

1 **Too many men in the room? The cost of overcrowding for gregarious male cave-** 2 **dwelling bats**

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12 13 **Abstract**

- 14
15 1. Bats are known for their gregarious social behaviour, often congregating in caves
16 and underground habitats, where they play a pivotal role in providing various
17 ecosystem services. Despite their ecological importance, studying bat behaviour
18 remains an underexplored aspect of bat conservation.
- 19 2. We explore the costs and impacts of overcrowding on bat social behaviour. This
20 study examined variations in bat behavioural patterns between two distinct
21 groups: aggregated and non-aggregated male *Rousettus amplexicaudatus*, within
22 the Monfort Bat Cave Sanctuary on Mindanao Island, Philippines.
- 23 3. We found significant disparities in the frequencies of various bat behavioural
24 activities, particularly in terms of aggression and movement, between these two
25 groups. Increased aggregation was closely related to negative social behaviour
26 among bats.
- 27 4. Conversely, positive social behaviours, such as sexual interactions and grooming,
28 were more prevalent in less crowded conditions. The disparities in bat behaviour
29 with an apparent decline in bat social behaviour as a consequence of
30 overcrowding, with more aggressive behaviours emerging, aligns with the
31 '*behavioural sink hypothesis*'.
- 32 5. Our study underscores the significance of considering the quality of habitat and
33 the availability of resources in the management and conservation of bat colonies,
34 as these factors may reduce the occurrence of detrimental social behaviours in
35 colonies with high population density by providing alternative habitats.

36
37 **Keywords:** *Aggression, Antipredator behaviour, Caves, Ethology, Group size effects*

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41 **Introduction**

42 Bats are one of the most widely distributed mammalian taxa worldwide, with a
43 range of habitats and diverse roles within ecosystems. Given the high diversity of more
44 than 1400 described species, bats may be specialists or generalists in diet, habitat, and
45 roost sites (Simmons & Cirranello, 2020; Tanalgo et al., 2022). Caves are one of the
46 most important roosting sites for roughly half of the species (679, 48%), which serve as
47 sites for many bat species, likely because they reduce the risk of predation and provide
48 thermally stable environments in which bats can safely shelter (Furey & Racey, 2016;
49 Tanalgo et al., 2022). Large proportions of cave-dwelling bats are hyper-social, and their
50 guano can form the basis of food webs in cave communities (Meierhofer et al., 2023).
51 Colonies can host millions of individuals, and some species cluster in tight groups (Phelps
52 et al., 2016; Barros et al. 2020). However, this reliance on caves means that loss of
53 roost sites or high disturbance may lead to displacement or increased stress and
54 crowding within cave sites. Furthermore, roost selection within cave environments not
55 only relate to species-specific preferences but within a species may relate to
56 reproductive modes and status, as well as dominance level (Ho & Lee, 2003; Lima &
57 O'Keefe, 2013).

58 Most species have an optimal roost type and inter-individual spacing. Many
59 species utilise darker spaces of the cave that are further from the entrance to the roost,
60 and larger or more aggressive species may be more likely to have more space between
61 individuals to reduce stress and the possibility of overheating (Medina-Bello et al., 2023;
62 Rodrigues et al., 2003). Multiple variables can influence the well-being of roosting bats,
63 including the structure of the roosts, surrounding ecological conditions, and
64 anthropogenic interventions within cave ecosystems (Nagy & Postawa, 2011; Sedlock et
65 al., 2014). Thus, factors that change interactions between individuals could increase
66 stress and have consequences for individual bat health (Allen et al., 2011; Zagmajster,
67 2019) and susceptibility to disease and parasitism (Hayman et al., 2013; Webber et al.,
68 2015).

69 However, while efforts to understand the ecology of cave-dwelling bats are
70 growing (Tanalgo et al., 2022), most studies on bat cave responses to environmental
71 change have focused on their responses to ecological conditions and changes (Cajaiba et
72 al., 2021). However, there has been little research on their behavioural responses to
73 intrinsic and extrinsic factors. However, although almost half of the bat activity cycle is
74 spent roosting, our understanding based on empirical data of their density-dependent
75 responses to conspecifics remains limited for many species (e.g., stress behaviour,
76 overcrowding, and diseases) (Chaverri et al., 2018; Hoyt et al., 2021). These factors are
77 interesting and important, given that most mammals become more susceptible to

78 pathogens when stressed (Woolhouse et al., 2001); thus, understanding how bats react
79 to suboptimal conditions presents a major challenge in ecology.

80 Most investigations have centred on non-cave bat species in their natural roosts
81 or enclosures (Thomson et al. 1998; Hengjan et al. 2017; Garca-Rawlins et al. 2020).
82 Thus, little work has been done to explore these phenomena in bats, likely due to the
83 difficulty and expense of studying bats in the wild (Revilla-Martín et al. 2020; Reeder et
84 al. 2004). Studies investigating bat responses to intrinsic and extrinsic factors typically
85 involve measuring stress levels using hormones requiring blood or urine samples (Allen
86 et al., 2011; Davy et al., 2017; Reeder et al., 2004). Therefore, less intrusive and
87 economically efficient techniques are required to understand better how bats react to
88 stress under natural conditions. Overcrowding can increase negative interaction rates
89 body temperature and force some individuals to roost in suboptimal locations. However,
90 whilst '*behavioural sink hypothesis*' effects have been known in lab experiments in other
91 mammals (Ramsden, 2009), few natural conditions are likely to lead to comparable
92 patterns of overcrowding which could lead to such consequences in natural conditions.
93 The loss of roosts could force more than an optimal number of individuals to use a single
94 cave, and thus the differing density in roosts within the cave provides the perfect arena
95 to test these theories under natural conditions.

96 Tropical environments often host the most diverse bat assemblages; The
97 Philippines is home to at least 78 bat species, and almost 40 species are cave dwellers
98 (Lawrence et al., 2010; Tanalgo & Hughes, 2018). The world's largest colony of
99 *Rousettus amplexicaudatus* is estimated to be approximately 1.8 million individuals in
100 the Monfort Bat Cave Sanctuary in the Island Garden City of Samal in Davao del Norte,
101 Philippines (Carpenter et al., 2014). The bat population at the roost can differ
102 significantly between the walls and the ceiling. On average, the colony has a 427.9 9
103 bats/m² density, but the estimated density in the Monfort Bat Cave Sanctuary is
104 predicted to be higher (Carpenter et al., 2014). Our previous field observations have led
105 us to speculate that bats that roost in cave areas with a higher density of individual
106 aggregations within their colonies exhibit more pronounced 'aggressive' and 'restless'
107 behaviours throughout the day (Tanalgo et al., 2020).

108 The Monfort cave is the least disturbed cave in the Philippines, leading to
109 overcrowding. This condition forces bats to roost in open conditions, where the
110 avoidance of predators provided inside caves is not possible thus these large groups may
111 also need to remain active to explore any signs of imminent predator danger (Lima,
112 1995; Lima & O'Keefe, 2013). Interestingly, there are no published studies that assess
113 bat social behaviour (i.e., negative and positive) in response to gregarious behaviour
114 (e.g., overcrowding in colonies), and only a few caves considered to hold a hyper
115 population, e.g., Bracken cave in the United States and Monfort cave in the Philippines.

116 However, it should be noted that establishing what constitutes overcrowding for specific
117 species is challenging due to the lack of data. Testing how behaviours vary based on
118 overcrowding remains an interesting topic which requires further research, especially as
119 increased negative interactions which may increase as a consequence of overcrowding
120 (sometimes described as a 'behavioural sink') can have major outcomes for health.

121 We investigated the patterns of diurnal behaviour of *Rousettus amplexicaudatus*
122 in two different parts of the cave where there were different roosting densities
123 (aggregated vs. non-aggregated). First, we assessed whether there was a notable
124 disparity in incidents within bat behavioural units between aggregated roosting colonies
125 and those that did not. Following this, we examined the correlations between the
126 incident frequencies of these behavioural units. Lastly, we made predictions regarding
127 the connection between the frequency of incidents within behavioural categories and
128 aggregations and their impact on the occurrence of 'positive' and 'negative' social
129 behaviours in roosting bats. We expect that greater colony aggregation is related to
130 increased aggressive and negative behaviour in male cave-roosting bats. These
131 interactions likely result from both over-heating due to increased density, and possibly
132 even irritability due to repeated contact and disturbances. At the same time, other
133 behavioural categories are associated with male social behaviour.

134

135 **Materials and Methods**

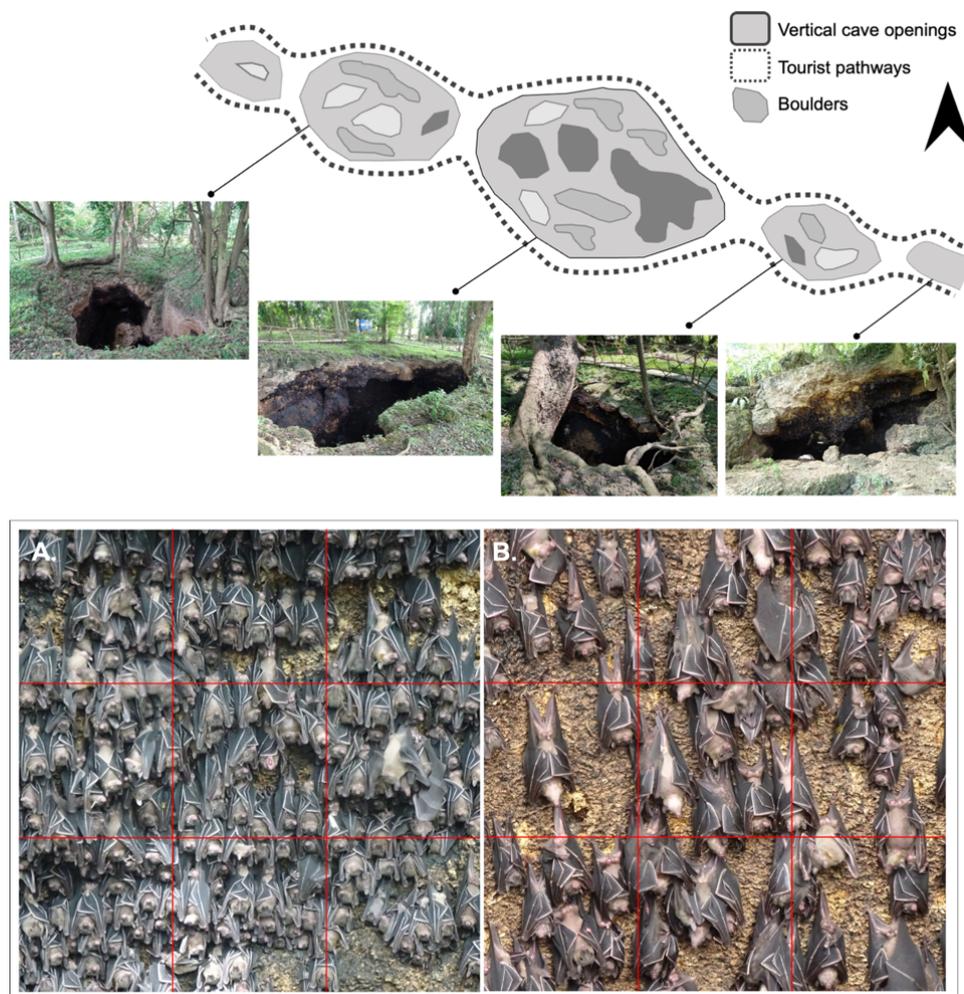
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137 *Study sites and species*

138 Our observations were carried out within the Monfort Bat Cave Sanctuary
139 (MBCS), situated on Samal Island in the Garden City of Samal, Davao del Norte,
140 Philippines (7.050°N and 125.733°E) (Figure 2), and the data collection period spanned
141 from August 2018 to March 2019. The Monfort family privately owns the cave sanctuary
142 and has been responsible for its conservation for nearly a century. This cave has gained
143 international acclaim and is documented in the Guinness Book of World Records for its
144 estimated population of approximately 1.8 million individuals of *R. amplexicaudatus*
145 (based on 2018 estimations). These bats are known to densely inhabit the walls and
146 ceiling, with an average occupancy of approximately 60 bats per square foot. The cave is
147 approximately 150 m long, 3 m high, and 5 m wide. In particular, the cave is open to
148 ecotourism and scientific research, though visitors are not allowed to enter the cave
149 **(Figure 1)**.

150 Geoffroy's Rousette fruit bat (*Rousettus amplexicaudatus*) is a colony-forming
151 medium-sized fruit bat with a body size of approximately 128-154 millimetres and a
152 forearm of roughly 80-92 millimetres. This species is widely distributed throughout
153 Southeast Asia and is mainly found in caves in karstic environments. Unlike other fruit

154 bats, *R. amplexicaudatus* has enhanced auditory acuity, an acute sense of smell, and
 155 relatively good eyesight. Collectively, these sensory attributes enhance aerial
 156 manoeuvrability, particularly during nocturnal flight.
 157



158

159 **Figure 1.** Cave map and entrances (upper photograph) showing two fruit bat colony
 160 aggregations in Monfort Bat Cave Sanctuary (MBCS): (a) aggregated and (b) non-
 161 aggregated roosting areas. The red grid lines indicate the sampling grid of the
 162 behavioural scan.

163

164 *Video recordings*

165 Based on the density of individuals within the observed area, we classified bat
 166 aggregations into two distinct categories 'aggregated' and 'non-aggregated'. Aggregated
 167 colonies are described when bat individuals cluster together to form a sizable colony.
 168 Conversely, non-aggregated groups were characterized by evenly spaced individuals (at
 169 least 1-meter from each other) within their roosting area, lacking significant clustering
 170 (Figure 2AB). We filmed the diurnal behaviour of *R. amplexicaudatus* using a Sony™
 171 DSC-WX500 digital camera (maximum 30× optical zoom) on the two aggregations.

172 Within each colony aggregation, our filming sessions covered an approximate area of 1 ×
 173 1.5 metres within the roosting site. We filmed colonies once every hour and each filming
 174 session lasted for 10 min every hour from 07:00 to 17:00 (for example, Connell et al.
 175 2006). To minimise the influence of observers on bat behaviour, the observer wore
 176 neutral clothing and was located at least 5 to 10 metres from the roosting colonies.

177

178 *Behavioural ethograms*

179 Cave bat videography was observed and timed using Behavioural Observation
 180 Research Interactive Software (BORIS) (Friard & Gamba, 2016). Behaviour was recorded
 181 from the recordings in each observation dataset. Behaviour observation was replicated
 182 by dividing the observed colony into 3 × 3 plane grids in the BORIS interface
 183 (<http://www.boris.unito.it/>). We then randomly selected a single individual from the
 184 three grids, designating them as focal subjects for behavioural observation. Although it
 185 is challenging to confirm that we tracked the same specific individual within the same
 186 grid all day, our initial observations indicated that bats tend to remain within the same
 187 colony throughout the day.

188 The behaviours recorded included sexual activity, self-maintenance,
 189 thermoregulation, positive social behaviour, negative social behaviour, territorial
 190 behaviour, and non-categorised behaviour following Friard & Gamba (2016) and Hengjan
 191 et al. (2017) (Table 1). We only included and analysed complete diurnal observations in
 192 the colonies and excluded recordings disturbed by crow and varanid predators (e.g.,
 193 Tanalgo et al. 2020) or weather conditions.

194 We exported and cleaned the data from BORIS and quantified the frequency
 195 (count) of incidents of each behavioural unit and category by tallying the number of
 196 times a specific behaviour occurred within the designated time frame of observation.
 197 Similarly, we determined the duration of each behavioural category and unit by
 198 calculating the ratio of the observed time (t, seconds) for each behavioural unit to the
 199 total observation period (T, seconds) (Connell et al., 2006; Hengjan et al., 2017). In our
 200 final analysis, we only analysed the frequency of incidents because we found a strong
 201 correlation between frequency and the duration of the behaviour (Supplementary Data
 202 S1).

203

204 **Table 1.** Ethogram of the diurnal behaviour observed in colonies of *R. amplexicaudatus*.

Behaviour Category	Behavioural Unit	Description
Sexual activities	Courtship/Fellatio	The male approaches the male and licks the genital area of the conspecifics.
	Masturbation	The male starts to lick his penis, leading to an erection, continuously licking the erect penis

		for more than one minute without urination and ejaculation.
Self-maintenance	Self-grooming	Licking wing membranes or occasional bouts of the genitals, including the head.
Thermoregulation	Wing flapping	Fanning body on the wing membrane.
Positive social behaviour	Mutual grooming	Licking the body of the conspecifics.
	Play	Mock biting or mock wrestling with an absence of vocalisation.
Negative social behaviour	Aggression	Aggressive vocalisations, wing shaking, chasing, biting, and/or fighting between individuals.
	Hang alert	They are hanging bipedally or monopodally with eyes open and ears moving.
Relaxed behaviour	Sleeping	Immobile, eyes closed, wings wrapped around the body.
	Hanging relax	Hanging bipedally or monopodally with wings folded or wings open and eyes open, looking around.
	Movement	Moving along a cave wall without flying.
	Excretion	Turning the body upright to urinate and/or defecate.

205

206 *Data analysis*

207 We found that none of our datasets conformed to the normal distribution
 208 assumption. We used the Mann-Whitney U test to compare whether there was a
 209 significant difference in the frequency of incidents of behavioural units between the
 210 aggregated and non-aggregated groups. A separate Kruskal-Wallis test was then
 211 performed to test the difference in the frequency of incidents between behavioural units
 212 between the aggregations. Subsequently, we used Kendall's τ -B correlation analysis to
 213 examine the correlation of incident frequency in behavioural categories. Furthermore, we
 214 constructed a complete Poisson generalized linear regression (GLM) to predict the
 215 relationship between the frequency of incidence of positive and negative social behaviour
 216 of bats. We included bat colony aggregation, frequency of incidence of sexual behaviour,
 217 self-maintenance, thermoregulation, and relaxed behaviour.

218 All data and statistical analyses were performed using the open software
 219 Jamovi2.3.22 (The Jamovi Project, 2023). Data visualisations were performed with
 220 GraphPad Prism 9 (GraphPad Prism, 2022). Statistical significance was set at $p \leq 0.05$.
 221 Data were presented as mean \pm standard deviation (SD) or 95% CI.

222

223 *Ethical Considerations*

224 We adhered to all relevant international, national, and institutional regulations
 225 that govern the ethical treatment and use of animals. Under the Philippine and Chinese
 226 law, no specific approval was required for this non-invasive study. We strictly adhered to
 227 the protocols and guidelines established by the Animal Behaviour Society (ABS) and the

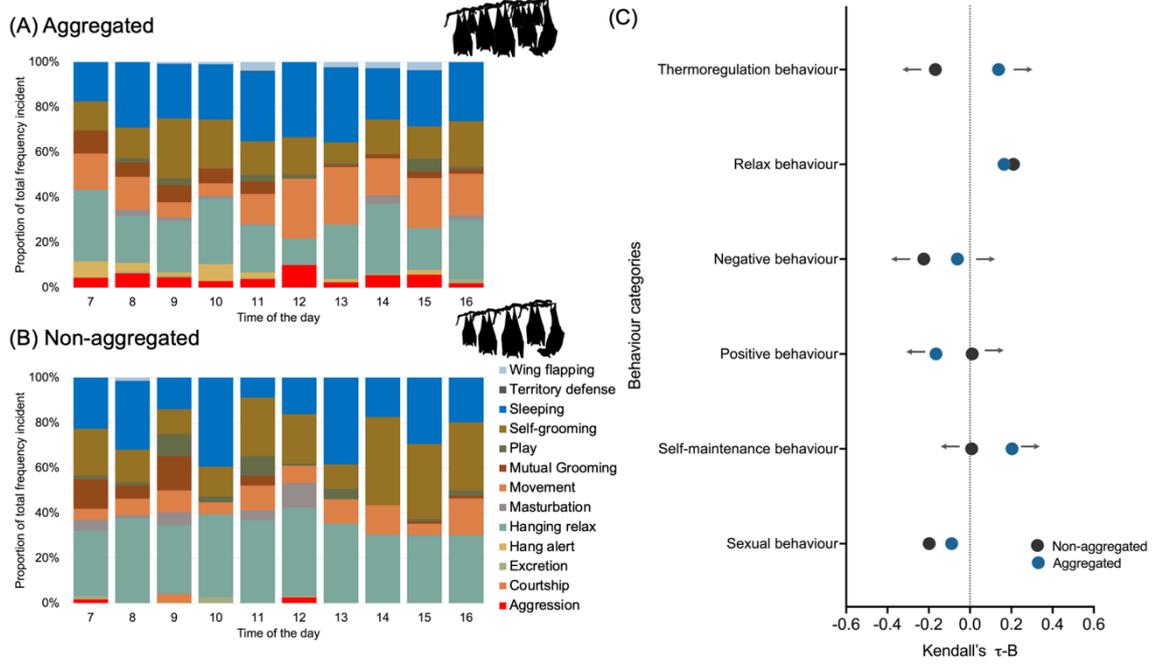
228 Association for the Study of Animal Behaviour (ASAB) recommendations for animal
229 handling in behavioural research and teaching (ASAB Ethical Committee & ABS Animal
230 Care Committee, 2022).

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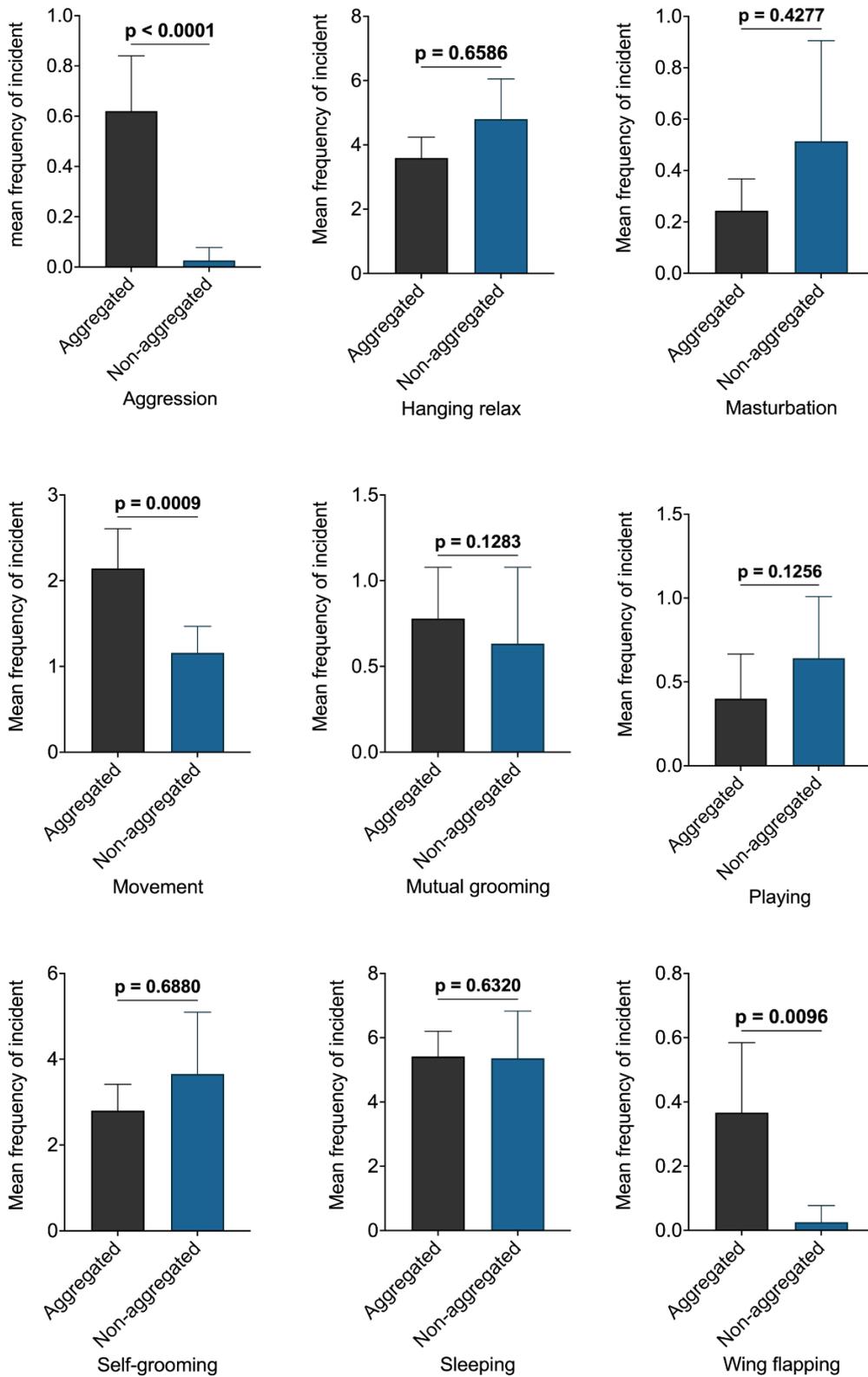
232 **Results**

233 We analysed a total of 59,400 seconds of observations from 99 male focal
234 individuals in Monfort bat cave (aggregated = 60; non-aggregated = 39). Our study
235 found significant variation in the time budget allocation of bat behavioural units between
236 aggregations (**Figure 2**). Among aggregated colonies, sleeping was the most frequent
237 behaviour throughout the day (27.20%), while hanging relax was more dominant among
238 non-aggregated colonies (33.73%). Sleeping was the second most dominant behaviour
239 observed in non-aggregated colonies (24.73%). We found the highest difference
240 between aggregation in behavioural incidents in wing flapping (93.57%) and aggression
241 behaviour (89.32%) (**Figure 2A**).

242 We compared the difference in behavioural units between aggregated and non-
243 aggregated groups. We found that the five behavioural units differed significantly
244 between aggregations (**Figure 3**). Aggregated groups (mean = 3.18 ± 2.63) had a
245 higher frequency of individual movement behaviour compared to non-aggregated groups
246 mean = 1.85 ± 1.65) (MWU test = 827.50, $p = 0.01$). Aggregated bats (mean = $0.88 \pm$
247 1.15) were also more aggressive compared to those in non-aggregated groups (mean =
248 0.03 ± 0.16) (MWU test = 626.50, $p < .0001$). Aggregated colonies (mean = $0.37 \pm$
249 0.84) also had a higher incidence of dominant wing flapping behaviour compared to non-
250 aggregated colonies (mean = 0.03 ± 0.16) (MWU test = 963, $p = .01$). Furthermore, the
251 incident frequency of the behavioural units differed significantly between the aggregated
252 and non-aggregated colonies (KW test, $H = 460.5$, $p < 0.0001$ and KW test, $H = 327.4$,
253 $p < 0.0001$, respectively).



254 **Figure 2.** Comparison of the proportion of the incident frequency of behavioural units (A
 255 and B) and the correlation of behavioural categories over the day.
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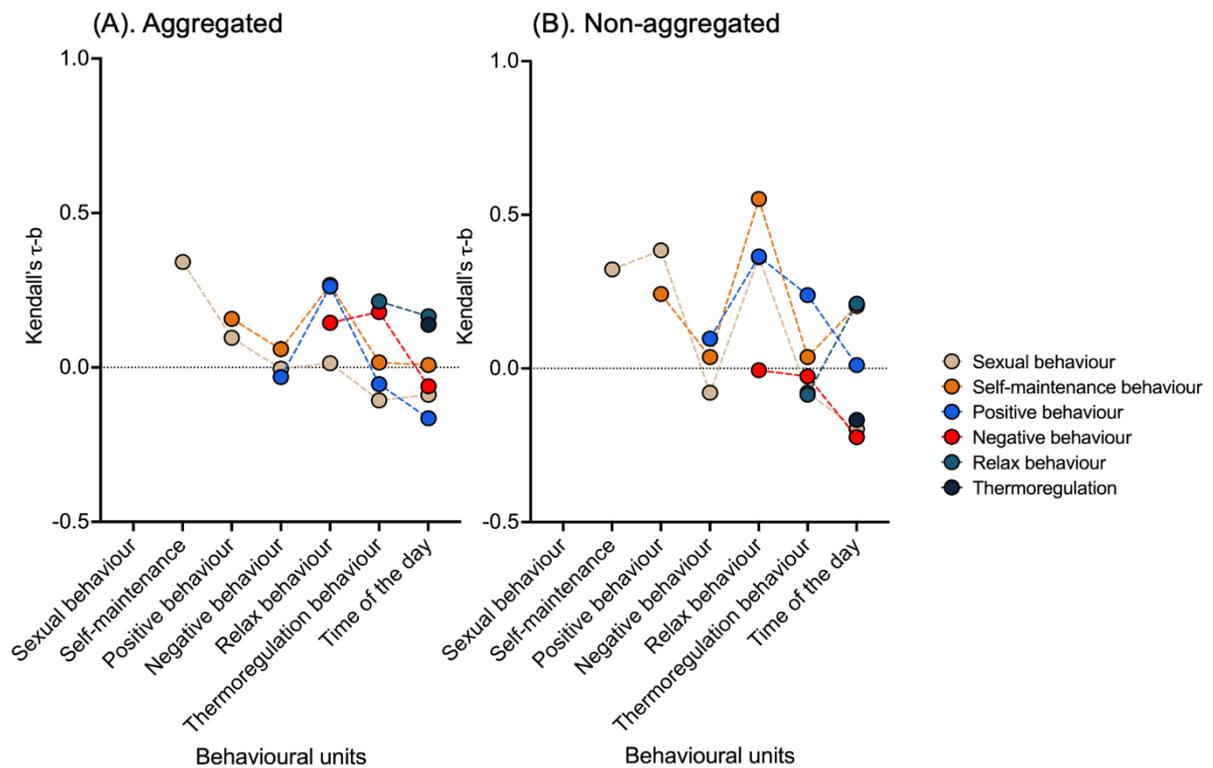
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Figure 3. A bar graph shows the differences in the mean incident frequency between colony aggregations (A) and behavioural units (B).

261



262 **Figure 4.** Visualised correlation (Kendall's τ -B) plot of behavioural units in (a)
 263 aggregated and (b) non-aggregated colonies of *R. amplexicaudatus*.
 264

265 Although we did not find statistical significance in the correlation between time of
 266 day and the frequency of behavioural categories, we observed a contrasting relationship
 267 in all behavioural categories except relaxation behaviour (**Figure 4**). For example,
 268 aggregated colonies have increased thermoregulation, negative behaviour, and less self-
 269 maintenance throughout the day. When comparing each colony group, bats in the
 270 aggregated groups showed a positive and significant correlation between self-
 271 maintenance and sexual behaviour (Kendall's τ -B = 0.341, p = 0.0022), while a similar
 272 correlation pattern was observed in relaxation behaviour with self-maintenance
 273 (Kendall's τ -B = 0.267, p = 0.005), and positive social behaviour (Kendall's τ -B = 0.262,
 274 p = 0.01) (**Figure 4A**). Conversely, we found a different correlation pattern within the
 275 non-aggregated group. We observed that sexual behaviour was positively correlated with
 276 self-maintenance (Kendall's τ -B = 0.322, p = 0.0164), positive social behaviour
 277 (Kendall's τ -B = 0.384, p = 0.0082), and relaxation behaviour (Kendall's τ -B = 0.362, p
 278 = 0.0063). Furthermore, relaxation behaviour was significantly and positively correlated
 279 with self-maintenance behaviour (Kendall's τ -B = 0.551, p < 0.0001) and positive social
 280 behaviour (Kendall's τ -B = 0.364, p = 0.0045) (**Figure 4B**).

281 We constructed two separate generalised linear models to predict the frequency
 282 of occurrence of the behaviour (Table 2). Aggregation was significantly associated with

283 an increase in the incidence of negative social behaviour ($\beta = 3.997, p < 0.0001$).
 284 Interestingly, we found that increased incidents of sexual behaviour were positively
 285 associated with positive social behaviour among bats ($\beta = 0.114, p = 0.0097$). Although
 286 not statistically significant, we found a contrasting relationship between sexual behaviour
 287 and negative social behaviour ($\beta = -0.126, p = 0.5775$).

288

289 **Table 2.** Results of the generalised linear model (GLM) predicting the association of the
 290 frequency of (A) positive social behaviour and (B) negative social behaviour with colony
 291 aggregation and other behavioural categories.

A. Positive social behaviour	Estimate	SE	Lower	Upper	p
(Intercept)	0.106	0.103	-0.104	0.3	0.303
Aggregated (Non-aggregated)	0.278	0.204	-0.116	0.685	0.172
Sexual behaviour	0.114	0.044	0.025	0.198	0.010
Self-maintenance behaviour	-0.012	0.022	-0.057	0.03	0.590
Relaxation behaviour	0.084	0.02	0.044	0.124	< .0001
Thermoregulation behaviour	-0.211	0.149	-0.529	0.059	0.156

B. Negative social behaviour	Estimate	SE	Lower	Upper	p
(Intercept)	-1.694	0.505	-3.131	-0.938	0.0008
Aggregated (Non-aggregated)	3.997	1.012	2.476	6.873	< .0001
Sexual behaviour	-0.126	0.226	-0.612	0.27	0.578
Self-maintenance behaviour	0.018	0.041	-0.065	0.096	0.657
Relax behaviour	0.031	0.025	-0.018	0.078	0.204
Thermoregulation behaviour	0.032	0.129	-0.238	0.272	0.807

292

293 Discussion

294

295 The diurnal activities of bats have been investigated in a number of species, with
 296 a particular focus on *Pteropus* species, both in their natural habitats and in captivity
 297 (Hengjan et al., 2017; Manandhar et al., 2018; Ramanantsalama et al., 2019; Roy et al.,
 298 2020; Thomson et al., 1998). There is also a growing interest in the behavioural
 299 investigation of cave-dwelling bats and their social interactions (Cardiff et al., 2012;
 300 Ramanantsalama et al., 2019). However, there is limited information on how bats
 301 respond to intrinsic factors such as overcrowding. Our study aimed to understand the
 302 differences in behaviours between aggregated and non-aggregated groups of bats.
 303 Variation in various activities in the two groups suggests that social dynamics and
 304 environmental factors may play a crucial role in shaping the behaviour of these male

305 bats, with possible implications for individual health (Hengjan et al., 2017; Manandhar et
306 al., 2018).

307 Sleeping was observed to be a common behaviour in both aggregated and non-
308 aggregated colonies. In aggregated colonies, sleeping was the most frequently observed
309 behaviour throughout the day, comprising more than a quarter of the total observed
310 behaviour, though was not significantly different in frequency between the two groups.
311 Various connections have been proposed between sleep duration and social behaviour
312 (Harding et al., 2022). The frequency of sleep that occurs consistently throughout the
313 day is consistent with the natural circadian rhythms of bats, as they are primarily
314 nocturnal animals. This dominance of sleeping behaviour among colonies may indicate
315 the importance of rest and energy conservation within these groups after a night of
316 activity (Harding et al., 2022; Roy et al., 2020). Bats in aggregated colonies can
317 prioritise sleep to prepare for nocturnal activities, such as foraging and mating (Amichai
318 et al., 2013; Harding et al., 2022; Lewis, 1996; Muñoz-Romo, 2006) and to conserve
319 and recover energy spent on increased movement and interactions within the
320 aggregated colony. One primary advantage of forming groups is to reduce the risk of
321 predation (Beauchamp, 2001, 2007; Wang et al., 2015), and this reduction in predation
322 risk is believed to affect sleep duration (Lendrem, 1983; Lima et al., 2005; McBlain et
323 al., 2020). However, it is worth noting that in our study, we did not observe a significant
324 difference in sleep frequency between different aggregations. But this can be associated
325 to the presence of aggressive predators in the bat cave, including crows entering the
326 caves and varanids that predate resting bats. In a behavioural study of gulls
327 (Beauchamp, 2009) observed that individuals even within a smaller group size (i.e., less
328 crowded) were more likely to have interrupted sleeping bouts to scan their surroundings
329 when their larger group neighbours were alert. This proposes that animals perceive
330 threats similarly and would 'copy' the vigilance of their neighbours, which may help them
331 to assess the risk of predation better (Beauchamp, 2009).

332 In contrast, hanging relax was more dominant in non-aggregated colonies,
333 comprising 33.73% of the observed behaviours. This indicates that solitary or loosely
334 associated bats may exhibit a different energy allocation strategy, possibly involving
335 increased vigilance while at rest to defend against potential threats (Harten et al., 2018;
336 Kelm et al., 2021; Markus & Blackshaw, 2002). Moreover, it is notable that sleeping was
337 the second most dominant behaviour observed in non-aggregated colonies (24.73%).
338 This denotes that even in more solitary settings, sleep remains a crucial aspect of a bat
339 diurnal routine (Harding et al., 2022; Lewis, 1996; Roy et al., 2020).

340 We found a stark difference in behavioural incidence between aggregated and
341 non-aggregated colonies, particularly in wing flapping and aggressive behaviour. Wing
342 flapping showed a 93.57% difference in behavioural incidents within the aggregated

343 colonies versus non-aggregated, which exhibited a strikingly lower incidence of wing
344 flapping (6.43%), likely due to both increased temperatures due to the proximity of
345 individuals and possibly aggressive posturing in aggregated settings. This difference in
346 behaviour suggests a heightened level of physical activity within large-sized groups that
347 is attributed to the proximity of individuals, potentially leading to increased interaction
348 and movement. Overcrowding increases colony temperature (Arends et al., 1995), and
349 the dominance of wing-flapping behaviour among bat individuals in more aggregated
350 colonies facilitates thermoregulation. Bats have several mechanisms to help dissipate
351 heat and prevent their body temperature from rising to lethal levels (Reher & Dausmann,
352 2021). These mechanisms include the special membrane structure of their wings and the
353 increased airflow created by flapping their wings (Stones & Wiebers, 1965). In addition,
354 aggregated colonies exhibited a significantly higher incidence of wing-flapping behaviour,
355 which is often associated with communication or asserting dominance within a group and
356 may be more prevalent in densely populated aggregations where hierarchy and social
357 status are essential for resource allocation and mating opportunities (Beauchamp, 2007;
358 Kerth, 2008).

359 Aggregated groups exhibited a higher frequency of individual movement
360 compared to their non-aggregated counterparts, possibly due to disturbing each other
361 and being hotter and, therefore possibly uncomfortable (Hengjan et al., 2017;
362 Ramanantsalama et al., 2019). Our study also revealed that bats in aggregated colonies
363 (89.32%) displayed a higher level of aggression compared to those in non-aggregated
364 groups. Our findings highlight the importance of understanding social interactions within
365 bat colonies, as such heightened movement and increased aggressive behaviour could
366 be attributed to the need to navigate within densely populated aggregations, potentially
367 related to resource acquisition, space competition, or territorial disputes within the close
368 confines of the aggregation (Hengjan et al., 2017; Kilgour & Brigham, 2013a;
369 Ramanantsalama et al., 2019). For example, large brown bats (*Eptesicus fuscus*)
370 exhibited higher levels of aggression within groups, which were associated with improved
371 competitive abilities for resources (Kilgour & Brigham, 2013b).

372

373 **Intrinsic correlates of gregarious bat social behaviour**

374

375 The lack of a strong correlation between time of day and behavioural categories
376 suggests that bats in our study system did not show clear diurnal patterns in their
377 behaviour. This indicates that factors beyond time, social interactions, and physiological
378 needs are crucial in shaping their behaviour. In the aggregated colonies, we observed a
379 noticeable pattern between time of day and various behavioural categories. For example,
380 thermoregulation, negative behaviour, and self-maintenance exhibited an increasing

381 trend throughout the day. This may be because bats in aggregated colonies may adjust
382 their behaviour in response to a change in daily ambient temperature, possibly to
383 optimise thermoregulation and self-maintenance, and given increased heat in larger
384 bodied bats, they may need to work harder to stay cool as temperature increases
385 (Stones & Wiebers, 1965). The positive and significant correlation between self-
386 maintenance and sexual behaviour within aggregated groups is interesting. It may imply
387 that bats in these colonies allocate their energy resources strategically, as self-
388 maintenance behaviour is crucial for individual health and reproductive success. A similar
389 correlation pattern was also observed in relaxation behaviour, suggesting a potential
390 connection between relaxation and energy conservation strategies (Luo et al., 2021).
391 Furthermore, the positive correlation between relaxation behaviour and thermoregulation
392 behaviour indicates that bats in aggregated colonies may alternate between cooling
393 down and resting, whilst non-aggregated bats are able to sleep longer (Becker et al.,
394 2012; Komar et al., 2022).

395 In contrast to aggregated colonies, non-aggregated groups exhibited different
396 correlation patterns between time of day. For example, the positive correlation between
397 sexual behaviour and self-maintenance, positive social behaviour, and relaxation
398 behaviour hints that the animals in non-aggregated colonies may prioritise reproductive
399 activities throughout the day (Byerly et al., 2021). This could be related to the increased
400 autonomy and less crowded conditions in non-aggregated settings, allowing bats to
401 engage in mating and other social interactions as needed. Additionally, the positive
402 correlation between relaxation behaviour and self-maintenance, as well as positive social
403 behaviour, implies that bats in non-aggregated colonies might use relaxation to recharge
404 and engage in social interactions during their active hours, which could enhance their
405 overall fitness and well-being.

406 The current study provides valuable insights into the complex dynamics of social
407 behaviour within overcrowded bat colonies. Two key behavioural findings shed light on
408 the interplay between aggregation, social behaviour, and the potential factors influencing
409 these relationships. One of the notable findings is that aggregation was significantly
410 associated with increased negative social behaviour among bats, which evidently has
411 costs, including increased risk of injury and even pathogen spread. Negative social
412 behaviours may include competition for resources, territorial disputes, or conflicts within
413 the group (O'Connor et al., 2015). This finding aligns with previous research on social
414 animals, where increased individual proximity and interaction can lead to heightened
415 aggression or conflict over limited resources (Dai et al., 2018; Fernandez et al., 2014;
416 Holekamp & Strauss, 2016; O'Connor et al., 2015).

417 Our observation aligns with previous research suggesting that high population
418 density and proximity can lead to heightened competition for resources, such as roosting

419 sites and foraging opportunities, which may consequently escalate social conflicts within
420 bat colonies. The crowded conditions within these more densely aggregated colonies
421 may intensify intra-specific competition, potentially driving negative interactions among
422 individuals. Previous observations on pigs showed that reducing the space allotted per
423 individual increases the frequency of aggressive interactions, except during feeding,
424 where the decrease in space primarily influenced the quality of interactions (Ewbank &
425 Bryant, 1972). This implies that densely populated zones, particularly around the feeding
426 area, might disrupt communication patterns and potentially undermine dominance-
427 subordination relationships.

428 We propose that our findings linked to the 'behavioural sink' hypothesis, initially
429 introduced by ethologist John B. Calhoun in his famous experiments with rodents in the
430 mid-20th century (Calhoun, 1973). This suggests that when population density exceeds
431 a certain threshold, behavioural and social patterns among the individuals can
432 deteriorate dramatically. These behavioural changes often involve increased aggression
433 within the population. Our findings reveal a similar pattern of increased negative
434 behaviour in overcrowded bat populations, which offer substantial support for the link to
435 the 'behavioural sink' hypothesis concept in the context of social animals such as bats.
436 In situations of overcrowding, it appears that the natural social dynamics of bats are
437 disrupted, leading to higher levels of aggression and stress. Such negative behaviours
438 may not only impact individual well-being but can also have far-reaching consequences
439 for the overall health of the bat colony, and could perpetuate the spread of pathogens
440 (Eby et al., 2023; Ruiz-Aravena et al., 2022).

441 Understanding the 'behavioural sink' hypothesis in the context of bats and other
442 social species is useful for conservation efforts and population management, which
443 highlights the importance of considering habitat quality and resource availability in the
444 context of bat colony management and conservation efforts, as these factors could
445 mitigate the prevalence of negative social behaviours in densely populated colonies.

446 Another particularly intriguing finding was the contrasting relationship between
447 the incidence of sexual behaviour and positive social behaviour among *Rousettus*
448 *amplexicaudatus*. Positive social behaviour could encompass grooming, affiliative
449 interactions, or cooperative behaviours. Sexual behaviour can be regulated within the
450 colony to minimise conflict and maintain overall social harmony (Alves et al., 2013). In
451 addition, sexual behaviour may act as a bonding mechanism, fostering cooperation and
452 coordination among individuals (Díaz-Muñoz et al., 2014; King et al., 2021). For
453 example, Tan et al. (2017) found that fellatio among short-nosed fruit bat *Cynopterus*
454 *sphinx* facilitate longer copulation time during sexual activities. A similar behaviour was
455 also observed among colonies of Indian flying fox *Pteropus giganteus*, showing that oral
456 sex increases positive sexual behaviour, however same sex-interactions have not been

457 well explored in bats, but play roles in bonding in other social mammals (Vasey et al.,
458 2007; Archie et al., 2014). Furthermore, when a group becomes overcrowded,
459 individuals often face challenges related to resource competition, increased stress, and
460 restricted access to potential mates. Hence, sustaining sexual behaviour within an
461 overcrowded group of bats holds significant implications for maintaining reproductive
462 success within the population (Maruthupandian & Marimuthu, 2013; M. Tan et al., 2009).
463 Understanding the mechanisms by which sexual behaviour influences positive social
464 behaviour could have important implications for our comprehension of the evolution of
465 social behaviours in bats and other social animals. Yet, more research with a larger
466 sample size or a more focused investigation of specific aspects of sexual and negative
467 social behaviours is needed to draw definitive conclusions.

468 Another useful idea for future studies on overcrowding could involve investigating
469 the potential connection between physiological stress levels within bat colonies and the
470 heightened risk of pathogen transmission and its consequent impact on the population
471 (Hing et al., 2016). As bats face overcrowding, they may experience elevated stress
472 levels due to the proximity of their peers, potential resource competition, and changes in
473 their social structures. Such stressors can substantially impact the bat immune systems
474 and overall health, potentially making them more susceptible to pathogen transmission.
475 Understanding the link between physiological stress and pathogen spread is crucial
476 because it provides insight into the health of bat populations and has implications for
477 human health (Moreno et al., 2021).

478

479 **Caveats and conclusions**

480 This is the first study to compare bat behaviour within different groups in their
481 natural roosting habitat. Our study highlights the adaptability of bats in response to
482 overcrowding within the cave system. Yet, our current methods present limitations,
483 including a greater understanding of the role of hormones, social interactions, predator
484 presence, and other ecological factors (Allen et al., 2011; Reeder et al., 2004).
485 Moreover, a deeper exploration of the ecological and evolutionary consequences of these
486 behavioural differences is also essential. For example, understanding how increased
487 aggression in aggregated colonies affects mating success, resource utilisation, and
488 overall colony dynamics can provide valuable insights into bat ecology and conservation.

489 In conclusion, highlights the nuanced impacts of overcrowding in shaping the
490 interplay of male bat behaviour. The observed differences in behavioural units and
491 incident frequencies between aggregated and non-aggregated groups highlight the need
492 for a holistic understanding of bat behaviour that considers individual and group
493 dynamics. Recognising the connection between bat social behaviour and roosting site
494 conservation has several implications for conservation efforts. First, it emphasises the

495 importance of preserving roosting sites, not just as physical locations but as social hubs
 496 for bat communities; furthermore, it underscores that overcrowding has negative
 497 implications for bat colonies. Bats usually choose particular roosting locations and
 498 conditions influenced by various ecological factors, with safety being one of them (Lima
 499 et al., 2005; Lima & O’Keefe, 2013). Conservationists can prioritise the protection of
 500 these sites to ensure the continued well-being of bat populations (Meierhofer et al.,
 501 2023; Tanalgo et al., 2022). More importantly, we highlight the importance of
 502 recognising the link between understanding bat social behaviour and the conservation of
 503 roosting sites, underscoring the need to consider roost behaviour and a nuanced
 504 approach to bat conservation, significantly as loss or disturbance of roosts may drive
 505 over-crowding at remaining sites.

506 Furthermore, our findings raise the question of how these patterns may be
 507 influenced by environmental factors or social structure within bat colonies. Further work
 508 is needed to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the dynamics of social
 509 behaviour in bat populations. In conclusion, our study highlights the intricate relationship
 510 between bat aggregation, social behaviour, and the role of sexual behaviour in shaping
 511 these interactions, and the positive and negative impacts that may occur as a result of
 512 overcrowding. By shedding light on these complexities, our research contributes to the
 513 broader understanding of social dynamics within bat colonies and may offer insights that
 514 can inform conservation and management strategies. Future research can build upon
 515 these findings to explore the underlying mechanisms and external factors influencing
 516 these observed associations, providing a more comprehensive understanding of social
 517 behaviour in bat populations.

518

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