

A global picture of biological invasion threat on islands

Céline Bellard, Jean-Francois Rysman, Boris Leroy, Chantal Claud, Georgina Mary Mace

▶ To cite this version:

Céline Bellard, Jean-Francois Rysman, Boris Leroy, Chantal Claud, Georgina Mary Mace. A global picture of biological invasion threat on islands. Nature Ecology & Evolution, 2017, 1 (12), pp.1862-1869. 10.1038/s41559-017-0365-6. hal-03252240

HAL Id: hal-03252240 https://hal.science/hal-03252240v1

Submitted on 7 Jun 2021

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

A global picture of biological invasion threat on islands Céline Bellard^{1†}, Jean-François Rysman^{2,4†}, Boris Leroy³, Chantal Claud⁴ and Georgina Mary Mace1 † equal contribution ¹ Department of Genetics, Evolution and Environment, Center for Biodiversity and Environment Research, University College London, UK ² Institute of Zoology, Zoological Society of London ³ Biologie des Organismes et Ecosystèmes Aquatiques (BOREA, UMR 7208), Muséum national d'Histoire naturelle, Université Pierre et Marie Curie, Université de Caen Basse-Normandie, Université des Antilles, CNRS, IRD, Sorbonne Universités, Paris, France. ⁴ current affiliation; LMD/IPSL, CNRS and École Polytechnique, Université Paris-Saclay, Palaiseau, France Words: **Keywords** Insular ecosystems, biological invasions, prioritization, conservation

Title:

Introductory paragraph

Biological invasions are one of the main drivers of biodiversity losses. As threats from biological invasions increase, one of the most urgent tasks is to identify areas of high vulnerability. However, the lack of comprehensive information on the impacts of invasive alien species (IAS) is especially a problem on islands, where most recorded extinctions associated with IAS have occurred. Here we provide a global, network-oriented analysis of IAS on islands. Using network analysis, we structured 27,081 islands and 437 threatened vertebrates into 21 clusters, based on their profiles in term of invasiveness and shared vulnerabilities. These islands are mainly located in the southern hemisphere and many are in biodiversity hotspots. Some of them share similar characteristics regarding their connectivity that could be useful in understanding their response to invasive species. The major invaders found in these clusters of islands are feral cat, feral dog, pigs and rats. Our analyses reveal those IAS that systematically act alone or in combination, and the pattern of shared IAS among threatened species, providing new information to implement effective eradication strategies. Combined with further local, contextual information this can contribute to global strategies to deal with IAS.

Islands harbour a significant portion of the Earth's species and have an unusually high rate of endemism¹. However, many species on islands are now recorded as threatened, and most recorded extinctions of vertebrate species have occurred on islands². Invasive alien species (IAS) are considered the second most important driver of species extinctions on islands, and are associated with nearly 25% of birds and amphibians currently threatened worldwide³. Island ecosystems are particularly vulnerable to biological invasions². To date, there have been over 700 attempted eradications of invasive alien mammals⁴, which have benefited to 600 local populations, leading to larger populations or increased distributional areas⁴. Specifically, 236 species have benefited from those eradication programs, including 62 species that are at risk of extinction, and four species had their extinction risk reduced as a direct result of these eradications⁴. Despite these encouraging results, the threat posed by invasive alien species (IAS) remains significant and widespread for native species³. Thus, prioritization of research efforts and eradication strategies needs to be more effective⁵ and there are many more opportunities to decrease extinction risk for island species by eradicating IAS. Because funding allocated to conservation is limited, it is important that these interventions target islands where the conservation benefit will be highest. Efforts to prioritize research, management, and policy for IAS have traditionally relied on expert judgments, and have been limited to either single IAS⁶ or subsets of islands^{7,8}. In the absence of a systematic analysis of IAS impacts, it is difficult to see how an efficient and comprehensive strategy can be developed. While several recent papers have examined the threats posed by IAS globally⁹ or for entire taxonomic groups (e.g., mammals 10), all of these studies implicitly assume that the distribution of IAS reflects their impacts (e.g., in terms of the decline in native species populations they cause). However, there is much evidence that the impacts of IAS are context dependent^{3,11,12}, and spatially variable. Other large-scale studies have analyzed IAS impact on

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

specific archipelagoes¹³ or on a particularly problematic subset of IAS¹⁴. But all these 89 90 approaches are piecemeal and cannot deliver the evidence needed to support an efficient 91 approach to focus IAS research and action at a global scale. 92 Here we use the comprehensive data compiled by the International Union for the 93 Conservation of Nature (IUCN) database, BirdLife International database and the Global 94 Invasive Species Database (GISD) to extract information about vertebrates threatened by IAS, 95 and the identity of the threatening IAS to address the three following questions: (i) How are 96 the impacts of IAS distributed among islands and threatened species? (ii) Are there 97 combinations of IAS for which targeted actions may have high conservation impacts? (iii) 98 Within the targeted areas what are the characteristics of the network between IAS and IAS-99 threatened species that can improve strategies to deal with IAS? 100 Some species occur on multiple islands while others are endemic to a single island. Moreover, 101 some IAS are shared as threats by multiple species on the same or different groups of islands, 102 while others are very localized and specific. To gain insights into the structure of this complex 103 interconnected system we apply network approaches. Many systems can be represented as 104 networks of interconnected nodes. Networks are mathematical objects where a node is linked 105 (connected) to zero, one or several other nodes. The links highlight a relationship between 106 two nodes. For instance, each inhabitant of the world can be represented as a node in a 107 network graph and each email sent by those inhabitants to others can be represented as a link. 108 Of course with increasing node and link number, the complexity of network graphs grows 109 exponentially and limits our ability to identify structure. Network theory aims at extracting 110 significant patterns from networks. 111 In our study, we built two kinds of networks. In the first, the nodes are either species or 112 islands and the links represent the presence of a species on a given island. We clustered this 113 network to identify islands that are highly interconnected by the co-occurrence of many IAS-

threatened species, and selected the clusters with highest number and densities of IAS-threatened species. The aim of this clustering approach is to identify group of islands that share similar pattern of threatened species based on biogeographical knowledge. In the second set of networks the IAS and their threatened species were linked, and related to the island clusters identified in the first analysis (Methods and Materials for details). This allowed us to determine the IAS that are mostly responsible of threats in those clusters of islands and we used this to provide insights to deal with IAS threat.

121122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

Results

How are the impacts of different IAS distributed among islands and threatened species? We analyzed more than 73,515 islands where the IUCN Red List recorded IAS-threatened species. First, we selected islands for which we could expect high return in investment for conservation program. Specifically, we selected islands that harbour more than 1% of the total number of IAS-threatened species, and those with a high ratio of the number of threatened species to area. We identified a total of 21 clusters (labeled in supplementary table 2) that include a total of 437 IAS-threatened species on the 27,081 islands across the world that met our criteria (figure 1, for the complete network see supplementary figure 1). These clusters represent the groups of islands that are highly inter-connected by the co-occurrence of IASthreatened species (Figure 1) i.e., insular regions harbouring similar patterns of threatened vertebrates by IAS. Most of these islands detected, vulnerable to invasions, are located in the southern hemisphere and encompass most of the Caribbean and Pacific archipelagos (including Hawaï), Madagascar and islands at southern of the coasts of Africa, Indonesia, the coast of America, New Zealand and Australia (Figure 1a). The majority of the islands found in the 21 clusters are included in the insular biodiversity hotspots¹⁵. Some clusters are fully isolated (i.e., disconnected to others in terms of IAS-threatened species: e.g., Puerto Rico islands; Okinawa islands and Seychelles) because their IAS-

threatened species are found nowhere else. Two of the Caribbean clusters (including Hispaniola and Jamaica islands), and Malaysia, Philippines, and South of east indies islands are connected only to each other (Figure 1b). Overall, the clusters that share a high number of threatened species with other clusters are Polynesia and Micronesia, North America Pacific coast islands, as well as the South American, Antarctic, sub-Antarctic and Australian islands. Our analysis revealed that most of the connections between clusters are due to bird species, but amphibians, mammals and reptiles are also responsible for connections between the southern part of New Zealand, Australia and southern-hemisphere islands, Caribbean clusters, and African islands (supplementary figure 1). Some clusters are particularly noticeable due to their high number of threaned species by IAS: New Caledonia, Hawaian islands and Madagascar and African southeastern coast for reptiles, birds, and amphibians, respectively. The 21 identified clusters vary in terms of number of threatened species (see size of the taxa nodes of the outer circle Figure 1b), number of islands (size of the inner circle nodes, Figure 1b) and total area. Specifically, the number of threatened species ranges from 7 (the cut-off point we selected that corresponds to at least 1% of the total number of insular threatened vertebrates) to 61 species, while the number of islands ranges from 1 (i.e., Puerto Rico) to 7,460 (Table 1). Most of the threatened species found in these clusters are birds (51%), followed by reptiles (18%), amphibians (17%) and mammals (14%), which is consistent with the taxonomic groups that have been identified as threatened by IAS worldwide³. Are there combinations of IAS for which targeted actions may have high conservation impacts? In a second step, we analyzed the patterns of interactions between IAS and the vertebrate species they threaten for the whole network and for the 21 identified clusters (Figure 2a, for the complete network see supplementary figure 1). We built interaction networks with IAS and IAS-threatened species as nodes. The links between nodes represent the vulnerability of a

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

given species to a known IAS (see supplementary figure 2 for each IAS-threatened species) within a cluster (Figure 2a). The global interaction network revealed that most IAS are threatening numerous species across different taxonomic groups. The top threatening IAS is the feral cat (Felis catus), followed by other IAS such as rat (Rattus spp), feral dog (Canis familiaris) and pig (Sus scrofa). Some IAS are more specialized, such as Eucalyptus spp. that predominantly threatens vertebrates located in clusters of Madagascar and African southeastern coast islands, the little fire ant (Wasmannia auropunctata) that affects reptiles in the New Caledonia cluster (see also ¹⁶) and the Chytrid Bd (*Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis*) that mainly threatens amphibians in the Caribbean clusters. The network approach can, in theory, help to identify the best strategies for combating IAS that maximise the number of threatened species that will benefit from any eradications. For example, the feral cat and feral dog eradicated alone would directly benefit to 10 and 6 species respectively, but targeted together could benefit up to 27 species (because 11 others species are simultaneously threatened by those two IAS). Therefore, both need to be controlled to achieve the highest overall conservation benefit. Note that other threatened species will also benefit from such eradications because the IAS pressure on them will be reduced even if other IAS are still threatening them. The control or eradication of the Chytrid Bd, feral cats and feral dogs together could fully benefit at least 41 threatened island species worldwide (Figure 2B), assuming that no other threats are significant for these species. Within the targeted areas what are the characteristics of the network between IAS and IASthreatened species that can improve strategies to deal with IAS? The characteristics of IAS and IAS-threatened species interaction networks within each cluster can also be used to focus actions to deal with the IAS threat. In each cluster, we identified the top-IAS that affect the most species (i.e., highest number of links with threatened species), and the connectivity of IAS and threatened species. We also determined

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

which IAS or combinations of IAS should be targeted, in theory, to maximize the number of threatened species that will fully benefit from IAS eradications per cluster. We found that the top-IAS that threatens most of the native species is not necessarily the same as the IAS that should in theory be eradicated to maximize the number of species that fully benefit (Table 1). For most of the clusters, we found that a targeted combination of IAS will result in a better outcome for threatened species than controlling only the most important invader. For instance, the native species in the Polynesia and Micronesia cluster are highly threatened by feral cats. Yet, targeting only feral cats would, in theory, lead to only one species fully benefiting, because the other species threatened by cats are also threatened by others IAS. The combined control of black rat (R. rattus), pacific rat (R. exulans) and feral cats could, in theory, fully benefit to 13 species of IAS (Figure 3a). A specific example is Okinawa islands cluster. This insular region might also offer good opportunities as the removal of IAS from the family Herpestidae (e.g., H. javanicus) could directly benefit to at least 6 species and decrease pressure for 6 additional species that are also threatened by other IAS (Figure 3a). The number of links in the Okinawa cluster is quite low, so we can expect that the control of a low number of IAS would result in a high benefit for native species. In addition, most of the threatened species located in this cluster are found nowhere else (Figure 1b), so they have a particularly high value for biodiversity. Note that neither the potential feasibility nor the costeffectiveness of such programs has been evaluated here and so our findings should be complemented with local prioritization analyses at the island and IAS level. We also identified some clusters where the networks share similar properties that could be helpful in understanding their response to IAS. For example, two clusters (i.e., Papua New Guinea cluster, and the South of east indies islands cluster) share both a high-density value (a high ratio of the number of links per node to the number of possible links) and a relatively low number of IAS in their clusters (Figure 3b). This means that the threatened species within

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

198

199

200

201

202

203

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

these two clusters are threatened by few IAS but these few IAS threaten most of the species in this cluster. Hence, the control or eradication of this small number of IAS may offer great opportunity for conservation, especially as the number of IAS-threatened species is important (Figure 3a). Because these two clusters are highly disconnected from other clusters as well (Figure 1b), protecting their species might be particularly significant globally. We observed similar characteristics for Solomon, New Britain and New Ireland islands that may also offer significant opportunities for conservation (Table 1). We also observed that the Hispaniola, Jamaica and Puerto Rico clusters share similar characteristics in terms of the average number of links, and density values. Some other interaction networks are particularly distinctive and should be studied individually. For instance, Madagascar and Africa southeastern coast clusters harbour a larger number of IAS-threatened species and New Caledonia cluster more interconnections than any other clusters.

Discussion

We have identified 21 clusters of islands harbouring threatened vertebrates species that are highly significant sites of IAS threat and where focusing resources, for both research and conservation action should be most efficient. The spatial distribution of the 21 identified clusters overlaps with the majority of global biodiversity hotspots (except some coastal islands, see brown polygons represented in Figure 1a) that are priorities in terms of endemic plants threatened by habitat loss¹⁷. Over \$1 billion has been spent protecting the remaining natural vegetation of these biodiversity hotspots¹⁸. We identified other areas important for conservation, including many small islands and island groups that may offer high return on investment. Specifically, we were able to identify clusters that harbour a unique part of vertebrate species diversity threatened by IAS. These island clusters that include Caribbean, Okinawa, Seychelles islands, and also Malaysia, Philippines, some of the Indonesian islands

240 and South of East Indies islands would qualify as priorities on their own while clusters that 241 are inter-connected (i.e., where IAS-threatened species are shared) will require also trans-242 national efforts for conservation to be fully effective. 243 We also reaffirm here the role played by major invaders such as rats, cats, and the Chytrid Bd, which are already known to cause widespread threats to species on islands 19-21, 22. Feral cats 244 245 are well-known to drive numerous extinctions of endemic vertebrates (>175⁶). Yet, our 246 analysis quantifies their roles whether they are the only invader responsible of population 247 decline in islands or if they act in combination with other IAS on islands. 248 Most of the current eradication programs focus on single species, which may be ineffective when multiple IAS are involved²³. On the basis of our results, we suggest that targeting 249 multiple IAS simultaneously would be a more efficient strategy for species conservation²³ and 250 should be achievable as eradication programmes increase in coverage and complexity²⁴. 251 252 In our analyses we have identified the co-occurrences of IAS threat on islands and quantified 253 the potential number of species that, in theory, could benefit through the eradication of these 254 IAS. However, we do not account for predator release effect that could further threaten species^{25,26} or other unanticipated events (e.g., changes of vegetation or trophic webs that 255 256 could follow IAS eradication). In addition, we assume that all IAS have the same effect on 257 threatened species, which may not be a safe assumption but there is currently too little 258 information on which to improve this aspect of the analysis. Moreover, we did not assess the 259 potential for reintroductions or the feasibility of eradication events. 260 The eradication of the Chytrid Bd could, for example, be quite challenging. Indeed, we lack of 261 efficient methods to systematically eradicate the Chytrid Bd, although two recent advances have greatly improved our understanding of amphibian-chytridiomycosis dynamics²⁷. First, 262 263 the recognition that Bd is not one species but distinct lineages that vary in distribution and 264 virulence and, second, that species have been infected for much longer than initially thought

with some species co-evolving without any impact (see ²⁷ for a review). Thus, preventing measures to avoid further propagation of the Chytrid Bd in nearby clusters should be a priority. In contrast, eradication attempts for vertebrates have been quite efficient for cats or rats with failure rates of only 12%²⁸ as well as for invasive ants²⁹. In general we argue that network approaches should complement local prioritization schemes including eradication feasibility information to target regions and IAS for which actions should be undertaken^{8,30}. For example, a recent study analyzed conservation opportunities for sea-bird populations in most of the 800 small, uninhabited, and high-middle-income countries islands³¹. Our analyses also revealed that in some clusters it might be quite challenging to protect native species from extinctions, because of the high number of IAS combinations that threaten native species as shown by their high values of connectivity. Yet, local removals of IAS could prevent local extirpations of native populations and therefore benefit biodiversity. This is particularly the case of the Polynesia and Micronesia cluster. There are some limitations of our approach that are discussed in the following. First, we considered the impacts of IAS as a reduction in population size or distribution range determined by the IUCN Red list of threatened species, but other type of impacts on functional or genetic diversity through hybridization or ecosystem services might also be important. Our network-based analyses only accounted for the existence of an impact between IAS and IAS-threatened species, but not the types of impact (predation, competition, habitat modification) nor the population abundance of IAS-threatened species. Moreover, we focused on IAS threat, but many IAS threatened species are also affected by habitat loss or overexploitation, and these threats might prevent full recovery of populations even if IAS are controlled or eradicated³². Our work considered only IAS-threatened vertebrate species, for which data are most comprehensively available, but invertebrate species are also known to be particularly affected by IAS. In addition, IUCN and BirdLife provide comprehensive data for

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

some regions and taxa, but are far from being comprehensive in some regions (e.g., Africa). Regarding these limitations, the analyses here should be considered as a first step to inform about the combination of IAS that, in theory, might offer high return for species conservation. In spite of these limitations, our results have the potential to help mitigate the impacts of invasive species in insular habitats known for their remarkably rich biodiversity. Concluding remarks Our network-oriented analysis of threats posed by IAS on islands allowed us (i) to structure 27,081 islands and 437 threatened vertebrates into 21 clusters that could be used to define priorities for conservation research and actions to address threats from biological invasion, and (ii) to identify the major invaders that threaten a large number of vertebrate species. We suggest that an approach based on networks that take into account islands, IAS and their impacts has been largely missing from biological invasion studies, despite its potential to guide effective responses. The clusters of islands with similar profiles in terms of IAS impacts represents an efficient and innovative way to determine priorities for both areas and species and then to better understand and mitigate the IAS threat. Continuous investment to understand, eradicate, control or prevent new invasions in islands could benefit a high number of endemic species that are predicted to be extirpated (e.g., 10), and the high phylogenetic and functional richness located on those islands offering an unique opportunity to mitigate the loss of biodiversity and contribute to achieve international conservation commitments such as the

310

311

312

313

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

Aichi Targets 9.

Acknowledgements: CB was supported by an Axa Fellowship. We are grateful to Shyama Pagad and we also thank C. Leclerc and Pr. Dr. J. Jeschke for their comments on an earlier version of the manuscript. We are also thankful to F. Courchamp for fruitful discussions. We

314 would like to acknowledge the three referees for their useful comments that greatly improved 315 the manuscript. 316 317 **Author Contributions** 318 CB and JFR conceived the study designed with the contribution of GM M. JFR and CB did 319 the analyses, BL provided initial version of computing code. CB and JFR wrote the first draft 320 of the manuscript and all authors significantly contributed to interpreting and writing the 321 manuscript. 322 323 **Competing Financial Interests statement** 324 The authors declare no competing financial interests. 325 326 327 **Material & Method** 328 Data 329 Information about vertebrate species threatened by invasive species was extracted from the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN Red List³³), and the BirdLife 330 International database³⁴. We used the Global Invasive Species Database (GISD³⁵) for 331 332 information on the identity of invasive alien species responsible for the threat and the Global islands database from IUCN³³ website to obtain spatial data on islands worldwide 333 334 335 Vertebrates threatened by IAS 336 The species assessments of the IUCN Red List classify the risk of species extinction into one 337 of the following categories: extinct (EX), extinct in the wild (EW), critically endangered 338 (CR), endangered (EN), vulnerable (VU), near threatened (NT), least concern (LC) and data

deficient (DD). These categories are based on quantitative criteria that indicate the extinction risk including the rate of population decline (criterion A), the size and decline of the geographical range (criterion B), the population size, its fragmentation and decline rate (criteria C and D) or quantitative analyses (criterion E)³⁶. Prior to 2001, Red List assessments were based on expert opinion but now all assessments use the standard quantitative Red List Categories and Criteria, so they are objective, transparent, and repeatable. As part of the species assessment process, factors associated with decline are collated for each species³⁷. Specifically, the IUCN and BirdLife International have classified these factors into 11 main threat categories (i.e. the IUCN threat classification scheme v. 3.0). These threats are: (1) residential and commercial development; (2) agriculture and aquaculture; (3) energy production and mining; (4) transportation and service corridors; (5) biological resource use; (6) human intrusion and disturbance; (7) natural system modifications; (8) invasive and other problematic species, genes and diseases; (9) pollution; (10) geological events; and (11) climate change and severe weather³⁷. We extracted information for terrestrial vertebrates (i.e., mammals, reptiles, amphibians and birds) that classified under (8) and identified those threatened by IAS to be included our analysis. We selected vertebrates that were classified into one of the threatened categories (i.e., CR, EN and VU; N= 1,324) and extracted their spatial distributions (spatial polygons) from IUCN spatial data for mammals, amphibians and reptiles, and from the BirdLife database³⁴ for birds (resulted in a total N=1,291). Spatial data were missing for 4 mammals and 29 reptiles. Note that in our analyses any IAS-threat associated with a species is a binary response - either an invasive alien species does impact a species or it does not; we do not consider different intensities of invasive species impact (but see supplementary figure 3-4). In this way we were able to identify which vertebrates are threatened by any IAS among islands. *Information about invasive alien species*

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

We used the Global Invasive Species Database (GISD) which interlinks the IUCN Red List with IAS information³⁵. The information in the GISD has been compiled from many sources including scientific papers and regional databases that have been reviewed by international expert contributors. Specifically, for vertebrate species identified as threatened by IAS, we collected information about the identity of IAS responsible.

Island data

We used the Global islands database from IUCN website

(http://www.iucnredlist.org/technical-documents/red-list-training/iucnspatialresources), a spatial dataset of more than 180,488 islands ³³. We overlaid the spatial polygon of islands and the polygon of vertebrate species distributions to derive a set of 73,515 islands where vertebrate species are threatened by IAS (see supplementary methods for more details). When an overlap between an island and the polygon of species distribution was indistinct, we visually checked the species distribution. In order to restrict the analysis to insular vertebrates (persisting only on islands), we excluded species that were both on continental coastal areas and islands. The resulting dataset includes 97 amphibians threatened by IAS on 903 islands, 120 reptiles on 2,340 islands, 336 birds on 72,433 islands and 110 mammals on 9,709 islands.

Bipartite networks

We first built an island and IAS-threatened species network that we clustered into groups of islands on the basis of shared IAS-threatened species. Then, for each of the clusters, we conducted analyses of IAS and IAS-threatened species interaction networks.

Analyses of the island - IAS-threatened species network

Recently, geographical relationships between species and localities has been abstracted as a bipartite association network, where links are the occurrences of species within geographical locations³⁸. Similarly, the occurrence of species on islands worldwide can be represented as a

network for which nodes are either species or islands. When a species is present on a given island, a connection between this species and the island is established in the network. As species never connect to species, and islands never connect to islands (i.e., links only connect species to island in the network), such a network is called a bipartite network. This network provides information on co-occurrences of species on islands, the number of times species cooccur, and the number of species shared by particular groups of islands. In this study, we built the network with all vertebrate species threatened by IAS on islands. We chose a biogeographical approach to represent connections between islands, IAS-threatened species and invasive without any a priori knowledge of political jurisdiction or geographical proximity. Indeed, native and invasive species do not respect political boundaries, but mostly environmental boundaries. Thus, it makes more biological sense to use biogeography of species (spatial distribution of species) to delimit the impact of invasive species across islands as it will better reflect the processes of dispersion among islands than other types of boundaries. Since such an interconnected network has a high degree of complexity (663 species, 73,515 islands), numerous techniques have been developed to synthesize information by clustering nodes (e.g., the map equation minimization approach³⁹ and the modularity maximization approach⁴⁰). Among these techniques, the map equation algorithm³⁹ has been proven particularly well suited for cluster networks in comparative studies 41,42,38. This technique allows us to extract meaningful ecological structure composed of islands and species that are similar. Specifically, this technique will allow us to cluster our bipartite network based on biogeographical knowledge (species distribution) and detect common patterns of threatened species among islands. The map equation algorithm is iterative: first it chooses a random node, and then randomly selects a second node that is connected to the first one. This process is repeated a random

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

number of times. Then another node is chosen randomly and the same process repeated. If some nodes are strongly interconnected, this process tends to frequently select the same nodes, which are then attached to a cluster. In groups of islands with marked structure (high connectivity), the algorithm will focus mostly within clusters, crossing only when a crosscluster species is selected. Once the algorithm go through all the nodes of the system, it will provide the list of clusters where it spent more time³⁸. This technique allows us to extract meaningful ecological structure composed of islands and species that are connected. We expected a hierarchical structure in the dataset – due to the nested nature of species distribution - as species may be located on specific islands, which are encompass in archipelagos, and on larger regions. Consequently, we applied the multiple-level implementation of the map equation, which produces hierarchically nested groups of clusters. Thus, the algorithm hierarchically partition the groups of nodes into clusters ^{43,44}. In this study, a three-step approach was used to identify clusters of islands and species that are of high interest for conservation. (1) We applied the map equation algorithm to define clusters of island based on IASthreatened species co-occurrences, and attributed hierarchical levels into clusters that correspond to a subset of the original network in which species and islands are strongly interconnected to each other, but weakly linked to species and islands outside the group⁴⁵. (2) We selected clusters with high conservation interest defined as those that harbour at least 1% of all IAS-threatened species (>6 IAS-threatened species, see supplementary figure 6 for sensitivity analyses of this parameter). (3) We then selected, for each branch in the hierarchy, clusters that maximize the ratio of the number of IAS threatened species to the total area. In this way we identify islands with a high density of threatened species. Specifically, we chose to maximize the ratio between number of threatened species and total area for a given unit area (km2 here), so the eradication events

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436

437

438

could benefit to a high number of species. Indeed, eradications outcome are more likely to succeed on a small area⁴⁶ than large ones. We made the assumptions here that all species have the same value and interest for conservation, without any distinctions of their originality or role for the community or ecosystem Therefore, we attempted with this criterion to consider the opportunity for eradication to protect many species as possible. The application of those criteria results in the exclusion of 226 species (24 amphibians, 111 birds, 50 mammals, and 41 reptiles) (black nodes in Figure 1b) as they did not meet the criteria detailed below. Note that 14 of the excluded IAS-threatened species could offer particular opportunities for research and eradication programs as 4 birds, 5 reptiles and 5 amphibians are both located on single islands and are threatened by only one identified IAS (see list in the supplementary table 1). From these three steps we obtained 21 clusters that correspond to groups of strongly interconnected species and islands with a high density of IAS-threatened species (see supplementary figure 5 for illustration of the 3-step approach). For each cluster we document the number of IAS-threatened species, number of islands, total area (km²), and identities of IAS-threatened species (Table 1). *IAS - IAS-threatened species interaction network* Thereafter, for each of the 21 clusters, we constructed an interaction network between IASthreatened species and their associated IAS. This relationship is based on the IUCN GISD information that identified which IAS threatens which species. The majority of IASthreatened species are threatened by several invasive alien species. Using a network to describe the relationships between IAS-threatened species and IAS provides the means to list all species threatened by a given IAS and how they are linked to other IAS. For each of the 21 interaction networks we identified the (i) top-IAS per cluster (i.e., IAS with the highest number of links to threatened species), (ii) number of nodes (total number of IAS

440

441

442

443

444

445

446

447

448

449

450

451

452

453

454

455

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

and threatened vertebrates included in the cluster), (iii) number of links (total number of interactions between IAS and threatened vertebrates), (iv) the connectivity of IAS and their threatened species nodes (i.e., the average number of links (interactions) per IAS and their threatened species) and (v) graph density: a ratio of the number of links per node to the number of possible links. Knowing a network's property regarding connectivity is important here for two reasons. First, it will help us to identify if control of certain IAS in the network will have positive effects on a number of threatened species. Conversely, knowing the number of connections of IAS-threatened species will help determine which IAS should primarily be controlled or eradicated. Indeed, the connectivity of IAS and their threatened species nodes will help us to identify how IAS and threatened species are connected. It can be used to identify which IAS threaten a large number of species and if those threatened species share the same IAS or not. This can indicate how eradication of any IAS will benefit different threatened species. We also measured whether the network is close to saturation (density value close to 1, indicating that all the possible interactions have been achieved). In a saturated network where the threatened species are threatened by many IAS it will be very difficult to release significant pressure on threatened species, as most IAS would have to be removed to release significant pressure on threatened species. Yet, in a saturated network, where the threatened species are threatened by a low number of IAS, it will be highly beneficial to conduct eradication campaings, especially if the number of threatened species is high.

486

487

488

489

490

466

467

468

469

470

471

472

473

474

475

476

477

478

479

480

481

482

483

484

485

Maximising the number of IAS-threatened species that may benefit from IAS eradication

Finally we calculated, for the whole network (n=21 clusters), the combination of IAS for
which control or eradication programs could theoretically benefit the largest number of
threatened species. Specifically, for each potential combination of invasive species (from 1 to

5 IAS), we calculated the number of species that would be invasive free after eradication of that combination of IAS. We found the best strategy by testing every possible eradication scenario (see Fig. 2b). Any IAS-threatened species could benefit from the eradication of one or several of its associated IAS, but the highest conservation benefit would require all of its known IAS (according to the IUCN-GISD data) to be eradicated. For this analysis, we assume that a threatened species only benefits from the eradication, if all invasive species that affect it are eradicated. Obviously, this assumption does not necessarily reflect of real ecological situations because other native species might also benefit from such eradications. But, it is not possible to predict the effect of eradication for partially benefited species (such data do not exist at the global scale). In addition it is worth noting that many other factors, such as Allee effects or the existence of other threats may limit recovery, even if all invasive species are eradicated. Consequently, for the purposes of the analyses, we define conservation success as the eradication all of the known IAS threatening a given species. Note that eradicating any IAS may also benefit others species by releasing pressure on them, even if other IAS are still threatening them. For example if a species_A is threatened only by a IAS_B the eradication of this IAS_B in the cluster will theoretically allow species_A to recover. But, if species_A is threatened by IAS_B, IAS_C, IAS_D, the removal of IAS_B will not be sufficient to permit the full recovery of the species, it will only release some pressure. We report the top 5 IAS whose eradication would most benefit IAS-threatened species across the whole network. We conducted the same analysis for each cluster. We kept the identity of the IAS or the combination of IAS that maximize the ratio of the number of invasive-free species to the number of necessary eradicated IAS per cluster. All analyses were carried out with R version 3.2.4 using ggplot2⁴⁷ maptools⁴⁸, igraph⁴⁹, infomap version 0.18.2⁴¹ and dplyr⁵⁰ packages, and gephi software⁵¹ under Debian-Linux operating system.

491

492

493

494

495

496

497

498

499

500

501

502

503

504

505

506

507

508

509

510

511

512

513

514

and national response capacities. *Nature Communications* 7, 12485 (2016).

- 9. McCreless, E. E. et al. Past and estimated future impact of invasive alien mammals on
- insular threatened vertebrate populations. *Nature Communications* **7**, 12488 (2016).
- 544 10. Gallardo, B., Clavero, M., Sanchez, M. I. & Vila, M. Global ecological impacts of
- invasive species in aquatic ecosystems. *Global Change Biology* 151–163 (2015).
- 546 doi:10.1111/gcb.13004
- 547 11. Kumschick, S. et al. Ecological Impacts of Alien Species: Quantification, Scope,
- Caveats, and Recommendations. *BioScience* **65**, 55–63 (2015).
- 549 12. Carrion, V., Donlan, C. J., Campbell, K. J., Lavoie, C. & Cruz, F. Archipelago-wide
- island restoration in the Galápagos Islands: reducing costs of invasive mammal
- eradication programs and reinvasion risk. *PloS one* **6**, e18835 (2011).
- 552 13. Courchamp, F., Chapuis, J.-L. & Pascal, M. Mammal invaders on islands: impact,
- control and control impact. *Biological Reviews* **78**, 347–83 (2003).
- 14. Berman, M. et al. Overview of the Distribution, Habitat Association and Impact of
- Exotic Ants on Native Ant Communities in New Caledonia. *PLoS ONE* **8**, e67245
- 556 (2013).
- 15. Myers, N., Mittermeier, R. A., Mittermeier, C. G., Da Fonseca, G. A. & Kent, J.
- 558 Biodiversity hotspots for conservation priorities. *Nature* **403**, 853–858 (2000).
- 559 16. Sloan, S., Jenkins, C. N., Joppa, L. N., Gaveau, D. L. A. & Laurance, W. F.
- Remaining natural vegetation in the global biodiversity hotspots. *Biological*
- 561 *Conservation* **177,** 12–24 (2014).
- 562 17. Doherty, T. S., Glen, A. S., Nimmo, D. G., Ritchie, E. G. & Dickman, C. R. Invasive
- 563 predators and global biodiversity loss. *Proceedings of the National Academy of*
- *Sciences* **113**, 11261-11265 (2016).
- 18. Bonnaud, E. et al. The diet of feral cats on islands: a review and a call for more
- studies. *Biological Invasions* **13**, 581–603 (2011).

- 19. Medina, L. I. X. M., Bonnaud, E., Vidal, E. & Tershy, B. R. A global review of the
- impacts of invasive cats on island endangered vertebrates. Global Change Biology 17,
- 569 3503–3510 (2011).
- 570 20. Jones, H. P. et al. Severity of the Effects of Invasive Rats on Seabirds: A Global
- 571 Review. *Conservation Biology* **22,** 16–26 (2008).
- 572 21. Glen, A. S. *et al.* Eradicating multiple invasive species on inhabited islands: the next
- 573 big step in island restoration? *Biological Invasions* **15**, 2589–2603 (2013).
- 574 22. Keitt, B. *et al.* Best practice guidelines for rat eradication on tropical islands.
- 575 *Biological Conservation* **185,** 17–26 (2015).
- 576 23. Bergstrom, D. M. et al. Indirect effects of invasive species removal devastate World
- Heritage Island. *Journal of Applied Ecology* **46,** 73–81 (2009).
- 578 24. Rayner, M. J., Hauber, M. E., Imber, M. J., Stamp, R. K. & Clout, M. N. Spatial
- heterogeneity of mesopredator release within an oceanic island system. *Proceedings of*
- the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 104, 20862–5
- 581 (2007).
- 582 25. Lips, K. R. Overview of chytrid emergence and impacts on amphibians. *Philosophical*
- Transactions of the Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences 371, (2016).
- 584 26. B. Keitt et al. in Island invasives: eradication and management (ed. Veitch, C. R.;
- 585 Clout, M. N. and Towns, D. R. (eds. .) 74–77 (2011).
- 586 27. Hoffmann, B. D., Luque, G. M., Bellard, C., Holmes, N. D. & Donlan, J. Improving
- invasive ant eradication as a conservation tool: A review. *Biological Conservation*
- **198**, 37-49 (2016)
- 589 28. Helmstedt, K. J. et al. Prioritizing eradication actions on islands: it's not all or nothing.
- *Journal of Applied Ecology* **53,** 733–741 (2016).

- 591 29. Spatz, D. R. et al. The biogeography of globally threatened seabirds and island
- conservation opportunities. *Conservation Biology* **28,** 1282–1290 (2014).
- 593 30. Doherty, T. S., Dickman, C. R., Nimmo, D. G. & Ritchie, E. G. Multiple threats, or
- multiplying the threats? Interactions between invasive predators and other ecological
- disturbances. *Biological Conservation* **190,** 60–68 (2015).
- 596 31. IUCN. (2015). International union for Conservation of Nature
- 597 http://www.iucnredlist.org/
- 598 32. BirdLife International and NatureServe (2014) Bird species distribution maps of the
- world. Version 4.0. BirdLife International, Cambridge, UK and NatureServe,
- Arlington, USA. [Available for download
- at: http://www.birdlife.org/datazone/info/spcdownload]
- 33. ISSG. Global Invasive Species Database. Invasive Species Specialist Group (ISSG) of
- the IUCN Species Survival Commission (2016). at http://www.issg.org/database
- 604 34. Mace, G. M. et al. Quantification of extinction risk: IUCN's system for classifying
- threatened species. Conservation biology: the journal of the Society for Conservation
- 606 Biology **22**, 1424–42 (2008).
- 607 35. Salafsky, N. et al. A standard lexicon for biodiversity conservation: unified
- classifications of threats and actions. Conservation Biology 22, 897–911 (2008).
- 609 36. Vilhena, D. a & Antonelli, A. Beyond similarity: A network approach for identifying
- and delimiting biomes. Nature Communications **6**, 1–9 (2014).
- 611 37. Rosvall, M. & Bergstrom, C. T. Multilevel compression of random walks on networks
- 612 reveals hierarchical organization in large integrated systems. PLoS ONE 6, (2011).
- 613 38. Graham, J. I. M. et al. Vision of a Cyberinfrastructure for Nonnative, Invasive Species
- Management. BioScience **58**, 263–268 (2008).
- 615 39. Lancichinetti, A. & Fortunato, S. Community detection algorithms: A comparative

- analysis. Physical review E 80, 1–11 (2009).
- 40. Aldecoa, R. et al. Exploring the limits of community detection strategies in complex
- 618 networks. Scientific Reports **3**, 75–174 (2013).
- 41. Rosvall, M., Axelsson, D. & Bergstrom C.T. The map equation. Eur. Phys. J. Special
- 620 Topics **178**, 13–23 (2009).
- 42. Rosvall, M. & Bergstrom, C. T. Maps of random walks on complex networks reveal
- 622 community structure. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United
- 623 States of America **105**, 1118–23 (2008).
- 43. Tylianakis, J. M., Laliberte, E., Nielsen, A. & Bascompte, J. Conservation of species
- interaction networks. Biological Conservation **143**, 2270–2279 (2010).
- 626 44. Wickham, H. ggplot2: Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis. (2009). at
- 627 http://ggplot2.org
- 628 45. Bivand, R. & Lewin-Koh, N. maptools: Tools for Reading and Handling Spatial
- Objects. (2016). at https://cran.r-project.org/package=maptools
- 46. Pluess T, Cannon R, Jarošík V, et al When are eradication campaigns successful? A
- test of common assumptions. Biological Invasions **14**,1365–1378 (2012)
- 632 47. G, C. & Nepusz T. The igraph software package for complex network research.
- 633 (2006). at http://igraph.org
- 48. Wickham, H. & Francois, R. dplyr: A Grammar of Data Manipulation. (2015). at
- 635 https://cran.r-project.org/package=dplyr>
- 636 49. Bastian, M. & Heymann, S. Gephi: an open source software for exploring and
- manipulating networks. (2009). at
- 638 http://www.aaai.org/ocs/index.php/ICWSM/09/paper/view/154
- 639 50. Mittermeier, R. A. A. et al. Hotspots Revisited: Earth's biologically richest and most

| 640 | endangered ecoregions. Sierra (Mexico: CEMEX, 2004). at |
|-----|---|
| 641 | http://www.worldcat.org/isbn/9686397779> |
| 642 | |
| 643 | |
| 644 | |
| 645 | |
| 646 | |
| 647 | |
| 648 | |
| 649 | |
| 650 | |
| 651 | |
| 652 | |
| 653 | |
| 654 | |
| 655 | |
| 656 | |
| 657 | |
| 658 | |
| 659 | |
| 660 | |
| 661 | |
| 662 | |
| 663 | |
| 664 | |
| 665 | |

Figure legends

Figure 1: Bipartite IAS-threatened species/islands network. A - The map represents the location of the 27,081 islands included in the 21 clusters coded using ID number and colour (see legend). Brown areas show the location of biodiversity hotspots originally defined by Myers and then updated to 35 hotspots 17,52. B- Graphical summary of the 21 clusters; each cluster is defined by islands and IAS-threatened species, and distinguished using the same colour as in (a). with the ID numbers shown (see the legend for the labels). The size of the nodes in the inner circle is log-proportional to the number of islands in the cluster, and the size of the nodes in the outer circle is log-proportional to the number of species of each taxon in a cluster. Shapes representing the higher taxa are shown in the circle when possible. The width of the grey links is log-proportional to the number of species that are located in two given clusters. Nodes (islands and IAS-threatened species) represented in black on the right-hand side of the figure show the species and islands that were not included the analysis (see Materials and Methods)

threatened species (n=397; green = mammals, red = birds, purple = amphibians, blue = reptiles). Node size of the IAS is proportional to the number of species that it is reported to threaten, while the node size for higher taxa is log-proportional to the number of species threatened by IAS. Some IAS shapes are represented: rats (including R. exulans, R. norvegicus, R. rattus, and R. unspecified), pig (Sus scrofa), ant (Wasmannia auropunctata),

Figure 2: A- Global interaction network between IAS in black (n=169) and individual

feral dogs (Canis familiaris), Chytrid Bd, and feral cat (Felis catus) B- Barplot of the

theoretical number of vertebrate species that would fully benefit from the removal of the top

690 (*Chytrid Bd*) to top 5 *IAS* in the network.

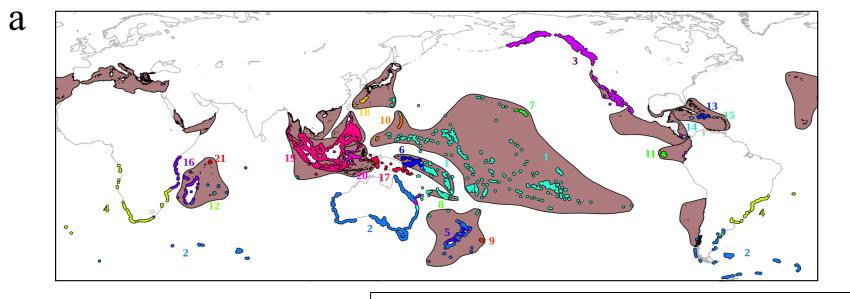
Figure 3: A-Representation of two networks between IAS (in black) and IAS-threatened species (in color, green = mammals, red = birds, purple = amphibians, blue = reptiles) for ID 1 and ID 18. Some IAS shapes are represented: ant, pig, rats and feral cat for ID1, Herpestidae family and cat for ID 18. Note that Herpestes sp. appears twice because one node represens the whole Herpestidae family and the other represents species identified as H. javanicus B- Radarplot showing the network characteristics for Caribbean clusters (ID 13, 14, 15), and the Indonesian region clusters (ID 17, 20). All the variables (number of

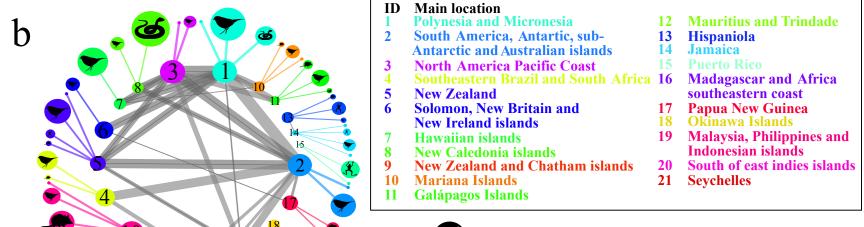
threatened species, total number of nodes, total number of links, density, average number of links per threatened species, average number of links per IAS, and number of islands) have been normalized for comparison.

Table 1: Characteristics of the 21 clusters based on the two types of networks: the network of IAS-threatened species and islands, and the interaction network between IAS and their threatened species. The table reports the cluster ID, the number of IAS-threatened species, the number of islands, the total area in km2, the top invaders, the percentage of IAS included in the network, the average number of links per IAS-threatened species and per IAS, the density of the network, the combination of IAS that in theory could benefit to the highest number of vertebrate species, and the number of vertebrate species free of IAS. The latter quantity is defined as the number of threatened species for which all known IAS in the cluster are eradicated based on the stated combination of IAS. Note that when the ratio between the number of targeted IAS and the number of vertebrates free of IAS is less than 1, we did not include it in the table.

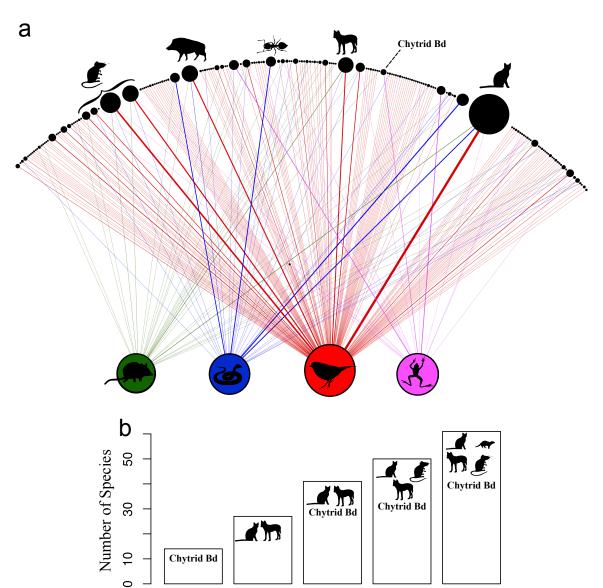
Table 1:

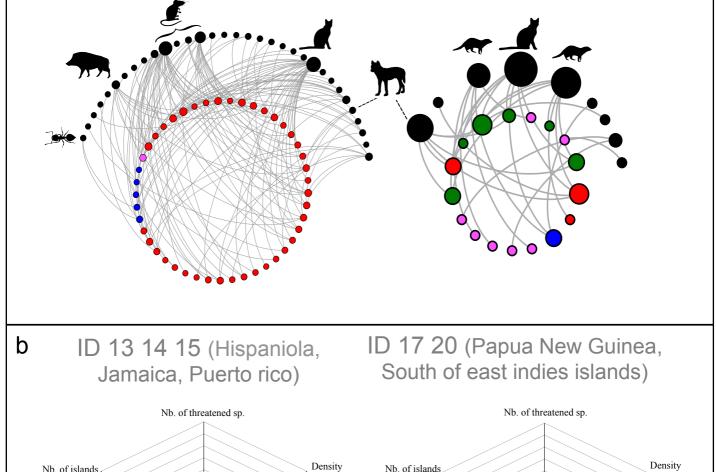
| | | | | ı | | | | | 1 | |
|----|-----------------------------|-------------------|---------------|----------------------------|----------|--|--------------------------------|---------|---|------------------------|
| Q | Nb. of IAS- threatene | Nb. of Islands | Area (km²) | Top-1st IAS | % of IAS | Mean nb. of link per IAS-threatene d sp. | Mean nb. of link per IAS | Density | Combinat ion of IAS to target | Nb. of full benefit |
| 1 | 54 | 6011 | | F. catus | 42,3 | 3,3 | 4,5 | 0,1 | R. rattus+F. catus+R. exulans | 13 |
| 2 | 20 | 4836 | 106070 | F. catus | 67,2 | 3,9 | 1,9 | 0,1 | F. catus+R. norvegicus | 3 |
| 3 | 7 | 7460 | 124150 | F. catus | 60 | 2,8 | 1,9 | 0,31 | R. rattus | 1 |
| 4 | 15 | 1034 | 3004 | Rattus spp. | 46,1 | 2 | 2,3 | 0,17 | F. catus | 2 |
| 5 | 28 | 263 | 266420 | M. erminea | 62,2 | 5,3 | 3,2 | 0,12 | Chytrid Bd | 1 |
| 6 | 7 | 741 | 48737 | F. catus | 36,4 | 1,9 | 3,2 | 0,46 | C. familiaris+F. catus+Rattus spp. | 6 |
| 7 | 28 | 70 | 16891 | P. relictum | 63,2 | 8,1 | 4,7 | 0,17 | - | - |
| 8 | 55 | 56 | | Family rodentia | 24,7 | 3,7 | 11,4 | 0,21 | - | - |
| 9 | 8 | 31 | 983 | F. catus | 61,9 | 4 | 2,5 | 0,31 | - | - |
| 10 | 10 | 56 | 1523 | B. irregularis | 64 | 3,8 | 2,1 | 0,24 | B. irregularis | 1 |
| 11 | 16 | 24 | 8081 | R. rattus | 62,5 | 4,7 | 2,8 | 0,19 | M. musculus+R. Rattus | 4 |
| 12 | 8 | 13 | 1894 | L. robustum | 74,2 | 6,25 | 2,2 | 0,27 | - | - |
| 13 | 11 | 63 | 74555 | Chytrid Bd | 41,2 | 1,6 | 2,3 | 0,23 | Chytrid Bd | 6 |
| 14 | 11 | 5 | 11028 | Rattus spp. + others | 54,2 | 1,7 | 1,5 | 0,13 | - | - |
| 15 | 12 | 1 | 8761 | Chytrid Bd | 36,9 | 1,6 | 2,7 | 0,23 | Chytrid Bd | 7 |
| 16 | 61 | 387 | 598629 | Eucalyptus spp. | 30,9 | 2,1 | 4,7 | 0,08 | - | - |
| 17 | 8 | 256 | 823053 | R. rattus + others | 40 | 1,2 | 1,7 | 0,29 | C. familiaris | 2 |
| 18 | 18 | 64 | 3091 | F. catus | 54,2 | 1,9 | 3,6 | 0,21 | family herpestidae | 6 |
| 19 | 30 | 5566 | 1656400 | F. catus | 40 | 1,6 | 2,4 | 0,10 | Rattus spp. | 4 |
| 20 | 10 | 126 | 196869 | C. familiaris | 36,4 | 1,7 | 3 | 0,43 | C. familiaris + F. catus | 5 |
| 21 | 20 | 18 | 250 | F. catus | 53,9 | 2,9 | 2,5 | 0,21 | T. ecaudatus | 2 |
| 4 | • | • | | | | L. L | U Company | | | |





Islands and species outside of the 21 clusters





ID 18

a

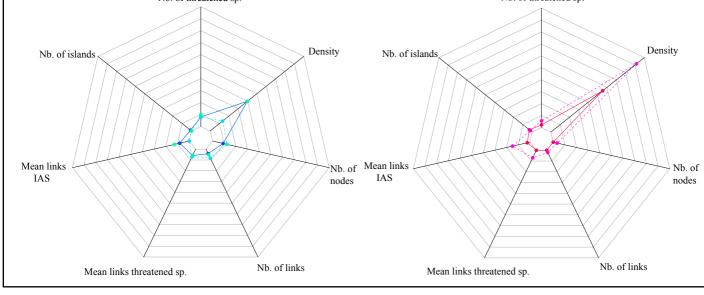


Table 1:

| 1 | | | | | | | | | | 1 | 1 |
|---|----|-----------------------------|-------------------|---------|-------------|------|------|------|------|-------------------------------|----|
| S4 | | Nb. of IAS- threatene | Nb. of Islands | | | _ | | | | | |
| 20 | | 54 | 6011 | | F. catus | 42,3 | · | , | 0,1 | catus+R. exulans | 13 |
| 15 | 2 | 20 | 4836 | 106070 | F. catus | 67,2 | 3,9 | 1,9 | 0,1 | | 3 |
| 15 | 3 | 7 | 7460 | 124150 | F. catus | 60 | 2,8 | 1,9 | 0,31 | R. rattus | 1 |
| 5 28 263 266420 M. erminea 62,2 5,3 3,2 0,12 Chytrid Bd 6 6 48737 F. catus 36,4 1,9 3,2 0,46 C. familiaris+F. catus+Rattus spp. 6 7 741 741 63,2 8,1 4,7 0,17 - - 8 16700 Family rodentia 24,7 3,7 11,4 0,21 - - - 9 8 31 983 F. catus 61,9 4 2,5 0,31 - - - 10 1523 B. irregularis 64 3,8 2,1 0,24 B. irregularis - 11 8081 R. rattus 62,5 4,7 2,8 0,19 M. musculus+R. Rattus 12 1894 L. robustum 74,2 6,25 2,2 0,27 - - 13 11 63 74555 Chytrid Bd 41,2 1,6 <t< td=""><td>4</td><td>15</td><td>1034</td><td>3004</td><td></td><td>46,1</td><td>2</td><td>2,3</td><td>0,17</td><td>F. catus</td><td>2</td></t<> | 4 | 15 | 1034 | 3004 | | 46,1 | 2 | 2,3 | 0,17 | F. catus | 2 |
| 6 48737 F. catus 36,4 1,9 3,2 0,46 C. familiaris+F. catus+Rattus spp. 6 7 741 28 70 16891 P. relictum 63,2 8,1 4,7 0,17 - - 8 55 56 16700 Family rodentia 24,7 3,7 11,4 0,21 - - - 9 8 31 983 F. catus 61,9 4 2,5 0,31 - - - 10 1523 B. 64 3,8 2,1 0,24 B. irregularis - 11 8081 R. rattus 62,5 4,7 2,8 0,19 M. musculus+R. Rattus 12 1894 L. robustum 74,2 6,25 2,2 0,27 - - 13 11 63 74555 Chytrid Bd 41,2 1,6 2,3 0,23 Chytrid Bd 6 14 11028 Rattus | 5 | 28 | 263 | 266420 | | 62,2 | 5,3 | 3,2 | 0,12 | Chytrid Bd | 1 |
| 8 55 56 16700 Family rodentia 24,7 rodentia 3,7 11,4 0,21 | 6 | | | 48737 | F. catus | 36,4 | 1,9 | 3,2 | 0,46 | familiaris+F. catus+Rattus | 6 |
| 8 55 56 16700 Family rodentia 24,7 3,7 11,4 0,21 - < | 7 | 28 | 70 | 16891 | P. relictum | 63,2 | 8,1 | 4,7 | 0,17 | - | - |
| 10 | 8 | | | 16700 | | | | 11,4 | 0,21 | - | - |
| 10 | 9 | 8 | 31 | 983 | F. catus | 61,9 | 4 | 2,5 | 0,31 | - | - |
| 11 | 10 | | | 1523 | | | 3,8 | | 0,24 | B. irregularis | 1 |
| 12 8 13 1894 L. robustum 74,2 robustum 6,25 2,2 0,27 | 11 | 16 | 24 | 8081 | R. rattus | 62,5 | 4,7 | 2,8 | 0,19 | musculus+R. | 4 |
| 14 11028 Rattus spp. + others 54,2 1,7 1,5 0,13 - - 15 12 1 8761 Chytrid Bd 36,9 1,6 2,7 0,23 Chytrid Bd 7 16 598629 Eucalyptus spp. 30,9 2,1 4,7 0,08 - - 17 823053 R. rattus + do thers 1,2 1,7 0,29 C. familiaris 2 18 3091 F. catus 54,2 1,9 3,6 0,21 family herpestidae 19 30 5566 1656400 F. catus 40 1,6 2,4 0,10 Rattus spp. 20 196869 C. familiaris 36,4 1,7 3 0,43 C. familiaris + F. catus | 12 | 8 | 13 | 1894 | | 74,2 | 6,25 | 2,2 | 0,27 | - | - |
| 14 11028 Rattus spp. + others 54,2 spp. + others 1,7 spp. + others 1,5 spp. + others | 13 | 11 | 63 | 74555 | Chytrid Bd | 41,2 | 1,6 | 2,3 | 0,23 | Chytrid Bd | 6 |
| 16 598629 Eucalyptus spp. 30,9 spp. 2,1 4,7 0,08 - | 14 | 11 | 5 | 11028 | spp. + | 54,2 | 1,7 | 1,5 | 0,13 | - | - |
| 16 61 387 598629 Eucalyptus spp. 30,9 spp. 2,1 4,7 0,08 - - - 17 8 256 823053 R. rattus + others 40 1,2 1,7 0,29 C. familiaris 2 18 3091 F. catus 54,2 1,9 3,6 0,21 family herpestidae 40 herpestidae 19 30 5566 1656400 F. catus 40 1,6 2,4 0,10 Rattus spp. 4 20 196869 C. familiaris 36,4 1,7 3 0,43 C. familiaris + F. catus 4 | 15 | 12 | 1 | 8761 | Chytrid Bd | 36,9 | 1,6 | 2,7 | 0,23 | Chytrid Bd | 7 |
| 17 8 256 823053 R. rattus + others 40 1,2 1,7 0,29 C. familiaris 2 18 3091 F. catus 54,2 1,9 3,6 0,21 family herpestidae 6 19 30 5566 1656400 F. catus 40 1,6 2,4 0,10 Rattus spp. 4 20 196869 C. familiaris 36,4 1,7 3 0,43 C. familiaris + F. catus 5 | 16 | | 387 | 598629 | Eucalyptus | | | | | - | - |
| 18 64 herpestidae 19 30 5566 1656400 F. catus 40 1,6 2,4 0,10 Rattus spp. 4 20 196869 C. familiaris 1,7 3 0,43 C. familiaris + F. catus 5 | 17 | | | 823053 | R. rattus + | 40 | 1,2 | 1,7 | 0,29 | C. familiaris | 2 |
| 20 | 18 | 18 | 64 | 3091 | F. catus | 54,2 | 1,9 | 3,6 | 0,21 | | 6 |
| 20 | 19 | 30 | 5566 | 1656400 | F. catus | 40 | 1,6 | 2,4 | 0,10 | | 4 |
| | 20 | | | | | 36,4 | | | | C. familiaris + | 5 |
| | 21 | 20 | 18 | 250 | F. catus | 53,9 | 2,9 | 2,5 | 0,21 | T. ecaudatus | 2 |