

Urban ecology of cats in New Zealand

1 **Abstract**

2 Over the past 20 years conservation efforts in New Zealand have moved from being
3 concentrated in rural and isolated island locations, where exotic mammalian predators are
4 often controlled, to begin to bring native fauna back to major cities. However, human-wildlife
5 conflicts arise when conservation occurs in close proximity to cities, which, by definition, are
6 vastly altered habitats from the natural form in both structure and species composition. These
7 conflicts are particularly intense when companion animals are involved either as potential
8 predators or prey of high-value conservation animals. Within New Zealand this conflict is
9 particularly fraught around domestic cats (*Felis catus*) in the urban environment, where both
10 owned and unowned individuals live at high densities. Cats in New Zealand are recognised as
11 major introduced predators of native fauna, but they also prey upon small introduced
12 predatory mammals. This dynamic causes much conflict between people with different
13 attitudes towards animals, but as yet few studies have explored the role(s), either negative or
14 positive, of urban cats in New Zealand. Here, we review current knowledge on domestic cats
15 in urban New Zealand, identify gaps in knowledge, and make suggestions for future research
16 – which include citizen science-based research programmes investigating urban cat ecology,
17 further social research regarding motivators for behaviour change in cat owners, investigation
18 into international cat management legislation, market research of cat containment systems,
19 and more in depth research into cat diseases and zoonoses. This information is vital for
20 informing the public and improving the management of the urban cat populations, including
21 mitigating any potential conservation impacts. Urban ecologists will need to be versatile in
22 the way that they design and conduct experiments in this unique situation.

23

24 **Key Words**

25 *Invasive species; wildlife conservation; cat; domestic; stray; feral; human-wildlife conflict;*
26 *Citizen Science; owned; unowned*

27 **Introduction**

28 Worldwide, over 50% of the human population lives in urban environments (World
29 Health Organization (WHO) 2014), and over 85% of New Zealanders live in cities (Statistics
30 New Zealand 2014). Globally, habitat loss is an ongoing threat to biodiversity (Townsend
31 2008). As such, urban and semi-urban environments are increasingly performing essential
32 environmental roles as wildlife refuges (Aronson *et al.* 2014), contributing to the increase in
33 research on urban ecology - the interdisciplinary study of ecosystems in human-dominated
34 environments (Marzluff *et al.* 2008). Wildlife in close proximity to cities often leads to
35 human-wildlife conflicts (Conover 2001). These conflicts can be especially fraught where
36 companion animals are predators, or prey, of wildlife of high-conservation value (Baker *et al.*
37 2008; Gehrt *et al.* 2013). One such conflict reported is that of domestic cats (*Felis catus*),
38 which are major predators of small mammals, reptiles, and invertebrates (Loss *et al.* 2013), as
39 well as birds (Loyd *et al.* 2013) and fish (Woods *et al.* 2003). While direct predation of
40 wildlife by cats is often emphasized in research and popular press, other documented impacts
41 of cats include competition for resources, alteration of ecological processes, behavioural
42 changes (e.g. induction of stress or changes in breeding behaviour), and disease transmission
43 (Medina *et al.* 2014). In New Zealand, cats pose a particularly complex problem as: 1) native
44 species have evolved in the absence of predatory mammals and face current challenges of
45 vastly altered ecosystems (Towns *et al.* 2001), 2) conservation efforts are increasingly
46 focusing on cities (Innes *et al.* 2012), 3) cats are the most common companion animal in New
47 Zealand (NAWAC 2007), and are predators of both native and exotic species (King 2005;

48 Fitzgerald and Karl 1979; Tocher 2006), 4) evidence of predator-prey dynamics of cats in
49 urban locations is in its infancy (but see Gillies and Clout 2003; Morgan *et al.* 2009; Flux
50 2010; Metsers *et al.* 2010; van Heezik *et al.* 2010), and 5) amongst New Zealanders, vastly
51 different attitudes towards animals can be found (Farnworth *et al.* 2013b).

52 Almost 50 years ago, the New Zealand Wildlife Service produced and distributed a
53 pamphlet, *Problem Cats*, to all New Zealand households outlining their threat to native
54 wildlife within forested areas (Swarbrick 2013). Since that time, several studies in non-urban
55 areas have added evidence of the threat of cats to native wildlife (e.g., Fitzgerald and Karl
56 1979; King 2005; Tocher 2006). For example, cats are in part responsible for the extinction
57 of the Stephens Island wren, *Traversia lyalli*, (Galbreath and Brown 2004) and the decline of
58 many reptile populations (Daugherty and Towns 1991; Hitchmough *et al.* 2016). However,
59 evidence that cats may have some beneficial effects (e.g. suppressing smaller predatory
60 mammals) has led to disparate views among people with different attitudes towards animals
61 (Loyd and Hernandez 2012; Farnworth *et al.* 2013b; van Heezik 2010). Only in the past 13
62 years have investigations of cats within New Zealand's urban environment, and their
63 potential effects, been published (Table 1). The resurgence in public debate is primarily due
64 to Dr. Gareth Morgan's "Cats to Go" campaign (Morgan Foundation 2013). As a result,
65 public conflict concerning cats in New Zealand has received substantial media coverage, both
66 locally and overseas (Cowlshaw 2013; Berwick 2014; Shuttleworth 2013).

67 Here, we review the current knowledge of ecology of urban cats in New Zealand to
68 help identify areas of research needed to better understand their ecological and social
69 impacts. This includes information on: ecology of urban cats, for example population size;
70 home range/territory size; predator-prey dynamics; potential for predator-release should cats
71 be controlled; behavioural syndromes (e.g., hunting ability); antipredator devices (e.g., bells
72 on collars), zoonoses (e.g., toxoplasmosis); and investigation into the public perceptions and

73 attitudes towards cats and their management. This information is necessary to enable the
74 public to make informed decisions regarding how they manage their pet cats, for government
75 (local and central) to improve cat management, and to aid in mitigating conservation impacts
76 within urban environments. We also include a table of current cat restriction bylaws in New
77 Zealand (Table 2).

78

79 [Cats in New Zealand](#)

80 No national body for the management of owned cats currently exists in New Zealand.
81 However, in November 2014, several organisations came together to form the “National Cat
82 Management Strategy Group” (NCMSG). Member organisations include the New Zealand
83 Veterinary Association (NZVA), the New Zealand Companion Animal Council, the Royal
84 New Zealand Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, the Morgan Foundation, and
85 Local Government New Zealand. Technical advisors to the group include the Department of
86 Conservation and the Ministry for Primary Industries. This group’s primary objective is to
87 promote responsible cat ownership, environmental protection, and humane cat management
88 (Smallman 2016). However, legislation regarding the management of cats is, at present, left
89 to the local government.

90 In September 2016, the NCMSG launched a draft cat management strategy implementation
91 document and requested feedback on the proposal ([cite NZVA:
92 http://www.nzva.org.nz/newsstory/vision-responsible-cat-ownership-and-humane-cat-
93 management](http://www.nzva.org.nz/newsstory/vision-responsible-cat-ownership-and-humane-cat-management)). The consultation period runs through October 2016 and the NCMSG plans to
94 submit the proposal to central government by the end of 2016. Consistent national legislation
95 regarding cat management will be a huge step forward, making it easier for local councils to

96 establish bylaws which will both benefit cat welfare and help protect vulnerable native
97 wildlife.

98 At present, regulations and bylaws pertaining to the management of owned cats in
99 New Zealand are piecemeal amongst individual councils (Table 2). The local government
100 sectors in New Zealand are comprised of 11 Regional Councils, 61 territorial authorities (50
101 District Councils and 11 City Councils), and 6 Unitary Councils (territorial authorities with
102 regional council responsibilities) (LGNZ 2016). While cats are not specifically mentioned in
103 the bylaws of many councils, it is possible for management issues regarding pet cats to be
104 addressed under a council's Nuisance Laws or within the Health Act, however these are
105 limited in their ability to reduce impacts on wildlife. While some councils do limit the
106 number of cats per household (Table 2), the Wellington City Council reviewed its Animal
107 bylaw in August 2016 and voted that all cats over 12 weeks of age must be microchipped and
108 registered with the New Zealand Companion Register by early 2018 – the first such cat
109 management legislation of any council in New Zealand.

110 In New Zealand, the public perception of cats (in general) ranges from valued
111 household companion animal to introduced pests (Kikillus, unpublished data); in part this
112 perception is likely due to both the perceived emotional value provided by cats in conjunction
113 with the perceived environmental costs imposed by their presence (Farnworth *et al.* 2011).
114 These underlying social perceptions of cats have driven the development of their three
115 categories found in the Animal Welfare (Companion Cats) Code of Welfare (NAWAC 2007,
116 hereinafter called 'the code'): companion, stray and feral cats. Likewise, variations in public
117 considerations concerning the control of these three categories of cat are associated with
118 value-based judgements (Farnworth *et al.* 2011). The definitions are primarily driven by
119 anthropocentric principles; companion cats are those fully provided for within an ownership
120 model, stray cats are provided for either directly or indirectly by human populations (e.g. *ad*

121 *hoc* provision of food and shelter) whilst feral cats receive no human support. These
122 definitions may easily be misconstrued by those who do not have a working knowledge of the
123 code (Farnworth *et al.* 2010). The definitions do, however, indicate that unowned urban cats
124 are stray as opposed to feral. Stray cats, as per the code, are considered within the purview of
125 animal welfare charities whereas feral cats are ‘in a wild state’ and therefore able to be
126 controlled and managed (Anonymous 1987; NAWAC 2007). As such, for simplicity, here
127 we refer to cats as ‘owned’ or ‘unowned’ to enable their management to be addressed
128 appropriately.

129 Despite the afore-mentioned definitions of cats, it is reasonable to suggest that the cat
130 population is in reality a single fluid contiguous group where individuals may transition from
131 one group to another, dependent upon their location and the human population that it lives
132 within or besides. Unowned urban cats are more prevalent in areas with higher human
133 population density (Aguilar and Farnworth 2013; Aguilar and Farnworth 2012, Aguilar *et al.*
134 2015) and live at far higher densities than unowned cats in rural environs (Langham and
135 Porter, 1991). Proximity to human environments and anthropogenic food sources likely
136 provide unowned urban cats with the necessary resources to reproduce and survive in
137 significant numbers.

138 In 2013, the New Zealand Veterinary Association (NZVA) commissioned a
139 systematic literature review of peer-reviewed cat publications from New Zealand and
140 overseas (Farnworth *et al.* 2013a). The key findings from the report included that cats in
141 New Zealand likely prey upon millions of small animals (both native and non-native)
142 annually; Trap-Neuter-Return (TNR) is unlikely to provide a long term solution to cat
143 population management in New Zealand; formal mechanisms to establish cat ownership
144 should be investigated (e.g. compulsory registration and microchipping); more research is
145 needed on cat population management; and the promotion of responsible pet ownership must

146 be a focus of any strategy for cat management (Farnworth *et al.* 2013a). In all cases, more
147 research is needed to better understand the impact of cats on the environment.

148 Despite much research in New Zealand on the impacts of unowned cats in rural
149 locations, the impact of owned cats on wildlife in urban locations is a matter of vigorous
150 public debate; one that may be hard to resolve given that conservationists and those involved
151 with (companion) animal welfare organisations can have diametrically opposed viewpoints
152 (Farnworth *et al.* 2013b). Studies on other impacts of cats, such as disease transmission and
153 the emotional value of pet cats in New Zealand to their owners, are also limited (but see
154 Farnworth *et al.* 2011; Roe *et al.* 2013). There is scope for much more research on cats in
155 New Zealand.

156

157 [Suggestions for future research on cats in urban environments in New Zealand](#)

158 We have identified several areas which warrant further research in regards to cats in New
159 Zealand (See Figure 1).

160 [Social studies](#)

161 Being such an emotive topic, any research and / or management of urban cats is going to raise
162 debate amongst the public. Therefore, social research in order to understand the public
163 perception of cats in New Zealand is vital. Some research has begun, from investigating the
164 use and perception of cat collars (Harrod *et al.* 2016) to the acceptability of unowned cat
165 control (Farnworth *et al.* 2013a). A survey designed to better understand the attitudes of
166 Western Australians towards cat control legislation (Grayson *et al.* 2002) has been adapted
167 for use in other countries, including New Zealand. Results showed that the vast majority of
168 New Zealand respondents agreed that pet cats in nature reserves are harmful to wildlife.

169 Despite this, responses suggested that New Zealanders that did not own cats were much more
170 likely to support the idea of cat legislation than those who did own cats (Hall *et al.* 2016).

171

172 In the UK, cat owners are often unwilling to admit that their pets may be a threat to wildlife
173 (McDonald *et al.* 2015). Recent research has suggested that advocacy campaigns for cat
174 containment that focus on the benefits to cat welfare, rather than wildlife conservation, may
175 be more successful (MacDonald *et al.* 2015) (cite Hall 2016) and that a better understanding
176 by cat owners of the risks encountered by free-ranging cats may result in behaviour change
177 (Gramza *et al.* 2016). Include Farnworth papers here.

178

179 Ecology and Environment

180 Citizen Science

181 In much of traditional ecology, experiments involving control and treatment groups
182 are used (Karban and Huntzinger, 2006). However, in the case of urban cats and the public,
183 it is difficult to obtain such a broad-scale level of cooperation (e.g., by comparing one
184 neighbourhood with free-roaming owned cats to a similar neighbourhood where residents
185 have agreed to keep their cats indoors for a specified period of time). Therefore, other
186 research options are needed in place of traditional ecological methods - such as Citizen
187 Science, where scientists partner with the public to answer scientific questions. Citizen
188 Science provides scientists with increased potential for data collection and analyses, and the
189 public with important science education; not only do they gain a better understanding of
190 science, but also increased engagement in environmental issues (Roetman and Daniels
191 2011). Studies involving Citizen Science are becoming more popular in New Zealand, and by
192 using this methodology, extensive research on urban cats is possible and can provide much

193 needed data for their management and the conservation of native species. Large-scale Citizen
194 Science projects involving cats could include investigating cat movements, behaviour
195 (especially via collar-mounted cameras – as per Loyd *et al.* 2013), owner’s attitudes towards
196 cat management, and building a large database of prey brought home by owned cats.

197 *How many cats are there?*

198 As no registration regulations exist for cats in New Zealand (as there are with dogs),
199 no reliable population census of cat numbers exists, however according to the New Zealand
200 Companion Animal Council, New Zealand has the highest recorded rate of cat ownership in
201 the developed world (MacKay 2011). Two studies focused on the South Island cities of
202 Dunedin and Christchurch estimated the percentages of households owning cats as 35% and
203 33%, respectively (van Heezik *et al.* 2010, Morgan *et al.* 2009). It is unknown if the cat
204 ownership estimates in these cities are representative of all of New Zealand urban areas,
205 especially those in the North Island, which has a higher human population than the South
206 Island as well as New Zealand’s most populated city (Auckland) and the capital (Wellington).

207 Due to maintenance provided by humans, high densities of cats can exist in urban
208 spaces (Lepczyk *et al.* 2004, Sims *et al.* 2008, Aguilar and Farnworth, 2013). Knowing the
209 percentage of households owning one or more cats is vital for local government agencies
210 considering implementing legislation changes, and hence, how many rate payers may be
211 affected by these changes (M. Emeny, Wellington City Council, pers. comm.). Similarly, the
212 proportion of cats that are owned (companion) vs. unowned (stray), and how these interact
213 with free-living (feral) cats, is unclear. Within Auckland, unowned stray and owned pet cats
214 are geographically indistinguishable, and the cat population density is positively correlated
215 with human population density (Aguilar and Farnworth 2012; Aguilar and Farnworth 2013).

216 *Where does kitty wander?*

217 A home range is defined as the area an animal uses to find food and resources,
218 whereas a territory is a portion of the home range that is defended (Spotte, 2014). Several
219 studies of cat home ranges overseas (encompassing both owned and unowned cats) show that
220 cats can vary dramatically in this regard - from less than 1 hectare for urban strays in Japan
221 (cite Yamane 1994) to over 2000 hectares for rural ferals in Australia’s Northern Territory
222 (cite Edwards 2001) - although in general, larger cats tend to have larger home range sizes
223 (Spotte 2014; Molsher *et al.* 2005). In New Zealand, studies have shown that pet cats living
224 near natural areas (e.g. wetlands, reserves, etc.) or in rural areas tend to have larger home
225 ranges than strictly urban cats (Morgan *et al.* 2009; Metsers *et al.* 2010) (Table 1).
226 Preliminary results from a Citizen Science-based cat tracking project in Wellington, New
227 Zealand (www.cattracker.nz) are consistent with these findings (Kikillus, unpublished data).
228 Additional studies in other New Zealand cities will help to clarify patterns that may predict
229 home range sizes for urban cats, or whether home range is related to habitat-specific traits of
230 a city (for example, do urban cats venture further in areas with more open space, such as
231 reserves, compared to areas where they may be constrained by buildings and motorways?).
232 Further, continuing to use GPS techniques will help identify how often owned cats are
233 entering areas of high conservation value, and thus whether more controls are needed, or
234 suggest sizes of cat “buffer zones” that may be appropriate and the feasibility of
235 implementing them – both in the practicality of having enough space and in the public
236 support for them (Metsers *et al.* 2010).

237 *What does the cat drag in?*

238 The type of environment in which cats are located will impact the type(s) of prey
239 captured. For example, in one study in Auckland, prey captured by cats in more “natural”
240 forested neighbourhoods consisted mostly of rodents, and was dramatically different from

241 prey caught in purely urban areas (primarily invertebrates) (Gillies and Clout 2003) (Table 1).
242 Therefore, within urban environments, ecologists must take into account the differences
243 among various available habitats.

244 Cats have no natural predators in New Zealand, yet prey upon a wide variety of
245 smaller animals (King 2005) and may have impacts on native fauna. However, they may also
246 be indirectly helping native wildlife by keeping other introduced pests, such as rodents and
247 rabbits, in check. Further research into the impacts of owned cats on prey populations (both
248 introduced mammals and native wildlife) is warranted and a large database of prey captured
249 by cats could be easily conducted via a Citizen Science smartphone app. Meso-predator
250 release (when a top predator is removed and another predator – for example, rodents - fills
251 the void) can occur in some situations when an apex predator is eradicated (Oppel *et al.*
252 2014). Research into meso-predator release scenarios in areas where cats are removed is
253 needed within the urban environment in New Zealand (ideally via field comparisons between
254 similar areas where cats, but no other predators, have and have not been eradicated, but also
255 possibly through modelling scenarios). It has been suggested that the potential of meso-
256 predator release involving the eradication of cats should be considered on a case-by-case
257 basis in areas in New Zealand (Jones 2008).

258 Consistent differences in behavioural syndromes have been well-documented in
259 numerous species of animals (Sih *et al.* 2004) and among cats it has been observed that not
260 all cats are avid predators (Loyd *et al.* 2013) (add van Heezik). Why are some cats ardent
261 hunters whereas others are not? Research into what factors influence predatory behaviour
262 and prey specialisation (e.g. some target certain prey species, such as birds or rodents), could
263 investigate factors such as the prey available in a given environment or genetic components
264 of behavioural syndromes. For example, urban cats in the USA avoided larger-sized rats and
265 focussed their hunting efforts on smaller (under 300 gram) specimens – these may have been

266 easier to catch than larger rats, but the predation had no real impact on the rat population size
267 as larger, sexually-mature rats were not controlled by cats and were left to breed (Glass *et al.*
268 2009). In Australia, studies found that cats often specialise in a particular type of prey and
269 may continue to hunt their preferred prey, even if numbers are low – this may contribute
270 another challenge to the conservation of rare native species (cite Dickman 2015). The studies
271 outlined in Table 1 provide further support, in that: 1) not all owned cats in New Zealand
272 bring prey home, and 2) rodents, followed by birds, generally appear to be the most popular
273 prey items.

274 *Anti-predation devices*

275 Cats are likely to remain as a fixture in the urban environment of New Zealand. Therefore,
276 research on effective anti-predation methods is vital. In Dunedin, New Zealand, Gordon and
277 coworkers (2010) found that bells attached to domestic cat collars can reduce prey catch by
278 half. Overseas, trials of various anti-predation products, such as the CatBib™, sonic devices,
279 and the Birdsbesafe® collar cover have successfully shown reduced prey catch by owned cats
280 compared to control groups (Calver *et al.* 2007; Hall *et al.* 2015). (cite Nelson 2005 and
281 Willson 2015). Similar trials are urgently needed in New Zealand to test the effectiveness of
282 these products and investigate if they are more effective than bells on collars. Of special
283 interest are New Zealand-based studies of the Birdsbesafe® collar cover, which have been
284 shown overseas to decrease bird and herpetofauna predation but not significantly reduce the
285 predation of small mammals (cite Hall 2015). This is of great relevance to New Zealand,
286 where native birds and herpetofauna are vulnerable to free-roaming cats but where small
287 mammals (i.e. rodents) are introduced pests. It is important to note that while anti-predation
288 devices may assist to mitigate the impacts of cats on native wildlife, they are not an ultimate
289 solution as they do nothing to address the issue of wandering cats (which may spread diseases
290 and cause a nuisance to neighbours). Additionally, the mere presence of cats may also have

291 sub-lethal effects on birds, by instigating fear of a presence of predators which can result in
292 reduced nesting success (Bonnington *et al.* 2013; Beckerman *et al.* 2007).

293 Law and Governance

294 Areas in several overseas countries, such as Australia and Canada, have implemented
295 legislation regarding the management of pet cats – specifically restricting the number of cats
296 permitted at a residential premises, mandatory identification and registration, and / or
297 requiring cats to be confined to their owners' property (cite WA:
298 [https://www.slp.wa.gov.au/pco/prod/FileStore.nsf/Documents/MRDdocument:28995P/\\$FILE/
299 \[Cat%20Act%202011%20-%20\\[00-d0-00\\].pdf?OpenElement\]\(http://documents.ottawa.ca/sites/documents.ottawa.ca/files/2003_77_en.pdf\) and CA:
300 \[http://documents.ottawa.ca/sites/documents.ottawa.ca/files/2003_77_en.pdf\]\(http://documents.ottawa.ca/sites/documents.ottawa.ca/files/2003_77_en.pdf\) \). Research
301 questions could include: Why does cat management legislation move forward in some areas
302 but not others? How successful are these measures in regulating cats? And are they
303 contributing to the protection of native wildlife? Would similar regulations be accepted and
304 supported by cat owners in New Zealand? And why do some cat owners balk at the idea of
305 regulating pet cats? A better understanding of what sorts of laws work and where they are \(or
306 are not\) successful would be helpful in guiding decisions of the newly-formed National Cat
307 Management Strategy Group in New Zealand.](https://www.slp.wa.gov.au/pco/prod/FileStore.nsf/Documents/MRDdocument:28995P/$FILE/Cat%20Act%202011%20-%20[00-d0-00].pdf?OpenElement)

308 Business and Marketing

309 Containment / indoor cat keeping is a common practice overseas, not only to prevent
310 predation of wildlife, but also for the welfare of the cats themselves (which may have their
311 own predators – e.g. coyotes) (American Bird Conservancy, 2013). In Tasmania, Australia, a
312 survey of cat owners found that the most commonly- reported barrier to containing pet cats
313 was the belief that “it is natural behaviour for cats to wander so they should be allowed to do
314 so” (cite McLeod). How does this compare with the beliefs of New Zealand cat owners? A

315 survey of 151 cat owners in New Zealand indicated that 95% of companion cats had free
316 access to the outdoors (Farnworth *et al.* 2010) whilst a recent survey found that New Zealand
317 cat owners had low support for 24 hour containment of cats (18.6% of respondents) (cite Hall
318 2016). Further research into identify the drivers and barriers of pet cat containment is
319 warranted.

320 A Google search of the term “catio” (a combination of the words “cat” and “patio”, which is
321 an enclosed outdoor area in which to contain cats) turns up multiple websites and businesses
322 providing cat containment equipment. However, if search results are filtered to only pages
323 from New Zealand, the results are relatively limited, with only one distributor selling cat
324 containment equipment in the country, and only offering installation of the equipment in the
325 city of Auckland (cite Oscillot, <http://catfence.nz/>) . Why do cat containment systems appear
326 to be unpopular in New Zealand when compared to other countries? What factors are
327 preventing their widespread use and acceptance here? Are there business opportunities for
328 overseas companies to provide cat containment solutions to the New Zealand public? Market
329 research may help to provide answers to these questions.

330 Cats and zoonoses

331 Cats are capable of carrying a wide variety of diseases, some of which can be transferred to
332 humans (Lepczyk *et al.* 2015). Cats are the definitive host for *Toxoplasma gondii*, a
333 protozoan parasite that can be transferred to other mammals, including humans (Centers for
334 Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) 2014). In humans, Toxoplasmosis is associated with
335 schizophrenia, memory impairment, and birth defects (Gajewski *et al.* 2014; Wong *et al.*
336 2013). Toxoplasmosis is also a concern for wildlife that has not evolved with cats (Hollings
337 *et al.* 2013). For example, it is present in native birds in New Zealand (Stewart 2014) and has
338 been linked to local marine mammal deaths (Roe *et al.* 2013). Investigation of the prevalence
339 rates of *T. gondii* in urban cats in relation to the prevalence detected in their owners and

340 wider community would aid better understanding of this parasite, its means of transmission,
341 and effects on both humans and wildlife. Free-roaming pet cats are also more susceptible to
342 contracting viruses such as Feline Leukaemia Virus and Feline Immunodeficiency Virus
343 (FIV) from unowned cats encountered on their wanderings (Lee *et al.* 2002). Other infections
344 reported in cats in New Zealand include numerous bacterial infections, including
345 *Mycobacterium* spp. and *Salmonella* spp., Rickettsial diseases, and fungal and ectoparasite
346 diseases (Thompson 2009). The extent to which these and other diseases may be transmitted
347 to other companion animals, humans and / or wildlife is unknown.

348

349 **Conclusions**

350 In order to explore the need for, and subsequent effective management of urban cats in New
351 Zealand, we need a clear understanding of their ecology, behaviour, and impact on the local
352 environment within these environments. Many of the ideas suggested above cannot be
353 achieved without the full cooperation of cat owners themselves – therefore many of these
354 research projects have the ability to become large scale Citizen Science programmes. From
355 surveying cat owners about their cats' habits and hunting behaviour to cooperatively
356 compiling a database of prey items brought home from pet cats would allow for a large
357 amount of both social and ecological information to be gathered and analysed. We need to
358 remember that cats are an important part of many families and refrain from accusing cat
359 owners of being irresponsible and contributing to the decline of wildlife. This will make co-
360 operative research programmes such as these more likely to succeed by gathering data which
361 may be to the benefit of both ecologists and cat owners. Finding ways to increase public
362 awareness about cat management options and their ability to improve cat welfare and help
363 mitigate cat impacts in New Zealand is also warranted.

364 Currently we are unable to effectively establish the number of cats, their ownership
365 status, and the extent of their impact on wildlife. It has been suggested that a “Precautionary
366 Principle” be implemented in New Zealand, which “provides a rationale for immediate
367 intervention to protect wildlife from pet cats while we await definitive studies” (Calver *et al.*
368 2011; Jones, 2008). In New Zealand this principle has often been taken to mean imposing a
369 complete ban or at least a moratorium until the subject has been proved beyond, not just
370 reasonable, but any, doubt to be 100% safe. In wider practice the concept more generally
371 urges caution, but captures a balance between costs and benefits; i.e. in the sense that
372 precautions should remain in place until advantages outweigh disadvantages, both real and
373 imagined (Cameron 2006). In this case we should continue to encourage responsible pet
374 ownership and cat containment amongst New Zealanders - until pet cats’ value as
375 companions and pest removers from human living spaces is deemed to be of greater value
376 than the loss of individuals from native species and the chance that our domestic pets will
377 convert to become stray or feral (unowned) animals. Urban ecologists will need to be
378 versatile in the way that they design and conduct urban ecology experiments in this unique
379 situation.

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606 **Table 1.** Ecologically-based studies of urban domestic cats (*Felis catus*) conducted in New Zealand.

Type of study	Location	N (cats)	Recorded	Outcome	Citation
Prey type	Auckland City	46	Prey brought in by owned cats over 12 months	73% invertebrates; ~14% birds; ~5% lizards	Gillies & Clout 2003
	Auckland (Urban-rural fringe)	34	Prey brought in by owned cats over 12 months	66% rodents; ~15% birds; 11% lizards	Gillies & Clout 2003
	Christchurch	88	Prey brought in by owned cats over 12 months	38% rodents; 20% birds; 18% lizards; 22% invertebrates; 2% other (frogs, goldfish, mustelids)	Morgan et al 2009
	Dunedin	144	Prey brought in by owned cats over 12 months	37% birds; ~34% rodents; ~20% invertebrates; ~8% lizards; 0.65% other mammals (lagomorphs and mustelids)	van Heezik et al 2010
	Wellington	1	Prey brought in by a single cat over 17 years	~51% rodents; ~40% birds; ~6% rabbits; ~2% lizards	Flux 2007
	Dunedin	45	Prey capture over 6 weeks (control group in belled collar trial)	~57% rodents; ~32% birds; ~5% invertebrates; ~4% lizards, ~2% rabbits	Gordon et al 2010
	Stewart Island	11	Prey capture over 6 months	Only 4 cats brought home prey. 67% rodents; 33% birds	Wood et al 2015
Spatial movement	Auckland	Numerous	1 year of stray cat location data (2010-2011) analysed via GIS	Aggregated stray cat density: Manurewa = 50.41/km ² ; Papakura = 35.29/km ² ; Mangere = 32.64/km ²	Farnworth & Aguilar 2012

Auckland	Numerous	20 years of colony cat data analysed via GIS	Colonies were located close to urbanised areas and reports of colonies increased over time	Farnworth & Aguilar 2013
New Zealand	Numerous	Data from Farnworth & Aguilar (2012, 2013) analysed via species distribution modelling	Projections to a climate change-based scenario showed a consistent increase in the area and intensity of areas suitable for un-owned cats, especially in the North Island	Aguilar, Farnworth, & Winder 2015
Christchurch	21	Tracking owned cats via radio telemetry over 12 months	Median home range (100% MCP) = 1.8 ha; Range = 0.1-10.0 ha	Morgan et al 2009
Dunedin	32	Tracking owned cats via GPS collars over 6 days	Median home range (100% MCP) = 2.2 ha; Range = 0.48 – 21.75 ha	van Heezik et al 2010
Dunedin	20	Tracking owned cats via differently-weighted GPS collars for 1 week at a time	Cats travelled slightly further whilst wearing tracking units that were ~1% of their body weight than when wearing heavier tracking collars	Coughlin and van Heezik 2014
Oban, Stewart Island	15	Radio-tracking of pet cats over a one month period (minimum of 30 fixes)	Median home range (100% MCP) = 0.05; Range = 0.05 – 16.58 ha	Wood et al 2015
Canterbury (urban fringe)	11	Tracking owned cats via GPS collars over 10 days	Median home range (95% MCP) = 4 ha.	Metsers et al 2010
Otago (urban fringe)	14	Tracking owned cats via GPS collars over 10 days	Median home range (95% MCP) = 3.5 ha.	Metsers et al 2010

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Behaviour	Wellington	10	~80 hours of video footage captured using collar-mounted video cameras	Cats spent the majority of their time “investigating” (~40%) or indoors (~32%)	Kikillus & Gaby (unpublished data)
Anti-predation device	Dunedin	45	Prey capture over 6 weeks for cats wearing a collar with a bell attached	Bells on cat collars reduced hunting by half, but did not affect prey species composition in comparison to control group (see above under prey type)	Gordon et al 2010

607 This table was constructed by using the search term “cat*” in conjunction with other terms: “urban”, “predation”, “New Zealand”, and “ecology”
 608 in the online database ‘Web of Science’ and “urban cats New Zealand” in the search engine ‘Google Scholar’. References within articles were
 609 also sought.

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619 **Table 2:** Existing owned cat legislation by Local Authority in New Zealand (as of May 2016). Documents available upon request.

North Island	Authority	Maximum number of pet cats permitted	Document	Relevant section number
	Far North District Council	5	Keeping of Animals, Poultry and Bees 2007	1306
	Kaipara District Council	5	General Bylaws 2008	807
	South Waikato District Council	5	South Waikato District Keeping of Animals, Poultry and Bees Bylaw 2011	7.2.2
	New Plymouth District Council	5	New Plymouth District Council Bylaw 2008: Animals	7.1
	Hastings District Council	4	Bylaws Part 03: Animals	9
	Rangitikei District Council	3	Animal Control Bylaw 2013	7
	Manawatu District Council	3	Manawatu District Bylaw 2008	5.4.2
	Palmerston North City Council	3	Palmerston North Animals and Bees Bylaw 2011 (incorporating amendments as at 9 September 2013)	8
	Ruapehu District Council	4	Animal Control Bylaw 2012	10

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	Masterton District Council	3	The Masterton and South Wairarapa District Councils' Consolidated Bylaw 2012	5
	South Wairarapa District Council	3	The Masterton and South Wairarapa District Councils' Consolidated Bylaw 2012	5
	Wellington City Council	-	All domestic cats over the age of 12 weeks must be microchipped by early 2018 and the cat's microchip registered with New Zealand Companion Animal Register.	4
South Island	Marlborough District Council	4	Marlborough District Council Bylaw 2010: Keeping of Animals, Poultry and Bees	705
	Buller District Council	3	Amendment to the Buller District Council general bylaw NZS 9201 Part 13 The Keeping of Animals	1306
	Invercargill City Council	3	Bylaw 2013/2 – Keeping of Animals, Poultry and Bees	3

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621 This table was constructed by searching local government websites for information regarding regulations of owned cats in each local authority.
622 If no information was available, then Councils were contacted individually for clarification.

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624 Figure 1: Insert caption.

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