

Ngā Awa River Restoration Programme

Revegetation Options to Increase Climate Change Resilience and Support Restoration of the Awapoko, Oruru and Oruaiti Catchments in Doubtless Bay, Northland

Authors: Dr. Adam Forbes and Associate Prof. Bradley Case

Report Prepared for The Department of Conservation

July 2024

Table of Contents

Figures

Figure 1: Distribution of indigenous and exotic forests, river systems, and catchment boundaries of the Awapoko, Oruru, Oruaiti sub-catchments, Doubtless Bay, Northland. These three focal sub-catchments for this study contain stream networks that start with $1st$ order source streams in upland headwater areas (thinnest blue lines on map) that connect progressively into larger streams $(2^{nd}, 3^{rd}, etc.)$, ultimately ending in large 5th or 6th order streams located in the lowland areas of the catchment (thicker blue lines on map). The non-mapped areas in between the three focal sub-catchments comprise smaller stream networks that drain more directly to the sea........................ 11 Figure 2: Mapped results of a GIS-based vulnerability analysis for 448, 1st order headwater catchments within the three focal sub-catchments. The analysis involved a spatial overlay of four data layers ranked on an ordinal scale of 1 to 4 (low to high) and combined as a mean vulnerability; a fifth layer, quantifying the percentage of exotic forest present in each source catchment, was used as a multiplier, assuming that harvesting of large portions of these catchments on a rotational basis increases vulnerability. .. 17 Figure 3: Mapped results of a GIS-based vulnerability analysis for 33 catchment planning units comprising a spatial combination of 3rd to 5th order catchments within the Doubtless Bay study area. The vulnerability analysis involved an overlay of five spatial data layers ranked on an ordinal scale of 1 to 4 (low to high) and combined as a sum of vulnerabilities with each planning unit. The data layers used are described in Table 1. Also shown as thick blue lines are the stream sections that have predicted high susceptibility for stream bank erosion and, in grey, the distribution of historical wetlands; these data are correlated with factors used in the analysis (e.g., flooding extents) but are presented here to illustrate the compounding of critical considerations for particular river zones.. 18 Figure 4: The study area (Awapoko, Oruru and Oruaiti sub-catchments) and the specific option case study locations indicated by option number used in this report................ 20 Figure 5: (Top) Riparian conditions in the Oruru River reach currently used by īnanga for spawning. (Bottom) Broader floodplain environment with pastural grazing beyond the riparian zone. ... 23 Figure 6: (Top) example of land instability where a slip has occurred on sloping ground (Middle) closer view of the slip (Bottom) adjacent hill slope areas stabilised by native forest.. 30 Figure 7: (Top) a face that was previously in radiata pine has been planted in predominantly kānuka. State Highway 10 is visible, and a residential dwelling is located on the terrace above the face. (Middle) Kānuka planted in rows across the face. (Bottom) Flax was planted in shallow gully heads. Lake Ohia is out-of-frame at the downslope side of the site.. 35 Figure 8: Flammability classes for 42 native shrubs and trees according to Fire and Emergency New Zealand.. 37 Figure 9: (Top) Planted natives forming a microclimate sufficient to shade out the lightdemanding grass sward. (Middle) Example of spacing and understorey of planted

Tables

Appendix A: GIS datasets used in the spatial multi-criterion analysis (MCA) analysis

Appendix B: Species relevant to native restoration in the project area

Appendix C: Relevant website resources

Authors:

Dr. Adam Forbes Principal Ecologist Forbes Ecology Limited

Associate Prof. Bradley Case GIS and Remote Sensing Auckland University of Technology / Te Wānanga Aronui o Tāmaki Makau Rau

Acknowledgements:

We thank the many community participants of the project workshop held at the Mangonui Cruising Club on 4th March 2024 and also those people who joined us in the field and also allowed us onto their respective properties on 4-6th March 2024. We drew from species lists hosted on the New Zealand Plant Conservation Network website. The two species lists were 1) Wendy McPherson Farm QEII (WEND) and 2) Whangaroa district 1865 (Q927).

Cover photograph:

Whitebait spawning reach of the Oruru River at Barriball Road.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

This report was commissioned by Te Papa Atawhai / Department of Conservation's (DOC) Ngā Awa River Restoration Programme. The Ngā Awa River Restoration Programme co-led by a Doubtless Bay hapū collective and DOC supports freshwater restoration initiatives in the Doubtless Bay catchment, that includes the Awapoko, Oruru and Oruaiti River subcatchments (Fig. 1). Ngā Awa is a collaborative programme that is focused on co-design and co-leadership with mana whenua. In Doubtless Bay mana whenua are working as a hapū collective with DOC and requested planting planning advice for the catchment that takes into account climate change issues such as drought, coastal salinisation, increased flooding and wildfire risk.

The purpose of the work is to conduct a multi-catchment appraisal of revegetation options in Doubtless Bay to support freshwater restoration, incorporate climate change resilience, and provide nature-based solutions for climate adaptation with some context-specific advice.

1.2 Objectives

The objective of the project is to systematically evaluate revegetation and restoration options (to the level of context-specific restoration options) for land in the Awapoko, Oruru, and Oruaiti sub-catchments in a manner that recognises and considers expected climate change related impacts, and thus resilience to climate change. The intention is to provide context-specific advice on revegetation and restoration in terms of biotic and abiotic conditions, considering social and economic preferences and overtly incorporating climate change issues particularly as they affect freshwater ecosystems and values.

The project will provide advice to optimise revegetation planning across the project area to:

- Address regional climate change risks and work towards resilience,
- Protect marine and freshwater receiving environment quality,
- Restore wetland and terrestrial biodiversity.

Climate change projections for Northland and consequential risks are included in the project objectives as we consider nature-based solutions, such as appropriate revegetation, to be some of our most critical opportunities for addressing the adverse effects of climate change with co-benefits for both nature and people.

Four main consequences of climate change have been identified as relevant to the project area:

- 1. Drought drought severity is projected to increase across northern New Zealand. Inland wetlands are at risk of impacts due to reduced moisture from reduced rainfall. Also, under this altered regime of drought disturbance, wetland ecosystems and species are at risk of enhanced spread, survival, and establishment of invasive species (Ministry for the Environment 2020). This issue can be exacerbated if the right plant is not planted, or weeds are not managed.
- 2. Sea level rise coastal ecosystems (intertidal zones, estuaries, dunes, coastal lakes and wetlands) and groundwater are at risk of salination and increased disturbance due to sea level rise and extreme weather events (Ministry for the Environment 2020). For example, Whangarei has experienced c. 2.2 mm of sea level rise since the 1990s (Pearce, 2017) and some of our plant species on the riparian margins closer to the coast may not be saline tolerant.
- 3. Increased wildfire risk rainfall is predicted to reduce during Northland's spring and winter seasons (MfE 2018) and some modelling suggests an increase in the number of days of very high and extreme forest fire danger (over the periods 2050 and 2080; MAF 2011). As a result, ecosystems and species are at risk of wildfires. In addition, disturbance from wildfire could provide opportunities for invasive species spread (Ministry for the Environment 2020). Recent large wildfires at Lake Ohia and Kaimaumau demonstrate this reality for locals.
- 4. Increased flooding increased occurrence of high intensity rain events will result in increased occurrence of flooding. The future impact of ex-tropical cyclones is uncertain (Pearce, 2017). Anecdotal evidence suggests that flooding is already becoming more frequent within the project area. One of the drivers for the project is that several landowners have raised concerns or frustrations about losing plants and fencing due to flooding.

Variables relating to marine and freshwater receiving environment quality will be incorporated into the analyses to allow these factors to be considered through development of our advice. Opportunities to restore wetland and terrestrial biodiversity will be considered along with opportunities to directly address key ecosystems and species.

1.3 Scope and Structure

This report addresses the following scope and structure:

- Section 1: Background, objectives, scope and structure, sub-catchment descriptions, limitations,
- Section 2: Methods,

- Section 3: Spatial analysis results,
- Section 4: Representative revegetation options,
- Section 5: Conclusions and recommendations.

We note that treated effluent from the constructed wetlands of the East Coast Bays Wastewater Treatment Plant (WWTP)¹ is eventually discharged into a tributary of Te Wai o Te Parapara (Parapara Stream) in the Awapoko catchment. This awa has great significance for the mana whenua of the catchment. At the outset of the revegetation project DOC confirmed that the WWTP and constructed wetland is beyond the scope of this report and is being addressed via other avenues (e.g., the Taipā WWTP Working Group). Whilst the WWTP is out of scope of this project, the project team did visit the site to offer support to mana whenua and the working group around planting options that may complement their objective.

1.4 Sub-catchment Descriptions

The Awapoko, Oruru, and Oruaiti study sub-catchments provide a range of land cover types and land uses, with stream networks that span from upland 1st order source streams down to large 5th to 6th order streams in the lowland receiving areas of these catchments (Fig. 1). The designation of a given stream's 'order' is based on the Strahler stream network nomenclature system (Strahler 1957). In this system, the smallest permanent streams found in upland parts of a catchment that contribute to a waterway are considered $1st$ order streams'. Where two 1^{st} order streams join, they form a 2^{nd} order stream, and so forth.

The three sub-catchments together comprise an area of *c.* 39,007 hectares (Awapoko: 10,069-ha; Oruaiti: 18,749-ha; Oruru: 10,189-ha). Almost half (49.1%) of the total area of the three sub-catchments is covered by a combination of indigenous and exotic woody vegetation, with considerable areas of indigenous woody vegetation distributed extensively throughout the upland portions of the sub-catchments in particular, frequently with some level of protection (Fig. 1). The remaining portions of the catchments not covered in woody vegetation are comprised of production land used for a variety of purposes but dominated by beef cattle and dairy cattle farming (Fig. 2).

¹ Or the Taipa WWTP.

Figure 1: Distribution of indigenous and exotic forests, river systems, and catchment boundaries of the Awapoko, Oruru, Oruaiti sub-catchments, Doubtless Bay, Northland. These three focal sub-catchments for this study contain stream networks that start with 1st order source streams in upland headwater areas (thinnest blue lines on map) that connect progressively into larger streams (2^{nd} , 3^{rd} , etc.), ultimately ending in large 5^{th} or 6^{th} order streams located in the lowland areas of the catchment (thicker blue lines on map). The nonmapped areas in between the three focal sub-catchments comprise smaller stream networks that drain more directly to the sea.

2 METHODS

2.1 GIS based vulnerability analysis methods

A GIS-based 'multicriteria analysis' (MCA) approach was used to rank and combine spatial factors that together provided a representation of ecosystem vulnerability within the three focal sub-catchments in the context of the desired study outcomes (e.g., as per Case et al. 2023), with freshwater health and biodiversity considered of particular importance. Vulnerability refers to how susceptible or sensitive (or, conversely, how resilient) an ecosystem might be to existing and/or future stressors or disturbances, such as the impacts of climate change (droughts, increased floods, fires, etc; e.g., Yoshikawa et al. 2023).

The vulnerability factors selected for inclusion in the analysis (Table 1) was based primarily on the availability of spatial (GIS) datasets that were credible (i.e., had an associated publication, report, or documented metadata) and that comprised variables which reasonably reflected the condition or state of the contemporary biophysical environment across the sub-catchments (see Appendix A).

The analysis was carried out for two spatial scales: for 1st-order² headwater catchments and for larger '3rd-order planning unit' catchments (sensu Freshwater Ecosystems of New Zealand spatial framework; Leathwick et al., 2010). The latter units comprise a spatial combination of 3rd to 6th order catchments. The rationale for the two-scale approach recognised the importance of both the water source (headwater) and receiving zones (higher order rivers) of the three focal sub-catchments for overall water quality and biodiversity, and that different factors would likely influence the vulnerability of these two zones. Thus, the approach was to first assess headwater (source) catchment vulnerability, which could then become a contributing factor itself in the evaluation of receiving catchment vulnerability.

The headwater (source) catchment analysis focused on spatial factors that would reflect the relative vulnerability of headwater zones to sediment, nutrient and/or pathogen runoff into upland waterways, and the rate at which this might occur, due to overland water flow. Five spatial datasets were used for this purpose (Table 1). For the receiving catchments analysis, the objective was to assess the vulnerability of lowland stream environments in terms of

² The smallest permanent streams that contribute to a waterway are 'first order streams'. When two first order streams join they form a second order stream. The largest waterways in Doubtless Bay are sixth order streams.

existing riparian vegetation, the level of ecosystem protection/representation, and the potential for ongoing disturbance impacts to these riverine systems (Table 1).

The MCA procedure involved assessing the GIS data for each vulnerability factor (Table 1) and ranking the data values along an ordinal scale of 1 (low) through to 4 (high) in terms of their relative impact on catchment vulnerability. For example, slope gradients, which affect the likelihood that rainfall will cause rapid overland runoff, ranged from almost flat (0 degrees) to steep (38 degrees) across the headwater catchments, and were reclassified into four vulnerability classes (1 to 4, flat-to-steep) based on decisions about the relative impact of slope steepness on possible runoff processes. Data for each vulnerability factor, in turn, was given a 1 to 4 rank in this way. Ranked data layers were then spatially overlaid in the GIS with source/receiving catchment boundaries and an area-weighted mean rank average was computed for each vulnerability factor within each catchment polygon. These average rank scores were subsequently re-scaled to be distributed fully along the ordinal 1 to 4, lowto-high, scale.

For headwater catchments, vulnerability scores across four vulnerability factors were averaged and then multiplied by a scaling modifier related to the percentage of exotic forest present in each catchment. This latter scalar was used to reflect the known potential for exotic forest harvesting to cause periodic increased vulnerability for downstream impacts (Wright et al. 2019). We do recognise that the impacts of plantation forest operations can vary depending on management standards applied in each location; our approach here should be interpreted as conservative but should be evaluated on a case-by-case basis. For the receiving catchment analysis, vulnerability scores were summed for the five factors, resulting in a final vulnerability score in the range of five (low) to 20 (high).

Table 1. Description of vulnerability factors used in the GIS-based multi-criterion analysis.

¹ See Appendix A for a description of GIS datasets, their sources/derivations.

2.2 Site Visits

Site visits were undertaken over the 4-6 March 2024 by Adam Forbes and Brad Case, representatives of DOC and the Ngā Awa project, the hapū collective (Mana whenua), Northland Regional Council, landowners and other interested parties including industry. The purpose of the site visits was to explore restoration issues relating to the Awapoko, Oruru and Oruaiti as they relate to the project objectives.

2.3 Representative Revegetation Option Development

Each option was covered as applicable using the following set of considerations and structure as a starting point. Examples of the scope of considerations are given in Table 2. Content was adapted to suit the style and content of each option:

- Objective(s),
- Context,
- Option description,
- Implementation:
	- o Risks,
	- o Key advice points,
	- o Resources needed,
	- o Avenues of support.

Table 2. Typical scope of considerations applied to representative revegetation option development.

Objectives

³ An intermediate stage of ecological succession.

Revegetation description

Implementation

2.4 Illustrative case studies

Two case studies were developed to illustrate how the GIS-based vulnerability analysis results and possible local intervention options could be combined with other spatial and non-spatial information and possible options outlined in this report to underpin a planning and design approach to climate adaptation by improving ecosystem resilience.

3. SPATIAL ANALYSIS RESULTS

3.1 GIS-based vulnerability analysis

A total of 446 source ($1st$ order) catchments across the three larger study catchments were included in the GIS-based MCA ranking and spatial vulnerability analysis. Of the 446 source catchments analysed, 4% (18/446) fell into the highest vulnerability category (red areas in Fig. 2), with another 41.2% (184/446) ranked in the moderately-highly vulnerable category (orange areas in Fig. 2). The remaining 55% of the catchments (244/446) were assessed as of lower vulnerability. Mapping of these catchment vulnerabilities indicated that there are particular hotspots of upland catchment vulnerability, particularly in the upper Oruaiti and lower Awapoko watersheds.

Figure 2: Mapped results of a GIS-based vulnerability analysis for 448, 1st order headwater catchments within the three focal sub-catchments. The analysis involved a spatial overlay of four data layers ranked on an ordinal scale of 1 to 4 (low to high) and combined as a mean vulnerability; a fifth layer, quantifying the percentage of exotic forest present in each source catchment, was used as a multiplier, assuming that harvesting of large portions of these catchments on a rotational basis increases vulnerability.

There was a total of 33 receiving areas that comprised of larger, higher-order (3^{rd} to 6^{th} order) streams. These receiving areas are subject to both potential effects from upland source catchments in addition to other broader land use/land cover pressures on the overall ecological condition in streams and in the receiving areas as a whole. The MCA analysis at the receiving area scale highlighted seven areas of most concern (red and orange polygons in Fig 3), including four of seven receiving areas within the larger Awapoko watershed and the lowland areas of the Oruru watershed.

Figure 3: Mapped results of a GIS-based vulnerability analysis for 33 catchment planning units comprising a spatial combination of 3rd to 5th order catchments within the Doubtless Bay study area. The vulnerability analysis involved an overlay of five spatial data layers ranked on an ordinal scale of 1 to 4 (low to high) and combined as a sum of vulnerabilities with each planning unit. The data layers used are described in Table 1. Also shown as thick blue lines are the stream sections that have predicted high susceptibility for stream bank erosion and, in grey, the distribution of historical wetlands; these data are correlated with factors used in the analysis (e.g., flooding extents) but are presented here to illustrate the compounding of critical considerations for particular river zones.

3.2 Attributes of underying vulnerability

Drivers of source catchment vulnerabilities varied in different zones but, generally, the most vulnerable source areas were those having largely unvegetated stream gullies, higher natural erosion rates, and higher aerial proportions of exotic plantation forestry. The latter factor was treated as a 'modifier' in the analysis, recognising that plantation forestry layers an additional vulnerability on top of a catchment's underlying vulnerability due to periodic and significant disturbances (harvesting), leading to potential sediment and material loss downstream.

The factors contributing to receiving area vulnerabilities involved combinations of low levels of existing riparian vegetation, low stream water quality (Macroinvertebrate Community Index), high ecological importance with minimal representation/protection, considerable pressure from extensive and frequent flooding, and greater input from vulnerable source catchments. Figure 3 also emphasises the spatial co-occurrence of other correlated factors in lowland riverine areas, such as known high stream bank erosion rates and the almost complete loss of historical wetlands that would have offered a buffering effect and provided critical biodiversity and habitat (Clarkson et al. 2013).

4. REPRESENTATIVE REVEGETATION OPTIONS

4.1 Overview

The revegetation options relate to 11 specific locations across the three sub-catchments (Fig 4). Locations were selected as being representative examples relevant to other locations within the sub-catchments. Option 5 (making a total of 12 options) is strategic weed control and is study area wide, not a particular example point.

Table 3 shows how the 12 revegetation options align with the range of project objectives.

Figure 4: The study area (Awapoko, Oruru and Oruaiti sub-catchments) and the specific option case study locations indicated by option number used in this report.

Table 3. Scenarios identified and upon which representative restoration options are based. Locations and alignment with project objectives are indicated.

4.2 Option 1 - Appropriate riparian cover to support īnanga spawning, on floodable/erodible sites

Objective

1. To establish grasses, shrubs and light native forest cover that encourage īnanga spawning by providing favourable spawning habitat on riverbanks, reduce water and bank temperatures whilst avoiding further bank erosion or woody debris that could become hazardous with flooding.

4.2.1 Site photograph(s)

Figure 5: (Top) Riparian conditions in the Oruru River reach currently used by īnanga for spawning. (Bottom) Broader floodplain environment with pastural grazing beyond the riparian zone.

4.2.2 Context

4.2.3 Option description

Overview

Īnanga are reliant on riparian vegetation and leaf litter to protect eggs on banks during spawning season (Hickford et al., 2018). Increasing temperatures, moisture loss and predation are increasing pressure on īnanga populations.

The example location is on the saltwater wedge⁴ reach of the Oruru River accessed at the lower reaches downstream from Peria.

The option involves removing problematic trees occurring within the riparian zone and planting native tree species to achieve a riparian forest cover while allowing for marginal vegetation suitable for īnanga spawning at and near the saltwater wedge.

⁴ A saltwater wedge is essentially a layer of saltwater below a layer of freshwater, which is pushed into an estuary/channel by tides.

Site preparation

- 1. Fell and remove existing crack willow and poplar trees and also other large trees which will eventually topple causing coarse woody debris to enter the watercourse.
- 2. Treat problem weed infestations, such as wild ginger.
- 3. Stock proof fence along the landward side of the riparian zone where not already fenced.

Specific interventions

- 1. Planting pioneer (year 1) with native trees and shrubs followed by enrichment species (year 3-5 as determined by attainment of canopy closure). Limit native planting to outside of channel (on the surrounding floodplain surface) so as not to shade out marginal īnanga spawning vegetation (such as raupo or rank sward).
- 2. Plant native sedges and grasses along the wetted margin and banks to provide habitat for īnanga spawning and contribute to bank stabilisation, and some riparian cover/shading (i.e., shelter for fish) while not impeding floodwaters. Avoid planting flax close to flowing water, as floodwaters tend to flow around the plants, carving out chunks of riverbank that slump into the water (with the flax plant). Do not plant flax too close to the edge of high bank margins (3m) as this can also cause slumping. This is particularly important in this subcatchment as it is prone to high bank margins (>3 m) which are prone to erosion and in particular slumping.

Target composition and structure

The composition would be initially formed from native shrub and tree species which tolerate open conditions and help to form a closed canopy (left hand portion of tables below). Once canopy closure is achieved, a second wave of longer-lived, taller-statured species would be introduced through enrichment planting (right hand portion of tables below).

For the lower banks and wetted margins, choose from the species listed in the Whitebait Connection's restoration lists⁵ for īnanga spawning⁶. This list includes species which have some tolerance of saline conditions.

⁵ See https://www.whitebaitconnection.co.nz/images/wbc/resources/īnanga/WBC-NISP_Plants_for_Restoration_FINAL_LowRes.pdf

 6 Inanga can spawn in both exotic and native species (e.g., grasses; Hickford et al., 2018) but the inanga spawning work in this catchment has primarily focused on native ecosourced plants.

Management and maintenance

Post-planting management would include blanking⁷ and pest control (i.e., weedy plants and browsing animals that may eat seedlings, preventing plants from establishing).

Enrichment planting would need to occur across the planted area once canopy closure has been achieved (c. 3-5 years). Species would ideally be ecosourced but as a minimum need to be matched to suitable microclimates (soil conditions, topographic shelter, etc).

4.2.4 Implementation

 7 Replacing dead seedlings to help achieve even canopy cover in the early stages of planted stand development.

⁸ See the Whitebait Connections resources page on their website:

https://www.whitebaitconnection.co.nz/what-we-do/education/īnanga-spawning.html

4.3 Option 2 – Appropriate vegetation cover on unstable steeplands

Objective

1. To stabilise erodible soils through appropriate woody vegetation cover.

4.3.1 Site photograph(s)

Figure 6: (Top) example of land instability where a slip has occurred on sloping ground (Middle) closer view of the slip (Bottom) adjacent hill slope areas stabilised by native forest.

4.3.2 Context

4.3.3 Revegetation option description

Overview

The example location is east of Kaingaroa, north of Duncan and Churton Roads. The site has a coastal element to its climate.

The option involves revegetating erosion prone land⁹ with woody species to increase land stabilisation. The option is based on the permanent retirement of the erosion prone land from pastural grazing. Retirement of the entire face has the additional benefit of retiring existing native forest areas which would otherwise gradually breakdown under the existing regime of understorey grazing.

The initial planting would comprise a mix of traditional erosion control planting (poplar poles) to achieve rapid slope stabilisation in higher risk areas coupled with fast growing exotic and native species. A later phase of planting would help ensure successional species are incorporated into the composition.

This strategy relies in part on natural regeneration from adjacent forest seed sources and it is therefore important that barriers to regeneration such as browsers and aggressive plant pests are effectively managed on an ongoing basis.

Site preparation

- 1. Stock proof fence one or several large blocks along the top and bottom of hill slopes. Install connecting fence to enclose sides of slope. Utilise existing fencing where possible.
- 2. Spot spray planting locations on a 3×3 m interval.

Specific interventions

- 1. Plant poplar poles on existing slips and on sites at high risk of mobilising. These can be poisoned or left to senesce naturally over the course of several decades.
- 2. Plant ngaio and the other listed natives at 3×3 m (1,111 stems ha⁻¹) spacing in the relative proportions given below.
- 3. Once canopy closure has occurred, carry out a phase of enrichment planting.

⁹ There are formal and informal methods of determining erosion susceptibility and we leave it with landowners to choose the most appropriate method. Northland Regional Council is one source of information about the distribution of erosion prone land and also provides grants to support appropriate management of erodible land.

Target composition and structure

Poplar will be planted on an as-required basis to provide rapid stabilisation.

Ngaio grows rapidly (both above and below ground) and is a relatively low-cost component of a planted forest canopy. It is also easy to strike and grow seedlings that could be raised by the landowner further reducing costs. The species forms a canopy quickly and casts shade rapidly building a forest microclimate. The flowers attract insect pollinators and therefore provide some ecosystem function.

The remaining native species are included in the planted composition at a lower level (the composition is bulked by ngaio) on the basis that overall, the planted stand would build a microclimate suitable to facilitate natural establishment from the adjacent native forest seed sources.

Once canopy closure has been established there is the option of securing successional development through enrichment planting with long-lived canopy species, especially those that are in low numbers or missing from adjacent forest seed sources.

Table 6. Stabilising erodible steep lands species lists.

Management and maintenance

Post-planting management would include blanking and pest control (particularly browsers).

Enrichment planting would need to be timed across the planted area once canopy closure has been achieved. Species would need to be matched to suitable microclimates (soil conditions, topographic shelter, etc).

Ngaio should be thought of as a component that can be pruned or felled to optimise microclimate conditions for the planted native species.

4.3.4 Implementation

 10 Offered through the NRC Land Management Team. Owners of properties over 4 ha can apply to access this fund, which will reimburse a set amount of the per metre costs (approximately 2/3rd cost) of fencing off any amount of highly-erodible land for retirement from grazing including grazed bush blocks with permanent electric fence, and/or for retiring and planting 2 ha or more of highly-erodible grazing land in native establishment species. This funding targets the most erodible land. See https://www.nrc.govt.nz/yourcouncil/work-with-us/funding-and-awards/for-landowners/grants-for-fencing-andor-planting-natives-onerosion-prone-land/

 11 Landowners looking to retire land and offset costs with funding support, should check there are not plant species specific requirements for eligibility for funding (e.g., NZETS).

4.4 Option 3 – Revegetation to mitigate drought and help manage wildfire

Objective

1. To revegetate a site in a manner that meets biodiversity restoration objectives while mitigating risks of drought and wildfire.

4.4.1 Site photograph(s)

Figure 7: (Top) a face that was previously in radiata pine has been planted in predominantly kānuka. State Highway 10 is visible, and a residential dwelling is located on the terrace above the face. (Middle) Kānuka planted in rows across the face. (Bottom) Flax was planted in shallow gully heads. Lake Ohia is out-of-frame at the downslope side of the site.

4.4.2 Context

4.4.3 Option description

Overview

The example location is the face immediately south of State Highway 10, between the intersections of Pekerau and Inland Road. The site is at the base of the Karikari Peninsula and approximately 0.5 km from the edge of Lake Ohia.

The site was formerly radiata pine plantation and has recently been planted in native trees. The main species planted is kānuka. The transition from radiata pine to kānuka is positive in terms of biodiversity values however both species are highly flammable.

There are potential fire ignition sources to the north of the face. One main potential source of fire is Lake Ohia, where there is a history of human induced fires. The second potential source of fire is State Highway 10, where fire sources from vehicles using the highway is immediately adjacent to the toe of the face.

The option involves incorporating low flammability species to provide green breaks and somewhat mitigate the wildfire risk presented by kānuka dominance. The science of fire behaviour is not well developed for New Zealand's forests, so this advice follows what is available from Fire and Emergency New Zealand.

Extended dry periods are predicted to increase in Doubtless Bay with climate change. Therefore, where species are planted on exposed north-facing sites such as this one they need to be resilient to extended periods of low soil moisture.

The challenge for restoration is to select species that perform well for both low flammability and high drought tolerance, while also being ecologically relevant and suitable for the exposed conditions of early-stage native tree planting. For instance, Innes and Kelly (1992) found kānuka and tōtara to be more resilient to drought than māhoe, however the former two species are high and moderate/high flammability whereas māhoe is less flammable (low/moderate) so would be a preferable choice from the perspective of fire but not necessarily drought.

Figure 8: Flammability classes for 42 native shrubs and trees according to Fire and Emergency New Zealand.

The next consideration of the option is configuration of planted species according to their flammability. At the example site, we apply Fire Emergency New Zealand's advice and recommend bands of species of low flammability planted along the toe of the slope so that the mature crowns have >4 m spacing between rows. This aims to provide a green break between ignition sources (the lake and the State Highway) and the high flammability kānuka planting on the slope above. We recommend the same option at the top of slope where a dwelling is located c. 20 m back from the edge of the planted kānuka stand.

Land areas within green breaks should be maintained in short grass year round by stock grazing.

Site preparation

- 1. The site is already fenced to a stock proof standard. Install additional fencing (could be temporary/seasonal) to allow green breaks to be subject to periodic stock grazing.
- 2. Spot spray planting locations on a 1.5×1.5 m interval (4,444 stems ha⁻¹).

Specific interventions

- 1. Establish green breaks at the top and bottom of the slope spaced 8 m apart (upslope) to create and maintain gaps between tree crowns. These areas should be grazed with stock to keep weed invasions at bay and maintain lower vegetation biomass within the green breaks.
- 2. Enrichment plant low and low/medium flammability species amongst existing kānuka to reduce the overall flammability of the planted composition. Ideally these species would be planted in conjunction with the initial planting.

Target composition and structure

The following species are of low or low/moderate flammability status and of a resilience sufficient to cope with droughts and the exposed nature of the planted stand and site.

Table 7. Species suitable for green break planting and enrichment planting.

Management and maintenance

Post-planting management would include blanking and plant pest control.

Enrichment planting would need to be timed across the planted area once canopy closure has been achieved. Species would need to be matched to suitable microclimates (soil conditions, topographic shelter).

The pre-existing kānuka should be thought of as a component that can be trimmed or felled to optimise microclimate conditions for the planted native species (see Tulod & Norton, 2020).

Graze green breaks with stock to keep vegetation biomass low in these areas.

4.4.4 Implementation

4.5 Option 4 – Enrichment planting to promote successional forest development

1. To accelerate and direct successional development in a young planted native forest.

4.5.1 Site photograph(s)

Figure 9: (Top) Planted natives forming a microclimate sufficient to shade out the lightdemanding grass sward. (Middle) Example of spacing and understorey of planted native tree stand. (Bottom) Natural establishment of ngaio within the planted native tree stand.

4.5.2 Context

4.5.3 Option description

Overview

The example location is on the true left/west side of the Oruru River near Pariri Road.

The planted stand has established well, and in less than a decade a distinct forest microclimate has developed. Evidence of this is found in the native trees outcompeting light demanding grasses. The understorey features a largely bare soil substrate with a native leaf litter layer.

The site lacks diverse native forest seed sources, and the planted stand does not contain the diversity to direct successional development towards representative forest compositions. The site would naturally have been native conifer forest with broadleaved components.

The option involves siting large grade native tree seedlings (>60 cm height at planting) in suitable microsites. The concept is for the enrichment phase seedlings to join the canopy and assist in providing stable, long-term, native forest cover.

Site preparation

- 1. The site is already fenced to a stock proof standard.
- 2. Minor felling or pruning of the existing native tree stand might be required to optimise the microclimate for enrichment phase seedling survival and growth. As a guide, created gap diameters should be 0.25-1 times the height of the canopy. Interventions should not create gap diameters any larger than the height of the stand at the manipulation location. For instance, creating a gap in a 3 m tall stand should aim for a 0.75 – 3 m wide canopy gap.
- 3. Gap size should be matched to species-specific shade tolerance of enrichment phase species. Larger gaps can be planted with multiple individuals of the same or different species. Within-gap zonation (e.g., southern or northern edge of gap) may produce slightly different microclimates (e.g., different levels of light transmission based on the path of the sun) and this can be considered in siting species based on their requirement for shelter and shade. Be conservative with canopy opening treatments. Often a small amount of vegetation removal can create a surprisingly large increase in light transmission. Better to start small with canopy opening and increase openings in small increments. Creating too larger gaps can open up stands to invasion by light-demanding weeds.
- 4. Stand edges can have gap microclimate qualities and depending on their aspect are valuable sites for targeted enrichment planting.

Specific interventions

- 1. Gap creation as required.
- 2. Planting enrichment phase species.

Target composition and structure

The following species are representative of natural forests of the site and or relevant to supporting successional development. Most would be unlikely to re-establish at the site in the foreseeable future without enrichment planting.

Table 8. Species suitable for enrichment planting low diversity planted riparian forest.

Notes: ¹ This describes recommended scales of canopy opening to suit light requirements for species within the planted native forest which this option is based on. Nil = no canopy opening, small = gap ratio 0.25:1, moderate = gap ratio 0.6:1, large = gap ratio 1.0:1.

Management and maintenance

Post-planting management would include blanking and plant pest control.

The pre-existing planted natives should be thought of as a component that can be trimmed or felled to optimise microclimate conditions for the planted native species (see Forbes et al., 2020).

4.6 Option 5 – Strategically addressing weed hotspots and transitioning to favourable native cover

1. To strategically reduce biomass and adverse ecological effects of problem weeds at the whole-of-catchment scale starting at the top of the catchment.

4.6.1 Site photograph(s)

Figure 10: Examples of problem weed hotspots on waterway margins at three locations in the Oruru catchment (Top, Middle, & Bottom photos).

4.6.2 Option description

Overview

Plant pests in Northland are a principal threat to biodiversity. A number of serious plant pests are present in the environment and our study area is an example of the diversity and severity of plant pest threats. Northland Regional Council gives a list¹² of 12 particularly problematic plant pests. Plant pests are categorised as either Exclusion, Eradication, Progressive Containment, or Sustained Control. Within our study area there are a number of problem areas or hotspots where infestations are particularly intense.

Landowners report significant expansion of some plant pests over their time on a given area of land. One landowner stated she wished she could have known how significantly the wild ginger infestation would grow over the 10 years on her land, and that now it has expanded to a point where removing it is unmanageable without support. This is representative of other landowners' experiences regarding expansion and spread of plant pests over time.

¹² See https://www.nrc.govt.nz/resource-library-archive/environmental-monitoring-archive2/state-of-theenvironment-report-archive/2011/state-of-the-environment-monitoring/our-land-our-air/pest-plants-andanimals/

Other landowners reported the role that waterways are having in dispersing plant pest seeds and vegetative material downstream. A number of sites visited contained stands of highly aggressive weeds on stream banks where floodwaters or base flows can transport seed to downstream establishment sites. We note that climate change means increases in temperatures that are predicted to increase some invasive/pest species, both plants and invertebrates (including freshwater species).

A main problem is there is no coordinated catchment level control efforts. We also noted a lack of awareness of landowners to the potential accelerating weed problems. Controlling such serious weeds is demanding in both time and money which puts it beyond some landowners' capabilities and others have been forced to accept the lack of resources as a barrier to addressing such plant pests on their land.

Specific interventions

- 1. Establish a body to serve as a vehicle for coordination and knowledge-sharing regarding plant pest distribution and control efforts. Northland Regional Council is responsible for pest biosecurity and would make a logical component of any such body. Far North District Council is responsible for roadside weed management so their involvement could be relevant also. The weed management plan should be incorporated into the community led catchment plan (which is currently under development) to utilize and leverage resources and funding opportunities as they arise.
- 2. Compile a map from local and expert knowledge on which to base a strategy for control. The map should include known hotspots/infestations and also catchment position and likely modes of dispersal. Infestations near waterways and roads should be a particular focus of the map.
- 3. Develop a prioritised weed control catchment plan incorporating input from landowners and plant pest experts.
- 4. Part of the control plan should include remediation options to transition the weed infested land to a favourable vegetation cover.

Useful resources

- Species-specific information on weed biology and control techniques https://www.weedbusters.org.nz/what-are-weeds/weed-list/c/
- Northland Regional Council review of riparian setbacks science https://www.nrc.govt.nz/media/yoxonnvq/riparian-setbacks-summary-of-thescience.pdf
- Northland Regional Council's guide to Northland's plant pests https://www.nrc.govt.nz/environment/weed-and-pest-control/strategies-andresources/a-guide-to-northlands-pest-plants/

- Northland Regional Council's Plant Pests information for schools https://www.nrc.govt.nz/for-schools/school-information-packs/pest-plants/
- Northland Regional Council Pest Plants and Animals https://www.nrc.govt.nz/resource-library-archive/environmental-monitoringarchive2/state-of-the-environment-report-archive/2011/state-of-the-environmentmonitoring/our-land-our-air/pest-plants-andanimals/#What%20are%20the%20main%20pest%20species%20in%20Northland?
- Northland Regional Council's Regional Pest Strategy https://www.nrc.govt.nz/media/uhudlio4/northlandregionalpestandmarinepathwayma nagementplan20172027.pdf

4.7 Option 6 – Tree establishment on podzol soils

1. To increase tree establishment success through species choice.

4.7.1 Site photograph(s)

Figure 11: Example of silica pan extracted from ridgeline podzol soils at the example location.

4.7.2 Context

4.7.3 Option description

Overview

The example location is on the elevated pastoral hill country south of the intersection between State Highway 10 and Pekerau Road.

The landowner has struggled to establish and grow trees for amenity around their farm. The farm includes upper headwaters of the Lake Ohia and Aurere Stream catchments.

National scale mapping (New Zealand Soil Classification) indicates the soils of the example site are Densipan Podzols. Podzols are an order of soils (also known as gumland soils) which have formed under long-term kauri forest cover. Podzol soils form by leaching of the mild acid solution draining from acid leaves and bark of kauri trees. This acidic leachate has the effect of leaching nutrients and finer clay particles from the soil.

What remains from the leaching process are fine textured silica sands and silts which form a consolidated pan structure (Fig. 11). Topsoil is likely to be only 25-40 cm deep. The poorly drained, acidic soils have their own adapted plant community. One way of recognising members of this community is to look at which species commonly occur with kauri on their characteristically podzolized soils.

The approach for this option is to identify and prescribe trees and shrubs which are common kauri associates, and which are suitable for tree establishment in a pastoral setting.

Site preparation

- 1. Apply standard preparation for tree planting:
	- Appropriate site,
	- Appropriate grade,
	- Spot spray to reduce early competition.

Specific interventions

- 1. Select suitable shrub and tree species for podzol soils.
- 2. Monitoring progress and success and adapt establishment practices.

Target composition and structure

The following species are commonly found on podzol soils in association with kauri and are likely to be suitable to positions within the example location which have an element of exposure and are lacking forest interior microclimate.

Table 9. Species suitable for establishment and growth on podzolized soils.

Management and maintenance

Post-planting management would include blanking and plant pest control. Monitor success and adapt management as necessary.

4.7.4 Implementation

4.8 Option 7 – Rewetting wetlands and increasing wetland extent

Objective

1. To restore wetland hydrology and enable restoration of wetland extent and integrity.

4.8.1 Site photograph

Figure 12: View of Lake Ohia looking north from State Highway 10.

4.8.2 Context

4.8.3 Option description

The case study site Lake Ohia¹³ is located at the base on the Karikari Peninsula and receives water in part from the Pekerau Valley to the south.

Prior to the end of the last ice age the site supported kauri forest. With the end of the ice age sea levels increased and the site formed into a shallow lake. With European arrival and the rise of the kauri gum trade, pressure came on Lake Ohia for its historical kauri resources. The lake was drained around 1900 for harvesting of kauri gum. The site has repeatedly burned from human-induced fires. Two public roads have been constructed near the site (Inland Road and Lake Ohia Road) and pastoral farming is the adjacent land use. Harakeke was extensively harvested historically.

The wetland hydrology has been impacted through drainage and standing water only occurs for approximately 2 months of the year. Today Lake Ohia supports several threatened plant and animal species, making the site ecologically sensitive.

The option proposes restoration (either partly or fully) of Lake Ohia's wetland hydrology. This is a complex proposal needing to be more fully investigated. Some factors needing investigation are:

• Restoration potential,

¹³ We note however that there are existing and drained (historical) wetlands located throughout the catchment in a range of sizes. These wetlands would be considerably less challenging to restore than Lake Ohia but nonetheless offer a significant suite of 'ecosystem services' (e.g., increased biodiversity, water quality improvement) that contribute to increased resilience to climate change. Having restored wetlands dispersed and functioning throughout the catchment (from the headwaters to the sea) in itself contributes to resilience by providing numerous small-scale interventions that are a feature of Nature-based Solutions.

- Cultural perspectives,
- Land use perspectives.
- Wildlife vulnerability and benefits,
- Hydrology assessment,
- Infrastructure assessment (e.g., roads, drainage networks, other).

Wetland ecosystems present critical opportunities to mitigate the adverse effects of climate change, such as buffering floods and coastal inundation, sequestering and storing atmospheric carbon while supporting biodiversity. Draining wetlands, particularly peat wetlands, results in the release of carbon to the atmosphere. Re-wetting wetlands is an aspect of wetland restoration which when carried out correctly yields a range of climate and nature benefits (RAMSAR, 2021).

The Ministry for the Environment's National Policy Statement for Freshwater Management (NPS-FM) requires Regional Councils to amend their plans to provide for and promote the restoration of natural inland wetlands with a particular focus on restoring the values of ecosystem health, indigenous biodiversity, hydrological functioning, Māori freshwater values and amenity values (MfE, 2024, p. 27). The National Policy Statement for Indigenous Biodiversity (NPS-IB) requires local authorities to promote the restoration of 1) threatened and rare ecosystems representative of naturally occurring and formerly present ecosystems, and 2) natural inland wetlands whose ecological integrity is degraded (NPS-IB 2023, p. 28). These national policies show this proposal to re-wet Lake Ohia is consistent with national policy direction regarding wetland and indigenous biodiversity management.

Two critical factors in wetland restoration are 1. understanding the hydrology of the site and 2. establishing clear goals for the restoration. As described above, Lake Ohia offers many opportunities including addressing different goals in different parts of the complex. For example, flood mitigation, water treatment, native species restoration (e.g., rare bird habitat), and carbon sequestration could be prioritised in different sections. Often multiple goals can be addressed at once. Establishing goals for the site will require a well-planned, collaborative, deliberative process involving all relevant stakeholders.

Specific interventions

There are a wide range of long-term interventions that could be undertaken guided by restoration goals for example:

• Hydrological interventions to support flood mitigation and keep roads safe during storms.

- Wetland engineering to support water quality treatment for the lower Awapoko, and water storage in some areas to improve wetland habitat, particularly during hot and dry weather – thus improving resilience to climate change.
- Wetland plantings that reflect climate projections (e.g., salinisation, drought) and address cultural, environmental and economic aspirations as much as possible.
- Recreation of natural habitats based on locally relevant plant communities (e.g., kauri, raupo, harakeke),
- Create economic opportunities which fit with restoration interventions.

Understanding management needs and long-term maintenance costs needs to be part of the deliberative process.

4.8.4 Implementation

4.9 Option 8 – Naturalising drainage networks and riparian habitat

1. To naturalise drainage networks and legacy riparian cover to increase water retention and create aquatic habitat diversity.

4.9.1 Site photograph(s)

Figure 13: (Top) View of channelised drainage network with exotic vegetation in the riparian zone, (Bottom) channelised drainage network lacking valuable wetland and riparian habitats.

4.9.2 Context

4.9.3 Option description

Overview

The example location for this option is the lower Pekerau valley, on the flats south of the intersection of State Highway 10 and Pekerau Road.

Local residents report flooding in the unnamed streams of the area. Often flood waters rise rapidly and vehicle access could be cut off to properties for a day or more.

Along much of the valley the natural drainage network has been channelised to allow for pastural farming. Flows have been diverted from wetlands to drains which has reduced water retention in the landscape.

The current vegetation cover is a function of forest clearance, pastural land use and historical decisions over tree species planting. The main tree species along drains are planted poplar, pines, and eucalyptus. These species appear to have been a popular choice on the flats as they occur throughout many parts of the study area. The combined effect of removing original forest cover, modifying the drainage network, and planting a small diversity of exotic trees at low densities has had the effect of homogenising these waterway habitats.

The site would once have supported biologically diverse podocarp forest, most likely with strong swamp forest components such as kahikatea, mātai, pukatea, and maire tawake.

Figure 13: Example of a multi-cell wetland prior to planting. By creating multiple cells with a serpentine design, the bund height between cells is kept to a minimum. The design allows treatment of three major drain/stream inputs as well as runoff from the raceways. Use of curved edges to the wetland cells creates a natural appearance. Note also Figure 14.

Figure 14: The same wetland shown in Figure 13 after four years of plant establishment. The landowners have also done extensive planting around the wetland margins.

Figure 14: Example of constructed wetland creating hydrological functioning and indigenous habitat. Reproduced from Tanner et al. (2021).

specialists maire tawake and pukatea in the enrichment phase.

The option is to reshape the drainage network to rebuild sinuous waterway alignments, liven and reconnect former wetlands, and create new wetlands (see Fig. 14 reproduced from Tanner et al. (2021)). Recreated features would be planted with appropriate native riparian cover to support stream functioning. Reintroducing and constructing wetlands can also contribute significantly to water quality improvements, and flood mitigation.

Target composition and structure

The riparian planting composition would be as per Table 4 with the addition of the swamp

Restored wetlands should be repopulated based on the vegetation class appropriate to the specific wetland type on a case-by-case basis. Constructed wetlands should be vegetated according to the zonation as described in Table 10.

Table 10. Species for planting into constructed wetlands – with depth zonation

4.9.4 Implementation

4.10 Option 9 – Management of existing native forests

Objective

1. To manage existing forests so they are self-sustaining and resilient to climate change.

4.10.1 Site photograph(s)

Figure 15: (Top) Seral and (Bottom) mature forest stands in the Ōtangaroa Forest, accessed via Tipatipa Road and near the highpoint Maungahotoa. Location in the upper Kenana and Wainui Rivers, respectively.

4.10.2 Context

4.10.3 Option description

Overview

The example location is the Ōtangaroa Forest which is part of a significant semi-continuous area of native forest spanning to the southwest along the Maungataniwha Range into the Maungataniwha Forest and further still the Raetea and Herekino Forests.

Climate change temperature rises will increase forest threats with increased weed growth rates plus increased pest breeding rates taking a toll on native forest canopy and fauna. The focus of the option is management to address threats and to ensure forest integrity is achieved/maintained, and forest regeneration and succession occurs.

In terms of achieving key project objectives, management of existing forest is a highly favourable option as the biodiversity and carbon is already in place, as is the stabilising effect of root systems on erodible soils.

Specific interventions

- 1. Browser control. Potential species needing to be addressed are possums, goats, pigs and feral cattle, potentially also deer where they are illegally released. Coordinated landscape scale control of these animals is preferable to spatially isolated control.
- 2. Plant pest management. Priority species will be specific to any given stand of native forest. Intact native forests are likely to be at threat of shade-tolerant rather than lightdemanding weeds. Seral forests may contain legacies of past land use phases such as conditions created by exotic conifer plantation clear-fell or retirement of pastoral land. Weed issues in disturbed sites can be a major issue for management.
- 3. Predator control. Where feasible, coordinated control of predators can benefit populations of native fauna and aspects of fauna such as fruiting and viable seed biomass. Possums first arrived in these northern native forests in late 1970's and they breed at high rates in the warm climate. Canopy collapse of mature species such as Northern rata, taraire and puriri has been noted where control Is lacking.
- 4. Stock exclusion. Native forest in farming systems should be retired from grazing to secure forest permanence. Continuous grazing of native forest presents a serious threat to maintaining project objectives over time. Biodiversity and carbon stocks would decline with time. Grazed forests are likely to become carbon sources rather than carbon sinks. Soil erosion is likely to increase and become adverse as forest cover diminishes.
- 5. Legal protection. Securing legal covenants over areas of native forest to ensure their management is for conservation purposes and is intergenerational and maintained across landownership changes. Examples of conservation covenants are Ngā Whenua Rāhui (although this programme is closed due to being oversubscribed) and QEII National Trust/Ngā Kairauhī Papa.
- 6. Enrichment planting. Planting of representative locally extinct species or those that are likely to be very slow to re-join the forest composition can help direct successional pathways.
- 7. Enrichment planting may need to be coupled with small-scale stand level interventions (gap creation through pruning or felling) to achieve suitable site conditions for enrichment planted seedlings.

Target composition and structure

In terms of meeting the project objectives, and the forest types naturally occurring within the project area, the target composition for management of existing forests should be old growth/mature phase kauri or podocarp-broadleaved forest species. Composition will vary by site however existing remnants and pre-human compositions provide targets for restoration. These species tend to be high volume (tall and single stemmed) and support

high levels of biodiversity and ecological functionality. Old growth forests also provide the greatest level of land stabilising.

Management and maintenance

While management of existing forests will benefit from a landscape-scale planning approach, a smaller-scale approach to assigning responsibility for ongoing management and maintenance might be more effective. In other words, catchment management groups may wish to focus on a particular sub-catchment that is a size and location that is practical for them to take responsibility for.

4.10.4 Implementation

4.11 Option 10 – Working with available incentives to increase native forest cover

Objective

1. To use existing markets and Council incentives to help support native forest establishment and management.

4.11.1 Site photograph(s)

Figure 16: Native forest registered in the ETS and returning an income from carbon sequestration.

4.11.2 Context

4.11.3 Option description

Overview

A Peria landowner (with the help of a professional carbon consultant) registered 32 ha of regenerating native forest in 2018 into the New Zealand Emissions Trading Scheme to earn financial payments for the carbon sequestered.

This revegetation option relies on regeneration of native forests which can be achieved in some landscapes if local seed trees are nearby, and grazing animals are fenced out and pests are managed. There are ecological, catchment and some financial benefits to retiring hill country for native revegetation. The land is QEII reserved, which provides funding opportunities for fencing, pest control, and maintenance. As the land is reserved, the Far North District Council (FNDC) offers rates relief.

All land that was bare in 1990 and is now 'in trees' is eligible for registration to receive carbon credits. Native forest is a sound long-term solution.

As the registered forest is <100 ha, the carbon yield upon which payments are made is based on the MPI native lookup table. This table gives estimates of biomass over time for native forest growth rates in New Zealand.

The forest is aged 18-24 years and was registered from 2013. Over the first 5 years following registration the native regenerating forest returned 1761 units which equated to an average of 10.73 units/ha/year. Carbon prices varied from \$24 - \$75 per unit from 2017 - 2022 = a return of \$257 - \$804 ha/year. The carbon price has fluctuated in recent years and is currently \$45.50 per unit as of 29 May 2024.

Management of the forest since 1990 has involved on-going possum pest control for a continuing healthy native forest canopy cover. The registered land is also part of the 2,000 ha Honeymoon Valley Landcare Charitable Trust project area, established in 2015 which

now also neighbours and supports the larger 7000 ha Mangamuka Honeymoon Valley Maungataniwha Otangaroa Kiwi Corridor project 14 .

4.11.4 Implementation

¹⁴ See https://honeymoonvalleylandcare.org.nz

¹⁵ See https://www.mpi.govt.nz/forestry/forestry-in-the-emissions-trading-scheme/about-forestry-in-theemissions-trading-scheme-ets/how-forest-land-is-defined-in-the-ets/

¹⁶ See https://retrolens.co.nz

4.12 Option 11 – Management of retired land

Objective

1. To shift the compositional trajectory towards diverse native forest cover – particularly in riparian or small to moderate blocks assessed as less profitable/suitable for plantation forestry.

4.12.1 Site photograph(s)

Figure 17: (Top) Paranui valley with remnant alluvial forests (kahikatea dominated) riparian to the Paranui stream and interspersed with ex-plantation clear-fells not intended to be restored and not replanted in pines. (Middle) Gorse stand with mixed native and exotic regeneration (Bottom) wider view of the clear-fell.

4.12.2 Context

4.12.3 Option description

Overview

The example location is the Paranui stream accessed from Paranui road.

The option involves minimum-interference management¹⁷ of the clear-felled lands. The main management inputs are removal of shade-tolerant and structurally dominant weeds and limited enrichment planting to establish local seed sources. The basic philosophy is to remove weeds that will take over and allow other weeds to outcompete each other and provide a nursery for longer-term regeneration by native species. The reasons for this approach are the high regeneration potential of the site and the high cost of planting and managing planted natives in this remote and weedy environment. Most of the site is in gorse and with the site's rainfall and seed source proximity, regeneration by natives under maturing gorse is quite certain over the next 10-15 years.

Specific interventions

- 1. Assess weed species present and prepare a plan for which weeds to control and which to leave in place. Examples of weeds needing control would be wilding pines, privet, and tobacco weed. Examples of weeds that can be left in place and beaten through competition are pampas and gorse.
- 2. Control those weeds with low disturbance techniques such as manual pulling of pine seedlings or cut-and-paste option of woody weeds. The point of avoiding disturbance is to minimise opportunities for establishment of weeds on disturbed sites.
- 3. Plant seed islands of native trees on suitable sites which are accessible for maintenance. Seed islands could also make use of gorse cover by planting into existing gorse, into managed clearings of cut strips through the gorse cover. The purpose of the enrichment

¹⁷ Minimum-interference management means the removal of the most deleterious factors militating against natural regeneration and restoration such as exotic herbivorous animals, fire, aerially sprayed herbicides and a few seriously invasive weeds – and watching nature run her fascinating course (Hugh Wilson, https://bts.nzpcn.org.nz/site/assets/files/22595/cant_2003_37__25-41.pdf).

planting is to reintroduce local seed sources for future regeneration processes to propagate out across the wider restoration site (Table 11).

Target composition and structure

The composition would be initially formed from whichever species have managed to regenerate following clear-fell. Problematic weeds would be removed, and gradually native species will enter the succession via seed rain from adjacent forest or on a smaller scale via enrichment planting.

Table 11. Seed island enrichment planting species list

Management and maintenance

Post-planting management would include ongoing control of the specified problem weed species, planting and maintenance of the enrichment planted seedlings (e.g., release weeding, protection from browsers, and potentially manipulation of the surrounding canopy to optimise seedling growth rates).

4.12.4 Implementation

4.13 Option 12 – Culturally/socially centred riparian restoration in key areas

Objective

1. To create an indigenous riparian composition resilient to flooding disturbance and highly desirable from cultural and amenity perspectives to support a key area used for grazing and recreation by locals and the nearby Marae.

4.13.1 Site photograph(s)

Figure 18: (Top) Riparian conditions downstream and (Bottom) upstream of the Kenana Road crossing of the Kenana River, in the Oruaiti catchment.

4.13.2 Context

4.13.3 Option description

Overview

The example location is the Kenana river accessed from Kenana Road. The site is the area around the road crossing of the Kenana river a short distance downstream of the marae location.

The option involves removing weeds and reinstating the area in pasture with amenity grade seedlings in tall stock-protector sleeves. The option aims to achieve a native treeland which can withstand flooding and continued grazing, help stabilise soils, offer shade, host native birds to this high use recreation area. The site is used for swimming so maintaining good access to the awa and providing shade and shelter is also important. If the site is also used for mahinga kai collection (e.g., wātakirihi/watercress, kēwai/freshwater crayfish) excluding stock from some riverbank areas would promote water quality and increase food desirability and safety.

Specific interventions

- 1. Remove weed stands and crack willow from the floodplain.
- 2. Plant amenity grade (i.e., greater than 2 m tall) native trees in clusters and wide spacing across the riparian zone.

Target composition and structure

The composition would be species that meet at least most of the following criteria:

- Are adapted to riparian zones;
- Do not need the shelter of surrounding vegetation, and;
- Are of lower palatability and relatively fast-growing to grow out of the browse tier rapidly.

Table 12. Species for riparian cultural/amenity planting of the Kenana river riparian zone near Kenana Marae.

Management and maintenance

Post-planting management would include releasing and maintaining the plant guards. Some fencing or animal control measures to limit stock and horses accessing the seedlings is likely to help growth and survival. Follow up maintenance of problem weed species will be necessary on an ongoing basis.

4.13.4 Implementation

¹⁸ Offered through Tangata Whenua and Catchment Engagement Team (contact: Warren Morunga) Tangata whenua groups and catchment/community groups who do not fit the traditional 'landowner' criteria.

5. ILLUSTRATIVE CASE STUDIES

5.1 Lower Oruru receiving catchment

The receiving catchment area, draining the lower *c.* 8-km of the Oruru river from about the fork of the Oruru and Dangen Roads at the upper end to where the Oruru River begins to widen into the Taipa estuary at the lower end, provides an example typical of lowland areas of this region.

5.1.1 Characteristics and current conditions

This catchment area (Figs. 19 & 20) is characterised by:

- A mix of indigenous and exotic woody vegetation cover in extensive parts of the upland areas of this catchment and a predominance of intensive livestock farming (dairy and beef) on the alluvial terraces (Fig. 19A).
- Relatively high receiving catchment vulnerability concerns (bottom left pane in Fig. 19B), driven by relatively low existing stream water quality (MCI levels), extensive and frequent flooding, and relatively low levels of riparian vegetation coverage and ecosystem protection.
- Relatively moderate headwater vulnerability concerns, mostly located in the lower half of this receiving catchment and related largely to higher slope gradients and proneness to erosion, combined with possible implications of exotic forestry operations in certain locations (Fig. 19C).
- A wide, flat riparian zone along the length of the whole catchment characterised by dynamic river behaviour (high levels of streambank erosion) and a wide flood zone area that is largely aligned with recommended stock-exclusion/management zones (MfE 2022); coastal inundation is also predicted to extend inland along the first 200 m of the Oruru due to climate change impacts on sea level rise, tides, etc. (Fig. 20A).
- The predicted occurrence of a significant wetland complex in the lower parts of this catchment prior to human arrival and modification (Fig. 20A).

Figure 19: Distribution of woody vegetation types and dominant land uses in the Oruru receiving catchment. Receiving (B) and headwater (C) vulnerability rankings from the GISbased analysis.

Figure 20: (A) Riparian-related factors and considerations in the Oruru receiving catchment. Receiving (B) and headwater (C) vulnerability rankings from the GIS-based analysis.

5.1.2 Assessment

This is a long, narrow catchment (only about 2.1-km in width at its narrowest point) with relatively short and steep slopes along the east/west valley sides. Thus, while much of the upland area of the catchment is covered in woody vegetation, the narrowness of the catchment, potential for fast hillslope runoff into the Oruru, combined with large, relatively unvegetated alluvial terrace areas in the river valley, likely contributes to the significant flooding potential along the whole length of the catchment. Coupled with relatively intensive land use on the alluvial terrace and lack of riparian vegetation and management, the risk of bank erosion and sedimentation is high, and the stream biodiversity condition and water quality are consequently being compromised.

Lowland ecosystems in New Zealand, from a biodiversity perspective, lack protection and representation and have been modified extensively from their original state in most parts of Aotearoa (Walker et al. 2005). For example, this catchment would have originally comprised a mixture of wetland ecosystems and a mixture of kauri and riverine kahikatea forest ecosystems (as per Singers & Rogers 2014). The knock-on effect of removing representation of original ecosystems in any lowland catchment is a decrease in overall resilience - the ability to absorb and recover from the impacts of events like heavy rainfall - and a serious compromising of river health, biodiversity, and indigenous species habitat (e.g., for īnanga spawning).

5.1.2 Ideas for building ecosystem resilience under climate change

Multi-use lowland landscapes, as exemplified by the lower Oruru catchment area, present a range of climate adaptation challenges with respect to potential ecological, socio-cultural, and economic factors and trade-offs. Ultimately, how and where interventions can and should be made to build resilience needs to be based on sound scientific evidence, but realistically can only happen via community/landowner collaboration and motivations and with adequate resourcing. Combining the GIS-based evidence and treatment options presented in this report, opportunities to build climate resilience, enhance biodiversity, and improve stream condition in this landscape area could be considered (e.g., Table 13) using landscape and local scale thinking, planning, and testing of interventions. Each opportunity would need to be considered from a range of perspectives and ranked in terms of priority and the likelihood for it to be practically achieved. Further, it is useful to consider such opportunities in a stepwise or staged manner, where intervention locations could be prioritised and scheduled over a longer timeframe to increase the likelihood of success.

Table 13. Examples of resilience interventions for climate adaptation and resilience enhancement in the Oruru receiving catchment: potential benefits, priorities, and challenge levels. These types of interventions should be considered and planned in a stepwise manner, from the highest to lowest priority locations, and contingent on resources and level of buy-in from the community and landowners.

5.2 Landscape flammability potential in the Doubtless Bay catchment

Wildfire risk in mixed-use landscapes typified by the Doubtless Bay catchment is related to the distribution of flammable woody material across the landscape (Pagadala et al. 2024). Indeed, we have seen examples of these types of wildfire events playing out in parts of Aotearoa over recent years. It is therefore of interest to consider landscape flammability in the context of climate resilience and adaptation in the Doubtless Bay catchment.

5.2.1 Characteristics and current conditions

A considerable portion of the Doubtless Bay catchment is covered by various types of woody vegetation with different associated levels of flammability (Fig. 21). The distribution of flammable material provides a baseline for assessing wildfire risk.

Figure 21: The vegetation types of the Doubtless Bay catchment coloured based on relative flammability risk. Flammability risk increases from dark green (low risk) to lime green (moderate risk) to red (high risk). Indigenous forest types have lower flammability while exotic forest, mānuka/kānuka, and gorse/broom vegetation types have the highest flammability. Flammability levels for different vegetation were assessed based on flammability scores available in the published literature and coarse species composition estimates.

5.2.2 Assessment

There are hotspots of flammability in the Doubtless Bay catchment (Fig 22) that reflect the spatial configuration of the most flammable vegetation across the landscape. These hotspots correspond mainly to areas of exotic and native shrubland, much of which appears to comprise regenerating vegetation, possibly after retirement from farming.

Figure 22: A GIS-based 'hotspot' analysis of flammability conditions across the Doubtless Bay catchment. This analysis assesses both the relative flammability of different vegetation types present in the landscape as well as the relative contiguity of flammable vegetation patches. The result is the statistical probability that particular zones in the landscape are more likely to be flammable or not relative to expectation.

5.2.3 Ideas for building ecosystem resilience under climate change

As temperatures and drought frequencies increase as the climate changes, we can expect an increase in the length of the wildfire season across Aotearoa (and in Northland) and the potential for very extreme wildfire weather (Melia et al. 2022). Therefore, it is worthwhile considering how climate adaptation interventions, such as those proposed in this report, could be carried out to also reduce flammability and to increase the resistance to wildfire ignition and spread. For example, the acceleration of succession in woody shrubland to taller indigenous forest would lead to a less flammable landscape. Further, additions of lowflammability native vegetation in areas where new trees are being established (e.g., in

riparian zones or headwater catchments) would provide opportunities for strategic placement of 'green firebreaks'.

6. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Risks and mitigations in vulnerable areas

There is considerable complexity involved in assessing landscape vulnerabilities, risks, and mitigations and in the implementation of potential interventions. Although somewhat subjective in nature, the GIS-based multi-criterion analysis of vulnerability presented here provides a baseline framework for the consideration of future risks and mitigations in the context of climate change while also addressing social, cultural, and economic objectives and needs/desires in the catchment (Table 14). The ongoing, and potentially accelerating, impacts of climate change are of concern as increased temperatures and extreme weather events (i.e., droughts and extreme rainfall) are expected in Northland (MFE, 2020). To mitigate these impacts, a number of interventions that build landscape resilience should be considered (e.g., Table 13) and implemented as a part of future planning at the landscapescale.

In the Doubtless Bay catchment, considering vulnerabilities and risks in mapped priority areas can provide a directed way to improve resilience as part of an emerging Nature-Based Solutions strategy for this catchment. Such prioritisation maps can also inform ongoing compliance with policy and regulatory frameworks associated with farm planning, soil improvement and loss mitigation, and freshwater quality. Ultimately, these maps can be a part of community-level discussions and planning efforts underway in the Doubtless Bay catchment.

Table 14. Future risks that can exacerbate conditions in vulnerable source and receiving areas and possible mitigations.

6.2 Representative revegetation options

We identify 12 representative revegetation options which are relevant to the catchments and communities of Doubtless Bay and which meet multiple freshwater, climate, restoration and human preference factors. The options go beyond the scope of classical forest restoration planting to span the following aspects of restoration and forestry (in no particular order):

- Protection and management of existing values,
- Addressing ecological threats,
- Matching species to local conditions,
- Altering inappropriate land use,
- Naturalising freshwater form and hydrology,
- Interventions to overcome limitations in natural systems,
- Working with available markets and incentives,
- Considering cultural and social preferences.

6.3 Recommendations

In light of this analysis, our recommendations are:

• An assessment of vulnerability analysis outputs against ground-based data and against community collective objectives, economic considerations and feasibilities,

and landowner, mana whenua and iwi aspirations. The work presented here could be extended to develop a more detailed landscape intervention plan based on these considerations.

- Collection and overlay of more detailed information on vegetation (e.g. weeds, wetlands) and biodiversity values in the catchments to provide nuance to mapped vulnerabilities.
- The recommended revegetation options provide content for extension to landowners within the Doubtless Bay catchment and further afield where the revegetation options remain relevant.
- Consider the establishment of field trials to help demonstrate the use of enrichment plantings, which is an aspect of restoration common to many of the recommended options. Field trials could effectively be used to demonstrate all recommended options presented in this report.
- Explore options for the provision of technical and financial support for individuals to achieve their revegetation objectives, since many revegetation options require management at smaller, sub-catchment scales.
- Consider wildfire risks at a landscape scale to collectively contribute to reducing the risk. 'Green firebreaks' could be planted to minimise the impacts of future fires – while still maintaining vegetation corridors for wildlife migrating with a changing climate.
- This work should be integrated with other work carried out in the catchment (Boffa Miskell, Morphum Environmental).

REFERENCES

- Case, B. S., Forbes, A. S., Stanley, M. C., Hinchliffe, G., Norton, D. A., Suryaningrum, F., Jarvis, R., Hall, D. & Buckley, H. L. (2023). Towards a framework for targeting national-scale, native revegetation in Aotearoa New Zealand's agroecosystems. *New Zealand Journal of Ecology*, 47(1), 1-15.
- Clarkson, B., Ausseil, A-G. E., Gerbeaux, P. (2013). Wetland ecosystem services. In Dymond, J.R. ed. Ecosystem services in New Zealand – conditions and trends. Manaaki Whenua Press, Lincoln, New Zealand.
- Convention on Wetlands. (2021). Global guidelines for peatland rewetting and restoration. Ramsar Technical Report No. 11. Gland, Switzerland: Secretariat of the Convention on Wetlands
- Forbes, A. S., Wallace, K. J., Buckley, H. L., Case, B. S., Clarkson, B. D., & Norton, D. A. (2020). Restoring mature-phase forest tree species through enrichment planting in New Zealand's lowland landscapes. *New Zealand Journal of Ecology*, *44*(1), 1-9.
- Hickford, M. J., Stevens, J. C., & Schiel, D. R. (2018). Nonselective use of vegetation for spawning by the diadromous fish *Galaxias maculatus*. *Restoration Ecology*, *26*(4), 650- 656.
- Innes, K. P. & Kelly, D. (1992). Water potentials in native woody vegetation during and after a drought in Canterbury. *New Zealand Journal of Botany*, *30*(1), 81-94.
- Melia, N., Dean, S., Pearce, H. G., Harrington, L., Frame, D. J. & Strand, T. (2022). Aotearoa New Zealand's 21st-century wildfire climate. Earth's Future, 10(6), e2022EF002853.
- MfE. (2018). Climate change projections for the Northland region https://environment.govt.nz/facts-and-science/climate-change/impacts-of-climatechange-per-region/projections-northland-region/
- MfE. (2022). Method for deriving the stock exclusion low slope land map for the Resource Management (Stock Exclusion) Regulations 2020: December 2022 update. Wellington: Ministry for the Environment.
- MfE. (2023). National Policy Statement for Indigenous Biodiversity. Wellington: Ministry for the Environment.
- MfE. (2024). National Policy Statement for Freshwater Management 2020. Wellington: Ministry for the Environment.

- Ministry for the Environment. (2020). National Climate Change Risk Assessment for Aotearoa New Zealand: Main report – Arotakenga Tūraru mō te Huringa Āhuarangi o Āotearoa: Pūrongo whakatōpū. Wellington: Ministry for the Environment.
- Pagadala, T., Alam, M. A., Maxwell, T. M. & Curran, T. J. (2024). Measuring flammability of crops, pastures, fruit trees, and weeds: A novel tool to fight wildfires in agricultural landscapes. *Science of the Total Environment*, 906, 167489.
- Pearce, H. G., Kerr, J., Clark, A., Mullan, B., Ackerley, D., Carey-Smith, T., & Yang, E. (2011). Improved estimates of the effect of climate change on NZ fire danger. *Scion Client Report*, *18087*.
- Pearce, P. R. (2017) Northland Climate Change Projections and Impacts. NIWA Client Report for Northland Regional Council, 2017027AK.
- Singers, N. J. & Rogers, G. M. (2014). A classification of New Zealand's terrestrial ecosystems. *Science for Conservation*, 325. Department of Conservation, Wellington, New Zealand.
- Tanner, C. C., Sukias, J. P. S.; Wright-Stow, A. E., Burger, D. F., & Goeller, B. C. (2022). Constructed Wetland Practitioners Guide: Design and Performance Estimates. Hamilton: DairyNZ/NIWA.
- Tanner, C., Sukias, J., & Woodward, B. (2021). Technical Guidelines for Constructed Wetland Treatment of Pastoral Farm Runoff. Hamilton: National Institute of Water and Atmospheric Research Ltd.
- Tulod, A. M. & Norton, D. A. (2020). Regeneration of native woody species following artificial gap formation in an early-successional forest in New Zealand. *Ecological Management & Restoration*, *21*(3), 229-236.
- Walker, S., Price, R., & Rutledge, D. (2005). New Zealand's remaining indigenous cover: recent changes and biodiversity protection needs. *Landcare Research Contract Report* LC0405/038.
- Yoshikawa, T., Koide, D., Yokomizo, H., Kim, J. Y. & Kadoya, T. (2023). Assessing ecosystem vulnerability under severe uncertainty of global climate change. *Scientific Reports*, 13(1), 5932.

Appendix A

GIS datasets used in the spatial multi-criteria analysis (MCA) analysis

Data source references

- Cieraad E., Walker S., Price R. & Barringer J. (2015). An updated assessment of indigenous cover remaining and legal protection in New Zealand's land environments. *New Zealand Journal of Ecology*, 39(2).
- Dymond, J., Shepherd, J. & Page, M. (2008). Roll out of erosion models for regional councils. *Landcare Research Contract Report* LC0708/094.

- Newsome, P.F.J., Wilde, R.H. & Willoughby, E.J. (2008). Land resource information system spatial data layers. Landcare Research NZ Ltd., Palmerston North, NZ.
- Stark, J.D., & Maxted, J.R. (2007). A user guide for the macroinvertebrate community index. http://www.cawthron.org.nz
- Whitehead, A.L., Fraser, C., Snelder, T.H. (2021a). Spatial modelling of river water-quality state: Incorporating monitoring data from 2016 to 2020. NIWA Client Report 2021303CH prepared for Ministry for the Environment. NIWA, Christchurch.

Appendix B

Species relevant to native restoration in the project area. A depth range is provided only for those species that would thrive if planted in water.

Notes: ¹ NVS is the National Vegetation Survey and the six letter codes are used in that system. The codes abbreviate the scientific name and are searchable in the New Zealand Plant Conservation and NVS systems. Flammability ratings are: L = Low, L/M = Low/Moderate, M = Moderate, M/H = Moderate to high, H = High. Light and dark green cells in column 3 represent either pioneer or enrichment phase species, respectively, under most conditions. Those species with names underlined have natural distributions over northern New Zealand (over differing extents).

Appendix C

Relevant website resources

General

Bacterial quality of watercress – https://www.landcareresearch.co.nz/assets/Publications/Tereo-o-te-repo/4_1_Flora_Watakirihi.pdf

Species-specific information on weed biology and control techniques – https://www.weedbusters.org.nz/what-are-weeds/weed-list/c/

Whitebait Connection – https://www.whitebaitconnection.co.nz

Wetland Handbook Series – https://www.landcareresearch.co.nz/publications/wetlandhandbook-series/

Far North District Council Rates Relief –

https://beta.fndc.govt.nz/files/assets/public/v/2/objectivedocuments/corporate-managementcor/financial-management/administration/p21-01-land-subject-to-protection-for-outstandingnatural-landscape-cultural-historic.pdf

Information on Native Restoration Options – https://www.tanestrees.org.nz/projects/

Kaipara Moana Remediation Planting Guide – https://kmr.org.nz/wpcontent/uploads/2024/05/KMR-Planting-Guide-Nov-2023.pdf

Northland Regional Council Resources

Grants for Fencing and/or Planting Natives on Erosion Prone Land – https://www.nrc.govt.nz/your-council/work-with-us/funding-and-awards/forlandowners/grants-for-fencing-andor-planting-natives-on-erosion-prone-land/

Guide to Northland's Plant Pests – https://www.nrc.govt.nz/environment/weed-and-pestcontrol/strategies-and-resources/a-guide-to-northlands-pest-plants/

Pest Plants and Animals – https://www.nrc.govt.nz/resource-library-archive/environmentalmonitoring-archive2/state-of-the-environment-report-archive/2011/state-of-the-environmentmonitoring/our-land-our-air/pest-plants-andanimals/#What%20are%20the%20main%20pest%20species%20in%20Northland?

Plant Pests Information for Schools – https://www.nrc.govt.nz/for-schools/school-informationpacks/pest-plants/

Regional Pest Strategy –

https://www.nrc.govt.nz/media/uhudlio4/northlandregionalpestandmarinepathwaymanageme ntplan20172027.pdf

Review of Riparian Setbacks Science – https://www.nrc.govt.nz/media/yoxonnvq/ripariansetbacks-summary-of-the-science.pdf