

The Policy Toolbox

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Summary Points

In policy, tools are selected and used to make actions that fit together as an action plan.

This action plan will work towards achieving objectives and resolving issues.

The Regional Forum's task is to look through the policy toolbox and make recommendations about which tools to use in creating an action plan for water.

There is an existing "field of play" which lays out what needs to be done.

Many of the tools in local government's toolbox have a legal basis to them.

Whether a tool is useful or not depends on the issue, the activity, and the situation.

Policy covers everything that is done to resolve an issue – it's not just about rules and regulation.

Whether policy is "appropriate" depends on how effective and efficient it is, and the risks of not acting.

Policy tools are generally financial, regulations or standards, education, liability, and research and development.

Most policy issues have quality and quantity aspects to them. The focus on environmental policy is on the quality and quantity of: water, land (including lake and river beds), air, and biodiversity.

Good policy design is based on understanding people's behaviour and what is important to them.

Effectiveness depends on how far something gets you to your objective.

Efficiency is about contributing to people's living standards now and later, given limited resources.

Making an action plan involves "who, what, why, when, where, how, and how much" questions.

Location and timing is relevant at different scales and it is important to think about timelags.

Tools that are restrictive usually control the design of an activity, or its environmental performance.

The toolbox is open and there is potential for innovation (i.e. making new tools) and co-operation.

1. Introduction

Central government has charged regional councils around New Zealand with putting in place the National Policy Statement for Freshwater Management 2017 (NPS-FM). To achieve this, each regional council has a suite of tools¹ that it can select from and use to create an action plan for their region. These tools essentially form the policy “toolbox”. As examples, the toolbox may include the ability to create guidance, a deed of agreement, a loans or a rewards scheme, require bonds or offsets, form partnerships, and introduce standards for an activity (or its environmental effects²).

In Southland, the Regional Forum³ has been tasked with developing advice on how to implement the National Policy statement for Freshwater Management in the region. This task essentially means that the Regional Forum will evaluate tools and possible actions, and recommend the set that they think are the most appropriate to achieve the community’s objectives for water⁴.

The purpose of this paper is to collect together the tools in the policy toolbox for the Regional Forum to choose from, and it points out the legal basis. This paper will be an important resource because the toolbox is central to the Regional Forum’s task. Their recommendation, if accepted, will be used by Environment Southland to develop a policy proposal for water⁵ and the accompanying evaluation report.

This paper discusses basic elements of policy and it summarises local government’s legislative functions, which create many of the tools within the toolbox. The paper outlines environmental policy design and identifies a list of possible tools that may be used to create actions. This paper is intended to be read alongside a more technical paper that lays out the policy context, or “field of play”, for the Regional Forum.

2. Policy

Policy, in the broadest sense of the word, is “(a) course or principle of action adopted or proposed by a government, party, business, individual etc.” (The New Zealand Oxford Dictionary, 2005). It can include taking no action. Put simply, policy is an action plan to manage (i.e. direct and/or guide) people’s activities towards resolving a certain issue. Ideally, it builds a system where actions fit together and support one another. These actions are made using policy tools, and some tools will be more relevant to particular issues, activities, and situations than others. Successful policy design is based on an in-depth understanding of all of these things.

¹ In other words, tools are levers, instruments or mechanisms.

² The meaning of effect is defined at length in section 3 of the Resource Management Act 1991.

³ The Regional Forum is part of the People Water and Land Programme, which builds on Environment Southland’s proposed Southland Water and Land Plan. The programme has three workstreams: Values and Objectives, The Regional Forum, and Action on the Ground (<http://waterandland.es.govt.nz/about/rolling-out-people-water-and-land>).

⁴ The freshwater objectives, and the limits to support them, are being done through the Values and Objectives Workstream. A limit is the maximum amount of a resource that can be used that allows for a freshwater objective to be met (MfE, 2017). In Southland they are likely to be broad scale, such as Freshwater Management Unit, catchment or sub-catchment.

⁵ This proposal will be included as a formal “plan change” to the Southland Water and Land Plan 2018.

When an issue arises, new policy is designed to alter the positive and negative incentives⁶ that people face, and so bring about changes in their behaviour (i.e. the way they go about activities). This design works best when it reflects people's values, or what is important to them.

... we are motivated by far more than cost and price... be wise to start by asking what social dynamics are already at play. What are the values, heuristics, norms and networks that currently shape human behaviour – and how could they be nurtured or nudged, rather than ignored or eroded?

K. Raworth, author of Doughnut Economics (2019: p123)

Actions can be compulsory and/or voluntary but they all tend to have both regulatory and non-regulatory aspects. In other words, it is not just a simple choice between one and the other. For example, for a low risk activity to be managed through education initiatives (non-regulatory) it may first need a rule with certain conditions (regulatory) that "allows" (or permits) the activity to occur.

In New Zealand, a policy proposal is usually made up of a tiered system of objectives, policies and methods. "Methods" is the technical term for the specific actions that a regulatory body (e.g. a council) uses to manage activities. Methods can be either voluntary or compulsory. "Policies" give direction about what is important to consider when the methods are implemented on a day to day basis. "Objectives" are a statement of what the methods and policies are intended to achieve.

Identifying the best (i.e. "most appropriate") set of actions to address issues relevant to fresh water⁷, and implement the NPSFM, introduces the criteria of effectiveness and efficiency. Effectiveness is the extent to which the actions achieve a specified objective. Efficiency is an economic term with three dimensions to it (productive, allocative, and dynamic). Actions are efficient when it maximises the living standards of present and future generations within the limited resources available. People's living standards come from all of the goods and services⁸ that they consume, which are produced in both the market and non-market parts of the economy.

People's living standards, together with the quality of life that they experience, contribute to community wellbeing, which is the ultimate focus of most policy endeavours (Productivity Commission, 2013).

2.1. Nonpoint source pollution⁹

Fresh water is affected by two main types of pollution: point source discharges and non-point source discharges¹⁰. As an issue, non-point source pollution has specific characteristics that pose particular

⁶ Positive incentives make people better off (i.e. reward behaviour) and negative incentives make people worse off (i.e. penalise behaviour).

⁷ An example of an issue is poor or declining water quality – rather than the pollutant (e.g. excess nitrogen) that causes it.

⁸ These goods and services are ecosystem services and they fall into four categories: provisioning services, regulating services, habitat or supporting services, and cultural services (<http://www.teebweb.org/resources/ecosystem-services/>).

⁹ Non-point source pollutants are discharged diffusely, usually across or through land. In contrast, point source pollutants are discharged at a particular point, usually at the end of pipe.

¹⁰ Under the RMA (1991), the term "discharge includes emit, deposit, and allow to escape".

challenges for designing and implementing economically efficient, or even cost-effective, policy. A United States Department of Agriculture Report (Ribaudo *et al.*, 1999) identified these characteristics:

- Runoff and loadings of pollutants are difficult to observe;
- There is natural (climatic and geographic) variability;
- Pollutants can travel long distances from their source;
- Water quality damage can be difficult to measure; and
- Considerable time lags complicate assessment.

The USDA report discussed the selection of policy tools at local, regional or national levels for managing nonpoint-source water pollution. These tools were grouped into five general classes: financial mechanisms (e.g. taxes and subsidies), regulations or standards, education, liability, and research and development. Regulations or standards relate to either the design of an activity (including the technology used) or its performance. The report concluded that the tools that are most appropriate depends on important economic, distributional and political considerations that include: how well the tool achieves the goals, the costs of administering and enforcing policy, the ability of the policy to adjust to different conditions (i.e. its flexibility), how well it encourages innovation, and political and legal feasibility.

In New Zealand, these policy classes are generally available to local government and are also relevant to point source pollution. The next section summarises local government's legislative functions that create or form the basis of many of the tools in the policy toolbox.

3. Legislative Functions

In New Zealand there are two types of government: central government and local government. Local government itself consists of two main types of local authorities: regional councils and territorial authorities (i.e. a city council or a district council)¹¹. Both types of local authority (generally referred to here as "councils") are principally guided by the Resource Management Act 1991 and the Local Government Act 2002. The two acts set out council roles and responsibilities in each region/district and, in doing so, create many of the tools within a policy toolbox. This section points to the relevant provisions (i.e. a clause in legislation) for the local government toolbox. The next section identifies the tools available to a regional council (e.g. Environment Southland).

3.1. The Local Government Act 2002

The Local Government Act (LGA) 2002 provides for "democratic and effective local government that recognises the diversity of New Zealand communities". The Act states the purpose of local government, and the roles and powers of councils (sections 10, 11 and 12). In performing its role, a

¹¹ There is a third type, a unitary authority, which is a territorial authority with the responsibilities, duties and power of a regional council.

council must consider the contribution that core services (e.g. network infrastructure, and avoidance or mitigation of natural hazards) make to its local communities (section 11A). The Act also states principles relating to councils, which include taking a sustainable development approach (section 14). Councils are required to co-ordinate their responsibilities via triennial agreements (section 15) and responsibilities can be transferred between a regional council and a territorial authority (section 17). Councils can establish local boards (section 48), community boards (section 52), council-controlled organisations and council organisations (section 55).

The LGA has general obligations in relation to local government planning, decision-making, and accountability (Part 6 or sections 75 to 122), and specific obligations and restrictions, including for water and sanitary services, and parks and reserves (Part 7 or sections 123 to 142). Another obligation is to adopt a policy that sets out a council's approach for determining the significance of their proposals and decisions, and clarity about public engagement (section 76AA). Councils have powers relating to making bylaws (including prescribing fees), enforcing regulation, undertaking certain activities, requiring development contributions¹², and applying for removal orders (Part 8 or sections 143 to 223). These provisions include compulsory land acquisition (section 189).

The remaining four parts of the LGA (and its 20 schedules) set out details around implementation, such as offences, penalties, infringement offences, and legal proceedings (Part 9), and ministerial powers in relation to councils (Part 10). The Local Government (Rating) Act 2002 sits alongside the LGA, and gives councils flexible powers to rate for funding of local government activities (rates are, in effect, a land tax). There are three kinds of rates: a general rate (either fixed or variable), a uniform annual general charge, and a targeted rate for specific activities¹³.

3.2. The Resource Management Act 1991

The Resource Management Act (RMA) 1991 promotes “the sustainable management of natural and physical resources” and provides a detailed definition of sustainable management¹⁴. To achieve its purpose, the Act sets out a series of principles (Part 2), and general and specific restrictions and duties (Part 3). The general restrictions cover the use of land (allowing for certain existing uses¹⁵), subdivision, use of the coastal marine area, certain uses of lake beds and river beds, water, and discharges of contaminants into the environment (sections 9 to 15). The general duties include avoiding unreasonable noise and managing (“avoid, remedy or mitigate”) any adverse environmental effect of an activity (sections 16 and 17).

¹² A development contribution usually comprises of money; or land (with some exclusions); or both. The purpose of the development contributions provisions in the LGA is to enable recovery of a portion of the total cost of capital expenditure necessary to service growth over the long term (section 197). Development contributions generally have the same meaning as financial contributions in the Resource Management Act (1991), although the later are used for a different purpose.

¹³ Environment Southland's general rate is based on the capital value of a property. The general rate includes a variable (or differential) rate for dairy farms that is used to fund specific costs related to dairy farming. Environment Southland has targeted rates for biosecurity, land sustainability, and river catchment activities, and for the Southern Pest Eradication Society (<https://www.es.govt.nz/council/rates/Documents/2017%20Rates%20Flyer.pdf>).

¹⁴http://www.legislation.govt.nz/act/public/1991/0069/latest/DLM231905.html?search=sw_096be8ed81825f2a_provision_25_se&p=1

¹⁵ There are important differences between the existing activities allowed to continue under a district plan and a regional plan (refer to sections 10, 10A and 10B).

In addition to these general restrictions and duties, there are specific functions, powers, and duties of central government¹⁶ and local government (Part 4)¹⁷. For central government, these provisions largely relate to national direction and oversight of councils, but include the ability to make grants and loans to help with promoting sustainable management (section 26). The functions of a regional council are set out in section 30 of the Act¹⁸; and the functions of a territorial authority are set out in section 31¹⁹. The Act's principles direct that anyone "exercising functions and power under it" shall:

1. Recognise and provide for matters of national importance (as listed in section 6);
2. Have regard to other matters (as listed in section 7); and
3. Take into account the principles of Te Tiriti o Waitangi (the Treaty of Waitangi)

To fulfil these functions, a regional council produces a regional policy statement that identifies, and directs the management of, significant issues for a region. A regional policy statement contains objectives, policies and types of methods but not specific rules. Regional and district plans can contain rules that determine whether activities are "permitted" or require a specific consent.

Under the RMA, a council may transfer its functions, power and duties to another public authority (section 33 – similar to the transfer of responsibilities under the LGA), delegate them (section 34), or make a joint management agreement (section 36B). The remaining twelve parts of the Act (and its 12 schedules) set out details around implementation (including enforcement), such as national and regional policy documents (Part 5), resource consents (Part 6), designations and heritage orders (Part 8), water conservation orders (Part 9), Environment Court (Part 11). Part 5: Subpart 3 details requirements for regional and district policy and planning documents, including rules. For example, the power to make rules to apply to classes of activities²⁰ and specify conditions, and to make a rule specifying the activities for which there must be either public or limited notification. Other provisions include the power to acquire land (section 86), and the timing of the legal effect of rules (section 86B to 86G).

The combination of the provisions (i.e. roles, abilities, obligations, restrictions, functions, powers, and duties) within the LGA and the RMA create many of the tools within local government's policy toolbox, and more specifically that of a regional council. This toolbox differs to some extent from that available to central government, which includes tools such as licences and taxes, and non-governmental organisations, which may involve supplier or purchaser agreements. Importantly, the policy toolbox is open, rather than closed, meaning there is always potential for innovation.

¹⁶ There are specific provisions relating to the Minister of the Environment, the Minister of Conservation, and the Minister of Aquaculture.

¹⁷ For example, a regional council has functions relating to the water in a water body and the bed of a water body; while a district council controls the environmental effects of activities relating to the surface of water in rivers and lakes. Also, a regional council has a function around objectives, policies, and methods to maintain indigenous biodiversity, and a territorial authority has a function to maintain indigenous biodiversity.

¹⁸ <http://www.legislation.govt.nz/act/public/1991/0069/latest/DLM232560.html>

¹⁹ <http://www.legislation.govt.nz/act/public/1991/0069/latest/DLM232574.html>

²⁰ An activity may be: permitted, controlled, restricted discretionary, discretionary, non-complying, or prohibited.

4. Environment Southland's Toolbox

As discussed, a regional council's policy toolbox is largely determined by its legislative functions, powers and duties. Some of these responsibilities stem from a regional council's past as a catchment board, which has shaped the current structure of their activities. This section highlights the relevance of the Operations Directorate for policy. It also identifies a set of policy domains and discusses the range of policy questions. Finally, it brings together the full set of tools that may be considered through the Regional Forum.

4.1. The Operations Directorate

Environment Southland (the Southland Regional Council) received some of its functions from the Southland Catchment Board²¹, which established and maintained river catchment control schemes that were subsidised by grants from central government.

"The Board's stated functions... included deepening, widening, straightening, diverting and otherwise improving watercourses, removing obstructions and improving or establishing stopbanks. It was also to control erosion with soil conservation methods."
(Poole, 1990: p7).

These river catchment control schemes were the culmination of 150 years' worth of effort to deal drain water from the land in Southland as fast as possible. With the decentralisation of government in the late 1980s, these responsibilities broadened from managing river drainage and, to a lesser extent soil, to include water quality and other natural resources (e.g. air quality, biodiversity, soil structure and quality, landscapes). Although Southland District Council initially continued to manage rabbits and pest plants, Environment Southland took on this responsibility in the early 1990s.

This past is the basis for much of Environment Southland's existing structure, and particularly the activities of Catchment, Land Sustainability, and Biosecurity and Biodiversity Operations across different parts of the region. These three divisions form the Operations Directorate and are important (along with the science, compliance and consents divisions) for delivering policy.

The Land Sustainability Division is supporting pilot projects to test tools in rural areas, and the results of these pilots will be used through the Regional Forum. The Catchment Division continues to carry out public works on specific river reaches but, as water quality issues come to the fore, the nature of their operations is changing. The work of Catchment and Land Sustainability Divisions is currently being considered in the "Action on the Ground" Workstream in the People, Water and Land Programme. This workstream will have strong connections with the Regional Forum, reporting in on a regular basis as the Forum develops its policy advice.

²¹ The Southland Catchment Board was abolished from 1 November 1989 in local government restructuring which saw its functions under the Soil Conservation and Rivers Control Act 1941 delegated to the new Southland Regional Council (Poole, 1990). *While Water Flows...* is an interesting and useful history of the Southland Catchment Board and its origins that has particular relevance policy design.

4.2. Policy domains

Primarily, a regional council’s policy toolbox is based on the restrictions on natural resource use in Part 3 of the RMA. These “use restrictions” roughly define six policy domains: 1. land, 2. lake and river beds, 3. water quantity, and environmental quality of: 4. land, 5. air, and 6. water. Table 1 sets out these domains and their relevant legal provision.

Broadly speaking, issues in these domains have quantity and quality aspects to them (e.g. the amount of sediment discharged to water and the nature of the sediment being discharged). A seventh domain is indigenous biodiversity, which is relevant across all of the other domains.

The seven domains are woven into the landscape in complex ways, and so issues and objectives often become entangled²². As a result, tools used to manage one domain are likely to cause environmental effects and impacts²³ that flow through into other domains – and may create or exacerbate other issues. Policy is more likely to be “balancing” when it moves a system back towards, rather than further away from, its natural settings. Ideally, tools are used to create an integrated management approach that reflects *ki uta ki tea* (mountains to the sea). Important considerations are set out in *Matters of national importance*, *Other Matters*, and *Treaty of Waitangi* (sections 6, 7 and 8) of the RMA.

Table 1: Policy domains based on RMA restrictions on natural resource use

Restriction	Legislative provision ²⁴
The use of land (allowing for existing use rights)	sections 9 and 10
The use of coastal marine area	section 12
Certain uses of lake and river beds	section 13
The use of water (i.e. to take, use, dam or divert water)	section 14
Contaminant discharges to water	section 15
Contaminant discharges to land	section 15
Contaminant discharges to air	section 15
To maintain indigenous biodiversity	sections 30 and 31

4.3. Policy questions

The variability in policy design relates to questions of what, how, where, and when a tool is applied, and who the tool applies to. As well, there are two “how much” questions – one relates to

²² When issues connect it can create what are known as “wicked problems” (Rittel and Webber, 1973).

²³ In this paper, “impacts” means the social, cultural and economic impacts on people and communities as a result of policy. Impacts are likely to be both positive and negative and they are relevant for present and future generations.

²⁴ Section 11 sets out restrictions on subdivision of land, and section 16 states a duty to avoid unreasonable noise. These provisions are relevant to territorial authorities.

effectiveness (how much will policy achieve environmentally) and the other to efficiency (how much will policy impact, both positively and negatively, on people and communities over time).

There is a “why” question, which is determined by the issues and objectives. This question is possibly the most important because the explanation of a problem influences how it is resolved.

The “what” and “how” questions introduce the type of incentives – rewards and/or penalties, voluntary and/or compulsory. These questions relate directly to the tools in the policy toolbox and are discussed in the next section.

The “where” and “when” questions bring in the dimensions of location and timing. They are relevant to policy at different scales – e.g. swale, paddock, property, catchment, or region; or month, season, year, decade, and generation. Policy also needs to account for time lags both in the environment and the policy process²⁵.

There are some issues that are common across the landscape. On developed land, water quality is degraded in many places, especially in the lowland creeks and rivers and the estuaries. There has also been a loss of roughly 97% of wetlands on land in private ownership. Other issues are more locally specific, often because of specific uses upstream (e.g. hydro-electric power generation at Manapouri, the increasing use of irrigation in Northern Southland, intensive farming across the Southland Plains, and the presence of Invercargill city).

The question of “who” a tool applies to involves considering:

- private individuals (i.e. householders or businesses) and/or public (i.e. a community);
- present and/or future generations (e.g. targets²⁶, sunset clauses).

If a tool is not applied generally (i.e. it is private) then there are decisions about which sectors of the economy are relevant. People, water and land in Southland are highly connected (Moran *et al.*, 2017), the question of “who” is likely to be about how different impacts of a tool flow through the region (i.e. it is a gateway or starting point, rather than a ring fence).

4.4. Policy tools

In general, Environment Southland’s toolbox contains tools across all of the policy classes: financial mechanisms, regulations, education, liability (not discussed here), and research and development.

This toolbox is the full set of tools that are theoretically available. In reality, it may not be feasible to use some tools to make actions in particular situations. In other words, “appropriateness” is likely to depend on the context, and what may be an efficient and effective proposal in one situation may not be in another. Southland is characterised as having a large land area (roughly divided west to east into national park and developed land), a temperate oceanic climate (moderate temperatures and

²⁵ For example, development of the Regional Water Plan for Southland was a ten year process from start to finish.

²⁶ A target is a limit that must be met at a defined time in the future. It applies to water quality and water quantity but only where there is over-allocation, which is the situation where a resource has been allocated to users beyond a limit or it is being used to a point where a freshwater objective is no longer being met (MfE, 2017).

consistent rainfall), and a small population. For these and other reasons, the region faces a different set of circumstances to elsewhere.

The tools themselves tend to revolve around the mix of positive and negative incentives (i.e. rewards and penalties), and practicalities (e.g. the capacity of individual and organisations around implementation). They influence the extent to which a policy option shifts an issue from being a public cost to a private cost in the first instance – either through the use of tools such as targeted rates, which are used to fund public works, or regulation (e.g. resource consents and compliance). Their use in policy design is based on understanding people’s behaviour and what is important to them. Also relevant is the level of trust in sources of information and perceptions of risks (the possibility of loss) and opportunities (the possibility of gains) – environmental, social, cultural and financial. Appendix 1 (below) sets out as many of tools in the policy toolbox as possible.

Tools that restrict natural resource use usually control either the design of an activity, or its environmental performance. However, in some cases these tools control natural resource use by prohibiting it, so an activity’s design or performance is no longer relevant. Tools relating to an activity’s design are sometimes described as “input-based”, and usually focus on an activity’s location, size or extent, intensity, management practices, and technology. Tools relating to the activity’s performance are described as “output-based”, and focus on an activity’s potential or actual environmental effects. For example, design tools may control the application of agri-chemicals, such as pesticides, on to land near water, while performance tools may control the loss of these substances from land to water.

Both design and performance tools involve some way of allocating a resource between users, either implicitly or explicitly. An example of where allocation is obvious is the New Zealand fisheries’ Quota Management System. Allocation methods are often contentious, particularly where resource use is already over-allocated and must be reduced. Allocation introduces equity concerns because they can create winners and losers – between existing users and potential users, and also between present and future generations. In addition to these restrictions on natural resource use, there is a general duty to manage an activity’s adverse environmental effects.

An important type of tool is partnerships or collectives – with community groups, other organisations (special interest groups, commercial entities), and/or between iwi and government agencies (central or territorial authorities). These mechanisms usually pool resources (skills, knowledge, funding) and can create economies of scale²⁷. They can also mean additional tools are available, where there are external forces, whether it is a bank developing new products or social pressure from within a local community. Collectives and partnerships may involve a subset of contractual-type tools, such as a deed of agreement, memorandum of understanding, stewardship certification, or code of practice. The toolbox (Appendix 1) is intended to be open, and added to, as new tools are identified and shared through the policy process. When the tools are considered by the Regional Forum, detail will be added relevant to their specific context.

²⁷ For example, farmers in the Bay of Plenty are working with Crop and Food Research to use manuka for riparian plantings, create biodiversity ribbons, improve animal welfare, and grow honey (<https://www.plantandfood.co.nz/page/news/media-release/story/Manuka-joins-the-battle-to-protect-waterways/>).

Appendix 1 – The policy toolbox

Policy class	Examples of tools
Financial	<p>General or targeted rates for physical works (e.g. constructed wetlands, sediment traps, stock exclusion, riparian plantings)</p> <p>Cost recovery (fees and charges)</p> <p>Loan schemes (e.g. Clean Air Loans) and subsidy schemes</p> <p>Help with funding applications (e.g. Environmental Enhancement Fund²⁸)</p> <p>Land purchase (e.g. taking land out of production)</p> <p>Transferable permits</p> <p>Offsets (e.g. financial contributions)</p> <p>Bonds (e.g. require achievement of a certain level of compliance)</p> <p>Marketing incentives (e.g. ISO 14000²⁹)</p> <p>Asset and investment policy</p> <p>Council-owned enterprise</p>
Regulation	<p>Issue statements</p> <p>Objectives and policies to direct decision makers on resource consents</p> <p>Rules for design standards or performance standards</p> <p>Activity classes for resource consents and consent conditions</p> <p>External standards and guidelines (e.g. ANSECC)</p> <p>Targets and timeframes (e.g. sunset and sunrise clauses on rules)</p> <p>Management plans (e.g. for farms or landfills)</p> <p>Spatial planning (e.g. physiographic zones)</p> <p>Allocation (e.g. water takes, discharge allowances)</p> <p>Protocols and standard operating procedures (e.g. water shortages)</p> <p>Water conservation orders</p> <p>Joint management agreement</p> <p>Title encumbrances (e.g. covenants)</p>
Education (information, knowledge and skills)	<p>Public or community meetings, drop-in sessions, workshops, seminars, forums, and webinars, field days, shed talks, school visits</p> <p>Media releases and interviews for television, radio, print, internet (including website and social media)</p> <p>Advice (e.g. land sustainability, natural hazards, pollution prevention)</p> <p>Recognition (e.g. Southland Community Environment Awards)</p> <p>Guidance documents, factsheets, and phone applications (apps)</p> <p>Management plans</p>
Research and technological development	<p>Scientific technical reports, Mātauranga Māori, and citizen science</p> <p>Central government initiatives (e.g. MBIE-led National Science Challenges)</p> <p>Private-sector innovations</p> <p>Applications of new technologies and management techniques</p> <p>Process innovations (e.g. accelerated consenting)</p>

²⁸ <https://www.es.govt.nz/council/funding-and-support/Pages/Environmental-Enhancement-Fund.aspx>

²⁹ The ISO 14000 family of standards supplies practical tools for companies and organisations looking to manage their environmental responsibilities (<https://www.iso.org/iso-14001-environmental-management.html>).

