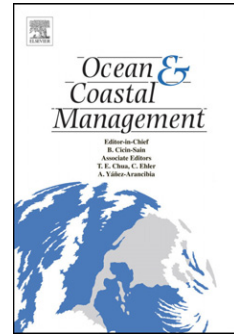


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# Accepted Manuscript

Enhancing the Knowledge-Governance Interface: Coasts, Climate and Collaboration

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PII: S0964-5691(13)00034-3

DOI: [10.1016/j.ocecoaman.2013.02.009](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocecoaman.2013.02.009)

Reference: OCMA 3176

To appear in: *Ocean and Coastal Management*

Please cite this article as: Clarke B, Stocker L, Coffey B, Leith P, Harvey N, Baldwin C, Baxter T, Bruekers G, Galano CD, Good M, Haward M, Hofmeester C, De Freitas DM, Mumford T, Nursey-Bray M, Kriwoken L, Shaw J, Shaw J, Smith T, Thomsen D, Wood D, Enhancing the Knowledge-Governance Interface: Coasts, Climate and Collaboration, *Ocean and Coastal Management* (2013), doi: 10.1016/j.ocecoaman.2013.02.009.

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2 **and Collaboration**

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ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

157

158 **Abstract**

159 Conventional systems of government have not been very successful in resolving coastal  
160 management problems. This lack of progress is partially attributable to inadequate  
161 representation in governance processes of the variety of knowledges present on the  
162 coast. In particular there has been a struggle to engage effectively with climate science  
163 and its implications. There has also been a broader failure to capture the complexity of  
164 voices, interests, values, and discourses of coastal users. We argue here that coastal  
165 governance challenges are not likely to be resolved by singular solutions; rather,  
166 interaction and collaboration will generate improvements. We suggest that a co-  
167 requisite for progress in coastal management is the development of institutions and  
168 processes that enable different knowledges to have a bearing on governance processes.  
169 This paper examines a selection of the many opportunities available to broaden and  
170 enhance the use of knowledge in decision-making for the coast. A description is  
171 provided of emerging elements of coastal governance from an Australian perspective,  
172 together with new types of institutions, processes, tools and techniques that may help to  
173 achieve an improved coastal knowledge-governance interaction.

174

175 **1. Introduction**

176

177 Despite considerable effort over several decades effective governance of  
178 the coastal zone remains a considerable challenge in many parts of the  
179 world (Sorenson 1997, Agardy and Alder 2005), including Australia  
180 (Harvey and Caton 2003; State of the Environment 2011 Committee,  
181 2011; Stocker et al., 2012b). Given the complexity and dynamism of the  
182 biophysical processes shaping the coast, the variety of administrative  
183 processes for managing the coast, and the diversity of stakeholders with  
184 an interest in matters related to the coast (Green and Penning-Rowell  
185 1999, Cicin-Sain and Knecht 1998, Kay and Alder 2005) this should not be  
186 a surprise. Under circumstances such as these it is clearly imperative, and  
187 yet a considerable challenge, to make the best use of the rapidly  
188 expanding information and knowledge that is available. However, as we  
189 will explore, achieving effective knowledge uptake requires both receptive  
190 governance processes and accessible knowledge systems. Accordingly, we  
191 analyze Australia's coastal governance system in relation to knowledge  
192 generation, exchange and uptake, and suggest foci for improvement  
193 within an uncertain and complex coastal system, especially in the face of  
194 climate change. Both formal and informal institutions of governance are  
195 considered within our discussion.

196 In Australia, as elsewhere, effective governance of coastal areas is  
197 challenged by: complexity of natural coastal systems; diverse uses of  
198 coastal areas; diverse jurisdictions (e.g. international, Commonwealth,  
199 state, local) and administrative bodies with coastal responsibilities (e.g.,  
200 shipping and ports, planning, biodiversity management, fishing,  
201 recreation); diverse ways of understanding and appreciating coasts  
202 (Stocker and Kennedy, 2009); and diverse perspectives on how it should  
203 be governed, managed, and used (Harvey and Caton, 2003; Stocker et  
204 al., 2012a). Reliance on linear or 'loading dock' approaches to transferring



205 knowledge to governance is likely to be ineffective (Cash, Borck and Patt,  
206 2006). Rather, there is much to be gained from bringing different  
207 disciplinary perspectives to bear on coastal governance, expanding  
208 institutional capacity and enabling varied stakeholder engagement  
209 approaches, notwithstanding the considerable challenge that this  
210 represents.

211 We argue here that:

- 212 • conventional systems of government have not adequately  
213 responded to, or represented, the variety of voices and knowledges  
214 present on the coast
- 215 • more collaborative approaches to governance that incorporate these  
216 voices and knowledges are required
- 217 • processes, tools and techniques are available that can help support  
218 the adoption of more collaborative approaches.

219 We expand upon these arguments by first considering some of the  
220 conceptual underpinnings to enhanced knowledge uptake in coastal  
221 governance. Second, we discuss aspects of Australian coastal government  
222 and governance (and its shortcomings). Third, we consider some of key  
223 challenges which limit the effective use of knowledge in coastal  
224 governance, with a particular focus on knowledge uptake in relation to  
225 climate change. Finally, emerging elements of Australian coastal  
226 governance are described and some newer processes tools and  
227 technologies for an improved knowledge-governance interface are  
228 presented and illustrated through case examples. While the focus of our  
229 analysis is on coastal governance in Australia, we expect that the insights  
230 provided may have relevance for other jurisdictions.

## 231 **2. Conceptual background**

232 This section considers some of the conceptual underpinnings associated  
233 with the use of knowledge in coastal governance, and how knowledge  
234 uptake may be enhanced.

### 235 **2.1. Epistemological bases**

236 The challenges for coastal governance presented by issues such as climate  
237 change require epistemologies capable of dealing with complex social  
238 ecological systems and ramifying relationships. First, Funtowicz and  
239 Ravetz (1993), in their work on post-normal science, highlight that  
240 particular kinds of research may be appropriate for answering particular  
241 questions in particular situations, and not others. For example, in the case  
242 of coastal adaptation to climate change, where decision stakes are high  
243 and system uncertainty great, applied science and technical consultancies  
244 alone may be of limited value. By contrast, research that is participatory,  
245 acknowledges local knowledge and recognizes the importance of values  
246 may be more effective, or may complement any technical studies. Second,  
247 a broader perspective on coastal knowledge and the practice of science is  
248 evident in the guiding principles of sustainability science, which  
249 emphasizes: an issue-driven agenda; co-production of knowledge;  
250 interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary approaches; acknowledging earth  
251 system complexity; focusing communication and research activities at the  
252 local level; and focusing on social learning rather than definitive answers  
253 (Cummins and McKenna, 2010). Third, in contrast to the traditional  
254 'science-first model' approach which elevates 'science' above other  
255 knowledge systems (Kelsey, 2003), there is benefit to be gained by  
256 adopting broad and more engaged and interactive forms of coastal inquiry  
257 (Leith et al., 2012) producing outputs from a variety of sources and  
258 perspectives. This approach can also lead to better sharing and  
259 communication of lay, managerial, Indigenous and scientific knowledge  
260 about the coast.

261 **2.2. Cognitive and psychological bases**

262 Transformation of coastal governance systems to account for knowledges  
263 such as climate science will require a greater awareness of how this  
264 knowledge is received, interpreted and socially constructed. From a  
265 transactional psychology perspective (Altman and Rogoff, 1987; Gergen,  
266 2009; Harré and van Langenhove, 1999), any interaction between coastal  
267 knowledge-makers and decision-makers will be situated in a particular  
268 social context: it will be guided by the cognitive and affective states of the  
269 stakeholders, and will reflect the rules and norms of social behaviour. As  
270 such these interactions are dynamic, emergent and unique (Altman and  
271 Rogoff, 1987 p.28). They are in turn shaped by deeper social-cultural  
272 forces including worldviews, as defined above (Clayton and Myers, 2009;  
273 Dunlap et al., 2000; Koltko-Rivera, 2004).

274 **2.3. Cultural bases**

275 Thus, society's consideration of issues like coastal adaptation does not  
276 arise simply from the scientific evidence of its urgency. Rather,  
277 consideration is influenced by phenomena such as worldviews, cultural  
278 symbols and metaphors of coasts and climate change, and the historical,  
279 cultural and political context that determines which particular account is  
280 considered as the 'truth' (Hajer and Versteeg, 2005). Cultural meaning  
281 and context are therefore central to the discourse and narratives<sup>1</sup> that  
282 develop around coastal adaptation. Discourse in turn has important  
283 implications for governance. The discourse around coastal adaptation  
284 should encourage the ability, indeed the responsibility, to reflect critically  
285 on itself and consider other discourses inviting a sustainable governance  
286 model that is reflexive and open to new ideas and 'truths' (Stocker and  
287 Kennedy, 2009).

---

<sup>1</sup> For our purposes, a discourse is the envelope of possible truths and acceptable terms within which coastal adaptation occurs. Narratives are considered a specific category of discourse. Narratives involve a sequenced account of connected events, often in story form. Discourse is broader and can include conversations, issuing instructions, arguments, persuasions and expressive activities such as song (Harré et al. 1999).

#### 288 **2.4. Indigenous knowledge bases**

289 A specific example of the impact of worldviews on knowledge production  
290 and application can be found in a comparison between Indigenous and  
291 Western perspectives. Western knowledge systems tend to be linear,  
292 sequential, and scientific, whereas Indigenous people's knowledge is more  
293 circular; their knowledge systems operate concurrently and loop/feed  
294 back to the community (Sillitoe et al., 2002). In the Western world,  
295 science is a 'common pool' resource open to all (Ostrom, 1999); by  
296 contrast, in an Indigenous context, knowledge is distributed, held and  
297 maintained by different members of society, strictly adhering to various  
298 delineations that prescribe specific responsibilities in relation to that  
299 knowledge. For example, within fisheries, certain Indigenous people have  
300 knowledge of specific fish, rules and norms for which they are partly  
301 responsible (Haggan et al., 2007).

#### 302 **2.5 New modes of coastal governance: collaboration and networks**

303 We noted above the complexity of coastal systems and the benefits of  
304 considering diverse information sources and perspectives. However, a  
305 challenge of considering complexity (in issues such as coastal adaptation)  
306 is that associated knowledge tends to be emergent, dispersed,  
307 fragmentary, diverse, uncertain and with unexpected interactions (Dryzek,  
308 2005; Duit and Galaz, 2008; Snowdon, 2002).

309 An effective governance model for responding to this knowledge is likely  
310 to require, in combination with institutional stability, capacities for  
311 flexibility, collaborative action and learning (Duit and Galaz, 2008). These  
312 capacities may be achieved through 'networked governance' which  
313 features multiple nodes and complex pathways of participant interactions  
314 including private-public-partnerships and voluntary collaborations between  
315 government, businesses and not for profit organizations (Dryzek, 2005  
316 pp. 108-109).

317 Effective knowledge exchange and information flows within a governance  
318 network require a high diversity of competencies in communication, policy

319 analysis and subject knowledge, and high connectivity among actors in  
320 the network (Snowdon, 2002). When governance networks function  
321 effectively the collaborative development of policy between diverse and  
322 dispersed participants is possible. Deliberative processes leading to  
323 adaptive learning can support such policy development (see below). This  
324 approach involves 'a dynamic interplay of problem solving and relational  
325 activities' within the network (Bouwen and Taillieu (2004, p.142).  
326 Although there is some scepticism about the level of critical analysis and  
327 empirical support for collaborative modes of governance (Backstrand et  
328 al., 2010), there are examples from natural resource management in  
329 Australia where collaborative governance is becoming the norm, often  
330 involving several government agencies, community groups and industry in  
331 decision-making (Head 2009).

### 332 **3. Coastal governance in Australia**

333 The 36,000 km of the mainland Australian coast makes it one of the  
334 longest in the world (Short and Woodroffe, 2009); it spans temperate and  
335 tropical waters and gives rise to a vast array of coastal landscapes,  
336 habitats and unique life forms. The coast also signifies Australian culture  
337 (Lazarow et al., 2008); the majority of the population (85%) lives in  
338 coastal cities and towns, most of it heavily concentrated along the east  
339 and south-east of the continent. Australia's population will grow in coastal  
340 settlements, especially in high amenity locations (ABS, 2010). The  
341 Australian coast is also vital for the economy. Commercial fishing and  
342 coastal tourism contribute significantly to the country's income; estuaries  
343 of Australia's major river systems and their surrounds support port  
344 facilities serving industry and trade, and a productive agricultural sector  
345 (State of the Environment 2011 Committee, 2011).

346 The pressures placed upon Australia's coastal environment correspond to  
347 broad international trends. Continued urban development in the coastal  
348 zone and agricultural expansion in water catchments bring many  
349 threatening processes. For example, there is a reduction and decline of

350 habitat in settled coastal areas as a consequence of vegetation clearance,  
351 near-shore water pollution, and engineering works; and fluvial  
352 introduction of chemicals and sediments. Australian coasts are also  
353 vulnerable to invasive pests, introduced by the ballast water of visiting  
354 vessels. Climate change is an emerging threat for Australia's coasts and  
355 sea level rise is on the agenda for planning around the country.

356 Dealing effectively with these existing and emerging pressures is  
357 paramount because this response will shape the future of Australia's  
358 coast.

### 359 **3.1 Australia's coastal governance system**

360 This section outlines Australia's coastal governance system, in order to  
361 provide a context for later sections. A multi-level system of governance  
362 has emerged in Australia to manage competing interests and enduring  
363 challenges on the coast (Lazarow et al., 2008; Stocker et al., 2012b). This  
364 coastal governance system comprises a diverse array of formal and  
365 informal institutions, organisations and stakeholders, but as we shall  
366 argue below, has not proved to be effective.

367 **Legislation** is the most formal of the institutions shaping coastal  
368 governance processes, authoritatively codifying rules which legally bind all  
369 stakeholders. Australian coastal legislation includes statutes governing:  
370 coastal policy and planning; development assessment and approval  
371 mechanisms; and the statutory bodies entrusted with these, and other,  
372 coastal management tasks (see Baird, 2011 for an overview of Australian  
373 coastal legislation).

374 Responsibility for governing the coast is shared unevenly across three  
375 tiers of government (Commonwealth, state and local) involving multiple  
376 interacting **government agencies** and other stakeholders. Governance of  
377 coasts and seas in Australia is in accordance with the *United Nations*  
378 *Convention on the Law of the Sea* (UNCLOS). Following the development  
379 of the law of the sea, Australia needed to align its international law

380 obligations with its Constitution (Commonwealth of Australia, 2002;  
381 Harvey et al., 2012; Kenchington et al., 2012). The alignment was  
382 achieved through the *Seas and Submerged Lands Act* 1973, followed by  
383 the Offshore Constitutional Settlement in 1979 and the related legislation  
384 that implemented it<sup>2</sup> (Commonwealth of Australia, 2002). This Settlement  
385 surrendered to the States jurisdiction over the sea and seabed within 3  
386 nautical miles of the shoreline. The Commonwealth retains sole  
387 responsibility for Australia's Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) from three to  
388 200 nautical miles off the mainland coast (Commonwealth of Australia,  
389 2002; Harvey et al., 2012; Kenchington et al., 2012).

390 The Commonwealth's *Environment Protection and Biodiversity*  
391 *Conservation Act 1999* also provides substantial powers with respect to  
392 matters that affect Commonwealth waters (Harvey et al., 2012b;  
393 Kenchington et al., 2012), imposing an environmental assessment and  
394 approval regime on actions with national environmental significance,  
395 which includes impacts on Commonwealth marine areas; it also  
396 establishes regimes for marine protected areas in its waters  
397 (Commonwealth of Australia, 2002).

398 The Commonwealth exerts its influence on *coastal* management  
399 principally through indirect funding powers, policy development and  
400 research. The Commonwealth has funded important environmental  
401 initiatives (the Natural Heritage Trust and Caring for Our Country); some  
402 of these funds have been divested to coasts. The Commonwealth has not  
403 produced a dedicated coastal policy since 1995 (Commonwealth of  
404 Australia 1995). A National Framework for Integrated Coastal Zone  
405 Management followed in 2006 but it is described as a 'policy without  
406 implementation' (Wescott, 2011).

407 Coastal lands and waters (including the seabed) out to three nautical  
408 miles in Australia are the responsibility of state and territory governments

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<sup>2</sup> *Coastal Waters (State Title) Act 1980* (Cth) and *Coastal Waters (State Powers) Act 1980* (Cth)

409 which have legislation, policies and agencies to regulate use of this zone.  
410 Table 1 provides a summary of the various legislation, policies and  
411 agencies for each of the states and the Northern Territory.

412 Local government is broadly responsible for strategic land use planning,  
413 development approval, management of public land, coastal protection and  
414 preparation of plans for specific coastal areas (Harvey and Caton, 2003).

415 There are many other stakeholders, besides government, who influence  
416 decisions that affect coasts. For example, **advocacy groups** serve to  
417 agitate a wider community of interest, raising awareness and promoting  
418 coastal health (Wescott and Fitzsimons 2010). Such groups have the  
419 potential to use knowledge and information in powerful and targeted  
420 ways to influence political agenda and disseminate ideas. Advocacy groups  
421 therefore play an important intermediary role between formal institutions  
422 and a wider public. Two important examples of such groups presently  
423 active in Australia include: the National Seachange Taskforce, a national  
424 body representing the interests of coastal councils and communities  
425 experiencing the effects of rapid population and tourism growth; and, the  
426 Australian Coastal Society, another national body seeking to: promote  
427 knowledge and understanding of the values of Australian coast; provide a  
428 forum for discussion and debate; and build capacity of coastal managers.  
429 Both of these groups effectively lobby and contribute ideas and solutions  
430 to existing contemporary coastal management challenges (Wescott,  
431 2011).

432 **Universities**, whilst without formal responsibility for governing coastal  
433 areas, often contain coastal scientists and policy analysts who influence  
434 coastal governance, sometimes through their formal individual roles on  
435 planning commissions or boards.



436

Table 1: State Coastal Governance Comparison

State	Lead Agency or Body	Coastal Act	Coastal Responsibility (non Coastal Act)	Specific Coastal Zone Policy	State or Territory Department and Minister
VIC	Victorian Coastal Council (VCC) Independent peak body specialising in coastal matters.	<i>Coastal Management Act (CMA) 1995</i>	<i>Planning and Environment Act 1987</i> <i>Local Government Act 1989</i> <i>Crown Land (reserves) Act 1978</i> <i>Catchment and Land Protection Act 1994</i>	( <i>Victorian Coastal Strategy 2008</i> )  Additional Policies/Guides/Plans <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Future Coasts Program</li> <li>• Victoria Planning Provisions</li> <li>• State Planning Policy Framework (SPPF)</li> <li>• Coastal Spaces</li> </ul>	Department of Sustainability and Environment (DSE) Minister for Environment and Climate Change  Department of Planning and Community Development (DPCD) Minister for Planning
NSW	Department of Environment, Climate Change and Water (DECCW)  No co-coordinating body for coastal matters since the dissolution of the NSW Coastal Council in 2003.	<i>Coastal Protection Act 1979 (Currently under revision)</i>	<i>Environmental Planning and Assessment Act 1979</i> <i>Local Government Act 1993</i>	( <i>NSW Coastal Policy 1997</i> )  Additional Policies/Guides/Plans <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Coastal Protection Package (2010)</li> <li>• State Environmental Planning Policy Number 71: Coastal Protection (SEPP 71)</li> <li>• Coastal Lands Protection Scheme (CLPS)</li> <li>• Sea Level Rise Policy Statement</li> <li>• Draft Coastal Risk Management Guide 2009</li> <li>• Draft Flood Risk Management Guide 2009</li> <li>• Coastal Design Guidelines for NSW</li> </ul>	Department of Environment, Climate Change and Water (DECCW)  Department of Planning Minister for Planning
QLD	Department of Environment and Resource Management (DERM)	<i>Coastal Protection and Management Act 1995 (Currently under revision)</i>	<i>Sustainable Planning Act 2009 (repeals the Integrated Planning Act (IPA) 1997)</i>	(Queensland State Coastal Management Plan 2002 and Regional Coastal Management Plans).  SE QLD Healthy Waterways partnership GBR Intergovernmental Agreement Reef Water Quality Protection Plan	Department of Environment and Resource Management (DERM) The Minister for Natural Resources, Mines and Energy The Minister for Climate Change and Sustainability
SA	SA Coast Protection Board (CPB) Primary authority on managing coast protection issues and providing advice on coastal development	<i>Coast Protection Act 1972 (This Act was to be replaced by a Coast and Marine Act)</i>	<i>Development Act 1993</i> <i>Natural Resources Management (NRM) Act 2004</i>	(Policy on coast protection and new coastal development 1991) (CBP Policy Document 2002) (South Australia's Living Coast Strategy 2004)	Department of Environment and Natural Resources (DENR) Minister for Environment and Conservation  Department of Planning and Local Government (for planning) Minister for Urban Development and Planning
WA	<i>Western Australian Planning Commission (WAPC)</i> the peak body for land use, planning and development in WA. Coastal Planning Coordinating Committee is the statutory sub-committee WAPC.	No dedicated legislation particular to management of the Coast or Marine Environment	<i>Planning and Development Act 2005</i>	(WA Draft coastal policy 2001)	Department of Planning and Infrastructure is responsible for planning and development of coastal infrastructure Minister for Planning and Minister for Transport Minister for Regional Development; Lands; Minister Assisting Minister for State Development; Minister Assisting the Minister for Transport
TAS	<i>Number of lead agencies (Integrated system)</i> State Coastal Advisory Committee formed in 1997/98 but since 2002 there has been no effective coordinating body	No dedicated legislation particular to management of the Coast or Marine Environment	<i>State Policies and Projects Act 1993</i> <i>Land Use Policy and Approvals Act 1993</i> <i>Climate Change (State Action) Act 2008</i>	(Tasmanian State Coastal Policy 1996). Binding on all spheres of government	Dept Primary Industries, Parks, Water and Environment (DPIPWE) Minister for Environment, Parks, Heritage and the Arts
NT	<i>85% coastline under Aboriginal ownership</i> No co-coordinating body for coastal matters	No dedicated legislation particular to management of the Coast or Marine Environment	<i>Planning Act 2009.</i> <i>NT Local Government Act</i>	(Northern Territory Coastal Policy 2001) Main objective to enable integrated approach to management of coastal and marine zones but never endorsed.	The Department of Infrastructure, Planning and Environment (DIPE) Landcare Council of NT

(Source: Clarke, 2010)

437

438 **Indigenous Australians** have rights over some coastal lands and  
439 are often directly involved in coastal management: 90% of the  
440 Northern Territory coast is owned by Indigenous peoples.  
441 Indigenous Land and Sea Councils typically work on natural  
442 resource management projects, often in close cooperation with  
443 catchment councils and coastal community groups. Traditional  
444 owners more generally have special rights and responsibilities in  
445 relation to the coast, including the maintenance and transmission of  
446 intangible cultural heritage, such as language, stories and  
447 ceremonies about the coast (Stocker and Kennedy, 2009).

448 **The media** have the potential to increase public and political  
449 understanding and acceptance of coastal management issues.  
450 However, largely inadequate or biased media commentaries shape  
451 Australia's unwillingness to act on critical information about, for  
452 example, sea level rise (Lambert, 2011; Manne, 2011).

453 Some **individuals** have attained high public profile through their  
454 effective communication of coastal knowledge to decision-makers.  
455 Such 'champions' are variously referred to as agents of change,  
456 advocates, emergent leaders or opinion leaders (Markham et al.,  
457 1991; Ottaway, 1983; Schon, 1963). Champions possess a high  
458 level of innovativeness, use their networks and powers of  
459 persuasion to informally exert influence on the activities conducted  
460 within organizations, aiding their success in promoting causes  
461 (Thompson et al., 2006). Two 'Ministerial' champions are identified  
462 by Wescott (2011): Senator Robert Hill who progressed Australia's  
463 National Oceans Policy in a short time frame in the late 1990s and  
464 David Kemp who achieved a 'sixfold increase in 'no-take' marine  
465 zones in the Great Barrier Reef marine park in early 2000s.

466 The activities of **coastal volunteers** have been inspirational, and  
467 therefore, significant in raising awareness and contributing to  
468 knowledge of the coast (see Clarke, 2008 who analyses Coastcare,

469 a high profile Australian coastal volunteer program, and Harvey and  
470 Caton, 2003 pp.240-243). Volunteer groups and individuals have  
471 shown their capacity to raise the profile and maintain the focus on  
472 coastal matters of local significance when these might otherwise fall  
473 away from organizational interests which are diverted by competing  
474 pressures (such as budgets and other political agenda).

475 Individuals within their own locales and **communities** arguably  
476 have a heightened awareness of and affinity for their coast, i.e. a  
477 sense of place, and are therefore able to provide important insights  
478 (local knowledge and values) otherwise absent from policy  
479 development (Lazarow et al., 2008).

480 **Informal networks** exist among many of the above stakeholders,  
481 where channels of communication often depend on personal  
482 relationships involving trust, reciprocity and a shared history in the  
483 field. Significantly, some voices have greater sway on decision-  
484 making than others, such as the coastal scientist Professor Bruce  
485 Thom in Australia who, through his informal networking and roles  
486 on the think-tank Wentworth Group of Concerned Scientists and the  
487 Coasts and Climate Change Council which advises the federal  
488 government, has exerted significant influence (Stocker et al.,  
489 2012b).

490 Within the gamut of institutions and organisations described above,  
491 many forms of knowledge exist such as lay, Indigenous and  
492 managerial knowledge, that can constructively complement  
493 traditional 'scientific' knowledge as a basis for decision-making. The  
494 different worldviews held by the various coastal stakeholders within  
495 the coastal governance system and the ways that knowledge is  
496 generated, constructed and transmitted have profound implications  
497 for coastal management. In this context a worldview can be thought  
498 of as "An integrated set of beliefs about what is real, what is  
499 knowable, what is valuable, and what it means to be human"

500 (Clayton and Myers, 2009 p.20). One of Australia's challenges as a  
501 coastal society is to develop skills and processes that enable the  
502 better understanding of diverse worldviews, and to enhance the  
503 democratization of coastal decision-making and knowledge co-  
504 production through an expanded approach to governance.

### 505 **3.2 Governance rather than government for Australia's coasts**

506 Australia's coasts face continued environmental, cultural, economic  
507 and social challenges (Stocker et al., 2012a) and governments have  
508 not been able to solve enduring, well-documented problems  
509 (Stocker et al., 2012b). This lack of progress is argued here to be  
510 partially attributable to inadequate representation in governance  
511 processes of the variety of voices and knowledges present on the  
512 coast. This paper therefore recognizes and supports a shift in focus  
513 from a hierarchical, government-based style of governance to a  
514 more collaborative or networked approach to governance which  
515 recognizes that decisions affecting the coast are often a reflection of  
516 the shared, collective effort of networks of government, private  
517 business, civic organizations, communities, political parties,  
518 universities, the media and the general public operating (Ansell and  
519 Gash, 2008; Bouwen and Taillieu, 2004; Hofmeester et al., 2012). A  
520 collaborative or networked approach to governance can also include  
521 the deliberation and determination of goals, including the values,  
522 norms and principles underpinning them (Jentoft and Chuenpadgee,  
523 2009, p. 554). Thus the concept of collaborative or networked  
524 governance offers a more holistic and dynamic approach to  
525 decision-making than is provided by reliance on government alone  
526 (see section 4.5 below for further details). However, to date,  
527 although the movement from hierarchical government to a more  
528 broad-based approach to coastal governance has begun, Australia's  
529 current system is far from fully collaborative.

#### 530 **4. Challenges to knowledge use in current coastal governance**

531 Having outlined Australia's approach to coastal governance, we now  
532 consider some challenges raised in light of the issues discussed in  
533 Section 2. We do so through exploring several of the challenges for  
534 coastal governance related specifically to knowledge uptake with  
535 regards to climate change. This is because existing coastal issues  
536 are compounded by climate change; as a result, super-wicked  
537 problems and social messes are emerging (Stocker et al., 2012b),  
538 and central to responding to such challenges is the ability to uptake  
539 diverse knowledges including climate science, into coastal decisions.

##### 540 ***4.1 Timing of decision making and knowledge making***

541 One of the most confounding challenges to coastal governance  
542 relates to time. Physical coastlines are affected by natural processes  
543 on time scales ranging from minutes (wave movements) to  
544 centuries (sea level). Management responses might be reactive, for  
545 example, the repair of localized storm damage; or responses might  
546 be proactive, such as planning for long-term sea level rise. Coastal  
547 governance is therefore necessarily predicated upon varying  
548 timescales. There is an additional challenge for timeliness and  
549 governance: the mismatch between first, the processes of  
550 government, which by following formal rules and patterns, need  
551 timely information through which to inform decisions affecting the  
552 coast (through policy making); and second, the generation of  
553 detailed knowledge about natural systems (through scientific  
554 research). Scientific monitoring of coastal environments frequently  
555 takes longer than most political cycles which are fixed to a regular,  
556 half-decadal rhythm. Widespread engagement and consequent  
557 decision-making for the coast requires long-term, visionary thinking  
558 (Lazarow et al., 2008). Collaborative governance, discussed above,  
559 is not straightforward or cheap, and requires (among other things)

560 commitment to long-term engaged dialogue and development of  
561 trusting relationships among those involved.

562 These requirements do not match the immediacy of governments'  
563 needs to demonstrate tangible outputs and quick solutions that will  
564 influence electorates at the right point in the election cycle.

#### 565 **4.2 Agency policy and planning**

566 Common processes used to enhance understanding between  
567 knowledge-makers and decision-makers in agency policy and  
568 planning are through workshops and committees. Advisory  
569 committees such as the Coastal Climate Change Advisory  
570 Committee (Victoria) or the Great Barrier Reef Marine Park  
571 Authority's Catchment and Reef Advisory Committee are key  
572 examples here. A common form of knowledge transfer is through  
573 "sector representation" on such committees. While this approach  
574 can draw together various perspectives, a key challenge is to  
575 manage sectoral interests in the context of longer term priorities  
576 such as coastal environmental health, adaptation to climate change  
577 and community wellbeing. There is a requirement for better  
578 knowledge solutions that give clear options and associated risks  
579 (Cross et al., 1994; Evans and Shaw, 1986; Shaw, 2008; Shaw,  
580 2010).

581 Another challenge to informed decision-making is the lack of explicit  
582 environmental objectives found in coastal plans and policy (e.g. see  
583 Shaw, 2010 for an Eastern Victorian case study). Glazewski and  
584 Haward (2005) highlight the tension between local government's  
585 desire to increase overall rate revenue consistent with coastal  
586 development and environmental management. Explicitly addressing  
587 environmental objectives and increasing agency expertise in  
588 relation to assessment of such objectives can help resolve this  
589 tension.

### 590 **4.3 Litigation and case law**

591 Most responsibility for planning and developmental control is  
592 delegated to local government authorities who are becoming  
593 increasingly exposed to litigation in cases where they have  
594 approved poorly planned developments, including with respect to  
595 climate change impacts on the coast. The courts in Australia have  
596 become *de facto* policy makers in relation to coastal adaptation,  
597 where controversy exists around climate change risks to the coast.  
598 This trend has created high levels of certainty for decision-making  
599 on new coastal development in specific cases, but has created  
600 uncertainty in general because of the diverse outcomes of cases.  
601 Harvey et al. (2012a) illustrate this with case studies showing how  
602 council decisions can be either upheld as in Marion Bay, South  
603 Australia or overturned, as in Gippsland Lakes, Victoria depending  
604 on the extent to which the scientific knowledge on climate change  
605 and coastal erosion has been taken into account. Elsewhere, it has  
606 proved difficult to reject private coastal protection works initiated in  
607 response erosion and climate change, as in Byron Bay, New South  
608 Wales, where previous council actions confounded the application of  
609 climate science. The courts' role in filling the vacuum where  
610 uncertainty exists in the knowledge-governance interface illustrates  
611 the need for climate-related policies such as planned retreat to be  
612 enshrined in legislation (Harvey et al., 2012a).

### 613 **4.4 Insurance industry**

614 Risk levels for existing and new coastal development are only partly  
615 incorporated into the knowledge-governance interface by  
616 government zoning regulations, planning guidelines and decisions.  
617 Scientific knowledge on climate change and coastal erosion is also  
618 needed by the insurance industry for risk assessment of potential  
619 damage to coastal properties and facilities. The Insurance Council of  
620 Australia (ICA) commissioned its own risk study for Australian

621 properties (Chen and McAneney, 2006) the results of which have  
622 become incorporated into the knowledge-governance interface at  
623 the intergovernmental level (Hennessy et al., 2007) and the  
624 national level (HORSCCWEA, 2009) where the ICA estimated the  
625 number of coastal addresses at risk of coastal damage. The  
626 insurance industry has thus taken action to fill perceived gaps in the  
627 knowledge-governance interface. The Insurance Australia Group  
628 (IAG) has also expressed concern about potential climate-change  
629 related changes to insurance cover in coastal areas noting that land  
630 value which is not currently insured, forms a high proportion of the  
631 overall property value at the coast (IAG, 2008).

632 The four examples above, by no means an exclusive list, serve to  
633 illustrate how there are significant challenges in the availability and  
634 application of appropriate knowledge to coastal decision-making,  
635 and how these challenges or gaps are sometimes bridged by ad hoc  
636 or make-do processes. There are opportunities for new approaches  
637 to governance that may address the challenges of short-term  
638 versus futuristic thinking by improving engagement at the  
639 knowledge-governance interface. The following section introduces a  
640 range of possibilities.

## 641 **5. Towards an improved coastal governance in Australia**

642 This section outlines some of the practical possibilities and  
643 processes designed to support the enhanced knowledge-governance  
644 interface suggested by this paper as necessary for progressing  
645 decision making at the coast. Tools and techniques that offer means  
646 of putting theory into practice are also described.

### 647 ***5.1 Linking knowledge systems and new governance***

648 Organizations and individuals can be effective agents (go-betweenes)  
649 in creating dialogue, negotiating, mediating, and representing  
650 viewpoints working between knowledge-makers and decision-



651 makers. Organizations and individuals use a range of processes to  
652 enhance understanding between knowledge-makers and decision-  
653 makers.

#### 654 **5.1.1 Boundary organizations**

655 Over the past two decades, interest has grown in boundary  
656 organizations as a way of dealing with wicked problems such as  
657 climate change adaptation that necessarily transcend scientific  
658 responses. Boundary organizations play an intermediary role  
659 between knowledge production and decision-making (in different  
660 domains and levels), with a view to achieving co-operation in  
661 relation to a shared objective (Lorenzoni et al., 2007; Guston,  
662 2001; Cash et al., 2004). They can be organizations specifically  
663 created to provide this function or can exist within larger  
664 organizations (Cash et al., 2004).

665 Successful boundary organizations are institutionally set up to be  
666 accountable to at least two groups of stakeholders and are thus are  
667 able to maintain a bridging position, despite external pressures, and  
668 meet the requirements of the various parties (Guston, 2001). The  
669 boundary will, however, be continually renegotiated and will shape  
670 the organization itself (Guston, 2001). According to Cash, Borck  
671 and Patt (2006), boundary organizations can help increase the  
672 salience, credibility and legitimacy across boundaries through four  
673 institutional processes, set out below.

674 Convening connotes the process of bringing parties together for  
675 face-to-face contact. Translation can be literal and/or metaphorical  
676 in order to provide information across boundaries of culture,  
677 language, assumptions and experiences for example. Collaboration  
678 is the process of co-producing knowledge by experts and decision-  
679 makers. Mediation represents and evaluates the different interests  
680 in such a way that the parties involved perceive fairness and  
681 procedural justice. These functions will be present in different mixes

682 in different systems. With the appropriate institutional design,  
683 leadership and capacity, universities and NGOs can play the role of  
684 boundary organizations whether intentionally designed in the first  
685 instance or not.

686 An example of a successful boundary organization in Australia is the  
687 National Sea Change Taskforce (NSCT), a body representing the  
688 interests of coastal councils and communities experiencing the  
689 effects of rapid population and tourism growth (NSCT, 2010). This  
690 coalition involves over 68 councils with the aim of providing  
691 leadership and influencing policy development for coastal  
692 areas(NSCT, 2010). The NSCT engages with three tiers of  
693 government, industry, community groups, and research institutions.  
694 The NSTC's aim of collaboration and direct linkages between  
695 research and governance institutions helps enable sustainability  
696 learning and build adaptive capacity. As a part of a very well  
697 attended annual conference convened by the Taskforce, the Coastal  
698 Research Forum brings together coastal researchers and coastal  
699 decision-makers to share insights and strengthen communication  
700 and networking. The Taskforce supports the roles of convening,  
701 translating, mediating and collaborating to create more informed  
702 decision-making for local governments in coastal Australia. The  
703 efforts of the NSCT also inform other strategic planning processes.

#### 704 **5.1.2 Boundary agents**

705 Boundary agents, or knowledge brokers, play a central role  
706 operating in the knowledge-governance space by developing  
707 influential relationships, building trust, communicating information  
708 needs and facilitating bridging the gaps among various stakeholders  
709 (McNie et al., 2008).

710 Boundary agents, or knowledge brokers, can be found within a  
711 variety of contexts, and their roles may be formal or informal  
712 (Pettitt et al., 2011). An example of an effective boundary agent in

713 the Australian coastal scene is the Executive Director of the National  
714 Sea Change Taskforce, Alan Stokes. His goal and capacity to enable  
715 communication and build relationships among a wide range of  
716 decision-makers, researchers and other stakeholders make him  
717 highly credible and respected as a boundary agent.

718 Consultants can also play the role of boundary agent, commonly in  
719 relation to the representation of expert information. The format of  
720 scientific information is not always suitable for policy-makers and  
721 planners, so boundary spanning consultants are often employed by  
722 government to collect, collate and translate scientific information  
723 into an accessible locally relevant form, typically working with their  
724 existing relationships and networks. Consultants who play this  
725 boundary agent role advising local or state governments include  
726 lawyers, coastal scientists or coastal engineers. However, by no  
727 means are all consultants genuine boundary agents in the relational  
728 sense; some play purely technical role as intermediaries.

729 Complex scientific knowledge can be 're-presented' to be broadly  
730 appealing or better understood through the use of visualizations,  
731 graphics, informatics and the many other visual interactive media  
732 now available. The role of a designer in this context is to ensure  
733 that science communication is accurate and has integrity (Tufte,  
734 2006 p. 9). As such designers can function as boundary agents,  
735 although this role is poorly understood (but see Fernandez et al.,  
736 2009). Innovative visuals require careful design because of their  
737 power to affect consequent behaviors of the target audience (Jude,  
738 2008). The relational role of the designer, as boundary agent, in  
739 understanding and drawing out the intent of the scientist is as  
740 important as the designer's technical skills.

#### 741 **5.1.3 Deliberation**

742 Deliberation is a term that implies deep and careful consideration,  
743 often of scientific information and societal values together. In the

744 context of community and stakeholder engagement it emphasizes  
745 “participation, cooperation, and discourse characterized by reason-  
746 giving” (Hartz-Karp and Briand, 2009 p.4). If well facilitated, it can  
747 enable a group to span boundaries, learn in a social and trusting  
748 setting and respond adaptively to emerging challenges and  
749 phenomena. Deliberation can employ a wide variety of techniques  
750 and approaches, including many of those described in the sections  
751 below. Quality deliberation aims to build new relationships among  
752 stakeholders and even between citizens and democratic political  
753 institutions (Hartz Karp and Stocker, in press). Deliberative  
754 techniques aim to “bring together a wide range of perspectives and  
755 demographics in “an egalitarian environment that encourages  
756 mutual understanding and trust, carefully considering options and  
757 producing decisions and actions that are broadly supported and  
758 perceived to be legitimate” (Hartz Karp and Stocker, in press).  
759 Participatory mapping (5.2.2.2 below) is one example of a tool that  
760 can be used to support deliberations.

#### 761 **5.1.4 Adaptive learning**

762 Typically, iterations of coastal policies, programs and projects have  
763 been ineffective in transferring learning from one phase to the next.  
764 Evaluation cycles have not been reflexive (Smith and Smith, 2006).  
765 This can be partly attributed to the mismatch of the needs of  
766 political versus environmental decision-making time cycles.  
767 Adaptive learning is a contemporary concept offering a vision for  
768 improved transference of knowledge towards improved  
769 management practice. For adaptive learning to be applied in a  
770 coastal management context there is a requirement for coastal  
771 practitioners and their organizations to be intimately connected with  
772 the dynamic social and ecological dimensions of coastal systems  
773 (Smith et al., 2009). Adaptive learning follows a process that is  
774 cyclic and incremental, with each stage providing the foundation for  
775 the next (e.g., dynamic system goals; adaptive organizational

776 goals, strategies and activities; reflection on goals and strategies;  
777 and networking and ideas generation). Detecting and responding to  
778 socio-ecological change must also facilitate broader system goals.  
779 This requires knowledge, creativity and vision. It also requires that  
780 organizations facilitate learning networks across various scales of  
781 learning and action (e.g., from individual to societal or local to  
782 global). By taking an approach that facilitates adaptive learning and  
783 adaptive practice, the knowledge interface between science, society  
784 and governance systems is enhanced (Smith et al., 2009). The  
785 South East Queensland 'Healthy Waterways' partnership (2001 –  
786 current) bases itself on an adaptive learning philosophy. It is a  
787 network of over 113 member organizations (including government,  
788 industry, research and the community) responsible for managing  
789 the water cycle from catchment to coast (SEQ Healthy Waterways,  
790 2009). The Partnership implements five programs including  
791 monitoring, science and innovation, capacity building, education,  
792 and strategy coordination. It has won numerous awards and is  
793 recognized as a national leader for adaptive management along the  
794 catchment to coast continuum.

## 795 ***5.2 Tools and techniques***

796 The sections above highlight the roles that can be taken by  
797 individuals or organizations and the processes they might employ in  
798 trying to enhance the knowledge-policy dialogue. In each of the  
799 situations described above, there is an opportunity to use specific  
800 communication, negotiation and decision-support tools. Practical  
801 examples are set out below.

### 802 ***5.2.1 Communication support***

803 'Communication support' provides opportunities to share  
804 information and raise awareness. The information may or may not  
805 have immediate application.

#### 806 ***5.2.1.1. Coastal research web portal***

807 The CSIRO's coastal research web portal is an open access Internet  
808 resource for local councils (decision-makers), other stakeholders  
809 (agents) and researchers (knowledge-makers). The portal enhances  
810 the ability of decision-makers and stakeholders to access scientific  
811 knowledge in a form that is readily understandable. It uses a spatial  
812 visualization technique to locate Australian coastal research  
813 projects. Topic based icons on Google maps are viewable at a range  
814 of scales and include topics such as mangroves, wetlands, pollution,  
815 water quality, and iconic species. Summary information for each  
816 research project is available and links are provided to various data  
817 repositories; researchers may also provide links to data directly  
818 related to the project.

#### 819 **5.2.1.2. Coastal conversations**

820 According to Preston et al. (2011) sharing knowledge about the  
821 risks posed by climate change to coastal communities is considered  
822 essential for the development of robust management solutions.  
823 Identifying and implementing solutions to complex problems where  
824 uncertainty is high has been shown to require conscious and active  
825 learning among multiple stakeholders (Walters and Holling, 1990).  
826 In recognition of an increasing trend in participatory approaches to  
827 strategic planning (Brownill, 2009) the Northern Agricultural  
828 Catchments Council (NACC) in Western Australia commenced a  
829 series of communication support initiatives titled: 'the Coastal  
830 Conversation' in 2009 and 2011. The series represented an  
831 opportunity for local communities, land managers, and other key  
832 stakeholders in a regional area of Western Australia, to discuss the  
833 future management of their coastlines with experts in the field of  
834 coastal management, shoreline monitoring and coastal protection.

#### 835 **5.2.1.3. Art and community cultural development**

836 Art and community cultural development have the potential engage  
837 the public and possibly even decision-makers in the interpretation  
838 and representation of complex ideas about coastal adaptation. While

839 scientific texts, figures and statistics are regarded as the most  
840 legitimate form of knowledge for policy and management of the  
841 coasts and seas, shifts in mind-sets are not always achievable by  
842 cognitive, scientific or didactic methods. Emotional and affective  
843 responses to the environmental threats can be more powerful than  
844 government reports or scientific data (Miles, 2010). Exposure to  
845 both the power of cognitive scientific evidence *and* imaginative  
846 representations together in a variety of projects and conditions may  
847 have a cumulative effect that leads to awareness and personal  
848 action (Miles, 2010; Stocker and Kennedy, 2011).

#### 849 **5.2.2. Negotiation support**

850 'Negotiation support' provides opportunities through a purpose-  
851 designed deliberative process for participants to collectively shape  
852 and apply information to their individual and shared purposes. It  
853 includes the negotiated co-production of knowledge for immediate  
854 or future application.

##### 855 **5.2.2.1. Participatory modelling**

856 Participatory modeling is a technique for improving social and policy  
857 learning about social ecological systems. It draws together a  
858 variety of stakeholder perspectives into a single visual object to  
859 enable collaborative description, negotiation and analysis.  
860 Participatory modeling can be agent-based (Perez, 2009), numerical  
861 (Jones et al., 2011), qualitative (Dambacher, 2007) or mixed  
862 (Fulton et al., 2011). The Coastal Collaboration Cluster used  
863 qualitative modelling (Dambacher et al., 2007) to investigate the  
864 extent to which current coastal planning arrangements can respond  
865 to climate change impacts such as coastal erosion and recession in  
866 the southwest of Western Australia. The workshop drew ideas from  
867 70 participants from diverse backgrounds. The modeller used a  
868 whiteboard in real time, encouraging discussion and translation  
869 across the science-governance interface, and entering both

870 scientific and governance variables and processes into the model  
871 (Stocker et al., 2011).

#### 872 **5.2.2.2. Participatory Google Earth mapping**

873 Participatory GIS enables participants to analyze land and resource  
874 use issues, raises awareness and knowledge of sustainability and  
875 fosters good governance incorporating the principles of  
876 participation, equity and transparency (McCall, 2003).

877 Participatory Google Earth Mapping has been used by the Coastal  
878 Collaboration Cluster in workshops for the City of Fremantle, City of  
879 Mandurah, and Rottnest Island Authority (Hartz Karp and Stocker,  
880 in press). The mapping collaboratively identifies sustainability and  
881 climate change pathways for coastal areas. Knowledge experts  
882 present critical information on coastal and climate issues orally and  
883 in map format. In small groups, participants deliberate on and  
884 document: coastal places of importance, management hotspots,  
885 concerns about these hotspots, and proposed adaptive pathways.

886 The method enhances dialogue through its spatially explicit  
887 platform, its ability to engage knowledge- and decision-makers  
888 simultaneously, its ability to map qualitative and quantitative  
889 information and community values, and its ability to consider social,  
890 cultural, ecological and economic values without giving primacy to  
891 any set.

#### 892 **5.2.2.3. Scenario planning**

893 Scenario analysis is a process of 'future-casting' designed to assist  
894 decision-making for problems where there is considerable  
895 uncertainty and where decisions have the capacity to affect a great  
896 many people. Stakeholders are required to think through an array  
897 of different futures that may come to pass. The act of creating  
898 scenarios forces participants to challenge assumptions about the  
899 future. Decisions are shaped on the most likely scenarios.



900 Scenarios have become a ubiquitous feature of climate change  
901 science and dialogue and are central to the science communication  
902 strategy of the IPCC (2007). In the last few years they have been  
903 used for climate adaptation planning (Dessai et al., 2005) as a way  
904 to engage stakeholders (Tompkins et al., 2008). A recent workshop  
905 carried out by the Coastal Collaboration Cluster for Western  
906 Australian Department of Sports and Recreation aimed to develop  
907 shared understandings within that agency about the implications of  
908 sea level rise, more extreme events, water shortages, temperature  
909 increase, and fossil fuel shortages to the future and present  
910 management of their core business - coastal sport and recreation in  
911 Western Australia. The workshop presented purpose-written  
912 creative stories and narrative scenarios about coastal sports and  
913 recreation under three clearly-defined climate futures. These were  
914 based explicitly on IPCC(2007) storylines, including embedded  
915 governance arrangements and social-economic structures, and used  
916 CSIRO climate projections for the region (Suppiah et al., 2007).  
917 Small groups of participants deliberated on these to develop  
918 strategic responses and practical projects (Hartz-Karp and Stocker,  
919 in press).

#### 920 **5.2.2.4. Visualizations**

921 Visualizations are a factually accurate, graphical representation of  
922 numerical data that may include changes over time (animation).  
923 The most useful kinds of visualization enable an understanding of  
924 large, multivariate and interdisciplinary datasets (Ellis and Dix,  
925 2007; Matthies et al., 2007). These visualizations in turn help  
926 provide mutual understanding between the researcher and the  
927 stakeholders affected by the research results. Visualizations can  
928 help enable novel insights for both researchers and decision-makers  
929 by providing alternative representations and consequent  
930 interpretations of the data, for example through presenting different  
931 scenarios. In relation to coastal adaptation, 3D visualizations have

932 proved useful in demonstrating the consequences of environmental  
933 change and fostering action (Sheppard, 2005; Paar et al., 2008).  
934 The Coastal Collaboration Cluster has worked closely with CSIRO  
935 Mathematics and Informational Sciences to produce an animation  
936 based on fluid dynamic modeling that shows the interactions among  
937 sea level rise, storm surge and catchment flooding on a hypothetical  
938 Australian estuary and adjacent coast, for use by coastal decision-  
939 makers. A proof of concept has been trialed in two workshops.

#### 940 **5.2.2.5. PhotoVoice**

941 PhotoVoice involves participants taking photos according to a theme  
942 and discussing their photos in a group to reach a consensus about  
943 the message they wish to convey to decision-makers, using a  
944 selection of their photos and storyline or captions. As a result, it is  
945 a thoroughly engaging approach that fosters deliberation and  
946 learning, capacity building and empowerment. PhotoVoice has been  
947 used by a range of disciplines to understand community values and  
948 perspectives and to give the community a 'voice' - health,  
949 community development (Wang and Burris, 1997; Baker and Wang,  
950 2006), resource management (Baldwin, 2008), and climate change  
951 (Baldwin and Chandler, 2010). It has also been used with diverse  
952 communities: youth, children, minority groups (Carlson et al.,  
953 2006; Castleden et al., 2008; Strack et al., 2004), and seniors  
954 (Baldwin et al., 2011). Such 'participant elicited data' in a visual  
955 form elicits a deeper insight into complex issues and puts  
956 participants in control of the responses. The Coastal Collaboration  
957 Cluster is using PhotoVoice to engage commercial rock lobster  
958 fishers at the Abrolhos Islands in considering the likely impacts of  
959 climate change on their industry and lifestyle.

#### 960 **5.2.3. Decision support**

961 'Decision support' provides necessary and sufficient information and  
962 feedback to enhance the reliability and accuracy of decisions made

963 by managers. Management Strategy Evaluation (MSE) is a decision  
964 support mechanism that was originally used in individual sectors  
965 e.g., fisheries and forestry (Walters, 1986) and more recently in  
966 coastal zone management. MSE involves feedback mechanisms and  
967 is referred to as 'adaptive management'.

968 In South-East Queensland, CSIRO worked with Healthy Waterways  
969 Partnership to develop integrated computer simulation MSE to  
970 compare the impacts of different management strategies on  
971 environmental, social and economic performance indicators related  
972 to water quality. Management actions to improve water quality  
973 resulted in proportional changes on indicators such as total nitrogen  
974 and turbidity (de la Mare et al., 2012). The costs of management  
975 actions (indicative capital and annual operating costs) are viewed  
976 alongside willingness to pay based household benefits due to and  
977 resulting from these actions, as are the environmental report cards  
978 scores and quantification of social values. The participatory  
979 workshop in which the MSE found that the process assisted  
980 decision-makers and stakeholders in not only direct knowledge but  
981 also implicit understanding of the environmental, economic and  
982 social outcomes of particular suites of management actions to  
983 improve water quality.

984 Earlier in this paper the wide array of voices contributing to coastal  
985 management decisions were identified. Accordingly, a final  
986 important decision-support tool for consideration is multi-  
987 stakeholder analysis. This offers a criteria-based and systematic  
988 method by which to select a sample of people, or organizations  
989 likely to be affected by a decision. It allows for the sorting of  
990 stakeholders both for their likely impact on an action and for the  
991 impact an action might have on them. This purpose of the process  
992 is to developing cooperation between the various parties engaged  
993 towards an agreed goal.

994 **6. Conclusion: Towards more integrated coastal knowledge-**  
995 **governance relations**

996 This paper has explored issues associated with knowledge—  
997 governance relations for the coastal zone and suggested enabling  
998 pathways and associated tools and technology for enhancing  
999 knowledge uptake. Conventional modes of decision-making at the  
1000 coast have had limited success in terms of sustainable coastal  
1001 management, experiencing numerous inhibitors such as short-term  
1002 decision cycles, the uncertainty of climate change, and poor  
1003 knowledge-governance interaction.

1004 Effective coastal governance is clearly a substantial challenge,  
1005 requiring action across several arenas, via a wide variety of  
1006 institutions, processes, tools and techniques. It is also the case that  
1007 integrated coastal knowledge-governance interactions will not  
1008 happen suddenly: they may develop over time as a consequence of  
1009 both conscious action and as emergent practice. Therefore, while  
1010 deliberate actions can be undertaken to enhance the interactivity of  
1011 coastal knowledge and governance, more collaborative coastal  
1012 governance may also be supported through a more open, outward  
1013 looking and collaborative culture.

1014 Conceptually, the complexity of coastal environments and the  
1015 diversity of interests, worldviews and stakeholder knowledge means  
1016 that there will never be one right way in which coastal governance  
1017 should occur. Furthermore, coastal governance is an ongoing  
1018 process, rather than one where issues may be solved once and for  
1019 all. What emerges from such a perspective is that real progress can  
1020 only be made through the adoption of more interactive and  
1021 collaborative forms of knowledge-governance relations: solutions  
1022 will emerge from engagement and interaction rather than through  
1023 imposition. Importantly, this means that the processes will never be

1024 easy or formulaic; however, over the longer term it is possible to  
1025 develop a more robust and resilient system.

1026 A key element in progressing such an approach is the development  
1027 of appropriate institutions and processes that enable different forms  
1028 of knowledge to have a bearing on decision making. Awareness of  
1029 the boundaries, which may be cultural, social, epistemological  
1030 boundaries, is integral to enabling such processes, and is a  
1031 necessary precondition to working more effectively. The research  
1032 being undertaken within the Coastal Collaboration Cluster  
1033 represents a modest yet significant contribution to improving  
1034 understanding of the challenges and pathways associated with  
1035 exploring how and why appropriate institutional and governance  
1036 arrangements can be developed, implemented and sustained.

### 1037 **Acknowledgements**

1038 This research is undertaken by the CSIRO Flagship Coastal  
1039 Collaboration Cluster with funding from the CSIRO Flagship  
1040 Collaboration Fund. The Coastal Collaboration Cluster is an  
1041 Australian research program designed to enable more effective  
1042 dialogue between knowledge-makers and decision-makers in  
1043 Australia's coastal zone, and to thereby contribute to coastal  
1044 sustainability in Australia. The Cluster is composed of seven  
1045 Australian universities working with the CSIRO's Wealth from  
1046 Oceans Flagship and Climate Adaptation Flagship.

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## **Enhancing the Knowledge-Governance Interface: Coasts, Climate and Collaboration**

### **Highlights**

- We research the interface between knowledge- and decision-making in Australia's coastal zone
- Good dialogue requires both a receptive governance process and accessible knowledge systems
- Traditional systems of government do not reflect the variety of coastal perspectives and knowledges
- More collaborative approaches to governance using diverse knowledges are required
- We present processes and tools that support these approaches