

NSW coastal salinity audit

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Acknowledgments

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Executive summary

This audit examines the salinity status of coastal New South Wales (NSW). Together with the salinity audit of the Hunter River (Beale et al. 2001) this report completes Action 1.3 of the NSW Salinity Strategy: to audit salt-affected areas outside the Murray-Darling Basin (MDB). It is limited to examining the primary data sources held within the Department of Infrastructure, Planning and Natural Resources (DIPNR). The main focus of this report is the North and South Coast, plus the Manning River, Karuah River and Lake Macquarie and Tuggerah Lake basins, which were not included in the Hunter audit.

The MDB and Hunter River audits assessed the impact of dryland salinity on stream salinity and river basin salt loads, and predicted future stream salinity based on groundwater level trends. The audits did not address land salinisation. Likewise, this audit focussed on stream salinity; however, there was insufficient groundwater data for coastal river basins, except for the Hunter, to be able to make salinity trend predictions.

The audit process adopted in this study was to document the status of primary salinity information for the coast. This took the form of reviewing available data within DIPNR, analysis of historic stream salinity and flow records for coastal river basins, salinity hazard mapping and analysis of historic groundwater salinity data. It should be noted that as the hazard mapping process did not have sufficient input data to give an accurate picture of hazard, to avoid confusion the resulting maps have not been published.

Fuzzy Landscape Analysis GIS (FLAG) maps are presented in this report as they indicate likely discharge sites and have been useful for indicating salinity outbreaks elsewhere in the State.

All other analytical results for each river basin covered in this audit are listed in the appendices. The reader is encouraged to look at these results to avoid confusion when interpreting the broad statements contained in the report.

It should be noted that urban salinity in western Sydney is the subject of separate investigations by DIPNR, as a part of the Local Government Salinity Initiative and Urban Salt Action Team work, also established under the Salinity Strategy. Therefore, to avoid duplication, urban salinity in western Sydney was not a major focus in this audit, beyond the draft hazard mapping and stream salinity analysis.

The general findings of the audit are that:

- median salinity values for most coastal rivers and tributaries are low
- stream salt loads are not currently a major threat in coastal regions
- agricultural practices currently present a low risk for stream salinisation across the coastal basins
- major salinity problems on the coast are associated with infrastructure in salinity hazard areas.

Salinity is recognised as a problem in western Sydney with the potential to affect large areas of new development in the near future. To a lesser extent, salinity is identified as a problem in the Hunter coal mining areas of the Manning and Karuah basins and the southern tableland areas around Braidwood and Goulburn.

Other than these areas, salinity is not generally a major issue in coastal areas at the current time. This is supported by the actions and targets in the Catchment Blueprints, as well as reports by the Healthy Rivers Commission and in discussion with regional DIPNR staff. The stressed rivers reports (e.g.

DLWC 1999a, 1999b, 1999c) generally do not mention salinity as an issue. The Independent Inquiries into coastal rivers (e.g. HRC 1999a,b) also do not list salinity as an issue. *Prima face* this does not exclude the possibility that an unrecognised hazard may exist and that small outbreaks of dryland salinity are not locally important. Bradd (1996), using a weights-of-evidence GIS approach, predicted a moderate salinity hazard in some parts of the northern and southern tablelands. Minor investigations in the Grafton and Casino areas have also recorded some salinisation.

Based on the findings of this audit, it is recommended that baseline spatial data sets such as the 1:25 000 scale geology should be progressively upgraded, as well as groundwater monitoring networks and knowledge of groundwater flow systems.

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1. Introduction

In 1998 an audit of the Murray-Darling Basin Salinity and Drainage Strategy focusing on predicted impacts of dryland salinity on river health (MDBC 1999 and Beale et al. 2000) found that rates of salinisation were likely to increase dramatically. In August 2000, the NSW Government released the NSW Salinity Strategy in response to the need for an integrated approach to Salinity in NSW. Action 1.3 of the strategy called for an audit of the major salt affected NSW Catchments outside the Murray-Darling Basin to set interim end of valley salinity targets for the Hunter, North Coast and South Coast catchments.

Salinity is not listed as an issue for the majority of Catchment Blueprints for the coastal rivers. However, outside of these major areas of community focus smaller areas of land salinisation are sporadically documented up and down the coast, mainly in the areas around Braidwood and Goulburn in the South and Casino and Grafton in the North. The audit of the Hunter River and its tributaries upstream of Greta (excluding the Manning River, Karuah River and Lake Macquarie and Tuggerah Lake basin) was completed in 2000. This used the same methodology as the Murray-Darling Basin study, with enhancements to account for topographic effects (Beale et al. 2001). An audit of the remaining coastal catchments commenced in 2001. The findings of the coastal audit are summarised in this report. It collates the available knowledge on groundwater, geology, soils and salinisation for the coastal regions. The report is organised on a regional basis and a summary of the information for each catchment is presented in the Appendices.

1.1 THE AUDIT PROCESS

In previous salinity audits in NSW for the Murray-Darling Basin and Hunter River (Beale et al. 2000 and Beale et al. 2001), predictions were made in regard to future stream salinity based on observed trends in groundwater level. Insufficient data are available for the remainder of the coastal catchments to adequately describe groundwater level trends or establish a reliable surface water and salt mass balance on which to base similar predictions. Therefore, the audit process adopted in this study is to document the status of primary salinity information for the coast.

The audit presented here consists of the results of four primary tasks:

- 1. A review of available data based on discussion with regional staff.
- 2. Analysis of the historic stream salinity and flow record for the coastal river basins.
- 3. Salinity hazard mapping for the whole coast.
- 4. Analysis of the spatial distribution of the available historic groundwater salinity data.

1.1.1. Review of available data

One of the key tasks of this audit was to document the primary salinity information (hydrogeology, surface hydrology and GIS spatial data) for coastal regions of NSW and an extensive literature review was conducted. Ten district offices were visited in November and December 2001 to draw on local staff experience and collate all salinity-related publications. While there appears to be some detailed project work in specific locations, there was no overall assessment of the threat of salinisation.

1.1.2. Analysis of stream salinity and flow

Surface water salinity information was modelled for both stream salinity and salt load. For stream salinity, the model used stochastic relationships between flow and salt load. This information was used to model the median and 80th percentile (non-exceedance) salinity range (EC) for the coastal catchments. Stream salt loads were generated as a daily time series by applying regression relationships for discrete flow and EC data. From this, annual average salt loads were calculated to determine the relative contribution of the drained areas as a salt source.

1.1.3. Salinity hazard mapping

Salinity hazard mapping is based on identifying the relative probability that salt stores associated with other mappable attributes exist within the landscape. If mobilised, salinity hazards have the potential to create ecological/social salinity problems. Salinity hazard is a static structural view of salinity potential in the landscape rather than a dynamic process of assessment of risk.

The generalised draft salinity hazard map was constructed using a weights-of-evidence approach. That is, an evidence layer of known salinity outbreaks was analysed in respect of combined layers of predictive landscape attributes such as geology and soils to assess the probability of further hazard extending beyond known outbreaks.

Stream salinity recorded at gauging stations and groundwater salinity data at individual bores give information on the hydrological responses of the catchment. However, there were considerable gaps in the available data and the gauging station and the groundwater salinity data from bores was therefore unsuitable for inclusion as salinity evidence layers in the hazard mapping process. However, they provide an objective, though incomplete, means of checking the draft hazard mapping predicted from other landscape attributes.

1.1.4. Analysis of groundwater salinity data

The map published in Bradd and Gates (1995) highlights the lack of groundwater studies for the coastal region (Figure 1). This paucity of groundwater data prevented the calculation of groundwater trends. However, the available groundwater data was extrapolated and groundwater salinity values assigned to geology polygons to provide a spatial coverage of groundwater salinity (Figures 11 to 13).

2. Data availability / review

In the previous NSW salinity audits for the Murray-Darling Basin and Hunter River (Beale et al. 2000 and Beale et al. 2001), predictions were made about future stream salinity based on observed trends in groundwater level. Insufficient data were available for the remainder of the coastal catchments to adequately describe groundwater level trends or establish a reliable surface water and salt mass balance from which to base similar predictions. Therefore, the audit process adopted in this study was to document the status of primary salinity information for the coast.

A literature review for coastal basins is presented. The previous Murray-Darling Basin and Hunter audits relied heavily on groundwater, surface water and Geographic Information Systems (GIS) spatial data. In this audit, groundwater data were used to find the average groundwater salinities associated with the spatial geology coverage of the coastal catchments. Surface hydrology data were used to determine the statistical structure of river flow and salt loads for tributaries and mainstream locations throughout each river basin. GIS spatial data were used to develop a draft salinity hazard map of the coastal catchments and produce maps displaying the results of the surface and groundwater analyses. Specific project investigations also provided a detailed insight into local and regional salinity issues. The following section provides an overview of information availability.

2.1 HYDROGEOLOGY DATA

Groundwater salinity data were sourced from the TRITON water quality database maintained by DIPNR. All data were converted to consistent electrical conductivity units before use in the analysis. Where total dissolved solids (TDS) and corresponding EC data were available, EC (μ S.cm⁻¹) was used. Where necessary TDS data was converted to an equivalent electrical conductivity using a factor of 0.65. This conversion factor was the average value used in the database. While differences in water chemistry may require a range of conversion factors, the number of records with only TDS was a small proportion of the total sample size and results were statistically valid.

There was a considerable spread in the time of measurement for all records with some records extending back into the 1940s and others of very recent origin.

2.2 SURFACE HYDROLOGY DATA

Surface hydrology and salinity data for stream gauging stations across all basins was obtained from the DIPNR HYDSYS and TRITON databases. Total daily flows were obtained from HYDSYS and, where applicable, instantaneous flows were also obtained. Only discrete salinity samples were available for the coastal gauging stations examined. These were obtained from TRITON along with data on instantaneous flows. Where no instantaneous flow value was available from TRITON but a time of sampling was given, instantaneous flows were obtained from HYDSYS. Generated salt load time series were calculated from the complete observed daily flow time series obtained from HYDSYS.

There are both temporal and spatial gaps in the surface hydrology data. The status of gauging stations varies from long term monitoring sites to discontinued or recently established sites. Therefore, the time periods of the data analysed were not necessarily concurrent. Wherever possible stochastic relationships determined for discrete salt load and flow were applied to the period 1975 to 2000 to generate salt load time series. As flow data was often incomplete and rainfall-runoff modelling unavailable, it was not possible to augment the observed flow data and this limited the time series generated.

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2.3 GIS SPATIAL DATA

Spatial data were used to create derivative maps as well as for input into the spatial analysis of salinity hazard. All data layers are held by DIPNR Centre for Natural Resources (Queanbeyan, Wagga Wagga and Parramatta) or by GIS units in the DIPNR regional Offices (Newcastle, Wollongong and Grafton).

A Digital Elevation Model (DEM) with a 25 x 25 metre pixel resolution was available for the whole of the coast. The DEM was reviewed and anomalies such as drainage sinks removed. The DEM was used to produce derivative products using various modelling techniques including:

- FLAG model Wetness Index, Pressure Accumulation Index, Lowness Index and Plan Curvature Index
- FLAG model landform classes
- elevation bands
- slope classes
- catchment boundaries
- Compound Topographic Index (CTI).

A 'best' soils map was compiled from a combination of 1:100 000 scale soil landscape maps and 1:250 000 scale comprehensive resource assessment (CRA) mapping.

Geology mapping was used at two scales: the 1:9 000 000 Broad Atlas Geology and 1:250 000 (CRA) scale. The Groundwater Flow Systems map produced by BRS at a national scale (1:5 000 000) was used. ESOCLIM rainfall distribution maps were used both as raw input and to produce a derivative rainfall seasonality distribution map. The Agricultural Land Cover Change (ALCC) land-use layer was also obtained.

Salt outbreak mapping previously compiled for the National Land and Water Audit was used as the primary source of known extent of salinity. This was augmented with point data on soil salinity and sodicity from the DIPNR Soil and Land Information System (SALIS) database.

2.4 COASTAL BASINS NORTH OF THE HUNTER RIVER

2.4.1. Existing information

Bell (1997) noted some isolated and localised salinity around Grafton. Seven of the 13 sites noted were identified in Tenayr and South Grafton. However, this survey was based on visual assessment of a large area from a moving car and adjacent stream salinity measurements. Bell (1997) found that outbreaks of salinity were isolated, localised events, distributed across a small percentage of the study area. Most saline sites identified were on cleared land above the Grafton sandstone formation, which contains relatively saline water reserves.

Williams (1997) investigated salt scalds in a study area of 312 km^2 within the Richmond River Valley (Casino, Coraki, Rappville). He concluded that 'preliminary investigations indicate there are considerable areas with potential for salinity problems to occur; however, further work is required to validate these findings'. A salinity hazard map based on overlaying 'depth to watertable', aquifer salinity and Sodium Adsorption Ratio was produced for the study area. Page (1997) continued this work; however, while some fieldwork was included, references were mainly based on existing agency pamphlets.

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Rumpf and Bradd (1997) noted 'the potential for land salinisation to occur on the lower slopes of the Tweed and Brunswick catchments', and recommended that a dryland salinity hazard map be produced. Some minor land salinisation occurs on the tablelands. Eighty-two saline/alkaline sites were located from a landholder survey in the Uralla, Wollun and Walcha districts (Murray 1996). However, no further information was found about this survey.

2.4.2. Water quality

Surface water quality monitoring in the North Coast commenced in the 1970s with DWR (EPA, 1996) monitoring for EC, pH and turbidity linked with the river gauging program. The EPA also conducted water quality monitoring in the 1980s (Williams 1987a-h), but this was focused on the lower river reaches. Results from both the DWR and EPA programs were summarised, as averages, by the EPA (1996).

The statewide Key Sites monitoring program commenced in 1992 to assess trends in salinity, turbidity and total phosphorus (Preece 1998) and includes ten sites located within North Coast basins. Over the period 1992–97, salinity levels (not adjusted for flow) appeared to decline at two sites, increase at three sites, with no trend being apparent for the other sites. When allowance was made for changing flow conditions over this five-year period, one site (the Nambucca River) showed a declining EC trend, while two sites (the Richmond River downstream of Casino, and the Bellinger River at Thora) appeared to increase. The remainder had no significant trend. However, rising trends in the Bellinger River at Thora do not appear to be associated with any land-use change ($P \& M$ Rongen pers. comm. 2002) and therefore are likely to represent a short-term climatic response.

Further assessment of salinity trends by Morton and Henderson (2002) over a nine-year record found that salinity decreased at two sites and increased at one site, with no trend apparent at the other sites.

Continuous EC monitoring has recently been installed on the Orara River at Karangi, and on the Nymboida River at Nymboida (Parsons, pers. comm. 2002) and results can be used to assess shortterm variability in salinity, and flow-salinity relationships.

2.4.3. Hydrogeology

Approximately 9400 bores were listed in the DIPNR groundwater database for the North Coast basins. Of these, only 932 bores had corresponding salinity records in the TRITON water quality database, and the majority of these bores have only a single EC value recorded. Multiple time series records exist for only a limited number of bores. After extracting duplicate records there were 2042 data records available for the North Coast basins.

Drury (1982) conducted extensive investigations in the Richmond Valley, though this was mainly to look for water supply sites. This included a summary of all bores, wells, spearpoints and excavations located in the Richmond River Valley. The report also describes results of aquifer evaluation and groundwater chemical analysis (cations and anions). It also includes useful information on geology, regional groundwater flow systems within the river alluvium, and groundwater chemistry. The stratigraphic cross-sections across the Richmond Valley with aquifers, piezometer and bore locations are particularly useful in assessing salinity hazard and reclamation measures.

Lytton (1995) noted that while some geological information was available (in the Richmond Valley and the Alstonville Plateau), 'preliminary assessment revealed critical data deficiencies in some areas'.

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McKibben (1995) reviewed groundwater information for the Tweed, Brunswick, Richmond and Clarence Rivers. The main aim of this work was to quantify the groundwater resource but the review can also be used to assess salinity hazard. He found 'no evidence of regional watertable use causing adverse impacts such as dryland salinisation, notwithstanding that localised areas of this form of land degradation have been recorded.' He also estimated a total annual recharge of 1.7 million ML for these valleys (based on a simple water balance approach) as well as noting the occurrence of better quality groundwater on coastal sand beds, fluviatile alluvium and Tertiary basalts.

Useful outputs from McKibben (1995) include a major aquifer map (1:250 000), available on DIPNR GIS, summary sheets for each aquifer (which include an estimate of recharge/discharge) and a summary of salinity levels for main aquifer systems and localities.

Rumpf et al. (1998) produced groundwater vulnerability maps for the Richmond Catchment and his report details methodology including the weighting and ranking used. GIS layers are available and could be further developed for salinity hazard mapping or recharge assessment. The Groundwater Vulnerability mapping GIS layers complement information available from the Northern Comprehensive Regional Assessment (CRA) project.

In the Hunter, 1065 bores were listed in TRITON with EC data, out of approximately 6700 bores listed in the Groundwater Database.

Other hydrologic investigations have mainly focused on water supply. These include examination of potential groundwater supplies in the Wauchope area (WCIC 1974), assessment of groundwater supply in the Alstonville Plateau (DWR 1987) and the Lower Manning River Hydrogeological investigation (Gates 1978).

Other information sources include CSIRO work such as Walker (1961), who conducted a limited survey of shallow watertables in the Kempsey District in 1959 (a wet year) and 1960. However, this work focused on the lower river reaches, where acid sulfate soils present more of an issue.

2.4.4. GIS data sources

GIS data on soils, vegetation and cadastral information was available from NCRIU (2001). The northeastern CRA project (NSW Government 1999a, b) collated a range of information that was based largely on 1:100 000 topographic maps and 1:100 000 soil landscape mapping. The products include maps of effective rooting depth and estimated plant available water-holding capacity, which can be adapted for further modelling at the regional scale.

2.5 COASTAL BASINS SOUTH OF THE HUNTER RIVER

2.5.1. Existing information

A number of reports, detailing specific instances of salinity, were located following discussion with local and regional staff. Smith (undated) notes that about 700 ha are salt affected in the Upper Nepean/Wollondilly catchment, and urban salinity has been noted at some locations in Goulburn (McGhie pers. comm. 2002). Armstrong (1997) noted that Millend Springs had a history of dryland salinisation from 1941, with continuous scalds along the main creek-line observed in 1967 and 24 ha affected by 1974. This area had expanded to 35–40 ha (10 ha severely scalded) by 1985. This site has been extensively monitored since 1990, with monthly groundwater monitoring and six monthly salinity assessment.

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Grant (1999) reported localised salting in the Braidwood locality and Norman (1999) noted that Landcare groups (including Braidwood Urban, Bombay, Mongarlowe Urban and Windellama Urban) have also had limited involvement in Streamwatch. The stressed rivers reports (DLWC 1999a to f) assessed four sub-catchments (Boro Ck, Braidwood Ck, Bungonia Ck and Nerriming Ck) as 'high stress' due to salinisation and the Mangarlowe River as 'moderate' salinity stress. However, the Independent Inquiry into the Shoalhaven River System (HRC 1999a, b) did not rate salinity as an issue in the Shoalhaven.

Laffin (undated) used the FLAG model and geological information to assess the salinity hazard of the Upper Snowy Catchment. He concluded there was a limited salinity threat around Bombala, but for most of the catchment there was a low risk of salinisation.

There is some minor salting around Moruya (but this may be more associated with acid sulfate soils) and salinisation is not an issue in the Nowra District (Zarrafa pers. comm. 2002), apart from minor outbreaks west and south of Nowra.

Jenkins (1996) mentions salinity as a soil limitation for a number of soil landscapes in the Braidwood area and Talau (1994) mentions salinity as a soil limitation for the Schofields Creek and Slacks Creek soil landscapes on the Cooma map sheet.

2.5.2. Water quality

Surface water quality monitoring in areas south of the Hunter River commenced in 1968 with field testing (EC, pH and temperature) by hydrographers during routine gauging every 8–10 weeks (Clark 1996; Jain 1999). This data was stored in HYDSYS, though it is now also in TRITON. Clark (1996) assessed eight sites and provided a starting point for salinity trend analysis. The statewide Key Sites monitoring program commenced in 1992 to assess trends in salinity, turbidity and total phosphorus (Preece 1998) with nine sites located in areas south of the Hunter River. Over the period 1992–97, four sites showed a declining EC trend, with no trend being apparent for the other five sites. When allowance was made for changing flow conditions over this five year period, five sites showed a declining EC trend, with two sites having no significant trend and a further two sites not analysed due to a poor flow-salinity relationship. Trends are currently being reassessed over the nine-year record by CSIRO (Morton & Henderson 2002).

Gippel (1997) noted that there were no consistent or meaningful trends in EC in the Bega Valley, and the Independent Inquiry into the Bega River (HRC 2000) and the Shoalhaven (HRC 1999a, b) also did not rate salinity as an issue.

Turner et al. (1996) describe some 'snapshot' water quality monitoring undertaken across the Towamba catchment for 103 sites stratified on geology and land-use, with each site sampled six times over a four-day period. A similar approach was applied to the Bega valley, where 175 sampling points were each sampled three times at 12-hourly intervals by 50 trained volunteers during the week of 11 August 1997 (Turner et al. 1998). It was found that EC was largely related to land-use but that overall, salinity was not an issue.

Boey and Jones (1992) reviewed EC data for the period 1970–90 for the Shoalhaven catchment. They summarised the previous water quality data and found 'no statistically significant long-term trends were detected for any indicator. Uncontrolled data collection resulting in irregular sampling frequency and a paucity of records for many sites has made analysis for trends inconclusive…' (p50). They concluded that there were 'no significant long-term trends in conductivity at any site' (p16). Their report includes EC time series plots for all monitored stations. Continuous EC monitoring has only

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recently been installed at six sites across the region (Jain 1999) and results can be used to assess shortterm variability in salinity and flow-salinity relationships.

2.5.3. Groundwater

The DIPNR groundwater database for Sydney South Coast basins indicated that the majority of bores had only single EC records. Of the approximately 9400 bores listed on the Groundwater Data System there are 1018 corresponding bores in TRITON with EC data and 3536 data records available for analysis.

McKibbin and Little (1994) provide a generalised geology overview for the region that is also documented in the CRA report (NSW 1999). Few regional groundwater reconnaissance surveys have been conducted for the Sydney South Coast basin (Russell 2001). Some sporadic monitoring was available, mainly around Bega for seven sites associated with town water supply bores (Jain 1999) and Araluen (nine sites).

Sundararamayya (1983) provides an overview of geology and hydrogeology in the Bega Valley, but focuses on the Bega town water supply. The survey of upland wetlands in the Bega Valley (Green 1999) may be useful in identifying how groundwater seepage sites have changed over time (a map is included in the report).

2.5.4. GIS data sources

Bradd (undated) has prepared a number of GIS layers (ArcView®) for Groundwater Vulnerability mapping in the Bega Catchment. Rumpf et al. (1998) have also completed Groundwater Vulnerability mapping in the Hawkesbury-Nepean Catchment. The accompanying report to Rumpf et al. (1998) details the DRASTIC approach used, and outlines the weightings and rankings used for the Hawkesbury-Nepean. GIS layers are available and could be further developed for salinity hazard mapping or recharge assessment. Krummins et al. (1997) provide additional information on groundwater availability in the Hawkesbury-Nepean Catchment. The Groundwater Vulnerability mapping GIS layers complement information available from the Southern Comprehensive Regional Assessment (CRA) project.

3. Methodology

The 1999 Murray-Darling Basin audit was able to draw on extensive groundwater and surface water information that allowed estimation of groundwater, surface water and salt flux trends. The second audit in the series on the Hunter valley (Beale et al. 2001) was also able to source groundwater and surface water information. Ideally the information for all audits should be comparable. However, lack of detailed salinity and groundwater information for the remainder of the coastal regions prevented the use of a similar methodology for this audit. A modified approach was therefore needed for the coastal areas and an increased emphasis on stochastic modelling of stream water quality and hazard mapping was required.

In the previous audits the time period of 1975 to 1995 was chosen as the base climatic period covered by the analysis. Wherever possible salt load time series have also been generated over the 1975 to 1995 period for this audit. However, because the data are incomplete for North and Sydney South Coast catchments, modelling had to be carried out regardless of temporal data constraints.

The methodology adopted for this study falls into three separate categories:

- Surface water quality analysis
- Salinity hazard mapping
- Groundwater salinity analysis.

3.1 SURFACE WATER QUALITY ANALYSIS

Varying amounts of stream salinity data are available both spatially and temporally for the river basins of the NSW coast. Stream salinity data consist only of discrete EC samples. While continuous EC flow monitors have recently (within the last three years) been installed at some sites on the North and South Coast, for consistency no continuous flow and EC measurements were used in this analysis.

Only streams outside the previous Hunter Audit study area have been analysed in this audit. These include the Karuah, Manning and Lake Macquarie and Tuggerah Lake basins in the Hunter basin as well as all river basins in the Sydney South Coast and North Coast basins.

Relationships between flow and EC, and flow and salt load were established for data at each gauging station. The measurement time was used to extract an instantaneous flow from HYDSYS and used regardless of its quality code. Where no instantaneous flow could be attached to the discrete EC samples, a mean daily flow was used. Linear and log-linear relationships with or without a fast Fourier transformation seasonal component were tested according to the methodology used by Beale et al. (2000) in the Murray-Darling Basin Salinity Audit. The regression model that best represented the data was chosen to generate a stochastically modelled daily salt load or daily EC time series for all available observed daily flows.

For all gauging stations where sufficient flow data and a stochastic model were available salt loads were generated as a daily time series. This was achieved by applying regression relationships for discrete flow and EC data to the available daily time series. Stations varied in the amount and time period for which daily flow data were available. As modelled flows were not available from rainfall / runoff models such as the Sacramento Model to fill gaps in the observed record, it was not possible to produce a uniform generation period for comparison as was done in previous audits (Beale et al. 2000 and Beale et al. 2001).

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The statistical structure of the generated salinity time series was presented as a means of direct comparison with the EC ranges reported in the two previous audits (Beale et al. 2001 and Beale et al. 2000). Comparison was also made with the statistical structure of the observed EC data to ensure that the modelled data remained similar to the observed. Departures between the modelled and observed are to be expected as exceedance probabilities of modelled salinities are bound to the observed flow regime.

3.2 SALINITY MAPPING

This audit developed a methodology for salinity hazard mapping for the coastal zone of NSW. However, due to data constraints these maps did not create an accurate picture of salinity hazard across the whole of the study area and the draft salinity hazard maps have not been published.

There has been limited salinity outbreak mapping in the coastal catchment. For example, there was anecdotal evidence that salinity scalds have been identified in the Walcha area for many years but these have not been mapped. Salinity was noted in conjunction with active gully erosion in sodic landscapes during soil landscape mapping of the Braidwood sheet (B. Jenkins pers. comm. 2002). However, the areas formed a very small percentage of the soil landscapes and no soil profile data was collected or saline sites mapped. Some saline discharge sites occur naturally; however, salinity outbreaks are also the result of poor or inappropriate land management practices. Strong linkages may exist between land and stream salinisation effects and these can interact with each another.

The intent of the salinity hazard mapping methodology was to extrapolate from known salinity outbreaks to potential areas where salinity 'may' exist or become a problem in the future. The aim was to aid further investigation of salinity rather than to define specifically where salinity 'will' occur. For example, proximity to a high hazard should be a criterion for further investigation.

A two-fold methodology was adopted:

- First, the Fuzzy Landscapes Analysis GIS (FLAG) model (Roberts et al. 1997 and Dowling 2000) was used to analyse the salinity and waterlogging hazard due solely to topography. The FLAG wetness index was used as an independent indicator of waterlogging in this work. This index is a composite of the Upness or pressure accumulation index and the Lowness index (low points in the landscape where discharge may occur if there is sufficient pressure accumulation). However, the wetness index on its own does not distinguish between areas that may be prone to waterlogging and those that are also prone to salinisation. Other factors such as geology and soil type affect whether groundwater discharge to the land surface is saline or fresh. Summerell et al. (2003) provides further detail on the interpretation of FLAG modelling results.
- Second, a weights-of-evidence salinity hazard map was constructed from various data layers as described below. These products were merged to produce the draft hazard map.

3.2.1. The weights-of-evidence approach

The method requires an evidence map (i.e. known salinity sites) be compared to a number of predictive layer maps. The predictive layer maps chosen for this exercise are presented in Table 1. A probability was calculated for each combination of attributes from all predictive layers based on the number of mapped salinity hits for each combination. Several layers of varying scale were used as input to this hazard mapping exercise. The option to include land use as a predictive hazard layer was explored but later rejected.

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Vector layers were rasterised to 100 m grid cell size. Raster layers that were sourced at a resolution lower than 100 m were re-sampled to 100 m using a bilinear interpolation method for continuous data (i.e. rainfall, elevation and derivatives of elevation) and nearest neighbour for categorised data (i.e. landform and geology). A more detailed description of the method can be found in Bonham-Carter (1994).

Predictive layers.

Atlas Geology: Geology classes in this layer were used without any modifications.

Land-use: This layer was reclassified into the following 3 classes:

- woody (consisting of *native woody*, *plantation*, *orchard* and *unknown*)
- non-woody vegetation (consisting of crop and pasture)
- other (consisting of urban, bare, water) 100 m.

Elevation: The 25 m DEM was re-sampled to 100 m and reclassified to classes of 100 m width (values ranged 0–2223 m).

Rainfall: Monthly ESOCLIM surfaces generated from the 9 second DEM (ranged from 47^{1–} 2848 mm). This 9-second data was bilinearly re-sampled to 100 m and then reclassified into 100 mm band widths.

Rainfall seasonality: The seasonality was calculated as the proportion of annual rainfall falling during the winter months of June, July and August, from the monthly ESOCLIM surfaces, and was then broken up into classes of 10% width.

Landform: Four landform classes were calculated by dividing the cumulative distribution function of the FLAG Upness Index at the points of inflection. Pixel sets from the DEM at 25 m were re-sampled to the nearest 100 m.

Sodic soil landscapes: A best soils map for the coast was constructed by the DIPNR Natural Resource Information Systems group by combining all published, and also late draft, soil landscape maps at 1:100 000 scale with CRA maps at 1: 250 000 scale. Sodic soil landscapes were identified by reference to the published data and by interrogation of the SALIS database for sodic soil profiles. As soil landscapes encompass a catena of soil types within a landscape the FLAG derived landform boundaries were used to further define areas of sodic soils to the colluvial and depositional landforms.

Evidence layer

Salinity: Salt outbreak mapping from the National Land and Water Audit (NLWRA) in the vector form (i.e. polygons) was converted to raster form by applying a 100 m grid over the layer. Where any part of a salinity polygon existed in a cell, the cell value was coded as saline. This was combined with SALIS point data for any soil site recorded with salinity greater than 2 dS.cm⁻¹. SALIS data was grided in the same way (where a point existed in a cell location the cell was given a saline code).

Combination

These layers and their associated information were combined into a single layer. An identifier for combinations of layers was then generated and the proportion of salinised cells in each zone was computed. This was then applied back to the grid to provide a salinity hazard reading for the zone between 0–1 (i.e. 1 means that all cells within a zone were saline and 0 is non-saline).

The final draft hazard map merged the weights of evidence map with the FLAG wetness index to show on a scale of 0 to 1 the probability that areas predicted as prone to waterlogging (FLAG component) were also saline.

3.3 GROUNDWATER SALINITY ANALYSIS

The aim of the groundwater analysis was simply to identify the availability of data and give an indication of the spatial location of groundwaters of varying salinity. All bore salinity data obtained from the TRITON water quality database were cross-referenced with bore location details obtained from the DIPNR groundwater database. The polygons of the 1:250 000 geology coverage were used to assign bores to a definable area upon which they could be grouped. Where an individual bore had multiple readings a single average value of EC was obtained. Where there was more than one bore in a geology polygon the average EC for all bores within the polygon was calculated. Polygons were grouped into discrete salinity bands representing the range of average EC and mapped for each basin.

4. Results

The results are summarised as stream salinity (modelled using stochastic relationships between flow and salt load) and stream salt loads (generated as a daily time series by applying regression relationships for discrete flow and EC data). A review of the salinity hazard mapping (using a GIS approach) results is also presented.

4.1 SURFACE WATER SALINITY

Stream salinity was modelled using stochastic relationships between flow and salt load to produce a daily time series of salt concentration for all gauging stations where sufficient daily flow and a regression relationship was available. Average, median and 80th percentile non-exceedance values for daily EC $(\mu S.cm^{-1})$ were calculated only for those days on which flow was recorded. Days for which zero flows were recorded and days for which there was missing flow data were excluded from the analysis. Stations vary in the amount and time period for which daily flow data were available. The period for which EC values have been generated and the number of data points available are shown in Appendices 1 to 20. Modelled salinity data were used rather than observed data to extend the analysis over the maximum possible flow record and obtain a better understanding of the variability within streams. Care was taken to preserve the range of modelled EC within reasonable bounds consistent with the observed data

The stochastic relationships between flow and EC derived in this work were assumed to be stationary and independent of climatic or land-use change, or increased water abstraction. Considering the short period of data availability and the paucity of information this was a reasonable, though expedient, assumption.

Threshold salinity values of 800 μ S.cm⁻¹ and 1600 μ S.cm⁻¹ were used in previous audits as benchmarks for water quality assessment. They represent the maximum desirable water standard set by the World Health Organisation for human consumption $(800 \mu S.cm^{-1})$ and a threshold at which adverse environmental changes can be expected $(1600 \text{ µS} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1})$. Predictions of possible changes to the current salinity regime were not feasible and therefore the environmental effects of such a stress could not be assessed. In general, though, the 800 μ S.cm⁻¹ threshold was exceeded in very few tributaries on the coast and the higher threshold was approached by South Creek and exceeded only in the Capertee River in the Hawkesbury Basin during base flows.

Overall, stream salinity does not present a water quality problem on the coast outside the Hunter. All of the tributaries and mainstream reaches analysed in the Hunter audit (Beale et al. 2001) had median salinities greater than 400 μ S.cm⁻¹. By comparison, for the 193 streams that could be analysed for the rest of the coast, only 15 had median ECs greater than $400 \mu S.cm^{-1}$ and only 4 were greater than 800 uS.cm⁻¹ (namely the Capertee River and South Creek, Toongabbie Creek and Shannon Brook). It should be noted that for a significant number of coastal catchments there were no data (Figures 2 to 7).

This audit does not differentiate between the types of salt that may be in the stream. Electrical conductivity measurements, which form the basis of this analysis, do not discern between salt types. The form of the salt can determine the nature of water quality problems. For example, Bungonia Creek (215014) in the Shoalhaven basin appears to have relatively high salinity. However, the dominant salts were mainly calcium carbonate or bicarbonates and these have less agricultural significance than sodium chloride. Management of saline sites should be tailored to the composition of the salts present. For example, sulphate salts (common in the western Sydney area) are particularly corrosive to concrete. Differences between salt types can only be addressed through more detailed sampling.

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Figure 3. 80th percentile (non-exceedance) salinity range (EC) for stochastically modelled catchments in North Coast river basins

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Figure 4. Median salinity range (EC) for stochastically modelled catchments in additional Hunter River basins

Figure 5. 80th percentile (non-exceedance) salinity range (EC) for stochastically modelled catchments in additional Hunter River basins

Figure 6. Median salinity range (EC) for stochastically modelled catchments in Sydney South Coast river basins

Figure 7. 80th percentile (non-exceedance) salinity range (EC) for stochastically modelled catchments in Sydney South Coast river basins

4.2 INSTREAM SALT LOAD

Appendices 1 to 20 report average annual salt load $(t.yr^{-1})$ for stations in each basin (e.g. Table 8, Appendix 2) and average annual salt load per unit source area $(t. \text{ km}^2 \text{ y}^{-1})$ for stations in each basin (e.g. Figure 22, Appendix 2). These give an indication of the relative contribution of the drained areas as a salt source. However, for each basin, years with missing days were excluded from the analysis

and stations vary in the time period for which data was available. Therefore, the averages reported will not be directly comparable if they represent the outcomes of different climatic periods. The number of full years for which annual statistics were compiled and the period of record are given in Appendices 1 to 20 (e.g. Table 8, Appendix 2).

Appendices 1 to 20 include tables showing the proportion of each land-use category (woody, crop/pasture or other) for each of the tributary catchments modelled for salinity and salt load by basin. The land-use of the area not included in the stream analysis is also shown as the last entry in the table (e.g. Table 9, Appendix 2). There was no consistent relationship between land-use and salt load from the catchments modelled indicating that other factors such as geology, topography and climate are much more significant determinants of relative salt export and stream salinity.

4.3 SUMMARY OF REGIONAL GROUNDWATER SALINITY INFORMATION

The location of groundwater bores in the North Coast, Hunter and Sydney South Coast basins respectively are shown in Figures 8 to 10 and highlight the large areas for which there was no data. Groundwater salinity EC (μ S.cm⁻¹) from the TRITON bore data was apportioned to geology and maps for the North Coast, Hunter and Sydney South Coast catchments respectively, and is presented in Figures 11 to 13.

4.3.1. North Coast basins

Tweed basin

High salt load (60 t.km⁻².y⁻¹) drains an area with at least one geology of apparently moderate groundwater salinity $(800-3000 \mu S.cm^{-1})$.

Brunswick basin

High stream salt load (50 t.km⁻².y⁻¹) drains an area with apparently fresh groundwater (48–350 µS.cm⁻ $\left(\frac{1}{2} \right)$.

Richmond basin

Many streams in this basin show high salt loads (> 20 t.km⁻².y⁻¹) corresponding to geologies with moderate to high groundwater salinities (Figure 24). Shannon Brook above Yorklea produces 69 t.km⁻².y⁻¹ and was one of the few streams classed as having a water quality problem from this analysis. It drains an area dominated by geology with an apparent groundwater salinity of 3000–5500 μ S.cm⁻¹. The Richmond River above Casino produces 24 t.km⁻².y⁻¹ draining geologies in the 800–3000 μ S.cm⁻¹ and 3000–5500 μ S.cm⁻¹ ranges. The Richmond River above Wiangaree delivers 54 t.km⁻².y⁻¹ from an area dominated by geology with groundwater salinity of $3000-5500 \mu S.cm^{-1}$. However, the Wilson River above Eltham drains an area dominated by geology with apparently fresh groundwater $(48-350 \mu S.cm^{-1})$ but traverses minor areas of moderate salinity $(800-3,000 \,\mu\text{S} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1})$. It produces 51 t.km⁻².y⁻¹ in salt load indicating that minor geological components can dominate stream salt load. A similar case was found for Terania Creek above Keerong and the Leycester River above Rock Valley.

Clarence basin

For most of the Clarence basin there was no groundwater salinity / geology information (Figure 28). High salt loads in the Tooloom Creek (204050), Washpool Creek (204054), Peacock Creek (204043)

and Gorge Creek (204044) correspond with geologies of moderate to high groundwater salinities. However, other catchments exporting high levels of salt such as the Orara River have no corresponding groundwater salinity data. Hazard areas identified in the hazard mapping process mainly correspond to areas where there was no data except for the area immediately around Grafton where very high (5500–7100 μ S.cm⁻¹) and extreme (7,100–26,000 μ S.cm⁻¹) groundwater salinities are assigned to the geology.

In this case hazard was more likely to be associated with acid sulfate soils landscapes than the features normally described as dryland salinity. Although the two forms do exist side by side, dryland salinity as such is of little consequence by comparison with the magnitude of the acid sulfate soil / flood plain system problem in this area.

Bellinger basin

Groundwater salinities for the Bellinger basin (Figure 32) appear for the most part to be fresh $(48-350 \mu S.cm^{-1})$ to slightly saline $(350-800 \mu S.cm^{-1})$ although all streams analysed export 20 t.km⁻² y⁻¹ or more salt load. Very high loads coming from the Nambucca River above Bowraville (91 t.km⁻².y⁻¹) are associated with apparently fresh groundwater while Warrell Creek also has high salt loads $(44 \text{ t.km}^2 \text{y}^1)$ draining an area including a geology of moderate groundwater salinity $(800-3000 \,\mu\text{S} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1})$. The resolution of the groundwater salinity data must therefore be in question.
Macleay basin

For most of the Macleay basin there was no groundwater/geology data (Figure 36). Of the streams analysed in this basin, only Serpentine Creek carried a salt load greater than 20 t.km⁻².y⁻¹. This was from an area with no groundwater salinity data. The area in the headwaters of the catchment near Armidale show slightly elevated levels of stream salinity as compared to the remainder of the catchment, but carry only relatively low to moderate salt loads from a geological area shown as having moderate groundwater salinities.

Hastings basin

There was no extrapolated groundwater salinity data for most of this basin (Figure 40).

4.3.2. Hunter basins

Manning basin

Most of the Manning basin has no groundwater salinity data (Figure 44). Stream salinities overall are low but the majority of the tributaries carry relatively high salt loads.

Karuah basin

The availability of groundwater salinity data was patchy in this basin and absent for most of its area (Figure 48). All streams analysed had relatively high salt loads $(20-31 \text{ t.km}^{-2} \text{y}^{-1})$. The Wang Wauk River above Willina drains an area with no groundwater salinity data but was one of the few streams with a water quality issue (80th percentile salinity $> 800 \mu S.cm^{-1}$) and exports 31 t.km⁻².y⁻¹. Hazard areas identified in this basin, particularly between Nabiac and Taree, are more representative of acid sulfate soil landscapes than dryland salinity per se, and are underlain by groundwaters of moderate to high salinity.

Lake Macquarie and Tuggerah Lake basin

Most of this catchment is underlain by geology of apparently moderate groundwater salinity (Figure 52). All streams analysed drain this area. Cox's Creek above Bathurst Rd exceeds 1000 μ S.cm⁻¹ for 20% of the time and carries 59 t.km⁻².y⁻¹. The remaining streams, although generally fresh, also carry high to very high salt loads $(18-57 \text{ t.km}^{-2} \text{·y}^{-1})$. No hazard was identified, however, for this basin.

Figure 9. Location of groundwater bores for Hunter catchments

4.3.3. Sydney South Coast basins

Hawkesbury basin

Only approximately 22% of this basin was modelled in the stream analysis. For most of the basin, extrapolated groundwater salinity/geology information is available (Figure 56). Higher salinity $(3000-5500 \mu S.cm^{-1})$ groundwater underlies areas in western Sydney, the Capertee valley and near Goulburn and these areas were highlighted by the hazard methodology. These geologies also correspond with high median stream salinities and relatively high salt loads in the Capertee River $(1300 \text{ EC and } 23 \text{ t} \cdot \text{km}^{-2} \cdot \text{y}^{-1})$ and South Creek $(1200 \mu \text{S} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1})$ and $28 \text{ t} \cdot \text{km}^{-2} \cdot \text{y}^{-1})$. The remaining streams modelled mostly drain areas with low groundwater salinities $(800-3000 \mu S.cm^{-1})$ but generally have low to moderate salt loads $(3-19 \text{ t.km}^2 \text{ y}^1)$ and are generally fresh.

Sydney basin

Figure 60 shows the central and western parts of the Sydney basin are underlain by geology of high groundwater salinity (3000–5500 μ S.cm⁻¹) corresponding to areas of high hazard. Very high to extreme salt loads are associated with Fishers Ghost Creek, Toongabbie Creek and the estuarine Parramatta River draining this geology (72, 181 and 129 t.km⁻².y^{-T} respectively). Toongabbie Creek also has a median salinity greater than 800 μ S.cm⁻¹. Moderate groundwater salinities are located in the

southern portion of the basin where O'Hare Creek produces 20 t.km⁻².y⁻¹ but no hazard was highlighted by the hazard methodology.

Wollongong basin

Groundwater salinity data was only extrapolated for approximately half of this basin (Figure 64). The hazard methodology did not predict any salinity hazard in this basin. However, moderately saline $(800-3000 \,\mu\text{S.cm}^{-1})$ and highly saline $(3000-5500 \,\mu\text{S.cm}^{-1})$ groundwater dominates. Only one stream (Macquarie Rivulet) occupying approximately 4% of the basin was covered by the stream analysis. This stream produces 32 t.km⁻².y⁻¹ salt load from a part of the catchment apparently underlain at least in part by geology with moderate groundwater salinity.

Shoalhaven basin

The availability of groundwater salinity data was patchy in this basin and absent for the majority of its area (Figure 68). Areas of high salinity groundwater are noted in the headwaters east of Lake Bathurst and south of Nowra. Stream analysis in the Shoalhaven was limited to headwater streams where for the most part no groundwater salinity data was extrapolated. Bungonia Creek has 80th percentile (non-exceedance) stream salinity greater than 800 μ S.cm⁻¹ but exports only 11 t.km⁻².y⁻¹ in salt load from an area with apparently moderate groundwater salinity $(800-3000 \,\mu\text{S.cm}^{-1})$. The fresh Mongarlowe River carries 26 t.km⁻².y⁻¹ salt load from an area with no extrapolated groundwater salinity. Dryland salinity in this catchment was only minimally predicted by the hazard mapping process but known salinity outbreaks have been mapped for this area. By contrast, the Shoalhaven catchment above Kado produces 13 t.km⁻².y⁻¹ salt load. Large areas of high hazard were identified for this area where only small outbreaks are currently known.

Clyde basin

Streams analysed in the Clyde basin occupy only 33% of the basin. However, they mainly drain areas with moderate extrapolated groundwater salinity of 800–3000 μ S.cm⁻¹ (Figure 72) and produce salt loads of 22–37 t.km⁻².y⁻¹. Small areas of high hazard were identified for these streams but there was no current evidence of salt outbreaks.

Moruya basin

Approximately 82% of the basin has been analysed for salt load in two streams, both carrying 22 t.km⁻² y⁻¹. Figure 76 shows that only a very small part of this area has extrapolated groundwater salinity data with high values (3000–5500 μ S.cm⁻¹). A small area of very high extrapolated groundwater salinity $(5500-7100 \mu S.cm^{-1})$ was located in the lower catchment outside the stream analysis area but this is not apparently associated with any identified hazard or any known outbreaks. Hazard was identified in the mid-basin but was discounted by expert opinion due to soil type (M. Talau pers. comm. 2002). The salt load analysis, however, suggests that the Deva River has significant salt stores.

Tuross basin

Approximately 74% of the basin has been analysed for stream salt load. TheYowri River and Wandella Creek carry 19 and 17 t.km⁻².y⁻¹ respectively while the remaining tributaries carry $9-11$ t.km⁻².y⁻¹. This area partially coincides with extrapolated groundwater salinities (Figure 80). The majority of hazard identified for this basin also coincides with this area of apparent high salinity groundwater. However, this high hazard zone was discounted (M. Talau pers. comm. 2002) due to soil type and lack of physical evidence of outbreaks.

Bega basin

Ten of the tributaries analysed for salt load in this basin export from $20-30$ t.km⁻².y⁻¹. Extrapolated groundwater salinity data is available for only about 60% of the basin (Figure 84). Of the area covered by the stream analysis, only approximately half has corresponding groundwater information. The groundwater salinities were predominantly of moderate salinity but these also drain areas underlain by apparently low salinity groundwater where the Tantawangalo River salt loads are 20 t. $km^{-2}y^{-1}$. In the northern part of the basin, geology with high salinity groundwater $(3000-5500 \text{ µS.cm}^{-1})$ is drained by Nutleys Creek, which produces 16 t.km⁻².y⁻¹. The nearby Narira River drains an area underlain by geology of only moderate groundwater salinity but produces 30 t.km⁻² y⁻¹ salt load. The Narira River was also one of the few streams where salinity exceeds $800 \mu S.cm^{-1}$ during low flows.

Towamba basin

Several streams analysed in this basin have high to very high salt loads. Merimbula Creek at Merimbula produces 75 t.km⁻².y⁻¹ salt load from an area apparently underlain by groundwater with low salinity. Merrica Creek at Nadgee produces 33 t.km⁻².y⁻¹ salt load from an area with no groundwater data. An increase in salt load in the Towamba River between New Building Bridge and Towamba corresponds with high groundwater salinity $(3000-5500 \mu S.cm^{-1})$ in the Myrtle Creek catchment. Quite extensive areas of hazard were identified for the Pambula River which produces 19 t.km⁻².y⁻¹ salt load, but draining an area of apparently low groundwater salinity. Hazard was also identified in the Merimbula Creek and Merrica River.

East Gippsland basin

There was no extrapolated groundwater salinity data for this basin. Streams analysed in the basin produce from 9–13 t.km⁻².y⁻¹ salt load. Only small patches of high hazard were identified, mainly in the Genoa River catchment, which produces 9 t.km⁻².y⁻¹ salt load.

Snowy basin

There was no extrapolated groundwater salinity data for the majority of this basin. Very little hazard at all was identified for the basin. Salt loads in the Snowy basin streams range from very low $(3 \text{ t.km}^{-2} \text{.y}^{-1})$ to moderate $(15 \text{ t.km}^{-2} \text{.y}^{-1})$.

Figure 11. North Coast catchments EC from TRITON bore data apportioned to geology

Figure 12. Hunter catchments EC from TRITON bore data apportioned to geology

Figure 13. Sydney South Coast catchments EC from TRITON bore data apportioned to geology

5. Discussion of coastal salinity

Differences in structural features of coastal catchments compared to inland catchments of the Murray-Darling Basin result in different salinity processes in terms of both physical processes and interaction with human development.

Drainage patterns are generally different, often with large hydraulic gradients and short flow paths due to topography and proximity to the sea, although considerable variation was apparent between basins (Appendix 21).

- Land-use is generally dominated by vegetation in rural hinterland areas while urbanisation and industrial development are more prominent and concentrated on the coastal strip. Industrial and urban development may increase the salt load generated from the tributary catchments examined in this audit more so than rural land-uses. However, overall there was no consistent relationship between land-use and salinity demonstrated in this audit. This indicates that other factors such as geology, topography and climate are currently much more significant determinants of relative salt export and stream salinity. These factors, plus proximity to the coast, influence source-sink relationships in the deposition, wash off and storage of cyclic salt in the landscape.
- Significant areas of the coast are formed over geologies of marine and estuarine origin, which contain high levels of connate salt.
- Cumulative salt loads in stream networks are often less significant than the stream salinity within a particular reach, particularly in an estuarine environment. The scale of the effects on downstream users is not comparable with those experienced in the Murray-Darling Basin.
- On the coastal zone, infrastructure associated with urbanisation rather than agricultural production was generally more economically important. This has a significant impact on any economic analysis of salinity in coastal regions.
- Acid sulfate soils, which represent a particular form of salinisation, occur more widely on the coast than on inland areas.
- Parna (wind blown clay soil deposits derived from Australia's salty interior) are a major source of salt in the Murray-Darling Basin but are rare on the coast, although there may be some intermixing around the main Snowy Range (Chapman pers. comm. 2002). On the other hand, distance from the coastline and its impact on rates of cyclic salt deposition, was a consideration for coastal catchments. Sodium deposition rates of more than 45 kg.ha^{-1} .yr⁻¹ have been noted on the far Sydney south coast, $20-25$ kg.ha⁻¹.yr⁻¹ 20 km inland, and less than 15 kg.ha⁻¹.yr⁻¹ 50 km inland (Turner, 1996).

5.1 SALT LOADS

As previously noted, care was taken to ensure that the range of modelled EC was consistent with the observed range.

High salt load values do not necessarily constitute an environmental or social problem for the coast except where salt may accumulate and result in damage to the environment and infrastructure. For example the Goulburn River above Sandy Hollow (6817 km^2) in the Hunter catchment was considered to be a catchment with a salinity problem. This catchment contains coal mines and contributes nearly one third of all the salt in the Hunter River. However, the salt load from the Goulburn River is less than that produced by the nearby Manning River at Killawarra (6618 km^2) which is considered a non-saline catchment. Salt loads in the Goulburn and Manning Rivers were 50600 t.vr⁻¹ vs 59400 t.vr⁻¹ or 7.4 t.km⁻².y⁻¹ vs 9 t.km⁻².y⁻¹ respectively.

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Salt load accumulation in stormwater detention structures, constructed wetlands and urban flood control structures, in western Sydney has the potential to be serious. The salt load generated per unit area is greater than 180 t.km⁻².y⁻¹, approximately six times the generation rate calculated for the worst catchments in the Murray-Darling Basin.

5.2 STREAM SALINITY IMPACTS

In other audits, threshold salinity values of 800 and 1600 μ S.cm⁻¹ have been used as benchmarks for water quality and environmental impacts of salinity. A value of 1600 μ S.cm⁻¹ was used in other audits where it was treated as a threshold for aquatic ecosystem damage. However, there is increasing evidence that small changes in stream salinity can have different effects on aquatic ecosystem health depending on the species. Nielsen and Brock (2002) examined salinity thresholds for ecosystem health and found that although toxic effects on aquatic plant recruitment are marked at $1600 \mu S.cm^{-1}$, some species will be affected at salinities lower than this.

Of the 193 streams analysed in this audit only three have historic median salinities above 800 μ S.cm⁻¹. These are Capertee River, South Creek and Toongabbie Creek. Eight streams have 80th percentile salinities above this threshold and two, the Capertee River and South Creek in the Hawkesbury basin have 80th percentile salinities of 1650 μ S.cm⁻¹ and 1584 μ S.cm⁻¹ respectively.

5.3 GROUNDWATER SALINITY

The analysis of groundwater salinity was carried out to assess availability of data and to evaluate the outcomes of the hazard mapping process. Average bore salinities were assigned to geology polygons of the 1:250 000 map sheets by location only. Bore stratigraphy could not be assessed for a more accurate examination of the data. The outcome of this analysis is shown in Figures 8 to 10. Individual maps for each basin are included in Appendices 1 to 20. This was an extrapolation exercise using scant data and should be interpreted with care when drawing conclusions from these results.

The first observation of note was that a large proportion of the area has no data. There are also edgematching problems with the geology polygons themselves. However, where areas are shown with relatively high groundwater salinity, they do often correspond well with salt load and salinity data from the stream analysis (e.g. 203041 Shannon Brook in the Richmond).

Some areas such as the highly saline groundwater areas around Grafton may be artificially high due to association with acid sulfate soil landscapes. Bore data from highly saline acid sulfate soil landscapes may be lumped into a broader geology at this resolution. However, salinity outbreaks are known to occur here in close proximity to acid sulfate soils.

On the South Coast moderate to high groundwater salinities ($3000-5500 \mu S.cm^{-1}$) correspond well with areas of known salinity outbreaks and areas highlighted on the draft hazard map for the upper Shoalhaven, western Sydney, and the Capertee catchment in the Upper Hawkesbury basin. Similar groundwater salinities in the Tuross, Moruya and Bega basins correspond with areas predicted by the hazard mapping. However, expert opinion based on soil landscape mapping seems to discount these areas due to lack of evidence of soil salting (M. Talau pers. comm. 2002).

5.4 LAND USE ON THE COASTAL ZONE

The woody classification on the coast is primarily native forest and the classification of crops and pastures can be considered as pasture in most cases as there is very little cropping. Consultation with

agronomists on the coast confirms that coastal pastures are basically summer growing deep-rooted perennial species that can be either native or exotic. Only relatively insignificant areas are sown to ryegrass style pastures for winter forage by dairy farmers. Although many of the summer growing pastures are inherently poor for agricultural production, they are hydrologically efficient users of water and represent a low potential for groundwater recharge. The small amount of cropping on the North Coast is mainly sugar farming located in areas of low salinity risk and represents a low risk land-use from a salinity point of view.

5.5 SULFIDE SLUDGES

The production of sulfide sludges associated with landscape salinisation and the benthic break down of organic matter can produce dramatic impacts in streams and rivers by de-oxygenation of the water during high flow events. Although stream salinity is lowest during these high flows, run-off from saline seeps and drains involving sulfides can strip oxygen from the water. This process has caused massive fish kills in coastal rivers, particularly where linked with the drainage of acid sulfate soils. Most acid sulfate soil landscapes mapped on the coast are confined to low lying Holocene sedimentary deposits. Older Pleistocene deposits, which may also potentially contribute sulfate salts, occur at higher elevations in some of these coastal catchments (R. Bush pers. comm. 2002). These processes are particularly important where drainage treatments are considered as a part of urban or agricultural development or flood mitigation schemes. The conventional approach to reclaiming dryland salinity sites involves reducing recharge to dry them out; however, sites where acid sulfate processes are involved should be maintained wet.

Many dryland salinity sites are essentially degraded wetlands with a naturally occurring high watertable. Very little is known regarding salt transport processes from these degraded sites into the stream or the ecological effects of different salt wash off products, such as sulphide sludges.

5.6 INFRASTRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT IN HAZARD ZONES ON THE COAST

Land and stream salinisation in coastal areas is primarily caused by infrastructure development in high salinity hazard zones. The placement of inappropriate or poorly designed infrastructure in these zones disturbs the water cycle and salt balance mobilising salt stores. The Manning – Hunter region and western Sydney are extreme examples on the NSW coast. Large-scale power generation and coal mining infrastructure in the Hunter and the industrial and urban infrastructure development of western Sydney interact with an inherently saline landscape. Urbanisation of the western Sydney area and mining in the Hunter will continue due to demographic pressure, therefore the economic effects of salt impact on infrastructure are likely to be substantial.

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6. Conclusions and recommendations

The literature review for the coastal zone highlighted that stream salinity is not currently a major problem in coastal NSW. The high level of forested area on the coast compared with the predominantly cleared regions studied in the Murray-Darling Basin and Hunter audits would largely account for this. The higher rainfall levels in coastal environments also reduce the likelihood of salinisation in the coastal zone. The literature review collated a number of disparate studies and provides a more comprehensive summary of the salinity issue in the coastal zone. The review highlighted the need for systematic long term monitoring on the coast to enable a robust assessment of salinity. One of the crucial differences between this audit and previous audits of the Murray-Darling Basin and Hunter Valley is the lack of baseline groundwater and stream data in the coastal regions.

Draft salinity hazard maps were developed to highlight areas that are predisposed to salinisation because of their physical characteristics and to provide a basis for prioritising and locating salinity actions within and between basins. However, there were a number of problems with input data, including resolution incompatibilities in some data layers. The salt outbreak maps used as the primary evidence layer were also incomplete. Other significant data sets, such as groundwater vulnerability mapping, were not uniformly available for all of the coastal area and could therefore not be used. This audit highlighted significant problems with primary datasets (see Appendix 22). Evaluation of the draft salinity hazard maps by regional staff found they did not satisfactorily identify salinity hazard. For this reason the draft maps are not included in this report. The topographic FLAG wetness maps are included in the appendices as these provide an objective measure of one contributing factor topography. These maps give a clear indication of the likely locations of the wetness associated with salinity. However, a high FLAG Wetness index may also indicate a waterlogging hazard independent of salinity.

The important findings of this audit are that:

- median salinity values for most coastal rivers and tributaries are low
- stream salt loads are not currently a major threat in coastal regions
- agricultural practices currently present a low risk for stream salinisation across the coastal basins
- major salinity problems on the coast are associated with infrastructure in salinity hazard areas

Median salinity values for most coastal rivers and tributaries are low

Threshold salinity values of 800 μ S.cm⁻¹ and 1,600 μ S.cm⁻¹ were used in previous audits as benchmarks for water quality assessment. They represent the maximum desirable drinking water standard set by the World Health Organisation for human consumption $(800 \mu S.cm^{-1})$ and a threshold at which adverse environmental changes can be expected $(1.600 \text{ uS.cm}^{-1})$. Predictions of possible changes to the current salinity regime were not feasible and therefore the environmental effects of such a stress could not be assessed. In general, though, the $800 \mu S.cm^{-1}$ threshold was exceeded in a very few tributaries on the coast and the higher threshold was approached by South Creek and exceeded only in the Capertee River in the Hawkesbury basin during low flow (80th percentile salinity).

For the 193 streams analysed in this audit only 15, had median ECs greater than 400 μ S.cm⁻¹ and only 4 were greater than 800 μ S.cm⁻¹. The World Health Organisation (WHO) standard for desirable water quality for human consumption is $800 \mu S.cm^{-1}$. By comparison, all of the tributaries and mainstream reaches analysed in the Hunter audit (Beale et al. 2001) had median salinities greater than 400 μ S.cm⁻¹. It should be noted that for a significant number of coastal catchments there were no data.

Irrigation of some sensitive (mainly horticultural) crops may cause leaf burn using sprinkler systems and water from streams that exceed $400 \mu S.cm^{-1}$ for significant periods of flow. However, the method of application (e.g. sprinkler or drip systems) is an important determinant of the risk.

Maps showing the location of all the tributary catchments colour coded for median and 80th percentile ranges are shown in figures 2 to 7 (chapter four). In the majority of cases analysed (92% of tributaries), water quality is good to excellent from a salinity point of view. In general, water quality is only considered poor where EC approaches or exceeds $800 \mu S.cm^{-1}$ for significant periods of time (median and 80th percentile).

Stream salt loads are not currently a major threat in coastal regions

Salt load is the mass of salt held in the water moving past a point in a stream. There is generally an inverse relationship between stream salinity and salt load. That is, the highest salt loads are associated with the lowest salt concentrations (salinity) during high flow events while the lowest salt loads are associated with the highest salinity during periods of low flow.

Many catchments on the coast show salt loads per unit of source area far in excess of similar sized catchments analysed in the Murray-Darling Basin and Hunter Valley audits (Beale et al. 2000 and Beale et al. 2001). However, salt loads in streams are generally considered a problem only where there is some downstream impact on infrastructure or where there is an accumulation in an important sink such as a wetland or irrigation district. For these reasons, salt load is not considered an environmental or social threat in coastal regions. High salt loads are, however, significant in highlighting the source of salt throughout the catchment indicating a risk that could otherwise be masked by high rainfall and flow or current land-use.

This indicates a potential risk in particular tributary catchments that may be mobilised if the land-use was significantly changed.

Agricultural practices currently present a low risk for stream salinisation across the coastal basins

The vegetation of the coastal catchments is dominated by evergreen forest (Figure 14). On the coast the primary use for cleared land is grazing. Either native or exotic deep-rooted perennial grasses

dominate these pastures and the majority have significant proportions of summer active species. These summer active species tend to operate as the key functional group within a suite of species controlling the water balance. Given that the hydraulic characteristics of a catchment are set by its basic geomorphology, the three main factors influencing deep drainage below the root zone of the vegetation are:

- the timing and amount of rainfall
- the size and shape of the root system and how it develops over time
- how long the vegetation stays green in relation to evaporative demand, which is highest in summer.

Although many pastures are of low forage value and considered agriculturally poor, such as crab grass and whisky grass, they are functionally significant water users and therefore generally present a very low risk for salinity. Control of deep drainage mitigates against the development of secondary salting. Johnston (2003) using field experiments and modelling using the Meat Research Corporations Sustainable Grazing Systems Model (Johnson et al.2003) has shown that the loss of the summer active functional group of plants from a pasture has a far more significant detrimental effect on deep drainage than management factors such as fertility and grazing management. Management, however, is a factor in the sustainability of this functional group.

Figure 14. Over 50% of the NSW coastal region is forest

As a general statement, agriculture within the coastal region of NSW is not significantly affected by salinity. However, in some localised cases, particularly in the tablelands around Braidwood and Goulburn, salinity does occur in association with sheet, rill and gully erosion. In these cases it is management and degraded pastures that currently activate the salinity risk, land clearing having occurred many years previously. In these areas, salt and water dynamics could be reviewed and landuse and management improved.

The relative proportion of land-use by area, between the tributary catchments producing similar salt loads examined in this audit (even within individual basins) varies considerably. Therefore, other factors such as geology, topography and climate are currently much more significant determinants of relative salt export and stream salinity than land-use. The risk of salinisation by change in land-use is dependent upon the hazard set by these other determinants. In this study, no consistent relationship was found between land-use and salt load generated, between the tributary catchments.

Major salinity problems on the coast are associated with infrastructure in salinity hazard areas

In areas located over natural salt hazards, salinity problems may be of little consequence under current rural land-uses. However, as infrastructure is developed for urban or industrial activities (such as flood mitigation structures, buildings, roads and utility structures, constructed wetlands, sporting facilities, and recreational areas) there may be significant salinity impacts. Salinity is recognised as a problem in western Sydney with the potential to affect large areas of new development in the near future.

Urban salinity risks are also present in major rural townships such as Grafton and Goulburn. Expansion of coal mining in the Hunter also presents a significant challenge for stream salinity in some areas.

There is a need for appropriate conceptual models of:

- the natural processes of salt movement in the landscape
- the impact of risk factors (for example land-use change such as development of infrastructure) on the natural processes
- the impact of the modified landscape process on the infrastructure and environment.

These conceptual models are needed as a basis for planning, prevention, remedial treatment and actions for salinity management. Quantifying the scale of these impacts and the appropriate action is site and task specific. An urban runoff and drainage model capable of handling semi-rural and urban development scenarios for salt mobilisation and wash off could be incorporated into current departmental modelling frameworks.

Key recommendations

- 1. Base line spatial data sets such as the 1:25 000 scale geology and salt outbreak maps should be progressively upgraded.
- 2. Groundwater monitoring networks should be upgraded to provide coverage of significant groundwater flow systems and detailed conceptual models of the groundwater flow systems should be developed as a basis for infrastructure planning.

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Appendix 1. Tweed and Brunswick river basins

Results summary for instream salinity and salt load, groundwater salinity and land-use for the Tweed and Brunswick river basins.

Stream salinity

Table 3. Stream salinity in the Brunswick River basin

Salt Load

Table 4. Saltloads for the Tweed and Brunswick River basins

Number of full years (n) for which annual statistics of generated saltloads have been compiled.

Figure 15. Generated salt load per unit source area for stations in the Tweed and Brunswick basins Schematic diagram of stations and stream networks of available generated salt load.

Land-use

Figure 16. Land-use in the Tweed River basin

Tributaries and residual area.

Figure 17. Land-use in the Brunswick River basin

Tributaries and residual area.

Groundwater Salinity

Figure 18. Projected groundwater salinity in the Tweed River basin

Figure 19. Projected groundwater salinity in the Brunswick River basin

FLAG Wetness map

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Figure 21. FLAG wetness map for Brunswick River basin

Appendix 2. Richmond River basin

Results summary for instream salinity and salt load, groundwater salinity and land-use for the Richmond River basin.

Stream salinity

Only Shannon Brook (203041) represents a water quality issue for this basin.

Salt load

Table 8. Saltloads for the Richmond River basin

Number of full years (n) for which annual statistics of generated saltloads have been compiled.

NA Annual statistics are not available because of missing daily values in all years.

Figure 22. Generated salt load per unit source area for stations in the Richmond River basin

Land-use

Figure 23. Land-use in the Richmond River basin

NSW Coastal Salinity Audit

Groundwater salinity

Figure 24. Projected groundwater salinity in the Richmond River basin

FLAG wetness map

Figure 25. FLAG wetness map for Richmond River basin

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Appendix 3. Clarence River basin

Results summary for instream salinity and salt load, groundwater salinity and land-use for the Clarence River basin.

Stream salinity

Water quality is not an issue in this basin.

Salt load

Table 11. Saltloads for the Clarence River basin

Number of full years (n) for which annual statistics of generated saltloads have been compiled.

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Figure 26. Generated salt load per unit source area for stations in the Clarence River basin Schematic diagram of stations and stream networks of available generated salt load.

Land-use

Figure 27. Land-use in the Clarence River basin

Groundwater

Figure 28. Projected groundwater in the Clarence River basin

Appendix 4. Bellinger River basin

Results summary for instream salinity and salt load, groundwater salinity and land-use for the Bellinger River basin.

Stream salinity

There are no water quality problems identified by this analysis in this basin.

Salt load

Table 14. Saltloads for the Bellinger River basin

Number of full years (n) for which annual statistics of generated saltloads have been compiled.

Figure 30. Generated salt load per unit source area for stations in the Bellinger River basin

Schematic diagram of stations and stream networks of available generated salt load.

Land-use

Figure 31. Land-use in the Bellinger River basin

			o	
Station	Station name	Woody (%)	Crop/pasture (%)	Other (%)
205002	Bellinger R @ Thora	84	16	0
205004	Kalang R @ Scotchman	96	4	0
205006	Nambucca R @ Bowraville	70	30	Ω
205008	Taylors Arm @ Grays XG	77	23	Ω
205009	Warrell Ck @ Warrell Ck	79	21	0
205010	Bellinger R @ Upper Thora	96	4	0
205012	Corinid R @ Upper Corindi	92	8	Ω
205###	Bellinger remaining	67	31	

Table 15. Land-use statistics for catchments in the Bellinger River basin

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Groundwater salinity

Figure 32. Projected groundwater salinity in the Bellinger River basin

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Appendix 5. Macleay River basin

Results summary for instream salinity and salt load, groundwater salinity and land-use for the Macleay River basin.

Stream salinity

There were no water quality problems identified by the analysis in this basin.

Salt load

Table 17. Saltloads for the Macleay River basin

Number of full years (n) for which annual statistics of generated saltloads have been compiled.

Figure 34. Generated salt load per unit source area for stations in the Macleay River basin

Schematic diagram of stations and stream networks of available generated salt load.

Land-use

Figure 35. Land-use in the Macleay River basin

Groundwater salinity

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Appendix 6. Hastings River basin

Results summary for instream salinity and salt load, groundwater salinity and land-use for the Hastings River basin.

Stream salinity

Salt load

Table 20. Saltloads for the Hastings River basin

Number of full years (n) for which annual statistics of generated saltloads have been compiled.

Figure 38. Generated salt load per unit source area for stations in the Hastings River basin Schematic diagram of stations and stream networks of available generated salt load.

Land-use

Figure 39. Land-use in the Hastings River basin

o					
Station	Station name	Woody (%)	Crop/pasture (%)	Other (%)	
207004	Hastings R @ Ellenborough	82	18	0	
207006	Forbes R @ Birdwood	88	12	0	
207009	Camden Haven R @ Kendall	78	22	0	
207010	Pappinbarra Ck @ Beechwood	84	16	0	
207011	Thone R @ Bagnoo	52	48	0	
207012	Doyles R @ Doyles R Rd	99	1	0	
207013	Ellenborough R D/S Bunnoo R Junction	70	30	0	
207###	Hastings remaining	65	33	3	

Table 21. Land-use statistics for catchments in the Hastings River basin

Groundwater salinity **Figure 40. Projected groundwater salinity in the Hastings River basin**

Figure 41. FLAG wetness map for the Hastings River basin

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Appendix 7. Manning River basin

Results summary for instream salinity and salt load, groundwater salinity and land-use for the Manning River basin.

Stream salinity

Salt load

Table 23. Saltloads for the Manning River basin

Number of full years (n) for which annual statistics of generated saltloads have been compiled.

Figure 42. Generated salt load per unit source area for stations in the Manning River basin

Schematic diagram of stations and stream networks of available generated salt load.

Land-use

Figure 43. Land-use in the Manning River basin

Groundwater salinity

Figure 44. Projected groundwater salinity in the Manning River basin

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Appendix 8. Karuah River basin

Results summary for instream salinity and salt load, groundwater salinity and land-use for the Karuah River basin.

Stream salinity

The Wang Wauk River catchment (209006) in the Karuah River basin equals or exceeds WHO standards about 20% of the time during low flows.

Salt load

Table 26. Saltloads for the Karuah River basin

Number of full years (n) for which annual statistics of generated saltloads have been compiled.

Figure 46. Generated salt load per unit source area for stations in the Karuah River basin Schematic diagram of stations and stream networks of available generated salt load.

Land-use

Figure 47. Land-use in the Karuah River basin

Groundwater salinity **Figure 48. Projected groundwater salinity in the Karuah River basin**

Figure 49. FLAG wetness map for the Karuah River basin

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Appendix 9. Lake Macquarie and Tuggerah Lake basin

Results summary for instream salinity and salt load, groundwater salinity and land-use for the Lake Macquarie and Tuggerah Lake basins.

Stream salinity

The 80th percentile salinity in Jigadee Creek (211008) exceeds the WHO standard but all other streams are fresh.

Salt load

Table 29. Saltloads for the Lake Macquarie and Tuggerah Lake basin

Number of full years (n) for which annual statistics of generated saltloads have been compiled.

Figure 50. Generated salt load per unit source area for stations in the Lake Macquarie and Tuggerah Lake basin

Schematic diagram of stations and stream networks of available generated salt load.

Land-use

Figure 51. Land-use in the Lake Macquarie and Tuggerah Lake basin

Groundwater salinity

Figure 52. Projected groundwater salinity in the Lake Macquarie and Tuggerah Lake basin

Figure 53. FLAG wetness map for the Lake Macquarie and Tuggerah Lake basin

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Appendix 10. Hawkesbury River basin

Results summary for instream salinity and salt load, groundwater salinity and land-use for the Hawkesbury River basin.

Stream salinity

Streams are generally relatively fresh except for South Creek (212320) and the Capertee River (212018).

Salt load

Table 32. Saltloads for the Hawkesbury River basin

Number of full years (n) for which annual statistics of generated saltloads have been compiled.

Figure 54. Generated salt load per unit source area for stations in the Hawkesbury River basins Schematic diagram of stations and stream networks of available generated salt load.

Land-use

Figure 55. Land-use in the Hawkesbury River basin

Figure 56. Projected groundwater salinity in the Hawkesbury River basin

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Appendix 11. Sydney basin

Results summary for instream salinity and salt load, groundwater salinity and land-use for the Sydney basin.

Stream salinity

Generally higher values of salinity are noted but still considered fresh except for Toongabbie Creek (213005).

Salt load

Table 35. Saltloads for the Sydney basin

Number of full years (n) for which annual statistics of generated saltloads have been compiled.

Figure 58. Generated salt load per unit source area for stations in the Sydney basin

Schematic diagram of stations and stream networks of available generated salt load.

Land-use

Figure 59. Land-use in the Sydney basin

Figure 60. Projected groundwater salinity for the Sydney basin

Figure 61. FLAG wetness map for the Sydney basin

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Appendix 12. Wollongong basin

Results summary for instream salinity and salt load, groundwater salinity and land-use for the Wollongong basin.

Stream salinity

Salt load

Table 38. Saltloads for the Wollongong basin

Number of full years (n) for which annual statistics of generated saltloads have been compiled.

Figure 62. Generated salt load per unit source area for stations in the Wollongong basin

Schematic diagram of stations and stream networks of available generated salt load.

Land-use

Wollongong Basin ALCC 1995 Landuse Bare Crop/pasture Native woody Plantation Unknown Urban Water $\overline{\Box}$ Watershed Gauging station Water storage Major river Minor river Highway 10 ō 10 20 Kilometres $\overline{}$ ∍

Figure 63. Land-use in the Wollongong basin

Table 39. Land-use statistics for catchments in the Wollongong basin

Station	Station name	Woody (%)	Crop/pasture (%)	Other (%
214003	Macquarie Ryt @ Albio	64	36	
214###	Wollongong remaining	32	55	13

Figure 64. Projected groundwater salinity in the Wollongong basin

Figure 65. Projected groundwater salinity in the Wollongong basin

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Appendix 13. Shoalhaven River basin

Results summary for instream salinity and salt load, groundwater salinity and land-use for the Shoalhaven River basin.

Stream salinity

Streams in this basin are generally very fresh. However, Bungonia Creek (215014) has a relatively high median EC and exceeds the WHO standard during low flows.

Salt load

Table 41. Saltloads for the Shoalhaven River basin

Number of full years (n) for which annual statistics of generated saltloads have been compiled.

Figure 66. Generated salt load per unit source area for stations in the Shoalhaven River basin Schematic diagram of stations and stream networks of available generated salt load.

Land-use

Station	Station name	Woody (%)	Crop/pasture (%)	Other (%)
215002	Shoalhaven R @ Warri	47	52	0
215004	Corang R @ Hockeys	70	30	0
215005	Mongarlowe R Marlowe	59	41	0
215008	Shoalhaven R @ Kado	68	32	0
215009	Endrick R @ Nowra Rd	66	34	0
215014	Bungonia Ck @ Bungon	38	62	0
215###	Shoalhaven remaining	59	38	2

Table 42. Land-use statistics for catchments in the Richmond River basin

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Figure 68. Projected groundwater salinity in the Shoalhaven River basin

Figure 69. FLAG wetness map for the Shoalhaven River basin

Appendix 14. Clyde River basin

Results summary for instream salinity and salt load, groundwater salinity and land-use for the Clyde River basin.

Stream salinity

Salt load

Table 44. Saltloads for the Clyde River basin

Number of full years (n) for which annual statistics of generated saltloads have been compiled.

Figure 70. Generated salt load per unit source area for stations in the Clyde River basin Schematic diagram of stations and stream networks of available generated salt load.

Land-use

Figure 71. Land-use in the Clyde River basin

Figure 73. FLAG wetness map for the Clyde River basin

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Appendix 15. Moruya River basin

Results summary for instream salinity and salt load, groundwater salinity and land-use for the Moruya River basin.

Stream salinity

Salt load

Table 47. Saltloads for the Moruya River basin

Number of full years (n) for which annual statistics of generated saltloads have been compiled.

Figure 74. Generated salt load per unit source area for stations in the Moruya River basin

Schematic diagram of stations and stream networks of available generated salt load.

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Land-use

Moruya Basin ALCC 1995 Landuse Bare Crop/pasture Native woody Plantation **Unknown** Urban W ater Watershed I .
Gauging station / Water storage
/ Major river
/ Minor river Highway

Figure 75. Land-use in the Moruya River basin

15 Kilometres

Figure 76. Projected groundwater salinity in the Moruya River basin

Appendix 16. Tuross River basin

Results summary for instream salinity and salt load, groundwater salinity and land-use for the Tuross River basin.

Stream salinity

Salt load

Table 50. Saltloads for the Tuross River basin

Number of full years (n) for which annual statistics of generated saltloads have been compiled.

Figure 78. Generated salt load per unit source area for stations in the Tuross River basin Schematic diagram of stations and stream networks of available generated salt load.

Land-use

Groundwater salinity **Figure 80. Projected groundwater salinity in the Tuross River basin**

Appendix 17. Bega River basin

Results summary for instream salinity and salt load, groundwater salinity and land-use for the Bega River basin.

Stream salinity

Stream salinities in the basin generally do not present any water quality problems except for Narira River (219016) which approached the WHO threshold at times.

Salt load

Table 53. Saltloads for the Bega River basin

Number of full years (n) for which annual statistics of generated saltloads have been compiled.

Figure 82. Generated salt load per unit source area for stations in the Bega River basin

Schematic diagram of stations and stream networks of available generated salt load.

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Land-use

Figure 83. Land-use in the Bega River basin

Figure 84. Projected groundwater salinity in the Bega River basin

Figure 85. FLAG wetness map for the Bega River basin

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Appendix 18. Towamba River basin

Results summary for instream salinity and salt load, groundwater salinity and land-use for the Towamba River basin.

Stream salinity

Salt load

Table 56. Saltloads for the Towamba River basin

Number of full years (n) for which annual statistics of generated saltloads have been compiled.

Figure 86. Generated salt load per unit source area for stations in the Towamba River basin Schematic diagram of stations and stream networks of available generated salt load.

Land-use

Figure 87. Land-use in the Towamba River basin

Figure 88. Projected groundwater salinity for the Towamba River basin

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FLAG wetness map

Figure 89. Projected groundwater salinity for the Towamba River basin

Appendix 19. East Gippsland basin

Results summary for instream salinity and salt load, groundwater salinity and land-use for the East Gippsland basin.

Stream salinity

Salt load

Table 59. Saltloads for the East Gippsland basin

Number of full years (n) for which annual statistics of generated saltloads have been compiled.

Figure 90. Generated salt load per unit source area for stations in the East Gippsland basin

Schematic diagram of stations and stream networks of available generated salt load.

Land-use

Figure 91. Land-use in the East Gippsland basin

Table 60. Land-use statistics for catchments in the East Gippsland basin

Groundwater salinity **Figure 92. Projected groundwater salinity in the East Gippsland basin**

FLAG wetness map

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Appendix 20. Snowy River basin

Results summary for instream salinity and salt load, groundwater salinity and land-use for the Snowy River basin.

Stream salinity

Salt load

Table 62. Saltloads for the Snowy River basin

Number of full years (n) for which annual statistics of generated saltloads have been compiled.

Figure 94. Generated salt load per unit source area for stations in the Snowy River basin Schematic diagram of stations and stream networks of available generated salt load.

Land-use

Figure 95. Land-use in the Snowy River basin

Groundwater salinity

FLAG wetness map

Figure 97. FLAG wetness map for the Snowy River basin.

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Appendix 21. Slope class areas

Table 64. Percent area of coastal river basins by slope class

Appendix 22. Discussion of hazard mapping

Feedback from review and evaluation of the draft hazard maps by regional experts is incorporated in the following summary. The draft salinity hazard maps required further review so they have not been published. In addition, only a small amount of field checking was carried out. Under the NSW Salinity Strategy, a project is currently underway to develop a consistent, statewide salinity hazard and risk data set. This modelling is based on a range of data layers and provides a high-level strategic product for Catchment Management Authorities and government agencies to plan salinity actions.

North Coast basins

The hazard methodology identified relatively small areas of hazard in the North Coast basins. Most DIPNR staff at Kempsey and Grafton considered the implied hazard on these areas was associated with sodic soils considered to have no significance for salinity.

The greatest concentration of hazard identified for the North Coast was in the Richmond basin. There was a reasonably high correspondence with swampy areas in the Myrtle Creek / Bungawalbin Creek catchment and the Berlings Creek catchment north of Casino. The hazard methodology highlighted areas in the Shannon Brook catchment that have relatively poor water quality and a salt load of 69 t.km⁻².y⁻¹, and the upper Myrtle Creek catchment that produces 19 t.km⁻².y⁻¹ salt load. Salt outbreaks have been mapped in both of these catchments. The Richmond River at Casino carries a salt load of 24 t.km⁻².y⁻¹ with streams and tributaries higher in the catchment carrying from 26–54 t.km⁻² y⁻¹. This indicates that there was a considerable salt store mobilised in those catchments highlighted by the hazard methodology.

The highest hazard identified in the Clarence basin occurred in areas between Grafton and the coast but these areas are probably more appropriately classified as acid sulfate soil landscapes.

Negligible hazard was identified in the Bellinger and Hasting basins although salt loads are moderate to very high for all streams analysed. In the Macleay, high hazard areas were almost entirely associated with sodic soils on terrace formations adjacent to the river. These sodic soils are not considered to be implicated in salinity (G. Atkins pers. comm. 2002).

Hunter basins

The data density of mapped salinity outbreaks in the Hunter resulted in a generally good correlation between known outbreaks and hazard. The extent of extrapolation from the known outbreaks was considered precise and the area of hazard was generally not overstated. Areas identified in the Manning basin, where no salinity outbreak mapping was available, appear feasible. Identified areas of high hazard in the Karuah basin are likely to be confused with acid sulfate soils. Hazard was not identified for the Lake Macquarie and Tuggerah Lake basin but stream salt loads are high to very high.

Sydney South Coast basins

In the western Sydney area of both the Hawkesbury and Sydney basins, there was good general agreement between mapped outbreak areas and hazard. However, recent investigations have shown that the outbreak mapping exaggerated the extent of current outbreaks. As this data was used as the evidence layer, the identified hazard is also likely to be an overstatement. The Parramatta River above Parramatta and its tributary Toongabbie Creek drain the Sydney basin area and have extreme salt loads of 129 and 181 t , km⁻², y⁻¹ respectively.

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Considerable areas of high hazard were identified in the mid Hawkesbury catchment, particularly around Lake Burragorang, the Colo River catchment and the Macdonald River Catchment. Almost all of this area is National Park, including the Colong Wilderness area, but may contain salinity hazards because of its geology. There is no stream salt load data available for these areas.

In the Capertee River valley in the headwaters of the Colo system, geology with high salinity groundwater contributes to high salt loads and poor water quality. The hazard methodology identified a high hazard in this catchment despite there being no previous mapping of outbreaks. Field checking by staff from the Penrith Office of DIPNR confirms the occurrence of high hazard in this catchment.

High hazard was identified in the lower Cox's Creek catchment corresponding with areas of forest. However, small areas of mapped salinity outbreaks higher in the catchment were missed. High salt loads from the upper catchment also suggest a high hazard in these areas.

Most of the salinity which occurs in the upper Hawkesbury and Shoalhaven basins was found in the areas covered by the Goulburn and Braidwood 1:100 000 map sheets. Salinity associated with gully erosion was not included in the evidence layer. The data density would almost double in these areas if these sites were included in the evidence layer. Due to the limitations in the evidence and predictive layers there appears to be a poor correspondence between existing salinity and hazard identification for some areas. For example, on the Goulburn sheet no hazard was identified in Jacqua Creek that corresponded with mapped areas of existing salinity.

Minor areas of incipient salinity located northwest of Goulburn and away from the river were not identified as a significant hazard. Generally, the few known sites in this area are associated with perched water tables on hill slopes rather than high water tables in valley floors and are less likely to be picked up by the FLAG wetness index. It was reported that salinity occurs in the Woodhouselee area east of Pejar Dam in low-lying areas adjacent to gullies but the hazard methodology did not indicate this. However, a high wetness/hazard index was identified in the Mulwaree Ponds area which corresponds to some mapped sites. This indicates potential for further salinity to develop in this area, particularly in the Gundary Plains where a medium hazard was identified.

Hazard areas identified in the northern part of the Braidwood sheet map generally appear reasonable. In the Lake Bathurst area there was good correspondence between areas identified as medium/high hazard and known salinity. For other areas the relationship was only average. Areas identified as medium/high salinity hazard but with no corresponding mapped salinity outbreaks occur in the southern section of the map (e.g. Reedy Creek, Mulloon Creek, and Manar Creek).

Small areas of hazard identified in the Bega, Towamba and upper Snowy River basins are considered feasible but hazard areas identified in the remainder of the Sydney South Coast basins, especially areas close to the coast, are considered incorrect.

Data issues

The weights-of-evidence mapping relies on two types of data:

- the evidence layer
- predictive land attribute layers.

The main advantage of using weights-of-evidence as a method of combining maps is that the method is objective and avoids subjective choice of weighting factors, as in the ranking of overlay maps. It can also provide a quick 'reconnaissance' approach. However, consistent data is required for both the predictive and response (or evidence) layers.

Major problems experienced with the evidence layer

The evidence layer used was the map coverage of known salinity outbreaks used in the National Land and Water Audit project. Saline soil profiles from the SALIS database were included as additional point source data. The major problems found with the data layer are described below:

Incomplete inclusion of available information

In the Goulburn district, only salinity associated with sheet and rill erosion was included in the evidence layer. Saline sites associated with gully erosion (as recorded in the multi-attribute mapping of the district) were not included in the evidence layer. These areas represent the most severely degraded and scalded sites and account for about 50% of the known sites.

Over-estimation of actual area salinised

In western Sydney, the mapped area of outbreak was considered by local staff in the Penrith office to be an over-estimate.

Missing data and unmapped salinity outbreaks

In the North Coast Region, salinity mapping has been confined to the eastern half along the coastal fringe zone (east of meridian 152° 30' 00° E). In these areas when dryland salinity does occur, it is often closely associated with acid sulfate soil landscapes. The evidence layer, when combined with predictive layers, is likely to confuse the two processes, particularly where the resolution of the predictive layer is coarse. In contrast, some known areas of outbreak, for example around Walcha, have never been mapped. Data on dryland salinity was not necessarily recorded in soil landscape mapping reports or SALIS and was therefore not available to the evidence layer. An example is the Braidwood sheet where discharge areas make up only a very small proportion of the landscape units and soil landscapes cannot be used as a surrogate for salinity outbreak mapping (Jenkins pers. comm. 2002).

Inappropriate SALIS data

Most of the point data obtained from SALIS was associated with coastal dunes, swamps and acid sulfate soil landscapes and should have been excluded from the evidence layer. When combined with coarse geology from the predictive layers the process over-extrapolated these data points.

Data dominance

The hazard map is biased through data dominance, especially as the data is clustered in space (e.g. the Hunter basin and western Sydney).

Major problems experienced with the predictive attribute layers

Although it may be desirable to identify the location of all possible salinity outbreaks, this expectation is unrealistic. At best, hazard mapping aims to extend current knowledge of outbreaks by association with related attributes. The most significant attributes associated with dryland salinity hazard are geology, topography, soils and climate. Problems with scale and availability of these data layers are discussed below.

Geology

A uniform geology layer at a scale of 1:100 000 would be desirable, but was not available for the whole coast. A geology layer at 1:250 000 scale was available but this was not suitable for salinity hazard mapping due to data inconsistencies. This 1:250 000 scale map was a composite of all available geology maps at this scale. However, the individual maps were produced over a long period of time, during which mapping conventions changed and thus the degree of reliability varies. Many adjoining sheets were not properly edge matched, resulting in incorporation of false and artificial unit boundaries into the overall data layer. Importantly, naming conventions for units at this scale are based only on age and a specific local area name rather than an objective hierarchical grouping of lithology. Therefore, units that are similar in terms of geomorphology (i.e. very similar age, rock type and significance to salinity) and have a high degree of 'likeness', but are geographically isolated, cannot be logically grouped together. Lithology data was incomplete and therefore could not be used to group units. Approximately 30000 geology polygons were mapped for the coast but 12000 or 40% had no lithology data attached.

The NSW Atlas geology therefore had to be used despite the undesirably coarse resolution. This introduced a severe limitation in heterogeneity/resolution of geology boundaries, which led to unacceptably abrupt boundaries in the hazard mapping.

Soils

Uniform maps of 'soil type' were unavailable for the coast. Soil landscape maps were available at a scale of 1:100 000 for the majority of the coast and the remainder was covered by 1:250 000 CRA maps that essentially reproduced the soil landscape mapping process at a coarser scale. For the hazard mapping process a composite 'best' soils map was produced from both these sources. As with the geology layer the soil data layer shares a similar naming problem, where soil landscapes are named for some local feature where the landscape unit was first defined.

Soil landscapes themselves are composed of a catena of soil types on similar geology, landform and topographic position. Similar soil types (for example chromosols) may form on a number of different geologies and landform units resulting in a range of soil chemical properties. Simple grouping of soil types without further classification based on geology and landform can result in soils associated with salinity being lumped in with soils with no salinity association, and therefore inaccuracy. For the draft salinity hazard maps soil landscapes were grouped on whether or not they contained sodic soils. Sodic soils are often formed in association with salinisation processes (Fritsch and Fitzpatrick 1994) and are generally found in depositional lower landform positions. However, the inability to logically disaggregate on the basis of geology resulted in over-prediction of hazard, particularly the mid-Macleay, Richmond and Clarence basins.

Sodic soils on certain acid geologies, such as granite, form due to high natural sodium content independent of the salinisation and cation leaching processes described by Fritsch and Fitzpatrick (1994). However, salinity is often found at the margins of these geologies where sodic soils may

overlap the contact zone between two geologies. This process was very difficult to delineate spatially without high resolution data. Likewise, a significant salinity process is associated with groundwater flow systems at the contact between basic volcanic basalt caps and lava flows, and underlying metasediments. Soil types overlying these contacts may have no particular salinity significance except at the contact. In these cases, it was the 'contact zone' which was the effective predictor, not the soil type. This was difficult to represent using the weights-of-evidence approach.

Topography

The effect of topography was primarily incorporated into the hazard map by merging the weights-ofevidence map with the FLAG wetness index. Elevation and landform were also incorporated as predictive attributes in the weights-of-evidence approach. Combining the evidence layer with the FLAG wetness index was designed to select those wet areas that are likely to be saline rather than just waterlogged. The FLAG wetness index maps of the basins are included in Appendices 1 to 20.

The FLAG wetness index was designed to find positions in the landscape where discharge was likely to be associated with break of slope. It does not identify the processes related to the contact zones previously outlined, which are often located well above the break of slope position.

An alternative wetness index called the compound topographic index (CTI) was also calculated for all the coastal catchments. Merging of the CTI with the weights-of-evidence layer may usefully delineate flow line discharge areas, although the FLAG wetness index will also do this and it captures the groundwater hillslope hydrology processes better than the CTI index. Therefore, the CTI index was not used especially as the problems associated with the weights-of-evidence layer were considered the more significant issue.

In salinity modelling using CATSALT (Tuteja et al. 2003; Vaze et al. in press), CTI was defined in bands according to the cumulative probability of the index. Landform units associated with soil catenae in soil landscapes were defined for the weights-of-evidence layer using the FLAG Upness index. This topographic analysis assumed sodic soils were usefully confined to lower landscape positions. Either of these index signatures may be useful in defining salinity associated with contact zone influences if sufficient resolution was available from a geology layer. In this respect airborne geophysical data, magnetics, and radiometrics in particular, may provide an answer to accurately defining contact zones in future as well as faults and other geological unconformities.

Groundwater flow systems

Groundwater flow systems (GFS) have an important bearing on salinity discharge processes and groundwater response times (Coram 1998). They are derived primarily from a consideration of geology and topography and their inclusion in the weights-of-evidence layer resulted in similar problems as outlined above. GFS data was available at a scale of At 1:5 000 000 and their inclusion in the weights-of-evidence layer did not enhance the predictive capacity of the draft hazard map.

Groundwater salinity

The process of assigning groundwater salinity data to geology is discussed in chapter three. The overall paucity of data meant that groundwater salinity could not be included in the analysis.

Depth to groundwater

Groundwater vulnerability mapping was available for a small proportion of the coastal basins. This data set contains information on depth to water tables. It was excluded from this analysis because of its incomplete coverage but its inclusion would be highly desirable, when the process for hazard mapping is refined, for selected target areas where the data are available.

Surface water salinity

The salt load and salinity analysis contained in this audit provides an objective means of ranking catchments in terms of salt sources. However, data constrained the number of catchments that could be analysed. Less than 25% of some basins was able to be covered by the analysis. The incomplete coverage meant this layer had to be excluded from the hazard mapping analysis.

Land-use

After initially including this layer it was excluded from the analysis to allow the methodology to predict hazard in forested areas. It was concluded that as mapped salt outbreak observations avoid forested areas (bias in the evidence layer) including landuse would bias the hazard prediction.