## Federation University ResearchOnline

## https://researchonline.federation.edu.au

Copyright Notice

This is the author's version of a work that was accepted for publication in Australian Mammalogy 43 (1) 72 . Changes resulting from the publishing process, such as peer review, editing, corrections, structural formatting, and other quality control mechanisms may not be reflected in this document.
https://doi.org/10.1071/AM20030
Copyright @ Australian Mammal Society 2021

# Demographic trends and reproductive patterns in the northern hairy-nosed wombat Lasiorhinus krefftii at Epping Forest National Park (Scientific), Central Queensland 

Alan B. Horsup ${ }^{\text {AH }}$, Jeremy J. Austin ${ }^{\text {B }}$, Rachel M. Fewster ${ }^{\text {C }}$, Birgita D. Hansen ${ }^{\text {D }}$, Dave E. Harper ${ }^{\mathrm{E}}$, Jenny A. Molyneux ${ }^{\mathrm{E}}$, Lauren C. White ${ }^{\text {BF }}$ and Andrea C. Taylor ${ }^{\text {G }}$

${ }^{\text {A }}$ Department of Environment and Science, PO Box 3130, Red Hill Qld 4701
${ }^{B}$ Australian Centre for Ancient DNA, School of Biological Sciences, University of Adelaide, South Australia 5005
${ }^{\text {C }}$ Department of Statistics, University of Auckland, Private Bag 92019, Auckland, New Zealand
${ }^{\text {D }}$ Centre for eResearch and Digital Innovation, Federation University, PO Box 691, Ballarat Vic 3353
${ }^{\text {E }}$ Department of Environment and Science, GPO Box 2454, Brisbane, Qld 4001
${ }^{\text {F }}$ Current address: Department of Primatology, Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary
Anthropology, Deutscher Platz 6, Leipzig 04103, Germany.
${ }^{\text {G }}$ Monash University, School of Biological Sciences, Clayton, Vic 3800
${ }^{\mathrm{H}}$ Corresponding author. Email: alan.horsup@des.qld.gov.au


#### Abstract

The critically endangered northern hairy-nosed wombat Lasiorhinus krefftii currently exists at only two locations in Queensland. Management, research and monitoring of the species at the main Epping Forest National Park (Scientific) population has occurred over the last four decades using a variety of tools, with the most complete dataset being provided by burrow activity monitoring over that period. Following a series of trap-based surveys in the 1980s and 1990s, wombat monitoring has employed DNA profiling of hairs collected remotely on sticky tape set at burrow entrances (since 2000), and passive infrared (PIR) cameras (since 2011). These techniques have produced a wealth of new information on the species. Using this new information, we aim to: 1) summarise the available demographic data and present new estimates using novel techniques for L. krefftii at Epping Forest NP; and 2) characterise reproductive patterns and their relationship with environmental factors for L. krefftii at Epping Forest NP. We find an ongoing increase in the population size at Epping Forest National Park, supported by healthy levels of reproduction despite periods of poor environmental conditions, notwithstanding the finding that cumulative monthly rainfall six months prior to sampling influenced birth rates. This trend suggests that the population will likely reach carrying capacity in the near future. It is timely to harvest the population to provide founders to a new site to establish an additional population which will also reduce the risk of extinction and help secure the future of the species.


## Introduction

The northern hairy-nosed wombat Lasiorhinus krefftii is one of the world's most endangered mammals. Prior to the arrival of Europeans in Australia, the species was probably sparsely distributed throughout a huge area of semi-arid eastern Australia from southern New South Wales to northern Queensland. A combination of culling in the Riverina area of NSW to reduce potential habitat for invasive European rabbits, drought, and competition for food with introduced herbivores reduced the species to a single small population in central Queensland by the 1970s (Crossman et al. 1994; Swinbourne et al. 2016).

Lasiorhinus krefftii currently occurs in two Queensland locations. The last natural population occurs at Epping Forest National Park (Scientific) [Epping Forest NP] in central Queensland, with approximately 245 animals (Taylor and Fewster 2017). In 2009 and 2010, the second 2 population was established through the translocation of 15 individuals to Richard Underwood Nature Refuge in southern Queensland. Despite a high mortality rate post release (seven
4 wombats in the first 3.5 years), there have been no further deaths of translocated animals. In 2016, an additional male was introduced to stimulate breeding in the population, resulting in five successful births and a current population of 14 wombats.

The species is listed as Endangered in Queensland under the Nature Conservation Act 1992, and as Critically Endangered nationally under the Environment Protection and Biodiversity
Conservation Act 1999. Current threats and conservation actions are listed in the Conservation Advice (TSSC 2018).

The last population of $L$. krefftii was protected with the gazettal of Epping Forest NP in 1971. 64 Monitoring of the wombat population has been continuous since 1974 (Gordon et al. 1985) and has included measuring burrow activity, live trapping, genetic censusing based on remote collection of wombat hair, and PIR camera monitoring. Several key management events have occurred since gazettal, including the construction of a cattle fence around the population in 1981, construction of a dog fence in 2002, placement of permanent caretakers on the park since 2002, provision of permanent water in 2004 and the translocation of 15 individuals in 2009-10 to establish a second population.

## Population trends

Initial studies of the L. krefftii population at Epping Forest NP involved monitoring wombat activity levels at burrow entrances. From 1975 to 1982, around 70\% of burrows at Epping Forest NP were scored as active by Gordon et al. (1985), who estimated the population contained only 20-30 wombats, perilously close to extinction. A major decline in the number of active burrows occurred when the park was fenced to exclude cattle in 1981. Crossman et al. (1994) attributed this to a reduction in the size of wombat feeding ranges in response to the higher availability of food after the removal of cattle.

During the first trapping studies of the species, from 1985 to 1989, 70 unique wombats in a roughly equal sex ratio were captured, implying a substantial increase in the population size since the study by Gordon et al. (1985). The recovery of the population was attributed to the exclusion of cattle from Epping Forest NP in 1981 and the consequent increase in the quality and quantity of food available to the wombats. Trapping also suggested that female-biased dispersal was occurring, with $50 \%$ of females dispersing, while few males did so (Johnson and Crossman 1991). This trend has subsequently been confirmed for L. krefftii (Taylor et al. 1997); and demonstrated for the southern hairy-nosed wombat, L. latifrons (Walker et al. 2008) and the bare-nosed wombat, Vombatus ursinus (Banks et al. 2002).

The recovery in the 1980s was short-lived. Trapping during a protracted drought in the 1990s revealed declines in breeding rates and a significant skewing of the sex ratio towards males (Horsup 1998). These negative demographic trends were reflected in reduced population estimates: a capture-mark-recapture (CMR) analysis of trapping data in 1993 provided an estimate of 65 wombats, indicating no population growth had occurred during the drought, given population sizes estimates of 67 in 1985-87 and 62 in 1988-89 (Hoyle et al. 1995).

Since 2000, population estimates have been based on CMR analysis of detections of individual-specific DNA profiles established from wombat hairs remotely collected at burrow entrances - a technique in the early stages of development at the time of the first wombat conference in Adelaide in 1994 (Taylor et al. 1998). The first full 'hair census' analysis in 2000 returned a population estimate of 113 individuals and confirmed the male-biased sex ratio recorded during trapping in the 1990s (Banks et al. 2003a). Since then, seven more hair censuses have provided population and sex ratio estimates as documented in a series of unpublished reports. Those reports employed the same statistical approach as Banks et al. (2003a) to standardise the analysis and identify trends in population size, although that approach is now known to produce upwardly biased population estimates. Hence, one of the goals of the current paper is to report on a re-analysis of the data from all hair censuses using newly developed statistical models (Taylor and Fewster 2017). This paper presents these new estimates and clarifies overall population trends, as we now understand them.

## Trends in survival and reproduction

Adult mortality levels were low and estimated at less than 8\% per year in the 1980s (Johnson 1991). Estimates in the 1990s using CMR methods indicated adult mortality levels of around $5 \%$ in good years (range $0-14 \%$; S. Hoyle, pers. comm.). Life span in the wild can exceed 28 years according to trapping and hair census records (Taylor 2012). The oldest captive $L$. kreffiti was more than 30 years old when it died at Epping Forest Station (J. Dennis pers. comm.).

The rarity of $L$. krefftii, along with its nocturnal, fossorial and conservative habits, has meant that understanding reproductive patterns has been difficult. The reproductive behaviour of the closely related, and more common, southern hairy-nosed wombat, L. latifrons, is better understood. Most $L$. latifrons young are produced during the winter-spring growing season, from July to December (Taggart et al. 2007). Following around nine months of pouch life and a further three months of suckling, young-at-foot are weaned in the following spring when pasture conditions are optimal. There is evidence that a similar pattern of reproduction occurs for $L$. krefftii (although shifted to coincide with the northern wet season), with most births occurring between October and March (Crossman et al. 1994). Early trapping studies also suggested that $50-75 \%$ of $L$. krefftii females breed in any one year (Crossman et al. 1994). However, as the species is very trap-shy, the ability to collect more detailed reproductive data for individual animals was limited prior to the advent of PIR cameras.

PIR cameras have provided a non-invasive method to monitor $L$. krefftii at a level not previously possible and enabled long-term data to be collected on individual wombats. For example, observations of a single ear-tagged female L. krefftii have provided an indication of the frequency of breeding: she produced five young in the nine years a PIR camera monitored her burrow (A. Horsup, unpublished data). This period followed eight years of mostly above average rainfall (range 420-1293; 20-year mean 546 mm ) and included mostly below average rainfall ( $268-803 \mathrm{~mm}$ ). The intervals between births for this female were $23,28,16$, and 25 months, respectively, for an overall mean interval of 23 months between births.

This paper combines existing reproductive data with new data extracted from millions of PIR camera photos to determine the environmental factors that influence breeding events and to clarify the breeding patterns of $L$. krefftii at Epping Forest NP.

## The aims of this paper

The purpose of this paper is to: 1) summarise the available demographic data and present new estimates using novel techniques for L. krefftii at Epping Forest NP; and 2) characterise reproductive patterns and their relationship with environmental factors for $L$. krefftii at Epping Forest NP.

## Methods

## Epping Forest National Park

Located 120 km north-west of Clermont in central Queensland, Epping Forest NP is 2,750 ha in size, of which 600 ha is considered optimal wombat habitat and 1,400 ha is considered suitable (Steinbeck 1994). In 1989, L. krefftii occupied 300 ha of the park (Johnson 1991); by 2019, this had increased to 800 ha (A. Horsup, unpublished data). The wombat habitat and vegetation of the park are described in DERM (2011).

Epping Forest NP is situated in a semi-arid zone on the Belyando river system in the upper reaches of the Burdekin River catchment. The park was excised from Epping Forest and Walthum cattle stations in 1971, although grazing continued on the park until 1981 when it was fenced to exclude cattle. The climate is warm to hot with a mean annual rainfall of 576 mm that is summer-dominated ( $72 \%$ falls from November to March) and unpredictable. Mean monthly temperatures are high in summer (the long-term mean maximum temperature for Clermont in December, the hottest month, was $34.8^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ) and low in winter (the long-term mean minimum of $6.7^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ in July; BOM 2020). Several long-term droughts, lasting up to six years, have been recorded in the area in recent decades (Gordon et al. 1985). The most recent severe drought was from 1992 to 1997 (ABC 2020). Since 1999, rainfall data have been collected on-site. Prior to 1999 data were collected at Epping Forest cattle station (3 km from the study site) and temperature data from the closest working weather station at Clermont Airport (105 km from the study site; BOM 2019).

## Burrow activity monitoring

The burrows of $L$. krefftii can be single-entranced or multi-entranced, with up to 11 entrances recorded at the largest warren complex. Activity monitoring of $L$. krefftii burrows has occurred at varying intervals on Epping Forest NP since 1974 and constitutes the longest continuous monitoring program for the species. Burrow activity monitoring is carried out by two people over seven mornings at all known burrows and causes little or no disturbance to the wombats. Each morning for seven days, all new and established burrows are marked and mapped. Burrows, including all entrances, are recorded as active, visited or inactive according to the presence of wombat tracks, digging, fresh dung and urine, and the state of the burrow (collapsed, partially collapsed, open). An 'active' burrow shows clear signs of entry by a wombat in at least one entrance. 'Visited' burrows have fresh wombat signs near at least one entrance but show no signs of entry by a wombat.

## Trapping

Demographic and reproductive data were collected at irregular intervals during wombat trapping at Epping Forest NP from 1985 to 2017. Trap effort within individual surveys varied considerably depending on monitoring strategies and logistical constraints (Appendix 1). Wombats were captured in large steel cage traps ( $60 \mathrm{~W} \times 90 \mathrm{H} \mathrm{x} 180 \mathrm{~L} \mathrm{~cm}$ ) positioned at openings in permanent fences constructed around active burrows. Trigger lines set 50 mm above the trap floor activated both trap doors. Since 1993, the trap mechanism was connected to a radio transmitter, ensuring all trapped wombats were processed within two hours of capture. Wombats were anaesthetised and processed on-site.

Body measurements (weight, total length, head length, head width, neck girth, chest girth, tibia length and pes length) were recorded for all captured wombats. Wombats were classed as adult if total body length was greater than 1 m (Crossman et al. 1994). Reproductive status of adult wombats was assessed through observations on lactation and pouch condition in females and the size of testes and accessory glands in males (D. Taggart pers. comm.). Large, furred joeys were removed from the pouch for measurement of head length, pes length and total length. To minimise disturbance, the length of smaller joeys from nose to tail base was approximated using a tape measure wrapped around the outside of the pouch. Pouch young size was used to estimate birth month with reference to growth and development patterns established for L. latifrons (Taggart et al. 2007; Figure 5).

All wombats independent of the pouch were tattooed with a three-digit number in the ear (males R; females L). From 1995 onwards, all independent wombats also had a microchip subcutaneously implanted in the intrascapular region. Wombats were monitored in a recovery crate ( $45 \mathrm{~W} \times 85 \mathrm{H} \mathrm{x} 110 \mathrm{~L} \mathrm{~cm}$ ) until they showed no on-going effect of the anaesthetic and then released down their burrow of capture.

Sex ratio data are presented for trapping studies where at least 10 wombats were captured, and for all hair censuses.

## Hair census

The hair census technique replaced live trapping as a method to estimate population size in 2000. Hair censuses were undertaken at Epping Forest NP in 2000, 2001, 2002, 2005, 2007, 2010, 2013 and 2016. During a hair census, wombat hairs with attached follicles were collected on double-sided sticky tape (Tesa Tape \#4970) strung across the entrances of all active burrows. Hair tapes were set at a height so that wombats passing under them would leave some hairs stuck to the tape. Hair samples were collected over seven consecutive nights in August-October of the census year. All burrows recorded as active during burrow activity monitoring just prior (within three months) of hair collection were taped.

DNA was extracted from the follicles of single hairs and DNA profiling in the laboratory was used to identify and sex individual hair donors (Sloane et al. 2000; Banks et al. 2003a; White et al. 2014). A genotyping error rate of $0.08 \%$ was recently estimated using repeat genotyping of a random selection of hair samples (Taylor and Fewster 2017). A conservative approach was taken to declaring new individuals: genotypes detected only once and differing by only a single allele from another genotype were closely scrutinised. This included extra rounds of genotyping with additional markers in an effort to distinguish between genotyping error and high genetic similarity in such situations. The resulting data based on hair capture may be treated similarly to actual captures of wombats, and separately used to estimate wombat population size and sex ratios. The genetic data are available from the authors on request.

To estimate population size, a capture history was compiled for each declared individual specifying its pattern of capture and non-capture over the seven nights surveyed within each year. Data for different years were analysed separately. Six closed-population capture-recapture models were fitted to the data for each year. These comprised three models in which all animals are assumed to share the same set of capture probabilities (models $M_{0,} M_{t,}$ and $M_{t b}$; Otis et al. 1978), and three models known as two-point mixture models that allocate animals to two different groups, one group corresponding to 'more catchable' animals and the other to 'less catchable' animals (model $M_{h}$ : Pledger 2000). The notion of catchability allows for differences
in individual wombat behaviour, with 'less catchable' animals potentially corresponding to smaller individuals that can walk beneath hair tapes, individuals that favour undiscovered burrow exits, or individuals that share a burrow with a large wombat that habitually exits the burrow first and sometimes breaks the tape. The three simpler models assume a single capture probability for all nights ( $\operatorname{model} M_{0}$ ), a different capture probability for each night (model $M_{t}$ ), or a different capture probability for each night along with a behavioural response to capture that allows wombats to become either trap-happy or trap-shy after their first capture (model $M_{t b}$ ). The three mixture models assume the capture probabilities within each group are constant across nights (mix. $M_{0} \cdot M_{0}$ ), vary across nights (mix. $M_{t} \cdot M_{t}$ ) or are constant for one group and vary for the other group (mix. $M_{0} \cdot M_{t}$ ). Parameters governing capture probabilities, behavioural effects, and group membership are estimated along with population size in each model. Models were fitted by maximum likelihood using custom code written in R (R Core Team 2015). For each hair census, the best-fitting model was selected using Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC).

Two goodness-of-fit tests were used to assess the adequacy of the selected model for each year. The first test compared the frequency distribution of the number of nightly captures among wombats, where each wombat may be caught between 1 and 7 times, with the distribution predicted by the fitted model. The second test compared the maximised likelihood value with the distribution of values obtained if data were simulated from the fitted model.

Data on males and females were pooled for a joint analysis of each hair census. The six models were also fitted to the single-sex data within each year, to crosscheck the results from the pooled data.

## Passive infrared camera monitoring

Passive infrared (PIR) cameras (Bushnell; Browning) were used to collect data on wombat behaviour, activity and reproductive patterns at Epping Forest NP from November 2011 to June 2019. An average of 12 ( $\pm 4 \mathrm{SD}$ ) cameras were set across the park each month at burrow entrances or water troughs showing signs of high levels of wombat activity. Once wombat activity was detected at a burrow or water trough, the camera was usually left there permanently to continuously monitor individual wombats, where possible. Cameras operated 24 hrs per day and were set on still capture or a combination of still and video capture. Cameras were usually placed at least 300 m apart. All female wombats with pouch young were recorded and individually identified via distinctive markings (ear tags, hair loss, ear nicks), size and location (see examples of recognisable wombat features in Appendix 2).

Female wombats with pouch young were classified as having small, medium or large pouches. To ensure consistency, scoring was completed by the same experienced ( 30 years working with wombats) individual (A. Horsup). The ages of pouch young were estimated using the development timetable established by Taggart et al. (2007) for $L$. latifrons. Small pouches were deemed to contain pouch young that were 2 months old (range 1-3 months); medium pouches, a 5-month-old pouch young (range 4-6 months); and large pouches, an 8-month-old pouch young (range 7-9 months). Based on these estimates, the birth month of each pouch young was calculated. We totalled the number of births recorded for each month to identify any relationship with environmental variables.

## Modelling environmental effects on reproduction

Using the PIR camera data between 2011 and 2019, we examined the effect of two temperature variables: monthly mean minimum and maximum temperature. We also
examined four rainfall variables: total current month rainfall; maximum rainfall event size; number of rain days; and cumulative total rainfall prior to current month. Rainfall over various time lengths was assessed to identify any lag in reproduction caused by primary productivity pulses (Noy-Meir 1973). The first three rainfall variables were calculated for the current month and one month prior to each survey month. All four variables were calculated for two, three, six and 12 months prior to the current month.

We used generalised additive models (GAMs) to investigate the influence of environmental variables because initial data exploration showed clear non-linear relationships between response and predictor variables (Zuur et al. 2014). To account for known seasonal variation in births, we included the average minimum monthly temperature. All continuous covariates were standardised to account for the different measurement scales among covariates (Zuur et al. 2009). To account for variation in survey effort over time, number of burrows (log) was included as an offset in final models (Zuur et al. 2014). Notably, the number of burrows surveyed was strongly correlated $(\rho=1.0)$ with, and therefore also accounted for, changes in population estimates and area surveyed over time.

All variables were checked for outliers and collinearity using Pearson correlation coefficients $(<0.70)$ and variance inflation factors ( $<3$; Zuur et al. 2014). If two variables were correlated, we retained the variable considered most ecologically relevant to wombat reproduction. Where no ecological priority could be applied, variables were retained and included in five candidate models (including the null model) that assessed all viable combinations (Appendix 3).

Data exploration revealed zero inflation within the data; therefore, a zero-inflated Poisson (ziP) distribution was used, for which the linear predictor specifies the $\log$ of the mean of the Poisson component. We ranked candidate models based upon the Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC) corrected for small sample size (AIC ; Burnham and Anderson 2002). For all candidate models we also calculated the $\triangle$ AICc (difference between the AICc of the model of interest and lowest $\mathrm{AIC}_{\mathrm{c}}$ of all candidate models) and the amount of null deviance explained by the model (\% dev; Burnham and Anderson 2002; Zuur et al. 2009). All models that performed better than the null model were presented for interpretation. All analyses were generated and plotted using packages $m g c v$ (Wood and Scheipl 2014), MuMin (Barton 2014) and ggplot 2 (Wickham 2009) in the statistical program $R$ (R Core Team 2015).

## Results

Population size estimates
Estimated population sizes and $95 \%$ confidence intervals for all hair censuses from 2000 to 2016 are shown in Figure 1 and detailed in Appendix 4. For all eight censuses, the selected model was a two-point mixture model, namely model mix. $M_{0} . M_{0}$ for all years except 2010, and model mix. $M_{0} \cdot M_{t}$ in 2010, with the time-varying probabilities belonging to the morecatchable group. In each case, the top model had an AIC score between 3.4 and 7.1 points lower than the second-ranked model, which was always an alternative two-point mixture model. Goodness-of-fit tests indicated model adequacy in all cases. In contrast, the singlegroup models ( $M_{0}, M_{t}$, and $M_{t b}$ ) exhibited a severe lack of fit, highlighting the importance of controlling for heterogeneity in capture probability among wombats when estimating population size. Notably, the 2000 CMR estimate of 113 wombats made by Banks et al. (2003a) is revised to 96 by this analysis, although the male-biased sex ratio is unchanged.

For most surveys, there was close concordance between the estimated population size from the pooled data, and the sum of the male and female estimates, with the discrepancy being fewer than six individuals for seven of the eight surveys. A higher discrepancy of 21 individuals for the 2013 survey was due to a high-variance estimate from the male-only data in that year. The general closeness of results suggests that both the male and female portions of the population were well described by the two-point mixture models.

The hair census estimate for 2016 was 245 wombats ( $95 \%$ confidence interval 194, 309). The upward trend in the size of the Epping Forest population is continuing (see Figure 1). The single-sex analyses estimated 122 males and 117 females, which sums to 239 wombats: close to the pooled-data estimate of 245 . The implied sex ratio does not differ significantly from parity in a chi-square test $(P=0.75)$.

Wombat numbers, as determined by hair censuses at Epping Forest NP, have continually increased since 2000, with the exception of a decline in 2001 and 2002 caused at least in part by dingo predation of at least seven wombats (Banks et al. 2003b), and probably more, whose remains were undetected. Overall, the population increased at a mean annual rate of $6 \%$ per year from 2000 to 2016, an impressive rate for a relatively slow-breeding species (Figure 1 and Appendix 4).

## Population structure

The estimated sex ratio of the population has fluctuated considerably from 1985 to 2016 (Figure 2). The sex ratio apparently did not depart significantly from parity during trapping in the 1980s, became significantly male-biased during trapping in the 1990s, and returned to parity from around 2001 onwards.

## Burrow activity and population estimates

Since Epping Forest NP was fenced to exclude cattle in 1981, burrow activity levels have averaged around $50 \%$ per year. The total number of burrows on Epping Forest NP was 75 in 1974 and has increased to 493 in 2020, as the population has expanded throughout the park (Figures 3 and 4).

The mean number of active burrows per year is strongly positively correlated with population estimates made on 12 occasions since the recovery program commenced in the early 1970s $\left(\mathrm{R}^{2}=0.87, \mathrm{df}=10, \mathrm{P}<0.01\right.$; Figure 1$)$. During this period, there has been approximately one active burrow to every wombat.

## Reproductive patterns

The 33 years and 12,544 trap nights at Epping Forest NP yielded 598 captures of wombats, involving 147 individuals. Of these, $47 \%(\mathrm{~N}=69)$ were female (Appendix 4) and these females carried only 24 unique pouch young (Appendix 5). Birth estimates generated by remote camera data have added another 97 unique births to the data set. Almost $80 \%$ of all births ( $\mathrm{N}=95$ ) occurred between October and March, preceding and including the summer wet season (Figure 5).

Although breeding rates varied among trapping studies, no correlations were found between annual rainfall totals and the number of females with pouch young $\left(R^{2}=-0.17, \mathrm{df}=12, \mathrm{p}=\right.$ $0.57)$, lactating $\left(R^{2}=-0.11, d f=12, p=0.70\right)$ or non-breeding $\left(R^{2}=-0.14, d f=12, p=0.63\right.$; Figure 6).

Analysis of the influence of the timing of rainfall showed that only a single GAM (M4) performed better than the null model, with only one variable - cumulative monthly rainfall in the six months prior to sampling - having a significant effect (edf $=7.15, \mathrm{p}=0.02$ ). When rainfall was below 200 mm , a reduction in births was estimated, indicating a reproductive threshold in the species (Figure 7). However, because of the limited amount of data available ( $\mathrm{n}=12$ ) for periods with high rainfall $(>400 \mathrm{~mm})$, caution should be used when interpreting predictions above this rainfall level due to the large confidence intervals.

## Discussion

## Population trends

Wombat numbers at Epping Forest NP have increased eight-fold since 1974, from 30 to 245, despite a six-year drought, the likely dispersal of female wombats off-park prior to predator fencing, a significant predation event, and the removal of 15 individuals for translocation. Importantly, the latest population estimate is approaching the predicted carrying capacity at Epping Forest NP of 300-400 wombats (Johnson 1991; Steinbeck 1994).

Several factors have likely contributed to the upward trend. First, the negative effect of trapping on the health and body weight of $L$. krefftii captured more than once within 6 months was highlighted by Hoyle et al. (1995). Thus, the reduction in frequency and intensity of trapping since 1999 may have contributed to enhanced survival and breeding. Second, the increase in availability and quality of food sources (mainly introduced buffel grass, Cenchrus ciliaris) may have benefitted the wombats. Cenchrus ciliaris has increased significantly across the park (Back 2013), reducing species diversity and creating significant fuel loads. However, when green and actively growing, it is more nutritious than some of the native grass species L. krefftii normally eats (Aristida spp., Enneapogon spp.; Horsup 2003). Finally, the construction of the predator fence in 2002 and the provision of water throughout all wombat habitat since 2004 is likely to have improved survival and reproduction rates.

There are a number of factors that can impose a negative effect on wombat abundance including diseases, such as mange (Ruyks et al. 2013), competition from other native and exotic species (Wells 1989; Cooke 1998; Taggart et al. 2020), human-wombat conflict (Tartowski and Stellman 1998), drought (Gaughwin et al. 1984; Wells 1989; Taggart et al. 2020), declining native grasslands, and future climate change (Marshall et al. 2018). The latter three are potentially problematic for the northern hairy-nosed wombat at Epping Forest National Park but can be alleviated to a certain extent by provision of water and supplementary feed, and control of buffel grass.

In 1974, the relationship between the number of active burrows and number of $L$. krefftii was unclear. This relationship is now well understood at Epping Forest NP with roughly one active burrow to each wombat. This strong association means that burrow activity monitoring should continue to be used to monitor $L$. krefftii population trends. A simple technique, it creates no stress for the wombats and can provide early warning of problems in the population.

Based on the 80-100 active burrows recorded by Gordon et al. (1985) from 1974 to 1982, there were possibly more wombats on Epping Forest NP than the estimated 20-30. However, given cattle were still present until 1981, the number of active burrows was probably higher than normal because the wombats required larger home ranges to find enough to eat. The decline in number of active burrows after cattle were excluded seems to confirm this
(Crossman et al. 1994). For L. latifrons, the relationship is about one active burrow to 0.5 wombats, although this can vary with soil type, region and rainfall (Swinbourne et al. 2018).

A major advantage of trapping over burrow activity monitoring is that it provides information on health and body condition, sex ratio and reproductive status. Sex ratios at Epping Forest NP were equal throughout the 1980s and highly skewed towards males throughout the 1990s. It was hoped this bias was an artefact of trapping, with males being more trappable than females, perhaps influenced by the long drought from 1992-97. However, a male bias was also evident in the first hair census in 2000. The 2000 census also documented a significant increase in numbers to 96 (revised downwards from the Banks et al. 2003a estimate by the analysis in this paper) from the 1993 estimate of 65 wombats (Hoyle et al. 1995; Taylor and Fewster 2017).

By the 2001 and 2002 hair censuses, the sex ratio had returned to parity and remained essentially equal through to 2016. The prevention of dispersal by females following the construction of the predator fence in 2002 is considered the most likely reason for the return to parity, although there is no direct evidence for this. The trend for females to disperse at Epping Forest NP was first detected by Johnson and Crossman (1991) during trapping and this trend has since been confirmed in the two other wombat species (Banks et al. 2002; Walker et al. 2008). In the 1980s, female dispersal off-park may have been uncommon because wombat numbers were still low, suitable habitat on park was readily available, food was plentiful following the removal of cattle in 1981 and rainfall was good. In the early 1990s, numbers may have recovered enough that there was increasing pressure for space within the occupied burrow complexes. The beginning of the severe 1990s drought in 1992 and the subsequent reduction in food quantity and quality may have encouraged females to seek out new habitat off the park, probably taking them into unsuitable habitat where they would likely have perished.

It is possible that severe drought may have led to female-biased mortality, although we have no evidence for this. Certainly, the drought reduced breeding rates in the population in the 1990s, as detected during trapping studies (Horsup 1998). In L. latifrons in South Australia, poor winter-spring rainfall (equivalent to wet season rainfall for $L$. krefftii at Epping Forest NP ), has a significant effect on the abundance of L. latifrons in the following winter-spring. Taggart et al. 2020 found that several consecutive years of above-average rainfall are necessary before effective wombat population increase occurs.

With the ability of DNA profiling from single hairs to estimate population size and sex ratio, trapping is now rarely necessary. However, as the population expands it is becoming increasingly difficult to reliably distinguish between individual $L$. krefftii, because genetic bottlenecking has resulted in very low allelic and genotypic diversity, and generation of new genetic diversity in small populations is negligible (Hartl 1988; Taylor et al. 1994). Next generation sequencing approaches are being explored to access genome-wide variation with the aim of improving the specificity of DNA profiles. Although such approaches are becoming routine, it is not known if they will work with the small amounts of DNA recovered from single, remotely collected hairs and this requires investigation. If the approach requires the use of multiple hairs from a tape, it will be essential that it allows for the identification and exclusion of pooled samples (i.e. those consisting of hairs from multiple individuals), whose inclusion would lead to recording of 'false' genotypes.

## Reproductive patterns

542 Lasiorhinus krefftii has recovered from about 30 wombats in one population in the early 1980s to more than 250 wombats in two populations by 2020. However, the species is still was first reported by Crossman et al. (1994), who suggested this was timed so that weaning occurs in the subsequent wet season when pasture conditions should be optimal for newly independent wombats. However, they also noted that this meant the most energy-demanding phase of lactation coincided with the time of year when pasture productivity was least.

This peak of births during the months when pasture growth is optimal matches the seasonal breeding pattern of $L$. latifrons: most births occur in spring (August-October), which is when most rain falls in South Australia (BOM 2020). This pattern means that young wombats, who spend around nine months in the pouch and a further three months suckling, are beginning to eat solid food 12 months after birth, in the next wet season/spring. Taggart et al. (2005) pointed out that when female wombats breed seasonally in response to variable environmental conditions, such as rainfall, the exact timing of reproduction may vary from year to year, indicating potential impacts of unknown variables or more fine-scale response to rainfall than can be detected when using annual totals. This appeared to be the case at Epping Forest NP. Although nearly $80 \%$ of all births at Epping Forest NP were estimated to have occurred from October to March, births did occur in all months of the year.

Our investigation showed that, in $L$. krefftii, cumulative rainfall over the previous six months increased the number of pouch young seen in the population. It is likely that the sustained flush in primary productivity caused by rainfall helps to improve body condition and therefore increase reproductive output across the population. This pattern has been shown in L. latifrons in South Australia where the amount of annual winter and spring rainfall is strongly linked to population trends the following year (Taggart et al. 2020). This causal relationship and the dominance of C. ciliaris at Epping Forest NP may also help to understand why L. krefftii shows a response threshold to rainfall below 200 mm in the previous six months. Cenchrus ciliaris is known to rapidly respond to rainfall and display response thresholds to increased access to water (Ward et al. 2006). Further studies, examining the correlation between the amount of new grass growth, rainfall and reproductive output in $L$. krefftii would help to support these findings.

Although we know little about individual patterns of reproduction, the camera observations of a tagged female $L$. krefftii who produced five young from 2011 to 2019 provides some evidence of fecundity. Although there were dry years in that period, the provision of water would have been a major advantage for lactating females (this tagged female has a water trough only 70 m from her burrow).

## Recommendations

It is recommended that burrow activity monitoring be conducted on an annual basis to determine general population trends and be supported by genetic monitoring every 3-5 years. Genetic monitoring provides more detailed and accurate demographic data, while burrow activity monitoring is a more cost effective technique for assessing general population trends. Trapping should only be used to address specific research and recovery objectives because of its impact on wombats and significant use of resources. PIR cameras should continue to be used to monitor wombat behaviour, reproduction and health.

## Conclusions

 highly vulnerable to extinction given that $95 \%$ of individuals exist at one site, Epping ForestA seasonal pattern of reproduction in L. krefftii centred on summer rainfall (the 'wet season')

NP. A disease outbreak, major wildfire or flood could cause the extinction of this population. To reduce this risk, existing protective measures for the Epping Forest NP population should be continued and intensified where possible. The highest priority to reduce the risk of 548 extinction for this species is to create additional, geographically separate and viable L. krefftii populations.

Since 1997, there have been several major searches throughout the historic range of $L$. krefftii where over 120 properties have been assessed for their habitat suitability. To date, the success of these searches has been the establishment of the second colony at Richard Underwood Nature Refuge and a short-listing of several potential sites. Lasiorhinus krefftii has specific habitat requirements, including deep sandy soils with $10-20 \%$ clay content and a year-round food supply. Finding an area of intact habitat large enough to support a self-sustaining population is very challenging, however, the search continues. The increasing numbers of $L$. krefftii at Epping Forest NP means the population is approaching the site's carrying capacity and that we must be ready to act. What a good conservation problem to have!

## Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the hundreds of volunteers who have assisted during trapping programs and hair censuses over the years. We also acknowledge the major contribution made by the many volunteer caretakers who have lived continuously on Epping Forest NP since 2002. These people have downloaded and edited millions of photos taken on PIR cameras and helped to determine wombat birth patterns.

We are grateful to Paul Sunnucks for his persistence and problem solving, which helped establish the hair census as a monitoring technique and led to the involvement of Rachel Fewster in the research program. Sam Banks continued to run the CMR analysis for each hair census following his pioneering efforts delivering the first one. Thanks to Sarah Sargent for producing the burrow map.

We acknowledge the following approvals provided by ethics committees for trapping and hair censuses: Central Queensland University Animal Ethics and Experimentation Committee 1996, 1998; CSIRO Tropical Beef Centre TBC112 1999; Queensland Department of Primary Industries Ethics Committee 2003; Department of Environment and Resource Management Animal Ethics Committee EPA-2008-04-34; Queensland Department of Agriculture and Fisheries Ethics Committee SA-2016-05-556.

Funding for the many component of this research was provided by the Queensland Government, National Heritage Trust, Glencore, Worldwide Fund For Nature, The Wombat Foundation, Chicago Zoological Society, Marsupial CRC, Burdekin Dry Tropics Board, Blair Athol Coal, Foundation for Australia's Most Endangered Species, Merrin Foundation, Royal Society of New Zealand Marsden Grant (UOA1725 to R. Fewster), Australia Zoo, and public donations.

## Conflicts of interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

## References

Australian Broadcasting Commission [ABC] (2020). http://www.abc.net.au/news/2014-02-26/100-years-of-drought/5282030 (accessed 16 March 2020).

Back, P. (2013). A Report on the long-term monitoring of the ground flora at Epping Forest National Park with emphasis on the spread of buffel grass. Internal report to the Queensland Department of Environment and Heritage Protection.

Banks, S., Skerratt, L., and Taylor, A.C. (2002) Female dispersal and relatedness structure in common wombats Vombatus ursinus. Journal of Zoology, 256, 389-399

Banks, S.C., Hoyle, S.D., Horsup, A., Sunnucks, P., and Taylor, A.C. (2003a). Demographic monitoring of an entire species (the northern hairy-nosed wombat, Lasiorhinus krefftii) by genetic analysis of non-invasively collected material. Animal Conservation, 6, 101-107.

Banks, S.C., Horsup, A., Wilton, A.N., and Taylor, A.C. (2003b). Genetic marker investigation of the source and impact of predation on a highly endangered species. Molecular Ecology, 12, 1663-67.

Barton, K. (2014). MuMIn: Multi-model inference, Version 1.12.1. Available at

614 Bureau of Meteorology [BOM] (2019). Climate data online. http://www.bom.gov.au/jsp/ncc/cdio/wData/wdata?p_nccObsCode=38\&p display type=data File\&p_stn_num=035124 (accessed 12 December 2019).

Bureau of Meteorology (BOM) (2020). Climate data online. http://www.bom.gov.au/jsp/ncc/cdio/wData/wdata?p_nccObsCode=139\&p display type=dat 620 aFile\&p stn num=024535 (accessed 26 February 2020)

Chao, A. and Huggins, R. (2005) Modern closed-population capture-recapture models. In 'Handbook of capture-recapture analysis'. (Eds S.C. Amstrup, T.L. McDonald, and B.F. Manly) pp. 58-87 (Princeton University Press: Princeton, NJ).

Cooke, B.D. (1998). Did introduced European rabbits Oryctolagus cuniculus (L.) displace common wombats Vombatus ursinus (Shaw) from part of their range in South Australia? In 'Wombats' (Eds R.T. Wells and P.A. Pridmore) pp. 262-270 (Surrey Beatty and Sons, Chipping Norton).

634 Crossman, D.G., Johnson, C.N. and Horsup, A. (1994). Trends in the population of the northern hairy-nosed wombat Lasiorhinus krefftii in Epping Forest National Park, Central Queensland. Pacific Conservation Biology, 1(2), 141-149.

638 DERM (2011). Epping Forest National Park (Scientific) Management Plan. Department of Environment and Resource Management. Available at:
640 https://parks.des.qld.gov.au/managing/plans-strategies/pdf/mp050-epping-forest-np-mgtplanapproved.pdf

Gaughwin, M.D., Breed, W.G. and Wells, R.T. (1998). Seasonal reproduction in a population of southern hairy-nosed wombats, Lasiorhinus latifrons, in the Blanchetown region of South Australia. In 'Wombats' (Eds R.T. Wells and P.A. Pridmore) pp. 109-112 (Surrey Beatty and Sons, Chipping Norton).

Gordon, G., Riney, T., Toop, J., Lawrie, B. and Godwin, M.D. (1985). Observations on the Queensland Hairy-nosed Wombat. Lasiorhinus krefftii (Owen). Biological Conservation, 33, 165-95.

Hartl, D.L. (1980). A primer of population genetics (2nd Edn). Sinauer, Sunderland, MA.
Horsup, A. (1998). A trapping survey of the northern hairy-nosed wombat, Lasiorhinus krefftii. In 'Wombats' (Eds R.T. Wells and P.A. Pridmore) pp. 147-55 (Surrey Beatty and Sons, Chipping Norton).

Horsup, A. (2003). A study of the diet of the northern hairy-nosed wombat, Lasiorhinus krefftii. Internal report to the Queensland Department of Environment and Heritage Protection.

Hoyle, S.D., Horsup, A.B., Johnson, C.N., Crossman, D.G. and McCallum, H. (1995). Live trapping of the northern hairy-nosed wombat (Lasiorhinus krefftii): Population-size estimates and effects on individuals. Wildlife Research, 22(6), 741-55.

Johnson, C.N. (1991). Utilisation of habitat by the northern hairy-nosed wombat, Lasiorhinus krefftii. Journal of Zoology London, 225, 495-507.

Johnson, C.N., and Crossman, D.C. (1991). Dispersal and social organisation of the northern hairy-nosed wombat, Lasiorhinus krefftii. Journal of Zoology London, 225, 605-613.

Marshall, V.M., Taggart, D.A. and Ostendorf, B. (2018). Scale-dependent habitat analysis and implications for climate change risk for the southern hairy-nosed wombat. Australian Mammalogy, 40,162-172.

Noy-Meir, I (1973). 'Desert ecosystems: environment and producers', Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics, vol. 4, pp. 25-51.

Otis, D.L., Burnham, K.P., White, G.C., and Anderson, D.R. (1978). Statistical inference from capture data on closed animal populations. Wildlife Monographs, 62, 3-135.

Pledger, S. (2000) Unified maximum likelihood estimates for closed capture-recapture models using mixtures. Biometrics, 56, 434-442.

R Core Team (2015). R: A language and environment for statistical computing., Version 3.1.2. Available at http://www.R-project.org/

Ruykys, L., Breed, W.G., Schultz, D.J., and Taggart, D.A. (2013). Effects and treatment of sarcoptic mange in southern hairy-nosed wombats (Lasiorhinus latifrons). Journal of Wildlife Disease, 49, 312-320.

Sloane, M.A., Sunnucks, P., Alpers, D., Beheregaray, L.B., and Taylor, A.C. (2000) Highly reliable genetic identification of individual northern hairy-nosed wombats from single remotely collected hairs: a feasible censusing method. Molecular Ecology, 9, 1233-1240.

Steinbeck, C. (1994). A spatial analysis and assessment of the habitat of the northern hairynosed wombat (Lasiorhinus krefftii). Postgraduate Diploma of Science in Geographical and Land Information Systems, James Cook University of North Queensland, Townsville.

Swinbourne, M.J., Taggart, D.A., Peacock, D., and Ostendorf, B. (2016). Historical changes in the distribution of hairy-nosed wombats (Lasiorhinus spp.): a review. Australian Mammalogy, 39(1), 1-16.

Swinbourne, M.J., Taggart, D.A., and Ostendorf, B. (2018). A comparison between video and still imagery as a methodology to determine southern hairy-nosed wombat (Lasiorhinus latifrons) burrow occupancy rates. Animals, 8, 186.

Taggart, D.A., Shimmin, G., Ratcliff, J.R., Steele, V.R., Dibben, R., Dibben, J., White, C.R., and Temple-Smith, P.D. (2005). Seasonal changes in the testis, accessory glands and ejaculate characteristics of the southern hairy-nosed wombat, Lasiorhinus latifrons (Marsupialia:
Vombatidae). Journal of Zoology London, 266, 95-104.

Taggart, D.A., Finlayson, G.R., Shimmin, G., Gover, C., Dibben, R., White, C.R, Steele, V., and Temple-Smith, P.D. (2007). Growth and development of the southern hairy-nosed wombat, Lasiorhinus latifrons (Vombatidae). Australian Journal of Zoology, 55, 309-316.

Taggart, D.A., Finlayson, G.R., Sparrow, E.E., Dibben, R.M., Dibben, J.A., Campbell, E.C., Peacock, D.E., Ostendorf, B., White, C.R, and Temple-Smith, P.D. (2020). Environmental factors influencing hairy-nosed wombat abundance in semi-arid rangelands. Journal of Wildlife Management, 1-9.

Tartowski, S., and Stelmann, J. (1998). Effects of discontinuing culling on the estimated number of southern hairy-nosed wombats (Lasiorhinus latifrons). In 'Wombats' (Eds R.T. Wells and P.A. Pridmore) pp. 206-217 (Surrey Beatty and Sons, Chipping Norton).

Taylor, A. (2012). 2010 Northern hairy-nosed wombat hair census final report. Internal report to the Queensland Department of Environment and Heritage Protection. Monash University, Melbourne.

Taylor, A.C., Sherwin, W.B. and Wayne, R.K. (1994) Genetic variation of microsatellite loci in a bottlenecked species: the Northern Hairy-nosed Wombat, Lasiorhinus krefftii. Molecular Ecology, 3, 277-290.

Taylor, A.C., Horsup, A., Johnson, C.N., Sunnucks, P. and Sherwin, W.B. (1997). Relatedness structure detected by microsatellite analysis and attempted pedigree reconstruction in an endangered marsupial, the northern hairy-nosed wombat, Lasiorhinus krefftii. Molecular Ecology 6: 9-19.

Taylor, A.C., Alpers, D. and Sherwin, W.B. (1998). Remote censusing of Northern Hairynosed Wombats via genetic typing of hairs collected in the field. In: Wombats (Ed.s R.T. Wells \& P.A. Pridmore). Surrey Beatty \& Sons: Chipping Norton, pp. 156-164.

Taylor, A.C. and Fewster, R. (2017). 2016 Northern hairy-nosed wombat hair census final report. Internal report to the Queensland Department of Environment and Science.

Threatened Species Scientific Committee [TSSC] (2018). Conservation Advice (Lasiorhinus krefftii) northern hairy-nosed wombat. Canberra: Department of the Environment and Energy: http://www.environment.gov.au/biodiversity/threatened/species/pubs/198-conservation-advice15022018.pdf.

Ward, J., Smith, S., and McClaran, M. (2006). Water requirements for emergence of buffel grass (Pennisetum ciliare). Weed Science, 54(4), 720-725.

Walker, F.M., Taylor, A.C., and Sunnucks, P. (2008). Female dispersal and male kinshipbased association in southern hairy-nosed wombats (Lasiorhinus latifrons). Molecular Ecology, 17, 1361-1374.

Wells, R. (1973). Physiological and behavioural adaptations of the southern hairy-nosed wombat (Lasiorhinus latifrons) to its arid environment. Dissertation, University of Adelaide, Adelaide, South Australia.

Wickham, H. (2009). ggplot2: Elegant graphics for data analysis. Springer-Verlag, New York.

White L.C., Horsup A., Taylor A.C., and Austin J.J. (2014) Improving genetic monitoring of the northern hairy-nosed wombat (Lasiorhinus krefftii). Australian Journal of Zoology, 62, 246-250.

Wood, S., and Scheipl, F. (2014). gamm4: Generalised additive mixed models using mgcv and lme4, Version 0.2-3. Available at http://CRAN.R-project.org/package=gamm4

Zuur, A., Ieno, E.N., Walker, N., Saveliev, A.A., and Smith, G.M. (2009). Mixed effects models and extensions in ecology with R. Springer, New York.

Zuur, A.F., Saveliev, A.A., and Ieno, E.N. (2014). A beginner's guide to generalised additive mixed models with R. Highland Statistics Ltd, Newburgh.

|  | Unique wombats |  |  |  |  |  | All wombat captures |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Date | Male | Female | Total | $\begin{array}{\|c} \hline \% \\ \text { Male } \\ \hline \end{array}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Trap } \\ \text { nights } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{\|c\|} \hline \text { Capture } \\ \text { rate } \\ \hline \end{array}$ | Male | Female | Total | $\begin{gathered} \% \\ \text { Male } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{\|c\|} \hline \text { Trap } \\ \text { nights } \\ \hline \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{\|c\|} \hline \text { Capture } \\ \text { rate } \\ \hline \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{\|c\|} \hline \text { Nights } \\ \text { trapping } \\ \hline \end{array}$ |
| 1985 | 10 | 8 | 18 | 56 |  |  | 37 | 18 | 55 | 67 |  |  |  |
| 1986 | 19 | 25 | 44 | 43 | 3,061 | 0.027 | 88 | 64 | 152 | 58 | 3,061 | 0.080 |  |
| 1987 | 10 | 12 | 22 | 45 |  |  | 18 | 21 | 39 | 46 |  |  |  |
| 1988 | 7 | 12 | 19 | 37 |  |  | 15 | 26 | 41 | 37 |  |  |  |
| 1989 | 18 | 14 | 32 | 56 | 974 | 0.033 | 27 | 21 | 48 | 56 | 974 | 0.049 |  |
| 1993 | 25 | 16 | 41 | 61 | 1950 | 0.021 | 61 | 30 | 91 | 67 | 1950 | 0.047 | 79 |
| 1995 | 5 | 5 | 10 | 50 | 690 | 0.014 | 12 | 13 | 25 | 48 | 690 | 0.036 | 29 |
| 1996 | 10 | 6 | 16 | 63 | 990 | 0.016 | 19 | 17 | 36 | 53 | 990 | 0.036 | 43 |
| 1999 | 28 | 13 | 41 | 68 | 2371 | 0.017 | 39 | 21 | 60 | 65 | 2371 | 0.025 | 85 |
| 2006 | 5 | 7 | 12 | 42 | 464 | 0.026 | 6 | 7 | 13 | 46 | 464 | 0.028 | 20 |
| 2009 | 17 | 4 | 21 | 81 | 1272 | 0.017 | 21 | 5 | 26 | 81 | 1272 | 0.020 | 51 |
| 2010 | 3 | 9 | 12 | 25 | 772 | 0.016 | 3 | 9 | 12 | 25 | 772 | 0.016 | 35 |
| TOTAL |  |  |  |  |  |  | 346 | 252 | 598 | 58 | 12,544 | 0.048 | 342 |

Appendix 1. Annual trapping data at Epping Forest NP for years in which there was a minimum of 10 wombat captures. 'Unique wombats' is the total number of unique individuals captured in each year and cannot be summed because of repeat captures in different years. 'All wombat captures' is the total of all captures in each year. There are no data for the number of trap nights in 1988 or for the number of nights of trapping for 1985-89.

Appendix 2. Examples of wombat features that were recognisable on PIR camera photos, clockwise from top left: hair loss patterns; distinctive ear nicks; females and juveniles; ear tags and pouches.


| Model <br> ID | Model Composition |
| :--- | :--- |
| M0 | Births $\sim$ MTmin + offset(\#B) |
| M1 | Births $\sim$ MTmin + TR0m + TR1m + TR2m + TR3m + TR6m + CR12m + <br> offset (\#B) |
| M2 | Births $\sim$ MTmin + TR0m + CR2m + TR3m + TR6m + TR12m + CR12m + <br> offset (\#B) |
| M3 | Births $\sim$ MTmin + TR0m + CR3m + TR6m + TR12m + CR12m + offset (\#B) <br> M4 <br> Births $\sim$ MTmin + TR0m + TR6m + CR6m + TR12m + CR12m + offset(\#B) |

Appendix 3. Variables included in all candidate models used in generalised additive modelling. MTmin $=$ Standardised mean monthly minimum temperature; $\# \mathrm{~B}=\log$ (number of burrows surveyed), $\mathrm{TR} \# \mathrm{~m}=$ Standardised total rainfall recorded in \# months ( $0=$ current month), $\mathrm{CR} \# \mathrm{~m}=$ Standardised total cumulative rainfall recorded over \# months prior.

Appendix 4. Data for all hair censuses from 2000 to 2016 at Epping Forest NP. Population estimates and $95 \%$ confidence intervals are presented for pooled male and female data using the selected two-point mixture model for each year. The percentage of male and female wombats was calculated using the number of male and female genotypes.

| 804 | Year | Total <br> burrows | Burrows <br> taped | Individuals <br> sampled | Population <br> estimate | $\mathbf{9 5 \%}$ <br> C.I. | \% <br> Male | \% <br> Female |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 806 | 2000 | 209 | 193 | 81 | 96 | 80,114 | 64 | 36 |
| 808 | 2001 | 209 | 193 | 73 | 77 | 71,83 | 55 | 45 |
|  | 2002 | 215 | 195 | 74 | 84 | 73,97 | 55 | 45 |
| 810 | 2005 | 240 | 205 | 91 | 104 | 92,118 | 52 | 48 |
|  | 2007 | 310 | 251 | 110 | 137 | 111,168 | 47 | 53 |
| 812 | 2010 | 342 | 243 | 100 | 162 | 104,250 | 53 | 47 |
| 814 | 2013 | 408 | 354 | 145 | 174 | 155,196 | 50 | 50 |
| 8 | 2016 | 440 | 325 | 170 | 245 | 194,309 | 46 | 54 |

816

| 818 | Appendix 5. Breeding data for trapping studies at Epping Forest NP for years in which at <br> least five females were captured. '\# Breeding Females' 's the total of 'Females with PY' <br> (number of females with pouch young) and 'Lactating females' (females without a pouch |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 820 |  |
| 822 | young who were lactating). |


igure 1. Population estimates for $L$. krefftii at Epping Forest NP based on expert estimation
(Gordon et al. 1985), trapping (Hoyle et al. 1995), and hair censuses (Taylor and Fewster 2017). Sex ratio from 1986 and the timing of significant management actions is indicated.


Figure 2. Sex ratio of the $L$. krefftii population at Epping Forest NP during trapping studies (1985-1999) and hair censuses (2000-2016). Numbers of unique wombats captured in each trapping study and hair census are shown. Dashed line is the $50: 50$ sex ratio.


Figure 3. The total number of burrows (dashed line) and total number of active burrows (solid line) at Epping Forest NP since burrow monitoring began in 1974. Black dots indicate when population estimates occurred and the estimated number of wombats. The timing of significant management actions is indicated.


Figure 4. Map of burrow distribution at Epping Forest NP by decade since monitoring began in 1974.


Figure 6. The relationship between breeding rate and rainfall at Epping Forest NP for years in which at least five females were captured during trapping studies. Number of females is shown above each bar.


Figure 7. Predicted change (GAM smoother) in the likelihood of detecting females with pouch young over increasing levels of cumulative rainfall during the period 6 months prior to estimated birth dates. Solid line = GAM model fit; dotted line indicates $95 \%$ confidence bands.

