



KELLOGG
RURAL LEADERSHIP
PROGRAMME



Evaluating the Potential of Increased Carbon Stocks and Biodiversity Outcomes to Fund Native Vegetation Management on New Zealand Properties

Kellogg Rural Leadership Programme

Course 53 2025

Cameron Walker

I wish to thank the Kellogg Programme Investing Partners for their continued support.



Disclaimer

In submitting this report, the Kellogg Scholar has agreed to the publication of this material in its submitted form.

This report is a product of the learning journey taken by participants during the Kellogg Rural Leadership Programme, with the purpose of incorporating and developing tools and skills around research, critical analysis, network generation, synthesis and applying recommendations to a topic of their choice. The report also provides the background for a presentation made to colleagues and industry on the topic in the final phase of the Programme.

Scholars are encouraged to present their report findings in a style and structure that ensures accessibility and uptake by their target audience.

This publication has been produced by the scholar in good faith on the basis of information available at the date of publication. On occasions, data, information, and sources may be hidden or protected to ensure confidentiality and that individuals and organisations cannot be identified.

Readers are responsible for assessing the relevance and accuracy of the content of this publication & the Programme or the scholar cannot be liable for any costs incurred or arising by reason of any person using or relying solely on the information in this publication.

This report is copyright, but dissemination of this research is encouraged, providing the Programme and author are clearly acknowledged.

Scholar contact details may be obtained through the New Zealand Rural Leadership Trust for media, speaking and research purposes.

Table of Contents

Executive Summary.....	vii
Chapter One: Introduction.....	1
Background.....	1
<i>History of Forest Cover in New Zealand</i>	1
<i>Introduction of Pests</i>	1
<i>New Zealand's International Climate Obligations</i>	3
<i>New Zealand's Biodiversity Commitments</i>	5
<i>Why We Need to Prioritise Native Forest Management</i>	7
Problem Statement.....	9
Chapter Two: Literature Review.....	10
Impacts of Introduced Pests on Native Forest Sustainability.....	10
Carbon Stocks in Native Vegetation.....	13
Impact of Introduced Mammals on Native Forest Carbon Stocks.....	15
Impact of Introduced Mammals on Native Forest Biodiversity.....	18
Restoration Possibility of Native Forests.....	21
Biodiversity Credit Schemes.....	23
<i>Need for a Biodiversity Credit Scheme</i>	23
<i>Principles of a Biodiversity Credit Scheme</i>	25
<i>Existing Biodiversity Credit Schemes</i>	27
Chapter Three: Materials, Methods, and Assumptions.....	30
Quantitative Research.....	30
Case Study Selection.....	31
<i>Locality within Manawatū District</i>	31
<i>Case Study One</i>	33
<i>Case Study Two</i>	33
<i>Case Study Three</i>	34
<i>Case Study Four</i>	34
<i>Case Study Five</i>	35
Case Study Methods.....	35
<i>Data Collection</i>	35
<i>Quantum Geographic Information System</i>	36
<i>QGIS Analysis of Old Growth and Regenerating Native Forest</i>	36
<i>QGIS Analysis of NZLRI LUC</i>	39

<i>Case Study Selection</i>	39
<i>Re-mapping of Case Study Properties</i>	42
Development of Protection Scenarios	42
<i>Carbon Additionality in Regenerating Forests</i>	44
<i>Biodiversity Additionality in Old Growth Forests</i>	47
<i>Fencing Costs</i>	48
<i>Ungulate Control</i>	49
<i>Possum Control</i>	50
Discounted Cash Flow Analysis	52
Chapter Four: Results	55
Property Heterogeneity	55
Quantum of Native Forest Land	57
Distribution of Land Cover	59
Land Cover within Case Study Properties	62
Carbon Additionality Feasibility of Regenerating Forests	64
<i>Fencing Costs</i>	64
<i>Pest Control Costs</i>	66
<i>ETS Registration and FMA Plotting Costs</i>	69
<i>Carbon Stock Additionality</i>	70
<i>Financial Feasibility of Carbon Additionality Scenarios</i>	70
Cost of Biodiversity Additionality of Old Growth Forests	73
Chapter Five: Findings and Discussion	76
Property Heterogeneity	76
Distribution of Land Cover	77
Carbon Additionality Feasibility of Regenerating Forests	79
<i>Fencing Costs</i>	79
<i>Pest Control Costs</i>	80
<i>ETS Registration and FMA Plotting Costs</i>	81
<i>Carbon Stock Additionality</i>	82
<i>Financial Feasibility of Carbon Additionality Scenarios</i>	83
Cost of Biodiversity Additionality of Old Growth Forests	84
<i>Biodiversity Scenario Cost Patterns</i>	85
<i>Annual Cost Variability and Financing Implications</i>	85
Chapter Six: Conclusions	88

Chapter Seven: Recommendations	89
Chapter Eight: Limitations	91
References	93
Appendices	103
Appendix A: Case Study One Discounted Cash Flows	103
Appendix A1: Scenarios Seven, Eight and Nine – Part 1	103
Appendix A2: Scenarios Seven, Eight and Nine – Part 2	104
Appendix B: Case Study Two Discounted Cash Flows	105
Appendix B1: Scenarios One, Two and Three	105
Appendix B3: Scenarios Seven, Eight and Nine	107
Appendix C: Case Study Three Discounted Cash Flows	108
Appendix C1: Scenarios One, Two and Three	108
Appendix C2: Scenarios Four, Five and Six	109
Appendix C3: Scenarios Seven, Eight and Nine	110
Appendix D: Case Study Four Discounted Cash Flows	111
Appendix D1: Scenarios One, Two and Three	111
Appendix D2: Scenarios Four, Five and Six	112
Appendix E: Case Study Five Discounted Cash Flows	114
Appendix E1: Scenarios One, Two and Three	114
Appendix E2: Scenarios Four, Five and Six	115

Table of Tables

Table 1: Grouping of properties by quantum of forest land	40
Table 2: Breakdown of properties by size and percentage of forest cover	40
Table 3: Category combinations that case study properties have been selected from..	41
Table 4: Scenario descriptions	43
Table 5: Baseline and additional carbon stocks	44
Table 6: Cost of registering land within the New Zealand ETS	45
Table 7: Deer fencing costs (materials + labour) on a per metre basis	48
Table 8: Summary of ungulate control programme	50
Table 9: Summary of possum control programme	52
Table 10: Property count and size by designation for study area	55
Table 11: property count and size for refined study area	56
Table 12: Size relationships of properties within refined study area	56

Table 13: Landcover breakdown of the study area by designation.....	57
Table 14: Impact of property boundaries on indigenous forest polygons	58
Table 15: NZLRI LUC breakdown of study area	59
Table 16: Distribution of properties with indigenous forest	60
Table 17: Forest type by property size group	61
Table 18: Quantum of total forest within case studies	63
Table 19: Producer accuracy of the LCDB layer.....	63
Table 20: Fencing costs for carbon additionality scenarios	64
Table 21: Length of fencing required for carbon additionality scenarios	64
Table 22: Fencing costs as a share of total costs for carbon additionality scenarios	66
Table 23: Possum control costs for carbon additionality scenarios	66
Table 24: Ungulate control costs for carbon additionality scenarios	67
Table 25: Total costs for carbon additionality scenarios.....	69
Table 26: Total costs per ha for carbon additionality scenarios.....	69
Table 27: Total carbon additionality modelled.....	70
Table 28: Pre-tax NPV of carbon additionality scenarios	71
Table 29: Pre-tax NPV/ha of carbon additionality scenarios	71
Table 30: Sensitivity analysis of pre-tax NPV of carbon additionality.....	72
Table 31: Sensitivity analysis of pre-tax NPV/ha of carbon additionality	72
Table 32: Sensitivity analysis of total carbon additionality modelled	73
Table 33: Costs of biodiversity additionality scenarios	73
Table 34: Per ha costs of biodiversity additionality scenarios	74
Table 35: Minimum, maximum and mean annual costs per ha of biodiversity additionality scenarios	74
Table 36: Potential for further afforestation	78

Table of Figures

Figure 1: Map showing location of case study area and individual case study properties	32
--	----

Executive Summary

New Zealand has experienced extensive native forest clearance since human settlement, reducing forest cover from 80.0% to 90.0% to approximately 24.0% of total land area. Introduced pest species have compounded this problem, causing significant biodiversity loss and reduced carbon sequestration capacity. While New Zealand has made international commitments to address climate change and biodiversity decline, current policy settings may be insufficient to incentivize native forest management at the scale required.

The central question in this study examined whether monetized benefits from increased carbon sequestration or positive biodiversity outcomes could offset the costs of undertaking pest management and protection of native vegetation on New Zealand properties. The aim was to evaluate the financial feasibility of using carbon credits or biodiversity credits to fund pest control and fencing infrastructure for native forest conservation, providing evidence-based recommendations for policy and landowner decision-making. This study addresses a critical knowledge gap in conservation finance, providing the first comprehensive economic analysis of both carbon and biodiversity market mechanisms for New Zealand native forest management. The findings directly inform policy development for achieving national climate and biodiversity commitments.

The study employed an embedded case study approach examining five properties in the Manawatū District's Apiti and Pohangina localities, representing different proportions of native forest coverage. Nine scenarios were developed: six carbon additionality scenarios for regenerating forests and three biodiversity additionality scenarios for old growth forests. Management approaches included

property boundary fencing, forest block fencing, and unfenced pest control, with comprehensive cost modelling for each scenario.

Carbon scenarios consistently generated negative Net Present Values (-\$5,528 to -\$1,607,407), demonstrating that carbon markets cannot support infrastructure-intensive forest conservation. Fencing costs dominated expenses (57.7% to 98.3% of total costs), while carbon income covered only 0.2% to 19.2% of costs. Even under optimized conditions (20.0% carbon additionality, \$80 per carbon unit pricing), only unfenced scenarios achieved viability. Biodiversity scenarios operated under fundamentally different cost-coverage frameworks, requiring annual credit values of \$88 to \$1,265 per ha but offered more viable pathways for conservation financing.

Policy frameworks should prioritize biodiversity credit scheme development over carbon market reliance for native forest conservation. Government should support landscape-scale collaborative approaches to achieve infrastructure cost efficiencies. Research investment is needed to validate carbon additionality assumptions and develop innovative pest management technologies that reduce infrastructure requirements.

Further research is required to measure actual carbon and biodiversity outcomes from pest management, develop landscape-scale conservation models, and establish robust biodiversity credit market mechanisms with stable long-term demand.

Chapter One: Introduction

Background

History of Forest Cover in New Zealand

Several thousand years ago, prior to human settlement by Polynesians circa 1000 A.D, New Zealand was nearly entirely covered in native forest, equating to 80 – 90% of New Zealand's landcover (Ewers et al., 2006; Mcglone, 1989). Upon human arrival of early Māori settlers, significant areas of lowland forest were burned to broaden food resources, aid in travel, and improve moa hunting (Stevens et al., 1988). Along with clearance by Māori, climate change, volcanic activity, and natural fires also contributed to native forest clearance (Fleet, 1986) to the extent that when settlers arrived from Europe in the 1800s, there was an estimated 68.0% of New Zealand's original native forest remaining (Salmon, 1975). This land clearance continued by European settlers, and today approximately only 24.0% of New Zealand remains in native forest, which equates to only 71.0% of the original area pre human settlement (Ewers et al., 2006). Of the land in New Zealand that remains in native bush at present, 61.5% of this is contained within public conservation land, with a significant amount also found within sheep and beef farms (24.5%), and only small tracts contained within dairy farms (1.4%) and exotic forests (2.8%) (D. Norton & Pannell, 2018).

Introduction of Pests

Whilst also being under threat from clearance of native forest, our indigenous ecosystems have also come under pressures from introduced pests. There are 25 species of mammals introduced to New Zealand that are considered genuinely wild (Fraser et al., 2000), most of which were introduced between 1850 and 1910 (King, 2005).

Deer were originally introduced for both sporting and meat purposes, and with a lack of natural predators, adequate numbers of hunters, a favourable climate, and a large native habitat, deer number soon reached, or surpassed, carrying capacity of their environment (Nugent & Fraser, 1993). Up until the 1930's they had legal protection (Nugent & Fraser, 1993), but now deer are widespread throughout the country. Red deer have established themselves well, now inhabiting an area equivalent to 120,000 km² (Fraser et al., 2000; Rose et al., 1992). Sika deer are the second most widespread of the species found in New Zealand, covering 8,000 km², while most fallow deer are contained within the Whanganui and Otago herds (Fraser et al., 2000). There are several more deer species within New Zealand, but these are not widespread and are typically constrained to only a few Department of Conservation conservancies (Fraser et al., 2000). The South Island has traditionally held lower populations of deer (2 – 5 deer/km²) compared to the North Island (5 – 15 deer/km²) (Nugent, 1992). Research initially conducted by King (1990) aimed to estimate introduced mammal populations in New Zealand, and then a further study by Fraser et al. (2000) conducted similar work. A comparison between these two studies shows that pest populations are increasing, with new populations occurring as a result of farm escapes, illegal liberation, and natural dispersal (Fraser et al., 2000).

Possums have also established well in New Zealand, and alongside deer, are now considered one of the two most common forest-dwelling herbivores that have been introduced to New Zealand (Nugent et al., 1997). Deer have altered the vegetation species composition of New Zealand indigenous forests towards a more-browse tolerant vegetation mix through the targeted browsing and removal of fast-growing, light-demanding species (Nugent et al., 2001). Meanwhile, possums are widely recognised

as the main contributor to defoliation and dieback of broadleaved forests in New Zealand (Rose et al., 1992).

Other significant pests include feral pigs, which inhabit over 93,000 km² of New Zealand, and goats, which inhabit over 39,000 km² (Fraser et al., 2000).

New Zealand's International Climate Obligations

To address the issue of a changing climate, the New Zealand government signed the Kyoto Protocol (Trotter et al., 2005), which is an international agreement that has set emissions reduction targets and limitations for Annex 1 countries (Ford-Robertson et al., 1999; M. U. F. Kirschbaum et al., 2012). The government also signed the Paris Agreement, which has the goal of limiting the increase in global temperature to between 1.5 to 2 °C above pre-industrial levels (Ministry for the Environment, 2023) by committing countries to their own national greenhouse gas reduction plans. These plans set out countries' strategies for addressing climate change, with reductions in greenhouse gas emissions being central to the strategies (Fernandez & Daigneault, 2016; Rogelj et al., 2016). To meet the goals of international agreements, an emissions trading scheme (ETS) was established by the New Zealand Government and encompassed all those greenhouse gases identified within the Kyoto Protocol (Manley & Maclaren, 2012). To further address the issue of climate change, the current government has enacted The Climate Change Response (Zero Carbon) Amendment Bill, which stipulates how New Zealand will transition to a low-emissions economy (MFE, 2019). The Amendment Bill sets out several key targets for achieving the transition. Firstly, the reduction of all greenhouse gases, with the exception of biological methane, to net zero by 2050, and secondly, the reduction of biological methane to between 24 to

47% of 2017 levels by the year 2050, which includes an intermediary target reduction to 10% below 2017 levels (Ministry for the Environment, 2023).

Leining and Kerr (2018) state that the ETS was designed as an instrument that can be used to send price signals to consumers, producers, and investors to facilitate the reduction in greenhouse gas emissions. Emitters of greenhouse gases are liable to surrender emissions units for each tonne of emissions they emit. The theory is that producers who must purchase and surrender emissions units will pass the cost onto consumers, making high-emissions goods more expensive relative to low-emissions goods, and therefore, changing consumer, producer, and investor behaviour toward seeking low emissions production and consumption. This is vital for reducing New Zealand's gross emissions. Conversely, greenhouse gases can be sequestered, for which an emissions unit will be received for every tonne sequestered. This has the effect of reducing New Zealand's net emissions as greenhouse gases that are sequestered offset greenhouse gases that are emitted.

However, the existing ETS settings have failed to promote significant improvements to native biodiversity through reforestation as the carbon credits that can be generated from native afforestation are significantly lower than what can be generated through exotic afforestation (D. Norton et al., 2020). Furthermore, as New Zealand elected not to sign up to Article 3.4 of the Kyoto Protocol, carbon sequestered as a result of management (i.e. above the non-zero business as usual baseline) in pre-1990 forests is not recognised in New Zealand's ETS (Holdaway et al., 2012). However, these units can be traded in voluntary carbon markets. In order for the carbon to be tradable, the additionality created through management of pre-1990 forests must be

demonstrable (Holdaway et al., 2012). Providing for the ability to generate carbon credits from pre-1990 native forest and post-1989 regenerating forests less than 1 ha in size could prove a vital incentive for farmers to increase biodiversity (D. Norton et al., 2020).

New Zealand's Biodiversity Commitments

In the past five years there has been an increasing amount of attention given to loss of biodiversity and the subsequent negative impacts on the global economy (Waterford et al., 2023). Of particular relevance to New Zealand is that 80.0% of the nation's exports by value are sold to markets where sustainability standards are either currently mandatory, or are in the process of being implemented (Ernest & Young, 2024). Furthermore, there are international concerns specifically regarding pastoral agriculture's contribution towards biodiversity loss (Poore & Nemecek, 2018), a sector that New Zealand's economy is heavily reliant upon, with 27.0% of the nation's gross domestic product directly linked to land-based ecosystems (Ernest & Young, 2024). There is also increasing global support for biodiversity credit schemes, which are evidenced by the numerous emerging markets (Waterford et al., 2023) and the establishment of €100 million partnership fund to address biodiversity degradation (Présidence de la République française, 2023).

Historically, conservation efforts on private land are commonly taken voluntarily (Kleijjn & Sutherland, 2003). Maseyk et al. (2021) found in a recent survey of 500 sheep and beef farmers that 80.0% of respondents thought native biodiversity on their farms was important to them, and that it should be protected and managed. However, a lack of financial incentive offered to landowners to undertake biodiversity conservation limits efforts (D. J. Pannell et al., 2006; Taylor & Judd, 2024). As the majority of our

habitats that are threatened or at risk of extinction are not contained within public conservation land (Ministry for the Environment, 2023), but within New Zealand sheep and beef farms (J. Pannell et al., 2021), well thought out policy framework to financially incentivise biodiversity conservation can greatly enhance the uptake (Maseyk et al., 2021).

The establishment of biodiversity credit schemes is seen by many as an avenue of compensating landowners for biodiversity conservation. Waterford et al. (2023) state that global biodiversity credit schemes will broadly be shaped by three existing frameworks; the Kunming-Montreal Post-2020 Global Biodiversity Framework (GBF), the Taskforce on Nature-Related Financial Disclosures (TNFD), and Science Based Targets Network (SBTN). The GBF has three main goals it wants to achieve by 2030: firstly, to ensure 30.0% of degraded ecosystems are under effective restoration; secondly, 30.0% of all ecosystems are being conserved and managed; and thirdly, to facilitate the mobilisation of \$200 billion per year to support biodiversity improvements (Waterford et al., 2023). The TNFD framework was developed as a voluntary framework in which businesses can disclose risks related to their financial performance arising from nature. Of relevance to biodiversity credits is the avenue created that may allow companies to disclose any positive impacts their business is having on the environment, alongside their negative impact disclosures. The SBTN has created guidance, that can be voluntarily adopted, to establish science-based targets for nature. This documentation makes it clear that the full mitigation hierarchy (Transform > Restore and Generate > Reduce > Avoid) must be addressed in order for a company to claim it is having a positive effect on nature. Biodiversity credits are a way of addressing the Transform and Restore/Generate tiers of the mitigation hierarchy.

New Zealand signed the GBF, and is relying upon Te Mana o Te Taiao – Aotearoa New Zealand Biodiversity Strategy 2020 to guide its response to the biodiversity crisis (Ernest & Young, 2024). As a signatory to the GBF, New Zealand is required to create a National Biodiversity Strategy Action Plan (NBSAP), which should outline targets and actions for achieving GBF targets. New Zealand is still to undertake this.

Why We Need to Prioritise Native Forest Management

Inextricably linked to deforestation is loss of biodiversity. Agriculture has indirectly caused a significant reduction in New Zealand's biodiversity through deforestation, with an estimated 14 million ha (71%) of indigenous forest having been cleared (Ewers et al., 2006). Extensive deforestation has significantly reduced biodiversity of New Zealand's forests (Gardner et al., 2009) and been a major factor in the extinction of approximately 40% of New Zealand's land bird species in the post-colonialization era (Atkinson, 1989). Of New Zealand's reptiles, 36.0% are threatened, and 50.0% are at risk, and similarly, 31.0% of marine birds are threatened, and 60.0% are at risk (Department of Conservation, 2020). Moreover, 43.0% of freshwater fish are threatened, and 33.0% are at risk (Department of Conservation, 2020). All of New Zealand's reptiles, frogs and bats, along with 72.0% of birds, are found nowhere else in the world (Department of Conservation, 2020; Ministry for the Environment, 2023). Furthermore, Brown's study examining extinction of indigenous fauna (as cited in Dominati et al., 2019), reported that over 70 species have become extinct. The rates of extinction in New Zealand are some of the worst in the world, and some 63.0% of the nation's ecosystems are threatened, and 30.0% of native species are either threatened or near extinction (Ministry for the Environment, 2023). The long-term effects of native forest clearance on species decline and eventual extinction can be felt for generations

after the initial forest clearance (Tilman et al., 1994). Meaning that we cannot fully understand the true impacts of forest clearance until many decades later.

Research has shown that at the landscape threshold (where only 30.0% of original forest cover remains) (Andren, 1994), the rate at which further landscape changes occur, sub-species become more isolated, and a species' reduced ability to persist all significantly increase (Hanski, 1998). Deforestation of New Zealand's native forests has occurred to varying degrees amongst political districts. A study by Ewers et al. (2006) illustrated that deforestation rates ranged from 13.0% to 99.0%, and more than 30 of the political districts had experienced more than 90% deforestation. As of 2002, 55 of New Zealand's 73 districts had surpassed the 30.0% forest cover landscape threshold, and only 10 of the remaining 18 districts had a conservation plan in place for more than 30.0% of the native forest landscape. Not only is New Zealand suffering from historic clearance of native forest cover, but there is a lot of work to be done to restore depleted ecosystems to what they once were. The quantum of restoration required cannot be funded only through public avenues (Taylor & Judd, 2024) so finding alternative sources to funding this restoration will be critical.

New Zealand is still experiencing loss of native forest cover, which is associated with decreases in biodiversity, even in environments that have the smallest quantum of native forest cover remaining (Walker et al., 2006). The conservation priority should be for landscapes that are not yet below the extinction threshold, followed by landscapes that have already fallen below that threshold (Ewers et al., 2006). Indigenous scrub, if left untouched, should eventually revert to native forest, so it can be thought of as future forest. New Zealand has 6.0% of its land classified as indigenous scrub, and

when considered as being part of the conservation effort, lifting New Zealand above the 30.0% extinction threshold is much more achievable (Ewers et al., 2006).

Problem Statement

New Zealand has a history of native vegetation clearance post-human settlement that has seen most country's native forests disappear. This has led to a decrease in native biodiversity and reduced the ability of native forests to sequester carbon dioxide from the atmosphere. There are growing concerns both domestically and internationally about the impact of economic activity on biodiversity and the climate, which New Zealand has attempted to address by making international commitments. However, many would argue that our current policy settings do not go far enough to incentivise the management of native forests for biodiversity and carbon sequestration gains at a scale that will make meaningful differences to the long-term sustainability of native forests.

Research Aim

The aim of this research is to show that if New Zealand landowners fence off, undertake pest control in, and otherwise manage currently unmanaged native forest areas within their properties that the monetized benefit from an increase in carbon sequestration or positive biodiversity outcomes would offset the costs of undertaking the management.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

Impacts of Introduced Pests on Native Forest Sustainability

To understand the impacts that introduced pests have had on our native forests from a forest sustainability standpoint, a summary of existing literature is provided below.

Nugent et al. (1997) undertook a study to compare the diets of red deer and possums in podocarp-hardwood forests to better understand the relationship between pest populations and their impacts. This was a longitudinal study conducted west of Lake Taupo, comprising a 25km² study area, and involved the collection of plot data within this area. As part of their study, Nugent et al. (1997) established five deer exclosures, which allowed them to undertake plotting and harvesting over time. Nugent et al. (1997) addressed two main arguments: there is a non-linear relationship between deer density and the impact on native forest regeneration; and that deer have the most significant long-term impact on native forests. Rogers and Leathwick (1997) conducted a research study in the Ruahine Ranges of the Manawatu District to measure native forest dieback, which utilised historic and recent aerial photographs, as well as physical helicopter inspections to classify areas of forest into one of five dieback severity classifications. Rose et al. (1992) undertook a similar study in central Westland, utilising aerial imagery captured 1984-85, with physical inspections to verify dieback. This study classified forests into four severity classifications as opposed to five in the study conducted by Rogers and Leathwick (1997).

Nugent et al. (1997) identified 134 plant species within the browse tier (within 2 m of ground level), and total available forage was 288 kg/ha, with the majority of this

comprising foliage growing from ground level to 45 cm height (Nugent et al., 1997). By examining the stomachs of deer and possums, it was found that deer only consumed 1.1% of total annual foliage production (AFP) of the plant species that comprised greater than 0.1% of their total annual diet, but they eat a significant portion of all foliage produced in the browse tier. Deer were found to have 191 kg of new foliage growth available to them, and they consumed 8% of this (Nugent et al., 1997). In contrast, possums consumed 3.3% of total annual foliage production. Based on the earliest available aerial imagery to Rogers and Leathwick (1997) from 1946, it was evident that canopy defoliation was beginning to occur, but canopy cover exceeded 95.0% in all measured catchments. When compared against the 1995 aerial imagery, it was evident the near entirety of the canopy had collapsed, and only 18.0% remained intact and 19.0% had only suffered light to heavy collapse (Rogers & Leathwick, 1997). Results presented by Rose et al. (1992) showed that 19.0% of all canopy trees within the 82,819 ha mapped in central Westland were dead as of 1984-85. Similarly to Rogers & Leathwick (1997), only 29.0% of the central Westland forest was found to have light dieback, with most forests showing moderate dieback (mortality of 10.0-30.0%), and 10.0% exhibited heavy dieback (mortality of 30.0-50.0%) (Rose et al., 1992). Forests comprising of possum-preferred species (Northern Rata, Kamahi, Tawa, Hall's Totara, Pahautea, Tree Fuschia, and Red Beech) suffered the most significant dieback (Rogers & Leathwick, 1997), which was found to have caused replacement in higher altitudes of Nothofagus Forest by sub-alpine scrub.

Although initial dieback is caused by possums, sustained canopy loss results from a lack of regeneration of the forest, which occurs when deer and goats are present in moderate numbers (Pekelharing & Reynolds, 1983). Nugent et al. (1997), Rogers and

Leathwick (1997) and Rose et al. (1992) have shown that deer and possums are present in and are causing damage to New Zealand's native forests, which is threatening their long-term sustainability. Furthermore, mature native forests that have had their canopy browsed and opened up by possums also become susceptible to further degradation via wind, fungi and insects, even in the absence of current possum defoliation (Rogers & Leathwick, 1997).

A further note is that while the direct impacts, such as removal of vegetation through browsing by herbivores are well understood (Nugent et al., 1997; Rogers & Leathwick, 1997; Rose et al., 1992), the indirect impacts upon ecosystem processes are much more complicated. For example, one study, which consisted of a global review of literature of 108 studies, found that overall, the removal of large herbivores (>10 kg) resulted in changes to carbon stocks ranging from an increase of 1.96 t C per ha per year to a decline of 0.19 t C per ha per year (Tanentzap & Coomes, 2012). Another study, which investigated the removal of rats from islands in New Zealand found that control measures resulted in a decrease of carbon stocks as the seabird population increased, and therefore, there was more disturbance of plants and soils (Wardle et al., 2007).

In order for a forest to be able to regenerate after the removal of pests, it must meet a minimum resilience threshold (Rogers & Leathwick, 1997), above which, it has the ability to regenerate in the absence of pests. The need for both possum and ungulate control is further corroborated by Nugent et al. (1997), who concluded that control of both possums and deer should be undertaken in tandem, as there is little point in protecting existing native forest canopies from possum browsing if deer and

goat population densities prevent the long-term regeneration of the forest (Nugent et al., 1997).

Carbon Stocks in Native Vegetation

Vegetation assimilates carbon dioxide (CO₂) via the process of photosynthesis, which results in the creation of biomass, approximately 50.0% of which is carbon (Case & Ryan, 2020). Therefore, carbon stocks can be defined as the cumulative carbon sequestration of the past up to a chosen point in time at which a measurement is taken. Kirschbaum et al. (2009) state that estimating carbon sequestration rates for native forests is more difficult than for exotic forests for several reasons. Firstly, there is no inventory of native forests in New Zealand that is comprehensive enough to allow for such an estimation, and even if there was, it is highly likely there would be a strong bias towards older, more mature stands of native forest, which are not very relevant for younger age class native forests.

Case and Ryan (2020) undertook a study to spatially map the various types of vegetation on New Zealand sheep and beef farms, relying on multiple national datasets. As part of their research, Case and Ryan (2020) sourced data for 1,183 woody vegetation plots from the Land Use and Carbon Analysis System (LUCAS) plot grid network. Further wood density data was also obtained, and with the combination of these two datasets, estimations of above ground biomass were estimated and formed that basis of this research. By overlaying the multiple national datasets to create a refined layer that best reflected native vegetation on sheep and beef farms, with the sourced plot and wood density data, a national-scale estimation of the carbon position of sheep and beef farms was generated (Case & Ryan, 2020). Similarly, Hall and Hollinger (2000), Hall et al. (2001) and Hall and McGlone (2006) each undertook studies

utilising forest growth models (calibrated against National Vegetation Survey (NVS) plot data) to estimate biomass growth rates. Furthermore, Carswell et al. (2009) estimated carbon sequestration for 12 permanent sample plots (six seral exotic shrubland and six native mānuka shrubland) by remeasuring after a minimum 4.5-year period of the initial measurement.

Within their analysis, Case and Ryan (2020) relied upon a range of carbon sequestration rates for the differing forest types. For the mānuka and/or kanuka forest type, sequestration rates were estimated at 3.2 t CO₂-/ha/year and 5.3 t CO₂-/ha/year for the lower and upper end, respectively. For modelled sites within the studies of Hall et al. (2001) and Hall and McGlone (2006), carbon sequestration varied from 2.0 t CO₂-/ha/year to 6.9 t CO₂-/ha/year for the first 100 years of growth. Calculating an area-weighted carbon sequestration rate at the national scale based on the area of each species and its corresponding carbon sequestration rate, resulted in a rate of 5 t CO₂-/ha/year for the first 100 years of growth, falling to 3.5 t CO₂-/ha/year over a 200-year period, and 2.3 t CO₂-/ha/year over a 300-year period. For the mānuka shrubland plots estimated by Carswell et al. (2009), the derived annual carbon sequestration rate was 2.0 +/- 1.0 t CO₂-e/ha/year, compared to 2.7 +/- 1.5 t CO₂-e/ha/year for exotic seral shrubland. These four studies show that while areas of shrubland and successional species have been shown to sequester carbon through photosynthesis, it is at a low rate.

In contrast, mature native forests are estimated to have a neutral sequestration rate (Holdaway et al., 2017), meaning as much carbon decays as is sequestered. Case and Ryan (2020) relied upon a carbon sequestration rate of 1.1 t CO₂-/ha/year to 3.3 t

CO₂-/ha/year. for the 'Indigenous Tall Forest' type. Holdaway et al. (2014) reported that the average sequestration for all pools (excluding soil) in regenerating pre-1990 forests are 1.39 t C per ha per year, which equates to 5.10 t CO₂-e per ha per year. When combined with tall forests, this rate is statistically insignificant from zero. Furthermore, a revision of an earlier study found that through follow up re-measurement of NVS plots that total carbon stocks declined (Peltzer & Payton, 2006). This decline was due to tree mortality being greater than growth of new stems.

This literature indicates that stands of mānuka and/or kanuka have an ability to sequester carbon as they are. Whereas mature native forests are typically have steady state carbon stocks, as the rate of decay offsets the rate of growth.

Impact of Introduced Mammals on Native Forest Carbon Stocks

To understand the impacts that introduced pests have had on our native forests from a biomass removal/carbon sequestration reduction standpoint, a summary of existing literature is provided below.

Allen et al. (2023) conducted a study to investigate carbon stocks (both below and above ground) in native forests by comparing exclosure plots to adjacent control sites. The exclosure plots were originally established from the 1950s to the 1980s by the New Zealand Forest Service (Wardle et al., 2001), which were perimeter fenced with 1.8 m high fencing to exclude deer, goats and pigs, but not rodents or possums. Exclosures selected for this research were situated in areas with established introduced ungulate populations, they had been fenced for more than 20 years (mean age of the fences was 27), and more than 25.0% of contained species were broadleaved tree species. There were 26 sites (fenced exclosures and paired control) selected for this study. 20 m by 20

m plots were established at each site, with the plots inside the exclosure situated 0.5 m distant from the fence to prevent effects of browsing through the fence being taken into consideration. All trees within the exclosure had their height recorded, and any trees with a diameter at breast height (dbh) greater than 2.5 cm had their aboveground biomass estimated (Allen et al., 2023). Collections of fine woody debris (using 0.1 m² quadrats) and leaf litter (using 10 cm diameter cores) were taken from 16 sites. The sum of aboveground biomass, woody debris, and leaf litter represents the aboveground carbon stocks.

Allen et al. (2023) concluded that there was no significant difference in total ecosystem carbon stocks (below ground and above ground) between exclosures and the control plots. The carbon pools of small-sized trees (situated within the browse tier) were found to only account for 6.0% of the total carbon in the plots, and the large trees (> 30 cm dbh), which are not affected by ungulate browsing, accounted for 44.0% of total carbon. These results are corroborated by Holdaway et al. (2017), who found that trees > 60 cm dbh account for only 0.8% stems in sample plots taken from New Zealand native forests but equate to 41.0% of total above ground biomass in native forests. The majority of New Zealand's tall tree species (>10 m height) are not typically a main of deer's diet, with only one species being preferred, while 14 are avoided (Nugent et al., 2001). In contrast, short trees (<10 m height) are a larger component of deer's diet, with 16 being preferred and only five being avoided. Allen et al. (2023) concluded that the majority of total carbon stock variation (60.0%) was explained by the biomass of the largest trees in the exclosures, which were not affected by browsing of ungulates.

The most significant finding in the exclosures was that the browse-level vegetation responded well to the exclusion of ungulates and forests with a higher proportion of browse-level vegetation (e.g. regenerating forests) would benefit more from ungulate control than mature forests. However, a key limitation of the study by Allen et al. (2023) is that none of the plots contained early successional forests, or stands that had otherwise been affected by natural events (Wyse et al., 2018), which is where ungulates can have the largest effect (Mason et al., 2010). Therefore, this assumption was never tested.

There have been two literature reviews that sought to find if increased carbon sequestration in native forests can be linked to the control of wild animals. Carswell et al. (2015) undertook a review of existing literature as part of the Wild Animal Control for Emissions Management (WACEM) programme. They concluded that it was very difficult to ascribe any increase in carbon sequestration to control of wild animals. Manaaki Whenua – Landcare Research were commissioned by the New Zealand Game Animal Council (GAC) to investigate if there was a relationship between game animal populations and native forest carbon stocks. Peltzer & Nugent (2023) aimed to assess the impacts of deer (at low, medium, and high population densities) on native forest carbon stocks, compare and contrast the effects of possums relative to deer on native forest carbon stocks, and comment on the restoration of native forests. This research concluded that deer are not the only introduced species that affect native forests in New Zealand. Possums are an introduced herbivore that consumes the canopy of a native forests; pigs and rodents eat seeds and seedlings, and cats and stoats have an effect on rodent populations, which in turn affect vegetation consumption. However,

there have been no studies that have investigated the effects of possum control on native forest carbon stocks, let alone the effects in tandem with deer control.

Impact of Introduced Mammals on Native Forest Biodiversity

There have been numerous studies undertaken in New Zealand's native forests to understand the impact of introduced wild animals on the species composition of native flora. Differences in plant species preference arise traits that prevent herbivory (Forsyth et al., 2002). Plants that have evolved in the presence of herbivores have been shown to have developed both morphological and chemical defences specifically against herbivory, as well as neutral defences that have developed in response to other pressures, but do coincide with defence against herbivory (Edwards, 1989).

Husheer (2005) undertook a study to highlight the effects of introduced deer in the Aorangi Forest on the native forest. 47 permanent plots (20 m by 20 m size) were measured within the forest in 1986, and trees greater than 2 cm dbh were tagged and measured to determine the dbh. These plots were situated on seven random transect lines. Also relied upon were paired fenced plots (by a 2.2 m high deer fence) and unfenced control plots established from 1981-1987 throughout seven river catchments of the Aorangi Forest, which were remeasured in in 2004. A similar study was undertaken by Husheer (2007) in the Pureora Forest, located in the central North Island of New Zealand. Similarly, 32 permanent sample plots and nine paired exclosure sites of 20 m by 20 m were used as the basis of this research. They were also originally established in the 1970s to 1980s and were remeasured in 2002 and 2003. Another similar study was conducted by Husheer & Frampton (2005) in the Wakatipu beech forest. This studied relied upon 49 permanent sample plots (measured 1976 to 2002).

Husheer (2005) found that there was no difference in species composition between all three plot types (randomly located on transect lines, exclosure plots, unfenced control plots) when they were established in the 1980s. Similarly, in 2004, there was no significant difference between exclosure and control plots in terms of species composition, except for the Kanono tree. This finding was attributed to levels of recreational hunting in the Aroangi Forest not being intensive enough to reduce deer populations to a level that would allow for regeneration. In contrast, Husheer (2007) found in the podocarp-tawa-kamahi forest dominated Pureora Forest that paired exclosures showed a significant increase in species composition from 1984 to 2002 measurements, whereas the control sites showed no meaningful difference in species composition. This was the same for the permanent sample plots. Similarly to the Aorangi Forest, recreational hunting of deer had been undertaken in the study area, but there had also been intensive goat culling operations for 30 years prior to this study being conducted. Despite this, very little change to the understorey and species composition of the forest had occurred outside the exclosure plots (Husheer, 2007). Husheer and Frampton (2005) found that in the overstorey, stem density significantly declined but the combined basal area for all species collectively increased (Husheer & Frampton, 2005). Like Husheer (2005), there were no changes to species composition in the understorey.

Husheer and Robertson (2005) undertook a study in the Kaimanawa Ranges specifically to study the effects of high-intensity deer culling on the growth rates of mountain beech seedlings. Aerial culling was implemented alongside medium-intensity ground culling and increased rates of recreational hunting. Monitoring sites (10 m by 10 m) were then established, each comprising of paired fenced and unfenced plots. In

1998 and 1999, 23 aerial culls were undertaken, with a total of 355 deer seen, and 86.0% culled. Then in the 1999/2000 season, 636 deer were seen, and 88.0% of these successfully culled. Lastly, in the 2000/2001, 514 deer were seen and 90.0% were culled. An additional 142 deer were shot by commercial ground hunters over the same three seasons, and recreational hunters reported 1,024 deer were culled. When the 2001/2002 hunting season concluded, deer pellet group density was 67.0% lower in high culling density areas than low density areas.

By the third culling season, seedling growth between fenced and unfenced plots in high culling density areas was largely similar (Husheer & Robertson, 2005). Conversely, seedling growth was significantly slower in the unfenced plots in low and medium density culling areas. This study has shown that when intensive culling operations of deer are undertaken, native forests can begin to recover even when they are not fenced to exclude ungulates. It further reinforces the findings of Husheer (2007) and Husheer (2005) who found that forests were not regenerating when only recreational hunting was relied upon to manage deer populations. Commercial culling has been proven to reduce deer populations to 80.0% of densities pre-culling (Nugent et al., 1987). By the third culling season of their study, Husheer and Robertson (2005) estimated that 11 deer per km² had been removed by aerial culling operations, which increased to 13 deer per km² when ground hunting efforts were also considered.

The aforementioned studies have also highlighted the importance of deer control to ensure the long-term regeneration of native forests. Deer have significantly altered New Zealand's native forests since their introduction (Coomes et al., 2003), and have been proven to suppress species composition of palatable species and slow their

growth rates as well (Husheer, 2005). In the Kaimanawa Forest park, it is possible that mountain beech forests will be affected so greatly by forest regeneration failure (brought on by deer herbivory) that the composition of the forest will transition towards a shrubland (Husheer & Robertson, 2005). Palatable sub-canopy plant species are reliant on fast growth rates to extend their readily available vegetation beyond the browse tier of introduced ungulates, whereas unpalatable species rely on other defences, so they don't need to be fast growing (Husheer, 2007). Therefore, this transition to a forest species composition more heavily weighted towards slow-growing species, may not only reduce carbon sequestration rates, but it can have wider ecosystem impacts as the quality of leaf litter will decline, which is relied upon by other invertebrates, and their avian predators (Wardle et al., 2001).

Restoration Possibility of Native Forests

Given the relatively short timeframe that deer have been in New Zealand, we likely have not seen the full effects of their herbivory on native forests, which contain trees that are over 3,000 years old (Lee, 1998). Even more poorly understood is the response of ecosystems to deer exclusion, as there is only a small number of areas where long-term deer control has been undertaken in New Zealand (Tanentzap et al., 2009).

Coomes et al. (2003) proposed three ideas as to why native forests may not recover after the deer population has been reduced. Firstly, deer may change their behaviour in response to control measures, and with the greater abundance of more palatable plants, the intensity of grazing on these more preferred species may increase. Therefore, reducing the deer population below a threshold at which their selective targeting of newly emerging, preferred species will not stop restoration is key. Secondly,

deer may have modified the native forest ecosystem to a point where it cannot recover to what it was pre-herbivory. Thirdly, deer are not the only introduced species that negatively impact native forests in New Zealand, so control of deer alone may not be sufficient to allow for forest recovery.

A study that examined the effects of deer control on vegetation was undertaken by Tanentzap et al. (2009). This study was undertaken over a 518 km² area in the Murchison Mountains of New Zealand to see if deer control undertaken since 1962 had led to significant changes in vegetation composition on a 39-year timeframe and/or an increase in the abundance of deer-preferred plant species. The deer population was estimated to have peaked at 8.7 deer per km² in 1964 and troughed at 0.58 deer per km² in 1988. Deer numbers then increased to 1.1 deer per km² in the late 1990s. Overall, the deer population is estimated to have decreased 92.0% from 1964 to 2008, which is corroborated by the 94.0% reduction in deer numbers culled. There were 32 permanent plots (20 m by 20 m) utilised in the Murchison Mountains, which were established along random transect lines in 1969 and 1976, measured in 1976 and 1998, and most recently measured from 2002 to 2008. There were an additional five exclosure plots (200 to 400 m² in size) and paired control plots that were established specifically on fertile soils. These were measured in 1998 and again in 2004. Finally, 22 permanent plots situated on random transect lines in subalpine shrubland were established in 1975 and remeasured in 2005. Furthermore, 19 plots established in alpine grassland (again on randomly selected transect lines) were measured in 1969, 1976 and 2008.

It was found by Tanentzap et al. (2009) that in the permanent forest plots, there was only limited regeneration of seedlings and saplings (in both relative and absolute

terms), with the abundance of deer preferred species being most scarce. The density of seedlings and saplings had increased from 1976 to 2008, coinciding with a decrease in deer numbers. The ratio of seedlings to adult trees also increased. By 1998, there was a measurable difference in the sapling density of all palatability classes within the exclosures as compared to the control plots, which indicates that despite control measures, deer were still affecting the abundance of seedlings and saplings, in particular, preferred species. This study observed that in response to deer densities in the study area being reduced below the predicted threshold of 2 deer per km² to allow for palatable species regeneration, there were greater densities of saplings and seedlings in forests, shrubland crowns grew thicker, palatable tussocks grew taller, and species diversity of grassland species increased. The effects of deer herbivory were found to be persistent up to 46 years after intense culling operations. This was evidenced by fewer saplings in exclosures as compared to control plots, and there being no observable difference to shrubland composition.

Biodiversity Credit Schemes

Need for a Biodiversity Credit Scheme

With a change in international mindsets to have more of a focus on the relationship between business and the environment, there is growing global support and recognition of the need for pathways to fund positive biodiversity outcomes through biodiversity credit schemes (Waterford et al., 2023). At present, legislation is primarily being used to set lower limits of accepted environmental metrics to prevent further degradation of ecosystem integrity (Deutz et al., 2020; Knight-Lenihan, 2023). However, this protection does not encourage the active protection and restoration of ecosystems.

There is estimated to be an annual biodiversity finance gap of US \$598 to \$824 billion per annum out to 2030 (Deutz et al., 2020). It is estimated that NZ \$26.5 billion will be required on an annual basis to meet the GBF targets in New Zealand, but currently there is only NZ \$4 billion spent on biodiversity activities annually in New Zealand (Ernest & Young, 2024). New Zealand developed a biodiversity strategy in 2020, which was intended to provide a strategic direction for New Zealand's biodiversity outcomes over the next 30 years (Department of Conservation, 2020). The overarching strategic direction was to maintain and restore ecosystems and habitats, enhance scarce habitats, and protect populations of indigenous species (Clarkson, 2022). To achieve this, a range of specific goals and actions were outlined (Department of Conservation, 2020).

Ernest and Young (2024) conducted an economic analysis to estimate how much it would cost New Zealand to take specific environmental actions to meet five of its 2030 conservation goals (as laid out in the Kunming-Montreal Global Biodiversity Framework Targets), and what the immediate environmental benefits would be worth economically. By achieving targets two and three, which are to restore 30.0% of degraded ecosystems and conserve 30.0% of land, water and sea by 2030, respectively, the economic benefit to New Zealand was calculated at NZ \$272 billion from 2025 to 2080, with a payback period of 11 years (Ernest & Young, 2024). By 2080, this equates to a 4.3% increase in Gross national Income (GNI) over and above the status quo. Achieving these targets created large benefits through increasing carbon sequestration and reducing the need for New Zealand to purchase offshore units to meet commitments and improved ecosystem services that decreased climate-related risk. However, varying sectors within New Zealand would be unequally impacted by the

activities undertaken to meet these goals. Notably, the pastoral sector was modelled to decrease its outputs due to water restrictions and land use change. This declining output was modelled to be partially offset by higher commodity prices being achieved and a more sustainable business model being developed. Furthermore, the benefit of additional carbon sequestration was not attributed to the pastoral sector, and instead directly to the GNI. But, in reality, this benefit would be shared with landowners.

Modelling predicted that by 2080, the dairy and meat/animal product sectors would contract by NZ \$3.4 billion and \$1.8 billion, respectively. While this may be seen as a large contraction, it is important to consider the negative impacts of the status quo model on these sectors. The pastoral sector is highly dependent on natural ecosystem services, such as nutrient cycling, climate regulation, and pollination. If we do not address the biodiversity crisis, it is possible that many of these services will fail and the pastoral sector will be negatively affected through more climate variability, reduced yields, less diversity of pollinators, and abandonment by customers in vital markets.

Therefore, the establishment of avenues to fund biodiversity conservation will assist us in achieving our biodiversity goals and help to offset the unequitable transition that many land-based sectors will face.

Principles of a Biodiversity Credit Scheme

Biodiversity net gain (BNG) is the concept of increasing biodiversity values above a level that was present prior to the undertaking of a particular development (Knight-Lenihan, 2023). Waterford et al. (2023) describe a biodiversity credit scheme, which is a way of recognizing BNG, as a scheme that represents measurable, positive biodiversity outcomes in the form of a tradable token. This token is defined as a biodiversity credit (Biodiversity Credit Alliance, 2024).

In 2023, Waterford et al. (2023) undertook an international review of eight biodiversity credit schemes. The crediting approach (the channel through which credits are issued and traded) was commonly found to follow the below formula:

$$\text{Biodiversity Credit} = X (\text{outcome/activity}) \text{ over } Y (\text{area}) \text{ for } Z (\text{time period})$$

This means that a scheme needs to have methodology for establishing baseline biodiversity value, and biodiversity gains, and a period for which funding will be available. Given the old age that New Zealand native forests can reach, we will need a scheme that provides funding over a long period of time, as opposed to just in the short term. A biodiversity credit scheme could be of particular use for funding biodiversity conservation of mature native forest in New Zealand. Research reviewed as part of this study has shown that there is little to no increase to biomass of mature native forests in New Zealand, which means that carbon sequestration additionality created by ungulate and possum exclusion could be hard to prove. In contrast, emerging biodiversity schemes are tending to take a more high-level approach to additionality (Waterford et al., 2023), which considering the evidence scientific available regarding introduced mammals' impact on flora diversity in mature native forests, may allow for greater flexibility in establishing positive biodiversity gains through ungulate and possum control, and therefore, more access to funds to undertake the control.

Undertaking NBS projects to generate carbon credits can simultaneously create biodiversity credits as a co-benefit. These credits typically sell for a premium over and above carbon credits that offer no biodiversity co-benefits, which has been evidenced in overseas voluntary carbon markets (Waterford et al., 2022). When there are benefits of biodiversity improvements alongside carbon credit generation on the same land, this

is referred to as ‘stacking’. This is often the case, as research has shown that biomass (carbon credits) and species richness (biodiversity credits) in regenerating native forests occur as co-benefits when ungulates are removed (Allen et al., 2023; Mason et al., 2010; Wyse et al., 2018). However, the ability to monetise the additionality created relating to both of these benefits must be carefully managed and the permissibility will be dependent of the settings of the relevant schemes (Waterford et al., 2022). A similar but different concept is that of ‘stapling’, whereby a carbon credit from one area of land is coupled with a biodiversity credit relating to a separate area of land. This concept allows for the purchaser to claim the full benefits of both the carbon and biodiversity credits, providing the alternate credit hasn’t been sold separately to another purchaser, who is also claiming benefit. Lastly, ‘bundled’ products are those that represent a multitude of benefits created within one project area, not just carbon and biodiversity, that are sold to a single purchaser (Waterford et al., 2022). As New Zealand has made commitments to both climate change and biodiversity conservation targets, these three concepts will need to be considered when creating policy settings. It is likely that management of native forests will be able to be monetised either through the New Zealand ETS or a biodiversity credit scheme, but which avenue will provide the greatest economic return to the landowner will likely dictate which scheme it utilised to undertake the management, which in turn, could impact upon New Zealand’s reporting and ability to meet its separate climate and biodiversity targets.

Existing Biodiversity Credit Schemes

There are numerous examples of overseas biodiversity credit schemes, operating with and without government intervention. Reviews undertaken by Ministry for the Environment (2023) and Wentworth (2024) found a government-managed scheme is

emerging in Australia; VERRA, a non-profit organisation in America, is creating a biodiversity standard to allow participants to create verified credits; the British government introduced BNG legislation, which relies heavily on biodiversity offsets as opposed to biodiversity credits; a private firm, GreenCollar, based in Australia developed a voluntary scheme called NaturePlus; and ClimateTrade and Terrasos, two voluntary carbon markets located in Spain and Colombia, respectively, have teamed up to create a voluntary biodiversity scheme.

Examples of biodiversity schemes currently operating in New Zealand are Ekos BioCredita, with the pilot project being Sanctuary Mountain Maungatautari (Weaver, 2025), and the Toha network (TOHA, 2024). Sanctuary Mountain is a native forest protected by a predator proof fence, and needed to find an alternative source of funding in the face of grant money ceasing (Ekos, 2023). Therefore, in 2022, Ekos (a New Zealand company) launched the first biodiversity credit offering in the country by facilitating a private sale of biodiversity credits to the Profile Group Ltd (Ministry for the Environment, 2023). Credits have since become publicly available for purchase on an ongoing basis though the Ekos BioCredita for NZ \$12 per credit, which represents 100m² of biodiversity protection for a period of one year (Weaver, 2025). This private scheme was an example of a scheme that issues credits based on activities that improve biodiversity, as opposed to a scheme where credits are issued by outcome or by project. The TOHA Network is currently in a pilot phase, but also relies upon a variety of approaches to credit (Mahi token) issuance (TOHA, 2024). However, unlike the Sanctuary Mountain Maungatautari biodiversity credit, which offers a standalone biodiversity credit that can be stapled with carbon credits, a Mahi Token represents a bundled credit, encompassing other benefits such as enhancing indigenous land

management, providing for access to Mahinga Kai, and flood mitigation (TOHA, 2024).

Mahi are currently available for donation at a price of \$26 per token, with TOHA network tokens becoming available once the scheme officially launches.

Chapter Three: Materials, Methods, and Assumptions

Quantitative Research

This research comprises an embedded case study analysis of part of the Manawatū District, New Zealand, and five individual case study properties situated within this area. An embedded case study approach contains more than one layer of analysis (Yin, 2003), making it useful for understanding underlying factors that help to describe a phenomenon. It is a more useful technique than a traditional case study (which focuses on a single unit of analysis) when there are a diverse range of components to a study phenomenon or there are aspects that need to be separately addressed (LinkedIn, 2023). Furthermore, by selecting multiple case studies as opposed to only a single case, the heterogeneity of sheep and beef farms in New Zealand will be better reflected and the research will have greater validity (Bass et al., 2018; Seawright & Gerring, 2008).

The variable upon which the cases have been selected is the quantum of native forest land within them, expressed as a percentage of total property area. The percentage of a property that is native forest land was grouped into a categorical variable (i.e., 0 to 25%, 26 to 50%, 51 to 75%, and 76 to 100%), so cases that reflected both high and low values could be selected (Seawright & Gerring, 2008). This research has not achieved an acceptable saturation as five cases have been researched (two for the 0.0% to 25.0% category, and one each for the remaining categories of 25.0% to 50.0%, 5.0% to 75.0% and 75.0% to 100.0%). However, as there was only one case per category (apart from the 0.0% to 25.0% category), there is a high likelihood that each case does not fully represent other farms in New Zealand that fall within that category.

Therefore, this research will not be so comprehensive as to render the analysis of additional case studies unnecessary (Small, 2009).

Case Study Selection

Locality within Manawatū District

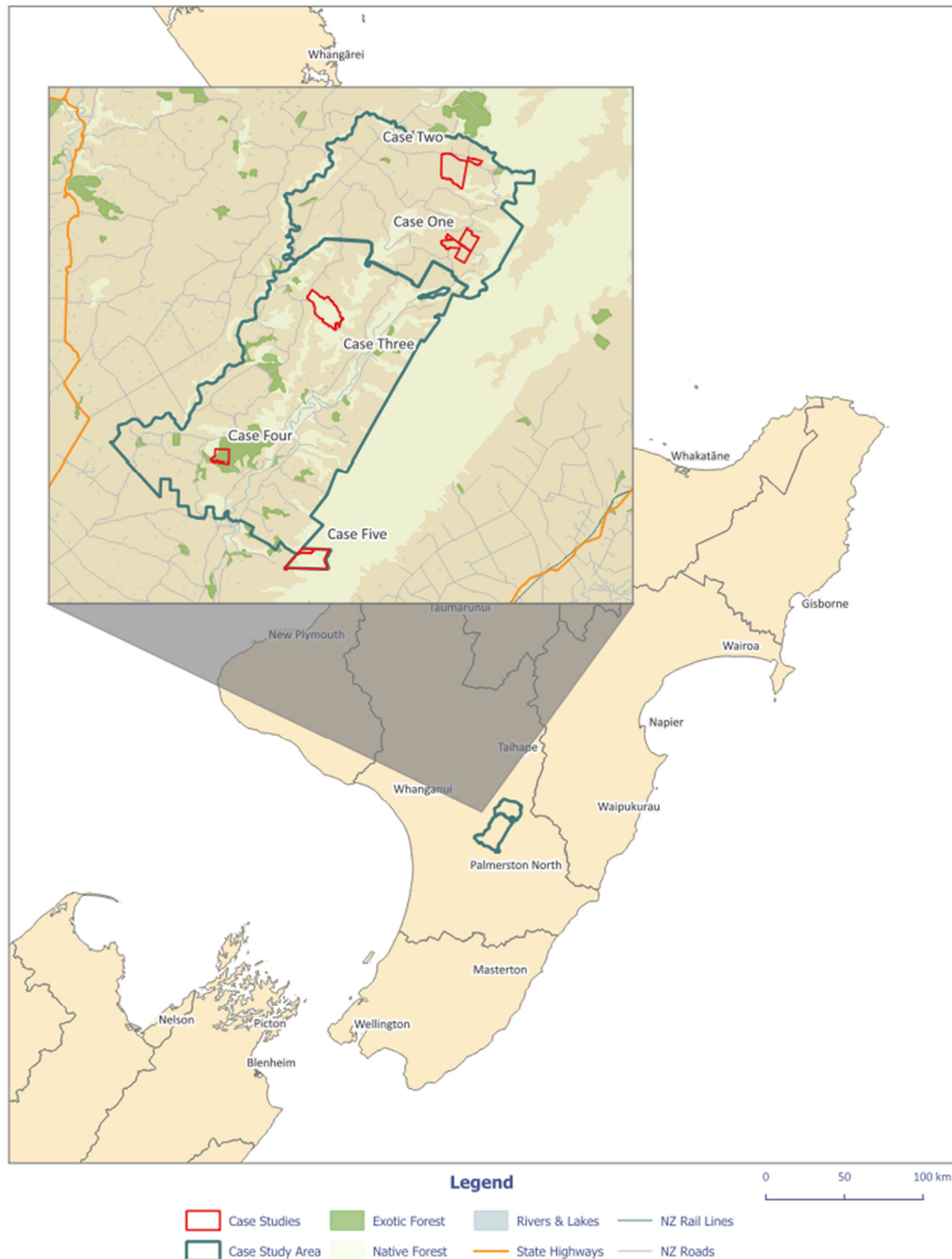
The Apiti and Pohangina localities were selected from the NZ Suburbs and Localities dataset to form the overall specific area within the Manawatū District that would be studied within this research. As shown by Figure 1, two of the selected individual case study properties are situated within the Apiti locality, and three are in the Pohangina locality.

The Apiti locality encompasses 149 km² and has a population of 318, compared to Pohangina, which is larger at 282 km² and has a population of 872 (Toitū Te Whenua Land Information New Zealand, 2023b). The Apiti and Pohangina villages are situated 61 km and 39 km northeast of Palmerston North City, respectively. The localities are bounded to the north and west by the Orua River, and the Pohangina locality is bisected by the Pohangina River. The eastern boundary of the localities is formed by the Ruahine Ranges, and the southern boundary by pastoral farmland. Altitude ranges from 100 metres above sea level (masl) adjacent to the Pohangina River, rising to 1,180 masl at the western extent in the Ruahine Ranges (Toitū Te Whenua Land Information New Zealand, 2022). Chappell (2015) describes the wider Manawatū-Whanganui Region as generally having a climate of few climatic extremes, rainfall and temperature that are conducive to the growing of pasture, and a predominant westerly wind. More specifically, the study area has a rainfall of 1,100 – 1,800 mm, with the main rainfall months being June to September, inclusive. The median annual average temperature is 10 – 12 °C, with winters typically being June to September, inclusive, and minimum

average daily temperatures being 2 – 3 °C. In contrast, daily maximum temperatures in summer months average 17 – 21 °C.

Figure 1: Map showing location of case study area and individual case study properties

CASE STUDY LOCALITIES



Case Study One

Case One (unID 328) is situated in the Apiti locality, 15 km east of the Apiti village. The property is predominantly utilised for pastoral farming and is split into three blocks, being bisected by Norsewood Road. Part of the southern and northern boundaries are formed by Pohangina Valley East Road and Umutoi North Road, respectively. In total, the property has 4.3 km of road frontage, which equates to 31.6% of the property's total 13.6 km of boundary. The property borders four other properties, three of which met the requirements to be included within the refined study area.

Case One has a total area of 291.3 ha and there is no regenerating forest contained within it, and only 2.6% of the property's total area was classified as old growth forest. Therefore, this case falls within the 0.0% to 25.0% categorical variable and provides a good case for properties that have little to no indigenous forest contained within them.

Case Study Two

Case Two (unID 986) is situated in the Apiti locality, 10 km northeast of the Apiti village. The property is predominantly utilised for pastoral farming and is split into two blocks, being bisected by Table Flat Road. The southern boundary of the northern block and the northern boundary of the southern block are formed by Table Flat Road. In total, the property has 3.0 km of road frontage, which equates to 27.8% of the property's total 10.8 km of boundary. The property borders four other properties, three of which met the requirements to be included within the refined study area.

Case Two has a total area of 369.8 ha, with only 0.8% of the property comprising of regenerating forest and 14.5% classified as old growth forest, for a total forest

classification of 15.3%. Therefore, this case falls within the 0.0% to 25.0% categorical variable.

Case Study Three

Case Three (unID 844) is situated in the Pohangina locality, 20 km south of the Apiti village. The property is predominantly utilised for pastoral farming and is contained within one block. The southeastern boundary of the property is formed by the Pohangina River (1.9 km of frontage), the northwestern boundary is formed by Ridge Road (0.8 km of frontage), and the remaining 7.4 km of boundaries are formed by two adjacent farming properties, which meet the requirements to be included within the refined study area.

Case Three has a total area of 356.7 ha, with 29.2% of the property comprising of regenerating forest and only 8.5% classified as old growth forest, for a total forest classification of 37.7%. Therefore, this case falls within the 25.0% to 50.0% categorical variable.

Case Study Four

Case Four (unID 1037) is situated in the Pohangina locality, 21 km southwest of the Pohangina village. The property is predominantly utilised for exotic forestry and is contained within one block. The property is bounded by Finnis Road to the south for 1.5 km, with all other boundaries (3.1 km) being formed by either forestry properties or properties that are predominantly indigenous forest.

Case Four has a total area of 104.2 ha, with 49.2% of the property comprising of regenerating forest and a further 10.1% classified as old growth forest, for a total forest

classification of 59.3%. Therefore, this case falls within the 50.0% to 75.0% categorical variable.

Case Study Five

Case Five (unID 17) is situated in the Pohangina locality, approximately 20 km south of the Pohangina village. The property comprises some pastoral farming and is contained within one block. Technically, the property is contained within two blocks as it is bisected by a paper road. Unlike for other properties, this paper road wasn't dissolved into the property boundary as it provides access to the Ruahine Forest Park, so it is likely that access cannot be readily impeded. Approximately 6.9 km of the property's boundaries are formed by the Ruahine Forest Park, with only the western boundary (1.9 km) being formed by adjacent farming properties, which meet the requirements to be included within the refined study area.

Case Five has a total area of 362.4 ha, with 3.5% of the property comprising of regenerating forest and 76.1% classified as old growth forest, for a total forest classification of 79.6%. Therefore, this case falls within the 75.0% to 100.0% categorical variable.

Case Study Methods

Data Collection

This research relies on both primary and secondary data collection. Data relating to the impact of introduced pests on indigenous forests, including effects on biomass and species composition, as well as the effects of culling on pest populations will be relied upon in this research as secondary data (Boslaugh, 2007). In contrast, primary data is that which has been collected by the researcher for their specific research problem (Hox & Boeijs, 2005). Within this research, primary data has been collected for

costs of undertaking biodiversity conservation from a variety of industry professionals through the use of semi-structured interviews, which allowed for a combination of structure and flexibility (Legard et al., 2013).

Quantum Geographic Information System

Quantum Geographic Information System (QGIS), which is an open-source mapping software, was used to generate spatial information relating to numerous aspects of the study area and the case studies. Numerous datasets were used to analyse metrics for both the study area and the case studies, including, but not limited to; the average size of farming properties, land cover breakdown, and Land Use Capability (LUC) class. Furthermore, spatial information was generated by the researcher based upon data collected from the interviews to establish carbon and biodiversity management scenarios. All spatial information created within QGIS was exported into the excel spreadsheet where it was further analysed to formulate inputs for the remainder of the research.

QGIS Analysis of Old Growth and Regenerating Native Forest

The LCDB v5.0 layer (Manaaki Whenua Landcare Research, 2024a), which is a multi-temporal classification on New Zealand's land cover, does not differentiate between regenerating and old growth native forest. Both classifications are grouped under 'indigenous forest' within the layer. Therefore, in line with research undertaken by Norton and Pannell (2018), this study has adopted the 'indigenous forest' and 'broadleaved indigenous hardwoods' classifications within the Land Cover Database (LCDB) layer to represent old growth forest and the 'manuka/kanuka', 'gorse/broom', and 'mixed exotic shrubland' categories to represent the regenerating forest category.

The NZ Property Hybrid Layer ‘Property Hybrid’ layer has been compiled primarily from the Rating Units data, which aggregates spatial title polygons and united land into a single polygon (Toitū Te Whenua Land Information New Zealand, 2025b). The Hybrid Layer fills any gaps in the primary data source firstly with titles from the NZ Property Titles layer and secondly, with parcels from the NZ Primary Parcels Layer (Toitū Te Whenua Land Information New Zealand, 2025b). As there is not perfect spatial alignment between the NZ Suburbs and Localities and the Property Hybrid layers (likely due to re-surveying of titles since the original forming of the localities boundaries), all properties that predominantly lie within the study area (>95.0%) have been incorporated. Conversely, any properties that primarily reside outside of the study area (<95.0%) have been excluded. This has been done to prevent the creation of artefacts whereby small slivers of properties are contained within the analysis, even though they are only in the study area due to spatial misalignment. Where a property straddles the NZ Suburbs and Localities boundary (i.e. <95.0% resides outside the NZ Suburbs and Localities boundary) the polygon/s that reside within the boundary have been retained, and the balance titles that reside outside the boundary have been excluded. Furthermore, properties under 5.0 ha have been excluded from this study, in an attempt to remove residential, commercial, lifestyle, and otherwise non-farming properties, which follows the methodology of Taylor and Judd (2024). Therefore, there is a discrepancy between the total study area and the area derived directly from the NZ Suburbs and Localities layer for the two localities.

Additional steps have been undertaken to identify the designation and ownership of the polygons within the Property Hybrid layer. Firstly, the NZ Property Titles – Including Owners Layer (Toitū Te Whenua Land Information New Zealand, 2025c) was

overlayed with the Property Hybrid layer to identify privately and publicly owned land.

Polygons within the Property Hybrid layer that were identified to be sourced from the NZ Primary Parcels layer were identified as ‘road’ and ‘waterway’ designations using aerial imagery and the NZ Primary Road Parcels layer (Toitū Te Whenua Land Information New Zealand, 2025a). Any other publicly owned reserves or estates were also identified.

To estimate the quantum of old growth and regenerating native forest within the study area, the national LCDB layer was reprocessed to be constrained to the study area. A further reprocessing of the LCDB layer was then undertaken to intersect this layer with the Property Hybrid layer. This spatial operation provides a breakdown of the LCDB layer by property. Dunningham et al. (2000) estimated the accuracy of the LCDB layer to be above 93.9%. However, the LCDB layer does a poor job of accurately mapping small areas of vegetation, which is due to the resolution of the imagery the layer has been derived from (D. Norton & Pannell, 2018). For the study area analysis, this layer has been relied upon to form the basis on analysis, but for the individual case studies, re-mapping of vegetation features has been undertaken.

After the reprocessing was completed, three calculations were run on the resulting layer to determine the complexity of the feature geometry of old growth and regenerating forest polygons. These calculations are outlined below:

Perimeter to area ratio

$$Ratio = \frac{perimeter}{area}$$

Compactness index

$$Index = \frac{4 * \pi * area}{perimeter^2}$$

Form factor

$$Factor = \frac{area}{perimeter^2}$$

QGIS Analysis of NZLRI LUC

To gain an understanding of the land types within the localities, the New Zealand Land Resource Inventory – Land Use Capability 2021 (NZLRI LUC) layer ((Manaaki Whenua Landcare Research, 2024b) was reprocessed and constrained to the study area. The NZLRI LUC classification is a nationwide inventory of five physical factors that determine the productive capacity of land. It divides the country into eight classifications (LUC 1 to LUC 8), with LUC 1 land being the most productive and suitable for a diverse range of land uses and LUC 8 land having severe limitations for productive use (Lynn et al., 2009). A further intersection operation has been undertaken with the LCDB layer to determine the distribution of old growth and regenerating forest across the range of productive landscapes.

Case Study Selection

To select appropriate embedded case study properties within the refined study area, properties were grouped into one of the four categorical variables (i.e., 0.0% to 25.0%, 26.0% to 50.0%, 51.0% to 75.0%, and 76.0% to 100.0%), with the quantum of total native forest land (regenerating forest plus old growth forest) being the grouped value. The result of this grouping is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Grouping of properties by quantum of forest land

	0-25%	25-50%	50-75%	75-100%	Total
No. of Properties	205	33	11	9	258

As can be seen, most of the 258 properties within the refined study area fell within the 0.0 to 25.0% category, while only nine of the properties have more than 75.0% total forest land cover. To further disseminate the breakdown of properties, this study applied a grouping of properties based on their overall size, which is shown below in Table 2.

Table 2: Breakdown of properties by size and percentage of forest cover

Size Group	0-25%	25-50%	50-75%	75-100%	Total
5-25 Ha	46	6	8	4	64
25-75 Ha	50	10	1	2	63
75-200 Ha	52	12	2	2	68
200-500 Ha	45	4		1	50
>500 Ha	12	1			13
Total	205	33	11	9	258

Preferably, one embedded case study would have been collected for each combination of size and proportion of forest land cover to best represent the diversity of the dataset (Acharya et al., 2013). However, Table 2 shows that this was not possible for this dataset, as there are no properties returned for several of the combination categories. There was also a heavy weighting of properties (5 to 500 ha in size) that fell into the 0.0% to 25.0% forest land cover category, which decreased significantly as the property size and percentage of total forest increased above 500 ha 25.0%, respectively. This made it harder to fully reflect property heterogeneity within this study.

The average farm size for dairy farms in latest survey statistics is 161 ha within the Manawatū District (DairyNZ & LIC, 2024) and the average size for a sheep and beef hill country farm in the Western North Island: Taranaki and Manawatū-Whanganui

Regions is 481 ha (Beef + lamb New Zealand, 2024). Therefore, to make this research as applicable to the primary sector in the Manawatū District as possible, case study properties have been selected from the category combinations shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Category combinations that case study properties have been selected from

Size Group	Forest land cover	Property unID
200-500 Ha	0-25%	328, 986
200-500 Ha	25-50%	844
75-200 Ha	50-75%	1037
200-500 Ha	75-100%	17

Table 3 also shows the properties (uniquely identified by the ‘unID’ field in QGIS) that were selected as the embedded case study properties. Simple random sampling was used to select the case study properties within each category as this method of sampling gives each property an equal chance of being selected (Singh, 2003).

For large datasets, computer software can be employed to undertake this sampling (Rahi, 2017). This study utilised the ‘Vector Selection – Random Selection’ tool within QGIS, which is an algorithm that selects a specified count or percentage value of features within the dataset (QGIS Project, 2025). This algorithm was run once for each of the category combinations specified in Table 3 to ensure that each case within the subset category combination had an equal chance of being selected, as opposed to applying the algorithm to the entire dataset. Two properties were selected within the 200 to 500 ha size group, 0.0% to 25.0% forest land cover combination. Both cases were randomly selected, and unID 328 was retained upon initial selection as it contains a very low total forest land cover (2.6%), compared to the 15.3% total forest land cover within unID 986. The unID 328 property was retained as it was thought to be useful to highlight an extreme scenario of near zero total forest cover.

Re-mapping of Case Study Properties

Given the known inaccuracies of the LCDB layer (Manaaki Whenua Landcare Research, 2024a; D. Norton & Pannell, 2018) an exercise to re-map the case study properties was undertaken to accurately assess the actual area of old growth and regenerating forest within them. The LCDB layer formed the base of this analysis, with the aim to avoid reclassification between old growth and regenerating forest, but to focus on reclassification between forest vs non-forest vegetation types. For example, areas of manuka and/or kanuka were not reclassified as indigenous forest, and vice versa. To undertake this re-mapping, aerial imagery captured in 2021 to 2022 at 30 cm resolution was relied upon (Toitū Te Whenua Land Information New Zealand, 2023a).

Despite this re-mapping, case studies were not re-selected if they were reclassified to have a total proportion of forest outside their originally assessed categorical variable range.

Development of Protection Scenarios

Once the case studies had been selected, the next step was to develop scenarios for each forest type (old growth and regenerating) for each of the five case studies. Scenarios have been developed for old growth forest that provide biodiversity additionality. In contrast, scenarios for regenerating forest have been developed that focus on carbon additionality. In this study, there have been nine scenarios developed in total, three relating to old growth forest and six relating to regenerating forest. Table 4 summarises the nine scenarios and what is considered within them.

Table 4: Scenario descriptions

Scenario	Forest Type	Description
One	Regenerating	Fencing of property boundary, pest control of property, FMA plots
Two	Regenerating	Fencing of forest blocks, pest control of forest blocks, FMA plots
Three	Regenerating	No fencing, pest control of property, FMA plots
Four	Regenerating	Fencing of property boundary, pest control of property, no FMA plots
Five	Regenerating	Fencing of forest blocks, pest control of forest blocks, no FMA plots
Six	Regenerating	No fencing, pest control of property, no FMA plots
Seven	Old Growth	Fencing of property boundary, pest control of property
Eight	Old Growth	Fencing of forest blocks, pest control of forest blocks
Nine	Old Growth	No fencing, pest control of property

In all scenarios it is assumed that possum control will be undertaken in all old growth, regenerating and other forest within the property. The cost of possum control within regenerating forest for scenarios one to six will be borne 100.0% by that scenario, and the cost of possum control in the other forest will be prorated based on the proportion of regenerating forest in the total native forest. In contrast, the full cost of possum control within old growth forest for scenarios seven to nine will be borne 100.0% by that scenario, with the inverse cost apportionment for other forest.

Furthermore, in all scenarios where the property boundary is fenced, or no fencing at all is undertaken, ungulate control is assumed to be undertaken over the entire property. Similarly to possum control, the full cost of ungulate control within regenerating forest will be borne by scenarios one to six, and the full cost within old growth forest borne by scenarios seven to nine. The costs of pest control within the other forest areas and pastoral areas that make up the balance of the properties will be prorated as it was for the possum control. For the remaining scenarios in which the native forest blocks are fenced (as opposed to the property boundary or no fencing at all), ungulate control is undertaken only in these blocks.

Carbon Additionality in Regenerating Forests

Guided by the literature that has been reviewed, this study has modelled carbon additionality for regenerating forests. However, as there is currently no provision within the New Zealand ETS to account for carbon additionality, and there is no existing evidence of by how much carbon sequestration could increase when possums and ungulates are controlled in regenerating forests, several key assumptions have been made. Most notably, costs and practices associated with the New Zealand ETS have been heavily relied upon as a proxy for a voluntary carbon market in which additional carbon credits generated through possum and ungulate control will be traded. These assumptions are outlined in the following paragraphs.

Firstly, to model baseline levels of carbon sequestration by regenerating forest, this study has relied upon the indigenous forest type carbon stocks presented in the Ministry for Primary Industries (MPI) default lookup table (Climate Change (Forestry) Regulations 2022, 2022). To estimate the carbon additionality attributable to possum and ungulate control, the study of Nugent et al. (1997), which found that possums and deer consumed 3.3% and 8.0% of biomass available to them, respectively, was used as a guide. This study has assumed carbon additionality of 10.0% when possums and deer are controlled in regenerating forest. The baseline and assumed additional carbon stocks are summarised in Table 5 and are expressed in t CO₂.

Table 5: Baseline and additional carbon stocks

Age (yrs)	Indeg	Indeg (Adj.)	Age (yrs)	Indeg	Indeg (Adj.)
1	0.6	0.7	26	224.6	247.1
2	1.2	1.3	27	233.7	257.1
3	2.5	2.8	28	242.2	266.4
4	4.6	5.1	29	250.1	275.1
5	7.8	8.6	30	257.5	283.3
6	12.1	13.3	31	264.3	290.7

Age (yrs)	Indeg	Indeg (Adj.)	Age (yrs)	Indeg	Indeg (Adj.)
7	17.5	19.3	32	270.6	297.7
8	24.0	26.4	33	276.3	303.9
9	31.6	34.8	34	281.6	309.8
10	40.2	44.2	35	286.5	315.2
11	49.8	54.8	36	290.9	320.0
12	60.3	66.3	37	295.0	324.5
13	71.5	78.7	38	298.7	328.6
14	83.3	91.6	39	302.0	332.2
15	95.5	105.1	40	305.1	335.6
16	108.1	118.9	41	307.8	338.6
17	120.8	132.9	42	310.4	341.4
18	133.6	147.0	43	312.6	343.9
19	146.3	160.9	44	314.7	346.2
20	158.7	174.6	45	316.5	348.2
21	170.9	188.0	46	318.2	350.0
22	182.6	200.9	47	319.7	351.7
23	193.9	213.3	48	321.1	353.2
24	204.7	225.2	49	322.3	354.5
25	215.0	236.5	50	323.4	355.7

To become a participant within the New Zealand ETS, the landowner must register their land, and they then have several obligations they must meet. The initial costs to register land within the ETS are summarised in Table 6 (Ministry for Primary Industries, 2025). This study has adopted the cost for registering regenerating forest in line with these costs for each case study.

Table 6: Cost of registering land within the New Zealand ETS

Area of Land in Application	Cost (incl. GST)
Less than 10 Ha	\$102.2
From 10 Ha and less than 50 Ha	\$2,087.3
From 50 Ha and less than 100 Ha	\$2,277.0
From 100 Ha and less than 500 Ha	\$3,036.0
500 Ha and more	\$4,743.8

Once the land is registered, the participant must pay an annual registration fee of \$14.90 per ha, and can file a voluntary emissions return (to claim carbon credits

generated by their forest) on an annual basis, which costs \$165 (Ministry for Primary Industries, 2025). This study has modelled annual filing of returns.

If a participant in the New Zealand ETS has a forest type registered under the Field Measurement Approach (FMA), then they are required to collect information for their forest by using permanent sample plots (Ministry for Primary Industries, 2024a). Under the FMA approach, the minimum number of plots required for the smallest area (100 ha) of registered indigenous forest is 15, and assuming a plot area of 0.06 ha (Ministry for Primary Industries, 2024a), this equates to a sampled area of 0.9 ha, or 0.9% of the total area. Therefore, this study has adopted a sampling density of 0.9% of the regenerating forest area and divided this by 0.06 ha to estimate the total number of sample plots within each case study. FMA plots only need to be remeasured once every five years (Ministry for Primary Industries, 2024a), and this study has adopted this measuring frequency within its modelling. Costs of FMA plot sampling range from \$300 to \$500 for plots in exotic forestry, increasing significantly for native forest plots, which can range from \$600 to \$800 per plot (A. Buswell, personal communication, June 3, 2025). This study has adopted a cost of \$600 per plot, which is at the lower end of the spectrum, and represents the relative ease at which the plots will be able to be measured as the case studies typically have good access over them, which helps to reduce cost (A. Buswell, personal communication, June 3, 2025).

An alternative scenario was also modelled whereby a designated lookup table has been created for managed regenerating native forests, which a participant could enter into. This would therefore remove the need for plot sampling once every five years.

A starting carbon credit price of \$57.05 has been used within this research.

Biodiversity Additionality in Old Growth Forests

To model biodiversity additionality scenarios, this study has aimed to follow the principles of the Ekos SD (Sustainable Development), which has been developed to meet the need to balance private and public funding for biodiversity outcomes, and is a mechanism to allow for the costs of projects to be recovered by those undertaking the works (Ekos SD Limited, 2025). The Ekos BioCredita scheme has been created in line with this standard.

The Ekos SD Standard (the document outlining the standards for Ekos SD) has established two methodologies for measuring biodiversity gains. Firstly, they can be measured using the Verified Cause Approach, which focuses on verifying the inputs of biodiversity works, and secondly, via the Verified Effect Approach, which focuses on the outputs of biodiversity works (Ekos SD Limited, 2025). Weaver (2025) expects that most of the projects will be verified by the third-party organisation using the Verified Effect Approach. In the absence of any readily available costs, this study has adopted the cost of a certified farm plan as a proxy for third-party verification of biodiversity works. This cost has been modelled to be \$5,000 for the initial development of the plan, and \$2,000 for the ongoing annual audit (S. Hawkins, personal communication, May 23, 2025).

The value of a BioCredita credit is determined by the costs incurred to generate the credit (Weaver, 2025), which differs from carbon credits. The BioCredita scheme has been designed to facilitate biodiversity conservation by providing landowners with the necessary funding to undertake the works. This is an important distinction as it does not allow for the ‘monetization of nature’, which could result in perverse outcomes. To set the value of a BioCredita credit, landowners must provide a cost declaration ex-ante for each year’s issuance of credits, and these must be verified ex-

post at each verification milestone. The cost declaration contains a schedule of all expenditure required to deliver the project, including but not limited to; project capital and operational expenditure (establishment and maintenance costs), opportunity costs (e.g. lost farming revenue from the land), and the cost of capital (interest repayments on borrowed capital) (Ekos SD Limited, 2025). The credit price can change from year to year to reflect varying levels of cost incurred to undertake the project (Weaver, 2025), and projects may be grouped, either within or across national, regional, or territorial boundaries (Ekos SD Limited, 2025).

Therefore, instead of modelling the profitability of biodiversity conservation in old growth forests, this study has focused on the costs incurred by the landowner.

Fencing Costs

To allow for fencing costs within this study's modelling, several fencing contractors who operate primarily within the Manawatū-Whanganui region were surveyed as to their current costs of deer fencing. The results of this survey are summarised in Table 7.

Table 7: Deer fencing costs (materials + labour) on a per metre basis

ID	Flat	Rolling	Steep
Contractor 1	\$30/m		\$100/m
Contractor 2	\$30/m	\$35/m	\$40/m
Contractor 3	\$30/m	\$35/m	

The above rates account for an angle every 50 m on average, with each angle costing \$200. Therefore, when fencing forest blocks that have a complicated boundary, this cost can increase if an angle is required more frequently than every 50 m. Moreover, the \$100/m cost supplied by Contractor 1 reflects the cost of erecting fencing where

machinery is not able to gain access and the work must be done manually. All other costs assume that machinery can access the site.

Three fencing plans have been modelled. Firstly, a scenario where the property boundary is perimeter deer fenced has been modelled. Secondly, a scenario where blocks of native forest are deer fenced, with no property boundary fencing, has been modelled. In the first two fencing scenarios, it has been assumed that the property boundary and native forest blocks will require all new fencing. Furthermore, there has been no determination made in the first two fencing scenarios as to the most practical/cost-effective fencing lines, and instead the raw property and native forest block polygon boundaries have been relied upon. A third fencing scenario has been modelled in which there is no fencing undertaken within the case study properties at all.

Ungulate Control

To model an effective ungulate control strategy, this study relies upon information provided by a reputable pest control business that operates nationwide in New Zealand. The source wished to remain anonymous to protect intellectual property.

To facilitate ungulate control, population surveys are initially undertaken to estimate how many animals are resident as opposed to transient (anonymous personal communication, May 23, 2025). For deer, two surveys in one month will be undertaken at night using thermal a monocular, and for goats, a single 4WD inspection over the course of one day can suffice. Once the size of the pest population has been established, cullers will be deployed to the property to undertake control. The anonymous source presented a case study of a 600 ha property from which 500 animals were culled (anonymous personal communication, May 23, 2025). It took two cullers

ten days of work to cull the pests. Cullers were charged out at \$75 per hour during the day and \$85 per hour during the night, which reflects the cost of additional equipment. A mix of day and night hunting is recommended to provide effective control of all ungulate species, as well as to keep kill rates high by creating constant disturbance of the animals' behavioural patterns. We have modelled an even split between day and night culling. After the initial knockdown period, one culler visited the property for five days per month for a period of three months. After the three months, there was a client review of the ongoing need for pest control, which saw visits drop down to one day per month on an ongoing basis.

With the above case study in mind, this study has attempted to standardise the costs from the 600 ha operation to a 100 ha property, to allow for ease of comparison against the possum control programme. A summary of the possum control programme implemented is summarised in Table 8.

Table 8: Summary of ungulate control programme

Operation	Year	Cost \$/ha
Population Density Sampling	0	\$19
Initial Knockdown	0	\$51
Maintenance (Three months post-knockdown)	3 months	\$36
Maintenance (Year 1)	9 months	\$54
Maintenance (Ongoing)	Ongoing	\$72
Operation Cost Total		\$232

Possum Control

Effective possum control has been proven to achieve a <5% residual trap catch (RTC), which aligns with the Horizon Regional Council's stated goal for possum population densities (Martyn & Dodd, 2015). To achieve this level of control, Waikato Regional Council utilised 105 AT220 traps in a trial area of 500 ha (Waikato Regional

Council, 2023), equating to a density of one trap every 4.2 ha. This trial by Waikato Regional Council (2023) found that possum densities dropped from 13.75% RTC pre-trial to 3.03% RTS post-trial. However, it must be noted that the native bush areas surrounding the trial site had been subject to aerial application of 1080 poison, which prevented re-invasion of the trial area by populations outside of it (L. Shadbolt, personal communication, June 16, 2025).

This study has adopted a pest control strategy that utilises the AT220 trap in conjunction with existing Horizons Regional Council possum control efforts. The AT220 trap is produced by NZ Auto Traps, and currently markets for \$565 per trap (*AT220 Multi Species Auto Resetting and Reluring Pest Trap*, 2025), and need to be serviced once every four to six months. Replacement batteries can be purchased for \$63.25, and a 2 litre bottle of replacement lure can be purchased for \$50.60 (NZ Auto Traps, 2025). This study has allowed for three days per year to check/re-bait the stations, 350ml of lure per check, and one spare battery per trap to allow for immediate re-arming of the trap. Currently, the Horizons Regional Council undertakes ground-baiting possum control every two to three years (L. Shadbolt, personal communication, June 16, 2025), with this cost comprising part of the annual total regional council rates and being levied at an area rate of \$1.05 per hectare (Horizons Regional Council, 2025). We have not included this as a cost within our workings as although it is a cost incurred as part of the biodiversity project, this work would have been undertaken irrespective of whether the additional trapping work was undertaken, and therefore, does not constitute additionality.

L. Shadbolt states that to determine pre-control RTC of possums, population density counts need to be undertaken (personal communication, June 16, 2025). This involves 200 m long transect lines being established and set with wax and bite tags, which are left for seven days and then checked. Over a 100 ha area, ten transect lines will commonly be set, which will take three to four days' labour for one person, at a rate of \$75 to \$85 per hour. Monitoring density studies should be followed up every three to five years.

Within this study, it has been modelled that possum control will be undertaken within old growth and regenerating native forest, as well as other forest. This has been modelled as previous studies have shown that in order for effective lowering of the possum RTC in an area, surrounding afforested areas also need to be controlled to prevent reinvasion (Waikato Regional Council, 2023).

A summary of the possum control programme implemented is summarised in Table 9.

Table 9: Summary of possum control programme

Operation	Year	Cost \$/ha
Population Density Sampling - Initial (10 Transects)	0	\$34
AT220 Trap Purchase	0	\$175
AT220 Trap Maintenance	Annual	\$21
Population Density Sampling - Follow Up (10 Transects)	5-yearly	\$34

Discounted Cash Flow Analysis

The outputs from QGIS were compiled in a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet where they were incorporated into a discounted cash flow (DCF) analysis. A DCF analysis can express all revenue and expenditure of an investment at a single point in time, which is usually at the start of the investment period, by 'discounting' all cash flows at a pre-

determined discount rate (Janiszewski, 2011). Therefore, DCFs can be used to compare profitability of investments with different timing of cash flows (Fogan & Pollard, 2020). Future cash flows have to be discounted to a single point in time due to the time value of money concept, which states that one dollar today is worth more than one dollar received at some point in the future (Maclaren, 1993). There was one DCF prepared for each of the nine scenarios for each of the five case study properties.

This study applied a discount rate of 7.8% for pre-tax cash flows, which was the average discount rate forestry valuers used in 2023 for small (<1,000 ha) forests (Manley, 2024). All costs and revenues have been compounded annually at 1.5%. The investment horizon for the six carbon additionality scenarios for regenerating forests varied depending on the age of the regenerating forest. As the MPI lookup tables only extend to 50 years (Climate Change (Forestry) Regulations 2022, 2022), the age of the forest was subtracted from this maximum age and the result was adopted as the investment horizon. Although native forests can continue to sequester carbon for hundreds of years (Hall & McGlone, 2006), this study has ceased the investment period once the regenerating forest has reached age 50. In contrast, the biodiversity additionality scenarios for old growth forests have utilised a standard 50-year investment horizon.

The Net Present Value (NPV) of an investment is the sum of all revenue minus the sum of all expenditure over a specified period, discounted at an appropriate rate, whereas the IRR is the discount rate that will result in an NPV of zero (Agnes Cheng et al., 1994). Both the NPV and IRR are two metrics upon which capital investments are assessed, however, they can provide different rankings, which leads to differences in

the most desirable investment being recommended (Osborne, 2010). As the IRR has only an implicit association with wealth maximisation, and the NPV has an explicit association with the wealth position of the overall business (Agnes Cheng et al., 1994), NPV will be relied upon within this research as the primary metric for assessing profitability of carbon additionality scenarios.

Chapter Four: Results

Property Heterogeneity

The study area comprised a total area of 43,324.6 ha, which is 92.8 ha larger than the geographic area of the combined Apiti and Pohangina localities. The discrepancy in the area was due to the reasons outlaid in the methodology regarding prioritising grouping of properties over maintaining a boundary that perfectly reflects the locality boundaries. However, it was also discovered that there has been a coordinate reference system (CRS) issue when the original NZ Property Hybrid Layer was created. This has created gaps and overlaps between some features when they are situated adjacent to a feature that is sourced from one of the other contributory layers.

Table 10: Property count and size by designation for study area

Designation	Count of Properties	Total Area (Ha)
Private	652	40,371.0
Waterways/Waterbodies	54	967.1
Formed Legal Road	214	583.7
Unformed Legal Road	151	508.5
Local Authority	35	468.8
Crown Land	36	271.3
Scenic Reserve	6	77.0
Recreation Reserve	3	18.6
Soil Conservation Purposes	2	17.9
River Protection Reserve	2	14.7
Gravel Reserve	19	11.6
Conservation Purposes	11	10.3
Cemetery Reserve	3	4.2
Total	1,188	43,324.6

Table 10 above shows the breakdown of the properties contained within the study area. Private land was found to be the main designation, equating to 54.9% of properties by count but 93.2% of properties by area. Legal Roads also made up a significant portion of the count of properties (30.7%) but only accounted for 2.5% of the

total area. Waterways/waterbodies, Local Authorities, Crown Land and reserves all made up relatively small proportions of both the count of properties and the total area.

The results of merging Unformed Legal Roads ('paper roads') with private land where they bisected farming properties, removing private properties under 5 ha, as well as all properties with a designation other than private land are shown below in Table 11.

Table 11: property count and size for refined study area

Designation	Count of Properties	Total Area (Ha)
Private	258	39,888.5
Total	258	39,888.5

It can be seen in Table 11 that while the count of properties fell 60.4% the total area of these properties only fell 1.2%. The median size of a property was 76.9 ha and ranged from 5.0 ha to 1,413.3 ha. The distribution was extremely right skewed (skewness = 2.9). Therefore, a natural log transformation was undertaken to normalise the data. This transformation revealed a relationship between area and shape complexity, with an R^2 value of 0.76. Categorization of the properties into five size categories, as shown in Table 12 below, revealed further insights.

Table 12: Size relationships of properties within refined study area

Group	Count of Properties	Mean Area (Ha)	Mean Perimeter (m)	Mean Ratio	vs Perfect Circle
5-25 Ha	64	11.2	1,827.6	0.0181	1.54
25-75 Ha	63	45.5	3,675.1	0.0086	1.54
75-200 Ha	68	122.3	6,112.4	0.0051	1.56
200-500 Ha	50	329.3	11,994.7	0.0037	1.86
>500 Ha	13	886.6	26,079.7	0.0029	2.47

There is a scaling paradox of properties (polygons) within the refined study area. Smaller polygons exhibited higher perimeter-to-area ratios (0.0181 – indicating relative complexity), but larger polygons demonstrated greater perimeter inefficiency compared

to geometric ideals (a circle) despite lower perimeter-to-area ratios (0.0029). Very small polygons (5 to 25 ha) had perimeters 1.54 times longer than equivalent circles, indicating irregular boundaries. However, very large polygons (>500 ha) had perimeters 2.47 times longer than equivalent circles, suggesting highly convoluted boundaries with extensive indentations, protrusions, or fragments edges.

Quantum of Native Forest Land

The results of land cover analysis of the study area are summarised below in

Table 13.

Table 13: Landcover breakdown of the study area by designation

Land Cover Classification	Private	Legal Roads	Waterways/ Waterbodies	Local Authority	Crown	Reserves/ Other	Total Area (Ha)
High Producing Exotic Grassland	31,977.5	707.4	384.6	60.9	38.9	59.6	33,228.8
Old Growth Forest	4,227.8	187.5	130.8	337.3	200.8	80.9	5,165.0
Exotic Forest	1,652.5	33.1	2.9	38.1	4.3	0.9	1,731.8
Regenerating Forest	1,419.4	36.9	67.3	1.6	8.0	5.8	1,539.0
Low Producing Grassland	450.2	10.9	31.2	0.0	0.4	0.8	493.5
Deciduous Hardwoods	287.9	31.4	93.6	11.8	5.0	0.8	430.4
River	89.3	38.8	158.8	8.0	5.6	3.6	304.2
Gravel or Rock	36.5	21.6	96.7	7.7	8.3	2.0	172.7
Forest - Harvested	140.4	0.8		0.9			142.1
Sub Alpine Shrubland	45.4						45.4
Short-rotation Cropland	34.6	1.1					35.7
Landslide	9.8	1.2	1.3	1.6			13.8
Built-up Area (settlement)	6.3	3.5		0.9			10.7
Lake or Pond	5.4						5.4
Herbaceous Freshwater Vegetation	2.4						2.4
Matagouri or Grey Scrub	2.4						2.4
Orchard, Vineyard or Other Perennial Crop	1.1						1.1
Total Area (Ha)	40,388.7	1,074.2	967.0	468.7	271.2	154.3	43,324.2

Grassland (including low and high producing) areas account for 77.8% of the total land cover of the study area, and 96.2% of this area is privately owned. The second most common land cover is old growth forest, which accounts for only 11.9% of the

total area, and similarly, is predominantly contained within private land (81.9%). The regenerating forest category is the fourth most prominent, comprising a mere 3.6% of the study area, with 92.2% contained within private land. When combining the land cover classifications that would have been present pre-human settlement, only 7,666.7 ha, or 17.7%, of the native land cover remains.

Table 14 summarises the results of the analysis to determine how polygon characteristics for old growth forest and regenerating forest change when property boundaries are overlaid. This analysis provides insight into how ownership may affect the maintenance and protection of remnant native forest area,

Table 14: Impact of property boundaries on indigenous forest polygons

Situation/Forest Type	Count	Mean Area (Ha)	Total Area (Ha)
<i>Land Cover (Study Area)</i>	555	12.1	6,704.9
Old Growth Forest	362	14.3	5,165.3
Regenerating Forest	193	8.0	1,539.7
<i>Land Cover with Property Overlay</i>	1,467	4.6	6,704.0
Old Growth Forest	1,034	5.0	5,165.0
Regenerating Forest	433	3.6	1,539.0
<i>Land Cover with Property Overlay (Refined)</i>	889	6.3	5,613.2
Old Growth Forest	605	6.9	4,194.9
Regenerating Forest	284	5.0	1,418.4

When the LCDB layer was constrained to the study area boundary, there were only 555 individual native forest polygons, with an average size of 12.1 ha across both categories. In contrast, when property boundaries are overlaid, the number of individual polygons increases by 164.0% to 1,467 and the average polygon size fell to 4.6 ha. Notably, the polygon size for old growth forest and regenerating forest fell by 65.0% and 55.0%, respectively.

When the study area is refined to exclude all non-private land and private land >5 ha in size, the quantum of privately owned land reduces from 40,388.7 ha to 39,888.5 ha. Grassland remains the dominant land cover (80.2%), followed by old growth forest (10.5%), and regenerating forest being the fourth most common at 3.6% of total area. Furthermore, as evidenced by Table 14 above, the quantum of indigenous forest decreases by 1,090.8 ha when the study area is refined, but the fall in the number of polygons offsets this decline in area to result in the average size of the forest classifications increasing compared to when all designations are included in the analysis. This, however, does not offset the reductions in average size introduced by the property overlay.

Distribution of Land Cover

The predominant NZLRI LUC class within the study area is LUC 6, comprising 43.2% of the total area. The second largest class is NZLRI LUC 7, comprising 25.3% of the total area. Table 15 shows that in comparison, the remainder of the classes are relatively insignificant within the study area.

Table 15: NZLRI LUC breakdown of study area

LUC Class	Area (Ha)	% of Total
1	1,360.0	3.1%
2	3,329.0	7.7%
3	3,937.0	9.1%
4	1,313.0	3.0%
6	18,720.0	43.2%
7	10,947.0	25.3%
8	3,570.0	8.2%
river	152.0	0.4%
Total	43,328.0	100.0%

Further analysis revealed that remaining old growth and regenerating forests were restricted to the poorer sites that were not preferred for pastoral farming. The

results show that 95.0% of all old growth forest is found on LUC 6 to 8 land, and 97.7% of regenerating forest was found within the same classes. In contrast, 74.2% of pastoral agriculture (predominantly comprising the grassland classifications) land was contained within LUC 6 to 8 land, which is a slight underrepresentation (LUC 6 to 8 for the entire study area comprises 76.7%). The more productive classes of LUC 1 to 4 are dominated by pastoral agriculture, with the grassland classes comprising 94.5% of this area, and old growth forest and regenerating forests only comprising a total of 2.7%. Of the land cover that would have been present pre-human settlement, only 3.7% of these areas are contained within LUC 1 to 4 land.

Of the 258 properties included within the refined study area, only 197 contained any old growth forest and/or regenerating forest, with 61 properties containing no native forest whatsoever.

Table 16: Distribution of properties with indigenous forest

Group	Count with >0% Forest	Total Count	% of Properties with Forest
5-25 Ha	41	64	64.1%
25-75 Ha	38	63	60.3%
75-200 Ha	57	68	83.8%
200-500 Ha	48	50	96.0%
>500 Ha	13	13	100.0%
Total	197	258	76.4%

Table 16 indicates that as the property increases in size, the greater the likelihood that a property includes regenerating and/or old growth forest. This is likely not only due to the larger absolute size increasing the chance that not all of the old growth forest was cleared, but the presence of forest can also be described by the LUC breakdown of the properties. For the 5 to 25 ha and 25 to 75 ha groups, the LUC breakdown was weighted towards LUC 1 to 5 land., comprising 37.3% and 39.4% of 5 to

25 ha and 25 to 75 ha groups, respectively. Whereas, for the 75 to 200 ha, 200 to 500 ha and >500 ha groups, the LUC breakdown comprised of 30.6%, 19.8% and 13.2%, respectively. Indicating a heavier weighting towards LUC 6-8 land.

Table 17 shows the distribution of the two forest types between the properties based on their size.

Table 17: Forest type by property size group

Size Group	Regenerating Forest Area (Ha)	Old Growth Forest Area (Ha)	Total Area (Ha)
5-25 Ha	25.7	132.6	158.3
25-75 Ha	167.4	189.2	356.6
75-200 Ha	418.6	829.1	1,247.6
200-500 Ha	538.1	1,722.5	2,260.6
>500 Ha	268.7	1,321.5	1,590.2
Total Area (Ha)	1,418.4	4,194.9	5,613.3

Despite the 5 to 25 ha size group having only 1.8% (713.9 ha) of the refined study area by size, it contained 2.8% of total forest area. The remainder of the size groups had an amount of total forest area that was in line with their percentage share of the area of the refined study area. Furthermore, Table 17 also shows that the majority (74.3%) of the native forest within the refined study area is classified as old growth forest, and only 25.3% is classified as regenerating forest. Furthermore, 10.1% of the properties account for 55.4% (786.0 ha) and 53.4% (2,240.8 ha) of the regenerating forest and old growth forest land cover, respectively, within the refined study area. Furthermore, 10.1% of the properties comprise 46.6% (2,618.5 ha) of the total forest land cover.

When the forest polygons within the study area were examined irrespective of the property boundaries, it was found that there was a total of 1,306 land cover polygons and of these, 362 were classified as old growth forest. It was found that 52.9%

of all old growth polygons by area were contained within only 10 polygons, and the largest 9.9% of polygons accounted for 71.5% of the total old growth forest area. The largest polygons were situated on the periphery of the Ruahine Ranges (Crown-owned land) and adjacent to streams and rivers on steep topography. In comparison, the smaller the polygons are typically long and narrow, and are situated further from the Ruahine Ranges and rivers/streams, being more centrally located within larger grassland polygons. There were also 193 regenerating forest polygons contained within the study area, and 50.6% of the area was contained within 13.0% of the polygons. Unlike the largest of the old forest polygons, the largest regenerating forest polygons were found more centrally located within larger grassland polygons. Their shapes were less uniform than the old growth forests, with the polygons tending to follow the shape of gullies that form the steeper parts of the farming properties, but not as steep as the river and streambanks that the larger old growth forest polygons were found within. The largest old growth forest polygons tended to be more regular in their shape, being confined, or protected, by steeper contour and natural features such as rivers and steep cliffs.

Land Cover within Case Study Properties

The re-mapping of the studies resulted in a change in landcover for all five of case study properties, as shown in Table 18. Importantly, it can be seen that none of the case studies had re-mapped total forest areas that changed the categorical variable that they originally fell within.

Table 18: Quantum of total forest within case studies

Case Number	Original	Re-mapped
Case One	2.6%	4.2%
Case Two	15.3%	22.6%
Case Three	37.7%	44.6%
Case Four	59.3%	57.7%
Case Five	79.6%	84.3%

Case One only contained old growth forest, and the increase in old growth forest area came from a reduction in high producing grassland classification. Case Two saw an increase in both regenerating and old growth forest, which came from the exotic forest (6.2 ha), and high producing grassland (21.0 ha) classifications. Case Three saw a small increase to old growth forest (0.4 ha) and a larger increase to regenerating forest (24.3 ha) all of which was reclassified from the high producing grassland classification. Case Four saw a decrease of 6.9 ha from regenerating forest, which was offset by a 5.2 ha increase in old growth forest. Case Five saw an increase of 17.0 ha to regenerating forest classifications, and no change to old growth forest types.

When examining the accuracy of the original LCDB layer compared to the results of the re-mapping exercise, which are summarised in Table 19, it can be seen that only three of the ten categories were 100.0% accurate.

Table 19: Producer accuracy of the LCDB layer

LCDB Category	Producer Accuracy
Broadleaved Indigenous Hardwoods	84.4%
Deciduous Hardwoods	100.0%
Exotic Forest	73.1%
Forest - Harvested	56.0%
High Producing Exotic Grassland	93.8%
Indigenous Forest	9.0%
Low Producing Grassland	59.7%
Manuka and/or Kanuka	73.5%
River	100.0%
Sub Alpine Shrubland	100.0%

These results broadly indicate poorer accuracy of the LCDB layer than those reported by Dunningham et al. (2000), who estimated the accuracy of the LCDB layer to be above 93.9%. However, the LCDB layer has been generated from poorer resolution imagery (D. Norton & Pannell, 2018) than what the re-mapped layer has been. Much of the difference in classification has come from boundary realignment.

Carbon Additionality Feasibility of Regenerating Forests

Fencing Costs

All the case study properties, with the exclusion of Case One, had regenerating forest within them, and therefore, had carbon additionality scenarios developed for them. The largest variable amongst the case study properties and the scenarios was the cost of fencing. The fencing costs modelled in each of the case studies are summarised below in Table 20.

Table 20: Fencing costs for carbon additionality scenarios

	Cost of Fencing				
	Case One	Case Two	Case Three	Case Four	Case Five
Property Boundary	475,615	482,853	355,880	466,000	1,181,700
Regenerating Forest	-	167,650	1,501,875	119,000	451,000

Table 21 summarises the area of the property and the total area of regenerating forest within each case study, as well as the corresponding perimeter.

Table 21: Length of fencing required for carbon additionality scenarios

	Length of Fencing Required				
	Case One	Case Two	Case Three	Case Four	Case Five
Property Boundary					
Area (ha)	293.3	369.8	356.6	104.2	362.4
Perimeter (km)	13.6	10.8	10.2	4.7	11.8
Regenerating Forest					
Area (ha)	-	15.7	128.5	3.7	29.8
Perimeter (km)	-	4.8	22.3	1.2	4.5

Cases Four and Three have the smallest perimeters of 4.7 and 10.2 km, respectively. However, while Case Three has the lowest property boundary fencing cost of \$355,880, Case Four has the second highest property boundary fencing cost of \$466,000. Furthermore, Case Five has the second largest property boundary perimeter, which is only 1.6 km longer than that of Case Three, but it has the highest property boundary fencing cost at \$1,181,700. This cost is over three times greater than the cost for Case Three, despite the perimeter only being 16.2% longer. For all case study properties other than Case Three, the cost of fencing the property boundary is more expensive than fencing the regenerating forest block boundaries. For Case Three, the perimeter of the property boundary is much smaller than the boundary of the regenerating forest blocks (10.2 km vs 22.3 km length) but the cost for fencing the regenerating forest blocks is \$1,145,995 (or more than four times) greater than the cost of fencing the property boundary. The modelled cost of fencing the property boundary of Case Three was \$35/m, whereas the modelled cost of fencing the regenerating forest blocks was \$100/m, which reflects the inaccessibility of the blocks within this case. Cases Four and Five also have high fencing costs compared to the perimeters of the property boundaries and regenerating forest blocks due to also having the fencing rates modelled at \$100/m.

Table 22 summarises the total fencing costs and expresses the cost of fencing as a percentage of total expenses for a given scenario. Scenarios 1 and 4 both comprise fencing of the property boundary, and Scenarios 2 and 5 comprise fencing of the regenerating forest blocks.

Table 22: Fencing costs as a share of total costs for carbon additionality scenarios

		Total Costs & Fencing Costs							
		Case Two		Case Three		Case Four		Case Five	
Scenario 1	-	548,243	-	617,114	-	475,240	-	1,229,756	
Scenario 4	-	539,339	-	576,781	-	474,091	-	1,220,391	
Fencing Cost		482,853		355,880		466,000		1,181,700	
% of Total Expenses	88.1% , 89.5%		57.7% , 61.7%		98.1% , 98.3%		96.1% , 96.8%		
Scenario 2	-	208,541	-	1,700,728	-	128,184	-	497,386	
Scenario 5	-	199,637	-	1,660,395	-	127,035	-	488,022	
Fencing Cost		167,650		1,501,875		119,000		451,000	
% of Total Expenses	80.4% , 84.0%		88.3% , 90.5%		92.8% , 93.7%		90.7% , 92.4%		

For all scenarios, except for the property boundary fencing for Case Three, the cost of fencing accounts for over 80.0% of the total costs incurred in the carbon additionality scenario. The reason for the low percentages for Scenarios 1 and 4 within Case Three of 57.7% and 61.7% of total costs, respectively, is because the area of regenerating forest comprises 36.0% of the total property area. This has resulted in the variable costs associated with pest control, ETS registration and FMA plots being higher relative to the cost of property boundary fencing than for the other case study properties, which only comprise between 3.5% and 8.2% of regenerating forest.

Pest Control Costs

The cost of possum control did not vary between scenarios for a given case, but it did vary between case study properties (refer Table 23).

Table 23: Possum control costs for carbon additionality scenarios

		Possum Control Costs			
		Case Two	Case Three	Case Four	Case Five
Total Cost		17,053	97,045	4,283	21,367
Cost per Ha		1,083	755	1,170	716

Total possum control costs ranged from \$4,283 for Case Four, which contained only 3.7 ha of regenerating forest to \$97,045 for Case Three, which contained 128.5 ha

of regenerating forest. The per hectare costs were slightly lower for Case Three and Case Five (\$755/ha and \$716/ha, respectively) than the other two case study properties. The reason for the higher per hectare possum control expenditure in Case One is that based upon the estimated age of the regenerating forest, the adopted investment horizon is 26 years, whereas it is only 15 years for the other three case study properties. Case Four has higher per hectare expenditure for possum control because there is 44.1 ha of other forest contained within the property, compared to only 3.7 ha of regenerating forest. As the cost of possum control for the other forest area is accounted for in the carbon additionality scenario on a prorated basis, the cost of possum control when brought back to a per hectare figure appears high. If Case One was restricted to the same investment horizon of 15 years, the cost would drop to \$10,666 or \$677/ha due to the low proportion of other forest contained within the property (2.1% of total property area), making it the cheapest possum control scenario.

In contrast, the cost of ungulate control varied between scenarios within a given case and between case study properties (refer Table 24).

Table 24: Ungulate control costs for carbon additionality scenarios

	Ungulate Control Costs			
	Case Two	Case Three	Case Four	Case Five
Scenarios 1, 3, 4 & 6	31,304	94,714	977	9,176
Cost per Ha	1,989	737	267	308
Scenarios 2 & 5	6,805	32,333	921	7,507
Cost per Ha	432	252	252	252

For Scenarios 1, 3, 4 and 6 ungulate control for the entire property was modelled (even though property boundary fencing was modelled for Scenarios 1 and 4, and no fencing whatsoever was modelled for Scenarios 3 and 6). In contrast, Scenarios 2 and 5 modelled ungulate control to only be undertaken in the perimeter fenced regenerating

forest blocks. For all case study properties, pest control was found to be more expensive in both absolute terms and on a per ha basis when it was undertaken over the entire property than when it was only undertaken within the perimeter-fenced regenerating forest blocks. The differential in cost is comparatively low for Cases Four and Five, which is a function of these cases having small areas of regenerating forest but large areas of old growth forest. Of the native forest in Case Four, only 6.1% is regenerating forest, and in Case Five, this figure rises slightly to 9.8%. As the carbon additionality scenarios only account for the full cost of ungulate control within regenerating forest areas, and costs of ungulate control for the balance of the property in Scenarios 1, 3, 4 and 6 are prorated, the old growth forest biodiversity additionality scenarios are modelled to cover the vast majority of this cost. Case Two has an inverse proportion of regenerating forest (81.2% of native forest) the cost of ungulate control in Scenarios 1, 3, 4 and 6 is significantly higher on a per ha basis at \$1,989/ha. However, when only the regenerating forest blocks are modelled to have pest control undertaken in Scenarios 2 and 5, this cost falls dramatically to \$432/ha.

The results in Table 24, when considered alongside the results presented in Table 22, indicate that from a cost perspective, Scenarios 2 and 5 are more desirable than Scenarios 1, 3, 4 and 6 due to the lower costs associated with ungulate control. However, the cost implications must be more clearly understood. Scenarios 1 and 4 have both high fencing costs and ungulate control costs, which exceed those of Scenarios 2 and 5 for all case study properties apart from Case Study 3, which is due to the expensive cost associated with inaccessible land. In contrast, Scenarios 3 and 6, which model no fencing but pest control over the entire property, have high ungulate control costs but no cost associated with fencing.

Table 25: Total costs for carbon additionality scenarios

		Total Costs					
		Case Two		Case Three		Case Four	Case Five
Scenario 1	-	548,243	-	617,114	-	475,240	1,229,756
Scenario 2	-	208,541	-	1,700,728	-	128,184	497,386
Scenario 3	-	65,391	-	261,234	-	9,240	48,056
Scenario 4	-	539,339	-	576,781	-	474,091	1,220,391
Scenario 5	-	199,637	-	1,660,395	-	127,035	488,022
Scenario 6	-	64,571	-	220,901	-	8,091	38,691

Table 25 shows the total costs for each scenario across the five case study properties. It can be seen that Scenarios 3 and 6 are the cheapest across all of the case study properties, with Scenarios 1 and 4 being the most expensive. Table 26 shows the total costs on a per ha basis. When looking at the expenditure on a per ha basis, this reinforces the hierarchy of least to most expensive scenario as shown by Table 25.

Table 26: Total costs per ha for carbon additionality scenarios

		Total Costs/Ha			
		Case Two	Case Three	Case Four	Case Five
Scenario 1		8,062	20,134	8,422	4,460
Scenario 2		3,067	55,489	2,272	1,804
Scenario 3		962	8,523	164	174
Scenario 4		7,931	18,818	8,401	4,426
Scenario 5		2,936	54,173	2,251	1,770
Scenario 6		950	7,207	143	140

ETS Registration and FMA Plotting Costs

Scenarios 1, 2 and 3 were modelled to account for FMA plot measurement, and Scenarios 4, 5 and 6 were modelled on the basis that a specific lookup table for managed regenerating forests would exist. This difference in modelling proved to be of little relevance to the overall financial feasibility of the conservation scenarios. For Scenarios 1 and 2 the cost of FMA plots was responsible for only 0.2% to 6.5% of total costs across all case study properties.

Carbon Stock Additionality

As outlined previously in this study, carbon additionality has been modelled to be 10.0% above baseline carbon stocks. Table 27 summarises the total additional carbon stocks for each case study property, the additional income, and the investment horizon.

Table 27: Total carbon additionality modelled

	Total Carbon Additionality			
	Case Two	Case Three	Case Four	Case Five
t CO ₂	11.9	3.7	3.7	3.7
Additional Income	12,427	30,172	860	7,005
Investment Horizon	26	15	15	15
Income/Cost Ratio ¹	2.3%	4.9%	0.2%	0.6%
Income/Cost Ratio ⁶	19.2%	13.7%	10.6%	18.1%

The results show that there is very limited carbon additionality available under the assumptions made within this study. The level of additionality further reduces with a shorted investment horizon, which is driven by the age of the regenerating forest at the time of this study. When income derived from carbon additionality is expressed as a percentage of total costs for the most expensive scenario (Scenario 1), the income covers only 0.2% to 4.9% of the costs. When it is compared to the least expensive scenario (Scenario 6), the covers 10.6% to 19.2% of the costs.

Financial Feasibility of Carbon Additionality Scenarios

All the previously discussed factors combine to determine the financial feasibility of the scenarios for each of the case study properties.

The NPV results of the analyses are summarised in Table 28 and Table 29, which show the total pre-tax NPV and NPV/ha, respectively.

Table 28: Pre-tax NPV of carbon additionality scenarios

		Pre-Tax NPV					
		Case Two		Case Three		Case Four	Case Five
Scenario 1	-	506,943	-	501,930	-	472,085	1,207,870
Scenario 2	-	180,326	-	1,607,407	-	125,049	476,085
Scenario 3	-	24,090	-	146,050	-	6,085	26,170
Scenario 4	-	503,806	-	482,355	-	471,528	1,203,325
Scenario 5	-	177,189	-	1,587,833	-	124,491	471,540
Scenario 6	-	20,953	-	126,475	-	5,528	21,625

Table 29: Pre-tax NPV/ha of carbon additionality scenarios

		Pre-Tax NPV/Ha					
		Case Two		Case Three		Case Four	Case Five
Scenario 1	-	32,207	-	3,907	-	128,985	40,492
Scenario 2	-	11,457	-	12,511	-	34,166	15,960
Scenario 3	-	1,531	-	1,137	-	1,663	877
Scenario 4	-	32,008	-	3,754	-	128,833	40,339
Scenario 5	-	11,257	-	12,359	-	34,014	15,808
Scenario 6	-	1,331	-	984	-	1,510	725

The results show that none of the carbon additionality scenarios return a positive NPV, which means that all of the scenarios should be rejected in financial metrics are the deciding factor. The NPV results show that scenarios in which fencing are not modelled (Scenarios 3 and 6) the NPV is the greatest, although still negative. In all case study properties apart from Case Study Three, Scenario 1 is the least profitable.

Given the relative uncertainty around several of the assumptions relied upon for this study, particularly the extent of carbon additionality attributable to possum and ungulate control, sensitivity analyses have been undertaken to analyse the effects of greater carbon additionality and a higher carbon credit price. An increase in the starting carbon credit price from \$57.05 to \$80.0 still resulted in negative NPV results for all scenarios across all case study properties. Without changing the starting carbon credit price, but adjusting the carbon additionality from 10.0% to 20.0%, positive NPVs

resulted for Scenario 3 and 6 for all case study properties. If both the starting carbon credit price and carbon additionality percentage are adjusted, the results shown in Table 30 and Table 31 are returned.

Table 30: Sensitivity analysis of pre-tax NPV of carbon additionality

		Pre-Tax NPV			
		Case Two	Case Three	Case Four	Case Five
Scenario 1	-	470,130	- 185,446	- 463,070	- 1,134,389
Scenario 2	-	143,514	- 1,290,923	- 116,033	- 402,605
Scenario 3		12,722	170,434	2,930	47,311
Scenario 4	-	466,993	- 165,871	- 462,512	- 1,129,845
Scenario 5	-	140,377	- 1,271,348	- 115,476	- 398,060
Scenario 6		15,859	190,009	3,488	51,855

Table 31: Sensitivity analysis of pre-tax NPV/ha of carbon additionality

		Pre-Tax NPV/Ha			
		Case Two	Case Three	Case Four	Case Five
Scenario 1	-	29,869	- 1,443	- 126,522	- 38,028
Scenario 2	-	9,118	- 10,048	- 31,703	- 13,497
Scenario 3		808	1,327	801	1,586
Scenario 4	-	29,669	- 1,291	- 126,369	- 37,876
Scenario 5	-	8,918	- 9,895	- 31,551	- 13,344
Scenario 6		1,008	1,479	953	1,738

While the NPVs for Scenarios 3 and 6 become positive for all case study properties, none of the other scenarios do. This can be partly explained by Table 32, which shows the ratio of carbon additionality income to the expenditure incurred under the sensitivity analysis inputs. Despite the assumed carbon stock additionality percentage doubling, and the carbon credit price increasing by \$23, the additional carbon income only accounts for between 2.3% and 11.2% for Scenario 1, which is the most expensive scenario for all case study properties, except Case Three.

Table 32: Sensitivity analysis of total carbon additionality modelled

	Total Carbon Additionality			
	Case Two	Case Three	Case Four	Case Five
t CO ₂	44.2	36.0	36.0	36.0
Additional Income	61,406	387,996	11,053	90,084
Investment Horizon	26	15	15	15
Income/Cost Ratio ¹	11.2%	62.9%	2.3%	7.3%
Income/Cost Ratio ⁶	95.1%	175.6%	136.6%	232.8%

Cost of Biodiversity Additionality of Old Growth Forests

All the case study properties had old growth forest within them, and therefore, had biodiversity additionality scenarios developed for them. Unlike for the carbon additionality scenarios, financial desirability/feasibility of the scenarios has not been modelled, as the value of a biodiversity credit is intended to cover the costs of the conservation works (Weaver, 2025). Therefore, the results in this section are centred around the cost per ha for each scenario in the case study properties. Furthermore, as the guiding principles for cost are the same for the biodiversity additionality scenarios as they are for the carbon additionality scenarios, there is limited further reporting of results and differences between costs incurred, unless there are notable outliers.

Table 33 and Table 34 show the total costs and total costs per ha of the biodiversity additionality scenarios.

Table 33: Costs of biodiversity additionality scenarios

	Total Costs				
	Case One	Case Two	Case Three	Case Four	Case Five
Scenario 7	791,488	1,020,510	565,219	734,204	2,415,809
Scenario 8	188,473	900,042	1,224,227	1,002,083	2,082,189
Scenario 9	315,873	537,657	209,339	268,204	1,234,109

Table 34: Per ha costs of biodiversity additionality scenarios

	Total Costs/Ha				
	Case One	Case Two	Case Three	Case Four	Case Five
Scenario 7	64,506	15,007	18,441	13,011	8,761
Scenario 8	15,360	13,236	39,942	17,758	7,551
Scenario 9	25,743	7,907	6,830	4,753	4,475

As with the carbon additionality scenarios, the scenario that modelled the fencing of the property boundary (Scenario 7) proved to be the most expensive for most of the case study properties and the least expensive was the scenario that modelled not fencing whatsoever (Scenario 9). For Case Three, Scenario 8 was more expensive than Scenario 7 as the perimeter of the property boundary was similar to the total perimeter of old growth forest blocks (10.2 km vs 10.5 km) but 100.0% of the old growth forest blocks were fenced at a rate of \$100/m, as opposed to \$35/m for the property boundary. Case Four had higher total costs for Scenario 8 than Scenario 7, which was on account of the perimeter of the old growth forest blocks being 3.2 km longer than the perimeter of the property boundary.

As the value of a biodiversity can change from year to year (Weaver, 2025), Table 35 has been compiled to summarise the minimum and maximum annual cost per hectare for each scenario in each of the case study properties.

Table 35: Minimum, maximum and mean annual costs per ha of biodiversity additionality scenarios

	Minimum, Maximum and Mean Annual Costs/Ha				
	Case One	Case Two	Case Three	Case Four	Case Five
Scenario 7					
Minimum	323	88	66	46	48
Maximum	40,196	7,637	12,120	8,803	4,623
Mean	1,265	294	362	255	172
Scenario 8					
Minimum	33	37	50	34	35
Maximum	12,404	9,657	34,801	14,392	4,335

	Minimum, Maximum and Mean Annual Costs/Ha				
	Case One	Case Two	Case Three	Case Four	Case Five
Scenario 9					
Minimum	323	88	66	46	48
Maximum	1,434	536	509	545	338
Mean	505	155	134	93	88

In all scenarios across all case study properties, the maximum cost is incurred in Year 0 when the large upfront costs of fencing, biodiversity baseline verification, and pest population surveys are outlaid. The largest maximum cost is incurred in Scenario 1 of Case One, which is due to there being 13.6 km of property boundary fence being attributed to only 12.3 ha of old growth forest. Year 1 is when the minimum cost is incurred as this excludes any costs associated with biodiversity plan verification and follow-up pest population surveys. It also applies the smallest amount of annual cost compounding of the investment horizon.

Chapter Five: Findings and Discussion

Property Heterogeneity

The results of property heterogeneity analyses highlight the difficulties and complexities associated with the management and restoration of remnant old growth and regenerating forest.

While in the refined study area there were only 258 privately owned properties, these properties will still bound publicly and privately owned properties that were within the study area, but not in the refined study area. Just because these properties were excluded from the refined study area, does not mean they aren't key stakeholders in the management of forest areas within the study area. Several of the modelled scenarios in this study involve deer fencing of property boundaries, and for all case studies, this involves shared boundaries with other property owners. Therefore, consideration will need to be given to the concerns of neighbours as to whether they want deer fencing on their boundary. An equally important consideration will likely be how the control of possums and ungulates is implemented. The scenarios modelled for the case studies vary between control specifically in native forest blocks, to control over the entire property, with and without deer fencing of the property boundary. If adjoining landowners object to the control of pests due to safety concerns around cullers operating near dwellings, or possum bait stations and traps posing a risk to domestic pets, this could significantly hamper conservation efforts.

Furthermore, the analysis of perimeter-to-area ratio and regularity of the property polygons highlights the difficulty in selecting appropriate properties to boundary fence to remove ungulates. The higher absolute inefficiency in larger polygons indicates that they accommodate more complex absolute boundary configurations as

compared to smaller polygons. This is likely due to polygon boundaries following the natural contour of the land as opposed to the most direct path, as well as following other natural features such as rivers and lakes. Furthermore, as properties have been amalgamated and changed ownership over time, subdivision may have occurred, and new property boundaries are also altered by the addition of new parcels when neighbouring properties are purchased. While it would be intuitive to target fewer, larger properties for biodiversity conservation works, the scenarios where boundary fencing is proposed will come at an unequitable high cost due to the relative complexity of the property boundaries as compared to smaller properties. There may be also limited opportunity to improve biodiversity on land owned by Local Authorities or owned as Recreation or Conservation Reserves due to competing land uses. For example, schools, cemeteries, gravel reserves and public service facilities will likely be limited by their existing land use.

Distribution of Land Cover

The results of this study corroborate those of Pressey and Tully (1994), who stated that remaining tracts of original native forest cover tend to be situated on land of lower productivity and economic viability. However, there were also found to be large tracts of non-forest areas within the lower productivity LUC classes. As the study area is predominantly comprised of LUC 6 to 8 land (refer Table 15) there is a significant amount of land contained within private properties (>5 ha) that could be afforested, either through new plantings of standalone regenerating forests, or through supplemental planting of already regenerating forests. Table 36 outlines the quantum of this area.

Table 36: Potential for further afforestation

LCDB Class	7	8	Total Area (Ha)
High Producing Exotic Grassland	6,179.5	952.6	7,132.2
Low Producing Grassland	302.2	32.8	335.0
Regenerating Forest	906.1	247.8	1,153.9
Total Area (Ha)	7,387.8	1,233.2	8,621.0

The LUC 7 to 8 land equates to a total of 19.9% of the study area, of which only 13.4% is currently classified as regenerating forest. Therefore, if landowners focused on native reforestation of the least productive land in the refined study area, the area of regenerating forest in the refined study area would increase by 7,467.2 ha, which equates to 17.2% of the total study area. When combining this additional area with existing old growth and regenerating forest, the total area of native forest would increase to 14,171.2 ha, or 32.7% of the study area. This increase in native forest would lift the study area above the landscape threshold (Andren, 1994), and slow the rate at which further landscape changes occur (Hanski, 1998). However, this reforestation will not address the issue of the productive land within the study area (LUC 1 to 4) only containing 2.7% of remnant native forest area. As more productive land tends to have higher biodiversity value (Scott et al., 2001), relying only on reforestation of the poorer productivity land is likely not a preferred scenario. Landscape-level reforestation of native forests on the least productive land within the study area would also likely partially address the fragmentation of currently existing remnant native forest blocks. Furthermore, it is likely that this strategy will result in greater additions to carbon stocks than managing existing native forests for pests (Carswell et al., 2015).

Carbon Additionality Feasibility of Regenerating Forests

Fencing Costs

Fencing emerges as the dominant cost driver across all carbon additionality scenarios, representing between 57.7% and 98.3% of total project expenses. This infrastructure cost creates fundamental barriers to the economic viability of regenerating forest biodiversity projects, as the substantial upfront capital requirements must be justified against modest carbon income streams extending over 15 to 26 year investment horizons. The dramatic variation in fencing costs per metre (\$35 to \$100 per metre) reflects site-specific accessibility challenges that can render otherwise suitable regenerating forest areas economically unviable. Case Three highlights this challenge, where several inaccessible regenerating forest blocks require \$100/m fencing compared to \$35/m for accessible property boundaries. This 186.0% cost premium for inaccessible areas fundamentally alters project economics, with regenerating forest block fencing costing \$1,501,875 compared to property boundary fencing at \$355,880, despite the property boundary being shorter (10.2 km vs 22.3 km). The relationship between perimeter length and total fencing costs reveals additional complexity beyond simple linear scaling. Case Five demonstrates this with a property boundary only 16.2% longer than Case Three but fencing costs over three times higher (\$1,181,700 vs \$355,880). This disproportionate cost increase reflects terrain challenges not captured in simple perimeter measurements, highlighting the importance of detailed site assessment in project planning.

The strategic choice between property boundary fencing versus regenerating forest block fencing creates important trade-offs in project design. While property boundary fencing typically covers larger perimeters and may be more expensive in total,

it often provides better access for construction and maintenance while enabling property-wide pest management benefits. Conversely, regenerating forest block fencing targets specific conservation areas but frequently encounters accessibility challenges that drive up per-metre costs. This study suggests that neither approach achieves viability under current carbon market conditions.

Pest Control Costs

Pest control represents the second-largest cost component in carbon additionality scenarios, but unlike fencing costs, these expenses scale more predictably with forest area and management approach. Possum control costs exhibit relatively consistent per-hectare rates (\$677 to \$1,170 per ha) across the case study properties, with variation primarily driven by investment horizon length and forest composition.

The investment horizon effect is particularly evident in the possum control cost analysis. Case Two's 26-year investment horizon results in higher total costs compared to the 15-year horizons of other properties, but when standardized to the same timeframe, reveals the most cost-effective possum control scenario at \$677 per ha. This temporal variation highlights how forest age at project initiation significantly influences total project costs and economic viability.

Ungulate control costs demonstrate more complex patterns, with dramatic differences between property-wide management (\$267 to \$1,989 per ha) and forest block-specific management (\$252 per ha). Case Two highlights the challenge with property-wide ungulate control costing \$1,989 per ha compared to \$432 per ha for block-specific control – a 4.6-fold increase reflecting the high proportion of old growth

forest (81.2% of total native forest) that makes property-wide cost allocation less favourable for carbon scenarios.

The cost allocation methodology reveals important strategic considerations for integrated forest management. Properties with small regenerating forest areas relative to other forest types face challenges when property-wide pest management costs are attributed to carbon scenarios. Cases Four and Five, with regenerating forest comprising only 6.1% and 9.8% of native forest, respectively, achieve more favourable ungulate control costs when management is restricted to fenced regenerating forest blocks. This suggests that project economics may favour targeted approaches in properties with diverse forest compositions.

ETS Registration and FMA Plotting Costs

This study reveals that carbon market compliance costs represent a relatively minor component of total project expenses, accounting for only 0.2% to 6.5% of total costs across scenarios. This finding suggests that regulatory streamlining efforts focused on reducing carbon market compliance costs would have minimal impact on overall biodiversity conservation viability, indicating that other cost reduction strategies should be prioritized. The comparison between FMA plot requirements (Scenarios 1, 2, and 3) and assumed lookup table approaches (Scenarios 4, 5, and 6) demonstrates that measurement protocol optimization offers limited economic benefits. The minimal cost differences between these approaches suggest that efforts to improve carbon project economics should focus on infrastructure and pest management costs rather than monitoring and verification protocols.

However, the low relative cost of carbon market compliance should not obscure its potential barrier effects for small-scale projects. While representing a small percentage of total costs, the absolute compliance costs may still create participation barriers for landowners with limited capital resources or small regenerating forest areas. The analysis suggests that policy frameworks supporting regenerating forest carbon projects should maintain current cost structures while focusing on addressing the fundamental infrastructure cost challenges.

Carbon Stock Additionality

The conservative 10.0% carbon additionality assumption reflects significant uncertainty about the carbon sequestration benefits of pest management in regenerating forests. The resulting income-to-cost ratios – ranging from 0.2% to 4.9% for the most expensive scenarios and 10.6% to 19.2% for the least expensive – demonstrate the fundamental mismatch between carbon revenue potential and management costs under current market conditions.

The limited carbon additionality available under study assumptions partly reflects the relatively mature age of regenerating forests in the case studies, which constrains both the investment horizon length and total carbon accumulation potential. Younger regenerating forests might offer greater additionality potential but would require longer management commitments and higher cumulative costs, creating complex optimization challenges for landowners. The relationship between investment horizon and additionality highlights temporal trade-offs in regenerating forest projects. Case Two's 26-year investment horizon provides the highest total carbon income (\$12,427) but also incurs the highest cumulative costs, while other properties with 15-year horizons face lower total costs but significantly reduced carbon income potential.

This temporal relationship suggests that project timing and forest age selection are critical factors in project development.

The sensitivity analysis provides crucial insights into the market conditions required for regenerating forest carbon project viability. The finding that doubled additionality (20.0%) combined with increased carbon prices (\$80 per unit) only achieves positive NPVs for unfenced scenarios suggests that carbon prices would need to reach \$150 to \$200 per unit to make forest management economically viable. Such price levels are substantially above current market rates and historic highs.

Financial Feasibility of Carbon Additionality Scenarios

The uniformly negative NPVs across all carbon additionality scenarios under base conditions demonstrate that the regenerating forest carbon additionality scenarios are not financially viable under current market conditions. The magnitude of negative returns – ranging from -\$5,528 to -\$1,607,407 – indicates that substantial changes in either cost structures or revenue mechanisms are required to achieve project viability. The scenario ranking consistency across properties (Scenarios 3 and 6 consistently achieving the best, though still negative, NPVs) suggests that management approach selection is more important than site-specific optimization for most properties. The superior performance of unfenced scenarios reflects the overwhelming impact of infrastructure costs on project economics, indicating that pest management approaches minimizing capital investment offer the best prospects for economic viability.

The sensitivity analysis reveals that even under favourable conditions – 20.0% carbon additionality and \$80 per unit carbon pricing – only unfenced scenarios achieve

positive NPVs. This finding reinforces the critical importance of infrastructure costs and suggests that regenerating forest carbon scenarios may be inherently constrained by the relationship between modest carbon accumulation potential and substantial management requirements. The per ha NPV analysis provides additional insights into project scaling relationships. The wide variation in per ha costs (\$140 to \$55,489 per ha across scenarios and properties) demonstrates that simple scaling assumptions may not apply to regenerating forest carbon projects. Site-specific factors such as accessibility and forest type proportions appear more important than forest area in determining project economics.

Cost of Biodiversity Additionality of Old Growth Forests

The biodiversity additionality analysis provides a contrasting framework for forest conservation economics, where costs are designed to be covered by biodiversity credit values rather than requiring positive investment returns. This fundamental difference in economic structure transforms conservation from a profit-generation challenge to a cost-coverage requirement, potentially making forest protection more achievable through biodiversity markets than carbon markets.

The total costs for biodiversity scenarios (\$188,473 to \$2,415,809) establish the scale of biodiversity credit values required to sustain old growth forest conservation. These costs are comparable to the carbon scenario costs but operate under different economic assumptions that may prove more viable for forest conservation financing. The cost-coverage approach eliminates the need for positive investment returns while providing a framework for valuing conservation activities based on actual management costs.

Biodiversity Scenario Cost Patterns

The cost hierarchy among biodiversity scenarios mirrors that observed in carbon scenarios, with property boundary fencing (Scenario 7) proving most expensive and unfenced approaches (Scenario 9) least expensive for most properties. However, the economic implications differ significantly, as biodiversity credit values can be adjusted annually to reflect actual conservation costs rather than requiring predetermined returns.

The per ha cost analysis (\$4,475 to \$64,506 per ha) reveals substantial variation in biodiversity credit requirements across properties and scenarios. Case One demonstrates the extreme end of this range, with Scenario 7 requiring \$64,506/ha due to extensive property boundaries (13.6 km) protecting relatively small old growth forest areas (12.3 ha). This 1.1:1 ratio of fence length to protected area illustrates how property configuration can create prohibitive infrastructure requirements even under cost-coverage frameworks.

The exceptions to the typical cost hierarchy provide insights into the optimization challenges facing biodiversity conservation projects. Case Three's higher costs for Scenario 8 versus Scenario 7 reflect the accessibility challenges that drive per metre fencing costs from \$35 per metre to \$100 per metre. Similarly, Case Four's higher total costs for forest block fencing result from longer perimeters (3.2 km additional) that offset the benefits of targeting specific conservation areas.

Annual Cost Variability and Financing Implications

The annual cost analysis reveals important patterns in biodiversity conservation financing requirements. The concentration of maximum costs in Year 0 (\$1,434 to \$40,196 per ha) indicates that biodiversity credit systems must accommodate

substantial upfront payments or provide financing mechanisms for infrastructure development. This front-loading of costs creates cash flow challenges similar to those facing carbon projects but potentially more manageable under cost-coverage frameworks.

The minimum annual costs (\$33 to \$323 per ha) represent baseline payment levels required to maintain conservation management in the absence of major infrastructure investments. These minimum costs provide insights into the ongoing biodiversity credit values needed to sustain old growth forest protection over extended periods, suggesting that biodiversity markets must provide consistent annual payments rather than one-time conservation incentives. The mean annual costs (\$88 to \$1,265 per ha) establish benchmarks for biodiversity credit pricing that could sustain forest conservation across different property types and management approaches. The substantial variation in mean costs across properties reflects site-specific conservation challenges and suggests that biodiversity credit values may need to reflect local conditions rather than uniform national pricing. The extreme variation between minimum and maximum annual costs highlights the need for flexible biodiversity credit systems that can accommodate both regular maintenance activities and periodic infrastructure investments. The 2-to-121-fold differences between minimum and maximum costs across scenarios suggest that successful biodiversity markets may need to provide mechanisms for smoothing cost variations over time while maintaining adequate funding for conservation activities.

Biodiversity Credit Market Requirements

The biodiversity cost analysis implies substantial market development requirements that extend beyond current conservation financing mechanisms. The annual cost variations suggest that biodiversity credit systems must accommodate both predictable ongoing costs and irregular infrastructure investments to maintain conservation effectiveness over multi-decade timeframes.

The property-specific variation in biodiversity costs indicates that credit values may need to reflect site-specific conservation challenges rather than uniform per ha payments. The 8-fold difference in mean costs between Case Five (\$88 to \$172 per ha) and Case One (\$301 to \$1,265 per ha) suggests that biodiversity markets may require more sophisticated pricing mechanisms than carbon markets to achieve efficient conservation outcomes. The integration of biodiversity conservation with existing land management activities creates additional complexity for credit value determination. The pest management costs allocated between old growth forest biodiversity scenarios and regenerating forest carbon scenarios highlight the need for clear cost attribution methodologies in integrated conservation approaches. This allocation challenge suggests that biodiversity credit frameworks must address the interaction between different conservation objectives on the same properties. The 50-year investment horizon assumed for biodiversity scenarios creates long-term financing requirements that differ from typical commercial investment timeframes. Biodiversity credit systems must provide stable demand and reliable payment mechanisms over extended periods to sustain conservation commitments, potentially requiring different institutional structures than those supporting shorter-term commercial activities.

Chapter Six: Conclusions

This study reveals that carbon additionality from regenerating forest management faces fundamental economic challenges that biodiversity additionality frameworks may be better positioned to address through alternative economic structures. While carbon additionality scenarios consistently generate negative returns even under favourable market conditions, biodiversity additionality scenarios operate under cost-coverage assumptions that could provide more viable pathways for forest conservation.

The dominance of infrastructure costs in both carbon and biodiversity additionality scenarios indicates that establishing policy settings that reflect the actual impacts of pest control on additionality will be required to achieve cost-effective biodiversity conservation. The substantial variation in costs across properties and scenarios demonstrates the importance landscape-scale coordination to achieve economies of scale.

This study suggests that successful forest conservation will likely require integration of multiple conservation objectives, innovative management approaches, and supportive policy frameworks that address structural cost challenges while recognizing the multiple benefits of conservation efforts. The biodiversity additionality framework provides insights into alternative economic structures that could support conservation objectives that carbon markets alone cannot justify, suggesting pathways for more comprehensive and viable forest conservation strategies.

Chapter Seven: Recommendations

The recommendations for future research centre strongly around addressing the lack of understanding of the effects of management practices on carbon and biodiversity additionality within old growth and regenerating forests.

Field studies measuring the actual carbon and biodiversity outcomes of different management strategies could provide more accurate benefit estimates for modelling. Site-specific studies across different forest types, management intensities, pest population densities, and landscape contexts could improve the precision of both carbon additionality and biodiversity outcome predictions.

Long-term economic analysis of integrated conservation approaches should examine market evolution scenarios for both carbon and biodiversity credits, including the potential for market integration or coordination that could improve overall conservation economics. Understanding how different market structures and pricing mechanisms affect integrated project viability would inform policy and market development strategies.

Research into biodiversity credit market development and pricing mechanisms could address critical uncertainties about the market conditions required to support the conservation costs identified in this analysis. Understanding how biodiversity credit values are determined and how they might evolve could inform integrated project development strategies.

Studies of landscape-scale conservation approaches and their economic implications could reveal opportunities for cost reduction and improved environmental outcomes not available through individual property management. Analysis of

catchment group models could identify more viable pathways for biodiversity conservation.

Chapter Eight: Limitations

This study has relied upon numerous assumptions to generate results. Although care has been taken to ensure the accuracy/reality of assumptions made, modelling exercises are inherently flawed.

Ultimately, the carbon additionality scenarios modelled within this research rely upon several assumptions. While it is likely that the largest benefits of pest control will be seen in young native forests (either afforested or regenerating) and shrubland, where there is a higher proportion of vegetation available in the browse tier (Holdaway et al., 2012), this cannot be conclusively stated with the current level of knowledge. Therefore, this research echoes the call of Kirschbaum et al. (2009) to obtain growth rates from new plantings of native forests over the first several decades to help build a picture of early sequestration rates.

This study has assumed that carbon sequestration in native forests ends at year 50, which is inconsistent with literature that indicates forests will continue to sequester carbon for hundreds of years (Carswell et al., 2009). However, with a lack of accurate data relating to carbon sequestration beyond age 50, the investment horizon was limited to 50 years of age for regenerating forests. If further research could incorporate carbon sequestration beyond this age, it is likely that the financial results will be more positive than those reported within this study.

Furthermore, the pest control scenarios all assumed high levels of possums and ungulates were present, and as such, carbon additionality was able to be claimed. However, if initial pest densities do not meet the threshold for which carbon additionality can be claimed post-control (which will be defined by the science and the

voluntary carbon scheme), there is a possibility that the cost will be incurred with no income able to be received. Therefore, clear guidelines around recording initial pest populations and the establishment of a threshold above which carbon sequestration is measurably being impacted, will be required to provide landowners clarity around if their pest control efforts will be financially rewarded.

References

- Acharya, A. S., Prakash, A., Saxena, P., & Nigam, A. (2013). Sampling: Why and how of it? *Indian Journal of Medical Specialities*, 4(2). <https://doi.org/10.7713/ijms.2013.0032>
- Agnes Cheng, C. S., Kite, D., & Radtke, R. (1994). The applicability and usage of NPV and IRR capital budgeting techniques. *Managerial Finance*, 20(7), 10–36.
- Allen, K., Bellingham, P. J., Richardson, S. J., Allen, R. B., Burrows, L. E., Carswell, F. E., Husheer, S. W., St. John, M. G., & Peltzer, D. A. (2023). Long-term exclusion of invasive ungulates alters tree recruitment and functional traits but not total forest carbon. *Ecological Applications*, 33(4), 1–15. <https://doi.org/10.1002/eap.2836>
- Andren, H. (1994). Effects of habitat fragmentation on birds and mammals in landscapes with different proportions of suitable habitat: A review. *Oikos*, 71, 355–366.
- AT220 multi species auto resetting and reluring pest trap. (2025). NZ AutoTraps. <https://nzautotraps.com/products/at220-autotrap>
- Atkinson, I. A. (1989). Introduced animals and extinctions. In D. Western & M. C. Pearl (Eds.), *Conservation for the Twenty-first century* (pp. 54–79). Oxford University Press.
- Bass, J. M., Beecham, S., & Noll, J. (2018). Experience of industry case studies: A comparison of multi-case and embedded case study methods. *Proceedings of 6th International Workshop on Conducting Emperical Studies in Industry (CESI 2018)*, 8. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3193954.3193964>
- Beef + lamb New Zealand. (2024). *Western North Island—Class 4 hill country* [Excel spreadsheet]. <https://beeflambnz.com/industry-data/farm-data-and-industry-production/sheep-beef-farm-survey>
- Biodiversity Credit Alliance. (2024). *Definition of a biodiversity credit*. <https://www.biodiversitycreditalliance.org/wp-content/uploads/2024/05/Definition-of-a-Biodiversity-Credit-Rev-220524.pdf>
- Boslaugh, S. (2007). An introduction to secondary data analysis. *Secondary Data Sources for Public Health: A Practical Guide*, 2–10.
- Buswell, A. (2025, June 3). *Discussion on FMA plot sampling costs and methods* [Personal communication].
- Carswell, F. E., Burrows, L. E., & Mason, N. W. H. (2009). *Above-ground carbon sequestration by early-successional woody vegetation: A preliminary analysis*. Publishing Team, Dept. of Conservation.
- Carswell, F. E., Holdaway, R. J., Mason, N. W. H., Richardson, S. J., Burrows, L. E., Allen, R. B., & Peltzer, D. A. (2015). *Wild Animal Control for Emissions Management (WACEM) research synthesis*.

Case, B., & Ryan, C. (2020). *An analysis of carbon stocks and net carbon position for New Zealand sheep and beef farmland*.

Clarkson, B. D. (2022). Reversing Biodiversity Decline in Aotearoa New Zealand. *Policy Quarterly*, 18(2), 61–70.

Climate Change (Forestry) Regulations 2022, 2022/0266, New Zealand 2022, New Zealand Statutory Regulations (2022).
<https://www.legislation.govt.nz/regulation/public/2022/0266/latest/LMS709973.html>

Clout, M. N., & Hay, J. R. (1989). The importance of birds as browsers, pollinators and seed dispersers in New Zealand forests. *New Zealand Journal of Ecology*, 12, 27–35.

Coomes, D. A., Allen, R. B., Forsyth, D. M., & Lee, W. G. (2003). Factors preventing the recovery of New Zealand forests following control of invasive deer. *Conservation Biology*, 17(2), 450–459. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1523-1739.2003.15099.x>

DairyNZ, & LIC. (2024). *Dairy statistics 2023-24* (p. 61). DairyNZ & LIC.
<https://www.dairynz.co.nz/media/bywm13d4/dairy-statistics-2023-24.pdf>

Department of Conservation. (2020). *Te mana o te taiao: Aotearoa New Zealand biodiversity strategy 2020*. Department of Conservation.

Deutz, A., Heal, G. M., Niu, R., Swanson, E., Townshend, T., Li, Z., Delmar, A., Meghji, A., Sethi, S. A., & Tobin-de la Puente, J. (2020). *Financing nature: Closing the global biodiversity financing gap*. The Paulson Institute, The Nature Conservancy, and the Cornell Atkinson Center for Sustainability.

Edwards, P. J. (1989). Insect herbivory and plant defense theory. In P. J. Grubb & J. B. Whittaker (Eds.), *Towards a more exact ecology. Thirtieth symposium of the British Ecological Society* (pp. 275–297). Blackwell Scientific Publications.

Ekos. (2023). *Ekos BioCredita*. Ekos. <https://www.ekos.co.nz/sanctuary-mountain>

Ekos SD Limited. (2025). *Ekos SD Standard v2.0 2025*. Ekos SD Limited.

Ernest & Young. (2024). *A nature positive Aotearoa*. World Wide Fund for Nature - New Zealand. <https://www.wwf.org.nz/sites/default/files/2024-11/A%20Nature%20Positive%20Aotearoa.pdf>

Ewers, R. M., Kliskey, A. D., Walker, S., Rutledge, D., Harding, J. S., & Didham, R. K. (2006). Past and future trajectories of forest loss in New Zealand. *Biological Conservation*, 133(3), 312–325. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2006.06.018>

Fernandez, M. A., & Daigneault, A. (2016). The Paris Agreement and its impact on cattle and food sectors of New Zealand. *New Zealand Journal of Agricultural Research*, 59(4), 436–443.

- Fleet, H. (1986). *The concise history of New Zealand*. Heinemann Publishers.
- Fogan, R., & Pollard, D. (2020). *Economic impact of forestry in New Zealand*.
- Ford-Robertson, J., Robertson, K., & Maclaren, P. (1999). Modelling the effect of land-use practices on greenhouse gas emissions and sinks in New Zealand. *Environmental Science & Policy*, 2(2), 134–144.
- Forsyth, D. M., Coomes, D. A., Nugent, G., & Hall, G. M. J. (2002). Diet and diet preferences of introduced ungulates (Order: Artiodactyla) in New Zealand. *New Zealand Journal of Zoology*, 29(4), 323–343. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03014223.2002.9518316>
- Fraser, K. W., Cone, J. M., & Whitford, E. J. (2000). A revision of the established ranges and new populations of 11 introduced ungulate species in New Zealand. *Journal of the Royal Society of New Zealand*, 30(4), 419–437. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03014223.2000.9517633>
- Gardner, T. A., Barlow, J., Chazdon, R., Ewers, R. M., Harvey, C. A., Peters, C. A., & Sodhi, N. S. (2009). Prospects for tropical forest biodiversity in a human-modified world. *Ecology Letters*, 12(6), 561–582.
- Hanski, I. (1998). Metapopulation dynamics. *Nature*, 396, 41–49.
- High-level Principles*. (n.d.).
- High-level Principles to Guide the Biodiversity Credit Market*. (2025). World Economic Forum. https://www.biodiversitycreditalliance.org/wp-content/uploads/2025/05/377455_High_Level_Principles_to_Guide_the_Biodiversity_Credit_Market_En_v7_May-2025.pdf
- Holdaway, R. J., Burrows, L. E., Carswell, F. E., & Marburg, A. E. (2012). Potential for invasive mammalian herbivore control to result in measurable carbon gains. *New Zealand Journal of Ecology*, 36(2), 252–264.
- Holdaway, R. J., Easdale, T. A., Carswell, F. E., Richardson, S. J., Peltzer, D. A., Mason, N. W., Brandon, A. M., & Coomes, D. A. (2017). Nationally representative plot network reveals contrasting drivers of net biomass change in secondary and old-growth forests. *Ecosystems*, 20, 944–959.
- Hollinger, D. Y., & Hunt, J. E. (1990). Anthropogenic emissions of carbon dioxide and methane in New Zealand. *Journal of the Royal Society of New Zealand*, 20, 337–348.
- Horizons Regional Council. (2025). *606 Table Flat Road Apiti—Horizons Regional Council*. <https://www.horizons.govt.nz/property-rates/rates-search/1386015230>
- Hox, J. J., & Boeijs, H. R. (2005). Data collection, primary vs secondary. *Encyclopedia of Social Measurement*, 1(1), 593–599.

- Husheer, S. W. (2005). Effects of red deer on tree regeneration and growth in Aorangi Forest, Wairarapa. *New Zealand Journal of Ecology*, 29(2), 271–277.
- Husheer, S. W. (2007). Introduced red deer reduce tree regeneration in Pureora Forest, central North Island, New Zealand. *New Zealand Journal of Ecology*, 31(1), 79–87.
- Husheer, S. W., & Frampton, C. M. (2005). Fallow deer impacts on Wakatipu beech forest. *New Zealand Journal of Ecology*, 29(1).
- Husheer, S. W., & Robertson, A. W. (2005). High-intensity deer culling increases growth of mountain beech seedlings in New Zealand. *Wildlife Research*, 32(4), 273–280.
<https://doi.org/10.1071/WR04006>
- Janiszewski, S. (2011). How to perform discounted cash flow valuation? *Foundations of Management*, 3(1), 81–96.
- King, C. (2005). *The Handbook of New Zealand Mammals*. Oxford University Press.
- Kirschbaum, M., Trotter, C., Wakelin, S., Baisden, T., Curtin, D., Dymond, J., Ghani, A., Jones, H., Deurer, M., Arnold, G., Beets, P., Davis, M., Hedley, C., Peltzer, D., Ross, C., Schipper, L., Sutherland, A., Beare, M., Clothier, B., ... Ward, M. (2009). *Carbon stocks and changes in New Zealand's soils and forests, and implications of post-2012 accounting options for land-based emissions offsets and mitigation opportunities—Including appendices*. Landcare Research.
- Kirschbaum, M. U. F., Saggar, S., Tate, K., Giltrap, D. L., Ausseil, A.-G. E., Greenhalgh, S., & Whitehead, D. (2012). Comprehensive evaluation of the climate-change implications of shifting land use between forest and grassland: New Zealand as a case study. *Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment*, 150, 123–138.
- Kleijjn, D., & Sutherland, W. J. (2003). How effective are European agri-environment schemes in conserving and promoting biodiversity? *Journal of Applied Ecology*, 40, 947–969.
- Knight-Lenihan, S. (2023). Ecological health and integrity in New Zealand legislation. *Australasian Journal of Environmental Management*, 30(1), 6–25.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/14486563.2023.2179117>
- Leathwick, J., Morgan, F., Wilson, G., Rutledge, D., McLeod, M., & Johnston, K. (2003). *Land environments of New Zealand: A technical guide*. Ministry for the Environment.
- Lee, W. G. (1998). Vegetation of New Zealand: Functional, spatial, and temporal gaps. In *Ecosystems, entomology and plants* (pp. 91–101). Royal Society of New Zealand.
- Legard, R., Keegan, J., & Ward, K. (2013). In-depth interviews. In J. Ritchie & J. Lewis (Eds.), *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers* (pp. 138–169). Sage Publications.

LinkedIn. (2023). How do you choose between holistic case study and embedded case study? [LinkedIn]. *LinkedIn Advice*. <https://www.linkedin.com/advice/1/how-do-you-choose-between-holistic-case-study-embedded>

Lynn, I. H., Manderson, A., Page, M., Harmsworth, G., Eyles, G., Douglas, G., Mackay, A., & Newsome, P. (2009). *Land use capability survey handbook: A New Zealand handbook for the classification of land* (3rd ed.). AgResearch ; Landcare Research New Zealand ; Institute of Geological and Nuclear Sciences.

Maclaren, J. P. (1993). *Radiata pine growers' manual*. New Zealand Forest Research Institute Ltd.

Manaaki Whenua Landcare Research. (2024a). *LCDB v5.0—Land Cover Database version 5.0, Mainland, New Zealand* [Dataset]. LRIS Portal. <https://lris.scinfo.org.nz/layer/104400-lcdb-v50-land-cover-database-version-50-mainland-new-zealand/>

Manaaki Whenua Landcare Research. (2024b). *NZLRI Land Use Capability 2021* [Dataset]. LRIS Portal. <https://lris.scinfo.org.nz/layer/48076-nzlri-land-use-capability-2021/>

Manley, B. (2024). Discount rates used for forest valuation – results of 2023 survey. *NZ Journal of Forestry*, 69(2), 31–38.

Manley, B., & Maclaren, P. (2012). Potential impact of carbon trading on forest management in New Zealand. *Forest Policy and Economics*, 24(3), 35–40.

Martyn, B., & Dodd, E. (2015). *Regional Pest Animal Management Strategy (RAPMS) Operational Plan*. Horizons Regional Council.

Maseyk, F., Small, B., Henwood, R., Pannell, J., Buckley, H., & Norton, D. (2021). Managing and protecting native biodiversity on-farm – what do sheep and beef farmers think? *New Zealand Journal of Ecology*, 45(1), 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.20417/nzjecol.45.1>

Mason, N. W. H., Peltzer, D. A., Richardson, S. J., Bellingham, P. J., & Allen, R. B. (2010). Stand development moderates effects of ungulate exclusion on foliar traits in the forests of New Zealand. *Journal of Ecology*, 98(6), 1422–1433. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2745.2010.01714.x>

McGlone, M. S. (1989). The polynesian settlement of new zealand in relation to environmental and biotic changes. *New Zealand Journal of Ecology*, 12, 115–129.

Ministry for Primary Industries. (2024a). *A Guide to the Field Measurement Approach for Forestry in the ETS*. New Zealand Forest Service.

Ministry for Primary Industries. (2024b). *National exotic forest description 2024*. Ministry for Primary Industries. <https://www.mpi.govt.nz/dmsdocument/66273-National-Exotic-Forest-Description-2024-report>

Ministry for Primary Industries. (2025, May 27). *ETS fees and charges | NZ Government*. ETS Fees and Charges | NZ Government. <https://www.mpi.govt.nz/forestry/forestry-in-the-emissions-trading-scheme/ets-forms-fees-and-policies/service-fees-for-forestry-in-the-ets/>

Ministry for the Environment. (2023). *Helping nature and people thrive: Exploring a biodiversity credit system for Aotearoa New Zealand—Discussion document*. Ministry for the Environment.

Norton, D. A., & Reid, N. (2013). *Nature and farming: Sustaining native biodiversity in agricultural landscapes*. CSIRO.

Norton, D., & Pannell, J. (2018). *Desk-top assessment of native vegetation on New Zealand sheep and beef farms*. University of Canterbury and University of Auckland.

Norton, D., Suryaningrum, F., Buckley, H., Case, B., Cochrane, H., Forbes, A., & Harcombe, M. (2020). Achieving win-win outcomes for pastoral farming and biodiversity conservation in New Zealand. *New Zealand Journal of Ecology*, 44(2). <https://doi.org/10.20417/nzjecol.44.15>

Nugent, G. (1992). Big-game, small-game, and gamebird hunting in New Zealand: Hunting effort, harvest, and expenditure in 1988. *New Zealand Journal of Zoology*, 19(3), 75–90. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03014223.1992.10422312>

Nugent, G., & Fraser, K. W. (1993). Pests or valued resources? Conflicts in management of deer. *New Zealand Journal of Zoology*, 20(4), 361–366. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03014223.1993.10420359>

Nugent, G., Fraser, K. W., Asher, G. W., & Tustin, K. G. (2001). Advances in New Zealand mammalogy 1990–2000: Deer. *Journal of the Royal Society of New Zealand*, 31(1), 263–298. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03014223.2001.9517654>

Nugent, G., Fraser, W., & Sweetapple, P. J. (1997). *Comparison of red deer and possum diets and impacts in podocarp-hardwood forest, Waihaha Catchment, Pureora Conservation Park*. Dept. of Conservation.

Nugent, G., Parkes, J. P., & Tustin, K. G. (1987). Changes in the density and distribution of red deer and wapiti in northern Fiordland. *New Zealand Journal of Ecology*, 10, 11–21.

NZ Auto Traps. (2025). *LURE*. NZ AutoTraps. <https://nzautotraps.com/collections/lure>

Osborne, M. J. (2010). A resolution to the NPV - IRR debate? *The Quarterly Review of Economics and Finance*, 50(2), 234–239.

Pannell, D. J., Marshall, G. R., Barr, N., Curtis, A., Vanclay, F., & Wilkinson, R. (2006). Understanding and promoting adoption of conservation practices by rural landholders. *Australian Journal of Experimental Agriculture*, 46, 1407–1424.

Pannell, J., Buckley, H., Case, B., & Norton, D. (2021). The significance of sheep and beef farms to conservation of native vegetation in New Zealand. *New Zealand Journal of Ecology*, 45(1), 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.20417/nzj ecol.45.11>

Payton, I. J. (1985). Southern rata (*Metrosideros umbellata* Cav.) mortality in Westland, New Zealand. *Establishing and Tending of Subalpine Forest: Research and Management*, 207–214.

Pekelharing, C. J., & Reynolds, R. N. (1983). Distribution and abundance of browsing mammals in westland national park in 1978, and some observations on their impact on the vegetation. *New Zealand Journal of Forestry Science*, 13(3), 247–265.

Peltzer, D. A., Allen R B, Lovett, G. M., Whitehead, D., & Wardle, D. A. (2010). Effects of biological invasions on forest carbon sequestration. *Global Change Biology*, 16, 732–746.

Peltzer, D. A., & Nugent, G. (2023). *Review of the likely magnitude and manageability of deer impacts on carbon stores in indigenous forests* (No. LC4327; p. 50). Manaaki Whenua – Landcare Research. <https://nzgameanimalcouncil.org.nz/wp-content/uploads/2023/09/Peltzer-Nugent-2023-Review-of-the-likely-magnitude-and-manageability-of-deer-impacts-on-carbon-stores-in-indigenous-forests.pdf>

Peltzer, D. A., & Payton, I. J. (2006). *Analysis of carbon monitoring system data for indigenous forests and shrublands collected in 2002/03* (No. LC0506/099; p. 55). Landcare Research.

Poore, J., & Nemecek, T. (2018). Reducing food’s environmental impacts through producers and consumers. *Science*, 360, 987–992.

Présidence de la République française. (2023). *The Liberville Plan*. Palais de l’Élysée. <https://www.elysee.fr/admin/upload/default/0001/14/169a35ac099cdb3d3e0bc03eb30d745c155932a1.pdf>

Pressey, R. L., & Tully, S. L. (1994). The cost of ad hoc reservation: A case study in western New South Wales. *Austral Ecology*, 19, 375–384.

QGIS Project. (2025, June 17). *Vector Selection*. QGIS Documentation. https://docs.qgis.org/3.40/en/docs/user_manual/processing_algs/qgis/vectorselection.html#random-extract

Rahi, S. (2017). Research design and methods: A systematic review of research paradigms, sampling issues and instruments development. *International Journal of Economics & Management Sciences*, 6(2), 1–5.

Rogelj, J., den Elzen, M., Höhne, N., Fransen, T., Fekete, H., Winkler, H., Schaeffer, R., Sha, F., Riahi, K., & Meinshausen, M. (2016). Paris agreement climate proposals need a boost to keep warming well below 2 degrees celsius. *Nature*, 534, 631–639.

Rogers, G. M., & Leathwick, J. R. (1997). Factors predisposing forests to canopy collapse in the southern Ruahine Range, New Zealand. *Biological Conservation*, 80(3), 325–338. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0006-3207\(96\)00043-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0006-3207(96)00043-2)

Rose, A. B., Pekelharing, C. J., & Platt, K. H. (1992). Magnitude of canopy dieback and implications for conservation of Southern Rata-Kamahi (*Metrosideros Umbellata*—*Weinmannia Racemosa*) forests, Central Westland, New Zealand. *New Zealand Journal of Ecology*, 16(1), 23–32.

Salmon, J. T. (1975). The influence of man on the biota. In G. Kuschel (Ed.), *Biogeography and Ecology in New Zealand* (pp. 643–661). Dr. W. Junk b.v. Publishers.

Scott, J. M., Davis, F. W., McGhie, R. G., Wright, R. G., Groves, C., & Estes, J. (2001). Nature reserves: Do they capture the full range of America's biological diversity? *Ecological Appliances*, 11, 999–1007.

Seawright, J., & Gerring, J. (2008). Case selection techniques in case study research: A menu of qualitative and quantitative options. *Political Research Quarterly*, 61(2), 294–308.

Singh, S. (2003). Simple random sampling. In *Advanced sampling theory with applications*. Springer.

Smale, M. C., Hall, G. M. J., & Gardner, R. O. (1995). Dynamics of kanuka (*Kunzea ericoides*) forest on South Kaipara spit, New Zealand, and the impact of fallow deer (*Dama dama*). *New Zealand Journal of Ecology*, 19, 131–141.

Stevens, G., McGlone, M. S., & McCulloch, B. (1988). *Prehistoric New Zealand*. Heinemann Reed.

Tanentzap, A. J., Burrows, L. E., Lee, W. G., Nugent, G., Maxwell, J. M., & Coomes, D. A. (2009). Landscape-level vegetation recovery from herbivory: Progress after four decades of invasive red deer control. *Journal of Applied Ecology*, 46(5), 1064–1072. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2664.2009.01683.x>

Tanentzap, A. J., & Coomes, D. A. (2012). Carbon storage in terrestrial ecosystems: Do browsing and grazing herbivores matter? *Biological Reviews*, 87, 72–94.

Taylor, J., & Judd, N. (2024). *Native Forests: Resetting the balance*. The Aotearoa Circle.

Tilman, D., May, R. M., Lehman, C. L., & Nowak, M. A. (1994). Habitat destruction and the extinction debt. *Nature*, 371, 65–66.

TOHA. (2024). *TOHA Network*. TOHA. <https://toha.network/about>

Toitū Te Whenua Land Information New Zealand. (2022). *NZ Contours (Topo, 1:50k) Dataset* [Dataset]. LINZ Data Service. <https://data.linz.govt.nz/set/7364-nz-suburbs-and-localities-dataset/>

Toitū Te Whenua Land Information New Zealand. (2023a). *Manawatu-Whanganui 0.3m Rural Aerial Photos (2021-2022)* [Dataset]. LINZ Data Service. <https://data.linz.govt.nz/layer/110729-manawatu-whanganui-03m-rural-aerial-photos-2021-2022/>

Toitū Te Whenua Land Information New Zealand. (2023b). *NZ Suburbs and Localities Dataset* [Dataset]. LINZ Data Service. <https://data.linz.govt.nz/set/7364-nz-suburbs-and-localities-dataset/>

Toitū Te Whenua Land Information New Zealand. (2025a). *NZ Primary Road Parcels* [Dataset]. LINZ Data Service. <https://data.linz.govt.nz/layer/50796-nz-primary-road-parcels/>

Toitū Te Whenua Land Information New Zealand. (2025b). *NZ Property Hybrid (pilot)* [Dataset]. LINZ Data Service. <https://data.linz.govt.nz/layer/115113-nz-property-hybrid-pilot/>

Toitū Te Whenua Land Information New Zealand. (2025c). *NZ Property Titles Including Owners* [Dataset]. LINZ Data Service. <https://data.linz.govt.nz/layer/50805-nz-property-titles-including-owners/>

Trotter, C., Tate, K., Scott, N., Townsend, J., Wilde, H., Lambie, S., Marden, M., & Pinkney, T. (2005). Afforestation/reforestation of New Zealand marginal pasture lands by indigenous shrublands: The potential for Kyoto forest sinks. *EDP Sciences*, 62, 865–871.

Villamor, G. B., Steer, B. S. C., Baluyot, A., & Meason, D. F. (2025). Understanding land-use transitions in rural areas of the North Island, New Zealand from 1996 to 2018: An intensity analysis approach. *GeoJournal*, 90(2), 76. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10708-025-11324-6>

Waikato Regional Council. (2023). *Insight Newsletter*. Waikato Regional Council. <https://www.waikatoregion.govt.nz/assets/WRC/Insight-Newsletter.pdf>

Walker, S., Price, R., Rutledge, D., Stephens, R. T. T., & Lee, W. G. (2006). Recent loss of indigenous cover in New Zealand. *New Zealand Journal of Ecology*, 30(2), 169–177.

Wardle, D. A., Barker, G. M., Yeates, G. W., Bonner, K. I., & Ghani, A. (2001). Introduced browsing mammals in New Zealand natural forests: Aboveground and belowground consequences. *Ecological Monographs*, 71, 587–614.

Wardle, D. A., Bellingham, P. J., Fukami, T., & Mulder, C. P. H. (2007). Promotion of ecosystem carbon sequestration by invasive predators. *Biology Letters*, 3, 479–482.

Waterford, L., FitzSimons, V., Am, M. W., Reid, H., Drake, L., & Campbell, H. (2022). *Investigating the use of biodiversity markets to scale financing of nature-based solutions in Aotearoa New Zealand*.

Waterford, L., FitzSimons, V., Back, O., Crowley, H., Gianferrara, E., Bucher-Melcer, S., Young, A., Williams, G., Hutchinson, J., & Gorrington, A. (2023). *State of voluntary biodiversity credit markets: A global review of biodiversity credit schemes*.

Weaver, S. (2025, June 24). [Webinar]. Biodiversity Credits Launch.

<https://aus01.safelinks.protection.outlook.com/?url=https%3A%2F%2Fus02web.zoom.us%2Fj%2F82509623318&data=05%7C02%7Ccameron.walker%40arotahiagri.co.nz%7C4d39020d386547638f7508ddb2b01b80%7C2a6609f6389d4b4cb02a92602846a624%7C0%7C0%7C638863191669574712%7CUnknown%7CTWFpbGZsb3d8eyJFbXB0eU1hcGkiOnRydWUsIlYiOiIlwLjAuMDAwMCIsIlAiOiJXaW4zMilslkFOljoitWFBpbCIsIlIdUljoyfQ%3D%3D%7C80000%7C%7C%7C&sdata=Wm8W3U%2FX5AzA%2BTktvW1PKUO38Ai2%2Fw79e6W%2FZ1a4d04%3D&reserved=0>

Williams, J., Smith, R., Ball, A., Reid, N., & Kahn, L. (2019). Harmonisation of on-farm metrics for sustainability assessment of Australian agricultural industries. *Farm Policy Journal*, 16(3), 15–22.

Wyse, S. V., Wilmhurst, J. M., Burns, B. R., & Perry, G. L. W. (2018). New Zealand forest dynamics: A review of past and present vegetation responses to disturbance, and development of conceptual forest models. *New Zealand Journal of Ecology*, 42, 87–106.

Yin, R. K. (2003). *Case study research, design and methods* (3rd ed.). Sage Publications.





Appendices





Appendix A: Case Study One Discounted Cash Flows





Appendix A1: Scenarios Seven, Eight and Nine – Part 1

Year	Total	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25																											
Property Area (Ha)		293.3	293.3	293.3	293.3	293.3	293.3	293.3	293.3	293.3	293.3	293.3	293.3	293.3	293.3	293.3	293.3	293.3	293.3	293.3	293.3	293.3	293.3	293.3	293.3	293.3																												
Old Growth Forest (Ha)		12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3																												
Regenerating Forest (Ha)		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0																												
Other Forest (Ha)		1.38	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.38	1.38																												
Scenario Seven - Biodiversity Additionality																																																						
Costs																																																						
Fencing	475,615	475,615																																																				
Possum Control	28,116	2,850	256	260	263	267	721	275	280	284	288	776	297	301	306	310	837	320	324	329	334	901	344	350	355	360	971																											
Ungulate Control	287,756	14,744	3,705	3,761	3,817	3,874	3,933	3,992	4,051	4,112	4,174	4,237	4,300	4,365	4,430	4,496	4,564	4,632	4,702	4,772	4,844	4,917	4,990	5,065	5,141	5,218	5,297																											
Total Cost	791,488	493,209	3,961	4,020	4,081	4,142	4,653	4,267	4,331	4,396	4,462	5,013	4,597	4,666	4,736	4,807	5,400	4,952	5,026	5,102	5,178	5,818	5,335	5,415	5,496	5,578	6,267																											
Total Cost/Ha	64,506	40,196	323	328	333	338	379	348	353	358	364	409	375	380	386	392	440	404	410	416	422	474	435	441	448	455	511																											
Scenario Eight - Biodiversity Additionality																																																						
Costs																																																						
Fencing	148,750	148,750																																																				
Possum Control	28,116	2,850	256	260	263	267	721	275	280	284	288	776	297	301	306	310	837	320	324	329	334	901	344	350	355	360	971																											
Ungulate Control	11,606	595	149	152	154	156	159	161	163	166	168	171	173	176	179	181	184	187	190	192	195	198	201	204	207	210	214																											
Total Cost	188,473	152,195	405	411	417	424	879	436	443	450	456	947	470	477	484	492	1,021	507	514	522	530	1,099	546	554	562	571	1,184																											
Total Cost/Ha	15,360	12,404	33	34	34	35	72	36	36	37	37	77	38	39	39	40	83	41	42	43	43	90	44	45	46	47	97																											
Net Revenue (Pre-Tax)	-	188,473	-	152,195	-	405	-	411	-	417	-	424	-	879	-	436	-	443	-	450	-	456	-	947	-	470	-	477	-	484	-	492	-	1,021	-	507	-	514	-	522	-	530	-	1,099	-	546	-	554	-	562	-	571	-	1,184
Scenario Nine - Biodiversity Additionality																																																						
Costs																																																						
Fencing	-																																																					
Possum Control	28,116	2,850	256	260	263	267	721	275	280	284	288	776	297	301	306	310	837	320	324	329	334	901	344	350	355	360	971																											
Ungulate Control	287,756	14,744	3,705	3,761	3,817	3,874	3,933	3,992	4,051	4,112	4,174	4,237	4,300	4,365	4,430	4,496	4,564	4,632	4,702	4,772	4,844	4,917	4,990	5,065	5,141	5,218	5,297																											
Total Cost	315,873	17,594	3,961	4,020	4,081	4,142	4,653	4,267	4,331	4,396	4,462	5,013	4,597	4,666	4,736	4,807	5,400	4,952	5,026	5,102	5,178	5,818	5,335	5,415	5,496	5,578	6,267																											
Total Cost/Ha	25,743	1,434	323	328	333	338	379	348	353	358	364	409	375	380	386	392	440	404	410	416	422	474	435	441	448	455	511																											

Appendix A2: Scenarios Seven, Eight and Nine – Part 2

371	377	382	388 	1,046	400	406	412	418 	1,127	431	437	444	450 	1,214	464	471	478	485 	1,308	500	507	515	522	1,409
5,376	5,457	5,539	5,622	5,706	5,792	5,878	5,967	6,056	6,147	6,239	6,333	6,428	6,524	6,622	6,721	6,822	6,925	7,028	7,134	7,241	7,349	7,460	7,572	7,685
5,747	5,833	5,921	6,010	6,752	6,191	6,284	6,378	6,474	7,274	6,670	6,770	6,871	6,974	7,836	7,185	7,293	7,402	7,513	8,441	7,740	7,857	7,974	8,094	9,094
468	475	483	490	550	505	512	520	528	593	544	552	560	568	639	586	594	603	612	688	631	640	650	660	741

371	377	382	388 	1,046	400	406	412	418 	1,127	431	437	444	450 	1,214	464	471	478	485 	1,308	500	507	515	522	1,409
217	220	223	227	230	234	237	241	244	248	252	255	259	263	267	271	275	279	283	288	292	296	301	305	310
588	597	606	615	1,276	633	643	652	662	1,375	682	692	703	713	1,481	735	746	757	768	1,595	792	804	816	828	1,719
48	49	49	50	104	52	52	53	54	112	56	56	57	58	121	60	61	62	63	130	65	65	66	67	140

371	377	382	388 	1,046	400	406	412	418 	1,127	431	437	444	450 	1,214	464	471	478	485 	1,308	500	507	515	522	1,409
5,376	5,457	5,539	5,622	5,706	5,792	5,878	5,967	6,056	6,147	6,239	6,333	6,428	6,524	6,622	6,721	6,822	6,925	7,028	7,134	7,241	7,349	7,460	7,572	7,685
5,747	5,833	5,921	6,010	6,752	6,191	6,284	6,378	6,474	7,274	6,670	6,770	6,871	6,974	7,836	7,185	7,293	7,402	7,513	8,441	7,740	7,857	7,974	8,094	9,094
468	475	483	490	550	505	512	520	528	593	544	552	560	568	639	586	594	603	612	688	631	640	650	660	741

Appendix B: Case Study Two Discounted Cash Flows

Appendix B1: Scenarios One, Two and Three

Year	Total	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26																												
Property Area (Ha)		369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8	369.8																												
Old Growth Forest (Ha)		68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0	68.0																												
Regenerating Forest (Ha)		15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.7																												
Other Forest (Ha)		0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33																												
Scenario One - Carbon Additionality																																																								
Costs																																																								
Fencing	482,853	482,853																																																						
Possum Control	17,053	3,299	329	334	339	344	928	355	360	365	371	1,000	382	388	394	400	1,077	412	418	424	430	1,161	443	450	457	464	1,250	478																												
Ungulate Control	31,304	3,510	882	895	909	922	936	950	964	979	994	1,008	1,024	1,039	1,055	1,070	1,086	1,103	1,119	1,136	1,153	1,170	1,188	1,206	1,224	1,242	1,261	1,280																												
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	8,129	2,087	192	195	198	200	203	207	210	213	216	219	222	226	229	233	236	240	243	247	251	254	258	262	266	270	274	278																												
FMA Plots	8,905						1,526					1,644					1,771				1,908						2,055																													
Total Cost	-	548,243	-	491,748	-	1,403	-	1,424	-	1,445	-	1,467	-	3,594	-	1,511	-	1,534	-	1,557	-	1,580	-	3,872	-	1,628	-	1,653	-	1,677	-	1,703	-	4,171	-	1,754	-	1,780	-	1,807	-	1,834	-	4,493	-	1,890	-	1,918	-	1,947	-	1,976	-	4,841	-	2,036
Total Cost/Ha		8,062		7,232		21		21		21		22		53		22		23		23		23		57		24		24		25		25		61		26		26		27		27		66		28		28		29		29		71		30
Revenue																																																								
Baseline CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		204.7	215.0	224.6	233.7	242.2	250.1	257.5	264.3	270.6	276.3	281.6	286.5	290.9	295	298.7	302	305.1	307.8	310.4	312.6	314.7	316.5	318.2	319.7	321.1	322.3	323.4																												
Managed CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		225.2	236.5	247.1	257.1	266.4	275.1	283.3	290.7	297.7	303.9	309.8	315.2	320.0	324.5	328.6	332.2	335.6	338.6	341.4	343.9	346.2	348.2	350.0	351.7	353.2	354.5	355.7																												
Additional Annual CO2 Seq. (t/ha)	11.87		1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1																												
NZU Price		58.77	59.66	60.55	61.46	62.38	63.32	64.27	65.23	66.21	67.20	68.21	69.23	70.27	71.33	72.40	73.48	74.58	75.70	76.84	77.99	79.16	80.35	81.55	82.78	84.02	85.28																													
NZU Income	12,427		953	901	867	822	776	737	688	647	594	561	526	479	453	415	376	359	317	310	266	258	224	215	193	182	159	148																												
Total Income		12,427		953		901		867		822		776		737		688		647		594		561		526		479		453		415		376		359		317		310		266		258		224		215		193		182		159		148		
Net Revenue (Pre-Tax)	-	535,817	-	491,748	-	450	-	523	-	578	-	645	-	2,818	-	774	-	846	-	910	-	986	-	3,311	-	1,102	-	1,173	-	1,224	-	1,287	-	3,795	-	1,395	-	1,463	-	1,497	-	1,568	-	4,235	-	1,665	-	1,703	-	1,754	-	1,794	-	4,682	-	1,888
Scenario Two - Carbon Additionality																																																								
Costs																																																								
Fencing	167,650	167,650																																																						
Possum Control	17,053	3,299	329	334	339	344	928	355	360	365	371	1,000	382	388	394	400	1,077	412	418	424	430	1,161	443	450	457	464	1,250	478																												
Ungulate Control	6,805	763	192	195	198	200	203	207	210	213	216	219	222	226	229	233	236	240	243	247	251	254	258	262	266	270	274	278																												
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	8,129	2,087	192	195	198	200	203	207	210	213	216	219	222	226	229	233	236	240	243	247	251	254	258	262	266	270	274	278																												
FMA Plots	8,905						1,526					1,644					1,771				1,908						2,055																													
Total Cost	-	208,541	-	173,799	-	713	-	723	-	734	-	745	-	2,861	-	3,082	-	3,221	-	3,321	-	3,391	-	3,451	-	3,501	-	3,551	-	3,601	-	3,651	-	3,701	-	3,751	-	3,801	-	3,851	-	3,901	-	3,951	-	4,001	-	4,051	-	4,101	-	4,151	-	4,201		
Total Cost/Ha		3,067		2,556		10		11		11		11		12		12		12		12		13		13		13		13		13		13		13		13		13		14		14		14		15		15		15		15		15		
Revenue																																																								
Baseline CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		204.7	215	224.6	233.7	242.2	250.1	257.5	264.3	270.6	276.3	281.6	286.5	290.9	295	298.7	302	305.1	307.8	310.4	312.6	314.7	316.5	318.2	319.7	321.1	322.3	323.4																												
Managed CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		225.2	236.5	247.06	257.07	266.42	275.11	283.25	290.73	297.66	303.93	309.76	315.15	319.99	324.5	328.57	332.2	335.61	338.58	341.44	343.86	346.17	348.15	350.02	351.67	353.21	354.53	355.74																												
Additional Annual CO2 Seq. (t/ha)			1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1																												
NZU Price		58.77	59.66	60.55	61.46	62.38	63.32	64.27	65.23	66.21	67.20	68.21	69.23	70.27	71.33	72.40	73.48	74.58	75.70	76.84	77.99	79.16	80.35	81.55	82.78	84.02	85.28																													
NZU Income	12,427		953	901	867	822	776	737	688	647	594	561	526	479	453	415	376	359	317	310	266	258	224	215	193	182	159	148																												
Total Income		12,427		953		901		867		822		776		737		688		647		594		561		526		479		453		415		376		359		317		310		266		258		224		215		193		182		159		148		
Net Revenue (Pre-Tax)	-	196,115	-	173,799	-	240	-	178	-	133	-	77	-	2,086	-	30	-	91	-	144	-	209	-	2,522	-	301	-	360	-	399	-	450	-	2,945	-	533	-	587	-	608	-	666	-	3,320	-	736	-	759	-	796	-	821	-	3,695	-	886
Scenario Three - Carbon Additionality																																																								
Costs																																																								
Fencing	-	-																																																						
Possum Control	17,053	3,299	329	334	339	344	928	355	360	365	371	1,000	382	388	394	400	1,077	412	418	424	430	1,161	443	450	457	464	1,250	478																												
Ungulate Control	31,304	3,510	882	895	909	922	936	950	964	979	994	1,008	1,024	1,039	1,055	1,070	1,086	1,103	1,119	1,136	1,153	1,170	1,188	1,206	1,224	1,242	1,261	1,280																												
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	8,129	2,087	192	195	198	200	203	207	210	213	216	219	222	226	229	233	236	240	243	247	251	254	258	262	266	270	274	278																												
FMA Plots	8,905						1,526					1,644					1,771				1,908						2,055																													
Total Cost	-	65,391	-	8,896	-	1,403	-	1,424	-	1,445	-	1,467	-	3,594	-	1,511	-	1,534	-	1,557	-	1,580	-	3,872	-	1,628	-	1,653	-	1,677	-	1,703	-	4,171	-	1,754	-	1,780	-	1,807	-	1,834	-</													

Appendix B2: Scenarios Four, Five and Six

Scenario Four - Carbon Additionality																																																								
Costs																																																								
Fencing	482,853	482,853																																																						
Possum Control	17,053	3,299	329	334	339	344	928	355	360	365	371	1,000	382	388	394	400	1,077	412	418	424	430	1,161	443	450	457	464	1,250	478																												
Ungulate Control	31,304	3,510	882	895	909	922	936	950	964	979	994	1,008	1,024	1,039	1,055	1,070	1,086	1,103	1,119	1,136	1,153	1,170	1,188	1,206	1,224	1,242	1,261	1,280																												
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	8,129	2,087	192	195	198	200	203	207	210	213	216	219	222	226	229	233	236	240	243	247	251	254	258	262	266	270	274	278																												
FMA Plots	-																																																							
Total Cost	-	539,339	-	491,748	-	1,403	-	1,424	-	1,445	-	1,467	-	2,068	-	1,511	-	1,534	-	1,557	-	1,580	-	2,228	-	1,628	-	1,653	-	1,677	-	1,703	-	2,400	-	1,754	-	1,780	-	1,807	-	1,834	-	2,585	-	1,890	-	1,918	-	1,947	-	1,976	-	2,785	-	2,036
Total Cost/Ha	-	7,931	-	7,232	-	21	-	21	-	21	-	22	-	30	-	22	-	23	-	23	-	23	-	33	-	24	-	24	-	25	-	25	-	35	-	26	-	26	-	27	-	27	-	38	-	28	-	28	-	29	-	29	-	41	-	30
Revenue																																																								
Baseline CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		204.7	215	224.6	233.7	242.2	250.1	257.5	264.3	270.6	276.3	281.6	286.5	290.9	295	298.7	302	305.1	307.8	310.4	312.6	314.7	316.5	318.2	319.7	321.1	322.3	323.4																												
Managed CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		225.2	236.5	247.06	257.07	266.42	275.11	283.25	290.73	297.66	303.93	309.76	315.15	319.99	324.5	328.57	332.2	335.61	338.58	341.44	343.86	346.17	348.15	350.02	351.67	353.21	354.53	355.74																												
Additional Annual CO2 Seq. (t/ha)		1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1																												
NZU Price		58.77	59.66	60.55	61.46	62.38	63.32	64.27	65.23	66.21	67.20	68.21	69.23	70.27	71.33	72.40	73.48	74.58	75.70	76.84	77.99	79.16	80.35	81.55	82.78	84.02	85.28																													
NZU Income	12,427	953	901	867	822	776	737	688	647	594	561	526	479	453	415	376	359	317	310	266	258	224	215	193	182	159	148																													
Total Income	-	12,427	-	953	-	901	-	867	-	822	-	776	-	737	-	688	-	647	-	594	-	561	-	526	-	479	-	453	-	415	-	376	-	359	-	317	-	310	-	266	-	258	-	224	-	215	-	193	-	182	-	159	-	148		
Net Revenue (Pre-Tax)	-	526,912	-	491,748	-	450	-	523	-	578	-	645	-	1,292	-	774	-	846	-	910	-	986	-	1,667	-	1,102	-	1,173	-	1,224	-	1,287	-	2,024	-	1,395	-	1,463	-	1,497	-	1,568	-	2,328	-	1,665	-	1,703	-	1,754	-	1,794	-	2,626	-	1,888

Scenario Five - Carbon Additionality																																																								
Costs																																																								
Fencing	167,650	167,650																																																						
Possum Control	17,053	3,299	329	334	339	344	928	355	360	365	371	1,000	382	388	394	400	1,077	412	418	424	430	1,161	443	450	457	464	1,250	478																												
Ungulate Control	6,805	763	192	195	198	200	203	207	210	213	216	219	222	226	229	233	236	240	243	247	251	254	258	262	266	270	274	278																												
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	8,129	2,087	192	195	198	200	203	207	210	213	216	219	222	226	229	233	236	240	243	247	251	254	258	262	266	270	274	278																												
FMA Plots	-																																																							
Total Cost	-	199,637	-	173,799	-	713	-	723	-	734	-	745	-	1,335	-	768	-	779	-	791	-	803	-	1,438	-	827	-	840	-	852	-	865	-	1,550	-	891	-	904	-	918	-	932	-	1,669	-	960	-	974	-	989	-	1,004	-	1,798	-	1,034
Total Cost/Ha	-	2,936	-	2,556	-	10	-	11	-	11	-	11	-	20	-	11	-	11	-	12	-	12	-	21	-	12	-	12	-	13	-	13	-	23	-	13	-	13	-	13	-	14	-	25	-	14	-	14	-	15	-	15	-	26	-	15
Revenue																																																								
Baseline CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		204.7	215	224.6	233.7	242.2	250.1	257.5	264.3	270.6	276.3	281.6	286.5	290.9	295	298.7	302	305.1	307.8	310.4	312.6	314.7	316.5	318.2	319.7	321.1	322.3	323.4																												
Managed CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		225.2	236.5	247.06	257.07	266.42	275.11	283.25	290.73	297.66	303.93	309.76	315.15	319.99	324.5	328.57	332.2	335.61	338.58	341.44	343.86	346.17	348.15	350.02	351.67	353.21	354.53	355.74																												
Additional Annual CO2 Seq. (t/ha)		1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1																												
NZU Price		58.77	59.66	60.55	61.46	62.38	63.32	64.27	65.23	66.21	67.20	68.21	69.23	70.27	71.33	72.40	73.48	74.58	75.70	76.84	77.99	79.16	80.35	81.55	82.78	84.02	85.28																													
NZU Income	12,427	953	901	867	822	776	737	688	647	594	561	526	479	453	415	376	359	317	310	266	258	224	215	193	182	159	148																													
Total Income	-	12,427	-	953	-	901	-	867	-	822	-	776	-	737	-	688	-	647	-	594	-	561	-	526	-	479	-	453	-	415	-	376	-	359	-	317	-	310	-	266	-	258	-	224	-	215	-	193	-	182	-	159	-	148		
Net Revenue (Pre-Tax)	-	187,210	-	173,799	-	240	-	178	-	133	-	77	-	560	-	30	-	91	-	144	-	209	-	878	-	301	-	360	-	399	-	450	-	1,174	-	533	-	587	-	608	-	666	-	1,412	-	736	-	759	-	796	-	821	-	1,640	-	886

Scenario Six - Carbon Additionality																																																								
Costs																																																								
Fencing	-	-																																																						
Possum Control	17,053	3,299	329	334	339	344	928	355	360	365	371	1,000	382	388	394	400	1,077	412	418	424	430	1,161	443	450	457	464	1,250	478																												
Ungulate Control	39,388	3,510	882	895	909	922	936	950	964	979	994	1,008	1,024	1,039	1,055	1,070	1,086	1,103	1,119	1,136	1,153	1,170	1,188	1,206	1,224	1,242	1,261	1,280																												
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	8,129	2,087	192	195	198	200	203	207	210	213	216	219	222	226	229	233	236	240	243	247	251	254	258	262	266	270	274	278																												
FMA Plots	-																																																							
Total Cost	-	64,571	-	8,896	-	1,403	-	1,424	-	1,445	-	1,467	-	2,068	-	1,511	-	1,534	-	1,557	-	1,580	-	2,228	-	1,628	-	1,653	-	1,677	-	1,703	-	2,400	-	1,754	-	1,780	-	1,807	-	1,834	-	2,585	-	1,890	-	1,918	-	1,947	-	1,976	-	2,785	-	2,036
Total Cost/Ha	-	950	-	131	-	21	-	21	-	21	-	22	-	30	-	22	-	23	-	23	-	23	-	33	-	24	-	24	-	25	-	25	-	35	-	26	-	26	-	27	-	27	-	38	-	28	-	28	-	29	-	29	-	41	-	30
Revenue																																																								
Baseline CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		204.7	215	224.6	233.7	242.2	250.1	257.5	264.3	270.6	276.3	281.6	286.5	290.9	295	298.7	302	305.1	307.8	310.4	312.6	314.7	316.5	318.2	319.7	321.1	322.3	323.4																												
Managed CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		225.2	236.5	247.06	257.07	266.42	275.11	283.25	290.73	297.66	303.93	309.76	315.15	319.99	324.5	328.57	332.2	335.61	338.58	341.44	343.86	346.17	348.15	350.02	351.67	353.21	354.53	355.74																												
Additional Annual CO2 Seq. (t/ha)		1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1																												
NZU Price		58.77	59.66	60.55	61.46	62.38	63.32	64.27	65.23	66.21	67.20	68.21	69.23	70.27	71.33	72.40	73.48	74.58	75.70	76.84	77.99	79.16	80.35	81.55	82.78	84.02	85.28																													
NZU Income	12,427	953	901	867	822	776	737	688	647	594	561	526	479	453	415	376	359	317	310	266	258	224	215	193	182	159	148																													
Total Income	-	12,427	-	953	-	901	-	867	-	822	-	776	-	737	-	688	-	647	-	594	-	561	-	526	-	479	-	453	-	415	-	376	-	359	-	317	-	310	-	266	-	258	-	224	-	215	-	193	-	182	-	159	-	148		
Net Revenue (Pre-Tax)	-	52,144	-	8,896	-	450	-	523	-	578	-	645	-	1,292	-	774	-	846	-																																					

Appendix B3: Scenarios Seven, Eight and Nine

Scenario Seven - Biodiversity Additionality																													
Costs Fencing Possum Control Ungulate Control Biodiversity Plan Development/Auditing																													
			482,853	482,853																									
			180,599	14,253	1,683	1,709	1,734	1,760	4,745	1,813	1,841	1,868	1,896	5,112	1,954	1,983	2,013	2,043	5,507	2,105	2,136	2,168	2,201	5,933	2,267	2,301	2,336	2,371	6,391
			336,058	17,219	4,327	4,392	4,458	4,525	4,593	4,662	4,732	4,803	4,875	4,948	5,022	5,097	5,174	5,251	5,330	5,410	5,491	5,573	5,657	5,742	5,828	5,916	6,004	6,094	6,186
			21,000	5,000					2,000					2,000					2,000								2,000		
Total Cost			1,020,510	519,324	6,011	6,101	6,192	6,285	11,338	6,475	6,572	6,671	6,771	12,060	6,975	7,080	7,186	7,294	12,837	7,515	7,627	7,742	7,858	11,675	8,095	8,217	10,340	8,465	12,577
Total Cost/Ha			15,007	7,637	88	90	91	92	167	95	97	98	100	177	103	104	106	107	189	111	112	114	116	172	119	121	152	124	185
2,442			2,479	2,516	2,554	6,885	2,631	2,671	2,711	2,751	7,418	2,835	2,877	2,920	2,964	7,991	3,054	3,099	3,146	3,193	8,608	3,290	3,339	3,389	3,440	9,274			
6,279			6,373	6,468	6,565	6,664	6,764	6,865	6,968	7,073	7,179	7,286	7,396	7,507	7,619	7,734	7,850	7,967	8,087	8,208	8,331	8,456	8,583	8,712	8,843	8,975			
				2,000					2,000								2,000					2,000							
8,721			8,852	10,985	9,119	13,549	9,395	9,536	11,679	9,824	14,596	10,121	10,273	10,427	10,583	15,724	12,903	11,067	11,233	11,401	16,940	13,746	11,922	12,101	12,282	18,249			
128			130	162	134	199	138	140	172	144	215	149	151	153	156	231	190	163	165	168	249	202	175	178	181	268			

Scenario Eight - Biodiversity Additionality																													
Costs Fencing Possum Control Ungulate Control Biodiversity Plan Development/Auditing																													
			634,120	634,120																									
			180,599	14,253	1,683	1,709	1,734	1,760	4,745	1,813	1,841	1,868	1,896	5,112	1,954	1,983	2,013	2,043	5,507	2,105	2,136	2,168	2,201	5,933	2,267	2,301	2,336	2,371	6,391
			64,323	3,296	828	841	853	866	879	892	906	919	933	947	961	976	990	1,005	1,020	1,035	1,051	1,067	1,083	1,099	1,116	1,132	1,149	1,166	1,184
			21,000	5,000					2,000					2,000					2,000								2,000		
Total Cost			900,042	656,669	2,512	2,549	2,587	2,626	7,625	2,706	2,746	2,787	2,829	8,059	2,915	2,958	3,003	3,048	8,527	3,140	3,187	3,235	3,283	7,032	3,383	3,433	5,485	3,537	7,575
Total Cost/Ha			13,236	9,657	37	37	38	39	112	40	40	41	42	119	43	44	44	45	125	46	47	48	48	103	50	50	81	52	111
2,442			2,479	2,516	2,554	6,885	2,631	2,671	2,711	2,751	7,418	2,835	2,877	2,920	2,964	7,991	3,054	3,099	3,146	3,193	8,608	3,290	3,339	3,389	3,440	9,274			
1,202			1,220	1,238	1,257	1,275	1,295	1,314	1,334	1,354	1,374	1,395	1,416	1,437	1,458	1,480	1,502	1,525	1,548	1,571	1,595	1,619	1,643	1,667	1,692	1,718			
				2,000					2,000								2,000					2,000							
3,644			3,699	5,754	3,811	8,161	3,926	3,985	6,044	4,105	8,792	4,229	4,293	4,357	4,422	9,471	6,556	4,624	4,694	4,764	10,203	6,908	4,982	5,056	5,132	10,991			
54			54	85	56	120	58	59	89	60	129	62	63	64	65	139	96	68	69	70	150	102	73	74	75	162			

Scenario Nine - Biodiversity Additionality																													
Costs Fencing Possum Control Ungulate Control Biodiversity Plan Development/Auditing																													
			-	-																									
			180,599	14,253	1,683	1,709	1,734	1,760	4,745	1,813	1,841	1,868	1,896	5,112	1,954	1,983	2,013	2,043	5,507	2,105	2,136	2,168	2,201	5,933	2,267	2,301	2,336	2,371	6,391
			336,058	17,219	4,327	4,392	4,458	4,525	4,593	4,662	4,732	4,803	4,875	4,948	5,022	5,097	5,174	5,251	5,330	5,410	5,491	5,573	5,657	5,742	5,828	5,916	6,004	6,094	6,186
			21,000	5,000					2,000					2,000					2,000								2,000		
Total Cost			537,657	36,472	6,011	6,101	6,192	6,285	11,338	6,475	6,572	6,671	6,771	12,060	6,975	7,080	7,186	7,294	12,837	7,515	7,627	7,742	7,858	11,675	8,095	8,217	10,340	8,465	12,577
Total Cost/Ha			7,907	536	88	90	91	92	167	95	97	98	100	177	103	104	106	107	189	111	112	114	116	172	119	121	152	124	185
2,442			2,479	2,516	2,554	6,885	2,631	2,671	2,711	2,751	7,418	2,835	2,877	2,920	2,964	7,991	3,054	3,099	3,146	3,193	8,608	3,290	3,339	3,389	3,440	9,274			
6,279			6,373	6,468	6,565	6,664	6,764	6,865	6,968	7,073	7,179	7,286	7,396	7,507	7,619	7,734	7,850	7,967	8,087	8,208	8,331	8,456	8,583	8,712	8,843	8,975			
				2,000					2,000								2,000					2,000							
8,721			8,852	10,985	9,119	13,549	9,395	9,536	11,679	9,824	14,596	10,121	10,273	10,427	10,583	15,724	12,903	11,067	11,233	11,401	16,940	13,746	11,922	12,101	12,282	18,249			
128			130	162	134	199	138	140	172	144	215	149	151	153	156	231	190	163	165	168	249	202	175	178	181	268			

Appendix C: Case Study Three Discounted Cash Flows

Appendix C1: Scenarios One, Two and Three

Year	Total	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Property Area (Ha)		356.6	356.6	356.6	356.6	356.6	356.6	356.6	356.6	356.6	356.6	356.6	356.6	356.6	356.6	356.6	356.6
Old Growth Forest (Ha)		30.7	30.7	30.7	30.7	30.7	30.7	30.7	30.7	30.7	30.7	30.7	30.7	30.7	30.7	30.7	30.7
Regenerating Forest (Ha)		128.5	128.5	128.5	128.5	128.5	128.5	128.5	128.5	128.5	128.5	128.5	128.5	128.5	128.5	128.5	128.5
Other Forest (Ha)		18.94	18.94	18.94	18.94	18.94	18.94	18.94	18.94	18.94	18.94	18.94	18.94	18.94	18.94	18.94	18.94

Scenario One - Carbon Additionality																																		
Costs																																		
Fencing	355,880	355,880																																
Possum Control	97,045	30,017	2,996	3,041	3,086	3,133	8,446	3,227	3,276	3,325	3,375	9,099	3,477	3,529	3,582	3,636	9,802																	
Ungulate Control	94,714	18,241	4,584	4,653	4,723	4,793	4,865	4,938	5,012	5,088	5,164	5,241	5,320	5,400	5,481	5,563	5,646																	
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	29,142	3,036	1,565	1,588	1,612	1,636	1,661	1,686	1,711	1,737	1,763	1,789	1,816	1,843	1,871	1,899	1,928																	
FMA Plots	40,333						12,457					13,420					14,457																	
Total Cost	-	617,114	-	407,174	-	9,145	-	9,282	-	9,421	-	9,563	-	27,429	-	9,852	-	9,999	-	10,149	-	10,302	-	29,549	-	10,613	-	10,772	-	10,934	-	11,098	-	31,832
Total Cost/Ha		20,134		13,285		298		303		307		312		895		321		326		331		336		964		346		351		357		362		1,039
Revenue																																		
Baseline CO2 Eq. (t/ha)			286.5	290.9	295	298.7	302	305.1	307.8	310.4	312.6	314.7	316.5	318.2	319.7	321.1	322.3	323.4																
Managed CO2 Eq. (t/ha)			315.2	320.0	324.5	328.6	332.2	335.6	338.6	341.4	343.9	346.2	348.2	350.0	351.7	353.2	354.5	355.7																
Additional Annual CO2 Seq. (t/ha)	3.69		0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1																
NZU Price			58.77	59.66	60.55	61.46	62.38	63.32	64.27	65.23	66.21	67.20	68.21	69.23	70.27	71.33	72.40																	
NZU Income	30,172		3,323	3,142	2,878	2,606	2,485	2,196	2,147	1,844	1,786	1,554	1,490	1,334	1,264	1,100	1,023																	
Total Income		30,172	-	3,323	3,142	2,878	2,606	2,485	2,196	2,147	1,844	1,786	1,554	1,490	1,334	1,264	1,100	1,023																
Net Revenue (Pre-Tax)	-	586,942	-	407,174	-	5,822	-	6,140	-	6,543	-	6,957	-	24,944	-	7,655	-	7,853	-	8,306	-	8,515	-	27,995	-	9,123	-	9,438	-	9,670	-	9,998	-	30,809

Scenario Two - Carbon Additionality																																		
Costs																																		
Fencing	1,501,875	1,501,875																																
Possum Control	97,045	30,017	2,996	3,041	3,086	3,133	8,446	3,227	3,276	3,325	3,375	9,099	3,477	3,529	3,582	3,636	9,802																	
Ungulate Control	32,333	6,227	1,565	1,588	1,612	1,636	1,661	1,686	1,711	1,737	1,763	1,789	1,816	1,843	1,871	1,899	1,928																	
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	29,142	3,036	1,565	1,588	1,612	1,636	1,661	1,686	1,711	1,737	1,763	1,789	1,816	1,843	1,871	1,899	1,928																	
FMA Plots	40,333						12,457					13,420					14,457																	
Total Cost	-	1,700,728	-	1,541,155	-	6,126	-	6,218	-	6,311	-	6,405	-	24,224	-	6,599	-	6,698	-	6,799	-	6,901	-	26,097	-	7,109	-	7,216	-	7,324	-	7,434	-	28,113
Total Cost/Ha		55,489		50,282		200		203		206		209		790		215		219		222		225		851		232		235		239		243		917
Revenue																																		
Baseline CO2 Eq. (t/ha)			286.5	290.9	295	298.7	302	305.1	307.8	310.4	312.6	314.7	316.5	318.2	319.7	321.1	322.3	323.4																
Managed CO2 Eq. (t/ha)			315.2	319.99	324.5	328.57	332.2	335.61	338.58	341.44	343.86	346.17	348.15	350.02	351.67	353.21	354.53	355.74																
Additional Annual CO2 Seq. (t/ha)			0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1																
NZU Price			58.77	59.66	60.55	61.46	62.38	63.32	64.27	65.23	66.21	67.20	68.21	69.23	70.27	71.33	72.40																	
NZU Income	30,172		3,323	3,142	2,878	2,606	2,485	2,196	2,147	1,844	1,786	1,554	1,490	1,334	1,264	1,100	1,023																	
Total Income		30,172	-	3,323	3,142	2,878	2,606	2,485	2,196	2,147	1,844	1,786	1,554	1,490	1,334	1,264	1,100	1,023																
Net Revenue (Pre-Tax)	-	1,670,556	-	1,541,155	-	2,803	-	3,075	-	3,432	-	3,800	-	21,740	-	4,403	-	4,551	-	4,955	-	5,114	-	24,542	-	5,619	-	5,881	-	6,060	-	6,334	-	27,090

Scenario Three - Carbon Additionality																																		
Costs																																		
Fencing	-	-																																
Possum Control	97,045	30,017	2,996	3,041	3,086	3,133	8,446	3,227	3,276	3,325	3,375	9,099	3,477	3,529	3,582	3,636	9,802																	
Ungulate Control	94,714	18,241	4,584	4,653	4,723	4,793	4,865	4,938	5,012	5,088	5,164	5,241	5,320	5,400	5,481	5,563	5,646																	
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	29,142	3,036	1,565	1,588	1,612	1,636	1,661	1,686	1,711	1,737	1,763	1,789	1,816	1,843	1,871	1,899	1,928																	
FMA Plots	40,333						12,457					13,420					14,457																	
Total Cost	-	261,234	-	51,294	-	9,145	-	9,282	-	9,421	-	9,563	-	27,429	-	9,852	-	9,999	-	10,149	-	10,302	-	29,549	-	10,613	-	10,772	-	10,934	-	11,098	-	31,832
Total Cost/Ha		8,523		1,674		298		303		307		312		895		321		326		331		336		964		346		351		357		362		1,039
Revenue																																		
Baseline CO2 Eq. (t/ha)			286.5	290.9	295	298.7	302	305.1	307.8	310.4	312.6	314.7	316.5	318.2	319.7	321.1	322.3	323.4																
Managed CO2 Eq. (t/ha)			315.2	319.99	324.5	328.57	332.2	335.61	338.58	341.44	343.86	346.17	348.15	350.02	351.67	353.21	354.53	355.74																
Additional Annual CO2 Seq. (t/ha)			0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1																
NZU Price			58.77	59.66	60.55	61.46	62.38	63.32	64.27	65.23	66.21	67.20	68.21	69.23	70.27	71.33	72.40																	
NZU Income	30,172		3,323	3,142	2,878	2,606	2,485	2,196	2,147	1,844	1,786	1,554	1,490	1,334	1,264	1,100	1,023																	
Total Income																																		

Appendix C2: Scenarios Four, Five and Six

Scenario Four - Carbon Additionality																																		
Costs																																		
Fencing	355,880	355,880																																
Possum Control	97,045	30,017	2,996	3,041	3,086	3,133	8,446	3,227	3,276	3,325	3,375	9,099	3,477	3,529	3,582	3,636	9,802																	
Ungulate Control	94,714	18,241	4,584	4,653	4,723	4,793	4,865	4,938	5,012	5,088	5,164	5,241	5,320	5,400	5,481	5,563	5,646																	
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	29,142	3,036	1,565	1,588	1,612	1,636	1,661	1,686	1,711	1,737	1,763	1,789	1,816	1,843	1,871	1,899	1,928																	
FMA Plots	-																																	
Total Cost	-	576,781	-	407,174	-	9,145	-	9,282	-	9,421	-	9,563	-	14,972	-	9,852	-	9,999	-	10,149	-	10,302	-	16,129	-	10,613	-	10,772	-	10,934	-	11,098	-	17,376
Total Cost/Ha		18,818		13,285		298		303		307		312		488		321		326		331		336		526		346		351		357		362		567
Revenue																																		
Baseline CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		286.5	290.9	295	298.7	302	305.1	307.8	310.4	312.6	314.7	316.5	318.2	319.7	321.1	322.3	323.4																	
Managed CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		315.2	319.99	324.5	328.57	332.2	335.61	338.58	341.44	343.86	346.17	348.15	350.02	351.67	353.21	354.53	355.74																	
Additional Annual CO2 Seq. (t/ha)			0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1																	
NZU Price		58.77	59.66	60.55	61.46	62.38	63.32	64.27	65.23	66.21	67.20	68.21	69.23	70.27	71.33	72.40																		
NZU Income	30,172	3,323	3,142	2,878	2,606	2,485	2,196	2,147	1,844	1,786	1,554	1,490	1,334	1,264	1,100	1,023																		
Total Income		30,172	-	3,323	3,142	2,878	2,606	2,485	2,196	2,147	1,844	1,786	1,554	1,490	1,334	1,264	1,100	1,023																
Net Revenue (Pre-Tax)	-	546,609	-	407,174	-	5,822	-	6,140	-	6,543	-	6,957	-	12,488	-	7,655	-	7,853	-	8,306	-	8,515	-	14,575	-	9,123	-	9,438	-	9,670	-	9,998	-	16,353

Scenario Five - Carbon Additionality																																		
Costs																																		
Fencing	1,501,875	1,501,875																																
Possum Control	97,045	30,017	2,996	3,041	3,086	3,133	8,446	3,227	3,276	3,325	3,375	9,099	3,477	3,529	3,582	3,636	9,802																	
Ungulate Control	32,333	6,227	1,565	1,588	1,612	1,636	1,661	1,686	1,711	1,737	1,763	1,789	1,816	1,843	1,871	1,899	1,928																	
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	29,142	3,036	1,565	1,588	1,612	1,636	1,661	1,686	1,711	1,737	1,763	1,789	1,816	1,843	1,871	1,899	1,928																	
FMA Plots	-																																	
Total Cost	-	1,660,395	-	1,541,155	-	6,126	-	6,218	-	6,311	-	6,405	-	11,768	-	6,599	-	6,698	-	6,799	-	6,901	-	12,677	-	7,109	-	7,216	-	7,324	-	7,434	-	13,657
Total Cost/Ha		54,173		50,282		200		203		206		209		384		215		219		222		225		414		232		235		239		243		446
Revenue																																		
Baseline CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		286.5	290.9	295	298.7	302	305.1	307.8	310.4	312.6	314.7	316.5	318.2	319.7	321.1	322.3	323.4																	
Managed CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		315.2	319.99	324.5	328.57	332.2	335.61	338.58	341.44	343.86	346.17	348.15	350.02	351.67	353.21	354.53	355.74																	
Additional Annual CO2 Seq. (t/ha)			0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1																	
NZU Price		58.77	59.66	60.55	61.46	62.38	63.32	64.27	65.23	66.21	67.20	68.21	69.23	70.27	71.33	72.40																		
NZU Income	30,172	3,323	3,142	2,878	2,606	2,485	2,196	2,147	1,844	1,786	1,554	1,490	1,334	1,264	1,100	1,023																		
Total Income		30,172	-	3,323	3,142	2,878	2,606	2,485	2,196	2,147	1,844	1,786	1,554	1,490	1,334	1,264	1,100	1,023																
Net Revenue (Pre-Tax)	-	1,630,222	-	1,541,155	-	2,803	-	3,075	-	3,432	-	3,800	-	9,283	-	4,403	-	4,551	-	4,955	-	5,114	-	11,123	-	5,619	-	5,881	-	6,060	-	6,334	-	12,634

Scenario Six - Carbon Additionality																																		
Costs																																		
Fencing	-	-																																
Possum Control	97,045	30,017	2,996	3,041	3,086	3,133	8,446	3,227	3,276	3,325	3,375	9,099	3,477	3,529	3,582	3,636	9,802																	
Ungulate Control	94,714	18,241	4,584	4,653	4,723	4,793	4,865	4,938	5,012	5,088	5,164	5,241	5,320	5,400	5,481	5,563	5,646																	
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	29,142	3,036	1,565	1,588	1,612	1,636	1,661	1,686	1,711	1,737	1,763	1,789	1,816	1,843	1,871	1,899	1,928																	
FMA Plots	-																																	
Total Cost	-	220,901	-	51,294	-	9,145	-	9,282	-	9,421	-	9,563	-	14,972	-	9,852	-	9,999	-	10,149	-	10,302	-	16,129	-	10,613	-	10,772	-	10,934	-	11,098	-	17,376
Total Cost/Ha		7,207		1,674		298		303		307		312		488		321		326		331		336		526		346		351		357		362		567
Revenue																																		
Baseline CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		286.5	290.9	295	298.7	302	305.1	307.8	310.4	312.6	314.7	316.5	318.2	319.7	321.1	322.3	323.4																	
Managed CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		315.2	319.99	324.5	328.57	332.2	335.61	338.58	341.44	343.86	346.17	348.15	350.02	351.67	353.21	354.53	355.74																	
Additional Annual CO2 Seq. (t/ha)			0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1																	
NZU Price		58.77	59.66	60.55	61.46	62.38	63.32	64.27	65.23	66.21	67.20	68.21	69.23	70.27	71.33	72.40																		
NZU Income	30,172	3,323	3,142	2,878	2,606	2,485	2,196	2,147	1,844	1,786	1,554	1,490	1,334	1,264	1,100	1,023																		
Total Income		30,172	-	3,323	3,142	2,878	2,606	2,485	2,196	2,147	1,844	1,786	1,554	1,490	1,334	1,264	1,100	1,023																
Net Revenue (Pre-Tax)	-	190,729	-	51,294	-	5,822	-	6,140	-	6,543	-	6,957	-	12,488	-	7,655	-	7,853	-	8,306	-	8,515	-	14,575	-	9,123	-	9,438	-	9,670	-	9,998	-	16,353

Appendix C3: Scenarios Seven, Eight and Nine

Scenario Seven - Biodiversity Additivity																														
Costs																														
Fencing		355,880	355,880																											
Possum Control		121,234	7,161	1,154	1,172	1,189	1,207	3,254	1,244	1,262	1,281	1,300	3,506	1,340	1,360	1,380	1,401	3,777	1,443	1,465	1,487	1,509	4,069	1,555	1,578	1,602	1,626	4,383		
Ungulate Control		67,105	3,438	864	877	890	904	917	931	945	959	973	988	1,003	1,018	1,033	1,049	1,064	1,080	1,096	1,113	1,130	1,147	1,164	1,181	1,199	1,217	1,235		
Biodiversity Plan Development/Auditing		21,000	5,000																											
Total Cost				565,219	371,479	2,018	2,049	2,079	2,111	6,171	2,174	2,207	2,240	2,274	6,494	2,342	2,378	2,413	2,449	6,841	2,523	2,561	2,600	2,639	5,215	2,719	2,759	4,801	2,843	5,618
Total Cost/Ha				18,441	12,120	66	67	68	69	201	71	72	73	74	212	76	78	79	80	223	82	84	85	86	170	89	90	157	93	183
1,675	1,700	1,726	1,751	4,722	1,804	1,831	1,859	1,887	5,087	1,944	1,973	2,003	2,033	5,480	2,094	2,125	2,157	2,190	5,903	2,256	2,290	2,324	2,359	6,359						
1,254	1,273	1,292	1,311	1,331	1,351	1,371	1,391	1,412	1,433	1,455	1,477	1,499	1,521	1,544	1,567	1,591	1,615	1,639	1,664	1,689	1,714	1,740	1,766	1,792						
		2,000																												
2,929	2,973	5,017	3,062	6,052	3,155	3,202	5,250	3,299	6,520	3,399	3,450	3,502	3,554	7,024	5,661	3,716	3,772	3,829	7,567	5,944	4,004	4,064	4,125	8,152						
96	97	164	100	197	103	104	171	108	213	111	113	114	116	229	185	121	123	125	247	194	131	133	135	266						

Scenario Eight - Biodiversity Additivity																														
Costs																														
Fencing		1,053,000	1,053,000																											
Possum Control		121,234	7,161	1,154	1,172	1,189	1,207	3,254	1,244	1,262	1,281	1,300	3,506	1,340	1,360	1,380	1,401	3,777	1,443	1,465	1,487	1,509	4,069	1,555	1,578	1,602	1,626	4,383		
Ungulate Control		28,993	1,486	373	379	385	390	396	402	408	414	421	427	433	440	446	453	460	467	474	481	488	495	503	510	518	526	534		
Biodiversity Plan Development/Auditing		21,000	5,000																											
Total Cost				1,224,227	1,066,646	1,528	1,551	1,574	1,597	5,650	1,646	1,670	1,695	1,721	5,933	1,773	1,800	1,827	1,854	6,237	1,910	1,939	1,968	1,997	4,564	2,058	2,088	4,120	2,152	4,917
Total Cost/Ha				39,942	34,801	50	51	51	52	184	54	54	55	56	194	58	59	60	60	203	62	63	64	65	149	67	68	134	70	160
1,675	1,700	1,726	1,751	4,722	1,804	1,831	1,859	1,887	5,087	1,944	1,973	2,003	2,033	5,480	2,094	2,125	2,157	2,190	5,903	2,256	2,290	2,324	2,359	6,359						
542	550	558	566	575	584	592	601	610	619	629	638	648	657	667	677	687	698	708	719	730	740	752	763	774						
		2,000																												
2,217	2,250	4,284	2,318	5,297	2,388	2,424	4,460	2,497	5,706	2,572	2,611	2,650	2,690	6,147	4,771	2,813	2,855	2,898	6,622	4,985	3,030	3,076	3,122	7,134						
72	73	140	76	173	78	79	146	81	186	84	85	86	88	201	156	92	93	95	216	163	99	100	102	233						

Scenario Nine - Biodiversity Additivity																														
Costs																														
Fencing																														
Possum Control		121,234	7,161	1,154	1,172	1,189	1,207	3,254	1,244	1,262	1,281	1,300	3,506	1,340	1,360	1,380	1,401	3,777	1,443	1,465	1,487	1,509	4,069	1,555	1,578	1,602	1,626	4,383		
Ungulate Control		67,105	3,438	864	877	890	904	917	931	945	959	973	988	1,003	1,018	1,033	1,049	1,064	1,080	1,096	1,113	1,130	1,147	1,164	1,181	1,199	1,217	1,235		
Biodiversity Plan Development/Auditing		21,000	5,000																											
Total Cost				209,339	15,699	2,018	2,049	2,079	2,111	6,171	2,174	2,207	2,240	2,274	6,494	2,342	2,378	2,413	2,449	6,841	2,523	2,561	2,600	2,639	5,215	2,719	2,759	4,801	2,843	5,618
Total Cost/Ha				6,830	509	66	67	68	69	201	71	72	73	74	212	76	78	79	80	223	82	84	85	86	170	89	90	157	93	183
1,675	1,700	1,726	1,751	4,722	1,804	1,831	1,859	1,887	5,087	1,944	1,973	2,003	2,033	5,480	2,094	2,125	2,157	2,190	5,903	2,256	2,290	2,324	2,359	6,359						
1,254	1,273	1,292	1,311	1,331	1,351	1,371	1,391	1,412	1,433	1,455	1,477	1,499	1,521	1,544	1,567	1,591	1,615	1,639	1,664	1,689	1,714	1,740	1,766	1,792						
		2,000																												
2,929	2,973	5,017	3,062	6,052	3,155	3,202	5,250	3,299	6,520	3,399	3,450	3,502	3,554	7,024	5,661	3,716	3,772	3,829	7,567	5,944	4,004	4,064	4,125	8,152						
96	97	164	100	197	103	104	171	108	213	111	113	114	116	229	185	121	123	125	247	194	131	133	135	266						

Appendix D: Case Study Four Discounted Cash Flows

Appendix D1: Scenarios One, Two and Three

Year	Total	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Property Area (Ha)		104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2
Old Growth Forest (Ha)		56.4	56.4	56.4	56.4	56.4	56.4	56.4	56.4	56.4	56.4	56.4	56.4	56.4	56.4	56.4	56.4
Regenerating Forest (Ha)		3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7
Other Forest (Ha)		44.09	44.09	44.09	44.09	44.09	44.09	44.09	44.09	44.09	44.09	44.09	44.09	44.09	44.09	44.09	44.09
Scenario One - Carbon Additionality																	
Costs																	
Fencing	466,000	466,000															
Possum Control	4,283	1,325	132	134	136	138	373	142	145	147	149	402	153	156	158	160	433
Ungulate Control	977	188	47	48	49	49	50	51	52	52	53	54	55	56	57	57	58
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	2,831	2,087	45	45	46	47	47	48	49	49	50	51	52	53	53	54	55
FMA Plots	1,149						355					382					412
Total Cost	475,240	- 469,600	- 224	- 227	- 231	- 234	- 825	- 241	- 245	- 249	- 252	- 889	- 260	- 264	- 268	- 272	- 958
Total Cost/Ha	8,422	8,322	4	4	4	4	15	4	4	4	4	16	5	5	5	5	17
Revenue																	
Baseline CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		286.5	290.9	295	298.7	302	305.1	307.8	310.4	312.6	314.7	316.5	318.2	319.7	321.1	322.3	323.4
Managed CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		315.2	320.0	324.5	328.6	332.2	335.6	338.6	341.4	343.9	346.2	348.2	350.0	351.7	353.2	354.5	355.7
Additional Annual CO2 Seq. (t/ha)	3.69		0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
NZU Price		58.77	59.66	60.55	61.46	62.38	63.32	64.27	65.23	66.21	67.20	68.21	69.23	70.27	71.33	72.40	
NZU Income	860	95	90	82	74	71	63	61	53	51	44	42	38	36	31	29	
Total Income	860	-	95	90	82	74	71	63	61	53	51	44	42	38	36	31	29
Net Revenue (Pre-Tax)	- 474,381	- 469,600	- 129	- 138	- 149	- 160	- 754	- 179	- 184	- 196	- 202	- 845	- 218	- 226	- 232	- 241	- 928
Scenario Two - Carbon Additionality																	
Costs																	
Fencing	119,000	119,000															
Possum Control	4,283	1,325	132	134	136	138	373	142	145	147	149	402	153	156	158	160	433
Ungulate Control	921	177	45	45	46	47	47	48	49	49	50	51	52	53	53	54	55
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	2,831	2,087	45	45	46	47	47	48	49	49	50	51	52	53	53	54	55
FMA Plots	1,149						355					382					412
Total Cost	128,184	- 122,589	- 221	- 225	- 228	- 231	- 822	- 238	- 242	- 246	- 249	- 886	- 257	- 261	- 265	- 269	- 954
Total Cost/Ha	2,272	2,172	4	4	4	4	15	4	4	4	4	16	5	5	5	5	17
Revenue																	
Baseline CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		286.5	290.9	295	298.7	302	305.1	307.8	310.4	312.6	314.7	316.5	318.2	319.7	321.1	322.3	323.4
Managed CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		315.2	319.99	324.5	328.57	332.2	335.61	338.58	341.44	343.86	346.17	348.15	350.02	351.67	353.21	354.53	355.74
Additional Annual CO2 Seq. (t/ha)			0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
NZU Price		58.77	59.66	60.55	61.46	62.38	63.32	64.27	65.23	66.21	67.20	68.21	69.23	70.27	71.33	72.40	
NZU Income	860	95	90	82	74	71	63	61	53	51	44	42	38	36	31	29	
Total Income	860	-	95	90	82	74	71	63	61	53	51	44	42	38	36	31	29
Net Revenue (Pre-Tax)	- 127,325	- 122,589	- 127	- 135	- 146	- 157	- 751	- 176	- 181	- 193	- 198	- 842	- 214	- 223	- 229	- 237	- 925
Scenario Three - Carbon Additionality																	
Costs																	
Fencing	-	-															
Possum Control	4,283	1,325	132	134	136	138	373	142	145	147	149	402	153	156	158	160	433
Ungulate Control	977	188	47	48	49	49	50	51	52	52	53	54	55	56	57	57	58
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	2,831	2,087	45	45	46	47	47	48	49	49	50	51	52	53	53	54	55
FMA Plots	1,149						355					382					412
Total Cost	9,240	- 3,600	- 224	- 227	- 231	- 234	- 825	- 241	- 245	- 249	- 252	- 889	- 260	- 264	- 268	- 272	- 958
Total Cost/Ha	164	64	4	4	4	4	15	4	4	4	4	16	5	5	5	5	17
Revenue																	
Baseline CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		286.5	290.9	295	298.7	302	305.1	307.8	310.4	312.6	314.7	316.5	318.2	319.7	321.1	322.3	323.4
Managed CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		315.2	319.99	324.5	328.57	332.2	335.61	338.58	341.44	343.86	346.17	348.15	350.02	351.67	353.21	354.53	355.74
Additional Annual CO2 Seq. (t/ha)			0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
NZU Price		58.77	59.66	60.55	61.46	62.38	63.32	64.27	65.23	66.21	67.20	68.21	69.23	70.27	71.33	72.40	
NZU Income	860	95	90	82	74	71	63	61	53	51	44	42	38	36	31	29	
Total Income	860	-	95	90	82	74	71	63	61	53	51	44	42	38	36	31	29
Net Revenue (Pre-Tax)	- 8,381	- 3,600	- 129	- 138	- 149	- 160	- 754	- 179	- 184	- 196	- 202	- 845	- 218	- 226	- 232	- 241	- 928

Appendix D2: Scenarios Four, Five and Six

Scenario Four - Carbon Additionality																			
Costs																			
Fencing	466,000	466,000																	
Possum Control	4,283	1,325	132	134	136	138	373	142	145	147	149	402	153	156	158	160	433		
Ungulate Control	977	188	47	48	49	49	50	51	52	52	53	54	55	56	57	57	58		
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	2,831	2,087	45	45	46	47	47	48	49	49	50	51	52	53	53	54	55		
FMA Plots	-																		
Total Cost	-	474,091	-	469,600	-	224	-	227	-	231	-	234	-	470	-	241	-	245	-
Total Cost/Ha		8,401		8,322		4		4		4		4		4		4		4	
Revenue																			
Baseline CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		286.5	290.9	295	298.7	302	305.1	307.8	310.4	312.6	314.7	316.5	318.2	319.7	321.1	322.3	323.4		
Managed CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		315.2	319.99	324.5	328.57	332.2	335.61	338.58	341.44	343.86	346.17	348.15	350.02	351.67	353.21	354.53	355.74		
Additional Annual CO2 Seq. (t/ha)			0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1		
NZU Price		860	58.77	59.66	60.55	61.46	62.38	63.32	64.27	65.23	66.21	67.20	68.21	69.23	70.27	71.33	72.40		
NZU Income			95	90	82	74	71	63	61	53	51	44	42	38	36	31	29		
Total Income		860	-	95	90	82	74	71	63	61	53	51	44	42	38	36	31	29	
Net Revenue (Pre-Tax)	-	473,232	-	469,600	-	129	-	138	-	149	-	160	-	399	-	179	-	184	-

Scenario Five - Carbon Additionality																			
Costs																			
Fencing	119,000	119,000																	
Possum Control	4,283	1,325	132	134	136	138	373	142	145	147	149	402	153	156	158	160	433		
Ungulate Control	921	177	45	45	46	47	47	48	49	49	50	51	52	53	53	54	55		
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	2,831	2,087	45	45	46	47	47	48	49	49	50	51	52	53	53	54	55		
FMA Plots	-																		
Total Cost	-	127,035	-	122,589	-	221	-	225	-	228	-	231	-	467	-	238	-	242	-
Total Cost/Ha		2,251		2,172		4		4		4		4		4		4		4	
Revenue																			
Baseline CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		286.5	290.9	295	298.7	302	305.1	307.8	310.4	312.6	314.7	316.5	318.2	319.7	321.1	322.3	323.4		
Managed CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		315.2	319.99	324.5	328.57	332.2	335.61	338.58	341.44	343.86	346.17	348.15	350.02	351.67	353.21	354.53	355.74		
Additional Annual CO2 Seq. (t/ha)			0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1		
NZU Price		860	58.77	59.66	60.55	61.46	62.38	63.32	64.27	65.23	66.21	67.20	68.21	69.23	70.27	71.33	72.40		
NZU Income			95	90	82	74	71	63	61	53	51	44	42	38	36	31	29		
Total Income		860	-	95	90	82	74	71	63	61	53	51	44	42	38	36	31	29	
Net Revenue (Pre-Tax)	-	126,176	-	122,589	-	127	-	135	-	146	-	157	-	397	-	176	-	181	-

Scenario Six - Carbon Additionality																			
Costs																			
Fencing	-	-																	
Possum Control	4,283	1,325	132	134	136	138	373	142	145	147	149	402	153	156	158	160	433		
Ungulate Control	977	188	47	48	49	49	50	51	52	52	53	54	55	56	57	57	58		
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	2,831	2,087	45	45	46	47	47	48	49	49	50	51	52	53	53	54	55		
FMA Plots	-																		
Total Cost	-	8,091	-	3,600	-	224	-	227	-	231	-	234	-	470	-	241	-	245	-
Total Cost/Ha		143		64		4		4		4		4		4		4		4	
Revenue																			
Baseline CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		286.5	290.9	295	298.7	302	305.1	307.8	310.4	312.6	314.7	316.5	318.2	319.7	321.1	322.3	323.4		
Managed CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		315.2	319.99	324.5	328.57	332.2	335.61	338.58	341.44	343.86	346.17	348.15	350.02	351.67	353.21	354.53	355.74		
Additional Annual CO2 Seq. (t/ha)			0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1		
NZU Price		860	58.77	59.66	60.55	61.46	62.38	63.32	64.27	65.23	66.21	67.20	68.21	69.23	70.27	71.33	72.40		
NZU Income			95	90	82	74	71	63	61	53	51	44	42	38	36	31	29		
Total Income		860	-	95	90	82	74	71	63	61	53	51	44	42	38	36	31	29	
Net Revenue (Pre-Tax)	-	7,232	-	3,600	-	129	-	138	-	149	-	160	-	399	-	179	-	184	-

Appendix D3: Scenarios Seven, Eight and Nine

Scenario Seven - Biodiversity Additionality																											
Costs																											
Fencing	466,000	466,000																									
Possum Control	143,705	20,426	1,248	1,266	1,285	1,304	3,517	1,344	1,364	1,385	1,405	3,789	1,448	1,469	1,492	1,514	4,081	1,560	1,583	1,607	1,631	4,397	1,680	1,705	1,731	1,757	4,737
Ungulate Control	103,499	5,303	1,333	1,353	1,373	1,394	1,414	1,436	1,457	1,479	1,501	1,524	1,547	1,570	1,593	1,617	1,642	1,666	1,691	1,717	1,742	1,768	1,795	1,822	1,849	1,877	1,905
Biodiversity Plan Development/Auditing	21,000	5,000					2,000					2,000					2,000								2,000		
Total Cost	734,204	496,729	2,580	2,619	2,658	2,698	6,931	2,780	2,821	2,864	2,907	7,312	2,994	3,039	3,085	3,131	7,723	3,226	3,274	3,323	3,373	6,165	3,475	3,527	5,580	3,634	6,642
Total Cost/Ha	13,911	8,803	46	46	47	48	123	49	50	51	52	130	53	54	55	55	137	57	58	59	60	109	62	63	99	64	118
		1,810	1,837	1,865	1,893	5,103	1,950	1,979	2,009	2,039	5,497	2,101	2,132	2,164	2,197	5,922	2,263	2,297	2,331	2,366	6,380	2,438	2,474	2,512	2,549	6,873	
		1,934	1,963	1,992	2,022	2,052	2,083	2,114	2,146	2,178	2,211	2,244	2,278	2,312	2,347	2,382	2,418	2,454	2,491	2,528	2,566	2,604	2,643	2,683	2,723	2,764	
				2,000					2,000								2,000					2,000					
3,744	3,800	5,857	3,915	7,155	4,033	4,094	6,155	4,217	7,708	4,345	4,410	4,476	4,543	8,304	6,681	4,751	4,822	4,894	8,945	7,042	5,118	5,195	5,273	9,637			
66	67	104	69	127	71	73	109	75	137	77	78	79	81	147	118	84	85	87	159	125	91	92	93	171			

Scenario Eight - Biodiversity Additionality																											
Costs																											
Fencing	784,000	784,000																									
Possum Control	143,705	20,426	1,248	1,266	1,285	1,304	3,517	1,344	1,364	1,385	1,405	3,789	1,448	1,469	1,492	1,514	4,081	1,560	1,583	1,607	1,631	4,397	1,680	1,705	1,731	1,757	4,737
Ungulate Control	53,378	2,735	687	698	708	719	729	740	752	763	774	786	798	810	822	834	847	859	872	885	899	912	926	940	954	968	983
Biodiversity Plan Development/Auditing	21,000	5,000					2,000					2,000					2,000							2,000			
Total Cost	1,002,983	812,161	1,935	1,964	1,993	2,023	6,246	2,084	2,116	2,147	2,180	6,575	2,245	2,279	2,313	2,348	6,928	2,419	2,455	2,492	2,529	5,309	2,606	2,645	4,685	2,725	5,719
Total Cost/Ha	17,758	14,392	34	35	35	36	111	37	37	38	39	117	40	40	41	42	123	43	44	44	45	94	46	47	83	48	101
		1,810	1,837	1,865	1,893	5,103	1,950	1,979	2,009	2,039	5,497	2,101	2,132	2,164	2,197	5,922	2,263	2,297	2,331	2,366	6,380	2,438	2,474	2,512	2,549	6,873	
		997	1,012	1,027	1,043	1,058	1,074	1,090	1,107	1,123	1,140	1,157	1,175	1,192	1,210	1,228	1,247	1,266	1,284	1,304	1,323	1,343	1,363	1,384	1,405	1,426	
				2,000					2,000								2,000					2,000					
2,807	2,849	4,892	2,936	6,161	3,024	3,070	5,116	3,162	6,637	3,258	3,307	3,356	3,407	7,150	5,510	3,562	3,616	3,670	7,703	5,781	3,838	3,895	3,954	8,298			
50	50	87	52	109	54	54	91	56	118	58	59	59	60	127	98	63	64	65	137	102	68	69	70	147			

Scenario Nine - Biodiversity Additionality																											
Costs																											
Fencing																											
Possum Control	143,705	20,426	1,248	1,266	1,285	1,304	3,517	1,344	1,364	1,385	1,405	3,789	1,448	1,469	1,492	1,514	4,081	1,560	1,583	1,607	1,631	4,397	1,680	1,705	1,731	1,757	4,737
Ungulate Control	103,499	5,303	1,333	1,353	1,373	1,394	1,414	1,436	1,457	1,479	1,501	1,524	1,547	1,570	1,593	1,617	1,642	1,666	1,691	1,717	1,742	1,768	1,795	1,822	1,849	1,877	1,905
Biodiversity Plan Development/Auditing	21,000	5,000					2,000					2,000					2,000							2,000			
Total Cost	268,204	30,729	2,580	2,619	2,658	2,698	6,931	2,780	2,821	2,864	2,907	7,312	2,994	3,039	3,085	3,131	7,723	3,226	3,274	3,323	3,373	6,165	3,475	3,527	5,580	3,634	6,642
Total Cost/Ha	4,753	545	46	46	47	48	123	49	50	51	52	130	53	54	55	55	137	57	58	59	60	109	62	63	99	64	118
		1,810	1,837	1,865	1,893	5,103	1,950	1,979	2,009	2,039	5,497	2,101	2,132	2,164	2,197	5,922	2,263	2,297	2,331	2,366	6,380	2,438	2,474	2,512	2,549	6,873	
		1,934	1,963	1,992	2,022	2,052	2,083	2,114	2,146	2,178	2,211	2,244	2,278	2,312	2,347	2,382	2,418	2,454	2,491	2,528	2,566	2,604	2,643	2,683	2,723	2,764	
				2,000					2,000								2,000					2,000					
3,744	3,800	5,857	3,915	7,155	4,033	4,094	6,155	4,217	7,708	4,345	4,410	4,476	4,543	8,304	6,681	4,751	4,822	4,894	8,945	7,042	5,118	5,195	5,273	9,637			
66	67	104	69	127	71	73	109	75	137	77	78	79	81	147	118	84	85	87	159	125	91	92	93	171			

Appendix E: Case Study Five Discounted Cash Flows

Appendix E1: Scenarios One, Two and Three

Year	Total	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Property Area (Ha)		362.4	362.4	362.4	362.4	362.4	362.4	362.4	362.4	362.4	362.4	362.4	362.4	362.4	362.4	362.4	362.4
Old Growth Forest (Ha)		275.8	275.8	275.8	275.8	275.8	275.8	275.8	275.8	275.8	275.8	275.8	275.8	275.8	275.8	275.8	275.8
Regenerating Forest (Ha)		29.8	29.8	29.8	29.8	29.8	29.8	29.8	29.8	29.8	29.8	29.8	29.8	29.8	29.8	29.8	29.8
Other Forest (Ha)		18.69	18.69	18.69	18.69	18.69	18.69	18.69	18.69	18.69	18.69	18.69	18.69	18.69	18.69	18.69	18.69
Scenario One - Carbon Additionality																	
Costs																	
Fencing	1,181,700	1,181,700															
Possum Control	21,367	6,609	660	670	680	690	1,860	711	721	732	743	2,003	766	777	789	800	2,158
Ungulate Control	9,176	1,767	444	451	458	464	471	478	486	493	500	508	515	523	531	539	547
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	8,148	2,087	363	369	374	380	386	391	397	403	409	415	422	428	434	441	448
FMA Plots	9,364						2,892					3,116					3,356
Total Cost	- 1,229,756	- 1,192,163	- 1,467	- 1,489	- 1,511	- 1,534	- 5,609	- 1,580	- 1,604	- 1,628	- 1,653	- 6,042	- 1,703	- 1,728	- 1,754	- 1,780	- 6,509
Total Cost/Ha	4,460	4,323	5	5	5	6	20	6	6	6	6	22	6	6	6	6	24
Revenue																	
Baseline CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		286.5	290.9	295	298.7	302	305.1	307.8	310.4	312.6	314.7	316.5	318.2	319.7	321.1	322.3	323.4
Managed CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		315.2	320.0	324.5	328.6	332.2	335.6	338.6	341.4	343.9	346.2	348.2	350.0	351.7	353.2	354.5	355.7
Additional Annual CO2 Seq. (t/ha)	3.69		0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
NZU Price		58.77	59.66	60.55	61.46	62.38	63.32	64.27	65.23	66.21	67.20	68.21	69.23	70.27	71.33	72.40	
NZU Income	7,005	771	730	668	605	577	510	498	428	415	361	346	310	293	255	238	
Total Income	7,005	-	771	730	668	605	577	510	498	428	415	361	346	310	293	255	238
Net Revenue (Pre-Tax)	- 1,222,750	- 1,192,163	- 696	- 759	- 843	- 929	- 5,032	- 1,070	- 1,106	- 1,200	- 1,238	- 5,681	- 1,357	- 1,418	- 1,461	- 1,525	- 6,272
Scenario Two - Carbon Additionality																	
Costs																	
Fencing	451,000	451,000															
Possum Control	21,367	6,609	660	670	680	690	1,860	711	721	732	743	2,003	766	777	789	800	2,158
Ungulate Control	7,507	1,446	363	369	374	380	386	391	397	403	409	415	422	428	434	441	448
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	8,148	2,087	363	369	374	380	386	391	397	403	409	415	422	428	434	441	448
FMA Plots	9,364						2,892					3,116					3,356
Total Cost	- 497,386	- 461,142	- 1,386	- 1,407	- 1,428	- 1,450	- 5,523	- 1,493	- 1,516	- 1,539	- 1,562	- 5,950	- 1,609	- 1,633	- 1,657	- 1,682	- 6,410
Total Cost/Ha	1,804	1,672	5	5	5	5	20	5	5	6	6	22	6	6	6	6	23
Revenue																	
Baseline CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		286.5	290.9	295	298.7	302	305.1	307.8	310.4	312.6	314.7	316.5	318.2	319.7	321.1	322.3	323.4
Managed CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		315.2	319.99	324.5	328.57	332.2	335.61	338.58	341.44	343.86	346.17	348.15	350.02	351.67	353.21	354.53	355.74
Additional Annual CO2 Seq. (t/ha)	3.69		0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
NZU Price		58.77	59.66	60.55	61.46	62.38	63.32	64.27	65.23	66.21	67.20	68.21	69.23	70.27	71.33	72.40	
NZU Income	7,005	771	730	668	605	577	510	498	428	415	361	346	310	293	255	238	
Total Income	7,005	-	771	730	668	605	577	510	498	428	415	361	346	310	293	255	238
Net Revenue (Pre-Tax)	- 490,381	- 461,142	- 615	- 677	- 760	- 845	- 4,946	- 983	- 1,017	- 1,110	- 1,147	- 5,589	- 1,263	- 1,323	- 1,364	- 1,427	- 6,172
Scenario Three - Carbon Additionality																	
Costs																	
Fencing	-	-															
Possum Control	21,367	6,609	660	670	680	690	1,860	711	721	732	743	2,003	766	777	789	800	2,158
Ungulate Control	9,176	1,767	444	451	458	464	471	478	486	493	500	508	515	523	531	539	547
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	8,148	2,087	363	369	374	380	386	391	397	403	409	415	422	428	434	441	448
FMA Plots	9,364						2,892					3,116					3,356
Total Cost	- 48,056	- 10,463	- 1,467	- 1,489	- 1,511	- 1,534	- 5,609	- 1,580	- 1,604	- 1,628	- 1,653	- 6,042	- 1,703	- 1,728	- 1,754	- 1,780	- 6,509
Total Cost/Ha	174	38	5	5	5	6	20	6	6	6	6	22	6	6	6	6	24
Revenue																	
Baseline CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		286.5	290.9	295	298.7	302	305.1	307.8	310.4	312.6	314.7	316.5	318.2	319.7	321.1	322.3	323.4
Managed CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		315.2	319.99	324.5	328.57	332.2	335.61	338.58	341.44	343.86	346.17	348.15	350.02	351.67	353.21	354.53	355.74
Additional Annual CO2 Seq. (t/ha)			0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
NZU Price		58.77	59.66	60.55	61.46	62.38	63.32	64.27	65.23	66.21	67.20	68.21	69.23	70.27	71.33	72.40	
NZU Income	7,005	771	730	668	605	577	510	498	428	415	361	346	310	293	255	238	
Total Income	7,005	-	771	730	668	605	577	510	498	428	415	361	346	310	293	255	238
Net Revenue (Pre-Tax)	- 41,050	- 10,463	- 696	- 759	- 843	- 929	- 5,032	- 1,070	- 1,106	- 1,200	- 1,238	- 5,681	- 1,357	- 1,418	- 1,461	- 1,525	- 6,272

Appendix E2: Scenarios Four, Five and Six

Scenario Four - Carbon Additionality																		
Costs																		
Fencing	1,181,700	1,181,700																
Possum Control	21,367	6,609	660	670	680	690	1,860	711	721	732	743	2,003	766	777	789	800	2,158	
Ungulate Control	9,176	1,767	444	451	458	464	471	478	486	493	500	508	515	523	531	539	547	
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	8,148	2,087	363	369	374	380	386	391	397	403	409	415	422	428	434	441	448	
FMA Plots	-																	
Total Cost	- 1,220,391	- 1,192,163	- 1,467	- 1,489	- 1,511	- 1,534	- 2,717	- 1,580	- 1,604	- 1,628	- 1,653	- 2,926	- 1,703	- 1,728	- 1,754	- 1,780	- 3,153	
Total Cost/Ha	4,426	4,323	5	5	5	6	10	6	6	6	6	11	6	6	6	6	11	
Revenue																		
Baseline CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		286.5	290.9	295	298.7	302	305.1	307.8	310.4	312.6	314.7	316.5	318.2	319.7	321.1	322.3	323.4	
Managed CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		315.2	319.99	324.5	328.57	332.2	335.61	338.58	341.44	343.86	346.17	348.15	350.02	351.67	353.21	354.53	355.74	
Additional Annual CO2 Seq. (t/ha)			0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	
NZU Price		58.77	59.66	60.55	61.46	62.38	63.32	64.27	65.23	66.21	67.20	68.21	69.23	70.27	71.33	72.40		
NZU Income	7,005	771	730	668	605	577	510	498	428	415	361	346	310	293	255	238		
Total Income	7,005	-	771	730	668	605	577	510	498	428	415	361	346	310	293	255	238	
Net Revenue (Pre-Tax)	- 1,213,386	- 1,192,163	- 696	- 759	- 843	- 929	- 2,140	- 1,070	- 1,106	- 1,200	- 1,238	- 2,566	- 1,357	- 1,418	- 1,461	- 1,525	- 2,915	

Scenario Five - Carbon Additionality																		
Costs																		
Fencing	451,000	451,000																
Possum Control	21,367	6,609	660	670	680	690	1,860	711	721	732	743	2,003	766	777	789	800	2,158	
Ungulate Control	7,507	1,446	363	369	374	380	386	391	397	403	409	415	422	428	434	441	448	
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	8,148	2,087	363	369	374	380	386	391	397	403	409	415	422	428	434	441	448	
FMA Plots	-																	
Total Cost	- 488,022	- 461,142	- 1,386	- 1,407	- 1,428	- 1,450	- 2,631	- 1,493	- 1,516	- 1,539	- 1,562	- 2,834	- 1,609	- 1,633	- 1,657	- 1,682	- 3,053	
Total Cost/Ha	1,770	1,672	5	5	5	5	10	5	5	6	6	10	6	6	6	6	11	
Revenue																		
Baseline CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		286.5	290.9	295	298.7	302	305.1	307.8	310.4	312.6	314.7	316.5	318.2	319.7	321.1	322.3	323.4	
Managed CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		315.2	319.99	324.5	328.57	332.2	335.61	338.58	341.44	343.86	346.17	348.15	350.02	351.67	353.21	354.53	355.74	
Additional Annual CO2 Seq. (t/ha)			0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	
NZU Price		58.77	59.66	60.55	61.46	62.38	63.32	64.27	65.23	66.21	67.20	68.21	69.23	70.27	71.33	72.40		
NZU Income	7,005	771	730	668	605	577	510	498	428	415	361	346	310	293	255	238		
Total Income	7,005	-	771	730	668	605	577	510	498	428	415	361	346	310	293	255	238	
Net Revenue (Pre-Tax)	- 481,017	- 461,142	- 615	- 677	- 760	- 845	- 2,054	- 983	- 1,017	- 1,110	- 1,147	- 2,473	- 1,263	- 1,323	- 1,364	- 1,427	- 2,816	

Scenario Six - Carbon Additionality																		
Costs																		
Fencing	-	-																
Possum Control	21,367	6,609	660	670	680	690	1,860	711	721	732	743	2,003	766	777	789	800	2,158	
Ungulate Control	9,176	1,767	444	451	458	464	471	478	486	493	500	508	515	523	531	539	547	
ETS Registration / Annual Fee	8,148	2,087	363	369	374	380	386	391	397	403	409	415	422	428	434	441	448	
FMA Plots	-																	
Total Cost	- 38,691	- 10,463	- 1,467	- 1,489	- 1,511	- 1,534	- 2,717	- 1,580	- 1,604	- 1,628	- 1,653	- 2,926	- 1,703	- 1,728	- 1,754	- 1,780	- 3,153	
Total Cost/Ha	140	38	5	5	5	6	10	6	6	6	6	11	6	6	6	6	11	
Revenue																		
Baseline CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		286.5	290.9	295	298.7	302	305.1	307.8	310.4	312.6	314.7	316.5	318.2	319.7	321.1	322.3	323.4	
Managed CO2 Eq. (t/ha)		315.2	319.99	324.5	328.57	332.2	335.61	338.58	341.44	343.86	346.17	348.15	350.02	351.67	353.21	354.53	355.74	
Additional Annual CO2 Seq. (t/ha)			0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	
NZU Price		58.77	59.66	60.55	61.46	62.38	63.32	64.27	65.23	66.21	67.20	68.21	69.23	70.27	71.33	72.40		
NZU Income	7,005	771	730	668	605	577	510	498	428	415	361	346	310	293	255	238		
Total Income	7,005	-	771	730	668	605	577	510	498	428	415	361	346	310	293	255	238	
Net Revenue (Pre-Tax)	- 31,686	- 10,463	- 696	- 759	- 843	- 929	- 2,140	- 1,070	- 1,106	- 1,200	- 1,238	- 2,566	- 1,357	- 1,418	- 1,461	- 1,525	- 2,915	

Appendix E3: Scenarios Seven, Eight and Nine

Scenario Seven - Biodiversity Additionality																														
Costs																														
Fencing			1,181,700	1,181,700																										
Possum Control			684,350	61,092	6,307	6,402	6,498	6,595	17,780	6,794	6,896	7,000	7,105	19,154	7,320	7,429	7,541	7,654	20,634	7,885	8,003	8,124	8,245	22,229	8,495	8,622	8,751	8,883	23,947	
Ungulate Control			528,759	27,092	6,808	6,911	7,014	7,119	7,226	7,335	7,445	7,556	7,670	7,785	7,901	8,020	8,140	8,262	8,386	8,512	8,640	8,769	8,901	9,034	9,170	9,308	9,447	9,589	9,733	
Biodiversity Plan Development/Auditing			21,000	5,000																										
Total Cost				2,415,809	1,274,884	13,115	13,312	13,512	13,715	27,006	14,129	14,341	14,556	14,774	28,939	15,221	15,449	15,681	15,916	31,021	16,397	16,643	16,893	17,146	31,264	17,665	17,930	20,199	18,471	33,680
Total Cost/Ha				8,761	4,623	48	48	49	50	98	51	52	53	54	105	55	56	57	58	112	59	60	61	62	113	64	65	73	67	122
9,151	9,288	9,428	9,569	25,798	9,858	10,006	10,156	10,309	27,792	10,620	10,780	10,941	11,105	29,939	11,441	11,613	11,787	11,964	32,253	12,325	12,510	12,698	12,888	34,746						
9,879	10,027	10,177	10,330	10,485	10,642	10,802	10,964	11,128	11,295	11,465	11,637	11,811	11,988	12,168	12,351	12,536	12,724	12,915	13,109	13,305	13,505	13,707	13,913	14,122						
19,030	19,315	21,605	19,899	36,283	20,500	20,808	23,120	21,437	39,087	22,085	22,416	22,752	23,094	42,108	25,792	24,149	24,511	24,878	45,362	27,630	26,015	26,405	26,801	48,868						
69	70	78	72	132	74	75	84	78	142	80	81	83	84	153	94	88	89	90	165	100	94	96	97	177						
Scenario Eight - Biodiversity Additionality																														
Costs																														
Fencing			1,116,000	1,116,000																										
Possum Control			684,350	61,092	6,307	6,402	6,498	6,595	17,780	6,794	6,896	7,000	7,105	19,154	7,320	7,429	7,541	7,654	20,634	7,885	8,003	8,124	8,245	22,229	8,495	8,622	8,751	8,883	23,947	
Ungulate Control			260,838	13,365	3,359	3,409	3,460	3,512	3,565	3,618	3,672	3,728	3,783	3,840	3,898	3,956	4,016	4,076	4,137	4,199	4,262	4,326	4,391	4,457	4,524	4,591	4,660	4,730	4,801	
Biodiversity Plan Development/Auditing			21,000	5,000																										
Total Cost				2,082,189	1,195,457	9,666	9,811	9,958	10,107	23,345	10,413	10,569	10,727	10,888	24,994	11,217	11,386	11,556	11,730	26,771	12,084	12,266	12,450	12,636	26,686	13,018	13,213	15,412	13,613	28,748
Total Cost/Ha				7,551	4,335	35	36	36	37	85	38	38	39	39	91	41	41	42	43	97	44	44	45	46	97	47	48	56	49	104
9,151	9,288	9,428	9,569	25,798	9,858	10,006	10,156	10,309	27,792	10,620	10,780	10,941	11,105	29,939	11,441	11,613	11,787	11,964	32,253	12,325	12,510	12,698	12,888	34,746						
4,873	4,946	5,020	5,096	5,172	5,250	5,329	5,408	5,490	5,572	5,656	5,740	5,826	5,914	6,003	6,093	6,184	6,277	6,371	6,466	6,563	6,662	6,762	6,863	6,966						
14,024	14,235	16,448	14,665	30,970	15,108	15,335	17,565	15,798	33,364	16,276	16,520	16,768	17,019	35,942	19,534	17,797	18,064	18,335	38,720	20,889	19,172	19,460	19,751	41,712						
51	52	60	53	112	55	56	64	57	121	59	60	61	62	130	71	65	66	66	140	76	70	71	72	151						
Scenario Nine - Biodiversity Additionality																														
Costs																														
Fencing																														
Possum Control			684,350	61,092	6,307	6,402	6,498	6,595	17,780	6,794	6,896	7,000	7,105	19,154	7,320	7,429	7,541	7,654	20,634	7,885	8,003	8,124	8,245	22,229	8,495	8,622	8,751	8,883	23,947	
Ungulate Control			528,759	27,092	6,808	6,911	7,014	7,119	7,226	7,335	7,445	7,556	7,670	7,785	7,901	8,020	8,140	8,262	8,386	8,512	8,640	8,769	8,901	9,034	9,170	9,308	9,447	9,589	9,733	
Biodiversity Plan Development/Auditing			21,000	5,000																										
Total Cost				1,234,109	93,184	13,115	13,312	13,512	13,715	27,006	14,129	14,341	14,556	14,774	28,939	15,221	15,449	15,681	15,916	31,021	16,397	16,643	16,893	17,146	31,264	17,665	17,930	20,199	18,471	33,680
Total Cost/Ha				4,475	338	48	48	49	50	98	51	52	53	54	105	55	56	57	58	112	59	60	61	62	113	64	65	73	67	122
9,151	9,288	9,428	9,569	25,798	9,858	10,006	10,156	10,309	27,792	10,620	10,780	10,941	11,105	29,939	11,441	11,613	11,787	11,964	32,253	12,325	12,510	12,698	12,888	34,746						
9,879	10,027	10,177	10,330	10,485	10,642	10,802	10,964	11,128	11,295	11,465	11,637	11,811	11,988	12,168	12,351	12,536	12,724	12,915	13,109	13,305	13,505	13,707	13,913	14,122						
19,030	19,315	21,605	19,899	36,283	20,500	20,808	23,120	21,437	39,087	22,085	22,416	22,752	23,094	42,108	25,792	24,149	24,511	24,878	45,362	27,630	26,015	26,405	26,801	48,868						
69	70	78	72	132	74	75	84	78	142	80	81	83	84	153	94	88	89	90	165	100	94	96	97	177						