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## Introduced rat assemblage affects feral cat threat to biodiversity in French Polynesian islands

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### Abstract :

#### Context:

Invasive feral cats strongly threaten native fauna on islands worldwide. The impact of feral cat populations is assumed to be higher in the presence of introduced rodents and may also vary according to an island's rodent species assemblage.

#### Aims:

This study assessed feral cat impacts on island biodiversity in French Polynesian islands harbouring differing assemblages of rat species, by investigating their abundance and trophic ecology.

#### Methods:

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We focused on the following six human-inhabited islands of three archipelagos in French Polynesia (South Pacific) with differing rat species assemblages: Tahiti and Moorea, Ua Huka and Tahuata, Rurutu and Rimatara. We studied (1) cat abundance, by setting up camera traps during 15 consecutive days to provide an abundance index, the general index (GI) or mean number of virtual captures per camera per occasion, and (2) cat diet, by performing macroscopic analyses of scat samples to determine the frequency of occurrence (FO) of prey categories.

**Key results:**

Our study showed previously unreported patterns of cat-abundance index for the Society archipelago, with a GI of  $0.30 \pm 0.12$  in Tahiti and  $0.02 \pm 0.02$  in Moorea; for the Marquesas, with a GI of  $0.75 \pm 0.20$  in Ua Huka and  $0.20 \pm 0.06$  in Tahuata; and for the Austral, with a GI of  $0.06 \pm 0.04$  in Rurutu and  $0.19 \pm 0.05$  in Rimatara. Feral cats are shown to prey strongly on introduced rodents (FO = 91.3%), arthropods (37.8%), squamates (18.6%) and birds (13.3%) in our study sites. FO of birds are particularly high in Rimatara (31.9%) and Ua Huka (16.8%). Conclusions: We demonstrated that feral cats represent a serious threat to biodiversity in French Polynesian islands, with 15 species preyed on, including eight endemic birds, four of them being considered threatened by the IUCN Red List. Surprisingly, relative abundances of feral cats were higher both on islands harbouring only one rat species (Ua Huka, with only *Rattus exulans*) and on islands free of black rats. This finding raises questions regarding the 'hyperpredation' hypothesis for multi-invaded island ecosystems.

**Implications:**

This study on islands with differing assemblages of introduced rodents demonstrated the need for invasive predator studies in multi-invaded ecosystems, so as to improve bird conservation and guide management strategies and site prioritisation.

**Keywords** : camera-trap monitoring, diet, endemic bird species, *Felis catus*, invasive predator, multi-invaded ecosystems, Pacific island conservation, *Rattus* spp

69 **Introduction**

70 Invasive populations of the feral cat *Felis catus* strongly threaten the native fauna on islands  
71 worldwide (Doherty et al. 2016). In the Pacific region, where islands have high proportions of  
72 endemic animal species, several studies have pointed out the urgent need to investigate cat  
73 presence and predation pressure (Bonnaud et al. 2011, Nogales et al. 2013, Palmas et al. 2017).  
74 French Polynesia, located in the South Pacific, is one of the geographical areas still lacking  
75 reliable data on feral cat ecology and impacts (Bonnaud et al. 2010). The scientific community  
76 has called for this gap to be filled rapidly because of the exceptional conservation stakes,  
77 including a high extinction risk to endemic animal species (Medina et al. 2011, Palmas et al.  
78 2017, Spatz et al. 2017). French Polynesia belongs to one of the world's 36 biodiversity

79 hotspots, namely the “Polynesia-Micronesia Hotspot” (Myers et al. 2000, Harrison and Ness  
80 2017). These diverse islands, ranging from high volcanic islands to atolls, harbour unique  
81 biodiversity, particularly in terms of terrestrial avifauna. This includes 27 endemic bird species,  
82 some now limited to small and localised populations and exhibiting strong decline during the  
83 past decades (Monnet et al. 1993, Thibault and Meyer 2001, Thibault and Cibois 2017).

84 Domestic cats were first introduced into French Polynesia by Europeans around 1773 (Newell  
85 2010). Feral individuals are currently present in most habitat types (low elevation coastal  
86 forests, valley rainforests, dry to mesic ridge forests, montane cloud forest above 1,000 m asl,  
87 Meyer and Palmas in press) of many inhabited atolls, even including high volcanic islands  
88 (Legros 2011). However, little is known about their abundance and their impacts on native  
89 fauna. Although it has been suggested that many bird species are threatened by feral cat  
90 populations in French Polynesia (Holyoak and Thibault 1984, Thibault and Guyot 1988, Seitre  
91 and Seitre 1992), there has so far been little tangible information or strong direct evidence of  
92 predation pressure and impact. Feral cats are suspected of having contributed to the extinction  
93 of at least five species of land birds belonging to the genus *Prosobonia* (sandpiper,  
94 Scolopacidae), *Ptilinopus* (fruit dove, Columbidae), *Porphyrio* (swamphen, Rallidae) and  
95 *Pomarea* (monarch flycatcher, Monarchidae) in French Polynesia (Thibault and Guyot 1988,  
96 Doherty et al. 2016, Thibault and Cibois 2017).

97 The scarcity of published data on the impacts of feral cat populations on native and endemic  
98 island fauna constitutes a major barrier to the development of appropriate conservation  
99 strategies in French Polynesia (Meyer et al. 2018, Palmas et al. 2019). Preliminary data on the  
100 diet of feral cats were collected between 2009 and 2018 in three high volcanic islands of the  
101 Society archipelago, namely Moorea (Wilcox and Spotswood 2011), Tahiti (Zarzosso-Lacoste  
102 2008) and Raiatea (Faulquier 2014), in Ua Huka in the Marquesas (*unpublished data*), and in  
103 the raised atoll of Niau in the Tuamotu (Zarzosso-Lacoste et al. 2016, 2019). Except for Niau,

104 however, these data are not abundant and robust enough to allow scientists or land managers to  
105 draw solid conclusions on the diversity and intensity of cat impacts. Nevertheless, these  
106 preliminary studies revealed predation by feral cats on birds, notably on at least three native  
107 seabird species: the Tahiti petrel *Pseudobulweria rostrata* in Moorea (Wilcox and Spotswood  
108 2011) and in Raiatea (Faulquier 2014), the Baillon's or tropical shearwater *Puffinus bailloni*  
109 (formerly called *P. lherminieri*, Audubon's shearwater) and the greater crested tern *Thalasseus*  
110 *bergii* (syn. *Sterna bergii*) in Niau (Zarzos-Lacoste et al. 2019). The study in Niau also  
111 highlighted feral cat predation on two terrestrial endemic species, the Atoll fruit-dove  
112 *Ptilinopus coralensis* and the Tuamotu reed warbler *Acrocephalus atyphus* (Zarzos-Lacoste et  
113 al. 2016).

114 The impact of feral cat populations is assumed to be higher in the presence of introduced  
115 mammalian prey species, particularly introduced rodents (Courchamp et al. 1999). Rodents  
116 constitute a stable and abundant resource that can help sustain high feral cat abundance (Smith  
117 and Quin 1996), thereby exacerbating predation pressure on native wildlife via the  
118 "hyperpredation" process (Courchamp et al. 1999, Ringler et al. 2015). This theory predicts  
119 that a formerly introduced prey species, well adapted to high predation pressure, could  
120 indirectly induce the extinction of an indigenous prey through the sudden population growth of  
121 a newly introduced predator (Courchamp et al. 2000). Some fieldwork-based studies have  
122 confirmed this theory (e.g. Veitch et al. 2004, Ringler et al. 2015, Russell and Lecorre 2009)  
123 but, with the exception of a recent study (Lamela-Lopez and Santos 2021), little attention has  
124 been paid to the effect of different rat species and their assemblages (combined presence of  
125 different rat species) on feral cat ecology.

126

127 This study investigated feral cat abundance index and diet on six inhabited islands in French  
128 Polynesia according to the presence or absence of three introduced rat species: Polynesian rats

129 *Rattus exulans*, black rats *Rattus rattus*, brown rats *Rattus norvegicus*. Our aims were to (i)  
130 detect the presence of feral cats on different study sites and estimate their relative abundances  
131 index, (ii) study feral cat trophic ecology and identify endemic species that are preyed on by  
132 cats and (iii) determine how the introduced rat assemblage affects feral cat abundance index  
133 and predation. We expected feral cat abundance index and predation pressure to be higher on  
134 islands harbouring more than one rat species because we expected the overall number of rats in  
135 multi-invaded islands to be higher.

136

## 137 **Material and Methods**

### 138 ***Study site***

139 French Polynesia consists of about 120 main oceanic islands, including 33 high volcanic  
140 islands, 81 atolls and sandy islets and six raised atolls (Meyer and Salvat 2009), divided into  
141 five archipelagos (Austral, Gambier, Marquesas, Society, Tuamotu) and located between 7-28°  
142 S and 134-155° W in the South Pacific Ocean (Fig. 1). French Polynesia belongs to the  
143 biogeographic sub-region of Southeastern Polynesia, with Cook and Pitcairn islands (Mueller-  
144 Dombois and Fosberg 1998, Steadman 2006), and is one of the most isolated groups of islands  
145 in the world, lying between 5,000 and 6,000 km from the nearest continents (Americas, Asia,  
146 Australia). The climate of French Polynesia ranges from subtropical (Rapa in the Austral  
147 archipelago, with a minimum temperature of 8.5°C observed), to tropical (Society, Tuamotu)  
148 and subequatorial in the Marquesas (Laurent and Maamaatuaiahutapu 2019).

149 The rodent assemblage found in French Polynesia includes three rat species, the Polynesian or  
150 Pacific rat *Rattus exulans* introduced by the first Polynesian voyagers about 1,000 years ago  
151 (Matisoo-Smith et al. 1999), and the black or ship rat *Rattus rattus* and the brown rat *Rattus*  
152 *norvegicus* introduced during the 18<sup>th</sup> century by the first European sailors (Table 1). The mouse  
153 *Mus musculus* is also present. Six islands were studied: Tahiti and Moorea in Society

154 archipelago, Ua Huka and Tahuata in Marquesas archipelago, and Rurutu and Rimatara in  
155 Austral archipelago. The following criteria were applied to select the six study sites: i) differing  
156 rat species assemblages: *R. exulans* only, *R. exulans* + *R. rattus*, *R. exulans* + *R. norvegicus*, *R.*  
157 *exulans* + *R. rattus* + *R. norvegicus* (Table 1), ii) no rodent or feral cat control programs in  
158 operation and iii) bird species conservation at stake. Moreover, given the climate diversity  
159 among these archipelagos, we chose to work on two islands per archipelago.

160

### 161 ***Feral cat abundance index***

#### 162 *Camera trapping design*

163 One site per island was selected based on accessibility on foot and the presence of birds in  
164 diverse habitats (Table A.1). Twenty camera traps were deployed along or near paths (30 metres  
165 from the paths) over 15 consecutive days in 2020-2021 (McGregor et al. 2015) (Table A.1).  
166 Automated digital cameras with black flash (Moultrie® MCG-12635, Browning® BTC-8A,  
167 Browning® BTC-8E and Bushnell® 119875) were used. Lure scent (1.25 mL of Salmon oil,  
168 ©Connovation) was sprayed above each camera trap to homogenise the detection probability  
169 of camera trap stations by attracting cats from surrounding areas (i.e. from paths to camera trap  
170 stations). The cameras were spaced by 100-200m, i.e. less than the reported radial distances of  
171 home ranges (Edwards et al. 2001, McGregor et al. 2015, Van der Ende et al. 2017) to ensure  
172 that a given cat was captured at multiple camera sites, thereby enhancing (i) the probability of  
173 capture of each feral cat and (ii) the robustness of abundance indicators (Lazenby et al. 2015).  
174 Cameras were set up at an optimal height of around 30 cm (cat body height) (Sparkes et al.  
175 2021), and were checked to confirm that the camera's shutter was triggered (Wang and  
176 Macdonald 2009, Nichols et al. 2017). An interval of ten seconds between trigger events, with  
177 three images captured in each, was chosen to maximise cat identification and reduce the risk of  
178 fuzzy pictures (Palmas et al. 2020a, Sparkes et al. 2021). Vegetation was cleared around a

179 perimeter of 1.5 metres in front of the camera to limit false triggers and to obtain better pictures  
180 of the animals (Stolcked et al. 2015).

181 At the end of camera trapping periods, the cameras were retrieved and the pictures downloaded.  
182 Camera trap days were calculated by multiplying the number of camera traps by the number of  
183 active capture days over the deployment periods, to provide an accurate overview of the  
184 trapping effort. Days when cameras were not functioning because of technical problems were  
185 excluded from the calculations (Meek et al. 2014).

186

### 187 *Camera trapping analysis*

188 The general index (GI) of feral cat activity was calculated for this study. GI is easy to calculate  
189 and can be used to monitor variations in feral cat population as an alternative to harder-to-  
190 calculate indicators, such as estimated feral cat absolute density (Spatially Explicit Capture-  
191 Recapture: SECR, Efford 2015). It has been shown to be robust on relative abundance, leading  
192 to conclusions that are consistent with those based on other indices (Bengsen et al. 2012, Legge  
193 et al. 2017, Palmas et al. 2020a). The GI estimates feral cat activity (relative abundance  
194 approximation) by measuring mean camera capture events per camera and per occasion,  
195 following the equation of Engeman (2005).

$$196 \quad GI = \frac{1}{d} \sum_{j=1}^d \frac{1}{s_j} \sum_{i=1}^{s_j} x_{ij} ;$$

197 with d = the day, s = the station, and  $x_{ij}$  the number of captures at the  $i^{\text{th}}$  station on occasion  $j^{\text{th}}$ .

198

### 199 *Cat diet study*

#### 200 *Sampling design and sampling effort*

201 The feral cat diet was studied through scat analysis (e.g. Bonnaud et al., 2007), based on feral  
202 cat scats collected from the six islands between 2018 and 2021 with the same sampling effort  
203 (Fig. 1). Scats (n=491) were collected along paths and rural roads preferentially used by cats



204 (Turner and Bateson 2014, Recio et al. 2015) over the full range of habitat types: from sea level  
205 to 1,000 m asl; littoral/coastal and supra-littoral forests; from low-elevation dry to mesic forests;  
206 from mid-elevation mesic to wet ridge or plateau forests; from mid- to upper-elevation wet/rain  
207 valley forests; montane cloud forests; coconut plantations; low-elevation urbanised areas (Table  
208 A.1). The number of scats collected may varied according with environmental conditions (e.g.  
209 rainfall, car traffic, presence of coprophageous species (Ziadinov et al. 2008, Nijssse et al. 2014).  
210 Each cat scat was georeferenced, stored in an individual plastic bag and frozen until analysed.

211

#### 212 *Prey remains determination*

213 Scats were washed under water over a 0.5-mm sieve to sort prey items (hair, bone fragments,  
214 teeth, squamate jaws and skink scales, bird feathers and arthropod chitin fragments). The prey  
215 items were examined under binocular microscope, compared to reference material and assigned  
216 to one of the five following prey categories: (1) introduced rodents, (2) squamates, (3) birds,  
217 (4) arthropods, (5) fish (Bonnaud et al., 2007). Samples containing no prey remains or only  
218 anthropogenic elements were excluded from the analysis (n=18, *i.e.* 3.67% of collected scats).  
219 Differential degradation of prey remains during the digestion process can cause the loss of some  
220 diagnostic characteristics (*i.e.* shape, size, colour), leading to uneven prey group identification  
221 (Zarzoso-Lacoste et al., 2016). To address identification issues, we systematically used a site-  
222 specific reference collection particularly relevant to identification of bird remains (feathers,  
223 claws, beaks).

224

#### 225 *Data analyses*

226 For each type of cat prey, the Frequency of Occurrence (FO) per scat was calculated (Bonnaud  
227 et al. 2015). We used Levins' Standardised formula for trophic Niche Breadth (Levins' SNB)  
228 (Krebs 1999)  $SNB = (B-1)/(n-1)$ , where  $B = 1/\sum p_i^2$  with  $p_i$  the fraction of prey item  $i$  in the diet

229 ( $\sum p_i = 1.0$ ) and  $n$  the number of prey categories in the predator's diet. SNB ranges from 0 to 1,  
230 with a value close to 0 indicating a narrow niche and a value close to 1 a broad niche.

231

### 232 *Statistical analyses*

233 All statistical analyses were conducted with the R statistical software (R version 4.0.1) using «  
234 dataset » (Giordani et al. 2020), « DescTools » (Signorell et al. 2021), « pROC » (Fawcett  
235 2006), « car » (Fox and Weisberg 2019) packages with significant relationships inferred at  $\alpha =$   
236 0.05. Residual normality and homoscedasticity were assessed via Q-Q plots and Levene tests.  
237 One-way analyses of means (Welch One-way test - not assuming equal variances) were used  
238 to determine the effect of island on the GI. One-way ANOVA tests were used to determine the  
239 whether the number of native prey categories in the diet (i.e. all categories except rodents)  
240 differed among islands. All the islands had all the native species categories.

241

## 242 **Results**

### 243 *Camera trapping and cat abundance (GI)*

244 Camera trapping yielded a mean trapping effort per island of  $422 \pm 64$  camera trap days. This  
245 gave a total of 715 cat capture events with a mean of  $133 \pm 67$  capture events per island. (Table  
246 A.1). The General index ( $GI \pm SE$ ) varied significantly among the islands (F-value: 48.1, df :  
247 5, p-value  $< 2.2e-16$ ), showing the highest values in Ua Huka with a mean of cat capture events  
248 per camera per day that was double that of the other islands (Fig. 2). GI was relatively high in  
249 Tahiti, Tahuata and Rimatara, and lower in Rurutu and Moorea (Fig. 2). GI was higher on  
250 islands where fewer rat species were present (Ua Huka, Table A.1). Cats were more abundant  
251 on islands without *R. rattus* and *R. norvegicus* species.

252

### 253 *Overall patterns of feral cat diet*

254 The 473-scat analysis revealed that feral cats preyed most strongly upon introduced rodents  
255 (FO = 91.3%), followed by arthropods (37.8%, mainly insects) and squamates (18.6%, mainly  
256 lizards), then birds (13.3%) and fish (1.1%). A large part of scats (44.8%) were exclusively  
257 composed of introduced rodent remains, 46.5% contained remains of both introduced rodents  
258 and at least one of the four other prey categories, while 8.7% contained no introduced rodent  
259 remains but remains of at least one of the four other prey categories (Fig. 3).

260 In Tahiti (n = 52) and Moorea (n = 57), most scats contained only introduced rodent remains,  
261 one third contained both introduced rodent and other prey remains, and a few contained only  
262 other prey remains. In contrast, in Ua Huka (n = 226) and Tahuata (n = 82), most scats contained  
263 both introduced rodent and other prey remains, slightly more than one third contained only  
264 introduced rodent remains, and a few contained only other prey remains. In Rurutu (n = 9), all  
265 scats contained only introduced rodent remains, while in Rimatara (n = 47), almost half  
266 contained both introduced rodent and other prey remains, two fifths contained only introduced  
267 rodent remains and a few contained only other prey remains (Fig. 3).

268

#### 269 *Patterns of predation on different prey types*

270 The number of native prey categories in cat scats significantly differed among the islands (F  
271 value: 8.581, df : 5, p-value < 0.001). Feral cats showed the greatest niche breadth (Levins'  
272 SNB) on islands without *R. rattus* and *R. norvegicus*, such as Ua Huka and Rimatara, a narrower  
273 niche in Tahuata, followed by Moorea and Tahiti, and no breadth in Rurutu (Fig. 4). In Rurutu  
274 only 9 scats were found and analyzed so results are unreliable.

275 Introduced rodents were the predominant prey category found in feral cat's diet for all the  
276 islands (Fig. 3, Fig. 4). Frequency of Occurrence (FO) of rodents in the cat diet did not vary  
277 across islands; the highest FO was found in Rurutu (100%), but FO was very high for the other  
278 islands too (ranging from 87.2% to 96.5%). Since the scats from Rurutu contained exclusively

279 rodent remains, this island is not included in the following results on other prey consumption.  
280 Moreover, the Rurutu result is likely biased due to the low number of samples collected (9 cat  
281 scats). The FO of rodents in the cat diet was slightly higher on island harbouring *R. rattus*. The  
282 FO of arthropods and squamates in the cat diet was higher in the Marquesas islands, on islands  
283 free of *R. norvegicus* (Fig. 4). The FO of birds was higher on islands free of *R. rattus*: in  
284 Rimatara (31.9%), followed by Ua Huka (16.8%). Fish were consumed on three islands, with  
285 substantial consumption in Rimatara (4.3%) and Moorea (3.2%).

286

#### 287 *Bird species found in feral cat diet*

288 We identified a total of 15 bird species in the feral cats' diet, 12 of them being native species  
289 (Table A.2). There was evidence of predation on eight species endemic to the archipelagos or  
290 islands, including four IUCN Red-listed threatened species (three listed as "CR" and one as  
291 "EN"). The number of endemic species and IUCN Red-listed threatened species preyed on by  
292 feral cats varied between islands, with five endemic species (including two listed as "CR") for  
293 Ua Huka, two endemic species (one "EN" and one "CR") for Rimatara and one endemic species  
294 each for Tahiti and Tahuata (Table A.2).

295

#### 296 **Discussion**

297 This study described some aspects the ecology of feral cats in several islands of French  
298 Polynesia. It sought to (i) explore how the rat species assemblage affects cat abundance and  
299 diet on islands in the South Pacific region where numerous endemic species are threatened, and  
300 (ii) fill a knowledge gap highlighted by previous studies on feral cat data in this geographic area  
301 (Bonnaud et al. 2011, Nogales et al. 2013, Palmas et al. 2017).

302

303 *Feral cat abundance in multi-invaded islands: effect of rat assemblages*

304 This study revealed marked inter-island differences in cat abundances that are mainly  
305 differentiated by rat species presence and assemblages. Higher cat abundance was expected on  
306 islands with multiple rat species that could constitute a stable resource for feral cat populations.  
307 The two Marquesas islands studied (Ua Huka and Tahuata) are similar in land area, altitude,  
308 climate conditions and human population, but have different numbers of rat species (only *R.*  
309 *exulans* in Ua Huka, *R. exulans* and *R. rattus* in Tahuata). Counter-intuitively, the island  
310 harbouring only one species of rat (Ua Huka) showed the highest feral cat abundance. In the  
311 Austral archipelago, cat abundance was three times higher in Rimatara (where *R. exulans* and  
312 *R. norvegicus* are present) than in Rurutu (with *R. exulans* and *R. rattus*). The absence of *R.*  
313 *rattus* and *R. norvegicus* seems to be conducive to higher cat abundance index. These three rat  
314 species are known to occupy different trophic niches (Sugihara 1997, Harper et al. 2005, Shiels  
315 et al. 2013, Zarzoso-Lacoste et al. 2019), and habitat partitioning has been demonstrated for *R.*  
316 *rattus* and *R. exulans* when sympatric (Strecker and Jackson 1962, Shiels 2010). *R. norvegicus*  
317 is larger than the two other species (Russell et al. 2005, Innes 2005b, King et al. 2011), more  
318 commensal and therefore more restricted to disturbed and urban areas (Nicholson and Warner,  
319 1953; Twibell, 1973), could indirectly reinforce the feral cat population through reproduction  
320 between feral and roaming cat populations. Despite the known sympatric co-existence of these  
321 rat species (Harper et al. 2005, Shiels et al. 2013, Zarzoso-Lacoste et al. 2019), competition in  
322 these particular ecosystems could affect rat accessibility for cats (abundance, diurnal activity,  
323 arboreal habits Harper and Bunbury 2015, Harper et al. 2015). We assume here that the co-  
324 occurrence of rat species in these systems could eventually lead to lower absolute rat biomass  
325 (through strong competition for trophic resources and habitat, King et al. 2011). Previous  
326 studies showed substantial diet overlap between *R. rattus* and *R. exulans*, suggesting  
327 exploitative and resource competition (Harper et al. 2005, Zarzoso-Lacoste et al. 2019); studies  
328 also found an effect from commensalism on these species' distribution throughout segregated

329 spatial niches, increased diurnal activity and reduced skull sizes related to the number of other  
330 rodent species (Yom-Tov et al. 1999, Russell and Clout 2004, Harper et al. 2015)).

### 331 *Feral cat diet*

332 The 473 analysed feral cat scats represent a robust and significant sampling effort even for rarer  
333 prey (Bonnaud et al. 2011). However, wide differences in scat sampling appeared between  
334 islands, with reliable results obtained here for all the islands except Rurutu (n=9). In Rurutu,  
335 scats were collected from tracks extensively used by cars, and heavy rainfalls occurred in the  
336 weeks prior to our sampling. Dogs, which are particularly common on this island, could  
337 consume the cat scats (Ziadinov et al. 2008, Nijse et al. 2014).

338 Rodents were the cats' food staple in French Polynesia, with 91.33% of feral cat scat samples  
339 containing rodent remains, which is consistent with the literature (e.g.; Bonnaud et al. 2011)  
340 ( $44.05 \pm 28.3$ , 55 studies). Rodents thus provide feral cats with a stable and abundant food  
341 resource that helps to maintain cat populations (Couchamp et al. 1999). Apart from rodents,  
342 feral cats also preyed on a wide range of prey, from arthropods to birds. Interestingly, they  
343 exhibited a broader trophic niche in Rimatara and Ua Huka (the two islands free of *R. rattus*),  
344 with higher FOs for secondary prey (birds, arthropods, squamates and fishes). Since cats in the  
345 natural areas of these two islands only have access to *R. exulans*, which have a lower biomass  
346 (smaller in size and mass) than *R. rattus* (Atkinson 1985, Atkinson and Towns 2005, Shiels et  
347 al. 2014), they may need to secure additional food resources by hunting more alternative prey  
348 (Turner and Bateson 2014, Palmas et al. 2020b). *R. exulans* might be less accessible to cats on  
349 Ua Huka and Rimatara, since *R. exulans* appear to be more arboreal in native forests when black  
350 rats are absent (Marples, 1955; McCartney, 1970; Twibell, 1973). Furthermore, *R. rattus*-free  
351 islands are more likely to offer richer diversity and availability of native naïve species  
352 (especially birds) that constitute very easy prey for opportunistic cats (Seitre and Seitre 1992,  
353 Turner and Bateson 2014, Palmas et al. 2020b). Indeed, this study listed 15 bird species preyed

354 on by cats in French Polynesia, among which 6 are endemics. Feral cats seem to represent a  
355 strong threat for birds particularly on islands where *R. rattus* is absent, feeding intensively on  
356 this prey group in Rimatara (FO = 31.9%) and in Ua Huka (16.8%). The birds preyed upon  
357 included six endemic species, four of which are critically endangered (Table A.2): the Kūhl's  
358 lorikeet (*Vini kuhlii*, CR) (Birdlife 2016) and the Rimatara reed-warbler (*Acrocephalus*  
359 *rimatarae*, CR) (Birdlife 2021) in Rimatara; the ultramarine lorikeet (*Vini ultramarina*, CR)  
360 (Birdlife 2018) and the Iphis monarch (*Pomarea iphis*, CR) (Birdlife 2017) in Ua Huka. These  
361 species are strictly respectively endemic to the two islands and the latest census revealed  
362 population decreases for Rimatara's species. Finally, *R. exulans* may be a prime resource and  
363 an energetically profitable prey for cats on our study sites due to its potential naivety towards  
364 this predator. Indeed, while the sympatry of cats and *R. rattus* in Europe has a history at least  
365 1000 years long (Zeuner 1963, Rackham 1979), the sympatry of cats and *R. exulans* probably  
366 only dates back 250 years. It was only in the 18<sup>th</sup> century that feral cats were introduced into  
367 French Polynesia (Newell et al. 2010), whereas *R. exulans* were introduced 1200 years ago  
368 (Wilmshurst et al. 2011). Moreover, the two species originated from two distinct areas, despite  
369 the recent demonstration of cohabitation in China around 5000 BP (Roberts 1991, Hu et al.  
370 2014). Their distinct origins or limited or discontinuous cohabitation period may thus have  
371 reduced anti-predator behaviour (Blumstein et al. 2002, Cliff et al. 2022) in *R. exulans*.  
372 Hyperpredation is recognised within the scientific community as an ecological process  
373 particularly relevant to cat predation in multi-invaded ecosystems (Smith and Quin 1996,  
374 Courchamp et al. 1999, 2000, Zhang et al. 2006). The theory was confirmed through fieldwork-  
375 based studies on different islands (e.g. Raoul Island in New Zealand, Veitch et al. 2004, Ringler  
376 et al. 2015; Europa and Juan de Nova islands in the Indian Ocean, Russell and Lecorre 2009,  
377 Ringler et al. 2015) showing higher cat population abundance when rat present on islands.  
378 However, these studies generally failed to consider rodent species assemblage, with only very

379 recent studies examining correlations between cat and rat species abundances (Lavery et al.  
380 2020, Lamela-Lopez and Santos 2021). By assessing both cat abundance index and diet on six  
381 multi-invaded inhabited islands in French Polynesia differing in introduced rat species  
382 assemblage: *R. rattus*, *R. norvegicus*, *R. exulans*, our study has raised new questions about rat  
383 ecology and the hyperpredation hypothesis in multi-invaded inhabited islands which seems not  
384 reliable in all island and intraguild predation systems (e.g. Russell et al. 2009 showed a similar  
385 effect on long-lived native preys when rat are presents or absents). More bio-ecological studies  
386 of introduced rat species in multi-invaded island ecosystems are crucial to disentangle prey-  
387 predator relations and to plan efficient management strategies.

388

#### 389 *Implications for management*

390 This study increased the list of birds known to be hunted by cats in French Polynesia to 19  
391 species. They include 8 endemic birds, four of which are considered threatened (IUCN Red  
392 List) and all of which are legally declared protected species in French Polynesia under the  
393 “Code de l’Environnement”. This assessment of the feral cat threat in French Polynesia  
394 suggests that the overall feral cat impact remains underestimated and points to a need for more  
395 studies addressing Pacific islands (Bonnaud et al. 2011, Nogales et al. 2013, Palmas et al. 2017).  
396 Based on our results, we strongly recommend that feral cats be legally classified as pest species  
397 in French Polynesia (or a “threat to biodiversity” under the “Code de l’Environnement”, like  
398 52 other invasive alien plant and animal species), and that management strategies be initiated  
399 if endemic bird populations continue to decline.

400 However, since feral and domestic cats belong to the same species (*Felis catus*), drafting a  
401 regulatory text specifically concerning feral cats in French Polynesia is challenging (C.  
402 Brocherieux, DIREN/French Polynesian Department of the Environment, pers. com.). Indeed,  
403 on these small islands, the proximity of human dwellings to areas of conservation concern



404 precludes using the notion of “distance from dwellings” applied as a criterion to distinguish  
405 feral cats from domestic cats in other French Pacific territories (e.g. New Caledonia, Code de  
406 l'Environnement de la Province Nord, 2018). Although New Zealand lacks national legislation  
407 for cat management, it has a legislated territorial mandate to control feral cats on public  
408 conservation land (Walker et al. 2017, Department of Conservation, New Zealand  
409 Government). One solution in French Polynesia could be to set up feral cat control strategies in  
410 natural areas (“zones naturelles”) only, excluding urban areas and areas dedicated to human  
411 activities as defined by the official Land Use Plans (“plans general d'aménagement”) set up for  
412 most of the island counties (“communes”) in French Polynesia. Given the diversity of French  
413 Polynesian islands (e.g. size, topography, remoteness, presence of domestic cats) and the multi-  
414 invasion context, feral cat management plans should be adapted to each island.

415 Given the limited resources available for conservation programs and the high costs associated  
416 with lethal control of invasive predators, we recommend that future actions be prioritised  
417 according to the urgency of conservation situations (most affected and threatened native  
418 species, e.g. Rimatara and Ua Huka here) and management and support facilities (e.g. Rimatara,  
419 with strong involvement of the mayor and the island population in environmental issues).

#### 420 **Data availability**

421 The data that support this study will be shared upon reasonable request to the corresponding  
422 author.

423

#### 424 **Conflicts of Interest**

425 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

426

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447

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740 Figure 1. Location of French Polynesia in the South Pacific, and of the six studied islands:  
741 Tahiti and Moorea (Society archipelago), Ua Huka and Tahuata (Marquesas), Rurutu and  
742 Rimatara (Austral)

743  
744 Figure 2. Boxplot of the GI (cat capture events per camera per day) by island, with mean and  
745 median GI (red dot and black line respectively) and 95% Confidence Interval (vertical line)

746  
747 Figure 3. Percentage of scats by island containing i) only rodent remains (black), ii) remains of  
748 both rodents and at least one other prey (squamates, birds, arthropods, fish) (grey), iii) no rodent  
749 remains but remains of at least one other prey (white)

750  
751 Figure 4. Cat diet according to Frequency of occurrence (FO) of feral cat prey categories  
752 (rodents, squamates, birds, arthropods, fish) in the six study sites (n=473 scats), and Levin's  
753 SNB for each site

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763 Table 1. Characteristics of the studied islands with their rat species assemblage (according to  
 764 Fourdrigniez et al. 2014, TIB 2022). Number of inhabitants according to most recent population  
 765 census in 2017 (www.ispf.pf).

Archipelago	Island	Land area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Highest summit (m)	Population (inhabitants)	Rats ( <i>Rattus</i> spp.)
Society	Tahiti	1,045	2,241	192,760	<i>R. exulans</i> , <i>R. norvegicus</i> , <i>R. rattus</i>
	Moorea	140	1,207	17,718	<i>R. exulans</i> , <i>R. norvegicus</i> , <i>R. rattus</i>
Marquesas	Ua Huka	83	884	678	<i>R. exulans</i>
	Tahuata	61	1,050	671	<i>R. exulans</i> , <i>R. rattus</i>
Austral	Rurutu	32	389	2,574	<i>R. exulans</i> , <i>R. rattus</i>
	Rimatara	8	83	885	<i>R. exulans</i> , <i>R. norvegicus</i>

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