1	The b	ehavioural costs of overcrowding for gregarious cave-dwelling bats
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11	Abstr	act
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13	1.	Bats are known for their gregarious social behaviour, often congregating in
14		caves and underground habitats, where they play a pivotal role in providing
15		various ecosystem services. Studying bat behaviour remains an
16		underexplored aspect of bat ecology and conservation despite its ecological
17		importance.
18	2.	We explore the costs and impacts of overcrowding on bat social behaviour.
19		This study examined variations in bat behavioural patterns between two
20		distinct groups: aggregated and non-aggregated male Rousettus
21		amplexicaudatus, within the Monfort Bat Cave Sanctuary on Mindanao Island,
22		Philippines.
23	3.	We found significant variations in the incident frequencies of various bat
24		behavioural activities, particularly regarding aggression and movement,
25		between these two groups. The increase in aggregation was closely related to
26		negative social behaviour among bats.
27	4.	In contrast, sexual behaviour was significantly related to the positive
28		behaviour of individual bats and was headed in less crowded areas. The
29		disparities in bat behaviour with an apparent decline in bat social behaviour
30		because of overcrowding, with more aggressive behaviours emerging, align
31		with the <i>'behavioural sink'</i> hypothesis.

5. Our study underscores the importance of considering habitat quality and
availability of resources in the management and conservation of bat colonies,
as these factors can reduce the occurrence of aggressive and negative social
behaviours in colonies with high population density by providing alternative
habitats.

Keywords: Aggression, antipredator behaviour, caves, ethology, group size effects

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40 Introduction

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

Numerous animal species, including bats, exhibit aggregation (Philippe et al.,
2016), wherein they are either attracted to a resource or socially drawn to other
individuals, generally forming groups to reduce predation risk or improve access to
resources and mates (Kerth, 2008; Safi, 2008). Interactions between individuals
within these aggregates can subsequently alter the overall behaviour of the group

61 (Kerth, 2008). Most bat species have an optimal roost type and interindividual 62 spacing, which varies based on aggression, body size, air temperature and other 63 factors. Many species use darker spaces of the cave that are further from the 64 entrance of the roost, and larger or more aggressive species may be more likely to 65 have more space between individuals to reduce stress and the possibility of 66 overheating (Medina-Bello et al., 2023; Rodrigues et al., 2003). Multiple variables can 67 influence the well-being of roosting bats, including the structure of the roosts, 68 surrounding ecological conditions, and anthropogenic interventions within cave 69 ecosystems (Nagy & Postawa, 2011; Sedlock et al., 2014). Thus, factors that change 70 interactions between individuals could increase stress and affect individual bat 71 health (Allen et al., 2011; Zagmajster, 2019) and susceptibility to disease and 72 parasitism (Hayman et al., 2013; Webber et al., 2015).

73 Research on cave-dwelling bat ecology is increasing (Tanalgo et al., 2022). Yet 74 most studies have concentrated on their responses to ecological changes (Cajaiba et 75 al., 2021), and very few on their behavioural responses to intrinsic and extrinsic 76 factors. Empirical data on density-dependent responses remains scarce for many 77 species (e.g., stress behaviour, overcrowding, and diseases) (Chaverri et al., 2018; 78 Hoyt et al., 2021). A more precise understanding of the impacts of overcrowding is 79 clearly needed, especially given that most mammals become more susceptible to 80 pathogens when stressed (Horton et al., 2020; Webber et al., 2015).

81 Understanding how bats react to suboptimal conditions presents a major 82 challenge in ecology. Most investigations have centred on non-cave bat species in 83 their natural roosts or enclosures (Thomson et al. 1998; Hengjan et al. 2017; Garca-84 Rawlins et al. 2020). Thus, little work has been done to explore these phenomena in 85 cave bats, likely due to the difficulty and expense of studying bats in the wild (Revilla-Martín et al. 2020; Reeder et al. 2004). Studies investigating bat responses to 86 87 intrinsic and extrinsic factors usually measure stress levels using hormones requiring 88 blood or urine samples (Allen et al., 2011; Davy et al., 2017; Reeder et al., 2004), but 89 this approach is costly and sometimes unreliable (Reeder et al., 2004). Therefore, less

90 intrusive, and economically efficient techniques are required to understand how bats91 react to stress under natural conditions.

92 The loss of roost sites, such as due to mining, may displace bats from previous 93 roost sites and increase density at remaining sites, potentially causing overcrowding, 94 as well as forcing bats to roost in suboptimal conditions based on loss of more 95 suitable sites (Pretorius et al., 2021). Overcrowding in bat colonies can increase 96 negative interactions and even increase individual body temperature. The 97 'behavioural sink' hypothesis, initially introduced by ethologist John B. Calhoun in his 98 famous experiments with rodents in the mid-20th century (Calhoun, 1966, 1973), 99 posits that when population density exceeds a specific threshold, there is a 100 significant decline in behavioural and social patterns among individuals (Calhoun, 101 1966, 1973). Such behavioural changes may typically manifest as heightened 102 aggression within the population (Calhoun, 1973). However, while the 'behavioural 103 *sink'* hypothesis has been demonstrated in laboratory experiments in other mammals 104 (Ramsden, 2009), few natural conditions are likely to lead to comparable patterns of 105 overcrowding, which could lead to such consequences under natural conditions; 106 thus, the differing density in roosts within the cave provides the perfect arena to test 107 these theories under natural conditions.

108 Tropical environments often host the most diverse bat assemblages. The 109 Philippines is home to at least 78 bat species, and almost 40 are cave dwellers 110 (Lawrence et al., 2010; Tanalgo & Hughes, 2018). The world's largest colony of 111 Rousettus amplexicaudatus is estimated to be approximately 1.8 million individuals in 112 the Monfort Bat Cave Sanctuary (MBCS) in the Island Garden City of Samal in 113 Davao del Norte, Philippines (Carpenter et al., 2014). The bat population at the roost 114 can differ significantly between the walls and the ceiling. On average, the colony has 115 a 427.9 9 bats/m² density, but the estimated density in the Monfort Bat Cave 116 Sanctuary is predicted to be higher (Carpenter et al., 2014). There is no prior study 117 on the average population range of *R. amplexicaudatus* in Philippine caves. Previous 118 surveys have an average estimate of more than 100 individuals in a single cave

119 system (e.g., Sedlock et al., (2014) in Central Visayas and Tanalgo & Tabora (2015) in 120 Southcentral Mindanao). However, more intensive population surveys in Panay 121 showed that even the larger cave systems have a smaller population, ranging from 122 6,500 to 198,000 individuals, compared to the smaller cave of the MBCS (Mould, 123 2012). Previous field observations in MBCS further speculate that bats that roost in 124 cave areas with a higher density of individual aggregations within their colonies 125 exhibit more pronounced 'aggressive' and 'restless' behaviours throughout the day, 126 suggesting individual overcrowding (Tanalgo et al., 2020).

127 The diurnal activities of bats have been investigated in a number of species, 128 with a particular focus on *Pteropus* species, both in their natural habitats and in 129 captivity (Hengjan et al., 2017; Manandhar et al., 2018; Ramanantsalama et al., 2019; 130 Roy et al., 2020; Thomson et al., 1998), yet there are no clear studies that assess bat 131 social behaviour (i.e., negative and positive) in response to gregarious behaviour 132 (e.g., overcrowding in colonies). The interest in the behavioural investigation of 133 cave-dwelling bats and their social interactions (Cardiff et al., 2012; Ramanantsalama 134 et al., 2019) is increasing, but only a few caves are considered to hold a hyper 135 population, e.g., Bracken cave in the United States and Monfort cave in the 136 Philippines. However, it should be noted that establishing what constitutes 137 overcrowding for specific species is challenging due to the lack of data, as well as 138 potentially confounding factors which may alter density. Testing how behaviours 139 vary based on overcrowding remains an interesting topic that requires further 140 research, especially as increased negative interactions that may increase because of 141 overcrowding can have major health outcomes.

Here, we investigate whether the patterns of diurnal behaviour among cavedwelling bats are influenced by their roosting density (aggregated vs. nonaggregated) in their cave colony. To do this, we observed two aggregations of male *Rousettus amplexicaudatus* in Monfort Bat Cave Sanctuary and assessed notable disparities in frequency incidents within various bat behavioural categories and units between aggregated roosting colonies and those that did not. Specifically, we 148 estimate the effects of density on the occurrence of 'positive' and 'negative' 149 behaviours. We then test if there are correlations between the incident frequencies of 150 these behavioural units. We made predictions on the association between the 151 frequency of incidents within behavioural categories and aggregations and their 152 effects on the occurrence of 'positive' and 'negative' actions and interactions in 153 roosting bats. We predict that (1) aggregated colonies sleep less than non-154 aggregated colonies and (2) increased colony aggregation increases aggressiveness 155 and negative behaviours. We posit that increased negative interactions in 156 aggregated colonies likely result from overheating due to increased density and 157 possibly even irritability due to repeated contact and disturbances.

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159 Materials and Methods

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161 *Study sites and species*

162 Our observations were carried out within the Monfort Bat Cave Sanctuary 163 (MBCS), situated on Samal Island in the Garden City of Samal, Davao del Norte, 164 Philippines (7.050°N and 125.733°E) (Figure 2), and the data collection period 165 spanned August 2018 to March 2019. The Monfort family privately owns the cave 166 sanctuary and has been responsible for its conservation for nearly a century. This 167 cave has gained international acclaim and is documented in the Guinness Book of 168 World Records for its estimated population of approximately 1.8 million individuals 169 of *R. amplexicaudatus* (based on 2018 estimates). These bats are known to inhabit the 170 walls and ceiling, with an average occupancy of approximately 403 bats/m² and 452 171 bats/m², respectively. The cave is approximately 150 m long, 3 m high, and 5 m 172 wide. In particular, the cave is open to ecotourism and scientific research, although 173 visitors are not allowed to enter the cave (Figure 1).

The Geoffroy's Rousette fruit bat (*Rousettus amplexicaudatus*) is a mediumsized colony-forming fruit bat with a body size of approximately 128-154 millimetres and a forearm of approximately 80-92 millimetres. This species is widely distributed throughout Southeast Asia and is mainly found in caves in karstic environments.
Unlike other Old-World fruit bats, *R. amplexicaudatus* has enhanced auditory acuity,
an acute sense of smell, and relatively good eyesight. Collectively, these sensory
attributes enhance aerial manoeuvrability, particularly during nocturnal flight.



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

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188 Video recordings

189 Based on the density of individuals within the observed area, we classified bat 190 aggregations into two distinct categories 'aggregated' and 'non-aggregated'. 191 Aggregated colonies are described when bat individuals cluster together to form a 192 sizable colony. Conversely, non-aggregated groups were characterized by evenly 193 spaced individuals at least 0.305 metre (1 foot) from each other within their roosting 194 area, lacking significant clustering (Figure 2AB). We filmed the diurnal behaviour of 195 *R. amplexicaudatus* using a SonyTM DSC-WX500 digital camera (maximum 30× optical 196 zoom) on the two aggregations. Within each colony aggregation, our filming 197 sessions covered an approximate area of 1×1.5 metres within the roosting site. We 198 filmed colonies once every hour, for 10 minutes every hour from 07:00 to 17:00 (for 199 example, Connell et al. 2006). To minimize the influence of observers on bat 200 behaviour, the observer wore neutral clothing and was located at least 5 to 10 metres 201 from the roosting colonies.

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203 Behavioural ethograms

204 Cave bat videography was observed and timed using Behavioural 205 Observation Research Interactive Software (BORIS) (Friard & Gamba, 2016). 206 Behaviour was assessed from the recordings in each observation dataset. Behaviour 207 observation was replicated by dividing the observed colony into 3×3 plane grids in 208 the BORIS interface (http://www.boris.unito.it/). We then randomly selected a single 209 individual from the three grids, designating them as focal subjects for behavioural 210 observation. Although it is challenging to confirm that we tracked the same specific 211 individual within the same grid all day, our initial observations indicated that bats 212 tend to stay within the same colony throughout the day.

The behaviours recorded included sexual activity, self-maintenance, thermoregulation, positive social behaviour, negative social behaviour, territorial behaviour, and non-categorized behaviour following Friard & Gamba (2016) and Hengjan et al. (2017) **(Table 1).** The two openings of the cave are vertical, and bats roosting in these areas are prone to predation, and some colonies move in the inner part during heavy rains. We only included and analyzed complete diurnal
observations in the colonies to reduce bias and excluded recordings disturbed by
predators or weather conditions.

221 We exported and cleaned the data from BORIS and quantified the frequency 222 (count) of incidents of each behavioural unit and category by tallying the number of 223 times a specific behaviour occurred within the designated time frame of observation. 224 Similarly, we determined the duration of each behavioural category and unit by 225 calculating the ratio of the observed time (t, seconds) for each behavioural unit to the 226 total observation period (T, seconds) (Connell et al., 2006; Hengjan et al., 2017). In 227 our final analysis, we only analyzed the frequency of incidents because we found a 228 strong correlation between frequency and duration of behaviour. 229

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

amplexicaudatus.

Behaviour	Behavioural Unit	Description
Category		
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	Mutual grooming	Licking the body of the conspecifics.
behaviour		
	Play	Mock biting or mock wrestling with an
		absence of vocalization.
Negative social	Aggression	Aggressive vocalizations, wing shaking,
behaviour		chasing, biting, and/or fighting between
		individuals.
	Hang alert	They are hanging bipedally or
		monopedally with eyes open and ears
		moving.

Relaxed	Sleeping	Immobile, eyes closed, wings wrapped
behaviour		around the body.
	Hanging relax	Hanging bipedally or monopedally 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.

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233 Data Analysis

234 We found that none of our datasets conformed to the assumption of normal 235 distribution. We used the Mann-Whitney U test to compare whether there was a 236 significant difference in the frequency of incidents of behavioural units between the 237 aggregated and non-aggregated groups. A separate Kruskal-Wallis test was then 238 performed to test the difference in the frequency of incidents between behavioural 239 units between the aggregations. Subsequently, we used Kendall's τ-B correlation 240 analysis to examine the correlation of incident frequency in behavioural categories. 241 Furthermore, we constructed a separate complete Poisson generalized linear 242 regression (GLM) to predict the effects of aggregation and behavioural categories on 243 the frequency of incidence of positive and negative social behaviour of bats. We 244 included bat colony aggregation, frequency of incidence of sexual behaviour, self-245 maintenance, thermoregulation, and relaxed behaviour as explanatory variables. 246 All data and statistical analyses were performed using the open software

247Jamovi 2.3.22 (The Jamovi Project, 2023). Data visualizations were performed with248GraphPad Prism 9 (GraphPad Prism, 2022). Statistical significance was set at $p \le$

249 0.05. Data were presented as mean \pm standard deviation (SD) or 95% CI.

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251 *Ethical Considerations*

We adhered to all relevant international, national, and institutional regulations that govern the ethical treatment and use of animals under Philippine and Chinese law. We conformed to the protocols and guidelines established by the 255 Animal Behaviour Society (ABS) and the Association for the Study of Animal

256 Behaviour (ASAB) recommendations for animal handling in behavioural research

and teaching (ASAB Ethical Committee & ABS Animal Care Committee, 2022).

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259 Results

260 We analyzed a total of 59,400 seconds of observations from 99 male focal 261 individuals in Monfort Bat Cave (aggregated = 60; non-aggregated = 39). Our study 262 found a significant variation in the allocation of bat behavioural units in the time 263 budget between aggregations (Figure 2). Among aggregated colonies, sleeping was 264 the most frequent behaviour throughout the day (27.20%), while hanging relax was 265 more dominant among non-aggregated colonies (33.73%). Sleeping was the second 266 most frequent behaviour observed in non-aggregated colonies (24.73%). We found the highest difference between the aggregation in behavioural incidents in wing 267 flapping (93.57%) and aggression behaviour (89.32%) (Figure 2A). 268

269 We compared the differences in behavioural units between aggregated and 270 non-aggregated groups. We found that the five behavioural units differed 271 significantly between the aggregations (Figure 3). Aggregated groups (mean = $3.18 \pm$ 272 2.63) had a higher frequency of individual movement behaviour compared to the 273 non-aggregated groups (mean = 1.85 ± 1.65) (MWU test = 827.50, *p* = 0.01). 274 Aggregated bats (mean = 0.88 ± 1.15) were also more aggressive compared to those 275 in non-aggregated groups (mean = 0.03 ± 0.16) (MWU test = 626.50, *p* < .0001). 276 Aggregated colonies (mean = 0.37 ± 0.84) also had a higher incidence of dominant 277 wing flapping behaviour compared to non-aggregated colonies (mean = 0.03 ± 0.16) 278 (MWU test = 963, p = .01). Furthermore, the incident frequency of the behavioural 279 units differed significantly between the aggregated and non-aggregated colonies 280 (KW test, H = 460.5, *p* < 0.0001 and KW test, H = 327.4, *p* < 0.0001, respectively).



281 Figure 2. Comparison of the proportion of incident frequency of behavioural units

- 282 (A and B) and the correlation plot of behavioural categories throughout the day.
- 283 Each dot represents the correlation coefficient values.
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Figure 3. A graph shows the differences in the mean incident frequency between
colony aggregations (A) and behavioural units (B). Whiskers represent the 95% CI.



Figure 4. Correlation dot plot (Kendall's τ-B) showing the relationship among
behavioural units and time of the day in (a) aggregated and (b) non-aggregated
colonies of *R. amplexicaudatus*. Each dot represents the correlation coefficient values.

305 Although we did not find statistical significance in the correlation between 306 time of day and frequency of behavioural categories, we observed a contrasting 307 relationship in all behavioural categories except relaxation behaviour (Figure 4). For 308 example, aggregated colonies have increased thermoregulation, negative behaviour, 309 and less self-maintenance throughout the day. When comparing each colony group, 310 bats in the aggregated groups showed a positive and significant correlation between 311 self-maintenance and sexual behaviour (Kendall's τ -B = 0.341, *p* = 0.0022), while a 312 similar correlation pattern was observed in relaxation behaviour with self-313 maintenance (Kendall's τ -B = 0.267, *p* = 0.005), and positive social behaviour 314 (Kendall's τ -B = 0.262, p = 0.01) (**Figure 4A**). In the non-aggregated group sexual 315 behaviour was positively correlated with self-maintenance (Kendall's τ -B = 0.322, p = 316 0.0164), positive social behaviour (Kendall's τ -B = 0.384, *p* = 0.0082), and relaxation behaviour (Kendall's τ -B = 0.362, *p* = 0.0063). Furthermore, relaxation behaviour was 317

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- significantly and positively correlated with self-maintenance behaviour (Kendall's τ -B = 0.551, *p* < 0.0001) and positive social behaviour (Kendall's τ -B = 0.364, *p* = 0.0045)
- **320** (Figure 4B).

We constructed two separate Poisson generalized linear models (GLMs) to predict the frequency of occurrence of positive and negative social behaviour (**Table 2).** There was a significantly higher incidence of negative social behaviour in the aggregated colony ($\beta = 3.997$, p < 0.0001). Interestingly, we found that the increased frequency of incidents of sexual behaviour positively influenced positive social behaviour among bats ($\beta = 0.114$, p = 0.0097).

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328 Table 2. Results of the generalized linear model (GLM) predicting the effects of the

329 frequency of (A) positive social behaviour and (B) negative social behaviour with

colony aggregation and other behavioural categories. Values in bold are significant.

A. Positive social behaviour	β	SE	Lower	Upper	р
(Intercept)	0.106	0.103	-0.104	0.3	0.303
Aggregated (Non-aggregated)	0.278	0.204	-0.685	0.116	0.172
Sexual behaviour	0.114	0.044	0.025	0.198	0.010
Self-maintenance behaviour	-0.012	0.022	-0.057	0.030	0.590
Relaxation behaviour	0.084	0.020	0.044	0.124	<.0001
Thermoregulation behaviour	-0.211	0.149	-0.529	0.059	0.156
B. Negative social behaviour	β	SE	Lower	Upper	р
B. Negative social behaviour (Intercept)	β -1.694	SE 0.505	Lower -3.131	Upper -0.938	<i>p</i> 0.0008
B. Negative social behaviour (Intercept) Aggregated (Non-aggregated)	β -1.694 3.997	SE 0.505 1.012	Lower -3.131 2.476	Upper -0.938 6.873	<i>p</i> 0.0008 < .0001
B. Negative social behaviour(Intercept)Aggregated (Non-aggregated)Sexual behaviour	β -1.694 3.997 -0.126	SE 0.505 1.012 0.226	Lower -3.131 2.476 -0.612	Upper -0.938 6.873 0.27	<i>p</i> 0.0008 < .0001 0.578
B. Negative social behaviour (Intercept) Aggregated (Non-aggregated) Sexual behaviour Self-maintenance behaviour	β -1.694 3.997 -0.126 0.018	SE 0.505 1.012 0.226 0.041	Lower -3.131 2.476 -0.612 -0.065	Upper -0.938 6.873 0.27 0.096	<i>p</i> 0.0008 < .0001 0.578 0.657
 B. Negative social behaviour (Intercept) Aggregated (Non-aggregated) Sexual behaviour Self-maintenance behaviour Relaxation behaviour 	 β -1.694 3.997 -0.126 0.018 0.031 	SE 0.505 1.012 0.226 0.041 0.025	Lower -3.131 2.476 -0.612 -0.065 -0.018	Upper -0.938 6.873 0.27 0.096 0.078	<i>p</i> 0.0008 < .0001 0.578 0.657 0.204
B. Negative social behaviour (Intercept) Aggregated (Non-aggregated) Sexual behaviour Self-maintenance behaviour Relaxation behaviour Thermoregulation behaviour	β -1.694 3.997 -0.126 0.018 0.031 0.032	SE 0.505 1.012 0.226 0.041 0.025 0.129	Lower -3.131 2.476 -0.612 -0.065 -0.018 -0.238	Upper -0.938 6.873 0.27 0.096 0.078 0.272	<i>p</i> 0.0008 < .0001 0.578 0.657 0.204 0.807

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336 Discussion

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338 The effects of overcrowding on animal social behaviour are not well 339 established, especially in natural situations. Our study is the first attempt to 340 understand the differences and costs in behaviours between aggregated and non-341 aggregated groups of bats. Here, we demonstrate that individual bats showed 342 increased aggression, movement, and negative interactions within high-density 343 aggregations compared to those in non-aggregated groups. At the same time, 344 increased sexual behaviour was related to more positive interactions and increased 345 in less aggregated colonies. The variation we observed in bat diurnal activities in the 346 two groups suggests that animal social dynamics may shape the behaviour of these 347 male bats, with possible implications for individual health (Hengjan et al., 2017; 348 Manandhar et al., 2018).

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350 **Differences in behaviour**

Sleeping was the most frequently observed behaviour, comprising over a quarter of the total observed behaviour, and the frequency between the two groups and throughout the day was not significantly different, as this is a universally important activity for bats (Harding et al., 2022; Roy et al., 2020). The most key difference between the two aggregations can be indicated by the significant increased observation of negative behaviour including aggression, movement, and wing flapping in aggregated colonies compared to non-aggregated ones.

Hanging relax was more dominant in the non-aggregated than the aggregated group, indicating that solitary or loosely associated bats may exhibit a different energy allocation strategy, possibly involving increased vigilance to defend against potential threats (Harten et al., 2018; Kelm et al., 2021; Markus & Blackshaw, 2002). Sleep was the second most frequently observed behaviour in non-aggregated bat colonies (25% of their activities) (Harding et al., 2022; Lewis, 1996; Roy et al., 2020). Generally, the observed alertness in both aggregations can be associated with the 365 presence of aggressive predators in the bat cave, which prey on bats irrespective of 366 roosting density (Tanalgo et al., 2020). In a behavioural study of gulls, Beauchamp 367 (2009) observed that individuals even within a smaller group (i.e., less crowded) 368 were more likely to have interrupted sleeping bouts to scan their surroundings when 369 their neighbours were alert. This proposes that animals perceive threats similarly 370 and would 'copy' the vigilance of their neighbours, which can help them better 371 assess the risk of predation (Beauchamp, 2009).

372 The incidence of other active behaviours differed between aggregated and 373 non-aggregated colonies, particularly in wing flapping and aggressive behaviour. 374 Wing flapping in aggregated colonies showed a 94% difference versus non-375 aggregated. This difference in behaviour is likely associated with increased 376 temperatures due to heightened physical activity levels within large groups 377 attributed to individual proximity, potentially leading to increased interaction and 378 movement. Overcrowding increases colony temperature (Arends et al., 1995), and 379 the dominance of wing-flapping behaviour among bat individuals in more 380 aggregated colonies facilitates thermoregulation (Reher & Dausmann, 2021). 381 Aggregated colonies exhibited a significantly higher incidence of wing-flapping 382 behaviour, which is also used to assert dominance within a group and may be more 383 prevalent in densely populated aggregations with limited space (Beauchamp, 2007; 384 Kerth, 2008). Furthermore, aggregated groups exhibited a higher frequency of 385 individual movement than their non-aggregated counterparts, possibly due to 386 disturbing each other and being hotter and, therefore, uncomfortable (Hengjan et al., 387 2017; Ramanantsalama et al., 2019).

388

389 Intrinsic Correlations of Gregarious Bat Social Behaviour

In contrast to aggregated colonies, non-aggregated groups exhibited different
correlation patterns between times of day. Thermoregulation, negative behaviours,
and self-maintenance exhibited an increasing trend throughout the day. This may be
because bats in aggregated colonies may adjust their behaviour in response to a

394 change in daily ambient temperature, possibly to optimize thermoregulation and 395 self-maintenance, and given increased heat in larger-bodied bats, they may need to 396 work harder to stay cool as temperature increases (Czenze et al., 2020; Stones & 397 Wiebers, 1965). We observe a positive correlation between sexual, self-maintenance, 398 positive social, and relaxation behaviour, hinting that the animals in non-aggregated 399 colonies may prioritize positive activities throughout the day (Byerly et al., 2021). 400 This could be related to less crowded conditions in non-aggregated settings, 401 allowing bats to engage in social interactions.

402 We found that there is a positive and significant correlation between self-403 maintenance and sexual behaviour within aggregated groups. It may imply that 404 bats in these colonies allocate their energy resources strategically, as self-405 maintenance behaviour is crucial for individual health and reproductive success. A 406 similar correlation pattern was also observed in relaxation behaviour, suggesting a 407 potential connection between relaxation and energy conservation strategies (Luo et 408 al., 2021). Furthermore, the positive correlation between relaxation and 409 thermoregulation behaviour indicates that bats in aggregated colonies may alternate 410 between cooling down and resting (Becker et al., 2012; Komar et al., 2022). 411 Additionally, the positive correlation between relaxation behaviour and self-412 maintenance, as well as positive social behaviour, implies that bats in non-413 aggregated colonies might use relaxation to recharge and engage in social 414 interactions during their active hours, which could enhance their overall fitness and 415 well-being (Hengjan et al., 2017).

The increased aggression and negative behaviour pattern in overcrowded bat populations is consistent with the 'behavioural sink' hypothesis concept in social animals such as bats. Overcrowding leads to higher levels of aggression and stress. Such negative behaviours may not only impact individual well-being but can also have far-reaching consequences for the overall health of the bat colony and could perpetuate the spread of pathogens (Eby et al., 2023; Ruiz-Aravena et al., 2022). The high population density and proximity can increase competition for resources, such 423 as roosting sites and foraging opportunities, which may escalate social conflicts 424 within bat colonies (O'Connor et al., 2015), and drive negative interactions among 425 individuals (Dai et al., 2018; Fernandez et al., 2014; Holekamp & Strauss, 2016; 426 O'Connor et al., 2015). Previous observations of pigs showed that reducing the 427 space allotted per individual increases the frequency of aggressive interactions, 428 except during feeding, where the decrease in space primarily influenced the quality 429 of interactions (Ewbank & Bryant, 1972). Understanding the 'behavioural sink' 430 hypothesis in the context of bats and other social species is useful for conservation 431 efforts and population management, which highlights the importance of considering 432 habitat quality and resource availability but does not account for the impacts of over-433 population which may result from a loss of key resources, such as roosts. 434 Furthermore, when a group becomes overcrowded, individuals often face challenges 435 related to resource competition, increased stress, and restricted access to potential 436 mates. Such stressors can substantially affect bat immune systems and overall 437 health, potentially making them more susceptible to pathogen transmission (Hing et 438 al., 2016). Understanding the link between physiological stress and pathogen spread 439 is crucial because it provides insight into the health of bat populations and has 440 implications for human health (Moreno et al., 2021).

441 Another particularly interesting finding was the contrasting relationship 442 between the incidence of sexual behaviour and positive social behaviour. Positive 443 social behaviour could include grooming, affiliative interactions, or cooperative 444 behaviours. Sexual behaviour can be regulated within the colony to minimize 445 conflict and maintain overall social harmony (Alves et al., 2013). Additionally, 446 sexual behaviour may act as a bonding mechanism, fostering cooperation and 447 coordination among individuals (Díaz-Muñoz et al., 2014; King et al., 2021). For example, Tan et al. (2017) found that fellatio among short-nosed fruit bats Cynopterus 448 449 sphinx facilitates a longer copulation time during sexual activities. Similar 450 behaviours were observed among colonies of the Indian flying fox Pteropus giganteus, 451 showing that oral sex increases positive sexual behaviour; however, the same-sex

452 interactions have not been well explored in bats but play roles in bonding in other 453 social mammals (Vasey et al., 2007; Archie et al., 2014). Maintaining sexual 454 behaviour within an overcrowded group of bats may have implications for 455 maintaining reproductive success within the population (Maruthupandian & 456 Marimuthu, 2013; Tan et al., 2009). Understanding the mechanisms by which sexual 457 behaviour influences positive social behaviour could have important implications for 458 our comprehension of the evolution of social behaviours in bats and other social 459 animals.

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462 Limitations and Conclusions

This is the first study to compare bat behaviour with different roost densities 463 464 in their natural roosting habitat. Bats in aggregated colonies displayed a higher aggression level than those in non-aggregated groups. These findings highlight the 465 466 importance of understanding social interactions within bat colonies, as increased 467 movement and increased aggressive behaviour could be attributed to resource 468 acquisition, space competition, or territorial disputes within the confines of the 469 aggregation (Hengjan et al., 2017; Kilgour & Brigham, 2013a; Ramanantsalama et al., 470 2019). For example, Big brown bats (Eptesicus fuscus) exhibited higher levels of 471 aggression within groups, which were associated with improved competitive 472 abilities for resources (Kilgour & Brigham, 2013b).

473 However, our current methods present limitations, including a greater 474 understanding of the role of hormones and the influences of predator presence and 475 other ecological factors in predicting social behaviour (Allen et al., 2011; Reeder et 476 al., 2004). In addition, a deeper exploration of the ecological and evolutionary 477 consequences of these behavioural differences is also essential. For example, 478 understanding how increased aggression in aggregated colonies affects mating 479 success, individual health, resource utilization, and overall colony dynamics can 480 provide valuable insights into bat ecology and conservation.

481 In conclusion, our work highlights the nuanced impacts of overcrowding in 482 shaping the interplay of bat behaviour. The observed differences in behavioural 483 units and incident frequencies between aggregated and non-aggregated groups 484 emphasize the need for a holistic understanding of bat behaviour that considers 485 individual and group dynamics. Recognizing the connection between bat social 486 behaviour and roosting site conservation has several implications for conservation 487 efforts. First, it emphasizes the importance of preserving roosting sites, not just as 488 physical locations but as social hubs for bat communities; furthermore, it 489 underscores that overcrowding has negative implications for bat colonies. Bats 490 usually choose particular roosting locations and conditions influenced by various 491 ecological factors, with safety being one of them (Lima et al., 2005; Lima & O'Keefe, 492 2013). Conservationists can prioritize the protection of these sites to ensure the 493 continued well-being of bat populations (Meierhofer et al., 2023; Tanalgo et al., 2022). 494 More importantly, we highlight the importance of recognizing the link between 495 understanding bat social behaviour and the conservation of roosting sites, 496 underscoring the need to consider roost behaviour and a nuanced approach to bat 497 conservation, significantly as loss or disturbance of roosts may drive overcrowding 498 at remaining sites.

499 Furthermore, our findings raise the question of how these patterns may be 500 influenced by environmental factors or social structure within bat colonies. Our 501 study highlights the intricate relationship between bat aggregation, social behaviour, 502 and the role of sexual behaviour in shaping these interactions and the positive and 503 negative impacts that may occur as a result of overcrowding. Based on our findings, 504 we also propose exploration in future studies, particularly of the drivers of bat 505 aggregations in caves. The absence of apparent anthropogenic disturbance 506 surrounding the cave has potentially increased the population of bats (i.e., spillover 507 effects), consequently increasing predator recruitment (Tanalgo et al., 2020). To deter 508 predators, we hypothesize that bats adopt a 'many-eye' behavioural strategy to 509 collectively survey and monitor their environment for any signs of imminent danger

510	from predators, and this may be particularly important on the edges of roosts when
511	exposed to additional predators (such as crows) (Lima, 1995; Lima & O'Keefe, 2013).
512	Future research can build on these findings to explore the underlying mechanisms
513	and external factors influencing these observed associations, providing a more
514	comprehensive understanding of social behaviour in bat populations.
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