenotypes in the population. Unfortunately, examining bird behaviour in limited time and contextual space we are not able to test this prediction currently. Nevertheless, to encourage future studies, we highlight potential role of threats in the environment in the evolution of personality [22,47,48].

There was a clear tendency that risk avoidance behaviour negatively affects foraging efficiency. In the global model, that we presented in the main text, it was not significant but the effect was apparent in a single trait model (Table S2, Supplementary Online Materials). That indicates that in the most extreme scenario, individuals exhibiting high risk aversion may tend to jeopardize their survival in terms of energy intake, while individuals with low risk aversion, although benefiting from high foraging efficiency, would be more likely to be predated. If the risk avoidance was related to birds personality, the relationship between that and foraging efficiency would contribute in the selection of given behavioral phenotype in given predation risk level. Consistently, frequent changes and/or unpredictable level of risk predation in the environment would maintain variability in this behavioral phenotype [18]. Again, we cannot boldly conclude here about birds personality but the results are intriguing and encourage to explore this research avenue in the future.

To maximize fitness, hummingbirds should adaptively allocate both the exploratory and risk avoidance behaviors. Here we considered the issue in respect to a given species but interpreting our study in a broader context we could speculate that exploratory and risk avoidance should be differently allocated in hummingbirds that differ in foraging strategy, like trappliners and territorials. The two groups are likely to experience different threat of predation, and so behaviors like exploration and risk avoidance could also differ. All that might then affect foraging performance [49–51]. Thus, our study suggest possible importance of perceived threat in shaping foraging strategy of various hummingbirds.

An increasing foraging efficiency with an increase in arousal may be counterintuitive at first glance, as time allocated to movements potentially limits the time for foraging. However, arousal was not a repeatable trait, thus bird’s arousal may simply reflect its nutritional state, thus it may vary considerably. Then, more active individuals could be more effective during the foraging, owing to their good body condition or high motivation to forage.

Both exploratory and risk avoidance behaviour were quite repeatable for individuals. Although more study are needed to properly examine how stable this repeatability is over different contexts and a longer period, our results suggest that these two behaviors could be related to birds personality [22,52,53]. In a constantly changing environment, varying fitness consequences of given behavioral phenotype would maintain variation in animals personality [18]. If indeed the exploratory and risk avoidance behaviour are at least partially heritable traits, one could use them to model an evolutionary scenario for given behavioral phenotypes in various conditions of predation pressure. We are currently not able to perform any analysis of that kind given the relatively low number of tested individuals and short study period but we point out hummingbirds as potential animal model species in the studies of animals personality.

**5. Conclusions**

Although with lower efficiency, Long-billed Hermits foraged despite an elevated level of threat in the environment. This make them a good model species for studies on the risk allocation hypothesis, where propensity to forage is measured in the context of predator presence. Our results show not only that foraging efficiency of an individual is affected by a threat presence but also that the efficiency depends on behavioral performance of the individual. More exploration was associated with higher foraging efficiency in no-threat conditions but it was lower when birds were exposed to a threat. Regardless of conditions, arousal was positively associated with foraging efficiency while risk avoidance was related negatively. Importantly, exploratory behaviour and risk avoidance were quite repeatable behaviors suggesting that they may be related to intrinsic traits of individuals. Our findings highlight the importance of taking into account additional behavioral dimensions to better understand foraging strategies of individuals.

**Supplementary Materials:** The following supporting information can be downloaded at: www.mdpi.com/xxx/s1, **Figure S1.** Relationship between foraging efficiency and consecutive visits at feeders area during the control phases of the experiment (all individuals considered); **Figure S2.** Autocorrelation analysis plots for six time series (four individuals) of foraging efficiency during consecutive visits at feeders area during the control phases of the experiment. The titles denote individual identity and number of control session. Solid vertical lines denote correlation coefficient for particular lag of the time series, and dashed horizontal lines delimit the range of their significance; **Figure S3.** Distribution of foraging efficiency and behavioral parameters in the study population of the long-billed hermits, raw (A) and log-transformed (B) data; **Figure S4.** Correlation coefficients between the three behavioral variables; **Figure S5.** Comparison ofestimates from single predictor models and the global model; **Table S1.** Ranking of models explaining foraging efficiency of Long-billed Hermits, ordered by delta Deviance Information Criterion (DIC; Akaike’s Information Criterion AIC yields to same conclusions). Best model for each parameters is bolded; **Table S2.** Effects of behavioral variables and predation context on foraging efficiency of long-billed hermits. Effects are model slope estimates derived from Bayesian MCMC generalized linear model. Only models that improved fit compared to the null models are presented.

**Author Contributions:** Authors equally conceived the study, contributed to data collection, data analysis and manuscript writing.

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**Institutional Review Board Statement:** All activities (birds marking, feeding, and video recording/observations) were performed with the greatest care. The capturing and marking procedure did not have apparent effect on birds survival, as all the individuals where observed in the lek and/or at the feeders area after the capturing. The foam with the birds were marked was of negligible weight (0.02 g, which constitutes ~0.3% of average body mass (6g) of LBH). The study was reviewed and authorized by the Costa Rican Ministerio del Ambiente y Energia (063-2011-SINAC), and performed in accordance with their guidelines and regulations.

**Data Availability Statement:** Dataassociated with the manuscript included as supplementary materials.

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**Conflicts of Interest:** Authors declare not conflict of interest.

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