

A horizon scan for pastoral weed science – a New Zealand perspective.

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Abstract

There have been horizon scans (strategic science reviews) recently for weed biology, but none that focus on weeds of pastures. Here we report on our process for writing the Pastoral Sector Weeds Research Strategy (2018-2028) for New Zealand and then follow-up with the focus of the current article, a horizon scan for pastoral weed science. Scientists and stakeholders involved in weeds and pasture systems participated in two workshops to determine which issues and opportunities are emerging as drivers of innovation for weed science and weed management. We identified 11 major issues and 46 subordinate ones, but the three most highly ranked major issues were: 1) anticipated reductions in our access to herbicides; 2) rethinking weed management under an ecosystem services paradigm; 3) responding to a regulatory push for farm system planning designed to address biosecurity risk, biodiversity, carbon budgets, contaminants, and nutrient run-off in addition to production value. The workshop participants were asked to rank the 3 major issues (and some subordinate ones) using the criteria: 1) is this a horizon (is the issue or question likely to become more important in 10-20 years?); 2) will it require stretchy science (is the question or issue currently not well addressed by the science community?); 3) is it transformative (will successful scientific research in this area lead to significant changes to weed management in pastures?). Most of the issues identified are shared in pastoral systems worldwide and involve reducing environmental footprint of farming while maintaining productivity.

Keywords: white-paper, invasive plants, agriculture, grazing

1. Introduction

1.1 Weeds and pastures in global food security

Weeds have important negative impacts on global food security. A global review of crop-protection for major staple crops shows that weed control potentially helps farmers avoid crop losses of 34%, which is higher than losses caused by insect pests (18%) and plant diseases (16%) (Oerke & Dehne, 2004; Oerke, 2006). The historical focus of the agricultural industry and science on weed management in arable cropping systems might reflect the calorific importance and profitability of cereals and root vegetables for people but belies the global area of land dedicated to livestock grazing (2 billion ha) which makes up ca. 50% of the global agricultural lands (Mottet *et al.*, 2017). Weeds of pastures do not get as much attention. For example, a search of article titles in two prominent weed science journals (*Weed Research* and *Weed Science*) for the word “pasture” reveals only 113 mentions versus “crop” which had 2035 mentions (accessed January 2021). Understanding weed ecology and impacts in pasture systems is challenging because pastures are often botanically diverse, species composition changes over time, grazing management impacts outcomes, and low abundances of weeds may be easily tolerated by farmers, plus measuring weed impacts on livestock production is difficult especially for species that are consumed (Klingman, 1956). For weeds that are rejected by grazing animals,

41 the losses are more easily estimated. For example, *Ranunculus acris* is avoided by dairy cattle in New Zealand
42 pastures so that the loss incurred in a pasture is proportional to the area occupied by the weed (Bourdôt *et al.*,
43 2019). Dairy pastures in the Tasman District of New Zealand typically have 24% of their area covered by the
44 weed in May (late autumn). This equates to 24% annual loss in production or a potential increase in
45 productivity of $24/(100-24) = 32\%$. Another example of an unpalatable weed is *Cirsium arvense*. This species
46 occurs on almost all pastoral farms in New Zealand and covers, on average, 6% of the grazed area during its
47 time of peak ground cover in January-February with sheep farms having the highest cover (12%) and beef
48 farms the lowest (4%) (Bourdôt *et al.*, 2013). Overall, the area of land occupied by this weed coverage
49 represents a present value loss of \$700 million per year (Saunders *et al.*, 2017).

50 Because of the importance of pastures for its economy a New Zealand perspective on weed
51 management in pastures is relevant. In New Zealand, pastures occupy 38% of the total land area, supporting
52 mainly dairy, sheep, beef, and deer industries. In comparison, <0.5% of the land area is dedicated to arable
53 and horticulture production (Moot *et al.*, 2009). New Zealand animal products contributed ca. \$19 billion NZD to
54 its gross domestic product in 2018 (<https://www.stats.govt.nz/>), the bulk from exports which contribute
55 significantly to the global food supply, e.g. New Zealand's dairy products account for 3% of the world
56 production (<https://www.dcanz.com/about-the-nz-dairy-industry/>). New Zealand pastures are dominated by
57 introduced grasses and forbes that provide year-round grazing. Systems with high rainfall and soil fertility rely
58 heavily on ryegrass and white clover cultivars (*Lolium perenne*, *L. multiflorum*, *Trifolium repens*). They are the
59 dominant sown pasture species and are most productive within a temperate mesic habitat. In areas that are
60 less ideal for these preferred species, such as in the modified tussock grasslands that prevail throughout much
61 of the New Zealand (South Island) hill country, other pasture species become more important. For example, in
62 sites that are cooler, drier, warmer, or less fertile, *Dactylis glomerata*, *Bromus catharticus* and *Agrostis* spp. are
63 important. Animal health, and high productivity is maintained by applying fertilizer (e.g., containing, nitrogen,
64 phosphate), and soil deficiencies require farmers to add the trace element cobalt to fertilizers or to animal
65 drenches (Moot *et al.*, 2009).

66 Estimates of the number of species considered to be weeds in New Zealand pastures varies from 187
67 (Bourdôt *et al.*, 2007; Saunders *et al.*, 2017) to 245 (Ghanizadeh & Harrington, 2019). Some of these species
68 may have yet unrecognised value as sward components. For example, *Plantago lanceolata*, once considered a
69 weed of pastures, is now sown in dairy pastures to mitigate nitrogen leaching (Cheng *et al.*, 2018). The
70 estimated aggregate cost from pasture weeds, based on the 10 species for which useful data has been
71 published and therefore a conservative estimate, is NZD [2014] 1.3 billion per year (Saunders *et al.*, 2017).
72 The productivity loss component of this cost has been estimated at 86%, with 14% attributed to control costs
73 (Bourdôt *et al.*, 2007). At a local scale, the range of impacts varies between species. For example *Cirsium*
74 *vulgare* densities of 10,000 plants per hectare can reduce sheep liveweight gain by 20% and *Carduus nutans*
75 at 1000 plants per hectare can reduce forage dry matter yield by 8% (Hartley, 1983; Thompson *et al.*, 1987).
76 Similarly large variation between species in their impacts occurs at the national scale as illustrated by the
77 losses that have been attributed to the 10 species for which data is available, in NZD [2014] millions/year: *Ulex*
78 *europaeus* 72; *Cirsium arvense* 702; *Cytisus scoparius* 8, *Rubus fruticosus* 14; *Nassella neesiana* 0.013;
79 *Nassella trichotoma* 27; *Rosa rubiginosa* 7; *Hieracium* spp. 6; *Setaria pumila* 258; *Ranunculus acris*; 210
80 (Thompson *et al.*, 1987; Bourdôt *et al.*, 2007). The true aggregate cost of pasture weeds, using the median
81 annual cost for the assessed weeds in New Zealand (\$20.5 million/year) could be as high as NZD [2014] 5
82 billion per year (20.5 x 245) if all 245 species affect pastoral production similarly, and do so independently of
83 each other. Australia and New Zealand are known for relatively intense herbicide-based weed management
84 efforts in pastures. This has resulted in multiple cases of herbicide resistance (*Carduus nutans*, *Carduus*
85 *pycnocephalus*, *Ranunculus acris*, *Nassella neesiana*), more than in any of the other four countries with
86 documented cases of herbicide resistance in pasture (Heap, 2021). In this context strategic research to
87 support weed management in pastoral systems is needed.

88 Strategic reviews can elevate weed research beyond the basics, and identify emerging issues and
89 opportunities (Fernandez-Quintanilla *et al.*, 2008; Ricciardi *et al.*, 2017; Neve *et al.*, 2018; Westwood *et al.*,

2018), but it is difficult to know how often these efforts actually spark transformative research efforts. This may be because weed science is necessarily an applied field that has been dominated by short term solutions and commercialization of products (e.g. herbicide use, efficacy and resistance) to solve current problems (Fernandez-Quintanilla *et al.*, 2008). A lot of weed science expertise is embedded in herbicide companies, and only partially visible to the public through product documentation or direct advice. Regionally, weed science and extension efforts are rightly driven by farmer concerns, address specific local issues, and information is often available in difficult-to-access 'grey' literature. Scientists' search for funding, and a 'publish or perish' model limit our ability as scientists to creatively solve the world's biggest problems (Paasche & Österblom, 2019). This may or may not tip the balance toward research that focuses on narrow applications relevant to farmers (Fernandez-Quintanilla *et al.*, 2008). Despite the importance of weeds in food production, basic knowledge about weed biology and ecology (e.g., seed biology, population dynamics) is often lacking, and there has been a repetitive focus on a few themes such as herbicidal control, seed germination, seed banks, and competitive interactions with crops. Nevertheless, strategically aligned research initiatives, formulated with key stakeholders have the potential to address current and future needs (Bourdôt *et al.*, 2018). We adapt and expand on the horizon scan approach (Sutherland & Woodroof, 2009; Ricciardi *et al.*, 2017; Neve *et al.*, 2018; Sutherland *et al.*, 2019) to identify emerging weed management issues and research opportunities that could reveal avenues of transformative investigation for pasture weeds research.

Methods

Pastoral Sector Weeds Strategy (2018-2028)

In November 2017 scientists from AgResearch Ltd., a crown research institute (CRI) in New Zealand organized a workshop to identify the key challenges that would underpin and inform a ten-year stakeholder-led weed research strategy for the pastoral sector (Bourdôt *et al.*, 2018). The weed management emerging issues (37 in total) identified during the workshop were ranked by the 12 scientists and 10 industry representatives participating in the workshop and subsequently grouped into 8 key science challenges. The details of the methods and participants are provided in the published Pastoral Sector Weeds Research Strategy (2018 - 2028) (Bourdôt *et al.*, 2018). Here we present the key challenges since they provided the starting point for our horizon scan.

Pastoral weed science horizon scan

We adopted a horizon scan approach to identify potential collaborators locally and internationally. Doing transformative research and developing weed management approaches that address emerging issues is a shared aspiration for weed scientists, corporate leaders, policy makers, government agencies, industry groups, land managers, and funding agencies. Future foresighting, roadmapping, and science whitepapers can help create robust investment cases. Timely identification of transformative research is key and horizon scans are emerging as a way forward (Sutherland & Woodroof, 2009; BMAC, 2015; Ricciardi *et al.*, 2017; Neve *et al.*, 2018; Sutherland *et al.*, 2019). Horizon-scans are future-focused, and they:

- are medium to long term 10-20 years,
- focus on threats and opportunities not well recognized in a field,
- raise awareness and provide momentum for innovation,
- inform policy,
- help set research agendas, and
- stimulate action that addresses plausible threats.

131 They generally identify opportunities and threats that need to be addressed but may or may not involve a
132 process for expert ranking and scoring of questions (Sutherland *et al.*, 2011). As a first step, following
133 publication of the strategy (Bourdôt *et al.*, 2018), in 2019 two independently facilitated expert elicitation
134 workshops were held, one at Ruakura (29/11/2019) and the other at Lincoln (12/12/2019) in New Zealand. The
135 meeting involved 9-13 people and breakout groups of 3-5 people. Participants were introduced to the concept
136 of horizon scans outlined in the bulleted list above. Each group wrote down their **issues** and **questions** under
137 **key themes** on post-it notes and poster paper (previously identified by workshop leaders) during 20 minutes,
138 then carried out peer review on the other groups' ideas. The key themes used to prompt workshop participants
139 were: 1) low-input future (fertilizer, herbicides, pesticides); 2) agriculture and global change (climate, water
140 quality, soil, biosecurity); 3) fit for purpose plants and animals; 4) robotics/tech/big data, remote sensing; 5)
141 omics (genomics, proteomics, metabolomics, microbiomics, gene manipulation and gene-silencing
142 techniques); 6) Mātauranga Māori. **Ideas** were documented before synthesizing them into **major issues** and
143 **subordinate questions** which were shared with 3 participants who checked that the synthesis reflected the
144 intent of the workshop. We envisage that the subordinate questions could each form the basis for a research
145 proposal. Each of 5 randomly chosen issues were ranked on three criteria by dragging them into rank order on
146 the app screen: 1) is this a horizon (is the issue or question likely to become more important in 10-20 years?);
147 2) will it require stretchy science (is the question or issue currently not well addressed by the science
148 community?); 3) is it transformative (will successful efforts in this area lead to significant changes to weed
149 management in pastures?).

150 The issues were ranked by the 23 experts from taking part in the workshops via a shiny app (developed by
151 AgResearch), first by viewing and scoring the Maori knowledge issues (see Table 1) and 5 of the 10 randomly
152 ordered major issues, and then by scoring subordinate questions for their 3 most highly ranked key themes. If
153 a respondent did not rank an issue no value was assigned. Data about participants demographics and
154 expertise in the weed science field were collected, as well as a prompt to participants to optionally provide
155 information about potential global collaborators for the different issues and questions presented. Ranks for
156 major issues were converted to scores by subtracting the rank from the number of items ranked+1 (in this way
157 the lowest ranked item scored a 1 and the highest a 6), then scores were weighted to visualize criteria
158 importance by taking the square of the mean score and multiplying it by the proportion of respondents that
159 ranked the issue in top 3 (see Table1, Supplementary_Data_S1, Fig. 2). Finally, the importance of different key
160 issues by was visualized using a Sankey plot from the networkD3 package (Allaire *et al.*, 2017)

161 Results and Discussion

162 Pastoral Sector Weeds Research Strategy (2018-2028)

163 The AgResearch pastoral sector weeds research strategy (Bourdôt *et al.*, 2018) briefly reviews the weeds
164 research capacity in AgResearch Ltd. and in New Zealand, as well as pastoral weeds research internationally.
165 The challenges (target research areas) in the strategy, shown here in Fig. 1, are: improved internal biosecurity;
166 increased suite of non-chemical control options (alternatives to herbicides); herbicide resistance evolution
167 understood and controlled; weed population biology informs and disrupts weed management; weed control
168 economics informs and disrupts weed management; best practice pastoral weed management adopted by
169 farmers; effective riparian weed management (Bourdôt *et al.*, 2018).

170 Pastoral weed science horizon scan

171 Here we discuss the issues and opportunities that should be addressed in pastoral weed research. The issues,
172 and some of their specific subordinate issues provide opportunities for innovative research solutions. We
173 examine the importance of each issue in the context of: 1) is it a **horizon** (an emerging or growing problem); 2)

174 will work on the issue **stretch** current knowledge and create new research opportunities; 3) is there potential
175 for research on the issue to transform weed management?

177 Major issues selected and ranked

178 A summary of the final ranks for the major issues is provided in Table 1, and for the major and sub-issues, the
179 ranks are provided in Supplemental data S1. Fig. 2 shows the relative importance of the issues described in
180 terms of a short summary phrase that captures the issue concept (the full descriptions are provided in Table 1),
181 but rank averages were converted to weights (see methods). From an original list of 11 items, the high priority
182 issues by weighted scores were: 1st) reduced access to herbicides, 2nd) ecosystem services, 3rd) farm system
183 changes 4th) lower chemical inputs, and 5th) internal and border biosecurity (Table 1; Fig. 2). Starting at the
184 lowest ranked issues we have 11th) Big data, automation, and technology, 10th) Indigenous knowledge, 9th)
185 water quality 8th) climate change, 7th) fit for purpose plants and animals and 6th) weed, animal and soil
186 microbiomes.

187 Major issues ranked under the horizon, stretch and management criteria

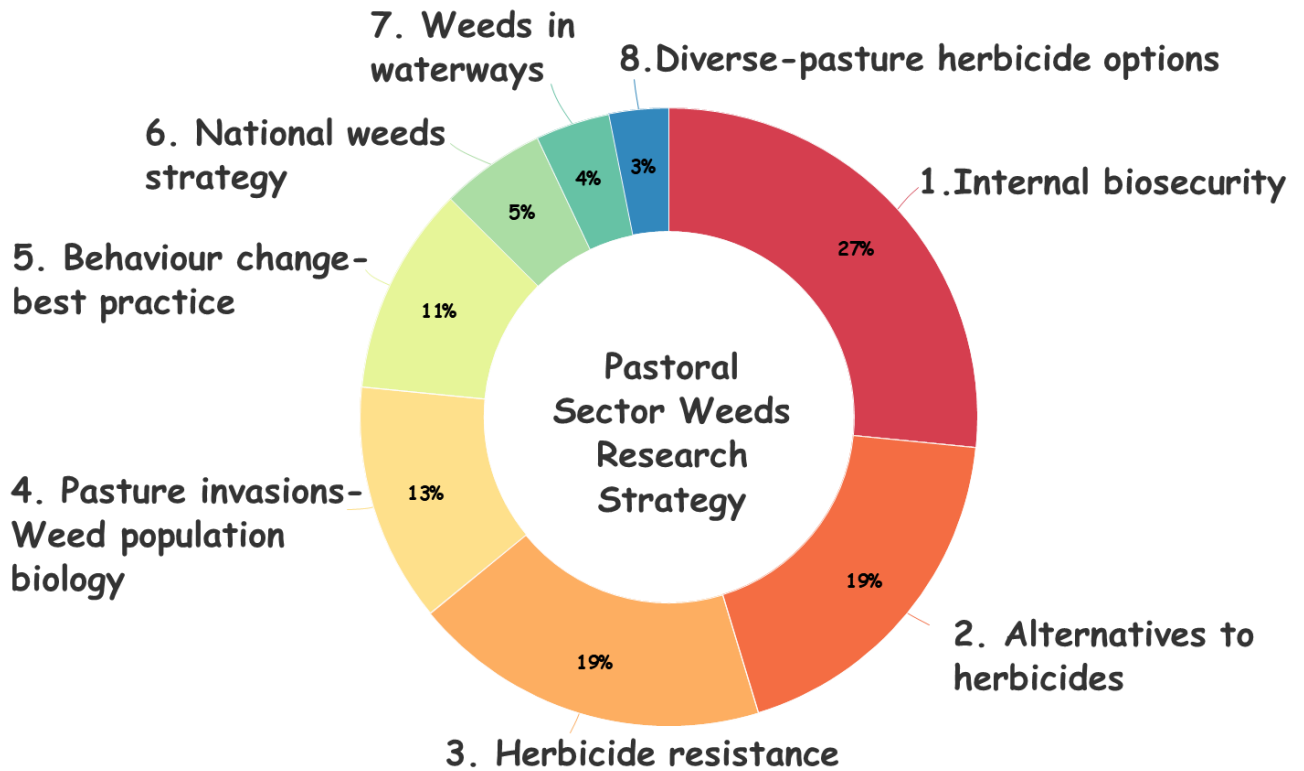
188 Ranks differed depending on the criteria, and our weighting of the ranks emphasizes the relative contribution
189 under the three criteria (Fig. 2). If we take the “horizon” criteria we identified as important, there is a growing
190 trend toward **lower chemical inputs** as farmers seek to address sustainability and social-license challenges
191 (Rowarth *et al.*, 2020; Clothier *et al.*, 2021). This is expected to drive far-reaching changes in farm and weed
192 management. This is related to another highly ranked horizon issue, namely the recent **reductions in the**
193 **number of herbicide** active ingredients that are available for farmers to use, as regulators in many regulatory
194 jurisdictions have removed some effective broad-spectrum herbicides that have actual or perceived problems
195 with their safe use. Meanwhile, there has been a simultaneous slow-down in the development of new
196 herbicides and modes-of-action because of the prohibitive costs of bring new products to market (Phillips,
197 2020). Effective widely used low-risk herbicides are currently under review by regulators (e.g., glyphosate) in
198 New Zealand and elsewhere. Some say there is a growing regulatory emphasis on *hazards* (potential to harm
199 at any use level) as opposed to *risk* under normal use conditions i.e., the potential to harm given actual
200 recommended rates and use conditions (Duke, 2012; Phillips, 2020). When we look at the ranks given for
201 “stretchy science” the **ecosystem services** concept, and **microbiomes** were ranked highly. Ecosystem
202 services research provides rich opportunities for understanding the role (services and disservices) of weeds in
203 pasture systems (Harrington *et al.*, 2006; Dale & Polasky, 2007; Vilà *et al.*, 2010; Blaix *et al.*, 2018), potentially
204 shifting farmer attitudes toward some weeds as it has for chicory and plantain formerly (Dodd *et al.*, 2017;
205 Cheng *et al.*, 2018). While for microbiomes research, its potential was framed in terms of understanding or
206 altering allelopathic interactions, plant palatability, and plant ecology, which in turn could be applied to weed
207 management (Masteling *et al.*, 2019; Dahiya *et al.*, 2020). Finally, participants believed that research
208 addressing the **reduced availability of herbicides**, and **ecosystem services** could transform weed
209 management practices.

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Table 1. For the major issues raised in the horizon scan workshops we show mean ranks provided by the workshop participants, ordered by the mean rank. Survey participants were randomly assigned 5 major issues to rank (in brackets we put the times an issue was ranked in top 3 vs the number of times seen by respondent) also expressed as percent of times an issue was in the top 3.

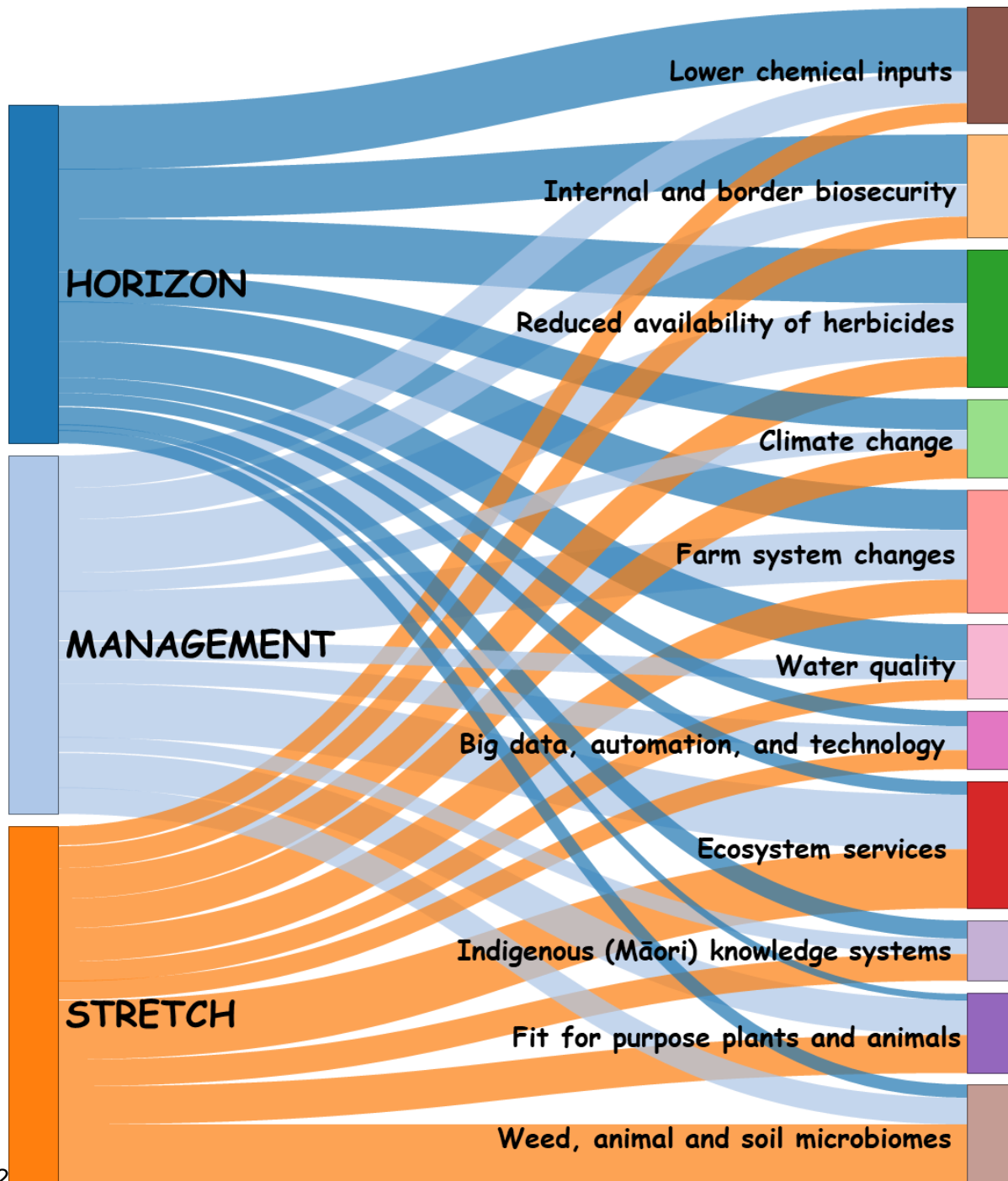
Question	N
There is reduced availability of chemical weed control options due to environmental and consumer health concerns which lead to the removal of active ingredients from the market and a lack of new alternatives which are costly to develop.	16
Farm system changes are increasingly required to encourage better management of multiple values, biosecurity risk, biodiversity, carbon, and nutrient run-off and production value. These plans result in spatial and temporal farm system changes that will alter weed ecology and weed management.	9
A better understanding of ecosystem services /disservices could lead to changes in farmer perceptions and weed management. For example, perceptions of weediness have changed over time (e.g., chicory and plantain were once regarded as weeds but now planted in pasture).	9
There is pressure to use lower chemical inputs (herbicides, pesticides and fertilizers) due to concerns about their perceived impacts to the environment and human health. This will alter pasture weed species composition, abundance and management.	15
The effectiveness of biosecurity at the border, and internally (between farms and regions) is increasingly important as economic/population growth, and international immigration (e.g., climate refugees) increases connectivity domestically and internationally.	11
We do not understand how weed (leaf, root), animal and soil microbiomes interact to potentially alter allelopathy, plant palatability, plant ecology and the effectiveness of weed management measures. Knowledge and technology development in this space could lead to improved outcomes.	7
Human mediated change in greenhouse gases is leading to climate change and sea level rise altering weed/crop ecology. Greenhouse gas emission regulations and downstream changes to farm practices will also change weed ecology and management.	14
Water quality concerns are driving farm system changes related to nutrient run-off and agrichemical use that will impact weed ecology and management.	16
Selection and design of fit for purpose plants and animals will alter farm systems. Animals and forages are optimized for weed management outcomes, minimized environmental impact, increased consumer confidence and maximised product value.	12
Efforts to improve outcomes for indigenous people (Maori) increasingly call on us to engage with indigenous people/clients/scientists, and to incorporate indigenous knowledge systems and values into farming and science endeavors.	20
Big data, automation, and technology will become increasingly important for weed science and management.	9

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Fig. 1. The weed management Target Research Areas (challenges) in the Pastoral Sector Weeds Research Strategy as defined by a stakeholder workshop made up of pastoral sector industry representatives and scientists in New Zealand (Bourdôt *et al.*, 2018). The segment size is determined by the sum of the votes given by the workshop participants to each of the challenges (segments) constituent issues and given here as a % of the total. Diagram modified from Bourdôt *et al.*, (2018).



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 226 **Figure 2. Major issues** (RH boxes) have their node boxes and link widths scaled by the sum of
 227 their weights= $(\text{mean}(\text{weight}))^2 \times \text{proportion of recipients that ranked the item in the top 3, across}$
 228 the **three ranking criteria** (LH boxes). Ranks were provided by 22 weed experts under each of
 229 the three criteria.

230 Subordinate issues for the highly ranked major issues

231 The top three major issues for the combined ranks, plus highly ranked issues under the criteria
232 for “science stretch” and “management transformation” highlight four issues for which we will
233 describe the subordinate issues in rank order. They are 1st) reduced access to herbicides, 2nd)
234 ecosystem services, 3rd) farm system changes. We have additionally reviewed the issue of
235 improved outcomes for Maori.

236 Improved outcomes for Maori

237 Issue: Efforts to improve outcomes for indigenous people (Maori) increasingly call on us to
238 engage with indigenous people/clients/scientists, and to incorporate indigenous knowledge
239 systems and values into farming and science endeavors.

240 We note there was limited Maori participation in the workshop and the preparation of this paper.
241 Future research should provide for greater contribution from Maori communities and
242 researchers. The key responses from the workshop participants were:

- 243 1. Incorporating Maori world views could fundamentally change weed and farm
244 management decisions.
- 245 2. Best practices must be identified to ensure effective engagement between the science
246 community and Maori.
- 247 3. We must understand which weed management issues matter more to Maori.
- 248 4. We must improve Maori science capacity and employment rates in our research
249 institutions.

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251 As Harmsworth and Awatere (2013) explain, Māori view themselves as a part of ecosystems
252 and recognize a reciprocal interdependent relationship between caring for the land (manaaki
253 whenua) and caring for the people (manaaki tāngata). Rivers, land, flora and fauna are
254 considered to share a connection, lineage or genealogy (whakapapa) with Māori people and the
255 connections, and ecosystem health or condition can additionally be explained in terms of a
256 shared life-force (mauri). As such, for many Māori stewardship of the environment is akin to
257 caring for family. They also have in place a system of practical rules, customs and laws (ritenga)
258 to convey proper management of people and natural resources. Māori own a lot of land in
259 sheep and beef, and have significant financial investments in the dairy industry (Kingi, 2013), as
260 such they have interests in weed control. Concern about weeds is inherently cultural, value
261 driven and practical, clearly a meaningful dialogue with Māori could lead to meaningful
262 innovation of science or management practices. However, meaningful long-term engagement
263 between government funding bodies, scientists and Māori has often been elusive, and best
264 practices for collaboration and engagement are needed. Hiring, mentoring, and sustaining Māori
265 cultural experts, scientists, and technicians is one way to help meaningful long-term
266 engagement. (McAllister, *et al.*, 2019; McAllister *et al.*, 2020b). A set of best practices should be
267 followed for engagement with Māori in New Zealand, including for weed research. Research
268 should involve respectful, early engagement and co-development of projects with Māori, from
269 project inception and to implementation, and on through to the realization of research impacts.
270 This engagement should incorporate Mātauranga Māori which is an indigenous knowledge
271 system that integrates Māori philosophical thought, worldview, and practice, and seek to

272 maintain the mana (prestige, authority, dignity, charisma, and spiritual power) and active roles of
273 collaborators, landowners, educators, scientists, iwi (Māori tribes and people) and hapū (sub-
274 tribes), particularly those that are mana whenua / people with authority over the land where any
275 of the research is carried out (McAllister *et al.*, 2020a).

276 Reduced availability of herbicides

277 Issue: There is reduced availability of chemical weed control options due to environmental and
278 consumer health concerns which lead to the regulatory removal of active ingredients from the
279 market and a lack of new alternatives which are costly to develop.

280 Subordinate issues (in rank order):

- 281 1. We need to understand the viability of alternative weed control measures if important
282 herbicides are banned.
- 283 2. Reduced availability of herbicides available will result in more cases of herbicide
284 resistance.
- 285 3. New chemical herbicides can be developed with benign breakdown products.
- 286 4. Reduced availability of herbicides will impact our ability to respond to biosecurity
287 incursions.

288 Weed control efforts in New Zealand often involve the use of herbicides, with about 158 million
289 NZD being spent annually (Buddenhagen *et al.*, 2019). Some commonly used herbicides are
290 under review, (e.g., glyphosate, 2,4-D), or their use has recently been strictly limited (e.g.,
291 paraquat; EPA NZ, 2021). Given the reliance on herbicides, their effectiveness in improving
292 productivity, or helping respond to new weed incursions, the potential removal of key products
293 came up as the highest priority issue for pasture weed management. Workshop participants
294 thought we should use viable alternatives as full or partial replacements to herbicides, if they are
295 effective, but more work is needed to understand alternative strategies. Some alternatives
296 deserve to have continued scrutiny and testing, such as classical and inundative biocontrols
297 (Bourdôt *et al.*, 2007, 2018; Bourdôt & Cripps, 2018; Ghanizadeh & Harrington, 2019), deferred
298 grazing (Tozer *et al.*, 2020, 2021), or regenerative agricultural practices. There was a hope
299 that new herbicides with benign breakdown products could be developed in future, perhaps
300 using innovative genetic approaches (Duke *et al.*, 2019) or naturally occurring chemicals
301 involved in plant defense.

302 Ecosystem services

303 Issue: A better understanding of ecosystem services/disservices could lead to changes in
304 farmer perceptions and the way they do weed management. For example, perceptions of
305 weediness has changed over time (e.g. chicory and plantain were once regarded as a weeds
306 but are now planted in pasture).

- 307 1. Weeds provide ecosystem services/disservices.
- 308 2. Weeds are potentially valuable as forage.
- 309 3. Weeds impact animal health/microbiomes.
- 310 4. Society values grasslands with weeds, and wildflowers - can farmers receive benefits if
311 they manage for these values?

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313 As discussed briefly under issues ranked highly for the “horizon” criteria, weeds are not merely
314 a disservice to production, but also provide ecosystem services. Research is needed that
315 addresses the ecosystem services/disservices of weeds in pasture systems, with previous
316 economic assessments focusing mostly on costs/disservices (Saunders *et al.*, 2017). Not long-
317 ago farmers in New Zealand regarded *Chicorium intybus* and *Plantago lanceolata* as
318 undesirable weeds in ryegrass and clover pastures but these are now valued as late summer
319 fodders that may reduce excreted nitrogen concentrations and downstream leaching (Dodd *et*
320 *al.*, 2017). Many weedy plants can provide livestock nutrition, but there is poor understanding of
321 practical value in the field as fodder, or as an enhancer of microbiome health, versus negative
322 impact on overall pasture production. The benefits of weeds can vary e.g., as a pollen and
323 nectar resource, soil biology, act as carbon sinks, decrease nutrient leaching, or they may be
324 value for aesthetic and cultural reasons, as non-native wildflowers often are. It is unclear to what
325 extent farmers could be compensated for these other values.

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327 Expertise in the areas of green economics, carbon budgeting, soil biology, and ecosystem
328 services paradigms can be quite specialized, and useful collaborations with weed and plant
329 ecologists is needed.

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331 Farm system changes

332 Issue: Farm system changes are increasingly required to encourage better management of
333 multiple values, biosecurity risk, biodiversity, carbon and nutrient run-off, and production value.
334 These are documented in farm plans result in spatial and temporal farm system changes that
335 will alter weed ecology and weed management.

- 336 1. We need to understand how to incentivize “public good” farm management.
- 337 2. The barriers to adopting best practice need to be understood.
- 338 3. Certification schemes that emphasize good practices for weed management and
339 biodiversity protection could create market incentives.
- 340 4. Grazing regimes (stocking rate, timing and frequency of grazing) impact weed
341 abundance and farm profits.
- 342 5. Emphasizing pasture persistence over productivity alters farmer behaviour and weed
343 impacts, and economic and environmental outcomes.

344

345 In New Zealand farm environment plans are increasingly required by local governments to
346 promote good practice and are designed help farmers to mitigate farm impacts on water use,
347 water quality, contaminants, effluent, biodiversity, biosecurity and green-house gas emissions.
348 Understanding what influences farmers to adopt best practices and innovate is key. We need to
349 demonstrate the extent that the recommended best practices achieve the stated goals. Such
350 work requires the interdisciplinary efforts of educators, farmers, marketers, and scientists with
351 expertise in specialized chemical, biological, economic and social fields. The hope is that such
352 efforts can capture value chain opportunities beyond the farm gate.

353 Social license

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355 The issue of social license and consumer perceptions was repeatedly raised during the
356 workshops, under multiple contexts (Appendix 1. Table 1). Social license is a cross-cutting issue
357 for societal change, and the pursuit of scientific and technical innovation, including in pastoral
358 farming systems (Edwards & Trafford, 2016; Camara *et al.*, 2018; Norton *et al.*, 2020).
359 Research into different aspects of social license, and addressing societal needs generally needs
360 to be built into every project. Society may be reluctant to adopt unfamiliar but excellent
361 innovative solutions, or scientists may inappropriately push some solutions. Any search for
362 solutions to problems and issues that are on the horizon requires new ways of doing business
363 and depends ultimately on innovation adoption by people. A key research area is to understand
364 the barriers to adoption of innovations or established best practice (Supplemental Data S1).
365 However, social license is required for the business-as-usual approach too, and some of the
366 major issues that need to be addressed are a direct consequence of reduced social capital as
367 farm activities impact shared resources, often centered around the use of chemical inputs
368 (fertilizer and pesticides), irrigation, high stocking densities, effluent, contaminants, and
369 biodiversity. Some concerns around contaminants may reflect our increasingly sensitive tools to
370 detect minute amounts of any given chemical in the environment. Many of these societal
371 concerns are being reflected in the development and enforcement of policies, rules and
372 regulations directed at farmer behavior.

373
374 Issues we identified are clearly linked via a concern about farm impacts on the environment,
375 including the availability of chemical weed control (herbicides), farm system changes, lower
376 chemical inputs, water quality concerns, climate change and the incorporation of Mātauranga
377 Māori. Participants believed there are societal shifts in expectations for the pastoral farming
378 sector generally. These include the adoption of sustainability and animal welfare measures
379 which can be market driven (Lyons & Lawrence, 2017), or come from government agencies
380 through regulation and policy (Kaye-Blake *et al.*, 2019), subsidies (Gołębiewska & Pajewski,
381 2018; Pajewski *et al.*, 2020) and taxation shifts (Barrett & Makale, 2019). A mix of intrinsic and
382 extrinsic motivations like these are expected to drive farmer efforts to reduce their
383 environmental footprint. Work under one issue is likely to address some concerns under other
384 issues we identified.

385
386 Workshop participants believed the widespread use of social media may disproportionately
387 amplify some critics, with sound science getting no more traction than disproven lines of
388 reasoning because of widespread distrust of the scientific process and government authority.
389 Nevertheless, they believed farmers will try to cater to the changing attitudes of consumers.
390 Many of the solutions to these issues raise special concerns. Even the relatively inanimate
391 technologies like the use of robotic weeders, automatic weed detection, distributed applications
392 decision and information systems create issues around privacy, safety, and control (farmer-led
393 versus contracting out specialized services). Biocontrol comes with widely understood and
394 manageable risks (e.g., potential non-target impacts) and a suite of perceived risks and ethical
395 considerations. Development of genetically modified organisms is widely viewed by the public
396 as risky. These doubts are not helped by difficulties in interpretation of multiple lines of scientific
397 evidence, and distrust of experts, scientists and regulatory bodies. Improving evidence-based
398 decision making needs to involve transparent public processes, regulators, social scientists, and

399 communication experts. We think the agricultural sector (and scientists working in the field) are
400 working within an expanded ethical framework. We need to be guided by the goal of objectivity,
401 even if it is hard to obtain, but know that we balance our research in a space between what is
402 objective and subjective, value free and value laden, neutral and advocacy (Rykiel, 2001).
403

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- 554

555

556 **Appendix 1: Workshop ideas recorded by participants.**

557

558 **Lower input future**

559 What are the costs/benefits of weed control in a low input system?

560 **Consumer perceptions**

561 Consumer concerns about pesticide use (impacts to human health) is a driver.

562 What does contamination mean given our great ability to detect low levels of any chemical?

563 How can we prove that a farm system is using low inputs?

564 Science literacy, sound bites and societal fragmentation (social media) and declining public trust
565 of scientists and government agencies.

566 How do we define “lower input”? Should we use “lower impact”?

567 **Targeted application of herbicides**

568 Blanket application of chemical control methods results in higher inputs.

569 What technologies do we need in low input farming system?

570 **Changing rural communities**

571 Fewer people are living in rural landscapes. Less utilization, less control capacity available,
572 increasing reliance on contractors.

573 **Reduced availability of chemical control options**

574 Viability of alternative control measures if chemicals are banned.

575 What alternatives to chemical control are there, other than biocontrol (predation or herbivory) or
576 competitive exclusion?

577 What chemical herbicides can be developed with benign breakdown products?

578 What can we do to understand and influence below ground competitive interactions?

579 What insights can be provided by examining the relative impacts of:

580 Farm system enterprise (overall),
581 the weed,
582 the control of said weeds (e.g. lifecycle analysis).

583 How does biocontrol agent (insect) microbiome relate to their effectiveness?
584 How would reduced availability of control options impact internal biosecurity?
585 A lower input future will lead us to accept more weeds, but at what cost?
586 Cost benefit analyses are needed to examine changing scenarios in labour and other inputs.
587 Tech improvements needed to enable effective lower input systems- using a limited suite of
588 tools to better effect.

589 **Water quality**

590 What are the costs/benefits/trade-offs of riparian plantings?
591 What are the impacts of weed control efforts on nutrients, water quality, carbon, biodiversity and
592 erosion?

593 Enterprise impact assessment vs weed impact assessment.

594 **National Policy Statement for Freshwater and the Zero Carbon Bill**

595 Large proportions (70%) of sheep and beef farms would need to be planted in forest to meet
596 stated emissions and water quality standards (check references).

597 **Multiple land-uses, and farm system changes**

598 Farm system changes in grazing intensity, livestock interactions with weeds and competitive
599 species.

600 Diverse land uses creates more boundaries that may provide more weed niches.
601 The role of intensification as a form of land-sparing needs to be understood.
602 Weed problems and control options may shift with a move away from livestock.

603 **Farm systems ***

604 Farm system decisions emphasizing pasture persistence over productivity may lead to more
605 resistant pastures (with concomitant ecosystem service benefits).

- 606 What are the unintended consequences of lower input systems, e.g. less herbicide leads to
607 more cultivation?
- 608 How do grazing regimes impact weed abundances?
- 609 Holistic approaches to farm systems – mix of species balancing non-production factors.
- 610 What is the impact of lower stocking rates or novel grazing animals on weed/animal interaction?
- 611 How can low-input management be monetized to increase product value?
- 612 **Weed utility**
- 613 Viewing weeds as alternative forages in low input systems (they may be more competitive).
- 614 Turning weeds into opportunities, redefining weed roles in the landscape.
- 615 Weeds as tools for heavy metal capture/accumulation.
- 616 What opportunities do weed provide to deliver a range of ecosystem services?
- 617 Can use weeds to create high value products?
- 618 Are there beneficial properties in weeds?
- 619 **Fertilizer reductions ***
- 620 Integrated systems for capture and use of excess inputs are needed.
- 621 Recapture of nutrients from water bodies using microbes and plants to support a circular
622 economy.
- 623 Utilizing and improving species that perform under lower inputs – nitrogen fixing species, and
624 better NUE in forage plants.
- 625 Weed control becomes more important under low input systems. A related assumption is that
626 weeds are more efficient at using available resources.
- 627 Changes are expected in weed spectra under lower soil fertility.
- 628 Lower pesticide inputs increase the need for integrated weed management utilizing natural
629 enemies.
- 630 Reduced use of fertilizers could lead to lower pasture production, weed abundance increases,
631 and declines in the competitive ability of desirable species.
- 632 **Animals ***

633 “Peak cow” and overstocking is a recognized problem. Less animals may lead to (opportunity)
634 fewer weed problems and better pasture persistence.

635 Agriculture and Global Change

636 Greenhouse gas taxes, what would they do to our systems?

637 Growing population increases require increasing food production – so inputs may need to
638 increase?

639 Is high-input production with a small footprint possible?

640 Changing land-use, temperature, CO₂ and nutrient deposition impacts the “weedscape”. *

641 What will pastoral agriculture look like in the next 50 years?

642 Increase reliance on legumes for Nitrogen – to avoid N run-off, weed control options need that
643 protect clover.

644 Forestry increases likely (billion trees etc) but many forestry species are “weedy” how will the
645 proposed changes look?

646 How does CO₂ enrichment and temperature affect herbicide/biocontrol effectiveness? *

647 The need for reduced fossil fuel use will lead to reduced N and P application – how will this
648 impact weed composition and competitiveness? *

649 Increases in extreme weather events raise pasture perturbations making weeds the “new
650 normal”.

651 *

652 Pasture plants and weeds will be selected for increased environmental plasticity rather than
653 productive biomass. Increased drought frequency will select for altered species composition e.g.
654 drought resistant grasses like *Paspalum*, *Pennisetum*, *Bromus*. *

655 What is the relative importance of phenotypic/genotypic plasticity in the response of weeds to
656 climate change?

657 How durable are biocontrol systems under climate change?

658 What types of extreme events will favour weeds over pasture species?

659 What are the direct impacts of climate change (increased CO₂, temperature etc) on weed
660 management (e.g. seed bank longevity, timing, and herbicide effectiveness)?

661

662 **Diversified land use ***

663 Future pastoral landscape may be more diversified and include other non-pastoral enterprises.

664 Drive for more resilient species rich pastures may lead to lower weed ingress.

665 Do we know the relationship between diversity and invasability in pastures?

666 Climate refugees, and population increases could lead to increases in invasive species.

667 Will future multifunctional landscapes be resilient to weed invasion?

668 **Biodiversity links ***

669 Bush remnants and riparian zones are managed for nutrient run-off and native biodiversity
670 values weeds are ubiquitous to those areas and pasture – some impacts to internal biosecurity
671 are expected.

672 Farm Environment Plans encourage better management of biodiversity values, carbon and
673 nutrient run-off, and production value.

674 Formerly viewed as a weed manuka is valued for its nectar.

675 What native species could become weedy due to climate change or systems change?

676 Mātauranga Maori – valuing indigenous biodiversity, Taonga species, forest remnants.

677 How do we best manage two-way movement between natural and pasture systems?

678 How do we maximize biodiversity outcomes through farm management plans, market drivers
679 and mātauranga Maori?

680

681 **Farm management to avoid weeds under changing environmental stressors**

682 How do we manage pastures to tolerate droughts/floods and therefore avoid weeds?

683 How to extend the life of pastures?

684

685 **Incipient invaders**

686 Context: Sleeper weeds can be new problem species or known species can become more
687 impactful (as their range increases, or under global change).

688 Sleeper weeds what are they? Predicting traits –to aid identification of future problems?

- 689 How to stop new species becoming weed problems?
- 690 Can we compare NZ with overseas pasture to predict species invasions and shifts in
691 composition under climate change?
- 692 Does comparison of weeds and their management at different latitudes within NZ tell us what to
693 expect under climate change?
- 694 **Ecosystem Services**
- 695 Context: Weeds as part of multi-trophic interactions e.g. parasitoids and pollinators
- 696 Weeds provide ecosystem services – need to replace services if you remove the weeds.
- 697 Weeds can act as primary or secondary hosts of pests and diseases.
- 698 Questions: How do you measure, and balance ecosystem services provided by weeds?
- 699 What opportunities do weeds provide to deliver a range of ecosystem services (e.g. forage,
700 heavy metal accumulators)
- 701 Quality of weeds as nectar sources, pollen, to feed into cost accounting.
- 702 Economics. What is the fodder value of weeds?
- 703 What is the quality of weeds as food for ruminants?
- 704 How will the net “cost” of a weed change when its contribution to ecosystem services (e.g.
705 carbon sequestration, NO emission reduction etc.) are considered?
- 706 **Social and economic perspectives/ Consumer demand***
- 707 What are the incentives for “public good” land management?
- 708 Future consumer driven demand for greenhouse gas accounting is expected – this may impact
709 stocking rates and biodiversity – with concomitant (poorly understood) shifts in weed
710 abundance.
- 711 Product value could be enhanced under certification schemes that emphasize good practices
712 for weed management and biodiversity protection. How much are consumers actually willing to
713 pay?
- 714 **Social Licence**
- 715 What publicly acceptable weed control tools are there?
- 716 How to address or mitigate public concerns about weed control techniques? e.g. glyphosate
717 hysteria.

718 Consumers of our high-value agricultural products may be more accepting of weeds than of
719 weed control tools (e.g. herbicides) – and end consumers may have a growing influence.

720 **Alternative value of weeds**

721 What aesthetic values will tourists/public place on grassland ecosystems?

722 Are some colourful weeds acceptable “wildflowers”?

723 How do we capture the value wildflowers etc. in pasture?

724 Current weeds may be future crops.

725 Systems approach to defining the “net” cost of a weed in a pastoral system – benefits need to
726 be accounted for too. *

727 Pasture carbon sequestration are slightly weedy systems better? *

728 Government policy around biodiversity and carbon sequestering will drive land use changes.

729 Under these policy initiatives what is the interaction between pasture weeds, forests, and soil
730 sequestration? *

731 Current weeds may be tomorrow’s valued crop.

732 Will some current pasture species become “bad” while some existing weeds become “good”?

733 **Riparian conservation efforts increasing**

734 Creation of edge environments to protect water quality, creates weed habitat – need better
735 weed control in riparian zones, to support clean but flowing waters.

736 Riparian weed management includes more than water weeds – indigenous biodiversity *

737 Salination effects on weeds and plants due to rising sea levels.

738 **Fit for purpose plants and animals**

739 **Consumer driven change**

740 Context: Increasing emphasis on plant-based diets.

741 Still a strong emphasis on high-protein diets.

742 Horticulture plus pasture.

743 Land based production systems that provide an attractive backdrop for tourism.

- 744 Consumer perceptions of “naturalness” in pasture.
- 745 Changing landscape uses and multifunctional farms – effects of invasive species e.g. *Pinus spp.*
- 746 What can we do to address public perception around contaminants (given that we can detect
747 extremely low levels of any given chemical)?
- 748 **Social license**
- 749 Weed management interventions with minimal biological impact.
- 750 Use of digital approaches (automated weed control) – less human intervention could have
751 unknown effects on weeds.
- 752 What is the public/user perception of multifunctional landscapes (biodiversity and weeds)?
- 753 Who are future consumers and are weed or weed management important to them?
- 754 When does a weed have a cultural value?
- 755 **Shifting species composition, managing genetic resources.**
- 756 A narrow spectrum of plants and animals are favoured in pastures now.
- 757 Changing demographics leads to new species introductions and shifts human mediated spread
758 of species already in NZ.
- 759 Genetic technologies could have unexpected consequences e.g. on biodiversity.
- 760 What GMO/genetic technology should NZ allow?
- 761 Weed species could be repository of desirable crop genetics.
- 762 GE/Gene silencing technologies a potential opportunity.
- 763 What plants/species will form the basis of pasture-based systems in the future?
- 764 What plant traits are we looking for and how do we get them?
- 765 What are some of the known and unknown consequences of invasive weed species (incl. GMO
766 on dynamics)?
- 767 **Species need to be best suited to changing climatic conditions.**
- 768 More nutrient and water efficient plants needed.
- 769 Pasture species adaptable to changing climates.

- 770 What is the impact of weeds on soil health and nutrient supply?
- 771 **The relationship between weeds and animal and/or human health is poorly understood.**
- 772 The impact of weeds on animal health both positive and negative.
- 773 The impact of weeds on human health directly or via animals.
- 774 What are the (e.g. metabolic) compounds (beneficial or not) that move between plants and
775 animals and vice versa?
- 776 How do we harness the nutritional or medicinal benefits of weeds?
- 777 **Endophyte and microbiome manipulation ***
- 778 Weed microbiomes (leaf and root) could have important interactions related to weediness,
779 allelopathy and the effectiveness of weed control measures.
- 780 **Opportunities in the breeding and GE space ***
- 781 Increased use of legumes improved under strong selection (interacts with low input future).
- 782 Selection has focused on productivity of individual species but a focus breeding for optimal
783 multi-species assemblages and inter-specific competitive ability could alter outcomes.
- 784 Super pasture plants become super weeds.
- 785 Selecting varieties for other roles than productivity (e.g. erosion control, or nutrient uptake).
- 786 Breeding for reduced N and P, or tolerance to stressors.
- 787 Nitrogen fixing grasses are only 10 years away.
- 788 Societal demands and consumer attitudes will influence what can and should be done with
789 breeding and GE.
- 790
- 791 How can microbiome/endophyte biology help us to improve weed management?
- 792 How does the plant microbiome interact with biotic/abiotic control tools?
- 793 Can we breed plants for a low input future (less fertilizer and increased disease/pest tolerance)?
- 794 Are epigenetic traits useful as a breeding tool?
- 795

796 **Viewing weeds as useful ***

797 A changing mindset, and a better understanding of the role of weeds as valuable fodder, or key
798 components of pasture systems.

799 What can we do to weeds to make them more palatable?

800 Do weeds provide important ecosystem services?

801 How do weeds improve meat/milk flavour?

802 **Animal interactions with weeds ***

803 Animal saliva as a transmitter of desired microbiome.

804 Improving animal tolerance to toxic plants.

805 New livestock options, different systems to direct weed management.

806 How can vertebrate livestock/invertebrates be used to improve weed management outcomes?

807 **Omics, GE, gene silencing, Microbiomes**

808 How realistic are the proposals for genetic genomic “silver bullet” tools for future weed
809 management?

810 Can we predict when epigenetics will impact weed evolution (e.g. in apomictic, clonal and
811 selfing weeds)?

812 Using genomic tools to develop specific herbicide “safeners” to allow crop to metabolize
813 herbicide and not be harmed?

814 Can we use genomic tools to assess the seed bank for herbicide efficacy and future weed
815 threats?

816 Would the NZ pasture industry support a pasture weed genome database?

817 How does the plant microbiome facilitate or prevent weed invasion and can endophytes
818 themselves be invasive?

819 Will the social license barriers to use genomics be less for weed management than for crop
820 improvement?

821 **Problems ***

822 Limits of gene drives in polyploid weeds?

- 823 Weeds in the seed bank – how can genetic technologies address this?
- 824 Risk of breeding invasive pasture species that are problems in other ecosystems.
- 825 Is the NZ weed problem too specific to attract multinational investment in “omic” solutions?
- 826 GE/or selected HR resistant crops will create new HR resistant weeds.
- 827 Govt regulations limit opportunities, but so does consumer concern about GMO.
- 828 **Solution focus ***
- 829 Impact of epigenetics on weediness.
- 830 RNAi for weed control or herbicide resistance management.
- 831 Using omics for selective weed control by herbicides (creating new products)
- 832 Weed seed ID (and HR ID in seed for sowing).
- 833 Real time quick tests for HR.
- 834 Understanding the adaptation of weeds to non-herbicidal weed control methods.
- 835 A guide to the biological and weed management questions that can be answered using different
836 “omics” methods.
- 837 **Social and scientific constraints ***
- 838 Most biological traits are polygenic – an issue for creation of “single gene silver bullets” and for
839 VIG, RNAi, CRISPR etc.
- 840 Weeds are generally non-model organisms and there are no genomes available for them.
- 841 Difficult to understand the impacts of minor genes at the early stages of herbicide resistance
842 evolution.
- 843 Cost effective microbiome/epigenome/metabolome analysis
- 844 **Microbiomes**
- 845 Below ground interactions between species is poorly understood.
- 846 Ecosystem communication e.g. volatiles are there opportunities
- 847 Do we have ways to collect and manipulate multiple microbial species?
- 848 Microbes as biocontrols.

- 849 Endophytes – deep understanding needed to find opportunities.
- 850 Are there invasive endophytes that could impact weed congeners or make them more invasive.
- 851 It can be difficult to target and culture useful taxa in complex microbiome communities.
- 852 **Utility of weeds and genetic elements in weeds.**
- 853 Useful compounds could be produced by weeds e.g. sunscreen, insecticides, allelopathic.
- 854 What strategies can we employ to better understand and harvest useful components from
855 weeds or their associated organisms?
- 856 Weed functional roles and traits
- 857 Moving from gene/protein observations to understanding at macro scales.
- 858 Understanding allelopathic interactions between crop and weed species (both directions) using
859 omics.
- 860 **Social license**
- 861 Public/Maori acceptance of different genetic manipulation technologies e.g. GE, gene silencing,
862 CRISPR.
- 863 Intellectual property issues around GE.
- 864 Addressing unintended consequences.
- 865 Cultural ownership of species including exotics.
- 866 Sound-bite-based knowledge and short attention spans.
- 867 What is a robust screening protocol for identifying potentially adverse impacts of GE organisms?
- 868 How do we enable an informed public, and support decision-making?
- 869 Social media impact to public perception about science and omics.
- 870 Social license around GE/Gene editing.
- 871 **Omics technology development and adoption**
- 872 Should we be doing technology development in NZ?
- 873 At what point do current technologies become cost effective?
- 874 Is there a prioritization framework for technology adoption?

875 Weed seed identification in seed lots.

876 **Genetic engineering**

877 Creating sterile weeds, pollen swamping techniques, terminator genes.

878 **Robotics/technology/big data/remote sensing**

879

880 What questions could phylogenetics and big data answer?

881 Can legacy data be used for contemporary issues?

882 Do we have platforms and pipelines suitable for multiple data sources?

883 Can the agriculture sector keep up with new technologies?

884 How do we integrate “weed management practice” with new technologies?

885 How can technology answer science questions with practical solutions instead of technology
886 solutions looking for a problem?

887 What are the barriers to technology adoption?

888 **Fenceless farms**

889 Could animals be guided to weedy areas?

890 **Internal biosecurity**

891 Contractors play a big role in an efficient agricultural sector, and in the spread/spread-mitigation.

892 Risk-pathway analysis is needed to examine field, farm, and regional risk – real-time data
893 potentially useful.

894 Omics data relies on big data platforms – that should be transitioned to public use datasets.

895 **Computer/phone technologies**

896 What is the role that apps can play in detection and management of weeds?

897 Are there any useful research tools that can be converted to apps?

898 What is the role of citizen science in pasture weed management?

899 What is the potential of phones as distributed information systems, data gathering, and decision
900 support tools?

901 **Technology Adoption**

902 What factors influence technology/protocol/best practice adoption (e.g. herbicide wipers)?

903 What are the economics behind technology/protocol/best practice adoption?

904 Will the public accept active remote management systems?

905 How can you make technology affordable for low value pastures?

906 Farmers may become increasingly dependent on consultants to allow them to take advantage of
907 new technology.

908 Concerns about employment under automation.

909 Data ownership and privacy for data driven by technology.

910 Traditional farming versus technocracy. How does farmer age and education interact with tech
911 adoption?

912 **Robots**

913 There is a need for robots that can remotely ID and remove weeds from pasture. Can we create
914 a weed Roomba?

915 How do we improve remote sensing tools?

916 Is there adequate infrastructure (e.g. rural internet access)?

917 Big data platforms and computing are expensive and have short half-lives...

918 Tools for managing weeds, virtual farming and drones.

919 **Scaling-up experiments to farm level /Remote sensing**

920 Landscape scale evaluation of pasture health, persistence and interactions with farm system.

921 Creating visualization tool for farm management choices.

922 Improving representativeness of experiments via remote sensing, drones and algorithmic
923 observations.

924 Distributed sensor systems for farm management and experimental work at scale.

- 925 Can sensors be developed to better understand multi-trophic biotic and abiotic interactions
926 above and below ground?
- 927 Can we improve research for larger spatial and temporal scales to whole farm or larger scale
928 (e.g. catchments) by using drone imaging/algorithms/management regimes?
- 929 Is technology development the kind of research we should do, or should we guide others, build
930 relationships and interact with technology companies?
- 931 **Mātauranga Maori**
- 932 **Perceptions of weeds**
- 933 Examining native species as weeds (Tutu, Matakoura, Manuka and Kanuka)
- 934 Weed whakapapa
- 935 Why is the weed present vs how to kill it?
- 936 Are weeds topmost of Maori concerns given all other challenges faced by rural Maori?
- 937 Changed or different perceptions of weeds.
- 938 **Engagement with Maori**
- 939 Few CRI's have Maori engagement strategies.
- 940 Lack of risk assessments.
- 941 Engagement with Maori infrequent, despite possible areas of common ground.
- 942 Engagement protocols and processes.
- 943 Lack of understanding of Mātauranga Maori.
- 944 **Weed management**
- 945 Use of Mātauranga Maori to manage weeds in pastoral systems.
- 946 What are Maori concerns over use of exotic biological control organisms?
- 947 **Value chain economics**
- 948 Economic perspectives could provide insights into Maori perspectives and values.
- 949 Valuing non-financial outcomes.

950 Use of Mātauranga Maori in pastoral systems could have impacts on product value.

951 Farming under a non-productionist paradigm (is that a thing)?

952 Incentivizing the inclusion of native biodiversity in farms systems.

953 **Maori Science Capacity**

954 Maori science capacity is needed in society and institutions.

955 Mātauranga Maori experts are rare.

956 There is poor knowledge in science organizations about Maori partnership opportunities to
957 improve weed management.

958 Assume that Maori representatives in organizations know community needs for weed
959 management.

960 **Te Ao Maori**

961 Opportunities are available for pursuing long term scientific investigations on community owned
962 land.

963 Much Maori land is both marginal and spatially fragmented creating special challenges for weed
964 management.

965 What are the social implications of weed management in rural maori communities?

966 **Governance and consultation**

967 What are the existing government initiatives that support Maori involvement in science?

968 Who should be involved? Understanding this is a nationwide problem.

969 MBIE 5-year funding not sufficient to build long term relationships.

970 What responsibilities do scientists have under the treaty?

971 There are problems with coordinating collective ownership and arriving at a consensus.

972

973 Questions:

974 How does weed management look in farms managed under a Te Ao as opposed to
975 conventional practices?

976 How does the NZ science community best practice look?

- 977 How do we take a cultural and contextual perspectives into account when defining weeds?
- 978 How do we redesign government funding initiatives to capture Maori needs?
- 979 How do we improve Maori science capacity using institutional and indigenous community
980 knowledge?
- 981 How can we effectively engage with Maori to discuss issues with weed science?
- 982 Social license?
- 983 What are the opportunities for added value by accessing Mātauranga Maori and farming under
984 Te Ao Maori?