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

Key Words

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

Introduction

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

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

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

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

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

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Cats in New Zealand

No national body for the management of owned cats currently exists in New Zealand. However, in November 2014, several organisations came together to form the "National Cat Management Strategy Group" (NCMSG). Member organisations include the New Zealand Veterinary Association (NZVA), the New Zealand Companion Animal Council, the Royal New Zealand Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, the Morgan Foundation, and Local Government New Zealand. Technical advisors to the group include the Department of Conservation and the Ministry for Primary Industries. This group's primary objective is to promote responsible cat ownership, environmental protection, and humane cat management (Smallman 2016). However, legislation regarding the management of cats is, at present, left to the local government. In September 2016, the NCMSG launched a draft cat management strategy implementation document requested feedback NZVA: and on the proposal (cite http://www.nzva.org.nz/newsstory/vision-responsible-cat-ownership-and-humane-catmanagement). The consultation period runs through October 2016 and the NCMSG plans to submit the proposal to central government by the end of 2016. Consistent national legislation regarding cat management will be a huge step forward, making it easier for local councils to

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Suggestions for future research on cats in urban environments in New Zealand

We have identified several areas which warrant further research in regards to cats in New

259 Zealand (See Figure 1).

Social studies

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

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

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

Ecology and Environment

Citizen Science

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

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

How many cats are there?

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

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

Where does kitty wander?

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

What does the cat drag in?

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

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

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

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

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

Anti-predation devices

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

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sub-lethal effects on birds, by instigating fear of a presence of predators which can result in reduced nesting success (Bonnington et al. 2013; Beckerman et al. 2007). Law and Governance Areas in several overseas countries, such as Australia and Canada, have implemented legislation regarding the management of pet cats – specifically restricting the number of cats permitted at a residential premises, mandatory identification and registration, and / or requiring cats to be confined to their owners' property (cite WA: https://www.slp.wa.gov.au/pco/prod/FileStore.nsf/Documents/MRDocument:28995P/\$FILE/ Cat%20Act%202011%20-%20[00-d0-00].pdf?OpenElement and CA: http://documents.ottawa.ca/sites/documents.ottawa.ca/files/2003_77_en.pdf). Research questions could include: Why does cat management legislation move forward in some areas but not others? How successful are these measures in regulating cats? And are they contributing to the protection of native wildlife? Would similar regulations be accepted and supported by cat owners in New Zealand? And why do some cat owners baulk at the idea of regulating pet cats? A better understanding of what sorts of laws work and where they are (or are not) successful would be helpful in guiding decisions of the newly-formed National Cat Management Strategy Group in New Zealand. **Business and Marketing** Containment / indoor cat keeping is a common practice overseas, not only to prevent predation of wildlife, but also for the welfare of the cats themselves (which may have their own predators – e.g. coyotes) (American Bird Conservancy, 2013). In Tasmania, Australia, a survey of cat owners found that the most commonly-reported barrier to containing pet cats was the belief that "it is natural behaviour for cats to wander so they should be allowed to do

so" (cite McLeod). How does this compare with the beliefs of New Zealand cat owners? A

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

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

Cats and zoonoses

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

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

Conclusions

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

Urban ecology of cats in New Zealand

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

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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	Aguilar, Farnworth, & Winder 2015
Christchurch	21	Tracking owned cats via radio telemetry over 12 months	cats, especially in the North Island 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

also sought.

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)
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
nstructed by usir	ng the searc	th term "cat*" in conjunction with	other terms: "urban", "predation", "Ne	w Zealand", and "ecology
	Dunedin	Dunedin 45	Dunedin 45 Prey capture over 6 weeks for cats wearing a collar with a bell attached	captured using collar- mounted video cameras 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

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

	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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- This table was constructed by searching local government websites for information regarding regulations of owned cats in each local authority.

 If no information was available, then Councils were contacted individually for clarification.
- 624 Figure 1: Insert caption.

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