

1 **Individual determinants of social foraging tactic use when resources are defensible: an**
2 **experiment with zebra finches**

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Gabriel Tej & Frédérique Dubois

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6 Département de Sciences Biologiques, Université de Montréal, Montréal Qc, Canada

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9 **Corresponding author:**

10 Frédérique Dubois, Département de Sciences Biologiques, Université de Montréal, CP 6128

11 Succ. Centre-ville, Montréal Qc, H3C3J7 Canada

12 Tel: (1) 514-343-6927

13 Email: frederique.dubois@umontreal.ca

14 **Abstract**

15 In a social foraging context where individuals can search either for food (i.e. produce) or for
16 opportunities to join (i.e. scrounge), bold individuals, generally, tend to produce more than shy
17 individuals. Yet, the underlying cause of this link remains poorly understood. In particular, bold
18 individuals might rely more on the producer tactic because they have less chance to detect
19 joining opportunities compared to shy individuals or because they prefer more risky and
20 uncertain behavioural tactics. To assess the importance of both mechanisms, we conducted a
21 laboratory experiment with zebra finches (*Taenyopigia guttata*) that were observed while
22 searching for defensible food patches using either the producer or the scrounger tactic, when
23 their arrival order on the grid was either free or imposed by the experimenter. As anticipated,
24 we detected a strong effect of neophobia on producer-scrounger tactic use, but contrary to
25 most previous experiments in which food patches were not defensible, shy individuals, in the
26 present study, relied more on the producer tactic. In addition, we found that arrival order had
27 no significant effect on foraging tactic use in bold and shy individuals. Thus, our results support
28 the hypothesis that producer-scrounger tactic use would not be determined by the ability of
29 individuals to detect scrounging opportunities, but rather by their tolerance to uncertainty and
30 risk. Furthermore, our findings have important evolutionary implications as they suggest that
31 temporal and/or spatial heterogeneity in resource distribution, through influencing the success
32 of each behavioural type, would contribute in maintaining personality differences within
33 populations.

34 **Keywords:** Personality differences, Neophobia, Risk-taking tendency, Arrival order, Producer
35 scrounger game, Contest competition.

36 Introduction

37 Several studies have demonstrated that personality differences among individuals may
38 influence their behaviour in various contexts, but the underlying cause of this link generally
39 remains poorly understood. For instance, in a social foraging context where animals can either
40 search for their own food (i.e. produce) or exploit the resources discovered by others (i.e.
41 scrounge), individuals typically differ in their foraging tactic use depending on their personality,
42 with both direct and indirect evidence indicating that bold individuals tend to rely more on the
43 producer tactic than shy individuals (Kurvers et al. 2010; Carter et al. 2013; Aplin et al. 2014;
44 Aplin & Morand-Ferron 2017). Yet, this pattern might be explained by at least two different
45 mechanisms. First, bold individuals would be more likely to adopt the producer tactic, simply
46 because they have less chance to detect joining opportunities. This could be the case because
47 either they enter a foraging area first which constrains them to rely more on the producer tactic
48 (Dubois et al. 2012) or they have a higher tendency to stay far from others (Ward et al. 2004;
49 Cote et al. 2008; Jolles et al. 2015). According to this hypothesis, the stronger tendency for shy
50 individuals to scrounge would then be a by-product of their reactive personality. Second,
51 individual differences in foraging tactic use would reflect differences in risk-taking tendency.
52 More precisely, bold individuals are expected to preferentially use behavioural alternatives that
53 are more risky and whose consequences, therefore, are more uncertain, whereas shy
54 individuals, on the contrary, are expected to rely more on behavioural tactics that are less risky
55 and uncertain (Coleman & Wilson 1998). Given that an individual, in general, has a higher risk of
56 obtaining no food as a producer than as a scrounger, bold individuals should then rely more on
57 the producer tactic than shy individuals.

58

59 Although some previous studies have found support for the hypothesis that individual
60 differences in the propensity to lead are associated with differences in social information use
61 (Faria et al. 2010; David et al. 2014), the observed correlation might be explained by other
62 personality or physiological traits that are usually associated with leadership, such as boldness
63 (Beauchamp 2000; Harcourt et al. 2009; Kurvers et al. 2009; Schuett and Dall 2009), activity
64 (Beauchamp 2000) or energetic requirements (Bousquet et al. 2017). To distinguish between
65 these two hypotheses (i.e. differences among individuals in either the opportunities to scrounge
66 or their risk-taking tendency), therefore, one needs to manipulate the factors thought to
67 influence the capacity of individuals to detect scrounging opportunities or the level of risk
68 associated with both foraging tactics. Specifically, if differences among individuals in their
69 foraging tactic use reflect differences in their chance of detecting scrounging opportunities, they
70 should adjust their behaviour according to their arrival order. More precisely, we would then
71 expect shy individuals to increase their use of the producer tactic when they are forced to enter
72 a foraging area first, while bold individuals should rely more on the scrounger tactic when they
73 are among the last to arrive. Alternatively, if the often-observed negative correlation between
74 boldness and scrounger tactic use arises because personality types differ in their risk-taking
75 tendency, the effect of boldness on producer-scrounger tactic use might vary depending on
76 ecological conditions. Notably, the relationship between boldness and foraging tactic use has
77 been mainly investigated, to date, in a scramble competition context, in which producing is a
78 more risky and uncertain tactic than scrounging (Wu & Giraldeau 2005). When resources are
79 defendable, however, producing should be less risky and uncertain than scrounging. Indeed,

80 given that a food discoverer obtains a finder's advantage before the joiners arrive, the
81 possibility that a producer receives a zero payoff is then lower than the possibility of a
82 scrounger receiving a zero payoff (Barta & Giraldeau 1998; Giraldeau & Caraco 2000). The risk of
83 getting nothing would be particularly high for shy individuals as they are generally less
84 aggressive than bold individuals (Sih et al. 2004) and hence would rarely succeed in defending a
85 food patch against conspecifics. In the context of contest competition, therefore, we would
86 expect a positive correlation between boldness and scrounger tactic use if foraging tactic is
87 determined by the ability of individuals to cope with uncertainty.

88

89 To assess the relative importance of arrival order and risk-tendency on individual foraging
90 tactic use, and better understand the link between personality and social information use, we
91 then conducted a laboratory experiment with zebra finches (*Taenyopigia guttata*) that were
92 observed while searching for defendable food patches using either the producer or the
93 scrounger tactic. We used flocks of zebra finches since two previous studies have demonstrated
94 that producer-scrounger tactic use is affected by arrival order when food patches can be shared
95 (Beauchamp 2006; David et al. 2014), with first arriving individuals producing more compared
96 with later arriving individuals. However, those previous studies could not rule out other
97 explanations as none of them had manipulated the arrival order of the birds. In the present
98 study, all foraging groups which were composed of bold, shy and intermediate individuals in
99 equal proportion, were then tested first in a treatment where the arrival order of the subjects
100 on the grid was free and second in a treatment where arrival order was imposed by the
101 experimenter, who then forced the focal individual to land first or last.

102

103 **Material and methods**104 *(a) Subjects and housing conditions*

105 We used 18 female zebra finches of approximately three years of age. All the birds came from a
106 local breeder (Exotic Wings & Pet Things, St Clements, Ontario, Canada) and were marked with
107 coloured leg bands for identification. Outside experimental sessions, they were housed in same-
108 sex cages (38×38×48 cm) with a maximum of three individuals per cage under a 12: 12 h dark:
109 light photoperiod at a temperature of 23 ± 1 °C, and had unlimited access to fresh water, seeds,
110 cuttlefish bone, oyster shell and egg food supplement. The experiments described in this study
111 were approved by the Animal Care Committee of the University of Montreal (animal care permit
112 #15-040) and conformed to all guidelines of the Canadian Council on Animal Care.

113

114 *(b) Personality assays*

115 Before we observed the birds' foraging tactic use, we estimated their neophobia using the novel
116 object test procedure. The birds were tested individually in their home cage and were subjected
117 to four trials (i.e. two control trials and two trials with a novel object) with a one-week delay
118 between two consecutive trials and after one night (12 h) of food deprivation. One hour before
119 each trial, the focal bird was isolated in its home cage with only a water dispenser and two
120 perches. We then placed a feeder filled with seeds into the cage as well as, except for the
121 control trials (i.e. the first and third ones), a novel object close to the feeder, and we measured
122 the latency before the focal bird started feeding. For the second and fourth trials, we used two
123 different objects of the same size, and balanced the order of presentation. A trial was over

124 when the bird started eating or after 10 minutes, whichever occurred first. After the birds had
125 completed the four trials, we calculated their neophobia score as the average latency time to
126 start eating with a novel object minus the average latency time to start eating without a novel
127 object. For all the birds tested, the mean (\pm SEM) neophobia score was equal to 334.27 sec \pm
128 49.58. The birds were then classified into three categories (i.e. shy, intermediate and bold) that
129 each contained six subjects.

130

131 *(c) Producer-scrounger experiment*

132 We conducted the experiments in an indoor aviary (155 \times 225 \times 240 cm). The birds were
133 observed through a one-way mirror while searching for food on a 120 \times 120 cm wooden table
134 on which 49 circular holes (1.91 cm diameter, 1.27 cm deep and that were placed 15 cm apart
135 from each other) served as food patches. Each patch was surrounded by three cardboard
136 partitions arranged to prevent competitors from feeding simultaneously from the same food
137 patch, thus promoting resource defense. Three flocks, each composed of six individuals, were
138 tested under two different treatments where the arrival order of the subjects on the grid was
139 either free or imposed by the experimenter, who then forced the focal individual to land first or
140 last. Each flock was composed of two shy, two bold and two intermediate individuals and the
141 composition of the groups remained identical among the two treatments, except for one group
142 in which we had to remove and replace two individuals after the first treatment, because of
143 injuries. Under the two treatments, the birds were introduced before the beginning of a trial
144 into individual boxes (15 \times 15 \times 15 cm) that were placed next to each other in front of the grid
145 and that could be opened by the experimenter from outside the aviary. In the first treatment,

146 where the arrival order of the birds was free, the experimenter opened all boxes
147 simultaneously, while in the other treatment where the arrival order was constrained, each box
148 was opened 10 s after the previously released bird had landed on the grid.

149
150 For each trial, only five randomly chosen patches contained five millet seeds. Each flock
151 experienced six consecutive trials per day with a 15 minutes inter-trial interval. After they had
152 been familiarized with the environment, the birds were submitted to the two treatments in the
153 same order after a 12 hour-period of food deprivation for a total of 15 testing days: they
154 experienced five consecutive days of testing during which their arrival order was free, then five
155 other consecutive days of testing during which they were forced to land first and finally five
156 other consecutive days of testing during which they were forced to land last. For each 5-day
157 period, the first two days were used as training sessions while the remaining three days were
158 used for data collection. Each trial started when the first bird landed on the grid and ended 10
159 minutes later or when the focal bird had left the grid for more than one minute. For each focal
160 bird, we recorded its order of landing as well as the number of successful finding and joining
161 events. In a finding event, an individual discovered and fed from a food patch at which no other
162 individual was present. By contrast, in a joining event, the focal bird ate at least one seed from a
163 food patch where another individual was already foraging. After a series of six trials was
164 completed, the birds were returned into their respective home cages.

165

166 *(d) Statistical analyses*

167 For each individual, we calculated the proportion of finding events every testing day as the
168 number of finding events divided by the sum of the number of finding and joining events. To
169 test whether the birds were consistent in their foraging tactic use and arrival order, we
170 estimated the repeatability of both traits from the intra-class correlation coefficient (ICC) and
171 calculated the confidence intervals following Nakagawa and Schielzeth (2010). We also
172 investigated whether individual differences in arrival order were explained by differences in
173 neophobia using a linear mixed-effects model where the arrival order and neophobia were
174 entered as the dependent and the independent variables, respectively. For these analyses, we
175 only considered data from the first treatment where the arrival order of the birds was not
176 constrained.

177 Finally, to determine whether the strategy used by the birds was influenced by their neophobia
178 or arrival order, we ran a linear mixed-effects model; the frequency of producing events was
179 entered as the dependent variable while the neophobia, arrival order and treatment were
180 considered as fixed factors, and the day of testing and the flock were included as random
181 factors.

182 Statistical analyses were performed with SPSS 23.0.

183

184 **Results**

185 While the birds were consistent in their foraging tactic use across trials ($R=0.382$; 95% CI: 0.047
186 to 0.717), their arrival order on the grid was not significantly repeatable ($R= 0.219$, 95% CI = -
187 0.131 to 0.569). Yet, arrival order was marginally associated with neophobia ($F_{1, 17}=1.177$,

188 $P=0.079$), indicating that individuals with longer latency times tended to land later on the
189 foraging grid (Fig. 1).

190
191 Individual differences in the frequency of finding events were mainly attributable to
192 differences in neophobia (Table 1), with shy individuals having a higher proportion of finding
193 events compared to intermediate and bold individuals (Fig. 2). In addition, the effect of arrival
194 order depended on the neophobia of the birds, as revealed by a significant interaction between
195 the two factors (Table 1). Accordingly, we found that arrival order had no effect on the
196 proportion of finding events in shy ($F_{1,5}=0.565$, $P=0.726$) and bold ($F_{1,5}=1.314$, $P=0.281$)
197 individuals, while birds among the first to land had a higher proportion of finding events in
198 intermediate individuals ($F_{1,5}=2.481$, $P=0.048$; Fig. 3A). By contrast, shy individuals had a higher
199 proportion of finding events in the second treatment in which their arrival order was
200 constrained than in the first treatment ($F_{1,5}=4.535$, $P=0.040$; Fig. 3B), while the treatment had
201 no effect on foraging tactic use in bold ($F_{1,5}=1.692$, $P=0.201$) and intermediate ($F_{1,5}=1.000$,
202 $P=0.324$) individuals.

203

204 Discussion

205 As anticipated, we found that the birds were consistent in their use of foraging tactic and that
206 producer-scrounger tactic use was strongly affected by neophobia. Yet, contrary to most
207 previous studies (Kurvers et al. 2010; Carter et al. 2013; Aplin et al. 2014; but see Jolles et al.
208 2013), shy individuals relied more on the producer tactic than bold and intermediate individuals.
209 Furthermore, although shy individuals tended to land later on the foraging grid compared to

210 bold and intermediate individuals, arrival order was not significantly repeatable and we found
211 that the timing of landing influenced individual tactic use decision only in individuals with
212 intermediate latency times. By contrast, arrival order had no effect on foraging tactic use in bold
213 and shy individuals. This finding apparently contradicts two previous studies (Beauchamp 2006;
214 David et al. 2014) that detected a positive association between arrival order and producer tactic
215 use in zebra finches. In both studies, however, the order in which the birds landed on the
216 foraging grid was not constrained by the experimenter, and the reported effect, therefore,
217 could have been due to other factors that are associated with leadership. In support to this
218 hypothesis, David et al. (2014) found that the effect of arrival order on producer-scrounger
219 tactic use, persisted even once all the birds had landed on the foraging grid, and hence had *a*
220 *priori* all the same chance of finding opportunities to join others' food discoveries. Taken
221 together, previous studies and our findings, therefore, strongly suggest that individuals that
222 mainly use the producer tactic in a scramble competition context would not behave as they do
223 because they lack opportunities to scrounge, but because they prefer more risky and uncertain
224 behavioural tactics. This conclusion is further supported by the fact that shy individuals in the
225 present study relied more on the producer tactic when their arrival order was determined by
226 the experimenter rather than uncontrolled, as this result confirms that shy individuals would be
227 particularly sensitive to social cues and hence would only rely on the scrounger tactic under very
228 limited conditions when this tactic is particularly risky and uncertain.

229
230 Our findings have important evolutionary implications as they suggest that temporal and/or
231 spatial heterogeneity in resource distribution would contribute in maintaining personality

232 differences within populations. Specifically, previous studies and our results have demonstrated
233 that depending on resource distribution or accessibility, and hence on the level of resource
234 defendability, individuals relying more on the scrounging tactic may be either the shyest
235 individuals when the resources are not defendable, or the boldest individuals when food
236 patches can be monopolized. Yet, several studies have found that individuals generally have a
237 strong preference for the foraging tactic that provides them with the highest possible fitness
238 return (Beauchamp 2006; Katsnelson et al. 2011). For example, zebra finches who are less
239 efficient at obtaining food (i.e. playing producer) preferentially use the scrounger tactic
240 (Beauchamp 2006), while house sparrows (*Passer domesticus*) with better learning abilities rely
241 mainly on the producer tactic (Katsnelson et al. 2011). A number of studies have demonstrated
242 that differences among individuals in their foraging ability may be associated with personality
243 traits such as exploration (Guillette et al. 2009; David et al. 2011) or neophobia (Boogert et al.
244 2006). If the skills required to forage efficiently vary depending on ecological conditions,
245 however, one could expect that the performance of each personality type will change over time,
246 thereby contributing in the maintenance of individual differences within populations. Consistent
247 with this idea, Montiglio et al. (2017) reported that stream water strider males (*Aquarius*
248 *remigis*) exhibiting higher activity and aggressiveness had a higher mating success than less
249 active and aggressive males, but only when the level of mating competition among males was
250 low, while this advantage progressively disappeared as the number of competing males
251 increased. In zebra finches, David et al. (2011) also found evidence that low-exploratory birds
252 were more efficient in finding food and had a greater feeding success compared to high-
253 exploratory individuals in scramble competition, probably because they were more accurate in

254 detecting seeds. Since low-exploratory individuals are generally subordinate, however, this
255 advantage might disappear when resources are defensible. Thus, additional experimental and
256 theoretical studies would be required to examine how personality differences influence
257 individual tactic use and foraging success under different ecological conditions that prevent or
258 promote resource defense.

259
260 In conclusion, the present study strongly suggests that foraging tactic use decision would
261 not be determined by the ability of individuals to detect scrounging opportunities, but rather by
262 their tolerance to uncertainty and risk. Although we detected no significant effect of arrival
263 order on tactic use, individuals with short and intermediate latency times had nevertheless a
264 higher proportion of finding events when they landed first on the foraging grid than when they
265 were introduced last. By contrast, individual tactic use was affected by the experimental
266 treatment in shy individuals that are more sensitive to social cues. Thus our results indicate that
267 individuals with different behavioural types would be sensitive to different cues. Finally, given
268 that we found an opposite effect of neophobia on producer-scrounger tactic use compared to
269 most previous studies, our findings support the idea that temporal and/or spatial heterogeneity
270 in resource distribution, through influencing the success of each behavioural type, would
271 contribute in maintaining personality differences within populations.

272

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- 347

348 **Figure legend**

349

350 **Figure 1.** Differences among bold, intermediate and shy individuals in their: A) mean (\pm SEM)
351 arrival order and B) mean (\pm SEM) proportion of finding events.

352

353 **Figure 2.** Mean (\pm SEM) proportion of finding events in bold, intermediate and shy individuals
354 depending on whether: A) the bird was the first (black bars) or the last (grey bars) to land on the
355 grid, and B) the arrival order of the subjects on the grid was free (black bars) or imposed by the
356 experimenter (grey bars).

357

358 **Table 1.** Results from the linear mixed-effects model examining the effects of neophobia,
359 landing order, treatment and their interactions on the proportion of finding events.

360

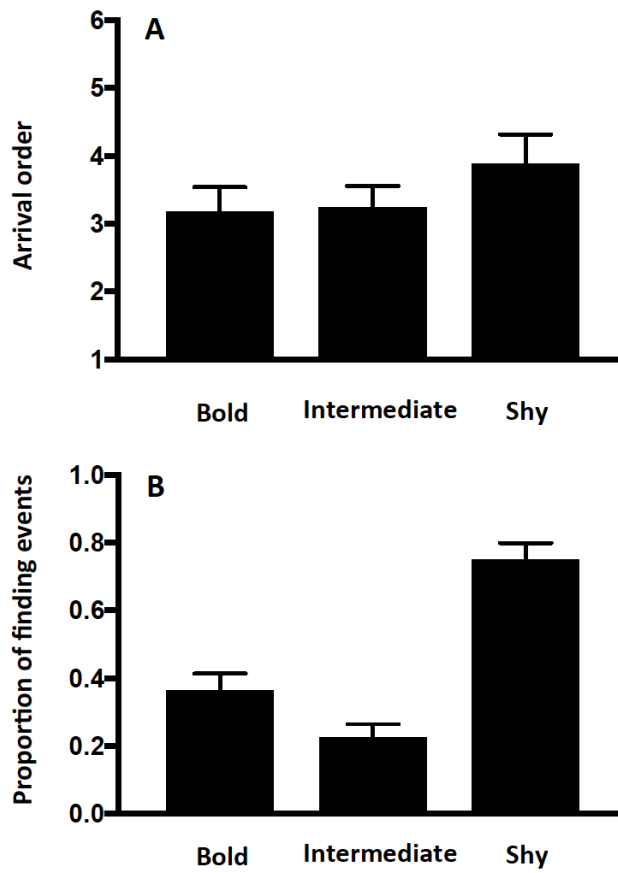
Variable	df	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Neophobia	17	7.289	0.001
Landing order	5	0.225	0.950
Treatment	1	1.058	0.311
Neophobia x Landing order	29	1.998	0.010
Neophobia x Treatment	5	1.511	0.204
Landing order x Treatment	1	0.014	0.906

361

362

363 **Figure 1**

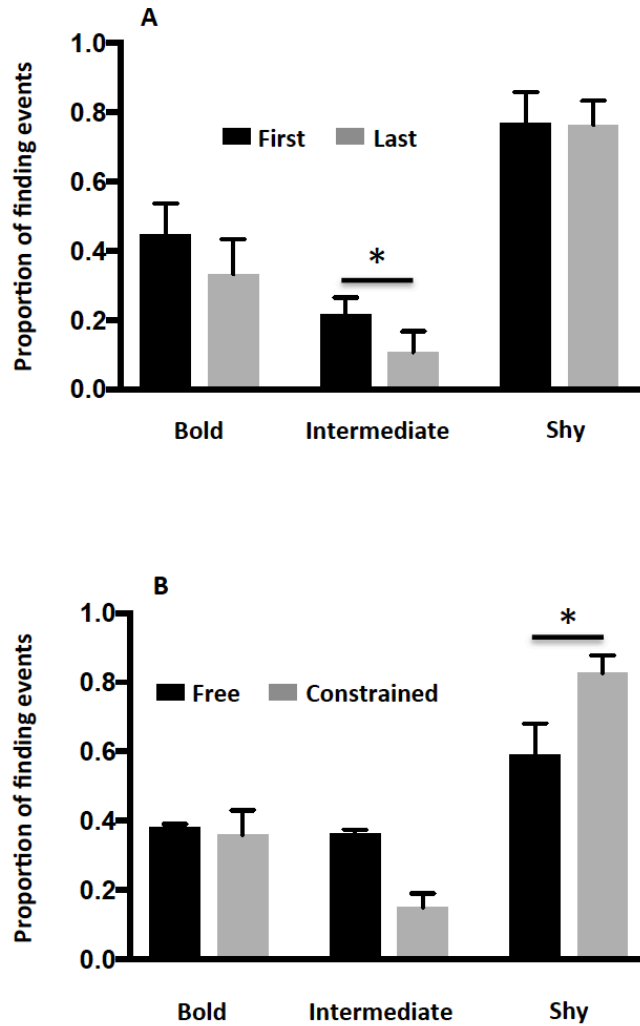
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365

366 **Figure 2**

367



368