## **Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui / Hūnua Ranges Kauri Population Health Monitoring Survey**

**January 2025 Technical Report 2025/1** 



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# Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui / Hūnua Ranges Kauri Population Health Monitoring Survey

January 2025 Technical Report 2025/1

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Front cover: Kauri forest in the Kauri Stream catchment, with Hūnua Ranges and Mangatangi Reservoir. Photo: Alastair Jamieson.

Back cover: Kauri forest in the Mangatāwhiri catchment, southern Hūnua Ranges. Photo: Alastair Jamieson.

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### <span id="page-4-0"></span>**Executive summary**

Kauri dieback disease and the pathogen *Phytophthora agathidicida* (P. agathidicida) have been detected in most regions where kauri grow in Aotearoa New Zealand. Once established in a forest system, the pathogen cannot be eradicated and infection often results in the death of kauri trees.

Auckland Council has made significant investments into both kauri protection and P. agathidicida delimiting surveillance since 2009. In 2021, the Waitākere Ranges Kauri Population Health Monitoring Survey determined pathogen and disease prevalence across the kauri population and set a baseline for future assessment of change. The 2023 Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui / Hūnua Ranges Kauri Population Health Monitoring Survey was similarly designed to survey for symptoms of kauri dieback disease and monitor kauri health and had the additional aim of establishing whether P. agathidicida was present in the Hūnua Ranges.

The Hūnua survey was co-designed by Auckland Council, Department of Conservation, and ngā iwi mana whenua o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui Ngāi Tai ki Tāmaki, Ngāti Tamaoho, Ngaati Whanaunga, and Ngāti Tamaterā.

We collected baseline kauri tree health, kauri dieback disease symptoms, potential risk factors, and ecological impact factors, and conducted soil testing for 561 kauri trees. We also conducted LAMP (Loop Mediated Isothermal Amplification)-based stream baiting in 20 stream locations within the study area. We found no evidence of P. agathidicida in the Hūnua Ranges and the extent of testing gives us 97-99.9 per cent confidence that we would have detected it in the study area if present at a prevalence of 1 per cent or more. This confidence is extremely important for informing ongoing forest management between all partners and landowners in Hūnua.

More than 95 per cent of the kauri surveyed were very healthy. More than 92 per cent of sites surveyed had seedlings or saplings beneath the monitored trees, indicating a healthy population with good recruitment. This was a much higher rate than the 55 per cent of sites observed in the 2021 Waitākere survey.

Kauri appear to be more prone to poor health in places that have been disturbed and these trees may be more vulnerable to disease in the event of P. agathidicida introduction. In Waitākere, the detection of P. agathidicida was strongly associated with historical and contemporary disturbance events, and in those places, kauri are in poor health and many are dying. The results of both studies suggest that minimising disturbance to the forest, especially to kauri root systems, is important for kauri health and general resilience.

We have successfully built a risk profile for Hūnua that identifies areas of highest risk for future introduction or detection of P. agathidicida, enabling partners to target introduction and subsequent spread prevention. This will also inform protected areas strategies around identified high-risk areas.

We now have a baseline of kauri health which can be used for ongoing monitoring, considering both the risk of introducing P. agathidicida and the detection of other potential impacts on kauri.

Monitoring current kauri health is essential to track any change over time and allow adaptive management. Long-term health monitoring will also help us determine how other factors affect kauri health, such as land use, environmental management, and climate change.

Ngā iwi mana whenua o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui advocate for rāhui should P. agathidicida be detected and support ongoing monitoring, cleaning stations, pest control and exploring other initiatives to ensure the Hūnua Ranges remain free of P. agathidicida.

In conclusion, we did not detect  $P$ . agathidicida in the Hūnua Ranges, and the kauri population in areas of low disturbance are in good health. As most other large kauri forests have P. agathidicida infection, this study has highlighted the importance of the Hūnua Ranges for kauri protection. Long-term monitoring of kauri in Hūnua is critical for adaptive management and to prevent pathogen spread within-forest, should the establishment of P. agathidicida occur.

### <span id="page-6-0"></span>**Mihi**

Ka kohukohu nui te poho o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui Ko Kōiwiriki nō tuawhakarere Rātou mā i te pā whakairo ā ō tātou tūpuna Kauri mate ki te pō Ka hoki ki te ahikā ā Te Hūnua Kauri ora ki te ao.

Behind the veil of Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui Our ancestor Kōiwiriki from the ancient times They who are carved into our memories Our taonga shrouded within the darkness We return to the warmth and heart of Te Hūnua Our taonga flourishing.

## <span id="page-7-0"></span>**Acknowledgements**  Ngā mihi

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Thank you to Dr Emilie Vallee for expert opinion and review of our sample size calculations and pathogen freedom analysis.

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We thank the private landowners surrounding the ngahere, many of whom provided access to their property for survey and for easier access to the forest. Thank you to everyone who, through actions large and small, have protected the wellbeing of this ngahere.

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## <span id="page-16-0"></span>**Glossary of te reo Māori**  Te Rārangi Kupu Māori

The list below defines Māori terms and concepts used within the text.



## <span id="page-17-0"></span>**Terminology**  Ngā kupu whāiti

The definitions below are specified in accordance with standard epidemiological usage. Where the same word is defined differently between different disciplines, the definition used for this study and the alternative definition are provided for context.









## <span id="page-21-0"></span>**Section 1: Long-term kauri health monitoring framework and objectives of the 2023 Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui / Hūnua Ranges Monitoring Survey**

Te anga karioi e aroturuki ana ki te hauora o te kauri Ngā whainga o te rangahau aroturuki i ngā rākau rangatira o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui

### <span id="page-22-0"></span>**1.1 Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui / Te Hūnua**

Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui means the great forest of Kohukohunui, the maunga tapu that stands within the shrouded mists and forest. It is the highest point in Tāmaki Makaurau and yet cannot be seen because the forest has wrapped itself around the maunga. Hūnua means 'the scorched tribe' and was named following a great battle – Te Pakūranga Rā Hihi / the battle of the sun's rays.

The cultural significance for iwi cannot be underestimated; their whakapapa, the ancient stories held within, provide physical and spiritual connections for iwi not only to the ngahere but to each other. Each iwi holds their own stories and therefore engaging with them directly is the best way to learn and understand their unique connections.

Iwi recall through their ancient stories a difference to the landscape throughout Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui. Mangatangi Dam, for example, has had significant impact on the waterways, the natural flows of awa, and their ecology (e.g. tuna and kōkopu). Local marae are now unable to harvest fresh water or native food species. Roads and farms have replaced once heavily forested areas and destroyed natural wetlands. Rural living bordering the ngahere has seen the introduction of pest species such as cats and stoats that have impacted the native manu population.

The loss of resources for iwi is immeasurable; being prohibited from harvesting native timbers directly for carving waka and their ancestral whare impacts their customary practices.

The health of Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui must be protected; however, it is an ongoing challenge because of the encroachment of human activities and our increasing population. Our view from the outset of the kauri ora survey is that the total health of Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui must be considered with the intention of managing any spread of Phytophthora agathidicida (P. agathidicida).

The potential loss of kauri, a taonga species, is comparable to the loss of the huia and moa, the whakapapa ends. In examining what has so far protected the kauri, one could assume it is 'pure luck', but the data shows that locations of kauri and disturbance are key to the spread of dieback disease.

The implementation of mātauranga Māori, wānanga, kaitiakitanga, karakia, and education all contributed towards the successful outcomes achieved to date. The experiences from Te Kawerau ā Maki in Te Wao nui ā Tiriwa (the Waitākere Ranges) helped guide and inform our tikanga.

What is good for the ngahere is good for the kauri, and what is good for the kauri is good for the ngahere.

Kauri mate ki pō, Kauri ora ki te ao. E ora ana Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui e ora ana te iwi.

#### <span id="page-23-0"></span>**1.2 Introduction to kauri**

#### Te whakataki

Kauri (Agathis australis) is a culturally significant taonga species to Māori and highly valued by New Zealanders across its natural range from the far north of Aotearoa New Zealand to the southern 'kauri limit' in the Waikato and Bay of Plenty (Waipara et al., 2013, Lambert et al., 2018). Kauri is a dominant keystone conifer species in highly biodiverse and unique ecosystems and is endemic to our northern forests (Ecroyd, 1982). Kauri trees are ecologically important, not only for carbon sequestration and water storage, but as drivers of the plant communities surrounding them (Macinnis-Ng and Schwendenmann, 2015; Wyse et al., 2014). Mature kauri trees typically achieve heights of around 30m, accompanied by trunk diameters reaching up to 3m. These trees are recognised for their impressive longevity, often surviving for over a thousand years.

Kauri forest was originally widespread throughout Northland, Auckland, and the Coromandel Peninsula. Following human settlement and associated forest clearance, mature stands of kauri forest are largely restricted to Te Tai Tokerau / Northland hill country (e.g. Warawara and Waipoua Forests), Aotea / Great Barrier Island, Hauturu / Little Barrier Island, and in Te Wao Nui ā Tiriwa / the Waitākere Ranges and Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui / Hūnua Ranges. Fragmented areas of regenerating kauri forest are present throughout Auckland, generally replacing mānuka and kānuka scrub on land that was previously burnt (Singers et al., 2017).

The indigenous forest of the Hūnua Ranges and nearby areas contains several ecosystem types reflecting a combination of underlying abiotic factors such as soil type, altitude, topography, climate and geology as well as the history of clearance and disturbance. Kauri forest predominates in lower altitude areas along the eastern and southern slopes of the Hūnua Ranges and within the Mātaitai Forest Conservation Area. A few scattered stands of mature kauri and regenerating kauri forest occur on the western and northern edges of the ranges.

The kauri ecosystem in this part of the Auckland region is mainly considered to be WF12: Kauri, podocarp, broadleaved, beech forest. It is differentiated from other kauri ecosystems mainly by the presence of hard beech. WF12 forest occurs predominantly

in eastern areas south of Auckland, from the Hūnua Ranges to Hapuakohe Ecological District in the Waikato region. It is also present in the Coromandel and Kaimai Ranges and on Mt Taupiri (Singers et al., 2017).

Kauri is naturally absent from large parts of the of the Hūnua Ranges, where tawa, kohekohe, rewarewa, hīnau podocarp forest ecosystem (WF13) predominates (Singers et al., 2017, Auckland Council, n.d.). The regenerating ecosystems of kānuka scrub/forest (VS2) and broadleaved scrub/forest (VS5) occur in various parts of the study area that are recovering from past logging and clearance for farming, notably around the edges of the Hūnua Ranges and in the Wairoa and lower Mangatāwhiri catchments. Broadleaved scrub/forest is also regenerating in the 'Thousand Acre Clearing' just east of the Kohukohunui summit which was logged between the 1920s and 1950s (Tyrell et al., 1999).

### <span id="page-24-0"></span>**1.3 Kauri health in relation to** Phytophthora agathidicida, **the causal agent of kauri dieback disease**

<span id="page-24-1"></span>Te ora o te kauri e hāngai nei ki te kaikawe i te puruheka patu kauri, arā, ki te Phytophthora agathidicida.

The soil-borne pathogen *Phytophthora agathidicida* (P. agathidicida) causes ill-thrift and death in kauri, a disease phenomenon known as kauri dieback disease (Weir et al., 2015). P. agathidicida was first reported under the mis-identified name of Phytophthora heveae and associated with kauri health decline on Aotea / Great Barrier Island, in Tīkapa Moana / the Hauraki Gulf in 1974 (Gadgil, 1974) and again in Te Wao Nui ā Tiriwa / the Waitākere Ranges in 2006 (Beever et al., 2009). The pathogen was then formally identified and named *Phytophthora agathidicida* (Weir et al., 2015). Since then, the disease and pathogen have been detected in most kauri forests in New Zealand, leading to severe kauri health impacts in many kauri (Froud, 2020, Bradshaw et al., 2020). Fortunately, the spatial spread of P. agathidicida within Te Wao Nui ā Tiriwa / the Waitākere Ranges appears patchy (Froud et al. 2022) and the pathogen has remained undetected in the Hūnua Ranges. Mapping and protecting kauri forests that are free from P. agathidicida is a top priority for kauri protection.

Kauri dieback is as a lethal root rot disease (Killick, 2023) for which there is no known cure (Bradshaw et al., 2020). Infection in kauri results in root and collar rot, leading to dysfunction in the outer vascular tissues of the host and disruption to the infected tree's water uptake ability (Bradshaw et al., 2020; Killick, 2023). Visible

symptoms characteristic of kauri dieback include basal bleeding, yellowing foliage and canopy thinning (Gadgil, 1974; Beever et al., 2009). Above-ground symptoms are considered to be the chronic phase of the disease, observed to progress for 1-10 years before tree death (Bradshaw et al., 2020).

P. agathidicida is classified as an Unwanted Organism under the Biosecurity Act 1993. While the primary role of P. agathidicida as the causal agent has been confirmed (Beever et al. 2009, Bellgard et al. 2013, Gadgil 1974, Killick 2023), the epidemiology and the other contributing factors that may exacerbate disease such as disturbance, weather events, and other pathogens are still under investigation. While environmental conditions and human and animal interactions provide transmission risk into forest systems (Froud et al. 2022), it is also thought that such interactions may affect the pathogen-host relationship and ultimately exacerbate disease symptoms (Froud 2020). For these reasons, limiting disturbance to kauri root systems is considered critical for keeping kauri and the broader ngahere healthy.

Kauri dieback has been the subject of a joint agency biosecurity response since 2009, currently under Tiakina Kauri, a partnership programme with Māori, led by Biosecurity New Zealand (as part of the Ministry for Primary Industries) involving iwi and hapū with an interest in kauri lands, the Department of Conservation, Auckland Council, and the Northland, Bay of Plenty and Waikato Regional Councils (previously called the National Kauri Dieback Programme). Tiakina Kauri invests in kauri protection activities and implemented a National Pest Management Plan (NPMP) in August 2023 to help protect kauri from the disease caused by P. agathidicida.

### <span id="page-25-0"></span>**1.4 Auckland Council kauri dieback surveillance**

#### Te tūtei i te korenga o te puruheka patu kauri

Auckland Council has made significant investments into both kauri protection and P. agathidicida delimiting surveillance since 2009. The 2021 Waitākere Ranges Kauri Population Health Monitoring Survey was designed to understand pathogen and disease prevalence across the kauri population, and to set a baseline for future assessment of change.

Prior to 2020, the objectives of kauri dieback surveillance were to delimit the extent of dieback and the presence of P. agathidicida in the Auckland region using a riskbased approach, focused on sampling trees close to the track network, as well as aerial identification of kauri with canopy ill-thrift (signs of canopy decline and

yellowing), followed by ground survey (Hill et al., 2017, Hill et al., 2014, Jamieson, 2014c, Jamieson, 2014a, Jamieson, 2012b, Jamieson, 2012a, Jamieson, 2014b, Jamieson et al., 2014, Jamieson et al., 2012).

Due to this earlier surveillance effort, we know symptomatic kauri and P. agathidicida were spread across the wider Auckland region, including within Te Wao Nui ā Tiriwa / Waitākere Ranges, Āwhitu Peninsula, and northern Auckland. However, the pathogen has not been detected in areas such as the Hūnua Ranges and Waiheke Island. The 2021 Waitākere survey provided clarity on soil bioassay test performance and risks associated with a higher risk of P. agathidicida detection (Froud et al., 2022a). This was fundamental to designing surveillance in an area where P. agathidicida has not been previously detected.

### <span id="page-26-0"></span>**1.5 Epidemiological approach to kauri dieback**

#### Te huarahi matai tahumaero ki te puruheka patu kauri

Delivering a long-term disease management programme is complex and difficult. To manage this complexity, Auckland Council has adopted an epidemiological approach since 2020 to plan operational management and understand the impacts of management interventions for kauri dieback (Stevenson & Froud, 2020).

The strong pathogenic relationship between P. agathidicida and kauri dieback in kauri trees has been demonstrated (Bellgard et al., 2016, Gadgil, 1974, Horner and Hough, 2014).

The presence of P. agathidicida and the vulnerable host, kauri, is necessary to cause kauri dieback but it is considered likely that other factors may affect disease likelihood or severity. The presence of environmental conditions favouring the pathogen and increasing host susceptibility (e.g. drought, rainfall, disturbances) affect disease likelihood and outcomes (Rothman and Greenland, 2005, Martin, 2008). This is illustrated in [Figure 1-1](#page-27-1) below, the disease triangle. Disease (in the centre) only occurs when host, pathogen and environmental factors suitable for infection align. For a cryptic disease like kauri dieback, where many of the symptoms could have other biotic or abiotic causes, it is also useful to determine what else could be contributing to poor health in kauri where P. agathidicida may not be the cause, so that kauri health management can be implemented.

Te Rangahau Aroturuki i ngā Rākau Rangatira o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui



<span id="page-27-1"></span>Figure 1-1. Disease triangle showing that disease only occurs when sufficient factors relating to a host, pathogen and environment (including management) intersect (Bhopal, 2016, p 136).

With the benefit of the Natural Environment Targeted Rate, Auckland Council is now applying a statistically robust kauri dieback surveillance and monitoring approach to better understand and manage kauri health.

### <span id="page-27-0"></span>**1.6 Design of the long-term kauri health monitoring framework**

### Te hoahoa i te anga karioi e aroturuki ana ki te hauora o te kauri

Using the described epidemiological approach, a multi-level cascading and modular design for monitoring kauri health was developed in 2020 (Froud et al., 2022a) to address four objectives:

- To understand kauri health, pathogen prevalence, disease prevalence and other impacts in order to monitor changes over the long-term.
- To identify risk factors which are associated with disease or pathogen prevalence to inform potential management intervention options.
- To identify ecological impact variables to provide better information on the long-term impacts of kauri dieback within the forest.

• To understand the long-term impacts of management interventions and then focus intervention efforts on those identified as effective.

The long-term kauri dieback monitoring framework was developed through codesign hui with mana whenua o Tāmaki Makaurau, including further discussions with mana whenua representatives of Te Kawerau Iwi Tiaki Trust, Pou Tāngata Ngāi Tai ki Tāmaki Community Development Trust, Ngāti Paoa Iwi Trust Board, Ngaati Whanaunga Incorporated Society, Ngā Maunga Whakahii o Kaipara Trust, Te Ākitai Waiohua Waka Taua Inc, Ngāti Maru Rūnanga Trust and Environs Te Uri o Hau. The framework acknowledges that mātauranga Māori will contribute to measuring forest health and intervention efficacy outside/alongside this monitoring framework.

The design of this monitoring framework was based on core epidemiology surveillance approaches; in particular, the application of an observational study design using a repeated cross-sectional study (Dohoo et al., 2009, Cogger et al., 2016, Froud et al., 2022a), the baseline monitoring recommendations of Stevenson and Froud (2020), and significant progress in applicability of remote sensing from Meiforth (2020) and Meiforth et al. (2020). It was also informed by reviewing the last 10 years of kauri dieback surveillance, particularly contributions from Tiakina Kauri Partners, Planning and Intelligence team members, and the Technical Advisory Group. It also included research from the late Ross Beever and Stan Bellgard, Ian Horner, Margaret Dick, Nick Waipara, Nari Williams, Tony Beauchamp, Lee Hill, Alastair Jamieson, Andrew Macdonald, Nhā Rākau Taketake (NRT) National Science Challenge integrated surveillance workstream members, and many others (Froud, 2020, Black & Dickie, 2016, Bradshaw et al., 2020). Three key components form the basis of the monitoring framework as illustrated in [Figure 1-2.](#page-29-0)



<span id="page-29-0"></span>Figure 1-2. Long-term kauri health monitoring framework.

The modular design of the framework means that the same methodologies and three-level system may be applied at different scales, whether at a regional or national level, if deemed appropriate.

Level B of the monitoring framework was rolled out in the 2021 Waitākere Survey. Research to enable Level A is progressing in 2023/2024. The 2023 Hūnua Survey is the first opportunity to roll out a mix of Level B and Level C, enabled by the additional knowledge gained during the 2021 Waitākere Survey (Froud et al., 2022a).

#### **A. Kauri forest-level health monitoring**

Kauri forest-level health monitoring is aimed at detecting an early change in canopy stress symptoms in kauri. It may help to reduce the reliance of future monitoring on intensive ground surveys. This is underpinned by new remote sensing host detection methods which were applied in the 2021 Waitākere Ranges survey and have been advanced for host detection in Hūnua (described in Section 2 of this report), alongside additional change detection analysis that is nearing completion in 2024. We need to validate stress detection and set a consistent stress index before a baseline can be set and change detection can be used at the forest level. The Hūnua study will provide additional validation data points.

#### **B. Tree-level symptomatic kauri and** P. agathidicida **monitoring**

The roll out of tree-level symptomatic kauri trees and P. agathidicida monitoring was first applied in the 2021 Waitākere Survey and used a repeated cross-sectional study design (Diehr et al., 1995). We used a similar design in Hūnua to set the baseline population health. A repeated cross-sectional study is a type of observational study that measures pathogen and/or disease prevalence (or another outcome) in a population at a point in time and is often referred to as a prevalence study. A cross-sectional study can also measure potential disease determinants or pathogen introduction risk (risk factors) and ecological impacts. A repeated crosssectional study is a study in which the same group of trees is examined at different time points with the prevalence of pathogen and disease estimated on each occasion (Diehr et al., 1995). The results of the study are described in Chapter 3 of this report.

#### **C. Tree-level** P. agathidicida **freedom surveillance**

Tree-level P. agathidicida freedom surveillance is carried out to quantify confidence that kauri dieback is absent from areas thought to be free of disease. The most efficient way to conduct a proof of freedom study is to use a risk-based approach where search effort is (logically) concentrated on individuals where the probability of disease is thought to be high. An initial investigation to identify risk factors for kauri dieback was done in the 2021 Waitākere Ranges survey which identified a range of risk factors for the introduction of P. agathidicida. In addition, the diagnostic test performance parameters of the soil bioassay test used to detect the pathogen was quantified during the 2021 Waitākere survey and can now be used to calculate the number of trees to be tested and found to test negative to quantify confidence in disease freedom. The risk factors and test parameters from the 2021 Waitākere survey can be applied to Hūnua to inform pathogen freedom. Section 3 reports on a mixed study design for pathogen freedom using both the randomly selected trees (from the repeated cross-sectional prevalence study) and risk-based trees to provide confidence in P. agathidicida freedom in Hūnua.

### <span id="page-31-0"></span>**1.7 Updating the long-term kauri health monitoring framework**

Te whakahou i ngā kōrero o te anga hei aroturuki i te ora tauroa o te kauri

This report concludes with a section that weaves together the new knowledge gained from this survey, along with those of the 2021 Waitākere Ranges Survey and updates the strategy for implementation of the long-term monitoring framework for kauri dieback in the wider Tāmaki Makaurau region.

## <span id="page-32-0"></span>**Section 2: Baseline prevalence study of** Phytophthora agathidicida**, kauri health and ecosystem health in Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui / Hūnua Ranges using a cross-sectional study**

Te mātai i te horapatanga o te puruheka patu kauri, i te ora o te kauri me te pūnaha hauropi i Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui mā te whai i tētahi mātai motuhanga

#### <span id="page-33-0"></span>**2.1 Introduction** Te whakataki

2023 marks the third time Auckland Council has done ground surveillance in the Hūnua Ranges to detect the presence of the pathogen P. agathidicida or symptoms of disease caused by infection of P. agathidicida (kauri dieback disease), and the first using an epidemiological approach. The first ground surveys, carried out during 2011 and 2012, did not detect the presence of P. agathidicida in the forest (Jamieson et al., 2012), although there were some trees with ill-thrift. In addition, an aerial and smaller-scale ground survey in 2017 concluded that the distribution and degree of ill-thrift did not indicate the likely presence of P. agathidicida (Jamieson, 2017). These surveys indicated that the Hūnua Ranges were potentially one of the most significant kauri forests in the country that had not been infected by P. agathidicida and showed its importance as a stronghold against the pathogen. The epidemiological approach taken in the 2023 survey was co-designed to verify whether the Hūnua Ranges was free of P. agathidicida and to inform future management and protection.

The 2023 Hūnua Ranges survey, detailed design, delivery and analyses of data was carried out in partnership by Auckland Council with ngā iwi mana whenua o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui, Ngāi Tai ki Tāmaki, Ngāti Tamaoho, Ngāti Te Ata Waiohua, Ngaati Whanaunga, and Ngāti Tamaterā, and the Department of Conservation (DOC). This research supports the 2012 Auckland Council Indigenous Biodiversity Strategy's vision of He taonga, ka whaihua ngā rerenga ke o te Ao Tūroa i Tāmaki Makaurau (Auckland's indigenous biodiversity is flourishing and treasured).

The steps of this epidemiological approach were to apply a cross-sectional survey aimed at determining the P. agathidicida freedom status of the Hūnua Ranges and set a baseline prevalence and distribution of kauri and ecosystem health and P. agathidicida (if present).

The objectives for this study were:

- To verify **pathogen freedom** from *P. agathidicida* in the Hūnua Ranges
- To assess baseline kauri health and set the baseline **symptomatic tree prevalence** by identifying and counting the number of symptomatic mature trees and describing the prevalence and spatial distribution of mature symptomatic kauri (and of P. agathidicida, if present) at a point in time.

• **Risk factors for symptomatic kauri study** – to screen risk factors and generate hypotheses of why some trees are at greater risk of ill-health compared to others and whether any additional kauri health modelling to test hypotheses or control interventions could be applied to enhance kauri health.

As well as verifying pathogen freedom, this study measured the health status of individual kauri trees so that an increase or reduction in the number of symptomatic trees in the population over time can be assessed. The study tested for the presence of P. agathidicida, P. cinnamomi, and other Phytophthora species in soils surrounding both healthy and unhealthy trees to increase the likelihood of early pathogen detection and inform management. Ongoing freedom can be assessed over time with repeated surveys.

The presence of P. agathidicida is necessary to cause kauri dieback but it is rare in nature for a single pathogen to be sufficient to cause disease in the absence of other factors. Other component causes such as a vulnerable host and environmental conditions favouring the pathogen and increasing host susceptibility (e.g. drought, rainfall, disturbances) are generally required for disease to develop (Rothman and Greenland, 2005, Martin, 2008). Because of the importance of the environment to disease outcomes, key environmental conditions were explored in relation to kauri health in the Hūnua Ranges.

The methods for the 2023 Hūnua Ranges survey were co-designed with mana whenua and subject matter experts. It aimed to provide evidence to inform management strategies and interventions and provide baseline data to measure change in disease and efficacy of control measures in the future alongside mātauranga Māori measurements of forest health.

### <span id="page-34-0"></span>**2.2 Methods**

Ngā tikanga

#### <span id="page-34-1"></span>**2.2.1 Study design**

As part of our co-design approach, the aims of the survey were agreed during a survey initiation hui in 2022 with the main objective being proof of pathogen freedom, and secondly, setting a baseline of kauri and kauri ecosystem health. We then agreed an area of interest and defined the study area for the survey. The study objectives led to the development of a mixed surveillance design combining

both a randomised tree-level sample group to set a baseline for kauri health and pathogen freedom and a risk-based sample group for proof of freedom/early detection of P. agathidicida.

Our collaborative approach to co-design was used throughout the survey, as illustrated in Figure 2-1.



<span id="page-35-1"></span>Figure 2-1. Co-design and delivery model through the Operational Group.

#### <span id="page-35-0"></span>**2.2.2 Area of interest and study area**

The area of interest was defined using a co-design approach, where a potential area of interest centred on the Hūnua Ranges Regional Park was proposed at a working group hui using a large A2 sized map to guide discussion. The area of interest was then expanded to include contiguous kauri beyond the park's boundary. The area of interest for this survey includes a combination of regional park land, public conservation land and privately owned forest contiguous with the main forested areas as shown in Figure 2-2 below.


Figure 2-2. Hūnua kauri area of interest (shown in blue) located within the Auckland and Waikato regions (grey).

Likewise, the final study area was refined to fit within the wider area of interest, under a co-design approach to contain only the native forested areas within the area of interest over 125ha. It was agreed that the survey would not be limited to Auckland Council parkland because we were interested in pathogen freedom and therefore it was necessary to investigate whether the pathogen was present in contiguous forest (Figure 2-3).

Specifically, they included:

- 1. Auckland Council managed land: Hūnua Ranges Regional Park, Waharau Regional Park and Whakatiwai Regional Park.
- 2. DOC reserves contiguous with council managed land: Mangatāwhiri Forest Conservation Area, Paparimu Conservation Area, Richard Sylvan Memorial Scenic Reserve, Vining Scenic Reserve.
- 3. DOC reserves north of the Hūnua Ranges Regional Park: Mātaitai Forest Conservation Area, Mātaitai Scenic Reserve, Whakatiri Scenic Reserve, Te Morehu Scenic Reserve, Richardson Scenic Reserve.
- 4. Private property (with kauri) immediately contiguous with areas in 1 and 2 (but accessed only where permission was obtained).



Figure 2-3. Map of the area of interest for the Hūnua study where the light areas are within the area of interest.

Te Rangahau Aroturuki i ngā Rākau Rangatira o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui

## **2.2.3 Management units**

Stream sub-catchments (watersheds) were used as the management unit for the study (Figure 2-4).



Figure 2-4. Watersheds (purple) and permanent streams (blue) in the Hūnua Ranges, calculated on a LiDAR terrain model.

# **2.2.4 Unit of interest (observations/rows of data)**

The units of interest are individual kauri trees and sites. Individual kauri is consistent with the recommended unit of interest for the National Kauri Dieback Programme (NKDP) baseline surveillance (Stevenson & Froud, 2020). The classification of individual trees was further refined by size with a minimum diameter at breast height (DBH) of 10 cm. This is consistent with historical tree

assessments in native New Zealand forests of mature trees (Ahmed & Ogden, 1987).

## **2.2.5 Identifying the kauri host population**

A set of 27,164 point-locations form the kauri baseline population for the Hūnua analysis. This dataset is based on polygons of estimated kauri crowns and stands that were determined with deep learning on RGB HiRAMS/HiRES aerial images flown in 2022 (MWLR 2022). The workflow to convert these polygons into crown locations is documented in Figure 2-5. The initial 40,545 polygons were reduced to 24,699 by combining clusters or outliers of small crown polygons that belong to a larger kauri unit and the removal of tiny crown polygons (< 1sqm) which were unlikely to be kauri. Remaining crown polygons smaller than 3sqm were converted via the centre location to tree points. For larger polygons, the highest points on a LiDAR Crown Height Model were detected and converted to tree crown locations. For polygons larger than 100sqm with less than two detected peaks, it was assumed that individual crown locations within a kauri stand were not detected. In this case, additional crown peaks were defined and randomly placed within the polygon, based on the roundness and area of the smoothed crown polygons. Crown locations that were misclassified as kauri according to a manual check of a subset were removed. The resulting baseline population of 27,164 crowns within the area of interest was eligible to be selected for the risk-based trees analysis and for the survey Figure 2-5 and locations are illustrated in Figure 2-6.



Figure 2-5. Process diagram for risk-based tree selection.



Figure 2-6. Remote sensing and AI estimated kauri host population within Hūnua Ranges, overlaid with land management types.

# **2.2.6 Sample size calculations**

These methods aimed to estimate the number of soil sample bioassays that would be needed to detect P. agathidicida with high confidence if it is present at low prevalence. Since soil bioassays are taken from below kauri, potential sample sites are referred to as 'trees'. When the initial sample size estimates were made, the number of mature kauri (visible using remote sensing) in the study area was estimated to exceed 40,000 trees (this was prior to the processing of imagery);

however, if the total population size is more than a few thousand, the actual number does not affect the sample size calculations.

In a co-design hui, it was agreed that the level of detection and confidence required was "we want to be 95 per cent confident that if *P. agathidicida* is present in the survey area at a prevalence of 1 per cent or higher we would detect it". This is because it is not possible to gain 100 per cent confidence in a 0 per cent prevalence. Given the main objective of the survey was pathogen freedom as it was uncertain if P. agathidicida was present, two approaches could be applied to calculating the sample size required for pathogen freedom. One was a completely random approach assuming equal risk of introduction of P. agathidicida across the forest (homogeneous risk) versus a risk-based approach that the risk of introduction varies across the forest (heterogenous risk) based on factors determined to be associated with an increased risk of detection of P. agathidicida based on the results from the Waitākere survey (Froud et al., 2022a). We selected a hybrid of these two approaches, which addressed both the primary objective of pathogen freedom and the secondary objective of setting a baseline for kauri ora. The theories of the sample size approaches and the hybrid approach are provided below.

### **2.2.6.1 Homogeneous risk theory**

If all trees have the same likelihood of being infected, then the sensitivity of the survey (i.e. confidence in detecting P. agathidicida if it is present at a particular prevalence) can be estimated from a binomial formula (McArdle, 1990, Reed, 1996, Barrett et al., 2010) as

$$
s=1-(1-qP)^n\qquad \qquad (1)
$$

where s is the survey sensitivity,  $q$  is the test sensitivity, P is the prevalence of P. agathidicida in the kauri population, and  $n$  is the number of samples taken. Avoiding selection of the same tree more than once, the number that need to be sampled to demonstrate freedom from *P. agathidicida* can be estimated from an approximation to the hypergeometric formula (Brunk et al., 1968, Venette et al., 2002) as

$$
n = [(N/q)(1 - (1 - s)^{1/NP})]
$$
 (2)

where  $N$  is the total population size and the braces mean to round up to the next highest integer. Note that when, as here, we specify Pit is referred to as the *design* prevalence and corresponds to the level of infection that we are aiming to detect.

### **2.2.6.2 Heterogeneous risk theory**

If different trees have different likelihoods of being infested by P. agathidicida, then we can use knowledge of the relative risk (relative likelihood of being infected) of each tree,  $R_i$ , to target sampling at those trees that are most likely to be infected. The probability of tree *i* being infected is

$$
h_i = R_i / \Sigma R \times PN \tag{3}
$$

and if we sample only those  $n$  trees with the highest relative risk  $h$ , then we mav estimate the *effective* design prevalence in the sampled trees  $P^*$  as

$$
P^* = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n h_i
$$
 (4)

It is unnecessary to know the relative risk of every tree in the population; instead, we need to estimate the relative risk of the sampled group,  $\Sigma R_i/\Sigma R$ , since equation 4 can be written

$$
P^* = \frac{\Sigma R_i}{\Sigma R} \times \frac{NP}{n}
$$
 (5)

Now, over the  $n$  trees that are sampled, the probability of detection in at least one sample is

$$
s = 1 - (1 - qP^*)^n \tag{6}
$$

If risk is homogeneous (*R* is the same for all *i*), then from equations 3 and 4  $h_i = P =$  $P^*$  and equation 6 reduces to equation 1. Similarly, if risk is heterogeneous but sampling is random with respect to risk (for example, if risk factors are not understood) then the mean sensitivity is given by equation 1, though there will be variance around the mean that derives from the relative risks of the particular trees sampled. But if the highest risk trees are preferentially sampled, then  $P^* > P$ and survey sensitivity is increased, or fewer samples are needed.

### **2.2.6.3 Hybrid approach**

When the degree and nature of risk heterogeneity is uncertain it may be pragmatic to take a hybrid approach by selecting  $n<sub>B</sub>$  trees at random, and then selecting a further  $n_H$  trees that are thought to be at the highest risk of infection. The random trees should be selected first so that we can rely on the robustness of these samples if our understanding of risk proves faulty. It also allows a more spatially balanced baseline population to be sampled. We should also identify which group each sample belongs to so that Bayesian latent class analysis can be used to refine the estimated test sensitivity  $q$ , should the pathogen prove to be present at sufficient prevalence.

If a sufficiently small proportion of the tree population is sampled  $(n_R + n_H << N)$ , then we can consider the high risk and random samples as being from separate populations with different effective design prevalences. The effective design prevalence of the high-risk sample  $P^*$  is estimated by equation 4 or 5, and after some algebra that of the random sample is

$$
P_R^* = \frac{N P - n_H P_H^*}{N - n_H} \tag{7}
$$

The component sensitivities of the random and high-risk sampling are calculated from equation 6, then the overall sensitivity of the hybrid sampling is

$$
s = 1 - (1 - s_R)(1 - s_H) \qquad (8)
$$

If a relatively large proportion of the population is sampled, then there is likely to be significant overlap between the two groups, as random sampling may select many high-risk trees. If the variance in risk is large, then this approach may underestimate overall sensitivity. In this case sensitivity may be estimated by considering each sampled tree  $j$  individually

$$
s=1-\prod_j\bigl(1-qh_j\bigr)(9)
$$

but this requires estimation of the relative risk of all trees in the population, rather than just the proportion of total risk embodied by the trees selected for the highrisk sample, as in Equation 5.

### **2.2.6.4 Homogeneous risk calculation**

The Hūnua kauri lands are estimated to contain around  $N = 40,000$  sizeable kauri trees (Alastair Jamieson, pers. comm.). From the Waitākere kauri survey, the soil sample bioassay for P. agathidicida was estimated to have sensitivity  $p = 63.8\%$ (95% CI 42.6-88.1%) (Froud et al., 2022a). The remaining two parameters may be varied, but the Operational Group indicated a desire to be  $s = 95$  per cent confident in detecting P. agathidicida at a prevalence of  $P^*$  = 1 per cent. With these values, and assuming homogeneous risk, a sample size of  $n = 468$  would be required. This result is not sensitive to the estimated number of kauri in the population.

Figure 2-7 shows how the sample size varies across the 95 per cent confidence interval of the test sensitivity estimate for different disease prevalences. Uncertainty in the sensitivity of soil bioassay suggests that up to 700 samples would be needed to ensure 95 per cent confidence in detecting a 1 per cent infestation, but if the test sensitivity conforms to our best estimate this many

samples would be sufficient to detect a smaller 0.67 per cent infestation with 95 per cent confidence.



Figure 2-7. Number of samples required to detect P. agathidicida in the Hūnua Ranges with 95 per cent confidence, depending on the disease prevalence P. Dotted lines indicate to the 95 per cent confidence interval for the estimated sensitivity of the soil bioassay test q (Froud et al., 2022a).

#### **2.2.6.5 Heterogeneous risk calculation**

Figure 2-8 shows how heterogeneity of risk (x axis) can substantially reduce the number of samples required to detect P. agathidicida with 95 per cent confidence (blue line), but only if sampling can be effectively targeted at the highest risk trees. Even a little heterogeneity of risk can have a big effect on the number of samples required, providing the risk of each tree is accurately characterised. If risk is well understood and the highest risk trees can be targeted, then substantially fewer samples may be needed to achieve the desired survey sensitivity. This is demonstrated by the rapid decline in the blue lines in Figure 2-8 as the heterogeneity of risk increases. However, if risk is poorly understood, then mistargeted sampling may substantially reduce the sensitivity of the survey (red line).



Figure 2-8. Effect of heterogeneity of risk on the number of risk-targeted samples required to achieve 95 per cent confidence in detecting P. agathidicida present with 1 per cent prevalence (blue line) and the mean survey sensitivity arising if those samples were taken randomly (red line). Solid lines show results with soil bioassay sensitivity at its most likely value,  $q = 63.8$  per cent; dashed lines correspond to the lower threshold of the 95 per cent confidence interval for sensitivity,  $q = 42.6$  per cent. Relative risk values were drawn from a Weibull distribution.

#### **2.2.6.6 Hybrid approach calculations**

From Figure 2-7, a little fewer than 500 samples would be needed to detect a  $P = 1$ per cent infestation with  $s = 95$  per cent confidence and a best-estimate soil bioassay sensitivity  $q = 63.8$  per cent. Likewise, around 700 samples would be needed with a worst-case soil bioassay sensitivity  $q = 42.6$  per cent. Basing a sample design on these numbers suggests selecting 500 trees at random, plus a further 200 trees of the highest risk. If the risk assessment is faulty, there would still be sufficient random samples to have 95 per cent confidence in detecting P. agathidicida at 1 per cent prevalence. But depending on the degree of heterogeneity of risk, the extra 200 high risk samples could bring confidence in detection close to 100 per cent, even with the worst-case soil bioassay sensitivity (Figure 2-9[a]). The best estimate for soil bioassay sensitivity would give similar results for half that disease prevalence,  $P = 0.5$  per cent (Figure 2-9[b]).

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Figure 2-9. [a] and [b]. Effect of heterogeneity of risk on the sensitivity in a survey of 500 randomly selected trees plus a further 200 samples from the highest risk remaining trees. Relative risk values were drawn from a Weibull distribution. (a) worst-case soil bioassay sensitivity  $q = 42.6$  per cent and P. agathidicida prevalence  $P = 1$  per cent. (b) bestestimate bioassay sensitivity  $q = 63.8$  per cent and prevalence  $P = 0.5$  per cent.

### **2.2.6.7 Final sample size estimate**

Assuming the best estimate for soil bioassay sensitivity, a total of 467 random trees would need to be sampled to give 95 per cent confidence in detecting P. agathidicida if present in 1 per cent of trees. Up to 700 random samples would be needed to account for uncertainty in the test sensitivity, but significantly fewer would be needed if there is heterogeneity of risk and if samples can be targeted at the riskiest trees. Therefore, investment in understanding and characterising P. agathidicida risk could be beneficial in substantially reducing the number of samples required for ongoing proof of freedom. Until risk factors can be quantified and tested, a hybrid approach of 500 random samples and 200 risk-targeted samples would give a high probability of detecting P. agathidicida under a range of circumstances.

## **2.2.7 Selection of random trees for sampling**

Based on the remote sensing of kauri, we developed a sample frame of trees for random selection. These trees were randomly selected then validated using imagery to confirm a high likelihood of being kauri trees prior to physical survey. For the risk-based sample of trees we obtained risk information for each tree then selected the trees as detailed below, prior to validating that they were kauri trees

and adding them to our 700 tree sample (500 random and 200 risk-based). We then added a buffer to the random sample set to account for potential host misclassification or inaccessibility issues, resulting in 667 selected randomly for long-term monitoring (Figure 2-10).



Figure 2-10. Canopy height kauri locations (in green) and 667 trees selected by random (yellow points).

## **2.2.8 Calculation of risk for risk-based trees**

A number of risk factors associated with the detection of P. agathidicida in soil samples were identified from the recent Waitākere survey (Froud et al., 2022b), and from consultation with Ngā Mana Whenua o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui. These were quantified for each tree in the population, using ArcGIS® Pro tools to build risk layers and calculate risk values for individual trees using the best available sources.

## **2.2.8.1 Calculating risk factors**

Existing data were used where possible to inform the calculations of raster-based risk layers. If not otherwise stated in Table 2-1, the data was sourced from the NZ Topo 1:50k data and LiDAR height models (Auckland Council, 2017, Waikato Regional Council, 2021) that can be downloaded on the LINZ data service website [\(https://data.linz.govt.nz/\)](https://data.linz.govt.nz/). Historical disturbance were obtained from Kerry

O'Connor (2023), a local historian, and cross-checked with Southern Regional Parks and ngā mana whenua o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui. Historical data were edited on historical topographical maps from 1942 and 1946 (DOSLI, 1946, DOSLI, 1942).

We used ArcGIS<sup>®</sup> Pro tools to calculate wall-to-wall distance rasters based on the path distance along the terrain or the direct Euclidean distance, e.g. to the coastline within the area of interest. Details are provided in Table 2-1. The density of kauri was calculated in R.

Table 2-1. Description and method of calculation for the three types of risk factors used to inform risk-based sampling.









## **2.2.8.2 Quantifying relative risk factors**

For each risk factor, we specified whether relative risk of P. agathidicida presence was likely to increase or decrease with the value of that risk factor. For most factors, risk is expected to decrease, e.g. with distance to roads, tracks, historical sites, forest edges and other features associated with disturbance. In this case, we modelled the relative risk response as

$$
R = ae^{-4.6x/b}
$$

where  $R$  is relative risk;  $x$  is the value of the risk factor (e.g. elevation, distance to a road); a is the 'weight', being the relative risk at the origin ( $x = 0$ ); and b is the 'range', being the value beyond which the risk is negligible (formally,  $R = 0.01a$ when  $x = b$ ).

For features where risk of P. agathidicida presence is expected to increase with the value of that factor (e.g. moisture), we assumed

$$
R = a(1 - e^{-4.6x/b})
$$

where the risk R approaches the weight  $a$  as  $x$  becomes larger, and the range  $b$  is the value beyond which the risk exceeds 99% of its maximum (formally,  $R = 0.99a$ when  $x = b$ ).

For binary (present/absent) risk factors, such as regeneration since 1942, the  $R = a$ where the risk factor is present, otherwise  $R = 0$ .

The Waitākere survey (Froud et al 2022) used a multivariable logistic regression model to identify and quantify risk factors significantly associated with the detection of P. agathidicida in the soil. For risk factors identified as significant, we could use the fitted parameters to suggest appropriate values for  $a$  and  $b$  above: the regression coefficient measured the relative strength of each risk factor's influence, while the prevalence odds ratio suggests how the influence changes with the value of the risk factor. Importantly, the fitted values were based on the **odds** of P. agathidicida being present versus absent, but for estimating relative risk we need the **probability** of presence out of all samples. However, odds and probabilities are similar when prevalence is low, allowing us to utilise the Waitākere results on the assumption that this is true for the Hūnua Ranges.

Where possible, the values of  $a$  and  $b$  were informed by the results from the Waitākere survey. Parameter *b* was indicated by the prevalence odds ratio *P* as  $b =$  $-4.6$  s  $ln(P)$  where s is the scale of the risk measure as used there (e.g. 100 m). Indicative values for  $a$  were derived from the Waitākere coefficients by assuming all other risk factors were at their mean values. These parameters, and those for risk factors that were not included in the Waitākere analysis, were discussed and weighting adjusted by a panel of experts that included Auckland Council ecologists and independent epidemiologists.

The parameters of each risk factor is provided in Table 2-2 and a descriptive summary is provided in Appendix D, along with risk value summaries for each individual risk factor.

## Table 2-2. Risk factors and parameters.



### **2.2.8.3 Overall relative risk**

The component risks were summed to give a combined risk score for each tree. The component and combined risk scores are illustrated in Figure 2-11.



Figure 2-11. Map of the combined relative risks of all risk factors within Hūnua, where grey are lower risk trees and black points are the highest risk trees.

The cumulative relative risk was plotted and the relative area under the curve was 65.0 per cent (Figure 2-12). This reflects the degree to which risk factors are spread across trees. If risks were all focused on just a few trees then the line would run close to the left and top edges of the graph, and the relative area under the curve would be close to 100 per cent. In contrast, if risk factors are randomly scattered across the population, then the line would follow the diagonal line, with an area under the curve of 50 per cent. The shape of this curve sets an upper limit on how likely we are to detect each tree with P. agathidicida infested soil, assuming our understanding of the risk factors is accurate.

The random samples, taken together, capture 2.4 per cent of the estimated total risk. For comparison, a random sample of this size would be expected to capture 2.5 per cent of the total risk.

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Figure 2-12. Cumulative relative risk for each tree.



The relative contributions of each risk factor are summarised in Figure 2-13 below.

Figure 2-13. The relative contributions of each risk factor to the combined risk calculation.

## **2.2.9 Risk-based selection of kauri for sampling**

We investigated several different ways to select an additional sample of 250 trees based on their risk scores. In all cases we excluded any kauri within 50m of any previously selected tree, including the randomly selected trees.

A total of 5931 trees were ineligible for selection because they were within 50m of a randomly selected tree, leaving 20,565 trees eligible for selection.

Next, we thinned the numbers of remaining trees in the sample frame to avoid oversampling high-risk areas. Where two trees lay within 50m of each other, we removed the one with the lower combined risk value. A total of 6399 trees remained as illustrated in Figure 2-14, with the minimum distance between any two of these trees being 50m. The frequency of distance between trees is illustrated in Figure 2-15 and shows that most kauri were close to other kauri.

Together with the random sample, these trees capture 27.2 per cent of the estimated total risk, the remainder of risk being attributable to trees removed during the thinning process. For comparison, a random sample of this size would be expected to capture 26.0 per cent of the total risk.

Te Rangahau Aroturuki i ngā Rākau Rangatira o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui



Figure 2-14. Map of trees eligible for risk-based selection after thinning for closely spaced trees (within 50m).



Figure 2-15. Frequency of the distance between kauri trees that were eligible for selection in the risk-based sample.

Our next task was to select the 250 risk-based trees for our reduced sample frame. We considered several approaches before settling on a balanced approach of selecting the five highest risk trees for each individual risk factor and randomly selecting the remaining points from the top 10 per cent of the riskiest trees. Together with the random samples, these trees capture 4.9 per cent of the estimated total risk. For comparison, a random sample would be expected to capture 3.4 per cent of the total risk (an example of this selection is illustrated in Figure 2-16, Figure 2-17, and Figure 2- 18.

Details of the alternative approaches are provided in Appendix D.



Figure 2-16. Example draw of samples from a balanced risk-based sample selection.



Figure 2-17. Samples selected using a balanced risk-based approach, ordered by highest to lowest combined risk score.



Figure 2-18. Example of risk factors selected from a balanced risk-based approach, showing the relative contribution of each factor to the overall risk profile.

### **2.2.10 Random and risk-based kauri selected for monitoring**

We randomly selected 570 which were then reduced to 551 after host verification using imagery. These random trees form the basis for long-term monitoring. In addition, a further 250 trees were selected as per the balanced risk approach above, and then reduced to 234 after host verification. The working group was provided with the option to force the selection of any specific trees based on perceived risk; two kauri reported as showing ill-thrift near a walkway were then included in the risk-based sample. The working group was also asked if any trees or areas needed to be avoided for cultural reasons, and an accidental- find-ofartefacts-protocol was implemented which would have excluded any selected trees if artefacts were found or if kaitiaki perceived a risk to safety.

Not all of the selected kauri could be sampled in practice. Some were excluded because they were determined to not be kauri, most commonly during validation from aerial imagery. If field crews visited the site and determined it was not a kauri then they were instructed to select a nearby kauri within 50 m for sampling instead. Others were excluded because access was unsafe, or permission to enter private property was not granted. Finally, the crews may have run out of time for sampling the trees.

The sample frame of kauri trees eligible for survey and final numbers of trees sampled are illustrated in Figure 2-19 and 2-20.



Figure 2-19. Sample frame for selecting kauri showing the transition from the initial population at risk to the final collection of sampled trees.



Figure 2-20. Map of sampled kauri from randomly selected and risk-based samples (n=551) stratified by diameter at breast height (DBH).

## **2.2.11 Monitoring of kauri trees**

Baseline kauri tree health, kauri dieback disease symptoms, potential risk factors, ecological impact factors were collected for each tree during monitoring to improve the baseline understanding of the Hūnua forest.

The monitoring form was a revised version of the 2021 Waitākere survey monitoring form (Froud et al., 2022a), with the only significant changes being the removal of a few ecological variables that had proven difficult to measure, the inclusion of a new distance to closest kauri variable, and a revision of the common plants list. In addition, all trees were assessed for host, disease and ecological variables, and soil samples were collected from all monitored trees, as opposed to the Waitākere survey where ecological variables and soil samples were taken from a subset of sampled trees. The variables are briefly described in the following sections and the monitoring form is in Appendix B.

### **2.2.12 Investigation Plan development**

As part of the co-design process for this study, the working group built an investigation plan. The purpose of the investigation plan was to provide clear guidance for Auckland Council and partners Ngā Iwi Mana Whenua o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui/Hūnua Ranges and Department of Conservation, on how any new detections of P. agathidicida would be investigated and communicated in the Hūnua Ranges. The plan was completed in partnership during the design of the survey (i.e. prior to undertaking surveillance). The investigation plan covered awareness, data management (a data agreement was developed between partners), notification of any positive screening tests, the validation process for positive screening tests, an action plan for a confirmed detection (validated test), a communications plan and prompts for a discussion on the welfare of partners in the event of a confirmed detection of P. agathidicida. See Figure 2-1.

The investigation plan template and validation process are in Appendix A.

### **2.2.13 Data collection**

Surveys were done by a team of trained surveyors working in small teams for consistency of assessments and health and safety reasons. We targeted different geographical sectors (NW, NE, SW, SE) of the study area each week to minimise the spatial and temporal bias in field assessment and soil collection over the duration of the surveillance programme. We prioritised samples from the regional park and conservation reserves first, followed by private land where access was granted. Field work was suspended during periods of rainy weather as part of the hygiene precautions.

Survey measurements were collected using a monitoring form loaded into ArcGIS Survey123 on waterproof hand-held tablets. Minor adjustments continued to be made to the electronic survey form to improve functionality during field team training at the start of the survey.

The survey was carried out between 30 March and 15 October 2024.

Teams were provided with the GPS coordinates of selected trees and used accurate hand-held field GPS units to locate trees. Where multiple kauri trees were present at GPS points, the closest kauri of >10cm DBH to the GPS coordinate was selected by the ground survey team. Selection of the kauri was based purely on proximity and not on health status.

All monitored trees were tagged with robust aluminium tree tag identifiers to enable future identification and monitoring of the same tree (Figure 2-21). Tree tags were attached using nails at the uphill point of the tree, or north facing on nonsloping land 1.4 m above the ground.

In Figure 2-22 below, Kaimahi Analisa Rawiri (left) and Rangimahora Rawiri (second from left) can be seen passing on kauri survey knowledge to a Department of Conservation field team during a training day.



Figure 2-21. Tree tags used for permanent marking of monitored trees.



Figure 2-22. Passing on kauri survey knowledge during a training day.

## **2.2.13.1** P. agathidicida **sites**

This study follows the Tiakina Kauri case definition (Stevenson & Froud, 2020) for P. agathidicida sites as below:

- A P. agathidicida **not detected site** is defined as a point location where the presence of P. agathidicida was not detected (from a tree, soil or other substrate), using an approved test at an approved laboratory.
- A P. agathidicida **site** is defined as a point location where the presence of P. agathidicida has been confirmed (from a tree, soil or other substrate), using an approved test at an approved laboratory. This includes historical P. agathidicida detections.

For samples tested in this study, the approved test was soil sampling and bioassay, and the approved laboratory was Plant and Food Research Ltd, Havelock North. In addition, LAMP tests were conducted, and results were also used to assess P. agathidicida presence/not detected status.

## **2.2.13.2 Pathogen freedom calculation**

The relevant formulae for detection surveys with randomly selected discrete sample units are shown in the table below. Here,  $s$  is the probability of detecting at least one case in a random sample of  $n$  units from a population of  $N$  total units, where a proportion  $P^*$  of the population is infected (prevalence), and the sensitivity of the diagnostic test is  $p$ .



For the current survey, the standard soil bioassay test sensitivity is  $p = 63.2\%$  (95 per cent confidence interval = 42.6 per cent to 88.1 per cent) (Vallee et al., 2022), the sample size is  $n = 552$ , and the total population size is estimated to be  $N =$ 40,000 trees. Note that the sample size for *P. agathidicida* freedom is one tree larger than the sample size for monitored trees, as one soil sample was collected from a site where the monitoring form failed to load and was not revisited.

The calculations above assume that the samples are taken at random with respect to risk. However, part of our sample was taken specifically from the highest risk trees, so the sensitivity of our sample should be better than that.

If  $P^*$  is the proportion of trees infected in the population, then the number of infected trees is  $P^*N$ . The probability that tree i in the sample is infected is  $P^*N \times R_i/\sum_N R$ , and the probability of this sampled tree being infected and that infection being detected is  $p P^* N R_i / \sum_N R$ . Now the sensitivity of the survey is given by the probability that at least one of the sampled trees is both infected and that infection is detected:

$$
s_{risk} = 1 - \prod_{i}^{n} \left( 1 - p P^* N \frac{R_i}{\sum_N R} \right)
$$

Notice that if all trees have equal risk,  $R_i / \sum_N R = 1/N$  and this simplifies to  $s = 1 (1-pP^*)^n$  as in the formula above.

#### **2.2.13.3 Soil sampling**

Soil samples were collected from all trees following the same methods used in (Froud et al., 2022a). The surveyors collected a composite sample comprising four sub-samples from within the root zone of the selected kauri, as decided upon in hui with the Operational Group. Individual soil samples were manually manipulated from the outside of the ziplocked bag to ensure samples were homogenised prior to being split into three sub-samples at the BioSense laboratory, following strict hygiene measures to prevent cross-contamination between samples. Of these, one sub-sample was sent to the Plant and Food Research Pathology Laboratory in Havelock North for the standard soil bioassay and morphological ID test, one was sent to Ampersand Laboratory in Palmerston North for the LAMP bioassay molecular test, and the remaining subsample was retained for validation if required. To ensure soil samples were not left in courier depots over the weekend, they were only sent Monday-Wednesday. Samples were stored at room temperature.

#### **2.2.13.4 Soil repatriation**

He taonga nō te whenua, me hoki ki te whenua What is given by the land should return to the land It was very important to ngā iwi mana whenua o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui that the soils taken during the survey were returned to Papatūānuku (earth mother) at the completion of the survey, if safe to do so. It was agreed prior to the survey, that any soil from P. agathidicida positive sites would not be repatriated. All samples were provided with a batch number that indicated the geographical region samples had come from so they could be returned. Tested soils were first autoclaved (pressure and heat treated) to ensure that no pathogens (of any type) remained and then stored until March 2024. The soil was returned to Papatūānuku during a special ceremony by ngā iwi mana whenua o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui, being placed in grass covered reserve land central to the Hūnua Ranges, and well away from kauri (Figure 2-23).



Figure 2-23. Soil repatriation in a small reserve area surrounding small native seedlings with no kauri present.

## **2.2.13.5 Diagnostic validation plan**

As Hūnua had previously been tested for *P. agathidicida* and it was not detected, we developed a validation plan as part of a larger Investigation Plan to confirm pathogen freedom. The Investigation Plan was agreed across all partners. A

templated version of the Investigation Plan is in Appendix A and may be used for similar kauri surveys.

### **2.2.13.6 Validation process**

For the LAMP test three results are possible: positive screening test, questionable screening test and not detected screening test. A questionable screening test is where the test result value lies within the measurement of uncertainty (MU) of a test. The measurement of uncertainty should be incorporated into assessing the results. For example, if the cut off value is Cq 36 and MU is 0.5, test results with Cq values between 35.5 and 36.5 should be interpreted as questionable and need to be further determined (e.g. run a gel to confirm product size is expected). If this is consistent with the expected size, the result can be validated in the same way as a positive screening test for LAMP.

### **Note:**

MU = Square root of [ (Average of standard deviation of reproducibility)<sup>2</sup> + (Average of standard deviation of repeatability)<sup>2</sup>].

On the receipt of a positive or questionable screening result in an area where validation is required, the following actions are required:

- Request the diagnostic service provider checks sample reception records to ascertain if samples from other areas were being processed at the same time and request processing dates and diagnostic results for those records (anonymous). Check records to rule out any potential mix up of samples, e.g. similar sample submission code.
- Check time to detection for LAMP results to inform questionable results threshold values (i.e. low target concentration in the sample).
- Validation of screening tests can be done using several options (Table 2-3):
	- 1. start with re-testing any remaining or peeled frozen baits (useful to determine if cross-contamination occurred after baiting)
	- 2. then re-test remaining soil (useful if cross-contamination occurred during sample splitting and baiting)
	- 3. if these are inconclusive or the point of cross-contamination is possibly prior to soil splitting, the next step is to collect new samples from the same location and test using morphological testing followed by LAMP testing of peeled baits.
- Collection of new samples:
	- 1. Do a field investigation of the site to collect standard soil samples (8 point protocol, if appropriate) around the original tree and up to nine other kauri (to account for poor test sensitivity) within 50-100m of the test positive site for additional testing.
	- 2. The field investigation team should include team members from the partner organisations who are very experienced in PA field sampling.
	- 3. Store any unused soil until the investigation is completed. If no further positive results are found, this may be used to confirm that the soil does whakapapa to the exact site of collection (using forensic tools such as e-DNA for vegetation, soil chemistry and type, isotope analysis).
- If suspected PA is confirmed detected in a new region or special area:
	- 1. Send the isolate to MPI Plant Health and Environment Laboratory for confirmation. This involves morphological examination and multilocus sequence typing. The latter includes sequencing at least two of the taxonomic informative genes (e.g. COX-1, COX-2, HSP90, ND1) from the newly detected isolate and compare with reference sequences from taxonomic ex-holotype isolate (ICMP 17027) to confirm species identification.
	- 2. Send the isolate to the International Collection of Microorganisms from Plants (ICMP) for long-term preservation and storage.

Table 2-3. Points where cross-contamination may occur, procedures for risk mitigation, and recommended retest options where the options are LAMP and morphological (Morph) + LAMP.







If both the morphological test and the LAMP test are done in parallel, there are several pairs of results that can arise with differing validation requirements depending on the geographical criteria set for validation (Table 2-4). We developed diagnostic scenarios for validation of screening test results when both LAMP and morphological bioassays are used, stratified by known PA-site informed geographic criteria. See Table 2-4 below.

Table 2-4. Diagnostic scenarios for validation of screening results based on geographic criteria.



#### **Morphological test**

#### **2.2.13.7 Disease severity variables**

Basal or lateral root bleeds consistent with kauri dieback were measured as present, not sure, or absent. Bleed activity was measured following the Horner (2020) methodology of whether the gum is sticky (active), soft but not sticky (semi-active) or hard (not active) and relates to whether the tree is still exuding gum.

Basal bleed height was measured to indicate disease severity, in that it indicates how long a tree may have been infected as the pathogen infects via the roots and then travels up the trunk over time, remaining at the leading edge (outer/upper edge) of the lesion. This enables future monitoring to determine how fast lesions develop over time. Where more than one bleed was present on the trunk, the highest one was assessed.

Percentage of trunk with basal bleeds was measured as an estimate (in deciles) of the base of the trunk affected by the basal bleed. This gives a crude indication of the diameter of girdling that has occurred through pathogen infection.

Canopy dieback was quantified based on the Dick and Bellgard (2012) 5-scale canopy health score, with an adjustment to include half-points. This was to provide more differentiation particularly between 2-3 and 3-4 canopy scores which is consistent with more recent disease scoring by Horner et al. (2019) (Figure 2-24).



Figure 2-24. Canopy symptom class and severity rating: 1) healthy crown with no visible signs of dieback; 2) canopy thinning; 3) thinning and some branch dieback; 4) severe dieback; 5) dead. (Dick & Bellgard 2012) versus the modified half-point scale.

Kauri canopy and bleed symptoms could be caused by other biotic or abiotic factors and therefore the opinion of a trained observer/surveyor is required to determine if the recorded symptoms are consistent with kauri dieback. The kauri dieback field status was assessed by trained surveyors observing all symptoms, the surroundings of the tree and any other potential causes of symptoms. Field status considers whether the observed symptoms were consistent with kauri

dieback (to meet the final symptomatic criteria of the case definition). Options were non-symptomatic kauri; kauri with ill-thrift (probably not kauri dieback); kauri with possible kauri dieback symptoms; and kauri with severe kauri dieback symptoms.

Canopy colour was assessed from the ground based on all visible canopy and selection was based on the colour of the majority of leaves, rounding down to the healthiest colour if the result was uncertain to enable a change to be detected over time.

Detailed descriptions of disease severity variable measurement are in Appendix B.

#### **2.2.13.8Symptomatic kauri**

The symptomatic kauri prevalence was reported against the Stevenson and Froud (2020) recommended case definition for kauri dieback disease which is updated and summarised in (Froud et al., 2022a). In brief, the case definition for symptomatic vs non-symptomatic trees was met if the symptomatic criteria for kauri dieback (bleeding lesions on the basal trunk, lesions on roots, the presence of canopy thinning, yellowing of the foliage, tree death) were recorded on a kauri tree AND the trained surveyor recorded that these were consistent with possible/probable or severe kauri dieback using the field status assessment variable in the monitoring form (Appendix B).

The surveyors were trained in the variety of basal and lateral root lesion presentations that have been associated with kauri dieback caused by P. agathidicida. Trained surveyors only wrote 'Yes' if the bleed was typical of kauri dieback bleeds. Further, they were instructed to select 'Unsure' when they could not determine whether a basal or lateral root bleed was due to kauri dieback or due to other causes (e.g. physical damage). Both 'Yes' and 'Unsure'; were included in the symptomatic criteria component of the algorithm to classify symptomatic kauri. If the field observer stated that symptoms were not consistent with kauri dieback, they were classified as non-symptomatic kauri trees – ill-thrift.

As canopy dieback and colour of foliage were categorical variables, a cutoff point was selected for each. The level of canopy health score required to be included in the symptomatic criteria was set to a canopy score of 3 or higher after discussion with the field team and I. Horner. This is consistent with being considered symptomatic by Bellgard et al. (2013). Scores from 1-2.5 relate to healthy canopy or some foliage or canopy thinning, whereas scores from 3-5 show signs of branch dieback through to canopy loss and death of the tree. To calculate symptomatic kauri prevalence, trees that scored 5 and were considered dead were excluded. Any

dead trees are reported separately from the baseline prevalence estimate and were not sampled or assessed, as these trees cannot change their disease state in future monitoring, and it is difficult to estimate how long the tree has been dead. The canopy colour score required to be included in the symptomatic kauri group was set to a colour that is more yellow than green and includes yellow-green, copper brown and dead leaves. Trees with a canopy score below 3 or with a canopy colour score below yellow-green were classified as non-symptomatic – healthy or nonsymptomatic ill-thrift depending on score and field status. A binary symptomatic kauri and non-symptomatic kauri variable was calculated based on meeting the symptomatic criteria of the case definition, with both symptoms and field status assessed as described in the algorithm in Figure 2-24.

In addition, classes within symptomatic kauri were defined by an epidemiological criteria that incorporated soil sample results, where kauri dieback was 'confirmed' for trees at a P. agathidicida site (defined in 2.3.2.3), 'probable' for trees within 50 m of a P. agathidicida site, and 'suspect' for trees  $>$  50 m away from a P. agathidicida site (Stevenson & Froud, 2020).

Figure 2-24 below shows the decision algorithm for calculating if the symptomatic criteria were met for the symptomatic kauri trees kauri dieback case definition.

The symptomatic criteria were met if:

Basal bleed = 'Yes' or 'Unsure'

OR

Lateral root bleed = ' Yes' or 'Unsure'

OR

Canopy score ≥3

OR

Canopy colour = 'Yellow-Green' or 'Copper Brown'

#### **AND**

Kauri dieback field status (approved observer considers symptoms are consistent with kauri dieback) = 'Kauri with possible kauri dieback symptoms' or 'Kauri with severe kauri dieback symptoms'

Figure 2-24. Decision algorithm for symptomatic criteria.

#### **2.2.13.9 Risk factors**

Risk factors (both causative and protective) covered host-related variables (e.g. diameter at breast height; DBH), environmental variables (e.g. aspect, elevation, pig damage) and anthropogenic (human modified) variables (e.g. phosphite treatment, track proximity). The full list of variables and the instructions for data collection are included in Appendix B.

#### **2.2.13.10 Ecological and mātauranga informed impact variables**

Several long-term ecosystem outcomes were considered for baseline monitoring and future analysis. Full details of measurement are provided in Appendix B.

The revision of the common plants list was done in collaboration with Associate Professor Bruce Burns (University of Auckland) and incorporated mātauranga Māori shared by members of the working group and cross-referenced by Auckland Council Southern Parks staff (Table 2-5). The list was of the 20 most common tree species within the Hūnua kauri forests. Presence of trees from this checklist were recorded within 10m of the monitored tree to provide an indication of species diversity.

Table 2-5. Common kauri forest-associated plant species (scientific and common names) selected for observation.



# **2.2.14 Data analysis**

All data analysis was carried out using R Statistical Software (R Core Team, 2020) or ArcGIS® PRO.

## **2.2.14.1 Descriptive statistics**

A descriptive summary of each variable for the monitored trees was calculated to set a baseline for future monitoring.

Histograms and boxplots were used to visualise data distributions and frequencies. Univariable analyses using two by two tables and the Fisher exact test in the epiR package or separate, unmatched, logistic regression procedures were used to determine associations between variables and disease. The level of statistical significance was set at P≤0.05 and was assessed using the log-likelihood ratio test statistic. Linear regression was used to determine associations between continuous variables and correlations were tested with the Pearson correlation coefficient.

#### **2.2.14.2 Point pattern maps**

Point pattern maps were generated using the geographical boundary for the study area to plot two point pattern maps using the R package ggplot2 (Wickham et al., 2016). The first map plotted the point location of all the surveyed kauri trees with points coloured according to their disease status (i.e. symptomatic kauri trees and non-symptomatic (healthy and ill-thrift)) using the case definition. The second map plotted the point location of all the kauri trees from which a soil sample was taken with points coloured according to their pathogen detection status.

#### **2.2.14.3 Relative risk surfaces**

A univariate kernel density maps was plotted to show the density of (i) symptomatic kauri trees, (ii) non-symptomatic kauri trees from the randomly selected kauri trees (the risk-based trees were excluded from the analysis) using the spatstat package (Baddeley, 2015). The spatial relative risks for symptomatic kauri after accounting for the varying density of the sampled population were then estimated and plotted. The spatial relative risk represents the ratio of two kernelestimated densities (i.e. symptomatic vs non-symptomatic) after accounting for variability of the underlying population. These can be used to identify regions with significant elevated spatial risk (Davies et al., 2018). The relative risk is estimated on the natural log scale, such that values  $> 0$  depict areas of elevated risk (log(0) = 1, and therefore log relative risk values > 0 equate to relative risks > 1, that is, increased risk). For these plots, an adaptive smoothing technique was used for the density estimates to provide the flexibility of reduced smoothing in densely occupied areas without compromising the stability of the estimate elsewhere. Where detected, tolerance contours delineating statistically significant risk elevations were drawn at a significance level of 0.1 and 0.05. The plots were created using the R package sparr (Davies and Marshall, 2018) using a pilot bandwidth of 609.1, a Gaussian kernel distribution, and an evaluation grid with dimensions of 128 raster cells in the east-west (150 m) and 128 raster cells in the

north-south (166 m) directions. To calculate the symmetric adaptive relative risk surface range we used the absolute maximum of the range (-7.380591, 1.128512) and therefore set the range symmetrically from 0 at -7.4 to 7.4.

### **2.2.14.4 Risk factor screening**

We did two analyses of risk factors. The first was to visually compare boxplots of the calculated risk factors for Hūnua with those from Waitākere, upon which the Hūnua values were estimated. The second screened the risk factors of the randomly selected trees to test whether they were associated with being symptomatic or not, to try to understand drivers of kauri health and the risk factors for risk-based sample selection. For each tree, potential risk factor variables were either collected during the ground-based survey or derived prior to the survey during the risk-based sample selection as previously described. A univariable screening test (simple logistic regression) for the binary (yes/no) outcome of symptomatic kauri vs nonsymptomatic kauri was conducted in R using the 'glm' package (R Core Team, 2020). Distance measurements were rescaled to an appropriate unit to aid interpretation of odds ratios e.g. DBH was rescaled to 10cm units and distance to the closest coast, etc were rescaled to 100m units. The scope of the survey did not include multivariable modelling of risk factors, as our outcome variable was very rare, so a p-value of 0.05 was used to infer significance using the tests described under descriptive statistics. However, all results were provided for future modelling using a more conservative screening p-value of 0.2 to allow for potential confounding variables.

# **2.3 Results**

## Ngā hua

## **2.3.1 Collection of samples**

We aimed to survey and collect samples from up to 700 kauri, and the survey team visited a total of 561 points of interest. In one of these sites, the kauri had recently slipped into the gully and a further nine sites did not have a kauri present at the point location. A total of 552 of the 561 point locations visited had a kauri present (or recently present). The positive predictive value for host detection was 98.4 per cent (in that 98.4 per cent of trees classified as kauri by remote sensing, and then manually validated using imagery were kauri). This was much higher than the 2021 Waitākere survey (86 per cent) and indicates that the host detection and manual validation process was significantly improved between the two surveys. Only two of the nine misclassifications of kauri provided the species name of the tree that was found (tanekaha and rimu/rewarewa) so we are unable to generalise on common misclassification species. There were no dead kauri found during the survey and only one tree was inaccessible due to a recent land slip. It was unlikely that dead kauri would be found at our selected tree points as our host detection methods excluded dead and dying trees as they generated too many misclassifications of other tree species, including flowering mānuka or kānuka.

We successfully obtained 551 full survey records and soil bioassay samples. Of these, 410 were random selected trees and 141 were risk-based trees. The reduced number of samples was mainly due to persistent wet weather, reducing the number of days sampling could be done. Samples were collected during two distinct time periods. Most samples (n=518) were collected between 30 March 2023 and 6 July 2023, with an extra 33 collected between 7-15 October. Data cleaning was done and two minor updates to the tree circumference and distance to nearest neighbour tree/kauri tree variables on the monitoring form could be made to improve data collection in the future. Full details of these data errors and recommendations are provided in Appendix C.

The only other data anomaly of note was that one of our surveyed points of interest (DSM771M) was surveyed twice, once in June and again in October and soil samples were collected and tested on both occasions. The reason for the second survey was because the monitoring form data failed to save during the June visit, so the point of interest was not marked as surveyed, even though a sample was collected. The lab results were the same for both samples showing not detected

for both P. agathidicida and P. cinnamomi for both tests. The October record was retained for analysis.

### **2.3.2** P. agathidicida **freedom**

There were NO detections of P. agathidicida either by the morphological test, or by the LAMP test (Figure 2-25).



Figure 2-25. Locations where P. agathidicida was not detected (n=551, blue), compared to positive detections (n=0).

Given the sample size and design parameters of this study, this means we can be 97 per cent certain that we would have detected P. agathidicida if it was present at

a prevalence of 1 per cent or more, i.e. it is not present in association with more than 1 per cent of kauri in Hūnua where:

If  $P^*$  = 1 per cent of soil samples were infested with P. agathidicida, then the current survey would have  $s = 97$  per cent (CI: 90.5 - 99.2 per cent) probability of detecting *P. agathidicida* in at least one sample.

The results assume that the samples are taken at random with respect to risk. However, part of our sample was taken specifically from the highest risk trees, so the sensitivity of our sample should be better than that. Taking risk into account, the sensitivity of the current survey for a prevalence of 1 per cent of trees infected with P. agathidicida was 99.9 per cent. However, this assumes that our characterisation of risk was accurate. If not, then the true sensitivity of the survey will very likely lie between the two extremes of 97 - 99.9 per cent as illustrated in Figure 2-26.



Figure 2-26. Proof of freedom results from the Hūnua survey. Coloured ranges around lines represent the uncertainty arising from the sensitivity of the standard soil bioassay test.

In addition, we also utilised a second test, the LAMP test which we have not yet calculated the **diagnostic sensitivity** test performance parameters for. However, the LAMP test is believed to potentially be more sensitive at detecting P. agathidicida as it has high **analytical sensitivity** using a molecular approach. Without knowing the diagnostic sensitivity of LAMP we cannot calculate proof of freedom estimates from the LAMP tests, but it provides additional evidence for our freedom estimates.

In summary, if our characterisation of  $P$ . agathidicida risk is accurate, we can be 99.9 per cent certain that P. agathidicida is not present in association with more than 1 per cent of Hūnua kauri. If, however, our understanding of P. agathidicida risk is so poor that the sampling was effectively random with respect to risk, we can still be 97 per cent confident that we would have detected P. agathidicida if it was present in 1 per cent or more Hūnua kauri.

#### **2.3.1 Other** Phytophthora **species**

There were 350 detections of *P. cinnamomi* from the 551 soil samples collected (63.5 per cent prevalence) which were spatially distributed evenly across the sample sites (Figure 2-27). This was a higher rate of P. cinnamomi than the 53 per cent prevalence of P. cinnamomi detected in Waitākere. In addition, there were 23 detections of other *Phytophthora* species (4.2 per cent prevalence), which were unknown to the laboratory and were possibly undescribed *Phytophthora* species. All detected *Phytophthora* species are detailed in Table 2-6.



Figure 2-27. Location of kauri soil samples with orange circles indicating the detection of P. cinnamomi and blue circles indicating that P. cinnamomi was not detected.

Table 2-6. Detection of *Phytophthora* species alone or in combination in the culture bioassay tests from 551 sites where soil samples were collected.



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## **2.3.3 Symptomatic kauri prevalence and symptom severity**

The majority of trees – 95.1 per cent – surveyed in Hūnua were very healthy. There were only 27 trees classified as symptomatic across the 551 trees that were surveyed, giving a prevalence of symptomatic trees of only 4.9 per cent. The case definition symptom list is not particularly specific to symptoms caused by infection by P. agathidicida as all can be caused by other biological or physiological factors. It is important to note that only 11 of these were from the randomly selected tree samples, with the remaining 16 trees coming from the risk-based tree selection, which was informed by an assortment of layers, including trees that had previously been tested due to the appearance of kauri dieback like symptoms, and therefore is likely to be an overestimate of prevalence. Of the symptomatic trees, all were in forest that was assessed as 'cut-over regenerating' where a total of 518 trees were surveyed. There were far fewer areas of mature forest and therefore far fewer samples taken in mature forest (n=30) or other forest types n=3 (plantation, restoration).

The symptomatic kauri prevalence across the study area is shown in Figure 2-28 below.





The spatial relative risk surface for symptomatic kauri (i.e. the ratio of symptomatic kauri to non-symptomatic kauri) assessed only on the randomly selected kauri (n=410), shows a region of elevated symptomatic tree risk at a significance level of 0.1 in the mid-south-eastern area of the Hūnua Ranges around the Mangatangi Reservoir with lower risk in the northern areas (Figure 2-29).



Figure 2-29. Symmetric adaptive log relative risk surfaces.

Symmetric adaptive relative risk surfaces (Davies et al., 2016) were estimated using the randomly selected kauri trees included in the study ( $n = 410$ ; symptomatic = 11; non-symptomatic = 399) within the study area. The relative risk is estimated on the natural log scale, such that values  $> 0$  depict areas of elevated risk (log(0) = 1, and therefore log relative risk values > 0 equate to relative risks > 1, that is, increased risk). Where detected, tolerance contours delineating statistically significant risk elevations are drawn at significance levels of 0.05 and 0.1. Also note the very low underlying density of kauri in the west-central region of the study area which can be ignored.

The classification of symptomatic kauri against the different classes of the Stevenson and Froud (2020) case definition (using the 2021 Waitākere modified cut-points for classification of either a basal bleed or canopy score of 3 or higher and consistent with kauri dieback assessed by a trained observer) with an epidemiological criteria of 50m from a P. agathidicida detection site (point location of a P. agathidicida detected test) gives us 27 suspect kauri dieback cases (4.9 per cent prevalence), which we can rule out due to the high confidence in P. agathidicida freedom. In addition, there were a further 26 unhealthy kauri observed during the survey, that had mild symptoms that did not meet the case definition.

The kauri dieback field status, which is a classification assigned by trained surveyors in the field to state whether the observed symptoms (basal or lateral root bleeds, canopy scores or canopy colour) are consistent with kauri dieback were also very low. Only three were classified as 'severe dieback' all based on basal bleeds, (hence the low number of symptomatic classified trees) and a further 24 classified as possible dieback. The scores are illustrated in Figure 2-30. The surveyors also assessed the surrounding kauri for symptoms of kauri dieback when entering the monitoring site, and only four sites were recorded as having suspected symptoms of nearby kauri.



Figure 2-30. Field assessment of whether observed symptoms are consistent with kauri dieback.

Symptomatic kauri was not significantly associated with sites where *P. cinnamomi* was detected (p= 0.541, Fisher's exact test).

#### **2.3.3.1Basal lesions**

Of the 551 trees surveyed, 24 showed basal lesions, however only 16 of these were considered to be consistent with the symptoms of kauri dieback. In addition, 14 trees were assessed as having uncertain basal lesions (where the trained observer was unsure) and only eight of these trees were classified as consistent with symptoms of kauri dieback (Figure 2-31). There were also two trees observed with lateral root lesions, both of which also had basal bleed lesions consistent with kauri dieback symptoms. Of the 38 trees with clear or uncertain basal lesions, the trained observers were asked to assess how active the lesion was. There were 11 active (soft and sticky), 11 semi-active (not sticky, but slightly soft and can dent with fingernail) and 16 were not active (hard and dry – cannot dent with fingernail).

Given the high confidence in P. agathidicida freedom in Hūnua, these symptoms are most likely due to other factors.



Figure 2-31. Presence of basal bleeds.

#### **2.3.3.2 Canopy health**

Most trees, 92 per cent (505/551), had a canopy health score of 2 or less, indicating a healthy crown or only light foliage or canopy thinning (Figure 2-32). A further 30 had scores of 2.5 which is just below the case definition cut-point of 3 for canopy dieback consistent with kauri dieback. A total of 16 trees had canopy scores above 3, and only four of those also had clear basal bleeds. We saw no trees with yellowgreen or copper-brown canopies, and only seven were classified as green-yellow with the remaining 544 classified as green, indicating very high canopy health.

Once again, given the high confidence in P. agathidicida freedom in Hūnua, these symptoms are most likely due to other factors.



Figure 2-32. Canopy scores from a scale of 1-5 indicating foliage or branch thinning and dieback of the tree crown.

# **2.3.4Host-related factors**

#### **2.3.4.1 Description of kauri host population**

We identified 27,164 kauri trees in the study area using AI-processed aerial stereo imagery. We mapped the density of all AI-estimated kauri within the survey area and found the highest densities of kauri in the southern areas (Figure 2-33).



Figure 2-33. Kauri tree density within a 500m radius, showing higher densities in the pink/purple colour range.

#### **2.3.4.2 Kauri tree size and ecological dominance status**

Most trees (365/551, 66 per cent) were intermediate in size, in that their circumferences were between 150-450cm. There were only 20 trees (3.6 per cent) in the mature class size with a circumference above 450cm, which were reasonably well spread spatially among the other kauri present (Figure 2-34). The remaining trees (166/551, 30 per cent) were ricker sized (circumference up to 150cm). These are equivalent to DBH (diameter at breast height) of less than 48cm DBH (ricker), between 48 and 143cm DBH (intermediate) and above 143cm DBH (mature). There was quite an interesting pattern in the distribution of DBH across the population, which was left-skewed and a wide range in the DBH of the mature trees, with the smallest tree having a DBH of 12.4cm. The median size was 61cm and the largest was just over 2.5m wide (Figure 2-35). This pattern of tree sizes is not unexpected as the deep learning methods for detection of kauri from imagery is biased towards detecting kauri with a canopy size of greater than 2m (the minimum pixel size), rather than very small trees that have not yet expanded their canopy.



Figure 2-34. Spatial distribution of kauri age classes, from ricker (<48cm DBH), intermediate (48 – 143cm DBH), and mature (>143cm DBH).



Figure 2-35. Frequency histogram of trees in different size groups (bins set at 10cm), with tick marks indicating where the different age classes start.

We mapped the tree height for kauri crowns as an estimate of mature vs regenerating kauri within the study area and found a mean height of 22m (Std dev. 6.5m) (Figure 2-36). There was a tendency towards larger crown heights to the south (Figure 2-36).



Figure 2-36. Mean canopy height of kauri trees selected for the survey.

## **2.3.4.2 Kauri seedlings and saplings**

The presence of small (<15cm) and established (15 – 1.35m) kauri seedlings and saplings (>1.35m tall and <10cm DBH) within 5m of the surveyed tree was assessed at all 551 of the kauri monitoring sites. We observed seedlings or saplings present at 92.6 per cent of monitored sites (510/551), with only 41 sites (7.4 per cent) with none. Small seedlings were observed at 85 per cent (469/551) of sites, established seedlings were at 51 per cent (282/551) of sites and saplings were observed at 59 per cent (324/551) of sites. A total of 37 per cent (202) of sites had all three size classes

present along with the surveyed kauri tree. Immature kauri seedlings and saplings' presence or absence was not significantly associated with sites where P. cinnamomi was detected ( $p = 0.7379$ , Fisher's exact test).

#### **2.3.4.4 Climbing vines, epiphytes and epicormic growth**

There was an abundance of climbing plants observed on the monitored kauri with 60 per cent (331/551) of trees recording climbing plants. Crown epiphytes were much less abundant than climbing plants, with only 12 per cent of trees (68/551) with epiphytes recorded. This is not surprising given that most trees were smaller trees without fully expanded mature crowns. There were also a few trees that had epicormic growth (13 per cent; 73/551).

## **2.3.5 Anthropogenic risk factors**

### **2.3.5.1Forest disturbance**

Evidence of disturbance was recorded at 51 per cent of sites (282/551 sites) and some sites had multiple disturbance types. This was much higher than the Waitākere survey (23 per cent). In Hūnua, the highest disturbance category score was human or animal off-track at 34.5 per cent (n=190/551, Table 2-7). In comparison, this was only 2.2 per cent (n=47) in Waitākere, where evidence of disturbance from being nearby a track was the most common at 6.4 per cent (n=136). We also recorded more reports of animal pest control and bait-lines in Hūnua (8.2 per cent) compared to Waitākere. Pest control and bait-lines will have contributed to the human and animal off-track disturbance observations. All other categories of disturbance were infrequent (Table 2-7) or absent (e.g. weed spray, fire).

Table 2-7. Comparison of nearby disturbance evidence between the Hūnua and 2021 Waitākere surveys with the most notable disturbance percentages in bold.





a While track wasn't listed as an option for the Hūnua survey (tracks can be calculated using GIS), 42 records of tracks being a disturbance were noted under 'other'.

**b** If 'other' was recorded by the surveyor, they were asked to provide details and the most common are presented.

## **2.3.6 Baseline ecological impact factors**

#### **2.3.6.1Closest neighbour species**

The closest neighbour tree species and DBH were recorded at all monitoring sites. The DBH of each monitored kauri was compared to the nearest neighbouring tree species to calculate which was the larger and dominant tree. The monitored kauri tree was the dominant tree at 94 per cent (518/551) of sites with only 6 per cent (33) of the monitored kauri trees being smaller than the neighbouring tree and classified as subdominant. The median difference between kauri DBH and the closest neighbour was kauri being 37cm larger (with a minimum of 43 cm smaller and 2.5m larger).

Figure 2-37 below shows tanekaha as the most common neighbouring species at 40 per cent (220/551) with other kauri being the second most common neighbouring species at 21 per cent (113/551). The full list is in Appendix E.



Figure 2-37. Frequency distribution of the difference in DBH between the monitored kauri and the closest neighbouring tree, showing in red where the kauri was sub-dominant (was smaller) and blue where the kauri was dominant (larger).

We also measured the distance to the nearest kauri tree at each site if it was within 10m, and found that in 77 per cent of sites (424/551) there was another kauri present. When the DBH values of these nearby kauri trees, most were smaller than the monitored tree indicating that many of these trees may be sub-canopy sized trees that our remote sensing approach could not detect, or were included in the canopy segmentation of the monitored tree. Some areas had dense ricker stands with multiple kauri within 1m of the monitored tree (Figure 2-38).



Figure 2-38. Monitored tree in the centre of a dense ricker stand (ref. POI AHS123K).

#### **2.3.6.2 Common species**

The most common plant species recorded near monitored kauri in Hūnua was tanekaha at 95 per cent of sites. Kauri grass, shining karamū, rewarewa, mingimingi and horoeka (lancewood) were also very common, observed in over 80 per cent of sites (Table 2-8). We did not observe any Kirk's tree daisy or māpere, and we saw very low levels of aute and taraire near monitored trees during the survey. Tawhairaunui (hard beech) was present at 41 per cent of monitored kauri sites, indicating that 'WF12 – Kauri, podocarp, broadleaved, beech forest' is common across Hūnua despite being a regionally endangered ecosystem type.

<b>Scientific name</b>	<b>Common name</b>	<b>Count</b>	Per cent
Astelia trinervia	Kōkaha, kauri grass	456	83%
Beilschmiedia tarairi	Taraire	15	3%
Beilschmiedia tawa	Tawa	145	26%
Brachyglottis kirkii	Kohurangi, Kirk's tree daisy	0	0%
Broussonetia papyrifera	Aute, paper mulberry	$\overline{4}$	0.7%
Coprosma lucida	Shining karamū	447	81%
Dacrydium cupressinum	Rimu	306	56%
Fuscospora truncata	Tawhairaunui, hard beech	224	41%
Gahnia xanthocarpa	Māpere, gahnia	$\mathbf 0$	0%
Knightia excelsa	Rewarewa	441	80%
Kunzea robusta	Kānuka	236	43%
Leucopogon fasciculatus	Mingimingi	459	83%
Lygodium articulatum	Mangemange	354	64%
Myrsine australis	Māpou	394	72%
Pectinopitys ferruginea	Miro	143	26%
Phyllocladus trichomanoides	Tanekaha	523	95%
Podocarpus totara	Tōtara	190	35%
Pseudopanax crassifolius	Horoeka, lancewood	445	81%
Pterophylla racemosa <sup>a</sup>	Kāmahi	73	13%
Pterophylla sylvicola <sup>a</sup>	Towai	68	12%

Table 2-8. Common kauri forest-associated plant species selected for observation.

<sup>a</sup> Pterophylla racemosa and P. sylvicola are difficult to distinguish visually; therefore, caution should be taken when comparing the distribution of these two species.

### **2.3.6.3 Forest floor depth (soil organic layer)**

The forest floor depth was measured for the monitored kauri. A mean from the left and right-side forest floor depth measurements per tree was calculated and used as the individual tree forest floor depth value. The population median forest floor depth was 13.5cm ( $25<sup>th</sup>$  percentile 10.5cm;  $75<sup>th</sup>$  percentile 17.0 m) with a minimum of 2.5cm and maximum of 35.5cm. Forest floor depth was positively correlated with DBH (p<0.001, Pearson correlation coefficient), with mature trees having much deeper organic layers than smaller ricker trees (Figure 2-39, Figure 2-40).



Figure 2-39. Scatter plot showing average forest floor depth (cm) per tree as a function of tree size measured as DBH (cm). Superimposed on this plot is a loess smoothed linear regression line (blue) with 95 per cent confidence intervals (grey shading).

The box plot in Figure 2-40 below shows forest floor depth (cm) per tree as a function of tree size measured as DBH (cm).



Figure 2-40. Average forest floor depth by monitored kauri age class.

# **2.3.7 Risk factors**

#### **2.3.7.1Comparison of risk factors**

We compared the risk values of the sampled Hūnua trees with those from the 2021 Waitākere survey, as shown in Figure 2-41. The main differences in risk values between Waitākere and Hūnua were that Hūnua had fewer mature age class trees (fewer kauri with large DBH values over 143cm), and Hūnua kauri were further away from the coast, from historical timber sites and from tracks than Waitākere kauri.

Figure 2-41 below depicts box and whisker plots showing the median forest floor depth (cm) per tree, stratified by kauri tree size class from 2127 monitored trees where the size class value was recorded. It shows the median value (horizontal line), interquartile range (within box), maximum and minimum values (excluding outliers, vertical bars) and outliers (dots) for the population.




Figure 2-41. Comparison of risk values between 2023 Hūnua kauri monitoring data and 2021 Waitākere Ranges data.

#### **2.3.7.2 Risk factor screening for symptomatic kauri**

Before screening the randomly selected trees against the outcome of whether a tree was symptomatic or non-symptomatic, we ran a simple 2 by 2 test to see if there was a difference between random and risk-based samples with the outcome. The results showed a highly significant association (p<0.001, Fisher's test) with risk-based samples 4.6 times more likely to be symptomatic (95 per cent CI 2.1; 10.5). This was somewhat driven by the inclusion of distance to previously tested sites, which were typically tested due to ill-thrift symptoms. The spatial distribution of symptomatic trees differed between the randomly selected trees and the risk-based trees in that there were symptomatic trees observed in the north-eastern and central southern area (near Mangatangi Reservoir) of Hūnua from the risk-based trees, but not from the Random selection (Figure 2-42). However, there were fewer random trees monitored in those regions due to a smaller underlying host population. This indicates that our risk-based method for selecting trees was successful in detecting trees that were more likely to be unhealthy.



Figure 2-42. Kauri health status by random versus risk selection, with circles indicating differences in symptomatic tree distribution.

Screening of factors that may be associated with kauri health (symptomatic kauri vs non-symptomatic kauri) was then done on data from the 410 randomly selected monitored trees of which only 11 were symptomatic. Only four factors showed a significant association with symptomatic kauri – distance from a water reservoir ( $p=0.020$ ), human or animal off-track disturbance ( $p=0.04$ ) and the two *Pterophylla* common plant species – tōwai (*Pterophylla sylvicola*) ( $p=0.027$ ) and kāmahi (Pterophylla racemosa) (p=0.006) (Table 2-8). As only 11 trees were symptomatic, there was insufficient data to assess most factors as they were too rare within the symptomatic group of trees.

Table 2-9 below shows the risk factor screening results for univariate testing of variables for an association with the outcome of symptomatic kauri (vs nonsymptomatic) using glm models and a significance of p <0.05. Variable descriptions are provided in Table 2-1 and summary statistics in Appendix D.



Table 2-9. Risk factor screening results for univariate testing of variables for symptomatic vs non-symptomatic kauri.









**sig.** Significant at p<0.05

The four significant factors can be interpreted as indicators of risk that require further multivariate modelling. Interpretation of their odds ratios and confidence intervals demonstrating the effect of one unit difference from the average value of the variable are:

- Distance to reservoir: The odds of symptomatic kauri was 0.97 times (3 per cent) less for each 100m increase in distance away, i.e. symptom prevalence was higher closer to reservoirs.
- Human or animal off-track disturbance: The odds of symptomatic kauri was 3.7 times higher for kauri trees with human or animal off-track disturbance recorded during the survey, i.e. symptom prevalence was higher when off-track disturbance was present.
- Kāmahi and tōwai common plants: The odds of symptomatic kauri was 4.2 or 5.6 times higher for kauri trees that had either *Pterophylla sylvicola* or Pterophylla racemosa recorded nearby during the survey, i.e. symptom prevalence was higher when kāmahi or tōwai were present.

Risk factor screening results for univariate testing of variables for an association with the outcome of symptomatic kauri (vs non-symptomatic) using glm models and a significance of p<0.05. Variable descriptions are provided in Table 2-1 or Appendix D.

There was a reduction in the risk of being symptomatic in association with increasing distance from a water reservoir, indicating that reservoirs increase the risk of poor kauri health, possibly due to historic disturbance or changes in soil moisture (see Table 2-9). There was a significant increase in the risk of poor kauri health in association with the presence of human or animal off-track disturbance, which may be related to root damage. For common plants, there was a higher risk of being symptomatic in association with the presence of the two *Pterophylla* species (Table 2-9). Kāmahi and tōwai are known to be involved in the gap-phase regeneration of broadleaf forest, taking over from tree ferns after the loss of a large canopy tree (Dawson, 1988, Silvester, 1964). The presence of kāmahi and tōwai may be indicators of historical habitat disturbance as they were less palatable to goats which were abundant in the Mangatangi area following historic logging (Silvester, 1964). Of note was finding no association between the presence of  $P$ . cinnamomi (p=0.47) and symptomatic kauri (Table 2-9), which is consistent with our Waitākere findings.

# **2.4 Discussion**

# Te matapaki

This study had three key objectives, with the primary objective being to assess pathogen freedom from P. agathidicida in Hūnua. We also aimed screen risk factors for symptomatic kauri to inform management to enhance kauri health and to assess baseline kauri and ecosystem health in Hūnua.

Our key finding from this study is that we are between 97-99.9 per cent certain that, if P. agathidicida was present in the Hūnua study area and was infecting 1 per cent or more kauri trees, we have taken enough samples to have detected it. Therefore, we consider it almost certainly absent.

There is a growing body of evidence that historical disturbances are likely introduction pathways for P. agathidicida (Froud et al. 2022). A benefit of our study design is that we also used randomly selected kauri to monitor for P. agathidicida and kauri health, so even if our risk factors were not accurate, we would still have 97% confidence in our non-detection.

Samples were taken over a broad time period from 30 March 2023 to 6 July 2023, with an extra 33 collected between 7-15 October 2023. While there is currently no evidence that sampling at different times of the year can affect test accuracy, we should be cautious. It is considered reasonable that if P. agathidicida is present in the soil sample, then the test will detect it in the laboratory. However, it is possible that the concentration of P. agathidicida in the soil differs during the year as it does in other Phytophthora species (e.g. Riddell et al. 2020) and therefore, there may be a lower or higher chance of P. agathidicida inclusion in the soil samples taken in the field at different times of the year.

Another potential concern was the lack of sampling from some privately owned properties contiguous to the main forested area. These sites have an unquantified P. agathidicida status; however, trees on the immediate boundaries of these properties all returned 'not detected' results and there is no reason to believe that properties where access was denied differ significantly from neighbouring properties that were sampled. One of the reasons given by landowners for refusing access for sampling was to protect the forest from the potential introduction of P. agathidicida from the surveyors, which indicates a high awareness of potential risk and a level of risk mitigation on those properties.

Our confidence in the non-detection of P. agathidicida is reinforced by the high analytical sensitivity of the molecular diagnostic test (LAMP; Winkworth et al, 2020). However, without knowing the diagnostic sensitivity of LAMP we are unable to calculate proof of freedom estimates for this test. It is strongly recommended that the diagnostic sensitivity and specificity for the LAMP test are determined. The sample size required for undertaking this type of analysis is approximately 800 samples from a known infected forest. This would be an expensive undertaking; however, if this or another sensitive and replicable tool was developed, tested, and approved, this could mean only one test is required to prove freedom in the future, resulting in a cost saving to the wider kauri lands community.

The proof of freedom calculations used in this study alongside the diagnostic sensitivity of the standard soil bioassay test can be applied to other forests in kauri lands. Further validation of the risk factors from the Waitākere survey (Froud et al., 2022a) and those developed for Hūnua and other forests would help improve our freedom estimates. There would be value in validating these risk factors in forests where P. agathidicida has been previously detected but not yet well described spatially.

There were very few symptomatic kauri observed during the survey with a very low prevalence of only 4.9 per cent. When we looked at the relative risk of being symptomatic versus non-symptomatic based on the underlying host population density, we found that the area around the Mangatangi Dam had a slightly significant ( $p = 0.1$ ) increased risk. Signs of stress in these kauri may be due to competition or root disturbance from other factors, including the severe weather events of January and early February (Anniversary Day floods and Cyclone Gabrielle) in 2023. This is consistent with both our risk factors screening analysis and with the observation of symptomatic kauri in Waitākere near disturbed sites.

The vast majority of Hūnua kauri were very healthy, with over 95 per cent of them showing no or very limited signs of ill-health. Almost all trees had healthy green canopies and very few had basal lesions, with only three trees having symptoms that looked consistent with severe kauri dieback. Given our high confidence in P. agathidicida freedom, it is most likely that other factors have contributed to the poor health of these three trees. There had been some severe weather events in the Hūnua Ranges leading up to the study resulting in landslips in the area which may have contributed to some of the ill-health. Likewise, the extensive rainfall in Auckland during the spring and summer of 2022/2023 likely contributed to the healthy green canopy of kauri in Hūnua. The area with an elevated risk of unhealthy kauri was near the Mangatangi Dam. We know from the 2021 Waitākere study that

kauri health was poorer in areas close to historical disturbances which is consistent with these results. This is of interest for future management of the forest, as trees in poor condition are more likely to be vulnerable to P. agathidicida if it is introduced into Hūnua, as we saw in other host pathogen systems (Martin, 2008).

As we found with the Waitākere survey, there was no association between the detection of P. cinnamomi and symptomatic kauri adding to the evidence that P. cinnamomi is not a significant pathogen of kauri trees at present in the Auckland Region. More research on co-infection and impacts of future climates may be helpful to fully understand the risks of P. cinnamomi to forests in Tāmaki Makaurau.

Most trees in our sample were intermediate in size with a median DBH of 61cm which was similar to the Waitākere trees (median of 66 cm). However, there were fewer mature trees in Hūnua (3.6 per cent) than Waitākere (10 per cent). The dominance of small-intermediate sized trees is consistent with kauri forest that is regenerating from logging in the late 1800s and early 1900s (i.e. 100-120-year-old trees transitioning from ricker to intermediate size classes; (Bergin & Steward, 2004). Our results also reflect the use of remote sensing to detect our sample frame with taller (larger) canopy trees more likely to be included.

We found a very high rate of 92.6 per cent of sites with seedlings or saplings present beneath the monitored trees, indicating a healthy population with good recruitment. This was a much higher rate than 55 per cent of sites observed in the 2021 Waitākere survey; however, it was dominated by young seedlings (85 per cent of sites). In addition to the lack of P. agathidicida pressure on seedling survival, the increased kauri recruitment in Hūnua may have been promoted by the wetter weather conditions leading up to this survey compared to Waitākere which had suffered several years of dry weather prior to the 2021 survey. As we found with the Waitākere survey, there was no association between the detection of P. cinnamomi and the presence of kauri seedlings and saplings, giving further evidence that P. cinnamomi is not a significant pathogen of kauri seedlings.

We recorded a high level of human or animal off-track disturbance during the survey; 34.5 per cent of monitored kauri showed signs of such disturbance which was much higher than the 2.2 per cent in Waitākere. While some of this variation may be due to team differences between the two studies, there are some potentially contributing factors relating to off-track disturbance sign at Hūnua. For example, we recorded higher animal pest control and bait-lines in Hūnua (8.2 per cent) compared to Waitākere, which will have contributed to the human and animal off-track disturbance observations. A large-scale pest control operation was completed just before our survey began, which is likely to have contributed to the observed

disturbance. Pest management in Hūnua is often undertaken aerially to reduce ground-based disturbance; this may be more important in the future to avoid the introduction and spread of P. agathidicida. In addition, the Waitākere survey was restricted to regional park lands which had been under a rāhui and controlled area notices since 2017, so very few people entered the forest away from open tracks, whereas the Hūnua survey included private land. It was also much wetter during the Hūnua survey, so off-track disturbance may have been more visible. Regardless, it is important to be aware of the heightened risk of off-track disturbance in Hūnua which may provide an important spread pathway if P. agathidicida is introduced in the future.

As expected with kauri being a keystone species, we found that kauri were the dominant sized trees in 94 per cent of our monitoring sites. We also found that 77 per cent of trees had another kauri tree (over 10cm DBH) within 10m, most of which were smaller than the monitored tree, indicating that many of these trees may be sub-canopy sized trees that our remote sensing approach could not detect or were included in the canopy segmentation of the monitored tree. In addition, some areas had dense ricker stands with multiple kauri within 1m of the monitored tree, indicating that our population estimates may have underestimated the population of kauri at canopy height. Once the total population size is more than a few thousand, this number does not affect the sample size calculations, so our likely underestimate of the kauri population does not change or invalidate our results.

We also obtained baseline forest floor organic layer data and found that the combined mean for Hūnua was similar to Waitākere in that the median values were close at 13.5cm and 16.5cm depth respectively and were strongly correlated to kauri age class with much deeper forest floor layers in the larger mature trees. The was a difference in the upper values with the 75th percentile for Hūnua at 17cm compared to 23cm in Waitākere, reflecting the larger number of mature trees in Waitākere. Change in forest floor depth is classified as a potential impact from kauri dieback as significantly less leaf litter depth was recorded in areas of Waitākere with P. agathidicida (Froud et al., 2022b);these Hūnua leaf litter depth values set a baseline for future testing if P. agathidicida is introduced.

It was useful to look at the risk values of the sampled Hūnua trees in comparison to those from the Waitākere survey. These were the factors that were associated with a higher probability of P. agathidicida detection in Waitākere (Froud et al., 2022b) and were used to predict high-risk areas for monitoring in Hūnua. We noted that Hūnua had fewer mature age class trees (with large DBH values), and that trees sampled in Hūnua were further away from the coast, from historical timber sites and from

tracks across both the randomly selected and risk-based trees. This raises the hypothesis that the absence of P. agathidicida from Hūnua may in part be due to differences in historic and recent risk profiles.

The screening for associations between symptomatic kauri and our risk factors mostly showed no increased risk or had such low numbers of symptomatic kauri that no association could be assessed, consistent with a much lower rate of symptomatic kauri in Hūnua than observed in Waitākere. However, we did find three interesting associations of increased risk of symptomatic kauri being closer to a water reservoir, where there was evidence of human or animal off-track use, or in the presence of two common plant species (kāmahi and tōwai) that are indicators of heavily grazed (by goats) regenerating forest. We suspect that, as we found in the Waitākere survey, poor kauri health is associated with disturbance and regeneration.

# **2.5 Conclusion**

# Te whakatau

This study found no evidence of P. agathidicida in the Hūnua ranges and the extent of testing give us between 97 per cent and 99.9 per cent confidence it is absent from the Hūnua study area. This confidence is extremely important for informing ongoing forest management between all partners and landowners in Hūnua. We have successfully built a risk profile for Hūnua identifying the areas of highest future introduction or detection risk. Knowing that the risk of P. agathidicida introduction via risk pathways is an ongoing threat, partners can target its spread/introduction prevention and protected areas strategies around our identified high-risk areas. Maintaining P. agathidicida freedom from the kauri population within Hūnua is of great importance both regionally and nationally for the ongoing survival of kauri. Future monitoring can be targeted at areas of higher risk that were not accessible in 2023.

We have set a baseline of kauri health which can be used for ongoing monitoring that considers the risk of P. agathidicida introduction and the detection of other potential impacts on kauri. As of 2023, we have identified most kauri within Hūnua as healthy; however, there is a higher risk of poor kauri health in association with disturbance, particularly around the Mangatangi Dam. We found extensive animal and human off-track disturbance in the forest which indicates potential for P. agathidicida introduction and risk of spreading, and kauri root disturbance that could affect kauri health and vulnerability.

As we move towards a less stable environmental future with climate change, it will be important to maintain *P. agathidicida* freedom, reduce spread of other nonindigenous pathogens such as P. cinnamomi, and continue monitoring and manage kauri health as it is a keystone species and an indicator of forest health in this unique habitat. Ngā Iwi Mana Whenua o Kohukohunui support ongoing monitoring, cleaning stations, pest control and would support exploring other initiatives to ensure the Hūnua Ranges remain free of P. agathidicida.

# **Section 3: Methods for stream monitoring for cultural and environmental health in kauri forest areas of Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui / Hūnua Ranges in the Auckland region**

Ngā tikanga aroturuki i te roma e pā ana ki te ora ā-ahurea, ā-taiao hoki i ngā wāhi uru kauri o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui i te rohe o Tāmaki Makaurau

# **3.1 Introduction**

## Te whakataki

This stream baiting study aimed, firstly to gather additional evidence to understand whether Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui / Hūnua Ranges is free of *Phytophthora* agathidicida, the causal agent of kauri dieback disease, and secondly to collect data for mana whenua on the environmental and cultural health of the streams. We aimed to do this by trialling a new tool that pairs stream baiting with LAMP diagnostic testing. This test is relatively new but has been successful in detecting P. agathidicida in streams where P. agathidicida is known to be present in the nearby kauri population. The sensitivity and specificity of the LAMP test has not been evaluated, so we used it alongside the soil-based morphological testing for greater certainty.

## **3.2 Method to identify stream sub-catchments**

We located the sampling locations for the stream baiting by:

- a. calculating a permanent stream layer
- b. delineating sub-catchments
- c. selecting and combining sub-catchments for the sampling
- d. manually placing the locations for the stream baiting along the streams.

#### **3.2.1 A: Calculating permanent streams**

We calculated the permanent streams with ArcPro, according to a workflow that is documented by ESRI as 'Stream network and characteristics' (see Figure 3-1 (a)).



Figure 3-1. a). Stream network and characteristics flowchart. (b) Watershed delineation flowchart. (b) Source: [https://pro.arcgis.com/en/pro-app/latest/tool-reference/spatial](https://pro.arcgis.com/en/pro-app/latest/tool-reference/spatial-analyst/deriving-runoff-characteristics.html)[analyst/deriving-runoff-characteristics.html](https://pro.arcgis.com/en/pro-app/latest/tool-reference/spatial-analyst/deriving-runoff-characteristics.html)

The input DEM was created as a combination of the 1m LiDAR based height models from Auckland Council and Waikato Council. The threshold for a permanent stream was set as a 5ha watershed area in the flow accumulation raster to match the permanent stream layer calculated for the rest of Auckland. We calculated the stream order calculated and added it as an attribute to the layer. We deleted the area of reservoirs extended by a 50m buffer from the stream layer.

## **B. Sub-catchment delineation**

We took the sub-catchments in the Auckland Council part of the Hūnua Ranges from the Freshwater Management Tool (FWMT) which was implemented by Morphum Environmental and is documented here:

[https://www.knowledgeauckland.org.nz/publications/freshwater-management](https://protect-au.mimecast.com/s/NJA8Cnx1v6TlgQB9H97_eU?domain=knowledgeauckland.org.nz/)[tool-report-1-baseline-data-inputs/](https://protect-au.mimecast.com/s/NJA8Cnx1v6TlgQB9H97_eU?domain=knowledgeauckland.org.nz/)

Our goal was to replicate the method for the sub-catchment delineation used in the FWMT In the Hūnua Ranges. The calculation of sub-catchments with ArcPro followed a workflow documented on the ESRI webpage as 'Watershed delineation' (Figure 3-1 (b)). According to the method used in the FWMT, the input DTM was

resampled to 2m and filled, using the ArcPro 'Fill' tool. Pour points mark the outlet of a watershed. They were automatically generated at the start and the end of each stream section (see stream delineation described under (a). Small streams under 20m were deleted so they did not result in a sub-catchment delineation. The area of reservoirs, extended by a 10m buffer, were clipped out of the resulting subcatchment areas. Figure 3-2 shows the final sub-catchments for the Hūnua Ranges.

## **C. Selection of sub-catchments**

A two-step process was used to select sub-catchments for the stream baiting. In the first, we calculated the combined path distance of all kauri multiplied within a 100m buffer to the permanent streams. This value was multiplied by the combined risk value for each tree. The highest resulting values marked the initial selection of 23 sub-catchments that were of interest for the stream baiting.

The equation to calculate the combined risk of a stream (RiskDist100mStream) was based on the distance (SumDistTree) and risk factor (SumRiskTree) of kauri trees within a 100m buffer:

### $RiskDist100mStream = e^{-4.6 * SumDistTree/100} * SumRiskTree$

In a second step, we combined the pre-selected sub-catchments and adjusted them to match the extent of the Ministry for the Environment watershed delineation 3<sup>rd</sup> order (Ministry for the Environment, 2010). We chose a final selection of 11 combined sub-catchments to inform the selection of stream baiting locations (see Figure 3-2).



Figure 3-2. Catchment selection for stream baiting.

Figure 3-2 above shows:

- a. Calculated permanent streams with a drainage area larger than 5ha, coloured according to their stream order.
- b. Sub-catchments for the Hūnua Ranges.
- c. Final selection of 11 combined sub-catchments for the stream baiting.
- d. Stream baiting locations (yellow cross) manually placed along permanent streams (blue lines) within a combined selected watershed area (pink polygon) that contains both kauri baseline trees (green) and selected kauri trees for the soil sampling (red points). (Background: NZ Imagery, ESRI Living Atlas)

## **D. Manual placement of locations for the stream baiting**

We manually placed 20 locations for the stream baiting along the permanent streams for the selected combined sub-catchments (Figure 3-3) following these criteria:

- number of kauri locations in the upper watershed area
- distance to kauri locations
- accessibility via tracks and roads
- terrain not too steep
- distance to stream junctions
- locations for kauri soil samples within that watershed.



Figure 3-3. Overview map of 11 selected, combined sub-catchments (pink polygons) and 20 manually placed sampling locations for the stream baiting.

## **3.2.4Selecting catchments for stream sampling**

We wanted to select 20 catchments for stream sampling to detect P. agathidicida. Such sampling requires level 1 or 2 (small to medium) streams. We measured the distance from every tree to the nearest level 1 or 2 stream and applied a declining risk function to that distance (as is described above for other distance risk factors). Based on discussion with Richard Winkworth (Massey University), we assumed that the likelihood of P. agathidicida zoospores entering a waterway would decline by 99 per cent after b = 200m.

For each tree, the stream distance risk factor was multiplied by the combined risk from other factors. Note that other factors were summed because they were assumed to be independent alternatives contributing to risk – a tree or site could be risky because of one factor **or** another. However, for the stream risk we multiply because the likelihood of P. agathidicida entering the waterway depends on the riskiness of trees **and** their proximity to a stream.

Finally, we aggregated the results by catchment to sum the stream risk factors across all kauri trees present in each catchment, with the summed relative risks and locations shown in Table 3-1 and Figure 3-4.

Table 3-1. Top 20 aggregated sum of stream risk factors across all kauri trees present in each catchment.





Figure 3-4. (a). Highest priority stream sub-catchments for sampling based on the total relative risk; (b). Location of the top 20 stream sub-catchments prioritised for sampling.

## **3.2.5 Development of the monitoring form**

As with the main survey, the stream monitoring form was co-designed with members of the working group.

#### **3.2.5.1Standard ecological monitoring**

We developed some standard stream ecological monitoring variables, informed by Edward Sides, Freshwater Ecologist, Boffa Miskell, which included:

- stream width in metres measured to one decimal point (e.g. 1.3m) at cassette deployment point using a laser measure
- stream depth estimated mid-stream at point of cassette deployment
- stream substrate, based on the predominant composition of the stream bed at the point of cassette deployment.
- estimated stream velocity by leaning over the stream at the point above the cassette and dropping a leaf onto the water surface, counting in seconds how long it takes for the leaf to travel 1m.

In addition, we assessed the common plants list from the main survey monitoring form, selecting all tree species from the list that are visually present within 10m of the stream.

#### **3.2.5.2 Cultural health indicators**

The cultural health indicators section of the monitoring form were only for kaitiaki to complete. These fields were developed by our mana whenua partners including Ngāti Tamaoho, Ngāi Tai ki Tāmaki, Ngaati Whanaunga, Ngāti Paoa, Ngāti Tamaterā, Ngāti Te Ata Waiohua. These indicators are their intellectual property and are for their use. They were informed by Tipa and Teirney (2006).

## **3.2.6 Field survey data collection and analysis**

#### **3.2.6.1Stream bait deployment**

Surveyors were provided with the following instructions:

- Bait deployment can only occur during typical weather conditions, including rainy periods. Using MetService or similar, use the 7-14 day forecast to avoid extreme rainfall situations for the 14-day duration of bait placement, avoiding both drought (no rain forecast at all) and excessive rain (extreme rain watch or warnings).
- All monitoring must abide by tikanga put in place by Ngā Mana Whenua o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui / Hūnua Ranges.
- Once at the pre-determined stream bait deployment point, assess the site for the optimum deployment position following these decision criteria:
	- The stream is permanent with running water (sites have been preselected to maximise this). If the deployment point is not a running stream, then move up to 200m down the catchment to the nearest point where a stream is present. If no stream is found (e.g. it is a tomo), do not deploy the bait.
	- Select a point in the steam that is a 'run', defined as stretches of river with a uniform current, an unbroken surface and moderate depth and water flow. This is as opposed to pools (deep, slow-flowing stretches of river with a smooth surface, often on the outside of bends) or riffles (short, steep sections of river with fast-flowing, shallow water with a rapid broken flow). If the flow rate is very rapid, select a spot on the edge of a pool where the water is slower up to 200m downstream or up to 200m upstream, as long as kauri are visibly present upstream.
- Once the deployment position has been selected, tag the closest tree (of any species) using a robust aluminium tree tag with a unique identifier, so that the exact position can be returned to in the future.
- As per the methods developed by Randall (2011), place 10 fresh cedar needles into plastic bait cassettes, and deploy the stream baiting cassette at a depth of 30cm, securely anchored to the stream bank. Leave for two weeks.
- Conduct the stream baiting stream assessment and cultural health survey via the supplied Survey123 monitoring form (Kauri Stream Baiting Hūnua 2023 – Deployment form). All variables must be collected in full.

#### **3.2.6.2 Stream bait recovery**

Bait cassettes were sealed in individual plastic zip-lock bags and stored at 4°C until they were sent to Massey University, Palmerston North. The samples were not chilled during transport.

Samples were then tested using the LAMP test protocol (Winkworth et al., 2020).

## **3.3 Results**

No P. agathidicida was detected from the stream bait samples. Survey data was collected for each of the monitoring form variables and data was provided to mana whenua for cultural assessment.

We developed a simplified monitoring form based on the Tipa and Teirney (2006) cultural health indicators. Permission to access and utilise this form may be sought by Ngāti Tamaoho.

Kaitiaki successfully collected ecological and cultural health indicator data for mana whenua.

# **3.4 Conclusion**

There was no P. agathidicida detected from the stream baits. While we do not know the diagnostic sensitivity of this new test, it was reassuring that these results were consistent with the soil sampling from Hūnua and it provides further evidence towards the conclusion that Hūnua is free of P. agathidicida.

Mana whenua valued the opportunity to exercise manaakitanga, and for kaitiaki to participate in assessing stream health using sight, smell, sound and feel, to inform future assessments from the baseline indicators. There is potential for future use of the baseline stream health methods for ongoing kauri health monitoring.

Te Rangahau Aroturuki i ngā Rākau Rangatira o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui

# **Section 4: Future steps for the longterm strategy for monitoring kauri health in the Auckland region**

Ngā mahi o anamata e pā ana ki te rautaki karioi hei aroturuki ki te hauora o te kauri i Tāmaki Makaurau

# **4.1 Introduction**

# Te whakataki

We have now completed long-term monitoring in two highly valued kauri forests within Tāmaki Makaurau and have built a wider picture of the distribution, epidemiology and impact of P. agathidicida within the region that can help inform the strategic direction for kauri forest management.

A science plan for prioritising research of P. agathidicida infection in kauri was drafted in 2018. The context of the surveillance, detection, diagnostics and pathways theme was a fundamental uncertainty of whether *P. agathidicida* was discreet or ubiquitous (Kauri Dieback Strategic Science Advisory Group, 2018). It was stated that:

'There are competing paradigms of "an ubiquitous pathogen, present in all areas" versus "active spread and areas currently pathogen free" – knowing this will inform how we manage the pathogen(s) and disease it causes, i.e., pathway management or forest health management?' (Kauri Dieback Strategic Science Advisory Group, 2018)

P. agathidicida is believed to be an introduced rather than native pathogen (Weir et al., 2015; Winkworth et al, 2021). It sits within Clade 5 of the genus *Phytophthora* which has host and geographic associations that suggest a centre of diversity in the East Asia-Pacific region (Weir et al., 2015), and overlaps with the postulated centre of diversity of Agathis (Bellgard et al., 2013).

P. agathidicida is most likely discrete rather than ubiquitous within kauri lands. This is based on results from the Hūnua survey where *P. agathidicida* was absent, and from the 2021 Waitākere survey where P. agathidicida was found in discrete areas and was not detected in the central area of kauri forest (Froud et al., 2022a).

There is further evidence of both a significant association between *P. agathidicida* and symptomatic kauri (Froud et al., 2022a), and that P. agathidicida is more pathogenic on kauri than any other New Zealand *Phytophthora* species (Horner and Hough, 2014; Nari Williams, Ngā Rākau Taketake (NRT) presentation, May 2024). This indicates that kauri and P. agathidicida did not co-evolve over millennia. If they had, there would be evidence of genetic resistance as there is with other common New Zealand *Phytophthora* detected from kauri roots; however, this has not been demonstrated (Herewini 2017). This reinforces our knowledge that P.

agathidicida is a highly pathogenic introduced infectious agent with kauri as the primary host.

Adding to this, NRT research into the host range of P. agathidicida has shown that while other common tree species in kauri forests can harbour *P. agathidicida* in a laboratory setting, they appear to be very poor hosts in indigenous forest systems, especially in comparison to kauri (Ian Horner, NRT presentation Feb 2024). In the field, the detection of P. agathidicida in non-kauri hosts was rare and petered out within a short distance from an infected kauri (Ian Horner, NRT presentation Feb 2024). This indicates a limitation for natural spread within kauri forest between stands of kauri. In contrast, we now have additional evidence that P. cinnamomi, also believed to be an introduced *Phytophthora*, is evenly and extensively distributed within New Zealand kauri forests (Reference). The contrast between the spread and abundance of P. cinnamomi compared with P. agathidicida within kauri forest may be due to a much wider host range as suggested by Studholme et al. (2016). When considering these soil-borne pathogens as infectious agents, the big difference is that P. agathidicida appears to be spatially restricted by the proximity to other susceptible hosts, whereas P. cinnamomi is not restricted and disperses between multiple plant species.

## **4.2 Kauri ora management recommendations**

To infect an area, *Phytophthora agathidicida* needs an introduction event, which, at a landscape-scale, appears to rely on spread via human or animal vectoring of contaminated soil. This is evidenced by the spread patterns in the Waitākere Ranges where, over time, extensive localised spread has occurred in highly disturbed and well used areas around introduction foci (e.g. Piha, Cascades Kauri, Huia). Current interventions of isolation using movement controls, maintaining dry-foot track standards in kauri areas, installing and maintaining hygiene stations and implementing mammalian pest management to reduce transmission, will help not only in areas where P. agathidicida is known to be present but also will provide good biosecurity for areas where introduction has not yet occurred or has not yet been detected.

Kauri appear to be more prone to poor health in places that have been disturbed and these kauri may be more vulnerable to disease in the event of P. agathidicida introduction. As we observed in Waitākere, the detection of P. agathidicida was strongly associated with historical and contemporary disturbance events, and in those places, kauri are in poor health and many are dying. Therefore, for long-term kauri ora

(good health), it is essential to minimise forest disturbance around kauri and, where P. agathidicida is not yet present, to maintain pathogen freedom. Restricting the localised spread of P. agathidicida following introduction between isolated kauri stands and between stream sub-catchment management units will help minimise the burden of disease and localised loss of kauri. This will be particularly important where large stands of kauri are regenerating, as the opportunity for transmission between roots is high, and trees are vulnerable due to succession competition (Ogden et al., 1987).

# **4.3 Recommended advances for long-term kauri ora (health) monitoring**

## **4.3.1 Collaborative monitoring approach**

Using a working group that includes iwi partners and other land managers to co-design, deliver, interpret the results of the survey was a particular strength of this study, and is highly recommended for future similar projects across the kauri lands. In addition to meeting the principles of Te Tiriti by supporting kaitiakitanga, this collaborative approach allowed for knowledge sharing between operational group partners and resulted in matauranga-informed methodologies and practices. The inclusion of kaimahi in fieldwork benefitted the survey work, and provided training that we hope will provide a long-term benefit our iwi partners. An example of a change in practice brought by our partnership was the addition of a soil repatriation ceremony. Typically, soils are disposed of after testing as contaminated waste. The operational group agreed that repatriation of the soils (bringing the soil back to Hūnua) safely was an appropriate alternative to disposal that was more in-line with tikanga. Soil that tested negative for P. agathidicida was heat treated, then returned to an area of the forest without kauri as an additional precaution.

We recommend building off our collaborative operational team approach for all future kauri monitoring, within and beyond the Auckland region.

## **4.3.1 Kauri forest-level health monitoring**

Monitoring current kauri health is essential to track any change over time and measure how well our interventions are working. Long-term health monitoring will also help us determine how other factors affect kauri health, such as land use, environmental management and climate change.

To measure forest level kauri health we need:

- 4.1.1 kauri mapping of the host population
- 4.1.2 measurements of baseline kauri health and kauri health change detection methods
- 4.1.3 geospatial data to represent kauri protection interventions (rasters of protected area)
- 4.1.4 collaboration with climatology researchers to investigate long-term climate impacts on kauri forest health.

## **4.3.2 Kauri population mapping**

We built on and improved the methods developed to detect kauri trees in the Waitākere Ranges for the Hūnua survey. This survey was more efficient due to improved AI and machine learning tools. Analysis of high-resolution aerial imagery across key kauri forested areas will be required to obtain the baseline population outside Waitākere and Hūnua and this may need better validation of false positive identifications of kauri. For example, there were issues picked up in our initial review process with flowering kānuka being misclassified as dead kauri in Hūnua. Our technique was subsequently refined to address this issue.

#### **4.3.3 Kauri stress monitoring and change detection**

To set the baseline prevalence of landscape scale kauri health, we need methods to differentiate between kauri dieback induced stress vs drought or other canopy stress. These remote sensing parameters can then be used to monitor change in kauri forest health over time. This work is being progressed in a parallel project and is showing promising results. In brief:

- Future surveys of kauri health can include the automatic detection of canopy symptoms of decline with remote sensing data. Two methods are most promising: Optical indices and deep learning. For the optical indices, the best results so far could be reached with high resolution data from satellite (e.g. WorldView) or plane (e.g. HiRAMS). The data should include at least a red and NIR band with a maximum pixel size of 2m for a crown-based analysis. Optical indices do not distinguish between species and therefore need a prior identification and segmentation of kauri crowns, including dead/dying trees as the target crown locations for the object-based analysis.
- The deep learning analysis requires at least 3-band imagery (red, green, blue) with a higher spatial resolution, ideally 7.5cm. Deep learning analysis

offers the potential to combine kauri identification with symptom detection. However, this method still needs improvement with a sufficient training set for aerial imagery with different resolutions. There are two documents in preparation: Kauri change detection by Jane Meiforth (Auckland Council) and an article on deep learning for kauri/species identification from Jan Schindler (Manaaki Whenua Landcare Research).

## **4.3.4 Landscape scale kauri protection efficacy**

Continuing from our recommendations in the Waitākere report, we recommend the following actions to measure the efficacy of kauri protection measures over time (e.g., track closures, track upgrades, hygiene stations and phosphite treatments):

- Collate temporal and geospatial (time and place) data for all future kauri dieback mitigations. The temporal data is required to assess how long mitigations have been in place. Geospatial layers need to be developed to show areas that are and are not protected by specific mitigations. This could be characterised in the same manner as risks are for risk-based sample selection, either at a raster level or tree level. The risk factors addressed by each mitigation should be identified, and their impacts could be modelled by applying a scale factor (between 0 and 1) to those risk factors, and potentially including a distance of effect range to indicate how far from the mitigation the protective effect would reach.
- Where possible, collate historical geospatial and temporal data for kauri protection interventions (e.g. track upgrades, closures, rāhui, phosphite areas, pig control areas) in the same manner as described above.
- These data will eventually be usable in analysing kauri protection efficacy by modelling change in landscape-scale kauri health where a range of interventions have and have not been applied, while also accounting for known geospatial risk.
- Fully measuring efficacy of rāhui or other Māori cultural protection measures necessitates the development of mātauranga Māori indicators to supplement and corroborate other measures.

## **4.3.5 Long-term climate impacts on kauri forest health**

As we stated in the Waitākere report, it remains reasonable to expect that the change in climate over the last 30-50 years may be contributing to the development and severity of kauri dieback disease (Homet et al., 2019, Aguayo et al., 2014). Extreme weather events such as drought and flooding affecting soil moisture levels may favour the pathogen and disadvantage the kauri host (Homet et al., 2019, Macinnis-Ng et al.,

2013) leading to more disease. The three recommendations made in the Waitākere report remain important for trying to understand the impacts of climate change and kauri health with and without P. agathidicida.

- Climate data are acquired for monitored kauri forests at suitable spatial and temporal scales in conjunction with stress index measurements.
- Climate data are used to inform the stress index with a view to classifying between disease and drought.
- Modelling of long-term climate data using the landscape baseline prevalence of kauri stress and change over time, knowledge of soil moisture effects (Macinnis-Ng et al., 2013) and in the presence or absence of P. agathidicida. It may take many years to acquire sufficient data to determine the impact of climate change, but baseline data should be collected as often as possible to enable future analysis.

The first recommendation has proven difficult at the local level; however, nationallyavailable data may be used in the future across kauri lands. The placement and maintenance of weather stations within kauri forests is not feasible. Kauri health change detection has progressed in 2023/2024 and may ultimately be able to distinguish between disease and drought based on surveillance data.

Lastly, it will take a multidisciplinary research programme to model climate and kauri stress, and this has not progressed in New Zealand at this stage. All three recommendations are national level objectives.

# **4.4 Implementation of tree-level kauri health monitoring**

The 2021 Waitākere survey refined the methods to set baseline pathogen prevalence values and kauri health data. We now have this data for 761 randomly selected sites across Waitākere Ranges Regional Park, and 410 randomly selected sites in Hūnua. There are two recommended next steps:

- Roll out baseline tree level pathogen and kauri health monitoring to the remaining significant kauri forests within Tāmaki Makaurau.
- Plan for repeated monitoring of Waitākere Ranges Regional Park, initially, and then for other areas with baseline prevalence values (e.g. Hūnua) to measure incidence (the number of new symptomatic trees developing over time). This will provide the data for adaptive management of kauri health and investigate the efficacy of management interventions.

# **4.5 Implementation of pathogen freedom surveillance**

Site-level P. agathidicida pathogen freedom surveillance is aimed at early detection in areas previously thought to be free of the pathogen (including high-value areas). This will inform protection areas, ongoing pathogen spread prevention, and the investigation and management of new outbreaks.

We applied a hybrid 75 per cent baseline (random) samples and 25 per cent freedom (risk-based) surveillance approach to the Hūnua survey. This addressed both the objectives of setting a baseline for ongoing kauri health monitoring (random) and those of estimating freedom from the pathogen.

From a practical management perspective, the aim of freedom surveillance is to provide robust evidence to support protection areas and identify where forest access could be provided safely to maximise the amenity value to Auckland communities.

The Hūnua survey developed the key steps to implementing a risk-based freedom survey, including risk maps/profiles for individual trees (Figure 2-11), sample selection and sample size calculations (Section 2.2.10). These methods have been further refined by Tiakina Kauri and DOC, building significantly on the progress made during the Hūnua survey (with the assistance of Jane Meiforth, John Kean and Karyn Froud) and can be directly applied to additional forests within Tāmaki Makaurau where the objective is proof of freedom.

We recommend that the next round of kauri monitoring in Hūnua includes the 410 random trees (for kauri health assessment) along with a new selection of riskbased trees. In making the new risk-based selection, the combined risk value of all previously sampled trees should be discounted by multiplying by a factor <1 that reflects the residual risk that those trees might be infected, despite previously testing negative. The discount parameter should therefore reflect the sensitivity of the previously applied test (to account for false negatives) as well as the time since the test was administered (to account for the possibility of new infection). If the action of sampling trees was thought to pose some risk of infection, then this should be included too. However, test sensitivity is moderately high, current data suggest P. agathidicida spreads and infects slowly, and strict hygiene practices were adopted during sampling. Therefore, most or all previously surveyed risk trees would provide relatively little new information if re-sampled. The risk discounting factor could also apply to nearby trees, weakening with distance in the same way that many of the other risk factors are modelled. In summary, previous

sampling should inform ongoing risk-based surveys to reflect which trees and stands would contribute the most to proof of freedom.

Frequency of freedom surveillance will be objective and risk-dependent, but we estimate it to be approximately five-yearly. However, it may be appropriate to extend that period for repeated baseline monitoring in a forest free of P. agathidicida. Only new risk-based kauri would be monitored in five years, and kauri health could be monitored approximately 10-yearly if the forest remains free of P. agathidicida.

# **4.6 Conclusions**

The repeated monitoring of sites, particularly those with P. agathidicida infection, will aid in our understanding of disease latency, symptom development and recovery of infected kauri.

Working alongside Ngā Iwi Mana Whenua to design, deliver, and interpret monitoring strengthens the survey and has been an integral part of this work. Together, the operational group has created a collaborative working system that is respectful and successful. We jointly recommend future kauri ora surveys continue to take this approach.

The confidence in P. agathidicida freedom within Hūnua, coupled with better understanding of the limited host reservoirs of the pathogen, is a big step forward in how we think about long-term management of P. agathidicida. We will continue to focus on reducing long-distance spread opportunities by managing pathways of possible introduction.

The implementation of the long-term monitoring framework has advanced significantly in the last two years with developments in freedom surveillance design and kauri health change detection methods.

# **4.6.1 Conclusions of Ngā iwi mana whenua o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui**

The repatriation of soil taken for sampling highlighted the process and the collaboration between DOC, Ngā iwi mana whenua o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui and Auckland Council. This demonstrated the combining of mātauranga Māori and western science and the willingness of people working together to achieve a successful outcome.

Ngā iwi mana whenua o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui advocate for rāhui should signs of P. agathidicida be detected and iwi with interests to be contacted as soon as practicably possible.

Iwi must be enabled to maintain their cultural connections to te ngāherehere and over time, each iwi with the support of their treaty partner must be able to harvest the necessary rākau for carved waka and ancestral whare.
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# **Appendix A: Investigation Plan Template**

Kauri Health Survey

# *Phytophthora agathidicida* **Investigation plan TEMPLATE**

17 July, 2024

Hūnua Ranges kauri population health monitoring survey 131

Te Rangahau Aroturuki i ngā Rākau Rangatira o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui

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#### **Version control**



# Introduction

# **1.1 Purpose**

The purpose of this document is to provide for clear guidance for land managers and partners, including Councils, ngā mana whenua, and Department of Conservation, to plan how new detections of *Phytophthora agathidicida* (PA) will be investigated and communicated. The structure of this plan has been completed in partnership when designing the 2023 Hunua Ranges Kauri Health Survey (i.e. prior to undertaking surveillance), and may now be used as a template for similar work.

Note that this investigation plan notes the difference between a positive screening test and a confirmed detection of PA. A test result (indicating presence of PA) provides a piece of evidence towards assessing whether a detection of the organism is confirmed.

A glossary of key terms is included in section [0.](#page-167-0) The validation section may be used for a range of scenarios (examples provided in Appendix A).

# **1.2 Scope**

#### **1.2.1 In scope**

Covering period of time we receive results back, up to survey report release. Short-term actions we may need to deal with positive detections.

#### **1.2.2 Out of scope**

Long-term management of sites. Note that these are in scope for discussion at the Operations Group meetings, but are outside the scope of the Investigation Plan.

#### Investigation Plan

#### **1.3 Awareness of Planned Surveillance**

Who should be aware of surveillance activities:

#### Prompts:

List agencies that need to be aware of surveillance including within the lead agency, mana whenua partners, supporting agencies, private land-owners, communities.

Include any private property landowners as a heads up, prior to contact about land access

Think about consequences, the most likely one is an interview in the media of someone saying "I didn't even know they were doing surveillance!" in relation to any results or issues (e.g. trampers observing people breaking the rules by going off-track, when it is our surveyors, or following the detection of artefacts) due to the project. Who would these people be?

#### How will you raise awareness:

#### Prompts:

Describe the key awareness messages amongst key stakeholders including communities and the most suitable means (for your contexts) to communicate these prior to surveillance.

*While key messages should be consistent across partners, their context will differ with different world views and agency responsibilities. This should be discussed in the comms plan to enable different views to be communicated.*

#### **1.4 Data Management**

#### How should surveillance data and test results be managed:

Prompts:

- Describe any data sharing agreements between agencies that are involved in the surveillance including the lead agency, mana whenua partners, supporting agencies, community groups.
- If no agreements exist, describe how test result data and confirmed detection data will be managed.
- How PFR and Ampersand manage results data will it go to BioSense as the client or to AC/Working Group directly. What confidentiality provisions are in place within contracts?

#### **1.5 Notification of Positive Screening Test Results**

#### Prompts:

- Describe the process for reporting positive screening test results for P. agathidicida from the diagnostics service provider to the lead agency, including contact names and details.
- Describe the process (e.g. phone calls, email, urgent online hui) and timeframes for the lead agency to notify partners and key stakeholders of a positive (unvalidated) screening test result.
- Describe how you will ensure confidentiality is maintained when reporting results, including with field team contractors, labs and operations group. I.e. what is the risk of leakage of a suspect test result before validation occurs? Don't go too wide with your notification, just partners.

#### Te Rangahau Aroturuki i ngā Rākau Rangatira o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui

- Detail who, within and external to the lead agency, will be informed during validation. Include how often and at what points in the investigation they should be updated.
- Does anyone else need to know?I.e. who will be really upset to find out that we are validating a positive test (through a leak to the media or via social channels) without them being informed? What will that do to the trust relationship?
- Describe how awareness of this process will be maintained to ensure effective and timely sharing of notifications.

#### **1.5.1 Not detected results**

Who needs to be notified, and when?

#### **1.5.2 Positive screening results**

Who are suspect detected results are to be sent to, and who will be responsible for informing partners?

A pre-designed email to the set group for notification is provided in Appendix 1.

#### **1.6 Validation of screening test results for a confirmed detection**

**This plan notes the difference between a screening test result and a confirmed detection of PA. A positive screening test (indicating presence of PA) provides a piece of evidence towards validating whether a detection of the organism is confirmed.**

*Prompts:*

- *Describe the process (e.g. phone calls, email, urgent online hui) and timeframes for the lead agency to notify partners and key stakeholders of the progress of validation for a positive screening test.*
- *Describe expectations for validating results, including timeframes to complete validation.*
- *Ensure confidentiality is maintained when validating results.*
- *Describe the funding mechanism for validation of diagnostic results.*

#### **1.6.1 Screening test background**

Observing symptoms of disease on kauri trees gives an indication of the presence of PA, the causal pathogen of kauri dieback, however the symptoms are not unique and can be caused by other biotic and abiotic factors. It is also possible to have PA present in the soil or kauri roots prior to the development of symptoms. To confirm the detection of PA we currently have two MPI approved screening tests, a DNAbased LAMP bioassay and culture-based Morphological bioassay.

Screening tests are used to give an indication if the pathogen is present and the two tests have different characteristics that together can help to confirm presence of the pathogen, alongside epidemiological criteria.

When screening for a pathogen, it is useful to have a test with high sensitivity, which will find most of the sites where the pathogen is present (true positives) but may also identify sites where the pathogen is not present (false positives). In contrast, a test with high specificity will correctly identify sites as true positives but may miss sites where the pathogen is present (false negatives). When screening for PA, the

LAMP test has an assumed high sensitivity, but a risk of false positives (Table 9). The morphological test for PA has known high specificity, but a risk of false negatives (Table 10) (Froud et al., 2022). Therefore, a validation process is required to confirm detection of PA when using these tests. NOTE: At present we haven't quantified the diagnostic sensitivity or specificity of the LAMP test, so can't accurately estimate how many false negatives it will have, but we can guess that it will be less than the morphological test.

The LAMP test performs well and there are no known issues with cross-reactions or misidentification (confusion with other *Phytophthora* species in NZ), however, due to the very high analytical sensitivity of the test to detect the DNA of PA, there is a risk of cross-contamination. This means there is a (low) risk that a positive result may be from a different sample. MPI's PHEL (Plant Health and Environment Laboratory) has worked with test providers to identify cross-contamination risk points during the diagnostic test process (Table 2-2. Points where crosscontamination may occur, procedures for risk mitigation, and recommended retest options ) and approved test providers have implemented measures to minimise this risk. In addition, extra steps can be taken during surveillance and sample collection to address cross-contamination (Table 2-2. Points where cross-contamination may occur, procedures for risk mitigation, and recommended retest options ). A recent review of soil sampling procedures has identified a change that may improve the sensitivity of the morphological test by modifying where soil is collected around the tree (4 x cardinal points and 4 x risk-based points around the tree base). This is now the standard soil sampling procedure.

Table A1. Table showing the result options for the DNA-based LAMP test compared to the true status of the pathogen in the field. The main risk with this test is a False Positive result



Table A2. Table showing the result options for the morphological test compared to the true status of the pathogen in the field. The main risk with this test is a False Negative result.



### **1.6.2 Geographical criteria for validation**

Proximity to previous PA detections (many of which were via the morphological bioassay test) and an estimate of the prevalence of PA in an area that is to be surveyed can inform the effort required for screening test validation. For example, the consequence of a false positive may be very low in an area where PA is widely known and distributed, compared to an area where it is unknown.

Several decisions are required for setting the requirement for screening test validation (Table 11). A decision is required between partners to identify specific survey sites or areas that require screening test validation (see validation process below). In addition, a geographical distance beyond which screening test validation is required needs to be agreed. This may be in the form of a set distance (e.g. 300m) or between spatially based management units (e.g. water catchments or stream sub-catchments). An indication on the conditions for validation is also required, in that, is validation only required for the first instance, for instances or will this be reviewed at a certain point during surveillance (e.g. if more than 3 stream subcatchments have confirmed PA detections, the validation requirement for the survey will be reviewed).





#### **1.6.3 Validation process**

• *Describe the process for validating positive screening test results for* P. agathidicida *with the diagnostics service provider.* \* Completed below.

• *Describe the process for validating questionable, positive or negative screening test results when DNA and morphological tests return different results. \*Completed below.*

It is recommended that the DNA-based LAMP test is used to screen samples and the morphological test is used as part of the process to validate samples. Some surveys may choose to use both tests in parallel.

For the LAMP test three results are possible, positive screening test, questionable screening test and not detected screening test. A questionable screening test is where the test result value lies within the measurement of uncertainty (MU) of a test. The measurement of uncertainty should be incorporated into assessing the results. For example, if the cut off value is Cq 36 and MU is 0.5, test results with Cq values between 35.5 and 36.5 should be interpreted as questionable and need to be further determined (e.g. run a gel to confirm product size is expected) if this is consistent with the expected size, the result can be validated in the same way as a positive screening test for LAMP.

Note: MU = Square root of  $\int (Average of standard deviation of reproducibility)^2 +$ (Average of standard deviation of repeatability)<sup>2</sup> ].

On the receipt of a positive or questionable screening result in an area where validation is required the following actions are required:

• Request the diagnostic service provider checks sample reception records to ascertain if samples from other areas were being processed at the same time and request processing dates and diagnostic results for those records (anonymous) and check records to rule out any potential mix up of samples, e.g. similar sample submission code.

- Check time to detection for LAMP results to inform questionable results threshold values (i.e., low target concentration in the sample)
- Validation of screening tests can be undertaken using several options (Table 2-2. Points where cross-contamination may occur, procedures for risk mitigation, and recommended retest options ):
	- 1. start with re-testing any remaining or peeled frozen baits (useful to determine if cross-contamination occurred after baiting),
	- 2. then re-test remaining soil (useful if cross-contamination occurred during sample splitting and baiting).
	- 3. If these are inconclusive or the point of cross-contamination is possibly prior to soil splitting, the next step is to collect new samples from the same location and test using morphological testing followed by LAMP testing of peeled baits.
- Collection of new samples:
	- 1. undertake a field investigation of the site to collect standard soil samples (8 point protocol) around the original tree and up to 9 other kauri (to account for poor test sensitivity) within 50-100 m of the test positive site for additional testing.
	- 2. the field investigation team should include team members from the partner organisations that are very experienced in PA field sampling.
	- 3. Store any unused soil until the investigation is completed. If no further positive results are found, this may be used to confirm that the soil does Whakapapa to the exact site of collection (using forensic tools such as e-DNA for vegetation, soil chemistry and type, isotope analysis).
- If suspected PA is confirmed detected in a new region or special area:
	- 1. Send the isolate to MPI Plant Health and Environment Laboratory for confirmation. Confirmation technique involves morphological examination and multi-locus sequence typing. The latter includes sequencing at least two of the taxonomic informative genes (e.g. COX-1, COX-2, HSP90, ND1) from the newly detected isolate and compare with reference sequences from taxonomic ex-holotype isolate (ICMP 17027) to confirm species identification.
	- 2. Send the isolate to the International Collection of Microorganisms from Plants (ICMP) for long term preservation and storage.

Table A4. Table of points in the soil sample and DNA-based LAMP test process where cross-contamination may occur, procedures for risk mitigation and recommended retest options. Where the options are LAMP (retesting using LAMP for remaining frozen LAMP baits and frozen peeled baits from morphological testing) and Morph + LAMP (morphological tests undertaken in series with LAMP test by peeling baits from the morphological test substrate and sending frozen baits for LAMP testing).





If both the morphological test and the LAMP test are undertaken in parallel, there are several pairs of results that can arise with differing validation requirements depending on the geographical criteria set for validation (Table 13).

Table A5. Diagnostic scenarios for validation of screening test results when both LAMP and Morphological bioassays are used, stratified by known PA-site informed geographic criteria.



# **Action Plan for a Confirmed Detection**

Prompts:

Describe the type of urgent actions that may be undertaken and their objectives (e.g. track closures, site investigation to understand introduction pathways (incorporated in the additional sample collection) including tracing of planted kauri, adjustment of forest management plans (weed/pest control operations, planned maintenance), treatment etc.)

Prepare a range of options for ongoing management of the area based on possible detection scenarios. Include a list of all current management tools and when they may apply or be extended if already in place.

Prepare key messages and comms material for public awareness for all possible detection scenarios.

Discuss the timeframes that urgent measures will apply to, compared to ongoing management.

Identify general principles to apply, regardless of location

Describe the process (e.g. phone calls, email, urgent online hui) and timeframes for the lead agency to agree with partners (and key stakeholders if required) to implement the action plan. Describe the approval process.

Detail who has the authority to approve funding and resources to implement the actions.

Consider and socialise with partners and community that the survey will continue as planned (with some additional risk mitigation around order of collection from low to high risk). You want to avoid disruption and knee-jerk reactions of "everything has to stop" as the survey information will inform what you are actually dealing with (i.e. 1 tree, 1 sub-catchment vs >1 tree, >1 sub-catchment, multi foci). That additional information (from the random samples) is essential to plan management of the forest.

## **1.6.4 Contaminated soil management**

Confirmed detection notification follows similar process to positive screening test notification with additional reach above working group members.

Expect to hold urgent **confirmed detection meeting** within 1-3 working days as above.

Comms process examples and prompts:

- Operations group partners set key messages
- These are drafted into a media release(s) by partners (can be multiple, but must be coordinated to go at the same time with consistent key messages)
- Other partners are provided with draft to check (this is important and must include the specific names of participating mana whenua, not some generic term)
- Also check media release prompt materials (e.g. Facebook notifications) and links to story.
- Assign spokespersons from partners to provide their world view context around the key messages.
- Decide in advance whether the survey will continue in the background while an investigation or validation process is undertaken.
- Soil repatriation can be batched and stored until the final results are available prior to repatriation.
- Basal trunk or root lesion samples were acceptable to determine infection of PA during validation.

#### **1.6.5 If confirmed on Auckland Council-managed Parkland**

Example process of notification

- 1. Survey Ops Group to be informed of confirmed positive result
- 2. Project Manager to inform the following parties via an internal e-mail (i.e. Head of Natural Environment Delivery, Environmental Services Group Manager, Southern Regional Parks Principal Ranger, Regional Parks Manager etc).
- 3. Ops Group members to inform specific people in their respective organisations (as detailed below)
- 4. Activation of communications plan with AC Parkland scenario pathway
	- Inform Elected Members
	- Inform partners (WRC, MPI) and ngā mana whenua without representation outside Ops Group with suggested wording
	- Media release; social media? (think through scenarios in terms of timeframes. Continuation of survey)
	- Etc.

Review survey workplan to make sure risk is mitigated (i.e. do not go from high-risk sites to low-risk sites)

Short-term measures (to address immediate risk (typically: movement control, delimiting surveillance, tracing, organism management). Detail to be developed at short-term measures meeting prior to confirmation of detection.

Consider movement control for risk area (urgent track closures).

Develop delimitation plan for the risk site to determine extent of the 'outbreak', also consider prioritising collection and processing of soil samples for this area that are part of the survey area to gain additional information.



#### **1.6.6 If found on Department of Conservation PCL**

Example process of notification

- 1. Activation of communications plan with DOC scenario pathway
- 2. A phone call to the Auckland Operations Manager
- 3. An e-mail to the following parties (complete with project DOC contacts if relevant).
- 4. An email sent to partners (ngā mana whenua) this may be for DOC to progress
- 5. Support DOC with media release

#### **1.6.7 If found on private land**

Example process of notification

- 1. Activation of communications plan with private land scenario pathway
- 2. An internal e-mail to the following parties (e.g. Plant Pathogens Manager, Head of Natural Environment Delivery, Environmental Services Group Manager, Southern Regional Parks Senior Conservation Ranger, Southern Regional Parks Principal Ranger, Regional Parks Manager etc).
- 3. An email sent to partners (ngā mana whenua, DOC, WRC) with suggested wording.
- 4. A letter to the property landowners.
- 5. Provision of kauri dieback management plan.
- 6. Media release; think through scenarios in terms of timeframes and continuation of survey. Note: it is important to bear in mind the Privacy Act when publicly discussing results from private property testing. Do not release the address or any identifying information.

# Communications Plan

Prompts:

Describe communication plan for a confirmed PA detection following validation of a positive screening test result.

*Detail how and at what point a confirmed detection of P. agathidicida will be communicated to the wider community. Consider key messages for a draft comms plan.*

*Assign media spokespersons for the survey period, and agree how consistent information and messaging will be maintained, while allowing differences in worldview across Partners spokespersons.* 

*Consider preparing key messages should information be made public prior to the planned communication (e.g. prior to a confirmed detection).*

# Welfare

# Prompts:

Be mentally and physically prepared that we might find it. How do we prepare for this?

- Consider how to provide support for mana whenua as there may be feelings related to kaitiakitanga where they have lost physical ownership and ability to manage risk through land seizures etc.
- For forest managers, it may be upsetting due to all the efforts put in over the years to keep the forest kauri dieback free.
- For private landowners: Think of the potential consequences of detection on private land or land contiguous to private land and the human tendency to feel blame. How will you support landowner welfare? e.g. Rural Trust support, prepared key messages on pathways etc.
- Socialisation/pre-warning?
- For the public and wider region.

# <span id="page-167-0"></span>References

# Glossary of Key Terms

*Note: additional definitions can be added as required.*







Te Rangahau Aroturuki i ngā Rākau Rangatira o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui

# Endorsement

### Authors

Name and position: Signature:

Date:

Name and position: Signature:

Date:

Reviewers

Name and position: Signature:

Date:

# Approval

Name and position: Signature:

Date:

## Programme leads

Name and position: Signature:

Date:

# Appendix 1: Positive screening test draft email





# **Appendix B. Monitoring form guidelines**

Te Ngāherehere O Kohukohunui / Hūnua Ranges 2023 Kauri Population Health Monitoring Survey

**Survey Manual for Field Staff**



# **Background**

This survey aims to assess approximately 500 random and 200 risk-based kauri which have been selected for monitoring across Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui / the Hūnua Ranges. The random kauri are being assessed as part of a cross-sectional epidemiological study, i.e. we have randomly selected trees to understand health in the population, and better understand the risk factors associated with disease. This will help us adapt our management interventions accordingly in the future. Monitoring the same trees over time will also help us understand changes in tree health over time.

The Hūnua Ranges are highly significant in that we have not detected *Phytophthora agathidicida* (causal agent of kauri dieback disease) to date. It is the largest tract of forest in the Auckland Region that still maintains this status. By going into these special places, we do pose a phytosanitary risk to these kauri, and so you must take all care that your gear and equipment which have been acquired and issued to you specifically for the Hūnua Kauri Survey do not get used in any other context or purpose.

The primary aim of the survey is to detect *P. agathidicida* if it is present in the Hūnua Ranges. As such, we are taking soil samples at all points. You may come across kauri you suspect are exhibiting symptoms of kauri dieback disease, in which case please take an additional soil sample for testing.

The GPS coordinates of these trees will be provided to survey teams, along with physical and digital maps of the points. Teams will conduct the survey using the tablet-based data capture app Survey123, which can be downloaded from Google Play Store or the iOS App Store. Teams also have access to the Field Maps app, which will allow you to display different layers (e.g. topo, baitlines, streams) and may help you navigate to your point in the field.

You will be working in designated zones with the codes as follows. Ensure that you are working only in zones you have been directed to work in for the day. Do not access private property unless permission has been given.

There will also be a small pilot study centered around stream baiting and cultural health monitoring which will be detailed in a separate document.

## **Kauri hygiene**

Kauri dieback is a soil-borne disease that can spread through movement of contaminated soil or water. Hygiene protocols must be followed to limit the humanassisted spread of Kauri dieback. The Standard Operating Procedures for Kauri

Dieback must be followed at all times. A personal phytosanitary kit (including a spray bottle of Sterigene and a brush) must be carried at all times during the survey.

You will be operating under the Hūnua Ranges Controlled Area Notice for Kauri Dieback. Ensure that you are adhering to the highest hygiene standards at all times.

You will be issued with new gear and equipment that must only be used in the Hūnua Ranges for the duration of this project.

Plan your day and work operations to carry out low risk work first then to higher risk work. For example, you should aim to work in dry areas before wet or muddy areas.

Footwear and equipment must be cleaned:

- At the start and end of each day. Arrive on site with soil-free vehicles, gear and footwear.
- At all fixed phytosanitary stations along the track network.
- Every time the surveyor exits or enters the track network.
- Before entering and after exiting a kauri hygiene area (kauri stands).
- Before entering and after exiting a zone.

Cleaning of footwear and equipment is carried out by removal of all soil and debris using the brush and then applying Sterigene.

Before leaving the forested area, remove all loose dirt. Then when back at your depot, wash your gear and equipment on a hard surface away from areas of bush, and make sure wastewater drains away from other vehicles and equipment. Make sure there is no visible soil left and spray with Sterigene.

## **Hygiene within and between samples:**

- Boots should be cleaned between all pre-selected sampling points to remove all mud and organic material, and sprayed with 2% Sterigene.
- Clothing that gets muddy should not be worn between pre-selected sites. Clothing can be cleaned in 50 ml concentrated Sterigene per wash without adding additional detergents.
- Knees and other parts of the body that can get muddy while taking samples need to be cleaned between pre-selected sites.
- Sterigene should be carried during all site investigations and tree selection. Sterigene should be applied to boots at the place where symptomology or vegetation types indicate you are moving from potentially contaminated sites to

those that are potentially not contaminated at each site and definitely before reentering a public track or route.

- The water used for washing equipment should be from a treated water source instead of from a natural stream. No soil or equipment should be washed in or into water courses.
- Equipment used to dig hole should be cleaned of visible soil, sprayed with methylated spirits and be dry before using it to sample additional sites.
- All contaminated paper towels and other materials used on site should be bagged and disposed of in a sanitary manner
- Any chilly bins and cleaning equipment used should be maintained clean and clear of soil

### **Other points to note**

- 1. If a member of the public approaches you and asks what you are doing, please say that you are working on an Environmental Services project for Auckland Council. Feel free to provide them with the [kauri@aucklandcouncil.govt.nz](mailto:kauri@aucklandcouncil.govt.nz) email address or the Council hotline 09 301 0101. We will look to provide you with a letter with these details on them.
- 2. The Regional Park duty supervisor pager number for emergencies is 086 899 344. The sense check before dialing this out of hours should always be "can it wait until morning?" but if you need any immediate assistance from our staff or need to involve emergency services then please make the call (after dialling 111).

#### **Gear Check**

Make sure you have all these items before you head into the bush.



Te Rangahau Aroturuki i ngā Rākau Rangatira o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui

Proper clothing and waterproofs Leaf litter rod probes

Compass DBH tape



# **Kauri Health Survey and Sampling Protocol**

Approximately 500 individual kauri will be randomly selected for monitoring across the entire Hūnua Ranges forested area. Another approximately 200 individual kauri will be selected using a risk-based approach in the same area. These coordinates will be provided to survey teams, along with maps and access points from tracks.

All monitoring must abide by tikanga put in place by ngā mana whenua o Te Ngāherehere o Kohukohunui / Hūnua Ranges.

# **If you come across a large dead tree, please take a photo and GPS it.**

Once at the pre-determined kauri point, tag the tree using a robust aluminium tree tag with a unique identifier and conduct the kauri health survey via the supplied Survey123 monitoring form.

All variables must be collected in full regardless of disease status.

Collect a soil sample at all trees.

If the selected tree is not a kauri, note this on the monitoring form. Do not take a soil sample. Move to the closest kauri tree (regardless of its health status), which will be the re-assigned tree. Tag that tree instead and conduct the kauri health survey.

If the selected tree is a dead kauri, note this on the monitoring form and also take a soil sample. There will not be a tree tag ID attached to this tree. Move to the closest kauri tree (regardless of its health status), which will be the re-assigned tree. Tag that tree instead and conduct the kauri health survey.

The current sample size for soil sampling is 700 + a contingency of approx. 50 extra samples to account for preselected sites that are associated with dead trees or other reasons that may result in inability to survey or sample the tree.

All the samples should be placed in plastic zip lock bags which is then labelled with the kauri point, tree tag ID and soil sample ID number (generated by the app) e.g.

# **AHS123K 6241 20230604 130245**

Where AHS refers to Auckland Council Hūnua Ranges Regional Park South; K flagging that this was a Risk-based soil sample (rather than M for Random); 6241 to the tree tag ID and 20230604 130245 to the soil sample ID.

If sampling a dead tree, replace the tree tag ID with the letters 'dd'. The text on the bag should now look like this:

# **AHS123K dd 20230604 130245**

After each sample has been collected the trowel must be cleaned. This involves the thorough removal of all soil and debris then applying methylated spirits. Allow the trowel a few seconds to dry before placing back in its bag.

As these samples will also undergo DNA-based analysis, there are additional protocols you must abide by, which you will be briefed about. These are essential to reduce the risk of cross-contamination.

Clean the survey equipment (e.g. leaf litter probe, DBH tape) used.

Survey and soil sampling equipment must also be cleaned at the start and end of each day as per the hygiene protocol.

## Notes:

Examine the overall topography and the tree canopy symptomology. If the site is flat and the trees exceed ricker-size, and there are live kauri stands or groups, then root

material may well be widely and uniformly distributed. If it is potentially wet or waterlogged then root material may be on the upper mounds. You are aiming to sample where there is root material if at all possible. At the most likely site gently remove the upper unbound leaf litter from the site until roots are seen. Examine the roots to see if they are kauri and have the characteristic nodules. If they are kauri then examine them to see if they are alive or dead. Live roots may have white 1mm long growing tips, and the outer root will not separate from the inner root if pulled. Dead roots will separate. If sampling in old growth kauri forest the top of the leaf litter may well be over 20 cm above the soil. It is wise to have a probe to establish how far down you need to go to get soil. Take some dead roots from the upper surface, and then gently expose the area down to soil. Take organic material from 5 cm above soil level and soil from the upper region.

If the trees are rickers, you may have kauri feeder roots on the surface or you may have to dig and look at the material in the hole.

The survey requires notes and photographs of the trunk and the canopy. Not all symptomatic trees develop lesions, and not all lesions are caused by PA. Photos of lesions without a shot of the canopy can make assessment of a not-detected result and further sampling more difficult and will lead to increased costs.

The leaf colour of kauri and their natural leaf loss (actually they shed small bunches of leaves) change naturally with the dryness of the environment, so it is important that you take notes on anything that you see that you cannot adequately represent in the data collected or the photographs.

Variability in distribution of kauri, of symptomatic kauri, in the terrain and in the thickness of the understory means that surveyors will need to be flexible and to make some instant decisions about the suitability of sampling points.

Sampling generally targets live trees (with root material) and very newly dead trees (with bark showing the remains of PA type lesions).

# **Accidental Discovery Protocol**

Please abide by the following rules as specified in the Auckland Unitary Plan:

[http://unitaryplan.aucklandcouncil.govt.nz/Images/Auckland%20Unitary%20Plan%20](http://unitaryplan.aucklandcouncil.govt.nz/Images/Auckland%20Unitary%20Plan%20Operative/Chapter%20E%20Auckland-wide/1.%20Natural%20Resources/E11%20Land%20disturbance%20-%20Regional.pdf) [Operative/Chapter%20E%20Auckland-](http://unitaryplan.aucklandcouncil.govt.nz/Images/Auckland%20Unitary%20Plan%20Operative/Chapter%20E%20Auckland-wide/1.%20Natural%20Resources/E11%20Land%20disturbance%20-%20Regional.pdf)

[wide/1.%20Natural%20Resources/E11%20Land%20disturbance%20-%20Regional.pdf](http://unitaryplan.aucklandcouncil.govt.nz/Images/Auckland%20Unitary%20Plan%20Operative/Chapter%20E%20Auckland-wide/1.%20Natural%20Resources/E11%20Land%20disturbance%20-%20Regional.pdf)
E11.6.1. Accidental discovery rule

- (1) Despite any other rule in this Plan permitting earthworks or land disturbance or any activity associated with earthworks or land disturbance, in the event of discovery of sensitive material which is not expressly provided for by any resource consent or other statutory authority, the standards and procedures set out in this rule must apply.
- (2) For the purpose of this rule, 'sensitive material' means:
	- a. human remains and kōiwi;
	- b. an archaeological site;
	- c. a Māori cultural artefact/taonga tuturu;
	- d. a protected New Zealand object as defined in the Protected Objects Act 1975 (including any fossil or sub-fossil);

e. evidence of contaminated land (such as discolouration, vapours, asbestos, separate phase hydrocarbons, landfill material or significant odour); or

f. a lava cave greater than 1m in diameter on any axis.

(3) On discovery of any sensitive material, the owner of the site or the consent holder must take the following steps:

#### **Cease works and secure the area**

- a. immediately cease all works within 20m of any part of the discovery, including shutting down all earth disturbing machinery and stopping all earth moving activities, and in the case of evidence of contaminated land apply controls to minimise discharge of contaminants into the environment;
- b. secure the area of the discovery, including a sufficient buffer area to ensure that all sensitive material remains undisturbed;

#### **Inform relevant authorities and parties**

c. inform the following parties immediately of the discovery:

- i. the New Zealand Police if the discovery is of human remains or kōiwi;
- ii. the Council in all cases;
- iii. Heritage New Zealand Pouhere Taonga if the discovery is an archaeological site, Māori cultural artefact, human remains or kōiwi; and
- iv. Mana Whenua if the discovery is an archaeological site, Māori cultural artefact, or kōiwi.

#### **Wait for and enable inspection of the site**

- d. wait for and enable the site to be inspected by the relevant authority or agency:
	- i. if the discovery is human remains or kōiwi the New Zealand Police are required to investigate the human remains to determine whether they are those of a missing person or are a crime scene. The remainder of this process will not apply until the New Zealand Police confirm that they have no further interest in the discovery; or
	- ii. if the discovery is of sensitive material, other than evidence of contaminants, a site inspection for the purpose of initial assessment and response will be arranged by the Council in consultation with Heritage New Zealand Pouhere Taonga and appropriate Mana Whenua representatives; or
- iii. if the discovery is evidence of contaminants, a suitably qualified and experienced person is required to complete an initial assessment and provide information to the Council on the assessment and response.
- e. following site inspection and consultation with all relevant parties (including the owner and consent holder), the Council will determine the area within which work must cease, and any changes to controls on discharges of contaminants, until the requirements of step E11.6.1(3)(f) are met;

#### **Recommencement of work**

- f. work within the area determined by the Council at step E11.6.1(3)(e) must not recommence until all of the following requirements, so far as relevant to the discovery, have been met:
	- i. Heritage New Zealand has confirmed that an archaeological authority has been approved for the work or that none is required;
	- ii. any required notification under the Protected Objects Act 1975 has been made to the Ministry for Culture and Heritage;
	- iii. the requirements of Section E30 Contaminated land and/or the National Environmental Standards for Assessing and Managing Contaminants in Soil to Protect Human Health 2011 have been met;
	- iv. any material of scientific or educational importance has been recorded and if appropriate recovered and preserved;
	- v. if the discovery is a lava cave as outlined in E11.6.1(2)(f) above and if the site is assessed to be regionally significant, reasonable measures have been taken to minimise adverse effects of the works on the scientific values of the site; an
	- vi. where the site is of Māori origin and an authority from Heritage New Zealand Pouhere Taonga is not required the Council will confirm, in consultation with Mana Whenua, that
		- any kōiwi have either been retained where discovered or removed in accordance with the appropriate tikanga; and
		- any agreed revisions to the planned works to be/have been made in order to address adverse effects on Māori cultural values
- vii. resource consent has been granted for any alteration or amendment to the earthworks or land disturbance that may be necessary to avoid the sensitive materials and that is not otherwise permitted under the Plan or allowed by any existing resource consent; and
- viii. that there are no requirements in the case of archaeological sites that are not of Māori origin and are not covered by the Heritage New Zealand Pouhere Taonga Act 2014.

#### **Setting up the Monitoring Form in Survey123**

1. To download the form, first you will have to log in to the right portal. When you open the app, you should see this screen. Tap on 'Manage ArcGIS connections'.





- 7. Within Survey123, sign in to Ruru ArcGIS Enterprise with the provided username and password. This screen should come up. Make sure you tap on 'ArcGIS login' NOT 'Enterprise login'.
- 8. Tap on the circle with your initials at the top right, and then select 'Download Surveys'. Tap on 'Kauri Monitoring Survey Hūnua 2023' to download it.
- 9. You will now have the survey saved to your device. Tap on it, and then tap 'Inbox' and 'Refresh'. You will now see a list of the points of interest stored in there, or a map.







# **Using the Monitoring Form**







**Canopy colour:** Walk fully around tree to observe the monitored tree canopy for assessment. Select the corresponding canopy colour range based on the whole canopy.

**Base bleed present:** Note not all basal lesions are related to pathogen presence (could be mechanical damage or not suspicious). If you are unsure, state Unsure and take an image.

**Base bleed activity:** Active bleeds are very sticky, and inactive bleeds are hard and cannot be dented.







whole site has stock excluded by fencing, if you are in a large forest and do not know what the boundaries are like, answer NA

# **Ecology info**

**Forest floor layer left/right (cm):** Select a

point that is halfway between trunk and dripline, closest to across the slope on left/right side of the tree based on tree tag direction (i.e. when standing on the uphill side). Measure with a metal rod to the mineral soil including the litter layer in cm, avoiding lateral roots and other trees.

#### **Forest floor measure to tree distance**

**left/right (m):** Measure the distance in m from the monitored tree to the point where the forest floor measurement was taken.

#### **Forest floor measure orientation left/right**

**(degrees):** Record the orientation (in degrees) from the monitored tree TREE TAG ID to the point where the forest floor measurement was taken. It should be 90 for the left measure and 270 for the right measure.

#### **Distance to nearest neighbouring tree (m):**

Measure the distance to the closest tree (of any species including kauri, excluding tree ferns and nikau palms) with a minimum DBH of 10 cm (if any are present within 10m). This indicates if there is a subordinate or dominant tree in the space.

**Circumference of closest neighbouring tree (cm):** Measure the circumference of the

#### $\triangledown$  Ecology Variables

#### Forest Floor Layer Left (cm) \*

Points at standard distance halfway between trunk and dripline. Select the point that is closest to across the slope on left side of the tree based on tree tag direction (i.e. when standing on the uphill side). Measure with a metal rod to the mineral soil including the litter layer in cm, avoiding lateral roots and other trees.

#### Forest Floor Measure to Tree Distance Left $(m)$

Points at standard distance halfway between trunk and dripline. Measure the distance in metres from the monitored tree to the point where the forest floor measurement was taken

#### **Forest Floor Measure Orientation Left**

Points at standard distance halfway between trunk and dripline. Record the orientation (in degrees) from the monitored tree TREE TAG ID to the point where the forest floor measurement was taken.

#### Distance to nearest neighbouring tree  $(m)$  \*

Measure the distance to the closest tree (of any species including kauri, excluding tree ferns and nikau palms) with a minimum DBH of 10 cm (if any are present within 10m).

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Circumference of closest neighbour\*

Breast height. In cm.

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Yes

Was the closest neighbouring tree a kauri tree? \*

 $\bullet$  No

Closest neighbour species name \*

#### Distance to nearest kauri tree (m) \* Measure the distance to the closest live kauri tree, with a minimum DBH of 10 cm (if any are present within 10m).

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#### **Data and Sample Management Protocol**

Soil sample handling:

- 1. The soil samples must be stored in a cool (10-25°C), dark place until dispatch. The samples are to be double-bagged (i.e. two big bags with 20-40 samples in) and couriered in boxes via overnight post. They should only be sent on Mon, Tues, and Wed to avoid prolonged time in courier vans or facilities. Batches of samples should ideally be between 20-40 bags at a time for ease of processing at the lab.
- 2. Ensure the kauri point, tree tag ID and soil sample ID are marked clearly on the outside of each ziplock bag for the lab to read, with the same label on waterproof paper inside the bag. Each box must have the list of these codes enclosed, and an accompanying excel spreadsheet sent to Auckland Council on the day of couriering.
- 3. Please send the boxes to:

Dr Ian Horner Plant & Food Research Hawkes Bay Cnr Crosses and St Georges Roads Havelock North, 4130 New Zealand

There will be separate instructions specifically for the LAMP assay analysis.

#### **Data download and storage:**

- 1. There is a risk of damage and loss of the electronic devices being used. Therefore a data download is required at the end of each day.
- 2. A download of the Waypoint and Track GPX files must be carried out every week, and shared with Auckland Council at regular intervals (e.g. every fortnight).
- 3. All data recorded via the kauri health survey form on the tablets are to be submitted as soon as possible, i.e. after each form has been filled in, but at least by the end of each day.
- 4. Any data saved on external hard drives should always be stored safe and secure and in a separate location to the other devices.

#### **Using the GPS**

#### **START OF DAY**

At the start of the day turn the GPS on at the top of the device. It takes a few minutes for the device to acquire satellites.

#### **TRACK LOG**

Once the device has acquired satellites, at the start of the day, turn on the track log:

- 1. Press the 'MENU' button twice to go to the main menu.
- 2. Use the arrow key pad to move over to the 'Setup' box and press the 'ENTER' button.
- 3. Use the arrow key pad to move over to the 'Tracks' box and press the 'ENTER' button.
- 4. Use the arrow key pad to move over to the 'Track Log' box and press the 'ENTER' button.
- 5. Use the arrow key pad to move over to the 'Record, Show on Map' and press the 'ENTER' button.
- 6. The 'Track Log' box should change to reflect this.
- 7. Press the 'QUIT' button twice to go to the main menu.

At the end of the day when out of the field and back at vehicle, save the track log for the day:

- 1. Press the 'MENU' button twice to go to the main menu.
- 2. Use the arrow key pad to move over to the 'Track Manager' box and press the 'ENTER' button.
- 3. Use the arrow key pad to move over to the 'Save Track' box and press the 'ENTER' button.
- 4. The track will be assigned a name related to the date which is sufficient for identification later.
- 5. Use the arrow key pad to move over to the 'Done' box and press the 'ENTER' button.
- 6. You will be asked if you would like to clear current track data. Use the arrow key pad to move over to the 'Yes' box and press the 'ENTER' button.

7. Press the 'QUIT' button to leave the Track menu page.

The track log should now be turned off for the day:

- 1. Press the 'MENU' button twice to go to the main menu.
- 2. Use the arrow key pad to move over to the 'Setup' box and press the 'ENTER' button.
- 3. Use the arrow key pad to move over to the 'Tracks' box and press the 'ENTER' button.
- 4. Use the arrow key pad to move over to the 'Track Log' box and press the 'ENTER' button.
- 5. Use the arrow key pad to move over to the 'Do Not Record' and press the 'ENTER' button.
- 6. The 'Track Log' box should change to reflect this.
- 7. Press the 'QUIT' button twice to go to the main menu.

#### **LOCATING THE POINT OF INTEREST**

The locations of the points of interest will already be stored on the GPS. To help locate the area:

- 1. Press the 'FIND' button.
- 2. Use the arrow key pad to move over to the 'Waypoint' box and press the 'ENTER' button.

3a. If the site is shown on the list use the arrow key pad to move onto the site and press the 'ENTER'

button. The screen should then change to show the point on a map. Press the 'ENTER' button again and the navigation assistant should begin

3b. If the site is not listed on the waypoint screen then press the 'MENU' button, move on to the 'spell

search' box and press the 'ENTER' button. Use the arrow key pad and the 'ENTER' button to type in SITE and move to the 'done' box and press 'ENTER'. This should bring up all on the areas of interest. Then just follow point 3a above.

4. To turn navigation off, press the 'FIND' button, use the arrow key pad to move to 'Stop Navigation' and press the 'ENTER' button.

#### **RECORDING A LOCATION**

When ready to enter a Kauri location:

- 1. Hold the GPS close to the tree and press the 'MARK' button.
- 2. Edit the waypoint ID. E.g. for the POI ID AHS123K, enter 'AHS123K'. This will help us track the waypoints in case any data goes missing.
- 3. Once you have recorded the Eastings and Northings on the survey form, use the arrow key pad to move down to the 'Done' box on the bottom right of the screen and press the 'ENTER' button.

#### **Standard points of circumference measurement**

**Use 1.35m, not 1.4m.**





#### **Canopy health scoring**

Canopy scores

- 1 = Healthy crown no visible signs of dieback
- 2 = Foliage/canopy thinning
- 3 = Some branch dieback
- 4 = Severe dieback
- $5 = Dead$



# **Appendix C. Recommended updates to the monitoring form**

There were two variables that required data cleaning, which could be avoided in the future by minor updates to the monitoring form.

### **Tree circumference\* (Breast height. In cm.)**

There were some values which were entered with one decimal place. In this survey, none of them appeared to be incorrect data, but it is unnecessary to include a decimal point where the measurement is in cm.

**Recommendation:** Minor change to remove the decimal point from the number pad if feasible.

# **Distance to nearest neighbouring tree (m)\* (measure the distance to the closest tree of any species including kauri, excluding tree ferns and nikau palms) with a minimum DBH of 10cm (if any are present within 1 m).**

The use of m to measure this variable seems to be an issue with data entry. There were 10 observations that were outliers, exceeding the 'within 10m from the tree' instruction, ranging from 13m (which could be correct) to 145m which is clearly an error. The canopy photos from the field can be used to infer if these values are incorrect. By looking at the canopy photo for the PPU734M observation, it is clear that the neighbouring tanekaha tree is much closer than 65m and is within one metre, so was cleaned to 0.65 m (Figure A-0-1). The same process was conducted for the other 10 outliers. For one observation – DSV593M – it was difficult to determine where the decimal place should be, with a value of 97m; was it measured in cm and should 0.97m or is the decimal in the wrong place making it 9.7m? On inspection of the canopy photo, this remained uncertain, but it was a large tree so 9.7m seemed more likely. To assess this, we reviewed other canopy photos that were close to 1m and close to 9m. The image was a much closer match to a similar sized tree which was 9m from its nearest neighbour and 9.7m was selected (Figure A-0-2).

**Recommendation:** Apply data value restrictions to the monitoring form with a warning for values entered greater than 10m and rejection of values greater than 15m. In addition, reinforce with surveyors during training that this measurement is in metres.



Figure A1: Canopy photo of observation POIs: PPU734M; DSM645M and DSM661M, all ricker sized trees, showing the proximity of the nearest neighbouring tree was 0.65m rather than 65m; 0.13m rather than 13m and 1.45m rather than 145m.



Figure A2. Canopy photo of observation POIs: DSV593M and AHE307M showing the similarity between the two large trees and a 9-10m distance to their nearest neighbours..

# **Appendix D. Risk-based monitoring points selection details**

# **Descriptive summary of risk factors**

The tree-based data and risk attributes are summarised below.



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#### **Elevation**

Justification: Waitākere survey indicated less risk as elevation increases.



Details of the highest risk trees according to Elevation, randomly ordered where the risk value is equal



#### **Mean distance to nearest 10 kauri**

Justification: Transmission between trees is highest when trees are close together.



Details of the highest risk trees according to KauriDist, randomly ordered where the risk value is equal



#### **Distance to nearest coastline**

Justification: Waitākere survey indicated less risk as distance from the coast increases.



**Details of the highest risk trees according to CoastDist, randomly ordered where the risk value is equal**



#### **Distance to current edge of native forest**

Justification: Proximity to the forest edge may increase disturbance and risk of P. agathidicida colonisation.


Details of the highest risk trees according to EdgeDist, randomly ordered where the risk value is equal.



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### **Historic landcover**

Justification: Indicates historical disturbance.



Details of the highest risk trees according to Cover1942, randomly ordered where the risk value is equa**l.**



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#### **Moisture**

Justification: P. agathidicida dispersal may be facilitated by ground and surface water flow.



Details of the highest risk trees according to Moisture , randomly ordered where the risk value is equal



### **Distance to closest ill-thrift record**

Justification: Ill-thrift (suggested by soil samples being taken, or direct observation during AC helicopter survey) may indicate P. agathidicida presence.



Details of the highest risk trees according to IllDist, randomly ordered where the risk value is equal.



#### **Distance to closest basal bleed record**

Justification: Basal bleeds may indicate P. agathidicida infection.





Details of the highest risk trees according to BleedDist, randomly ordered where the risk value is equal

## **Distance to closest track, road or mana whenua route**

Justification: Waitākere survey indicated increased risk of P. agathidicida presence close to roads and tracks.



Details of the highest risk trees according to RouteDist , randomly ordered where the risk value is equal



#### **Distance to closest historical timber site or other disturbance**

Justification: Waitākere survey indicated increased risk of P. agathidicida presence close to known historical disturbance sites.



Details of the highest risk trees according to TimberDist , randomly ordered where the risk value is equal



#### **Distance to current dam structures**

Justification: Waitākere survey indicated increased risk of P. agathidicida presence close to known historical disturbance sites.



Details of the highest risk trees according to DamDist , randomly ordered where the risk value is equal



### **Distance to the edge of the nearest reservoir**

Justification: Waitākere survey indicated increased risk of P. agathidicida presence close to known historical disturbance sites.



Details of the highest risk trees according to ReservoirDist , randomly ordered where the risk value is equal



# **Distance to closest site with vegetation transects**

Justification: Visits to transects could have introduced P. agathidicida to the area.



Details of the highest risk trees according to PlotDist , randomly ordered where the risk value is equal



# **Distance to site with experimental kauri plantings**

Justification: Experimental plantings could have introduced P. agathidicida to the area.



Details of the highest risk trees according to PlantingDist , randomly ordered where the risk value is equal



# **Alternative methods for selecting the highest risk trees for monitoring**

# **Method 1: Selecting the highest risk trees**

This method simply selects the 250 trees with the highest combined risk value from the thinned data set.

# **Highest risk trees**







Together with the random sample, these trees capture 5.4 per cent of the estimated total risk. For comparison, a random sample of that size would be expected to capture 3.4 per cent of the total risk.

# **Method 2: Selecting randomly from high-risk trees**

This method selects 250 trees randomly from the 10 per cent of thinned trees with the highest combined risk scores. One such random selection is shown below.



Random selection from high risk trees



Together with the random samples, these trees capture 4.7 per cent of the estimated total risk. For comparison, a random sample of the same size would be expected to capture 3.4 per cent of the total risk.

# **Appendix E. Detailed results from the monitoring survey**



Table A6. Closest neighbour species from 551 monitored kauri tree sites.



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