

1 Selective logging shows no impact on the dietary breadth of the fawn leaf-nosed bat  
2 (*Hipposideros cervinus*)

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## 17 **Abstract**

18 Logging activities degrade forest habitats across large areas of the tropics, but the impacts  
19 on trophic interactions that underpin forest ecosystems are poorly understood. DNA  
20 metabarcoding provides an invaluable tool to investigate such interactions, allowing  
21 analysis at a far greater scale and resolution than has previously been possible. We  
22 analysed the diet of the insectivorous fawn leaf-nosed bat *Hipposideros cervinus* across  
23 a forest disturbance gradient in Borneo, using a dataset of ecological interactions from an  
24 unprecedented number of bat-derived faecal samples. Bats predominantly consumed  
25 insects from the orders Lepidoptera, Blattodea, Diptera and Coleoptera, and the  
26 taxonomic composition of their diet remained relatively consistent across sites regardless  
27 of logging disturbance. There was little difference in the richness of prey consumed in  
28 each logging treatment, indicating potential resilience of this species to habitat  
29 degradation. In fact, bats consumed a high richness of prey items, and intensive sampling  
30 is needed to reliably compare feeding ecology over multiple sites regardless of the  
31 bioinformatic procedures used.

## 32 **Introduction**

33 Logging is a common form of anthropogenic disturbance in forests, with over 90% of  
34 those in the tropics logged to some degree (Asner et al., 2009). Most logging undertaken  
35 in tropical forests is selective, which tends to favour removal of the largest, and highest-  
36 quality trees. While this disturbance can have lasting effects on forest structure  
37 (Milodowski et al., 2021) selective logging tends to be much less destructive than clear-  
38 felling.

39 Forest modification through logging is especially pronounced on the island of Borneo,  
40 which has lost half of its forest area since 1940 (Gaveau et al., 2014) and 62% of the  
41 remaining forest is classified as ‘degraded’ or ‘seriously degraded’ (Gaveau et al., 2016).  
42 Most studies of the impact this has on biodiversity have focussed on species composition  
43 (e.g. Edwards et al., 2011; Slade et al., 2011; Kitching et al., 2013; Struebig et al., 2013;  
44 Deere et al., 2018; Hayward et al., 2021). These often subtle changes to ecological  
45 communities can result in changes to ecosystem functioning (Ewers et al., 2015) and the  
46 structure of trophic networks (Hemprich-Bennett et al., 2020), indicating that selective  
47 logging may alter resilience to future perturbations. Understanding the ecological shifts  
48 that take place in degraded forest is of great importance for conservation, especially given  
49 the vast scale at which forest is managed for timber extraction globally.

50

51 Animal diet can differ between individuals of a species depending on numerous intrinsic  
52 and environmental factors. In insectivorous bats for example, inter-individual variation  
53 in diet appears to correlate with multiple factors, including wing morphology (Oliveira et  
54 al., 2020), sex (Burgar et al., 2014), reproductive condition (Czenze et al., 2018), season  
55 (Andriollo et al., 2019; Kolkert et al., 2020), geographic location (Czenze et al., 2018;

56 Vallejo et al., 2019), and habitat (Aizpurua et al., 2018; Hemprich-Bennett et al., 2020;  
57 Tournayre et al., 2021). Such variation is of interest when because intraspecific  
58 differences in the feeding behaviour of consumers can alter the abundance, community  
59 composition and ecological functioning of their prey (Des Roches et al., 2018).

60

61 Intraspecific variation in diet is also an important consideration for research design. The  
62 analysis of diet in a highly generalist species requires many observations to obtain a  
63 representative sample. This can be especially true when studying the dietary ecology of  
64 insectivorous bats through metabarcoding, as the technique gives an unprecedented level  
65 of taxonomic resolution (Clare et al., 2009), highlighting variation which would not have  
66 been apparent with morphological study. Inter-individual variation in bat diet is however  
67 often obscured by the use of samples collected from underneath roosts, where numerous  
68 bats are defecating (hereafter ‘roost-sourced’ samples) (Clare et al., 2014; Andriollo et  
69 al., 2019) and samples cannot be linked to an individual. Obtaining faecal samples from  
70 individually identifiable animals (hereafter ‘individual-sourced’ samples) is labour-  
71 intensive due to the large trapping effort required, and so while many studies have used  
72 individual-sourced samples (e.g. Czenze et al., 2018; Oliveira et al., 2020), their sample  
73 sizes tend to be small. Mata et al (2018) used a dataset of individual-sourced samples to  
74 analyse the importance of technical and biological replication on the dietary completeness  
75 of *Tadarida teniotis* and reiterated the common rule of thumb that 20-50 such samples  
76 per species is preferable, but stressed that higher sample sizes may be required for bat  
77 species with greater dietary richness or intraspecific variation. The issue of sample size  
78 is further complicated in networks generated from metabarcoding data because of  
79 methodological considerations such as PCR primer bias and stochasticity (Alberdi et al.,

80 2018), and the influence of bioinformatic choices on the final data analysed (Hemprich-  
81 Bennett et al., 2021).

82

83 Here we use an unprecedented number of individually-sourced insectivorous bat faecal  
84 samples to test the hypothesis that selective logging alters the taxonomic composition and  
85 species richness of bats' diet. We also assess how sample size and bioinformatic  
86 parameters affect our inferences of insectivorous diet when using data derived from  
87 metabarcoding. Our evaluation focuses on the fawn leaf-nosed bat, *Hipposideros*  
88 *cervinus* - a cave-roosting insectivorous bat found throughout much of maritime  
89 Southeast Asia to northeastern Australia. Using high-duty cycle (HDC) echolocation, it  
90 is thought to use Doppler-shift compensation to detect the wingbeats of fluttering of prey  
91 such as moths (Bell and Fenton, 1984) against a cluttered backdrop (Schnitzler and Kalko,  
92 2001; Lazure and Fenton, 2011). Although some bat species are negatively affected by  
93 logging, *H. cervinus* remains a dominant species in both old growth and logged forest in  
94 Borneo (Struebig et al., 2013; Hemprich-Bennett et al., 2020). It is not known whether  
95 bats such as *H. cervinus* respond to forest degradation by modifying their diets, or are  
96 able to maintain stable diets through prey selection or behavioural changes in foraging.  
97 We address three main predictions:

98 1) Taxonomic composition of the diet of *H. cervinus* is altered by rainforest  
99 degradation.

100 2) Individual bats are more specialised in logged forest sites than in primary forest.

101 3) Estimates of sampling completeness are heavily influenced by MOTU clustering  
102 threshold, quality-control methods used and the number of samples.

## 103 **Methods**

104 We sampled bats using six harp traps per night at four lowland tropical rainforest sites in  
105 Sabah, Malaysia, each <500m above sea level and limited seasonality. Two sites comprise  
106 mostly old growth rainforest (Danum Valley and Maliau Basin), and two sites have been  
107 subject to substantial logging disturbance (the Sabah Biodiversity Experiment and the  
108 Stability of Altered Forest Ecosystems Project) (Supplementary Table 1).

109 • Old growth rainforest:

110 ○ The Danum Valley Conservation Area (hereafter ‘Danum’) is a 438 km<sup>2</sup>  
111 region protected area of old growth rainforest in Sabah (Reynolds et al.,  
112 2011). Traps were erected in 2016 for ten nights in a 21-night period and  
113 2017 for ten nights in a 12-night period.

114 ○ The Maliau Basin Conservation Area (hereafter ‘Maliau’) is a 588 km<sup>2</sup>  
115 protected forest made up of lowland and hill forest, most of which has  
116 neither been logged nor inhabited in historical times. Traps were erected  
117 in 2016 and 2017 for ten nights in a 16-night period.

118 • Logged forest:

119 ○ The Stability of Altered Forest Ecosystems Project (hereafter ‘SAFE’) is  
120 a large area of degraded forest being converted to oil palm plantation, with  
121 fragments of forest retained for scientific study (Ewers et al., 2011). We  
122 sampled in the blocks ‘LFE’, ‘B’ and ‘C’, within the Ulu Segama Forest  
123 Reserve and Kalabakan area, during 2015, 2016 and 2017. Each block was  
124 sampled for a 5-night period, and then resampled at least 5 weeks later.

125                   ○ The Sabah Biodiversity Experiment (Hector et al., 2011) (hereafter ‘SBE’)  
126                   is an area of forest which was logged once in the 1950s and once in the  
127                   2000s, and during the sampling period was in the early stages of  
128                   enrichment replanting (Hector et al., 2011). Sampling took place over a  
129                   total of 10 nights in a 20-night period in 2016.

130 Fieldwork, laboratory work and bioinformatics took place as previously described  
131 (Hemprich-Bennett et al., 2020). Briefly, bats were captured using harp traps erected  
132 along linear features such as streams and trails to target bat flyways. Sampling effort is  
133 summarised in Table 1. Faecal samples were processed by DNA extraction, PCR  
134 amplification of the CO1 gene using the primers described by Zeale et al (2011), and  
135 sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq. For complete methods see (Hemprich-Bennett et al.,  
136 2020).

137

### 138 **Bioinformatics pipeline**

139 Sequences were assembled into contigs using mothur (Schloss et al., 2009), and forward  
140 and reverse primers were removed using the galaxy web platform on the public server at  
141 usegalaxy.org (Afgan et al., 2016) sequence falling outside of a length of 155-159bp (2bp  
142 outside of the expected amplicon length) were excluded from analysis.

143

144 When processing the sequence data it is common to cluster sequences into MOTUs  
145 (Molecular Operational Taxonomic Units) (Floyd et al., 2002), on the basis of a given  
146 threshold of similarity, but the appropriate MOTU clustering thresholds required to best-  
147 represent the taxonomic diversity within metabarcoding samples are currently poorly

148 understood (Hemprich-Bennett et al., 2021). At high clustering thresholds routine  
149 sequencing errors may be falsely designated as distinct MOTU, artificially inflating the  
150 measured diversity and richness within a sample (Clare et al., 2016). Algorithms  
151 implemented using software such as LULU (Frøslev et al., 2017) have been proposed as  
152 a method of mitigating this, by combining probable duplicate MOTUs based on patterns  
153 of sequence similarity and cooccurrence.

154

155 To assess the impact of clustering threshold on the datasets analysed (Hemprich-Bennett  
156 et al., 2021) we generated datasets using MOTU clustering thresholds at ranges 91-98%  
157 similarity, using the Uclust algorithm (Edgar, 2010) as implemented in the QIIME  
158 platform (Caporaso et al., 2010). Representative sequences for each MOTU per clustering  
159 level were then compared to one another using BLAST+ (Camacho et al., 2009), with the  
160 resulting data being reduced in LULU (Frøslev et al., 2017) for quality control. All  
161 resulting bat-MOTU adjacency lists were then transformed into adjacency matrices using  
162 a custom perl script. These matrices were then split into multiple binary adjacency  
163 matrices by site. Networks were created by pooling samples from multiple years. To test  
164 prediction 2, separate analyses took place on networks both generated as composites of  
165 multiple years, and as separate networks for each site and year (see Table 1). All  
166 bioinformatic and statistical steps are recorded at

167 <https://github.com/hemprichbennett/hice>.

168 **Prediction 1: Taxonomic composition of the diet of *H. cervinus* is altered by**  
169 **rainforest degradation**

170 To analyse the prey taxa consumed by each bat, we used BLAST+ (Camacho et al., 2009)  
171 to compare all MOTUs to a library of all arthropod CO1 genes identified to species level



172 using the Barcode of Life Database on 28/03/2018 (BOLD) (Ratnasingham and Hebert,  
173 2007) (3,319,062 sequences), and assigned them taxonomy in MEGAN 6 (Huson et al.,  
174 2016) using the parameters in Salinas-Ramos *et al.* (2015). We then assigned MOTUs to  
175 order and family level where possible, importing the resulting data into R for analysis,  
176 and calculating the proportion of *H. cervinus* individuals per site consuming each  
177 taxonomic order. To test the hypothesis that habitat type alters the order-level taxonomic  
178 composition of the species' diet, we analysed the resulting values with a Chi-squared test.  
179 The hypothesis was further tested using a permutational multivariate analysis of variance  
180 test using distance matrices, and a non-metric multidimensional scaling ordination with  
181 200 permutations using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity, both using the vegan package (Oksanen  
182 et al., 2017) on datasets of the order-level diets of each individual bat. We also used a  
183 similarity percentages analysis to identify the contribution of each taxonomic order to the  
184 observed dissimilarity between sites and years, using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity.

185

186 We calculated correlations between the presence/absence of prey orders in faecal  
187 samples, using the r package 'corrplot' (Wei and Simko, 2017), to identify both potential  
188 significant correlations of prey consumption (e.g. bats that feed on Coleoptera may be  
189 more likely to feed on Blattodea), and any potential taxonomic bias in PCR.

190 **Prediction 2: Individual bats are more specialised in logged forest sites than in old**  
191 **growth forest**

192 We created binary bipartite networks for each sampling site and year at 95% similarity  
193 clustering and quality control using LULU. In the networks each individual bat and  
194 MOTU was classed as a distinct node. A criterion of 95% similarity was chosen for this  
195 and all following analyses because it provided a balance between over and under-splitting

196 MOTUs (Hemprich-Bennett et al., 2021). Using the R package ‘bipartite’ (Dormann,  
197 2011) in R 3.4.4 (R Core Team, 2017) these networks were then analysed using the  
198 functions ‘specieslevel’, to calculate the degree of each bat (‘degree’ = the number of  
199 prey nodes a bat consumes). Differences between the degree of individuals were  
200 compared among sites using an ANOVA with Tukey’s HSD test.

201 **Prediction 3: Estimates of sampling completeness are heavily influenced by MOTU**  
202 **clustering threshold and quality-control used**

203 Using networks generated at each clustering threshold between 91 and 98% similarity,  
204 both with and without quality-control using LULU (Frøslev et al., 2017), we estimated  
205 total MOTU richness and sampling completeness of the diet of *H. cervinus* at each site  
206 and year using iNEXT (Hsieh et al., 2016), an R package for the interpolation and  
207 extrapolation of species diversity using Hill numbers (Chao et al., 2014).

208

209 To assess how sample size affects assessments of bat diet, we generated multiple datasets  
210 of  $n$  bats from each site, where  $n$  was a value of 10-100, increasing in increments of 10  
211 (10, 20, 30, etc), with  $n$  bats taken at random from each site and the number of MOTUs  
212 consumed in that sub-dataset calculated. This was repeated 100,000 times per site and  
213 value of  $n$ , with the resulting data plotted in a violinplot.

## 214 **Results**

215 For the full sequencing run of multiple bat species (see Hemprich-Bennett et al., 2020)  
216 18,737,930 contiguous reads were output when assembling the paired-end files. After  
217 removing adapters and primers this was reduced to 10,064,815 sequences, which was  
218 then further reduced to 932,459 haplotypes after collapsing to haplotype, removing  
219 singletons and discarding sequences outside of 2bp of the expected read-length. For full  
220 counts of MOTUs before and after clustering with LULU, see Supplementary information  
221 2. Of these, 2,957,444 reads and 187,800 haplotypes were derived from *H. cervinus*  
222 samples and included in this study.

### 223 **Prediction 1: Taxonomic composition of the diet of *H. cervinus* is altered by** 224 **rainforest degradation**

225 The diet of the bat communities was dominated by insects from the orders Blattodea  
226 (especially family Ectobiidae), Diptera (especially family Cecidomyiidae) and  
227 Lepidoptera (Figure 1). The chi-squared test showed a non-significant effect of network  
228 identity on the order-level composition of a bat populations' diet ( $\chi^2 = 0.16$ ,  $df = 48$ ,  $p >$   
229  $0.05$ ). The NMDS showed almost total overlap between the sites (Figure 2) with a stress  
230 of 0.21, showing poor convergence. The permutational multivariate analysis of variance  
231 test gave an  $R^2$  of 0.014 for the explanatory power of site on bat diet. A total of 23  
232 arthropod orders were eaten based on the combined diets of all bats, with Blattodea,  
233 Coleoptera, Diptera and Lepidoptera collectively making up at least 79% of all MOTUs  
234 identified at each site. Positive correlations were observed between the occurrences of  
235 several taxa, with only Araneae and Hymenoptera being negatively correlated with the  
236 presence of one another (Supplementary information 3). Blattodea was the only taxon  
237 consistently observed to contribute significantly to inter-site dissimilarity scores (SAFE-

238 Maliau  $p < 0.01$ , SAFE-SBE  $p = 0.014$ , Maliau-SBE  $p = 0.014$ , SBE-Danum  $p < 0.01$ , see  
239 Supplementary information 4). There was almost complete overlap between the different  
240 years sampled at each site (Figure 2) and each site in 2016 (Figure 3).

241 **Prediction 2: Individual bats will be more specialised in logged forest sites than in**  
242 **old growth forest**

243 When comparing networks with all years pooled together, significant differences  
244 ( $p < 0.05$ ) were only observed between Danum (old-growth) and SAFE (logged), and  
245 between SAFE (logged) and SBE (logged).

246 **Prediction 3: Estimates of sampling completeness will be heavily influenced by**  
247 **MOTU clustering threshold and quality-control used**

248 None of the networks were estimated as near to fully sampled, with all estimates placing  
249 completeness at under 54% (Figure 4), with completeness estimates varying between both  
250 sites and years. The number of MOTUs expected increased markedly with clustering  
251 threshold when not using LULU for quality control, but this effect was dramatically  
252 reduced when using LULU. This algorithm increased estimated sampling completeness  
253 by reducing observed and estimated MOTU richness, and lowered the estimated number  
254 of samples required to sample the community. Full counts can be found in Supplementary  
255 information 2.

256

257 There was a positive correlation between the number of bats included in a dataset and the  
258 number of MOTUs detected (figure 5)

## 259 Discussion

260 Logging is widespread in tropical forests, yet the consequences of this structural  
261 disturbance for trophic interactions are poorly understood. Here we set out to assess how  
262 the diet of a generalist insectivorous bat differs between old-growth and degraded forest  
263 habitats. We observed broadly similar feeding habits in fawn leaf-nosed bats across forest  
264 type with bats consuming many arthropod orders, particularly Blattodea, Coleoptera,  
265 Diptera and Lepidoptera. Fawn leaf-nosed bats have extremely high dietary richness, with  
266 many hundreds of samples being required to fully capture their diet.

267

268 We observed very little alteration in the taxonomic composition of the diet of *H. cervinus*.  
269 We saw no significant difference between the consumption of prey at the order-level  
270 between sites or years. This suggests that while northeast Borneo may possess high beta-  
271 diversity of some insect species (Kitching et al., 2013), at coarse taxonomic levels there  
272 is little spatial difference in the prey consumed by *H. cervinus*. Previous findings  
273 suggested that, as high-duty cycle echolocators, *H. cervinus* primarily consumed flying  
274 insects (Bell and Fenton, 1984; Link et al., 1986; Schnitzler and Kalko, 2001; Lazure and  
275 Fenton, 2011), in particular Lepidoptera, Blattodea, Diptera and Coleoptera. The regular  
276 presence of diverse families of spiders indicates a dietary contribution of these taxa  
277 previously unknown in the Hipposideridae family of bats. Hipposiderids have been  
278 observed gleaning stationary targets with fluttering wings (Bell and Fenton, 1984), but  
279 the consumption of spiders would either suggest they are gleaning non-fluttering animals,  
280 or taking them when ballooning as juveniles. Alternatively, the consumption of spiders  
281 could be due to secondary predation: where the bat consumes a primary prey item which  
282 has ingested a spider. This seems an unlikely explanation for our dataset, since predatory

283 arthropods other than Araneae are poorly represented in the MOTU dataset. In this study  
284 we used one of the most reliable primer sets for amplification of a wide range of digested  
285 arthropods (Zeale et al., 2011; Alberdi et al., 2018), but they are also reported to have  
286 taxonomic biases towards Diptera and Lepidoptera. However, we found no significant  
287 negative correlations between detecting Dipteran or Lepidopteran DNA in a sample, and  
288 the detection of any other prey order. This indicates that amplification of dipteran or  
289 lepidopteran DNA did not consistently inhibit the amplification of another taxonomic  
290 order during PCR, and that sequencing depth is sufficient.

291

292 There was no clear pattern of degree differing between logged and old growth habitats.  
293 This is in contrast to our previous findings in these study sites (Hemprich-Bennett et al.,  
294 2020), that the overall assemblage of bat species in these sites consistently had reduced  
295 degree in logged forest than old growth. The diversity of the overall bats' diet is likely  
296 due to the high diversity of prey available to them, and the lack of observed differences  
297 in diet between sites may indicate highly flexible foraging, with low impact of land-use  
298 change on their diets. Being able to forage adaptively, or fly long distances to viable  
299 feeding sites (Struebig et al., 2009) may enable them to remain abundant despite selective  
300 logging, while conspecific species experience population declines (Struebig et al., 2013).  
301 This species may, as a result, provide ecological redundancy and continue to contribute  
302 insectivory when more sensitive bat species have become locally extinct.

303

304 A crucial concern in network ecology is the minimum number of samples or observations  
305 required to characterise reliably the structure and identity of the interactions within a  
306 network (Nielsen and Bascompte, 2007; Rivera-Hutinel et al., 2012). This requirement is

307 complicated in studies utilising DNA metabarcoding as the number of nodes generated is  
308 dependent on the bioinformatic choices used to generate them. While MOTU approaches  
309 frequently apply a standard resolution to all nodes which helps control for variation in  
310 identification, altering MOTU clustering threshold will change the number of nodes and  
311 estimates of completeness, analogous to lumping taxonomy-based identifications to  
312 higher levels, but without a biological equivalent. We tested MOTU clustering and the  
313 use of LULU for quality-control and demonstrated that it was possible to alter estimates  
314 of sampling completeness greatly (Figure 4). However, when generating networks with a  
315 range of bioinformatics combinations, we observed that none exceeded an estimate of  
316 50% completeness and thus regardless of parameters used, obtaining the full estimate of  
317 *H. cervinus* diet would require several hundred samples per site, with the same likely true  
318 of many ecologically similar species. Altering MOTU clustering parameters has  
319 previously been shown to cause great variation in MOTU counts (Clare et al., 2016) and  
320 changes in numerous measures of network-level architecture (Hemprich-Bennett et al.,  
321 2021). The reduction in number of estimated MOTUs provided by LULU (Frøslev et al.,  
322 2017) is expected to be of great use in future metabarcoding-based studies to reduce  
323 spurious MOTU generation.

324

325 The dietary richness found here echoes previous studies (Clare et al., 2009; McCracken  
326 et al., 2012) but raises question about the capacity of bats to distinguish between prey  
327 types in detail (Neuweiler, 1990) and if this has implications for prey-choice. At the same  
328 time, our results highlight the substantial challenge of characterising the diets of this and  
329 other insectivorous bat species, especially in hyperdiverse ecosystems such as tropical  
330 rainforests. Their large dietary breadth is further highlighted by the fact that DNA  
331 extractions performed here were for pooled faecal samples from each individual bat, a

332 technique which Mata *et al.* (Mata et al., 2018) found underestimated the total richness  
333 of the diet per bat. Previous intensive studies of arthropod diversity in lowland tropical  
334 rainforest have failed to reach an asymptote (Novotný and Basset, 2000; Basset et al.,  
335 2012), and if bats are foraging opportunistically it is perhaps unsurprising that the  
336 taxonomic breadth of their diet is extremely large and nearly impossible to sample  
337 completely.

338

339 We demonstrate the vast richness of prey consumed by insectivorous bats in tropical  
340 rainforest and show that although quality-control steps in metabarcoding can reduce our  
341 estimates of the number of distinct prey items in a site, many hundreds of samples are  
342 required to collect a representative description of total diet. Although we focussed our  
343 sampling on a single species of insectivorous bat, some inferences likely also apply to  
344 similar species, and to other studies that use metabarcoding. The number of sites analysed  
345 in this study was low, but it has been shown here that this Hipposiderid species has a  
346 highly diverse diet; relying on cockroaches more than previously thought and potentially  
347 having a strategy of gleaning non-fluttering prey previously unknown in the family. This  
348 bat species is thus thought to exhibit low levels of dietary response to habitat degradation,  
349 potentially indicating reasons for their known versatility in the face of landscape  
350 modification.



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570

## 571 **Tables**

572 Table 1. Trapping effort per site, in harp trap nights. One harp trap night is a harp trap  
573 erected for a single night. Six harp traps were used per night, so a single night's trapping  
574 was equal to six harp trap nights.

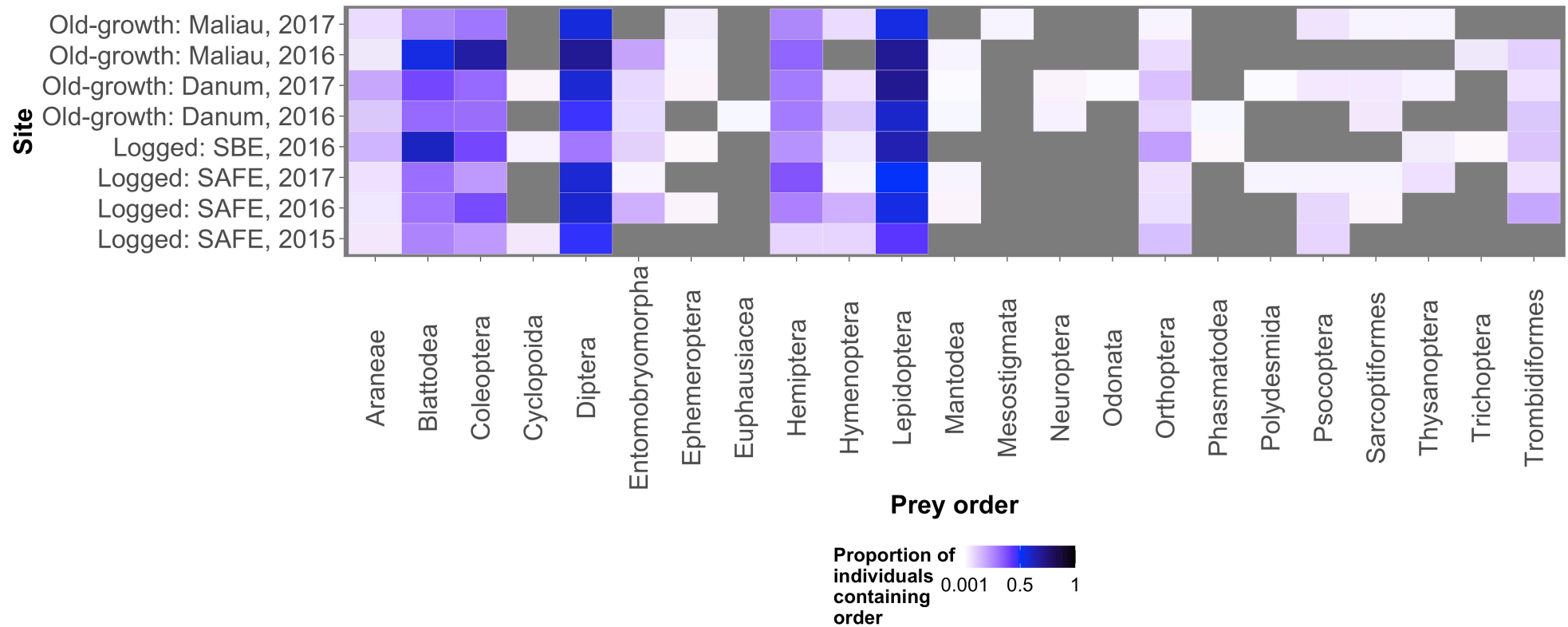
<b>Sample Site</b>	<b>2015</b>	<b>2016</b>	<b>2017</b>
<b>SAFE</b>	216	180	180
<b>Danum</b>	0	60	60
<b>Maliau</b>	0	60	60
<b>SBE</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>0</b>

575

576 **Figures**

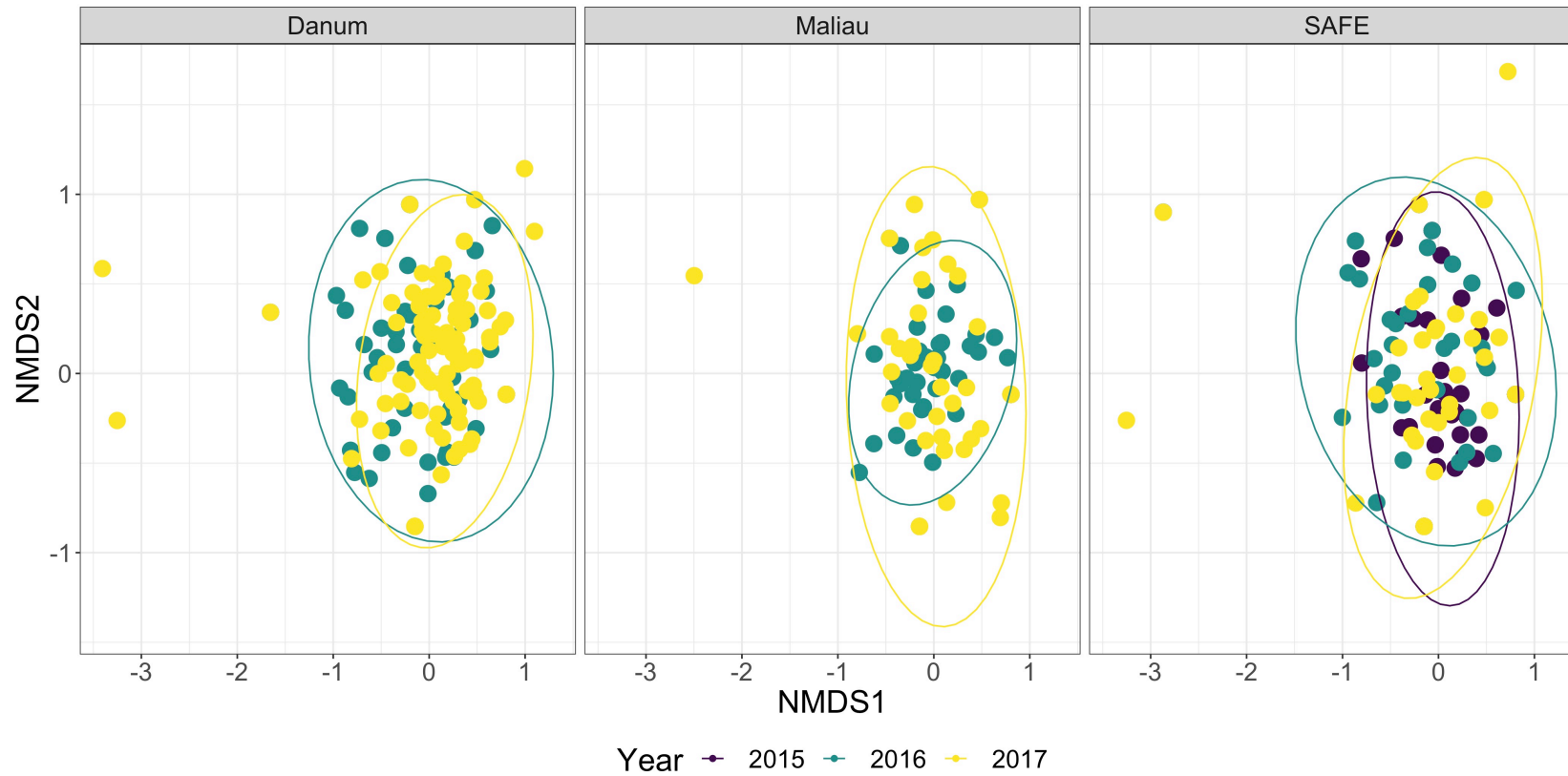
577





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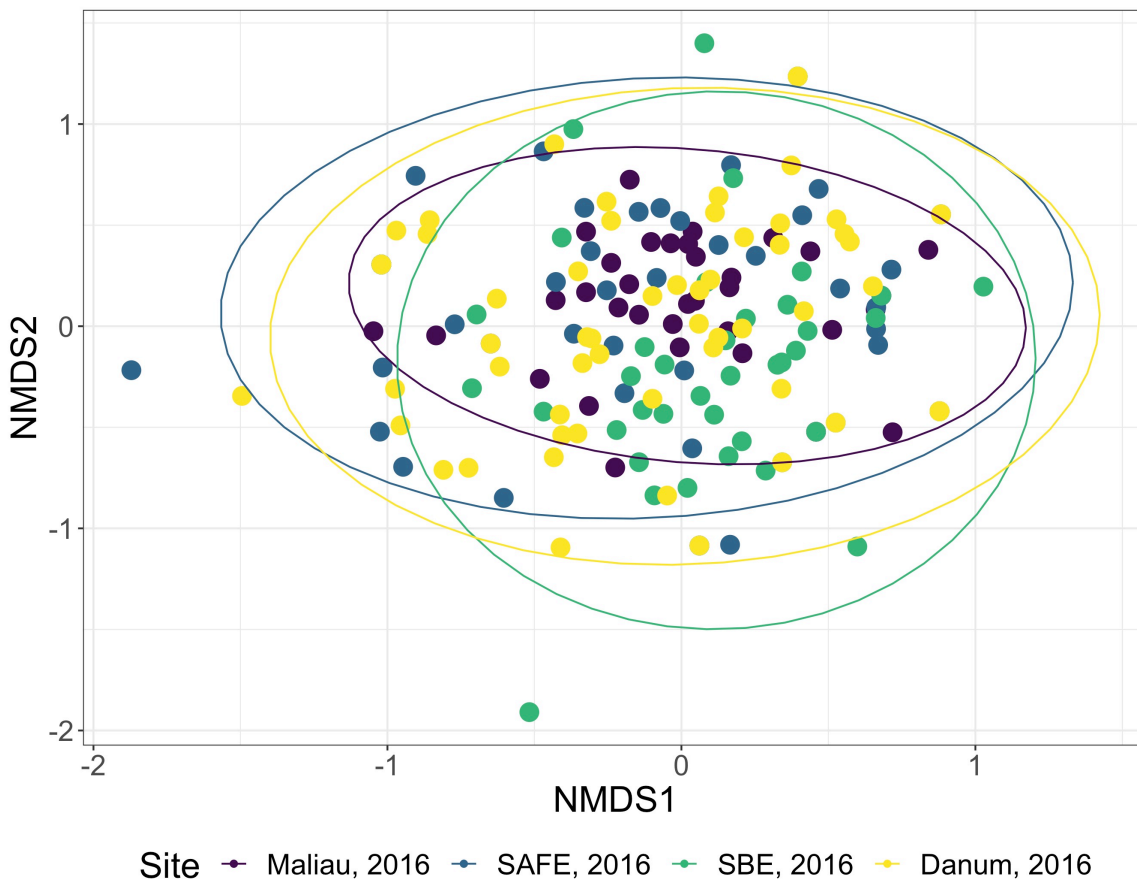
579 Figure 1. The proportion of all individual bats within a sampling event found to consume each potential prey order. Diptera, Lepidoptera and Blattodea  
 580 were the commonest prey items, with other prey orders being consumed rarely. The grey background shows locations in the plot where no arthropods of  
 581 that order were detected in any bats.



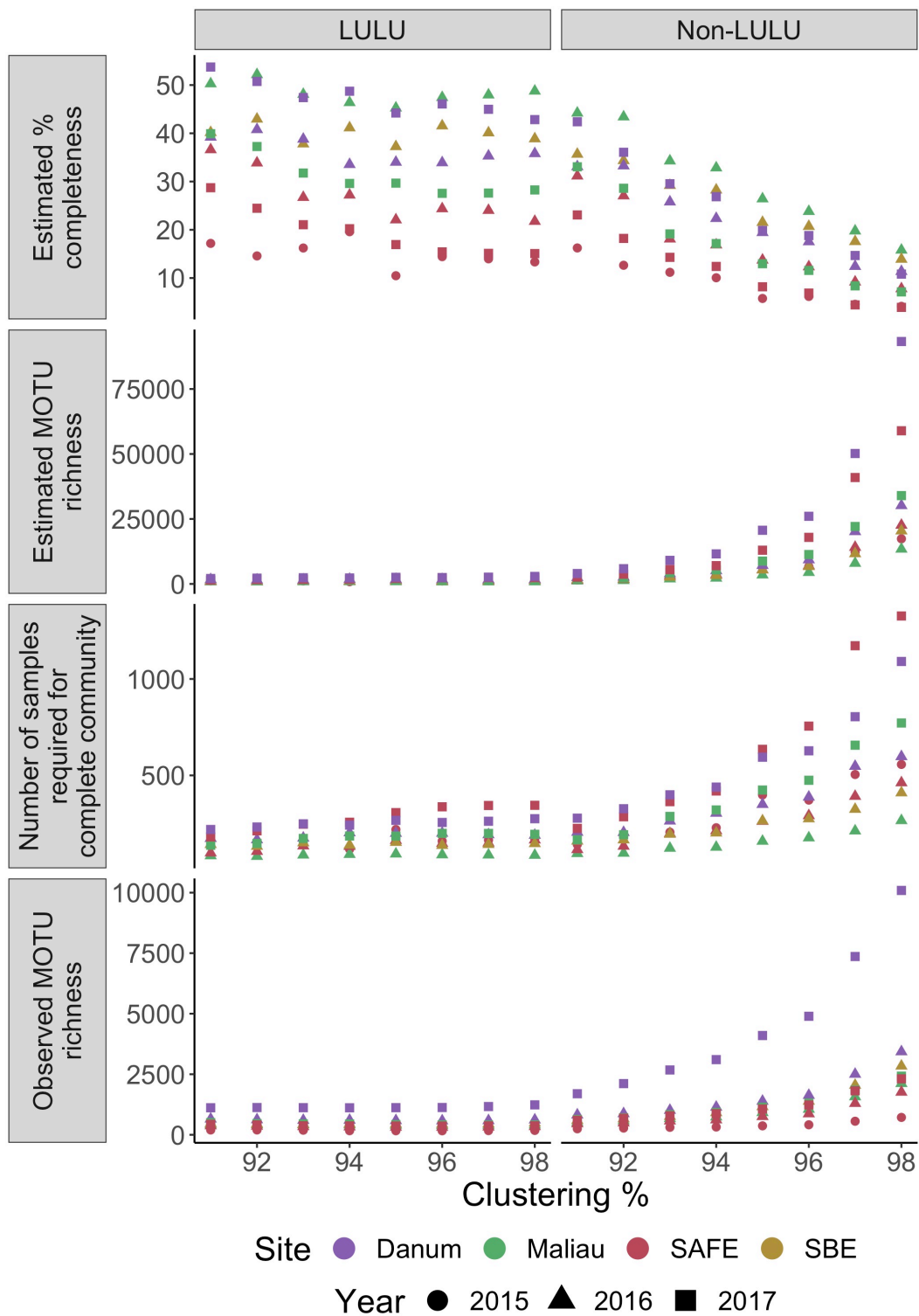
582

583 Figure 2. Non-Metric Multidimensional Scaling ordination of the order-level consumption of individual bats across multiple years. The ellipses of each  
 584 site show almost complete overlap. Stress was 0.21, indicating poor convergence. Danum and Maliau are old-growth sites, SAFE is a logged forest site.

585

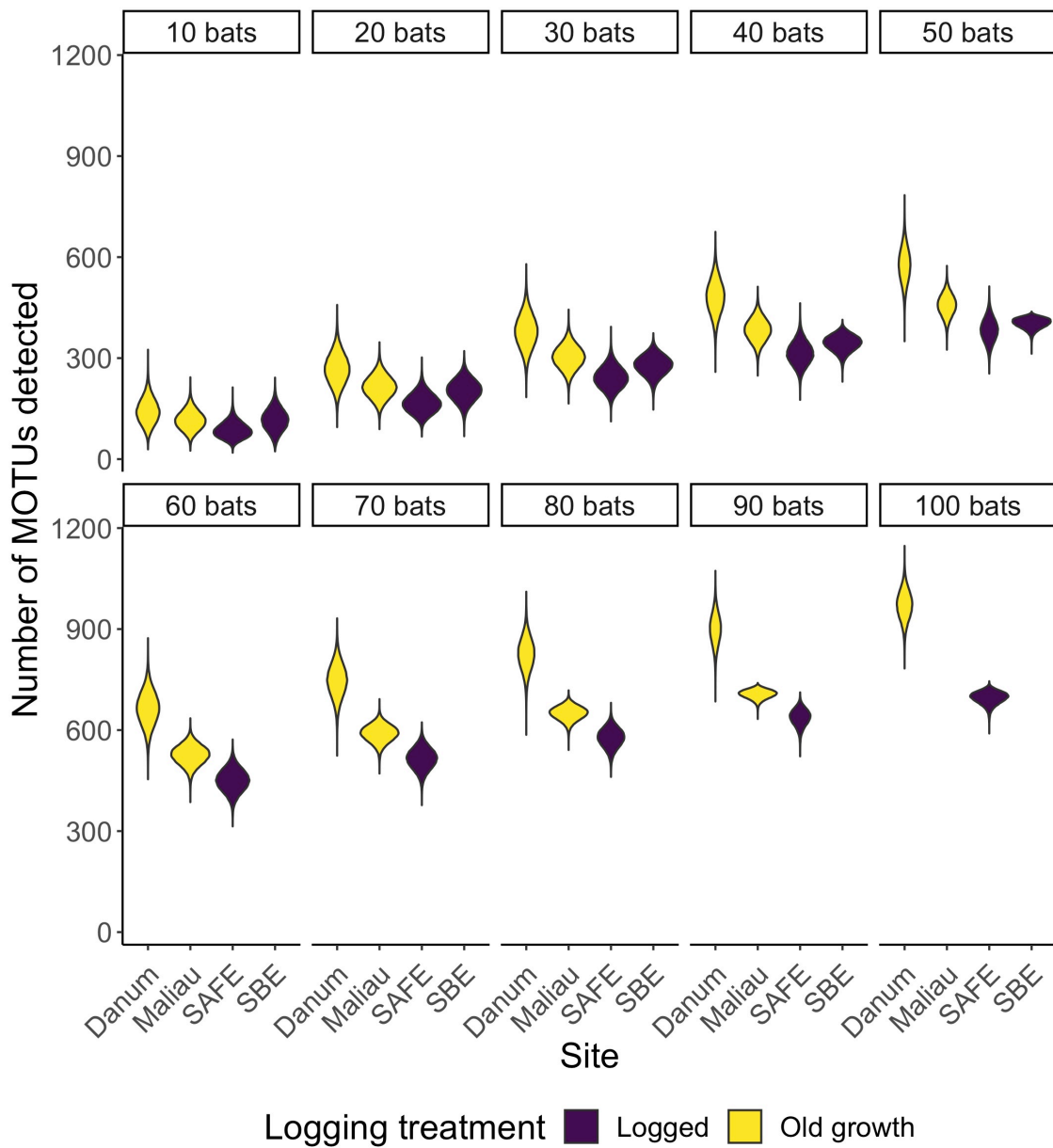


587 Figure 3. Non-Metric Multidimensional Scaling ordination of the order-level  
588 consumption of individual bats in 2016. The ellipses of each site show almost complete  
589 overlap. Stress was 0.22, indicating poor convergence. Danum and Maliau are old-growth  
590 sites, SAFE and SBE are logged forest sites.



591

592 Figure 4. Completeness and richness for each network over a range of MOTU clustering  
593 thresholds, with and without use of LULU for post-clustering quality-control. Number of  
594 MOTUs is strongly positively correlated with clustering level when not using LULU for  
595 quality-control, reducing the estimated completeness of each network.



596

597 Figure 5: Violinplots showing the distribution of the number of MOTUs consumed when  
598 reducing a dataset to  $n$  bats. With small datasets, sites appear to be rather similar in  
599 MOTU richness, but differences emerge as sample sizes increase.