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4 **Interactions between Javan slow lorises (*Nycticebus javanicus*) and domestic
5 and wild carnivores in an anthropogenic landscape in Java, Indonesia**

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7 *Running head: slow loris carnivore interactions in Java*

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22
23 **Abstract**

24 With increasing replacement of native forests with agriculture, it is important to understand
25 the factors that allow non-human primates to persist, including their interactions with
26 potential predators, both wild and domestic. For small-bodied nocturnal primates, the
27 smaller carnivores and domestic dogs that often characterise agroforestry landscapes may
28 be a particular threat, especially for primates like slow lorises, which rely on canopy
29 connectivity and are particularly vulnerable on the ground. Here we present data collected
30 over 12 years in Indonesia. During a long-term study on Javan slow lorises, we used *ad*
31 *libitum* sampling to record 703 instances of slow lorises in proximity to wild small carnivores
32 (mainly Javan palm civets, small Indian civets, Sunda leopard cats and Javan ferret badgers)
33 and 62 and 58 interactions with small carnivores and domestic dogs respectively. Most of
34 these interactions were neutral or potentially affiliative, including sharing waterline canopy
35 bridges and sleeping sites. Only two negative interactions occurred between lorises and wild
36 carnivores and give potential predation events were recorded that could be linked to
37 domestic dogs. Slow lorises also altered their behaviour to be less active and more vigilant
38 when small carnivores were present, or dogs were barking. The introduction of a
39 WhatsApp[®] group facilitated data collection, increasing the detail of observations, and
40 introducing significantly more data on interactions with domestic dogs. Based on this 12-
41 year study, we saw an overall decline in small carnivores, especially nearer to the village,
42 which could be linked to competition with domestic dogs. As habitats continue to decline,
43 and domestic carnivores increase in number, both wild predators and prey may suffer
44 population declines. A better understanding of the role of dogs in this changing landscape is
45 vital.

46
47 Keywords: *coexistence; domestic dog; fragmentation; Lorisidae; Viverridae; Felidae;*
48 *WhatsApp*[®]

49 Introduction

50 Replacement of native forests by plantations and urban sprawl, resulting in small
51 heterogeneous habitat patches, impacts species composition for predators and their prey
52 (Laurance *et al.*, 2014; Wells *et al.*, 2014). Polyculture plantations in the form of
53 agroecosystems have been described as having the potential to harbour higher species
54 diversity than monocultures, and to be a refuge for smaller bodied often nocturnal
55 mammals (Sodhi *et al.*, 2010; Al-Razi *et al.*, 2023). Amongst those species able to use
56 agroecosystems are small carnivores and non-human primates (hereafter primates) (Estrada
57 *et al.*, 2012; Ferreira *et al.*, 2018; Boonratana, 2019). The selective nature of animals that
58 can survive within an agroforest ecosystem will also impact interspecific interactions,
59 including amongst predators and prey and amongst species that cooperate or compete.
60 These interactions may also include domestic species, which have their own functional roles
61 as predators and prey (Wells *et al.*, 2014). Domestic carnivores, especially dogs (*Canis*
62 *familiaris*) and cats (*Felis catus*), are often free-roaming, and are known to have caused the
63 decline and even extirpation of many native species through predation, competition, and
64 disease transmission (Doherty *et al.*, 2017). Species affected may include primates as well as
65 other carnivores, especially in agroforestry ecosystems and their associated villages on the
66 fringes of forests and protected areas nearer to human settlements (Anderson, 1986;
67 Gerber *et al.*, 2012).

68

69 It is well documented that more predation instances are noticed when a study is focussed
70 on the predator, including for nocturnal primates, especially lemurs (Goodman *et al.*, 1993;
71 Hart, 2007; Sauther *et al.*, 2024). Burnham *et al.* (2013) emphasised also that few reports of
72 predation on nocturnal primates are reported outside of Madagascar, reporting only five
73 confirmed cases. Since their review, an emerging literature reveals the potential impact of
74 predators in general (e.g., Cuzzo *et al.*, 2021; Makur *et al.*, 2022), including domestic dogs
75 on nocturnal primates. Species predated upon by domestic dogs including mouse lemurs
76 (*Microcebus* spp.), thick-tailed bushbabies (*Otolemur crassicaudatus*), and small-eared
77 galagos (*O. garnetti lasiotis*) (Goodman *et al.*, 1993; Pihlström *et al.*, 2021; Cuzzo *et al.*,
78 2022). Although no records are available for domestic cats preying on nocturnal primates, a
79 recorded predation attempt on a Rondon's marmoset (*Mico rondoni*), which is in the same
80 body size range as a juvenile slow loris (*Nycticebus* spp.), has been recorded (Oliveira and
81 Fernandes, 2021). Domestic dogs have been reported to attack small Indian civets
82 (*Viverricula indica*), and their pack hunting means they have the potential to kill carnivores
83 of similar body size (Vanak and Gompper, 2010). Moreover, the presence of both domestic
84 cats and dogs near human habitation may impact the density and distribution of small
85 carnivores due to competition for other prey, such as rodents and marsupials (Vanak and
86 Gomper, 2010; Yen *et al.*, 2019).

87

88 Due to their slow climbing locomotion and need for continuous canopy connectivity, slow
89 lorises are particularly vulnerable to loss of habitat connectivity (Al Razi *et al.*, 2022;
90 Choudhury *et al.*, 2022; Quarles *et al.*, 2023). They move awkwardly on the ground, which
91 also may lack substrates to hide in or cling to, meaning one would expect them to be
92 vulnerable to predation in degraded. In our semi-urban study site in West Java Indonesia,
93 Javan slow lorises (*N. javanicus*) have been observed to move as much as 25 m on the
94 ground (Karimloo *et al.*, 2023). Few predation instances, however, have been recorded of
95 slow lorises, mainly in more pristine forest by Bornean (*Pongo pygmaeus wurmbii*) and

96 Sumatran (*P. p. abelii*) orang-utans, reticulated python (*Python reticulatus*) and changeable
97 hawk eagles (*Nisaetus cirrhatus*) (Utami and van Hooff, 1997; Wiens and Zitzmann, 1999;
98 Svensson *et al.*, 2018; Makur *et al.*, 2022). Translocated slow lorises also are known to have
99 been killed by predators, including monitor lizards (*Varanus* spp.), partly because
100 translocated animals spend unusual amounts of time on the ground (Kenyon *et al.*, 2014).

101

102 Indonesia's island of Java provides an interesting location to examine the relationship
103 between slow lorises and carnivores. Java has a history of deforestation for agriculture and
104 urban development stretching back to the first millennium AD, leading to less than 10% of
105 rainforest remaining (Nijman, 2013). This long history of habitat changes likely impacts the
106 relationship between domestic and wild carnivores and primates as they have been able to
107 adapt to habitat changes over a longer time. We have been examining the behavioural
108 ecology of Javan slow lorises in Cipaganti, West Java, Indonesia, since 2011 (Nekaris *et al.*,
109 2017). Not only do Javan slow lorises use agroforest ecosystems extensively, but for some
110 individuals up to 54% of their home range lies within urban settings (Karimloo *et al.*, 2023).
111 Lack of arboreal connectivity in these urban settings forces animals to the ground, where
112 they may be vulnerable to predators (Biro *et al.*, 2020; Cuozzo *et al.*, 2022). We thus
113 previously implemented and examined the use of arboreal canopy bridges by Javan slow
114 lorises and Javan palm civets (*Paradoxurus musangus javanicus*), noting the use of these
115 bridges by taxa, including the impact of ecological parameters on bridge use (Biro *et al.*,
116 2020; Nekaris *et al.*, 2021; Nekaris *et al.*, 2020). We also previously explored some aspects
117 of the ecology of three other small carnivore species: small Indian civet (*Viverricula indica*),
118 Sunda leopard cat (*Prionailurus javanensis*) and Javan ferret badger (*Melogale orientalis*)
119 (Campera *et al.*, 2021). Until now, we have not examined any potential interactions
120 between these species, or domestic carnivores – cats and dogs – within the matrix.

121

122 As part of a long-term study, data collection methods can change over time and become
123 nuanced to gain more detail about the focal species and those with which they interact. In
124 our nocturnal study, we traditionally use hand-written data sheets with red lights. These
125 factors protect the nocturnal vision of the observers and reduce stress to the animals (Rode-
126 Margono *et al.*, 2014). The collection of data via mobile phones is increasing but is still less
127 reported for biodiversity studies (Andrachuk *et al.*, 2019; Njenga *et al.*, 2021). At night,
128 improvements in “dark mode” allow the observer to retain night vision (Kunjir *et al.*, 2024).
129 Furthermore, the emergence of mobile phone towers even in remote areas of Asia, and the
130 increasing adoption of these technologies by younger people, allows novel use of interactive
131 chat groups to monitor data collection (Rahman, 2022). Tools such as WhatsApp[®] are
132 participative, cost effective and overcome the barriers of time, geography, manpower
133 associated with traditional extension services (Thakur and Chander, 2016). By introducing
134 this technology in our project, we hoped to be able to collect more detailed data than in our
135 traditional datasheets.

136

137 With increasing habitat loss, the potential for primates and potential wild predators to come
138 together in the limited space available increases, while at the same time, interactions with
139 domestic carnivores may also increase (Galán-Acedo *et al.*, 2019). Here, we use our long-
140 term dataset to address whether wild carnivores present in our study area are likely
141 potential predators of slow lorises. With decreasing habitat connectivity, and many feral
142 dogs and cats in the village, we also examined their potential threat to slow lorises and

143 competition with wild carnivores. We thus examine the following questions. How often do
144 slow lorises come into contact with wild and domestic carnivores during follows when they
145 are radio tracked? What is the nature of these interactions? Considering that our long-term
146 study mainly focussed on the slow lorises, we examine the introduction of a WhatsApp[®]
147 group for *ad libitum* data collection and its implications for recording instances and details
148 of loris and dog interactions that may otherwise not be entered on a scientific datasheet.
149

150 **Material and Methods**

151 *Study site*

152 We collected data in an agroforestry environment, neighbouring a continuous forest, in the
153 municipality of Cipaganti, Cisurupan District, Garut Regency, West Java, Indonesia (7.2786°
154 S, 107.7577° E; elevation ~1350 m asl. The adjacent forest is part of Mt Puntang, which is
155 part of the volcanic mountain range containing the nationally protected Mt Papandayan of
156 the Western Java montane rainforests ecoregion. The area consists of an agroforestry
157 system of interconnected crops usually separated by tree rows, with additional trees
158 planted inside farms (Campera *et al.*, 2021).

159 *Data Collection*

160 From 2012 to 2023, we collected nightly focal follows to study the behaviour of Javan slow
161 lorises, six nights a week, from 18:00–0:00 and/or from 0:00 until the focal individual
162 entered a sleep site (c.f., Nekaris *et al.*, 2010). We followed 77 individuals via an antenna
163 (Yagi, Biotrack[®], UK) and receiver (Sika, Biotrack[®], UK), and here consider instantaneous
164 point sampling data from April 2012–July 2023, and evidence of actual predation until
165 October 2024. We also recorded the presence of other mammals we encountered during
166 observations of Javan slow lorises. From 2012 to 2013, these notes were unsystematic, but
167 from 2014, we created a specific data sheet focussing on wild small carnivores; although the
168 behaviour and habitat use of the carnivores was recorded, here we present how many of
169 each species was seen within proximity (10 m or less) of a Javan slow loris. We included
170 additional *ad libitum* observations relating to wild carnivore proximity to slow lorises on
171 slow loris data collection sheets during collection of 5-minute instantaneous sample points.
172 We used our standard project ethogram to quantify the behaviour of the slow lorises, and
173 include seven categories here (Rode-Margono, *et al.*, 2014). Alert and freezing included the
174 animals in a still position, staring at their surroundings. Travelling involved directed
175 movement over a distance, whereas exploring includes moving back and forth over one or a
176 small set of trees, often foraging or scent marking. We combined resting and sleeping,
177 which are relaxed and still behaviours without any form of vigilance. Autogrooming involved
178 an animal cleaning itself with the tongue, toothcomb or toilet claw. Social behaviours
179 recorded here comprised allogrooming, playing, leading, following, and feeding together. To
180 try to increase the detail of these observations, in September 2017, we introduced a
181 WhatsApp[®] group called “Stories from the Garden”, where trained researchers were
182 encouraged to write detailed notes from the field during observations. The introduction of
183 this group was in response to limited notes in the *ad libitum* column of the datasheets. Field
184 researchers also could ask other experienced researchers on the group questions directly

185 from the field. From this point, researchers organically began to add *ad libitum* notes on
186 domestic carnivores. Finally, since 2014, we implemented camera traps on canopy bridges,
187 increasing the number of cameras and bridges from 2 to 18 by 2016. We report here events
188 when Javan slow lorises were found interacting with carnivores on canopy bridges (see Birot
189 *et al.*, 2020 and Nekaris *et al.*, 2020 for details on the methods).

190 *Data analysis*

191 We present the total interactions, including qualitative descriptions, between Javan slow
192 lorises and carnivores, as well as putative predation events. We calculated the proportion of
193 each behaviour in the slow loris activity budget in total and by sex when they were in the
194 presence of civets or leopard cats and when dogs were barking. It was not possible to
195 calculate a proportion for each individual as the events were rare. We then calculated the
196 activity budget (total and divided by sex) considering time budgets for each adult individual
197 followed for at least 100 hours (24 females and 22 males). To examine if the introduction of
198 our WhatsApp[®] group impacted the detail of descriptions of interactions between lorises
199 and carnivores, we used the word frequency analysis function via NVivo for descriptions in
200 the field notes until 2017 and compared these to the WhatsApp[®] descriptions. We first
201 grouped synonymous words. We reported the weighted percentages (i.e., the frequency of
202 the word relative to the total words counted) of each word in comments before and after
203 the use of WhatsApp[®] group. Words with a score of one or higher suggest a significant
204 increase between conditions. We also created word clouds for comments done before and
205 after the use of WhatsApp[®] group.

206 **Results**

207 We recorded 706 instances of Javan slow loris being in proximity of 10 m or less to other
208 mammals. For 379 of these instances, only the presence of the small carnivore was noted.
209 For 327 of them, the observer provided *ad libitum* comments (e.g., distance between lorises
210 and other mammals, behaviour of the other mammals). Javan palm civets (n=413) were the
211 most common small carnivore spotted in proximity to Javan slow lorises, followed by Sunda
212 leopard cats (n=164), small Indian civets (n=57), Javan ferret badgers (n=10), and binturongs
213 (n=1). Three interactions with wild boar were also recorded and for the other 58
214 interactions we were unable to identify the species. Figure 1 shows the location in the study
215 area where each species was detected over the years, declining markedly by 2022-2023
216 particularly near the village, despite these years having the largest numbers of loris
217 behavioural observations from the 12-year period.

218
219 Most interactions between carnivores and lorises were neutral, whereby the animals passed
220 near each other, or where one animal was foraging near another. For example, we recorded
221 nine instances of a Javan palm civet passively foraging near a parked infant loris. We
222 recorded two instances where adult females actively and curiously approached a Javan palm
223 civet, which ignored them, and another of an adult male loris and civet sniffing each other,
224 then separating. We recorded one aggressive interaction between a Javan palm civet and an
225 adult female slow loris (involving a chase by the palm civet, resulting in the two going in
226 opposite directions). We recorded one seemingly aggressive incident where a small Indian
227 civet, which appeared to be foraging, continually approached an adult male loris, who stood
228 “frozen” until the civet left. We recorded one interaction where the researcher suggested

229 that a Sunda leopard cat “wanted to attack” an adult female slow loris, based on the cat’s
230 pouncing and crouching behaviour. We recorded regular sharing of a bamboo sleeping site
231 (about 3 m apart) of an adult female slow loris, her mate and two offspring and a Javan
232 palm civet and offspring for a ten-month period. Considering the waterline canopy bridges,
233 civets and lorises both regularly used the bridges, but the cameras only recorded two
234 instances of a Javan slow loris and a Javan palm civet crossing a bridge at the same time,
235 whereby the loris needed to move underneath the civet; we recorded one instance where a
236 Javan palm civet lead across the bridge, followed by a loris (Figure 2).

237

238 Over the 12 years, we never witnessed a predation event, but of 32 deceased animals, eight
239 showed potential signs of interference by carnivores or other animals (Figure 3). One adult
240 male had what seemed to be a snake bite on his hand. Two disappeared leaving only the
241 radio collar with bite marks, but these also could have been bite marks of a loris chewing
242 the collar off. One adult female was found dead on the ground with bite marks on the back
243 and thighs. Another young adult male who was not able to settle after dispersal was found
244 hanging from a chayote (*Sechium edule*) frame, missing both legs and a left arm. Two elderly
245 adult females found dead had either a head or limbs missing, and a young female was found
246 dead under a pumpkin frame, but too decomposed to look for bite wounds. In all these
247 cases, it was conjectured that bites and interference with the corpse were likely from a dog.
248 We cannot say, however, if a carnivore interfered with an already dead body of an individual
249 or was the cause of death.

250

251 As noted above, most records of small carnivores comprised location data only with no
252 comments on their behaviour. In 2017 a WhatsApp® group was introduced in an attempt to
253 increase detailed comments on lorises in general and on the behaviour of carnivores and
254 their interactions with lorises. The number comments increased from 43.3% to 51.1% after
255 the introduction of the WhatsApp® group. Of these comments, the number of comments
256 with details on the behaviour of carnivores was 31.6% (13.7% of the total number of
257 comments) before and 65.7% (33.6% of the total number of comments) after the
258 introduction of the WhatsApp® group. After the introduction of the WhatsApp group
259 observers provided more details on the behaviour of carnivores, whilst before its
260 introduction most of the information was descriptive. The word clouds and the table both
261 show that before, terms were more descriptive, for example the distance to the path or
262 other environmental features and area where the individuals were found. Afterwards, terms
263 linked to their behaviour and ecology (such as “froze”, “alert” or “fled”) had significantly
264 higher weights, as shown by the NVIVO analysis (Table 1, Figure 4).

265

266 A notable change after the introduction of the WhatsApp® group was the inclusion of
267 records of response to dogs. Although we never saw a direct interaction between dogs and
268 slow lorises, researchers included statements like “he is silent maybe because the dogs keep
269 barking” or “she is resting in the eucalyptus tree...she looks like she didn’t want to take the
270 risk to meet the dog”. We recorded the behaviour of slow lorises 58 times when dogs were
271 present and barking (17 times before the introduction of the WhatsApp® group, 41 after the
272 introduction of the WhatsApp® group). Comparing also with the 62 observations when they
273 were in proximity to civets or leopard cats, qualitatively, lorises changed their behaviour
274 when in proximity to carnivores compared to their normal behaviour, showing more alert

275 and freeze behaviours. When dogs were barking, they also fed and travelled more, whereas
276 in the presence of civets and leopard cats, they were more likely to be social (Table 2).

277

278 **Discussion**

279 Here we show that a range of both domestic and wild carnivores live alongside Javan slow
280 lorises in a disturbed agroforestry matrix in West Java Indonesia. We show that during loris
281 follows, there was limited interaction between these carnivores and slow lorises, with most
282 interactions being neutral or affiliative. Lorises were however more vigilant when wild
283 carnivores and dogs were present, and of several animals that died, they likely were at least
284 manipulated by carnivores, probably domestic dogs. We acknowledge that we were
285 studying the lorises and not the carnivores, but we still feel that these data provide an
286 insight into their interactions, including that domestic dogs are speculatively a greater
287 predator threat than other native small carnivore species.

288

289 Despite studying Javan slow lorises in an agroforestry system, we recorded them in
290 proximity to five native carnivore species. The small carnivore groups that occurred
291 alongside slow lorises have similarities to those found in other studies of both agroforest
292 and forested ecosystems. For example, in lemon gardens in Bangladesh, Bengal slow lorises
293 (*N. bengalensis*) also occur most commonly alongside common palm civets (*Paradoxurus*
294 *hermaphroditus*), masked palm civets (*Paguma larvata*) and large Indian civets (*Viverra*
295 *zibetha*). Leopard cats were present, but at lower numbers (Al Razi *et al.*, 2023). Similarly, in
296 plantation compared with primary forest in Thailand, common palm civets and slow lorises
297 were able to persist in both forest types, though no small cats were reported (Pliosungnoen
298 *et al.*, 2010). In protected semi-evergreen forest, the situation is similar for Southern pygmy
299 loris (*Xanthonycticebus pygmaeus*), with common palm civets being the most common,
300 followed by masked civets and leopard cats (Starr *et al.*, 2012). In all three of these studies,
301 slow lorises were more common in more disturbed areas of the study sites. Similarly, slow
302 lorises tend to be less abundant in the secondary forest, perhaps due to lack of canopy
303 connectivity or gum trees, which is their main food (Nekaris *et al.*, 2010). In all of these
304 studies, small wild cats were amongst the least common in the agroforest areas compared
305 to more forested areas, confirming that they can persist, but in not as high numbers as in
306 unlogged forest (Sodhi *et al.*, 2010). Again, as in our study, slow and pygmy lorises were not
307 observed to be preyed upon by small carnivores.

308

309 Despite the presence of a number of carnivore species in this study, our sightings of them
310 declined over the years, which may be linked to a decrease in prey. Despite their ability to
311 persist in some agroforest ecosystems, many small carnivores have shown worldwide
312 declines (Ferreira *et al.*, 2018). *Eucalyptus* plantations have replaced a large host of native
313 trees, and, as in our study site, may be provided for free by the government to encourage
314 soil stability and maintain watersheds (Gerber, 2011). Despite the loss of native trees, such
315 plantations may still host abundant prey for small carnivores, and can act as a vital refuge,
316 especially when near a forest edge (Moreira-Arce *et al.*, 2015; Boonratana, 2019). This could
317 be due to changing farming techniques in our area, resulting in fewer rodent predators (for
318 example changing from ground crops that provide extensive cover for rodents to raised
319 pumpkin growing frames) (Nekaris *et al.*, 2010; Campera *et al.*, 2021), but also perhaps to
320 the presence of domestic dogs. Yen *et al.* (2019) found that dogs impacted the density and
321 activity of several small carnivores, including civets and ferret badgers. Indeed, dogs were

322 shown to have a greater impact than domestic cats, partly attributed to their greater
323 roaming from urban areas. Our team never recorded cats in the agroforest gardens,
324 whereas dogs were recorded 58 times. Campera *et al.* (2021) found that small rodents as
325 identified via camera traps were more abundant in the forest than in the gardens and
326 influenced the spatial and temporal distribution of Javan palm civets. Further studies should
327 examine the small mammal availability at our study site. Furthermore, quantifying the
328 number of dogs over time will help us to understand their potential impact on native
329 carnivore numbers.

330

331 Despite the potential lack of prey, we found limited evidence that native small carnivores
332 were a threat to Javan slow lorises, even showing friendly interactions and sharing a
333 sleeping site. Although they were more vigilant in the presence of small carnivores, Javan
334 slow lorises also engaged in more social behaviour, including playing and allogrooming,
335 suggesting that they felt relaxed in their presence. The two most common small carnivores
336 were Sunda leopard cats and Javan palm civets. Leopard cats can climb trees and young
337 slow lorises (which weigh less than 350 g, as opposed to 910 g adults) especially could be
338 vulnerable to these cats. Yet we never saw a leopard cat in a tree, despite availability of
339 climbing trees in the hedge rows of fields. Kodkod cats (*Leopardus guigna*) reduced hunting
340 of arboreal prey in an agroforestry system, perhaps due to the lack of complex arboreal
341 structure, reducing the effectiveness of their prey capture (Moreira-Arce *et al.*, 2015).
342 Perhaps for similar reasons leopard cats in our area were strictly terrestrial during our
343 observations. To the contrary, Javan palm civets were spotted most often in the trees. Only
344 a single “chase” between the two was observed, with other observations including animals
345 sharing sleeping sites, resting in proximity in trees, and using human-made canopy bridges
346 at the same time. These observations suggested to us that Javan palm civets are at least not
347 common predators to Javan slow lorises. Still, brown palm civets (*Paradoxurus jerdoni*) are
348 known predators to the much smaller Malabar slender lorises (*Loris malabaricus* – 220 g),
349 using team hunting techniques to kill an adult the same size as a juvenile Javan slow loris
350 (Gnanaolivu and Singh, 2019). At our site, very young animals do from time to time
351 disappear, and it is possible that they are victims of predation. The potential to collect civet
352 scats is limited due to a high collection demand for “civet coffee” in our area, but
353 collaboration with scat collectors in the future may help to yield more information on them
354 as potential predators.

355

356 When we started our study, we did not consider recording the many domestic dogs in the
357 area as potential predators and it was not a feature of our datasheets. It emerged as a
358 theme in *ad libitum* data, and later in our WhatsApp® group. These data suggest that dogs
359 may pose the greatest threat to slow lorises in our area. Dog barking did induce vigilance in
360 lorises, and several deaths may be attributed to dogs. The most probable death was an
361 unsettled younger male, whose lower half was found hanging from a chayote (*Sechium*
362 *edule*) frame and was clearly eaten by a carnivore. This animal, like many lorises in our study
363 site, made regular use of the frames, which are on average 1.6 m high, but undulate, and
364 are supported by uprights. These frames dominate the landscape (Nekaris *et al.*, 2017). At
365 the frames’ lower points, dogs can easily access lorises moving through them. Another dead
366 female who had seemed otherwise healthy was found severely decomposed beneath one of
367 these frames. Two elderly females might have died from natural causes, but bite marks on
368 one and the missing head of another suggest postmortem manipulation. In the first case,

369 only bites were present, whereas in the second, legs were missing. Cuozzo *et al.* (2022)
370 highlighted that in South Africa, thick-tailed bushbabies (*Otolemur crassicaudatus*) were also
371 killed but not eaten by dogs, also in an agricultural area. Of further note is that the first
372 animal, whose lower half was consumed, was a dispersing male who was not able to settle,
373 and was in general sickly (Campera *et al.*, 2020). His movements were erratic, and he was
374 not showing signs of strong health. Similarly, the oldest female (minimum of 16 years)
375 whose limbs were eaten had lost significant weight, had broken canines, missing fingers,
376 and was showing signs of ill health. This pattern is again echoed by one of the galago deaths
377 reported by Cuozzo *et al.* (2022), which also had physical ailments, perhaps making it less
378 able to flee from dog predators. Pihlström *et al.* (2021) suggest that dogs are probably a
379 much larger threat than is recorded by field researchers. A dog that killed a small-eared
380 galago (*Otolemur garnettii lasiotis*) in their study was lame, with only three working legs,
381 and was not used for hunting. In their case, although an attempt was made to recover the
382 galago, in the attempt the dog secured part of the galago and ate it. Dogs in our area are
383 generally only owned for house defence or for hunting (normally aggressive pigs), and thus
384 are specially trained to increase their fierceness (Mulyanto *et al.*, 2021). Since slow lorises
385 go to the ground relatively often (Karimloo *et al.*, 2023), it is notable that in 12 years we
386 only recorded five potential deaths.

387 These data were collected as part of a long-term study on the behavioural ecology of Javan
388 slow lorises. We note that an important outcome of gaining more data on sympatric animals
389 came from the introduction of our WhatsApp® group. Devices such as camera traps are
390 useful in recording other taxa too, but often sympatric taxa are not recorded during focal
391 follows or are not recorded in detail. For us, our team was really focussed on wild animals,
392 and we did not have a section for dogs on the datasheet, and dogs also rarely appeared in
393 *ad libitum* data. Furthermore, most researchers on our project simply did not write detailed
394 *ad libitum* notes. The use of WhatsApp clearly opened up the creativity and detail for our
395 researchers. This was even more the case with domestic dogs. When the dogs were
396 particularly loud or close to the loris, researchers clearly felt the need to type about it.
397 Internet connection is excellent in our area, and even school-aged Indonesian students
398 frequently have a mobile phone and communication via WhatsApp® (Balestri *et al.*, 2023).
399 Mulyono *et al.* (2021) showed that Indonesian students using WhatsApp® to enhance their
400 learning during the pandemic showed a high level of acceptance to the technology, which
401 was in part linked to students' connectedness with their peers, and its usefulness for
402 discussion. Indeed, we found that researchers in the field enjoyed interaction with their
403 peers and senior researchers, to whom they could ask instant questions while in the field.
404 They are particularly useful when some team members could not be at the study site or
405 even in the country, allowing them to still be in direct communication whilst data are being
406 collected. Having experienced the usefulness of this technology, we now can ask for more
407 details to be collected on the spot, and we hope this will illuminate the details of these
408 types of interspecific interactions further.

409 In conclusion, we have worked for more than a decade in an agroforestry environment on
410 the island of Java. This environment is home to a relatively rich array of nocturnal mammals,
411 but the numbers of carnivores seem to be slowly declining. At the same time, though wild
412 carnivores do not seem to be a serious threat to populations of Critically Endangered slow
413 lorises, dogs appear to be an emerging threat. The greatest risks are posed in areas where

414 animals may have to move on the ground or are low to the ground in agricultural
415 plantations. An interesting area of future research would be to study the ranging patterns
416 and diet of domestic dogs to improve our understanding of their impact on wildlife. Future
417 conservation programmes should focus on increasing canopy connectivity and monitoring
418 populations of small mammals to understand the food availability and ecological dynamics
419 of this important habitat. We should also embrace new technologies to help us with these
420 tasks.

421

422

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435

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575 **Statements**

576 *Statement of Ethics*

577 All research in this work was approved by the Oxford Brookes University University Research
578 Ethics Subcommittee for Ethics in Animal Research.

579

580 *Conflict of Interest Statement*

581 The authors have no conflict of interests to declare.

582

583 *Author Contributions Statement*

584 Nekaris and Balestri wrote the main draft of this paper, and all other authors read and
585 agreed the content. Nekaris, Hedger, Imron and Nijman contributed to project management
586 and supervision. Nekaris secured the funding for this project. Nekaris, Balestri, Hedger,
587 Campera, Adinda, Ahmad, Manson, and Saepurohman collected data. Nekaris and Hedger
588 managed the data. Nekaris, Balestri, Campera and Hedger analysed and visualised the data.

589

590 *Data Availability Statement*

591 The data that support the findings of this study can be made available through contacting
592 the corresponding author.

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598 Table 1. Using the word frequency analysis function in NVivo, here we show words with
 599 more than 1% weighted percentage in frequency before and after the use of WhatsApp®.

Before WA	Weight	After WA	Weight
Individual	6.83	Alert	2.79
Area	3.63	Labu	2.35
Path	3.31	Civet	2.26
Point	2.40	Walking	2.21
Near	2.27	Meters	2.16
River	2.24	Path	2.07
Datasheet	1.76	Travelling	1.69
Using	1.76	Exploring	1.65
Created	1.71	Looking	1.63
Information	1.65	Away	1.51
Looking	1.42	Climbing	1.51
Walking	1.35	Ground	1.46
Labu	1.07	Bamboo	1.32
		Observer	1.29
		Around	1.27
		Near	1.27
		Loris	1.22
		Area	1.03
		Individual	1.03
		River	1.03

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Table 2. Behaviour of Javan slow lorises when they were observed within 10 m of a civet or a leopard cat (n=62); when dogs were barking (n=58); and in normal conditions (n=22633).

Behaviour	Civet or Leopard Cat			Dog Barking			Normal Conditions		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Alert and freeze	33.9	34.9	33.3	34.9	33.3	34.6	13.2	13.7	12.7
Travel	14.5	15.6	13.3	23.3	26.7	23.1	18.6	17.8	19.3
Explore	17.7	15.6	20.0	14.0	13.3	15.4	36.4	35.4	37.3
Feed and forage	9.7	3.13	16.7	14.0	13.3	11.5	7.7	7.5	7.8
Rest and sleep	9.7	12.5	6.7	9.3	6.7	11.5	13.2	13.4	13.1
Autogroom	3.2	3.1	3.3	2.3	6.7	0.0	6.9	7.7	6.1
Social	11.3	15.6	6.7	2.3	0.0	3.8	3.7	3.7	3.8

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610 **Figure Headings**

611

612 Figure 1 – Maps of the study area near Cipaganti, West Java, Indonesia showing the location
613 of sightings of small Indian civets (A), Javan palm civets (B), and Sunda leopard cats (C) from
614 2017-2023, including photographs of each species (courtesy of Little Fireface Project). The
615 location of the study area in Indonesia is shown in the lower right corner. Please note that
616 these sightings overlap with the areas of intense use by more than 35 slow loris individuals
617 intensively followed by the project team.

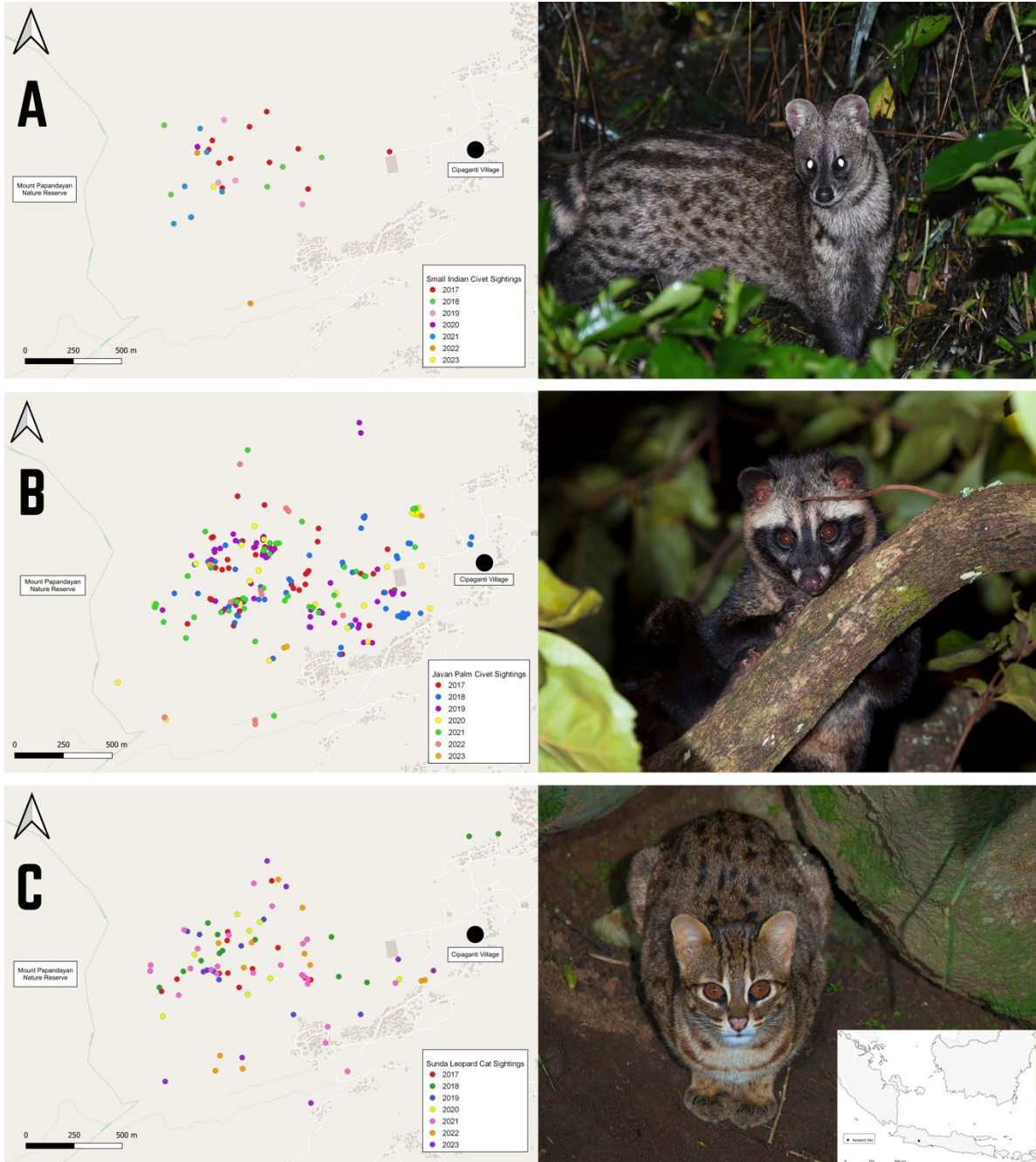
618 Figure 2 – Screenshots of camera trap video showing (A) a Javan slow loris following a Javan
619 palm civet on a waterline bridge (note the eyeshine in the background) and (B) a Javan palm
620 civet approaching a Javan slow loris at the junction of two bridges, where they eventually
621 had to pass each other (courtesy of Little Fireface Project).

622 Figure 3 – clockwise from upper left. A young adult female found decomposed under a
623 chayote from (*in situ*); the recovered body of an elderly female found with the head
624 seemingly torn off; the body of a young adult male found dead in a chayote frame (*in situ*)
625 with the lower portion of the body chewed off.

626 Figure 4 – Word clouds of the comments made by researchers in the *ad libitum* notes
627 regarding the behaviour of small carnivores and their interactions with Javan slow lorises
628 before and after the introduction of a WhatsApp® group in 2017, showing the increased
629 weight of words linked to behavioural ecology after (B).

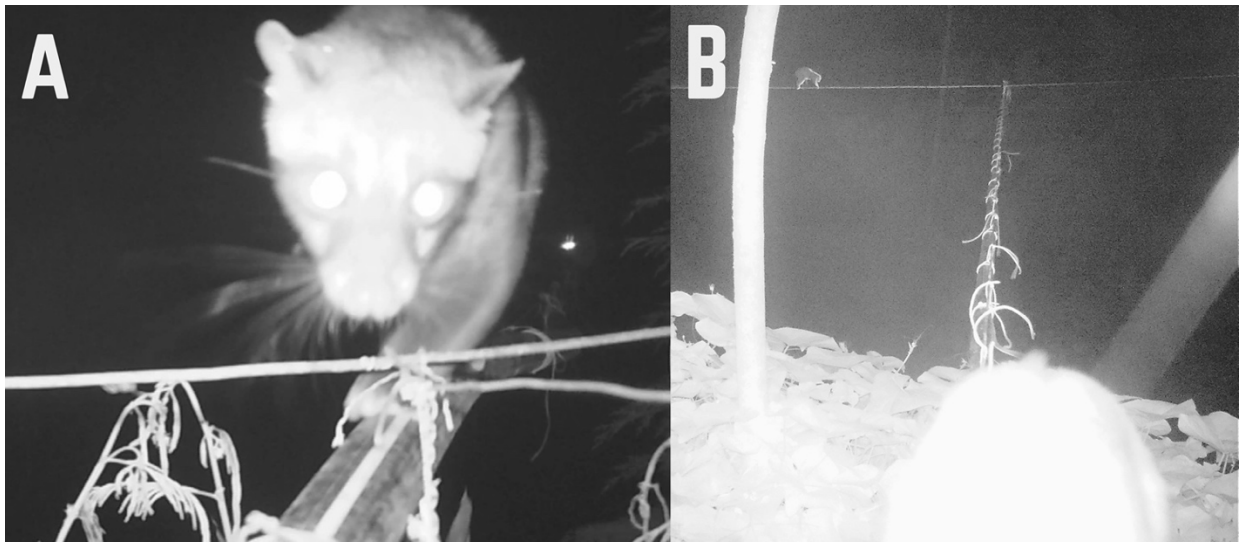
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Figure 1



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636 Figure 2



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640 Figure 3

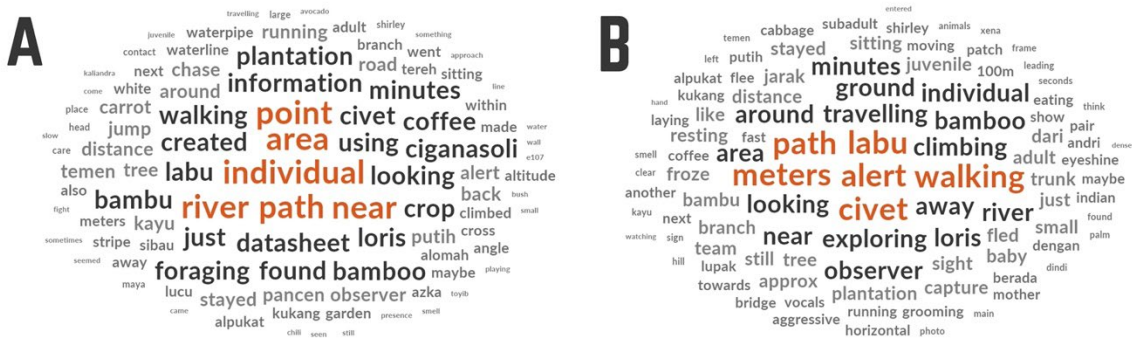
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643 Figure 4

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