ECOLOGICAL FITTING: USE OF FLORAL NECTAR IN HELICONIA STILESII DANIELS BY THREE SPECIES OF HERMIT HUMMINGBIRDS¹

FRANK B. GILL

The Academy of Natural Sciences, Philadelphia, PA 19103

Abstract. Three species of hermit hummingbirds—a specialist (Eutoxeres aquila), a generalist (Phaethornis superciliosus), and a thief (Threnetes ruckeri)—visited the nectar-rich flowers of Heliconia stilesii Daniels at a lowland study site on the Osa Peninsula of Costa Rica. Unlike H. pogonantha Cufodontis, a related Caribbean lowland species with a less specialized flower, H. stilesii may not realize its full reproductive potential at this site, because it cannot retain the services of alternative pollinators such as Phaethornis. The flowers of H. stilesii appear adapted for pollination by Eutoxeres, but this hummingbird rarely visited them at this site. Lek male Phaethornis visited the flowers frequently in late May and early June, but then abandoned this nectar source in favor of other flowers offering more accessible nectar. The strong curvature of the perianth prevents access by Phaethornis to the main nectar chamber; instead they obtain only small amounts of nectar that leaks anteriorly into the belly of the flower.

Key words: Hummingbird; pollination; mutualism; foraging; Heliconia stilesii; nectar.

INTRODUCTION

Species that expand their distribution following speciation enter novel ecological associations unrelated to previous evolutionary history and face the challenges of adjustment to new settings, called "ecological fitting" (Janzen 1985a). In the case of mutualistic species, such as plants and their pollinators, new ecological settings may include new arrays of species varying in ability to function as partners. Bird-pollinated plants in a new setting, for example, will face new selection pressures on the form of floral display, the accessibility of nectar, and the phenology of flowering, all of which affect ability to compete for the services of hummingbirds (Brown and Kodric-Brown 1979, Kodric-Brown and Brown 1979, Stiles 1980).

Hermit hummingbirds (Trochilidae, Phaethorninae) and *Heliconia* flowers (Zingiberales: Heliconiaceae) provide striking examples of specialized pollination mutualisms (Snow and Snow 1972, 1980; Stiles 1975, 1979; Feinsinger 1983; Dobkin 1984). Promoting the parallel evolution of bills and flowers is the effect of the precise fit between the two on the hummingbird's rate of nectar extraction and the associated probability of pollen transfer (Wolf et al. 1972, Stiles 1980). Ultimately affected are the hummingbird's choice of flowers and patterns of competition among hummingbird species for nectar (Stiles 1975, 1978; Wolf et al. 1976; Feinsinger 1978; Gill 1978). Use of specific *Heliconia* flowers as sources of nectar by particular species of hermit hummingbirds, however, varies seasonally and geographically (Stiles 1975). Comparative studies of the foraging ecology of hermit hummingbirds and the pollination biology of *Heliconia* flowers could help us to understand the loosening and tightening of mutualistic relationships in different ecological settings.

In this paper I examine the use of nectar in flowers of Heliconia stilesii Daniels by three species of hermit hummingbirds at one locality in the Pacific lowlands of southern Costa Rica. Belonging to different genera, the three species of hermit hummingbirds differ strikingly in bill form: Phaethornis superciliosus (Long-tailed Hermit) has a long (38 to 39 mm) decurved bill; Threnetes ruckeri (Band-tailed Barbthroat) has a shorter (28 to 29 mm) nearly straight, sharptipped bill; Eutoxeres aquila (White-tipped Sicklebill) has a sharply bent, stout bill (photos in Stiles 1975). The differences in bill form affected their abilities to extract nectar from H. stilesii flowers, which were abundant next to a large lek of P. superciliosus, and thus an obvious potential source of energy for their breeding efforts. Nectar

¹ Received 24 October 1986. Final acceptance 13 May 1987.

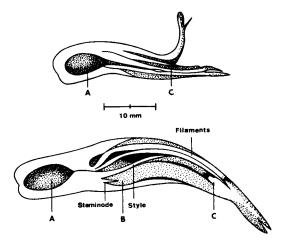


FIGURE 1. Mid-longitudinal section of *Heliconia imbricata* (upper) and *H. stilesii* (lower) flowers. A = main nectar chamber; B = belly of flower where nectar accumulates after overflowing from the main chamber; C = site of bill insertion by *Phaethornis superciliosus* and *Eutoxeres aquila*.

from the quite similar *H. pognonantha* Cufodontis fuels reproduction by *P. superciliosus* at La Selva in the Caribbean lowlands on the opposite side of Costa Rica (Stiles and Wolf 1979). Contrary to expectation, however, the flowers of *H. stilesii* served only as a temporary resource for *P. superciliosus* in our study area.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

I conducted this study of color-marked hummingbirds (see Stiles and Wolf 1973 for procedures) in 1980 and 1981 in Corcovado National Park on the Osa Peninsula of Costa Rica. Allen (1956) and Hartshorne (1983: 132–136) describe the forests of this region. Our study site was located on the edge of rain forest near the park headquarters at Sirena at the base of a small ridge next to the park headquarters and adjacent to a lek of *P. superciliosus.* Both *Phaethornis* and *Threnetes* were common at this locality, but *Eutoxeres* was rare, as reflected in the relative abundance of captures during our study, namely 155 *Phaethornis, 76 Threnetes,* and 7 *Eutoxeres.*

Table 1 summarizes the floral and nectar characteristics of *H. stilesii*, the principal botanical subject of this study, and of *H. imbricata* (Kuntze) Baker, the main alternative source of nectar used by *Phaethornis* in our study area in May to July. *H. stilesii* is found on the Pacific side of Central America up to 1,000 m elevation from Parrita, Costa Rica south through the Golfo Dulce region

 TABLE 1.
 Floral characteristics of two species of Heliconia.

Character	H. imbricata ¹	H. stilesii
Flower (perianth)		
Length (cm)	2.5-3.0	5.5
Curvature	slight	strong
Nectar		
Concentration ± 1		
SD (% sucrose		
equivalents)	22.4 ± 2.1	29.1 ± 5.4
Energy content ± 1		
SD (J/µl)	3.6 ± 0.3	4.9 ± 0.9
Production ¹ (µl/hr)	19	18

¹ Rates of nectar production declined during the day (see Stiles 1975; Gill, in press). The values presented here are average working estimates for early to midmorning.

into Panama (Daniels and Stiles 1979). It was common at several forest edge localities at Sirena. It was scarce elsewhere in Corcovado National Park. *H. stilesii* flowers throughout the year at Sirena with a general peak of bloom during the rainy season starting in late May. Each flower lasts only half a day, wilting conspicuously by early afternoon. The flowers are long and sharply bent, making access to the main nectar chamber extremely difficult. A tight passageway at the anterior end of the chamber compounds the challenge of nonlinear access to the distant nectar chamber.

H. imbricata is an abundant, widespread species in both the Caribbean and Pacific lowlands of Central America, and was one of the dominant plants in the wet second growth habitat at Sirena. The dark red, compact, vertical inflorescence produces short, slightly curved flowers, which allow direct access to the nectar chamber by a straight bill or capillary tube. The anterior opening to the nectar chamber of *H. imbricata* flowers allows easy passage. Both straight-billed hummingbirds, such as *Thalura-nia furcata* and *Amazilia decora*, and hermit hummingbirds can reach the floral nectar chamber.

The ease of measuring floral nectar contents facilitates study of energetic rewards available to hummingbirds. Nectar concentrations in *H. stilesii* flowers were measured in terms of percent sucrose equivalents with a temperature-compensated hand refractometer and converted to J/flower based on grams of solute per 100 ml (Bolten et al. 1979). The nectar contained fructose, sucrose, glucose, and unidentified amino

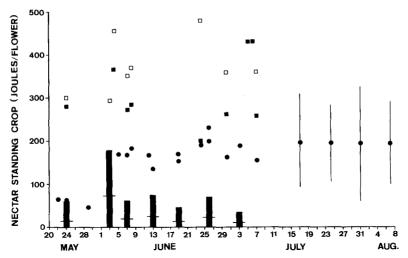


FIGURE 2. Standing crops of nectar energy in *Heliconia stilesii* (squares) and in *H. imbricata* (closed circles). Black squares = mean total nectar per *H. stilesii* flower at 06:00; white squares = mean total nectar per *H. stilesii* flower at 10:00; black circles = mean total nectar per *H. imbricata* flower ± 1 SD indicated for values after mid-July (deviations in May and June were similar but omitted to simplify figure). Nectar energy available as overflow in the belly of *H. stilesii* flowers is shown at the bottom left of the figure: horizontal bars = mean; vertical black bars = ± 1 SD.

acids (Gill, unpubl. data). Nectar volumes in plucked flowers were measured using $100 \ \mu l$ capillary tubes, first from the belly of the flower anterior to the staminode and then separately from the main chamber (Fig. 1). The presence of insect larvae or ants in the nectar chamber was noted. Most flowers also contained floral mites (see Colwell 1973, Dobkin 1984). In this paper the term "standing crop" refers to nectar present in flowers open to visitors of all kinds. Nectar production was estimated as the accumulation in flowers bagged with mesh cloth before dawn.

To establish the temporal patterns of flower visitation, we undertook continuous vigils at stands (= presumed clones) of H. stilesii. We monitored all visits by hummingbirds to these flowers from 07:00 to 12:00, and into the late afternoon on some days. On certain days in 1981, we numbered 80 to 90% of the bracts with fresh flowers, which enabled us to record the specific flowers that a hummingbird visited. The cohort sizes of the monitored flowers were 131 on 26 May, 140 on 27 May, 131 on 28 May, 97 on 11 June, 88 on 12 June. Data in this paper are based on 167 monitor hours from June 6 to July 8, 1980 and 100 monitor hours from May 22 to July 9, 1981. One large stand (designated "I") with >40 inflorescences was the focus of our

studies. One lek male, color-marked Pink-White-Red (PWR), accounted for 83% of the visits to "I" in 1981.

To determine the patterns of nectar removal from *H. stilesii* flowers by *Phaethornis*, we bagged bracts with new flowers at dawn and then removed the netting in midmorning to await hummingbird visits. Bagged flowers remaining on an inflorescence served as controls. Flowers with beetle or fly larvae were excluded from the analysis of nectar removal; such flowers typically were rejected by *Phaethornis*. Brief or aborted flower visits (less than 5% of total) also were discarded to insure that the flower contained substantial nectar and that the hummingbird fed without interference from larvae inside the flower or from *Trigona* bees.

RESULTS

NECTAR AVAILABILITY

Large amounts of energy were present in *H. stilesii* flowers. Standing crops averaged 200 to 300 J/flower in the early morning and 300 to 500 J/flower by midmorning (Fig. 2). Some flowers contained over 842 J and one (unvisited) flower contained 1,374 J by 14:00. Variations among flowers in accumulated nectar reflected consumption by insects and birds as well as variable

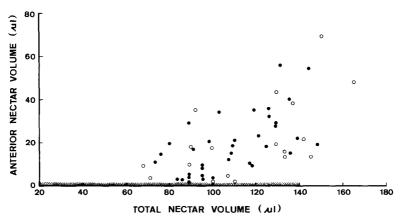


FIGURE 3. The amount of nectar that overflows from the main nectar chamber anteriorly to the belly of *Heliconia stilesii* flowers increases with total production. Sixty flowers with 22 to 142 μ l of nectar in the rear chamber had no nectar anterior to the chamber (baseline stippling) in the belly of the flower. Open circles = unbagged flowers; closed circles = bagged flowers.

nectar production per se. Nectar volumes of less than 100 μ l were restricted to the main nectar chamber in most flowers. As production continued, however, nectar flowed forward into the belly of some flowers, causing their anterior nectar volumes to increase with total accumulation (Fig. 3). Flowers with more than 115 μ l total had 10 to 60 μ l available anteriorly. The average amount of nectar available anteriorly at 10:00 most mornings in 1981 was less than 6 μ l per flower.

H. stilesii flowers offered more nectar (total) than did *H. imbricata* flowers, which (in late May) contained only 42 to 80 J/flower at 10:00 and accumulated up to 417 J/flower by midday. As *H. imbricata* flower abundance increased, midmorning nectar volumes also increased to stable levels of 150 to 200 J/flower for the rest of the summer. Although much less than the total nectar energy content of *H. stilesii* flowers, the nectar energy content of *H. imbricata* flowers was about eight times that available anteriorly in the belly in *H. stilesii* flowers.

TABLE 2. Flower visitation by a lek male (PWR) *Phaethornis superciliosus* during the morning and as nectar volumes increased in the accessible belly of *Heliconia stilesii* flowers. Values are mean number of flowers visited per hour (± 1 SD) for three successive days in late May 1981.

Early morning	Midmorning	Late morning
(07:00–08:00)	(08:00-10:00)	(10:00-12:00)
16.6 ± 6.1	56.2 ± 13.7	74.2 ± 9.6

HUMMINGBIRD VISITS

Visits to *H. stilesii* flowers increased during the morning. *Phaethornis* rarely visited these flowers before 07:00 and only occasionally before 08:00, but visited over 70 flowers per hour from 10:00 to 12:00 (Table 2). Such increased feeding activity in late morning corresponded to the increasing amount of nectar in the belly of the flower.

Despite continued availability of nectar in H. stilesii flowers, use of the nectar by Phaethornis declined dramatically in late June. Phaethornis visited H. stilesii stands up to four times an hour in late May and early June in 1980 and up to six times an hour in 1981. After mid-June Phaethornis visited the stands less than three times per hour, usually less than once per hour (Fig. 4). Visits to stand "I" virtually ceased after mid-June 1981, even though though there was no obvious decline through July in the number of new flowers available each day. Decreased use in terms of the number of flowers visited per hour after mid-June was especially pronounced (Fig. 5). By late June, we observed Phaethornis feeding primarily on increasingly abundant H. imbricata flowers.

The proportion of available *stilesii* flowers that were visited once by 12:00 declined with the change in *Phaethornis*' feeding preferences, from 80% in late May to 12% in mid-June 1981 (Fig. 6). Fifty-five to 60% of the flowers received two or more visits by midday in mid-May and 20% received four or more visits. No flowers were visited twice by midday on 12 June.

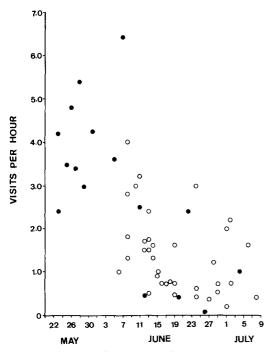


FIGURE 4. *Phaethornis superciliosus* visited stands of *Heliconia stilesii* less frequently during the morning (before 12:00) as the rainy season progressed and other sources of nectar became available. Open circles = 1980, r = -0.40; Closed circles = 1981, r = -0.47.

Threnetes regularly visited H. stilesii flowers, especially soft wilted flowers in the afternoon. They accounted for 18 to 20% of all flower visits before 12:00 on May 26 to 28, 1981, and for 54 to 65% of all flower visits in the afternoon on these same days. Visit rates by *Threnetes* were below those of *Phaethornis* (Fig. 5).

Eutoxeres rarely visited the abundant *H. stilesii* flowers in May to July. We recorded no visits during our regular monitoring, but did observe two visits at other times. We noted this hummingbird at *H. stilesii* flowers primarily during the dry season in February to March, when we recorded a total of 43 site visits and 119 flower visits during 25 hr of morning hour monitors (06:00 to 11:00) at two different stands of *H. stilesii*. Rates of site visitation varied from 0.8 to 3.2 times per hour and rates of flower visitation varied from 2.2 to 7.6 flowers per hour. One of the *Eutoxeres* responsible for these data was territorial at a large stand of *H. stilesii*.

NECTAR REMOVAL

Feeding *Phaethornis* insert their bill through the anterior opening in the perianth of *H. stilesii*

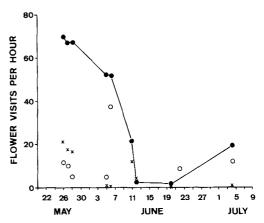


FIGURE 5. The number of marked *Heliconia stilesii* flowers hummingbirds visited each hour declined sharply in June 1981. Closed circles = visits by a lek male (color-marked PWR) *Phaethornis superciliosus*; open circles = visits by other *P. superciliosus*; X = visits by *Threnetes ruckeri*.

flowers, probe deeply into the flower to extract nectar, and, while doing so, brush their foreheads against the anthers and stigma, conspicuously coating their foreheads with whitish H. stilesii pollen. These hummingbirds typically remove most of the nectar from the belly of the flower, but little (8%) from the main nectar chamber. The average residual nectar volume in the bellies of visited flowers was only 1.1 μ l compared to 12.7 μ l in controls (P < .01; Wilcoxon's Matched Pairs Signed-Rank Test, n = 12). The average residual volume (73.9 μ l ± 17.9 SD) in the main chamber of visited flowers was only slightly less than that (80.2 μ l ± 18.7 SD) in unvisited controls (0.01 < P < 0.025; Wilcoxon's Matched Pairs Signed-Rank Test, one-tailed, n = 23). Possibly some of the nectar in the main chamber is drawn forward as the hummingbird removes the overflow.

Unlike Phaethornis, both Eutoxeres and Threnetes extract nectar from the main nectar chambers of the H. stilesii flowers they visit, but in different ways. Eutoxeres probes the flower directly as does Phaethornis, but does so while clinging to the bract instead of hovering in front of the flower. Prolonged contact with the anthers causes pollen to be deposited in the groove on their foreheads. The nectar chambers of the four flowers we checked immediately after sicklebill feeding visits were completely empty. Threnetes does not usually probe the flowers directly through the anterior opening in the perianth, but instead

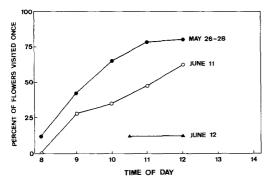


FIGURE 6. Cumulative probability of a *Heliconia* stilesii flower being visited once by *Phaethornis super*ciliosus during the morning in late May and June 1981. A switch by these hummingbirds to other flowers in mid-June caused the majority of the flowers to remain unvisited.

pierces the lower side of the perianth and drinks directly from the main nectar chamber without making contact with a flower's reproductive structures. No or little nectar remained in the rear chamber of 11 of 13 visited flowers. Substantial nectar volumes (69 and 83 μ l) were left in two flowers, but these were less than in the paired control (109 and 89 μ l). In contrast to six control flowers, only one visited flower contained some nectar anterior to the main nectar chamber. I conclude that pirating *Threnetes* extract much of the nectar available in H. stilesii flowers. In summary, access to the main nectar chamber of H. stilesii flowers potentially yields much more nectar to Eutoxeres and Threnetes than Phaethornis can get from the belly of the flower.

FORAGING EFFICIENCY

Differences among the three hermits in average times per *H. stilesii* flower visit and in their foraging costs determine each species' net energy gain (Table 3). Extraction time is the total time that a hummingbird takes to insert its bill into a flower, to extract nectar, and then to remove its bill from the flower (Wolf 1975). *Phaethornis* fed more quickly at *H. stilesii* flowers than did *Eutoxeres* or *Threnetes*. The rapid flower visits by *Phaethornis* are consistent with the uptake of small leakage nectar volumes only compared to the entire contents of the nectar chamber and, for *Threnetes* only, the time required to pierce the flower tissue.

To determine if *Phaethornis* achieved the same net gain as the other hermits by rapidly visiting more flowers each with less nectar, we recorded average times per flower visit achieved during 72 foraging bouts of variable lengths. The times included extraction time at a flower plus time spent moving between flowers. In these foraging bouts, which were restricted to flowers within one large stand of *H. stilesii, Phaethornis* averaged 4.38 ± 1.53 (SD) sec per flower visited. Thus, *Phaethornis* potentially visits four flowers in the same amount of time (17.3 sec) *Eutoxeress* takes to visit one flower, obtaining a net energy gain of 72 J compared to 345 J for *Eutoxeres*.

DISCUSSION

The roles of the three hermit hummingbirds that visit the flowers of *H. stilesii* are not unique to this assemblage of species. Combinations of specialists, generalists, and thieves are characteristic

	Long-tailed	Band-tailed	White-tipped
	Hermit	Barbthroat	Sicklebill
	(Phaethornis superciliosis)	(Threnetes ruckeri)	(Eutoxeres aquila)
Weight (g)	6.0	6.5	10.0
Metabolism (J/sec) ¹	1.0 (hover)	1.1 (hover)	0.3 (sit)
Foraging costs ²			
Extraction time	2.0 ± 1.0	6.5 ± 4.2	17.3 ± 11.2
(n)	(85)	(33)	(11)
Energy (J/flower)	2.1	7.2	5.2
Net gain ²			
Anterior at 20 J/flower	17	13	15
Total at 350 J/flower		343 ²	345

TABLE 3. Foraging efficiencies of three hermit hummingbirds at Heliconia stilesii.

Assumes hovering costs = 0.175 J/g sec and sitting at 30°C = 0.03 J/g sec (DeBenedictis et al. 1978, Gill 1985).

² Assumes removal of all nectar; does not account for residual volumes.

of several well-studied hummingbird assemblages (Colwell et al. 1974, Feinsinger 1976, Wolf et al. 1976, Feinsinger and Colwell 1978). The three montane species of sunbirds that often feed together at Leonotis mint flowers in East Africa (Gill and Wolf 1978) provide a striking analogue. in which differences in the fit between bill and flower affect rates of nectar uptake and patterns of flower use. In this case, the largest species. Nectarinia reichenowi has a strongly decurved bill and pollen-carrying groove similar to those of Eutoxeres. Like Eutoxeres at certain Heliconia flowers, N. reichenowi is a specialized mutualist of the Leonotis flowers. Resembling Phaethornis at H. stilesii flowers, the sunbird N. famosa has a long straight bill that fails to negotiate the flower curvature and to probe accurately into the basal nectar chamber. Like Threnetes, the sunbird N. venusta is a thief that pierces floral tissue directly into the nectar chamber and performs little or no pollination service. The use of Leonotis flowers by N. famosa and N. venusta depends on whether N. reichenowi is the primary visitor of the flowers and on the local availability of other flowers vielding higher foraging efficiency.

Hummingbirds are sensitive to subtle variations in net energetic rewards, and quickly shift to the best available sources of nectar (Wolf et al. 1972, Feinsinger 1978, Wolf and Hainsworth 1983, Montgomerie 1984, Montgomerie et al. 1984). Even though H. stilesii produces flowers rich in nectar throughout the year and primarily during the 6-month rainy season, P. superciliosus only uses them for a several week period and then shifts to other, higher-yield nectar sources. This abbreviated seasonal interest reflects Phaethornis' inability to remove the majority of nectar available; the length and severe curvature of the perianth of H. stilesii flowers prevented access to the main nectar chamber. The abandonment of H. stilesii flowers contrasts with this hummingbird's sustained 6 to 7 month relationship with H. pogonantha in the lowlands of northeastern Costa Rica (Stiles 1975, 1979; Stiles and Wolf 1979). The difference lies in the fact that Phaethornis extracts the full nectar reward from the basal chamber of H. pogonantha flowers and thus is not restricted to anterior overflow in these flowers (Stiles, pers. comm.). The accessible nectar also attracts a large, territorial hummingbird, Chalybura urochrysia, which defends some clumps of H. pogonantha against traplining

Phaethornis (Stiles and Wolf 1979; Gill, pers. observ.).

Diffuse mutualisms characterize pollination systems (Janzen 1980, 1983, 1985a; Feinsinger 1983; Schemske 1983a). Most pollinators visit a variety of flowers on a nonexclusive basis; most flowers attract a variety of visitors that vary greatly in their effectiveness as pollinators (Schemske 1983b, Jennersten 1984, Schemske and Horvitz 1984). Because the distributions and abundances of partners independently reflect varied historical and ecological factors, the participants in pollination mutualisms also vary radically in time and space. New associations form and old bonds break, preventing the development of stable equilibria (Janzen 1985a, 1985b).

The pollination biology of H. stilesii Daniels at Sirena in 1981 doubtfully resembles the conditions under which this plant originally evolved. My study area was in abandoned pasture at the edge of rain forest. Much of the surrounding region had been clearcut for livestock or banana crops, favoring an abundance of second-growth plants, such as H. imbricata, and an abundance of opportunistic hummingbirds and insects, including Trigona bees. The attraction of such opportunists and robbers to unharvested nectar can thwart visits by pollinators and depress seed set (Lvon and Chadek 1971, Carpenter 1979, McDade and Kinsman 1980, Willmer and Corbet 1981, Gill et al. 1982, Roubik 1982, Snow 1982, Inouye 1983). Studies of seed set by H. stilesii at Sirena in relation to pollinator visitation at different times of the year would be of interest. Unless autogamy or self pollination by floral mites (Dobkin 1984) prevails, we expect that the ratio of fruits/flowers declines markedly during the rainy season at Sirena. Even if autogamous fruits are formed, the effects of inbreeding depression on seed quality may be profound (Schemske 1983b). Also, the probability of pollination and seed set will depend on the exact times of hummingbird visits during the morning in relation to temporal patterns of stigma receptivity and anthesis, details of which are not known for this species.

Many species of *Heliconia* have evolved floral attributes that exclude casual foragers and attract regular visits by traplining hermit hummingbirds (Snow and Snow 1972, Stiles 1979, Feinsinger et al. 1982). The species of *Heliconia* with pen-

dant inflorescences in the H. pogonantha assemblage, including H. stilesii, have coevolved with sicklebills to varying degrees (Stiles 1979, also Kress 1982 for taxonomic issues). H. vellerigera Poeppig and H. ramonensis Daniels and Stiles, which have long (45 to 55 mm) perianths bent 90° in the middle, are the most specialized for Eutoxeres visitation. The sharply bent flowers of H. stilesii Daniels and H. curtispatha Petersen flowers are intermediate in length, but still seem geared primarily for Eutoxeres. H. pogonantha, on the other hand, has a short (40 cm), moderately curved, less specialized perianth. The varying degrees of specialization correspond to the distribution of Eutoxeres in Central America. Eutoxeres is most common at moderate elevations in the wet foothills, but ranges seasonally into the lowlands (Slud 1964, Ridgely 1976). The severely curved H. vellerigera, which is restricted to a narrow band of 800 to 1,000 m on the Caribbean slopes of the Cordillera Central, occupies prime sicklebill habitat. Likewise, H. ramonensis also occupies prime sicklebill habitat up to 1,200 m on the southwestern slopes of Costa Rica. The less-curved H. pogonantha is restricted to the Caribbean lowlands below 350 m and thus below the primary distribution of Eutoxeres, and it also ranges north to Honduras, where sicklebills do not occur. The slightly curved flowers of H. pogonantha attract generalized hermit hummingbirds, such as P. superciliosus, throughout the flowering season. Eutoxeres visits the Caribbean lowlands at Finca La Selva only irregularly, apparently descending there to feed at H. pogonantha and other flowers during periods of food shortage at higher elevations on the Caribbean slopes.

E. aquila, one of the pollinators with which H. stilesii probably coevolved, rarely visits Sirena, a coastal locality. Stiles and Wolf (unpubl. data) observed that when the primary mutualist does not visit the flower and harvest the nectar. overflow of nectar from the chambers of the specialized species of Heliconia with long flowers provides a "fail-safe" mechanism for the attraction of generalized pollinators, such as P. superciliosus. A survey of geographic variation in H. stilesii floral morphology in relation to Eutoxeres pollination service would be most interesting. H. stilesii at Sirena is at the fringes of its range and partnership with Eutoxeres. Here, perhaps, it faces new selection pressures to bring its mutualistic relationships into better accord with the Long-tailed Hermit, including shortening and straightening of the corolla to allow easier access to the nectar chamber i.e., convergence towards floral morphology of *H. pogonantha*.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

A. Mack, P. Marcotullio, R. Ray, C. Thompson, and J. Wunderle assisted in these studies. I am grateful also to J. H. Brown. R. K. Colwell, D. H. Janzen, D. W. Schemske, F. G. Stiles and L. L. Wolf for their comments on this manuscript and for making their unpublished manuscripts available to me. The National Park Service of Costa Rica and especially the staff of Corcovado National Park made our field work pleasant and productive. This study was supported by the National Science Foundation (DEB 7906034, DEB 8019731).

LITERATURE CITED

- ALLEN, P. H. 1956. The rainforests of Golfo Dulce. Univ. Florida Press, Gainesville, FL. Reissued 1977. Stanford Univ. Press, Stanford, CA.
- BOLTEN, A. B., P. FEINSINGER, H. G. BAKER, AND I. BAKER. 1979. On the calculation of sugar concentration in flower nectar. Oecologia (Berl.) 41: 301-304.
- BROWN, J. H., AND A. KODRIC-BROWN. 1979. Convergence, competition, and mimicry in a temperate community of hummingbird-pollinated flowers. Ecology 60:1022–1035.
- CARPENTER, F. L. 1979. Competition between hummingbirds and insects for nectar. Am. Zool. 19: 1105-1114.
- COLWELL, R. K. 1973. Competition and coexistence in a simple tropical community. Am. Nat. 107: 737-760.
- Colwell, R. K., B. J. BETTS, P. BUNNELL, F. L. CAR-PENTER, AND P. FEINSINGER. 1974. Competition for the nectar of *Centropogon valerii* by the hummingbird *Colibri thalassinus* and the flower-piercer *Diglossa plumbea*, and its evolutionary implications. Condor 76:447-452.
- DANIELS, G. S., AND F. G. STILES. 1979. The *Heliconia* taxa of Costa Rica. Keys and descriptions. Brenesia 15 (Suppl.):1–150.
- DEBENEDICTIS, P., F. B. GILL, F. R. HAINSWORTH, G. H. PYKE, AND L. L. WOLF. 1978. Optimal meal size in hummingbirds. Am. Nat. 112:301-316.
- DOBKIN, D. S. 1984. Flowering patterns of long-lived *Heliconia* inflorescences: implications for visiting and resident nectarivores. Oecologia (Berl.) 64:245– 254.
- FEINSINGER, P. 1976. Organization of a tropical guild of nectarivorous birds. Ecol. Monogr. 46:257–291.
- FEINSINGER, P. 1978. Ecological interactions between plants and hummingbirds in a successional tropical community. Ecol. Monogr. 48:269–287.
- FEINSINGER, P. 1983. Coevolution and pollination, p. 282–310. In D. J. Futuyma and M. Slatkin [eds.], Coevolution. Sinauer Assoc., Sunderland, MA.
- FEINSINGER, P., AND R. K. COLWELL. 1978. Community organization among neotropical nectarfeeding birds. Am. Zool. 18:779–795.
- FEINSINGER, P., J. A. WOLFE, AND L. A. SWARM. 1982. Island ecology: reduced hummingbird diversity and

the pollination biology of plants, Trinidad and Tobo, West Indies. Ecology 63:494-506.

- GILL, F. B. 1978. Proximate costs of competition in nectar-feeding birds. Am. Zool. 18:753-763.
- GILL, F. B. 1985. Hummingbird flight speeds. Auk 102:97-101.
- GILL, F. B. In press. Effect of nectar removal on rates of nectar accumulation in *Heliconia imbricata* flowers. Biotropica.
- GILL, F. B., AND L. L. WOLF. 1978. Comparative foraging efficiency of montane sunbirds. Condor 80:391-400.
- GILL, F. B., A. L. MACK, AND R. T. RAY. 1982. Competition between hermit hummingbirds Phaethorninae and insects for nectar in a Costa Rican rain forest. Ibis 124:44–49.
- HARTSHORNE, G. S. 1983. Plants. Introduction, p. 118–157. In D. H. Janzen [ed.], Costa Rican natural history. Univ. of Chicago Press, Chicago.
- INOUYE, D. W. 1983. The ecology of nectar robbing, p. 153–173. *In* B. Bentley and T. Elias [eds.], Biology of nectaries. Columbia Univ. Press, New York.
- JANZEN, D. H. 1980. When is it coevolution? Evolution 34:611-612.
- JANZEN, D. H. 1983. Seed and pollen dispersal by animals: convergence in the ecology of contamination and sloppy harvest. Biol. J. Linn. Soc. 20: 103-113
- JANZEN, D. H. 1985a. On ecological fitting. Oikos 45: 308–310.
- JANZEN, D. H. 1985b. The natural history of mutualisms, p. 40–99. In D. H. Boucher [ed.], The biology of mutualism. Croom Helm, London.
- JENNERSTEN, O. 1984. Flower visitation and pollination efficiency of some North European butterflies. Oecologia 63:80–89.
- KODRIC-BROWN, A., AND J. H. BROWN. 1979. Competition between distantly related taxa in the coevolution of plants and pollinators. Am. Zool. 19: 1115–1127.
- KRESS, W. J. 1982. New Central American taxa of *Heliconia*. Evolution 37:735–744.
- LYON, D. G., AND C. CHADEK. 1971. Exploitation of nectar resources by hummingbirds, bees (Bombus), and Diglossa baritula and its role in the evolution of Penstemon kunthii. Condor 73:246-248.
- McDADE, L. A., AND S. KINSMAN. 1980. The impact of floral parasitism in two neotropical hummingbird-pollinated plant species. Evolution 34:944– 958.
- MONTGOMERIE, R. D. 1984. Nectar extraction by hummingbirds: response to different floral characters. Oecologia (Berl.) 63:229–236.
- MONTGOMERIE, R. D., J. M. EADIE, AND L. D. HARDER. 1984. What do foraging hummingbirds maximize? Oecologia (Berl.) 63:357-363.
- RIDGELY, R. S. 1976. A guide to the birds of Panama. Princeton Univ. Press, Princeton, NJ.
- ROUBIK, D. W. 1982. The ecological impact of nectarrobbing bees and pollinating hummingbirds on a tropical shrub. Ecology 63:354–360.

- SCHEMSKE, D. W. 1983a. Limits to specialization and coevolution in plant-animal mutualisms, p. 67– 109. In M. H. Nitecki [ed.], Coevolution. Univ. of Chicago Press, Chicago.
- SCHEMSKE, D. W. 1983b. Breeding system and habitat effects on fitness components in three neotropical Costus (Zingiberaceae). Evolution 37:523– 540.
- SCHEMSKE, D. W., AND C. C. HORVITZ. 1984. Variation among floral visitors in pollination ability: a precondition for mutualism specialization. Science 225:519-521.
- SLUD, P. 1964. The birds of Costa Rica: distribution and ecology. Bull. Am. Mus. Nat. Hist. 128:1–430.
- SNOW, A. 1982. Pollination intensity and potential seed set in *Passiflora vitifolia*. Oecologia (Berl.) 55: 231–237.
- SNOW, B. K., AND D. W. SNOW. 1972. Feeding niches of hummingbirds in a Trinidad valley. J. Anim. Ecol. 41:471-485.
- SNOW, D. W., AND B. K. SNOW. 1980. Relationships between hummingbirds and flowers in the Andes of Colombia. Bull. Br. Mus. (Nat. Hist.) Zool. 38(2): 105–139.
- STILES, F. G. 1975. Ecology, flowering phenology, and hummingbird pollination of some Costa Rican *Heliconia* species. Ecology 56:285–301.
- STILES, F. G. 1978. Temporal organization of flowering among the hummingbird foodplants of a tropical wet forest. Biotropica 10:194–210.
- STILES, F. G. 1979. Notes on the natural history of Heliconia (Musaceae) in Costa Rica. Brenesia 15 (Suppl.):151–180.
- STILES, F. G. 1980. Ecological and evolutionary aspects of bird-flower coadaptations. Proc. XVII Int. Congr. Ornithol. (1978):1173-1178.
- STILES, F. G., AND L. L. WOLF. 1973. Techniques for color-marking hummingbirds. Condor 75:244– 245.
- STILES, F. G., AND L. L. WOLF. 1979. Ecology and evolution of lek mating behavior in the Long-tailed Hermit Hummingbird. Ornithol. Monogr. No. 27, American Ornithologists' Union, Washington, DC.
- WILLMER, P. G., AND S. A. CORBET. 1981. Temporal and microclimatic partitioning of the floral resources of *Justicia aurea* amongst a concourse of pollen vectors and nectar robbers. Oecologia (Berl.) 51:67–78.
- WOLF, L. L. 1975. Energy intake and expenditures in a nectar feeding sunbird. Ecology 56:92–104.
- WOLF, L. L., AND F. R. HAINSWORTH. 1983. Economics of foraging strategies in sunbirds and hummingbirds, p. 223–264. *In E. P. Aspey and S. L.* Lustick [eds.], Behavioural energetics: the cost of survival in vertebrates. Ohio State Univ. Press, Columbus.
- WOLF, L. L., F. R. HAINSWORTH, AND F. G. STILES. 1972. Energetics of foraging: rate and efficiency of nectar extraction by hummingbirds. Science 176: 1351–1352.
- WOLF, L. L., F. G. STILES, AND F. R. HAINSWORTH. 1976. Ecological organization of a tropical highland hummingbird community. J. Anim. Ecol. 45: 349–379.