Malaysia's policies and plans contain emphasis and provisions for holistic and integrated planning and management of natural resource and biodiversity assets as a precursor for environmentally sustainable development.

For planners, decision-makers and practitioners to meet these aspirations, resources must be viewed in a broader context. Not only must it go beyond sectors to include all stakeholders in the decision process, but it must also use the best science available to define suitable management actions.

The overall purpose of this Guideline is to support this important endeavour.





Table of Contents

T	ables, l	Figures and Text Boxes	i
A	bbrevi	ations	ii
		luction	
	1.1 1.2 1.3	Who is this Guide for? Purpose of this Guide. Using this Guide.	1
2	The R	iparian Zone	2
	2.1 2.2 2.3 2.4	What is a riparian zone? Why is the riparian zone important? Riparian habitats in Malaysia What happened to the riparian zones?	3
3	Restor	ring the Riparian Zone	9
	3.1 3.2 3.3 3.4 3.5	Overview Key considerations for biodiversity Key considerations for water quality improvement. Species selection and layout Planting and maintenance	9
4	Legal	Framework	18
	4.1 4.2	Overview Establishment of river resources	
R	eferen	ces	21
A	nnex 1	: Model riparian zone design	23
		: Checklist of native plants suitable for the riparian zone	
E	nd note	es	36



Tables, Figures & Text Boxes

Table 1. Non-point source pollutants	6
Table 2. Impacts of human activities on the riparian ecosystem	
Table 3. Functions and effectiveness of plant types	
Table 4. Key legislation and state agencies related to river management	
Table 5. DID Guidelines for width of river reserves	
	2
Figure 1. Cross section of a riparian zone	
Figure 2. Effect of riparian vegetation on downstream discharge	
Figure 3. Functions of riparian vegetation	
Figure 4. Types of riparian habitats in Malaysia	7
Figure 5. Vertical stratification in a natural forest	
Figure 6. Continuity of canpy cover	
Figure 7. Example of a patch-corridor matrix in the riparian zone	
Figure 8. A river basin	
Figure 9. Spacing for different levels of the forest canopy	
Figure 10.Proper planting methods	
Box 1. Pollination and seed dispersal	4
Roy 2 Kinghatangan - Corridor of Life (a case study)	



Abbreviations

as1	above sea level
cm	centimetre
DID	Department of Irrigation and Drainage
ha	hectare
KCol	Kinabatangan – Corridor of Life
LK	Lower Kinabatangan
km	kilometre
m	metre
MASMA	Urban Stormwater Management Manual for Malaysia
$N_2 \dots \dots$	Nitrogen
NGO	Non-governmental Organisation
NO ₂	Nitrite
NO ₃	Nitrate
NRE	Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment
NTFP	Non-timber forest product
P	Phosphorus
USDA	United States Department of Agriculture
USEPA	United States Environmental Protection Agency





1

Introduction

Term

The Convention on Biological Diversity defines biodiversity as variability among living organisms from all sources including, inter alia. terrestrial, marine and other aquatic ecosystems and the ecological complexes of which they are part; this includes diversity within species, between species and of ecosystems.'

1.1 Who is this Guide for?

This Guideline for managing biodiversity in the riparian zone aims to assist all planners and practitioners influencing the landscape of today and tomorrow. In particular, this Guide should be useful for:

- Government agencies at the federal, state and local levels engaged in land use and natural resource planning, administration and assessment.
- Companies and small holder organisations involved in extensive land use systems such as plantations, urban development and sand mining.
- Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs), consultants, educational centres and members of civil society with an interest in biodiversity, environment and sustainable development.

1.2 Purpose of this Guide

This Guide aims to provide an overview of what it takes to manage and restore biodiversity in the riparian zone. This guide will assist you in:

- Understanding the importance of riparian zones for biodiversity as well as the well-being of human populations.
- Appreciating the unique types of riparian habitats in Malaysia.
- Recognising the effects of land use change on the ecosystem functions of riparian zones.
- Incorporating key technical, practical and legal considerations required for the restoration of riparian habitats that can function as habitats and corridors for biodiversity and as buffers to protect river water quality.
- Mainstreaming biodiversity into the preparation, review and updating of Policies, Plans and Programmes.

1.3 Using this Guide

This Guide is part of a *Best Practice Series* produced by the Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment (NRE), Malaysia. For a complete understanding of concepts and considerations presented here, readers may consult: *A Common Vision on Biodiversity – Reference Document for Planners, Decision-Makers and Practitioners* (NRE, 2008), as well as other Guidelines produced in the *Best Practice Series*.

Other relevant documents which should be referred to are:

- Guidelines for Development of Rivers and River Reserves (DID, 2001)
- Urban Stormwater Manual for Malaysia (MASMA) Chapters 42 and 43 (DID, 2000)

Further explanation of key concepts is provided in the End Notes. The checklist in **Appendix 2** of the Guide provides information on native plants suitable for replanting in riparian habitats.



7 The Riparian Zone

2.1 What is a riparian zone?

A riparian zone is essentially the land adjacent to streams and rivers; a unique transitional area between aquatic and terrestrial habitats. Plant communities in the riparian zone are called riparian vegetation.

This zone may be taken to consist of four sections, each having different physical conditions, particularly in terms of exposure to water currents, periodical inundation and soil type (**Figure 1**). The plants found in each section have specific adaptations which enable them to tolerate these physical conditions:

- Lower bank Constantly subjected to erosive water current. The plants here are able to survive submerged underwater for extended periods of time, with root systems that are able to hold the soil in place.
- *Upper bank* Occasionally subjected to erosive water current. The plants here are tolerant to sporadic inundation.
- *Terrace face* Only subjected to inundation during high flow events, such as annual flooding. The plants here range from wetland to dryland species.
- *Upper terrace* Only subjected to extreme high flow events, such as 1 in 100 year floods. The plants here are mainly dryland species.

Term

Riparian is derived from the Latin word Ripa, which means "river bank".

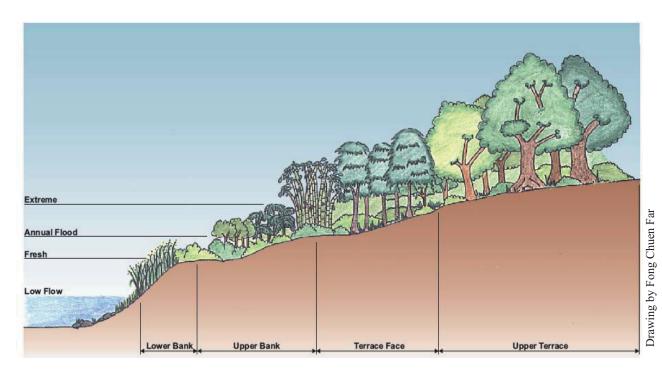


Figure 1. Cross section of a riparian zone.



2.2 Why is the riparian zone important?

Although constituting only a small part of the landscape, riparian zones that are intact and functional are important habitats for biodiversity and provide **ecosystem services**¹ which are essential to the well-being of human populations. The main functions of riparian zones are:

Water quality improvement

Terms

animal, and microorganism

interacting as a functional

Ecosystem services are

the benefits that people

obtain from ecosystems.

An ecosystem is a dynamic complex of plant,

communities and the nonliving environment,

unit. Humans are an

integral part of

ecosystems.

Non-point sources of pollution, including runoff from agriculture lands and plantations, construction sites and failed septic tanks, introduce a variety of pollutants into the river system. These pollutants, which include sediments, nutrients, organic wastes, chemicals and metals, are difficult to control, measure and monitor (**Table 1**).

Riparian zones serve as buffers which intercept non-point sources of pollution. In particular, riparian vegetation absorb the heavy metals and nutrients, trap sediments suspended in surface runoff and provide a habitat for micro-organisms that help break down the pollutants. In plantations where fertiliser, pesticides and herbicides are used, the maintenance of a vegetated riparian buffer strip of sufficient width is therefore extremely important to minimise the amount of these pollutants that enter the rivers.

Flood mitigation

Riparian vegetation increases surface and channel roughness, which serves to slow down surface water that enters the river and reduce flow rates within the river. This helps to slightly alleviate the magnitude and intensity of flooding downstream (**Figure 2**). However, it should be noted riparian vegetation is by no means a viable solution to flood woes – this requires good management of entire river basins, especially the upstream catchments.

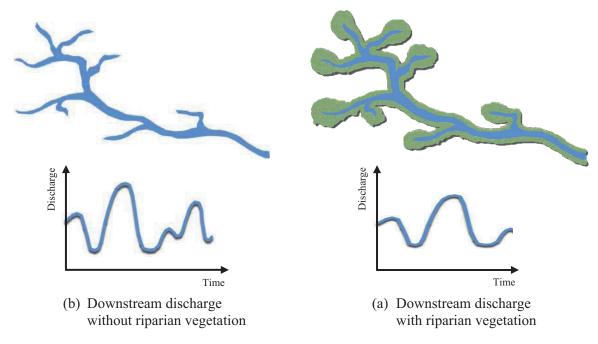


Figure 2. Effect of riparian vegetation on downstream discharge.

Riverbank stabilisation

Riparian vegetation protects the riverbanks from erosion or scouring caused by rain, water flow, etc. Erosion caused by removal of riparian vegetation results in sedimentation of the river which increases flood levels, as well as bank failure, which brings about the need for expensive remediation measures such as dikes, levees and flood walls.



Cultural/recreational values

Vegetated riparian zones, especially in urban areas, are important open spaces that may be utilised for recreational and aesthetic purposes such as walking/cycling trails or picnic areas. Numerous studies demonstrate that linear parks not only improve the quality of life in communities, but can increase nearby property values that in turn increase local tax revenues (McMahon, 1994). Rivers also play an important role in many cultures and traditions.

Prime wildlife habitats

Riparian habitats are unique ecosystems where terrestrial and aquatic plant communities meet. The unique micro-climate and proximity to water make riparian zones excellent habitats for many species of animals, especially birds and amphibians. In addition, salt licks, which are an important source of nutrients for ungulates are usually found in the vicinity of rivers and streams.

Natural wildlife corridors

Riparian zones are a critical component in landscape ecology as they are natural corridors which link landscapes across regions, from the upland headwaters to the floodplains in the lowland. Corridors have several critical ecological functions as they serve as conduits for wildlife and consequently allow for the movement of genetic material, nutrients and energy across the landscape, in particular via pollination and seed dispersal (**Box 1**).

Box 1. Pollination and seed dispersal

Pollination and seed dispersal are two ecological processes that are vital to ensure the survival of plants. Consequently, they are also important for animals and the forest ecosystems as a whole, as plants are primary producers in the food chain, and form the basic structure of the forest.

In dense tropical rainforests where wind is scarce, most plants rely on animals for pollination and seed dispersal. Insects, birds and bats pollinate the plants by transferring pollen from flower to flower in their quest for food (nectar and pollen), while fruit-eating animals (frugivores) disperse seeds through the forest via their droppings. It is therefore crucial to ensure that these animals are able to move safely through the forests as well as between different patches of forest.

To complicate matters, many of these animals are specialists i.e. they only pollinate or disperse seeds of a select number of species. Consideration should also be given to the specific needs of the various species to move through or between forests.

Some animal groups which serve as pollinators:

- Insects including bees, butterflies, moths and beetles
- Bats particularly fruit bats
- Birds including sunbirds, flowerpeckers and spiderhunters

Some animal groups which serve as seed dispersers:

- Fruit bats and birds
- Primates including leaf monkeys, macaques and gibbons
- Rodents including rats, porcupines, squirrels and flying squirrels
- Ungulates including deer and wild boar



Maintenance of stream ecology

Riparian vegetation is essential to aquatic organisms. Trees and shrubs provide shade which reduces the water temperature, thus allowing many aquatic species to survive and limit the amount of light in the river which prevents excessive growth of water plants and algae.

Woody debris (known as snags) and leaf litter derived from riparian vegetation are important habitat components of rivers. Snags and leaf litter provide valuable habitats for a number of aquatic and terrestrial species: they are used as nursery areas for larvae and juvenile fish, refuge from predators, shade, feeding and spawning sites and shelter from currents.

Riparian vegetation is a source of food for aquatic animals and plants, providing fruits, insects, leaf litter and organic debris. These food sources are a major component of the diet of many species of fish and aquatic organisms such as turtles.

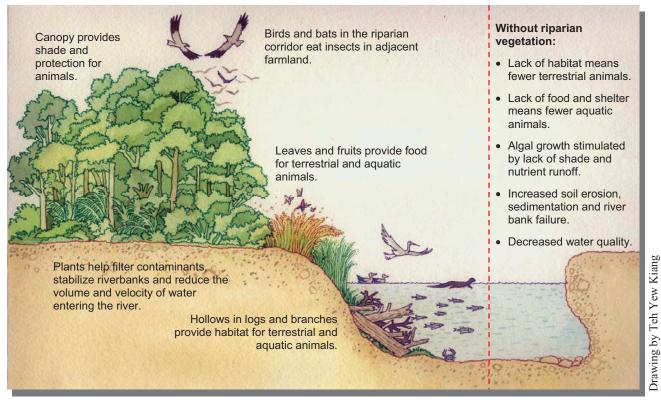


Figure 3. Functions of riparian vegetation.



 Table 1. Non-point source pollutants.

Pollutant	Sources	Effects
Nutrients	Although essential elements in aquatic ecosystems, excess amounts can be harmful to aquatic life and reduce water quality of for human use. Nutrients can enter surface waters in subsurface or surface flows; either in dissolved form (as nitrates) or attached to soil particles. Major sources of nutrients are fertilizers, sewage and manure, while industry and atmospheric deposition also contribute significant amounts of nutrients. (Gilliam et al., 1997)	The most significant impact of nutrients on rivers is eutrophication, i.e. the excessive growth of algae and other aquatic plants due to high levels of nutrients. Excessive plant growth depletes the dissolved oxygen in the water, and chokes the water body with large unsightly mats of algae and decaying organic matter. This results in water with an undesirable colour, taste and odour. Eutrophication can affect a stream's ability to support plant and animal life, interfere with water treatment and diminish its recreational and aesthetic values. Some algae may also form toxins which are directly harmful to aquatic organisms and humans.
Sediment	Sediment refers to soil particles that enter streams, lakes and other bodies of water from eroding or bare land, including plantations, construction and logging areas (especially logging roads), urban areas and eroding stream banks.	Sedimentation of rivers can have a pronounced effect on water quality and stream life. Sediment can clog fish gills, suffocate fish eggs and aquatic insect larvae and cause fish to modify their feeding and reproductive behaviours. Sediment also interferes with recreational activities as it reduces water clarity and fills in water bodies. In addition to mineral soil particles, eroding sediments may transport other substances such as animal wastes, pesticides, metals and other compounds that reduce water quality (Neary et al., 1988).
Pesticides	Pesticides enter streams through surface runoff from plantations, farms, gardens and nurseries, either dissolved in water or attached to sediment particles. They may also be discharged into streams from contaminated groundwater or be deposited into surface waters through atmospheric deposition (McConnell et al., 1995).	Pesticide uptake by human beings is mainly through the consumption of contaminated fish and shellfish, and direct consumption of contaminated water. Certain pesticides accumulate in the fatty tissues of organisms and consequently build up in higher concentrations in top predators further along the food chain, including humans. This is referred to as "biomagnification". Effects at the organism or ecological level are usually considered to be an early warning indicator of potential human health impacts. However, generalisation is difficult as different categories of pesticides have different types of effects on living organisms, many of which are chronic and not easily detected. Examples include cancers, tumours and lesions, reproductive failure, disruption of hormonal systems and physiological impacts such as physical deformities and egg shell thinning.
Metals	Metals may be released into the aquatic environment through industrial processes, mining operations, urban runoff, transportation activities and application of sewage sludge. Trace metals may also be introduced with agricultural pesticides and fertiliser.	Metals pose a particular threat to aquatic environments because they do not degrade and tend to accumulate in the bottom sediments. Metals may also accumulate in plant and animal tissues. The fate of metals in riparian areas is not well understood.



2.3 Riparian habitats in Malaysia

Although no official classification exists, it should be noted that riparian habitats are not homogeneous, but have varying assemblages of plants and animals depending on factors such as elevation, soil and hydrology. Six types of riparian habitats have been distinguished in Malaysia, based on the dominant original riparian vegetation from the highlands to the sea (Corner, 1988) (**Figure 4**):

- *Montane* streams Narrow, shallow fast-flowing streams found in the montane regions. These areas are usually above 1,000m asl and usually fall within forest reserves.
- **Saraca** streams Found below montane streams, *Saraca* streams are rocky, fast-flowing, with waterfalls rapids down the hillsides. *Gapis* (*Saraca* spp.) trees are the dominant species, which form "tunnels" over the water.
- **Neram rivers** Found downstream from *Saraca* streams, *Neram* rivers are distinguished by the abundance of *Neram* (*Dipterocarpus oblongifolius*) trees on the river banks.
- *Rassau* rivers Freshwater tidal rivers connecting the rocky streams and rivers with the brackish estuaries. Distinguished by the abundance of the screwpine *Rassau* (*Pandanus* sp.).
- *Nipah* rivers Found upstream of mangroves where the water is calmer with muddy substrate with regular inflow of freshwater and silt. Dominated by the *Attap* palm (*Nypa fructicans*).
- Mangrove rivers Found on the lower stretches of rivers with brackish water, down to the estuaries. Dominated by mangrove species such as Bakay (*Rhizophora* spp.), *Api-api* (*Avicennia* spp.) and Berus (*Bruguiera* spp.).

In addition, peat swamps and freshwater swamps are two other unique ecosystems that are found along the lower reaches of certain rivers. Both are important ecosystems which have become scarce due to conversion for agriculture use.

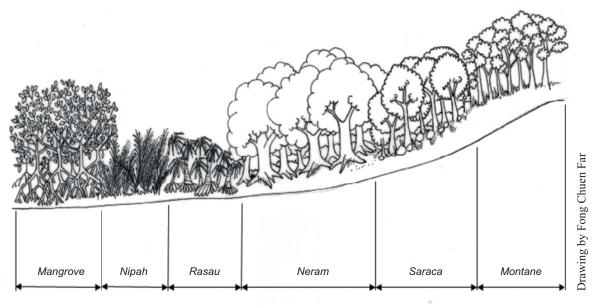


Figure 4. Types of riparian habitats in Malaysia.



2.4 What happened to the riparian zones?

Many riparian zones in Malaysia have been altered in the course of resource use or development. For example, river channels have been straightened and embankments concreted for flood mitigation. In plantations, crops have been planted right up to the river margins and in many other areas, the mining of valuable river sand has resulted in the clearing of riparian habitats.

All of these have led to altered riparian ecosystems that are no longer able to perform their beneficial functions, and have very low biodiversity value. The general impacts of human activity on the beneficial functions of the riparian zone are listed in **Table 2**.

Table 2. Impacts of human activities on the riparian ecosystem.

Human Activity	Impact on Ecosystems	Services at Risk
Dam construction	 Alters timing and quantity of river flows Alters water temperature Hinders nutrient and sediment transport Hinders fish migration 	 Riparian habitat for wildlife Riparian corridor for wildlife Water supply Flood mitigation Natural floodplain fertility Commercial fisheries
Dike and levee construction	Destroys hydrologic connection between river and floodplain habitat	• Recreation
Excessive river diversions	Depletes streamflows to damaging levels	
Draining of wetlands	Eliminates key component of the aquatic environment	
Deforestation/poor land use	 Alters runoff patterns Inhibits natural recharge Siltation of rivers	
Uncontrolled pollution	Diminishes water qualitySpecies healthBioaccumulation	
Sand mining	Destroys riparian and benthic habitatSiltation	
Population and consumption growth	 Increases pressures to dam and divert more water, to drain more wetlands, etc. Increases water pollution 	
	Sources Acid rain and potential for climate change	

Source: Adapted from Postel and Richter, 2003.



Restoring the Riparian Zone

3.1 Overview

This section outlines key considerations for the restoration of riparian zones as habitats and/or corridors for biodiversity, buffers to protect river water quality and considerations for tree planting and maintenance.

It is important to have a good understanding of the existing and historical physical and biological conditions of the site, so that rehabilitation methods employed are appropriate to meet the objectives. As such, it should be noted that a number of different site assessments may be required in order to address each key consideration below.

3.2 Key considerations for biodiversity

In order to restore the functions of riparian zones as wildlife habitats and corridors, the composition and macro structure (i.e. woody trees) must be returned to a state where the basic requirements for wildlife are met. The restored riparian zones must provide food, offer protection, allow for movement and consequently the opportunity for biological interactions² to take place. In general, there are seven key considerations for biodiversity:

i) Plant a variety of suitable species

It is best to plant a range of species which can perform a variety of functions. Criteria for species selection include original habitat composition, requirements of targeted animal species, tolerance to physical conditions at the site (particularly the hydrological and soil conditions at various sections of the riparian zone) and other objectives of restoration.

ii) Ensure suitable vertical stratification

Animals occupy different niches in terms of vertical levels, from the ground, up to the under storey and upper canopy layers. Having the right mix of vertical stratification is important as it creates a variety of space in which a range of species may utilise (**Figure 5**).



Figure 5. Vertical stratification in a natural forest.



iii) Ensure continuity of canopy cover

Suitable spacing and density of trees is important to sustain a diverse range of wildlife. A key consideration for this would be to ensure continuous canopy cover (**Figure 6**). This is especially important for arboreal species such as orangutans and gibbons, which seldom go down to the ground. A continuous canopy cover would allow these animals to move along the corridor.

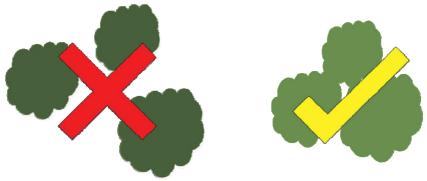


Figure 6. Continuity of canopy cover.

iv) Ensure availability of nesting material

Plants that can be used as nesting material should be retained (if present) or planted so that animals can use the area as breeding or nesting grounds. As different animal species utilise different materials for nesting, care should be taken to ensure a variety of materials such as twigs and leaves are available. Old or dead trees which may provide nesting hollows should not be removed.

v) Retain dead branches, logs and leaf litter

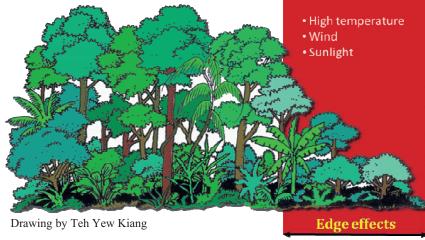
It is important that dead branches and logs on the ground are not removed, as they provide shelter, protection, nesting and breeding grounds for terrestrial and aquatic animals. The natural decomposition of these material, as well as leaf litter by ants and termites, are an important ecological process that contributes to the nutrient cycle.

vi) Ensure sufficient width

The width required for riparian habitats and corridors is generally much greater than that required for water quality (minimum widths for biodiversity are within the region of 100–400m). While the rule of thumb is simply "the wider the better", two important aspects to consider are the animal species that the habitat and/or corridor is designed for and the impact of edge effects.

Large mammals such as elephants and tigers need to be given a wide berth, if just to minimise the risk human-wildlife conflicts.

"Edge effects" refer to the physical conditions at forest edges (e.g. increased exposure to wind, high temperatures and sunlight) which result in a high rate of tree mortality, degradation and loss of habitat variety, a shift in the species composition and structure of plant communities and consequently an overall loss of flora and fauna species. The perimeter-to-area ratio of the habitat increases when habitat sizes are reduced. This leads to a greater amount of area that suffers from 'edge effects'.



Chille College

vii) Keep landscape connectivity in mind

Term

A "matrix" is a landscape of mixed land use not designated primarily for conservation of natural ecosystems, ecological processes and biodiversity.

It is important to consider the bigger picture, as rivers are dynamic systems. Even if only a limited section of the river is focused on in the short term, the activities and conditions upstream are likely to have a significant impact on the site. The layout (width, length and shape) and location of the site should be considered when planning riparian corridors for wildlife.

The patch-corridor matrix concept is useful to consider the structural connectivity between habitats in a landscape (**Figure 7**). Patches are essentially habitats which are in good condition and are able to support transitory wildlife populations moving between larger habitats (such as forest reserves or national parks). Corridors are strips of suitable habitats which allow for the movement of wildlife between patches.

The most preferable layout is for riparian corridors to be connected to larger patches of terrestrial forest habitats including Forest Reserves and other protected areas. Continuous buffers are more effective at moderating stream temperatures and providing movement corridors for animals. Therefore, the establishment of long continuous riparian habitats should be given higher priority over fragmented strips of greater width.

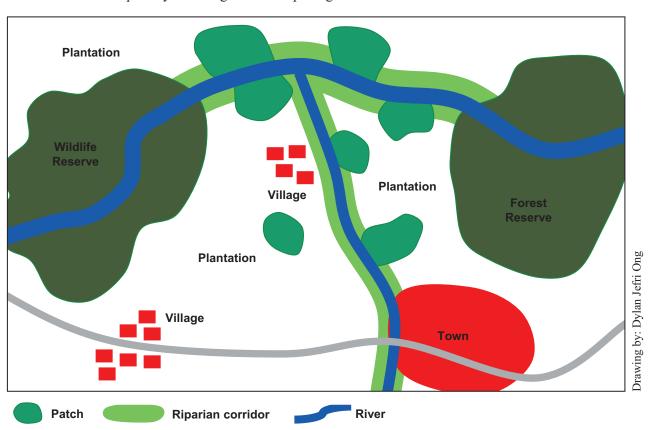


Figure 7. Example of a patch-corridor matrix in the riparian zone.

Suitable scales for this analysis are at the river basin level or habitat type level i.e. the entire length of the river flowing through a single habitat type (e.g. the entire length of original *Saraca* stream).

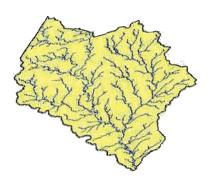


Figure 8. A river basin.



Box 2. Kinabatangan - Corridor of Life (a case study)

The project

The lower 100km of the Kinabatangan river in Sabah meanders through low-lying ground to form the Kinabatangan floodplain, which is one of only two places on earth where ten primate species are found together, including the orang-utan, proboscis monkey and the Bornean gibbon. It is also home to over 250 bird, 50 mammal and 20 reptile species as well as 1,056 plant species. Since the 1950s, forests around the Kinabatangan has been converted for various economic activities, including logging activities and agriculture. Oil palm is the dominant commercial crop in the area today.

The Sabah state government declared the Lower Kinabatangan as Sabah's 'Gift to the Earth' in 1999 and in 2005, gazetted 26,000ha as the Kinabatangan Wildlife Sanctuary under the Sabah Wildlife Conservation Enactment 1997. WWF-Malaysia's Kinabatangan - Corridor of Life (KCol) project aims to establish a balance between the growing demands of private land development, the local community and the need to protect the unique wildlife along the riparian zone. The KCoL vision is as follows:

- A forest corridor along the Kinabatangan, connecting coastal mangrove swamps with the upland forests, where people, wildlife, nature-based tourism and local forest industries thrive and support each other.
- A floodplain that supports a thriving and diverse economy that offers opportunity and choice to local people and businesses.
- Good environmental management of the natural capital on which all partners depends upon.



Photo by Willian Unswor

• A landscape in which agriculture, people and nature conservation is united by their common source of vitality – water.

Working with partners

A key factor contributing to the success of the project is engagement with all stakeholders, from government departments to NGOs, plantation companies and the local communities.



plantations, Borneo Asiatic Development, Samudera, and Pontian United Plantations have agreed to set aside land for reforestation, and some are even starting to venture into ecotourism. Local villagers have set up nurseries which supply saplings to the project, and are engaged in planting and maintenance work. Together with the growth of nature tourism, reforestation of KCol has provided locals with an excellent source of income as well as job and business opportunities.



Box 2. (cont.)

Forest restoration in KCoL

The objective of the forest restoration component of KCoL is to achieve forest connectivity and enhance the quality of wildlife habitats. The long term goal is to establish contiguous forests, from coastal mangroves to the upland forests (encompassing an area of 150,677ha). The component includes nursery development and management, site selection and prioritisation, site preparation and tree planting as well as monitoring and maintenance.

A consultative process was used to prioritise areas for forest restoration. The first of a series of workshops was held in 2008, attended by representatives from Sabah Forestry Department, Sabah Wildlife Department, Universiti Malaya Sabah (UMS), Cardiff University and NGOs. The following criteria were used to identify priority areas, resulting in a prioritisation model (**Figure A**):

- Re-connect two forest fragments
- Restore natural riverine vegetation from the bank of every water course for ecological services
- Prevent extinction of orang-utan populations in lower Kinabatangan (by increasing gene flow)
- Improve wildlife habitat
- Enhance aesthetic value on areas highly visible along touristic routes
- Reduce human-wildlife conflict

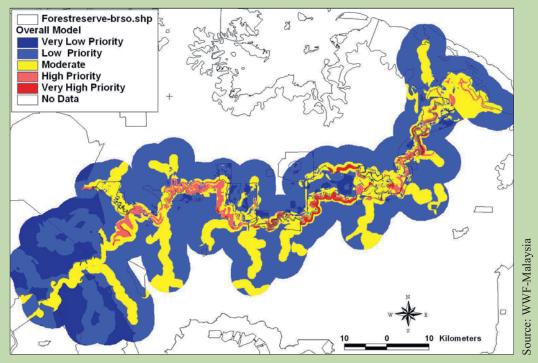


Figure: Prioritisation model for forest landscape restoration.

Tree planting:

Species native to Kinabatangan are planted, particularly those with fruits consumed by wildlife. So far, 17 different species have been planted, with a 5m x 5m spacing between saplings. However, the survival rate of planted saplings has been relatively low thus far, between 10-40%. The main causes of mortality are competition from weeds, inundation by seasonal floodwaters and trampling by elephants. The following actions have been taken to improve survival rates:

- Intensify weeding monthly weeding in the first year, then once in three months in consecutive years.
- Plant taller saplings only saplings over 1m high are planted to ensure they survive seasonal flooding.
- Plant at least three months before annual flooding season.
- Avoid planting on known elephant pathways.
- Erect temporary fencing around saplings.



3.3 Key considerations for water quality improvement

The maintenance of a vegetated riparian buffer is an important practice to minimise the amount of non-point source pollutants entering rivers, especially within plantations and farms. Through the interaction of vegetation, soil and hydrology, riparian forest buffers influence water quality as pollutants may be taken up into plant tissues, adsorbed onto soil particles, or modified by soil organisms³.

It should be noted that a combination of practices, including proper application of fertilisers and pesticides or the introduction of measures to reduce stormwater runoff and soil erosion, is required to effectively reduce non-point source pollutants.

Four factors which determine the effectiveness of riparian buffers in filtering pollutants are hydrology⁴, soil⁵, vegetation and width. Of these, vegetation selection and width are controllable variables:

i) Plant appropriate vegetation types

Riparian vegetation influences water quality through the following means:

- By creating roughness along the surface of the ground. Vegetation decreases water velocity and allows time for water to infiltrate the soil and for sediments to drop out (Lowrance et al., 1995).
- By loosening the soil, thus allowing for increased infiltration of runoff.
- By maintaining high levels of organic carbon in the soil, which fuels denitrification and other biochemical processes.
- By adsorbing nutrients and other pollutants from soil water into plant tissues (Hupp et al., 1993).
- By supplying carbon needed to fuel microbial processes in the soil.

Different vegetation types (grass, shrubs and trees) have varying degrees of effectiveness in terms of their functions (**Table 3**). Utilising a combination of trees and shrubs is the most effective way to remove most pollutants. Non-native grass may be utilised in urban areas where sediment runoff is an issue, or where landscaping is an additional objective.

Table 3. Functions and effectiveness of plant types.

Functions		Effectiveness	
runctions	Grass	Shrub	Tree
Stabilise riverbank erosion	Medium	High	Medium
Prevent bank failures	Low	Medium	High
Trap sediment	High	Medium	Low
Filter sediment-bound nutrients, pesticides and microbes	High	Low	Low
Filter soluble nutrients, pesticides and microbes	Medium	Low	Medium

Source: Adopted from Fisher and Fischenich, 2000.



ii) Ensure sufficient width

Width is the most important controllable variable for the effectiveness of riparian buffers in filtering pollutants. Topography, hydrology and geology have implications on appropriate buffer widths. In order to be effective, plants must either have access to high water tables or sufficient unsaturated flow. Also, plants will not remove pollutants from water which is moving too rapidly such as on steep slopes or in defined channels.

Decisions on buffer widths are almost always a compromise between environmental goals and social or economic objectives, e.g. the value of water resources versus the value of adjacent land and plantations.

3.4 Species selection and layout

Based on the objectives and key considerations, the next question is what to plant (species selection) and where to plant (layout). A model design for the establishment of riparian zones for biodiversity and water quality improvement is given in **Appendix 1**.

There are two modes of habitat establishment:

- Natural regeneration allowing nature to take its course with minimal human intervention. This method is suitable for areas where the riparian vegetation is recovering naturally through secondary growth. Such areas may have secondary tree species that provide ready cover, habitat and food source. Enrichment planting and silviculture⁶ may be required in these areas.
- **Replanting** the establishment of a new plant assemblage. This is required in areas that have little or no vegetation. Although more labour intensive and expensive than natural regeneration, it allows for greater control of the plant species composition.

A list of native trees, palms and shrubs suitable for planting in riparian zones is provided in **Appendix 2** together with a brief description of each species. This includes natural habitats, distribution, appropriate planting zones, planting radius and socio-economic use⁷. Some rivers may have endemic species. In such cases, propagation of these species would be extremely important in terms of plant conservation.

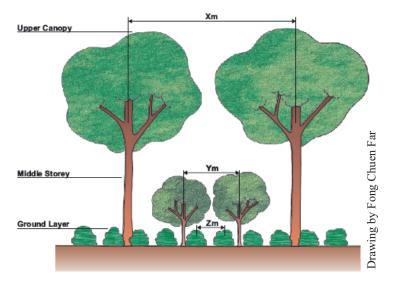


Figure 9. Spacing for different levels of the forest canopy.

In urban areas where the micro-climate is not conducive to the survival of native forest species, hardy coastal species commonly used in urban landscaping may be used. These include Jemeriang Laut (Peltophorum pterocarpum), Bungor (Lagerstroemia speciosa), Jambu Laut (Eugenia grandis), Ketapang (Terminalia catappa), Bintangor Laut (Calophyllum inophyllum) and Mempari (Pongamia pinnata).

To create a mixed stand of diverse tree species that mimics the complexity of a natural forest (**Figure 5**), traditional agroforestry layouts of rows or contour strips should not be used. Instead, different species should be planted in random order, taking into account the optimal spacing required to ensure continuity of the canopy cover (**Figure 9**).



3.5 Planting and maintenance

A tree that is properly planted will require less maintenance and have a higher chance of survival. Thus, the following are important considerations:

i) Seedlings and saplings

Seedlings and saplings may be obtained from nurseries specialising in forest species. Alternatively, seeds, seedlings and saplings may be obtained from adjacent riparian areas. This method, which requires more time and resources, may involve seed collection and germination, branch cuttings with root inducement (for fast growing species) or saplings dug out from under the mother tree

In any case, it is recommended that the seedlings are sown in poly bags in nurseries until they reach sufficient height (at least 1.5m) to minimise the risk of being overgrown by weeds or being eaten by herbivores.

ii) Site preparation

Earthworks which may be required to increase bank or slope stability around the planting site are covered in MASMA (DID, 2000). However, soft engineering methods should be used whenever possible. For example, coir logs made from coconut fibre can help in slope stabilisation and at the same time enhance plant growth and microbial activity.

iii) Planting

Saplings should be hardened for at least two weeks prior to planting in order to acclimatise them to stressful conditions such as minimal watering and increased exposure to sunlight. Weaker saplings should be disposed off before planting.

The diameter of the planting hole should be three times the diameter of the polybag and the height equal to the height of the polybag (**Figure 10**). Branches and leaves should be pruned and kept to a minimal (25% of actual leaf or branching contents) just before planting to reduce transpiration.

It is often necessary to protect saplings from animals, including birds, tree shrews and rats. Larger trees can tolerate far more leaf damage than newly planted seedlings, provided there is no severe damage to the new leaf bud. Tree guards may be installed, although they are a relatively expensive and labour intensive option. Different materials such as wire mesh and plastic may be used; most are supported by three stakes placed in a triangle around the sapling. However, wind resistant guards do not encourage strong root systems. It is important to remove the guards once the saplings have become well established (about after a year) so that they do not restrict further growth.

iv) Maintenance

Intensive maintenance, including watering, should be carried out within the first three months after planting, or at least until the saplings start to grow new leaves. This is also the time when fertilisers need to be applied. Periodical maintenance, which includes weeding and treatment for insect pests should then be carried out every six months.

The proliferation of woody and non-woody weeds in the tropical climate is the main threat to the survival of saplings. While the best solution is to plant tall saplings, weed control should be carried out periodically, especially in the first few years. Although labour intensive, the best method is by manual weeding. The use of herbicides should be prevented or at least minimised, as the chemicals may pollute the river.

Applying mulch around the saplings suppresses weed growth and at the same time reduces soil compaction and conserves moisture. However, excessive mulching should be avoided as this may deprive roots of oxygen, increase risk of fungal and bacterial infections due to constant moisture around the trunk and



excessive heat from decomposition of the mulch can kill trunk tissue.

Saplings should be periodically inspected for signs of insect infestation or disease. Thinning and pruning may reduce attack in some circumstances, especially if trees are attacked by caterpillars. The presence of natural predators of insects will often effectively control their populations.

Repeated chemical spraying is expensive, polluting and can result in increased populations of some pests. Broad action insecticides that are sprayed repeatedly create a situation in which there is intense selection pressure for resistant individuals. Insects that survive intense spraying will produce offspring that will also survive. Judicious use of chemical insecticides, combined with methods that encourage natural control, will offset the expansion of pesticide-resistant insects.

Deciding which insect control method to use is not straightforward and can require detailed knowledge of the insects' biology. Accurate identification is very important; similar-looking species may require different control methods.

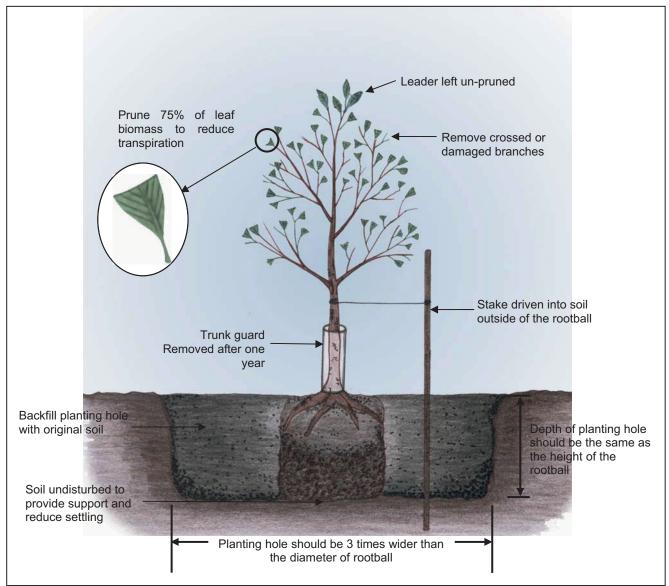


Figure 10. Proper planting methods.

Drawing by Fong Chuen Far



4

Legal Framework

4.1 Overview

The Federal Constitution (9th Schedule, Item 6 of the State List) provides State Authorities in Peninsular Malaysia with absolute ownership of all land within the boundaries of its state. This includes all rivers, streams and watercourses, although rivers shared by more than one state fall under Item 11b of the Federal list. Similar powers are provided to the Sarawak State Authority under the Sarawak Land Code (Cap 81) and the Sabah State Authority under Section 26 (1) of the Land Ordinance Sabah (Cap 68).

Various state and federal agencies are involved in the control and management of rivers, each having specific responsibilities and legislative backing (**Table 4**). It is therefore important that an integrated and coordinated effort be adopted in the management of rivers and river basins.

Table 4. Key legislation and state agencies related to river management.

State	Legislation	State Agencies
Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur	Waters Act 1920 (Revised 1989)	DID Federal Territory of KL
Johor	• Enactment No. 66 (Johor 1921)	• DID Johor
Kedah	Kedah Water Resources Enactment 2007	DID Kedah
Kelantan	• Enactment No. 18 of 1935	DID Kelantan
Melaka	• Waters Act 1920 (Revised 1989)	DID Melaka Melaka River and Coastal Development Corporation
N. Sembilan	• Waters Act 1920 (Revised 1989)	DID N. Sembilan
Pahang	Pahang Water Resources Enactment 2007	• DID Pahang
Perak	• Waters Act 1920 (Revised 1989)	DID Perak
Pulau Pinang	• Waters Act 1920 (Revised 1989)	• DID P. Pinang
Perlis	• Enactment No.9 of 1357H (Perlis)	• DID Perlis
Sabah	Sabah Water Resources Enactment 1998	DID Sabah Sabah Water Resources Department
Sarawak	 Natural Resources and Environment Ordinance 1993 Sarawak Rivers Ordinance, 1993 	DID Sarawak Natural Resources and Environment Board (NREB) Sarawak Rivers Board
Selangor	Selangor Waters Management Authority Enactment No. 2 of 1999	DID Selangor Selangor Water Management Authority
Terengganu	• Enactment No. 2 of 1357H (Terengganu)	DID Terengganu Terengganu Riverine and Coastal Agency



Some key agencies are:

Department of Irrigation and Drainage (DID)

DID's role, which includes river basin management, flood management, agriculture drainage and coastal zone management, is provided for through the Ministerial Functions Act 1969 (Revised 2008).

Local authorities

The Local Government Act (1976) provides local authorities in Peninsular Malaysia with various powers. These include:

- Section 69, 70 and 71: Powers to recover expenses incurred in carrying out any work as a result of any person who commits a nuisance or deposits any filth in or upon the bank of any stream, channel, public drain or other watercourses.
- Section 73(a): Powers to make, amend or revoke by-laws to keep public places (including rivers) free from filth.
- Section 101(ee): Power to divert, strengthen, define and canalise the course of any stream, channel or watercourse subject to the consent of the appropriate authorities.

Local Authorities in Sabah and Sarawak are empowered with similar Acts.

The Streets, Drainage and Building Act 1974 (1994) provides Local Authorities in Peninsular Malaysia with further powers pertaining to the management of drains and water courses.

Department of Town and Country Planning

The Department of Town and Country Planning of Peninsular Malaysia is empowered to prepare statutory spatial plans, i.e. Structure Plans and Local Plans under Section 8 of the Town and Country Planning Act 1976. Plans for river reserves, river frontage development and floods levels etc., may be incorporated into the plans.

Forestry Department

The Forestry Department of Peninsular Malaysia, Sabah Forestry and Sarawak Forestry Corporation play a key role in enforcing their respective legislation and subsidiary regulations. The protection of water courses and water resources is an integral part of sustainable forest management. This includes classification and conservation of catchment forests, and ensuring that mitigation measures are implemented to minimise sedimentation from logging activities, especially in the construction of logging roads and skid trails.

4.2 Establishment of river reserves

In Peninsular Malaysia, river reserves are normally established through Section 62 of the National Land Code (1965), which gives the State Authority power to reserve state land for any public purpose. In August 2008, the National Water Resources Council agreed that state governments are to gazette river reserves.

The standard practice is for the NRE Minister to designate the Director of the Drainage and Irrigation Department (DID) as the officer having control of the river reserve, in order to enable the DID to manage the reserve. In addition, the Land Acquisition Act 1960 may be used to acquire private land in the river reserves.



The Guidelines for Rivers and River Reserves produced by DID specify widths of river reserves to a maximum of 50m, based on the width of the river (**Table 5**). However, it should be noted that the purpose of the guidelines is mainly for bank stabilisation; riparian zones as biodiversity habitats/corridors or water quality improvement require greater widths in general.

River width (m)	Width of river reserve (m)
>40	50
20 - 40	40
10 – 20	20
5 – 10	10
<5	5

Table 5. Guidelines for width of river reserves.

Source: DID, 2001.

In Sabah, the establishment of river reserves is provided for under Section 40 of the Sabah Water Resources Enactment 1998, which states that river reserves "are to be established on land which is within 20 metres of the top of the bank of every river, including its estuary, where the channel is not less than three metres in width". River reserves may also be established along channels less than three metres wide, upon the recommendation of the Sabah Water Resources Council. The purpose of the establishment of river reserves under Section 40 is for "protecting the volume or flow of water in water bodies and preventing the degradation of the quality of water resources and damage to the aquatic environment in water bodies".

From a legal and/or management perspective, the width of riparian zones may either be fixed or variable. Fixed-width zones are easier to gazette, enforce and administer, but often fail to provide for many ecological functions. Variable-width zones can be designed to carry out specific functions at various sections, taking into account the site-specific conditions and requirements along the length of the strip.

In addition to the more general river management enactments, other legislation (where available) has also been used to establish river reserves specifically for the purpose of protecting important wildlife habitats in the riparian zone. Examples include:

Protection of firefly habitats

The Selangor state government, through the Selangor Waters Management Authority Enactment 1999 (Government of Selangor Gazette, 2 July 2009). gazetted a river reserve in July 2009 to protect the firefly habitat along the banks of the Selangor river at Kampung Kuantan. The reserve ranges from 150m to 400m from the left and right bank of Sungai Selangor, and 20km to the upstream and 20km downstream from the Kg. Kuantan firefly jetty.

Protection of terrapin habitats

The Kedah state government gazetted two riparian stretches at Bukit Pinang and Sidam Kanan as sanctuaries in 1977, under the Kedah River Terrapin Enactment 1972. In the same year, the Bukit Paloh Terrapin Reserve was gazetted along a riparian stretch in Terengganu, under the state Turtles Enactment 1951 (WWF-Malaysia, 2008).



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Annex 1

Model riparian zone design

The following three-tiered buffer system has been adapted from the system developed by the USDA Forest Service (Welsch, 1991), which is one of the most widely used buffer planning models. The model, which takes into account biodiversity and water quality considerations, incorporates a zone specifically for in-stream aquatic habitat protection (Tier 1), and an optional zone specifically for filtering of sediments in surface runoff (Tier 3).

Tier	Minimum width (m)	Main objectives	Vegetation	Management	Width considerations
-	10	1. Protect in-stream aquatic habitat. 2. Bank stabilisation. 3. Habitat and corridor for terrestrial biodiversity.	Trees and shrubs with tolerance to periodical inundation.	Should remain undisturbed; tree removal is not permitted. Soft engineering methods such as coir logs may be used to strengthen the river bank.	 Width should be increased if the river bank is actively eroding. Width should be increased if the area receiving periodical inundation is wider than 10m.
6	100	1. Habitat and corridor for biodiversity. 2. Uptake of nutrients from groundwater.	Ranging from trees and shrubs with tolerance to occasional inundation to dryland species. May include species with economic value in the form of Non-timber Forest Products (NTFP), e.g. fruits, bark, roots that can be utilised as food or fibre, etc.	Harvesting of NTFP without the use of heavy machinery is permitted.	- Width should be increased if the corridor is designed to cater for large mammals such as elephants or tigers.
*	10	1. Facilitate sediment filtering. 2. Convert surface runoff to uniform, shallow, sheet flow.	Lalang (imperata cylindrica), grass or other shrubs that provide groundcover.	May be utilised for livestock grazing.	 Width should be increased if there is a high amount of sediments or nitrates in the surface runoff. Width should be increased for steep slopes or deep groundwater flow.

* Note: Zone 3 is required only if there is a high amount of sedimentation from the adjacent land use, e.g. construction sites.



Annex 2

Checklist of native plants suitable for planting in the riparian zone

	SPECIES DATA	ΓA			PL	PLANTING DATA	TA	
Species; [Family]; (Local name)	Habit	Habitat	Distribution	Type of river habitats for planting	Planting zones near river banks	Maximun height/ forest cover	Planting radius/ distance	Socio-economic/ Ecological benefits
Acer laurinum Hassk.; [Aceraceae]; (Medang)	Tree to 30m tall	Peat swamp and lower montane forests	KI, Ph, SI, Jh; Sb & Sw	PS, MS	TF, UT	CA	em	FF, TS
Acrostichum aureum L.; [Pteridaceae]; (Piai Raja)	Terrestrial shrub to 4m tall	Mangroves and damp ground near the sea	PM: all coasts	MF	UT	GR	0.8m	FB, FV, MD
Acrostichum speciosum Willd.; [Pteridaceae]; (Piai Raja)	Terrestrial shrub to 2m tall	Seaward parts of mangrove swamps	PM: all coasts	MF	UT	GR	0.4m	FB
Aegiceras corniculatum (L.) Blanco; [Myrsinaceae]; (Kacang-kacang)	Small tree to 5m tall	Tidal mud and river estuaries	PM: widespread.	MF	TF	GR	1m	FU, FV, PO
Aglaia rubiginosa (Hiern) Pannell; [Meliaceae]; (Bekak)	Tree to 35m tall	Lowland forest including peat swamps	Pk, Sl, Ml, Jh	FS, PS, RS	TF, UT	CA	7m	FF, FS, TS
Aglaia yzermannii Boerl. & Koord.; [Meliaceae];	Rheophytic tree to 5m tall	On riverbanks	Kl, Tg, Pk, Ph	NS	UB	GR	1m	EC, FF
Aglaonema nebulosum N.E.Br.; [Araceae];	Erect herb 10-60cm tall	Peat and freshwater swamp forest, also in the hills	PM: widespread	FS, PS, RS, NS, SS	LB, UB	GR	0.1m	EC, FF, OR
Alstonia angustifolia Wall. ex A. DC.; [Apocynaceae]; (Pulai)	Small tree about 10m tall	Seasonal swamps in the lowlands	Pn, Ph, Sl, Ml, Jh; Sb & Sw	FS, RS	TF	MS	2m	EC, EX, TS, WQ
Alstonia pneumatophora Back. ex L.G. den Berger; [Apocynaceae]; (Pulai basong)	Tree to 40m	Lowland swamps or hill forest	Pk, Ph, Sl, NS; Sb & Sw	FS, NS, SS	UT	CA	8m	EC, EX, TS
Aralia scandens (Merr.) T.D. Ha; [Araliaceae];	Scandent prickly shrub	Lowland and montane forest, often near streams	PK, Ph, Sl	NS, SS, MS	TF	GR	1m	FF
Aralidium pinnatifitidum (Jungh. & de Vriese) Miq.; [Aralidiaceae];	Shrub or small tree to 10m tall	Lowland and montane forest, often near streams	PM: throughout	NS, SS, MS	TF	GR	2m	FF, MD, TS
Archidendron kunstleri (Prain) I.C. Nielsen; [Leguminosae]; (Jering)	Shrub or small tree to 15m tall	Often in swampy lowland forest	Pk, Ph, Jh; Sb & Sw	FS, RS	TF	MS	3m	FF, TS
Ardisia junghuhniana Miq. var. multiflora B.C. Stone; [Myrsinaceae];	Shrub or small tree to 10m tall	Lowland forest including swamps	Ph, Sl, Jh; Endemic to PM	FS, RS, NS	TF	GR	2m	FF
Arenga westerhoutii Griff.; [Palmae]; (Kabong)	Feather palm to 10m or more tall	Gregarious in hillside forest	PM: widespread.	SS, MS	TF	MS	2m	EC, FB, FF



	SPECIES DATA	ΓA			PI	PLANTING DATA	TA	
Species; [Family]; (Local name)	Habit	Habitat	Distribution	Type of river habitats for planting	Planting zones near river banks	Maximun height/ forest cover	Planting radius/ distance	Socio-economic/ Ecological benefits
Artocarpus kemando Miq.; [Moraceae]; (Terap)	Tree to 40m tall	Lowland swamp forest	Tg, Ph, Sl, Jh	FS, RS	UT	CA	8m	EX, FB, FF, TS
Artocarpus maingayi King; [Moraceae]; (Terap)	Tree to 30m tall	Lowland swamp forest	PM: throughout	FS, RS	UT	CA	em 6	EX, FB, FF, TS
Avicennia alba Blume; [Avicenniaceae]; (Apiapi hitam)	Tree to 21m tall	Muddy mangroves	PM: widespread; Sb & Sw.	MF	LB, UB	CA	2m	EC, FF, WQ
Avicennia officinalis L.; [Avicenniaceae]; (Apiapi ludat)	Tree to 18m tall	Mangrove, generally on landward fringe	PM: widespread; Sb & Sw	MF	LB, UB	MS	1.5m	EC, FF, FU, WQ
Barringtonia acutangula (L.) Gaertn.; [Lecythidaceae]; (Putat nasi)	Shrub or small tree to 13m tall	Lowland forest near rivers	Kd, Tg, Pk, Ph, Jh; Sb & Sw	RS, NS, SS	TF	MS	2m	FF, FV, MD, TS, SF
Barringtonia conoidea Griff.; [Lecythidaceae]; (Putat)	Shrub or small tree to 4m tall	Tidal estuaries	PM: common in the west coast.	MF, RS	LB, UB	GR	0.8m	EC, FF, WQ
Beilschmiedia pahangensis Gamble; [Lauraceae];	Tree to 15m tall	Lowland forest often near rivers	Kl, Pk, Ph; Endemic to PM	NS, SS	TF	MS	3m	MD, TS
Blumeodendron tokbrai (Blume) J.J.Sm.; [Euphorbiaceae]; (Gaham badak)	Tree to 36m tall sometimes stilt-rooted	Lowland swamp and hill forests to 450m	Tg, Pk, Ph, Sl, Ns, Jh; Sb & Sw	FS, PS, NA, SS	TF, UT	CA	7m	FF, TS
Brackenridgea palustris Bartell.; [Ochnaceae]; (Lidah mura)	Tree to 9m tall	Swampy lowland and montane forests	Kd, Pk, Ph, Sl, Ml, Jh; Sb & Sw	FS, MS	TF	GR	2m	FF
Brownlowia argentata Kurz; [Tiliaceae]; (Dungun)	Shrub or small tree to 18m tall	Mangroves and tidal channels	PM: widespread; Sb & Sw	MF	UB	MS	1.5m	EC, TS
Bruguiera parviflora (Roxb.) Wight & Arn. ex Griff.; [Rhizophoraceae]; (Berus)	Tree to 24m tall	Inner side of mangrove forests	PM: all coasts; Sb & Sw	MF	TF, UT	CA	2m	EC, FU, WQ
Buchanania arborescens (Blume) Blume; [Anacardiaceae]; (Otak udang)	Tree to 27m tall	Common on riverbanks	PM: throughout; Sb & Sw	FS, RS	UB	CA	5m	DT, MD, TS
Calamus blumei Becc.; [Palmae]; (Rotan)	Clustering rattan climbing to 15m tall	Swampy or wet forest to 800m	Pk, Ph, Sl, NS, Jh	FS, RS	UB	MS	3m	FB, FF
Calamus caesius Blume; [Palmae]; (Rotan)	Clustering rattan to 100m long	Swampy and wet lowland forests	Pk, Ph, Sl, NS, Ml, Jh	FS, RS	UB, TF	GR	2m	FB, FF, TS
Calamus erinaceus (Becc.) J. Dransf.; [Palmae]; (Rotan)	Robust thicket-forming rattan	Back mangrove	Tg, Pk, Ph, Sl, NS, Ml, Jh	MF	TF	GR	2m	FB, FF
Campnosperma auriculatum (Blume) Hook. f.; [Anacardiaceae]; (Terentang daun besar)	Big tree to 33m tall	Lowland swamp and montane forests to 1600m	PM: widespread; Sb & Sw	FS, RS	TF, UT	CA	6m	FF, TS
Campnosperma squamatum Ridl.; [Anacardiaceae]; (Terentang daun kecil)	Tree to 30m tall	Both swampy and dry lowland forest to 1200m	Kl, Tg, Ph, Sl, Jh; Sb & Sw	FS, RS, NS, SS, MS	TF, UT	CA	6m	FF, TS
Caryota maxima Blume; [Palmae]; (Rabak	Solitary fishtail palm to	Montane forest at 1000-1500m	MR	MS	TF	CA	6m	EC, FF



	SPECIES DATA	TA			Id	PLANTING DATA	TA	
Species; [Family]; (Local name)	Habit	Habitat	Distribution	Type of river habitats for planting	Planting zones near river banks	Maximun height/ forest cover	Planting radius/ distance	Socio-economic/ Ecological benefits
Gnnung)	30m tall							
Cerbera odollam Gaertn.; [Apocynaceae]; (Pong-pong)	Small tree	Mangrove and muddy coasts	PM: widespread; Sb & Sw	MF	TF	MS	2m	EC, FU, MD, PO, VO
Chionanthus ramiflorus Roxb.; [Oleaceae];	Tree to 17m tall	Riverine and swamp forest	PM: throughout; Sb & Sw	FS, RS, NS	TF, UT	MS	3m	FF, TS
Chisocheton amabilis (Miq.) C. DC.; [Meliaceae];	Tree to 17m tall	Peat swamp and riparian forest	SI, Ph, Jh	PS, RS, NS	TF	MS	3m	FF, TS
Clerodendrum breviflorum Ridl.; [Verbenaceae]; (Pepanggil)	Small ant-inhabited shrub	Swampy lowland forest	Pk, Sl, Jh; Endemic to PM	FS, RS	TF	GR	1m	FF, OR
Cordia dichotoma G. Forst.; [Boraginaceae];	Tree to 13m tall	Back mangrove	Ps, Kd, Pk, Ph, Sl, Ml, Jh	MF	TF	MS	2.5m	FF, TS
Costus globosus Blume var. ridleyi (K. Schum.) Holttum; [Costaceae]; (Tepus)	Herb to more than 3m tall	Damp lowland forests	Pk, Ph, Sl, NS, Jh	NS, SS	UB	GR	1m	MD, OR
Cratoxylum arborescens (Vahl) Blume var. arborescens; [Guttiferae]; (Geronggang)	Large tree to 42m tall	Lowland swamp forest and in the hills	Pn, Kl, Tg, Pk, Ph, Sl, NS, Ml, Jh; Sb & Sw	RS, NS, SS	UT	CA	8m	DT, TS
Crinum asiaticum L.; [Amaryllidaceae];	Herb to 2m tall	Riverine forest	PM: widespread.	FS, RS	UB	GR	0.5m	EC, FB, OR, WQ
Crudia wrayi Prain; [Leguminosae];	Tree to 6m tall	Lowland swamp forest	Kd, Pk, Jh; Sw	FS, RS	TF	GR	1m	FF, TS
Cryptocarya impressa Miq.; [Lauraceae]; (Medang)	Tree to 33m tall	Lowland forests and swamps	NS, MI, Jh	FS, RS, NS, SS	TF, UT	CA	6m	FF, TS
Cyathea glabra (Blume) Copel.; [Cyatheaceae]; (Paku gajah)	Tree-fern to 4.5m tall	Damp forest to 1700m	Ps, Kd, KL, Tg, Pk, Ph, Sl, NS, Ml, Jh	NS, SS, MS	UB, TF	GR	1m	EC, OR, WQ
Cyathea trichodesma (Scort.) Copel.; [Cyatheaceae]; (Paku gajah)	Tree-fern to 4.5m tall	Swampy lowland forest to 430m	Pk, Ph, Sl, NS	RS, NS, SS	TF	GR	1m	EC, OR, WQ
Cynometra ramiflora L.; [Leguminosae]; (Katong laut)	Bushy-crowned tree to 25m tall	Riverbanks and swamps	PM: widespread; Sb & Sw	RS, NS, SS	TF	CA	5m	EC, FF
Cyperus iria L.; [Cyperaceae];	Herb to about 50cm tall	Open wet places to 700m;	PM: throughout.	FS, RS	LB	GR	0.1m	EC, FP, WQ
Dacryodes incurvata (Engl.) H.J. Lam; [Burseraceae]; (Kedondong)	Tree to 30m tall	Lowland and hill forest including swamps	Kl, Tg, Pk, Ph, Sl, Jh; Sb & Sw	NS, SS	UT	CA	5m	FF, TS
Daemonorops sabut Becc.; [Palmae]; (Rotan)	Clustering rattan to 20m or more tall	Freshwater swamp forest to 250m	Tg, Pk, Ph, NS, Jh	FS, RS, NS, SS	TF	GR	1m	FB, FF, TS
Dialium indum L. var. bursa (de Wit) Rojo; [Leguminosae]; (Keranji paya)	Tree to 35m tall	Lowland swamp forest	PM: widespread; Sb & Sw	FS	UT	CA	7m	FF, TS
Dillenia indica L.; [Dilleniaceae]; (Simpoh)	Tree to 20m tall	On stream banks;	Kl, Tg, Pk, Ph, Sl, Jh	NS, SS	UB	MS	5m	EX, FF, TS
Dipterocarpus oblongifolius Blume;	Large tree	Banks of fast flowing rivers	PM: east of MR; Sb & Sw	NS	UB	CA	8m	EC, FF, TS, WQ





	SPECIES DATA	TA			Td .	PLANTING DATA	TA	
Species; [Family]; (Local name)	Habit	Habitat	Distribution	Type of river habitats for planting	Planting zones near river banks	Maximun height/ forest cover	Planting radius/ distance	Socio-economic/ Ecological benefits
[Dipterocarpaceae]; (Keruing neram)								
Dolichandrone spathacea (L. f.) K.Schum.; [Bignoniaceae]; (Tui)	Tree to 24m tall	Mangroves and other muddy areas near the sea	PM: widespread; Sb & Sw	MF	UT	CA	5m	FB, MD, TS
Dracaena cantleyi Baker; [Dracaenaceae];	Shrub to 4m tall	Swamps and forest margins	PM: widespread	FS, NS	UB	GR	1m	EC, OR
Dracontomelon dao (Blanco) Merr. & Rolfe; [Anacardiaceae];	Big buttressed tree to 36m tall	Lowland forest, often near rivers	Kd, Kl, Tg, Pn, Pk, Ph, Sl, NS	NS, SS	UB	CA	7m	FF, MD, TS
Dryobalanops oblongifolia Dyer ssp. occidentalis P.S. Ashton; [Dipterocarpaceae]; (Kapur paya)	Big tree	Swampy lowland forest	Pk northward; Sw	FS	TF, UT	CA	8m	FF, TS
Duabanga grandiflora (Roxb. ex DC.) Walp.; [Lythraceae];	Tree to 35m tall	Lowland and hills, often near river	NS northward.	NS, SS	TF, UT	CA	7m	EC, FF, TS
Dyera costulata (Miq.) Hook. f.; [Apocynaceae]; (Jelutong)	Huge lactiferous tree to more than 60m tall	Lowland swamp forests	Kd, Kl, Tg, Pn, Pk, Ph, Sl, NS, Ml, Jh; Sb & Sw	FS, PS	TF	CA	10m	EX, TS
Dysoxylum angustifolium King; [Meliaceae];	Rheophytic tree to 9m tall	Banks of fast-flowing rivers	Kl, Tg, Ph; Endemic to PM	NS, SS	LB, UB	GR	2m	FF, PO, TS
Elaeocarpus griffithii (Wight) A. Gray; [Elaeocarpaceae]; (Medang kelawar)	Tree to 7m tall	Lowland forest near rivers and swamps	Kd, Pk, Ph, Sl, Jh; Sb & Sw	FS, NS, SS	TF	GR	1.5m	FF, TS
Eleiodoxa conferta (Griff.) Burret; [Palmae]; (Asam paya)	Stemless thicket-forming feather palm to 6m tall	Wet places in lowland forest	PM: throughout	FS	TF	GR	2m	FB, FB, FF, MD
Etlingera littoralis (J. K"nig) Giseke; [Zingiberaceae]; (Tepus)	Herb 3-6m tall	Damp forest in the lowlands and hills	PM: throughout	NS, SS	UB, TF	GR	0.5m	FF, OR, SF
Etlingera punicea (Roxb.) R.M. Sm.; [Zingiberaceae]; (Tepus)	Herb 2-4m high	Damp forest in the lowlands and hills	PM: throughout	NS, SS	UB, TF	GR	0.5m	FF, OR, SF
Excoecaria agallocha L.; [Euphorbiaceae]; (Buta-buta)	Small tree to 15m tall	Mangrove swamps	PM: all coasts; Sb & Sw	MF	UB	MS	2m	EC, MD, PO, TS, WQ
Fagraea fragrans Roxb.; [Loganiaceae]; (Tembusu)	Tree to 30m tall	Open swampy places	PM: throughout	FS	UT	CA	6m	FF, OR, TS
Fagraea ridleyi King & Gamble; [Loganiaceae]; (Tembusu)	Scandent shrub or small tree	Along riverbanks	PM: scattered	NS	TF	GR	2m	EC, FF, OR
Ficus beccarii King; [Moraceae]; (Ara Tanah)	Srubby earth-fig to 5m tall	Near rocky streams	Tg to Jh	NS, SS	LB	GR	1m	EC, FF
Ficus heterophylla L. f.; [Moraceae]; (Ara)	Srub to 6m tall	Sandy river banks	NS northward	NS	UB	GR	1m	EC, FF
Ficus ischnopoda Miq.; [Moraceae]; (Ara)	Shrub to 5m tall	In and near rocky streams	Central and North PM	NS	LB, UB	GR	1m	EC, FF



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Ficus microcarpa L. f .; [Moraceae]; (Jejawi)	Large tree with aerial roots	Swampy places	PM: widespread; Sb & Sw	FS, RS	UB, TF	CA	15m	EC, EX, FF, MD, OR
Ficus oligodon Miq.; [Moraceae]; (Ara)	Tree to 12m tall	By lowland and mountain streams	north of PM	NS, SS, MS	UB, TF	MS	2.5m	EC, FF
Ficus pisocarpa Blume; [Moraceae]; (Ara)	Tree to 18m tall	Lowland forest near streams	Pk, Ph, Sl, NS, Ml	RS, NS	UB	MS	3.5m	EC, FF
Ficus semicordata BuchHam. ex Sm.; [Moraceae]; (Ara tanah)	Earth-fig to 12m tall	Secondary forest often near streams	north of PM	RS, NS	UB	MS	2.5m	FF, OR, PO
Garcinia opaca King var. dumosa Whitmore; [Guttiferae]; (Kandis)	Tee to 12m tall	Lowland forest and swamps	Pk, Ph, Sl, Jh; Endemic to PM	FS, NR, SS	TF	MS	2.5m	FF
Gardenia pterocalyx Valeton; [Rubiaceae];	Small tree to 5m tall	Lowland swamp and hill forest	Tg, Ph	RS, NS, SS	UB, TF	GR	1m	EC, FF, OR
Globba variabilis Ridl. ssp. variabilis; [Zingiberaceae]; (Tepus)	Herb to 50m tall	Damp places in lowland and hill forest	Pk southward; Endemic to PM	NS, SS, MS	LB, UB	GR	0.1m	MD, SF
Glochidion perakense (Mull.Arg.) Airy Shaw; [Euphorbiaceae];	Shrub or small tree to 6m tall	Tidal freshwater reaches	PM: widespread	RS	UB	GR	1m	EC, FF
Gluta malayana (Corner) Ding Hou; [Anacardiaceae]; (Rengas)	Tree to 45m tall	Lowland forest including swamps	Kd, Tg, Pk, Ph, Sl, Jh	FS, NS, SS	TF	CA	9m	PO, TS
Gluta pubescens (Ridl.) Ding Hou; [Anacardiaceae]; (Rengas)	Tree to 40m tall	Lowland forest, including swamps, to 400m	Kl, Tg, Ph, NS, Ml, Jh	FS, NS, SS	TF	CA	8m	PO, TS
Gluta renghas L.; [Anacardiaceae]; (Rengas)	Tree to 30m tall	Tidal freshwater reaches	Kd, Kl, Tg, Ph, Jh	FS, RS	UB	CA	em	EC, PO, TS, WQ
Gluta velutina Blume; [Anacardiaceae]; (Rengas)	Large shrub or stilt-rooted tree to 20m tall	Banks of tidal rivers	Kd, Pk, Ph, Sl, Jh	MF, RS	LB, UB	MS	4m	EC, FV, PO, TS
Gonystylus bancanus (Miq.) Kurz; [Thymelaeaceae]; (Ramin melawis)	Tree to 27m tall	Peat swamp forest	Pk, Sl, Jh; Sb & Sw	PS	TF	CA	5.5m	FF, MD, TS
Guioa pleuropteris (Blume) Radlk.; [Sapindaceae]; (Penyamok)	Tree to 10m tall	Riverine forest	PM: widespread; Sb & Sw	NS, SS	UB	GR	2m	FF, MD, TS
Gymnacranthera farquhariana (Hook. f. & Thomson) Warb. var. zippeliana (Miq.) R.T.A. Schouten; [Myristicaceae]; (Pendarahan)	Tree to 30m tall	Lowland swamp forest	Pk, Ph, Sl, Jh	FS, PS	TF	CA	6m	FF, TS
Gynotroches axillaris Blume; [Rhizophoraceae]; (Mata keli)	Tree to 36m tall	Lowland swamps, to mountains at 1400m	PM: throughout; Sb & Sw	FS, NS, SS, MS	TF, UT	CA	7m	FF, MD, TS
Hanguana malayana (Jack) Мет.; [Hanguanaceae]; (Bakung)	Herb to 2m tall	Lowland swamps to mountains at 1500m	PM: widespread	FS, PS, RS, NS, SS, MS	LB, UB, TF, UT	GR	0.4m	EC, FB, WQ
Helicia attemata (Jack) Blume; [Proteaceae]; (Golang paya)	Shrub or small tree to 20m tall	Lowlands and mountains near streams	Ps, Kd, Kl, Tg, Pn, Pk, Ph, Sl, Jh; Sb & Sw	NS, SS, MS	TF	MS	4m	EX



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Helicia robusta (Roxb.) R.Br. ex Wall.; [Proteaceae]; (Medang keladi)	Small tree to 10m tall	Lowland and hill forest, mostly near streams	Kd, Kl, Tg, Ph, Sl, Ml, Jh; Sb & Sw	NS, SS	UB, TF	GR	2m	FV, MD, PO, TS
Heritiera littoralis Dryand.; [Sterculiaceae]; (Dungun)	Small bushy tree to 15m tall	Mangrove swamps	PM: all coasts; Sb & Sw	MF	TF	MS	2m	EC, TS
Hibiscus floccosus Mast.; [Malvaceae]; (Kangsar)	Tree to 20m tall	Lowland forests, often along rivers	Ml northward; Endemic to PM	RS, NS, SS	TF, UT	MS	4m	FB, FF, TS
Hibiscus tiliaceus L.; [Malvaceae]; (Baru-baru)	Tree to 12m tall	Tidal freshwater reaches	PM: throughout; Sb & Sw	MR, RS	UB, TF	MS	2.5m	EC, FB, FP, FV, MD, OR, TS
Homalium foetidum (Roxb.) Benth.; [Flacourtiaceae];	Tree to 24m tall	Lowland forest often near rivers	Pn, Kl, Pk, Ml.	NS, SS	UB, TF	CA	5m	EC, TS
Hopea coriacea Burck; [Dipterocarpaceae]; (Giam hantu)	Tall buttressed tree	Lowland forest, often near rivers	Kl, Tg, Ph; Sw	NS, SS	UB, TF	CA	7m	EC, TS
Ilex maingayi Hook. f ; [Aquifoliaceae];	Small to medium-sized tree	Peat swamp forest	South and west of PM; Endemic	PS	TF	MS	4m	FF
Intsia bijuga (Colebr.) Kuntze; [Leguminosae]; (Merbau ipil)	Tree to 25m tall	Tidal reaches of rivers	PM: throughout; Sb & Sw	MF, RS	UB	CA	5m	FF, MD, TS
Ixora lobbii King & Gamble var. stenophylla Corner; [Rubiaceae]; (Jejarum)	Shrub to 2m tall	Rocky stream banks in lowland forest	PM: widespread.	NS, SS	UB	GR	0.4m	FF, MD, OR
Jackiopsis ornata (Wall.) Ridsdale; [Rubiaceae]; (Medang gambut)	Tree to 35m tall	Lowland swamps or near rivers	PM: widespread; Sb & Sw	FS, NS, SS	UB, TF	CA	7m	TS
Kailarsenia tentaculata (Hook. f.) Tirveng.; [Rubiaceae];	Shrub to 1.5m tall	Riverbanks	PM: widespread	NS, SS	UB	GR	0.3m	FF, OR
Knema curtisii (King) Warb. var. paludosa J. Sinclair; [Myristicaceae]; (Pendarahan)	Tree to 10m tall	Freshwater swamp forest	Pn, Kl, Tg, Pk, Ph, Sl, NS, Ml, Jh; Sb & Sw	FS	TF	GR	2m	FF, TS
Lagerstroemia speciosa (L.) Pers.; [Lythraceae]; (Bungor)	Tree to 15m tall	Open country near rivers	NS northward; Sb & Sw	NS, SS	UB, TF	MS	3m	DT, EC, EX, FF, MD, OR, TS
Lasianthus filiformis King & Gamble var. bracteatus King & Gamble; [Rubiaceae];	Shrub to 1m tall	Lowland and hill forest, including swamps	Tg, Pk, Ph, Sl, NS; Endemic to PM	FS, RS, NS, SS	TF	GR	0.2m	FF, OR
Licuala spinosa Wurmb; [Palmae]; (Palas)	Clumping fan palm to 6m tall	Open country near rivers	PM: throughout	FS, RS, NS	UB, TF	GR	1m	FB, FF, OR
Lophopetalum multinervium Ridl.; [Celastraceae]; (Perupok)	Tree to 35m tall often with short columnar pneumatophores	Peat swamp forest	Pk, Ph, Jh; Sb & Sw	PS	UB	CA	7m	EC, FF, TS



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Species; [Family]; (Local name)	Habit	Habitat	Distribution	Type of river habitats for planting	Planting zones near river banks	Maximun height/ forest cover	Planting radius/ distance	Socio-economic/ Ecological benefits
Macaranga diepenhorstii Mull.Arg.; [Euphorbiaceae]; (Mahang)	Tree to 24m tall	Along rivers in primary forest	Kl, Tg, Pk, Ph, Sl, Ml	RS, NS, SS	UB, TF	CA	5m	EC, FF
Macaranga motleyana (Mull.Arg.) Mull.Arg. ssp. griffthiana (Mull.Arg.) Whitmore; [Euphorbiaceae]; (Mahang bulan)	Small bushy tree	Freshwater swamp forest	PM: throughout; Sb & Sw	FS, RS	UB, TF	GR	2m	EC, FF
Macaranga pruinosa (Miq.) Mull.Arg.; [Euphorbiaceae];	Tree to 15m tall	Freshwater swamp forest	PM: throughout; Sb & Sw	FS, PS	TF	MS	3m	EC, FF
Macaranga puncticulata Gage; [Euphorbiaceae]; (Mahang)	Tree to 15m tall	Freshwater swamp forest	Pk, SI, MI, Jh	FS, RS	TF	MS	3m	EC, FF
Madhuca motleyana (de Vriese) J.F. Macbr.; [Sapotaceae]; (Nyatoh ketiau)	Tree to 35m tall	Lowland forest and swamps	PM: widespread; Sb & Sw	FS, NA, SS	TF	CA	7m	EX, FF, TS
Mallotus floribundus (Blume) Mull.Arg.; [Euphorbiaceae]; (Balik angina)	Small tree	Common along river banks	Ph northward, also Jh; Sb & Sw	RS, NS	UB, TF	GR	2m	FF, MD, TS
Mapania squamata (Kurz) C.B. Clarke; [Cyperaceae];	Large tufted herb	Damp lowland and hill forest to 1500m	SI, NS, Jh	NS, SS, MS	TF, UT	GR	0.2m	EC, OR
Mapania tenuiscapa C.B. Clarke; [Cyperaceae];	Large tufted herb	Damp lowland forest	Kd, Pk, Ph, NS, MI, Jh	NS, SS	TF	GR	0.2m	EC, OR
Melaleuca cajuputi Powell; [Myrtaceae]; (Gelam)	Shrub or tree to 24m tall	Freshwater swamp forest	PM: widespread	FS	TF, UT	CA	5m	BV, EC, EO, FB, FU, MD, OR, TS
Merope angulata (Willd.) Swingle; [Rutaceae];	Spiny shrub or small tree	Mangrove swamps	Pk, NS, MI, Sp	MF	TF, UT	GR	2m	EO, FF, MD
Mesua ferruginea (Pierre) Kosterm.; [Guttiferae]; (Penaga)	Small tree	By lowland rivers	K1, Ph, Jh	RS, NS, SS	UB, TF	GR	2m	FF, TS
Microcos antidesmifolia (King) Burret; [Tiliaceae]; (Bunsi)	Tree to 24m tall	Lowland forest, often near rivers	Kl, Tg, Pk, Ph, Sl, Jh	RS, NS, SS	UB, TF	CA	5m	FB, FF, TS
Mussaendopsis beccariana Baill.; [Rubiaceae]; (Merlimau penyabong)	Tree to 35m tall	Freshwater swamp forest	Pk, Ph, Sl, NS, Ml, Jh; Sb & Sw	FS	TF	CA	7m	FF, TS
<i>Myristica elliptica</i> Wall. <i>Ex</i> Hook. <i>f. &</i> Thomson; [Myristicaceae]; (Pendarahan)	Tree to 30m tall	Freshwater swamp forest	PM: throughout	FS	TF	CA	6m	FF, MD, TS
Myristica lowiana King; [Myristicaceae]; (Pendarahan)	Stilt-rooted tree to 25m tall	Peat swamp forest	PM: scattered	PS	TF	CA	5m	FF, TS
Neesia malayana Bakh.; [Bombacaceae]; (Bengang)	Tree to 25m tall	Freshwater swamp forest	PM: Tg, Ph, Jh; Sb & Sw	FS, RS	TF, UT	CA	5m	FF, TS
Neolamarckia cadamba (Roxb.) Bosser;	Pagoda tree to 40m tall	Lowland and hill forest, often	Jh northwards	NS, SS	Ub, TF	CA	8m	FB, FF, MD, OR,





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[Rubiaceae];		near rivers						L
Neonauclea pallida (Reinw. ex Havil.) Bakh. f. ssp. malaccensis (Gand.) Ridsdale; [Rubiaceae]; (Mengkal)	Shrub or small tree to 12m tall	Lowland to montane forest, often near rivers	PM: widespread	NS, SS, MS	UB, TF	MS	2.5m	EC, FF
Neoscortechinia philippinensis (Merr.) Welzen; [Euphorbiaceae]; (Beki)	Small tree	Lowland and hill forest to 700m, often in swamps	Kd, Tg, Sl, Jh; Sb & Sw	FS, RS, NS, SS	UB, TF	GR	2m	EC, TS
Nephelium lappaceum L. var. pallens (Hiern) Leenh.; [Sapindaceae]; (Rambutan)	Tree to 25m tall	Swampy lowland forest to 400m	PM: scattered; Sb & Sw	FS, RS, NS, SS	TF	CA	5m	DT, FF, MD, TS, VO
Nephelium laurinum Blume; [Sapindaceae];	Tree to 20m tall	Lowland forest, often near streams	PM: widespread.	NS, SS	UB, TF	SW	4m	FF, TS
Nephelium ramboutan-ake (Labill.) Leenh.; [Sapindaceae]; (Pulasan)	Tree to 35m tall	Lowland forest, often near rivers	Pn, Kl, Tg, Pk, Ph, Sl, Ml; Sb & Sw	NS, SS	UB, TF	CA	7m	BV, FF, MD, TS, VO
Norrisia maior Soler.; [Loganiaceae]; (Sarapak paya)	Tree to 24m tall	Lowland forest, often near rivers	Sl southward; Sb & Sw	NS, SS	UB, TF	CA	5m	FF, TS
Nypa fruticans Wurmb; [Palmae]; (Nipah)	Rizomatous rosette feather palm to 6m tall	Gregarious in tidal reaches of estuaries	PM: throughout	MF	LB, UB	GR	1m	BV, EC, FB, FF, FS, MD, WQ
Oncosperma tigillarium (Jack) Ridl.; [Palmae]; (Nibong)	20m-tall spiny feather palm growing in many-stemmed clumps	Back mangrove	PM: throughout	MF, RS	UB, TF	WS	4m	FF, FV, OR, TS
Palaquium xanthochymum (de Vriese) Pierre ex Burck; [Sapotaceae]; (Nyatoh babi)	Tee to 40m tall	Lowland swamp forest	Tg, Pk, Ph, Sl, Jh	FS, RS	UB, TF	CA	8m	EX, FF, TS
Pandanus affinis Kurz; [Pandanaceae]; (Mengkuang)	Srub to 5m tall	Freshwater or brackish swamps	Tg, Ph, SI, NS, Jh	MF, RS	UB	GR	1m	EC, FB, FF, WQ
Pandanus helicopus Kurz; [Pandanaceae]; (Rasau)	Tall erect aquatic shrub	Freshwater swamps, usually standing in water	Sl, Ph, Jh	FS, RS	LB, UB	GR	2m	EC, FB, FF, WQ
Pandanus motleyanus Solms; [Pandanaceae]; (Mengkuang)	Sender erect shrub to 5m tall	Near forest streams or in swampy forest	PM: scattered	FS, RS, NS	UB, TF	GR	1m	FB, FF
Pandanus yvanii Solms; [Pandanaceae]; (Mengkuang)	Tall prickly shrub 5-6m tall	Common along water courses in shady forest	Pk, Ph, Sl, NS, Ml, Jh	NS, SS	UB	GR	1m	FB, FF
Parishia insignis Hook. f ; [Anacardiaceae];	Very tall tree reaching 60m	Lowlands to 300m, including swamps	Kd, Kl, Pn, Pk, Ph, Ml, Jh	FS, NS, SS	TF, UT	CA	12m	FF, TS
Pentaspadon velutimus Hook. f.; [Anacardiaceae]; (Pelong)	Big tree to 48m tall	Lowland and hill forest, often by streams	KI, Pk, Ph, SI, NS, MI	FS, NS, SS	UB, TF	CA	9.5m	FF, TS



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Species; [Family]; (Local name)	Habit	Habitat	Distribution	Type of river habitats for planting	Planting zones near river banks	Maximun height/ forest cover	Planting radius/ distance	Socio-economic/ Ecological benefits
Phoenix paludosa Roxb.; [Palmae]; (Kurma)	Clumping feather palm to 6m tall	Inland edge of mangrove forests	Ps, Kd, Kl, Tg, Pn, Pk	MF	TF	GR	lm	DT, FB, FF, FV, OR
Pholidocarpus kingianus (Becc.) Ridl.; [Palmae]; (Serdang)	Solitary fan palm to 25m tall	Lowland swamp forest	PM: widespread and endemic	FS	TF	CA	5m	FF, TS
Pholidocarpus macrocarpus Becc.; [Palmae]; (Serdang)	Solitary fan palm to 15m tall	Lowland swamp forest	PM: widespread	FS	TF	MS	3m	FF, TS
Phragmites vallatoria (Pluk. ex L.) Veldkamp; [Gramineae];	Reed to 3m tall	Margins of rivers and lakes	Ps, Kd, Pn, Pk, Ph, Sl, NS, Ml, Jh	FS, RS	LB, UB	GR	0.6m	EC, FB, FP, WQ
Phyllanthus pulcher Wall. Ex Mull. Arg.; [Euphorbiaceae];	Shrub to 60cm tall	Open ground, often near rivers	PM: widespread	NS, SS	LB, UB	GR	0.1m	EC,FF, MD
Pimelodendron macrocarpum J.J.Sm.; [Euphorbiaceae]; (Perah ikan)	Tree to 18m tall	Lowland swamp forest	SI, MI, Jh; Sb & Sw	FS, RS	TF	MS	3.5m	EX, FF, TS
Piptospatha perakensis (Engl.) Engl.; [Araceae]; (Keladi)	Herb to 50cm tall	On rocks in flowing rivers and streams	PM: widespread	NS, SS	LB, UB	GR	0.1m	FF, OR, WQ
Pleiocarpidia enneandra (Wight) K. Schum.; [Rubiaceae];	Small tree to 16m tall	Lowland forest including swamps	Pn, Pk, Ph, Sl, Ml, Jh; Endemic to PM	FS, RS, NS, SS	TF	MS	3m	FF, MD, TS
Polyalthia glauca (Hassk.) F. Muell.; [Annonaceae]; (Mempisang)	Tree to 45m tall	Lowland swamp forest	Tg, Pk, Ph, Sl, Jh; Sb & Sw	FS, RS	TF	CA	9m	FF, TS
Polyalthia hypoleuca Hook. f. & Thomson; [Annonaceae]; (Mempisang)	Tree to 30m tall	Lowland and peat swamp forests	Pn, Kl, Tg, Pk, Ph, Sl, NS, Ml, Jh; Sb & Sw	PS, RS	UB, TF	CA	em	FF, MD, TS
Pometia pinnata J.R. Forst. & G. Forst.; [Sapindaceae]; (Kasai daun besar)	Tree to 40m tall	Damp forest in the lowlands and hills	PM: throughout; Sb & Sw	RS, NS, SS	UB, TF	CA	8m	EC, FF, MD, OR, TS
Pongamia pinnata (L.) Pierre var. xerocarpa (Hassk.) Alston; [Leguminosae]; (Mempari)	Small tree to 20m tall	Inland, often along rivers	PM: all coasts	RS, NS	TF	MS	4m	FF, MD, OR, TS
Pierocarpus indicus Willd.; [Leguminosae]; (Angsana)	Tree to 30m tall	Along tidal rivers	Ph, Jh; Sb & Sw	MF, RS	UB, TF	CA	6m	DT, EX, FF, MD, OR, TS
Rhizophora apiculata Blume; [Rhizophoraceae]; (Bakau minyak)	Stilt-rooted tree to 30m tall	Mangrove forest	PM: all coasts; Sb & Sw	MF	LB, UB	CA	6m	DT, EC, FF, FU, TS
Rhizophora mucronata Lam.; [Rhizophoraceae]; (Bakau kurap)	Stilt-rooted tree to 30m tall	Mangrove forest	PM: all coasts; Sb & Sw	MF	LB, UB	CA	em	EC, FF, FU, TS
Rhynchospora corymbosa (L.) Britt.; [Cyperaceae];	Herb to 100cm tall	Open swampy places to 1200m	PM: throughout	FS, RS	LB, UB	GR	0.2m	EC, FB, WQ
Ryparosa hullettii King; [Flacourtiaceae];	Shrub or tree to 20m tall	Lowland swamp forest	Tg, Pk, Jh; Sb & Sw	FS, RS	TF	MS	4m	TS, FF





	SPECIES DATA	TA			PL	PLANTING DATA	TA	
Species; [Family]; (Local name)	Habit	Habitat	Distribution	Type of river habitats for planting	Planting zones near river banks	Maximun height/ forest cover	Planting radius/ distance	Socio-economic/ Ecological benefits
Saccharum arundinaceum Retz.; [Gramineae]; (Tebu)	Reed to 4m tall	Common on river banks	Kd, Tg, Pn, Pk, Ph	RS, NS, SS	LB, UB	GR	1m	EC, OR, WQ
Sacciolepis indica (L.) Chase var. indica; [Gramineae];	Herb to 50cm tall	Open grassy and swampy places to 1700m	Pk, Ph, Sl, NS, Ml, Jh	FS, RS, NS, SS, MS	UB	GR	0.1m	EC, FB, FP, WQ
Saraca cauliflora Baker; [Leguminosae]; (Gapis)	Tree to 15m tall	Lowland and hill forest, often riverine	MI and Ph northward	SS	LB, UB	MS	3m	EC, FF, WQ
Saraca declinata (Jack) Miq.; [Leguminosae]; (Gapis)	Tree to 15m tall	Lowland and hill forest, often riverine	PM: widespread; Sb & Sw	SS	LB, UB	MS	3m	EC, FF, WQ
Sarcotheca laxa (Ridl.) Knuth var. laxa; [Oxalidaceae];	Shrub or tree to 23m tall	Swamps and forest margins	Ps, Kd, Kl, Tg, Pk; Endemic to PM	FS, RS, NS	TF	CA	4.5m	FF
Schizostachyum gracile (Munro) Holttum; [Gramineae]; (Buluh)	Bamboo to 4m tall bending over at the top	Forest margins and river banks	Tg, Ph, Sl, NS, Ml, Jh; Endemic to PM	NS, SS	UB, TF	GR	1m	EC, FF
Schizostachyum latifolium Gamble; [Gramineae]; (Buluh)	Bamboo to 5m tall	Forest-river boundaries in the lowlands	PM: throughout	RS, NS, SS	UB, TF	GR	1m	EC, FF
Schizostachyum latifolium Gamble; [Gramineae]; (Buluh)	Bamboo to 5m tall	Forest-river boundaries in the lowlands	PM: throughout	RS, NS, SS	UB, TF	GR	1m	EC, FF
Shorea macrantha Brandis; [Dipterocarpaceae]; (Meranti kepong hantu)	Tree of middle size	Peat swamp forest;	Pk, Ph, Jh; Sw	PS	TF	MS	3m	TS
Shorea palembanica Miq.; [Dipterocarpaceae]; (Meranti tekawang ayer)	Tree of middle size	Lowland swamp forest	Tg, Pk, Ph, Jh; Sb & Sw	NS, SS	TF, UT	MS	3m	TS
Shorea uliginosa Foxw.; [Dipterocarpaceae]; (Meranti bakau)	Large buttressed tree	Peat swamp forest	Pk, Sl; Sw	PS	TF	CA	8m	TS
Sonneratia caseolaris (L.) Engl.; [Lythraceae]; (Berembang)	Tree to 15m tall	Mangroves and tidal river banks	PM: common in the west coast	MF	LB, UB	MS	3m	DT, FB, FF, MD, TS
Stemonurus secundiflorus Blume; [Icacinaceae]; (Perepat bukit)	Tree to 12m tall	Forest to 1500m, mostly in lowland swamps	Pk, Ph, Sl, Jh; Sb & Sw	FS, PS, MS	TF	MS	2.5m	FF, MD, TS
Sterculia gilva Miq.; [Sterculiaceae]; (Kalumpang)	Tree to 40m tall	Lowland swamp forest	Tg, Pk, Ph, Ml, Jh	FS, RS	TF, UT	CA	8m	FF, TS
Syzygium cerinum (M.R. Hend.) I.M. Turner var. cerinum; [Myrtaceae]; (Kelat)	Tree to 27m tall	Lowland swamp forest	Pn to Jh	FS, RS	UB, TF	CA	5.5m	EC
Syzygium foxworthianum (Ridl.) Merr. & L.M. Perry; [Myrtaceae]; (Kelat)	Small bushy tree	Riverbanks	Kl, Tg, Pk, Ph	FS, RS, NS	UB, TF	GR	2m	EC
Syzygium leucoxylum Korth.; [Myrtaceae];	Tree to 15m tall	Tidal rivers	Pn, Tg, Pk, Ph, Jh	MF, RS	UB	MS	3m	FF



	SPECIES DATA	ΓA			PL	PLANTING DATA	ŢĀ	
Species; [Family]; (Local name)	Habit	Habitat	Distribution	Type of river habitats for planting	Planting zones near river banks	Maximun height/ forest cover	Planting radius/ distance	Socio-economic/ Ecological benefits
(Kelat)								
Syzygium muelleri (Miq.) Miq.; [Myrtaceae]; (Kelat)	Tree to 22m tall	Lowlands, often near streams	Pk to Jh	RS, NS, SS	UB	CA	4.5m	EC
Syzygium salictoides (Ridl.) I.M. Turner; [Myrtaceae]; (Kelat)	Rheophytic shrub	In and near streams	Tg, Ph; Endemic to PM	NS, SS	LB, UB	GR	1m	EC, WQ
Tarenna odorata (Roxb.) B.L. Rob.; [Rubiaceae];	Shrub or small tree to 6m tall	Lowland forest including swamps	Pn, Pk, Sl, Ml, Jh; Endemic to PM	FS, RS, NS, SS	TF	GR	1m	OR
Terminalia phellocarpa King; [Combretaceae];	Tree to 30m tall	Swampy or alluvial forest	Kd, Kl, Tg, Pk, Ph, Sl, NS, Ml, Jh	FS, RS	UB, TF	CA	6m	MD
Tetramerista glabra Miq.; [Tetrameristaceae]; (Punah)	Tree to 35m tall	Lowland freshwater and peat swamp forest	Kd, Tg, Pk, Ph, Sl, Ml, Jh; Sb & Sw	FS, PS	TF	CA	7m	FF, TS
Tristaniopsis whiteana (Griff.) Peter G. Wilson & J.T. Waterh.; [Myrtaceae]; (Pelawan)	Tree to 24m tall	River banks in the lowlands	PM: widespread; Sb & Sw	RS, NS, SS	UB	CA	5m	LS
Vatica lobata Foxw.; [Dipterocarpaceae]; (Resak)	Small tree	Lowland forest near streams	Tg, Ph, Jh; Endemic to PM	RS, NS, SS	UB	GR	2m	TS
Vatica venulosa Blume; [Dipterocarpaceae]; (Resak letop)	Small tree	Lowland swamp forest	Pk, Ph; Sb & Sw	FS, RS	TF	GR	2m	TS
Xylocarpus granatum J. K"nig; [Meliaceae]; (Nyireh bunga)	Tree to 15m tall	Mangroves	PM: all coasts; Sb & Sw	MF	UB	MS	2m	FU, TS
<i>Xylopia fusca</i> Maingay <i>ex</i> Hook. <i>f.</i> & Thomson var. <i>fusca</i> ; [Annonaceae]; (Jangkang paya)	Tree to 30m tall	Lowland swamp forest	Kd, NS, Jh; Endemic to PM; Sw	FS, PS, RS	TF	CA	6m	FF, TS
Zingiber spectabile Griff.; [Zingiberaceae]; (Tepus)	Herb to about 2m tall	Damp lowland forests	NS northward	NS, SS	TF	GR	0.4m	FF, MD, OR



Abbreviations:

Distribution:

PM=Peninsular Malaysia, Ps=Perlis, Kd=Kedah, Pn=Pulau Pinang, Kl=Kelantan, Tg=Trengganu, Pk=Perak, Ph=Pahang, Sl=Selangor, NS=Negeri Sembilan, Ml=Melaka, Jh=Johor, Sb=Sabah, Sw=Sarawak

Type of river habitats for planting:

MS=Montane stream, SS=Saraca stream, NS=Neram stream, RS=Rasau stream, FS=Freshwater stream, PS=Peatswamp, MF=Mangrove

Maximum height/forest cover:

CA=Canopy, MS=Middle storey, GR=Ground

Planting zones near river bank (Refer also to Figure 1):

LB=Lower bank, UB=Upper bank, TF=Terrace face, UT=Upper terrace

Socio-economic/Ecological benefits:

BV=Beverages, DT=Dyes and tannins, EC=Ecology/reafforestation, EO=Essential oils, EX=Exudate/resins, FB=Fibre/thach, FF=Fruits, flowers and seeds (food for wildlife), FU=Fuel/charcoal, FV=Vegetables, MD=Medicinal plants, OR=Ornamental, PO=Poison, SF=Spices/flavours, TS=Timber/structure, VO=Vegetable oils, WQ=Water quality improvement

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End Notes

Biodiversity supports ecosystem services which are essentially the multitude of goods and services critical to human well-being provided by ecosystems. These may be classified into four groups: provisioning services such as food and water; regulating services such as flood, pest and disease control; cultural services such as spiritual and recreational benefits; and supporting services such as nutrient cycling, that maintain the conditions for life on Earth.

Changes in these services affect human well-being through impacts on security, the basic material for a good life, health and social and cultural relations. The Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, completed in 2005 by more than 1,360 scientists working in 95 countries, examined the state of 24 services. The assessment concluded that 15 of the 24 services are in decline, including the provision of fresh water, marine fisheries production and the number and quality of places of spiritual and religious value. The multitude of human drivers of change has significant negative repercussions on the ability of ecosystems to provide these services to all species. Two drivers – accelerated climate change and excessive nutrient loading – are predicted to become more severe in the next 50 years. For more information, go to: www.milleniumassessment.org

Table: Biodiversity and ecosystem services

		Biodiversity & ecosys	tems		
Provisionin	g services	Regulating servic	es	Cul	tural services
Products obt		Benefits obtained fr regulation of ecosys processes		_	rial benefits obtained m ecosystems
• Food		 Climate regulation 		Spiritual	& religious
• Fresh water		 Pest regulation 		Recreati	on & ecotourism
• Timber		 Runoff/flood regulatio 	n	Aesthetic & inspirational	
• Fuel wood		 Water purification 		Education	onal
• Fibre		 Pollination 		Cultural	heritage
• Biochemicals		 Erosion regulation 			
Genetic resource	ces				
		Supporting service	es		
,	Services necessary	y for the production of all	other eco	osystem serv	rices
Soil formation	Nutrient cycling	g Primary production		ision of ıbitat	Oxygen production

Adapted from: A Common Vision on Biodiversity (NRE, 2008)

- Biological interactions are essentially the relationships between two species in an ecosystem. These relationships are categorised based either on the effects or on the mechanism of the interaction. Species may meet once in a generation (e.g. pollination) or live completely within another (e.g., endo-symbiosis). Effects may range from one species eating the other (predation), to both living together with mutual benefit (mutualism). There is also (commensalism) where one of the organisms benefits and the other neither benefits nor is harmed. Competition is the utilisation of limited resources by two or more organisms. The interactions between two species need not be through direct contact. Due to the connected nature of ecosystems, species may affect each other through intermediaries such as shared resources or common enemies.
- Nitrogen is most commonly transported as dissolved nitrogen (nitrates) through subsurface flows (Pionke et al., 1996). The primary mechanism for nitrate removal by riparian forests is



denitrification, which is a process whereby nitrogen in the form of nitrate (NO_3) is converted by microorganisms to gaseous NO_2 and N_2 and released into the atmosphere. In order for denitrification to occur, certain soil conditions must be present:

- 1) a high or perched water table;
- 2) alternating periods of aerobic and anaerobic conditions;
- 3) healthy populations of denitrifying bacteria; and
- 4) sufficient amount of available organic carbon.

Denitrification is most effective in root-zone soil layers where carbon sources are available for the denitrifying bacteria. Numerous researchers have reported that it is the complex interaction between vegetation and below-ground environment that provides the appropriate conditions for denitrification to occur (Lowrance et al., 1995). The majority of denitrification that has been observed in riparian buffers occurred within the first 4.5m of the forested riparian buffer.

Vegetation in riparian buffers also removes nitrogen and phosphorous through uptake. Some of these nutrients are sequestered in woody vegetation, whereas the nutrients absorbed into herbaceous (e.g. leaves) materials are recycled as the vegetative matter dies.

Phosphorus most often enters the stream adsorbed into soil particles and organic materials in surface runoff after storm events (Pionke et al., 1996). Although riparian zones can be important sinks for phosphorus, they are generally less effective in removing phosphorus than sediment or nitrogen.

The primary mechanism for phosphorus removal by riparian buffers is the deposition of phosphorus associated with sediments. In addition to the settling of particulate phosphorus, dissolved phosphorus may also be removed from runoff through adsorption by clay particles, particularly where there are soils containing clays with high levels of aluminum and iron. Some have suggested that because clays tend to accumulate in riparian soils, riparian areas play an important role in the removal of dissolved phosphorus (Walbridge and Struthers, 1993). However, others have found that soils are limited in their capacity to adsorb large loads of phosphorus, and in areas where excessive phosphorus enrichment occur, soils become saturated within a few years (Mozaffari and Sims, 1994).

Unlike nitrogen, phosphorus absorption is reduced in soils with high organic matter (Walbridge and Struthers, 1993). Some phosphorus may be taken up and used by vegetation and soil microbes, but like nitrogen, much of this phosphorus is eventually returned to the soil.

Many factors influence the ability of the riparian buffer to remove **sediments** from land runoff, including the sediment size and loads, slope, type and density of riparian vegetation, presence or absence of a surface litter layer, soil structure, subsurface drainage patterns, and frequency and force of storm events.

Probably the most important consideration is the maintenance of shallow sheet flow into and across the buffer. Where concentrated flow paths (e.g. rivulets) begin to form or deep sediments begin to accumulate, the buffer can no longer maintain its filtering ability.

Few studies have been done to examine the fate of **pesticides** in riparian areas. However, where the proper conditions exist, riparian forest buffers have the potential to remove and detoxify pesticides in runoff. Pesticides, like other organic chemicals, are acted upon by various chemical and biological processes in the soil environment. Probably the most important process is the breakdown of organic chemicals by soil microorganisms (MacKay, 1992). Soil microorganisms adapt to the presence pesticides and begin to metabolize it as an energy source. As it is metabolized, the pesticides are broken down to various intermediate compounds, and ultimately carbon dioxide. In addition, most pesticides have a high affinity for clay and organic matter, and may be removed from the soil water as they are bound to soil particles.

Analysis of the woody tissues of trees in the riparian zone reveal that **metal** compounds are taken up by the trees. Therefore, sediment deposition and uptake by woody vegetation may help mitigate heavy metals in riparian areas (Hupp et al., 1993).

Hydrology, i.e. the speed, depth and pathways in which water moves through or over the buffer is the most important factor which determines the effectiveness of riparian buffers. Hydrology in



the riparian zone is influenced by local geology, topography, soils and catchment characteristics.

In areas where slope is minimal and surface water flows are slow, shallow and uniform, riparian buffers can be highly effective in slowing the force of stormwater and reducing the amount of sediment, crop debris and other particulate materials that reach streams.

However, riparian buffers are not effective when deep groundwater flow paths cause drainage to bypass (flow below) the riparian zone. For example, in order for nitrate to be removed through denitrification, the ground water must enter a zone where plant roots are or have been active.

Sediment and sediment-associated pollutants, such as some pesticides and phosphorus, move to surface waters almost exclusively through surface runoff. Therefore, when surface runoff becomes concentrated and runs through the buffer in defined channels (usually due to a lack of vegetation), the ability of the buffer to influence surface waters is limited.

Soils in riparian zones are highly variable; a combination of local soils weathered in place, deposits of sediments from storm events and the accumulation of organic debris (Lowrance et al., 1985). Soil features which influence water quality include the depth to the water table, soil permeability, texture, chemistry and organic matter content (US EPA, 1993). These features affect the way and the rate at which water flows over and through the riparian area, the extent to which groundwater remains in contact with plant roots and with soil particles and the degree to which soils become anaerobic.

Riparian forests with organic soils have great potential to enhance water quality, by infiltrating a large amount of surface runoff, adsorbing nitrogen and other contaminants and supplying carbon needed to fuel microbial processes. Many of the water quality functions of the riparian area are a result of the activity of soil microorganisms. Soil microorganisms influence water quality in several ways. Like plants, microorganisms take up and convert nutrients to forms which are less biologically available and more readily stored in the soil. Soil microorganisms also utilise and metabolise organic chemicals such as pesticides as energy sources and in the process, transform the chemicals to less toxic compounds. Finally, soil microorganisms are responsible for many chemical reduction reactions that occur in the soil, including denitrification and the reduction of sulphur, iron and other compounds (Mitsch and Gosselink, 1993).

- Silviculture is the art and science of controlling the establishment, growth, composition, health and quality of forests.
- Also refer to the **Urban Stormwater Management Manual for Malaysia** (DID, 2000), which provides a list of recommended plant species, together with the specific functions of each species such as for pollution control and slope stabilisation.