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1 Benign effects of logging on aerial insectivorous bats in Southeast

2 Asia revealed by remote sensing technologies

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26 Abstract

27	1.	Logging is the most widespread disturbance in tropical forests, altering ecological
28		communities and functions. However, many species can persist in logged forests,
29		particularly where disturbance is low. Despite a growing understanding of how
30		logging effects wildlife, there remains little information for Southeast Asia's bats
31		– in part due to major challenges in monitoring.

- 2. We integrated remote sensing data from passive acoustic bat detectors with LiDAR-derived measures of forest structure from a human-modified landscape in Sabah, Borneo. Our appraisal of logging effects benefitted from a semi-automated classifier of bat calls that vastly speeds up the analysis of acoustic recording data. We recorded 105,576 bat passes from 21 phonic groups across a habitat disturbance gradient, comprising old-growth forest, repeatedly logged forest, and tree plantations.
- 39 3. We show that logging pressure (as depicted by changes to habitat quality e.g. 40 canopy height or shape) had negligible impact on the acoustic activity of bats. 41 However, bat activity was higher in areas with a greater extent of high-biomass forest, as well as areas with greater topographical ruggedness. Logged forest 42 supported higher levels of activity for several common bat phonic groups 43 44 compared to old-growth forest. Across the landscape, plantations supported the 45 lowest levels of bat activity, representing a three-fold decrease compared to old-46 growth forest, and several species were not recorded in this habitat.
- 47 4. We found different call groups demonstrated different responses to forest
 48 disturbance. Sheath-tailed bats (*Emballonura* spp.) were active across all habitat
 49 types and were the most resilient to logging. Edge/open foragers were more
 50 prevalent in highly forested and topographically-rugged areas. Horseshoe and

- Running title: The effects of logging on bats in Southeast Asia
- 51 leaf-nosed bats (flutter clutter foragers) demonstrated idiosyncratic responses to
 52 logging but were consistently absent from plantations.
- 53 5. *Synthesis and applications.* Logged forests can provide an important refuge for 54 many common bat species in Southeast Asia, but do not capture the full breadth 55 of forest-specialist species. Nevertheless, logged forests provide substantially 56 better habitat for bats than tree plantations. While aerial insectivorous bats 57 sampled via acoustic methods are poor indicators of forest disturbance overall, 58 several species that respond predictably to logging could be targeted for 59 biodiversity monitoring using acoustic and capture-based methods.
- 60

Keywords: Chiroptera; Southeast Asia; acoustic monitoring; land-use change, biodiversity;
remote sensing

Graphical abstract



65 Introduction

Tropical forests provide valuable habitat for some of the highest levels of biodiversity in the world, while contributing to the livelihoods of millions of people (Edwards, Tobias, et al., 2014; Meijaard et al., 2005; Putz et al., 2012). Logging is the most widespread disturbance in these globally-important ecosystems (Blaser et al., 2011; Costantini et al., 2016). As tropical forests continue to be logged, and often converted for other land-uses (primarily agriculture), it is important to understand how these developments could impact biodiversity.

72 Logged forests are increasingly recognised for their ecological vibrancy and habitat value for 73 wildlife (Malhi et al., 2022). A pantropical meta-analysis comprising 48 studies showed lightly logged forests (e.g. $< 10 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$) support more species of mammals, amphibians, and 74 75 invertebrates than old-growth forests (Burivalova et al., 2014). However, logging disturbance 76 is not uniform. The extent of disturbance - and hence impact on biodiversity - depends on the 77 number of logging cycles, logging intensity, and extraction techniques (Bicknell et al., 2014). 78 Light Detection and Ranging (LiDAR) remote sensing provides valuable data that can be used 79 to study forest ecosystems and track the degradation caused by logging. Studies utilising 80 LiDAR-derived data have shown how logging impacts the structure of tropical forest by 81 reducing above-ground biomass and canopy height, while increasing canopy gap area 82 (d'Oliveira et al., 2012; Kent et al., 2015; Rangel Pinagé et al., 2019). While logging can be 83 much less detrimental to the ecosystem than the conversion of forest to other land uses (Malhi 84 et al., 2022), it can still cause substantial population declines among specialist taxa (Burivalova et al., 2014; Thorn et al., 2018). 85

Despite an extensive literature on the effects of logging on biodiversity, there have been relatively few studies on tropical bats (Meyer et al., 2016). This is important because bats represent the second most diverse mammalian order, with over 1,400 species globally (Simmons & Cirranello, 2021). In Borneo, bats represent 40% of the mammal diversity (Payne, 2000). Bats also provide valuable ecosystem services as seed dispersers, pollinators,

91 and suppressors of insect populations (Kunz et al., 2011), and are considered important 92 bioindicators of ecosystem health (Jones et al. 2009). Presley et al. (2008) outlined three 93 potential demographic responses for bats in logged forests: (1) common species remain 94 common but decrease in abundance; (2) common species decline in abundance, becoming rare 95 in logged forests; or (3) rare species are locally absent from logged forest. To date, logging-96 effect studies have found that bat responses to forest change are highly variable between different ensembles of species, particularly dietary guilds (Bicknell et al., 2015; Castro et al., 97 98 2021; Castro-Arellano et al., 2009; Clarke et al., 2005; Presley et al., 2008). Small, common 99 phytophagous species (i.e. frugivorous and nectarivorous species) that rely on pioneering 100 plants for foraging opportunities often respond positively to logging disturbance (Clarke et al., 101 2005; Presley et al., 2008). On the other hand, larger, insectivorous or animalivorous 102 phyllostomid species are more vulnerable to logging, as well as habitat disturbance more 103 generally, and experience declines in diversity and abundance (Brändel et al., 2020; Clarke et 104 al., 2005; Farneda et al., 2015).

105 The study of bats in tropical regions has been restricted by limitations in sampling techniques. 106 To fully sample a community and thus avoid biases in taxonomic and ecological coverage, bat 107 surveys require a combination of survey methods (Appel et al., 2021) – a challenge that is amplified in species diverse tropical regions. Live-capture methods (e.g., mist-netting or harp 108 trapping) are most effective for sampling understorey bats, while acoustic methods tend to be 109 110 better for monitoring those foraging in less cluttered environments, which rely on echolocation 111 for navigation (e.g. above the canopy, in forest gaps). However, to date most logging-effect 112 studies involving tropical bats have relied on live-capture techniques (Meyer et al., 2016). The 113 majority have been undertaken in the American tropics where mist-netting is more effective 114 at capturing a larger portion of the overall bat community (e.g., Bicknell et al., 2015; Castro 115 et al., 2021; Castro-Arellano et al., 2009; Clarke et al., 2005). Far fewer studies have been 116 undertaken in the Asian and African tropics as the bat fauna is dominated by aerial 117 insectivorous species (i.e. those that use ultrasonic calls for orientation and foraging insect

118 prey), which are poorly represented using nets (Castro & Michalski, 2014; Meyer et al., 2016). 119 Capture-based studies in Southeast Asia have demonstrated that logging affects bat 120 community composition, reduces species richness, and causes abundance declines (Danielsen 121 & Heegaard, 1995; Christine et al., 2013; Zubaid, 1993). The most comprehensive logging 122 study involving bats in the region used harp traps to characterise bat assemblages across a 123 habitat disturbance gradient, comparing old-growth forest to logged forest areas that had 124 undergone various extraction cycles (Struebig et al. 2013). There was no discernible effect of 125 logging on bat species richness, but species composition differed between old-growth and 126 repeatedly logged forest sites - mirroring patterns observed in the American tropics (Castro-Arellano et al., 2009; Clarke et al., 2005). Nevertheless, there remain large gaps in our 127 128 understanding of bat responses to logging simply because many species are poorly represented 129 in traps and nets. More research is needed to determine how different logging disturbances impact echolocating aerial insectivorous species in tropical regions (Mever et al., 2016). 130

131 Here, we explore the effects of logging on bat activity and assemblage structure along a 132 disturbance gradient from old-growth forest through forest logged multiple times, and 133 plantations. Our study is based in Sabah, Malaysian Borneo, in a landscape with a long legacy 134 of logging (cumulative extraction rates between 150 and 179 m^3 ha⁻¹) (Struebig et al., 2013). As 72% of Borneo's bat species are echolocating insectivores (Phillipps & Phillipps, 2016), 135 we use acoustic monitoring coupled with a new classification algorithm as an unintrusive 136 137 alternative to traditional capture methods. We examine how aerial insectivorous bats respond 138 to landscape changes using airborne LiDAR of forest metrics. Specifically, we sought to use 139 remote sensing technologies to characterise (i) community composition, and (ii) bat activity 140 in each disturbance type, while also (iii) assessing possible relationships between habitat 141 extent and quality and bat activity.

143 Materials and methods

144 Study area and sampling design

145 Fieldwork was undertaken within the Kalabakan and Ulu Segama Forest Reserves in and around the Stability of Altered Forest Ecosystems Project (SAFE; www.safeproject.net) 146 147 (443'N, 117°35'E) in Sabah, Malaysian Borneo (Figure 1). The landscape is characterised by 148 lowland and hill dipterocarp forest, which was initially logged in the 1970s followed by two 149 rotations in the late 1990s and early 2000s. The Ulu Segama forest was left to recover ('twice-150 logged forest'; 3 sampling blocks; LFE, LF2, LF3) (Supplementary Table S1). However, in 151 Kalabakan the forest was subject to salvage logging - the removal of all commercially valuable trees - with the exception of some forest patches set aside for scientific research and 152 153 conservation purposes ('heavily logged forest'; 6 blocks; A-F). This highly disturbed forest 154 has a high density of roads and skids, few emergent trees, and is dominated by pioneer and 155 invasive vegetation (Struebig et al., 2013). The landscape adjoins ca. 1 million ha of 156 continuous forest, including old-growth forest in Maliau Basin Conservation Area ('Old 157 Growth Forest'; 2 blocks; OG2, OG3). The forest is surrounded by a mosaic of tree plantations 158 - mostly oil palm Elaeis guineensis Jacq., but also Acacia Acacia mangium Willd. ('Tree 159 Plantation; 1 block; AC1) planted around the year 2000.

160

161 Defining the forest disturbance gradient

Logging activity varied substantially over the landscape. To characterise the resulting structural disturbance to forests, we utilised airborne light detection and ranging (LiDAR) products to quantify the extent (i.e., habitat quantity) and structure (i.e., habitat quality) of forest, and hence define a disturbance gradient around our sampling sites. LiDAR metrics were produced in November 2014 from a Leica ALS50-II sensor (Jucker *et al.*, 2018). The LiDAR metrics were processed from raw point clouds by Swinfield *et al.* (2020), who removed noise points, and delineated a digital terrain model from ground points. By

subtracting the terrain model, point clouds were normalised and a pit-free canopy height model
and plant area density profile was produced. Subsequent LiDAR metrics were then generated
from these two models at 30 m resolution.

172 To delineate forest extent, we utilised information on aboveground vegetation biomass 173 (AGB), which was calculated via a Borneo-specific model (see Jucker et al. 2018 for full 174 details). We applied a threshold to the AGB maps above which cells were classified as Forest, 175 and below which cells were classified as Non-Forest, to estimate ForestExtent around sample 176 sites (i.e. a measure of habitat quantity; binary; Forest vs Non-Forest). This definition of forest 177 excluded areas of plantation and highly degraded young regenerating forest, and was defined as vegetation biomass ≥ 160 t ha⁻¹ (i.e. equivalent to above-ground carbon ≥ 75 tCha⁻¹; Martin 178 179 and Thomas, 2011) following the High Carbon Stock Approach (HCS; The HCS Approach 180 Toolkit, 2017). We chose a more conservative forest categorisation, as areas < 160 t ha⁻¹ 181 biomass were subject to salvage logging and therefore, more closely resemble areas of scrub.

182 We also extracted two measures of forest structure as proxies of habitat quality: mean canopy 183 height (CanopyHeight; a continuous variable) and shape (Shape; continuous; morphological 184 measurement of the ratio of canopy height to the maximum plant area density above ground), 185 an area with a low Shape value would be characterised by a dense upper canopy with little 186 understorey (Jucker et al., 2018; Swinfield et al., 2020). There is little research regarding bats 187 and LiDAR metrics, but Shape is known to be an important predictor of other forest-dependent 188 mammal species (Deere et al., 2020). In addition to CanopyHeight, average topographic 189 ruggedness (Topography; continuous) has been shown to be an important predictor for bat 190 occurrence in the project area (Mullin et al., 2020). Therefore, we also included *Topography* 191 using 1 arc-second (ca. 30 m resolution) Shuttle Radar Topography Mission digital elevation model (Farr et al., 2007), converted using a topographic ruggedness index, according to 192 193 Wilson et al. (2007).

195 Acoustic sampling, processing, and bat identification

196 Bats were recorded using SongMeter-2 automated recorders (Wildlife Acoustics) fitted with 197 an omnidirectional ultrasonic SMX-US microphone between April and May 2011 and April 198 and June 2012 (Supplementary Table S1). Recorders were stationed across 47 sample points 199 at 1.5-2.0 m height above ground (one per site) and set to record nightly bat activity (18:15-200 06:15) between one and three consecutive nights. These sample points were designed to target 201 the mid-storey, rather than the cluttered understorey. Each recorder was set to record by 202 triggers of high frequency sounds appropriate for echolocating bats in the region (sampling 203 rate 384 kHz, 16-bit resolution; high pass filter 12 kHz (fs/32); trigger level 18 signal to noise 204 ratio; gain 12 dB).

205 All pre-processing of recordings was undertaken using Kaleidoscope v.5.1.9g software 206 (Wildlife Acoustics, 2019-05-30) following procedures outlined in Yoh et al. (2022). Files 207 were divided into 5-second long sequences with a minimum of two individual pulses to define 208 a bat pass as a unit of activity, e.g. number of events per time interval (Torrent et al., 2018). 209 While this does not necessarily provide a measure of bat abundance (as it does not determine 210 the number of individual bats), it provides a discrete count of activity which can be compared 211 across sites (Plan, 2014). Calls were automatically assigned to call type, phonic group (a group 212 of species with indistinguishable calls; López-Baucells et al., 2021), or species, and any calls 213 that failed to meet specific confidence thresholds were manually verified (Yoh et al., 2022). 214 Through this process, calls were first identified to one of four call types (Supplementary Figure 215 1): frequency modulated (hereafter referred to as 'active clutter foragers'; FM), constant 216 frequency ('flutter clutter foragers'; CF), frequency modulated quasi constant frequency 217 ('edge/open foragers'; FMqCF), and quasi-constant frequency ('Emballonura 218 alecto/monticola'; QCF; Simmons & Cirranello, 2021). Those identified as an edge/open 219 foragers were automatically classified further to one of six phonic groups. Calls classified as 220 flutter clutter foragers were further differentiated to 17 species or phonic groups.

221 The classifier identified 158,563 files containing bat passes. Of these files, 71,482 included 222 bat passes that required manual verification. All bat passes that did not meet the specified 223 confidence thresholds (26351 out of 71482), excluding those for active clutter foragers, were 224 manually identified in Kaleidoscope Viewer by a single researcher (NY) to reduce potential 225 bias. Active clutter foragers represented the largest proportion of files to be manually verified 226 (45131 files). We checked 50% of active clutter forager bat passes and found this call type 227 was easily mistaken for environmental noise at low confidence and fewer than 1% contained 228 true bat passes. Therefore, we discarded active clutter forager calls that did not meet the 229 confidence threshold. Activity (the sum of bat passes per phonic group/species) was averaged by sampling effort (number of nights per site). 230

231

232 Statistical analysis

233 Bat community composition and habitat association

234 We used non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordinations based on Bray-Curtis 235 dissimilarity coefficients of log₁₀-transformed bat activity data to determine whether the structure of bat communities reflected the various habitat type or the disturbance gradient. 236 237 Data were log-transformed to prevent skew from more active species. One phonic group 238 (Hipposideros cineraceus/dyacorum) was removed from the analysis as it was only recorded 239 on a single occasion. Ordinations were based on 9999 permutations in the R package "vegan" 240 (Oksanen et al., 2020) specifying two dimensions. We used PERMANOVA from the package 241 "RVAideMemoire" (Hervé, 2021) to test for differences in bat community composition 242 between habitats.

To determine if there were differences in bat activity between forest sites and tree plantations, we first compared activity between habitats using Kruskal-Wallis tests followed by Dunn posthoc tests (Dinno, 2015). Tests were implemented separately for each call type and also for

overall levels of bat activity, and all *p*-values were adjusted using the Benjamini-Hochberg
method to account for the risk of false positives in call detection (Haynes, 2013).

248 To determine if there was a relationship between habitat covariates and bat activity, we 249 constructed Generalized Additive Models for Location, Scale and Shape (GAMLSS) -250 appropriate for the Weibull distribution of the data (Goodness-of-fit test for the Weibull 251 distribution correlation = 0.984, p = 0.069) (Stasinopoulos et al., 2020) - using the "GAMLSS" 252 package. We also chose GAMLSS over other models as we expected the response variable to 253 exhibit a non-linear relationship in response to predictor variables (Stasinopoulos et al., 2020). 254 LiDAR datasets were not available for tree plantation sites and so were omitted from these 255 analyses. All covariates (ForestExtent, CanopyHeight, Shape and Topography) were extracted 256 from a 100m circular buffer around each site location. Habitat type (*HabitatType*; categorical; 257 three levels) was also included to assess if there were differences in activity not explained by 258 the other measures of habitat quality or extent. We centred and scaled continuous covariates 259 to one unit standard deviation and assessed for collinearity using Pearson correlation coefficient. This revealed a high level of correlation among covariates (Pearson $r = \geq 0.7$), 260 261 and we therefore excluded highly-correlated covariates from appearing in the same model. 262 We specified GAMLSS with an effect parameterisation, specifying old-growth forest as the fixed intercept and reference class from which to compare twice-logged forest and heavily 263 264 logged forest. We fitted separate global models for total bat activity, call type, and the four 265 dominant phonic types. We then used the dredge function from the "MumIn" package to fit 266 all possible model combinations. After inspecting the final models for goodness of fit using 267 residual diagnostics (Burnham & Anderson, 2002), we then model-averaged coefficient values 268 across the best preforming models ($\Delta AIC < 2$; Supplementary Table S2). All analysis was 269 performed using R version 4.1.1 (2021-08-10) statistical software (R Core Team, 2017).

271 **Results**

From our data of remotely-sensed bat activity, we identified 105576 bat passes from 21 phonic 272 273 types across the landscape. More than 76% of all bat activity was represented by five phonic 274 groups: Emballonura alecto/monticola (18.6% of calls), Sonotype 6 (17.3%), Rhinolophus 275 sedulus (15.1%), Sonotype 5 (13.2%), and Rhinolophus trifoliatus (12.2%; Table 1). Two 276 phonic groups (H. cineraceus/dyacorum and Rhinolophus philippinensis) were only recorded 277 in heavily logged forest, once and on three occasions respectively. For activity, the 278 composition of the top five phonic groups were similar across habitats, consisting mostly of 279 common generalist species. Sonotype 6 and *E. alecto/monticola* were among the top five most 280 active phonic groups across all habitat types (Table 1).

- 281 **Table 1.** Total bat passes per sonotype or species in each habitat along the disturbance gradient. For each habitat type, relative bat passes (total bat passes/total
- nights surveyed) are provided in brackets for comparison. Detection range represents the distance at which a bat pass is likely to be detected and is represented
- by three classes, Short (1-3m), Intermediate (3-10m), or Long (10-20m). Detection range is determined by call shape, call frequency, and call intensity.

	Datastian	Bat Activity					
	Detection	Old-growth	Twice-logged	Heavily logged			
	range	forest	forest	forest	Tree Plantation		
Total nights surveyed		23	36	73	12		
Total detector sites		8	12	23	4		
Active clutter foragers (FM)	Short	628	1988	2556	49		
(e.g., <i>Kerivoula</i> spp.)		(27.3)	(55.2)	(35.0)	(4.1)		
Flutter clutter bats (CF)							
Hipposideros cineraceus/dyacorum	Short	0	0	1	0		
				(< 0.1)			
Hipposideros cervinus	Short	5	54	9	22		
		(0.2)	(1.5)	(0.1)	(1.8)		
Hipposideros diadema	Short	248	36	33	7		
		(10.8)	(1.0)	(0.5)	(0.6)		

Hipposideros galeritus	Short	37	162	36	5
		(1.6)	(4.5)	(0.5)	(0.4)
Hipposideros ridleyi	Intermediate	3	3	0	0
		(0.1)	(0.1)		
Rhinolophus acuminatus	Intermediate	229	165	262	91
		(10.0)	(4.6)	(3.6)	(7.6)
Rhinolophus affinis	Intermediate	0	0	2	2
				(< 0.1)	(0.2)
Rhinolophus borneensis	Intermediate	68	822	143	1
		(3.0)	(22.8)	(2.0)	(0.1)
Rhinolophus creaghi	Intermediate	1	443	4	8
		(< 0.1)	(12.3)	(0.1)	(0.1)
Rhinolophus luctus	Intermediate	503	80	181	5
		(21.9)	(2.2)	(2.5)	(0.4)
Rhinolophus philippinensis	Intermediate	0	0	3	0
				(< 0.1)	
Rhinolophus sedulous	Intermediate	196	9558	6069	86
		(8.5)	(265.5)	(83.1)	(7.2)
Rhinolophus trifoliatus	Intermediate	1703	1611	9542	42
		(74.0)	(44.8)	(130.7)	(3.5)

Edge/open foragers (FMqCF)

Sonotype 1	Intermediate	10	39	271	95
		(0.4)	(1.1)	(3.7)	(7.9)
Sonotype 2	Intermediate	241	6151	980	108
(e.g., Hesperoptenus blanfordi)		(10.5)	(170.9)	(1.3)	(9.0)
Sonotype 3	Long	2373	504	2053	100
(e.g., Pipistrellus stenopterus)		(103.2)	(14.0)	(28.1)	(8.3)
Sonotype 4	Intermediate	770	302	499	534
(e.g., Glischropus tylopus)		(3.3)	(8.9)	(6.8)	(44.5)
Sonotype 5	Intermediate	3911	2883	6180	961
(e.g., Myotis muricola)		(170.0)	(80.1)	(84.7)	(80.1)
Sonotype 6	Long	9249	775	7019	1256
(e.g., Chaerephon plicatus)		(402.1)	(21.5)	(96.2)	(104.7)
	Intermediate	2590	4634	12410	463
Emballonura alecto/monticola (QCF)		(112.6)	(128.7)	(170.0)	(38.6)

285 Bat community composition and association with habitats

The NMDS ordination of bat activity revealed substantial variation in taxonomic composition across the landscape and overlap between the various habitat types (Figure 2). The greatest variation occurred among twice-logged sites and the least among tree plantation sites. Across the landscape, there was a significant difference in bat community composition between habitats (PERMANOVA: $R^2 = 0.17$, p = 0.003), driven by differences between the heavily logged forest and the twice-logged forest (pairwise comparisons p = 0.02).

292 We found significant differences in bat activity between habitats, for total activity (H(3) =293 10.126, p = 0.018) and for each call type (active clutter foragers - H(3) = 25.483, p < 0.001; 294 flutter clutter foragers - H(3) = 45.251, p < 0.001; edge/open foragers - H(3) = 15.763, p =295 0.001; *Emballonura* spp. activity - H(3) = 10.039, p = 0.018) (Figure 3). Activity for all call 296 types was lower in the plantations compared to forest (Supplementary Table S3; Figure 3). 297 GAMLSS analyses revealed that bat activity levels were similar amongst the three forest types 298 (old-growth forest, twice-logged forest, heavily logged forest; Figures 3-4). Overall bat 299 activity was positively associated with *ForestExtent* but was not associated with any measure 300 of habitat quality or Topography (Figure 4). The activity of edge/open foragers was also 301 positively associated with *ForestExtent* as well as *Topography*. Both edge/open foragers and 302 active clutter foragers were positively associated with *Topography*. Active clutter foragers 303 were the only call type to show a significant difference between habitat types, and neither 304 flutter clutter forager activity nor *Emballonura* spp. activity exhibited a response to any habitat 305 covariate. We found differences between the responses of individual phonic groups and these 306 did not reflect responses at the call type level (Figure 5).

307

308 **Discussion**

309 Pairing a semi-automated classifier of bat calls with LiDAR-derived forest structural metrics, 310 we found little evidence that logging disturbance negatively affected the composition of aerial 311 insectivorous bat communities. Although we observed some differences in the bat community 312 between twice-logged forest and heavily logged forest, neither of these disturbed forests differed significantly from old-growth forest in terms of bat composition. Although bats 313 314 persisted in highly disturbed logged forests, bat activity declined in tree plantations and several 315 species/phonic groups were not recorded in this habitat. These findings support previous 316 studies of other vertebrate groups that show logged forests support many forest species 317 compared to tree plantations, such as oil palm and acacia (Edwards, et al., 2014; Gibson et al., 318 2011). Species most adversely affected by logging tend to have narrow niche breadth and are 319 adapted to the stable conditions usually found in the forest interior – as exemplified for 320 animalivorous bats (Presley et al., 2008) and understorey birds (Hamer et al., 2014). These 321 include species dependent on old-growth trees for feeding or nesting (including cavity-nesting 322 birds and saproxylic insects), large-bodied/long-lived species with low fecundity, 323 insectivorous/animalivorous species, or target species for poachers (Bicknell & Peres, 2010; 324 Costantini et al., 2016; Edwards et al., 2014; Thorn et al., 2018).

325 Logging pressure (e.g. as reflected by timber extraction rate) is an important determinant of 326 logging impacts on biodiversity (Bicknell et al., 2014; Burivalova et al., 2014). Although high 327 numbers of species are reported from twice-logged tropical forests (Putz et al., 2012), further 328 logging deteriorates habitat conditions to such an extent that forest-specialist species decline 329 and taxa associated with forest edges or gaps proliferate to take their place (Cleary et al., 2007; 330 Edwards et al., 2014). In contrast, we found no relationship between the forest quality (Shape, 331 *CanopyHeight*) and bat activity, suggesting that the logging pressure in our study system did 332 not reduce habitat value, at least for common bat phonic groups. Unlike previous studies of 333 riparian forest remnants in the landscape (Mullin et al., 2020), we found habitat extent was 334 more important than measures of habitat quality for determining bat activity. However, we 335 utilised a more conservative measure of forest extent based on LiDAR data that represents

high-quality forest and as such, excludes young regenerating forests in the landscape. Therefore, our findings suggest forest management should aim to maintain forest with aboveground carbon \geq 75 tCha-1 to ensure sufficient habitat quality to support Southeast Asian bat communities. More fine-scale research is needed to better assess the relationship between changes to understorey structure and bat activity, particularly for forest-specialists.

341 Species adapted to foraging in more open spaces, such as sheath-tailed bats (E. 342 *alecto/monticola*), were the most resilient to disturbance, as reflected by comparable levels of 343 activity within plantations and old-growth forest. Edge/open foragers also maintained similar 344 activity levels in plantations, but this was positively associated with the availability of good 345 quality habitat, as determined by greater forest extent. Bats of all other call types declined 346 substantially in tree plantations or were not detected at all in this habitat. We observed one of 347 the demographic responses outlined by Presley et al. (2008) – the decline of rare species in 348 logged forests. For example, H. ridlevi (a forest-specialist species classified as Vulnerable by 349 the IUCN, 2022) was absent from both the heavily logged forest and tree plantations, though 350 persisted in twice-logged forest. However, we also observed positive demographic responses 351 to logging. Several common phonic groups were recorded much more frequently and at higher 352 activity levels in logged forest compared to old growth, in line with findings from peninsular 353 Malaysia (Christine et al., 2013). Positive responses to logging have also been observed for 354 terrestrial mammals in the same study system (Wearn et al., 2017). We, therefore, suggest an 355 additional demographic response - namely that common species remain common and increase 356 in abundance.

Overall levels of bat activity provided a poor representation of how each call type and taxon responded to habitat disturbance. Edge/open forager activity was dominated by two phonic groups (Sonotype 5 and 6) which together constitute 67% of activity for this call type. Overall, edge/open forager activity was positively associated with increased habitat extent and topography ruggedness. However, it is unclear which phonic group drives the relationship at the call type level as neither phonic group exhibited a relationship between habitat extent or

363 topography. Different flutter clutter forager species indicated different susceptibility to 364 logging disturbance, as indicated by changes in their activity. This aligns with the known 365 ecology of this group. Unlike edge/open foragers, flutter clutter foragers include forest specialist taxa, as well as species adapted to more disturbed areas, such as forest edge/gaps 366 367 (Furey & Racey, 2016; Kingston, 2013; Table S4). Therefore, it is to be expected that there would be more heterogeneity between the responses of species in this call type compared to 368 369 more ecologically similar species in the other call types. *Rhinolopus sedulus* and *R. trifoliatus* 370 collectively represented 89% of activity for this call type and exhibited contrasting responses 371 to logging, consistent with those observed by Struebig et al. (2013). Repeated logging cycles 372 reduce roosting opportunities for some forest species, such as woodpeckers, squirrels and bats. 373 As such, forest-roosting species are considered to be more susceptible to logging disturbance 374 than those that dwell elsewhere (Costantini, Edwards and Simons 2016; Struebig et al. 2013). 375 When interpreting the results of our study it is important to consider that there are several 376 factors that can influence the likelihood of detecting species acoustically. These include 377 differences in environmental conditions (e.g., structural clutter, microclimate) and call 378 characteristics between species (e.g., call intensity, peak frequency) (Russo et al., 2018; Table 379 1). Therefore, the relative sampling area will differ between sites and species. Low-intensity, 380 high-frequency calls typical of active clutter foragers (e.g., woolly bats Kerivoula spp.) remain 381 difficult to detect and record, particularly in complex, understorey vegetation (Kingston, 2013; 382 Russo et al., 2018). Considering only acoustic surveys, we found that logging appeared to 383 positively influence the activity of forest-specialist, active clutter foragers. However, capture 384 studies using harp traps demonstrate these same taxa are highly sensitive to logging and forest 385 fragmentation (Kingston et al. 2003; Struebig et al. 2008; Struebig et al. 2013). We are 386 therefore mindful that our study alone does not fully capture the responses of all bats in the 387 study system to habitat change. However, we demonstrate acoustic monitoring and semiautomated classification of calls to be effective at surveying a large subset of the overall bat 388 389 community that cannot be reliably sampled with capture methods, but ultimately data from

both trapping and acoustic monitoring should be used to account for biases across surveymethods.

392 Logging intensity across our logged sites was highly variable (e.g., the cumulative extraction rate for the twice logged forest = $150 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ and heavily logged forest = $179 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$; Struebig 393 394 et al., 2013). However, these rates are very high compared to those found in logging impact 395 studies from the African and American tropics (Burivalova et al., 2014). Therefore, both 396 logging categories represent high intensity logging regimes. Further research could investigate 397 the potential for conservation initiatives, such as reduced-impact logging, to benefit forest-398 specialist bats in these landscapes. While there were 2-3 years between the acoustic sampling 399 (2011/2012) and the LiDAR coverage (2014), there was no logging disturbance in the forests 400 in that period. So, while we cannot rule out other potential influences to the forest or bat 401 community in that interval (e.g. inter-annual climatic variation), we assume that structural 402 changes (e.g. through plant growth etc.) were experienced at broadly consistent rates across 403 the landscape. Even if this assumption was not fully met, we should expect the potential 404 influence of forest changes due to logging to be greater than any changes over 2-3 years of 405 forest recovery. Nevertheless, future survey efforts could use time-series analyses to 406 investigate how forest recovery over time impacts bat activity and species' long-term 407 persistence following logging disturbance.

408 Conclusions

Logging continues to be the most extensive disturbance affecting tropical forests worldwide. Using remote sensing technologies, we show that even heavily logged forest areas can support comparable levels of Southeast Asian bat activity to old-growth forest. However, old-growth forest remains an important habitat for several rarer, forest-specialist species, which do not persist in disturbed habitats. Neighbouring old-growth forests are also likely to provide resources to more mobile species, e.g., roost sites, that would otherwise be absent from logging concessions. Therefore, our results suggest heterogeneity is key to maintaining bat diversity

in human-modified tropical landscapes (Malhi et al., 2022). We demonstrate how acoustic
monitoring methods can be used to incorporate aerial insectivores into bat biodiversity studies
and help identify species for monitoring. Combining acoustic data with live-trapping
information could help better evaluate the more subtle, species-specific impacts of logging
disturbance.

421

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434

435 Data availability statement

Bat count data to be made publicly available through Zenodo upon acceptance for publication
(doi XXXX). LiDAR structural data are available at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4020697

438 Author contributions

MS, HB, and JB conceived and designed the study. MS led the fieldwork. NY processed the
bat calls. NY, DS, and NJD performed the statistical analysis. NY, JB, and MS wrote the
manuscript. All authors contributed to manuscript revision, read, and approved the submitted
version.

443 **Conflict of interest**

444 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or445 financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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676	



Figure 1. Map of the Stability of Altered Forest Ecosystem Project (SAFE) and sampling sites in Maliau Basin, Malaysian Borneo. (a) Location of SAFE and Maliau in Malaysian Borneo, (b) sample blocks across SAFE and examples of two LiDAR variables across multiple survey sites, and (c) the two sampling blocks in Maliau with the corresponding LiDAR coverage.



Figure 2. Nonmetric multi-dimensional scaling showing the (dis)similarities between bat communities across the four habitat types.





Figure 3. A comparison of overall nightly bat activity across each of the four habitat types. Each point represents an individual recording location. (a) Total bat activity, (b) active clutter forager activity, (b) flutter clutter forager activity, (c) edge/open forager activity, and (d) *Emballonura alecto/monticola* activity. Horizontal lines are median values, the boxes are between the 25^{th} and 75^{th} percentiles, and the whiskers represent the interquartile range. Statistical significance of the comparisons is according to the Dunn test results - * < 0.05, ** < 0.01, *** < 0.001.



687 Figure 4. Caterpillar plots from the General Additive Models for Location, Shape, and Space (including 95% confidence interval) for each call type. (a) Total

- 688 activity, (b) active clutter forager activity, (b) flutter clutter forager activity, (c) edge/open forager activity, and (d) *Emballonura alecto/monticola* activity.
- 689 Significant associations are shown with a triangle point and highlighted in blue. Models are listed in Supplementary Table S2.



Figure 5. Caterpillar plots from the General Additive Models for Location, Shape, and Space
(including 95% confidence interval) for the dominant phonic group/species (*Emballonura* spp.
represented in Figure 5). Significant associations are highlighted in blue. Models are listed in
Supplementary Table S2.

695 Supplementary information

Table S1. Site descriptions for each of the acoustic survey points in Sabah, Borneo. Block refers to the Stability of Altered Forest Ecosystem's (SAFE)

 site codes during 2011-2012.

Habitat type	Site Description	Block	Point	No. of	Total	Latitude	Longitude	Start	End date
				nights	minutes			Date	
Old-growth	The OG2 block of control	OG2	1	2	1480	4.746902	116.9683	2012-	2012-Jun-
forest	sites consists of old-growth							Jun-01	03
	forest which has undergone								
	no logging								
			2	2	1480	4.751981	116.9663	2011-	2011-Apr-
								Apr-15	17
			2	2	1480	1 751261	116 0662	2011	2011 Apr
			3	Z	1480	4.731201	110.9002	2011-	2011-Apr-
								Apr-19	21
			4	2	1480	4.748933	116.9661	2011-	2011-Apr-
								Apr-21	23
	The OG3 block of control	OG3	1	1	740	4.735662	116.9546	2011-	2011-Mav-
	sites in Maliau Basin has							May-24	25

undergone limited selective

logging to increase access

			2	2	1480	4.734725	116.9542	2011-	2011-Apr-
								Apr-26	28
			3	2	1480	4.735012	116.9548	2011-	2011-Apr-
								Apr-28	30
			4	2	1480	4.735926	116.9568	2011-	2011-May-
								Apr-30	02
			5	1	740	4.735926	116.9568	2011-	2011-May-
								May-03	04
Twice-logged	Twice logged forest to the	LF2	1	2	1480	4.77019	117.698	2012-	2012-May-
forest	Northeast of the SAFE							May-05	07
	experimental area. Forest								
	has been recovering since								
	the early 2000's.								
			2	2	1480	4.768901	117.6982	2012-	2012-May-
								May-07	09

		3	2	1480	4.769667	117.6983	2012-	2012-May-
							May-09	11
		4	2	1480	4.768477	117.7001	2012-	2012-May-
							May-11	13
	LF3	1	2	1480	4.753733	117.691	2012-	2012-May-
							May-05	07
		2	2	1480	4.756727	117.6903	2012-	2012-May-
							May-07	09
		3	2	1480	4.758399	117.6913	2012-	2012-May-
							May-09	11
		4	1	740	4.757936	117.6932	2012-	2012-May-
							May-11	12
Twice logged forest to the	LFE	1	2	1480	4.724952	117.5969	2012-	2012-Jun-
north of the SAFE							Jun-12	14
experimental area and at the								
edge of the continuous								
forest. Forest has been								

		recovering since the early								
		2000's.								
				2	2	1480	4.726703	117.5962	2012- Jun-14	2012-Jun- 16
				3	4	2960	4.724116	117.597	2012- May-29	2012-Jun- 02
				4	2	1480	4.724393	117.5971	2012- Jun-02	2012-Jun- 04
Heavily lo forest	ogged	Fragment of forest in a matrix of repeatedly logged forest.	Frag. A	1	2	1480	4.709926	117.6463	2012- May-22	2012-May- 24
				2	2	1480	4.710397	117.6538	2012- May-20	2012-May- 22
				3	2	1480	4.708927	117.653	2011- May-24	2011-May- 26
				4	3	2220	4.710989	117.6508	2011- May-19	2011-May- 22

				5	1	740	4.709926	117.6463	2011-	2011-May-
									May-26	27
Heavily	logged	Fragment of forest in a	Frag. B	1	2	1480	4.72994	117.6197	2012-	2012-Apr-
forest		matrix of repeatedly logged							Apr-26	28
		forest.								
				2	2	1480	4.729936	117.6197	2012-	2012-Apr-
									Apr-21	23
				3	2	1480	4.73543	117.6182	2012-	2012-Jun-
									Jun-13	15
				4	2	1480	4.730977	117.6185	2012-	2012-Apr-
									Apr-23	25
			Frag. C	1	1.5	930	4.709915	117.6249	2011-	2011-May-
									May-17	19
				2	4	2960	4.709754	117.623	2011-	2011-May-
									May-12	17
				3	2	1480	4.708323	117.6241	2012-	2012-Apr-
									Apr-20	22

	4	2	1480	4.708793	117.6238	2012- Apr-22	2012-Apr- 24
Frag. D	1	2	1480	4.71509	117.584	2011- May-07	2011-May- 09
	2	2	1480	4.71169	117.5926	2011- May-09	2011-May- 11
Frag. E Frag. F	3	2	1480	4.71107	117.5875	2012- Apr-19	2012-Apr- 21
	4	1	740	4.71234	117.5859	2011- May-11	2011-May- 12
	1	2	1480	4.693655	117.5814	2012- Apr-26	2012-Apr- 28
	2	2.5	1551	4.690838	117.5759	2012- Apr-23	2012-Apr- 26
	3	2	1480	4.687996	117.5904	2012- Apr-19	2012-Apr- 21

			4	2	1480	4.695058	117.5783	2012- Apr-21	2012-Apr- 23
			1	2	1480	4.694425	117.5412	2012- May-21	2012-May- 23
			2	2	1480	4.697215	117.5432	2012- May-24	2012-May- 26
			3	2	1480	4.697581	117.5372	2012- May-16	2012-May- 18
			4	2	1480	4.696135	117.5401	2012- May-27	2012-May- 29
Tree plantation	Acacia plantations	Acacia	1	2	1480	4.66408	117.6519	2012- May-20	2012-May- 22
			2	2	1480	NA	NA	2012- May-22	2012-May- 24
			3	2	1480	NA	NA	2012- Jun-12	2012- Jun-14

4	2	1480	NA	NA	2012-	2012-May-
					May-24	26
5	2	1480	NA	NA	2012-	2012-Jun-
					Jun-14	16

- 698 **Table S2.** Candidate models used to characterize bat activity at the 100m scale.
- 699 Shading represents top models ($\Delta AICc < 2$).

	10	1 7 1 1			
Model	df	logLık‡	AICc§	∆AICc¶	wt¥
Total Bat Activity ~					
ForestExtent + Topography	4	-870.36	1748.70	0.00	0.47
ForestExtent	3	-871.91	1749.80	1.10	0.27
Shape	3	-873.38	1752.80	4.03	0.06
Shape + Topography	4	-872.56	1753.10	4.40	0.05
HabitatType $+$ Topography	5	-871.59	1753.20	4.46	0.05
CanopyHeight	3	-874.11	1754.20	5.49	0.03
HabitatType	4	-873.20	1754.40	5.67	0.03
CanopyHeight + Topography	4	-873.37	1754.70	6.02	0.02
Topography	3	-875.53	1757.10	8.34	0.01
Null Model	2	-876.84	1757.70	8.95	0.01
	_				
Active Clutter Forager Activity ~					
HabitatType + Topography	5	-508.75	1027.50	7.21	1
Treatment	4	-518.43	1044.90	24.55	0
Topography	3	-520.42	1046 80	26.54	Ō
CanonyHeight + Topography	4	-519.67	1047 30	27.03	Ő
Null model	2	-521.91	1047.80	27.53	Ő
ForestFxtent + Topography	$\frac{2}{4}$	-519.91	1047.80	27.51	Ő
Shape + Topography	1	-520.39	1047.00	27.52	0
CanopyHeight	3	-520.57	1040.00	20.47	0
EorostExtont	3	-521.41	1040.00	20.32	0
ForestExtent	2	-321.72	1049.40	29.15	0
Shape	3	-321.69	1049.60	29.40	0
Fluttor Cluttor Foregor Activity					
Null model	r	714 20	1422.80	0.00	0.22
Null Illouel HabitatTura	2 1	-/14.39	1432.00	0.00	0.23
ConopyHeight	4	-712.37	1433.10	1.50	0.19
	5	-/14.10	1434.50	1.33	0.11
Find that Type + Topography	2	-/12.20	1434.30	1.75	0.10
ForestExtent	3	-/14.28	1434.00	1.//	0.10
Snape	3	-/14.36	1434.70	1.93	0.09
Topography	3	-/14.3/	1434.70	1.95	0.09
CanopyHeight + Topography	4	-/14.16	1436.30	3.52	0.04
ForestExtent + Topography	4	-714.26	1436.50	3.73	0.04
Shape + Topography	4	-714.34	1436.70	3.90	0.03
Edge/Open Forager Activity ~			1 7 9 9 9 9	0.00	0.54
ForestExtent + Topography	4	-757.62	1523.20	0.00	0.64
Shape + Topography	4	-759.37	1526.70	3.50	0.11
Topography	4	-759.74	1527.50	4.25	0.08
HabitatType + Topography	5	-758.79	1527.60	4.33	0.07
ForestExtent	3	-761.73	1529.50	6.22	0.03
HabitatType	4	-760.73	1529.50	6.23	0.03
CanopyHeight	3	-762.03	1530.10	6.82	0.02
Shape	3	-762.06	1530.10	6.88	0.02
Topography	3	-765.21	1536.40	13.17	0.00
Null model	2	-769.00	1542.00	18.76	0.00

Emballonura alecto/monticola Activity ~

ForestExtent	3	-707.94	1421.90	0.00	0.24
Null model	2	-709.21	1422.40	0.54	0.18
ForestExtent + Topography	4	-707.78	1423.60	1.68	0.10
Shape	3	-708.87	1423.70	1.87	0.10
CanopyHeight	3	-708.98	1424.00	2.09	0.09
HabitatType	4	-708.05	1424.10	2.23	0.08
Topography	3	-709.14	1424.30	2.40	0.07
HabitatType + Topography	5	-707.21	1424.40	2.54	0.07
Shape $+$ Topography	4	-708.81	1425.60	3.74	0.04
CanopyHeight + Topography	4	-708.93	1425.90	3.99	0.03
Rhinolophus trifoliatus Activity ~					
HabitatType	4	-569.04	1146 10	3 98	0 59
HabitatType + Topography	5	-568 58	1147.20	5.06	0.34
Null model	2	-574 31	1152 60	10.52	0.02
Shape	3	-574.18	1154.40	12.26	0.02
Topography	3	-574.20	1154.40	12.20	0.01
ForestExtent	3	-574.24	1154.50	12.27	0.01
CanonyHeight	3	-574.27	1154.50	12.37	0.01
CanopyHeight + Topography	3 4	-574.09	1156.20	12.44	0.01
Shape + Topography	4	-574.13	1156.20	14.07	0.00
ForestExtent + Topography	4	-574.15	1156.30	14.15	0.00
rorestExtent + ropography		57 1.15	1150.50	11.20	0.00
Rhinolophus sedulus Activity ~	_				0.10
HabitatType + Topography	5	-527.53	1065.10	0.78	0.68
HabitatType	4	-529.31	1066.60	2.33	0.31
CanopyHeight	3	-535.46	1076.90	12.65	0.00
Null model	2	-536.66	1077.30	13.04	0.00
Shape	3	-536.12	1078.20	13.95	0.00
CanopyHeight + Topography	4	-535.45	1078.90	14.62	0.00
ForestExtent	3	-536.58	1079.20	14.88	0.00
Topography	3	-536.66	10/9.30	15.04	0.00
Shape + Topography	4	-536.11	1080.20	15.94	0.00
ForestExtent + Topography	4	-536.58	1081.20	16.87	0.00
Sonotype 5 Activity ~					
Shape + Topography	4	-628.49	1265.00	5.15	0.27
ForestExtent + Topography	4	-628.76	1265.50	5.69	0.21
Topography	3	-630.01	1266.00	6.18	0.16
CanopyHeight + Topography	4	-629.46	1266.90	7.10	0.10
Shape	3	-630.66	1267.30	7.50	0.08
ForestExtent	3	-631.21	1268.40	8.59	0.05
Null model	2	-632.31	1268.60	8.79	0.04
CanopyHeight	3	-631.48	1269.00	9.12	0.04
HabitatType + Topography	5	-629.66	1269.30	9.50	0.03
HabitatType	4	-630.98	1270.00	10.13	0.02
Sonotype 6 Activity ~					
HabitatType	4	-629.11	1266.20	0.00	0.71
HabitatType + Topography	5	-628.99	1268.00	1.76	0.29
CanopyHeight + Topography	4	-641.32	1290.60	24.43	0.00
Topography	3	-643.11	1292.20	26.02	0.00
Shape + Topography	4	-642.39	1292.80	26.57	0.00

ForestExtent + Topography	4	-642.92	1293.80	27.63	0.00
CanopyHeight	3	-645.23	1296.50	30.25	0.00
Shape	3	-646.83	1299.70	33.45	0.00
Null model	2	-648.84	1301.70	35.46	0.00
ForestExtent	3	-648.06	1302.10	35.90	0.00

701 ‡ The log-likelihood value, an alternative measure of model performance and denotes the plausibility

702 of the model. § Akaike's Information Criterion AICc. ¶ Delta AICc score, the difference between the

AICc score of each model against the best performing model. ¥ Akaike weight.

705 **Table S3.** Table outlining the results of the post-hoc Dunn test comparing bat activity between the four

habitat types for overall activity and for each of the call types. Significance - * < 0.05, ** < 0.01, ***

707 < 0.001.

Habitat	Z	<i>p</i> -value	
Total activity			
Heavily logged forest - Old-growth forest	-0.526	0.599	
Heavily logged forest - Tree plantation	2.956	0.019	*
Old-growth forest - Tree plantation	2.946	0.010	*
Heavily logged forest - Twice-logged forest	0.766	0.533	
Old-growth forest - Twice-logged forest	1.060	0.434	
Tree plantation - Twice-logged forest	-2.298	0.043	*
Active clutter foragers (FM)			
Heavily logged forest - Old-growth forest	-1.767	0.116	
Heavily logged forest - Tree plantation	3.818	< 0.001	***
Old-growth forest - Tree plantation	3.548	0.001	**
Heavily logged forest - Twice-logged forest	-1.526	0.152	
Old-growth forest - Twice-logged forest	1.139	0.255	
Tree plantation - Twice-logged forest	-4.659	< 0.001	***
Flutter clutter foragers (CF)			
Heavily logged forest - Old-growth forest	-3.280	0.002	**
Heavily logged forest - Tree plantation	1.909	0.068	
Old-growth forest - Tree plantation	3.987	< 0.001	***
Heavily logged forest - Twice-logged forest	-5.035	< 0.001	***
Old-growth forest - Twice-logged forest	1.254	0.210	
Tree plantation - Twice-logged forest	-5.281	< 0.001	***
Edge/open foragers (FMqCF)			
Heavily logged forest - Old-growth forest	0.563	0.574	
Heavily logged forest - Tree plantation	3.137	0.005	**
Old-growth forest - Tree plantation	1.056	0.582	
Heavily logged forest - Twice-logged forest	3.219	0.008	**
Old-growth forest - Twice-logged forest	0.706	0.576	
Tree plantation - Twice-logged forest	-0.739	0.690	
Emballonura alecto/monticola (OCF)			
Heavily logged forest - Old-growth forest	-0 532	0 595	
Heavily logged forest - Tree plantation	3 003	0.016	**
Old-growth forest - Tree plantation	1 999	0.137	
Heavily logged forest - Twice-logged forest	1.222	0 332	
Old-growth forest - Twice-logged forest	1.222	0.381	
Tree plantation - Twice-logged forest	-1.992	0.093	**

709 **Table S4.** Table outlining the results of the similarity percentages in bat activity between the four habitat

710 types. Significance - * < 0.05, ** < 0.01, *** < 0.001.

	Avg.					=
	contribution to	Avg.	Avg.	Ordered		
	dissimilarity	abundance	abundance	cumulative		
	(SD)	group A	group B	contribution	<i>p</i> -value	-
(A) Heavily logged forest v	s (B) Old-growth	forest				
Sonotype 2	0.029 (+0.018)	1 526	0.662	0.110	0 111	
Sonotype 3	0.029 (±0.020)	1 795	1 681	0.216	0.024	*
Sonotype 4	0.027 (±0.019)	1.071	1.122	0.315	0.132	
Rhinolophus trifoliatus	0.021 (±0.021)	2.295	2.010	0.394	0.693	
Sonotype 1	0.019 (±0.014)	0.813	0.157	0.464	0.203	
Rhinolophus luctus	0.019 (±0.017)	0.515	0.613	0.533	0.081	
Rhinolophus sedulus	0.018 (±0.017)	1.754	1.365	0.602	0.954	
Rhinolophus acuminatus	0.018 (±0.015)	0.798	1.142	0.670	0.291	
Sonotype 5	0.015 (±0.014)	2.363	2.545	0.728	0.517	
Sonotype 6	0.015 (±0.011)	2.434	2.514	0.782	0.787	
Active clutter foragers	0.014 (±0.013)	1.854	1.689	0.836	0.783	
Rhinolophus borneensis	0.014 (±0.011)	0.471	0.699	0.889	0.956	
Hipposideros galeritus	0.011 (±0.011)	0.177	0.438	0.931	0.859	
Emballonura	0.011 (±0.012)	2.825	2.651	0.971	0.858	
alecto/monticola	· · · · ·					
Hipposideros ridleyi	0.006 (±0.007)	0.013	0.217	0.993	0.001	***
Rhinolophus philippinensis	0.001 (±0.003)	0.034	0.000	0.997	0.394	
Rhinolophus creaghi	0.001 (±0.002)	0.026	0.000	0.999	1.000	
Rhinolophus affinis	0.000 (±0.002)	0.013	0.000	1.000	0.700	
(A) Heavily logged forest v	s (B) Twice-logge	l forest				
Sonotype 2	0.032 (+0.018)	1.526	1.273	0.105	0.003	**
Rhinolophus sedulus	0.025 (+0.017)	1 754	2.001	0.188	0.069	
Rhinolophus trifoliatus	0.024 (+0.019)	2.295	1.669	0.268	0.349	
Rhinolophus borneensis	0.022 (+0.018)	0.471	1.078	0.341	0.006	**
Sonotype 4	$0.022 (\pm 0.010)$	1.071	0.927	0.412	0.967	
Sonotype 6	0.021 (+0.016)	2.434	1.711	0.482	0.005	**
Rhinolophus creaohi	$0.021 (\pm 0.010)$	0.026	0.918	0.552	0.001	***
кпіпоіорпиs creaghi	0.021 (±0.019)	0.026	0.918	0.552	0.001	~ ~

Sonotype 3	0.021 (±0.017)	1.795	1.399	0.621	0.869	
Sonotype 1	0.018 (±0.014)	0.813	0.289	0.682	0.136	
Hipposideros galeritus	0.017 (±0.013)	0.177	0.794	0.739	0.004	**
Emballonura	0.016 (±0.013)	2.825	2.533	0.791	0.011	*
alecto/monticola						
Active clutter foragers	0.016 (±0.012)	1.854	1.967	0.843	0.585	
Rhinolophus acuminatus	0.016 (±0.012)	0.798	0.832	0.895	0.934	
Sonotype 5	0.016 (±0.014)	2.363	2.249	0.946	0.583	
Rhinolophus luctus	0.014 (±0.011)	0.515	0.445	0.993	0.733	
Rhinolophus philippinensis	0.001 (±0.003)	0.034	0.000	0.996	0.463	
Hipposideros ridleyi	0.001 (±0.002)	0.013	0.025	0.999	0.992	
Rhinolophus affinis	0.000 (±0.002)	0.013	0.000	1.000	0.852	
(A) Heavily logged forest vs	(B) Tree plantatio	on				
Rhinolophus trifoliatus	0.033 (±0.017)	2.295	1.063	0.121	0.055	
Sonotype 4	0.027 (±0.021)	1.071	1.903	0.222	0.197	
Sonotype 1	0.024 (±0.017)	0.813	0.668	0.313	0.030	*
Rhinolophus acuminatus	0.021 (±0.015)	0.798	0.876	0.392	0.133	
Sonotype 3	0.021 (±0.014)	1.795	1.131	0.471	0.561	
Active clutter foragers	0.021 (±0.012)	1.854	1.082	0.548	0.097	
Rhinolophus sedulus	0.021 (±0.015)	1.754	1.297	0.625	0.608	
Sonotype 5	0.016 (±0.012)	2.363	2.448	0.684	0.411	
Sonotype 2	0.016 (±0.010)	1.526	1.309	0.743	0.998	
Rhinolophus luctus	0.012 (±0.011)	0.515	0.100	0.789	0.795	
Rhinolophus creaghi	0.012 (±0.009)	0.026	0.434	0.832	0.402	
Rhinolophus borneensis	0.012 (±0.011)	0.471	0.000	0.875	0.995	
Sonotype 6	0.011 (±0.007)	2.434	2.130	0.917	0.948	
Emballonura	0.011 (±0.007)	2.825	2.397	0.957	0.645	
alecto/monticola						
Hipposideros galeritus	0.008 (±0.006)	0.177	0.259	0.986	0.976	
Rhinolophus affinis	0.003 (±0.004)	0.013	0.100	0.995	0.022	*
Rhinolophus philippinensis	0.001 (±0.003)	0.034	0.000	0.999	0.157	
Hipposideros ridleyi	0.000 (±0.002)	0.013	0.000	1.000	0.982	
(A) Old-growth forest vs (B) Twice-logged for	rest				
Sonotype 3	0.031 (±0.022)	1.681	1.399	0.093	0.018	*
Sonotype 2	0.030 (±0.027)	0.662	1.273	0.186	0.100	

Sonotype 4	0.028	1.122	0.927	0.269	0.128	
	(± 0.022)					
Rhinolophus trifoliatus	0.025 (±0.021)	2.010	1.669	0.345	0.293	
Sonotype 6	0.025 (±0.019)	2.514	1.711	0.420	0.002	**
Rhinolophus sedulus	0.024 (±0.019)	1.365	2.001	0.495	0.277	
Rhinolophus creaghi	0.022 (±0.021)	0.000	0.918	0.561	0.001	***
Rhinolophus borneensis	0.022 (±0.016)	0.699	1.078	0.627	0.086	
Rhinolophus acuminatus	0.019 (±0.016)	1.142	0.832	0.684	0.279	
Sonotype 5	0.019 (±0.017)	2.545	2.249	0.741	0.174	
Active clutter foragers	0.019 (±0.016)	1.689	1.967	0.797	0.124	
Rhinolophus luctus	0.018 (±0.020)	0.613	0.445	0.853	0.121	
Hipposideros galeritus	0.017 (±0.012)	0.438	0.794	0.905	0.012	*
Emballonura	0.017 (±0.013)	2.651	2.533	0.956	0.068	
alecto/monticola						
Sonotype 1	0.008 (±0.010)	0.157	0.289	0.981	1.000	
Hipposideros ridleyi	0.006 (±0.007)	0.217	0.025	1.000	0.001	***
Rhinolophus affinis	0.000 (-)	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.676	
Rhinolophus philippinensis	0.000 (-)	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.699	
(A) Old-growth forest vs (B) Tree plantation					
Sonotype 4	0.037 (±0.026)	1.122	1.903	0.116	0.017	*
Sonotype 3	0.032 (±0.018)	1.681	1.131	0.216	0.072	
Rhinolophus trifoliatus	0.031 (±0.015)	2.010	1.063	0.312	0.120	
Sonotype 2	0.029 (±0.017)	0.662	1.309	0.402	0.291	
Rhinolophus acuminatus	0.024 (±0.019)	1.142	0.876	0.479	0.057	
Active clutter foragers	0.019 (±0.011)	1.689	1.082	0.540	0.184	
Rhinolophus borneensis	0.019 (±0.013)	0.699	0.000	0.600	0.348	
Sonotype 1	0.019 (±0.024)	0.157	0.668	0.659	0.335	
Sonotype 5	0.018 (±0.015)	2.545	2.448	0.716	0.308	
Sonotype 6	0.016 (±0.012)	2.514	2.130	0.766	0.462	
Rhinolophus luctus	0.016 (±0.022)	0.613	0.100	0.816	0.347	
Rhinolophus sedulus	0.013 (±0.014)	1.365	1.297	0.858	0.945	
Rhinolophus creaghi	0.013 (±0.010)	0.000	0.434	0.898	0.429	
Emballonura	0.012 (±0.008)	2.651	2.397	0.937	0.452	
alecto/monticola						
Hipposideros galeritus	0.011 (±0.010)	0.438	0.259	0.971	0.718	
Hipposideros ridleyi	0.007 (±0.007)	0.217	0.000	0.992	0.015	*

Rhinolophus affinis	0.004 (±0.004)	0.000	0.100	1.000	0.038	*
Rhinolophus philippinensis	0.000 (-)	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.420	
(A) Twice-logged forest vs (B) Tree plantation	l				
Sonotype 4	0.034 (±0.025)	0.927	1.903	0.102	0.037	*
Sonotype 2	0.033 (±0.018)	1.273	1.309	0.198	0.126	
Rhinolophus borneensis	0.028 (±0.022)	1.078	0.000	0.280	0.044	*
Rhinolophus sedulus	0.027 (±0.017)	2.001	1.297	0.358	0.241	
Active clutter foragers	0.025 (±0.015)	1.967	1.082	0.432	0.028	*
Rhinolophus trifoliatus	0.024 (±0.015)	1.669	1.063	0.503	0.358	
Rhinolophus acuminatus	0.023 (±0.017)	0.832	0.876	0.570	0.110	
Rhinolophus creaghi	0.022 (±0.014)	0.918	0.434	0.635	0.038	*
Sonotype 3	0.021 (±0.013)	1.399	1.131	0.697	0.635	
Sonotype 1	0.020 (±0.022)	0.289	0.668	0.755	0.222	
Sonotype 5	0.019 (±0.016)	2.249	2.448	0.811	0.282	
Sonotype 6	0.017 (±0.016)	1.711	2.130	0.863	0.391	
Hipposideros galeritus	0.017 (±0.012)	0.794	0.259	0.914	0.105	
Emballonura	0.015 (±0.009)	2.533	2.397	0.958	0.301	
alecto/monticola						
Rhinolophus luctus	0.011 (±0.012)	0.445	0.100	0.990	0.855	
Rhinolophus affinis	0.003 (±0.004)	0.000	0.100	0.998	0.057	
Hipposideros ridleyi	0.001 (±0.002)	0.025	0.000	1.000	0.834	
Rhinolophus philippinensis	0.000 (-)	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.562	

- 712 **Table S5.** Morphological and ecological characteristics species known to be included in the Borneo Bat
- 713 Classifier used for processing the acoustic data. Adult body mass and adult forearm represent averages
- across sexes. Roost specialism^{C,D} includes three classes (forest, flexible, cave). Vertical stratification^D
- 715 includes two classes (U understorey; C canopy).

	Adult body	Adult		
	mass	forearm	Roost	Vertical
	(g)	length (mm)	specialism	stratification
Active clutter foragers (FM)				
Kerivoula hardwickii	4.55 ^A	35.0 ^A	Forest	U
Kerivoula intermedia	3.50 [°]	28.5 ^A	Forest	U
Kerivoula lenis	8.00	39.0	Forest	U
Kerivoula minuta	2.03 ^A	27.0 ^A	Forest	U
Kerivoula papillosa	10.21 ^A	41.0 ^A	Forest	U
Kerivoula pellucida	4.14 ^A	31.5 ^A	Forest	U
Megaderma spasma	24.71 ^A	56.5 ^A	Flexible	U
Murina peninsularis	11.5 [°]	54.5 ^C	Forest	U
Murina suilla	4.00 ^A	30.0 ^A	Forest	U
Nycteris tragata	14.40 ^A	49.5 ^A	Flexible	U
Phoniscus atrox	4.81 ^A	33.0 ^A	Forest	U
Phoniscus jagorii	4.70 ^A	37.8 ^A	Forest	U
Flutter clutter foragers (CF)				
Hipposideros cervinus	9.30 ^B	45.0 ^E	Flexible	U
Hipposideros cineraceus	3.84 ^A	34.9 ^A	Cave	-
Hipposideros diadema	43.80 ^B	90.4 ^E	Cave	U
Hipposideros dyacorum	6.10 ^B	40.5 ^A	Cave	U
Hipposideros galeritus	8.2 ^B	49.5 ^c	Cave	U
Hipposideros ridleyi	8.80 ^B	48.0 ^E	Forest	U
Rhinolophus acuminatus	12.10 ^B	49.0 [°]	Cave	U
Rhinolophus affinis	13.60 ^B	51.5 ^C	Cave	U
Rhinolophus borneensis	7.90 ^B	42.0 [°]	Flexible	U
Rhinolophus creaghi	12.00 в	48.5 ^C	Cave	U
Rhinolophus luctus	33.50 ^B	63.4 ^E	Flexible	U
Rhinolophus philippinensis	10.30 ^B	51.0 [°]	Cave	U

Rhinolophus sedulus	8.80 ^B	40.3 ^E	Forest	U
Rhinolophus trifoliatus	12.30 ^E	52.0 ^E	Forest	U
Edge/open foragers (FMqCF)				
Sonotype 1	-	-	-	-
Sonotype 2	-	-	-	-
Sonotype 3	-	-	-	-
Sonotype 4	-	-	-	-
Glischropus tylopus	4.59 ^A	29.0 ^A	Forest	-
Myotis horsfieldii	6.05 ^A	38.3 ^A	Flexible	-
Tylonycteris	7.89 ^A	28.0 ^A	Forest	-
robustula				
Sonotype 5				
Miniopterus australis	7.40 ^A	40.5^{A}	-	
Myotis muricola	4.80 ^A	34.7 ^A	Flexible	U
Myotis ridleyi	4.06 ^A	30.0 ^A	Flexible	U
Tylonycteris	4.10 ^A	26.2 ^A	Forest	-
pachypus				
Sonotype 6				
Arielulus cuprosus	5.40 [°]	35.5 ^A	-	С
Chaerephon plicatus	21.83 ^A	46.4 ^A	Flexible	С
Saccolaimus	43.00 ^A	71.2 ^A	Flexible	С
saccolaimus				
Emballonura alecto/monticola				
(QCF)				
Emballonura alecto	5.25 ^A	46.0 ^A	Flexible	С
Emballonura monticola	5.35 ^A	44.0 ^A	Flexible	С

716 ^A Jones et al. (2009), ^B Tanalgo et al. (2022), ^C Phillipps & Phillipps (2016), ^D IUCN (2022), ^E Jung &

717 Threlfall (2018), ^F Crane et al. (2020)



Figure S1. Example sonograms for each of the four call types used in the study. Call amplitude has not been standardized between species and therefore this image is for illustrative purposes only and should not be used for call identification.