



**Coastcare,
Australia's community-based
coastal management program:
an effective model of
integrated coastal management?**

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Abstract

This thesis critically assesses Coastcare's role in contributing to an integrated and participatory approach to coastal management in Australia. Coastcare, one of Australia's suite of coastal programs under the National Heritage Trust, had the principle objective of engaging local community in managing the coast.

Coastcare represented an internationally unique example of an operational Integrated coastal management (ICM) initiative. The Program fulfilled the requirements of an integrated approach including intergovernmental co-operation, financial commitment and community involvement. ICM has been adopted internationally, during the last decade, as a sound approach for ecologically sustainable development and for coastal resource use planning. Despite the acceptance and abundance of ICM efforts around the world, little critical analysis of programs is available. Many of the most complex aspects of integration – the development of relationships and trust between agency and community were beginning to emerge through Coastcare.

This thesis demonstrates that within each of the states and the Northern Territory the Coastcare program functioned quite distinctly as a consequence of the existence and prominence of individual state coastal policies, state coastal agency commitment to the program, finances available to buttress the program beyond the state/Commonwealth formula as well as social, cultural and demographic features.

Coastcare's contribution to a participatory style of management is assessed by this thesis. Stakeholder interview responses were analysed according to an evaluation framework, based on the principles of participatory democracy, and designed to assess different elements of community participation. This thesis concludes that one of Coastcare's greatest strengths lies in its active capacity building. The active engagement of groups undertaking localised works has raised awareness of coastal processes and coastal management governance and systems.

The study contributes to a greater understanding of the processes of an integrated approach to coastal management by providing a detailed analysis of the various pathways of communication and cooperation between Program stakeholders (Commonwealth, state and local government, the program team and community) that have developed through Coastcare. Factors assisting the three tiers of government and community working together are explored along with the barriers that impeded progress of the Program. Its achievements will contribute towards a greater understanding of sustainable approaches to coastal management

Declaration

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

I consent to this copy of my thesis, when deposited in the University Library, being available for loan and photocopying.

Beverley Clarke

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Acronyms

ACAP	Atlantic Coastal Action Program (Canada)
ALGA	Australian Local Government Association
ATCV	Australian Trust for Conservation Volunteers
CAM	Coastal Areas Management
CBCM	Community-Based Coastal Management
CMAG	Coastal Management Advisory Group
CMPP	Coastal Management Planning Program
COAG	Council of Australian Governments
CoM	Committee of Management
CPB	Coast Protection Board
CRC	Coastal Resources Centre
CZC	Coastal Zone Council
EPA	Environment Protection Authority
ESD	Ecologically Sustainable Development
GST	Goods and Services Tax
HORSCERA	House of Representatives Standing Committee on Environment, Recreation and the Arts
ICAM	Integrated Coastal Area Management
ICM	Integrated coastal management
ICMAM	Integrated Coastal and Marine Areas Management
ICRG	Intergovernmental Coastal Reference Group
ICZM	Integrated Coastal Zone Management
IGAE	Intergovernmental Agreement on the Environment
IGBP	International Geosphere Biosphere Program
ICAG	Intergovernmental coastal advisory group

INRM	Integrated Natural Resource Management
IUCN	International Union for Conservation of Nature
LAL	Landcare Australia Ltd
LEP	Local Environment Plan
LGA	Local Government Area
MESA	Marine Education Society of Australasia
MoU	Memorandum of Understanding
MCCN	Marine and Coastal Community Network
NCAC	National Coastal Advisory Committee
NCAP	National Coastal Action Program
NGO	Non-Government Organisation
NHT	Natural Heritage Trust
NOAA	National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (US)
NRM	Natural Resource Management
NSESD	National Strategy for ESD
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
RAC	Resource Assessment Commission
RMA	Resource Management Act
SAP	State Assessment Panels
SEPP	State Environmental Planning Policy
UNCED	United Nations Council on Environment and Development
UNEP	United Nations Environment Program
VCC	Victorian Coastal Council
WCC	World Coast Conference

The role of integrated management in achieving sustainable development of coastal environments

1.1 Introduction – the need for Integrated Coastal Management

Despite national, sub-regional, regional and global efforts, current approaches to the management of marine and coastal resources have not always proved capable of achieving sustainable development, and coastal resources and the coastal environment are being rapidly degraded and eroded in many parts of the world. (UNCED 1992b: 308)

This situation, declared at the Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro in 1992, posed a critical global problem, given that coastal environments were considered ‘an essential component to the global life-support system’ (UNCED 1992b: 307). The Earth Summit provided a reaffirmation of the Declaration of the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment, adopted at Stockholm in 1972, towards sustainable development. It provided a turning point for global efforts towards environmental management by introducing a new incentive: ‘the goal of establishing a new and equitable global partnership through the creation of new levels of co-operation among States, key sectors of societies and people’ (UNCED 1992b: 118). It was during this conference that a forward-looking vision with key principles for coastal management emerged as the internationally accepted approach to achieving sustainable care of coastal and marine environments. This broadly accepted approach is commonly referred to as integrated coastal management (ICM).

The most important output of the Earth Summit is Agenda 21, a forty-chapter action plan for achieving sustainability. Chapter 17 of Agenda 21 is specifically dedicated to coasts and oceans (UNCED 1992b: 308). The intent of Chapter 17 was to encourage coastal nations to prepare and implement coastal management programs by 2002 (Tobey and Volk 2002: 285). The actions called for in Chapter 17 were ambitious and demanded intensive efforts of nations, among them interpreting the requirements necessary to put into operation the broad and visionary concepts of ICM. Cicin-Sain outlined numerous hurdles to be overcome in the undertaking:

The actions called for in Chapter 17, however, are not at all self implementing. Nations have to choose priorities among a large number of important actions...key

concepts need to be further defined...; appropriate institutions and or processes need to be strengthened or established; funding needs to be obtained and committed; and additional funding and technological assistance from international donors must flow to developing countries'. (Cicin-Sain 1993: 22)

Countries around the world have taken on the ambitious goals of Chapter 17 and its consequent demands of implementation. Since the Rio conference ICM has flourished in many contexts and forms as the 'central vehicle for sustainable coastal development' (Tobey and Volk 2002: 285). However, the degree of success of the ICM approach, like all other solutions to environmental problems, is linked to political will, to organisational capability and powers (Carley and Christie 1992). Ten years on from UNCED and Agenda 21, ICM as an approach to management is largely lacking purposeful evaluation. Despite this, ICM remains as the most widely accepted approach for managing coastal and marine ecosystems.

1.1.1 *The importance of the coast*

Simply stated, the coastal zone is the place where land and sea meet. Defining exactly how far inland and how far seaward the zone should extend is a contentious issue. Coasts are places of great ecological and social significance, being 'among the most changeable of the earth's surface both spatially and temporally' (Carter 1988: 8). Harvey and Caton expand on this idea, suggesting that Australia's coastal zone

is a dynamic meeting area of earth (lithosphere) and atmospheric forces (atmosphere), of oceans and rivers (hydrosphere), and of terrestrial and marine life (biosphere). (Harvey and Caton 2003: 21)

This land and sea union takes form in many physical combinations, including coastal plains, wetlands, marshes, estuaries, lagoons, reefs and shallow waters. In addition to the variety of coastal physical landforms there is great temporal and climatic variation within and between regions. Figure 1.1 provides a diagrammatic representation of the coastal zone and Box 1.1 highlights many ecological features, functions and benefits derived from the coastal zone. In estimating the value of natural capital of the coast, a research team attributed an annual value of \$12.6 trillion to coastal services (not including the ocean). This represents 40% of all natural capital produced by the various ecosystem categories (Costanza et al 1997).

Coasts are highly changeable places. They have been subject to modification over a variety of timescales, both ancient (i.e. Holocene sea-level rise) and diurnal (tides and currents). It is this dynamic nature of coastal environments that creates significant implications for management programs, which also wrestle with the task of regulating human use of coastal resources (Holmes and Saenger 1995).

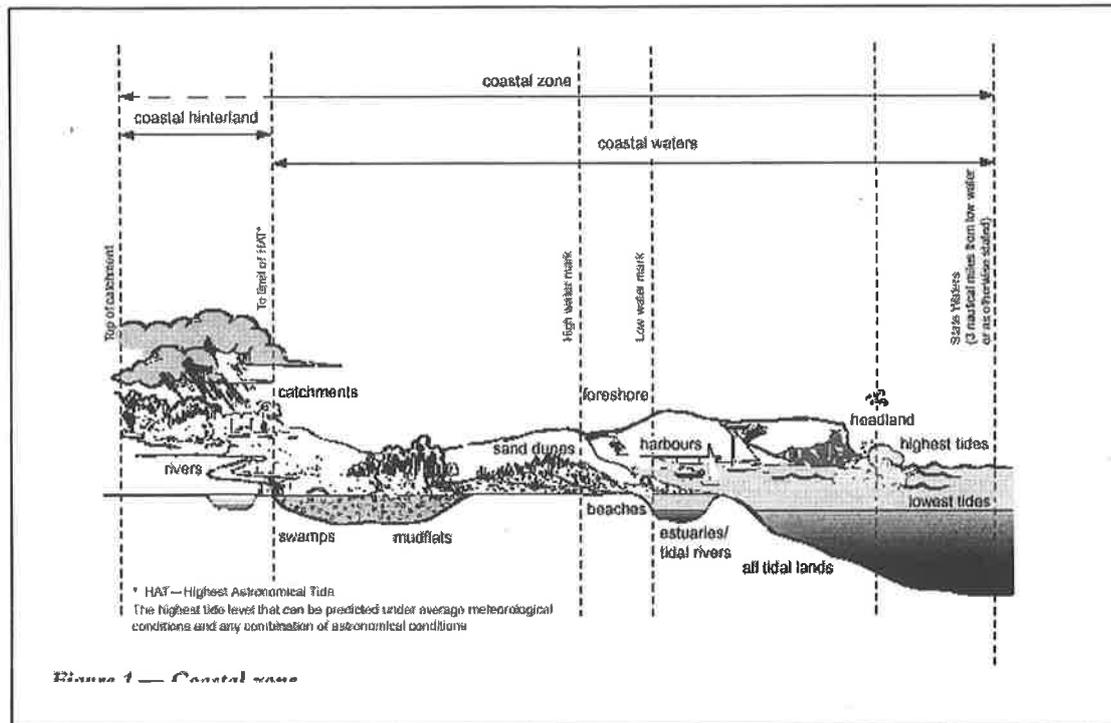


Figure 1.1: The coastal zone

Source: (Queensland State Government 2001: 2)

Coastal environments worldwide are under increasing pressure from population growth and unsustainable use. The majority of the world's population is settled near the coast and the number of coastal dwellers is predicted to continue to rise. Estimates of the numbers comprising the global coastal population vary. For example:

- UNCED (1992a) claim that over half of the world's population live within 60km of the coast;
- Hinrichsen (1998) estimates that 3.2 billion people live within 200km of the coast;
- Nichols and Small (2002) using a combination of satellite imagery and digital techniques claim that earlier estimates have been exaggerated; they state that 1.2 billion live within 100km of the coast.

Regardless of the estimates, the majority of the world's largest cities are located on the coast and rural migration to coastal locations is increasing. The combination of increasing demands for resources and population growth places mounting pressure on coastal environments.

Box 1.1: Ecological features and benefits of the coastal zone

The coastal domain (as illustrated in Figure 1.1) from 200m above to 200m below sea level:

- Occupies 18% of the surface of the globe
- Is the area where around one quarter of global primary productivity occurs
- Where around 60% of the human population lives
- Where two thirds of the worlds cities with population over 1.6 million people are located
- Supplies approximately 90% of the world's fish catch.

The coastal ocean accounts for:

- 8% of the global ocean surface
- less than 0.5% of the ocean volume
- around 14% of global ocean production
- 50% of global ocean denitrification (nitrate removal)
- 80% of global organic matter burial
- 90% of global sedimentary mineralisation
- 75-95% of global sink of suspended river load and its associated elements and pollutants
- In excess of 50% of present day global carbonate deposition.

(Source: Pernetta and Milliman 1994: 16)

Direct consequences of population pressure and associated exploitation of coastal resources are ecosystem degradation, including habitat and biodiversity loss, declining near shore water quality, declining fish populations, inappropriate siting of infrastructure, conflicts between user groups, and reduced access by traditional owners. In an attempt to alleviate these problems, efforts to manage coastal environments are flourishing around the world. Olsen and Christie (2000: 7) suggest that issues addressed by coastal management programs are 'remarkably similar across a wide range of societal and geographical settings'. The issues to be resolved through coastal management have been labelled as 'wicked problems' because of the considerable number of variables which share 'significant relationships between them that are imperfectly understood' (Pitts 1993: 7).

It is the combination of threatened coastal environments under mounting pressure and the complexity of managing such dynamic environments that has resulted in an international push for the implementation of effective ICM practice.

1.1.2 Defining ICM

There are numerous definitions of ICM but one that captures the comprehensive and complex aspects of ICM is the following:

A continuous and dynamic process, incorporating feedback loops, which aims to manage human use of coastal resources in a sustainable manner by adopting a holistic and integrative approach between terrestrial and marine environments; levels and sectors government; government and community; science and management; and sectors of the economy (Harvey in press).

According to Kay and Alder (1999), the meaning of the term 'integration' is confusing because 'it has been used in a variety of contexts'. There are several terms similar to ICM in use, which also serve to confuse. A multiplicity of terms is not helpful in establishing a common framework or for gaining clear understanding of the concept. Such terms include Integrated Coastal Zone Management (ICZM), Coastal Areas Management (CAM), Integrated Coastal and Marine Areas Management (ICMAM) and Integrated Coastal Area Management (ICAM). Burbridge (1997) advises a move away from definitions emphasising the management of areas and zones, because stating such boundaries may detract from the flexibility envisaged in an integrated approach. Conversely, Cicin-Sain and Knecht (1998) argue that the multiplicity of terms, in fact refer to the same concept, but for consistency they adopt ICM. This thesis too, adopts 'ICM' as the preferred terminology, as it is becoming the more commonly used expression in the international literature on coastal management.

1.1.3 ICM – an approach to coastal management

Although coastal and marine management has been practiced for at least 30 years, it is only in the last decade that ICM has been adopted globally as a logical approach for achieving sustainable coastal development and coastal resource use planning (Sorensen 1997; Tobey and Volk 2002). Cicin-Sain and Knecht, who identify five sets of international guidelines for an ICM approach, provide evidence of the global embrace of the philosophy of ICM. These guidelines are important because 'they can be viewed as setting standards of an international model or norm for countries to follow' (Cicin-Sain and Knecht 1998: 103). They are:

- Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development Guidelines (OECD 1991)
- International Union for Conservation of Nature IUCN (now World Conservation Union) Guidelines (1993)
- World Bank Guidelines (1993)
- World Coast Conference (WCC) Guidelines (1994)
- United Nations Environment Program (UNEP) Guidelines (1995).

These sources 'reveal rather more agreement among them than might be expected given the different motivations and backgrounds underlying each set' (Cicin-Sain and Knecht 1998: 104). The underlying tenets of the various guidelines are discussed below.

1.1.4 Dimensions or principles of ICM

By promoting co-operation and co-ordination, the principles underlying the process of ICM directly address the issue of overlapping interest between coastal management authorities. These are elaborated by four distinctive 'dimensions' (Knecht and Archer 1993):

1. The first dimension is that ICM is intended to be intergovernmental, that is that all levels of government are required to be involved in planning and management decisions that will have an impact upon the coastal environment (otherwise referred to as vertical integration) (Thia-Eng 1993; Sorensen 1997).
2. The second dimension demands recognition of the interconnection between the land-water interface, and that an understanding of ecological processes is important.
3. Consequently the third dimension requires inter-sectoral integration (otherwise known as horizontal integration) (Thia-Eng 1993; Sorensen 1997). Prior to ICM efforts, coastal management suffered from fragmentation between sectors, and from the 'tyranny of small decisions' (Odum 1982).
4. The fourth dimension of ICM prescribes an interdisciplinary and holistic approach to management. There is a focus on the link between natural and human systems and their component parts and interrelationships. This fourth dimension also places importance on traditional, cultural and historical perspectives and demands participation of local community members. It is necessary to

emphasise this point because 'it is at the local level that much of the innovation, and real action in ICM is taking place' (Hildebrand 1997b: 1).

Kennington and Crawford (1993: 125) provide a series of 'necessary elements' required to mobilise the principles of ICM into tangible management outcomes. These elements are listed below:

- A dynamic goal or vision of desired condition - long term (25-50 years)
- National objectives - broadly agreed to aims or common purpose
- Guiding principles for managers for planning, granting approvals
- A strategy, commitment and resources for the objectives to be met through detailed day-to-day management involving several agencies
- Clear legally based identification of authority, precedence and accountability of the strategy
- Performance indicators and monitoring to enable objective assessment of the extent to which goals and objectives have been met
- The will to implement the strategy (political, administrative, stakeholder).

According to Clark (1997: 200), the concepts and methodologies of ICM are taken from well-known standard land use planning and management approaches. He cites regional development planning, catchment management, rapid appraisal and protected area management as examples of other such approaches. Kay and Alder (1999) note that community involvement in coastal planning and management has lagged behind land-based approaches, due to the complexity of coastal zones in terms of multiple uses, users and jurisdictions. Public participation as a concept is not unique to ICM philosophy. There has been growing interest in the participation of local communities and user groups in natural resource management generally (Jorge 1997; Curtis and Nouhuys 1999). The critical differences between ICM rhetoric, other natural resource management approaches, and earlier coastal area planning and management efforts are, first, ICM's endorsement of a systems approach (the dynamic nature of the process) and second, its recognition of the need to involve multiple sectors (Sorensen 1993; Olsen et al. 1997; Tobey and Volk 2002).

Another way to consider ICM is to view the steps from policy into process (Olsen, et al 1997: 160). Olsen et al. (1997: 160) suggest that the process of converting policy into process is best described as a cycle. Figure 1.2 illustrates the different steps required to implement an ICM program from issue identification, planning, implementing and reflecting on practice. Again, this is not unique to ICM as the cycle depicted shares 'the same features of other institutional endeavours' (Olsen et al 1997). The five steps are identified as the essential actions for completion of the ICM 'policy cycle'. A key component of the cycle is its iterative nature. It is assumed that cycles will continue over time, building and modifying according to the experiences of preceding years' activities.

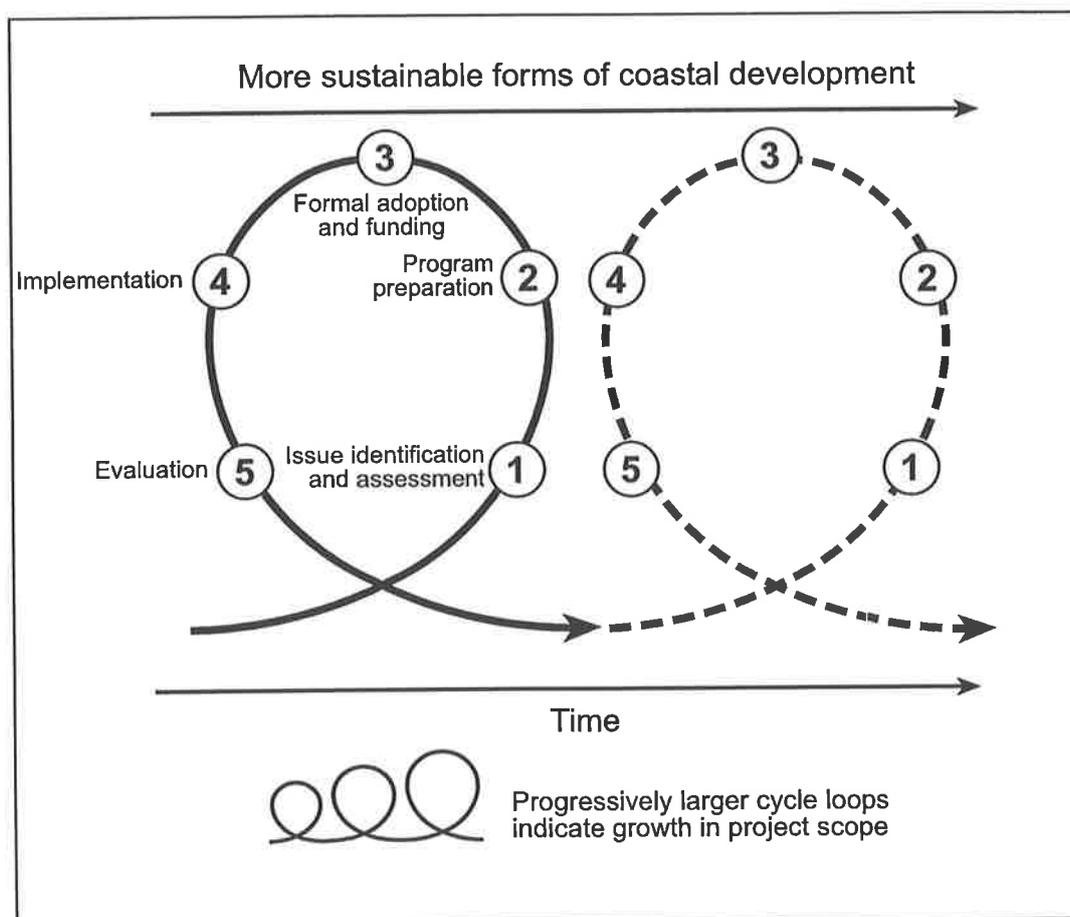


Figure 1.2: The cyclic nature of ICM
(Source: Olsen et al. 1999: 8)

1.2 International progress in ICM: translating philosophy into action

The precise role and expression of ICM varies from place to place and situation to situation. Despite the observation by Olsen and Christie (2000) and Cicin-Sain and Knecht (1998) that issues for coastal management/managers are similar across a variety of settings, the capacity to act varies greatly. There is disparity in what it is

that motivates a place to develop an ICM 'effort', especially between developed and developing countries and island nations. Poor countries (e.g. Pacific Islands, West Asia, North Africa) solely reliant upon coastal resources for food security have more accentuated population pressure, degradation, poverty, lack of professional capacity and non-sustainable practices. The disparity between rich and poor countries also illuminates differences between the types of approach adopted, whether those approaches are 'top-down' inspired or 'bottom up' community driven.

Despite the existence of common principles, essential elements and progress cycles, to date no hypothesis about ICM design and practice has been systematically tested across the diverse spectrum of coastal nations (Olsen, Tobey and Kerr 1997). However, two major studies regarding the proliferation of ICM around the world (Sorensen 1997, and Cicin-Sain and Knecht 1998) have worked towards an understanding of how the principles of ICM have been translated into action.

1.2.1 Sorensen's roster of ICM activity

Sorensen has been collecting data since 1993 on the number of ICM 'efforts' around the world. He has defined three types of effort:

1. Policy statements (advisory in capacity)
2. Feasibility studies (case studies, pilot studies, demonstration areas, and learning areas). These are considered to be a 'prelude to the initiation of a full-scale national or sub-national program) and
3. Programs (full policy formulation, adoption and implementation cycle).

Sorensen (2000b) estimates that ICM activity has grown from 180 efforts in 1993 to approximately 385 in 2000, in 87 coastal countries and semi-sovereign states. These are, however, 'self-proclaimed' efforts, and consequently 'a number of them may prove to be just wishful thinking, empty promises, or paper exercises' (Sorensen 2000b: 2). The purpose behind the collation was to stimulate interaction and information exchange between individuals and countries carrying out ICM, and hence to improve methods for achieving its desired outcomes. A secondary purpose was to find reasons behind the 'demises and transformations' which appeared to take place during program implementation. Kay and Alder (1999: 77)

question Sorensen's 'attempt' at collation on the grounds that it lacks 'critical examination of the findings of such work'.

For example, Sorensen's baseline database includes 51 'national efforts'. According to my analysis, Sorensen's list shows that of the initiatives of the 51 initiatives listed as national efforts, in fact there were 15 programs, 24 policies and 12 feasibility studies (See Appendix 1). An ICM policy has not yet necessarily been implemented; it provides a framework or direction for how a program may run. The category of 'feasibility studies' (or 'projects') delineates site specific activity, such as a demonstration site, or a pilot site of an ICM initiative. However, considering categories of feasibility studies and policy statements is not in itself sufficient to constitute a successful ICM activity. A 'program' on the other hand is the more sophisticated approach of the three categories, because programs constitute several components, including supportive legislation or policy, a strategy or plan (an agreed upon set of processes to be implemented towards coastal management activities), a formal staffing arrangement and/or a governing council. However, Sorensen's list does not address the issue of implementation.

Given the lack of detail available and the desire to better understand the progress of implementation of ICM internationally, I undertook a systematic search of journals and the internet for each of the countries listed on Sorensen's roster as 'national'. A summary of the results of this search is provided in Appendix 1. The investigation revealed that many of the initiatives have not moved beyond the planning phase and most have encountered significant barriers to implementation. This will be taken up in the discussion below.

Appendix 1 highlights that much of the effort at a national level has principally been in the development of coastal management plans or the development of legislation. The degree to which the plans have been implemented is often unclear. The other issue of note is that many of the efforts are financed by loans or donor assistance, and this calls into question their long-term sustainability. These include the larger programs such as the Gulf of Guinea and the National Black Sea Strategic Action Plan which may be viewed at the following web addresses:

(<http://www.africaonline.co.ci/AfricaOnline/societes/goglme/goglme.html>;
<http://www.coastalguide.org/icm/blacksea/bulgaria.html>)

One of the confounding issues of ICM is that the geographic scope of efforts varies considerably, ranging from international to national, state, regional to small local demonstration projects. It seems inappropriate to consider such efforts as the same thing. It has been shown that site specific, demonstration activities have achieved success 'in the sense of achieving performance targets during their lifetime' (Tobey and Volk 2002: 293) but increasingly experience suggests that the pilot project concept is failing as a strategy for scaling up to a larger program (Burbridge 1997). It is clear from the search that there are few examples of countries that have implemented or are trying to implement a national ICM program incorporating an entire national coastline. Equally uncommon are programs that rely upon existing expertise and internally generated funding. An even greater layer of complexity exists for countries that share borders, because they require a greater and more sophisticated degree of co-ordination and co-operation between them. Examples are special groups, like the 'National Caspian Sea Project' and the 'Phare Project of the Baltic States'. The Phare project is financed by the European Communities to assist the applicant countries of central Europe in their preparations for joining the European Union. It encompasses countries of central and eastern Europe, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia and Romania, helping them through a period of massive economic restructuring and political change. These two examples provide evidence of an attempt to deal with trans-national and boundary management in an integrated way (<http://www.coastalguide.org/icm/index.html>).

The range of experiences recorded in the international literature suggests that the majority of ICM 'efforts' fit the second type categorised by Sorensen: the feasibility study category. There are many examples of 'first-generation' local demonstration projects but it is unclear if these will contribute to solving regional problems, or whether they can be scaled up to inform and develop ICM programs (Cicin-Sain and Knecht 1998). The major challenge to the success of ICM is the expansion from local projects to nationwide programs, such as national policy

frameworks (White and Deguit 1999; Olsen and Christie 2000). As Sorensen noted in 1997:

The best indicator [of success] is the number of programs (not 'efforts') which have been adopted and implemented. The implementation phase is the acid test of all ICM programs, but it appears that most efforts have not moved into that stage of enforcing plans and policies - of these that have adequacy of programs is not known. (Sorensen 1997: 14)

1.2.2 *Cicin-Sain and Knecht's cross-national survey*

In 1996, prior to Sorensen's research, Cicin-Sain and Knecht undertook a more rigorous study, published in 1998, comparing ICM processes in different countries. Their research was based on a selective cross-national survey, which elicited detail about various aspects of ICM ranging from:

- level of government primarily concerned for ICM
- nature of the approach which had been adopted (i.e. top-down or bottom up)
- reliance upon external assistance
- degree of integration, and
- effectiveness of integration.

Twenty-nine developed/developing nations around the world were carefully selected and the survey achieved a 78% response rate. Results indicated that despite the widespread embrace of the philosophy and principles of ICM, evidence of follow-through was lacking: 'there is scanty evidence regarding ...the extent of implementation and the extent of effectiveness' (Cicin-Sain and Knecht 1998: 254). Australia was included in the survey. The Commonwealth Coastal Policy was cited as an ICM effort. It was reported that because implementation was just beginning, it was too early to determine effectiveness.

A third related study was undertaken in 1998 by Meltzer, in the form of a desk-top review of international ICM programs. She concluded that there were very few, if any, successful models. Meltzer suggested that ICM was still an evolving practice and, at the time of her study, it was too early to expect more progress.

1.2.3 *Barriers to implementation*

Despite the global acceptance of the concept, there are emerging flaws related to the practice of ICM. Concern over the degradation of coastal environments

continues to escalate whilst the call for integrated management continues.

Sorensen, in his 1997 global review of ICM efforts, cautions his audience with:

There was enthusiasm and optimism among those who chose to follow the rising star...For many who have been following the ICM star for decades, the optimism is now guarded because they have found out that ICM is a long swim against the current (Sorensen 1997: 3).

There is lack of evidence that the large numbers of ICM 'efforts' taking place around the globe are sustainable over the long term.

Despite the 30 or so year history of ICM there are few good examples of fully integrated coastal management strategies, plans or management practices beyond a local level or problem - specific scale (Burbridge 1997: 181)

Cicin-Sain and Knecht (1998: 63) advise taking a realistic approach to ICM and avoiding 'overselling' it as a 'crusade'. They warn that it has yet to be fully implemented in any national context. Crawford, Cobb and Friedman (1993: 313), citing Kenchington (1990), agree that ICM plan development is often easier to achieve than implement and call this imbalance the 'implementation gap'.

Lack of implementation of ICM plans and policies is a critical issue. According to Shah (1997), speaking of the Eastern African experience, there is a critical gap between 'knowing' and 'doing'; good plans do not necessarily lead to good development. Glavovic (2000: 270), speaking of South Africa, states: 'While the policy formulation and adoption process appears to have met with considerable success, the challenge that lies ahead in implementing the policy is enormous'. This trend is far-reaching, with an increasing number of national plans being approved in developing countries. However many are not being implemented (Crawford, Cobb and Friedman 1993: 313), and few examples or case studies exist (Ehler and Basta 1993: 10).

This problem is not isolated to ICM. Davis and Weller (1993) in their review of strategic management in the coastal zone, identified different large studies in the United States that were trying to implement policies across levels of government. Their conclusion was that implementation 'becomes a test of the theory implicit in all policies'.

In most instances, ICM is being introduced into countries/Nations/States that already have administration processes for coastal management in place. However, ICM programs often fail to be implemented because existing structures remain unchanged or impenetrable, as well as because of a lack of skilled/trained coastal managers, suspicion and dislike of public involvement in decision-making, political turmoil, and lack of funding (Shah, Linden, Lundin et al. 1997; Hale and Amaral 2000). In other words, coastal administrative systems in existence pose a significant barrier for converting ICM vision into strategy and action. A condition for overcoming the 'implementation gap' is that administrative structures for coastal management, put in place prior to the acceptance of the ICM philosophy, be open to rearrangement and re-negotiation of responsibility. It is also likely that the 'implementation gap' will only be resolved through training and employing coastal program managers (Harvey, Clarke and Baumgarten 2002).

1.2.4 Lack of evaluation

Compounding the problem of tracking ICM success is the lack of critical assessment available. The literature available on ICM shows that program evaluations conducted by ICM institutions lack independent critical assessment (Sorensen 2000a: 13). The following quotes highlight the lack of clear understanding behind the process.

There is scant information derived from rigorous evaluations of ICM program outcomes or answers to the question 'does ICM or ICZM really make a difference?' (Sorensen 1997: 13)

There is very little information that demonstrates the success of ICM efforts and how the process of ICM has influenced outcomes.... (Olsen, Tobey and Kerr 1997: 155)

The integrated management system has yet to be carefully evaluated with respect to its concept, operation and effectiveness. (Thia-Eng 1998: 603)

Despite the acceptance of the concept [of ICM] and excellent work performed by such as ...Biliana Cicin-Sain, Chua Thia-Eng, John Clark, Robert Knecht, Jens Sorensen, Steve Olsen and Mark Hershman, in booksand international journals such as 'Coastal Management' and 'Ocean and Coastal Management' clear performance indicators to assess the success, or otherwise, of implementing ICM are not readily available. (Wescott 2000a)

What has been established so far is that ICM is a process, but there is no singular model to describe it. Rather there is a set of principles, which underpin what ICM is trying to achieve, and there are essential elements for developing a national ICM project or program. Despite the widespread acceptance of the philosophy, to date

there is great uncertainty about the benefits of adopting an ICM approach. Davos (1998: 379) suggests that effectiveness of the function of coastal management is undermined by the calls for action towards sustainability in the coastal zone, because such calls insist upon 'reiterating "ends" while failing to suggest "means"'. Furthermore, Burbridge emphasises that it is important to be clear about what aspect of ICM should be measured:

A distinction should be made between the progress that is made in the development of an ICM initiative in meeting stated goals. It is logical that a well-designed ICM initiative should help meet stated development objectives. However, there is no guarantee that such an initiative will be effective if it cannot be properly implemented. (Burbridge 1997: 181)

According to Wescott:

We have a well accepted concept of ICM which can qualify as an international benchmark (concept) but no reliable or agreed method of assessing when a nation or state has reached this benchmark. (Wescott 1997: 58)

Without performance indicators and professional evaluations, it is not possible to assess the success of nations' efforts in realizing stated ICM objectives. According to Olsen (1997), 'any methodology for learning from ICM should address the governance process itself': that is, 'the method of coastal management, including the laws, institutions, policies and processes that affect how coastal resources are utilized and allocated'. But methodologies that explore the governance process are routinely underdeveloped in comparison to those that specifically monitor and assess the condition of natural systems (Olsen 1996, quoted in (Meltzer 1998: 6). Clearly there needs to be a more rigorous approach in assessing ICM against coastal management governance structures.

The previous discussion has highlighted some of the shortcomings of the global embrace of ICM. Two critical issues that require more attention are:

- the 'implementation gap' between planning and action and,
- the lack of critical assessment of ICM program success. The work of Sorensen and Cicin-Sain and Knecht suggests that there needs to be clearer parameters around what constitutes an ICM program, what is being achieved, and how integrated coastal management programs are functioning at national, state and local levels.

1.3 ICM in Australia

Australia has responded to the call for an integrated approach in developing and managing the coastal zone. Australia, with its federal system and three tiers of government, is a good example of a place that must rely on nested strategies (at local, state and national levels) for implementing an ICM approach. Between 1995 and 2002, the Australian Commonwealth, in partnership with the states and coastal local governments, developed a comprehensive suite of programs in the endeavour to arrest coastal degradation and implement more strategic approaches to managing coastal resources. According to Thia-Eng (1998), 5-7 years should be sufficient for the development and implementation of the first generation of coastal management programs under an ICM framework. This Australian example is significant in light of the implementation gaps experienced elsewhere and because

Successful first generation ICZM initiatives are important for building confidence, encouraging wider adoption and generating political and institutional support for future projects. (Power, McKenna, MacLeod et al. 2000: 143)

As one specific element of the suite of Commonwealth initiatives, Coastcare provides an ideal subject for research because it meets the prescribed formula (principles and elements) for ICM. It is an initiative of the Commonwealth that is specifically designed to engage participation of local communities. Coastcare has been implemented nationally through a formal program, and has been in operation since 1995. It has been designed to cover the length of the Australian coastline (a team of regional Coastcare facilitators has responsibility for co-ordinating coastal management activities of volunteer groups around the entire coast); it has received guaranteed funding for five years; and the three tiers of government have committed themselves through a formal partnership by signing Memoranda of Understanding that prescribe the duties and obligations, objectives and outcomes expected from the Program.

As with other ICM efforts discussed above, Coastcare lacks critical assessment in terms of its strengths and limitations and an exploration of the factors that have either helped or hindered progress to date. Given the paucity of thorough assessments of ICM programs, an examination of Coastcare's progress can contribute to a stronger understanding about how a functional, integrated process can be established. It is essential to determine the degree of Coastcare's success to

support and guide the next phase of the program in Australia but also to provide insight for places that have not yet established such programs. The ensuing discussion unravels the emergence of ICM in Australia and explains how the Coastcare program was established as a fully fledged coastal initiative.

1.3.1 The emergence of ICM in Australia

There was a long lead-time prior to the establishment of integrated coastal management, and hence Coastcare, in Australia. According to Kay's and Lester's review (1997), managing the coastal zone has been a priority but an enduring problem for Australian governments for many years. Management of Australia's coastline really emerged in the 1970s, mainly around issues of protection works and conservation. However, coastal management in each state occurred in a piecemeal, reactionary fashion during the 1980s and early 1990s. Intensifying pressure over use, insufficiencies in the *ad hoc* controls and overlap between jurisdictions ensured that coastal resources were continually reported to be in decline around the country (Harvey and Caton 2003). Complex resource management issues (namely population pressure and conflicts over use), similar to those faced by other coastal nations, have been the motivation for improving practice. In the early 1990s, international practice and theory began to influence how Australians thought about and planned for natural resources. This period has been described as a 'watershed' for coastal management in Australia (Haward 1995). Thom and Harvey (2000) identify four key triggering factors that stimulated this reform of Australian coastal management:

- global environment change
- adoption of the principles of sustainable development
- application of strategic planning principles through a demand for a more holistic or integrated approach to resource management, and
- greater community awareness of management issues and participation in decision making.

In response to these triggers Australia pursued a more integrated approach to coastal management generally with the development of a national coastal management program.

1.3.2 Coastal governance in Australia

Australia has a three tier Federal system of governance comprising the Commonwealth, six states and two territories and local government. Powers for the management of natural resource management lie with the individual states, a consequence of the nature of the Federal constitution. However, the Commonwealth has considerable financial powers and is able to provide a leadership role through the setting of national standards, for example. Numerous state agencies are endowed with the responsibility for the management of coastal lands within their jurisdiction and local government undertakes many of the maintenance tasks and development control of the coast. The structural arrangements for coastal management are discussed in detail in Chapter 5. Coastal management in Australia has undergone considerable change over the last decade.

The adoption of the principles of sustainable development - the central concern of which is 'ensuring that the needs of the present generation are met without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs' (Commonwealth of Australia 1992d) was a primary motivation in changing the nature of natural resource management across sectors in Australia. The concept was expanded in the 1990s, within Australia, as ecologically sustainable development (ESD) and defined as:

Using, conserving and enhancing the community's resources so that ecological processes, on which life depends, are maintained and the total quality of life, now and in the future, can be increased (Commonwealth of Australia 1992d)

Given the importance of ESD, Australia needed to adopt a more co-operative national approach to environmental management generally. In order to achieve this, better definitions of respective governmental roles were essential. Coastal management was swept along with other broad governmental reforms of the day. Table 1.1 provides a timeline of the major events and key documents that influenced coastal reform in Australia between 1989 and 1996. In one year, 1992, three significant developments took place, signifying the rise of the environment on Australia's political agenda:

- The establishment of the Council of Australian Governments (COAG), a response to increasing pressure for economic, social and environmental policy reform and the consequent need for a formal structure for progressing and resolving major inter-governmental policy issues (Moore-Wilton 1999).

- The Intergovernmental Agreement on the Environment (IGAE) formalised the development and implementation of environmental policy and programs by all levels of Government. It decreed that they should be guided by a set of agreed considerations and principles. Of greatest relevance to this thesis is the adoption of sound environmental practices and procedures, as a basis for ecologically sustainable development by all parties. Accordingly there was recognition that this would require the effective integration of environmental considerations in decision-making processes. Section 2 of the Agreement delineates for the first time the responsibilities and interests of each of the three spheres of government (Commonwealth of Australia 1992c).
- The National Strategy for ESD (NSES) was released. Coastal issues were addressed in an inter-sectoral report and prepared by a special sub-group, 'Sub-Group 21', of state and Commonwealth officials charged with the task of applying ESD principles to coastal management. This inter-sectoral group was essential because 'the problems of inadequate strategy and implementation for coastal zone management' were seen to 'affect all ESD sectors' (Commonwealth of Australia 1992d: 96).

It is the last of these three developments that had the greatest direct impact on changing the nature of management for the coast through ESD, as a consequence of the efforts of Sub-Group 21. NSESs influence was shared with a series of other important and interwoven initiatives specifically focussed on the coastal zone: a government standing committee report and a Resource Assessment Commission inquiry, which both assessed the way Australia's coast was being managed, and the emergence of a Commonwealth coastal policy. These initiatives are elaborated below.

NSES supported the findings of a seminal report, 'The Injured Coastline', produced in the previous year by the House of Representatives Standing Committee on Environment, Recreation and the Arts (HORSCERA). It urged the establishment of a national scale coastal zone strategy, and recommended that:

The Commonwealth develop without further delay a national coastal zone management strategy in co-operation with States and Territories and local governments to provide a framework for the coordination of coastal management throughout Australia. The strategy should incorporate agreed national objectives, goals, priorities, implementation and funding programs and performance criteria (HORSCERA 1991: xiv)

The HORSCERA report was instigated after some previous 20 reports by Commonwealth agencies or Parliamentary Committees that gave testimony to the

Table 1.1: Timeline of events and strategy documents influencing coastal management practice in Australia, 1989 –1996

Prime Minister's Statement 'Our Country Our Future'		HORSCERA – The Injured Coastline' Terms of Reference for Resource Assessment Commission Inquiry	National Strategy for ESD IGAE – Heads of Government endorse ESD Draft Policy for Commonwealth Responsibility in the Coastal Zone	RAC Final Report: 'The Coastal Zone Inquiry'		Commonwealth Coastal Policy Released, 'Living on the Coast' National Coastal Action Program announced.	Natural Heritage Trust 'Coasts and Cleans Seas' Program announced
1989		1991	1992	1993		1995	1996

TIME

lack of appropriate management techniques in the coastal zone, but which between them failed to make a difference, suffering from an apparent 'paralysis by analysis' (Haward and VanderZwaag 1995: 283):

While the need is recognized, there is a seeming inability of governments and agencies to work together to develop and implement a national strategy for effective, consistent, long-term management and conservation of the coastal zone. (Commonwealth of Australia 1992b: 95)

In the year prior to NSESD, HORSCERA had urged a Commonwealth government response to this situation; the report's findings initiated the Resource Assessment Commission's (RAC) Coastal Zone Inquiry and the HORSCERA report is also given credit as a catalyst for the production and the foundation of the Commonwealth's Coastal Policy (Commonwealth of Australia 1992a). In response to HORSCERA and NSESD the Commonwealth produced a draft coastal policy in 1992 (Commonwealth of Australia 1992a), acknowledging the requirement for a national coastal strategy and agreed principles for coastal management. The policy was released in 1995 drawing upon the findings from the 1993 RAC Inquiry.

Individual states during the early 1990s were also individually tackling coastal policy through their own reforms. All Australian states and the NT announced coastal policies and/or strategies in the early 1990s following reviews of existing legislation, policies or practices (Haward 1996: 23). ICM in Australia is being implemented within pre-existing coastal management structures and frameworks. The preceding discussion pointed to this as a challenge, identified in other countries, and a barrier to success. In light of the constraints in implementing intergovernmental policy and the inflexibility of existing structures to be open to change, the role of the Australian states in coastal management and their adoption of a specific integrated management strategy will be taken up in greater detail in chapter 5 of this thesis.

1.3.3 Resource Assessment Commission Coastal Zone Inquiry

ESD Sub-Group 21 of the NSESD, with representatives from all states and the NT, local government and the Commonwealth, continued their work but became closely linked to the RAC Coastal Zone Inquiry (Commonwealth of Australia

1992a), which was set the task of examining and reporting on Australia's institutional arrangements for the coast. The Inquiry took a year and a half to complete, examining coastal management responsibilities between the three tiers of government. Following HORSCERA and NSESD, the RAC recommended a national approach to coastal management that was both integrated and strategic (Resource Assessment Commission 1993: 87). A national approach was considered necessary for four main reasons:

- No single sphere of government could manage the zone alone;
- Issues of national significance and of great public concern are involved;
- The socio-economic development of the coastal zone is of profound importance to the nation and;
- Australia has international obligations in the zone that necessitate coordination between the spheres of government.

The RAC's answer was a National Coastal Action Program (NCAP) of four key elements:

- A set of nationally agreed coastal zone management objectives
- Arrangements for implementing and managing the program
- Greater community and industry involvement
- Innovative management mechanisms

The RAC Final Report acknowledged the existing efforts of volunteer associations around the Australian coast but pushed for more resources, support and coordination of community and industry involvement in coastal planning and management. The RAC placed emphasis on an increased role for volunteers suggesting they should be 'participat[ing] in forums to determine management strategies at local and regional levels' (Resource Assessment Commission 1993:117).

The RAC recommended a national Coastcare program be set up as part of the NCAP and outlined a vision for the role of such a program:

- A Coastcare program should be established by the Commonwealth Government to deal with the particular needs of coastal areas for soil conservation, maintenance of biodiversity, re-vegetation, and management and monitoring of shoreline and near-shore environment

- The Coastcare program provide funds for the appointment of local and regional coastal community facilitators and extension services.
- The Coastcare program be designed to extend and complement existing initiatives for community involvement in integrated catchment management.

The HORSCERA report, the NSESD and the RAC shared numerous recommendations related to institutional arrangements to manage the Australian coastal zone, and these are shown in Table 1.2. These finally culminated into action through the development of the Coastal Policy and implementation of the NCAP.

Table 1.2: Comparison of recommendations for achieving institutional integration in Australia

	HORSCERA	NSESD	RAC
A national coastal strategy	●	●	●
Commonwealth coastal zone legislation	●		●
Commonwealth coastal agency			●
An intergovernmental agreement	●	●	●
Integration of Commonwealth and state management	●	●	●
Financial assistance to state/local government	●		●
Integration of local government	●		●
Regional basis to management		●	●
Community/citizen participation	●	●	●

(Haward 1995)

1.3.4 Commonwealth coastal policy

In response to the RAC Inquiry the Commonwealth Government redrafted their earlier coastal policy and on the 28th May 1995, the Commonwealth Coastal Policy, 'Living on the Coast', was launched by the then Commonwealth (Federal) Minister for Environment, Senator John Faulkner.

'Living on the Coast' incorporated the RAC recommendation of a NCAP and both the Policy and the Program are considered to be 'critical elements in the development of an integrated approach to management' of Australia's coast (Haward 1996: 31). However, several of the proposed initiatives specifically devoted to improving intergovernmental relations never eventuated (Haward 1996: 32). These included a Coastal Resources Management Act, a National Coastal

Advisory Committee (NCAC), a Commonwealth Coastal Co-ordinating Committee; and an Intergovernmental Technical Committee. Nevertheless, the Commonwealth, through its new Policy and Program, provided a formal structure through the NCAP to deliver finances to specific coastal programs.

The Coastal Policy set out to achieve specific practical improvements to coastal management on four key 'fronts': a) increased community involvement in coastal management; b) sustainable use of the coast; c) capacity building; and d) promotion of Australian coastal management expertise in neighbouring regions (Commonwealth of Australia, 1995: iv). Coastcare features prominently as the first of the four. Stocker and Moore (1999) highlight the significance of the focus of the 1995 Coastal Policy, which launched Coastcare, as being 'framed in terms of community management of the coast, not just [increasing the communities'] knowledge of the coast'.

1.3.5 National Coastal Action Program

The RAC's vision for a national approach to coastal management was partially fulfilled by the announcement of the NCAP in 1995. It was not the purpose of the NCAP to eradicate and replace existing community interests but rather 'provide a focus for existing programs' and to inject resources to 'improve management skills and harness community interest' (Resource Assessment Commission 1993: 101).

The central message for the program was thus:

Coastcare is about communities and governments working together to bring about changes in the ways that our coasts are managed. (Tailby and Lenfer 1996: 129)

After considerable negotiation between the Commonwealth and state governments, a major achievement of the NCAP was the acceptance of a Commonwealth (of Australia) role through an agreed set of Memoranda of Understanding (MoU) with all states, the Northern Territory and representatives of local government (Thom and Harvey 2000). The collaborative effort between levels of government and community groups, that was required to implement the NCAP, is endorsement of the ideals expressed in Chapter 17 of Agenda 21 (Haward and VanderZwaag 1995). The individual state NCAP MoUs detailed program objectives, governmental roles and administrative requirements. Specific initiatives of NCAP and their roles are included in Table 1.3.

Table 1.3: Elements of the National Coastal Action Program

Coastcare	Initiative designed to involve local communities in managing the coast.
Ocean Rescue 2000	the development of a national system of marine protected areas.
Prevention of pollution of coastal waters	Support of demonstration projects and strategies focused on addressing marine pollution; research into marine pests.
Australian Marine Conservation Plan	Identification of management strategies for full range of activities affecting the sustainable use of the coast.
Coastal Integrated Local Area Planning Program	Promotes a whole-of-government approach to local area and regional strategic planning for the coast.
Sustainable Coastal Tourism	Supporting local government coastal managers design appropriate coastal tourism strategies.
Defence	Development of management plans for coastal lands and waters under the control of the Department of defence.
Coastnet	an electronic communications network to improve communications between researchers and coastal managers.
Coastal Monitoring System	Establishment of a network of monitoring sites around the Australian coast to provide baseline information for government to meet management and policy needs.
Capacity-building program	Promotes increased skills among those with a responsibility for managing the coast.
Global and Regional initiatives	Development of information packages and participation in regional forums to promote exchanges of views about coastal problems.

(Source: adapted from Environment Australia Web site, 2000.)

The NCAP had barely begun when, with a change of government, it was repackaged within a new Commonwealth environmental initiative: the Natural Heritage Trust. Coastcare and Capacity Building were the only two initiatives of the NCAP to retain their identity in the roll over into the Natural Heritage Trust (NHT).

1.3.6 Natural Heritage Trust

The Natural Heritage Trust was established in 1997, through the part sale of Australia's major telecommunication carrier (Telstra). It was to finance a suite of environmental programs helping preserve Australia's natural capital. The Trust placed great importance on the development of partnerships between the tiers of

government (Commonwealth, State and Local) and the community. The elaborate structure of the NHT and programs within it is illustrated in Figure 1.3.

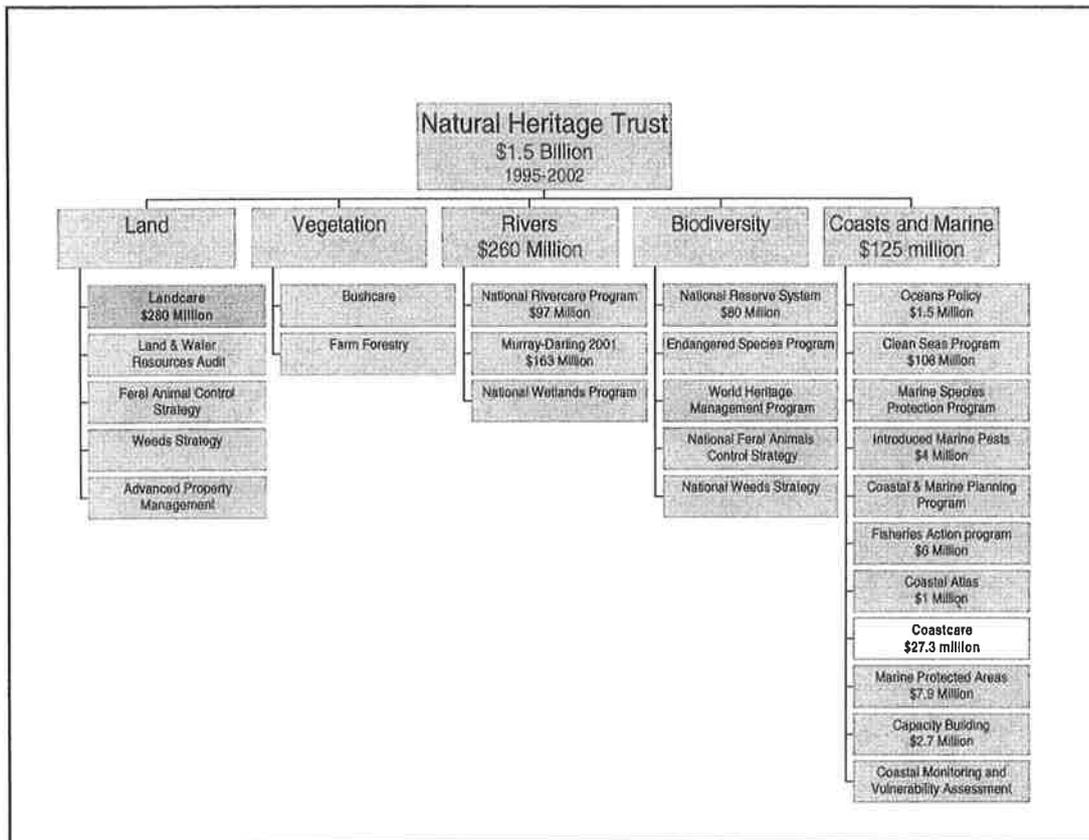


Figure 1.3: Structure of the NHT, 1996/97 to 2000/2001
(Source: created from EA website, 2000)

The coastal and marine initiative of the NHT, the Coasts and Clean Seas Program, was administered by the Commonwealth department, Environment Australia, and it provided Au\$125 million for the ‘conservation, sustainable use and repair of Australia’s coastal and marine environment’. Table 1.4 outlines the suite of programs within Coasts and Clean Seas, their objectives and funding. Hence, the NCAP was replaced, and a new MoU signed in 1998. An example of the Coasts and Clean Seas MoU, that relates to Coastcare, from South Australia is included in Appendix 2. The fundamental elements of the MoU relevant to Coastcare (the core objectives, desired outcomes, and project eligibility criteria) were identical across the MoUs of all the states and the Northern Territory.

1.4 Implementation of Coastcare

Coastcare, the community participation element of both the NCAP and NHT coastal programs, is described as ‘the cornerstone’ (Tailby and Lenfer 1996: 129)

and ‘flagship’ of the 1995 Coastal Policy, and ‘the jewel in the crown’ of the suite of coastal programs (Rees 2002a) because it had a public profile, and embodied principles of integrated and participative decision-making (Morvell 1996: 303).

Table 1.4: Natural Heritage Trust ‘Coast and Clean Seas’ Sub-programs

Programs and Initiatives	Objectives	Allocated Funds (Au\$1,000)
Clean Seas Program	Protection of coastal, marine and estuarine water quality	51,000
Coastcare	Support for community activities	27,300
Marine Species Protection Program	Conservation of marine biodiversity	8,000
Marine Protected Areas Program	Establishment of a national Representative System of Marine Protected Areas	7,900
Coastal and Marine Planning Program	Guidance of strategic planning for future development in the coastal zone	7,600
The Fisheries Action Program	Restoration and protection of fisheries habitats and promotion of sustainable fisheries in estuarine and marine areas	6,000
Coastal Monitoring and Vulnerability Assessment	Monitoring significant threats to key coastal environments	4,200
Introduced Marine Pests Initiative	Reduction, management and local eradication of introduced pests	4,000
Australian Coastal Atlas	Development of an interactive, electronic coastal atlas	3,200
Capacity Building Program	Improvement of coastal and marine managers’ understanding of coastal environments and enhancement of their management capability	2,700
Oil Spill Atlas	Development of the Coastal Resource Atlas to assist in response to contaminating spills	1,000

(Source: Adapted from Environment Australia Web site, 2000).

Coastcare held a distinct position within the NHT compared to other ‘Care’ programs (like Landcare, Bushcare and Rivercare), because it was administered separately from the other stewardship initiatives, being part of a separate formal

agreement, the Coasts and Clean Seas MoU, and had a different project selection process. Tasmania was an exception where the NHT one-stop-shop SAP assessed Coastcare projects in addition to the other programs.

It is important to examine how tiers of government in Australia worked together to implement the principles of ICM through Coastcare, given the lack of other examples available internationally and locally (as discussed in Section 2 of this chapter).

1.4.1 Coastcare – an operational ICM program

Coastcare was promoted as a community-based coastal management program, supporting and encouraging local communities to participate in activities designed to protect and enhance their coastal environment (Commonwealth of Australia 1995). The Program was open to anyone who had an interest in coastal environments and specifically encouraged those who might have had an impact upon them (through economic, social, cultural or recreational activity). The underlying premise was that anyone using the resource had a responsibility for managing it (Commonwealth of Australia 1997).

Community groups were given the opportunity to ‘manage’ the coast, in conjunction with Coastcare staff, by way of a small grants program. After a formal application process modest funds (of up to \$30,000) were distributed to community groups to undertake local projects. In addition to the community grants, Commonwealth funding was provided for the salaries of the Coastcare team: a network of regionally based staff who supported the Program giving technical and administrative advice, at the local level. Media promotion to raise community awareness and campaign for Coastcare was also funded through Commonwealth and state monies (Commonwealth of Australia, 1999; Commonwealth of Australia, 2000).

The localised projects were typically carried out on publicly owned or managed lands and marine environments (Commonwealth of Australia 1998). This is in direct contrast to Landcare, where group members are usually landowners who have a direct stake in their own land management (Stocker and Barnett 1998).

Since Coastcare's initiation in 1995, there was significant interest from the Australian community in becoming involved in such management activities along the coast. Between 1995/1996 and 2000/2001, 2,323 projects were funded. Each project concluded with a final report detailing expenditure, a brief evaluation of the project and was signed-off by the community group and land manager.

There was significant variation in the delivery of Coastcare between individual states. Coastcare in most of the states and the Northern Territory was delivered as a program of the Commonwealth. However, exceptions to this were the Victorian and Western Australian Coastcare programs which were delivered jointly alongside their respective state community coastal programs, CoastAction in Victoria and CoastWest in Western Australia. These two state counterparts were in operation prior to the establishment of Coastcare, and Victoria and Western Australia negotiated heavily to maintain the identity of their own programs in conjunction with Coastcare.

1.4.2 *Contrasting examples of community-based coastal initiatives*

Australia's Coastcare program is of international significance because it was national and because was a unique example of an ICM program that attempted to link three tiers of government and the community toward a common purpose. Coastal management initiatives within other developed countries, like the United States, Canada and New Zealand, share some similarities with Australia's Coastcare program. However, none has all the qualities of Coastcare: the geographic scope, federal financial backing nor formal intergovernmental agreement for how the program ran. Below is a brief synopsis of the three other coastal community-based initiatives (United States, Canada and New Zealand), highlighting their limitations in contrast to the features of the Coastcare program, relative to the principles of ICM.

- Canada's Atlantic Coastal Action Program (ACAP), initiated in 1991, bears close resemblance to Coastcare in several respects. ACAP was initially seed funded and facilitated by Environment Canada. The program was staffed and promoted as a community initiative. It prescribed how the community would work with government through management agreements, similar to Coastcare. However, ACAP was never national in scope. It involved 13 coastal regions on the eastern Canadian coastline. The ACAP has also changed significantly over time

to become completely community-led. Now the agenda for planning and management is determined at the local level. Government agencies become partners in responding to the outcomes of community round-table policy and priority setting (Ellsworth, Hildebrand and Glover 1997).

- The US has had a federal Coastal Zone Management Act since 1972. It links their three tiers of government, federal, state and local, through five core objectives designed to improve management of their coast. There is great flexibility in interpretation of the Act however, with each state electing 'the level of importance to afford different coastal management objectives and the approach to take in addressing them' (Hershman, Good, Bernd-Cohen et al. 1999: 116). According to Hershman et al (1999: 117) the individual states also 'vary greatly in how they pursue goal of integration, making it difficult to "add up" the state efforts to determine if the federal goal is being met'. In addition to state programs, the US has a volunteer initiative: 'Volunteering for the Coast', run via an intra-agency partnership within the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration NOAA (USA Federal Government). 'Volunteering for the Coast' is described by NOAA as an internet-based coastal stewardship tool. It does not fund groups to undertake work but rather supports volunteer co-ordinators by providing them with information, success stories, and opportunities to network with each other. The internet address for Volunteering on the Coast is: <http://www.volunteer.nos.noaa.gov>.
- New Zealand adopted a Resource Management Act (RMA) in 1991 and through it established a new coastal management regime. It is based on a partnership between the Crown and regional and local authorities. Under the new regime, regional councils have been granted greater control over planning and management functions. However, the central government retains overall control through provisions proclaimed within its NZ Coastal Policy Statement (Department of Conservation 1994). (The RMA Act specifies that at all times there must be a New Zealand Coastal Policy Statement [NZCPS] to guide the management authorities through day-to-day management of the resource.) The statement contains broad environmental goals and identifies national priorities. Regional plans must reflect the provisions of the Policy Statement. There is no broad, funded coastal program like that of the Commonwealth in Australia. New Zealand also runs a Coastcare program, but it was initiated by regional and district councils and is still resourced by these parties, with little meaningful central government funding or involvement. Neither does it have nation-wide coverage and the facilitators tend to be local council staff or contractors (Dahm 2002).

1.5 Analysing Coastcare's success

This thesis is primarily concerned with the first phase of the Coastcare program, as part of NHT I, running between 1995 and 2002. Coastcare's first phase formalised processes that provided the opportunity to examine the interaction and linkages

between respective governments and their roles in working with community groups. The implementation of Coastcare was unique in each State and the Northern Territory, which requires specific examination of Coastcare's implementation in each. There were numerous influences within each State and the Northern Territory that are worthy of scrutiny:

- Physical coastal and social characteristics;
- Coastal management arrangements (within government, policy and procedure);
- Coastcare project selection process;
- Coastcare staffing and hosting arrangements.

Each of these influences shaped the way the Coastcare program was carried out, and affected the outcomes in each place. Analysing such differences will assist in determining what has been successful at the 'nested' levels suggested by Kenchington and Crawford (1993).

During the 2001 Federal Budget the Government announced a further five year extension of the Trust. There have been significant modifications to the structure and emphasis of the Trust for the ensuing NHT II. One of changes that has been made with the extension of the Trust is the reduction from five broad programs (Land, Vegetation, Rivers, Biodiversity, and Coasts and Marine) and a suite of initiatives within each as shown on Figure 1.3, to four programs: Landcare, Bushcare, Rivercare and Coastcare. The most significant difference between NHT I and II is the focus of NHT II on regional delivery, with the majority of funds being directed to regions that have accredited natural resource management (NRM) plans. It is the intent that regional plans will provide a more strategic basis for dispersal of Trust funds on the basis that regional issues will be prioritised, so that the most important issues for action and funding are realised. The new structure of the NHT extension is depicted in Appendix 3. The original NHT MoUs have been disbanded and new bilateral agreements (between the Commonwealth and states) are currently being developed around the country. Consequently, the states are no longer required to contribute according to the original dollar for dollar agreement for community grants programs. The local action grants are provided fully by the Commonwealth and the role of the states in terms of administration and project

selection is currently unclear. The original network of Coastcare facilitators is also to be replaced according to a new regional structure. This roll over into NHT II is in transition; therefore the ramifications for Coastcare are not yet evident. However, some concerns have emerged for Coastcare:

- in the development of the NRM plans for accreditation, state agencies with the lead on negotiating arrangements for regions have not necessarily been those with strong coastal and marine focus. The problem is that there may be inadequate coverage of coastal and marine issues in the integrated NRM plans developed by different regions.
- Coastcare no longer benefits from separate funding and administration. The revised local action component of NHT II, Envirofund, allocates a single pool of funds to be distributed to all 'care' projects from a central funding bucket. Coastcare competes with the other streams for funds. If the INRM plans have failed to adequately address coastal issues there will be sustained strenuous effort to draw attention to them in the process of identifying regional priorities. The process for selecting individual projects is also unclear. Under NHT I the majority the states have had independent coastal panels to assess the appropriateness of grant applications. This task will now most likely be devolved to regional panels, with limited coastal expertise.
- Victoria and Western Australia are continuing to run their independent state based community-based programs. South Australia has also been making provisions to continue funding small grants through funds from its Coast Protection Board. These changes do not appear to champion the cause of cooperation and integration but rather to splinter and confuse the groups seeking to undertake the work on the ground.
- The future of the national network of regional Coastcare facilitators is unclear. There has been a considerable cloud of uncertainty and apprehension growing over the Coastcare network - those administering the program at the local level around the country. There is evidence of this indicated by staff turnover by regional facilitators facing job insecurity. A state manager at a recent conference confirms this:

The Coastcare network is losing morale and beginning to disintegrate, leaving the huge community of supporters in a vacuum and growing confusion. (Rees 2002: 382)

A thorough investigation of Coastcare under NHT I is warranted given that the factors of community cohesion and capacity building, which made Coastcare work as a community-based management program, have been neglected in the formal evaluation process of the NHT to date. No data have been collected centrally nor nationally on partnership building between land managers and local community; nor are there available data on the effectiveness of projects in solving coastal management problems. This situation confers with what Dovers (2001:7) has

labelled 'policy *ad hocery* and policy amnesia' because the new provisions of the Trust are being established with a lack of hindsight, yet many issues raised in the first phase of Coastcare are potentially relevant and limitations may be transferred to the new arrangements.

1.5.1 Research aims and objectives

The literature presented above confirms that there is a lack of guidelines on the process of implementing an ICM approach and a paucity of research focussing on the success or otherwise of integrated approaches. Australia's Coastcare program is well placed to provide a case study for such an assessment. This research will focus on the nature of integration, between levels and sectors of government and the Coastcare team that emerged through the establishment and administration of Coastcare.

1.5.1.1 Aim

To examine the role and effectiveness of Australia's Coastcare program in relation to the principles of integrated coastal management.

1.5.1.2 Objectives

1. To provide a national overview of the Coastcare program and establish the differences between each State and the Northern Territory in implementing the Program
2. To determine the extent to which the Program was successful in engaging the community in coastal management
3. To examine the coastal policy/management arrangements in each State/Territory and assess how well these supported and guided the implementation and development of the Coastcare program
4. To establish the linkages made between agencies and people working closely with the Coastcare to determine the degree to which the Program was successful in integrating different tiers of government towards a common goal.

1.5.1.3 Thesis Structure

The thesis is structured as follows:

- Chapter 2 provides a discussion of the methodology and an explanation of the techniques applied to collect and analyse research data.
- Chapter 3 meets Objective One, providing a descriptive overview of the Coastcare Program from its inception, based on the Commonwealth's central

statistical data base. The discussion highlights the unique nature and features of the Program within each state.

- In meeting Objective Two, Chapter Four explores the concept of community participation in association with the theory of participatory democracy. Survey data is applied to an analytic framework, as a means of assessing Coastcare's progress in engaging the community in coastal management.
- Chapter Five, in meeting Objective Three, provides a critical analysis of current coastal policy and administrative arrangements for each state and the Northern Territory on the basis that such arrangements directly influence the nature and success of the program in the individual states. Coastcare's position in relation to each State's coastal management framework is explained. A discussion is provided on the strategic nature of Coastcare in meeting individual state coastal management goals, objectives and direction setting.
- The discussion in Chapter Six meets Objective Four, providing an analysis of the pathways of integration between three tiers of government and the Coastcare team. Key actions from the Coasts and Clean Seas MoU provide a framework for discussion.

Methods

2.1 Introduction

In order to better understand the pathways to integrated coastal management, research for this thesis has been designed to establish the nature of partnerships that developed as a consequence of official structured interaction between people within agencies and the community involved in implementing the Coastcare program. The population under study includes individuals from the three different spheres of government (Local, State and Commonwealth) who were linked to Coastcare and those employed to work directly on the Coastcare program (state coordinators and regional facilitators). These people were formally bound through Memoranda of Understanding (MoUs) to work towards an agreed set of objectives. Understanding the nature and the influence of the layers of interaction between the stakeholders of the Program is a means of understanding how ICM works in practice. This is important because procedures often agreed to in theory are rarely adhered to. Yet Olsen et al. suggest that an understanding of the governance process is essential because

institutions are more likely to be the source of program debate and conflict than are purely technical matters. Governance capacity is vital to sustained action on coastal resource issues. (Olsen et al. 1997: 169)

According to Meltzer's (1998) international review of ICM, assessment of the nature of governance is not well developed. There is very little information about whether ICM activities are meeting their stated objectives and whether or not they are effective (Olsen et al. 1997; Thia-Eng 1998; Sorensen 2000). This is largely due to the paucity of research and lack of thorough evaluation.

2.2 Evaluation of coastal management programs

ICM evaluations have tended to focus on program or project outputs and not outcomes (Sorensen 2000). Outputs include aspects of program activity such as the production of plans, permits, the number of meetings held or publications produced. Yet it is the program outcome that most specifically addresses the original objective, including the involvement of communities in decision-making or improved intergovernmental cooperation. Sorenson (1997) and Olsen et al.

(1997) provide reasons why evaluations have been framed in this way: outcome evaluations are more time consuming and complex than output assessments; they cost more and are more likely to be politically controversial. Nevertheless it is the act of reflection on past activity that can provide solutions and alternative approaches for future efforts (Olsen et al. 1997).

Evaluating the impacts of ICM programs is problematic, as shown by the list of obstacles and issues encountered:

- Lack of performance indicators
- Lack of comprehensive base-line data
- Lack of clarity in program objectives, which are difficult to measure and open to interpretation
- Short political time frames, which constrain the possibility of achieving longer-term outcomes
- Difficulty of measuring individual project influences, when multiple projects and/or processes might affect any one natural environment.

(Burbridge 1997; Kay and Lester 1997; Hershman et al. 1999; Sorensen 2000).

Evaluation scarcity is not the failing of ICM practice alone. Bellamy et al. (2001) suggest that there has been a widespread failure to evaluate the effects of policy development in natural resource management across the board. They stress the importance of undertaking thorough examination of the effectiveness of NRM policies and how they affect on-ground outcomes:

Evaluation is fundamental to identifying change, supporting an adaptive approach that is flexible enough to meet the challenge of change, and enabling progressive learning at individual, community, institutional and policy levels. (Bellamy et al. 2001: 407)

In failing to evaluate the way that NRM initiatives actually contribute to sustainable and equitable resource use and management, they state that the potential for improving policy direction is severely limited at all levels (from local to global).

Chess (2000), in discussing the evaluation of environmental programs in general, suggests there is a tendency for evaluations to focus on outputs rather than outcomes. This is because:

while exploring the process of agency interaction with participants, some agency managers may be less concerned with the process issues than with progress towards results. (Chess 2000: 780)

This lack of reflection on process outcomes, and the consequences of failure to do so, is echoed by Australia's Productivity Commission, assessing the implementation of the principles of ESD in different policy sectors, including natural resource management:

Monitoring the effectiveness of policies and programs aimed at implementing ESD does not appear to be undertaken routinely by departments and agencies. Further, there appear to be even fewer examples where the results of monitoring activities are incorporated into policy or program revisions via feedback mechanisms. (Productivity Commission 1999: xxiii)

As previously noted, there has been a pattern of institutional or organisational failure in Australia to reflect upon and learn from past efforts (Dovers 1999: 211). The effectiveness of programs and policy decision-making requires clear understanding of the nature of internal processes (co-ordination, co-operation) and outcomes.

In setting out to examine how Coastcare has functioned as an integrated program, this study explores the nature and degree of co-operation and co-ordination developed, as a consequence of the official structured interaction between people, in different tiers of government. In order to analyse the complexity of the integration process it has been necessary to apply a number of carefully selected data collection techniques with a reliance upon combining qualitative and quantitative data interpretation and analysis. There is an implicit understanding that people shaped the way the Coastcare program performed and therefore the focus of study is on the interaction of people between agencies. Hence, this study is designed around the personal experiences of respondents. The use of qualitative data techniques has enabled a more complete understanding of the interaction between the varied and numerous stakeholders implementing the Coastcare program, within and between different institutional settings.

2.3 Qualitative versus quantitative data – an epistemological debate

There has been much deliberation between 'schools' advocating the strengths of qualitative versus quantitative research and a strong resistance to qualitative studies

(Bryman 1988; Denzin and Lincoln 1998: 7; Chess 2000; Bryman 2001). According to Bryman's investigations of the literature pertaining to qualitative and quantitative research, the two are treated as 'mutually antagonistic' (Bryman 1988: 5 and 91), on the basis that they stem from different epistemological and ontological positions (Bryman 1988) and 'carry different epistemological commitments' (Bryman 2001: 445). The two, it is argued, belong to separate paradigms: quantitative research to positivism and qualitative research to interpretivism. The basic fundamental differences between the two are the strategies adopted in data collection. Quantitative research has an emphasis on numerical data collection and analysis compared to qualitative analysis' focus on the meaning and interpretation of words (Bryman 2001: 20). Patton suggests that quantitative data are succinct, easily aggregated, parsimonious and systematic. They allow for a standardised and easy presentation. Qualitative data on the other hand he describes as longer and more detailed and variable in content. The analysis is more difficult because responses are neither systematic nor standardised (Patton 1990: 24).

Qualitative research has been criticized for being 'soft' or 'flabby' science, lacking validity and quality (Guba and Lincoln 1998: 196). However, it has the capacity for providing insights, explanations and theories of social behaviour (Ritchie and Spencer 1994). Guba and Lincoln (1998: 197) suggest that quantitative data are 'stripped' from their context and lack meaning or purpose and separate actors from their experiences. This is supported by Ritchie and Spencer who state that:

What qualitative research can offer the policy maker is a theory of social action grounded on the experiences – the world view – of those likely to be affected by a policy decision or thought to be part of the problem. (Ritchie and Spencer 1994: 174)

And by Denzin and Lincoln who state that:

Qualitative researchers stress the socially constructed nature of reality, the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is studied, and the situational constraints that shape inquiry. They seek answers to questions that stress how social experience is created and given meaning. (Denzin and Lincoln 1998: 8)

Much of the literature disparaging qualitative data is concerned with whether or not it is valid and reliable. Lincoln and Guba (1985) provide a framework of four concepts to apply to qualitative research in order to address the value or 'trustworthiness' of research design. These are explained by Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1: Validity and Reliability of Qualitative Research Design

Quantitative	Qualitative	Strategies to meet criteria of trustworthiness
Validity (internal/external)	Credibility Goal is to demonstrate that the inquiry was conducted in a manner as to ensure that the subject was accurately identified and described.	Prolonged Engagement; persistent observation; triangulation (sources, methods and investigators)
Representativeness	Transferability Refers to the generalisability of the research to other settings. This criteria of soundness can be embraced through triangulation of multiple sources of data	Broad description
Reliability	Dependability Researcher attempts to account for changing conditions in the phenomenon chosen for study as well as changes in the design created by increasingly refined understanding of the setting. There is an assumption that the world is always changing.	Audit trail
Objectivity	Confirmability A qualitative research proposal should respond to the concerns that the natural subjectivity of the research will shape the research. Qualitative data does not pretend to be replicable.	Reflexive Journal

(Source: Adapted from Lincoln and Guba 1989: 145)

Marshall and Rossman (1989), drawing on the work of Lincoln and Guba, emphasise that if qualitative research design is thorough, clearly documented and authenticated, according to the parameters they outline in the quote below, then research is valid:

the strength of the qualitative study that aims to explore a problem or describe a setting, a process, a social group, or a pattern of interaction will be its validity. An in-depth description showing the complexities of variables and interactions will be so embedded with data derived from the setting that it cannot help but be valid. If the researcher states the setting, population and theoretical framework, the research will be valid. (Marshall and Rossman 1989: 145)

Despite the disparity of views about the relative strengths of both data genres there is a growing consensus that neither is better than the other, nor mutually exclusive, and increasingly it is reported that the two complement each other (Chess 2000: 778).

2.4 The value of combining techniques

Several authors support the combining of qualitative and quantitative techniques. Their various positions are elaborated below. Patton (1990: 24) calls for 'a paradigm of choices', rejecting what he calls 'methodological orthodoxy', and as stated previously, aims instead for methodological appropriateness. That is, selecting methods suitable to meet the requirements of the particular inquiry. Bryman expands this position, explaining that fixed epistemological positions for qualitative and quantitative research methods are not sustainable because both types of methods 'are capable of being put to a wide variety of tasks' (Bryman 2001: 444). He suggests that the two are in fact not paradigms at all, given that both types of research share areas of overlap and commonality. Miles and Huberman, before Bryman, noted that

It is getting harder to find any methodologists solidly encamped in one epistemology or the other...most people see the world with more ecumenical eyes. (Miles and Huberman 1984: 20)

On the value of employing both qualitative and quantitative techniques, Marshall and Rossman (1989: 146) suggest that the external validity of research using multiple data gathering techniques is strengthened, on the basis that such an approach may be more easily transferred to other settings.

Bryman uses the term multi-strategy research, as a 'short hand' to describe studies combining qualitative with quantitative methods (Bryman 2001: 444). Different approaches, with different purposes, have been employed to unite the two data genres. One such approach is called triangulation, described as 'the act of bringing more than one source of data to bear on a single point' (Marshall and Rossman 1989: 85). This is done with the purpose of validating research findings on the underlying assumption that 'data from different sources can be used to corroborate, verify, elaborate, contrast or illuminate' the research in question (Miles and Huberman 1984: 234). A second approach described by Bryman (2001) is that of complementarity, differing from triangulation, in that the purpose is not to cross-validate, but to dovetail different aspects of research to provide a clearer picture of the problem under investigation.

It is the latter approach of complementarity that this study utilizes. By combining methods, employing different research techniques and using the opinions and ideas

of multiple stakeholders, it is the intent of this research to ‘capture an overall view’ (Bryman 1988: 139) of how Coastcare has worked towards an integrated approach.

2.5 Research design

2.5.1 Theoretical framework

This research straddles the epistemological divide between qualitative and quantitative techniques, but primarily the study design is positivist in nature. Features of this study fall within a positivist approach:

- There was little contact with subjects under study
- The nature of the research questions was decided before entering the field
- I was an outsider looking in
- Sampling and questionnaire construction was conducted prior to the start of data collection and was imposed upon the members of the sample. (Bryman 1988: 94).

However, the research instruments - the questionnaire and interview schedules collected both quantitative and qualitative data simultaneously. The quantitative data provided a sense of scale, for example the degree, extent and frequency of respondent opinion about various aspects of the Coastcare program. Open-ended questions allowed for respondents to explain why they felt the way they did about particular issues. Patton states that open ended questions ‘permit one to understand the world as seen by the respondents’. Therefore, the researcher is able to assess points of view that have not been predetermined through selection of questionnaire categories (Patton 1990: 7).

2.5.2 The setting

This research project examines the performance of the national Coastcare program between 1995-2001, as it was under the National Coastal Action Program from 1995-1996 and subsequently, the first phase of the Natural Heritage Trust, from 1996/1997 to 2001. The national focus of the study was designed specifically to compare how the states and Northern Territory implemented the program and to elicit the differences, strengths and contrasts between them.

2.5.3 The Coastcare population under study

The population under study for this research project comprises the people closely linked with the Coastcare program in various institutional settings. A range of different perspectives has been considered by this study to obtain a diverse array of opinions about Coastcare. The emphasis of the research is the process of integration between agencies, and as such, individuals from three tiers of government associated with Coastcare have been surveyed: those administering the Program and those involved in making use of the community grants. All the people 'inside' the Coastcare program, or in other words those directly employed through Coastcare, were approached to take part in the study, namely the Commonwealth managers, the State Coastcare coordinators, and regional Coastcare facilitators. Other key people identified as 'insiders' were those who performed the local 'hosting' function: the local agency contact who provided an administration service and guidance for facilitators at the local agency level; and finally all members of each of the 7 State Assessment Panels. Groups not directly administered or directed by the Program but in direct contact as a consequence of the grant scheme, 'outside' of the Program, consisted of all state managers of lead coastal agencies and a range of local land managers from local coastal councils, in contact with the Coastcare program, around Australia.

2.5.4 Research techniques

In order to meet the rigor outlined in the Table 1 above, 'an amalgam' (Bryman 1988: 129) of different research and data collection techniques has been utilised to assist in the compilation of this assessment of Coastcare:

- Statistical analysis of the Commonwealth's data set provided for a national description of Coastcare since its inception, identifying individual characteristics of each of the states and the Northern Territory
- Document analysis and observation during visits to all but one of the seven State Assessment Panels, national coordinators meetings and national Coastcare forums provided information and a means by which to determine idiosyncrasies between the states in their approach to coastal management and implementation of Coastcare
- Interviews and questionnaires were administered to gain more detailed information about the integration process; the opinions of 173 key individuals from 7 key groups who were involved with Coastcare at the time of the study were collected and analysed. Respondents included the Coastcare team (all Commonwealth Coastcare managers, all state Coastcare

coordinators and the majority of the regional Coastcare facilitators), all managers of state coastal programs, all but two of the local hosts of the Coastcare facilitators, state assessment panel members and a range of local coastal land managers.

Each of these processes is elaborated below.

2.6 Making contact - meeting the Coastcare network

This project has benefited considerably through the opportunities I have had to meet and build rapport with the team of people who were working on the Coastcare program at the time of my study. This network building process began by attending a National coastal conference, 'Coast to Coast' in Melbourne in 2000, where I met Coastcare's national manager. This proved to be a vital connection in terms of gaining access to the Commonwealth database and to the Coastcare network of state coordinators and regional facilitators. After some discussion with her about the focus of my study, I was invited to attend a national Coastcare forum in Townsville, Queensland in July 2000. At this forum I was introduced to the whole Coastcare team (Commonwealth officers, state coordinators and regional facilitators) from each state and the Northern Territory. As well as participating in the formal program I was able to meet informally with the group and get to know its members. I attended the subsequent national Coastcare forum in Victor Harbor, South Australia, in 2001; two Coastcare coordinators' meetings (in Canberra 2000 and Melbourne 2002) and I have been able to observe these sessions, as well as being actively encouraged to contribute to them.

Meeting the state Coastcare coordinators in Townsville led to my attendance of their individual Coastcare State Assessment Panels (SAPs), where individual projects were selected for funding. I was granted permission to administer a questionnaire to all SAP members. I travelled to each state and met and spoke with a broad range of coastal management stakeholders, including managers from the lead coastal management agencies and community representatives. I was unable to attend the Northern Territory panel due to funding constraints. I was able to attract funding assistance to attend assessment panels and planning meetings in other states, which was made possible only because I had met key individuals and promoted the value of my study to them. For example funds were provided by the coastal section of the WA Ministry for Planning, the Tasmanian Marine and

Coastal Community Network, NSW Coastcare and from the Commonwealth Coastcare office.

These experiences have proven to be invaluable for my research as I received very good response rates for my data collection. For example, when I approached the Coastcare team and requested interviews from them the response was one of enthusiasm and co-operation: all Commonwealth Coastcare managers, state coordinators and 32 of the 35 facilitators completed structured interviews.

Benefits of communication and contact with the network included:

- establishing a sense of familiarity with the team;
- gaining a clearer understanding of the Program's activities beyond the grants scheme;
- gaining greater insight into the differences experienced between states, and coordinators and facilitators on the ground in different coastal locations;
- facilitating the design of the research instruments.

2.7 Commonwealth national data set

Descriptive statistics used to generate a national overview for this study are from two sources. The first data set came from the centrally held Commonwealth (Environment Australia) Coastcare figures. This provided the majority of descriptive statistical information about the Program. Microsoft Excel was used to manipulate the data. When I began this project in 2000, no national compilation of Coastcare statistics had been undertaken. During our first meeting, the Commonwealth Coastcare manager agreed to provide me with their national data set, containing state-by-state information about each project funded by Coastcare. Details of projects on the data base included project descriptions, location, the type of group undertaking the work (i.e. community group, educational institution) and the amount of funding provided. There were however, some gaps in the data set. It was not possible to determine the following:

- The number of applications received compared to the projects funded in a given funding round
- The number of projects completed
- The number of groups receiving more than one grant, as project numbers were assigned with each new funding round with no link to past activity

- The groups that were not in receipt of funds but were still participating in Coastcare in a given year
- The number of councils signed as land manager
- Other Coastcare activities running along side the grant scheme (educational workshops, summer activities programs, convening of conferences).

I compiled a second data-set, filling these gaps. In constructing the second data-set, I collaborated with the Commonwealth managers in designing a questionnaire to be completed by each of the State Coastcare coordinators. It was designed to complement the existing data set. Unfortunately, I was not privy to the final questionnaire prior to its administration. Had this been the case I would have amended some ambiguous wording that was added after the first draft. This questionnaire is included in Appendix 4.

2.8 Document analysis and observation

To understand fully the complexities of many situations, direct participation in and observation of the phenomenon of interest may be the best research method. (Patton 1990: 25)

2.8.1 Observation during assessment panels and meetings

During the course of this study, I had the opportunity to attend three joint Commonwealth/coordinator meetings. This provided an opportunity to explore the extent to which statutory and institutional arrangements that administer Coastcare projects were addressed in planning and management approaches between states and the Northern Territory.

2.8.2 Coastcare State Assessment Panels

Between 2000 and 2001 I attended six of the seven national state assessment panels on the basis that this process determined which projects received Coastcare funds. Observing SAP deliberations provided an indication of the degree of support provided by individual state coastal policies during the selection process. Although the federal Minister for the Environment at the time, Senator Hill, made final decisions and made amendments to the SAP selections each year, the majority of projects funded were those identified as suitable by the SAP. The SAP process is taken up in detail in Chapter Three. I visited South Australia's and Victoria's

SAPs in 2000 and sent a copy of the comparison to both panels, noting their similarities and the comments they raised for improvement to their process. In 2001 I extended this comparison and visited Tasmania, Western Australia, Queensland and New South Wales. However, my attendance at the New South Wales panel was cut short so that I could return to Adelaide immediately before the collapse of Australia's Ansett airline. Nevertheless, I had the opportunity to meet the panel members, witness how the NSW process flowed and personally delivered my questionnaire.

2.9 Structured interviews and postal questionnaires

An elaborate combination of semi-structured interviews and postal questionnaires was administered for this study, generating a large body of data. The national scope of the study, the broad range of research subjects and a limited budget necessitated the use of a variety of data gathering techniques. According to Marshall and Rossman: 'strengths of surveys include accuracy, generalisability and convenience' (Marshall and Rossman 1989: 85). Surveys provided a useful means of repeating the same questions across stakeholder groups, for the purpose of comparing responses and attitudes about various aspects of the Coastcare program.

2.9.1 Structured interviews

Marshall and Rossman describe interviews as 'conversations with a purpose' (Marshall and Rossman 1989: 82). For the purpose of this study structured schedules were selected for the purpose of more easily aggregating data related to the set questions (Bryman 2001: 107). Ideally face-to-face, semi-structured interviews would have been used for each stakeholder group. However, given the geographical dispersal of the sample, logistical, time and funding constraints limited the research design to conducting telephone interviews.

2.9.2 Development of interview schedules

As discussed in the introduction, information about co-operation and co-ordination between agencies and people is not routinely collected by program managers. In order to gain an insight into this process I wrote a series of structured interviews, postal and email questionnaires to explore various elements of the Coastcare program otherwise not available. Examples of each of the schedules are provided

in Appendix 4. Each schedule consisted of a combination of closed and open-ended questions. The questions were designed to elicit information across the following themes:

- Coastcare and its general achievements in coastal management
- Partnerships developed between Coastcare and other coastal managers (State and Local level)
- Coastcare and its role in promoting community participation in coastal management
- The selection process of Coastcare applications

Respondents were encouraged to express their views about various aspects of Coastcare, its role and function, the success or otherwise of the interaction of various actors and the role of community in the Program. The open-ended questions allowed for some degree of open comment and exploration of issues arising during the interviews and for respondents to state their opinions and explanations in the self-completion questionnaires.

2.9.3 Pilot testing the research instruments

Moser and Kalton (1971) liken pilot testing research to that of the dress rehearsal of a live performance. They also suggest that typically, after conducting a pilot test, modifications are made to the instruments tested, thus increasing their efficiency and quality of results. The most valuable function of pilot testing is to determine the adequacy of questionnaires – their wording and clarity.

Questionnaires and structured interviews for this study were pre-tested by asking key individuals, who had some experience and knowledge of Coastcare, to check the wording and clarity of the schedules. As shown in Figure 2.1, the administration of questionnaires and interviewing took place in a sequential fashion. Despite there being common questions between schedules, each was tailored to the specific stakeholder group. Thus, each research phase informed the next and provided a set of learning experiences that was built upon with each new group. The SAP questionnaires were the first of the research instruments to be developed. A member of the South Australian panel was asked to pilot the questionnaire. On the basis of the returned comments, several questions were

amended. The regional Coastcare facilitators were the first group to complete the structured interview process and this was piloted on two people working closely with Coastcare in South Australia. Again, ambiguities were identified and questions reworded and the schedule amended accordingly.

2.9.4 Identification of interviewees – ‘Insiders’ and ‘Outsiders’

The numbers of people approached within each stakeholder group and the survey method or instrument utilised are summarised in Table 2.2.

2.9.4.1 The ‘Insiders’

All individuals working as part of the Coastcare team were approached to participate; these were the ‘insiders’ of the Program. These people clearly had good insight into the processes and functional aspects of the program in relation to other coastal programs and knew its strengths and challenges. In South Australia and Queensland, staff turnover had been high, and newly appointed staff had not had breadth of experience, so I approached some people who had recently left the program, to question them about their experience.

All of the individuals deliberating over the applications and selecting projects were considered a vital stakeholder group for two reasons. They were the gatekeepers to the Program and determined who would and would not get money to do work on the ground. Assessing their individual approach to project selection was important. In scrutinising their selections, I monitored the value of coastal policy in guiding their choices.

Finally, of the insiders, I also canvassed the opinions of the agencies hosting each of the regional facilitators. These agencies contributed a substantial amount of resources to maintain the operation of the facilitator network. They also provided a local link in the integration network.

2.9.4.2 The ‘Outsiders’

In order to get a more objective perspective, to add some balance to the survey, I considered it critical to obtain the opinion of state managers who ran broad state coastal programs, and to see how they considered Coastcare and their role in it.

National Coast to Coast Conference
Melbourne, 2000

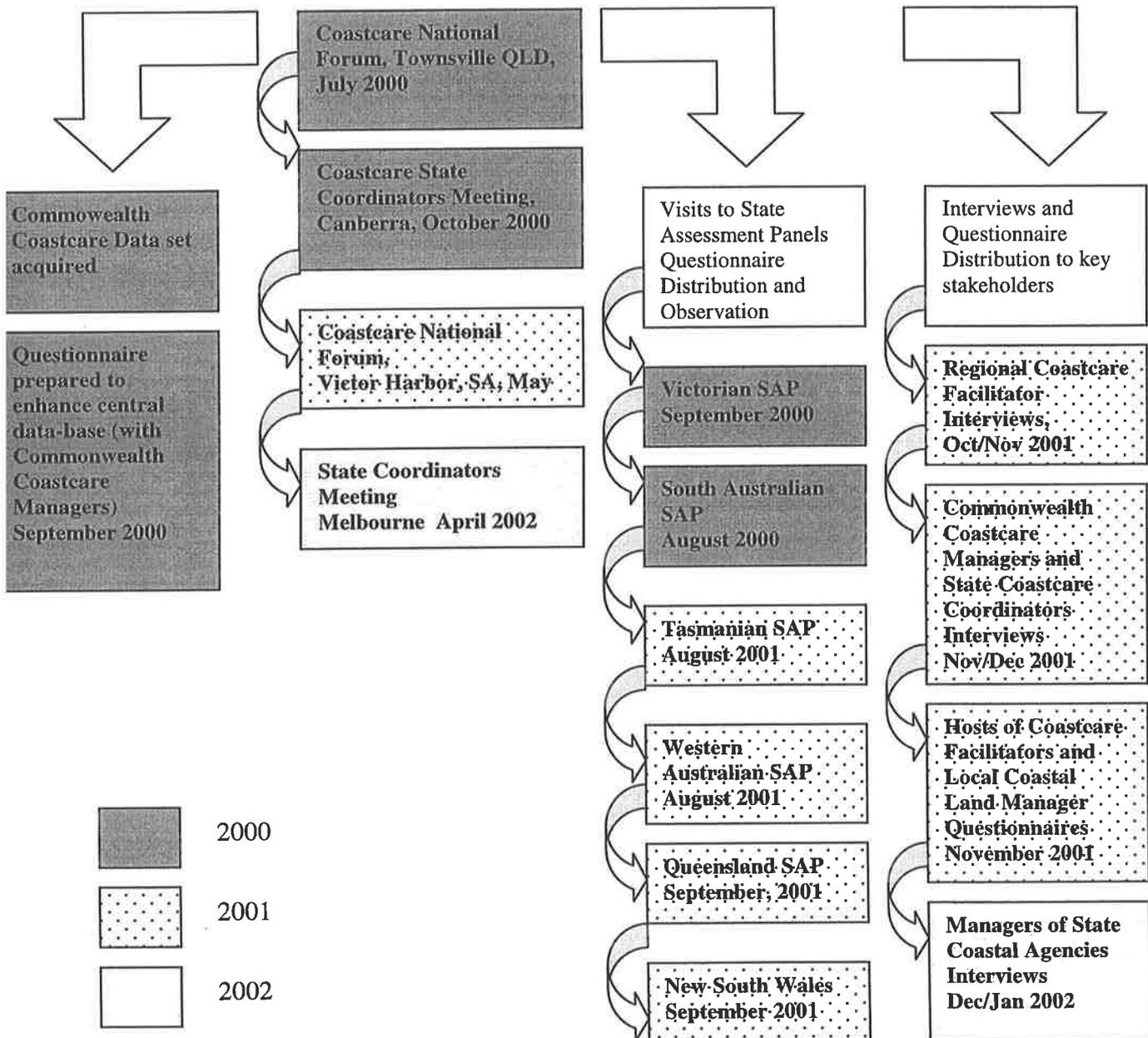


Figure 2.1: The Research Process

Table 2.2: Summary of Survey Respondents

Stakeholders 'INSIDE' Coastcare	Approached	Participated	Research instrument	No of question asked
Commonwealth Coastcare Managers	4	4	Telephone interview	25
State Coordinators	11	9	Telephone interview	28
Regional Coastcare Facilitators	37	32	Telephone interview	31
Members of State Assessment Panels	89	54	Postal questionnaire	22
Local Government (Hosts)	23	21	Postal questionnaire	18
Stakeholders 'OUTSIDE' Coastcare				
Local land managers (Councils/Parks)	124	47	E-mail questionnaire	11
State agencies – Managers of coastal branches	6	6	Telephone interview	18
TOTAL RESPONDENTS	294	173		

The Tasmanian manager of the state coastal management section is also the State Coastcare co-ordinator. He was interviewed once only, and asked the questions from the Coastcare coordinators schedule.

Finally, a sample was obtained of local coastal land managers who had been working recently with Coastcare groups. The sample of coastal land managers was compiled by asking the facilitators to return, via e-mail, the contact details of four land managers with whom they were in contact. Compiling the e-mail list was time consuming and took a number of reminders to facilitators to obtain a national distribution of land manager contacts. The local coastal managers approached to take part in this study were primarily working in local councils but included some national parks managers. All Coastcare applicants must obtain the signature of the local coastal manager upon whose land the group's work is to take place. Therefore, this stakeholder group were in direct contact with the Program, the individual workers were obliged to work directly with Coastcare groups and were responsible for the on-going maintenance of works completed by groups.

2.9.5 Research bias

This research has not directly canvassed the opinion of community members involved in Coastcare. Individuals and community groups were not contacted for the purposes of this research for several reasons. This study began with an assumption that Coastcare was not a truly participatory program and that the community was carrying out projects predetermined by government based on the assertions of Doyle (2000) and queries of Wescott (1998). To an extent this is the case, as is discussed in the following chapter, which describes Coastcare's outputs from the grant scheme. However, in the process of data collection and talking with the stakeholders greater insight into the functioning of groups and Coastcare activity, I have learned that many communities working on the Program have grown beyond the confines of the funded projects and become more sophisticated in a participatory sense. A thorough study of community engagement with Coastcare would provide an ideal stand-alone research topic as the nature of community participation is a critical area for assessment and increased attention.

The following chapter provides descriptive information of what is known and routinely collected about community groups through the Coastcare grants scheme. Factors of motivation, group dynamic and experiences working as a volunteer for Coastcare would be worthwhile. Other practical considerations contributed in the decision to not approach the community groups working on the Program:

- The cost of undertaking a postal survey of a representative sample of groups around the coast was prohibitive. It is estimated that 60,000 people and 2000 groups have participated in Coastcare since its inception. Obtaining the views of a representative sample of this participant population posed a prohibitive cost to this study in terms of funds and time.
- More research has been conducted about volunteer motivation than interagency integration and cooperation and the factors enabling or hindering this. Admittedly these studies are within other environmental and natural resource management settings, such as Landcare, but do provide some indication of issues.
- The regional facilitators work closely with groups and have a good knowledge and are supportive of community engagement in the Program.

2.10 The interview process

Telephone interviews were conducted with the Commonwealth managers, State coordinators, facilitators and managers of state lead coastal agencies. Prior to conducting the interviews I sent all respondents a copy of the questions they were to be asked during the interview. This gave respondents time to think about the questions and how they felt about the aspects of the Program under examination. I also sent a copy of the rating scales within the schedule, for ease of communicating respondent choice over the telephone. Given the expense of day-time telephone calls I arranged appointments by email and the respective interviewee called me. I used a telephone with a conference line and kept a tape recorder by the telephone and later transcribed the outcomes of each interview onto a word processing program. I also took detailed notes, on printed interview schedules, throughout the interview as a reference and back-up.

2.10.1 Regional Coastcare facilitator interviews

Regional Coastcare facilitators were interviewed between October and November of 2001. They were each asked a combination of thirty closed and open-ended questions, which took between one to one and half hours to complete. The

selection of past facilitators was considered important in States where the turnover of staff had been high. A summary of Regional Coastcare facilitators interviewed is shown in Table 2..

2.10.2 Commonwealth managers and state Coastcare coordinators

Once the regional Coastcare facilitators interviews were completed I tailored questions for the state Coastcare coordinators, and again for the Commonwealth managers, and then again, for the state managers in lead coastal agencies. The Commonwealth Coastcare managers and State Coastcare coordinators were interviewed between November and December 2001. Managers of state coastal programs were interviewed between December and January 2002. I arranged times, by email, to interview the Commonwealth Coastcare managers and the State coordinators. They each agreed to telephone me for the interview. All the Commonwealth Coastcare managers and the State Coastcare coordinators participated in the interview process. The Queensland and South Australian coordinator positions had recently changed so I interviewed the incumbents as well as past coordinators.

I wrote letters to the managers of state coastal management programs inviting them to participate in my study. Prior to commencing the interview process with state coastal program managers, I had had the opportunity to meet five of the seven managers through attending the SAP meetings. Three of these people had been part of the voting SAP membership but had not returned their questionnaires to me, so the interview questions were appropriate and non-repetitive for these individuals.

I made phone calls to negotiate appointments with the secretaries of the state managers for the structured interview, and each manager called me at the designated time.

2.11 Postal questionnaires

The larger numbers of the remaining respondent groups (the SAP, hosting agencies and local land managers) necessitated the use of self-completion questionnaires. I was able to hand deliver the questionnaires to State Assessment Panel members,

Table 2.3: Summary of regional Coastcare facilitator interviews

State	Number of Facilitators Employed by Coastcare, Oct/Nov 2001	Number of Interviews completed with Facilitators employed by Coastcare, Oct/Nov 2001	Past Facilitators Interviewed	Number Interviewed
NSW	6	6	*	6
VIC	7	5	*	5
QLD	5	4	3	7
WA	5	5	-	5
SA	3	3	2	5
TAS	3	3	#	3
NT	1	1	#	1
Total	29	27	5	32

No change of staff since program inception

*Invited past facilitators to participate but received no response.

post them to Coastcare hosting agencies and send them by email to the sample of local coastal land managers.

2.11.1 State Assessment Panels

I attended three of the seven SAP panels during 2001. At the completion of each of the panel sittings I was given the opportunity to introduce my study and invite panel members to complete the questionnaire that consisted of 22 closed and open ended questions. I handed each panel member a package that included an explanatory letter, a questionnaire and a self addressed return stamped envelope. As I did not attend the SAPs in South Australia or Victoria in 2001, and could not get to the Northern Territory SAP, I made alternative arrangements with the panel chairperson and or State coordinator and Commonwealth representative to present the research aims and deliver the package on my behalf. Appendix 5 shows that not all nominated SAP members were in attendance when their panel met. Accordingly, members who were absent during the SAP meetings were mailed their questionnaire package immediately after the SAP. This explains why, for instance in the Western Australian case, more questionnaires were returned than numbers of voting panel members in attendance on the day the panel met. As the questionnaires were delivered at the time each SAP met, they were administered in sequence, with Northern Territory first in August, followed by Tasmania, South Australia and Western Australia. The South Australian panel met the day after the Tasmanian panel in 2001, and as I had attended the South Australian panel in 2000, I elected to attend the Tasmanian panel. Queensland, Victoria and New South Wales panels met in September. Victoria and New South Wales panels overlapped and having attended the Victorian panel in 2000, I attended the Sydney panel in 2001. A summary of SAP respondents is shown in Table 2.4.

I sent reminder letters to all nominated panel members (those in attendance and *in absentia*) who had not returned their questionnaires within three weeks of its delivery. After a two week period I then sent a copy of the questionnaire to those who had not responded to the reminder. Both of these efforts achieved either a couple more completed questionnaires or a response to indicate reasons for why people had not returned their schedules. A final attempt at recovering outstanding questionnaires was via either the State Coastcare coordinators or the SAP chairs

who approached individuals on my behalf and requested that these people participate.

Table 2.4: Summary of SAP respondents

State	Number of nominated SAP members	Number in attendance at the sitting of panel	Number of Questionnaires Returned	Reason provided for non-response
NSW	17	11	10	1
VIC	10	10	3	2
QLD	9	7	7	2
WA	14	6	8	-
SA	14	12	10	2
TAS	17	8	11	2
NT	8	8	5	3
Total	89	60	54 (61%)	12

The response rate to the postal SAP questionnaire was 61%. A factor impacting on the response rate was that a large number of individuals nominated as State assessment panel members did not attend the panel meeting. Table 2.4 indicates this. The majority of respondents who returned questionnaires had been in attendance at the panels and had therefore heard my presentation about the purpose of the study and they were encouraged to contribute.

I was able to identify twelve individuals' reasons for non-response. In some instances individuals sent a letter explaining their reasons for not participating that included their lack of attendance at the SAP and therefore not feeling informed to comment. (Some people listed as SAP members had not attended in the previous two years.) Others indicated they were too busy in their employment pursuits to contribute. In a further two cases, SAP members were also managers of lead coastal agencies and their perspectives were collected by interview instead.

2.11.2 Hosts

In November 2002, each of the twenty-three contacts of the agencies hosting Coastcare facilitators were posted a questionnaire, a modified version of the SAP questions. They received the same package as SAP members: a letter introducing my project and its progress at that time, a questionnaire, and a return addressed and stamped envelope. Some of the host agencies were responsible for more than one facilitator. The summary of their response rate by state is shown in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5: Summary of Host Respondents

State	Questionnaires Posted	Questionnaires Returned
NSW	5	5
VIC	3	2
QLD	3	3
WA	5	5
SA	3	3
TAS	3	2
NT	1	1
Total	23	21 (91%)

I sent reminder letters to respondents whose questionnaires remained outstanding and received back all but two schedules.

2.11.3 Local coastal land managers perspective

In anticipation of attaining responses from a national distribution of local coastal land managers, I asked each regional facilitator agreed to send the names of at least four (and no more than eight) local managers with whom they were in contact, through the Coastcare program. Subsequently, in February 2002, a questionnaire was sent as an email attachment to the nominated local coastal managers, as this was the most efficient and affordable means of accessing this group. Compiling the list was time consuming and took a number of reminders and follow up calls with the regional facilitator network to obtain the contacts for a national distribution of land managers. On advice from the facilitators, the questionnaire for land local managers was short, to improve the response rate. The initial response was slow and in total, I sent three reminder calls. I tried to make the subject headings of the email messages catchy: 'Have your say!', 'Make a Difference', 'Meeting with the Commonwealth' and 'Last Chance' to try and engage a response. With each reminder a few more responses trickled back. Table 2.6 shows the final response rate of 38%.

I printed returned email schedules as they arrived, and assigned each with an ID code and filed hard copies. I then copied the electronic version of the returned email and attachment to a folder on the computer containing all the returned electronic schedules. I then copied the electronic text of the returned schedule to a word processing file, ready for analysis. I thanked each respondent for their

contribution with an email message, something that is more difficult to achieve with postal questionnaires.

Table 2.6: Local Land Manager Contacts and Return Rate by State

State	Number of Local Land Managers contacted	Returned Schedules
NSW	30	12
VIC	22	8
QLD	14	3
WA	25	12
SA	13	5
TAS	15	3
NT	5	3
Total	124	47 (38%)

This email method was effective in terms of the detail of written response returned. There was considerably more detail provided than that within the hand written questionnaires. Respondents were not limited to an allotted space. The form was also easy for participants to return; there was no complication in mailing the schedule back. However, respondents were given the option of sending their schedule by post or emailing it back to me; some people did choose to send by post, perhaps for anonymity.

A limitation of this email method is maintaining control over the original recipient list. In a couple of instances, my message was forwarded on to a new person thought by the original recipient to be more qualified to complete the questions. This was difficult to manage. I did want the original person to contribute, as the nominated individual, but I accepted all returned schedules. Another limitation was incorrect email addresses. A number of the nominated email addresses bounced back to me and I had to chase up additional contacts to make up for those I could not access.

In hindsight it would have been preferable to send an email to the few hundred local coastal land managers in contact with Coastcare, rather than a selection. However, that would have been more onerous for facilitators in providing their list

of contacts, but a higher number of replies from the local land manager groups would have been preferable.

2.12 Data analysis and coding

According to Jorgensen data analysis is the

breaking up, separating, or disassembling of research materials into pieces, parts, elements, or units. With facts broken down into manageable pieces, the researcher sorts and sifts them, searching for types, classes, sequences, processes, patterns or wholes. The aim of this process is to assemble or reconstruct the data in a meaningful or comprehensible fashion. (Jorgensen 1989: 107)

However, there is much discussion about procedures for analysing qualitative data (for example, [Strauss 1987; Tesch 1990; Dey 1993; Bryman and Burgess 1994; Ritchie and Spencer 1994]; each provides examples of techniques for systematically coding data). Miles and Huberman suggest that attention should be paid to procedure because:

Analysis methods are rarely reported in detail...one cannot ordinarily follow how a researcher got from 3,600 pages of field notes to the final conclusions, sprinkled with vivid quotes though they may be. (Miles and Huberman 1984: 16)

Paying heed to such oversight, the discussion below details the processes developed to reduce the bulk of information retrieved from respondents in this study into a manageable and thematic discussion.

2.12.1 Coding

According to Bryman 'there is no one correct approach to coding your data' (Bryman 2001: 399). Rather, the purpose of coding is to organise raw data into categories and concepts for analysis, guided by the research question (Neuman 2000: 420). In this study, the carefully constructed questions and their structured nature provided a guide to the overarching themes for the textual data. The interview schedule constituted what Patton terms 'a descriptive analytical framework for analysis' (Patton 1990: 376). Units of text for analysis were primarily the individual questions asked of each respondent. This allowed for what Patton terms 'cross-interview analysis' whereby answers from different people to particular questions are grouped together for close inspection (Patton 1990: 376). For example, in meeting Objective 2 of this study, specific questions were devoted to participation, and in meeting Objective 3 and 4 questions were asked of the contribution of state coastal policies to guiding project selection and about

integration between tiers of government. Individual answers once grouped by question were further broken down into topics or themes.

Analysis of the textual data was facilitated through use of software designed to assist with data coding and retrieval. I trialed several software programs suited to qualitative data analysis including

- EZ Text, a program available free of charge on the internet, (designed originally to conduct HIV/AIDS behavioral research (Carey et al. 1997), and two commercially available programs:
- Ethnograph, and
- NU*DIST (Non-numeric Unstructured Data Indexing Searching Theorising) (Version 6).

EZ Text, despite being economically attractive, was inflexible in terms of its coding facility, compared to the commercial programs. I settled on Ethnograph for two reasons. I had used the Program previously and was therefore familiar with its requirements and capacity. It was also inexpensive compared to NU*DIST. I purchased software from a company based in the United States. The company was well recognised and several international universities were using the program as a networked teaching facility. However, I encountered significant problems running the software, despite the compatibility of my computer with the system requirements listed in the software's manual. I persevered with the program and tried to resolve the problem. After failing to find a solution to the apparent software incompatibility, the designer agreed that I should be reimbursed for the program. This dilemma resulted in a degree of frustration and loss of productivity. However, I arranged to use my Department's (Geographical and Environmental Studies) copy of NU*DIST (Version 4) to perform the sorting, coding and retrieval tasks required. I also salvaged the original coding system and utilised what was possible.

2.12.2 Data analysis

I transcribed the interviews from tape recordings to a word processing program between October 2000 and February 2001. At the same time and in the same fashion, I entered the text from written questionnaires, as they were returned to me. I wrote coding frames for SPSS (a Statistical Program for Social Sciences) and

entered the quantitative data from the questionnaires and my interview schedules as I progressed through the interviews. The responses were separated into themes or issues as patterns emerged. After seeking different approaches to coding, I settled upon the style described by Neuman (2000), illustrated in Table 2.5, as it suited the nature of data I had collected.

Table 2.5: Coding Framework

Stage of Coding	Tasks Associated
Open coding	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First pass through the data • First attempt to condense mass into categories • Coding themes generated while reading data • Memos and notes written as ideas and concepts about the data are formed
Axial Coding	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Second pass through the data • Uses initial codes and concepts • Review and examination of initial coding system • Ideas and themes are organized into key concepts and structure • Looking for causes and consequences; conditions and interactions; strategies and processes; clustering categories and concepts • Begins the formation of themes and concept linkages
Selective coding	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Last pass through the data • Major themes already identified. • Data and codes are re-scanned, looking selectively for cases illustrating or contrasting themes

Source: adapted from Neuman (2000: 421-424)

The data pertaining to community participation discussed in chapter 4 however were dealt with in a different manner. I used what Neuman (2000: 427) describes as an 'illustrative method' of coding and analysis. The data were organised and coded based upon on the existence of an existing framework that provided the 'empty boxes' for my data to fill. The existing framework provided a general model by which I analysed the data relating to community involvement in the Coastcare program.

2.12.3 Data presentation

The primary data for this study are the segments of text transcribed from the various interviews and questionnaires. Quotations from the transcriptions and questionnaires are used throughout the following chapters to highlight themes and provide examples of what respondents were contributing. The quotations have been included as they were written or spoken. However, grammatical inconsistencies and speaking hesitations (the 'ahs' and 'ums') have been omitted

and some words inserted in square brackets for clarity. Individuals are not identifiable by way of the use of quotes, but different stakeholder groups are noted below each quote in brackets thus: [].

The Coastcare program – its role and function

Coastcare was in operation between 1995 and 2002. It achieved full participation of all the states and the Northern Territory by 1998. To date there has been no thorough analysis of the national data set and no comprehensive overview of Coastcare's achievements and practice around Australia that spans the duration of the Program. This chapter provides a brief historical account of Coastcare and compares differences in Program implementation between the states and the Northern Territory. Particular administrative processes of the grant program are assessed. This assessment has direct implications for informing future programs that will fund community initiatives like Coastcare. This Chapter also expands the image of Coastcare beyond that of a grants program, by explaining its broader roles of education and government partnership construction and development.

3.1 Coastcare's roots - a policy becomes a program

The first chapter provided an outline of the significant events that led to the adoption of Coastcare. South Australia was the first state to sign the NCAP MoU in October 1995, followed closely by Queensland and New South Wales in November of that year. This is substantiated by one of the survey respondents:

There was more confidence in those jurisdictions in taking Commonwealth money and getting on and spending it. Tassie and New South Wales - that Eastern Seaboard group are more used to taking the Commonwealth dollar and turning it to their own ends. I think they also, in terms of the Coastcare program itself; Tassie could see what they wanted to do with it and just got on with it. New South Wales took a while to work it in because they were a bit more like the South Australia approach at the time, a bit more engineering focussed, shore protection that sort of stuff. But nevertheless took the dollars and, like all the States had been trying to do, localised repair and remediation type works, and didn't have enough money to do it, they saw the money was on offer, and took it, and got on with it. (Commonwealth Coastcare Manager)

These states were keen for the others to follow. According to Haward (1995) deliberations by the other states could have been related to the fact that by signing the MoU, state and local government were then bound to contribute financial or 'in-kind' support. Western Australia and Victoria took longer than the other states to join the Program. These two states had their own community coastal programs in place prior to Coastcare - CoastWest and CoastAction respectively

and, after some negotiation, the Commonwealth agreed that both States could run with joint programs:

In WA, there was a deep concern that ran for about a year and half which was: they wanted the money and needed the money and their submission said the Commonwealth should provide the money, but then they didn't like the Commonwealth having any say in what, how, and why it should be spent. It got to the point where one of their senior executives at one stage was quoted as having said 'we don't want these Commonwealth facilitators; they will just be Commonwealth rangers poking around, sticking their nose into our business'. They were very distrustful of what it would mean to have the Commonwealth involved. I think we're talking planning, localised land use issues. Not really Commonwealth issues, so they were very reluctant, and that caused them to stand off (Commonwealth Coastcare Manager)

New South Wales, too, had its own established community initiative, Dunecare, but many groups simply re-badged as 'Coastcare'. Northern Territory signed on almost 12 months after the last of the other States for several reasons. They needed to be convinced that Coastcare could be of benefit to them given that the Northern Territory coastal issues were different because of low population density and much of its coastal lands were in Aboriginal ownership. The Northern Territory government felt constrained by the requirements of the MoU and wanted to spend Coastcare money as they saw fit.

The relationship was always strained with [the Northern Territory] at a senior management level. That appeared to be strongly driven by deep-seated political type positions. They were in a remote coastal situation. As far as they were concerned they didn't have much in the way of impacts. Their impacts were localised in Darwin. Everything else was almost wilderness and under the jurisdiction of indigenous people and I think there was a strong sense of mistrust about the Program, about being another means of providing support to indigenous communities to press their claims. That might have well been part of it. (Commonwealth Coastcare Manager)

However, the Northern Territory government formally agreed to participate and make the Program truly national in 1998.

Table 3.1 provides a summary of the signatories of the 'Coasts and Clean Seas' MoU across the country. The signatories of the tri-partite agreement in each state and the Northern Territory included the Commonwealth Environment Minister (Robert Hill), the equivalent of state environment ministers and the presidents of each of the states and the Northern Territories local government associations. New South Wales, Queensland and Western Australia had two sets of state signatories, incorporating planning or natural resources interests.

Table 3.1 Signatories of the Coasts and Clean Seas MoU

NSW	Commonwealth Robert Hill (Minister for the Environment) State of NSW: Craig Knowles (Minister for Urban Affairs and Planning); Richard Amery (Minister for Land and Water Conservation) Local Government and Shires Association: Peter Woods (President, Local Government Association of NSW); Bill Bott (President, Shires Association of NSW)
VIC	Commonwealth Robert Hill (Minister for the Environment) State of Victoria: Marie Tehan (Minister for Conservation and Land Management) Municipal Association of Victoria: Brad Matheson (President, Municipal Association of Victoria)
QLD	Commonwealth: Robert Hill (Minister for the Environment) State of Queensland: Rod Welford (Minister for Environment and Heritage and Minister for Natural Resources) Local Government Association of Queensland: Tom Pyne (President, Local Government Association of Queensland Inc.)
WA	Commonwealth: Robert Hill (Minister for the Environment) State of Western Australia: Graham Kierath (Minister for Planning); Cheryl Edwards, (Minister for the Environment) Western Australian Municipal Association: Ken Pech (President Western Australian Municipal Association),
SA	Commonwealth Robert Hill (Minister for the Environment) State of SA Dorothy Kotz (Minister for Environment Heritage and Aboriginal Affairs) Local Government of SA: Mayor Rosemary Craddock (President, Local Government Association of SA)
TAS	Commonwealth Robert Hill (Minister for the Environment) State of Tasmania: Peter Hodgman (Minister for the Environment and Land Management) Local Government Association of Tasmania (President, Local Government Association of Tasmania)
NT	Commonwealth Robert Hill (Minister for the Environment) Northern Territory: Mick Palmer (Minister for Lands, Planning and Environment) Local Government Association of the Northern Territory: Margaret Vignants, (President, Local Government Association of the Northern Territory)

Source: Compiled from the individual state and Northern Territory Coasts and Clean Seas MoUs

The MoUs specified Coastcare's obligations and functions and were considered to be a significant factor in the integration process because they established the 'principle of partnership and the processes for intergovernmental co-operation in coastal management' (Commonwealth of Australia 1995). Each jurisdiction agreed to 'cooperate and consult' and to 'establish mechanisms' both for promoting an integrated approach to coastal management, and for consulting with the community. The manner in which such tasks were to be carried out was left as a matter for individual states and jurisdictions to determine. The tasks were vaguely expressed in terms of degree (to what extent and over what issues should jurisdictions have cooperated?); regularity (what constituted a reasonable amount of consultation?; Should it have been regular or periodic or issue driven?); and

outcomes (what was there to show that the MoU made a difference to the way jurisdictions interrelated?).

Schedule 2 of the MoU set up the terms for the intergovernmental coastal reference group (ICRG), a forum for the different jurisdictions around the country to meet and discuss issues around the implementation of the MoU and to enhance the development of coastal policy. The group met on an *ad hoc* basis, as needed. Schedule 2 specified that the ICRG have representation from all spheres of government and each state the Northern Territory. Unfortunately local level government participation in the meetings was patchy, with local government not having the resources to send representatives to interstate meetings. Local government interest and involvement in ICRG dropped off over time. These issues are picked up in Chapter 5.

3.1.1 What was Coastcare supposed to be doing?

Schedule 3, of the Coasts and Clean Seas MoU, set out the specifications for how the Coastcare program should function: its objectives, desired outcomes, assessment criteria, grant conditions, funding arrangements, staffing conditions, hosting specifications and reporting requirements. An example of schedule 3 of the MoU is included as Appendix 2.

The stated objectives for Coastcare were:

- To engender in local communities, including local industries, a sense of stewardship for coastal and marine areas
- To provide opportunities and resources for residents, volunteers, business and interest groups to participate in coastal management
- To support community identification of natural and cultural heritage resources
- To facilitate interaction between the community and bodies with responsibility for managing coastal areas (Commonwealth of Australia 1998).

The stated desired outcomes of the Program were as follows:

- to increase the level and effectiveness of community involvement in coastal management
- to increase the capacity of those contributing to coastal management through documentation and dissemination of best practice coastal management information

- to raise awareness of coastal issues - the problems and possible solutions
- to increase the level of effective coastal management activity
- to increase cooperation in and between all spheres of government and the community.

3.1.2 Differences around Australia

A significant achievement of the Program was its implementation across a spectrum of jurisdictional, geographical and cultural conditions around Australia. A consequence of these factors was that despite the national approach and shared objectives, there was considerable variation in the delivery of the Program between the states and the Northern Territory. External factors affecting the nature of development of the Coastcare program around Australia's coastline are introduced below.

3.1.2.1 Jurisdictional factors influencing the implementation of Coastcare

Each state in Australia has separate coastal management legislation, policy and structural arrangements and as such each has different strategies for looking after the coast. Ownership of coastal lands also varies. The day-to day responsibility falls primarily to local government, yet a significant amount of coastal lands falls within parks and wildlife agency responsibility and indigenous communities. The management agencies responsible for the operation of the Coastcare program at the State/Territory level were nominated by each of the states and the Northern Territory and, logically, were located within the agencies having responsibility for coastal management. Table 3.2 shows that these were primarily departments with the environment as a central feature of their portfolio.

Western Australia was the exception, where coastal management was the responsibility of the Ministry of Planning. As of June 2001 this arrangement was reconsidered during a 'Machinery of Government Task Force' that recommended Coastwest/Coastcare be transferred from the evolving Department of Planning and Infrastructure across to the new Conservation agency under the Minister for the Environment. This transfer was confirmed in February 2003. A state-by-state analysis of coastal management arrangements and their influence on Coastcare is dealt with in Chapter 5.

Table 3.2 Delivering the Coastcare program - administrative arrangements

State	State Coastcare Manager	Local Hosts
NSW	Department of Land and Water Conservation	Local Government
VIC	Department of Natural Resources and Environment	State Government Agency (Dept of Natural Resources & Environment)
QLD	Department of Environment and Heritage	State Government Agency (Environment Protection Agency)
WA	Ministry for Planning	Local Government Industry Body State Government Agency (Dept of Conservation and Land Management; Ministry for Planning)
SA	Department of Environment and Heritage	Local Government
TAS	Department of Primary Industries, Water & Environment	State Government Agency (Dept of Primary Industries, Water & Environment) Local Government
NT	Department of Lands, Planning & Environment	State Government Agency (Dept of Lands, Planning & Environment)

Source: Compiled from the individual state and Northern Territory Coasts and Clean Seas MoUs

3.1.2.2 Ecological factors influencing the implementation of Coastcare

Given that Australia has a vast coastline, some 69,630km in length (Harvey and Caton 2003: 14), an impressive achievement for Coastcare was delivery of the Program around the country's entire length, including some of the islands. The geographical coverage by the regional Coastcare facilitators was remarkable. In addition there was an impressive array of biophysical environments to be managed. The different types of coasts around the continent are illustrated by Figure 3.1. Issues tackled through Coastcare therefore encompassed a great variety of management problems and physical processes:

From the Top End to Tasmania there is great pressure of uses: everywhere in the varied coastal environments, management is complex, challenging and needed. (Harvey and Caton 2003: 45)

3.1.2.3 Social factors influencing the implementation of Coastcare

Where population was, or was not, had a direct impact on the degree of Coastcare activity. The Coastcare program was reliant upon there being communities in place to lodge applications and subsequently to undertake coastal works.

There are variations where population settlements are and what the climatic regimes are and resource availability and all that, but on the whole the problems that occur around the coastline are pretty similar and I think it is a good idea to have a national

push or focus on the broader Coastcare type issues. I think it is a good idea, a national approach, so that we're attempting to look at these problems nationally rather than just areas that have loads of resources or people. (Commonwealth Coastcare Manager)

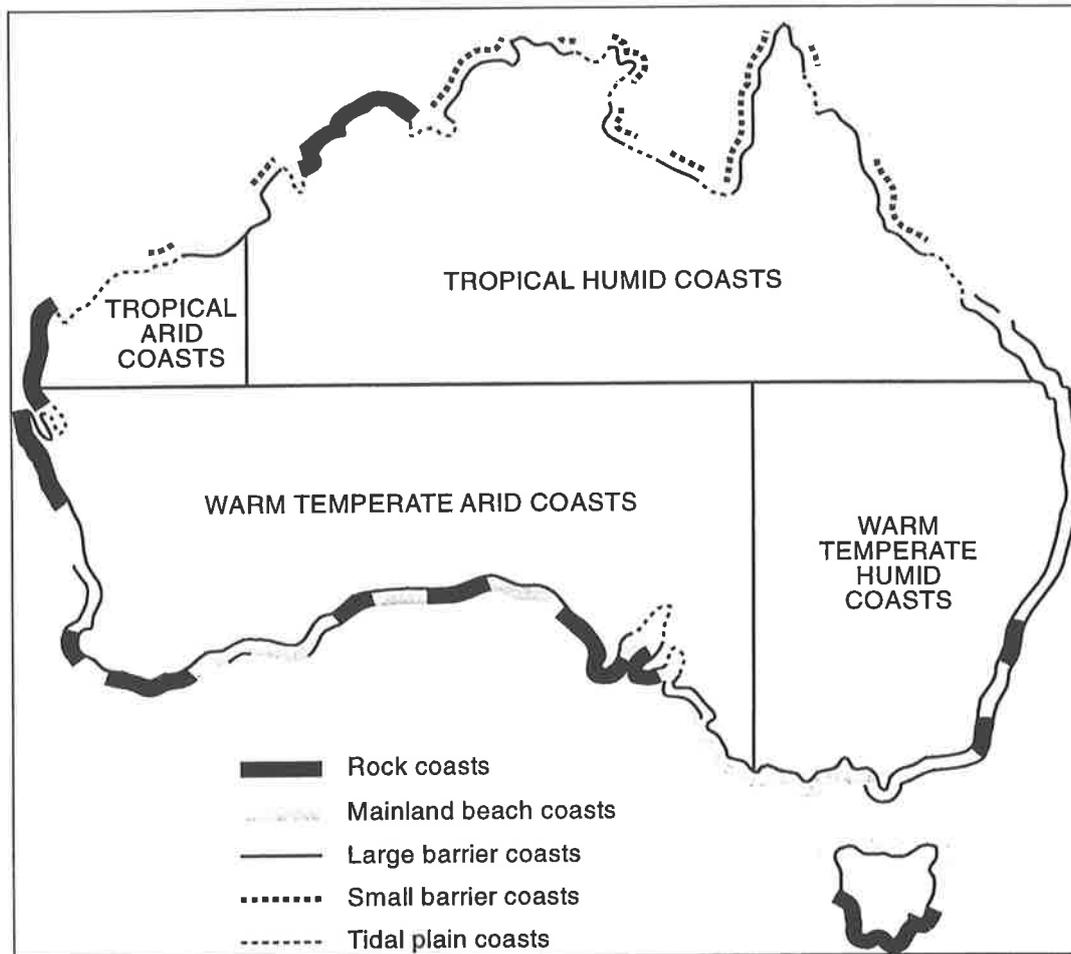


Figure 3.1: Types of coasts around the Australian continent
Source: Harvey and Caton (2003: 33); after Davies

The settlement map, Figure 3.2, illustrates the high population density along the eastern coast of Australia, concentrating around the capital cities, particularly Sydney and Melbourne. Urban localities recording highest rates of growth between 1994 and 1999 included Byron Bay, Hervey Bay, Whitsunday and Augusta, Margaret River (Commonwealth of Australia 2001: 15). A pattern of migration labelled the 'sun-belt phenomenon' is contributing to the rapid growth of non-metropolitan coastal cities and towns (Commonwealth of Australia 2001: 15). Highest ever population gains were recorded during 1999-2000 in many coastal regions located along the coastlines of New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia and Western Australia.

The regional Coastcare facilitators faced considerable variation in the density of groups they had at their disposal. Some had to manage large numbers of groups with high membership bases. Facilitators on the remote coasts faced lengthy distances between scattered groups. Each of these situations required adaptive management styles and both extremes placed limitations on the availability of the facilitator to individual groups.

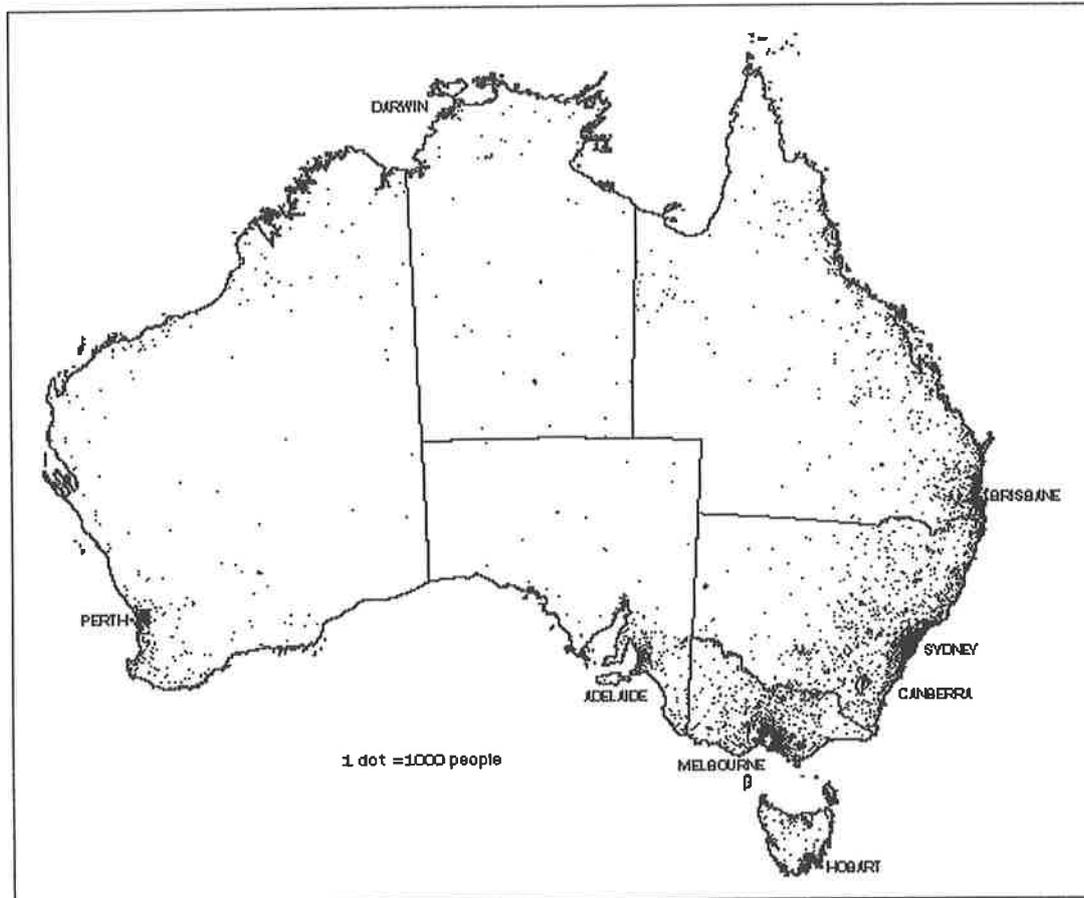


Figure 3.2: Settlement map
Source: (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2003)

3.1.2.4 Remote coastlines influencing the implementation of Coastcare

Australia's coastline has vast lengths of remote coast with infrequently spaced regional communities. The resources available to remote and regional communities are also more limited than in urban centres because councils reliant upon rates bases for revenue are typically cash-strapped in small communities. Coastal management remains an issue in such environments that are often sought as tourist destinations. For example, many project applications grappled with limiting 4WD access along pristine and secluded beaches. Due to the availability or not of applicants, the coverage of the Coastcare program was patchy. Regions

of some of the facilitators covered thousands of kilometres and their groups were often far apart. This made provision of support difficult. Despite these challenges, Coastcare was an important initiative for coastal management along remote coasts, because apart from several Coasts and Clean Seas projects, it was the only form of coastal management in many such places. Twenty respondents identified remote locations as a challenge for implementing the Coastcare program.

It's a point I always make at the Federal level, that the ... coast has vast areas with low community but big visitor impacts. In those areas there are few community groups and it's difficult to get where the impacts are. We don't even necessarily know where the impacts are. That's a problem....[a challenge is] increasing the capacity of groups in our remote areas to undertake management in a very, very difficult environment. Extremely remote, and very few people, but pressures. So even the regional Coastcare facilitator being able to get around, and know what is happening, is an extremely big challenge. (Manager, state coastal program)

Coastal management issues in less populated areas are just as great but there is a lesser pool of volunteers because the human population is lower. (Regional Coastcare Facilitator)

The pressures and focus of coastal councils also varied accordingly between rural and metropolitan regions.

3.1.2.5 Cultural factors influencing the implementation of Coastcare

According to 1996 Census counts, indigenous people were generally less likely to live in major urban areas than the total population (30% compared to 63%) and more likely to live in more remote, non-urban communities (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2002). Three census regions in 1996 showed higher proportions of indigenous populations than elsewhere in Australia. These were Kimberly (WA), Northern Territory (excluding Darwin) and North-West Queensland (Commonwealth of Australia 2001: 16). These statistics are relevant to Coastcare because much of the coastal land in remote, northern Australia is managed by Aboriginal Torres Strait Islander (ATSI) people. Many Aboriginal communities were in the unusual position of signing as community applicants as well as local coastal land managers.

Aboriginal Land Councils and communities do not have access to rate bases and human resources and expertise, like that available within local government, and so Coastcare funding was a significant source of revenue to some ATSI communities. The price of getting materials to remote communities is also escalated, a factor not experienced in metropolitan centres. Facilitators servicing remote coastlines were

especially struggling to provide adequate support, given that establishment of trust and working relationships with indigenous land managers takes considerable time. Queensland was the only state to employ an indigenous facilitator.

Coastcare, through provisions of the MoU, actively invited indigenous involvement and made special allowances for application submission requirements:

submissions from Indigenous community groups may be accepted in a form different from the standard application, where this is agreed by the panel (Commonwealth of Australia 1998: 22)

Despite this concession, the grant scheme was considered a barrier to the ATSI people. Issues of indigenous participation in Coastcare are taken up in detail later in this Chapter.

3.2 Coastcare program elements

The Coastcare program is best described as having consisted of three central components, each of which buttressed the endeavour to engage the community in coastal management.

1. The element of Coastcare that directly engaged community groups was the small grants scheme that provided financial support for volunteer groups to do project work along the coast.
2. In addition to the community grants, Commonwealth funding was provided for the salaries of the Coastcare team – a network of regionally based staff who sustained the Program at the local level. The regional facilitators played a central role in promoting the Program, supporting groups, developing partnerships between government and community, and encouraging best practice coastal management.
3. Coastcare also funded the development and distribution of promotional and educational materials as an attempt to reach the broader community. Campaigns were carried out each year to disseminate ‘caring for our coast’ messages. The Commonwealth had a sponsorship and promotion contract with a marketing company, Landcare Australia Ltd (LAL), whose role it was to obtain sponsorship funds to bolster this educational and awareness raising aspect of the Program. LAL attracted celebrities (tennis player Pat Rafter and business woman Mimi MacPherson) to raise the profile of Coastcare and draw attention to important coastal management issues via television community service announcements. LAL was successful in encouraging some industries to sponsor promotional activities such as Land Rover/Coastcare photographic competitions (Chalkley and Lauder 2001). Chalkley and Lauder (2001: 7) were confident that Coastcare’s community environmental education and on-ground action were ‘complementary in leading to a better skilled and more aware community’.

3.2.1 Coastcare's grants scheme

In order to meet its objectives of providing the community with resources and opportunities to participate in coastal management, Coastcare was designed around the grants scheme, the Program's key element in terms of actively engaging the community. These additional resources into coastal management provided opportunities for increased community involvement in coastal management. Almost half of all respondents surveyed for this thesis (47%; n=79) identified the community grants as a strength of Coastcare and a key contribution to management around the coast. Below the comments of three local coastal land managers that reflect this positive sentiment:

It has been one of the best external grant projects ever invented. (Local Coastal Land Manager)

[Coastcare] is a very positive (and rare), well resourced and professional/community, local/federal government partnership. (Local Coastal Land Manager)

From my point of view, as a Bushcare Officer co-ordinating community groups in the area, Coastcare has been the most effective of the 'care' organisations in providing the support that groups need. (Local Coastal Land Manager)

Many on-ground works were completed which may otherwise not have been undertaken without Coastcare funds. This contributed to improvements in the coastal environment and increased numbers of volunteers working along the coast. Funding assistance to groups translated into direct benefits to land managers, by enabling works to take place that otherwise, in many instances, would not have been achieved by cash-strapped local governments. Consequently land managers accepted groups 'with open arms'. The grants were also described as a mechanism for involvement – the carrot to hook volunteers.

There are a number of measures of success that show that [Coastcare] has contributed [to coastal management]...It is about getting additional resources into coastal management and that ends up pretty much on the ground, unlike a lot of other stuff that just can sometimes appear not to result in anything. (State Coastal Manager)

Community can't do it alone and they need funds to resource and support their projects, which lightens the financial burdens of agencies...the grant scheme creates a really nice nexus between what other support is available, human resources usually and sometimes equipment. In a lot of cases [the Coastcare grant] is the missing link. (Regional Coastcare Facilitator)

3.2.1.1 Achievements of the Coastcare grant program

Under the National Coastal Action Program the Commonwealth agreed to make A\$23.4 million available to Coastcare for project grants between 1995-2000. After being repackaged under the NHT, Coastcare, as part of 'Coasts and Clean Seas', was reallocated \$27.3 million for grants between 1996-2001. Between 1995/1996 and 2000/2002 Coastcare funded 2,323 projects around Australia's coastline. The national figure mask the variation in the distribution of funds and project numbers between the individual states and the Northern Territory.

3.2.1.2 Trends in application lodgments

A state-by-state analysis of the funding and project trends was conducted as part of this research. Results revealed significant differences between the states and the Northern Territory. Figure 3.3 shows that during the seven years of Coastcare's operation there was an overall decline in numbers of applications lodged and numbers of projects funded. Despite Coastcare's promotion and awareness raising events, the number of applications received over time is somewhat disappointing. Since the 1996/97 peak, of 797 applications, there was an overall decline in the number of Coastcare applications received, with 2000/2001 being the lowest on record at 468 lodgements.

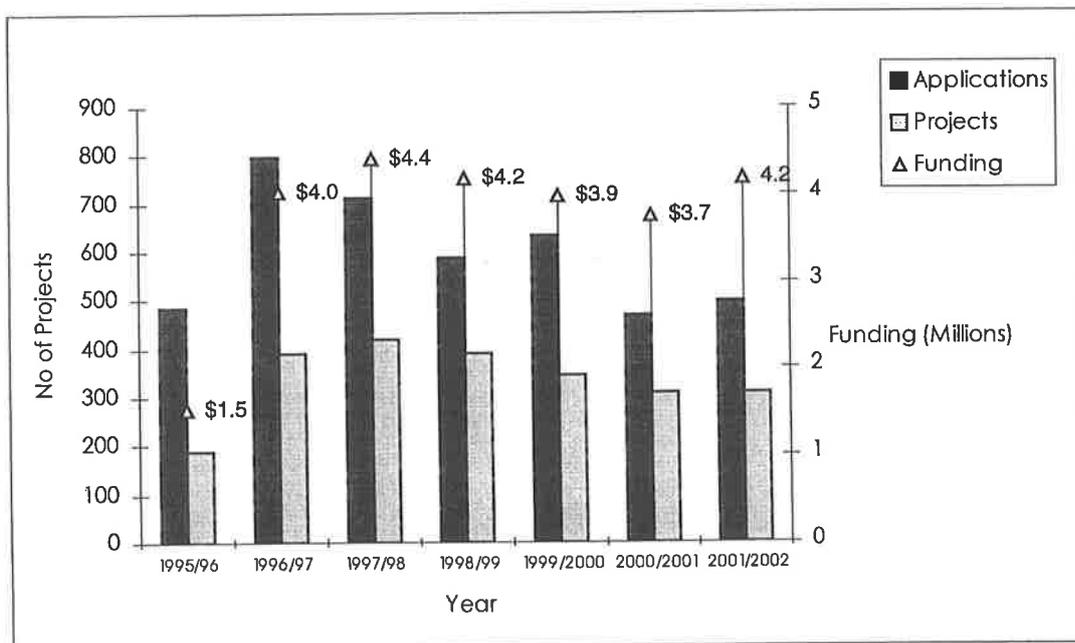


Figure 3.3: Coastcare Applications, Project Numbers and Funding by financial years, 1995/1996 to 2000/2001

Source: Statistical analysis – this thesis; raw data derived from Commonwealth Coastcare data set, dated 20/6/01

Excluding the first year of Coastcare funding, Figure 3.4 shows that in the 2000/2001 grant round, five states (New South Wales, Queensland, Western Australia, South Australia and Tasmania) experienced their lowest ever number of applications. Each of these states improved marginally in the 2001/2002 round. Victoria, however, experienced the most dramatic and enduring fall in applications from its peak, of 286 in 1996/1997, to a low of 67 in 2001/2002. Northern Territory was last to join Coastcare, coming on board in 1997/98 for the third round of Coastcare grants, and it had modest applicant numbers in contrast to the other States. It was the only region to have an increase in number of applicants over time, albeit few. This issue was discussed during a national Coastcare forum in 2000 (Chalkley 2000), where reasons for the fall in applications were considered. Factors influencing the decline included the introduction of the Goods and Services Tax (GST) in Australia in 2001, which posed considerable confusion for groups estimating their budgets and hence completing application forms; late grant announcements from the preceding year meant groups were delayed in beginning projects and not ready to apply for new money; many groups took longer than the specified one year time frame to complete funded projects. This reduced the pool of volunteers and hence the application numbers because groups working on existing projects did not want more money or more work. Some groups were able to function without assistance of grant money which masked the overall activity of Coastcare as their efforts did not register on the Commonwealth data base; there was the potential for these groups to reapply in future rounds. The administrative process – from filling in lengthy application forms to receipt of money was onerous and groups had given up applying or sought other sources of funding. A regional Coastcare facilitator during the interview process described this phenomenon:

I know a number of groups that were applying in the early years and [the application] has become more lengthy and they're reluctant now. Some have stopped applying but that might have also may be in conjunction with the fact that the issue that they were interested in has kind of been dealt with and they are receiving on going funding from the local management agencies and things like that. Or a lot of groups in my area have got to the point where if its mostly just revegetation, they are collecting seeds, they have developed the skills to collect seeds, grow their own plants, and propagate and plant out. [Their reliance has fallen away a bit]. It has, so there is that to a degree. There is the other component that a number groups have got enough projects, so they are busy enough over the year, so they don't want any more. There is the other aspect that they are sick and tired of the paper work. I think we

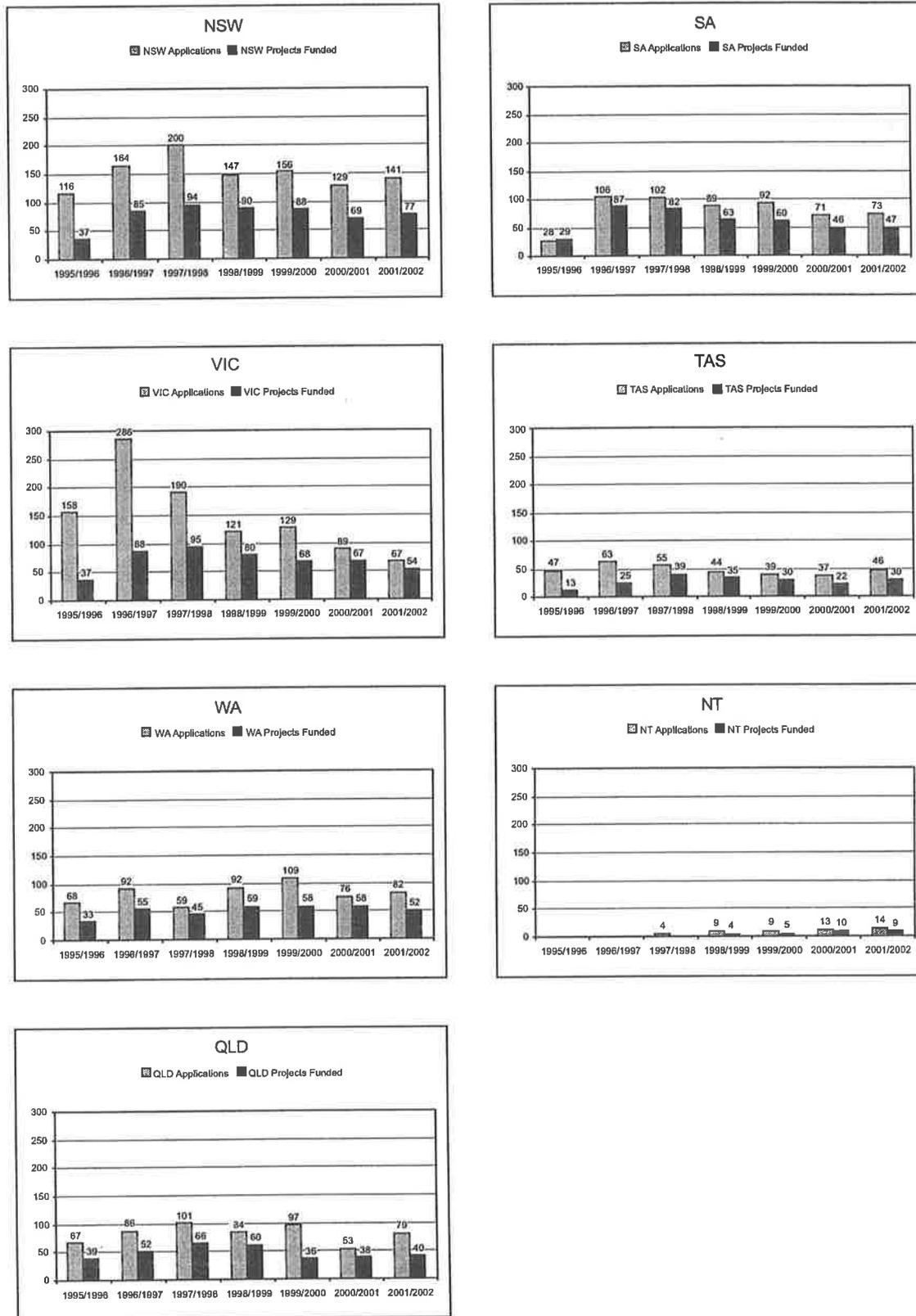


Figure 3.4: State by State comparison of Coastcare applications and projects funded, 1995/96 to 2000/2001

Source: Statistical analysis – this thesis; raw data derived from Coastcare national State Coordinators questionnaire, See Appendix 4.

(cont..) have been successful to date but now they are tired of the paperwork. Unless you've got a good treasurer or secretary people are starting to not lose interest in the actual work they do but potentially losing interest in the actual process of getting grant funding so they are looking at easier options. (Regional Coastcare Facilitator)

These sentiments were supported by a state Coastcare co-coordinator who expressed there were shortcomings to Coastcare's administrative procedures. The lengthy process hampered community buoyancy and partnership development:

[The grants side of Coastcare] needs to be more immediate, more responsive. The time delay between the community conceding or being encouraged into a project and their enthusiasm coming up and actually hearing about that project, in some cases, has been a 12 month delay. That has been really difficult to manage. It has put extra pressure on facilitators. It has meant to capitalise on that peaking interest in the community and with the land manager. That relationship has been fostered, supported to a state where they have come together, and natted out a project, and funding has been committed, and time has been committed. Then you wait 12 months. A lot happens in 12 months of people's lives. I think that has been a huge drain in the energies of facilitators. And in the head office. That is one of the reasons it has then taken projects such a long time to complete, because sometimes, things have changed dramatically. Had to build a complete new group in some cases. It needs to be much more immediate. It is an essential level of support, that there is money there to support the priorities coming out of these partnerships, but it hasn't been immediate enough and it has allowed passionate interest to ebb. (State Coastcare co-ordinator)

The roll over of Coastcare from NHT I into its next phase, NHT II, reportedly cast some confusion over the 2000/2001 grant round. The future delivery arrangements of Coastcare at the time of the 2000/2001 round were exceedingly sketchy and therefore local land managers and groups were reluctant to further contribute until the nature of NHT II was made more explicit. The drop in application numbers called into question the effectiveness of the promotional element of Coastcare in recruiting new interest into the Program.

Figure 3.4 also shows diversity between states and the Northern Territory in regard to the number of projects that successfully passed through the assessment process and received funding. New South Wales consistently funded large numbers of projects over the duration of the Program. Victoria and South Australia began strongly, like New South Wales, but both states experienced a noticeable decline in numbers of funded projects from 1998/1999, consistent with the reduced number of applications. Western Australia had steady numbers of projects over time. Between 1996/97 and 2001/2002 the difference between maximum and minimum fluctuated by only 14 projects. This contrasts some of the other states during the

same time frame, that exhibited ranges between maximum and minimum of 25 projects in New South Wales, and 41 projects in Victoria and South Australia.

3.2.1.3 Allocation of funding

Funding allocation was determined by a specific formula whereby the Commonwealth made an allotted sum of funds available for each State/Territory based on a division of the available monies. The formula used to allocate funds to each state and the Northern Territory was based on equal portions of a Commonwealth foundation grant to relative population size and length of coast (Commonwealth of Australia 1998). In addition to the Commonwealth contribution, there was a requirement for matched financial input from each state and the Northern Territory on a dollar for dollar basis. Table 3.3 shows the variation in the Commonwealth's financial allocations to the states and the Northern Territory, the maximum grant available, and an example of the actual amount received for 1999/2000. Only two states fully matched, and exceeded, the Commonwealth contribution. There were several reasons why this was so: it was possible that there was an insufficient number of suitable applications; a number of applications accepted by state SAPs were later rejected at the Commonwealth level each year; groups sometimes failed to sign their management agreements; and some projects never commenced and subsequently funds reverted to the Commonwealth's central pool of Coastcare funding.

Table 3.3. Comparison of Commonwealth/State Funding Contributions

State/ Territory	Commonwealth annual contribution available, 1997/98 to 2000/01 \$	Maximum potential Grant Allocation – Matched Commonwealth and State Contribution	Actual Budget Allocation Matched C'wealth and State Contributions 1999/2000
NSW	512 000	1,024,000	965,037
VIC	427,000	854,000	548,080
QLD	439 000	878,000	487,302
WA	549 000	1,098,000	1,210,188
SA	311 000	622,000	537,000
TAS	244 000	488,000	274,479
NT	304 000	608,000	74,365

Source: Statistical analysis – this thesis; raw data derived from Commonwealth Coastcare data set, dated 20/6/01

The annual allocation of Coastcare funds followed the same trend as the fall of applications, and by 2000/2001 the annual amount of funding decreased by \$669,737 from the peak of 1997/98. There was a slight resurgence in funds in the 2001/2002 round but the number of Coastcare projects was 112 short of the 1997/98 maximum. Funding amounts to individual grants had increased.

3.2.1.4 In-kind support

In addition to the funds contributed formally by Commonwealth and State government agencies, a considerable amount of in-kind support was generated by Coastcare through local government and participants working on projects. Local Government contributed financial or 'in-kind' assistance. In-kind support included volunteer time, or use of equipment or machinery to conduct Coastcare projects. For example, in South Australian, the state spent \$1.5 million over 6 years (with Coast Protection Board funds), and received an additional \$9.5 million. This sum comprised a combination of Commonwealth and in-kind support, and the various contributions are illustrated by Figure 3.5.

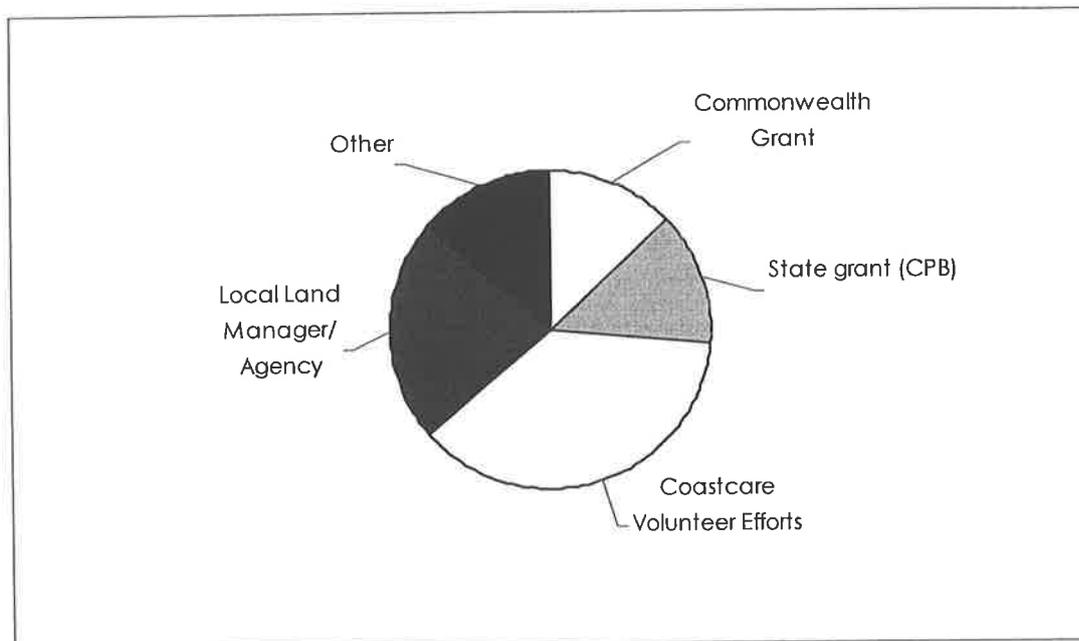


Figure 3.5: South Australian Coastcare: in-kind and formally committed funds

There was some dissatisfaction aired by local government, through the Australian Local Government Association's (ALGA) coastal policy, suggesting local government efforts through Commonwealth funded programs, like Coastcare, were overlooked:

Lack of recognition of Local Government in the announcement of funding. The contributions of State and community organisations are often highlighted, while Local Government's contributions are often not recognised or ignored. (ALGA 2002)

Anna Carr (2002: 121), writing of Landcare and Waterwatch groups, identified that much in-kind support, in the form of money, time and other resources (such as equipment), often went unreceipted. This may have also been so for the estimates available for Coastcare.

3.2.1.5 State-by-state comparison of funding

Figure 3.6 shows that New South Wales attracted the largest portion of Coastcare funds and most projects. In comparison, South Australia and Victoria funded large numbers of projects for modest funds. Tasmania was a more modest example of this pattern. Western Australia proved the inverse, as it received generous amounts of funding for the numbers of projects funded, and to a lesser extent Queensland fitted this mould.

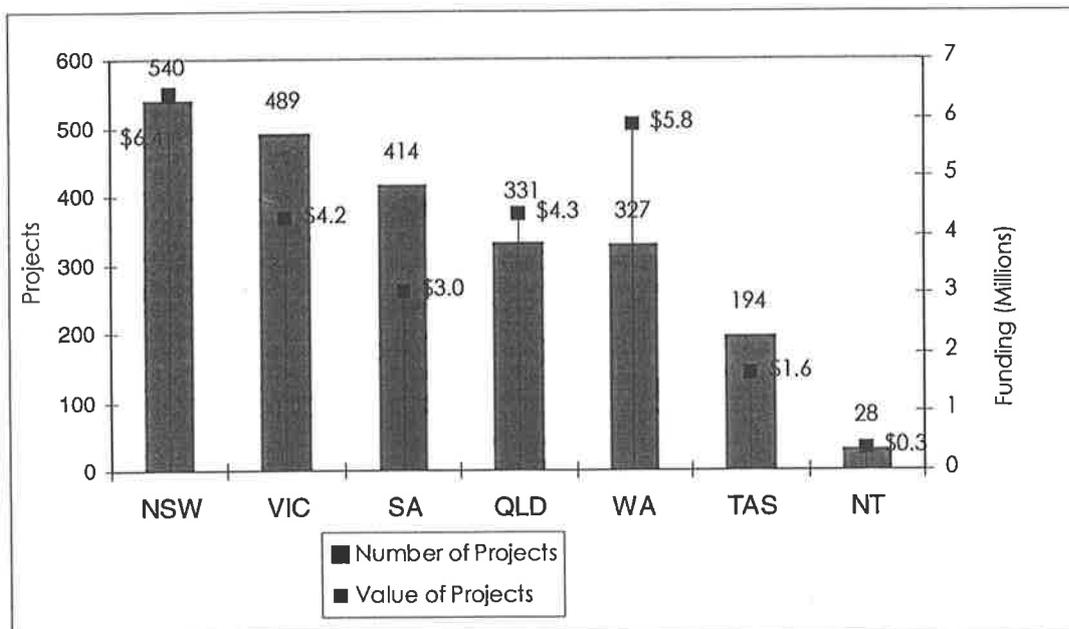


Figure 3.6: Coastcare funds and number of projects by state – total, 1995/96 to 2000/01
Source: Statistical analysis – this thesis; raw data derived from Commonwealth Coastcare data set, dated 20/6/01

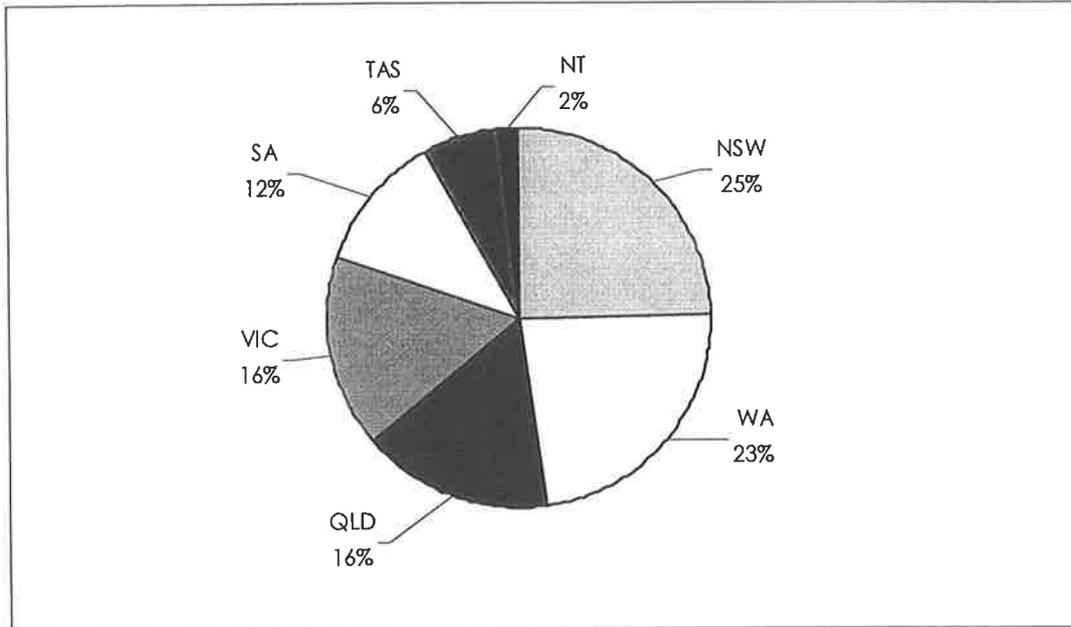
Figure 3.7 highlights the contrast between the states for numbers of projects funded and funding received. New South Wales funded the most Coastcare projects (24%, 540 projects) and received almost one quarter of the funds, second to Western Australia. Victoria funded just over one fifth (489 projects) of all Coastcare

projects, 51 projects shy of the New South Wales total, but received \$2.1 million less than New South Wales in funds to carry them out. Western Australia funded a modest number of projects (14%, 327 projects) but had a quarter of the funds; the highest proportion of any other state (\$5.8 million). South Australia was almost inversely proportional to Western Australia having funded almost one fifth of all projects (414 projects) but receiving only 12% of available funds (\$3 million). Queensland funded the same proportion of projects as Western Australia but received \$1.5 million dollars less in funds.

Although Coastcare funded projects up to \$30,000, Figure 3.8 shows that well over half of the projects funded received less than \$10,000 and almost one third received less than \$5,000. Just over one quarter of funded projects (27%) were granted more than \$15,000 and only 16% of projects were granted over \$20,000. There was a clear distinction between the states and the Northern Territory in terms of size of grants awarded to applicants.

Figure 3.9 illustrates the distribution of large (over \$20,000) and small Coastcare grants (below \$5,000). South Australia and Victoria combined accounted for over half (59%) of all the small Coastcare grants. This represented almost half of South Australia's projects (195 of 414 projects), and 37% of Victoria's projects (181 of 489 projects). Proportionally, Tasmania was also awarded a significant number of small grants, that accounted for 39% of all Tasmania's 194 projects. Western Australia had the lowest proportion of small grants (only 13% of all Western Australian projects or 43 of its 327 projects), compared to the other states and the Northern Territory. Queensland and New South Wales followed (14% of all Queensland projects or 46 of its 331 projects and 21% or 111 of all New South Wales 540 projects). Conversely Western Australia, New South Wales and Queensland combined were awarded with almost 80% of grants over \$20,000. Western Australia alone received over one third of all grants over \$20,000 between 1995/96 and 2000/2001, representing 116 or 35% of all Western Australia projects. New South Wales and Queensland each received just over one fifth of the large grants, representing 17% (92 projects) of all New South Wales projects and 21% (or 69) of Queensland's projects. South Australia, Victoria and Tasmania combined received only 10% of the share of large grants.

**Funding distribution between States and the Northern Territory –
Total Coastcare funds \$25.9 million**



**Project distribution between states and the Northern Territory –
Total projects = 2,323**

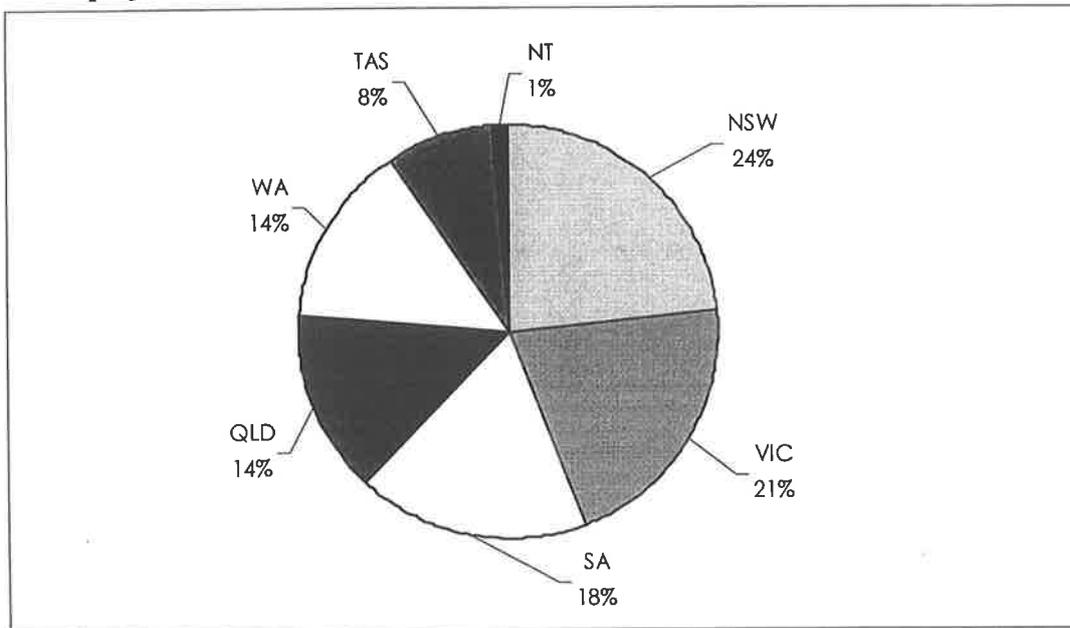


Figure 3.7: Proportion of funding and project numbers by State, 1995/96 to 2000/01

Source: Statistical analysis – this thesis; raw data derived from Commonwealth Coastcare data set, dated 20/6/01

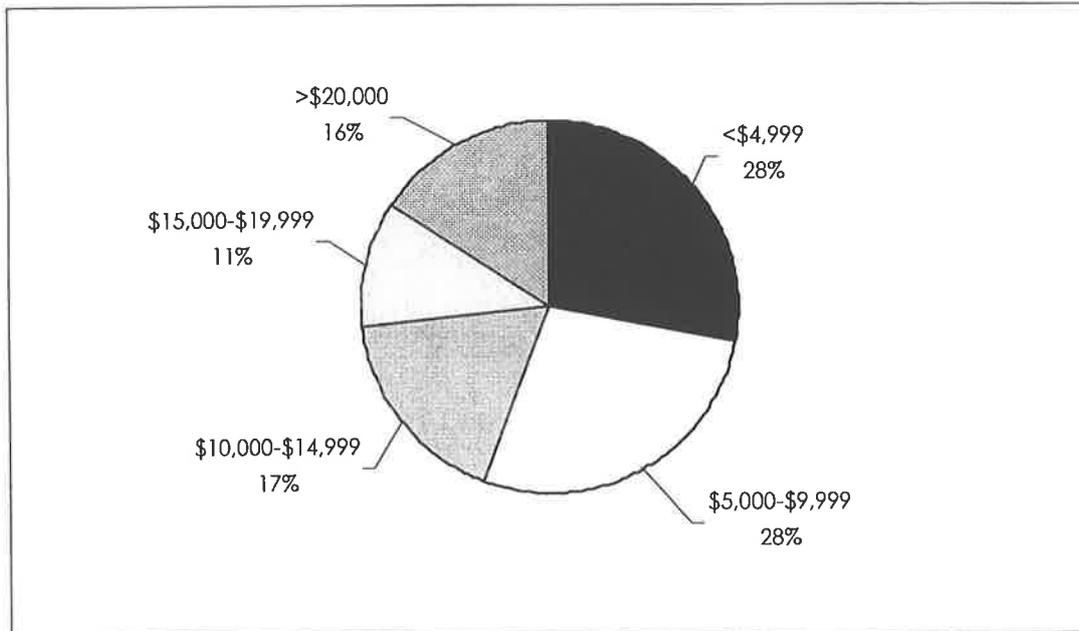


Figure 3.8: Coastcare, size of grants, 1995/96 to 2000/01

Source: Statistical analysis – this thesis; raw data derived from Commonwealth Coastcare data set, dated 20/6/01

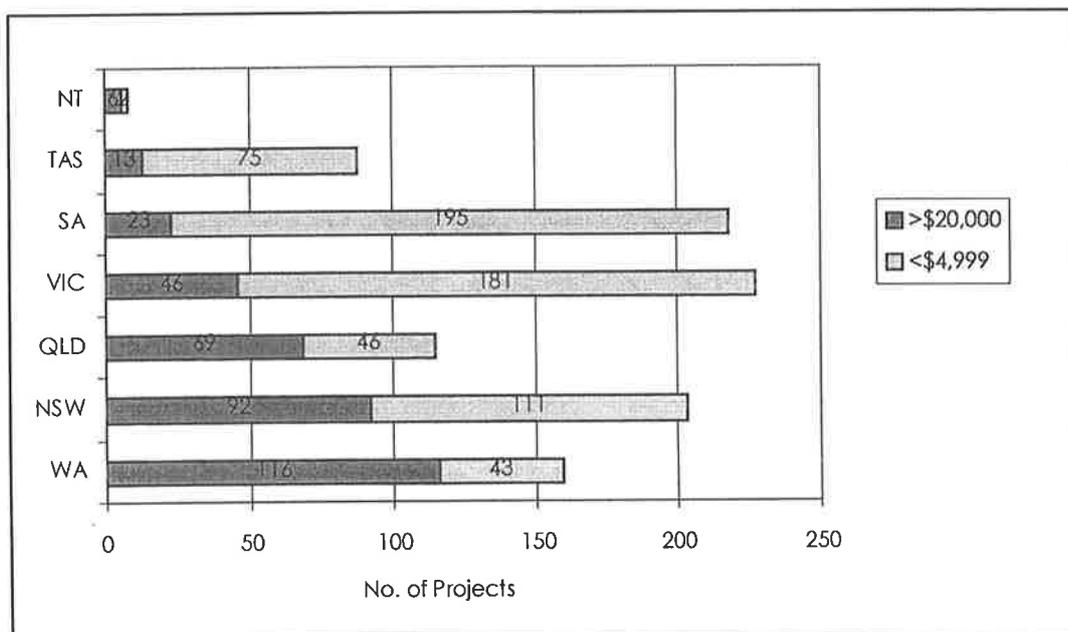


Figure 3.9: Size and Number of Coastcare Grants by state, <\$4,000 and >\$20,000

Source: Statistical analysis – this thesis; raw data derived from Commonwealth Coastcare data set, dated 20/6/01

3.2.1.6 Types of Projects

Coastcare was described as ‘action-oriented’ with an emphasis on achieving on-ground outcomes. A range of coastal and marine projects were eligible for funding under the Coastcare Program, including:

- Protection and rehabilitation of sensitive areas
- Enhancement of sustainable tourism, recreation and other activities, including access to the coast
- Community-based monitoring of coastal environments
- Identification and protection of natural and cultural heritage resources
- Involvement of coastal industries in community projects and the adoption of sustainable management practices
- Enhancement of coastal landscape and improved coastal urban design
- Community participation in development and implementation of management plans.

(Commonwealth of Australia 1998)

‘Protection and rehabilitation of sensitive areas’ and ‘Enhancement of sustainable tourism, recreation and other activities including access to the coast’ were the two most predominant types of activity that community groups attempted. The ‘protection and rehabilitation of sensitive areas’ was achieved through a range of revegetation projects that included dune stabilisation, protection of rare species, weed and pest eradication programs, and seedling propagation. The majority of projects that fell into the ‘enhancing sustainable tourism, recreation’ category were primarily trying to improve access to the coast. The summary descriptions of projects improving access to the coast typically included dual aims of protecting coastal environments whilst also providing access for people and vehicles in the form of facilities such as walkways, board-walks, fences, lookout platforms, and roads. Figure 3.10 and Figure 3.11 capture examples of Coastcare dune protection and beach access works.

The Commonwealth’s Coasts and Clean Seas Mid-Term Review (Commonwealth of Australia 1999) categorised Coastcare projects according to whether they were undertaking ‘on-ground’, ‘educational’, ‘planning’ or ‘monitoring’ activities. For consistency this thesis has used the same categories.



Figure 3.10: Coastcare Revegetation Effort
Source: Coastcare Photographic Exhibition, Roma McCullough, 2001

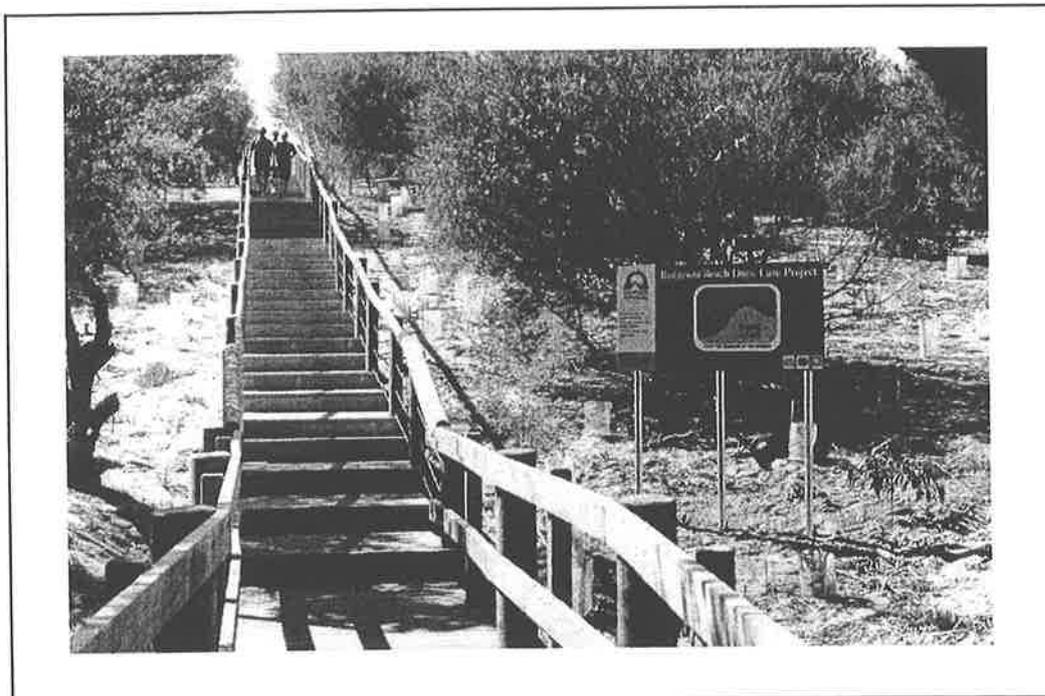


Figure 3.11: Construction of beach steps, NSW
Source: NSW Coastcare

Table 3.4 provides examples of the types of activities associated with these four categories. On inspection, it is clear that Coastcare groups undertook quite specific tasks.

Nationally, 71% of all Coastcare projects between 1995/1996 and 1999/2000 comprised 'on-ground' works, predominantly a combination of rehabilitating degraded coastal environments and improving access to beaches. After the Commonwealth Mid-Term Review (1999) on-ground works increased in prominence in terms of Coastcare activity. Planning, monitoring and education projects shared roughly the remaining 29%. Comparison of the states and the Northern Territory in Table 3.5 shows some variation. For New South Wales, Victoria and South Australia, on-ground works accounted for approximately three-quarters of Coastcare activities. Close to two-thirds of Tasmania's and Western Australia's activities were classified as on-ground works while only half of Queensland's Coastcare projects fell within the on-ground works category. Consequently monitoring projects were more prominent (22% of all Queensland's Coastcare activities) and education projects marginally more prominent in Queensland (19% of Queensland's activities) than the other states and the Northern Territory. Tasmania (17% of Tasmania's Coastcare activities) and Victoria (15% of Victoria's Coastcare activities) also shared a higher proportion of education projects than the national average of Coastcare activity. Tasmania and Western Australia had a greater proportion of planning activities than the other states (17% and 18% respectively). The low numbers of projects in the Northern Territory should be noted, as they inflate the significance of the proportional figures.

The total of 1,689 projects (shown in tables 3.4 and 3.5) does not mirror the 1,704 total of the Commonwealth data set for the same 1995/1996 to 1999/2000 time frame. There is a shortfall of 15 projects. Table 3.4 and Table 3.5 were compiled from statistics collected during 2000 from the individual state coordinators. The questionnaire they completed is included as part of Appendix 4. This was necessary because the Commonwealth data set did not have a breakdown of 'project type'.

Table 3.4: Types and Examples of Coastcare Activities undertaken between 1995/96 and 1999/2000

Type of Coastcare Activity	MOU Eligibility Criteria	Examples of corresponding Coastcare Activity	Percentage & number of Projects	Coasts and Clean Seas Mid Term Review Comparison (1999)
On-Ground Works	Protection and rehabilitation of sensitive areas; Enhancement of sustainable tourism, recreation and other activities, including access to the coast; Identification and protection of natural and cultural heritage resources.	Boardwalk construction, access control, revegetation, weed and pest eradication, installation of sand drift fencing	71% or 1190 projects	62%
Education and Training		Interpretive Centres, Coastal walks, radio broadcasting	12% or 208 projects	16%
Planning	Community participation in development and implementation of management plans	Development of management plans	9% or 157 projects	11%
Monitoring	Community-based monitoring of coastal environments	Threatened species surveys, beach conditions, litter surveys	8% or 134 projects	11%
Total			1689	100%

Source: Statistical analysis – this thesis; raw data derived from Coastcare national State Coordinators questionnaire, See Appendix 4.

The Commonwealth data set may not have been updated to account for cancelled projects, or adjustments, accounting for the shortfall in project numbers. In any case, there was a slight mismatch between state held records and the Commonwealth data set.

Table 3.5: State/Territory comparison of Coastcare Activities

	NSW	VIC	WA	QLD	SA	TAS	NT	Total
Ongoing	310 (79%)	246 (74%)	171 (68%)	127 (51%)	247 (78%)	84 (59%)	5 (56%)	1190 (71%)
Planning	31 (8%)	18 (5%)	42 (17%)	21 (8%)	14 (5%)	25 (18%)	3 (33%)	157 (9%)
Monitoring	12 (3%)	20 (6%)	19 (8%)	54 (22%)	19 (6%)	9 (6%)	1 (11%)	134 (8%)
Education	40 (10%)	50 (15%)	18 (7%)	48 (19%)	28 (9%)	24 (17%)	-	208 (12%)
Total	393	334	250	250	311	142	9	1689

Source: Statistical analysis – this thesis; raw data derived from Coastcare national State Coordinators questionnaire, See Appendix 4.

Also worthy of consideration were complaints raised both during SAP panels and through the interviews of the predominance of beach access, revegetation or protection projects, to the exclusion of marine based projects and other innovative initiatives. The predominant choices might have been appropriate to suit the capacity of Coastcare groups, and what they were able to undertake, but certain aspects of coastal management were neglected. The limited scope for marine, education and research projects was raised as an issue by 12 respondents (7%). Projects not producing practical actions or immediate on-ground work had to demonstrate their future contribution to an environmental outcome (Commonwealth of Australia 2000). This understanding permeated the SAP decision-making process:

Because we've had the same members for some time now they've developed a safe zone for approving projects. They've developed parameters within which they know they're safe to approve projects. If a project is proposed that involves access control and revegetation you can almost guarantee it will be approved because the SAP know they're safe to approve that. If you get a project that is innovative those often have a very difficult time in the hand of the SAP. It's virtually impossible to get a marine project going. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

3.2.1.7 Coastcare project selection process

Community groups had to go through a formal application process to be eligible for Coastcare grants. Groups completed the Coastcare application form, which was

then checked by regional Coastcare facilitators and co-ordinators and was then submitted to an assessment panel in the State/Territory in which the application was submitted. The assessment panels were the responsibility of the state delivering agency, and accordingly, there were differences around the country as to how the assessment panels were organised and deliberated. Appendix 5 provides a summary of the contrasts in Coastcare SAP processes between the states and the Northern Territory. Aspects of difference included:

- Numbers of members on panel
- Degree of rigour (eg technical assessment)
- Duration of assessment period
- Guiding Protocol
- Facilitator inclusion in process
- Numbers of projects assessed
- Ranking procedures
- Indigenous representation, involvement.

Ninety-one people for this study were asked about various aspects of the Coastcare SAPs (the Commonwealth managers, state coordinators, regional facilitators and SAP members). These people all had had direct experience with the panels and the process. Three key elements arose from respondent comments regarding aspects of the panels that are worthy of closer consideration: membership of panels, selection processes and feedback or evaluation of SAP methods.

3.2.1.8 Membership of SAPs

When asked whether or not representation on the SAP panels was adequate, 69 people (76%) thought it was. Whilst 36 respondents (40%) thought the panels had a broad membership and a high level of expertise for sound decision-making, there were some significant criticisms of the make-up of SAP panels. Each assessment panel, in accordance with the MoU, had to represent state and local government, industry, government agencies, sectoral interests (e.g. fisheries), conservation groups, and cultural heritage and ATSI groups. However, these labels were somewhat rubbery because the boundaries of representation were blurred. For example, 14 respondents (8%) identified a lack of community representation on the panel. Communities tended to be represented through local council members or

conservation agencies. A community perspective was considered important because such people had the capacity to convey insight of community group experience in applying for funds and conducting volunteer work:

One of the things that stood out in the last SAP was that very few of the people on the SAP have ever been involved in a community group or a Coastcare group. They tend to treat the applicants as if they were a company tendering for a job and they tend to lose sight of the fact that these are community people giving their own free time to develop these applications and projects, with goodwill in their heart to do it. Assessing the applications is a very business like process and they [the panel] lose sight of the time that groups have put into developing the projects. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Reaffirming this position, when asked whether representation of stakeholders was adequate, one panel member said their panel needed

More community members, less government. More people with on the ground grass-roots experience in coastal management....Members who are informed' and understand the realities of the dynamics of community groups. (State Assessment Panel Member)

Equally, local government representation via counsellors and not local government employees was considered problematic:

The local government association is asked to provide local government reps to all sorts of committees and they always offer up a counsellor and I think that is a major problem. In [our state] counsellors are politicians. If you wanted a representative from a [state] government department you wouldn't put a [state] politician on the panel, you'd put the head of the National Parks and Wildlife Service or a staff member from the [agency]. [Counsellors] can't speak for the council. They are not supposed to speak on behalf of the councils, and they don't know how the council operates on a nuts and bolts day-to-day basis. So it's a flawed concept putting a counsellor on the panel. I would try in the future to get some key council officers on board because they know how local government works, they know the constraints, they know about things like state policies and regional environment policies and planning documents and all that kind of stuff. A counsellor's expertise may be that he runs the fish and chip shop, and everyone thinks he's a good bloke or they are a tourism operator and they have an oyster business or something. They don't have to have any local government work experience. (State Coastcare Coordinator)

The make-up of panel membership had profound implications for project selection.

Three such issues were raised in this study:

- attendance of panel members on the day of the panel
- regional coverage of panel representatives and
- bias introduced to the process.

3.2.1.9 Attendance

Despite there being a predetermined list of agreed members, turnout of members on the day of the panel was somewhat reduced, and therefore directly affected representation. Appendix 5 shows the membership of panels against the numbers

actually attending for each state for the 2001 panel. Attendance of the panels was raised as an issue by 13 respondents, and was an issue for particular states, especially Western Australia. These respondents thought that the SAP process would be sufficient and representation adequate if all nominated panel members attended.

We have one woman who year after year who doesn't turn up and because she is set on the SAP we therefore miss out on that contribution. It is a local government voice/perspective that she would be representing that is absent. If there is one no show, and no excuse, they should be off the SAP and get someone in who is committed to doing it. (Regional Coastcare Facilitator)

A second critical element, especially for states with lengthy and remote coastlines, was the issue of geographical representation of panel members, raised by 10 respondents. This is especially so for indigenous issues and representatives.

We don't have representation from all the regions, so for instance [in one particular facilitator's] area there is no one there [on SAP] who can talk for those projects. Where as for my area, there are quite a few people who can pipe up and say: 'I've been there, I can tell you about this'. That is really unfair. As good as it is for me here, because people know the project, [the other facilitator] has to really speak for [their] projects because people haven't seen the sites. So we really need to address that in the SAP. (Regional Coastcare Facilitator)

Bias in panel deliberations was raised as an issue by 19 respondents (11%). There were several explanations as to how bias was introduced. Parochialism and strong and influential personalities had the capacity to sway the opinions of other members. Alternatively, quiet, non-contributing members also led to an inequitable outcome:

[Selecting a project is] at the whim of opinion and not based in reality. Someone on the panel can have an opinion based on I don't know what and it can have a big influence. I've noticed that a lot. I don't know, it could be based on anything. Everyone then rates [the project] low, but it may be a bloody good project, even when its rated well at Technical Assessment Panel. Then it hits SAP and its more political. [The SAP] has a bigger say. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

But some people on the SAP run their own agendas and perhaps don't have much idea about other areas but are vocal and come up with a convincing argument and sway the panel based on some questionable evidence. The loudest or most persuasive person can sway the argument. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

3.2.1.10 Protocol and ranking systems

Each state had a different style of assessing and ranking individual projects. The factors in common were that all processes were lengthy, involved and time consuming. Twenty-nine of the 44 respondents (66%) who were asked about the degree of success of the SAP process in selecting suitable projects for funding, thought it was either 'very successful' or 'successful'. These choices were made

on the basis of having had 'confidence in the process', that the process 'was democratic', 'the best it could be', 'clear' and because 'everyone's views were considered'. Strengths of the selection process included 20 people's comments about the rigour (the technical assessments feeding into the SAP and careful consideration of each application by the SAP) with which individual projects were assessed and as a result that, on the whole, good projects were selected and poor applications not:

I'm pretty happy with the process. I think the projects for the large part are self selecting. In other words the role of the facilitators is absolutely critical in getting good projects and for the most part have a hands on role working with groups and putting managers together. I would say that 85-90% of projects are on the mark - are good projects at all sorts of levels. From those who are just sort of dabbling their toes for the first time to those groups who have had projects for three or four years or more and know the system, know how to play the game and just do excellent work. That proportion of projects are just fine. The others are weeded out pretty quickly. The process is appropriate for that. (State Coastcare Coordinator)

Despite this general feeling of success, several aspects of the process were identified as weaknesses, including:

- a lack of protocol for making decisions
- a lack of knowledge of panel members on coastal issues
- the uncertainty of the facilitator role during panel deliberations and
- the narrow range of projects selected for funding.

Seventeen respondents (10%) felt that decisions had been made without due process, and that a strategic and big picture view of the Program was absent. These people felt that there needed to be clearer criteria for selection.

I suspect a lot of SAP members are not exactly clear of their role, and what, and how they should be prioritising projects, and how they should be deciding between what's eligible and what's ineligible. I'm not sure what the best way to get around that might be. I suspect it comes down to capacity building. ...There is no real consistent mechanism or formula for prioritising. (Commonwealth Coastcare Manager)

That group [the panel] needs to get together more than just being sent a box of applications 2 or 3 weeks before the panel and expecting to sit down there and make sound decisions. A number of those members have not been given a brief about what is Coastcare, what is the objective of Coastcare. What are we trying to achieve with our projects. We need to get those people together and train them up lift their capacity of the objectives, what they'd like to see that can be done, prior to a panel, and then a debrief a week or two after the panel to review what they have done. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

3.2.1.11 Lack of knowledge of coastal issues

Even though the actual process itself might have been rated highly, 20 respondents (12%) felt that some SAP members may not have had adequate experience in coastal management or knowledge of the regions they were assessing.

The drawback is that the SAP members may not have a very good knowledge of regional issues. Which is something that has got on everyone's nerves, I think. Just because these people, at the end of the day, can make a decision, they can recommend a project for funding. Even so, they don't have a clue of what the community is like or even what the area is like. I am generalising but I would say that several of them are unaware of the local issues. (Regional Coastcare Facilitator)

There was not enough technical expertise on the SAP. There may have been some people who held reasonably executive positions but there were also people like local counsellors and different people who didn't know much about what they were talking about. They had to be there for community reasons and political reasons and I don't think that's the right way to go. (Regional Coastcare Facilitator)

3.2.1.12 The role of facilitators in the selection process'

A contentious issue, and one treated rather differently in each state, was the degree of input facilitators should have had during SAP deliberations. The facilitators had intimate knowledge of the applications, locations and groups submitting but they were strictly only supposed to offer comment, upon being asked by the panel, for clarification. In some states facilitators had increased their input over time and opinions were divided about the appropriateness of this:

In the [SAPs] I went to this year, a couple of things that disturbed me were chairpersons letting facilitators speak for projects and in [one state] actually letting them advocate for them, and persuade SAP to fund them. One facilitator being particularly successful at that. It was a worry and they should have been told facilitators can only give factual information and that's it. (Commonwealth Coastcare Manager)

The first [SAP] I went to I got screamed at by the boss because we were not allowed to speak and I just couldn't stop. But since that one (and that's three) the facilitators have been asked to speak on the group and the project. That is unofficial. We are not supposed to still but it has happened as part of the process. I know I've had no mean role in that. I really feel like I couldn't sit there and listen to our chairman make comments that weren't true (he thought they were true). You have to balance the facilitator input. The facilitator has always been seen as neutral. It is a difficult decision. The assessment panel should recognise that the facilitators have the knowledge of both the group and the project to assist the panel. It doesn't mean we have to put a score down. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

As some of the facilitators pointed out, they were the ones who had to work with the groups and projects after the SAP decisions had been made and perhaps there should have been the opportunity for them to advocate for or against decisions made upon inadequate information.

Too many 'bad' projects get up because of the limited expertise and knowledge of panel members. This then leaves facilitators in the difficult position of assisting with the implementation of 'bad' projects. (Regional Coastcare Facilitator)

3.2.1.13 Federal selection

The purpose of the panels was to assess whether applications met the desired criteria set out in the Coastcare MoU and specific State/Territory regional coastal policy. Once the panel had assessed each application it forwarded its recommendations to the relevant State/Territory Minister, who forwarded the advice and recommended proposals for funding to the Natural Heritage Ministerial Board through the Commonwealth Environment Minister. Successful applicants were sent a management agreement and received their grant once the agreement had been completed and lodged with the State/Territory administering agency. This process was clearly rather convoluted and time consuming, an issue raised prominently as a constraint to Coastcare.

3.2.1.14 Length of process

Responding to the question that asked of the challenges faced by Coastcare, 39 respondents (23% of all respondents) cited the delay encountered by community groups between the time they first lodged their applications to when they received money to commence project work, as a burden of the Program. The lag was problematic because groups reportedly became despondent whilst waiting and some disbanded before funds were made available. The delay between application submission and funding announcement made project planning difficult:

The down side [to the grant scheme] is the time delay in groups finding out whether they've got their grant. Last year it was over 10 months between when groups had put the application in and then found out if they were successful or not. I have groups receive their cheque and they ring me and see what their grant was. They've forgotten. It takes a lot to get people fired up to do the application and then by the time it comes through all that power and energy is gone or people have dropped away. Or the cheque is sent to the secretary and they're not there any more so the group doesn't exist any more and the cheque comes back. That's happened to a \$20,000 grant, and the coffers have gone back into the system. (Regional Coastcare Facilitator)

The time lapse between grant application, approval and actual funds being made available needs to be reduced. Long delays tend to negatively affect public enthusiasm and also interfere with project planning. For example, the tree-planting season in tropical regions is the wet season (December to April) and ground preparation starts in November. Grant applications have been lodged in July 2001 with the expectation that funding would be available by November 2001. However, project funding had not been approved by April 2002, effectively putting the project on hold for 12 months to start in November 2002. (Local Coastal Land Manager)

The issue of protracted approvals was raised by the Australian National Audit Office in their assessment of Landcare (quoted in Curtis [2000]), who suggested that the approvals process was too lengthy and unnecessarily bureaucratic. Their suggestion was to leave the assessment to regional committees of management, utilising local area management plans; a plausible concept under the emphasis of regionalisation of NHT II.

3.2.1.15 Federal hi-jacking

After such a lengthy and in-depth assessment at the state level, there was consternation, from 13 respondents, over the fact that final decisions were then made at the Commonwealth level by the Federal Minister. Projects supported by state panels were sometimes rejected by the Minister, with little explanation by him as to why such projects were not considered worthy of funding. Table 3.6, collated from data derived upon request from the state Coastcare coordinators, shows that there was a number of readjustments made to SAP decisions by the Commonwealth Minister.

Often when the applications go down to Canberra, they go into a black box. You have no idea. It is not treated fairly. Often [applications] not recommended [by state SAP] get up [at the federal level]! [I] would like the chance to revise the federal selection. Often you can't explain to the group why they didn't get funding (State Coastcare co-ordinator).

Everyone knows there is little Commonwealth government process once projects leave SAP. Decisions are made at the Ministers office. Hence there is little feedback from Environment Australia staff because they are out of the main loop. Environment Australia staff should be brought back into the process. (State Assessment Panel Member)

Table 3.6: Comparison of SAP selection and Commonwealth Adjustments

State	Applications	SAP rated successful applications	Commonwealth Rejected
NSW	1053	540	11
VIC	973	506	12
QLD	562	331	**
WA	496	310	2
SA	561	414	6
TAS	335	37	70
NT	49		-

Source: data derived for this thesis, State Coastcare coordinators data sets, 2003

**These figures were not available

In Tasmania's case the large numbers of rejections from Commonwealth were based on the understanding that the state had insufficient funds. Reasons provided by the Minister for rejecting SAP approved Coastcare applications included: not wanting to fund project officer positions, projects applied for were the responsibility of another agency, and the lack of clear outcomes.

3.2.1.16 SAP Feedback and Evaluation

In many states SAP members remained consistent over time. Respondents made comments that such panels became experienced with the selection process and developed as teams. Despite this experience and consistency, one of the most pressing issues raised during the survey, was that the various SAP panels received no feedback about Coastcare's performance on a state-wide basis from one panel meeting to the next. Some states produced newsletters that were sent to their SAP, presenting articles about particular projects, but on the whole there was little analysis of projects nor group performance. The most consistent feedback provided was the list of projects approved at the prior panel, and only Northern Territory and Victoria provided that information before the convening of the following SAP. During SAP deliberations feedback was provided about proponents who had received grants previously and on their progress. Such information was provided in numerous ways and again differed in formality and between states: some SAPs relied on immediate facilitators comments, and some on technical assessment reports. Coupled with the issue of facilitators contributing to panel discussion only when asked, this lack of review of previous works is a flaw of the SAP process. The state coordinators, regional Coastcare facilitators and SAP members were asked for this study whether they thought the information presented to SAP members regarding previous decisions and outcomes from previous grant rounds was sufficient. Of the 85 people who answered this question, 60 (71%) said that feedback for SAP members was inadequate.

I think [SAP] feedback has been one of our greatest shortcomings as managers of the process. The SAP hasn't had that feedback and I think that would be the greatest shortcoming from a co-ordinator or management role that we have had. I think they need much greater feedback and it doesn't mean necessarily mean doing field trips. (State Coastcare coordinator)

But all of the people that attended the SAP, non of them will get a letter from me until next year when I ask them if they are available again to do it on such and such a date. I don't think that feedback is adequate. (State Coastcare coordinator)

Twelve of the 85 respondents (14%), suggested that an overview of the previous years' Coastcare activity would have been beneficial. Suggested issues included that they would have liked to know about the general progress of projects over a year: project completions from previous rounds, regional perspectives (including financial amounts spent), and importantly how and if Coastcare was meeting regional coastal management strategies. Twenty of the 85 respondents (24%) said they wanted to know how individual groups had fared and what projects were successful, and reasons for why others struggled. One SAP respondent said they would like

Feedback on projects that get funded i.e. the actual outcomes they achieve. Focussed (i.e. to SAP) feedback on best and worst projects and why. Information on a Website? Need to discuss PROBLEMS as well as good news. (State Assessment Panel member, respondent's emphasis)

3.2.1.17 Number of projects completed

Coastcare projects were funded on the basis that they would be completed within the year of receiving their grant, or in an approved staged process (Commonwealth of Australia 2000: 6). However, Figure 3.12 indicates that in most states less than one half of all Coastcare projects funded since 1995/96 were completed in 1999/2000. South Australia and Victoria were the exception.

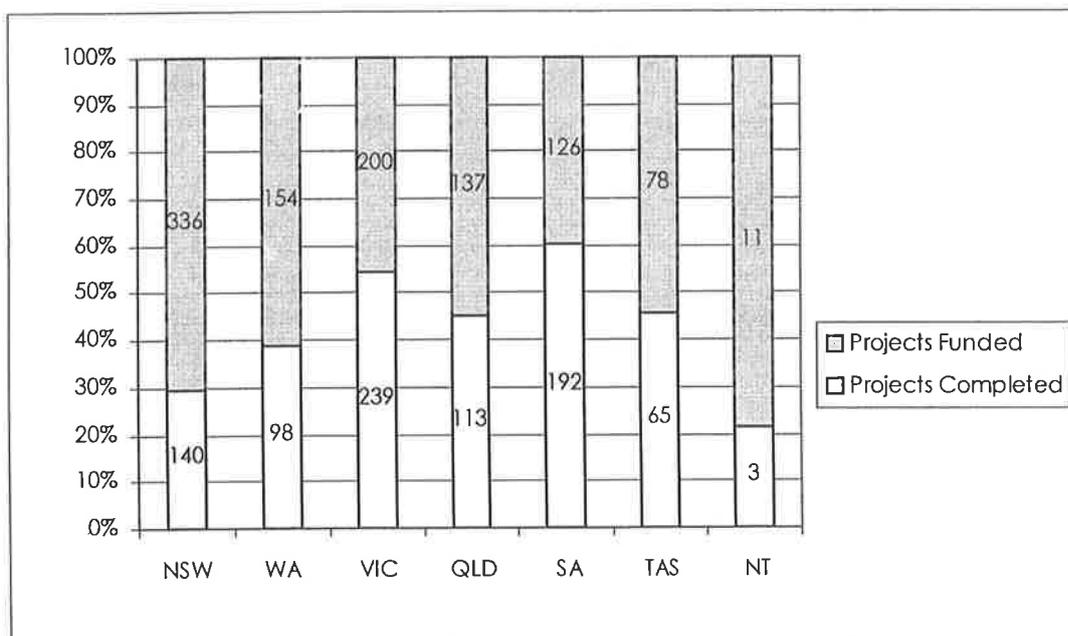


Figure 3.12: Coastcare, number of funded and completed projects by State/Territory 1995/96 – 1999/2000

Source: Statistical analysis – this thesis; raw data derived from Commonwealth Coastcare data set, dated 20/6/01

It may be that the greater proportion of projects funded for less than \$5,000 were easier for groups to complete.

Between 1995/1996 and 1999/2000, South Australia was the most successful in completing projects with 60% or 192 of the 318 projects signed off. Of Victoria's 439 funded projects, 239 or 54% were signed off and final reports produced. Tasmania and Queensland had completed 45% of all funded projects. New South Wales, Western Australia and Northern Territory had completed less than 40% of their funded projects. The year long duration for Coastcare projects proved difficult to enforce. The main thrust of Coastcare in 2000/2001 was to finalise outstanding projects ready for the roll over into the next phase of the Coastcare program in light of the end of its funding provision.

The other thing I guess is that the fact that they are year long projects and predominantly here they are rehab projects and you can't get a quick fix in one year. It actually takes quite a few years. With other NHT programs they can have say 3 years for running a project and having it in just one year means that rarely are people able to complete the project within one year. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Given that the majority of Coastcare projects were not completed within the one year duration set for them, an investigation into the average length of time projects have taken would be useful. Projects designed around political funding cycles do not seem to have taken into account the social and physical difficulties that cropped up for volunteer groups. More realistic time frames for groups undertaking coastal management activities seems appropriate:

and sometimes problems come up and it takes years for the project to be done and [the group] don't report on the grant and people get sick of it and quit being the president of the group. They are the sort of issues that happen with grants. It is quite a big responsibility for a group that is keen about protecting their bit of coast, to get actually get a grant and do the project and report on it. (Commonwealth Coastcare Manager)

[The coordinator] always wanted to make sure the projects finished on or before the time. Which hardly ever happened. I always had to point out to that these were community groups putting in their own volunteer time. They're not getting paid and you've got to give them a little bit of lee-way to achieve some of these goals. It was technically true, they had signed off on contracts agreeing to be bound by the conditions of the contract, but circumstances change a lot within groups. You get a change in members, people have other responsibilities, things crop up in their lives they need to address, and it gets difficult to meet those time frames they thought they'd achieve when they put in their applications. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

South Australia and Victoria had the best record for project completion; these two states funded the majority of projects valued below \$5,000. Western Australia and

New South Wales had the majority of incomplete projects. These two states funded the majority of projects valued over \$20,000. This suggests a logical correlation. Groups in receipt of modest grants were likely to be tackling manageable tasks, and are therefore more able to successfully complete their projects.

3.2.2 Who was participating in Coastcare?

The only routinely collected data about the characteristics of participants over time was the 'primary applicant' signature on the application form. Classification of groups as per the application forms is depicted in Table 3.7. Figure 3.13 shows that 'local community groups' were the most numerous and successful applicants for Coastcare grants, accounting for more than two thirds of successful Coastcare applicants between 1996 and 2000. Local Government, Indigenous groups and Non Government Organisations between them accounted for a further 22% of participating groups. State Government Agencies, Regional Organisations and the education sector accounted for the remaining 8% of participating Coastcare groups.

Table 3.7: Classification of groups participating in Coastcare

Type of Group	Characteristics/Examples
Community	Voluntary, bottom-up and community-led e.g. locally based Coastcare, Landcare, Dunecare, and Bushcare groups, local environment management groups, life saving clubs.
Indigenous	Land councils, community corporations.
Non-Government Organisation	Organisations that go beyond voluntary community participation, in that they have paid staff who are professional lobbyists i.e. Surfrider Foundation and Conservation Councils.
State Government Agencies	National Parks, Fisheries, Environment and Heritage, Museums, EPA
Regional Organisations	Not always community groups and quite often have paid staff but have responsibility for some aspect of natural resource management in their region i.e. A committee of management or a catchment coordinating group.
Education Sector	Primary and Secondary Schools, and Tertiary Institutions.

Source: (Commonwealth of Australia 1999)

3.2.2.1 The Coastcare community

Estimates based on the average group size indicated that some 60,000 people were engaged in the Program (Commonwealth of Australia 2002). The NHT Annual Review for 2000-01 states that Coastcare established nearly 2000 groups nationally (Commonwealth of Australia 2002). It is difficult to establish the numbers of

groups that aligned themselves with Coastcare because the only records kept were for groups in receipt of grant funds. A key indicator of Coastcare's success was that there were groups who continued to work under the banner of Coastcare but were financially self sufficient:

We have a reasonable proportion I'd say like 50% of groups, maybe more, going on to doing works. Having a sense of ownership or stewardship over their local patch, regardless of whether they have Coastcare funding or not, and I don't think you could expect a lot more than that to be honest. (State Coastcare Coordinator)

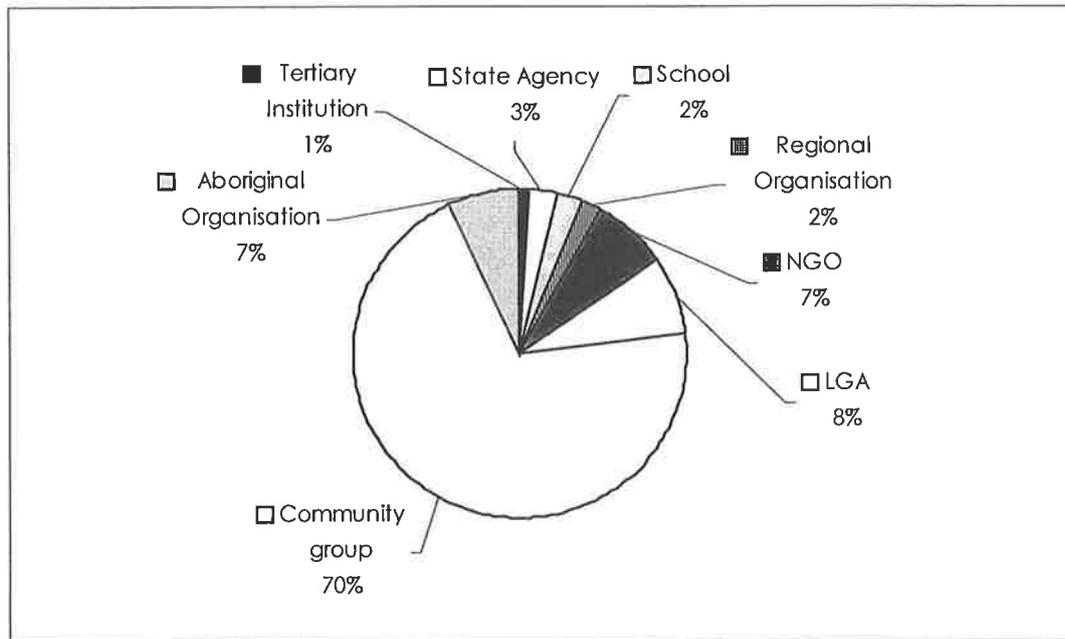


Figure 3.13: Groups participating in the Coastcare program, 1995/96 – 1999/2000

Source: Statistical analysis – this thesis; raw data derived from Commonwealth Coastcare data set, dated 20/6/01

These groups were hidden from the central data base, which only accounted for active grants. Once a project was completed and the management agreement signed off and acquitted, there was no formal tracking of the once participating group. Yet regional Coastcare facilitators remained in contact with such groups, continuing to offer them advice and support.

For example, some groups interested in revegetation works received only one grant and then became proficient at seed collecting. They no longer required funds to keep actively working on their site and kept in regular contact with the facilitator but they were lost from the books. These groups were the indicators of Coastcare's success in developing stewardship within the community. Future programs like Coastcare should take more concerted effort to trace the trends of group activity

because the nature of volunteering is not well understood yet it is vital to the continuation of the 'care' programs and an underlying philosophy of sustainable resource management. This is taken up in the discussion in Chapter Four.

A comparison of primary applicants across the states and the Northern Territory revealed that Western Australia accounted for more than half of all 'local government' (66 groups) and 'State Government Agency' (24 groups) applicants. Queensland had almost one third of all indigenous Coastcare applicants (36 projects) which might have indicated that the specialist indigenous facilitator was making a difference. A broad range of community groups demonstrated interest in the Program:

Evidenced by the wide range of groups that apply for grants - schools, local governments, volunteers, fisheries officers, board-riders, 4WD clubs, bird observers, church groups; resident progress associations; aboriginal communities etc etc etc.
(State Assessment Panel Member)

The strongest thing is that public interest is definitely continuing. There is new interest all the time. We're not just dealing with old staid groups. We've got lively new groups and lively old groups. (Regional Coastcare Facilitator)

Numbers of community groups, NGOs, regional organisations, schools and tertiary institutions as primary applicants remained constant over time. However, there was a noticeable decline in three applicant groups: state agencies, local government and indigenous groups. The number of state agencies, as primary applicants, dropped from 16 in 1996/97 to 4 in 1999/2000. Local government similarly declined, falling from 44 in 1996/1997 to 19 in 1999/2000. This may have been on account of more stringent rulings during SAP, as the primary focus was on community involvement. The SA Fishing Industry Council was the only industry body to have lodged 3 Coastcare applications. Interestingly, a member of that Council had membership on the South Australian SAP.

Numerous Coastcare groups applied for grants over consecutive years and many received multiple grants in one funding round. The national Coastcare database revealed that 23 groups applied for Coastcare funds and received them for each of the four funding rounds between 1996 and 2000. A further 63 groups received funding for three of the four funding rounds between 1996 and 2000 (not necessarily in consecutive years), showing that the Coastcare program successfully sustained interest in coastal management for various local groups for the duration

of the Program. One hundred and fifty two Coastcare groups received three or more Coastcare grants. Thirty-Two groups received five or more grants. In 1996/97 18 groups were successful in gaining three or more grants for that year. This trend has dwindled with time. In 1999/2000 only five groups received three or more grants. This may suggest that multiple grants (more than 3) for one group were hard to sustain.

Indigenous Coastcare posed an issue worthy of greater attention. Even though there were provisions within the MoU reinforcing the value of indigenous involvement in the Program, 22 respondents (13%) were dissatisfied with low the numbers of indigenous groups participating.

There should be a greater emphasis on indigenous Coastcare. That is largely under represented and untapped at this stage, even though Coastcare has tried to involve indigenous communities, and we have an indigenous facilitator in QLD I suspect there is a huge potential for further involvement of indigenous communities and an increase in the number of indigenous facilitators. (Commonwealth Coastcare Manager)

Lack of understanding by coastal managers of ATSI people, culture and issues meant in many places the Program did not encourage indigenous participation. Many ATSI communities had low numeracy and literacy which, despite the concessions within the Coastcare MoU, reportedly influenced their participation:

The forms are particularly difficult and some [ATSI] groups just don't have the skills to be able to handle them ... NHT application forms are a nightmare. Unless there is an astute town clerk they chucked in the bin. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

I would particularly like to see some coordinated approach to indigenous issues - possibly even a slightly different application process to make it easier for communities. The key is to talk with representative land management bodies like land councils about this - especially across the Top End - e.g. Northern Land Council in Northern Territory, Balkanu in Queensland, Kimberley Land Council in Western Australia. (State Assessment Panel Member)

Increasing ATSI participation was one aspect of Coastcare that indicated the need for readjustment for future grant program design. Changing the application process, increasing the representation of indigenous interests during project selection and increasing the number of indigenous facilitators in northern Australia were some suggestions. The long time delay between application and receipt of funds was cited as particularly detrimental to indigenous applicants:

the fact that it took close to 18 months once an application went in until the community group saw the funds. This does not work in Indigenous communities. A number of communities saw the person who applied for the grant simply move on. Indigenous communities usually have maybe two or three or in some cases one person who is the shaker and mover. That person often burns themselves out within

two years. The community is then left with the monies, and with no-one really interested in fulfilling the project. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Where there were dedicated staff to work alongside indigenous Coastcare communities (in Queensland and the Northern Territory), results were favourable:

[One of the strengths of Coastcare has been] community involvement, the [indigenous] people actively looking after country, in collaboration with the government in Indigenous communities. I think it has helped to build very healthy relationships between Aboriginal people and Government, both local and State governments. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

[Coastcare has contributed to coastal management in this area by] providing opportunities for groups such as Buttingarra Aboriginal Corporation to be involved in coastal works projects which in turn have provided the framework for young Aboriginal people to learn new skills and craftsmanship in protection works. This has greatly assisted council in the identification and completion of works that are in many cases extra to council's core works. It has been particularly useful in provision of financial assistance. (Local coastal land manager)

3.2.2.2 Coastcare local coastal land managers

The primary applicant (a member of the Coastcare group) and manager responsible for land on which the Coastcare project was to be carried out had to submit Coastcare project applications jointly. The local land management representative had to co-sign the application and make a declaration that the agency was supportive of the project presented and was 'willing to have on-ground work described in [the] application carried out on the land it control[ed]' (Commonwealth of Australia 2000: 10). Similarly, the Coastcare group (as primary applicant) and the local land manager had to co-sign the final report which detailed whether the original objectives had been met. Local council representatives most frequently signed as the land coastal manager responsible for the land on which Coastcare projects took place. This is shown by Figure 3.14. Table 3.8 shows that local government was the principle land manager signing Coastcare applications. Crown land managers on the coast in Victoria comprised a combination of local government, local committees of management, Parks Victoria and the Environment Department. The land tenure of the Northern Territory was significantly different to the states, with the majority of coastal land in traditional ownership. This was reflected in the implementation of Coastcare in the Northern Territory where indigenous owners were most frequently signed as land manager.

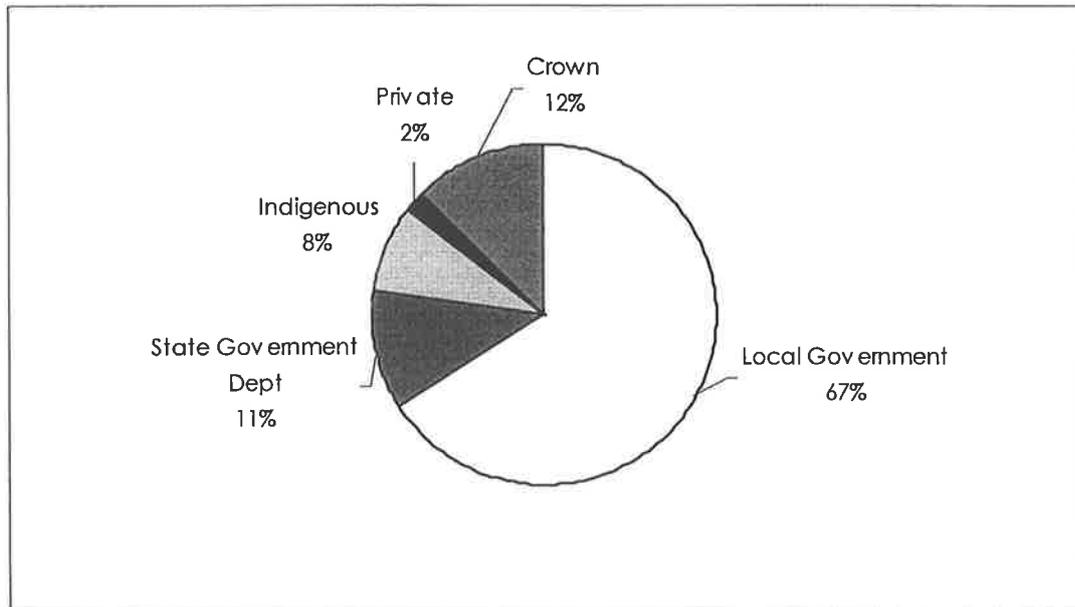


Figure 3.14: Land managers co-signing Coastcare applications

Source: Statistical analysis – this thesis; raw data derived from Coastcare national State Coordinators questionnaire, See Appendix 4.

Table 3.8: Land Managers of Coastcare Projects, by State, 1995/96 to 1999/2000

	NSW	VIC	QLD	WA	SA	TAS	NT	Total
Local Govt	87	56	102	102	120	46	4	517
State Govt. Agency	18	10	9	18	14	16	2	87
Indigenous	18	-	21	1	13	4	8	65
Private	1	2	1	2	8	1	1	16
Crown	13	55	3	19	-	7	-	97

Source: Statistical analysis – this thesis; raw data derived from Coastcare national State Coordinators questionnaire, See Appendix 4.

Table 3.9 shows the numbers of coastal councils within each state and their degree of involvement in Coastcare. The figures suggest that a considerable number of Councils were involved in the Program.

3.2.3 Facilitation and support

The value of Coastcare grants was reinforced through the provision of the regional Coastcare facilitator network. Community groups undertaking projects were supported by Coastcare's modest staffing structure at Commonwealth, state and local levels. The Commonwealth provided a central co-ordinating role, bridging the gap between government policy makers and the regional staff implementing the goals of the Program.

Table 3.9: Local Councils Participating in Coastcare

State/Territory	Number of Local Coastal Councils	Number of coastal councils signed as Land Manager	% of Local Coastal Councils signed as Land Manager
NSW	43	39	93
VIC	22	20	91
QLD	36	**	**
WA	47	44	94
SA*	37	30	81
TAS	24	24	100
NT	29	8	28

Source: Statistical analysis – this thesis; raw data derived from Coastcare national State Coordinators questionnaire, See Appendix 4.

*council amalgamations reduced the number of coastal councils from 42 to 37 in SA

**Information not available

The Commonwealth provided a national perspective and point of contact for Coastcare and was responsible for bringing the network together annually, maintaining the central database of activity and assessing national progress of the Program. State level Coastcare staff comprised a State co-ordinator who managed the regional facilitators. Co-ordinators were responsible for applying the objectives of Coastcare, guiding facilitators, linking the Program to broader coastal management initiatives and reviewing their particular State/Territory Coastcare activities. Some states had a high turnover of co-ordinators. Western Australia had 5 in 18 months and Queensland and South Australia experienced a significant number of changes in coordinator over time.

It is the 30 regional Coastcare facilitators who had the greatest contact with community groups. The facilitators' tasks included assisting community groups complete application forms for Coastcare funding; providing advice to community groups on best practice coastal management; facilitating communication and co-operation within and between community interest groups, industries, local government and government agencies; and advising on and coordinating activities funded under the Coastcare Program within their region.

Figure 3.15 shows the numerous regional divisions of the Coastcare program and the staffing arrangements for each State and the Territory. The number of regional

facilitators and length of coastline to which they were assigned varied considerably between States. Victoria maintained the staff from its CoastAction program, running prior to Coastcare, and so appears to be more generously staffed than other States.

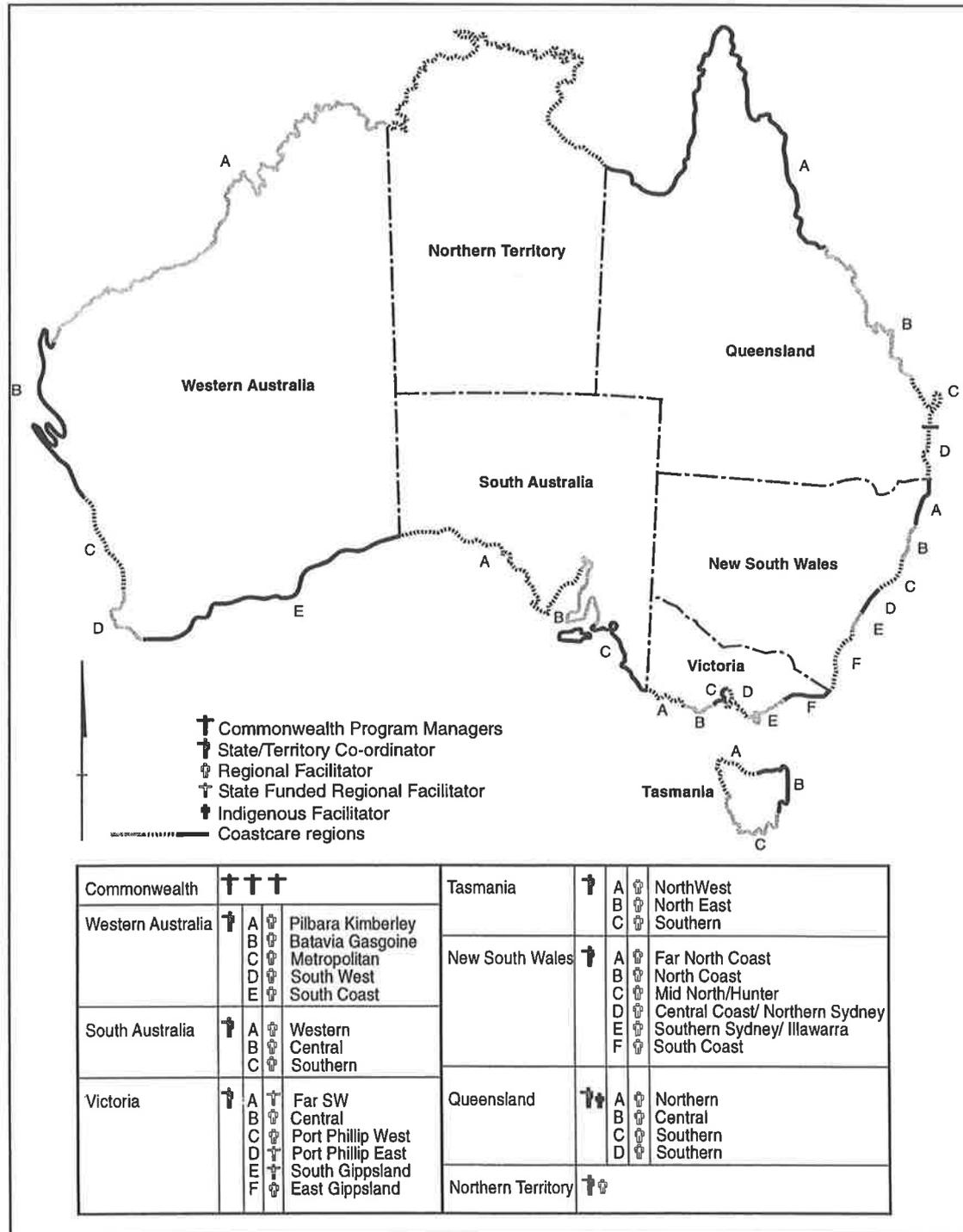


Figure 3.15: Coastcare regions and staff structure
Source: This thesis.

Queensland appointed a specialist indigenous facilitator to show the potential benefits of Coastcare and to encourage Aboriginal groups to apply for grants.

The regional staff of Coastcare were 'hosted' by either local government or State/Territory government agencies. Western Australia was the exception, with one industry body hosting a regional facilitator. Agencies hosting facilitators were responsible for providing administrative management, including office space, facilities and motor vehicles. Host organisations in each State/Territory were selected in one of two ways. In each Coastcare region host agencies were determined either by consultation 'between participants', or by a selection panel of State government agencies and local government, on the basis of expressions of interest.

In addition to supporting groups through the grants program, many regional Coastcare facilitators were more widely involved in other coastal management, education and training and strategic matters. Some facilitators independently ran conferences and training workshops (these included regional forums or accredited short courses such as coastal rehabilitation techniques and coastal conservation). 'Summer Activities' programs, designed to promote Coastcare and increase awareness about coastal environments, were run during the summer months in some of states (New South Wales, Victoria and parts of the Western Australian coast). These activities would not have happened without the drive and involvement of the regional Coastcare facilitator teams. They played a central role in organising educational initiatives including photographic/art and poetry competitions (like the national 'Exposing the Coast' initiative). The facilitators promoted the Coastcare program through joint involvement with other festivals (such as the 'Sea dragon Festival' in Western Australia; Environment Festivals in Tasmania) and awareness Days or Weeks (such as 'Ocean Care Day', 'Sea-grass awareness Day', 'Coastal processes Day', 'Clean-up Day' and 'Weedbuster Week').

3.2.3.1 Growth of coastal management networks

The regional Coastcare facilitators played an important role in linking the Coastcare Program to broader environmental arenas and planning and management

frameworks. For example, the majority of Coastcare facilitators were members or representatives on various management committees including coastal advisory committees, coastal reference groups, steering committees developing coastal management strategies, catchment management boards, regional environment management committees, state coastal management committees, coastal environment networks and steering committees of numerous marine and coastal programs. They played a critical function, directly exchanging information between the Coastcare community and the wider coastal management forums.

The regional Coastcare facilitators are like nodes in the framework. They have dialogue between each other regularly - so they provide a network across the whole State. What they find in their individual regions i.e. methods of controlling 4W drives; the way they have been successful or not, the stories shared with the other regional Coastcare facilitators, helps feed down to the community groups...The facilitators can act as a conduit of information to and from groups. So having regional Coastcare facilitators is part of that integrated information that enhances our strategic planning framework. (State coastal manager)

The facilitators are well regarded in the community. A program is only as good as the people driving it, and with Coastcare the facilitators are a great asset and champion for effective community participation and coastal management. (Local coastal land manager)

The majority of facilitators interviewed for this study were employed by Coastcare for more than two years. With the impending changes to Coastcare and the transition from NHT I to NHT II and lack of confidence in facilitator positions being held over, there was significant staff turnover in Coastcare, shown in Table 3.10 below. Tasmania and the Northern Territory are the only places to have the same team, coordinator and facilitators, since the Program's inception. Tasmania is the more notable because it was established from the Program's outset in 1995.

Table 3.10: Staff turnover 2000-2002

State	Number of coordinators holding position between 2000-2002	Number of Regional Coastcare facilitators positions	Number of facilitators leaving Coastcare between 2000-2002
NSW	1	6	2
VIC	1	6	5
QLD	2	5	8
WA	5	5	2
SA	3	3	2
TAS	1	3	-
NT	1	1	-

Source: This thesis

3.2.4 *Coastcare educational activities*

According to survey results, a significant contribution by Coastcare to coastal management was its educative role and raising awareness of coastal management issues, both within the community and within government. Over half of all respondents (56%; n=98) cited Coastcare's awareness raising contribution as a key strength or contribution of the Program. Coastcare's role in environmental education contributed to a greater understanding by community about coastal processes, coastal management arrangements and government processes. Local management agencies, too, reportedly benefited from promotional materials produced for Coastcare, and through involvement with facilitators. Coastcare achieved this in two key ways. First, directly involving groups in project work: providing training and facilitator support and second, reaching out to the broader community, those who were not actively engaged in project work, through media campaigns and initiatives like 'Coastcare Week' and 'Summer Activities' programs.

[A strength of Coastcare has been its role in creating] a significant increase of awareness about natural processes in coastal areas. LGA officers have gained increased understanding of the public perceptions about coastal values. The projects have focused LGA's attention and efforts on areas that require more active management (Local Coastal Land Manager)

The Coastcare network was involved in many initiatives over and above individual Coastcare project consultation and management:

I guess I did want to reiterate the education awareness raising part of the Program as vital. People tend to think of it as a grants program or a grants program with facilitators; just out there helping existing community groups participating in coastal management, and not the other part of our role, which is trying to change behaviour within the wider community. The general public of Australia, or in my case, Victoria. I think that role is really important and who knows what is going to happen next year. A lot of discussion has been happening around regionally accredited plans and facilitators and grants. I have no idea of what is going to happen to the awareness raising side of Coastcare. We're getting better at it and I would hate to see it dropped completely. (State Coastcare Coordinator)

The awareness raising initiatives of Coastcare are described in detail in the following sections.

3.2.4.1 *'Coastcare Week'*

'Coastcare Week' was held in the first week of summer each year with the purpose of drawing attention to particular coastal management issues. Simple messages provided information for the public about how to care for their coast. 'Coastcare Week' received extensive media exposure and was used as an opportunity to

encourage the establishment of new groups and get the general public involved in coastal management activities. Each 'Coastcare Week' had a particular theme, listed in Table 3.11.

3.2.4.2 The Coastcare 'Summer Activities' program

Coastcare 'Summer Activities' programs were designed for the general public visiting the coast during peak holiday season and were largely state initiated Coastcare events. Victoria, New South Wales and part of Western Australia were the only states to take part. Figure 3.16 is an example of the logo Western Australia used to market the concept. Hundreds of educational coastal activities, largely coordinated by the facilitators, were designed to engage beach goers and holiday makers in events such as: interpretation walks, rock pool rambles, and best practice fishing clinics.

Table 3.11: Coastcare Week themes

Year	Coastcare Week Theme	Central Message
1997	Ferals on the Fringe	Alerted attention to introduced marine pests such as the
1998	Turning the Tide	Promoted conservation of rocky, intertidal reefs
1999	Have a Coastcare Holiday	Reminded beach goers to take note of their coastal surround and to treat it with respect
2000	Save our Shorebirds	Alerted attention to habitats of shorebirds
2001	Afloat and Aware	Warned of the hazards of ocean based litter
2002	Threatened Marine Species	Drew attention to currently endangered marine species and their habitats

Source: Compiled from Environment Australia website, 2003

The financial state contributions to Summer Activities' are as follows:

- New South Wales: supported summer activities in 2001/2002 with \$30,000 funding from the Department of Land and Water Conservation
- Victoria supported summer activities in 2001/2002 with \$65,000 from Department of Natural Resources and the Environment
- Western Australia supported summer activities with in 2001/2002 with \$23, 000 from the Department for Planning and Infrastructure

3.2.4.2 Coastcare festivals and regional conferences

Coastcare in Tasmania coordinated a state coastal conference in 2001, 'The Cutting Edge – What's the Future for our Coast?', with the aim of bringing coastal managers stakeholders together. The conference was well attended and was envisaged to become an annual event. Some individual facilitators in the other states have convened regional conferences.



Figure 3.16: Western Australia's Summer Activities logo, 2001

Source: Western Australia Summer Festival promotion material, state Coastcare Coordinator

3.2.4.3 Training

Facilitators in most states ran short course training programs for community groups and local land managers about best practice coastal management. In Victoria each facilitator received a \$6,000 training budget for Coastcare facilitators to run educational workshops or professional training programs for groups on specific coastal management topics such as identifying coastal weeds. Tasmanian facilitators regularly ran short course programs which were open to local councils as well as community groups.

3.3 Conclusion

Among Coastcare's most substantial achievements was the significant volume of activity and creativity generated during its operation. This Chapter has shown that although the Program became truly national, with formal commitment and involvement of each of the states and the Northern Territory by 1998, its practice and outcomes were distinct around the country. Coastcare developed to become more than a grants program as a result of a combination of its design and the commitment and enthusiasm of the national team. The combination of the grants with its community education component and facilitator network created a robust

and successful means of bringing the community into coastal management in Australia.

Various elements necessary to keep the Program running (such as administration, the SAP panels and educational events) evolved over time within each of the states and the Northern Territory, while some differences were intrinsic features of the different locales (like population size and density). This analysis of the Commonwealth data set demonstrates the considerable contrasts in distribution of size of grants awarded and numbers of projects funded through Coastcare between states. Several factors influenced this variance. 'Matched' funds contributed by individual states differed considerably. Some states did not to meet the Commonwealth offer, while others provided more than that prescribed in the formal agreements. Distinctive SAP selection procedures also influenced patterns of funding allocation. In addition to variations in grant dispersal, three states financed substantial, additional educational components (summer activities), beyond their grant commitment, to enhance and encourage further community effort.

Other aspects of the Program showed more uniformity between states. For example, the type of activities groups were funded to undertake were nationally consistent, with a focus on beach access and vegetation (revegetation and weed removal) works. Planning, education and monitoring projects were far fewer, partly as a consequence of the Commonwealth requirement for visible, tangible outcomes for dollars spent. Other nationally consistent patterns were the primary applicants and local coastal managers co-signing project applications. The primary applicants were primarily voluntary, local environment groups while the local land managers mainly local council representatives; Northern Territory being the exception, where land tenure was unique.

While Coastcare was effective in generating activity and enthusiasm, reflection on its practice and functional aspects reveal some shortcomings. The remaining discussion elaborates some of these aspects which have the capacity to be transferred to newly established programs in the future, and are therefore worthy of consideration.

Data collection and use, especially by the Commonwealth Coastcare managers could have been more rigorous. The statistics collected detailing numbers of projects funded and types of projects undertaken, while essential for overview and auditing, were limited. There was a need to look deeper and to establish more rigorous criteria of success. Groups aligning themselves with Coastcare, but not in receipt of funds (they may simply be maintaining a site and not in need of financial support), were invisible. This group was a vital indicator, reflecting the outcome of one of Coastcare's objectives: engendering stewardship. Groups that continued to operate without funds, and call themselves 'Coastcare', were a marvellous example of the Program's success.

Delivery of Coastcare could be improved or modified on several fronts. The project selection process was criticised on several fronts. Anna Carr's study of Landcare and Waterwatch groups in Australia pointed to the need for closer scrutiny of regional assessment panels because 'most RAPs are closer to the top-down than they are reflecting bottom-up issues and priorities' (Carr 2002: 98). The SAP panel processes analysed in this chapter reflected similar constraints. SAP panels selecting Coastcare projects should have considered true representation of community groups, those having had some experience in running volunteer projects and of ATSI people. SAP panels were clearly influenced by the Commonwealth's directive, to support a narrow band of projects with visible and tangible outcomes. This resulted in SAPs being conservative in their deliberations, selecting projects they felt would be accepted by the Commonwealth Minister. Inflexible administration processes, whilst ensuring accountability for the spending of public money, did not necessarily support innovation. The nation-wide lack of feedback to SAPs regarding their decisions from year to year should have been addressed. It is important for such decision making bodies to be clear about issues facing groups undertaking projects, and of patterns of beneficial and successful projects as well as those which have failed. The role of the facilitators during the SAP process is also worthy of consideration. It appears their insight and local knowledge was withheld so as to not bias the decision making. If the purpose of the SAPs was to elect best and feasible projects then all available information should have been utilised to reach such decisions. The facilitators' knowledge was paramount in achieving this position.

There was an obvious fall in the numbers of groups applying for Coastcare grants and the numbers of projects being funded. Reasons for this decline should be closely considered given that the first phase of the Natural Heritage Trust has ended and Coastcare is jostling for position with other environmental programs for guaranteed funding. Onerous processes and lengthy administrative delays (of up to 9 months or more), which are out of the hands of interested and motivated groups, such as processing of grants (through SAPs and ministerial approval) were clearly problematic given the propensity for delays to deflate the initial passion communities demonstrated. Evidence of ongoing support from the communities Coastcare was designed to assist is essential. Streamlining application processes and volunteer reporting requirements is a necessary task for volunteer programs. Groups registered their discontent through facilitators and declined to reapply for grants.

The number of outstanding projects similarly needs to be addressed. Exploring the reasons why groups found it difficult to complete their projects within one year may shed light onto how better support volunteer groups working within these stringent reporting arrangements. Bureaucratic requirements did not always allow enough scope for the complexities of group dynamics and intermittent volunteer effort. It is often overlooked that voluntary efforts are fitted in around the complexities of people's lives.

Very limited information was collected nationally about the demographics and dynamics of volunteers working on Coastcare projects. Such information would have provided useful insight and better assisted administering agencies support and understand the evolution and function of community involvement. The collection of such data would have been another means of gauging success. For example the number of groups, on paper, may not seem to have been increasing but an increasing size within individual groups would have been a good indicator of growing community support.

The following Chapters of this thesis build upon this descriptive overview of Coastcare, exploring more deeply its role in encouraging community involvement and an integrated approach to coastal management.

Community participation in Coastcare: refining meaning and measuring success

Tell me and I'll forget;
Show me and I may remember;
Involve me and I'll understand
(cited in Campbell 1994: 93)

4.1 Introduction

Pursuit of sustainable approaches for natural resource management has broadly encouraged the involvement of local communities in planning for resource use (Ellsworth et al. 1997; Jorge 1997). Tobey and Volk (2002: 289) suggest that sustainable development is people-centred because 'emphasis is placed on partnerships between government, civil society, market actors and community empowerment'. In many countries, ocean and coastal environments are publicly owned, a contrast to inland communities, so it is considered that the public, as stakeholders, have the right to a key role in the management process (Claridge and Claridge 1997). Accordingly, community involvement in coastal management has been accepted and accelerated by the proliferation of ICM initiatives. Tobey and Volk (2002: 289) specify that 'ICM is organized through participatory and collaborative processes' and claim the development of practical expertise in participatory processes as a key contribution of ICM to date. There is a global trend toward increased community involvement in the coastal management process.

Experience around the world is building in community-based coastal management wherein the people who live and work in coastal areas and depend on these resources are enabled to take an active and responsible role and increasingly share planning and decision making responsibilities with government. (Hildebrand 1997b: 1)

The call for a central community role in the ICM process is reflected by key principles of international manifestos and forums, such as the Rio Declaration and UNCED's Agenda 21 (UNCED 1992b). Such documentation acknowledges and sanctions the role that local authorities and communities should play. Box 4.1 illustrates the dictum of various influential ICM documents stating the importance of community involvement.

The significant message accorded by these treaties is that communities (citizens) are included in 'decision-making'. The wording of such statements remains ambiguous, with the meaning of community, participation, decision-making and degree of involvement largely unexplained.

Box 4.1: Adoption of the philosophy of community participation in coastal management

Agenda 21 (UNCED Chapter 17, Objective 17.5 (f) - 1992

'Provide access, as far as possible, for concerned individuals, groups and organisations to relevant information and opportunities for consultation and participation in planning and decision-making at appropriate levels

Rio Declaration Principle 10

Environmental issues are best handled with the participation of all concerned citizens at the relevant level...[and that] each individual shall have ...the opportunity to participate in the decision making process.

Rio Declaration Principle 22

Local communities have a vital role in environmental management and development because of their knowledge and traditional practices. States should recognise and duly support their identity, culture and interests and enable their effective participation in the achievement of sustainable development.

Lisbon Declaration on implementation by local authorities of the Marine Chapter of Agenda 21 - 1993

Commitment to Co-operation and Assistance:

f) encourage incorporation of management and development, as well as environmental protection concerns and local planning issues, in educational 'curricula' and public awareness campaigns, having regard to traditional ecological knowledge and socio-cultural values

1993 World Coast Conference Report (IPCC 1993)

The implementation process of ICZM typically involves: providing for participation of private entities and the public; Statement on Building ICZM capacities: active support for local initiatives, exchange of practical and indigenous experiences and enhancement of public participation;

Source: (Hildebrand 1997a)

The extent to which communities (local people) are engaged in the ICM process varies considerably from place to place, and may mean nothing more than the general public being kept informed about decisions made at higher levels. It is not the intent here to denigrate the aspiration towards an informed public, but rather to suggest it is not the only means of engaging the community, and by no means the most empowering. This is discussed in detail in the following discussion. It is

unclear whether the acceptance of a community role in coastal management is rhetorical, as opposed to accomplished support (Hale 1996: 101). Evaluating the extent to which the public has been involved is a complex task because of the variation in interpretation of the term 'public involvement', and of what constitutes 'meaningful participation'. It is also difficult to establish what aspect of the decision-making process the public will be privy to. Appropriately engaging communities in natural resource management is a topic of debate amongst academics and practitioners and ongoing philosophising in terms of what is preferable and possible (for example: Conacher and Conacher 2000; Nursey-Bray 2000; Carr 2002).

The Coasts and Clean Seas MoU (1998) detailed the stated objectives of Coastcare and its desired outcomes. It is an example of a policy which inadequately articulated what was required or expected from participation. Box 4.2 details the specific aspects of the MoU that relate to participation. Coastcare was to 'provide opportunities' for the broadly defined community to 'participate in coastal management' and the outcome of this was to be measured by an increase in the level and 'effectiveness of community involvement in coastal management' (Commonwealth of Australia 1998). However, lacking is an explanation of what was anticipated for the community by such involvement nor how communities should have expected to be involved. There are no performance indicators to establish 'effectiveness' nor whether any of these outcomes were achieved.

4.2 What is 'participation'?

Despite wide appeal and adoption of the term 'participation', it is difficult to find a specific explanation for the expression. There are several terms in use which broadly refer to the concept of 'participation': consumer/public participation, citizen participation, community/public involvement, community empowerment, and stakeholder participation, and in applying a clear definition, each is as elusive the others. According to Cooke (1995: 94) community participation 'is the union of two concepts that have no agreed upon definition: community and participation'. Many other authors share the same opinion: there is little agreement about what

Box 4.2: Selected schedules and clauses from the Coasts and Clean Seas MoU, 1997/1998**Actions Agreed by Participants**

- 4.1 iii) 'Establish mechanisms for consultation with the community on coastal management issues'

Schedule 1, Coastal Management Objectives and Principles**Clause 6 Coastal management objectives****Public Participation**

- 6.1 vii) to ensure that there is informed public participation in open, consultative processes dealing with planning and management of coastal resources;

Clause 7 Guiding Principles for the management of coastal resources**Public Participation**

- 7.1. (xv) Effective public consultation and participation are essential to the planning process and should be encouraged before decisions are made. For participation to be effective, the public requires sufficient information and opportunity to be informed about alternative uses. Processes for deciding about coastal zone management should be open and publicly documented to allow for scrutiny.
- (xvi) Local communities, including local industries, should be encouraged to share direct responsibility for management of local coastal areas and to participate in the development and implementation of management strategies.
- (xvii) The interests of indigenous peoples should be recognised and incorporated in resource use decision making. This requires, among other things, effective protection of cultural and intellectual property, including storylines; participation in the management of resources in which people have traditional or cultural interests; recognition of indigenous rights to hunt, gather and fish, consistent with conservation objectives; and conservation of the resources upon which these activities are based.

Schedule 3 Coastcare**3. The objectives of Coastcare are:**

- (i) to engender in local communities, including local industries, a sense of stewardship for coastal and marine areas;
- (ii) to provide opportunities and resources for residents, volunteers, business and interest groups to participate in coastal management;
- (iii) to support community identification of natural and cultural heritage resources;
- (iv) to facilitate interaction between the community and bodies with responsibility for managing coastal areas.

4. The desired outcomes of Coastcare are:

- (i) to increase the level and effectiveness of community involvement in coastal management;
- (ii) to increase the capacity of those contributing to coastal management through documentation and dissemination of best practice coastal management information;
- (iii) to raise awareness of coastal issues - the problems and possible solutions;
- (iv) to increase the level of effective coastal management activity;
- (v) to increase cooperation in and between all spheres of government and the community.

Source: (Commonwealth of Australia 1998)

these terms mean (Richardson 1983; World Bank 1995; Croft and Beresford 1996; Ewing 1996; Day 1997; Hildebrand 1997a; Jones and Gaventa 2002).

Hildebrand (1997b: 1), speaking of coastal management, cautions careful choice in the use of terms such as 'public involvement' because he recognises it to be value laden and often used without clarification of its meaning. Some have gone as far as to suggest that the concept is a fad (Midgely 1986; Day 1997: 421) and worse, 'hollow and meaningless' because 'the terms often come to offer everybody what they would like to understand them to mean' (Jones and Gaventa 2002: 487). Such looseness is seen as a bonus to others who agree the term 'participation' suits many policy contexts, but they see it a useful one, mainly because it conveys a 'feel good' concept (Richardson 1983; Nelson and Wright 1995: 2).

The notion of participation is often taken for granted, yet not well conceived, 'as if the desire for commitment to participation is sufficient to ensure it will happen' (Croft and Beresford 1996: 181). In addressing the inadequacies of the use of the term participation, Day points out that every participation program is based upon a particular social theory or paradigm 'or at least a set of assumptions concerning the need for intervention and the connection of citizen participation to the political system', she argues that such theories should be made explicit, but rarely are (Day 1997: 422). According to Day (1997: 426), understanding the nature of the policy decision-making arena is fundamental to understanding the subtleties of democracy. For this reason, this discussion will examine the origins of the theory of participation.

4.2.1 *Origins of participation*

The 1990s has been a 'renaissance' for participatory research and development practice (Chambers 1994; Croft and Beresford 1996) and discourse on participation is abundant. The notion of community participation is being applied broadly in many contexts such as health, education, housing, social work and urban and rural development (Midgely 1986). Buchy et al. (2002) suggest that participation in natural resource management (NRM) shares many commonalities with these contexts but that NRM extends to issues of geographical scale and land tenure.

Croft and Beresford (1996) and Carley and Christie (1992), like Day, trace the ideals of participation back to classical philosophical discussions about democracy. One of the defining elements of models of democratic theory is the nature and extent of citizen participation (Pateman 1970; Stokes 2002). Much of the philosophising around participatory democracy is the questioning of who should be participating and for what purpose and how participants can best contribute to the deliberations of government. The central concern of the classical democratic theorists revolved around the degree of participation expected of, or available to, the general community/citizenry; and of participation as a means or an ends in itself. The different theoretical positions, explored deeply by Pateman (1970), are summarised in Table 4.1. The key issues commonly shared by the ‘participatory’ theorists are:

- Direct participation in the regulation of key institutions of society (including the workplace and local community) is essential
- Participation by individuals in the democratic process is a means to intellectual (psychological) development, it would improve capacity to make decisions and contribute to the improvement of a democratic life; it would increase confidence in ability to contribute to the political process
- Broad participation by individuals will strengthen their sense of community
- There is an emphasis on local engagement, it is within the sphere of local government that citizens would learn and develop appropriate decision-making skills most readily.

Representative democracy, disinterested in inclusiveness, has been challenged by theories of participatory democracy (Pateman 1970). The latter theories could be expanded beyond national political institutions and into the broader societal associations (such as the workforce) and emphasised the educative functions of the act of participating, advocating that participating was an ends in itself. Participating would benefit those involved and expand their knowledge, confidence and expertise. The premise of ‘participation’ in participatory democracy is that a broad range of interests can be represented and that participants become integrally involved in the decision making. These theoretical threads are evident in contemporary discussion about participation, as will be made evident throughout the remainder of this chapter. It is with the notion of participatory democracy in mind that this thesis examines the practice of participation.

Table 4.1: Models of Democratic Theory and Participatory styles

THEORISTS AND MODELS OF DEMOCRATIC THEORY	MEANS/MERITS OF PARTICIPATION
Representative Liberal Democracy	
Schumpeter	No special role for participation. Participation is largely the act of choosing the decision maker – voting. The majority gain maximum output (policy decisions) for minimum input (voting)
James Mill Bentham	Both theorists expect citizens to take an interest in the political institutions governing them – and thereby understand the system within which they vote. Concerned largely with national institutional arrangements of the political system. Participation by people remains a narrow function.
Participatory (Developmental) Democracy	
Rousseau (simplistic model – non-industrial city-state)	Rousseau 's central premise was that each citizen should participate in political-decision making . He recognised participation as more than an adjunct to the political system; regarded the psychological effect of participating as a key outcome of the political process and resulted in an educated public. The process was a continuous one. This enlightened citizenry realised shared concern for the common good and had a heightened sense of belonging, brought about by participating. A notion of true community.
JS Mill (transposed Rousseau's theory into the context of a modern political system)	If individuals in a large state are able to participate effectively in government they need to learn the art of political decision-making. This is fostered by involvement in local associations and local decision-making bodies (committees). Issues affecting the individual happen at the local level and therefore local official affiliations provide the opportunity to learn 'democracy'. In a large scale society, a representative government will be necessary however, the word political is used in its widest sense, opening up the democratic ideals to a wider set of authority structures than simply to national institutions. 'Participatory democracy' indicates something much more than a set of 'institutional arrangements' at a national level.
GDH Cole (theory set in modern, industrialised society and of such a society – Guild Socialism)	<p>Cole draws a distinction between the existence of representative 'institutional arrangements' at the national level and democracy.</p> <p>Individuals will only truly learn if the authority structures in all political systems are responsive to broad participation. This means that the individual must be able to participate in all associations with which the person is concerned. In other words such inclusion and involvement assumes a 'participatory society'.</p> <p>Cole also endorsed the local level as the appropriate training ground for learning democracy.</p> <p>Cole regarded the manipulation of decision making processes by the state as a danger and to overcome that he emphasised that associations had to be free of the state to control their own affairs. (Cole defined society as 'complex of associations held together by the wills of their members).</p> <p>Maximum input (participating in decision-making) for two key outputs: a) Policies and/or decisions and b) development of social and political capacity</p>

Source: Summary derived from Pateman (1970).

4.2.2 Contemporary status of participation research

Participatory democratic theories provided the rationale for many social and economic policies of the 20th century western democracies, especially through the extension of the welfare state (Short 1989; Stokes 2002). It is here that the concept of consumer participation surged in popularity, as a feature of social policy decision-making, in the 1960s and 1970s with a focus on increasing the influence of the marginalised in decision-making processes affecting people's lives (Wengert 1976; Sewell and Phillips 1979; Richardson 1983; Midgely 1986; Jones and Gaventa 2002). The influence of community participation in policy development has proven so popular it has also been described as a 'movement' (Chambers 1994; He 2002). Literature on the subject over the last 20 years has been largely devoted to achievements and research methods for the developing world and more recently for newly democratising countries (Gaventa and Valderrama 1999; Stokes 2002). However, according to Gaventa and Valderrama, the concept has once again, after a brief waning of interest, reached mass appeal, so much so that it is no longer a discourse solely applicable to the 'excluded'. The concept of participation has been opened up to include

broad forms of engagement by citizens in policy formulation and decision-making in key arenas which affect their lives. (Gaventa and Valderrama, 1999: unrepaginated)

A re-emergence of discussion around increased involvement of communities and participation is prevalent in a number of fields. Croft and Beresford (1996) suggest that this is due to the failure of two major political systems: western market economies and the socialist republics of Eastern Europe. Both of these systems are derived from economic models that have failed to adequately address environmental issues and social need, and as such there is now a 'search for a different politics' that is 'more civil and social than economic' (Croft and Beresford 1996: 176). According to Stokes, citizenship has become a major field of inquiry since the 1980s because of a gradual disillusionment with electoral politics and declining participation in and commitment to liberal democratic institutions (Stokes 2002). He suggests that citizens' interests may simply have shifted to different sites such as social movements or NGOs and, as such, 'citizenship may be expressed in a variety of ways that only marginally touch upon the formal political institutions of liberal democracy' (Stokes 2002: 26). This

sentiment is echoed by Carley and Christie (2000a) and He (2002) who suggest that there is a call for a return to 'civil society'. The civil society to which they refer to resonates with Cole's idea of Guild Socialism, by placing emphasis on separation of the state from citizen activity or society, denoted by the formation of associations, 'free of state tutelage', which can shape the development of state policy. New directions for the state, and other organisations committed to sustainable development, are being sought through these re-emerging notions of civil society that require a 'potent interaction of individuals, government, NGOs and business' (Carley and Christie 2000a: 78).

Closely related, and interwoven into discussions about the rise of civil society, is the recent emergence of the concept 'social capital' (Pretty and Frank 2000). It is a term used to express the value of voluntary associations and the capacity for these to influence and enhance the way society functions (Cox 1995; Norton 2000; Schuller, Baron and Field 2000). Social capital is defined by Pretty and Frank as:

the cohesiveness of people in their societies, and comprises relations of trust reciprocity and exchanges between individuals that lubricate co-operation; the bundles of common rules, norms and sanctions mutually-agreed or handed-down; and connectedness, networks and groups. (Pretty and Frank 2000: 179)

The popularity of the notion of social capital affirms a renewed interest in the ways individuals participate in civic structures, and what Schuller et al. (2000: 2) identify as 'revalorization of social relationships' in creating a civil society. The idea of social capital is pertinent to this study because one of the ways it is developed is through the voluntary efforts of 'civic groups', including local environmental groups (Cox 1995; Pretty and Frank 2000). Social capital theorists focus upon the voluntary associations made by individuals through a diverse array of organisational settings that are separate from the market and public sphere; these settings are labeled variously as the 'the community sector' or the 'social sector' (Stewart-Weeks 2002). Norton (2000) provides two reasons for the increased attention to the subject. The first is the pursuit of alternative ways of service provision than through government agencies that are perceived to be inefficient. The alternative is 'to let the civil society do what was previously done by the state' (Norton 2000: 1) through the efforts of non-government organisations and community groups. His second supposition is that there has been a rise of

'communitarianism' that promotes a heightened sense of responsibility and degree of commitment to protecting public resources.

Along with the upsurge of current philosophical interest in participation has been the inclusion of participatory approaches and methodologies in management, including environmental management (Land and Water Australia 2001). Contemporary thoughts about the involvement of communities in planning and management of natural resources suggest numerous benefits for institutions, among them: opening up the debate about social and environmental issues; contributing towards policy formulation; reducing citizen alienation over government decisions; utilising local knowledge; increasing government accountability and building support for agency programs (Croft and Beresford 1996; Moote et al. 1997; Agrawal and Gibson 1999: 632; Curtis and Lockwood 2000; Dovers 2000; Tobey and Volk 2002). Benefits of participation by communities in the management of their own resources leads to improved environmental management for local areas, empowerment and greater social justice for local people (Buchy et al. 2002).

However, several commentators query public participation approaches in Australia's 'care' programs (Wescott 1998; Conacher and Conacher 2000; Dovers 2000; Doyle 2000; Carr 2002). Their assertions are based on the structure of funding and reliance on central government, for administration and support of schemes. For example, Conacher and Conacher suggest that the participation process in Landcare is 'a heavily disguised transfer of public costs to the private sector in local communities' (Conacher and Conacher 2000: 300), and that the 'heavy hand of bureaucracy persists' (Conacher and Conacher 2000: 300) because community groups rely upon the skills and funds of a top-down administrative system. Government cost cutting by transferring duties to volunteers is an issue also raised by Carr (2002) and Wescott (1998) but most succinctly phrased by Dovers:

Do governments embrace community involvement because it makes practical policy sense and because they believe in participatory democracy or to avoid their own obligations and out of desperation borne of past policy failure? There are good and less good reasons for inviting community participation and people should embrace the good and be wary of the bad (Dovers 2000:unrepaginated)

4.2.3 *The practice of participation*

The World Bank defines participation as follows:

Participation is a process through which stakeholders influence and share control over development initiatives, and the decisions and resources which affect them. (World Bank 1995: 3)

Buchy et al. (2002), basing their ideas on development theory and political sciences, see participation as either an approach, ethos or method, guiding practice for involving community members in planning activities. Considine (1994) also views participation as a means to improve decision-making and also as a process. It is the degree of influence that communities have in decision-making that has become the focus of recent discussions of participation in natural resource management. According to Richardson, participation finds expression in many forms but she introduces a critical distinction about the ways people engage in the decision-making arena – either as indirect or direct participants (Richardson 1983). Direct participation is engaged and active and involves face-to-face interaction between policy makers and people wishing to influence the course of government policy. Indirect participation, conversely, refers to alternative means of influencing decision-making processes in a more passive manner, such as voting or campaigning, but specifically does not rely upon personal interaction. This dichotomy has elsewhere been described as instrumental or developmental participation (Midgely 1986). Considine explains the two concepts thus:

The instrumental value of participation is the observable effect it has upon the improvement of any single decision or plan. The developmental value of participation is the effect it has upon persistent capacities within a system or community. Development values include: increased knowledge, greater understanding, increased solidarity, trust and sympathy. (Considine, 1994 : 131)

Gaventa and Valderrama explain this as a transition, (shown in Figure 4.1). He regards there to have been a ‘scaling up’ from more traditional participation approaches (which are arguably instrumental in style) to democratic participation. In direct or developmental participation it is the ‘simple interaction between consumers and policymakers which represents the key defining variable for analysis’ (Richardson 1983: 19). However, decision-making processes are complex, and typically, what is expected of community involvement in any given process is not specified clearly.

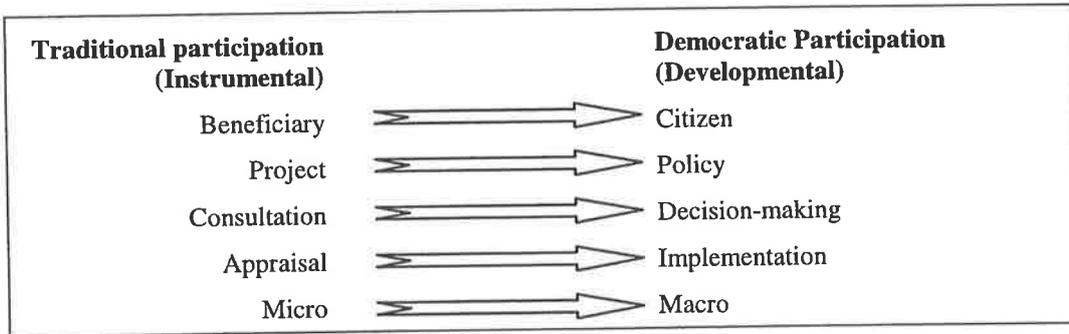


Figure 4.1: Scaling up of participation efforts
(Adapted from Gaventa and Valderrama, 1999: unrepaginated)

Richardson provides useful clarification

the activity of participation is not synonymous with the activity of taking decisions, and at least some of the confusion which surrounds this whole subject derives from failure to appreciate this simple point. Participation in decision-making means participation in the process by which decisions are made. Many different activities are encompassed by this process and participation may take place in any one - or all of them. (Richardson 1983: 19)

For example, activities involved in the decision-making process may include any or a combination of the following: issue identification, information gathering, establishing priorities, adopting a position, plan development, plan implementation, outcome evaluation and so on. As emphasised by Richardson, participation by stakeholders may occur at any one or all of these stages.

As long as they [the community] are there at some point, interacting with those that make the decisions or those who report to them, some participation can be said to have taken place (Richardson 1983: 20).

The logical conclusion to this discussion is that there should be much clearer explanation in program or project goals, that invite participation, of what is possible or expected in terms of community input, and an explicitness about how such input is anticipated to be included in decision outcomes. In other words, it is necessary to be explicit about what constitutes meaningful participation.

Midgely (1986: 25) suggests that if participation is meaningful then people must be voluntarily and democratically involved in the process of making decisions which he defines as: setting goals, formulating policies, and planning and implementing programs. Anything less he labels pseudo-participation. This is an ideal proposition, but there needs to be some discussion of scale and context. Midgely states that 'the unit for participation and the primary forum for the expression of views must be the small local community' (Midgely 1986: 25).

4.2.4 Top-down and bottom up approaches

The distribution of power is a critical consideration in assessing the merits of any given participatory approach (Munro-Clark 1992; World Bank 1995; Day 1997; Hildebrand 1997a). Harvey and Caton (2003), speaking of the nature of community involvement in coastal management in Australia, concur. They suggest that participation is influenced by the degree of power wielded by the community, within all the stages of planning and management processes. Power relations in the participatory process are represented as the tension between top-down 'forces' or bottom up 'aspirations' (Carley and Christie 1992: 128).

Rhetoric of participation calls for a changing role of government from one of 'command and control' to facilitator and partner with community (Carley and Christie 1992; Hildebrand 1997b). Many texts equate such partnerships as dependent on power sharing or balance of power. For example, Munro-Clark suggests that partnership development is reliant upon the 'redistribution of political power and influence through participation by ordinary citizens in the processes of public decision-making' (Munro-Clark 1992: 1). The World Bank report on participation (1995) speaks of creating a level playing field. Both of these examples point to deliberate effort to redress power imbalance – typically reducing the degree of control of government and increasing that of the community. Pathways to sustainable development, advocated widely throughout the 1990s from global to localised scales, have demanded partnership development between government, agency and community. It is the nature of such partnerships that engages much discussion and debate about what is acceptable, feasible and appropriate in terms of community engagement in making decisions (Oakley 1991; Norrena 1994; Green and Penning-Rowsell 1999; Visser 1999; Davies 2002).

Natural resource management literature and programs (e.g. Land and Water Australia and authors (Jennings and Moore 2000; Davidson and Stratford 2000), place emphasis on the changing role of government and agency in service delivery and policy development. Governments have the responsibility to ensure that effective opportunities for participation are created and sustained. However, the implication is that government institutions also have the potential to block effective involvement of citizens (Gaventa and Valderrama 1999).

Participatory action is typically described as increasing by degrees, along a spectrum, ranging from top-down government control to bottom up total community control (Ellsworth, et al. 1997). Sherry Arnstein originally ascribed different degrees of interaction between government, agency and community to that of climbing the rungs of a ladder (Arnstein 1969). The further up the ladder, the more involved and meaningful the interaction has said to become. However, Dovers points out that such a continuum is too inflexible by not allowing for the complexities of participation: some people wish only to be observers and others may change their intensity of participation over time, 'climbing up and down and jumping off the ladder' (Dovers 2000: unrepaginated).

Buchy et al. (2002) have developed a 10 'rung' typology of participation for NRM in Australia, they too recognise the potential of combining or mixing degrees of participation. Figure 4.2 provides an illustration of various degrees of input that participants may experience. Short (1989:76) suggests that genuine participation occurs under direct citizen control, or delegated authority or collaborative management/power sharing (points 3-5 of Figure 4.2). He makes the distinction however, between genuine participation and the degree of engagement in a decision-making process. It is important to recognise that partial engagement tends to preclude the setting of goals and that there is the tendency to include participants in implementing rather than planning and a situation where there is 'engagement without empowerment [or] responsibility without power' Short (1989:76)

This is also noted by Midgely:

communities are comprised of individuals who differ in their desires to become involved or who are constrained by various factors from participating. Also people become involved to a greater or lesser degree at different times and in response to different issues. (Midgely 1986: 29)

Labonte (1997), too, is critical of the continuum, suggesting that community control as the utopia of 'true' participation, negates participation rhetoric that is predicated on the notion of partnership and relationship building between government and community. Keeping the idea of the continuum in mind, it is important to consider the kinds of relationships that have developed in the name of participatory initiatives.

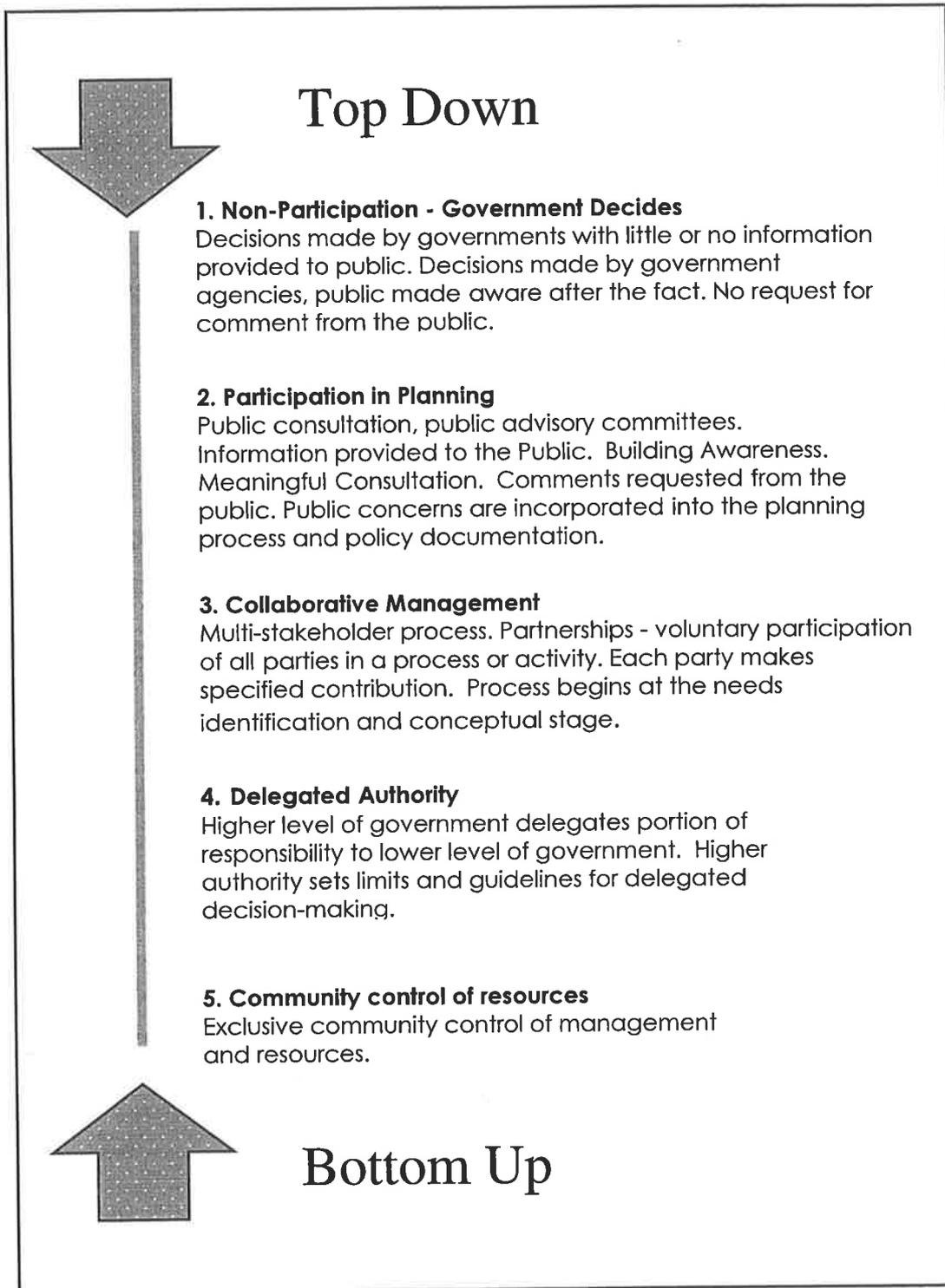


Figure 4.2: Continuum of Public Involvement in decision-making
Source: (Adapted from Hale 1996: 4; Ellsworth et al. 1997 124-125)

Historically, relationships between agency and community have been considered paternalistic, with government acting in the best interest of the general public (Uphoff 1991). Increasing levels of participation, as indicated on the continuum of public involvement in Figure 4.2, challenge the notion of 'government as

of public involvement in Figure 4.2, challenge the notion of 'government as arbiter and public as object' (Hildebrand 1997a:34). As suggested by Moote et al.:

Traditional public participation methods utilised by the public land management agencies have been criticised for allowing agencies to nominally meet their statutory requirements for public involvement while effectively continuing to dispense predetermined management decisions. (Moote et al. 1997: 877)

An example of such an approach is public consultation, a popular technique for inviting community input, but one which allows a large degree of autonomy, after the screening process, by the agency concerned. In contrast, local on-ground project work, which utilises the community as a source of labour in the construction of projects, but little else (for example lack of representation on advisory or official committees), are typical manifestations of these sorts of 'participatory' projects (Midgely 1986). According to Hildebrand

what makes participation hard to achieve [is that] it requires government to redefine its role and in so doing, develop new institutions that facilitate broader participation. (Hildebrand 1997a:34)

A major stumbling block in real advances to increase the role of community in decision-making processes is the inability or reluctance of agencies to change their traditional management style. Reasons for this are attributed to the nature of agencies, unwilling to overcome a legacy of paternalistic or authoritarian relationships with community, and to the fact that agencies have failed to evolve with skills and motivation to adopt progressive participatory approaches to management (Oakley 1991; Uphoff 1991; Selin and Chavez 1995; Davos et al. 2002). It appears that governments and agencies lack understanding of how to offer genuine avenues for participation. It may be that rigor required for truly engaging the community in the decision-making process is too arduous for government institutions, impeding agency performance by forcing transparency and lengthening bureaucratic processes, whilst also potentially promoting amateurism and parochial views (Day 1997; Power et al. 2000). At the same time it is argued that if communities are to have an expanded role in decision making they must also have the capacity to contribute (Oakley 1991; Hale 1996). According to Jennings and Moore, 'Power to influence processes and outcomes of government can only be used and expressed by community members and groups if there is a culture of doing so' (Jennings and Moore 2000: 182).

4.2.5 Contrasts in participation between the developed and developing countries

Regardless of theoretical debates there is an extensive range of initiatives worldwide designed to involve communities in managing coastal resources. Cicin-Sain and Knecht (1998) compare and contrast many examples in their book and they specify a range of different models and techniques currently in practice. There are clear distinctions between participation programs in developing countries and Western democratic societies. Developing countries have the most significant growth in terms of ICM initiatives and many of these have a strong emphasis on community-based approaches to coastal management. Notable differences between initiatives are created by the degree of dependence of communities on the coastal resource for livelihood, styles of governance, national coastal policy and effectiveness, and the existence and effectiveness of non-government organisations (NGOs) (Cicin-Sain and Knecht 1998).

Increasing pressure of population growth and over-exploitation of coastal resources explain the rapid growth of community-based coastal management (CBCM) in developing countries. CBCM is described as

people-centred, community-oriented and resource-based. It starts from the basic premise that people have the innate capacity to understand and act on their own problems. It begins where the people are i.e. what the people already know, and build on this knowledge to develop further their knowledge and create a new consciousness. It strives for a more active people's participation in the planning, implementation and evaluation of coastal resource management programs. (Ferrer and Nozawa 1997: 5)

CBCM literature resonates with that of contemporary and more general discussion about participation. For example, collaborative management is considered the preferable CBCM approach (White and Deguit 1999; Courtney and White 2000) because 'collaboration' implies a joint decision-making approach to problem resolution. It favours power-sharing and collective responsibility for actions between stakeholders (Selin and Chavez 1995); and it 'involves parties who see different aspects of a problem working together to define common goals' (LaBelle 1999). Central to CBCM philosophy is a changing role of government towards a more balanced partnership between the community and government in decision-making. Hildebrand, discussing the rise of integrated approaches to coastal management, calls for meaningful participation by community that he suggests has occurred when community stakeholders are given a legitimate role in the ICM process - 'which is only achieved when power is shared' (Hildebrand 1997a: 33)

where governments are prepared to accord communities with a supported role in the decision-making process (Buchy et al. 2002).

Central to this approach is that public consultation is insufficient and that joint planning, through multi-stakeholder processes, represents the appropriate degree of public involvement. (Hildebrand 1997a: 35)

Hildebrand (1997a) identifies three main styles of CBCM programs:

- Community-generated initiatives
- NGO assisted initiatives and
- Government-initiated initiatives.

He does not distinguish between the three as to whether one is a more effective style. Courtney and White provide an example of community generated initiatives in the Philippines. There the government has been actively devolving power from central to local government, a process that 'coincides well with the policy of community participation in planning and management' (Courtney and White 2000: 41) . However, the national Philippines ICM program is considered to weak, lacking central coordination. Locally, there is a lack of trained personnel, finances, and technical knowledge. Coutney and White also make the suggestion that

It is extremely difficult to plan and implement successful ICM programs without a multi-sectoral approach. (Coutney and White 2000: 41)

Edwards et al.'s (1997) review of participation in coastal management initiatives in the United Kingdom offers an example of a government initiated approach that invited community participation. The researchers found a contrast between communities in urban and rural areas. Rural communities deriving direct benefit from the coastal resource (eg fishing, angling, wild fowling) were 'relatively forthcoming' (Edwards et al. 1997: 160) in their willingness to contribute, provided the facilitation of their input was appropriately organised. On the other hand, in urban locations where communities 'simply tended to live by the sea' (Edwards et al. 1997: 160) little community interest was generated for participatory planning and management activity. The reason being that the urban dwellers

live in a relatively developed environment in which they are accustomed to the majority of decisions being taken by the planning authorities through their elected government representatives. (Edwards et al. 1997: 160)

They presumed their interests would be taken care of accordingly. In addition the authors question whether the authorities would have been prepared to relinquish

their management authority to community control. As emphasised in Chapter One, there is no prescription for how to implement ICM and nor for the participatory approaches adopted. Factors assisting the participatory process however, are elaborated upon in the following discussion.

'Donor assisted' initiatives should be added to this list of styles because since the early 1990s funding has dramatically increased in the form of loans through development banks like the World Bank and Inter-American development Bank, and through grants from key international donor agencies, such as USAID and the United Nations agencies (WHO, ILO, FAO, UNCRD and UNESCO) (Olsen and Christie 2000). According to Agrawal (1999: 631), funding agencies have 'found' community, making community a 'locus of conservation thinking'. Through their funding provision and program development, they influence community-based conservation and resource management programs and policies. This is true for ICM programs where CBCM has emerged as a result of a change of focus and activities of funding agencies (Cicin-Sain and Knecht 1998; White et al. 1998). The crucial but as yet unknown issue is what happens when financial assistance is removed from these places. Dependence on donor assistance has the capacity to be unsustainable, for policies and institutions, when expertise and finances are withdrawn at the completion of a demonstration project (Christie et al. 2001). There is an implicit expectation that the success of pilot programs will transform the beneficiary and a scaling up of effort will lead to a widespread implementation of an ICM program (for example activities of the US Rhode Island CRC describe this attempt in Kenya) (Sorensen 1997; White et al. 1998; Hale and Amaral 2000). To date there is little evidence of scaling up; according to Tobey and Volk (2002: 293), sustained donor assisted initiatives are 'more often the exception to the norm'. Nichols (1999) is skeptical of donor agencies and technical assistance programs that control the agenda and superimpose models of management on the receiving country. Citizen participation under such models, she suggests, is tokenistic.

4.2.5.1 Traditional management techniques

According to Carley and Christie (2000b: 23), long established traditional systems, at the community level, for stewardship of common resources often work more

effectively to safe guard the commons rather than grand government schemes. They offer water abstraction rights, fisheries management and small-scale irrigation schemes as examples. In particular, there has been a long history of successful traditional management systems of local, community-based coastal waters (Pomeroy 1995; Luttinger 1997). However, there has also been a widespread weakening of such systems due to the imposition of 'modern' government administrations and controlled systems - colonial administrations, technological modernisation, and the formation of nation/states (Pomeroy 1995: 145; Aston 1999; Evans and Birchenough 2001). The net effect of these impositions has resulted in socio-economic stratification and the widening of the imbalance of those with power and wealth and those without. Imposed systems have been invariably unsustainable because local communities lack incentive to look after their resources because profits are siphoned elsewhere. Consequently, in such places top-down approaches to remedy environmental damage have tended to fail at national and community levels.

4.2.5.2 CBCM determinants for success

Examples from developing countries offer insight into the strength of community-based approaches whereby two features have been fundamental to their success. The first feature is a requirement that all interested stakeholders have the opportunity to contribute to the process of finding solutions to coastal management problems, giving participants a sense of ownership of the process. The second feature is a requirement that stakeholder values and knowledge of local social and ecological conditions are incorporated into the planning framework (Jorge 1997: 48; Aston 1999: 483). Using the Pacific Island Countries as an example, Aston suggests that countries achieving localised successes are often driven by demand as opposed to programs imposed upon communities.

ICM has also made headway in communities that can see the decline in their coastal resource and are directly affected by that decline in the way of loss of foodstuffs and livelihoods. For example, Luttinger notes of the Bay islands in Honduras:

Developing a sustainable system of resource use from within the community has become an issue of survival. (Luttinger 1997: 21)

This is also supported by Olsen et al.'s observation:

The rural poor are the most loyal supporters of coastal management initiatives. Concern for the degradation of environmental qualities, for greater equity in how a shrinking resource base is allocated and managed, a dedicated transparent decision-making, public information and involvement, all appeal strongly to those who depend on their livelihoods on local resources. (Olsen et al. 1998: 615)

Reflecting on experience gained through the Coastal Resources Center, University of Rhode Island, Hale (1996) states the effectiveness of involving local communities in coastal management is dependent upon:

- The size of the issue to be tackled. Community management is most successful where problems occur within a small geographic area
- The style of government and appropriate coastal policy, that recognises the importance of community input
- The motivation of the community (e.g. the degree of dependence of communities on coastal resources for livelihood)
- And on the capacity of the local population, that is whether there is sufficient expertise.

The community element of ICM programs in developed Western countries (for example Canada, the United States, New Zealand and Australia) is somewhat different to those outlined above. Of greatest contrast is the motivation for local community involvement in coastal management. Local participation programs in the US, NZ and Australia attempt to engage individuals within large populations, who utilise the coastal resource primarily as a recreational space. Coastal management initiatives, designed to engage communities in these countries are typically implemented in a top-down manner, an instrument of central government, and are not reliant upon external funds or expertise. Participants are primarily from locally derived groups, who share a sense of connectedness through concern for their local environment (Pretty and Frank 2000; Dahm 2002).

This chapter so far has illuminated the general acceptance of participation as a necessary component of the integration process in coastal management. It has also established that many participatory programs exist and there are distinct variations between countries, in particular with governance structures. What remains unclear within the literature is how effective these approaches have been in achieving the intended benefits of participation, such as, improved government performance. In

order to assess the benefits it is useful to consider the issue of evaluation in participatory research.

4.3 Measuring successful participation

As noted above, effective participation is said to occur when participants have access to the policy-making and management process, when their knowledge, views and identity are given validity, and when there is 'reciprocal acceptance' (Nursey-Bray 2000: 165) of the different perspectives between experts and community. Speaking of participation in development projects globally, Oakley (1991) suggests that the pervasive acceptance of participatory approaches has not been met with a matching intensity of development of performance indicators or evaluation guides. He describes an indicator as: 'the means by which the outcome of a project can be understood and, in one form or another, measured or explained' (Oakley 1991: 247). In 1991 the development of qualitative evaluation indicators for participation was non-existent: Oakley stated 'there are no model lists nor authoritative guidelines of indicators of participation'. In 1995 the Department for International Development in the UK (1995) arrived at a similar conclusion. According to Chess (2000), reviewing the performance of environmental agencies, development of the concept of genuine involvement and evidence of progress towards participatory management is confounded by lack of routinely collected data and failure to develop indicators relating to public participation.

One study from the United States has evaluated the participatory approach of a public land planning effort, by designing a set of elements based on a review of public participation and participatory democracy literature (Moote et al.1997). The elements they devised to assess the planning effort were:

1. Efficacy (confidence building, sense of community developed)
2. Representation and access (who is and how are people able to participate)
3. Information exchange and learning (capacity building)
4. Continuity of participation (the process of participating is continuous) and
5. Decision-making authority (regulation of key institutions).

These elements relate directly to the means for achieving, and merits of, participation discussed and listed earlier in Table 4.1, by the classical theorists. Links to the classical theorists of participation are emphasised by the bracketed points. One of the weaknesses of contemporary studies on participation, noted earlier, is failure to address theoretical roots of participation. These five elements, thereby offer a useful framework for assessing other participatory programs. As such, they can be incorporated into a framework by which to look more closely at Australia's Coastcare program, described as a participatory approach to coastal management. Prior to applying the elements to Coastcare, a brief overview of Australia's performance in participation and coastal management prior to the commencement of the Program is presented below.

4.4 Participation in the Australian coastal management context

Prior to Coastcare, volunteer groups in Australia were already providing a significant input into management of the coastal zone (Graham 1993). Historically, in Australia, the mechanism for engaging community participation has been through local organisations such as the Surf Life Saving Associations, the Australian Trust for Conservation Volunteers, Dunecare groups, and the Surfrider Foundation. Prior to Coastcare, Victoria reportedly had some 2000 coastal local committees of management and NSW had 1800 Dunecare groups. Local volunteers were assisting in the management of coastal commercial and recreational facilities, reserve management, vegetation management, interpretation, conservation works, clean-up campaigns, waterway protection, user safety, beach patrols, and the restoration and rehabilitation of coastal facilities (Harvey and Caton 2003).

Despite Australia's history of volunteer engagement in coastal management activity, community involvement in management and participation in decision-making has been an area of significant change over the past 10-15 years (Wescott 1998; Thom and Harvey 2000). Harvey and Caton (2003: 24) suggest that during that time there has been an increased response from communities wishing to be involved, as well as government readiness to accept their involvement in managing

the coast. They qualify this by pointing out that participation is typically focused on implementing minor works and not 'direction-setting'.

The call for inclusion of communities in decision-making has really been a consequence of recommendations of the RAC inquiry after Special Commissioner Graham found that

much community involvement [in coastal management] is in projects which are ad hoc, under-resourced, ill-conceived, token and beach centred [and] is a reflection of the framework of management of coastal zone resource use and development which currently exists in Australia ... (Graham 1993: 98)

In meeting the principles of sustainable development, the RAC placed emphasis on an elevated role for volunteers suggesting they should be

Participat[ing] in forums to determine management strategies at local and regional levels. (Resource Assessment Commission 1993:117)

Coastcare provided the framework for participation as recommended by the 1995 Coastal Policy, designed to engage various stakeholders in an integrated management process. The rhetoric of Coastcare supports the principles of good management. For example, Tailby and Lenfer promoted the program, at its outset, as being

...about communities and governments working together to bring about changes in the ways that our coasts are managed. There are many reasons why community participation is crucial to bringing about this change. At broad level, community participation is vital to a vibrant, inclusive and democratic society. And governments alone cannot bring about the changes that are needed. (Tailby and Lenfer 1996: 129)

The critical test for Coastcare is whether it achieved true participation, that is, stimulated a community role for inclusion in formal decision-making arenas and processes. The ensuing discussion provides a detailed discussion about the role communities have played in coastal management and how Coastcare influenced this.

4.4.1 Coastcare and community participation

Chapter Three showed that the range and numbers of community groups involved in Coastcare was impressive. About 2000 groups are recorded to have been involved in Coastcare projects, and new groups continued to form for the Program's duration. Many were involved from Coastcare's inception, showing their dedication and commitment to caring for local coastal environments. It is unknown how many of these groups were established and functioning prior to the

commencement of Coastcare. Nevertheless, the partnership approach of the Coastcare program was successful in engaging community and government towards agreed coastal management initiatives.

In this study responses to the question that asked participants to identify challenges to Coastcare revealed that harnessing volunteers and bringing them together was a difficult task. Twenty four people (14% of all respondents) suggested that engaging volunteers was an important achievement of Coastcare. Respondents credited Coastcare with generating and increasing engagement of volunteers 'helping out' in the coastal zone. The Program was considered a draw card for participants because they felt they were contributing to a worthwhile cause. In some locations facilitators drew groups together, encouraging interaction and exchange, broadened social contacts and reinforced the good work being achieved at local sites.

At state level or nationally, an enormous number of community groups have aligned themselves to various degrees with Coastcare. If you say there's about 20 people per group that's a large number of people who have demonstrated some sort commitment to the future of the coast and the marine environment... The people power is an amazing strength of the program. (Regional Coastcare Facilitator)

Real engagement with the community is a huge challenge. I think it's something we've taken on and something we've been successful at....I think it's something we can be proud of the fact that it is a huge challenge. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

The strongest thing [about Coastcare] is that public interest is definitely continuing. There is new interest all the time. We're not just dealing with old staid groups. We've got lively new groups and lively old groups. (Regional Coastcare Facilitator)

The overview of Coastcare presented in Chapter Three also showed the impressive volume of on-ground activity undertaken through Australia's Coastcare program. But there is a need to look deeper and to establish more rigorous criteria of success that goes beyond numbers of projects funded and types of projects carried out. How much or little was expected of community groups in decision-making was rather ambiguous and opinion about the appropriate degree to which the community should have been involved fluctuated between jurisdictions.

4.5 Shining model of community participation?

Promotional material was used to highlight the Program's nurturing, community focus. Figure 4.3 provides examples of Coastcare stickers: 'Coastcare: helping

Australians to care for their coast'; and 'Coastcare: communities caring for our coast'. As such the Program embodied the principles of public involvement. Applying the five elements or principles of a participatory management approach discussed earlier provided a means of assessing how well the Coastcare program stood up to its philosophical premise. The five elements are outlined in Table 4.2 along with evaluative criteria for Coastcare. Formal documentation that stated the framework for Coastcare's activity (the MoU) and survey results from interviews and questionnaires with key stakeholders, described in Chapter Two, provides an indication of how Coastcare rhetoric (that placed emphasis on partnership development between three levels of government - Commonwealth, State and Local - and the community), was put into practice.

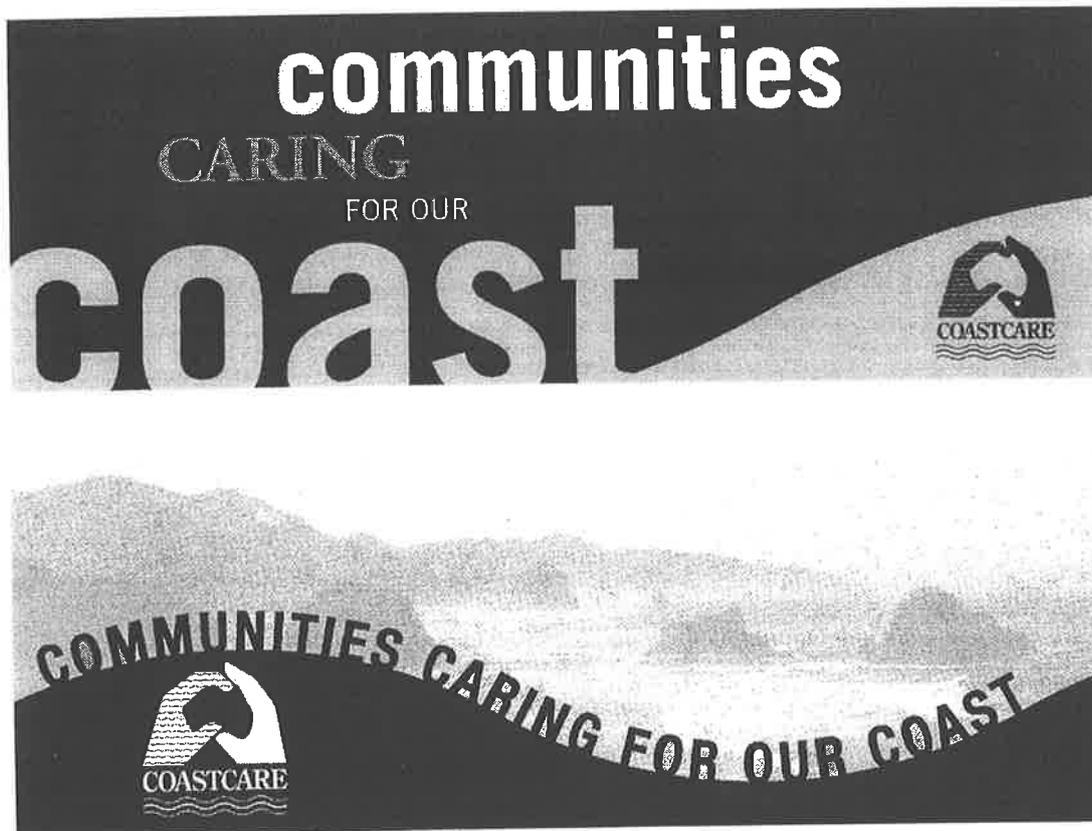


Figure 4.3: Coastcare promotional material

The provisions within the 'Coasts and Clean Seas' MoU (by which Coastcare is governed), affirmed by the appropriate signatories in each state and the Northern Territory, bound participants of the agreement to the conditions for participation. These conditions are presented in Box 4.2, earlier in this Chapter.

Table 4.2: Public Participation elements and evaluative criteria

Elements of a participatory approach	Participatory Democracy Approach	Evaluative Criteria for Coastcare
Efficacy	Administrative decisions are made through a collaborative process that builds community and shared understanding, and therefore overcomes societal divisiveness and polarisation.	Involvement in the application process and undertaking projects provides insight into coastal management systems and physical coastal processes
Representation and access	Increased involvement by the general, non-activist public in administrative decision-making. Representatives of all affected interests are encouraged to participate in the planning process, including members of the general non-aligned public.	The Coastcare grant scheme is open to all users of the coast. Access is provided through the application process. All applications are assessed according to predetermined guidelines.
Information exchange and learning	Full and active dialogue between the community and administrators is essential, allowing needs and concerns of all groups and individuals to be addressed during the planning process. This provides an opportunity for participants to gain insight into the existent range of values and opinions, as well as the legal and policy constraints on decision-making.	A team of regional facilitators providing technical and administrative support, assists and informs Coastcare groups and coastal land managers. Through the facilitators groups, public servants and individuals are given the opportunity to discuss their needs, concerns and values.
Continuity of participation	Public involvement is a continuous process, not a series of discrete events. Feedback loops keep administrators informed of evolving community interests.	Coastcare groups work on more than one project; they may receive more than one grant; groups form reciprocal arrangement with local land managers and co-operatively work on local projects without Coastcare funds
Decision-making authority	The public should participate in the making of final decisions, not just be given the opportunity to comment on proposed decisions. This ensures agency accountability to the public.	Coastcare groups are invited onto local decision-making forums and decision-making authority is explicitly shared among all participants, with agencies holding no exclusive decision-making authority.

(Source: adapted from Moote et al.: 878)

Clause 7 provided clear requirements for information exchange and learning. The principles of continuous involvement in making decisions and decision-making authority are not so clearly stated. Although communities were 'encouraged to share responsibility' in coastal management, the relative strength of the partnership between agency and community remains unclear because in terms of engagement only 'developing' and 'implementing' management strategies were specified. Decision-making was not addressed specifically and evaluation of the success of the Program was not specified.

Coastcare's objectives suffered vagueness of expression. 'Engendering stewardship'; 'providing opportunities to participate in coastal management' and 'facilitating interaction' are ambiguous in their delineation of roles for the community in the management process. Carr provides an illuminating definition of 'stewardship' which presents a clearer idea of what perhaps was envisaged for groups involved through Coastcare:

caring for, maintaining well being, being vigilant, accepting responsibility and understanding the importance of accountability. (Carr 2002:15)

Vigilance, responsibility and understanding point to high degrees of dependability upon community groups. The performance of Coastcare, integrating different tiers of government towards a common goal and the nature of integration between community and government, has been unexplored until now.

The remainder of this Chapter will utilise data from two sources to address the questions posed above: survey results (as outlined in Chapter Two, the methodology) and opinions expressed during discussion at the annual Coastcare forums in Townsville (2000) and Victor Harbor (2001). Respondents interviewed for this study were asked three questions about community involvement in the decision-making process (a copy of the research instruments is included in Appendix 2). The questions asked respondents to consider whether Coastcare had developed a sense of community responsibility for managing coastal areas; and the degree of success the program had had in involving the community in the decision-making process at local and regional levels. Comments provided by 173 stakeholders during interviews and within the questionnaires have been analysed

according to the five elements of a participatory approach discussed earlier in this Chapter, devised by Moote et al. (1997).

Table 4.2 assembles the five 'participatory elements' along side matching criteria by which to evaluate participation within the Coastcare program. This has been done to provide a sound basis for assessing how Coastcare has lived up to its expectation of contributing to a 'vibrant, inclusive and democratic society' (Tailby and Lenfer 1996: 129).

4.5.1. Coastcare and 'efficacy'

Pateman, (1970: 45) equates efficacy with the experience of participating; she suggests that actively participating 'in some way leaves the individual better psychologically equipped to undertake further participation in the future', and that the individual acquires confidence through the participatory process. Efficacy in this sense is referring to what is currently discussed as the empowerment of individuals. Coastcare provided the opportunity for individuals and groups to participate in localised projects through the grant scheme. The Program's design placed issue identification in the hands of the community. Groups developed projects on the basis of their concerns and interest and then they enlisted the cooperation of the local coastal land manager. Because of this process, over three quarters of respondents for this study (133 respondents; 77%) rated active community involvement as Coastcare's greatest contribution to coastal management. Practical activities or 'hands-on efforts' proved an effective method by which to educate groups about bureaucratic systems with responsibility for managing the coast, as well as about physical coastal processes. Carrying out projects was also seen to encourage stewardship and was often linked with the idea that active involvement (which produces some concrete outcomes) was an important element of community empowerment:

[Coastcare's] greatest success has been actually getting people out there who now know far more about coastal management. They are aware it actually exists and they can play a role in it. Where it has been really, really successful has been sorting out in peoples' minds what the Federal government does, what state government does and what local government can do and where they [the community] can fit into it. (State Coastcare Co-ordinator)

[Coastcare is successful in contributing to coastal management] because seeing groups basically identify their local problems, work from a process of working out how to fix them, and in a relatively short amount of time go through that process and actually fix something, really does help change attitudes on the ground. It gives people a grater

understanding of the difficulties faced by government in with some of these problems as well as building their own local links and take a bit of responsibility themselves, rather than blaming some mysterious outsider. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

When they actually apply the application form is a really good learning process. From the minute they begin the application and writing it they start learning about coastal management. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Coastcare, through its funding scheme and through group development over time, provided an avenue for local groups to pursue issues of local importance. For groups having their issues recognised (through successful grant applications or local land manager cooperation and support) provided them with a sense of ownership of their project and an enhanced identification with their local environment.

[Coastcare] allows groups to be more self-sufficient. It's allowing them to identify issues and resources that they need. A lot of time local land managers don't have the budgets to do everything, so its allowing a cooperative approach to do some high priority community type projects. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

The main strength [of Coastcare] is that local people have been given power to raise the consciousness of their communities to problems and pressures living on the coast is making on the environment. This especially applies to local governments whose past decisions have created many of the problems. (State Assessment Panel member)

[Coastcare] provides government recognition for what [groups] are doing, 'Gee, your idea is worth putting some money towards'. It is terribly empowering for a community that has never had a grant to get a couple of thousand dollars because they have a good idea. That's really good. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

4.5.2. Coastcare and 'representation and access'

Coastcare was open to all users of the coast and to those whose activities may have had an impact on the coast; a very broad 'community'. However, because Coastcare groups had to conform to strict guidelines in order to receive funds, participants were accused of not representing genuine community groups. They were described rather as 'harnessed by bureaucracy' and as 'hybrid community structures', which Doyle (2000:34) coins 'bureaunities' or 'communeaucracies'. This sentiment does not necessarily reflect the way Coastcare groups felt, however:

We've provided a network for local communities and keep them all connected and make them feel they are part of something bigger and more important. I get heaps of comments back from community groups all the time. They love getting emails and things like that just knowing that there is something bigger and better happening above them. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

The fact that it is a national program [is a strength]. People can identify all the way around Australia. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

I really feel that it is a good model for community involvement and can be transferred in different cultural contexts. So it doesn't matter if you're working with a bunch of

fishermen in a particular town who might have a certain view of the world or if you're dealing with a bunch of yuppies with expensive holiday houses in a beachside town close to [town]. It's a process that can be transferred across those boundaries. It's very flexible. Anyone can get involved at any level. Someone who wants to plant trees can do that and someone who wants to look after the group's finances can do that. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Respondents suggested that belonging and identifying as a Coastcare member provided important encouragement and confidence:

..fronting up and wearing their Coastcare cap and t-shirt, it is the community individual, but I think they feel more empowered to get involved. (State Coastcare coordinator)

[Coastcare is] an avenue through which community can express their sense of responsibility for areas. They didn't have one before. Not one that was credible. It lends credibility to that. So when they go to their managers, they're 'Coastcare' and that's huge for [the community]. (Regional coastcare facilitator)

Coastcare does provide an opportunity to coalesce ideas through one channel. From that point of view it provides a fairly important role. It provides someone the opportunity to say 'I'm from Coastcare' which gives a higher level of importance than 'I'm Mrs Smith from Beach Rd'. I think it is extremely important at a local level. (Manager State coastal program)

These findings reflect Considine's theory of belonging and solidarity, discussed earlier.

Virtually no demographic information of groups was collected by state or Commonwealth government so it is hard to know, with any clarity, the characteristics and motivation of those individuals who became involved in the Program. The latter applications included a question about the number of group members, but longitudinal detail is unavailable. This is also the case with some other 'care' programs (Carr 2002). However, Landcare is an exception as group dynamics have been studied by Baker (1997) for example, who touches on reasons for Landcare group formation in his paper and by Curtis (2000) who has studied Victorian Landcare groups, their motivation and make-up, in detail. Such information is necessary to understand factors beneficial to group processes and to gain clearer insight to further develop government-community interaction.

There is anecdotal evidence that much volunteer work is undertaken by community members who are older and retired. In support of this, a Coastcare national forum session was dedicated to the task of sharing ideas on how to attract younger participants and to invite diversity (Whetham 2001; Young 2001). In order to

expand the representation of people within the community some states devised initiatives such as open days, shows, guest speakers, and 'call to action programs' show-casing Coastcare diversity and running special events to attract new membership. The Coastcare team worked towards strategies that would attract a wider spectrum of participants to the Program, as indicated by forum themes 'Strategies for spreading the Coastcare message in areas with large populations (or low/small populations by contrast)' (Campbell 2000). Broadening volunteer membership proved a difficult task but the Program made many efforts to create opportunities for broad community engagement.

I still think a lot of the local community doesn't know about Coastcare, despite all the publicity. There are still groups out there that don't know what Coastcare is or that they can get involved in it. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

The Coastcare program has definitely helped and facilitated the people that are very proactive and want to get out there and work on public land and really get their hands dirty and really help. It has been very positive and successful. But of course there is the majority of the population that doesn't have the time, energy, effort or interest. We haven't been very successful in addressing the wider population. We have been preaching to the converted a lot. (State coastcare co-ordinator)

There are some sections of the coast where the community has taken responsibility and some of that credit would have to be given to Coastcare as groups have been involved with projects. I've seen they've been more keen during that time and following. There are still some sections of coast where the local community want things to change but they're not willing to do it. They see that as a responsibility of the managing agency and not of themselves. There's some sections of coast where I really haven't found a section of the community that cares. Remote communities are small. A lot of them are there because they fish. They only want to do what they've been doing for decades and they can't see a problem with it. A lot of Coastcare activity happens in larger communities by a small portion of the community. (Regional Coastcare Facilitator)

It's a relatively small program with a narrow scope. It can't deal well with those regions that don't have the basic capacity for engagement. (State assessment panel member)

One respondent raised concern over the issue of bias, introduced by grant funding, in terms of favouring particular community interests:

The Coastcare grant scheme involves the community that wants to be involved and that sometimes leads to particular interests being pushed without consideration of whole of community interests. I guess that's where you then, in more populous areas, run up against local government having a little bit of a difficulty because you get a slightly skewed representation of community, but the community groups say we represent community. They're not representing whole of community and that causes tensions. It's difficult to change that. (State Coastcare co-ordinator)

The reason it is difficult to change is because:

The grant scheme in and of itself (even the scheme plus the facilitators) cannot always be successful in creating community interest where there is none. It can build and strengthen support. (Commonwealth coastal manager)

Access to Coastcare, and hence a participatory process, was largely through the grant scheme, by which groups gained entry into the Program. The application process of the grant scheme was considered inequitable by some. Operating as the gateway to Coastcare, the grant scheme had the capacity to deny access and deflate enthusiasm of unsuccessful grant applicants. Disenchantment with the grant scheme was voiced by a member of a community group who spoke out at a MESA (Marine Education Society of Australasia) conference in Western Australia:

Public awareness, as we discovered, is not cheap. Soon after our group became established we were encouraged to apply for Federal funding under the ...CoastWest/Coastcare NHT programs. The group becomes distracted with fantasies of obtaining large sums of money...All our time was taken up by attending meetings on how to fill in grant application forms and listening to bureaucrats from Canberra talking about the allocation of millions of dollars for 'worthy' coastal and marine environment projects....when the grant is unsuccessful the group becomes angry, demoralised and resentful against others who may have been successful....[that] can throw the group into a state of inertia. (Macintyre 2000)

The grant process obviously benefitted the successful recipients but it is unclear what happened to groups who slipped through the scheme.

Another thing that stops [the grant scheme] being very effective is the amount of community resources that go into the application process. That's another thing that drags it down. You either win or you lose. If you lose you big time lose because you don't get anything. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

when community groups apply for funding and are unsuccessful, often discourages groups which can lead to them being less active. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

The grant scheme may have been unwittingly selective on the basis that:

Only those in the 'know' seem to put in applications. (State assessment panel member)

If you get out in amongst community and let them know about Coastcare and about the funding that's available, a lot of people are interested. But if you just chuck an ad in the paper it will be missed. So I think that is a major challenge. Getting the Coastcare program out there so that people know about it. In plenty of time. Not like: 'Oh you've got to get you application done in two months'. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

If people are not interested in obtaining [Coastcare] funds, well there's no other opportunity for them to have input into coastal management [in this state]. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Promoting Coastcare to reach the community is the issue here. Coastcare, through the Commonwealth, funded a promotion consultant, Landcare Australia Limited (LAL). They claimed that through their efforts, awareness of Coastcare within the general Australian community rose from 25% in 1995 to 57% in 2000 (LAL 2000: 1). A variety of educative print materials, televised community

announcements, radio, newspaper and magazine items featured Coastcare. The extent to which this media effort encouraged individuals to submit applications is unknown.

Coastcare relied upon community groups applying for grant funds. Australia's coastline has vast lengths of remote coast and regional communities are dotted infrequently and so there was an uneven distribution of involvement of people around the coast, correlated to population density. The most project activity occurred in metropolitan centres. Expertise in completing application forms was reported to be an issue for regional groups and the pool of volunteers tended to also be involved in other civic roles. Individuals skilled at preparing professional applications were most likely to be successful in the grant process:

Coastcare is weighted heavily in favour of those with the submission skills, technical know how (coastal), making it quite difficult for groups with low literacy or where English is not a first language. (Local coastal land manager)

In addition, the ability of groups to undertake the work proposed in the application was difficult to judge on paper. During discussions with some of the regional Coastcare facilitators after SAPs, they mentioned they were concerned that sophisticated applications did not necessarily equate with an equally sophisticated on-ground outcome. Some facilitators indicated this during the interview process:

The funny thing is [a group] can write a really good application but the[n] function really badly on the ground and vice versa. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Regional Coastcare facilitators, having worked with groups, often knew their capacity, but were unable defend or advise against particular applications because the SAP process specified that facilitators could not contribute to the selection deliberations.

The forms are particularly difficult and some groups just don't have the skills to be able to handle them. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

A further aspect limiting access, identified in some instances, was local group dynamics.

...in some areas you might get a 10km stretch of coast and there may be one group, and it may be 'clicky'. You need to allow for there to be another group. Just that stuff about groups. There might be ownership, but it might be amongst a small section of the population, and it might actually be inaccessible to some people, depending on who's in [the group]. I wouldn't suggest that you make them regional, or be representative, but that you don't allow a 'clicky' group 'owning' a whole lot of coast. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

..green groups or extreme groups can alienate the rest of the community and that is a dilemma. Extreme green, redneck or single issue groups can be a problem for us. We haven't dealt with that very successfully. Often these groups don't rely on funding. They are potentially independent groups that do their own thing. Some of them are just lobby groups but because they have the Coastcare name up front, there is not likely to be another group that forms in that town. Or [other people] won't want to form [a group] in case they get to be like them. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Involvement through Coastcare provided participants with greater access to local decision making bodies, especially local councils. There is good evidence that such opportunity promoted interaction between community and government, albeit in a patchy way. However, as noted in the earlier discussion, not everyone shares the desire to influence the decision-making process:

Some groups are more active; some groups are kind of the quiet achievers. The community response is like, most times they want to get involved, but some groups want to get more involved than others. Some groups are shyer personalities basically they do their things and they do fantastic jobs but they're not the extravert personalities that jump up and down. (Regional Coastcare facilitators)
There are some people who will never want to be involved in the bigger picture. The actual decision making. (State Coastcare co-ordinator)

A lot of people don't want to make decisions. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Others, it's just not their focus or their interest to get involved at [the decision-making/issue] level. They would rather be hands on. Usually it is just one or two individuals in a particular group that choose to [get more involved] and that is good. It is very much an individual thing. Some have been good in that respect. Others, they are just more on-ground works orientated, and stay out of issues. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Coastcare catered for those who wished only to participate in practical works, but it also worked in favour of individuals wanting to have greater input into more formal decision-making processes.

Coastcare's mostly been at an on-ground level although by involving people in a number of those projects, it's then strengthened and broadened their knowledge and interest to a point now where a lot of them are getting more involved in the planning, policy side of things. More so like submissions to strategy applications and things like that, as well as getting involved in management style workshops, like regional management plans and things like that. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

I think also an attitudinal change has occurred, a bit. We see that through the establishment of coastal advisory committees at a localised level. The councils and local government managers inviting community participation on things like the Coastal and Marine Planning development, the regional planning strategies. I think that is a recognition of the maturity of the community, all of the participants, and I think Coastcare is the key to it. (State Coastcare co-ordinator)

These observations by the Coastcare team confirm what the classical theorists were suggesting about participation. Through their involvement in project work, community members gained an insight into the management process and developed

experience, enough to move beyond the confines of the Program and into broader coastal management fora. Coastcare's role in encouraging participation in broader arenas was clarified by some respondents who felt that particular individuals were of a particular disposition and would have become involved in coastal management issues, regardless of the Program. Similarly, some local management agencies invited Coastcare groups or members of groups to sit on committees. It is difficult to disentangle cause and effect here. Because of Coastcare, local councils had a tangible 'community' to contact. Likewise, Coastcare provided individuals with access to other avenues of coastal management.

I can't say Coastcare has been responsible for that. Some of the individuals involved in our program, some of the individual volunteers have become involved [in decision-making processes] but I don't think Coastcare can take the credit for all of that. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

[Coastcare] has been successful in empowering certain dynamic individuals in various communities to influence decision-making and for them to begin to educate the planners and managers. (State Assessment Panel member)

It's only a really small percentage of the community that are actively involved in being responsible for the coastal areas. Coastcare has supported that and it has been one of the reasons that it happened. I think it would have still happened without Coastcare, but not to the same extent. In some areas there are groups that will do things whether they get funding or not. They'll get funding from other areas. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

4.5.3 Coastcare and 'information exchange and learning'

According to survey respondents, Coastcare's greatest contribution to coastal management was its educative role in raising awareness both within the community and within government. Over half of all respondents (56%; n=98) stated a key strength or contribution of Coastcare was awareness raising. Coastcare's emphasis on environmental education amounted to a greater understanding by community about coastal processes, coastal management arrangements and government processes. Local management agencies, too, reportedly benefited from promotional materials produced for Coastcare, and through involvement with facilitators. Coastcare provided an educative approach in two key ways. First, by directly involving groups in project work, that provided training and facilitator support, contributed to awareness raising about coastal processes, management strategies and governance. Second, Coastcare reached out to the broader community, those who were not actively engaged in project work, through media campaigns and initiatives like Coastcare week and Summer activities programs.

Insight into the management system reportedly lessened the frustration of communities and reduced the associated pressure placed on government agencies. Coastcare increased the dialogue between community and local government. The mediation role played out by facilitators enabled this to occur. It is unclear about the reciprocity of information flow. The community learned a great deal but there was no mechanism to provide the 'exchange' to higher levels.

I think that Coastcare has increased the awareness of management issues and so increasingly communities are wanting to respond to those issues and increasingly raising more concerns with the facilitators or myself. (State Coastcare co-ordinator)

The program has certainly created awareness and understanding making consultation process more effective. (State Assessment Panel member)

We've been able to capacity build the community in terms of legislation and ecological processes and in doing so they've been able to discuss at a lot higher level how they feel about the management on their coast rather than just using language that local government aren't interested in. They're still emotive and they're still passionate but they're able to debate at a level that a local and state government can appreciate and so they have to be involved then. I wouldn't say the state or local government has gone out there and embraced the community. I'd think the community's gone knocking but they've done a good job of it. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

4.5.4. Coastcare and 'continuity of participation'

SAP panels, on the advice from Commonwealth, favoured applications that were short-term, small-scale, and one-off. Staged projects, those requiring funds over more than one grant round, were not the norm and typically not encouraged by panels. Records kept by the Commonwealth only registered projects funded in a given year. It was difficult to track the progress of projects over time. Very few were completed in the year funds were allocated. More importantly, it was not possible to trace the evolution of groups once they had completed a project and were no longer in receipt of funds. The regional Coastcare facilitators indicated that many groups continued working after their original funds had dissipated. They continued to call themselves 'Coastcare' groups and remained in contact with the Program through the facilitators and maintained the partnership with land managers. If this was the case, then Coastcare had met one of its intentions, to kick-start activity and have groups become self-sustaining. However, without further clarification this is difficult to confirm. Comments made during the interviews that supported the idea that Coastcare achieved continuity included:

Many people who have been involved in Coastcare projects have gone on to join local government or attend meetings to have a greater say in coastal management, and to protect their work and the coastline. (State Assessment Panel member)

But we have a reasonable proportion I'd say like 50% of groups maybe more going on to doing works, having a sense of ownership or stewardship over their local patch regardless of whether they have Coastcare funding or not and I don't think you could expect a lot more than that to be honest. I think it has been good it has raised the awareness and interest to that level where people will go on maintaining. (State Coastcare co-ordinator)

Many of the community groups I have worked with on Coastcare projects had no history of involvement in coastal management issues prior to Coastcare. Many of these groups are now regularly looking for what other projects they can be involved with. (Local coastal land manager)

However, a greater proportion of survey respondents considered that Coastcare would not function and groups would disengage without on-going support and funding.

Not sure about long-term community interests in responsibility for land management projects. More likely one-off projects and no long-term commitment. (Host agency)

Funding schemes supporting community participation initiatives in Australia, such as Coastcare, are built on what Dovers (2000) calls a 'shaky foundation' due to the tenuous nature of annual funding rounds. Funds were largely driven according to Commonwealth policy interests. In addition, the administrative structures in place to direct programs also lacked guaranteed longevity. Moves towards regional management frameworks unbalanced the original Commonwealth and State alliances of NHT and these issues were felt on the ground. Respondents in this study pointed to the vulnerability of Coastcare under the such a funding regime and the subsequent modifications made to the NHT and development of NRM planning:

I'm concerned about group support on the ground [during the NRM process in [state], There may not be regional Coastcare facilitators, we don't know. Continuing on the knowledge we've acquired and the relationships we've built up. I'm worried about the change over for the groups and the effect it will have on them. One of main roles is to support them and that's why it does work well. People love the coast and need a dedicated person. If you take one building block out (the regional Coastcare facilitators) the whole lot could crumble. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

I think [Coastcare] needs to be a permanent program because the facilitators and the community implementing the projects need some sort of security. It makes it difficult to staff. The program does have a high staff turnover. No security of tenure makes it easier to move on. Its a difficult job. If there was permanency you'd build those relationships. (Regional Coastcare Facilitator)

During the course of this study, as shown in Chapter Two, there was a remarkable turnover of regional Coastcare facilitators on the Program. Tasmania and Northern Territory were the only places to have maintained the same staff since the inception

of the Program, and facilitators were instrumental in linking community and agency and developing trust between the two: a significant feature of social capital.

4.5.5 Coastcare and 'decision-making authority'

One of the most critical tests for Coastcare is whether achieved true participation, in terms of community inclusion in formal decision-making arenas and processes. Promoting the Coastcare program in its early days, Tailby and Lenfer suggested that in addition to the grants scheme, Coastcare was 'about changing attitudes and decision-making processes and reducing conflict' (Tailby and Lenfer 1996: 130). However, there was never clear instruction provided as to how this should proceed. It was an assumption that the Program would achieve these things on the basis of its design - the tied grants and enforced partnership between land manager and community. The Commonwealth failed to evaluate the Program according to its objectives and so this was not assessed. The preceding discussion emphasised the central notion of decision-making and the requirement for this to be shared by agency and community, and that all the facets of the process be open for community input. There was great variation of opinion (especially within the upper levels of bureaucracy) in response to Coastcare's responsibility for encouraging decision-making. This is a good example of the lack of clarity of the meaning of Coastcare's objectives. Coastcare was clearly promoted on the basis that it would change pre-existing processes, but in practice there was resistance to this ideal. Opinions ranged from those who considered that decision-making was simply out of Coastcare's realm:

Community is doing on-ground work, not decision-making. (State Assessment Panel member)

Linkages to decision-making are not part of the Program. (State Assessment Panel member)

Not convinced that [involving the community in decision-making] was, or should be a goal of Coastcare. (State Assessment Panel member)

I don't think Coastcare encourages decision making; it encourages working on projects. If a groups gets involved in decision-making it's off their own bat. And it may be indirectly through Coastcare, because a person has been involved in doing Coastcare projects and realises they haven't had any say in the decision-making process, and then go and chase it up themselves, and get onto their local coastal managers. I really don't think Coastcare has focussed on that. I don't think that's been part of Coastcare's role. Where it could have been and should have been, but I don't think its been successful. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Others provided the distinction of what was expected of groups in terms of decision-making within upper level and local authorities. Although several respondents stated that the community, through Coastcare, had been engaged in certain aspects of planning at local levels, many thought Coastcare did not have a role to play in the upper level decision-making processes:

Decision-making lies with the land manager. Community doesn't make decisions in coastal planning...Many decisions are made at a higher level. So Coastcare's role is to involve the community in land manager consultations. This has been done partly through network groups and through project development. A lot of decisions at higher levels may be made because of political agenda as well. (Regional coastcare facilitator)

Decision-making is often at a higher level through state planning policies, and I think it is hard for the community to get a stake in that. [Decision-making] still happens at that high government political type level. [The community] can write letters to their minister or whatever else, but they are still not being all that involved. (Commonwealth Coastcare manager)

We shouldn't over emphasise the ability or role of the community because all the major decisions are largely out of their hands. In a way they are tinkering on the edge I suppose. Responding to major planning decisions made elsewhere. ...It is not the major aim or objective of Coastcare to involve the community in major decision-making other than through the consultation process. (Commonwealth Coastcare manager)

Continued control of management decisions and resistance by local government to allow full participation was also noted as a barrier to community involvement in decision-making processes:

Until recently, government had no coastal policy or marine policy to assist [the process of involving the community in decision-making] and took an extremely dim view of public involvement in any form of coastal planning and management. When the public were involved they gained the distinct impression that their involvement was token and would not be acted on (which was probably pretty accurate). As such Coastcare could not be blamed for lack of involvement at this level. However, community initiated visions and plans for sustainable coastal management should be facilitated by Coastcare and particularly in indigenous communities by discussion with representative bodies such as land councils. (State Assessment Panel member)

Many councils are happy to get community groups to sign on to get funding for re-vegetation and fencing projects, but reticent to allow full participation. (State Assessment Panel member)

...it comes down to how willing the local management agency is to respect their [community] opinion. When we're talking about local management decisions, obviously were involving a council or national parks and most councils will run really effective community consultation and that's where our Coastcare groups get really involved and that's where I get really involved as well. But some councils run a bit of a hoax community consultation like sending a survey and yep we'll go through it [and you don't actually see what comes out of it]. No, and I think that my Coastcare groups get really frustrated at that because they've got so much to offer and they've got so much knowledge. I think Coastcare and Coastcare groups do everything they can to get involved and it really sometimes comes down to how willing the local land

manager is to take that opinion to take that involvement. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Certainly [Coastcare] has assisted some [groups] to initiate the process but there are also a lot of instances where community is shut out of planning and management. There is very little they can do about it and very little Coastcare can do about it as well. Especially given that we [facilitators] are very clearly instructed that we may not take part in any kind of lobbying activity. Where the community is being shut out there's not a lot we can do. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Some respondents showed that there had been progress in partnership development between community and local government but that it was in formative stages:

I think [involving the community in decision making for coastal planning and management] is an area that needs more work. There has been some planning engaging local community but this is insufficient. (State Assessment Panel member)

It is not perfect yet. It doesn't happen automatically that the land managers would involve the community groups. They still go their own way sometimes, ignoring the consultation process. It still is getting better. What I am saying is it is improving. We have come a long way since before the last four years. Better more so at the local level. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Despite the opinions of many respondents, there is evidence of inclusion into decision making, albeit patchy.

I think at the local level [Coastcare is successful in involving the community in decision-making], because the local land management plans and things like that, often Coastcare groups especially are very active in making sure that they, if a management plan is on display, and there hasn't been any earlier consultation, they are very active in making sure their voice is heard. They will go to public meetings about it and put in submissions. If they have the opportunity to take part in the development of it from the early stages they are often in there doing it. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

I can only speak for my area in which our Coastcare groups have established themselves as legitimate commentators for our coastal areas - our opinions are now sought by local managers re coastal issues and our feedback taken seriously. I suspect this is also the case elsewhere in the state. (State Assessment Panel member)

A lot of groups really do feel comfortable now at ringing a council person and saying 'now remember me?' or perhaps querying something they've done. Or even ringing up and saying, 'you're doing this, I'd really like to be a part of it'. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Very successful because it has assisted communities to initiate this process where they choose to. There are a lot of examples of communities going to their local manager and initiating planning and management processes. They don't always get the response they want immediately but it sets the ball rolling and it shows that coastal manager that the community is interested and because they live there they're not going to go away. So it is an issue they're going to have to address. Obviously a lot of it depends on the willingness of the local management agency. I've seen a lot of instances where the community has gone to them and initiated that planning and management. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

4.6 Conclusion

The Coastcare program serves as a useful model for exploring the nature of participation for a number of reasons. The Program's scale is appropriate with its

emphasis on modest grants that attracted local community groups. Aspects of Coastcare also resonate with the topical discussion of social capital theorists – the civic nature of the Program had groups undertaking roles previously carried out by government; and it also meet the ideals of ‘communitarianism’: concerned and motivated citizens protecting common property resources. Local groups working on Coastcare projects undertook an impressive amount of activity. It can be said that a significant amount of participation took place by local people on the coast. As to whether this amounted to genuine participation (direction-setting) is a separate matter and requires further exploration.

Coastcare walked a thin line, bridging bureaucratic expectations of strategic solutions to coastal management issues, whilst responding to issue driven, community interests. Coastcare followed a prescribed formula derived from central, ‘top’ layers of government, that placed limitations upon the types of projects that were eligible for funding. There were numerous ways Coastcare set in train steps for a program more inclusive of community involvement than previously. The steps included:

- The partnership approach of the program uniting community and government towards agreed coastal management initiatives and a proliferation of works around the coast reflects the success of this endeavour
- Coastcare provided a clear policy framework that formally committed three tiers of government to work alongside community. Program specifications, detailed in the MoU, unabashedly supported community involvement in coastal management in the form of practical actions to address environmental degradation.
- Coastcare provided an injection of funding considered necessary to attract groups
- Coastcare provided a structured framework for groups to work with agencies
- Coastcare provided a support system through the facilitators who offered technical and administrative advice, supervision and information.

According to the Figure 4.2 continuum, the bulk of Coastcare activity and effort fitted the descriptions of points 2 and 3: ‘participation in planning’ and ‘collaborative management’. There were examples of individuals moving to more ‘delegated authority’ roles, but this was not the norm. Coastcare was not entirely controlled by government, with community groups continuing to work alongside

work alongside council without Program funds. In many, many instances, Coastcare prepared the way and assisted in the establishment of significant and ongoing liaison between community groups and local government.

In terms of Coastcare's approach to participatory management, the respondent comments indicated the Program's strength lay in its active capacity building and educational focus. The 'participation' element was on-ground work completed by volunteers. These individuals had no input into Coastcare program design, monitoring or evaluation. The proportion of planning projects funded through Coastcare was limited, which indicates that at the local and regional decision-making levels the participatory element was also 'thin'. The primary feedback mechanism - the final report by groups on finishing individual projects - was under-utilised. The information contributed by groups in such a document could have assisted in shaping future directions of similar programs. There is a lack of information as to whether groups undertaking a one-off project felt encouraged by the Program to initiate further coastal work.

Outcome measures developed by Environment Australia to measure Coastcare's progress are indicative of the lack of focus on the original objectives that clearly specified the encouragement of a stewardship ethic among coastal communities. An evaluation report produced by the Coastcare team in Environment Australia, derived from a synthesis of 842 final Coastcare reports (40% of all Coastcare projects funded) cited the kilometres of fencing completed, numbers of trees planted, metres of paths constructed, and square metres of weeding undertaken as measures of success (Environment Australia 2001). These are not particularly useful measures in any case, as there is no means of establishing the quality of work (i.e. will the fences withstand the harsh coastal conditions; and how many trees planted survived their first summer?). Such measures tell us nothing of the progress made in community capacity building, of group dynamics nor partnership development. No such indicators were developed.

There is a requirement for long-term vision for community-based coastal management because, without it there is the capacity for short term funding rounds to influence the type of activity that local communities undertake (Harvey and

Caton 2003). Government agencies at the highest levels, failed to instil widespread confidence in Coastcare, a situation shared by other centrally funded NRM volunteer programs, due to the tenuous nature of funding (Dovers 2000). Funding was critical to the initiative for providing support staff, attracting community interest and local government cooperation. The continuity of Coastcare effort, especially that of community groups, remains vulnerable to the whims of Commonwealth political cycles.

The Coastcare program has created community awareness with strong volunteer input. [However] it is unlikely that State Government will have the required resources or funds to continue to foster community involvement. I understand funding of facilitators will also cease [in NHT II]- what will happen without this support to the community? (State Assessment Panel Member)

Opportunities to participate within the Program were constrained by government prerequisites: Commonwealth and state governments determined, through the formal grants scheme, where funds were directed, favouring action-oriented projects that had measurable, tangible outcomes and the community was used as the impetus and the volunteer labour for projects. Groups forming to attain Coastcare funds were seen as government-initiated rather than community-generated.

There was little opportunity for members of Coastcare groups to directly contribute to modification of the Program (such as amending eligibility criteria for funding), and there was no formal mechanism for community feedback for amendment to operational processes. This is a problem noted in other 'care' programs (Nursey-Bray 2000). There was a need for greater clarity about what was expected of community groups contributing to coastal resource management through Coastcare. It may be that the physical contribution provided by groups was adequate but the phrasing and promotion of Coastcare's ambitions should have been tailored accordingly.

Coastal Governance and Coastcare: a strategic approach to coastal management?

5.1 Introduction

One of the key objectives of this thesis is to examine coastal policy and management arrangements in each state and the Northern Territory and assess how well these supported and guided the implementation and development of the Coastcare program. The reason behind this approach is that one of the key dimensions of ICM is intergovernmental linkage between all tiers of government. Such linkage is facilitated by clear policy direction that will guide implementation (the process of transferring policy decisions into action) and management (the control exerted over people, activities and resources) (Cicin-Sain and Knecht 1998: 150). However, according to Cicin-Sain and Knecht (1998), one of the main challenges for ICM is to 'harmonise' or link and make consistent coastal management goals and policies between the institutions of each level of government. Difficulties in policy integration between different institutions arise primarily because of differing goals and agendas.

Policy is described as 'a purposive course of action followed by government or non-governmental actors in response to a set of perceived problems' (Miles [1992], cited in Cicin-Sain and Knecht 1998: 150). Within the context of policy development, a problem for policy reform in Australia generally has been the failure to draw from past experience. Both Dovers (2001) and Carley and Christie (2000b) emphasise the importance of reflexive learning from policy and management practice:

Governance is also about learning from action and reshaping policies and priorities in the light of experiences and changes in the wider environment (Carley and Christie 2000b: 18).

Dore and Woodhill (1999) suggest that taking notice of policy process provides a mechanism for achieving anticipated outcomes. They argue that 'if the [policy] process is not leading to results, it is because it is not a good process and not...because process does not lead to results' (Dore and Woodhill 1999: 15). The

rejoinder to this is a requirement for monitoring, analysis of the process and of the outcomes. Failure to take this step is what Carley and Christie term the 'governance gap' (Carley and Christie 2000b). An example of this gap in Australia is unearthed by the Productivity Commission, who sought to establish the success of implementation of ESD across different sectors. They found that monitoring the effectiveness of policies designed to implement ESD principles has not been undertaken as a matter of course by agencies and departments and so there is little evidence of revision of policy on the basis of reflection of past effort (Productivity Commission 1999).

Box 5.1 shows that there was a clear intention for Coastcare to work in line with existing policy packages. Applicants were encouraged to select plans with long-term vision. Box 5.1 establishes that part of the application and selection process of Coastcare projects considered how applicants addressed coastal plans and priorities at a number of scales. This requirement was uniform across the states and the Northern Territory. Box 5.1 also shows that the degree to which applicants had to demonstrate their project's relevance, in-line with existing policies and plans, became more rigorous over time. Coastcare applicants after the 1996/97 funding round, rather than simply naming a plan, were required to explain how their intended project would assist in the implementation of plans identified in their application. However, when asked about challenges facing Coastcare since its inception, 37 people from my study (21% of all respondents across all stakeholder groups) felt the program suffered from the lack of a strategic approach. Harvey and Caton (2003: 252) also question whether the funding cycles that have financed Coastcare are a suitable means of encouraging a strategic approach to management. They suggest the short-term NHT cycles have encouraged 'reactionary' rather than visionary, forward looking approaches.

I would argue that the views expressed above are not entirely a flaw of Coastcare and its emphasis on short-term projects and funding, but more importantly a consequence of inadequate state or local government policies and institutional arrangements within which the Program had to operate. It was within traditional structures and through existing institutions and their policy frameworks that

Coastcare was implemented. The Program had to abide by the 'political nuances' at state and local government levels (Thom and Harvey 2000), and accordingly was both directed and restrained by the power brokers within those jurisdictions.

Box 5.1: Coastcare Guidelines to Applicants - Assessment Criteria

Coastcare Guide to Coastcare Applications

Assessment Criteria

Preference will be given to projects that are:

- consistent with Commonwealth, State/Territory and Local Government coastal and marine management strategies, objectives, principles and priorities;
- form part of a larger strategic project;
- contribute to the implementation of relevant local, regional or State/Territory environmental strategic plans, policies or strategies (Commonwealth of Australia 2000: 5).

(2000-2001; 1999-2000; 1998-99) Guide to Coastcare Applications

Preference is given to projects that are part of, or supplement, a long-term management plan (e.g. a catchment, regional, vegetation or other plan or strategy). Please indicate any plans relevant to your project. Describe how your project is consistent with or will aid the implementation of the plan or strategy. Provide evidence of commitment outside your project to the implementation of the plan or strategy.

Question: Relationship to a management plan or strategy

Is your project consistent with any local, catchment, heritage, State or national plan or strategy? If so, which ones? How does your project relate to these plans?

(1997/98; 1998-99) Guide to Coastcare Applications

Preference is given to projects that are part of, or supplement, a long-term management strategy, for example a catchment, regional, vegetation or other management plan. Please indicate any plans relevant to your project.

Question: Is your project consistent with any management plan or strategy? If so, which ones? How does your project relate to those plans you have listed?

(1996/97) Guide to Coastcare Applications

Preference is given to projects that are part of, or supplement, a long-term management strategy, for example a catchment, regional, vegetation or other management plan. Please indicate any plans relevant to your project.

Question: Is your project part of any local, regional, catchment, State or national management plan? If it is which one?

(1995/96) Guide to Coastcare Applications

Preference is given to projects that are part of, or supplement, a long-term management strategy, for example a catchment, regional, vegetation or other management plan. Please explain how your project relates to any such plan.

Question: Is your project part of any local, regional, catchment, State or national management plan? If it is which one?

Coastcare as one of the key 'care' initiatives of the NHT was considered to be a significant example of an ESD policy achievement (Dovers 2001). Coastcare

therefore serves as a useful model by which to explore the intent by Commonwealth and state governments to move towards a more integrated approach to coastal management. The differences between existing state coastal management arrangements, and the success or otherwise of the Coastcare program within them, provides some indication of the strengths and challenges of the various state models for integrated coastal management and integrated policy in general. The suitability and function of policy and management strategies in place (or not) to support Coastcare at both state, regional or local levels is central to the issue of strategic management. There is great variation between states and local authorities around Australia in the development and progress of coastal management arrangements and policy. This chapter explores these arrangements.

The sections of transcripts that related directly to state and local policies have been included in this Chapter for each of the managers of state coastal programs, Coastcare coordinators and regional Coastcare facilitators in each state and the Northern Territory. While these are lengthy they provide an important insight into the different situations experienced.

5.2 Good governance and the role of institutions

An outcome of the Johannesburg Earth Summit in 2002 was resigned acknowledgement that despite the pledges and guides produced ten years previously by UNCED 1992, environmental degradation has continued apace. Failure to produce the intended outcomes is blamed on 'institutional failure' and it is clear that the establishment of 'appropriate institutions' called for in 1992 (cited on page 1 of this thesis) never eventuated. They have been called for again:

Governance and sustainable development are intimately tied together. The future role and architecture of institutions, from local to international levels, will be crucial determinants of whether future policy and programmes for sustainable development will succeed. (Johannesburg Earth Summit 2002)

The terms institution and governance, used here, are worthy of closer attention. Although 'governance' is about national political systems and international relations it is also described by Carley and Christie as being

the interaction between institutions in all sectors, that must set goals and co-operate in achieving them and creating an orderly framework for action - not only at the global level but also at regional, national, and local levels, all of which could contribute to (or

undermine) achievement in management of the commons. (Carley and Christie 2000b: 18)

An issue affecting environmental policy making, and one raised as a 'wicked' problem for coastal management in the first chapter, is the overlap and complexity of issues to be managed. Carley and Christie (2000b) identify one of the failures of governance to be the proliferation of agencies established to deal with such problems and argue for fewer, more strategic institutions to deal with them. Supporting the concept of failure of governance, Graham (2002) is critical of the NHT which he sees as simply adding a new layer of administration (attendant with its own set of policies, requirements, and committees) onto existing structures. There has also been recognition that the traditional 'command and control' style of governance is an inappropriate political style for implementing goals of sustainability, grounded in local experience and inclusion (Carley and Christie 2000a; Carr 2002). Carr (2002: 116) raises a point salient to this thesis, that governments endorsing ESD and hence participatory approaches to management have 'an unmistakable and multi-layered responsibility' to support stewardship groups. In terms of Coastcare, it is critical that support for community is demonstrated through institutional frameworks because 'institutions are, of course, the main actors in the coastal management process' (Cicin-Sain and Knecht 1998: 149).

Dovers describes institutions as being 'monstrously complex'. He defines an institution as:

a persistent, reasonably predictable arrangement, law, process, custom or organisation structuring aspects of the political, social, cultural or economic transactions and relationships in a society. Institutions allow organised and collective efforts toward common concerns and the achievement of social goods. Although by definition persistent, institutions constantly evolve. (Dovers 2001: 5)

He goes on to suggest that institutional arrangements are the 'customs, laws, underlying rules and persistent organisations that shape our individual and collective behaviour' (Dovers 2001: 3). Hence the ability of different societies to meet the requirements of ecologically sustainable development will be determined by the robustness and soundness and adaptability of their institutions.

The critical role of institutions in advancing the principles of ecologically sustainable development is touched on in previous chapters of this thesis. For example, inflexible, traditional institutions have been identified as barriers to the ICM process in Chapter One. Evaluating the success of efforts of the Rhode Island Coastal Resource Centre in the United States, Olsen addresses this directly:

The primary factor limiting progress in coastal management is not the availability of funding or knowledge of the social and ecosystem process at work, but the capacity of the institutions most directly involved to sustain integrated and adaptive forms of management. (Olsen 2002: 326, 327)

Institutions also have considerable influence over the success or otherwise of participatory approaches, discussed in Chapter Four of this thesis, to natural resource management and of their inclusion into the policy making process:

to be more accurate in our efforts to depict communities and their relationship with their natural resources - and thus to be more relevant to policy-making - we argue greater attention to be focussed on ... the institutional arrangements that structure their interactions. (Agrawal and Gibson 1999: 636)

Agrawal and Gibson (1999) suggest that such an approach leads to better understanding of the factors critical to the success or failure of efforts aimed at local level conservation.

5.3 Towards good governance in coastal management

One of the purposes of promoting an integrated approach to coastal management in Australia was to halt piecemeal development and redress the problem of uncoordinated management of coastlines. Planning and decision making for the coast in Australia was characterised by the RAC (1993) as ad hoc, multi-layered and with all spheres of government dealing with coastal issues in an ineffective and inefficient fashion. Davis and Weller in their report to the RAC Inquiry highlighted the difficulties facing cross-jurisdictional coordinated coastal management:

Integration of policy concerning the coastal zone proves difficult indeed across a whole state, and challenging even at the local level of government. The multiplicity of players and the irreconcilable interests involved are formidable. Governments at every level respond by compartmentalising the issues and creating separate processes for land management, approvals, fisheries and so on....the consequent structures and procedures mitigate against a coordinated approach. (Davis and Weller 1993: 34)

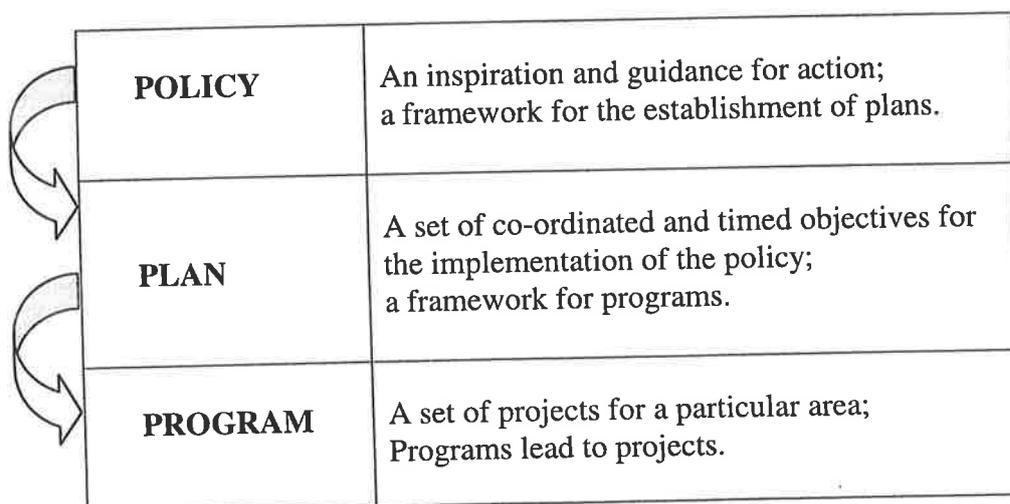
In short, existing structures of governance had failed to deliver sustainable coastal programs. The RAC's conclusions pointed to the critical role of improved governance, necessary to achieve sustainable outcomes from utilisation of coastal

resources (Graham 2002: 121). A principle mechanism recommended to allay the inadequacies of existing arrangements was to apply a strategic approach to management (Pitts 1993). According to Kenchington (1994) between 1970 and 1990 there were over 60 reports produced by Commonwealth or state governments that dealt with the requirement for strategic planning in the coastal zone. These reports were similar in their recommendations for improved coordination and integration as a solution to previous approaches that were short-term and fragmented.

In pursuing ecologically sustainable development for the coastal zone, the RAC specifically called for 'wider use of strategic and integrated management approaches' (RAC 1993: 95).

5.3.1 Strategic approach to coastal management

A strategic approach to coastal planning and management should consist of two components: first the establishment of broad aims and objectives, stating what it is that is to be achieved; and second, identification of a process and the steps by which the intended objectives may be achieved (Davis and Weller 1993; Harvey and Caton 2003: 199). According to Harvey and Caton (2003), the term 'strategic' is one applied to policies, plans and programs, yet they point out that each of these elements of planning are quite separate processes. Figure 5.1 illustrates how the three are interlinked with one another.



POLICY	An inspiration and guidance for action; a framework for the establishment of plans.
PLAN	A set of co-ordinated and timed objectives for the implementation of the policy; a framework for programs.
PROGRAM	A set of projects for a particular area; Programs lead to projects.

Figure 5.1: Elements of a strategic planning process
(Adapted from Harvey and Caton 2003: 233)

These elements of the policy package should operate at national, state, local or regional levels. As such

The Commonwealth Government should therefore be concerned with the delivery of programs, just as local government should be concerned with the preparation of future visions for local authority areas. (Pitts 1993: 6)

Harvey and Caton clarify that the elements of Figure 5.1 are strategic because they are forward looking and, if interlinked as demonstrated in the diagram above, are integrative in their approach to planning for the use of coastal resources (Harvey and Caton 2003). According to Pitts

it is only when there is integration between policy packages [of different spheres of government] that the essence of the strategic approach (coordination in pursuit of shared goals) can be realised. (Pitts 1993: 7)

5.4 Australia's coastal governance and institutions for managing coastal environments

There is a great proliferation of institutions with responsibility for managing Australia's coastal zone, shared between three tiers of government: the Commonwealth, each of the six States and the Northern Territory, and 760 or so coastal local governments. Haward (1995), reviewing integrated management in Australia in the mid 90s, pointed to the challenge of implementing ICM in Australia against this backdrop of 'co-operative federalism' which affirms Carley and Christie's (2000b) suggestion that over complex institutional arrangements may hamper integrated resource management:

Understanding the division of powers and responsibilities, a reflection of the inherently 'federal' character of Australian coastal management, is fundamental to an appreciation of the challenges in implementing ICM in Australia. It is clear that such a division of responsibilities has been a factor in the limited success to date in the development of an integrated approach to coastal zone management. (Haward 1995: 90)

According to Howlett and Ramesh (1995), policy areas that span different jurisdictions (i.e. environmental policies) are significantly affected by the existence of a federal system. This is so because public policies are made and implemented centrally, as well as by state governments, and this directly affects the capacity of state officials to deal with pressing issues in a timely and consistent fashion. There has been a history of tension and negotiation between the Commonwealth and the states in relation to cross-jurisdictional matters. This has had a deleterious effect on environmental policy making:

the underlying power dynamics of intergovernmental relationships in Australia have long been recognised as an impediment to the developments of an integrated and strategic approach to environmental policy. (Adams and Hine 1999: 195)

The states deliberately repel Commonwealth interest that seeks to control their jurisdiction. At the same time, the Commonwealth encourages the adoption of national standards and strategies, thereby avoiding parochialism and inconsistency (Painter 1998). An example of this is the development of the IGAE whereby the Commonwealth and all of the states agreed to 'a mix of collaborative elements'. Yet while agreeing to cooperate 'the Commonwealth and the States remained at arm's length' (Painter 1998: 122). Such tensions have been evident in the coastal arena. The states rejected the concept of a national coastal policy, originally envisaged by the RAC because:

The states generally were not interested in being involved in a national program, believing that the Commonwealth should not get involved in state responsibilities. (Kay and Lester 1997: 279)

However, new discussions have commenced regarding the development of a framework for a national cooperative approach to coastal issues between members of the Intergovernmental Coastal Advisory Group (ICAG), – (previously ICRG) (ICAG 2003). In presenting their position to the Ministerial Council for Natural Resource Management ICAG reaffirm the RAC's 1993 position that 'Common directions will encourage individual problems to be addressed with consistency' (ICAG 2003). According to ICAG, these common directions are to be reached by shared goals and agreed principles.

Tension between the Commonwealth and States was evident through the protracted negotiations over the terms of the NCAP and subsequently the NHT MoUs, and continues over the new bilateral negotiations between the States and the Commonwealth for NHT II. A Commonwealth Coastcare manager, during the interview process for this study, highlighted the continued underlying constraint between Commonwealth and State governments relations as a challenge for the Coastcare program:

There have been co-operation issues between the Commonwealth and the States. The age old inherent thing that the Commonwealth isn't meant to like the States and the States aren't meant to like the Commonwealth. I still don't understand that view but it very strongly comes through in some States. Not at a personal level but an interaction or co-operation level. Sometimes it is almost as if it is a given that we have to make it a bit difficult for each other. I don't know that you could ever

overcome that except by having different personalities at a higher level that don't pander to that attitude. As a newcomer to the Commonwealth, when I was coming in to run the program, that is something that really struck me. Fortunately, in general, we have all worked together as individuals and as a team on a personal basis really well, and that has actually overcome a lot of that. Whereas some programs it seems very much the State/Commonwealth relationship holds it back, but I think the community nature, and the fact that people are so committed to the Program, they have overcome that historical [angst]. I think often it might be the State coordinators' managers that have, and then perhaps also within the Commonwealth, our managers have that State/Commonwealth competitiveness. I don't know there must be a word for what it is. So that is a challenge. (Commonwealth Coastcare Manager)

The different roles of the three spheres of government, in relation to coastal management, are pithily described by the following aphorism: 'the Commonwealth has the money; the States the power and Local Government the problems' (Kay and Lester 1997: 268). The roles of each of the spheres of government in determining coastal management arrangements in Australia are considered below.

5.3.1 Commonwealth role in coastal management in Australia

The Commonwealth lacks direct legislative control in the coastal zone as a result of the Federal Constitution, which endows the Commonwealth with very few powers directly related to the environment (O'Connell 1999: 1). However, through Section 96 of the Constitution, the Commonwealth is granted the power to assist the states financially, and may provide grants for natural resource management programs (Commonwealth of Australia 1992a: 12). The NHT, Coasts and Cleans Seas and Coastcare are examples of this. The Commonwealth also has influence through setting policy direction. Despite the rejection of a national coastal policy, the 1995 Commonwealth Coastal Policy has set a framework supporting the original NCAP and subsequent NHT grant schemes and is referred to and reflected in some state coastal policies.

5.3.2 State Government role in coastal management in Australia

State and Territory governments have the greatest responsibility for coastal management (Commonwealth of Australia 1993) to 3 nautical miles seaward from the low-water mark (Aplin 1998: 458). The state has greatest influence along the coast in terms of land-division and management, and planning and development. In addition, states have legislative regulatory control over matters such as port development, off-shore dredging, sewage disposal, inshore fishing, dune and sand

mining, and the preservation of coastal environments – including coastal wetlands (Aplin 1998). The complexity of the overlapping and numerous state agencies dealing with coastal management is illustrated by an example of the Victorian state agencies with responsibility for managing the coast in Figure 5.2. State Governments establish the broad policy framework in which local government operates and provide specialist advice, extension services and funds to local governments (Commonwealth of Australia 1993). All states have a range of legislation for the regulation of use of the coast. Most states also have specific agencies that have a lead responsibility of addressing coastal management issues relating to the coast (Harvey and Caton 2003: 218).

Individually, each of the states and the Northern Territory has initiated significant reforms since the RAC Inquiry (Thom and Harvey 2000; Harvey and Caton 2003) and made dedicated efforts in a bid to achieve a more integrated approach to coastal management (Haward 1996; Wescott 2000b). As part of this integration process Wescott comments that the ‘impact of the tied grants under the MoUs directly associated with the Coasts and Cleans Seas initiative [of which Coastcare is a key element]...cannot be underestimated’ (Wescott 2000b: 77). Each of the states and the Northern Territory is one of three signatories for the Coasts and Clean Seas MoU; it is their responsibility to ensure that Coastcare projects are undertaken in an appropriate manner (meeting the terms and conditions of the MoU) and to administer the financial arrangements of grants.

Most Australian states have recently revised their coastal legislation or coastal policies, incorporating principles of ESD and recognising the importance of integrated approaches to implementation (Harvey and Caton 2003). A list of common features of coastal policy, legislation and agency is summarised by the Western Australian Taskforce report as follows:

- All states have a number of overlapping pieces of legislation governing coastal management
- All states have introduced or revised their coastal legislation (and or) policy since the RAC Inquiry

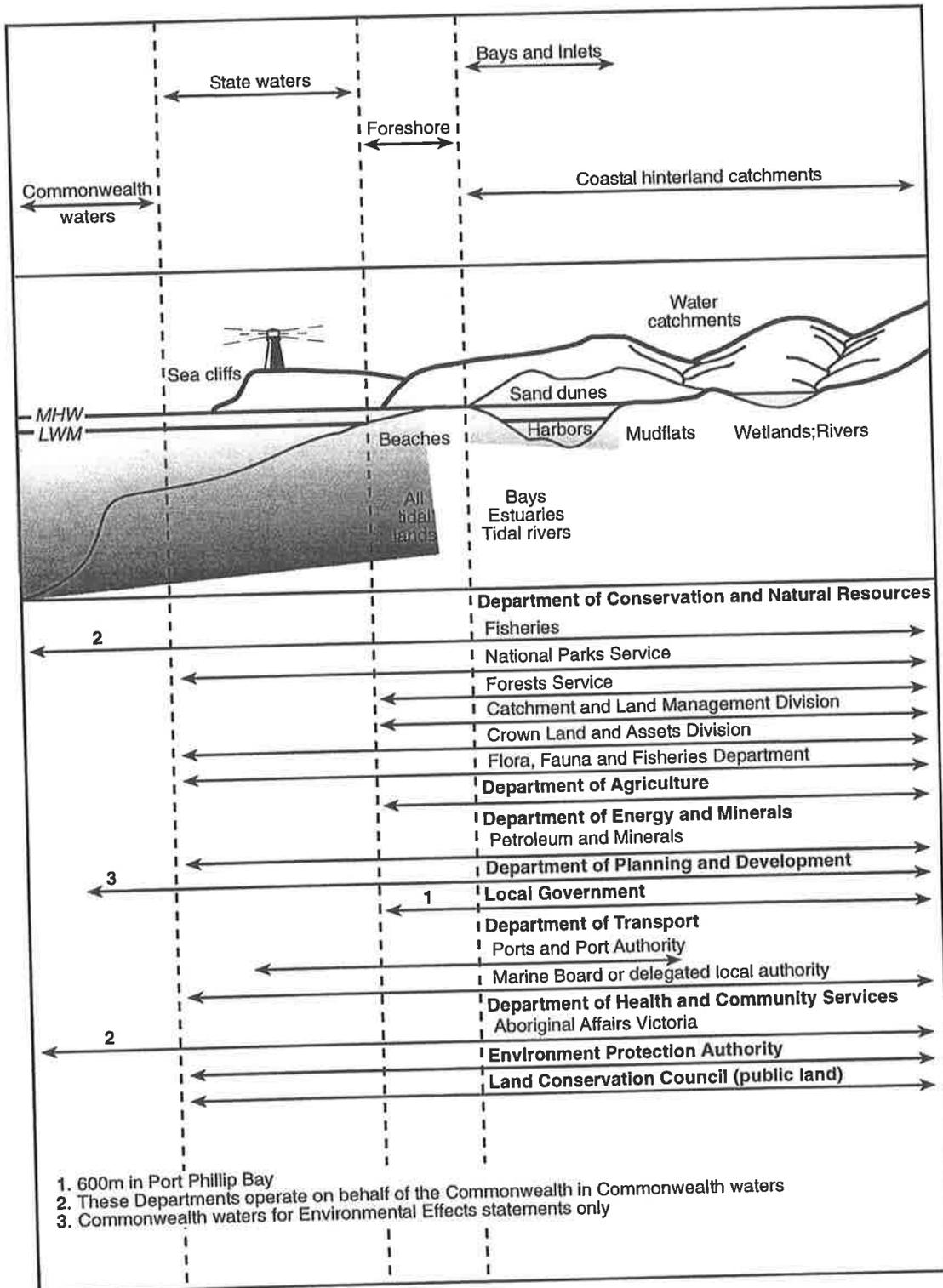


Figure 5.2: Schematic representation of complex jurisdictional arrangements for managing state coastal waters, Victoria
 Source: (State Government of Victoria 1994)

- Most states' lead coastal agency comprises part of a larger environment or NRM agency
- Many states have statutory backing for their coastal policies (Queensland, Victoria, Tasmania and New South Wales)

- Some States have key coastal management responsibilities split across more than one Minister
- Some states have dedicated coastal legislation (Western Australian Government 2002: 36)
And an additional factor missed in the Western Australia review is that:
- Some states have coastal policies that apply to 'whole of government' (New South Wales, Victoria, Tasmania and Queensland) (Harvey and Caton 2003).

However, this composite is an oversimplification of the situation of coastal management around the country. There is tremendous diversity between the specific policy and legislative instruments between states and agencies, and their relative strengths and degree of influence. In short, coastal management in each of the states is driven by a different system (Caton 2001b: 11). Table 5.1 and Table 5.2 provide a summary of the various arrangements, legislation and bodies designated to report back to their respective constituents on progress in the coastal zone.

5.3.3 Local Government's role in coastal management in Australia

Local government is the third party of the NHT Coast and Clean Seas trinity. Presidents of Local Government Associations, or equivalent, around the country signed the Coasts and Clean Seas MoUs, on behalf of local councils. The different associations are listed in Table 5.3. In signing, the LGAs undertook to:

- promote and adopt the philosophy and intent of the MoU
- promote and adopt coastal management policies and practices consistent with the goals and principles of the MoU (to adopt coastal management policies consistent with the principles of sustainable resource use, resource conservation, public participation and capacity building)
- and to establish mechanisms for consultation with coastal interest groups.

The local level of government in Australia is arguably the most relevant to the administration and implementation of the Coastcare program because it is at this level that the community becomes actively engaged in it; and local government agencies are obliged to form a partnership with groups undertaking works on land

Table 5.1: Coastal management arrangements in different states and the Northern Territory

Jurisdiction	Lead Agency	Minister	Principal Coastal Legislation	Coastal Legislation
Commonwealth	Environment Australia	Minister for Environment & Heritage	No special purpose coastal legislation; Acts with relevance include: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Environment Protection and Biodiversity Conservation Act 1999 • Natural Heritage Trust of Australia Act 1997 • Great Barrier Reef Marine Park Act 1975 • Environment Protection (Sea Dumping) Act 1981 	Living on the Coast, Commonwealth Coastal Policy, 1995
New South Wales	Department of Land & Water Conservation	Minister for Land & Water Conservation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Environmental Planning & Assessment Act 1979 • Coastal Protection Act 1979 	NSW Coastal Policy (statutory), 1997 Coastal Protection State Environmental Planning Policy, 2002 (in prep)
Northern Territory	Department of Infrastructure, Planning and Environment	Minister for the Environment		Northern Territory Coastal Management Policy 2001 (non-statutory)
Queensland	Environmental Protection Agency	Minister for Environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coastal Protection and Management Act 1995 • Coastal Protection and Management and Other Legislation Amendment Act 2001 • Harbours Act 1955 (as saved in the Transport Infrastructure Act 1994) • Canals Act 1958 • Beach Protection Act 1968 • Marine Parks Act 1982 	State Coastal Management Plan -Queensland's Coastal Policy 2001 (statutory)
South Australia	Department for Environment & Heritage	Environment & Heritage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coast Protection Act 1972 • Development Act 1993 	Our Seas & Coasts - a Marine & Estuarine Strategy for South Australia, 1998 (non-statutory)
Tasmania	Department of Primary Industries, Water and Environment	Minister for Primary Industries, Water & Environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Crown Lands Act 1976 • Environmental Management and Pollution Control Act 1994 • Land use Planning and Approvals Act 1993 • Living Marine Resources Management Act 1995 • Marine Farming Planning Act 1995 • State Policies and Projects Act 1993 	State Coastal Policy, 1996 (statutory)
Victoria	Department of Natural Resources & Environment	Minister for Environment & Conservation); Minister for Energy & Resources (& Ports); Minister for Agriculture (& Aboriginal Affairs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coastal Management Act 1995 • Crown Land (Reserves) Act 1978 • Land Act 1958 • National Parks Act 1975 	Victorian Coastal Strategy, 2002 (statutory)
Western Australia	Department for Planning & Infrastructure Western Australian Planning Commission	Minister for Planning & Infrastructure	No special purpose coastal legislation. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Town Planning and Development Act 1928 • Western Australian Planning Commission Act 1985 • Metropolitan Region Town Planning Scheme Act 1959 	State Coastal Statement of Planning Policy (Draft) 2001; Coastal Zone for Western Australia (Draft), 2001 (non-statutory)

Source: (Adapted from Western Australian Government 2002: 3)

Table 5.2: Overseeing Coastal Management Body

	Title	Membership	Reports to	Functions*
NSW	NSW Coastal Council	Twenty members, chaired by an expert in coastal protection, comprising: an Member of Parliament, nominees of each of 12 ministers; one each of representatives of Nature Conservation Council, industry group, and professional organisation; three local government members.	Parliament	Independent advisory body to the NSW Government. Reviews Local Environment Plans in coastal zones; undertakes comprehensive coastal assessment.
VIC	Victorian Coastal Council (VCC)	11 members to collectively have experience and knowledge of conservation, tourism, business, recreation, commerce, indigenous issues, community affairs, town planning, local government, and coastal engineering (no specific appointee sources).	Minister (Environment)	Undertake state-wide strategic coastal planning and prepare a Victorian Coastal Strategy. Advise Minister re funding priorities and the administration of the Act.
QLD	Coastal Protection Advisory Council (CPAC)	11 members, chaired by the CEO, including community members appointed on the basis of experience in, and knowledge of, coastal zone management (no specific appointee sources)	Minister (Environment)	Advise Minister re: areas needing special coastal management. Provide assistance to Local Government and other agencies.
WA	Coastal Zone Council (CZC)	10 members comprising seven members from State Agencies, two from local government and one member from the community/indigenous. The Coastal Zone Council is a committee of the Western Australian Planning Commission.	Minister (Planning)	The Council functions largely as an information exchange and policy coordination body.
SA	Coast Protection Board (CBP)	6 members: from Environment and Planning, Marine and Harbours, Tourism, local government, and two others with relevant expertise.	Minister (Environment)	May acquire, hold, sell and dispose of property; acquire or incur legal rights; hold property on behalf of the Crown. Manage, maintain and develop facilities vested in or under care of the Board
TAS	State Coastal Advisory Committee (SCAC)	(more than 9) members. Representatives from State government and local government and the community	Minister (Environment)	Facilitate implementation, coordination, consistent interpretation, and evaluation of the Policy.
NT	Coastal and Marine Coordinating Group	13 Members	Minister (Environment)	Monitor progress on implementing strategic responses within the policy implementation strategy and provide annual overview. Formally reviews the Implementation Strategy every 5 years.

Source: (Adapted from Western Australian Government 2002: 3)

Table 5.3: Local Government Representatives: Signatories of the MoUs

NSW	Local Government and Shires Association of NSW
VIC	The Municipal Association of Victoria
QLD	The Local Government Association of QLD
WA	Western Australian Municipal Association
SA	The Local Government Association of SA
TAS	Local Government Association of Tasmania
NT	The Local Government Association of NT

Source: Compiled from state and Northern Territory Coasts and Clean Seas MoUs (1998)

for which they hold authority. Local government's role is crucial in managing the settled parts of the coastal zone because local government has primary responsibility for the 'care, control and management of coastal lands under their jurisdiction' (RAC 1992, 11) and where decisions have the potential to have significant environmental impacts (HORSCERA 1991). Holmes and Saenger go so far as to suggest that local government is the principle body carrying out coastal management in Australia 'mostly using planning powers and backed up by the sectoral and multi-focus state level agencies' (Holmes and Saenger 1995: 299).

Local government, within the bounds of state strategic plans and state agency control, is responsible for day-to-day maintenance of beaches and coastal facilities. Specific responsibilities include:

- Regional and local infrastructure development and maintenance (beach access, amenity, and recreation facilities)
- Stormwater infrastructure and management
- Waste management and sewerage infrastructure (litter waste and minimisation)
- Land use planning and management (urban development, marinas, ports, jetties, recreation & tourism, public lands management)
- Community development (education and advocacy, facilitating community-based activities, including Coastcare)
- Environmental Protection (protection of biodiversity, bushland and marine habitat, control of pests and animals, maintenance of coastal and marine aesthetic values)

(Caton and Elliot 1993; Commonwealth of Australia 1993; Holmes and Saenger 1995; Aplin 1998; Neil et al. 2002)

The terms of the MoU specified membership of the Intergovernmental Coastal Reference Group (ICRG) which included representatives from Commonwealth, State and local government. This is documented in Schedule 2 of the Coasts and Clean seas MoU (see Appendix 2). The Australian Local Government Association (ALGA) was intended to represent local government at these meetings, along with state local government representatives in the state hosting the meeting. Unfortunately local government participation in the meetings was patchy, with local government not having the resources to send someone to meetings in Perth or Darwin. Local government interest and involvement dropped off over time.

There is great variation between the approximate 760 local governments around the country and their capacity to care for and manage the coast:

A few are large and complex urban organisations, with high populations and budgets and relatively small land areas, while many are small councils in remote and rural areas with low populations and budgets and extensive land areas. (ICRG 2002b: 17)

The issue of budgets, population and rates is an issue for local government and environmental management generally:

Local governments performance in the protection of the environment and the promotion of environmentally sound planning has been a mixed bag, and has depended on the priorities of rate payers and councilors. Local Governments' reliance on property rates for most of its revenue is definitely at odds with environmental planning. (Hunt 1993: 21)

ICRG reported that local government has struggled to meet broader Commonwealth and state coastal management objectives due to a lack of resources, lack of trained staff and poor incentives to engage in coastal management. Reasons provided included a reluctance by local industries and land developers for local government involvement in regulation of land use at the coast (ICRG 2002b). Other studies also recognise issues of budget and capacity constraint for local government (Rose 1994; Neil et al. 2002; Harvey and Caton 2003). Economic capacity is a fundamental determinant of local council interest and ability to implement conservation and environment programs.

A call from ICRG in 2001 for a more clearly articulated division of responsibilities between tiers of government, and in particular for local government to 'be formally included in programs', would suggest that local government had been subordinate

in such dealings previously (Intergovernmental Coastal Reference Group 2001). ALGAs Coastal Management Policy clearly states its dissatisfaction in the NHT partnership

The NHT partnership agreements between Commonwealth and State/Territory Governments do not adequately reflect the role of local government in environmental management. The spirit of cooperative action espoused in the Coasts and Clean Seas MoUs, which have been more encouraging from a local government perspective, must be translated into effective ongoing and meaningful consultation with local government. The intergovernmental framework must be further developed to enable national goals to be achieved locally. (Neil et al. 2002: 3)

The ALGA coastal management policy provides reasons for the dissatisfaction with the partnership:

- the inadequacy and uncertainty of Commonwealth funding arrangements under the NHT
- timing of funding rounds is unpredictable
- local government has not been involved in the development of funding guidelines
- the funding contribution to coastal management programs, like Coastcare, made by local government is often neglected in contrast to state and community contributions.

5.3.3.1 Local coastal plans and management strategies

All local coastal councils (not including the NT) have a range of planning powers that influence the management of the coast. However,

Local governments functions, powers and responsibilities are not prescriptive in each state. Local government must implement statutory responsibilities and operate within state/territory legislative frameworks and as a land manager in their own right. Councils do have the responsibilities to make policies, undertake planning and deliver services to meet their communities' needs. Furthermore, Councils are actively involved in policy delivery, planning and delivery of services.....[in addition] Local Government is very active in a diverse range of regional planning partnerships with other Councils, the community and industry. (ALGA 2002)

Unlike the numerous reports and overviews of state government approaches to coastal management reform in Australia, it is difficult to find a synopsis and comprehensive documentation of adjustments made by local governments in light of coastal reforms introduced by higher levels of government. There are numerous styles of planning and management at the local level with equally diverse and patchily written management strategies to guide local government in their coastal

management role. Harvey and Caton (2003) suggest a lack of coverage of local level management plans to implement the goals of broader state policy.

5.3.3.2 Local coastal land managers excluded by the 'Coasts and Clean Seas' MoU

The tri-partite agreement of the Coasts and Clean Seas MoU at the local level of management, considers only local government land managers of the coast. Consequently, between the different states, especially those with remote coasts and concentrated patches of development, like the Northern Territory, South Australia and Western Australia, vast stretches of coastline are theoretically not considered by the MoU. For example, more than 80% of the Northern Territory coast is owned by indigenous managers. Western Australia has vast tracts of pastoral lease land abutting the coast, marine conservation reserves and terrestrial national parks; indigenous reserves as well as mining interests and industrial estates. In addition, approximately one third of the Victorian coastline is managed by national and state parks. Coastcare groups make a partnership with Parks managers when submitting applications. This partnership, while beneficial, lies beyond the formal MoU agreements.

In NHT II I would like to see National Parks as a signatory to the MoU because they own a third of the coast. For them not to be a signatory is cutting out one major land manager in my opinion. They deal with things differently though to local government.... Parks have been happy just to take our grant funding which is why I want to see them on the MoU, and have them put down to do something, have a role, whether it be financial or just sort of an in-kind role. They are a very poor cousin of the State Government departments, they have no money. (State Coastcare coordinator)

The only [agency] I don't get financial support is from National Parks who are a big player in coastal zone management. Personally I'd love to see, (because [the State agency] and Coastcare have signed off on a Coastcare agreement), National parks to sign off on it too. If we did that we'd have the whole gamut covered of all coastal managers. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Under the new NHT II bilateral agreements between State and Commonwealth Governments these other local coastal managers should be included in negotiations and broader planning frameworks.

5.5 Progress towards ICM through Australia's coastal management institutions

Wescott (2000a) provided a comparison 'snap shot' of individual Australian states' coastal management arrangements by specifically pitting each against evaluative

criteria, identified by Cicin-Sain and Knecht (1998), developed to measure progress towards ICM. The rapid assessment serves as a useful guide for this study, given that Coastcare was underway in all states and the Northern Territory at this time, and would have been working within the institutional systems he describes. One of the objectives of this project is to examine how coastal arrangements in different places have affected the implementation of the Program. The following discussion provides an overview of the individual state and territory arrangements, to highlight their strengths and barriers to an integrated approach to coastal management. Following Cicin-Sain and Knecht, Wescott's indicators for assessment included:

- the degree of vertical and horizontal integration
- the clarity of coastal program objectives
- the existence of a lead coastal agency
- the existence of plans and policies
- capacity building and
- community participation components.

He concluded that 'as might be expected some jurisdictions have progressed more rapidly than others' (Wescott 2000b: 77). Wescott's 'report card' on the implementation of ICM in Australia in 2000 ranked New South Wales and Victoria as the most advanced. Tasmania also scored highly in the assessment. The central factor that strengthened the case for these three states was their established statutory mechanisms for implementing institutional arrangements (strategic plans and policy). Queensland at that time was expected to 'join the other three states' but had been slow in implementing its coastal management legislation, revised in 1995.

Since Wescott's assessment, the three 'poorly performing' states have been active. Northern Territory has produced a 'Coastal Management Policy Implementation Strategy'. Western Australia, in 2001, produced a 'Draft Coastal Zone Management Policy' but this was placed on hold when the ministerial task force 'Review of the Structural Arrangements for Coastal Planning and Management in Western Australia' commenced in August 2001. The Western Australian government's response to the taskforce report was delivered in April 2003. The

response indicates that the coastal zone policy is anticipated to provide a whole-of-government position on coastal planning when finalised. To date it remains in draft form (Heller 2003; Government of Western Australia 2003). South Australia has been reviewing and consolidating disparate coastal policies and considering revision to the Coast Protection Act (Caton 2001a). These recent developments for the three states are still in the formative stages, and so it is too early to review their impact on existing arrangements.

Caton in 2001 prepared an overview of state coastal policies (where they existed at that time - Victoria, New South Wales, Tasmania and Queensland) and their respective differences and what this means for implementing coastal management (Caton 2001b). In Caton's overview too, New South Wales, Victoria and Tasmania are recognised for their statutory and whole-of-government approach to coastal management. The coastal policies and strategies of New South Wales and Victoria are also commended by Caton for their framing of a strategic approach to management, linking policy to regional planning. South Australia in contrast is considered reactionary in its approach, responding to issues rather than planning for better management (Caton 2001b).

Queensland and Victoria are the only two states to have revised their coastal legislation in recent years, while South Australia and New South Wales function with legal instruments devised prior to the introduction of ESD and integrated philosophies of management. However, New South Wales has a contemporary statutory Coastal Policy, based on ESD principles and a supporting Coastal Council which has a principle responsibility 'for detailed reporting on the implementation of the state's coastal policy to state parliament' (Caton 2001a). In contrast, South Australia continues to manage with outdated legislation and an absence of a state coastal policy. Conversely, Tasmania, Western Australia and Northern Territory have no dedicated coastal legislation. Tasmania however, is a unique case because its Coastal Policy (despite a complicated brief lapse in 2002 when the Supreme Court of Tasmania overruled and nullified the policy [Rees 2002a]) has proven to be a useful instrument in raising the profile of coastal issues and operating as a powerful tool in development matters for the coast:

all draft management plans, planning schemes, large development proposals, and all new proposals for private use of coastal public land must be consistent with the Coastal Policy. (Rees 2002b: 8)

5.6 State-by-State comparison of coastal management arrangements

The following section provides the specific details of each state and the Northern Territories coastal management arrangements to provide a clear picture of the legislative and policy influences in each place that impact on the way Coastcare has been implemented around Australia. Comments made during the interview process with the key stakeholders for this study (the state coastal managers, the Coastcare co-ordinator and the facilitators) provide further insights into how Coastcare functioned within state coastal management structures.

5.6.1 New South Wales

According to the ICM review conducted by Wescott, New South Wales was described as having a sophisticated, well developed and substantially implemented ICM approach (Wescott 2000b: 17). Features earning New South Wales this praise included its powerful Coastal Policy and influential Coastal Council.

The Coastal Council of NSW was established under the Coastal Protection Act 1979, and is considered to be 'the independent watchdog for coastal management in NSW' (Coastal Council of NSW 2002b). Its primary function is to provide government with independent advice regarding coastal planning and management; and monitor and review the implementation of the New South Wales Coastal Policy 1997. A key role of the Council is the unique formal reporting requirement to Parliament, by the Coastal Council Chair, of details of implementation of their Coastal Policy (New South Wales Government 1997). The Coastal Policy, revised in 1997, describes itself as

A Government policy and all New South Wales state government agencies and local councils are obliged to take account of it in the preparation of their own specific policies and programs. (New South Wales Government 1997: 24)

The Policy outlines a series of goals and consistent strategic actions based upon ESD principles for the coast. The Policy proposes that state and local government

agencies incorporate its principles in corporate planning goals and local management plans. Reporting includes local council annual reports and localised state of the environment reports which review how the Policy has been implemented. These reviews provide the basis of the Coastal Councils report on progress to parliament (New South Wales Government 1997).

However, New South Wales fails to apply a 'whole-of-government' approach given that the Greater Metropolitan Region (the urban areas of Newcastle, Central Coast, Sydney and Illawarra) are omitted from the 1997 Coastal Policy (Thom 2002). Given that these areas 'have by far the greatest impact on the coastal zone' (Wescott 2000b: 17) it is clearly a significant omission. In addition there is currently no legislative basis for the Coastal Policy. To counteract this, the New South Wales Government has prepared a State Environmental Planning Policy (SEPP) that offers legal backing to the Coastal Policy as a Coastal Protection SEPP (ICRG 2002a).

5.6.1.1 NSW - Local Government coastal management arrangements

New South Wales has 43 local coastal councils. However, only 21 of these have responsibilities under its Coastal Policy (Commonwealth of Australia 2001). Local councils in New South Wales are the primary authority for most developments but they also have a 'proactive role in environmental education, strategic management (zoning) and management of the coastal zone' (ICRG 2002a). Under the New South Wales Local Government Act 1993, coastal councils are required to prepare management plans, and objectives of the 1997 New South Wales Coastal Policy must be incorporated within such plans (New South Wales Government 1997). According to ICRG (2002a: 48), the New South Wales Government 'recently released a suite of coastal planning and management reforms' to protect their coastal assets. The first stage of these reforms began with local councils being legally obliged to consult with the Coastal Council throughout the local environmental planning (LEP) process to ensure consistency with the New South Wales Coastal Policy 1997 (Coastal Council of NSW 2002b). The news item shown in Box 5.2 highlights the status of the reforms.

Box 5.2: New South Wales - News Item

Mon, 3 Jun 2002 7:43 AEST (ABC News on-line)
<http://www.abc.net.au/news/australia/nsw/midnorth/regmid-3jun2002-2.htm>
 NSW- COUNCILS TOLD NOT TO IGNORE COASTAL POLICY

Shadow Land and Water Conservation Minister and Ballina MP Don Page says coastal councils who ignore the state's coastal policy run the risk of having coastal development approvals being taken out of their hands by the NSW Government.

However, in November 2002 control over local government decision making, regarding development taking place along the coast, was strengthened through a new State Environmental Planning Policy coming into effect: SEPP 71. This policy is legally binding under the Environmental Planning and Assessment Act 1979 (EPA ACT), 'to give force to the New South Wales Coastal Policy' (Carmody 2003: 11). SEPP 71, along with associated amendments to relevant legislation, has removed some decision making powers from New South Wales local coastal councils. At the same time such councils are required to 'improve their consideration of coastal environments when making decisions' (Carmody 2003: 11). Councils preparing LEPs are now legally bound to take into account the provisions of the SEPP.

Local government in New South Wales is also responsible for the formation and coordination of coastal and estuarine management committees, which oversee the development and implementation of management plans. There are approximately 70 estuary and 20 coastal management committees (New South Wales Government 2000; and 1997).

Despite the well established system of local and regional environmental plans in New South Wales, at the national coastal conference in 2002, the synopsis for the state's progress in integrated management revealed there were difficulties implementing the 1997 Coastal Policy at local government level 'despite ministerial direction'. Reasons for this included financial and staffing constraints and because many statutory plans at local and regional levels were out of date in relation to existing policies (Thom 2002: 469).

5.6.1.2 Participation and Coastcare in NSW

New South Wales has had a long established community initiative, Dunecare, since the late 1980s, originally supported by the state Soil Conservation agency. The initiative is highly organised, with its own set of aims and an executive committee; Dunecare hosts a biennial conference and its website lists 76 active groups along the state's coast (New South Wales Dunecare, 2003). The Dunecare website acknowledges the support of Coastcare and Dunecare activities have, over time, become blended with Coastcare:

Most of our groups call themselves Dunecare groups, not Coastcare groups, which is different to the rest of Australia. It's taken a while but Dunecare have realised that Coastcare is the best thing since sliced bread. That's the opinion we're getting from the executive of Dunecare.... They have an opportunity to get the best technical advice. They have an opportunity to deal with the land manager on a more formal basis. They don't feel like citizens just ranting and raving against the government or asking for things. They have a conduit. Their identity as a community groups is strengthened by being associated with Coastcare. They realise through Coastcare that the government recognises what they do. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Partially, as a consequence of the effectiveness of Dunecare, community participation features as a central objective of the New South Wales Coastal Policy.

Objective 1.5 is:

To foster new initiatives and facilitate the continued involvement of the community in programs aimed at the restoration and rehabilitation of degraded coastal areas. (New South Wales Government 1997)

In addition, the Policy urges local councils, when preparing their management plans, to 'recognise the substantial work undertaken by community groups in coastal zone management' (New South Wales Government 1997: 24).

Coastcare is regarded highly in New South Wales: 'On-ground works and capacity building achieved by Coastcare is a significant manifestation of community involvement in coastal zone management' (Thom 2002: 468); and Coastcare is given specific mention in the Coastal Council Annual Report to Parliament (Coastal Council of NSW 2002a:50) in meeting their participation objectives.

When asked for their perspective of the suitability and support provided through coastal legislation and policy in their state, the New South Wales state coastal manager and the Coastcare team responded as follows in Box 5.3.

Box 5.3: New South Wales Respondents Comments

**NEW SOUTH WALES
STATE COASTAL MANAGER AND COASTCARE TEAM
PERCEPTION OF SUPPORT & DIRECTION AFFORDED THE PROGRAM
THROUGH STATE AND REGIONAL COASTAL POLICY**

I think [Coastcare projects] are very successful at addressing a small part of that overall [NSW 1997] Policy that relates to the enhancement of the natural experience and ecology of the coastline. However, I think the major problems we have in NSW relate to inappropriately sited development and protection, or the need for protection of that development. That really falls outside of the Coastcare experience in lots of ways.We have a coastal management process that focuses on delivery of coastal management plans through local council. [The plans] are done at a local Shire level. It is very much delivered through local government at the local level. In terms of Coastcare involvement at the regional level there has probably been very little. There has been more focus with local councils and the limit of it is the Shire wide side of it. Much of Coastcare is based on local projects and local issues.
(State Coastal Manager).

Since the Policy has been in place the community have been integral enacting some of the parts and actions of the Policy. The NSW Coastal Policy is a big fluffy document anyway that has these big motherhood statements, so I guess they are all working to it. It says stuff about ESD and using indigenous plants. But that is just common sense, they are not striving to achieve implementation of the strategy. Projects are more successful at addressing local plans (State Coastcare Coordinator).

[Coastcare projects] have been really successful where there is actually a strategy or management plan in place and a lot of what the community can do is basically dictated through that process. eg a coastal management plan, an estuary management plan or a coastal reserve management plan. Where they are in place you don't seem to have any problem. We've got a lot of areas where these things haven't been developed or they're in the process of being developed and it is difficult to motivate the community to do things when all they can do is low impact stuff. They need to be involved more. Where there is a definitive plan in place you have much better success. Wherever the State has got a planning process we've had good success (Regional Coastcare Facilitator a).

Given that we've basically got the [New South Wales] State Coastal Policy that's our main strategy with regard to the coast. As part of the Coastcare program we drive all those elements of those strategies (Regional Coastcare Facilitator b).

I don't think there is any connection at all [between NSW Coastal Policy and Coastcare projects]. Some community groups have used Coastcare to get management plans up and running or to get plans of management done, written and then implemented. So in that way they've been successful. Now whether those groups that have done that have considered this question in what they're doing, a whole lot of groups, all they want to do is plant trees. So it doesn't really come into it. You may have a very low percentage of groups that are looking at the big picture. They just look at their own patch of beach and concerns. I think that's where you say they are involved in biodiversity or with the big plan e.g. you try to tell the person working on the dunes that they are part of the catchment.... in a lot of instances groups are doing projects that are a part of the regional plan. But it wouldn't happen if Coastcare wasn't there and you didn't get a community group fired up. There's a lot of suggestions go to community groups: 'Here's a plan you could get involved in, and that's a way of doing it'. It's the best way of getting things done. It has happened. It may be a regional plan and we'll have a meeting with the stakeholders and ask how we can this project up and running. And I'll say: 'Maybe we can form a community group?'. And I just happen to know there's a group has an interest in that area, so maybe they could take it on as a challenge; and then regionally I have to get support and contributions from local government towards those projects and it could be dollar for dollar or it could be in-kind contribution (Regional Coastcare Facilitator c).

A lot of the projects that groups are doing are addressing coastal management strategies and plans and some of them aren't. The ones that aren't just see a problem in their local area which may not be a priority for the land manager or the State but they want to undertake it in their local area so that's not a problem (Regional Coastcare Facilitator d).

All applications for funding have to adhere to the appropriate management plans or strategies that are in place within that region otherwise they don't receive funding (Regional Coastcare facilitator e)

In New South Wales, Coastcare can be seen to have been supported by and was able to contribute to planning structures and vision. The comments above clearly indicate that where coastal policy and management plans existed, Coastcare was able to support and implement aspects of those. Whilst the New South Wales state coastal policy is broad and wide ranging, Coastcare was able to make a contribution by implementing elements of it. While groups may not directly realise their position within the policy and planning frameworks, the Coastcare facilitators have been able to gently direct enthusiasm of groups to support and contribute to big picture goals.

5.6.2 Victoria

Victoria has a comprehensive framework for coastal management, and as mentioned above, scored highly in the rapid assessment of progress towards integrated management by Wescott in 2000.

The Coastal Management Act 1995 established the Victorian Coastal Council (VCC) as the peak body for the strategic planning and management of Victoria's coastal and marine environment. The Council provides advice on coastal issues to the Environment Minister and prepared the Victorian Coastal Strategy (first produced in 1997 and the revised 2002 version) which has been adopted by the Victorian State Government. The Strategy outlines the principles for coastal management and a series of related objectives and actions that will ensure its implementation (Victorian Government 2002). Under the Coastal Management Act 1995 all state agencies must comply with the Victorian Coastal Strategy (Wescott 2000b).

Victoria's coastal management structure consists of three Regional Coastal Boards: the Western Regional Board, Central Regional Board and Gippsland Regional Boards, depicted in Figure 5.3. These Boards support the role of the VCC and develop Coastal Action Plans that identify strategic regional approaches to coastal management. Coastal Action Plans guide planning and management at the regional level. Under the Coastal Management Act 1995, Coastal Action Plans must identify strategic directions and objectives for use and development within the region.

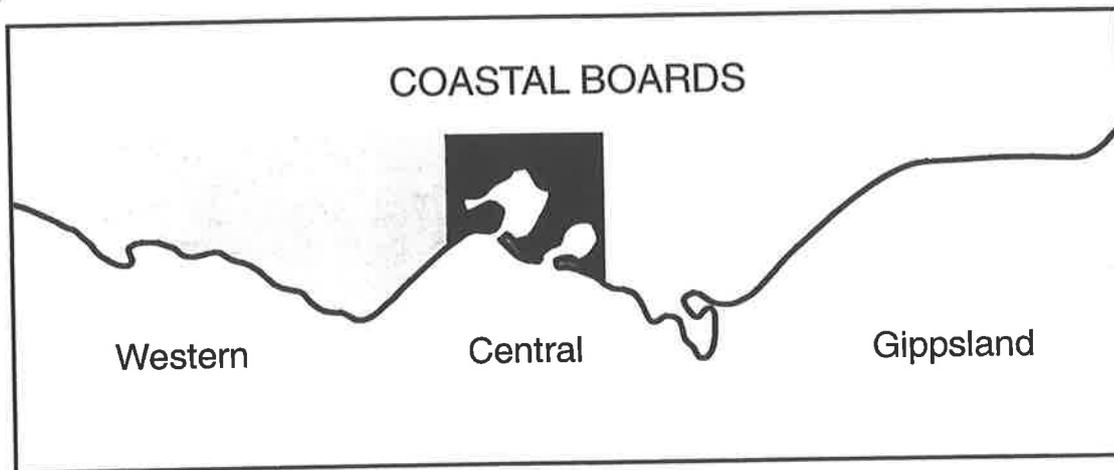


Figure 5.3: Victoria's Three Regional Coastal Boards
Source: Adapted from (Victorian Government 2002)

5.6.2.1 Victoria - Local Government

Victoria's Coastal Strategy was developed at the same time as the Victorian State Government, through the Department of Infrastructure (Planning), commenced a program to revise and simplify Victoria's state planning system:

The Victorian Planning Provisions were developed as a set of tools, which Local Government was required to use, to revise and develop a Local Planning Policy Framework. This included the development of a Municipal Strategic Statement for each Municipality; revision of their Planning Schemes with respect to the Victorian Planning Provisions; and integration of local and state policy (Harper 1999).

Despite the fact that these two mechanisms were developed at the same time, the Victorian Coastal Strategy and the Local Planning Policy Framework were largely separate schemes, and a challenge for Local Government and State Government in Victoria has been to appropriately integrate the two, to be effective in protecting the coastal and marine environment (Harper 1999). Since 2000, Victorian local governments have had 'a stronger coastal focus' (James 2002), advanced by

Victoria's regional approach to coastal management through its three Boards that provide a buttress between state and local coastal planning and management. Eleven coastal action plans, for key areas of the Victorian coast, are working towards regional application of the State coastal strategy.

Coastal Action Plans, as a tool provided via the Victorian Coastal Strategy, provide a mechanism that enables Councils to look beyond their immediate coastline and how its management, protection and development, relate to its context, position, accessibility and demand (Harper 1999).

The Minister for Planning in Victoria has promoted integration of coastal management objectives and policies into local government planning schemes (James 2002). Decisions made through these schemes must refer to the Victorian Coastal Strategy and Coastal Action Plans (Morcom and Harvey in press). In addition coastal training programs 'are evolving at key institutes' designed to assist local government and agencies develop their skills in coastal management (James 2002).

In Victoria, a local council may be a Committee of Management for a foreshore reserve, but all local councils are responsible under the Planning and Environment Act 1987 for decisions about the use and development of land in their municipality. Under the Act each local government in Victoria, including the 22 councils with a coastal boundary, must develop a 'municipal planning scheme' that guides all planning decisions. The municipal planning schemes are strategic documents that set out controls over use, development and protection of land in a municipality (city or shire). These controls affect all landowners including the Crown. Planning schemes contain the following components:

- State Planning Policy Framework (SPPF) - standard planning provisions which apply to all municipalities in Victoria
- Local Planning Policy Framework - includes the Municipal Strategic Statement (MSS) that outlines the strategic framework and future direction for planning in a particular municipality. An MSS must be consistent with the SPPF
- Zones - categorise land into appropriate uses such as residential, industrial or rural and
- Overlays - indicate areas with special planning controls such as high bushfire risk (Victorian Government 1998).

According to ICRG these schemes

are an important tool for the implementation of the state policy objectives for the coast. They provide a mechanism for integrating coastal development, management and outcomes by linking across private and public land. (ICRG 2002a:54)

Victorian Councils may also adopt other plans that affect coastal management such as their own Foreshore Management Plans, recreation plans, and Agenda 21 plans.

Victoria has a long history of community involvement in local planning and management through its local coastal committees of management (CoM), regarded as 'pioneers' of active coastal management in Victoria (Ronalds 1999:11). CoMs emerged as a consequence of land tenure arrangements. It is estimated that 96% of the Victorian coastline is publicly owned as foreshore reserves. The Department of Natural Resources and Environment delegates the management of most foreshore reserves in Victoria to CoMs. Under the terms of the Coastal Management Act 1995, CoMs have the authority to prepare a management plan for the whole or any part of the land that they manage. A review of Coastal Crown Land Management in 1998, however, resulted in 'the disbanding of public CoMs in municipalities experiencing higher levels of use' (Ronalds 1999:11) and local councils assumed the responsibility of coastal manager in their place. Existing CoMs, whilst independent, receive support from local councils. National Parks abutting the coast are the exception, managed by the State Government through Parks Victoria (Harper 1999).

5.6.2.2 Participation and Coastcare in Victoria

CoastAction/Coastcare is recognised as a critical element of the Victorian coastal program (Wescott 2000b) and is directly referred to in Victoria's coastal policy. This is illustrated in Box 5.4. Wescott makes note of the fact that the Victorian SAP for CoastAction/Coastcare makes recommendations on the Program, and 'has significant representation from the VCC and uses the Victorian Coastal Strategy to assist in prioritising grants' (Wescott 2000b: 54). Indeed, the Victorian SAP in 2000 opened with a round table discussion of what members expected of CoastAction/Coastcare applications over and above the criteria specified in the Coastcare Guidelines to Applicants. Applications that identified regional assessments, regional coastal priorities and the Victorian Coastal Strategy were

identified by the Panel as key projects for funding. Such a preliminary discussion was not held by any other SAP.

Box 5.4: Reference to community in the Victorian Coastal Strategy

Prominence of Community Participation in Victoria's Coastal Policy

Who Does What Along the Coast?

The role of the community is vital. Not only do they contribute significantly to coastal planning and management through active involvement and participation in local management activities, but also through the range of services and facilities provided by a wide variety of groups (Victorian Government 2002: 8);

Theme 3: 'People on the Coast'

There are over 350 CoastAction/Coastcare groups in Victoria with a volunteer base of over 20,000....Victoria's enthusiasm for the coast is evident in the number of people who volunteer their time and labour to directly manage or undertake practical works along the coast. Perhaps more important than the physical resource this represents is the role that this involvement has in informing and educating the community on coastal values and processes. The sense of community 'ownership' these programs encourage over local sections of coast and the protection this custodianship affords is invaluable (Victorian Government 2002: 31).

The community is a principal stakeholder in the coast. Few of the outcomes and actions identified in [the] Strategy are achievable without their support. Priority will continue to be given to increasing community awareness of catchment, coastal and marine issues through groups and programs such as CoastAction/Coastcare (Victorian Government 2002: 32)

Integration and Implementation of the Strategy

Community ownership is encouraged through involvement in decision making processes and participation in programs such as Coast Action/Coastcare.

Source: (Victorian Government 2002: 49)

The Victorian SAP process was the most thorough of all states being the only one to run assessment at regional and state level. The Victorian SAP process is depicted in Figure 5.4. Victoria had three Regional Assessment Panels (RAPs) (South West, Central and Gippsland) which corresponded with Victoria's three Regional Coastal Boards of management. The primary purpose of the RAPs was to prioritise applications as high, medium or low priority initiatives according to regional priorities, plans and policies. After the RAPs submitted their recommendations, the Victorian SAP met and panel members were presented with detailed application summaries sorted in regional, ranked order. The SAP fine tuned RAP recommendations. Whilst being extremely thorough, given the size of grant funds to groups, this was perhaps a too protracted a system.

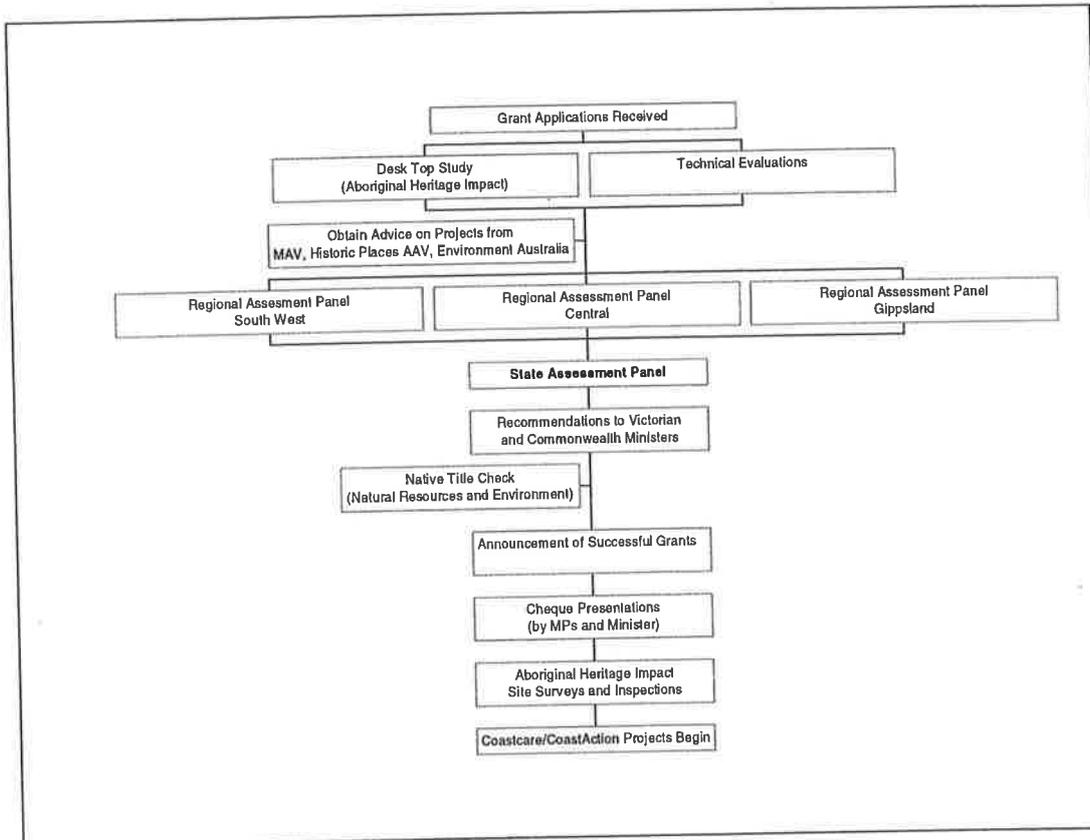


Figure 5.4: Victoria's CoastAction/Coastcare state assessment panel process
Source: This thesis

Another example of Victoria's commitment to CoastAction/Coastcare was that the State CoastAction/Coastcare coordinator for Victoria was included as part of the team revising the 2002 coastal strategy, specifically to provide and incorporate a community perspective. Below, in Box 5.5 are the comments of the Victorian CoastAction/Coastcare team and senior coastal management, reflecting on how CoastAction/Coastcare addressed state and regional plans and strategies.

Box 5.5: Victoria Respondent Comments

VICTORIA STATE COASTAL MANAGER AND COASTACTION/COASTCARE TEAM PERCEPTION OF SUPPORT & DIRECTION AFFORDED THE PROGRAM THROUGH STATE AND REGIONAL COASTAL POLICY

It is important to note that all of the CoastAction/Coastcare grants are assessed against the [Victorian] strategy for priority. Most of the works undertaken by CoastAction/Coastcare are about delivery of the strategy. There are some fairly targeted bits in our coastal strategy that are directed towards encouraging and further involving CoastAction/Coastcare groups (State Coastal Manager).

I think [CoastAction/Coastcare] has been very successful [in addressing the Victoria's Coastal Strategy] because our State Strategy was very much about balancing conservation and development and those sort of things. A lot of the sort of things the [CoastAction/Coastcare] program and [CoastAction/Coastcare] groups have been tackling have been priorities within the State coastal strategy and we have just re written it. It is with

Cabinet and hopefully being signed off. I think evidence of how well we have addressed it and our role in implementing the State coastal strategy is evident in this next version which has used CoastAction/Coastcare as an example for many things: Talking about involving the community; and our program is named in the State Coastal Strategy numerous times. For example, for weed control programs or involving the community, awareness raising programs and those sort of things. I think we have done that quite well. I was involved in the re-write. I think one of the things that helped with that and the next part (regional coastal strategies) has been for our grant applications we include in the questions about 'how does your project relate to the land manager plan, State strategy?' etc and I think that really helped too because whenever a group applied for funding they had to think about how this fitted in. That is exactly what they thought about in the first year but following their thought processes changed they have made sure their projects are part of the management plans or the state strategy. Of course the local or regional management plans should fall in line with the State strategy so if a group is making sure their projects are addressing the local management plans they automatically address the State strategy... A lot of groups are involved in the development of these regional strategies and management plans so they are intimately involved in knowing what is in the plans and strategies (State Coastcare coordinator).

I think well and truly all the grants that have been given to groups have been given on the basis that they were addressing the strategies. They are definitely doing that (Regional Coastcare Facilitator a).

We take the Victorian Coastal Strategy into account when we assess [projects]. Most people are aware of it but work on-the-ground. The coastal strategy is just a piece of paper produced by the government. [The facilitators] are the face of the government. We can say, 'the Strategy says this, the biodiversity section says this'. Most people want to be told what to do and we're seen as expert or we point them in the direction of experts... Strategies are very broad scale so all you're doing is working a bit around the edges. Unless there is heaps and heaps of money put into large scale projects it's going to take a very long time. Strategies are just plans that you work to. [Groups are] only aware of what we tell them. (Regional Coastcare Facilitator b).

I think it has actually been really successful because the CoastAction/Coastcare program in Victoria is situated within the State environment body which actually manages or actually has coastal management policy. Plus the Coastal Strategy. We blend in and sit very well with all that and our projects, when they are assessed at a State level and a regional level, are assessed in accordance with other regional plans, State plans and policies to ensure they are in accordance with those sort of things. When projects are being developed groups are advised to link them in with those recommendations of plans, strategies and policies. So, I think in Victoria we are linked in quite well. But there is always room for improvement in that aspect as well.

Making the groups more aware of some of the details of the plans and strategies and giving them more direction and focus of where they might want to start doing some more work (Regional Coastcare Facilitator c).

and of regional strategies

[Victorian Regional Boards] are still getting going with some of their plans and strategies but from what has been developed out of those, our groups link in quite well. The groups are consulted quite a lot by regional planning bodies, coastal planning groups. So they are asked for their advice and comments and so forth in putting together regional plans so groups are linked quite significantly. They might say, 'So we're going to apply for this amount of funding' or this sort of thing. It is already in the plan. So I think we link quite well in that respect (Regional Coastcare Facilitator c).

CoastAction/Coastcare in Victoria was well supported by Victoria's regional structure and associated coastal planning documents. CoastAction/Coastcare was recognised at state management level as an asset to their broader coastal program and in delivering the aims of the Strategy. The reference to CoastAction/Coastcare in the Victorian Coastal Strategy is evidence of the recognition of the value of Program by the State. The strategic emphasis of coastal planning and management in Victoria has purposefully linked state policy to local and regional plans. This approach assisted the function and progress of CoastAction/Coastcare. The CoastAction/Coastcare team in Victoria expressed with some certainty that groups were working to the Strategy. The availability of the many local plans that feed directly from the Victorian Coastal Strategy assisted groups and facilitators design CoastAction/Coastcare Projects.

5.6.3 Tasmania

Wescott's snap shot of Tasmania's progress towards ICM in 2000 concluded that at the state level 'there has been significant and excellent progress' (Wescott 2000b: 47). This position was primarily based on the performance of Tasmania's 1996 Coastal Policy created under the State Policies and Projects Act 1999, forming part of the Tasmanian Resource Management and Planning system. The Policy applies throughout the state. It is 'binding on the Crown in all its capacities' and must be complied with or penalties may be enforced (Caton 2001a: 218). As such, in Tasmania, all state agencies and local governments are required to affect the state Coastal Policy, ensuring consistency and coordination throughout the state. The Policy applies to all new planning schemes on private and public land including all coastal development proposals, marine farm development plans, reserve management plans, and all coastal projects - including Coastcare (Rees 2001).

Implementation of the Tasmanian Coastal Policy has not been a straightforward process. In 2001 the Policy went under an internal review and since its early operation has faced strong opposition from developers, land valuers and particular councils (Rees 2001). In June 2002 the Policy was annulled by a Supreme Court decision on the basis that the definition of the coastal zone was too vague for legal purposes. On 16 April 2003 the State Coastal Policy Validation Act 2003 came

into effect. This Act replaced the former definition of the Coastal Zone in the State Coastal Policy 1996 and reinstated the Policy. The 2003 Act also validated all previous decisions made under the 1996 Policy (Tasmanian Government 2003). The original definition of the coastal zone within the 1996 Policy has been redefined as a 1 kilometre line inland from high water mark. A review of the Policy is anticipated to commence sometime in 2003 over a two year duration (Rees 2003).

Even though it has achieved considerable influence, the Tasmanian Coastal Policy has been poorly resourced (Rees 2001). The state has never provided an operational budget for the Policy, a situation that 'has left large gaps in the implementation of' it. Rather, gains made by having the Policy have come through the national coastal programs, like Coastcare (Wescott 2000b; Rees 2001).

5.6.3.1 Tasmania - Local Government

Tasmania has 24 coastal councils which are required, by statute, to implement the State Coastal Policy in all planning and management decisions for their coastal areas. The Coastal Policy overrides other existing planning schemes 'to the extent of their inconsistency', and new schemes are required to be prepared in accordance with the Policy (ICRG 2002a). However, during the national coastal conference in 2002, a synopsis of Tasmania's achievements towards ICM revealed that local council planning scheme renewal had been slow and the State's planning commission had failed to properly amend planning schemes to incorporate the 1996 Tasmanian Coastal Policy. Both factors had culminated as 'a major encumbrance' to the implementation of the Policy. Only 6 of the 24 councils had their planning schemes revised since 1996; thus a minority of councils in Tasmania have formerly integrated the Coastal Policy as part of their management system (Rees 2002a).

Despite the sluggishness of many individual councils, groupings of local councils in Tasmania have benefited from the NHT Coastal and Marine Planning Program. Under the NHT, Coasts and Clean Seas, Coastal Management Planning Program (CMPP) in Tasmania, regional groupings of adjacent local councils, in cooperation with state agencies and other stakeholders, have participated in the development of

regional coastal management strategies. 23 of the 24 councils have been included in these management strategies and all 24 coastal councils and every parks and wildlife area have now been involved with Coastcare (Rees 2002b:8). In all cases there are ongoing mechanisms for the implementation and review of these strategies. Outputs of the strategies, in some cases, are formalised in MoUs or Regional Partnership Agreements with between Tasmanian Local and State Governments (ICRG 2002a).

5.6.3.2 Participation and Coastcare in Tasmania

Coastcare in Tasmania directly benefited from the Coastal Policy because it

has required support for community involvement in coastal management, providing justification for agency support for Coastcare and its funding. (Rees 2002a: 381)

State assessment panels selecting projects for funding ensured that all Coastcare projects were consistent with the [State] Policy (Rees 2002b). Coastcare in Tasmania is considered to have 'contributed substantially to the implementation of the non-statutory aspects' of the Policy, and to have assisted in putting into practice the principles of an ICM approach (Wescott 2000b: 46).

The perspectives of the Tasmanian Coastcare team in regard to the effectiveness of the Tasmanian Coastal Policy and its ability to support the Program are provided in Box 5.6.

Box 5.6: Tasmania Respondent Comments

**TASMANIA
STATE COASTAL MANAGER AND COASTCARE TEAM
PERCEPTION OF SUPPORT & DIRECTION AFFORDED THE PROGRAM
THROUGH STATE AND REGIONAL COASTAL POLICY**

I think [Coastcare] has done a reasonably good job of promoting the [Tasmanian] State coastal policy. At one level, all Coastcare projects are assessed against their consistency with the Policy, so they are at least consistent. But that also brings the Policy to the attention of people that otherwise may never have come across it. We've also, by raising awareness of people in the community about coastal policy issues and about the Policy and how the standard of development of the coastal zone is fostered by that policy, we also, I think, have lifted the bar for management agencies. The community now is quite a powerful observer, watchdog of the coastal zone. They blow the whistle quite frequently. I think they feel strengthened in taking out appeals or in actually challenging managers as to what they are doing. It has definitely played a part because the Policy calls for shared responsibility in coastal management. It's really through Coastcare we have managed to bring on board the community. It is still early days and there is still a hell of a lot of the population that wouldn't know what you meant by the

Coastal Policy. It has been a good start. (State Coastcare Co-ordinator/State Coastal Manager)

And of regional plans and strategies:

Coastcare has been very much part of the agenda. Only part of the agenda, but it has been there as part of the agenda for these strategies. Where the projects come in is that a number of the priorities are thrown up. Coastcare is one of the funding avenues, one of the main avenues, in getting the community implementing some of those priorities that come of those strategies. We are seeing a process where a lot of the priorities that might involve the community are getting targeted and applications are coming in and some projects underway, ready to meet those priorities. (State Coastcare Co-ordinator/State Coastal Manager)

Coastcare does address [the Coastal Policy], Coastcare has complied with the State Coastal Policy. Not all projects run by councils and other departments have done, but certainly Coastcare projects have. (Regional Coastcare Facilitator a)

We've got the Coastal Policy which is just as broad an approach as 'thou shalt or shall not do that'. I think we are successful in that, in a way, a lot of groups use Coastcare as a bible. I guess I don't see Coastcare as necessarily tied directly to State strategic coastal stuff in that communities just come up with they think is important to them in their own backyard rather than taking a regional or a State-wide approach. Our Coastcare festival is trying to address that a bit, getting people to think a bit more collectively. That is how Coastcare works. Communities look out their windows and have a look at what is going on in their own areas and that is what drives them. In a way, a selfish approach. It's just looking after their own beach. Not the beach in the town next door. It's just their own little backyard issue. In that way I don't reckon it's a strategic process but I don't think that's bad either (Regional Coastcare Facilitator b).

If only there was a State coastal strategy. We have a State Coastal Policy. The groups are at the pointy end of that, of big picture things, hazy, not specific strategies. Coastcare has tested them a bit and brought them to life. There isn't otherwise any other strategies, except a couple regionally. Projects have to be within the context of the State coastal policy anyway [for the SAP assessment], and that's not hard because it's got such a broad context (Regional Coastcare Facilitator c).

The legitimate role of the community in coastal management is recognised at state managerial level as valid in Tasmania and Coastcare was identified as a central agent in supporting the community voice and as a check for management agencies. The Policy provided credibility for Coastcare's presence. The perspectives of the Coastcare team indicate that there was a limitation imposed by lack of local and regional coastal management plans. Groups were guided primarily by the broad vision of the Policy, which meant that groups at local scales were afforded a limited amount of support and direction for their specific activities.

5.6.4 Queensland

Wescott's review (2000b) recognised that Queensland was slightly compromised by the timing of his research, as many promising aspects of progress towards integration were in preparation. Wescott noted that Queensland's legislative framework was 'impressive', providing a 'strong base for ESD and ICM principles'. Much has transpired since the 2000 snap shot.

The Coastal Management and Protection Act 1995 has been amended due to an omission of development assessment criteria, to become the Coastal Protection and Management and Other Legislation Act 2001. The reform was designed to create consistency between coastal management legislation and the Integrated Planning Act (IPA) 1997 and the Development Assessment System (Walton 2000; Fisk 2002).

The Coastal Protection and Management Act 1995 (the Coastal Act) placed emphasis on ESD and integrated planning and management. It established a coastal planning process at state and regional levels and also established coastal management districts on the coast whereby the state could apply a range of regulatory powers (Fisk 2002: 105). The newly enacted legislation, the Coastal Protection and Management and Local Government and Other Legislation Amendment Act 2001 (LGOLA no 2), provides for increased powers by the state in terms of assessing coastal development applications and permitting provisions (Fisk 2002: 105). The revised 2001 Coastal Act is fully integrated with new planning legislation, the Integrated Planning Act (IPA) 1997. 'The amendments set out the types of development that require approval ...on coastal land and in marine waters' (Fisk 2002: 106).

The EPA is the department administering the Coastal Act and holds statutory powers in assessing specific coastal developments. The 2001 Coastal Act strengthens the state's position in managing the coast by:

- Establishing coastal management districts where the State has regulatory controls over development proposals

- Expanding the State Government's jurisdiction with respect to assessment of coastal development proposals and
- Working in conjunction with coastal management plans to achieve better coastal management outcomes (Fisk 2002).

The Coastal Act provides a comprehensive framework for coordinated management. Fundamental tools to implement the Coastal Act are the State Coastal Management Plan 2001 (Queensland State Government 2001) and associated regional coastal management plans. Coastal plans are to be considered equivalent to State Planning Policies under the IPA (Walton 2000).

The 2001 State Coastal Management Plan is being implemented through the production of the series of proposed 11 regional plans for the Gulf of Carpentaria, Cape York Peninsula Coast, Torres Strait, Wet Tropical Coast, Cardwell-Hinchinbrook, Dry Tropical Coast, Whitsunday Coast, Capricorn Coast, Curtis Coast, Wide Bay Coast, and the South-east Queensland Coast. These regions are depicted in Figure 5.5. The first draft regional coastal management plan for the Cardwell-Hinchinbrook region was released for comment in December 2002 and was followed soon after by the Wet Tropical Coast and Curtis Coast plans (Queensland State Government 2002a).

These regional plans describe how the coastal zone is to be managed and identify the coastal management districts in particular regions. Regional plans will implement the State Coastal Management Plan's policy framework at the regional level by identifying key coastal sites requiring special management.

A state-wide body: the Queensland Coastal Protection Advisory Council, was established in 1997 under the Coastal Protection and Management Act 1995, to provide independent advice to the Minister for Environment on matters relating to coastal management. This Advisory Council played an important role in helping to develop and finalise the State Coastal Plan. It was also involved in providing advice on the recent (December 2001) amendments to the Coastal Act. Through

the Council forum the members are able to raise these issues with the Minister and EPA staff and advise on directions to address such issues (Elphinstone 2002).

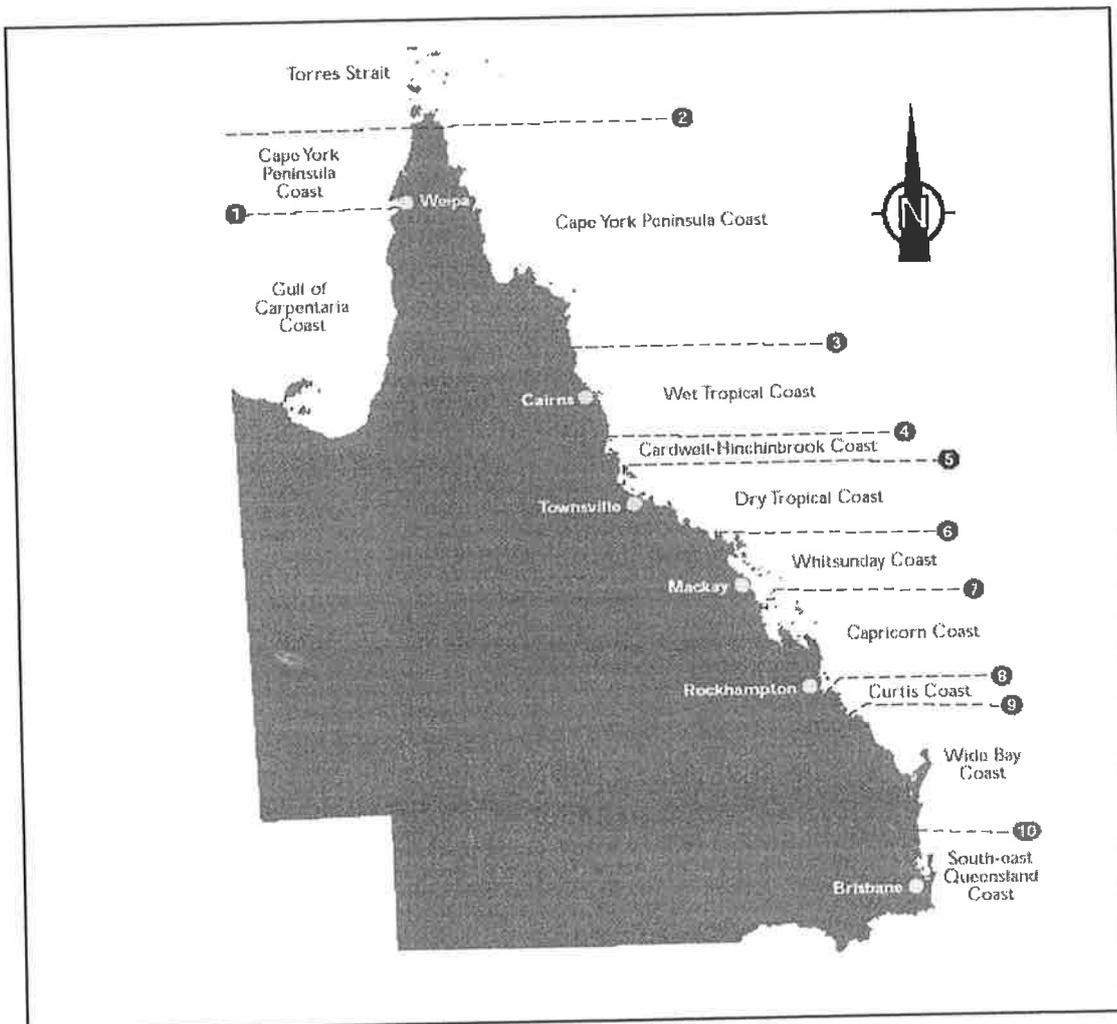


Figure 5.5: Queensland's regional coastal plan divisions
Source: (Queensland EPA 1999: 5)

5.6.4.1 Queensland – Local government

Queensland has 36 coastal councils. The Queensland Coastal Policy under the Integrated Planning Act 1997 must be addressed in the preparation or review of local government planning schemes or considered in the assessment of development in the coastal zone (Queensland State Government 2001: 55). The 11 regional strategies (currently being developed) are consistent with local authority boundaries (ICRG 2002a). There appears to be a lack of structured or systematic approach to coastal management at a local level across the State. During the interview process one facilitator explained this:

Councils are not consistent in their approach to coastal management planning. Caloundra Council actively encourage community effort along the coast through a 'patch plan' which identifies management tasks like weeding, regeneration works, fencing and public access walkways, erosion control etc. Maroochy council are less structured and have overarching policies rather than specific plans. Noosa council actually assisted 'Greening Noosa' to prepare a Coastcare application for funds to develop a coastal management strategy while I was there, but the application was not successful...I'm not sure if they've progressed it any further. (Regional Coastcare Facilitator)

A media release from Queensland's Local Government Association president, Cr Noel Playford, stated on September 2001 that:

Queensland local government has been calling on the State Government for a long time to make clear its policies in relation to the management of Queensland's coastal areas, [and that] up until now [the release of the State Policy], it has been very difficult for coastal local governments to plan effectively for their local areas without a clear idea of what the state government has wanted. (Local Government Association of Queensland 2001)

5.6.4.2 Participation and Coastcare in Queensland

Queensland's 2001 Coastal Policy recognises the role the community plays in developing plans and on-ground activities 'in some cases' supported by Coastcare (Queensland State Government 2001: 56). This newly established system has the potential to greatly assist the efforts of community groups in future. During the time of this study much of Queensland's legislative and policy framework was in flux. However, the 2000/2001 SAP made an attempt to apply projects to existing policies and strategies:

The Coastcare projects funded to date have been selected by considering the worth of each individual project. However coastal management has progressed sufficiently to enable State priorities to be used to give Coastcare in Queensland a strategic direction. (Queensland State Government 2002b)

The responses of the state coastal manager and Queensland Coastcare team in response to the whether Coastcare was supported by coastal policy in Queensland are included in Box 5.7 below.

Box 5.7: Queensland Respondent Comments

**QUEENSLAND
STATE COASTAL MANAGER AND COASTCARE TEAM
PERCEPTION OF SUPPORT & DIRECTION AFFORDED THE PROGRAM
THROUGH STATE AND REGIONAL COASTAL POLICY**

While [Coastcare] has positively assisted at site specific locations, I am not convinced it has been successful in advancing coastal management at any strategic level (State Coastal Manager).

State based strategies and policies haven't been really defined in Queensland...The idea that amongst the applications we get we're going to choose the ones that address some planning strategy or something like that, in my experience and having spoken to [my colleague] it hasn't really been the case up here. In this last year we have developed our regional strategies 'Queensland Priorities and Regional Strategies' document and that was made available to groups. It is the first year it's been out and I don't think you could say there has been any particular change in our applications as a result of that. You would only expect things like that to happen gradually anyway. My experience is that applicants will respond to perceived local need or the ideas of one or a small number of drivers in the area. They find out about Coastcare and they do it for themselves.... I don't think there is much difference between State and Local (State Coastcare Coordinator a).

When Coastcare started up the impression I got of it was that it was basically a feel good project. But lately it has changed across to be outcomes oriented. State Government in particular has just got its Coastal Plan out; it's got a lot of regional plans out and a local plan out. The groups are expected to fit in more and more with these plans. Which originally [Coastcare] didn't. It did to a degree but not as much as now. It is being channelled into narrower and narrower responses (State Coastcare Coordinator b).

The state coastal management strategies in Queensland have only just been released. However what I have seen some strategies do correlate strongly with Coastcare activities (Regional Coastcare Facilitator a).

I reckon the link between the Queensland State Coastal Management Plan and [Coastcare] has been really weak or not worked on. It hasn't been made obvious. We plod along doing our Coastcare projects and there's other people doing the regional coastal plans, doing their thing. I think there should be more interaction (Regional Coastcare Facilitator b).

Basically in Queensland we started off and it was just local groups doing local priorities. As a State we decided we needed to make it more strategic and it's only been this last grant round that we looked at more of a strategic direction setting regional priorities which reflected State coastal management type issues or strategies because they fitted into our coastal type planning process that's happening in Queensland. So some projects have. But small on-ground projects haven't been addressing State coastal management issues (Regional Coastcare Facilitator c).

Certainly since my time here I ask all the groups 'how are you fitting in with the coastal strategies?', and a lot don't even know, which means I have been able to supply them information on that. They all understand why there is a need to fit in with the strategies. In the past I don't think there has been quite the same way of addressing it. I'd say 95% of projects strongly fit in with strategies. What we did this year was develop a priority listing from the coastal strategies and the coastal plan that had just been released. And that enabled the groups to look at it and say: 'perhaps I'm interested in doing work in this area, this area and this area'. [So the groups got that priority listing?] Yeah they did. They were able to say: 'one of my options is actually in the strategy'. So that would be a higher priority area to work with. It was only a ever guide, and was not to be exclusive... we are in the process of having regional coastal plans done up but they are only in draft format. But even before those plans there has still been strategies and the groups are quite keen to fit in with those strategies where it is possible (Regional Coastcare Facilitator d).

In Queensland, the State Coastal Plan and Regional Plans are still in a development phase. The plans however, are only statutory documents which support the legislation that's in place already, in terms of lines of the ground and what activities should occur, wherever. So I would say in my region I've been implementing coastal management strategies as per the State objectives. I think in facilitation to local government and community about the values and the reasons why the legislation is the way it is has brought about projects that reflect their understanding of that (Regional Coastcare Facilitator e).

The groups see their local issues and they see a problem and that's what they want to address. It might just be that live on the coastal zone and there's lots of weeds for example or uncontrolled access to a beach. That will be the thing they want to work on. They don't particularly want to work on something that the local council might see as a more pressing issue, like a creek mouth half a kilometre away from where they live which has got erosion problems, or other issues going on. The group want to work on what they see as the issue....It's very difficult for facilitators or co-ordinators to get groups to target areas that are a definite priority, as far as the State goes, when there's no groups there that have those same ideals. In some areas there are real problems but there's no one around to do any volunteer work...In the past without having a State coastal management plan and without regional coastal management plans, then councils were addressing all issues without a broad scale picture, and Coastcare projects didn't mesh with the priorities of the State, but I think that's coming together more now (Regional Coastcare Facilitator f).

The fluidity of coastal policy and legislative developments in Queensland throughout the duration of Coastcare meant that the Program functioned without the benefit of clear strategic guidelines at both state and local levels. The Program was not endorsed at a state managerial level. The state manager of the coastal section of the EPA, during the 2001/2002 Coastcare SAP, made a statement to the panel that the Queensland State Government did not want to continue the Coastcare program beyond 2002 (the end of NHT I) and that the regional facilitators 'would be turned to other tasks within the EPA'. The absence of policy and managerial support is reflected in the perception by some respondents that the Program was not strategic and not integrated with other state coastal initiatives. The release of the State Coastal Management Plan and the Coastcare SAP listing of priority areas for projects suggests that a more strategic approach to coastal management was just beginning in Queensland. Coastcare in Queensland can be seen to have been constrained by the limitations of the management system in place at the time and the lowly position Coastcare was attributed within it.

5.6.5 South Australia

South Australia achieved a lowly ranking in Wescott's 2000 review:

There appears to be a relatively dormant series of policies through the Coast Protection Board going back to the 1980s overlaid by significant activity surrounding the marine and estuarine strategy of 1998. The relationship between the two sets is unclear and certainly ICM does not appear prominent at the present (Wescott 2000b: 38).

Wescott identified that the position of ICM in South Australia appeared 'a little confused' due to apparent 'phases of implementation of coastal zone management

institutional arrangements' (Wescott 2000b: 39). Wescott's observation of the dormancy of elements of the earlier phase are warranted. In 1987 the Coast Protection Board, withdrew its support of the state-wide system of Coast Protection Districts. Such Districts were critical for the effective implementation of the 1972 Coast Protection Act which 'relies upon [the existence of the Districts] in important ways', including involvement of local government and research into the biophysical processes of regions for the purpose of development localised District management plans (Caton and Carvalho 1999: 2). At the point of withdrawing support from the Coast Protection Districts, 'the Board abandoned its lead role in strategic coastal regional planning for South Australia' (Caton and Carvalho 1999: 2). In 1988 the policy and planning element for coastal management was physically moved from the state's coastal agency to its planning agency, leaving the coastal branch 'to focus on technical matters'. Coastal planning and management objectives became enshrined in planning legislation: the Development Act 1993 and policies related to development control of the State's coast are implemented through planning principles in Supplementary Development Plans of the Act. Consequently, two agencies are responsible for the coast: one concerned with development and with a planning focus and the other managing the technical day-to-day maintenance of coastal facilities. In 1999, Caton and Carvalho cited 'an urgent need for a strategic approach to integrated and coastal marine management in South Australia' (Caton and Carvalho 1999). During the 2002 Coast to Coast conference Caton stated that

the same processes of coastal management, which have struggled on for a number of years, have continued...the activities of the [key agencies] are not guided by a state coastal policy....[and] the lack of a modern Coastal and Marine Management Act and the lack of a State Coastal Policy continue as problems for South Australia (Caton 2002: 39-42).

Morcom and Harvey (2002), contrasting South Australia's approach to ICM with New South Wales and Victoria, also highlighted shortcomings of the South Australian approach, calling for revised legislation that incorporates ESD principles and an integrated approach to coastal management. They concurred with Wescott, suggesting that 'current coastal and marine legislation appears sectoral and fragmented' and that establishing a framework for ICM in South Australia was 'in its infancy' (Morcom and Harvey 2002: 35). However, the Policy Branch of Department of Environment and Heritage is working on 'new coastal

legislation...not yet available to the Coast Protection Board' (Caton 2001a) and the Coast Protection Board is in the process of preparing its own policy document. These separate but correlated activities suggest a continued lack of integration and failure to instigate a whole-of-government response to coastal management in the state.

The Marine and Estuarine Strategy (South Australian Government 1998), cited in Table 5.1 as South Australia's principle coastal policy, does not serve as a practical document for coastal management in South Australia for several reasons. Its singular focus on marine and estuarine environments is clearly inappropriate for a state coastal policy, when the coastal zone is defined to include a more comprehensive range of environments (as described in Chapter One, Figure 1.1). The Marine and Estuarine document is non-statutory (does not have the force of law), and is not binding on agencies utilising coastal resources; it therefore serves rather as a reference or guide. Principles and goals of the strategy do however endorse community participation as an important element of coastal management.

5.6.5.1 South Australia – Local Government

South Australia has 37 coastal councils. The role of local council in coastal management in South Australia is primarily to 'implement the coastal planning principles and objectives from the States Development Plan'. A minority of these councils have dedicated environment or coastal management plans, or environment officers to implement the plans, and the ones that do have plans and dedicated staff tend to be in the metropolitan region (Harvey, Clarke and Baumgarten 2002). The large geographical spread of many of the remote coastal councils, coupled with limited staff and plans dedicated to coastal issues, reinforce the earlier point that local government is under-resourced for the coastal management responsibilities required.

There are three different assemblages of coastal councils that meet and act as advisory bodies for coastal issues. The first group is the state executive coastal and marine focus group with representatives from metropolitan and regional councils. The group meets approximately every two months and reports to the South

Australian Local Government Association State Executive. The second two are regional and have come about as consequence of the NHT Coasts and Clean Seas, Coastal and Marine Planning Program. They are the Great Australian Bight 1000 West Coast Strategy and the South East South Australian Coastal Management Strategy. Local councils have formed regional committees that continue to meet and discuss coastal issues and priorities. The South Australian West coast councils met originally to direct Coastcare activity, because the geographical size of the region with one facilitator called for a strategic approach in determining plans and priorities for Coastcare. The group continues to meet bi-monthly and has broadened its scope, informing the evolving natural resource management boards established for NHT II. The South-East South Australian councils meet less regularly and constitute a wider representative group than the West Coast, who are primarily local council members.

5.6.5.2 Participation and Coastcare in South Australia

Coastcare does not feature in the Marine and Estuarine Strategy as a coastal program for South Australia. This is a glaring oversight since South Australia was the first state to implement the Coastcare program. Instead, Landcare and Dunecare are referenced as useful models

of how communities and government can work together to achieve common goals' and that 'a marine focussed community awareness model along these lines [Dunecare] may be an effective and positive way of working together'. (South Australian Government 1998: 26)

As such the strategy seems somewhat out of touch from the local situation. In addition, results of a South Australian study of SAP members in 2001 found that

lack of a state coastal policy, strategy and/or regional supporting strategies was perceived to hamper the priority setting process of the panel...It was felt that the efficacy of the Coastcare program would be greater if there were clear state criteria by which to apply Coastcare applications. (Harvey et al. 2001: 175)

Box 5.8 below provides the perspective of the position of Coastcare in South Australia in regard to the way that South Australian state coastal policy supported the Program.

Coastcare in South Australia, due to the dissonant structure of coastal management agencies and arrangements, as well as the absence of current legislation and guiding

state coastal policy, did not share the acclaim or support demonstrated by many of the other states. At state managerial level Coastcare was accepted but not strongly advocated. It is clear that groups were not offered adequate strategic direction due to the 'vacuum' within which they were asked to perform. The South Australian example provides strong support for the argument that it is not the fault of the design of the Coastcare Program that created a non-strategic approach. This was largely a legacy of the State not offering clear guidance and support, sustained by a lack of local coastal plans.

Box 5.8: South Australia Respondent Comments

**SOUTH AUSTRALIA
STATE COASTAL MANAGER AND COASTCARE TEAM
PERCEPTION OF SUPPORT & DIRECTION AFFORDED THE PROGRAM
THROUGH STATE AND REGIONAL COASTAL POLICY**

Our coastal strategy has been a broad one and it hasn't been one where you've got specific jobs that have to be carried out. That is something I'd like to check out to see if Coastcare has actually achieved that broader aspect of coastal management (State Coastal Manager).

I don't believe there has been a great deal of addressing the strategies and policies of either the local government level of the state government level. I can't think of too many instances where a project fits that criteria. I'm not saying projects haven't been developed and not issues that need to be addressed, they certainly are. But they have never been looked at in terms of meeting a council strategy. Most of the core of our projects are developed, are there, for the community to apply for on the basis of their perceived priority. I like that idea personally because that means if they want to put in a walk way to the beach, they see it as a need. The state or the council may not see it as a priority at all, but because [the community] have got the ability in their own right, through the Coastcare program, to put make an application for funding, it gives them a bit of power which they don't have otherwise (State Coastcare coordinator a).

I would suggest that [Coastcare] didn't [support State coastal policy] because there was a vacuum. There was no clear State strategy, and still isn't, contrary to what anyone may say. If there is I am certainly not aware of it. Even the 'Marine and Estuarine Strategy' as a guiding document is so ambiguous in ways, you could easily argue that anything you do does or doesn't comply. I think that even though working in a vacuum everyone with common sense says there are some general areas that need to be addressed, and I think Coastcare has done that, in a de facto way, in that vacuum. Hopefully this regional approach and regional planning strategy [NHT II] will address that. I would argue that the State doesn't have a clear strategic direction...It is not the fault of the Coastcare program that they are not following it...I think that things like the West Coast strategy and the South East strategy would give clearer direction and more focus [than the State], and that was clearly evident in last year's program grants round where the West Coast [put in] a 'bulk' application which reflected the priorities and outcomes within the regional strategy. It was well received the SAP. Where regional plans exist they have worked very well with Coastcare, West Coast and SE are examples (State Coastcare Coordinator b).

Let me speak for my region, but what State coastal management strategy? There are none. For South Australia, there are none ...There are no regional plans or strategies [either] but the community [through Coastcare] has been very effective in developing up local coastal management plans and sparking and stimulating councils such as the Streaky Bay, Elliston and Ceduna Councils, working towards developing their own strategy. There is that self

reliant initiative that no one else is going to do it so they are doing it. The community have helped stimulate and developed their own plans. They are pretty good on that one. They have done superb work in what they have done (Regional Coastcare Facilitator a).

There hasn't been any state-wide strategic planning taking place. At a State level [Coastcare addressing state policy] has been unsuccessful (Regional Coastcare Facilitator b).

There are some regional plans and strategies in place but they're still sadly lacking. This will be addressed in the INRM process which is closing in on us all. The main recurring theme is the main struggle with Coastcare in South Australia, on a State level, is a lack of overarching policy to actually guide what it is that we're doing. Coastcare and Coastcare projects are quite reactive, as are State coastal management practices and local government coastal management practices are very reactive at the moment. There is very little strategic approach to coastal management in this State. It does have a huge bearing on [Coastcare] because in many cases the groups are looking towards local government for advice and guidance local government might not know how to give, because they're looking to the State government for advice and guidance. In many cases there is a hell of a lot that could be being done if there was an overarching policy or some sort of guidance in place. There are some regional plans and strategies in place, and where they are in place, certainly the groups look to those regional plans and strategies and try to align their activities with the them. There's no doubt about that, where they are in place, the groups make themselves well aware of them (Regional Coastcare Facilitator c).

At varying times the State has had its own agenda with its own coastal management programs. The State agency staff, particularly in the first years, were not particularly supportive, with the exception of one or two individuals. There was a level of cynicism about community involvement. I'm also not convinced that Coastcare is a mechanism for addressing coastal strategies anyway. SA strategies, like sand management for the Adelaide metropolitan coast, are beyond the capacity of any community program in any case. They are different markets. Complimentary, but different because of their roles....While in some areas there are [regional] plans they tend to be local development plans rather than primarily coastal plans. They tend to be other plans with a bit of coastal rather than coastal plans with a bit of something else. Where they exist and groups have worked in with them that's been OK. But the plans here [in SA] are pretty dismal (Regional Coastcare Facilitator d).

The closing discussion of the South Australian SAP meeting in 2000 illuminated the lack of direction afforded Coastcare as a result of an absence of relevant local coastal planning strategies and plans. The absence of a strategic approach by the SAP became evident during the assessment process. Certain panel members voiced concern that they encountered difficulty ranking between applications proposing similar activities. Approximately 50 projects were extraordinarily similar and some of the panel found it difficult to determine which was more worthy. The question of how to rank such projects was asked of other panel members who could not provide a single practical solution. Simply ensuring that groups have referred to local management plans within the application in South Australia's case is insufficient. It was felt that Coastcare application forms do not adequately show

whether groups have consulted local management plans and in South Australia, unlike Victoria and New South Wales for example, there may not be an appropriate plan to consult. The South Australian SAP felt that they needed to be confident about the adequacy of such plans and whether groups have properly addressed the requirements of those plans. This was difficult to ascertain during the SAP.

In the closing SAP discussion the potential for a strategic approach was questioned as a reasonable expectation in South Australia, given the design of the grants process. The reason was the random spread of applicants, the fact that activities are elected by groups and the small scale of funds attached to these. This position contrasts significantly with Victoria, where groups were encouraged to seek out local plans and were assessed stringently on the basis that the priorities within the plans were addressed. Victorian regional panels had the capacity to verify such details. No such entities were place in South Australia.

5.6.6 Western Australia

The policy framework for coastal planning and management in Western Australia is still formative. Wescott (2000b: 66) concluded in 2000 that in the terms of reference of his rapid assessment study, ICM was not being implemented in Western Australia. The emphasis in Western Australia has been and continues to be heavily focussed on planning for coastal management. At regional and local levels there is a complex array of planning instruments and on-going planning activity. It is nowhere explained or assessed in detail how such planning is linked to active management practice.

Western Australia has a peak coastal planning and management body, the Coastal Zone Council (CZC), that was established under Cabinet direction in 1996 (Pederson 2002), and it is their role to facilitate effective coordination of coastal zone planning and management. The CZC has been criticised for lacking community input and for the fact that its membership consists primarily of government representatives. There is a perceived lack of independence of the Council which has a focus on high level strategic matters, rather than region specific issues (Middle 2002). There is no dedicated coastal legislation nor a state

coastal policy in Western Australia and coastal management is driven through their planning system (Western Australian Government 2001). However, a State Coastal Statement of Planning Policy and a 'whole-of-government' Coastal Zone Management Policy are both currently in draft form (Western Australian Government 2002; Government of Western Australia 2003). Whilst calling itself a whole of government policy', the draft Western Australian Coastal Zone Management Policy 2001 is non-statutory. The draft Policy announces the proposed development of a Coastal Zone Strategy intended to implement the objectives of the Policy (Western Australian Government 2001: 23). The draft statement of State Coastal Planning Policy prepared under the Town Planning Act 1928 is relevant to development occurring at the coast, stating set-back guidelines. However, other land use issues, such as remote coastlines, Aboriginal Lands under the Lands Trust, pastoral lands and lands vested in other agencies, are planned and managed separately. Lack of consolidated coastal policy creates confusion and the potential for non-strategic approaches to management at a local level in non-urban Western Australia, as highlighted by a local coastal land manager from Northern Western Australia:

we have an ad hoc and unclear responsibility for management of land. We have large areas of leased pastoral land, large areas of Crown Land, areas of Aboriginal Lands Trust land, Aboriginal Reserves, no mans land and a few others as well, none of which is technically the responsibility of my Council. Our Shire coastline alone is over 900 km long, and Council is responsible for about 10 km of this, yet everyone assumes we are responsible for the lot! There are problems with public coastal access, Native Title, Heritage issues etc, and while it will take years for all of this to be sorted out by the government departments, in the meantime there is serious degradation of the coastline occurring on a whole range of fronts, from rubbish, fires, illegal 4 wheel drives, motorbikes, etc, etc. (Local coastal land manager)

A community Coastal Planning Coalition was established in January 2001, primarily in response to the release of the Western Australia Draft Coastal Zone Management Policy 2001 'and the realisation that many of the local coastal concerns stemmed from a systematic failure of the planning process' (Western Australian Coastal Planning Coalition 2001). The Coalition sought to fight for

a fundamental change to coastal planning and management in Western Australia, including the cessation of the existing speculator-driven development approvals process. A new planning regime is needed that delivers a legally-binding, holistic, scientifically informed, and environmentally sustainable planning and management system (Western Australian Coastal Planning Coalition 2001).

The Community Coalition felt that the release of the 2001 Western Australian Coastal Policy 'signalled that the Government's intention [was] to perpetuate the current, hopelessly inadequate system' (Western Australian Coastal Planning Coalition 2001).

A Ministerial Taskforce to review the structural arrangements for coastal planning and management followed in August 2001, and released its position in June 2002 (Western Australian Government 2002). The focus of the Taskforce was to consider new administrative and legislative frameworks that would ensure that good coastal planning is developed and 'entrenched' in decision making (Western Australian Coastal Planning Coalition 2002). Areas of concern addressed by the taskforce included:

- lack of clarity about structural arrangements for coastal management (the planning and integration framework)
- lack of clarity about roles and relationships between government state and local government agencies
- transparency of decision-making process as it relates to coastal planning and management
- role and effectiveness of community involvement in strategic planning for the coast; and
- lack of resources. (Western Australian Government 2002: 42)

A key program of the state of Western Australia is a Coastal Planning Program designed to address 'the outstanding planning needs' along the length of the Western Australian coastline and to provide 'a link between policy and implementation' (Carmen-Brown 2002: 35). The Program annually reviews the status and currency of coastal planning throughout the State. In particular, local government is assisted with planning revision through the provision of data relevant to the locale in question (Western Australian Government 2002).

5.6.6.1 Western Australia - Local government

Western Australia has 47 local coastal councils. Local governments in Western Australia are responsible for the maintenance of 'foreshore reserves' within their

jurisdiction. Local governments also 'often' prepare coastal management plans for specific areas, implying that this is not a certainty and not all areas are covered. These plans 'may include' detailed recommendations for set-backs for development, as well as designating specific areas for particular uses. These plans may be non-statutory, or incorporated in a local government's (statutory) town planning scheme. There are numerous different types of coastal plans linked to local government:

- Strategic Plans – partnership between state and local government (planning tools, define broad strategic framework for a region –typically include multiple local governments. Long-term focus, provide some actions)
- Structure Plans – partnership between state and local government (regional and local – regional most relevant to coastal management – used to budget and plan for infrastructure)
- Coastal Management Plans –prepared by local government for a particular local government area or shire. Provide a framework for management, often planning related e.g. designating set back for development and land use. There is a range of statutory and non-statutory coastal plans in existence, coastal plans also vary in degree of integration with other plans and policies and in their currency. Some sections of the Western Australian coast have no such plans
- Foreshore and Site Management Plans – guidelines for specific locales (e.g. beach, bay, inlet); prepared by developers as a condition of approval, councils and community groups. Coastwest/Coastcare is recognised for its role in assisting in undertaking actions consistent with the foreshore plans.

An audit of coastal planning in Western Australia revealed there was great variation in the capacity of local government in rural and remote areas to undertake formal coastal planning (Carmen-Brown 2002: 37). The Coastal Planning Program was designed specifically as an assistance package to help councils with minimal staff and low rate bases produce coastal plans.

Western Australian local governments formed a Coastal Management Advisory Group (CMAG) in 1995 during the development of the NHT Coastal Memorandum of Understanding (MoU). The Group is open to all coastal Local Governments and has both elected member and officer representation. In 2001 CMAG reviewed and coordinated a response on key State Coastal Policy issues; identified a framework

for Western Australian Local Government to communicate with organisations and community groups on coastal management issues; and developed a position on State coastal institutional arrangements and advice to the Association (Leigh 2002). Representation is an issue for CMAG, with mainly metropolitan and south-western Western Australian council membership. The last time the group met was in October 2002.

5.6.6.2 Participation and Coastcare in Western Australia

CoastWest/Coastcare was described as the major program for coastal management in Western Australia at the time of Wescott's rapid assessment and was considered by him to be 'the most significant contributor, in terms of programs, to ICM implementation in Western Australia' (Wescott 2000b: 65). In consideration of the significant changes over the last two years in terms of policy and program development, it should be noted that community participation was promoted by the Western Australian State coastal managers synopsis at the 2002 national coastal conference as being beneficial for planning and management of the coast. Volunteer work, 'sometimes as a result of NHT funding', was also identified as a strength and a recommendation was made to continue 'Coastwest to fund local communities who manage the coast in partnership with local government and state agencies' (O'Brien et al. 2002: 331).

Senior management of the Western Australian government speak of CoastWest/Coastcare as a vital element of the Western Australian planning process. The facilitators and efforts by groups are recognised as considerable sources of information to identify issues for coastal planning. Their comments in regard to the status of coastal policy supporting the CoastWest/Coastcare Program are provided in Box 5.9 below.

Box 5.9: Western Australia Respondent Comments

**WESTERN AUSTRALIA
STATE COASTAL MANAGER AND COASTWEST/COASTCARE TEAM
PERCEPTION OF SUPPORT & DIRECTION AFFORDED THE PROGRAM
THROUGH STATE AND REGIONAL COASTAL POLICY**

We've got a State Planning Strategy... We have two draft policies out, a 'Draft Statement of Planning Policy' and a 'Draft Coastal Zone Management Policy'. So really, that framework of management policy is set down in the State Planning Strategy, which sets our overall

principles. Subsidiary of the State Planning Strategy, Coastcare projects are assisting in achieving the goals and objectives set out in that policy framework ...[CoastWest/Coastcare] is more successful at the regional level because the Strategic Planning Strategy gives us a hierarchy of nodes along the coast. Again, CoastWest/Coastcare has assisted not only in implementation of some of the actions that regional strategies point to i.e. rationalisation of access - they have been very useful in assisting in rehabilitation of degraded areas from that point of view. Again, there is that dialogue between the community, who is involved with the management on the ground, and the identification of nodes (State Coastal Manager).

I think [CoastWest/Coastcare Projects are addressing State coastal policies] now, [the state coastal manager] is onto it with her understanding of the importance of facilitators out on the ground and that they have the ability to feed a lot into the formation of these State-wide strategies and policies. In a way they are good spokesperson for community groups. The State sees CoastWest/Coastcare as an important part of getting strategies together.

We have regional plans in WA. When it comes to regional coastal management plans, thinking of broad Shire coastal management plans, which is scaled down, [CoastWest/Coastcare] fits in well because it is actually funding a number of them. Groups have picked off their projects from recommendations that have been left in those and the same again with regional plans. I am finalising projects now which have basically done what the regional plan indicated, so its fit in extremely well on a regional basis. There are a number of examples from various regional plans that exist, where groups have either implemented projects based on what is in those plans, or in the process of thinking along the lines of what is in them. (State Coastcare Coordinator).

A lot of the time [projects] are not related [to the State Policy]. So either we don't know of State coastal management strategies or a lot of time projects are site specific, so they are doing their own little thing, on their own little patch, rather than being aware of the broader issues. The 'Draft Coastal Zone Management Policy' has been bagged by most people who commented on it. The State government have a Ministerial Taskforce. [The Draft Policy] may be dumped and started again (Regional Coastcare Facilitator a).

I have a feeling that CoastWest/Coastcare projects don't address State strategies, but I don't know. As a State network we do discuss issues, but I'm not really aware of what the State coastal management strategies are, and I certainly don't think we've got anything in place that implements State coastal management strategies. If [CoastWest/Coastcare] projects do address, them I think it's by accident. [CoastWest/Coastcare] projects are likely to be similar to the aims of regional strategies anyway (Regional Coastcare Facilitator b).

WA doesn't have a State Coastal Strategy. The State has supported CoastWest/Coastcare well. It is hard to comment. The 'Draft Coastal Zone Management Policy' hasn't been well received. It's really a position paper (Regional Coastcare Facilitator c).

In a lot of areas in my region there aren't a lot of plans in place so there's been a lot of haphazard projects going on. I don't see that as a problem because you do get community on board in the process of doing a project...Not all areas have regional plans. Half my region has a regional plan, but the metropolitan region doesn't. Groups haven't tended to align themselves with plans even when they are in place. In the region I'm thinking of, the plan is something the local government has put together without much consultation. It wasn't just coastal management but infrastructure and a whole lot of other things. I don't think the community was as involved as they could have been. The coastal element of the plan does provide direction but it doesn't mean that much to the community because the communication between the community and the council isn't that good (Regional Coastcare Facilitator d).

Where regional plans exist [CoastWest/Coastcare] has been [successful in implementing them] but there is actually very few, (I can just speak for this region). When you are looking at management plans it has been successful. Particularly when they have been

actually funded through CoastWest/Coastcare, and then there have been subsequent grants, groups have been able to do the implementation phase. Where it is a very broad strategy, you haven't seen that translation across. Because it is the management plan which has really specific outcomes and recommendations, then CoastWest/Coastcare has been able to do that. But then again, those management plans are few and far between, the coastal management plans (Regional Coastcare Facilitator e).

At state managerial level in Western Australia, CoastWest/Coastcare was openly supported. The Program was viewed as a means of identifying areas of significance for coastal management direction set by the state. The facilitators were expected to bring matters of community interest to the attention of senior management. In no other states was this task so specifically stated. The status of planning instruments and the unruly development of coastal legislation and policy, culminating in the Ministerial Taskforce, during the duration of the CoastWest/Coastcare, failed to provide much direction for the Program. CoastWest/Coastcare in Western Australia was supported but not guided by state vision. The existence of coastal plans is patchy. Where regional plans do exist there was evidence to suggest that they provided direction for CoastWest/Coastcare groups. There were exceptions however, where consultation by local government with community was poor and plans inappropriately developed and therefore not supported.

5.6.7 Northern Territory

At the time of Wescott's review in 2000, there was no lead coastal agency, no dedicated coastal legislation, and a two-sided coastal policy 'pamphlet' (Wescott 2000b: 20). The position held by Wescott concerning Northern Territory's achievements towards an integrated approach to coastal management in 2000 was challenging: 'The achievement of ICM in the NT is going to be a long and difficult process starting from a very low base.' (Wescott 2000b: 23).

Land tenure of the coast in the NT differs significantly to the other states. According to a RAC report (Resource Assessment Commission 1992) 72% of land is under indigenous ownership and a further 14% under pastoral lease. These arrangements have 'directly influenced the scope and requirement for coastal policy' (Applegate 2002). It is also the position of the NT government that their

coastal and marine resources are in relatively pristine condition and they benefit from not having the development pressures of the east and south coast of Australia. The NT produced a revised coastal policy in 1999 and an Implementation Strategy in 2001. The Implementation Strategy, according to the NT Policy, is taking a reactionary approach by developing 'issue-specific coastal management strategies' (Northern Territory Government 2001: 9). According to Applegate (2002: 13) in his address to the national Coast to Coast conference in 2002, the NT is developing a new policy that is inclusive of marine issues. The new policy will be based on regional plans and has a strong emphasis on community participation.

5.6.7.1 NT – Aboriginal Lands developing their own strategies

Local government in the NT is unique compared to its state counterparts primarily due to population and land tenure. Local government in the NT is not vested with planning powers; these remain under NT state government control. There are only three municipal councils with boundaries abutting the coast; all other coastal councils are Community Government Councils, predominantly in Aboriginal communities. These organisations are spread across pastoral lease and Aboriginal Land and have few resources and minimal planning powers.

5.6.7.2 Participation and Coastcare in Northern Territory

Coastcare was recognised in Wescott's snap shot of the NT as the single coastal management program there in 2000. Wescott described the funded projects as 'meritorious' but few in number. This comment demonstrates that the focus upon Coastcare by other researchers has tended to concentrate upon the grants scheme alone. The grants program is limited to some extent in the Territory because of language and literacy issues of the indigenous population and indicates a need for a different approach to funding programs on long remote coasts, under indigenous ownership. The regional facilitator in NT has been actively and extensively involved with indigenous owners in training and educational activities.

The recently produced Northern Territory Implementation Strategy recognises Coastcare's role and actively supports it. Goal 6 of Northern Territory's Implementation Strategy, promoting ESD in the coastal zone, recognises the

importance of community participation and specifically identifies Coastcare as a vehicle for assisting community groups 'involved in activities in the coastal zone' (Northern Territory Government 2001: 21). Goal 7 dealing with public access issues also states that an opportunity exists to 'promote community groups i.e. Coastcare..and [its] activities' (Northern Territory Government 2001: 22).

Box 5.10 provides the comments from the team in the Northern Territory.

Box 5.10: Northern Territory Respondent Comments

**NORTHERN TERRITORY
STATE COASTAL MANAGER AND COASTCARE TEAM
PERCEPTION OF SUPPORT & DIRECTION AFFORDED THE PROGRAM
THROUGH STATE AND REGIONAL COASTAL POLICY**

It is not relevant to NT. There aren't a lot of issues in the NT as there is only one major population centre (Darwin). All the rest of the coastline is virtually uninhabited. Most of it is in Aboriginal freehold title. I think its about 80-90%. You don't have the pressures that you have in other areas. You don't have surfing associations, cars running up and down dunes all over the place and you don't have uncontrolled urban sprawl along the coast. I think there is a role for those sorts of projects to carry out, as long as they are strategically based. We're at the start of developing a plan of management for Darwin Harbour, for example. And if there are some high priority actions that come out of that, that fit into a Coastcare sort of criteria, then I think that is a really good thing. We would be developing very broad scale regional plans for other parts of the Northern Territory and that might identify areas of intense coastal erosion as a priority issue to address. Then that would be a good idea. It would seem to me that there are two very different sorts of coastlines in the country. There are the ones that fall under the management of local government and councils and therefore have enormous problems because of poor planning practices. And then there are the other vast tracts of the coastline not subject to those sorts of population pressures but do have other issues in terms of naturally induced erosion problems. In terms of the criteria that come out for Coastcare projects, it is very heavily directed towards population centres. That effectively alienates us being you know, one of the longest remote coastlines in the country. Criteria should enable those projects [for remote areas] to be considered. The Commonwealth should at least allow entry and support the development of strategic plans for those areas so that at least you can do baseline survey work to understand the processes and decide if you need preventative management strategies to be put in place (State Coastal Manager).

That is a difficult one to answer basically because, until recently, our policy statement has been on a two-sided A4 piece of paper. So really to date, I suppose the contribution; I find that hard to answer. There are no strategies at a local level and as a result at least 3 of our projects are strategic plans for an area, so they do have a focus for community groups (State Coastcare Coordinator).

The vast majority of my work is with indigenous communities. In some communities it is an integral part of their management system, the real involvement and hands on environmental care (Landcare, Bushcare, Coastcare, all brewed into the one big pot). For the most part groups wouldn't know of State coastal strategies. Even if the information was made more available and sent out to communities and put them in the picture, it wouldn't make much difference, because people think local country. The bigger picture as a rule doesn't affect them. It's not so much ownership but custodial duties to the land, to your country, and the seas. It is finite. If they see there is a problem, they'll do something about

it ...We're reactive. I go and look at problems identified by clients. There are areas we are developing strategies and we'll be working very much to those strategies. Coastcare has provided funding for 3 communities at the moment to develop their own coastal management strategies, and they'll be doing that in consultation with the Department here and some of our experts are going to help them. They'll use private consultants when need be and local/traditional knowledge. Localised management strategies are a new thing for NT, it hasn't been done before. The main reason that this has got people's attention is that communities are aware that under NHT II funding will be easier to access if management strategies in place. It's a means to an end, as well as genuine approach to coastal management (Regional Coastcare Facilitator).

The degree of support for Coastcare at a managerial level in the Northern Territory was clouded by what appears to be some antagonism directed at the Commonwealth. It appears that Coastcare was successful in kick-starting localised plans and strategic documents in indigenous communities. These are not acknowledged by state management.

5.7 Overview of state and local coastal planning and management and influence upon Coastcare

Despite the international significance of Coastcare successfully implementing a national program, individual experiences of the different states and the Northern Territory tell an important story. The synopses of coastal management arrangements in Australia discussed in this chapter highlight the great variation in the capacity of the various institutions charged with coastal management responsibility and of their associated policies and plans. A strength of Coastcare has been its successful adaptation within each state jurisdiction. However, the variation between states and the Northern Territory in coastal management strategy, legislation, policy, and administrative structures delivering coastal management programs had a profound effect on the implementation of Coastcare in each place. As one facilitator suggested:

We're constantly having to dance with and don't have power over the way that environmental management expertise and decision making is delivered. We have to work with it the way it is. We're a little bit at the mercy of it. It's the cultural shift for the agencies who host us to be running an environmentally-based community development program. We are a bit at the whim of what's in flavour. (Regional Coastcare Facilitator)

Coastcare provides a case for improved structural arrangements and firmer policy guidance for those states lacking clarity and vision in their state policy frameworks. It is also the case that local plans and guidelines for coastal management are patchy

in their existence. The availability of local guidance in the form of relevant plans and strategies is enormously variable around the country and within states. The evidence is clear that where there is strong, clear state coastal policy supported by linked regional and local plans, Coastcare groups aligned their projects with local policy goals. In some instances respondents felt that groups were motivated and 'fired up' because they were contributing to broader goals and planning frameworks. It provided groups with a greater sense of legitimacy or importance. Where local plans existed, facilitators expressed that they were able to encourage groups to align their projects in accordance with such plans.

What is also clear, as illustrated by respondent comments in this Chapter, is that where broad coastal policy support was lacking and where local plans did not exist, Coastcare groups and facilitators functioned without guidance and in numerous cases were reportedly trying to breach the gap by applying for funds to write plans. Successful community-prepared plans, completed by Coastcare groups, were then utilised by subsequent groups to work towards the expressed strategies. Failing to undertake a strategic approach is clearly not singularly the fault of the Program. Admittedly, some respondents thought that groups were only ever interested in their own patch and that it was difficult to change their mindset. Overall however, the sentiment expressed was that where local plans existed they were used.

It is evident from the preceding discussion and analysis of state coastal management arrangements that Coastcare (its achievements, value and purpose) held different degrees of status within individual states. There is considerable variation in the way in which the states fostered community participation, utilising Coastcare as a central vehicle to promote and engage communities. Coastcare is included or mentioned specifically in most of the recent formal policy documents as an important feature of state coastal programs. South Australia is the only state not to have done so. New South Wales, Victoria, Tasmania and the newly released Northern Territory strategy, advocate for the Program. Western Australia and Queensland recognise its importance as a part of general volunteer activity in their respective states.

Of all the states, Victoria provides the strongest model of a strategic approach to coastal management. There are clear links between levels of government and their respective policies. Their state coastal program openly and actively includes the community, largely through Coastcare/CoastAction. Victoria has wide geographical coverage of local coastal plans. New South Wales uses legislative control to enforce influence in coastal management approaches at the local level more strikingly than any other state. Similar to Victoria, at a state managerial level, New South Wales endorses community involvement, and a large number of supporting local policies and plans exist to guide groups. At a state level Tasmania strongly supported Coastcare and recognised its value as an element of the state's coastal program, but there is an absence of consistent local guidance for coastal management. Coastcare in Queensland and Western Australia operated within systems that did not offer a strategic framework that provided direction and vision. Queensland's recent regional plans have the potential to provide focus for local groups but during Coastcare's lifetime under NHT I there was inconsistency in local planning and policy to provide widespread support for groups. Western Australia utilised CoastWest/Coastcare to feed information back to state planning to provide direction. Here too, the existence of local planning documents is patchy. South Australia features most prominently in this study as an example of the constraints imposed upon Coastcare through lack of clear policy direction. Coastcare in South Australia received limited support from the state in terms of guidance and vision, coupled with a lack of local guidance from local management plans and an inconsistent approach to coastal management. Coastcare in the Northern Territory filled a void, with the few projects funded preparing plans for local communities to work towards.

5.7.1. Coastcare Application Forms

The provision in Coastcare's 'Guidelines to Applicants' that required groups to identify relevant plans would appear to have been a furphy, given there is a paucity of coastal policy direction in several states at both state and local levels of governance. The overview presented in this Chapter suggests that South Australia, Western Australia, Northern Territory and Queensland (until recently) did not have access to suitable broad coastal policies assumed by the Coastcare Guidelines. Nor

did these states (and Tasmania) have access to dedicated local coastal plans. Similarly, state coastal policies, while providing a solid basis for directing local planning and strategy development, are too broad to offer specific and meaningful assistance to groups working up local projects. So the call by the application guidelines to nominate any national or state program was too broad to offer meaningful guidance to the selection panels in deciding if local groups were meeting strategic goals. Victoria was best placed with its RAPs which were able to assess applicant reference to local plans for accuracy and suitability.

Coastcare groups in states and locales without clear policy or management plans can be seen to have followed an issue driven process. Some respondents felt that groups were only interested in working on their own patch, and were satisfied that this was a suitable approach for Coastcare. This is a consideration that will be relevant for the NHT II as there is the expectation for community projects to address regional planning frameworks. How to encourage a strategic approach by parochial groups will be an ongoing issue in some cases.

This Chapter suggests that coastal policy and local planning frameworks in Australia during the lifetime of Coastcare under NHT I were largely insufficient to guide the Coastcare program in a strategic manner. It supports the notion that it was not the fault of the design of Coastcare program itself. The following chapter builds upon this one, by exploring the partnerships forged between individuals working within various institutions and the influence of these partnerships upon the Program's achievements.

Mapping and assessing Coastcare's development of pathways to integrated coastal management

Effective relationships between stakeholders will be among the most important of the policy issues in achieving sustainability in natural resource use and management in the next decade (Kingma and Beynon 2002: 7).

6.1 Introduction - Intergovernmental Integration

Drawing on the findings of the survey conducted for this study, this chapter explores and explains Coastcare's role in improving the relationships between tiers of government. One of the four dimensions identified by Knecht and Archer (1993), required to implement an integrated approach to coastal management is inter-governmental integration (otherwise known as vertical integration). All levels of government are required to be involved in planning and management decisions that will have an impact upon the coastal environment. This is one of the least well documented aspects of existing programs aiming to achieve better integration. The actual processes that take place between institutions to create greater cooperation and coordination are rarely discussed. An assessment of inter-jurisdictional linkages through Coastcare is assisted by the original provisions of the Coast and Clean Seas Memorandum of Understanding (MoU); its principles are outlined below. The following discussion will demonstrate how the program has fared in relation to these. The roles of the three spheres of government (Commonwealth, State and Local) are discussed, as well as an exploration of the linkages between Commonwealth-State, and State-Local government partnership development. The mechanisms developed through the Coastcare team in conjunction with other participants of the MoU are also assessed.

The Commonwealth Coastal Policy (1995), which first introduced Coastcare, strongly promoted its commitment to ecologically sustainable development (ESD) (Commonwealth of Australia 1995). Central to the philosophy of ESD is the requirement for shared responsibility and effective coordination within and between governments and stakeholders (Productivity Commission, 1999). The

Coastal Policy is firmly committed to the principles of integrated management, stating that there is ‘considerable benefit to be gained from governments [the three different tiers] working together’ (Commonwealth of Australia 1995); it acknowledges the prior lack of intersectoral integration in coastal management in Australia. The vehicle for achieving the Coastal Policy’s principles was the MoU.

The Coasts and Clean Seas MoU, that guided the Coastcare program, reflected and formalised the intention of the Commonwealth Coastal Policy. It defined the roles and responsibilities for the three spheres of government, clearly articulating the need to promote cross-jurisdictional and cross-departmental integration as well as the importance of cooperation and consultation (Commonwealth of Australia 1998a). The emphasis of the agreement was on integration and co-operation, with the assumption that this ‘will provide a mechanism to achieve further practical improvements in coastal management’ (Commonwealth of Australia 1998b: 2). A diagrammatic representation of the MoU is depicted in Figure 6.1, showing the linkages between participants, and the relative strengths of partnership links. The roles and responsibilities of several participants were articulated within the MoUs. These included the specific roles of the three tiers of government but also of the various positions of the Coastcare team: the Commonwealth Coastcare managers, the state coordinators, regional Coastcare facilitators and agencies hosting the facilitator positions. In addition, in signing the MoU, participants agreed to ‘establish mechanisms within their jurisdiction to promote integration across government agencies and departments’ (Commonwealth of Australia 1998b: 3); and mechanisms for consultation with the community on coastal management issues.

In signing the Coasts and Clean Seas MoU all participants agreed to seven actions:

- (i) to cooperate and consult in implementation of the coastal management initiatives as set out in the Schedules to the Memorandum
- (ii) to establish mechanisms within their jurisdiction to promote integration across government agencies and departments
- (iii) to establish mechanisms for consultation with the community on coastal management issues

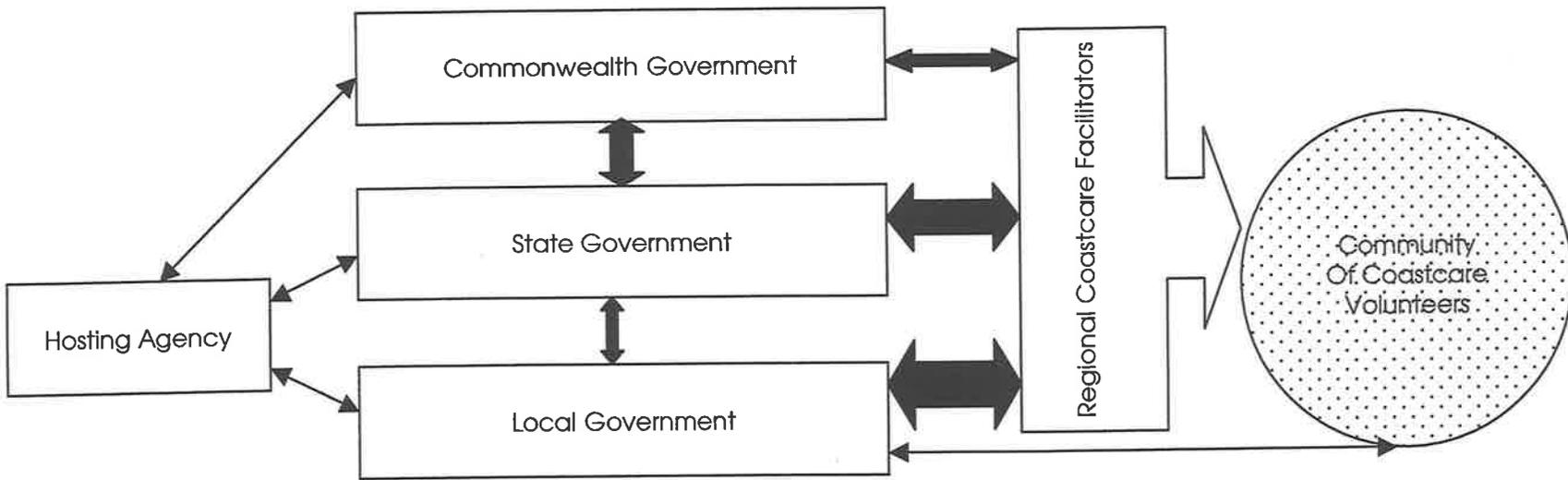


Figure 6.1: Diagrammatic representation of Coasts and Clean Seas MoU, partnership linkages

- (iv) to undertake coastal management in a manner consistent with the coastal management goal, principles and objectives set out in the Memorandum
- (v) that it is desirable for all spheres of government to have in place consistent coastal management policies within which all coastal management activities are undertaken
- (vi) to make a financial commitment, in cash or in-kind, for implementation of the Schedules to the Memorandum
- (vii) to investigate and implement options other than government funding for financing coastal management in the long term.
(Commonwealth of Australia 1998a: 3)

The formation of partnerships through vehicles such as MoUs, between key stakeholders, has been identified as a successful model for overcoming 'vertical coordination failure' (Productivity Commission 1999: 103). MoUs are designed to overcome policy inertia between tiers of government by formalising coordination efforts through the provision of instructions and specification of individual roles and tasks. MoUs are also designed to improve information exchange for better decision making. Improved coordination serves to

- Be inclusive of all viewpoints and expertise
- Clearly define problems
- Better develop priorities
- Avoid duplication
- Provide comprehensive coverage
- Widely disseminate research findings; and to
- Identify gaps in information and undertake appropriate research.
(Productivity Commission 1999).

A flaw of the Coasts and Clean Seas MoU was that two significant coastal land managers were not included. This created a gap in the integration framework. National Parks and indigenous land managers signed off on Coastcare projects that took place on their land, but were not recognised in the official partnership agreement. If all local coastal land managers signed the MoU, there could have been the potential for more widespread networking and adoption of the principles

espoused in the agreement. This is illustrated by a situation raised by one of the regional Coastcare facilitators:

The only area I don't get financial support is from [state National Parks], who is a big player in coastal zone management. [Our state coastal management agency] has signed off on a Coastcare agreement, and personally I'd love to see National Parks to sign off on it too. If we did that, we'd have the whole gamut of all coastal managers covered (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

6.1.1 The Coastcare Framework – a structure designed for an integrated approach

Almost half of the respondents for this study (47%; n= 82) suggested that Coastcare benefited existing state coastal programs by raising the profile of coastal management matters generally, and because it put into practice an integrated approach. Coastcare also benefited state coastal management through its design: the network of staff at state and regional levels, and the grant scheme provided a neat structure for integration. Most importantly, in terms of meeting Program objectives, the Coastcare framework created impetus for government to engage with community. One manager of a state coastal program elicited that Coastcare achieved this:

The Program has been very useful to the state agencies achieving sustainability, as the Rio Conference put it to us, that we should really look at the vertical and horizontal operation of planning and management for sustainability. Coastcare has been a really good platform to achieve that. The [state agency] has, in support for that, really found a variety of methods of integration coming out of the prompting of Coastcare. So hosting regional Coastcare facilitators has fed to us an awareness of where the hot spots are and what sorts of issues are there and we've developed up more support for local government and regional groups and local land managers. The integration and dialogue is informative. The formation of regional groups (people involved in Coastcare becoming involved in regional groups); the tooling up of people, is coming out of Coastcare. That is helping us get to more Natural Resource Management strategic thinking. That is effective integration. (Manager, state coastal program)

Respondents suggested that Coastcare provided a structure for managers and the community to engage towards agreed goals. This reportedly lessened the frustration of communities and reduced the associated pressure placed on government agencies. The formal application process, tying community groups in with land managers, was considered a beneficial way of engaging the two.

[Coastcare] provides a legitimate avenue for staff in State agencies to fulfil their community liaison education requirements - it makes it easy for them. It makes their work more strategic in dealing with the community. At first it may seem like more work for them but they can just step into Coastcare and it is set up for them (to work with the community). (Regional Coastcare Facilitator)

According to almost one third of respondents (n=56; 32%) Coastcare fostered partnership development and improved state based coastal programs, whilst simultaneously attracting volunteers. The administrative requirements of the grant scheme necessitated the development of partnerships within state government and between government and community. Neutral ground was set up for agencies and groups and individuals to work together, and consequently functional partnerships emerged.

In terms of having very little direct community involvement five or six years ago to today. I guess being in a climate where the same people in the community were angry at what Parks and Wildlife and council were doing. A lot of those people have now come on board and are working actively in partnerships with managers. It has made a very significant contribution to what will be a long-term cultural shift. (Manager, state coastal program)

Coastcare has allowed Local Government to establish very good working relationships with State Government agencies and the local community members. These relationships will help [the city] to manage the coast far more effectively in the future. (Local coastal land manager)

6.1.2 The three tiers working together

Whilst several respondents (6%; n=11) specifically cited three tiers of government working together as a strength of Coastcare, there was also recognition that this tri-partite arrangement was not without constraints. The success of the MoU was also seen to be variable between the states and the Northern Territory. Despite there being recorded successes and a move toward integration, a challenge for the Program was implementation across different jurisdictions, with varying degrees of commitment and support for Coastcare. In other words, existence of a MoU for Coastcare did not necessarily abate pre-existing Commonwealth/State/Local tensions.

I think one of the challenges that [Coastcare] has faced has been the different jurisdictions and levels of commitment that the different States bring to this. It is an issue for the Commonwealth to deal with, trying to deliver a homogenous program through different State jurisdictions and that has been an enormous challenge.....One of the challenges at the Commonwealth level is engaging local government and that can really only effectively be done by the State; so it is about the 3 levels of government working together. It goes back to the strengths; one of the strengths is the tri-partite agreement like Landcare and some of the other programs. But at another level that does present a challenge. (Manager, State coastal program)

We have three tiers and everyone always thinks it's somebody else's responsibility to fix it. That creates in the environmental field, and the coastal field, that creates a dynamic between the players that isn't necessarily constructive. So that remains the ongoing challenge I think, to work out who should be doing what. (Commonwealth Coastcare manager)

The remainder of the Chapter examines the specific roles played by each sphere of government and the various participants in implementing the Coasts and Clean Seas MoU through Coastcare.

6.2 Commonwealth role

Environment Australia was nominated as the lead agency for ‘coordinating coastal policy within the Commonwealth Government and for the implementation of the Coasts and Clean Seas MoU’ (Commonwealth of Australia 1998a: 21). In accordance with Schedule 3 of the MoU, the Commonwealth’s Coastcare officer role was to:

- Provide a national point of contact for Coastcare
- Provide a national perspective for Coastcare
- Promote national linkages
- Provide national support for the Coastcare facilitators and to
- Coordinate the evaluation of Coastcare nationally.

Respondents were asked about the role of the Commonwealth in supporting the development of Coastcare in their respective states. Different perspectives elaborate how the Commonwealth performed in respect to its stated tasks.

The most obvious feature credited to the Commonwealth, cited by 21 respondents (12%), was its driving force through funding and resources it delivered to the Program. Coastcare, as a national entity, would not have existed without Commonwealth financial backing.

[The Commonwealth] provided the initial program. It would be difficult to see how it could operate without their funding. (Manager State coastal program)

Within the context of matching government departments budgets, [Commonwealth] support is generally very good. (State Assessment Panel member)

The flip side of this position was the lack of security for facilitators and community due to the uncertainty of funding in the face of NHT II and having to work with ‘the whim of Commonwealth funding’ (Regional Coastcare facilitator).

Not knowing about the future. The words on everyone’s lips for the last couple of months are: ‘Are you still going?’. It’s very negative for us. [Failure to provide] a

clear indication by the Commonwealth Government, on the future of the Program, is probably the biggest minus from the Commonwealth's point of view. That would be in a major way. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

I think that one thing that could be done would be to provide a secure budget line for Coastcare. It is still pretty much year by year. When you try to encourage groups to think long term and think strategically its all a bit hard when you can only guarantee them money for one year and they bite off more than they can chew because they think they better get the money now. That sort of security I think would be important...Overall I think it has been a great Program. I think it needs to be a permanent program because the facilitators and the community implementing the projects need some sort of security. It makes it difficult to staff. The program does have a high staff turnover. Security of tenure makes it easier to move on. It's a difficult job. If there was permanency you'd build those relationships. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

6.2.1 Provide a national point of contact for Coastcare

Sixteen respondents (9%) stated that the Commonwealth team had been approachable and accessible.

They are a long way away but I think that the interaction between us is excellent. The Coastcare team in Canberra is better than any other Commonwealth team I've ever dealt with. You always feel you can ask them any question you like and you'll get a pretty reasonable response from them. They are always available on the phone or by email and personal contact at coordinators meetings and national conferences. I don't think they could do too much more. (State Coastcare coordinator)

The availability of the Commonwealth Coastcare team, compared to other Commonwealth programs, was also commended by one of the facilitators:

That kind of access, that pick up the phone, get straight to the person, talk about the idea the idea happens. That kind of thing doesn't happen in the big huge NHT world because there's too many layers and a high turnover of staff. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

6.2.2 Provide a national perspective for Coastcare

The Commonwealth was successful in producing a valuable identity for Coastcare. The Program was attributed with raising the profile of coastal management within each of the states and Northern Territory. Forty-eight respondents (28%) suggested that Coastcare was successful in achieving a national identity and promoting coastal management. It was able to achieve this status because it was a highly visible program, and accordingly, provided a tangible face for coastal management – an interface between government and community.

It's a national program. When you are getting back to the state level, politicians and the state manager realise it is a fairly powerful Program, considering it is at a national level. It has helped a lot to improve and keep the drive in the Program. There are people based in Canberra, which means they are based closer to the decision-maker, which is always handy to have and they know what is happening. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

It's a national program - able to feed in information and advice from other areas which may assist a group in addressing an issue. It is Federally funded, (able to see where Federal funds are going into on-ground works). (Local coastal land manager)

Coastcare's logo and image were central to its visibility. The Program had a positive and appealing identity, and through Commonwealth funded campaigns, achieved extensive media exposure. In addition, the efforts of the Coastcare team and the Program's extensive coverage around Australia's coastline are considered to be factors contributing to its broad appeal and successful implementation:

Coastcare has made major contributions. As well as the advantages of strengthening community relationships and the physical on ground work, the projects also provided the opportunity to provide good news stories in the media about coastal management. As well as providing the information on the projects completed, these media articles and radio interviews also allowed the coastal managers involved to highlight the coastal values and management issues that the general public are at times unaware of (Local coastal land manager).

The Commonwealth, through Environment Australia, also promoted the Coastcare program through educational print materials, especially during special events such as Environment Week. Respondents suggested that the Coastcare image had assisted in attracting community groups, because they felt it was an initiative volunteers liked to be associated with.

It is important for volunteers that they are part of a local group but that local group is then part of a broader network, and a national network. That is important for kudos - and importance to some members of those groups. There is a fair number of people in the community that are quite happy to go about doing their work locally but when they realise they are part of a bigger band of people around the country I think that adds to the importance, or feeling of belonging. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Two negative aspects of the Commonwealth's national promotion of Coastcare were raised during the interviews. First, 9 respondents (5%) suggested the generic Coastcare brand was not sensitive to particular state based issues and priorities:

I think Coastcare had difficulty to start with because, like a lot of Commonwealth projects, they are developed without any thought to what is actually the issue faced by the managers within the individual jurisdiction. It took a long time to find its niche. (Manager State coastal program)

A second challenge was the Commonwealth's contract with Land Care Australia Limited (LAL). Environment Australia was allocated funds to assist attracting corporate sponsors and subsequently LAL was commissioned for this role (Commonwealth of Australia 1998a: 21). One third of the national Coastcare team (managers, coordinators and facilitators; n=15 of 45; 33%) were critical of the

efforts of LAL and of the Commonwealth's role in attaining value for money from the contract:

The compromises we have to make to meet the objectives of sponsors often almost negate the thing we're aiming for with Coastcare. That is not a win win situation. It is kind of a win blah situation which makes it a bit difficult. It means we can't drive it. We can't say 'Right, what would be the most effective way of getting the message out there?'. We just have to take what we can get. The return for money in terms of the consultancy costs is pretty poor. (Commonwealth Coastcare manager)

One example is sponsorship where we are relying on some leadership from Canberra on issues and it would have been good if we could have had some success there and we haven't, so that is something that hasn't been delivered for us on a national scale. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Critical comments in regard to LALs sponsorship included:

- a failure by LAL to recognise the regional differences experienced around the country, and to address this in promotional events. The subject matter tended to be centred around Eastern states issues
- promotional materials, while being of high quality, were not always distributed in a timely fashion:

The timelines the Commonwealth give us for promotional activities is no where near good enough. It just isn't good enough. We often get an e-mail asking for information that day or the next day. If you look at our time, we can't give back the information, unless we drop everything else we are doing. The length of time given for response just isn't good enough. e.g. We had 'World Environment Day' in June and we received a brochure to distribute and that was just an e-mail copy - the day before. That was it. We had to do a mad photocopy to get things out. It was unprofessional. It wasn't good enough. And a wasted effort. They took a lot of time. It was a really good brochure and we got it the day before. Not even copies of it. That is one aspect that they really need to address. I must say by the time they produce the product it is a pretty good product. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Tailoring the information of education materials also missed the mark in some places:

Some of the material that comes out is really Eastern States focused. I'm just thinking about the shorebirds from last year were all Eastern States migratory routes. That would have been really embarrassing. We couldn't use them here. People would have been appalled, 'where's [our state] in that?'. Little things like that [the Commonwealth] could help out a lot more. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

6.2.3 Promote national linkages

The Commonwealth each year organised a national forum for the entire Coastcare team: the Commonwealth managers, coordinators and facilitators. The Coastcare forum provided an opportunity for the team to discuss problems and share ideas. It also created a beneficial opportunity for individuals in the network to meet each other and identify as a national group. Facilitators were subsidised by the Commonwealth to attend forums but Coordinators had to find funds from within

state budgets. Consequently, for at least one forum (2000) one coordinator was unable to attend. Hosting agencies were also invited to the forums; however their attendance was negligible. Fourteen respondents (8%) spoke about the annual, national Coastcare forums as a beneficial initiative for the Coastcare team:

It is a very important role that the Commonwealth plays in that area. Bringing together, at a national level, all of the facilitators from around Australia is extremely important. I've been to one of the national forums and found it fantastic, the amount of interaction that goes on. That national get together is really important. It sounds so twee when you say it, but it is very much about hearing and listening and learning from each other. You can get very complacent within your own system. It really does broaden those opportunities. Just sharing ideas. Giving people confidence. It is that business of you may have a couple of new facilitators on and they will go to a bigger broader audience and think that's great: 'I know where I fit'. It is incredibly important that national forum. They are a terrific idea. (Manager, State coastal program)

The national forums are so critical...We just don't know what's happening in the other states and it makes such a difference being able to talk to the facilitators from other states and realising that you're dealing with the same issues and problems and that it's not just you. Being able to put faces to names. The networking and being able to talk shop with so many different people and about so many issues and get new ideas. I always come back buzzing after that (Regional Coastcare facilitator).

The Commonwealth also met with the state Coastcare coordinators bi-annually to discuss progress and events and coordinated occasional teleconferences, typically around sponsorship matters. Beyond the forum and the coordinator meetings, the Commonwealth Coastcare managers were not proactive in encouraging links with the managers of state coastal programs, facilitators or coordinators. There were suggestions that communication could have been better, and one solution posed was that a website discussion site would have been welcomed.

Closer cooperation is needed. A better information link. There seems to be a poor link. I know [the Commonwealth Coastcare managers] go through the coordinator and then the coordinator comes to us, but as I say, it's almost a case of Chinese Whispers. [There is] not a direct link and we're not all working as one unit. We should be working as a unit, a three level unit. We shouldn't be working as separated units so much [so how do you think that would happen then?]. Well, setting up an information, obviously computer based information, liaison system. So a way in which decisions or especially liaising prior to that decision-making is put through a computer system, in a way that we get that information and we can comment on that. I mean, I can see that possibly we could have avoided some of problems if we'd had a better information flow. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

There was a sense that beyond the forums the Commonwealth Coastcare managers did not go out of their way to encourage linkages between the states at coordinator or facilitator levels.

It was always at an arm's length. I am really only marginally satisfied there. I really felt that after three years there might have been a visit, apart from just coming for the

SAP. To actually check things over and verify for themselves what is happening.
(State Coastcare Coordinator)

6.2.4 Commonwealth – State integration

There was very little direct communication between Commonwealth Coastcare managers and the managers of state coastal programs. One of the Commonwealth managers described such interaction as ‘superficial’. Another suggested their interaction was ‘limited’. The nature of communication was typically formal, written exchanges. There was no mechanism in place for consistent communication between these two parties. Contact between the Commonwealth managers of Coastcare and managers of state coastal programs occurred as a consequence of other tasks, not specifically related to Coastcare. This is a relationship that could have greatly benefited the Program. If Commonwealth managers had visited the states, promoted the value of the Program and communicated its purpose, outcomes and potential there is the possibility that Coastcare may have made more progress in some of the less proactive state coastal programs.

I guess [the Commonwealth] has been pretty hands off in many ways. In terms of actually coming and building the Program in this state in some way, like coming and organising meetings with senior managers in the agency, or with councils it has been pretty hands off. Maybe that is an area we have all overlooked. To raise the profile in that way. For example if not just the team, but if the executive officer of the Division, who is ultimately three levels above [the Coastcare manager], if they came and extolled the virtues of Coastcare, it is that sort of level of support has probably been missing...I think senior EA staff could take stronger ownership of the Program and maybe play more of a champion advocacy role. (State Coastcare Coordinator)

6.2.5 Provide national support for the Coastcare facilitators

The general sentiment expressed by respondents was that they received good support from the Commonwealth Coastcare team. Nine respondents (5%) stated that they had had little to do with their Commonwealth managers but were happy, so long as funding came through, and the facilitators felt that if they needed and asked for help they would get it. Respondents felt that the support provided by the Coastcare team in Environment Australia was excellent, but that linkages within the agency stopped at the Environment Australia Coastcare office. Eleven respondents (6%) expressed that communication above the Coastcare office, in the Federal hierarchy, dissipated and the Commonwealth maintained a ‘hands off’ approach:

I think from the point of view of the Coastcare program, and that's from the Coastcare national manager down, I find we have good support. I feel like above that [the Commonwealth] lacks understanding of what is actually happening and how important [Coastcare] has become. Whether that's true or not I can't really tell because I haven't dealt above that level. . I feel like above the Coastcare program in EA, I don't think they appreciate the importance of what Coastcare has done. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Thirteen respondents (7%) also suggested that the Commonwealth did not have clear understanding of state issues, local conditions and the effort required to respond to Commonwealth enquiries. The confidence in the level of support offered to facilitators by the Commonwealth was undermined by a sense that the Commonwealth was too far removed from individual, state-based, and especially local level issues. Several facilitators felt the Commonwealth managers didn't have a good handle on the day-to-day pressures of the facilitators, nor the impact of their bureaucratic reporting requirements on volunteers. At the same time, facilitators expressed that they were not clear about the role played by the Commonwealth:

I think at certain times of the year, and I guess it happens with all organisations, people that are maybe a little bit higher up the food chain, maybe if you look at it that way, just forget what happens down here. Someone in Canberra will say 'Can you do this, this and this?', and you think, 'Well, hang on. What time of year is it? What do you think my main priorities are?'. Coastcare Week is, I guess we've all got a bit of a bee in our bonnet about Coastcare week. All the facilitators are saying one thing and then the Commonwealth turns around and says 'No, we'll do something else'. We're the ones that deal with the community. We're the ones that know what they want and need and sometimes that gets forgotten. And I understand that they have to go through processes as well and they have a lot of things that they have to do, and maybe we forget that. I guess sometimes there's a little bit of a feeling of frustration...I think it's a communication problem that we have sometimes but it's hard because I'm saying maybe they don't understand what goes on but it's probably just as much the other way. I don't think we understand what goes on up there and what pressure they're under to do ministerials and all the things that they have to do. I've got no idea about that. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

A suggestion for improving or resolving this communication gap, from the top levels of management to the ground, was for direct visits by Commonwealth Coastcare managers to individual states for team meetings:

We could probably work more strongly with the Coastcare team on a local level from time to time. Maybe for them to visit the States more often and actually have discussions. We tend to organise it through the co-ordinators forum, but I think there is probably a value in coming and working directly with the whole State teams. In so doing, holding gatherings, meetings, work shops with senior managers and from local and state governments - and the community. (State Coastcare Coordinator)

I guess potentially there could be more support for developing a stronger relationship between the Commonwealth and the host by organising State/host get togethers, done

in conjunction with the State. The Commonwealth have a role to get involved too.
(Regional Coastcare facilitator)

6.2.6 Coordinate the evaluation of Coastcare nationally

Coastcare was never thoroughly evaluated. According to the provisions of the Coasts and Clean Seas MoU, this is a failing of the Program. The section about Coastcare in the NHT mid-term review of Coasts and Clean Seas (Commonwealth of Australia 1999) was cursory and did not evaluate Coastcare against its original objectives. The main reasons for not conducting an evaluation was explained by insufficient resources to undertake such a task:

Another thing we need to address is getting feedback and evaluation. One of the key problems there is having the resources to do that. (Commonwealth Coastcare Manager)

Some managers of state coastal programs were intent on measuring Coastcare's performance in terms of environmental outcomes, which were not mentioned in the original program objectives. Ironically, aspects central to Coastcare's stated objectives, such as the encouragement of stewardship and partnership development, were glossed over. For example, lack of confidence in Coastcare's performance was aired by two state managers:

I think to get a proper overview of how effective or otherwise Coastcare has been...It is so difficult to have good State of the Environment (SoE) reporting baselines to measure these things....At the end of the day you want environmental outcomes. Just to have people walking around with a nice understanding of coastal management is one thing. I guess to measure it you could give them all a test. The only way you'd know if Coastcare had influenced decision-making for coastal management is how many more people are commenting on Plan Amendment Reports (PARs). I'd find it difficult to tell you. Really this is the area we want to assess to get some real concrete idea of have peoples' attitudes changed, and what is the outcome of that? Has there been better management of the coast? If you can't answer those two things you'd have to wonder whether it's a good idea. (Manager, state coastal program)

[Coastcare] has probably succeeded in improving site based areas. Weeded an area here or a wetland there. In the big picture of coastal management it probably hasn't achieved anything. If you looked at coastal management today pre NHT I don't think anything has changed. There hasn't been that evaluation to determine exactly what has. I don't think that is unique to Coastcare.....The big environmental gains aren't there....I don't think anyone expected it would improve overnight, but personally I think this agency is hoping NHT Mark II really starts to address NRM seriously. (Manager, state coastal program)

Performance data, related to the original objectives, would have been a useful means of encouraging the less supportive managers of state coastal programs of the Coastcare's worth. One respondent expressed the fact that the Commonwealth was

largely interested in an evaluation of the Program through quantitative measures of success:

We're looking for different goals I suppose. The Commonwealth is really happy if they give money out for a project and it is acquitted and you can go through and tick off and say 'Beauty!'. In a group's final report it will say: 'We did 5 km of fencing', and [the Commonwealth] add it all up, because when they get a ministerial request, the Minister can stand up and say 'Well what do you mean it hasn't been successful? We've fenced 50,000kms and ra ra rah'. All this quantitative information, that is what they want. (State Coastcare coordinator)

Comments of 21 respondents (12%) indicated they felt there should have been a greater emphasis on evaluating Coastcare. Some of these wanted an indication of the success of the Program as a whole, and some detail of the breadth of work undertaken by Coastcare, and the overall effectiveness of projects. They felt unable to make an assessment of the Program's performance due to lack of information. A lack of reflection of Coastcare's activity, at a national level, means that many potential possibilities for standardising information for groups, for SAP panels and the Coastcare team were lost. This was expressed in terms of several different aspects of the program:

that central control can play a very useful role in seeing what works well in one area and spread it round. (State Coastcare coordinator)

Specific examples are provided below.

➤ Costing of materials and average unit costs for construction materials:

I felt it would have been useful if more documentation of projects that were done and ones put forward were provided so we had a better feel for unit rates. It stuck out to me for example, for boardwalks, the costs that were put forward for those constructions might vary between 5 or 600%. At the end of the day it should be a fairly simple matter for someone to put together the unit costs for all of the boardwalks that have been constructed in [this State] over the last 5 years, so you've got a guideline. That applies to planting, earthworks or whatever. So there is a better method there of assessing the application. You could tell then whether you had a reasonable costing in front of you. A lot of them [groups] don't have expertise in costing materials. They are really working in the dark. If someone gives them a price they don't know if it's a good price or a bad price. (Manager, State Coastal Program)

➤ Development of Project Management Agreements

We've developed what we consider to be our Coastcare Project Management Agreement. We changed things a little bit; we've done things different ways. For the first time this year for instance, for projects over \$15,000 we've decided to go with two incremental payments and not give all the money up front. I don't even know if other States do that or not. Management these days is a complicated business and if lots of different people are basically doing the same thing, there are enormous possibilities to learn from each other, I would hope. It is early days for me, but I have limited capacity to develop strong links with the other managers because I only see them once or twice a year. We have occasional phone link ups. (State Coastcare Coordinator)

➤ Feedback and information exchange for Coastcare groups

There is lack of opportunity for groups to share their successes, failures and learning. Its been really disappointing and has resulted in new groups reinventing the wheel and getting frustrated and disillusioned in doing so, especially when they find out that another group tried the same thing and it didn't work. [OK, so what do you think the solution to that is?]. I think, I've been advocating this for years. There needs to be a way for groups to meet and share information whether it be forums or whatever. A website or something, where you can go to and find out who has built a fence like this or a walkway like this and how they did it and what it cost and did it work? To have ease of access to information like this. There has been a bit of disillusionment. Projects are hard enough anyway, but when the outcomes aren't what you were hoping for and then to find out that other groups had already learnt this. There is a sense that there is money that has been wasted. Volunteer time that has been wasted. I just wonder if the levels of involvement may have held up there more if people had felt supported in that, and a facilitator can't do it on their own. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

➤ Development of Coastal educational resources

Development of a generic manual that the States and Territory can put in their own issues, but to at least have a generic one. We use New South Wales'. We haven't got the resources to develop our own. (State Coastcare Coordinator)

Figure 6.2 demonstrates that the Commonwealth primarily worked with States (through the Coastcare coordinators) to ensure smooth running of the Program. Linkages by the Commonwealth Coastcare team were not developed into wider state coastal management fora. Beyond the national Coastcare forum there was limited, unstructured and infrequent contact between the Commonwealth managers and the regional facilitator network. The focus of activity at the Commonwealth level was to make Coastcare a national icon and this was fostered largely through the development and dissemination of promotional campaigns. The potential role of the Commonwealth managers, in developing stronger Commonwealth-state partnerships, was under utilised.

6.3 State Role

The specific terms of the MoU for the States, above and beyond the agreed actions stated previously (being primarily to promote integration across agencies and departments), was to ensure that Commonwealth Coastcare funds were appropriately dispersed and administered for Coastcare project proponents. This includes the administration of SAPs.

6.3.1 State Coastcare Coordinators

An additional state duty, prescribed by the MoU, was that a State Coastcare

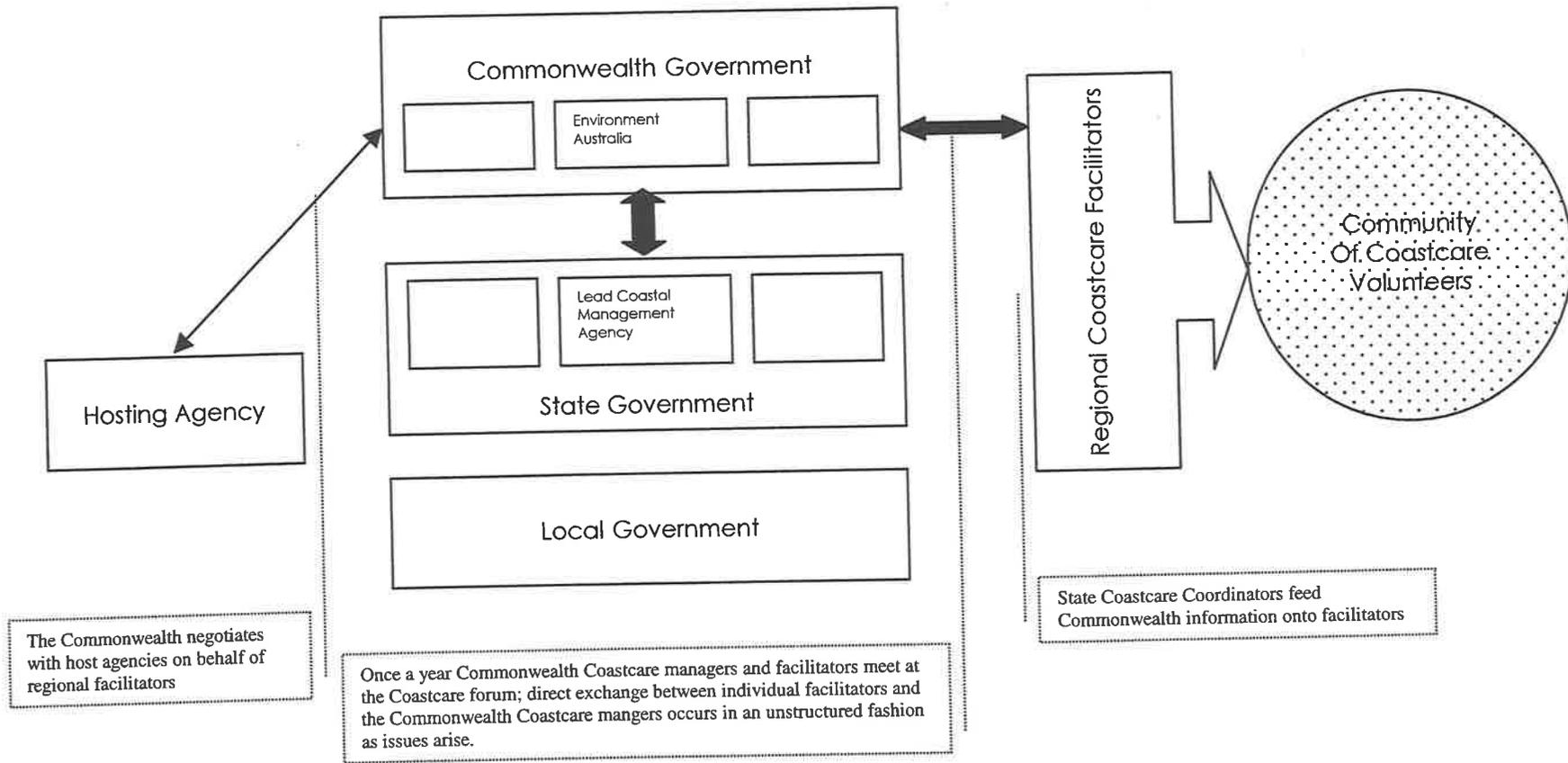


Figure 6.2: Commonwealth locus of influence and communication exchange

Coordinator was 'to provide support for and promote State/Local Government aspects of Coasts and Clean Seas generally' and to oversee the duties of the facilitators in conjunction with the Host Organisations (Commonwealth of Australia 1998b: 21). Tasmania is an anomaly here, whereby the MoU was signed but no state money was provided for the Coastcare coordinator position. The manager of Tasmania's state coastal management program took Coastcare on in addition to his other duties.

The role of the State Coastcare coordinator was critical to the performance of Coastcare in terms of extending the Program beyond the grant scheme, by providing state-wide linkages for facilitators and promoting elements of the MoU.

One of the things we really did hope would take off - because I mean Coastcare is one part of a much broader package of coastal management initiatives, and in fact I'd be careful that we don't see Coastcare as the activity - one of the things that didn't work as well as we'd hope was that Coastcare was designed to be the bottom-up, local community stuff, changing the dynamic in councils that sort of thing. We also had the Coast and Marine Planning Program, and the idea was that would develop the more planning approach to coastal management, the big regional picture. We were hoping there would have been a strong link between the two. I don't think that link ever really developed. Now the cause of that was the way in which the State Coastcare co-ordinators tended to see themselves as running Coastcare, running a community grants program, and not being broad coastal managers and I think it was that sense of, I'd call it lack of vision on their part, of how things linked together. That failed. (Commonwealth Coastcare Manager)

Survey data for this study revealed that the approaches of the individual state Coastcare coordinators, and their respective views of their role as coordinator, varied. Three of the state coordinators interviewed felt they had been tied to administering the Coastcare grants. They reflected that this was their key function. Two said that they did not get out to see individual projects.

The problem that you will always have I guess in this kind of a state government department is the high level of time that you spend in the process and administrative procedures. I spend all my time dealing with process and fixing things up. I guess that is my job. The process and time you spend filling out forms and writing reports is pretty onerous. (State Coastcare Coordinator)

In terms of expanding linkages horizontally within their agency, the same coordinators showed some cynicism about the relevance of such an approach:

There are mechanisms in place to interact with the [agency], except for branch meetings. If there is an issue, or sometimes I give a breakdown of where we're at with the Coastcare program, and just in general communication. The other officers in the [the agency] I use as a resource if I want something. I then go and ask someone, like articles from newspapers or advice on a particular project, and I can't provide it. They all have their own tasks to do and I've got to look after Coastcare, so I don't see there as being a need for any more than that. (State Coastcare coordinator)

The remaining six coordinators expressed their commitment to be proactive in seeking out opportunities to liaise with other individuals and to extend the profile of the Program and community action beyond the administering agency:

We have section meetings and then from our section there is a report each month that goes up to the Director and in turn to the Assistant Secretary. There is that mechanism there. Also I proactively, whenever anything kind of really good happens on the ground, I do up posters and put them around the floor so that management is aware of what projects are happening, that things are happening in Coastcare. There is also a newsletter put out by all the 'carers' up here: caring for Catchment. (State Coastcare coordinator)

The Coastcare coordinator role varied widely between the states for numerous reasons. Finances to organise peripheral events like Summer Activities were not available to all of the coordinators. The turnover of coordinator positions in Western Australia and Queensland, in particular, stunted Coastcare's potential development in those places. Individual coordinators approaches to the Program also influenced the direction Coastcare has taken in individual states. The skills of coordinators in directing and promoting Coastcare in their individual states, in a strategic way, was unique to each; some were much more practiced and confident in doing this than others. The acceptance of Coastcare by the managers of state coastal programs has also had a strong influence on the role of the coordinator.

6.3.2. State agency support for Coastcare

There is a range of opinion within the survey data, held by the managers of state coastal programs, from Coastcare being considered 'a fundamental element' of a state coastal program, to the perception of Coastcare 'being amateur' and being 'a sideline and not really serious coastal planning or working'. Ten respondents from six different states suggested that Coastcare had struggled for recognition within their own state agencies and coastal programs. Reasons for this struggle were put down to

- Lack of trust in the ability of communities to do work that had previously the professional responsibility of agency staff
- Lack of strategic planning in Coastcare
- The need for the Program to earn respect as a serious program and
- Competition between Coastcare and shrinking internal agency resources.

There are clear indicators that reflect the degree of supportiveness towards Coastcare extended by individual states. The most overt form of agency support for Coastcare was demonstrated by the amount of funding contributed by the state (n=25 respondents; 15%). Five of the six managers of state coastal programs interviewed suggested this was the primary mechanism by which their agency supported the Program. This measure however, is not necessarily the best reflection of agency backing. The experience of the state coordinators and the facilitator network reflect other ways that agencies provide moral support or assistance to advance the Program. There appear to have been four fundamental features that ensured Coastcare was recognised as a significant and relevant feature of state coastal management programs:

- Strong moral support clearly articulated by the managers of state coastal programs
- Structured inclusion of Coastcare coordinators within agency administrative and management activities (such as policy development or departmental meetings)
- Independent advocates, at state level, who defended or spoke up for the Program
- A proactive, visionary Coastcare Coordinator.

Two states, New South Wales and Victoria, shared all of these features and the facilitators in those states expressed satisfaction and confidence that they had agency support; they had an implicit understanding that Coastcare was thought to be assisting their agencies and that Coastcare was a central element of their coastal unit; that it was an initiative to be 'protected'. Conversely, where all of these features were lacking, progress for Coastcare suffered, the facilitators' tasks were more onerous and morale was low. Queensland and South Australia were states lacking fundamental backing. The two examples in Box 6.1 and Box 6.2 below illustrate the difference between states with the four positive features and those with none of the features.

In terms of intra-state integration between state coordinators, there was evidently little interaction outside the teleconferences arranged by the Commonwealth.

Box 6.1: Four Features in place

[The agency] is very supportive in that I am one of the 3 managers in the coastal branch and I am involved in a lot of the major decisions on where the branch is heading and I'm involved in management forums for the wider Division, so the department is very supportive in that way... I think I am quite lucky in that there is strong coastal branch in the Department and we are in a Division that is very supportive...I am able to very easily interact because I am part of it. Apart from those networks and the management forums and being on the management team for the coastal branch, I think also part of my role is to be proactive. As with all State departments, communication between branches and divisions is not fantastic, and so part of my role is to be proactive to make sure I have a network within those other divisions so that I know what is going on. Not that I am perfect, but I may be able to understand things which may effect us in the future. For example, I have developed quite a strong relationship with the NHT person in [this state]. I have only done that recently with this threat of NHT II and what is going to happen. Those sort of things aren't facilitated by the Department. It doesn't just happen. You have to actually find the right person and be proactive and get in touch with the person and develop a relationship and keep the information exchange open. Where I am based there are mechanisms in place for information exchange. Part of it is my responsibility to go out and make sure it happens. (State Coastcare Coordinator)

I think in [this state] you'd have to say [agency support was] very good. I feel a strong link with [the agency] because I feel very much like an [agency] employee rather than a Coastcare employee. Just following on from that I am not treated as a tack-on, I am treated as part of the organisation. I think they have supported the Program well. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Box 6.2: Four Features missing

I've never worked in a place that has such bad networking and communication as I find here, unfortunately. The manager of the coastal section is a very busy man. He'd be number one on my list, he is the manager of my branch and he is my link in with what is going on in the NHT world, as he goes to those sort of conferences. So he is a key man in our agency for coastal management, so I would prefer to have better links with him than I have. (State Coastcare coordinator)

There was a real negative attitude that seemed to emanate from the section that managed Coastcare in the state head office. That seemed to come from the manager of that section down through the ranks. The manager, on a personal level, was supportive of individuals and he talked about Coastcare being a good program, but he didn't follow up with actions. What he said wasn't what he did. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Apart from funds given for projects there's very little interaction between the state agency and Coastcare. Even though [the co-ordinator] is located within the state agency. We're missing a great opportunity in that there's huge potential for integration and cooperation between the two [Coastcare and the agency], but very little happens. It's only just very recently that the agency has started to try to involve Coastcare offices in their monthly and bi-monthly meetings, and only at our [the facilitators] request. Basically we (the facilitators) said to [our coordinator], 'we really need a working relationship with [the agency], it seems ridiculous that we don't'. It was getting to the point that we had no idea what [the agency] was doing and they certainly have no idea what I'm doing because no one ever asks. That seemed to me to be quite strange and a big missed opportunity. There are some relationships with staff within [the agency] but they are more a result of goodwill between the individuals involved and shared progressive views rather than any policy or strategy which requires us to integrate with each other.... The relationships that have been built are the result of compatible personalities between officers. Mutual goodwill rather strategic direction provided from above. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

One state Coastcare coordinator expressed this as an issue:

A thing I find with the Coastcare coordinators, with Coasts and Clean Seas we have an email network that we tend to use a lot and discuss issues. That doesn't seem to happen with Coastcare, even though I have raised it. I don't know if it is just the individual people. I haven't done anything towards initiating it. (State Coastcare coordinators)

And another respondent explained why there was little communication between them:

It is hard for me to talk to 5 or 6 other co-ordinators about particular ideas. There is not a great deal of interaction among us because we are all busy people. I consider it to be a heavy workload here. I haven't got time to fool around while at work. I sit here churning through my work all day, and I guess it is the same for the others as well. (State Coastcare coordinator)

Figure 6.3 highlights the fact that the strongest linkages for individual states were with the Commonwealth, the Environment Australia office and the facilitator network. State roles through the coordinator were primarily focused on administering the projects. On the whole, linkages between Coastcare, at a state level, with other state agencies were not well developed. Communication between State coordinators and individual councils was typically limited to negotiations about individual Coastcare projects or hosting conditions of facilitators. If and when hosting issues arose, state coordinators negotiated with the relevant local coastal manager on behalf of the facilitators.

6.4 Local Government Role

Of each of the spheres of government bound by the MoU, local government is by far the most diverse. Hundreds of coastal local government agencies around Australia have been involved in Coastcare, working in conjunction with local volunteer groups to complete the Coastcare project management agreements signed for receipt of funds. As a consequence there has been a variety of approaches and experiences shared between agencies and groups. Many of these shared experiences have been positive and rewarding; however, others have reportedly been difficult and unproductive. Local government involvement has been essential for the implementation of Coastcare because this is the sphere of government most intimately connected to the community. Without local government cooperation the majority of Coastcare groups would not have been able to undertake works on coastal lands.

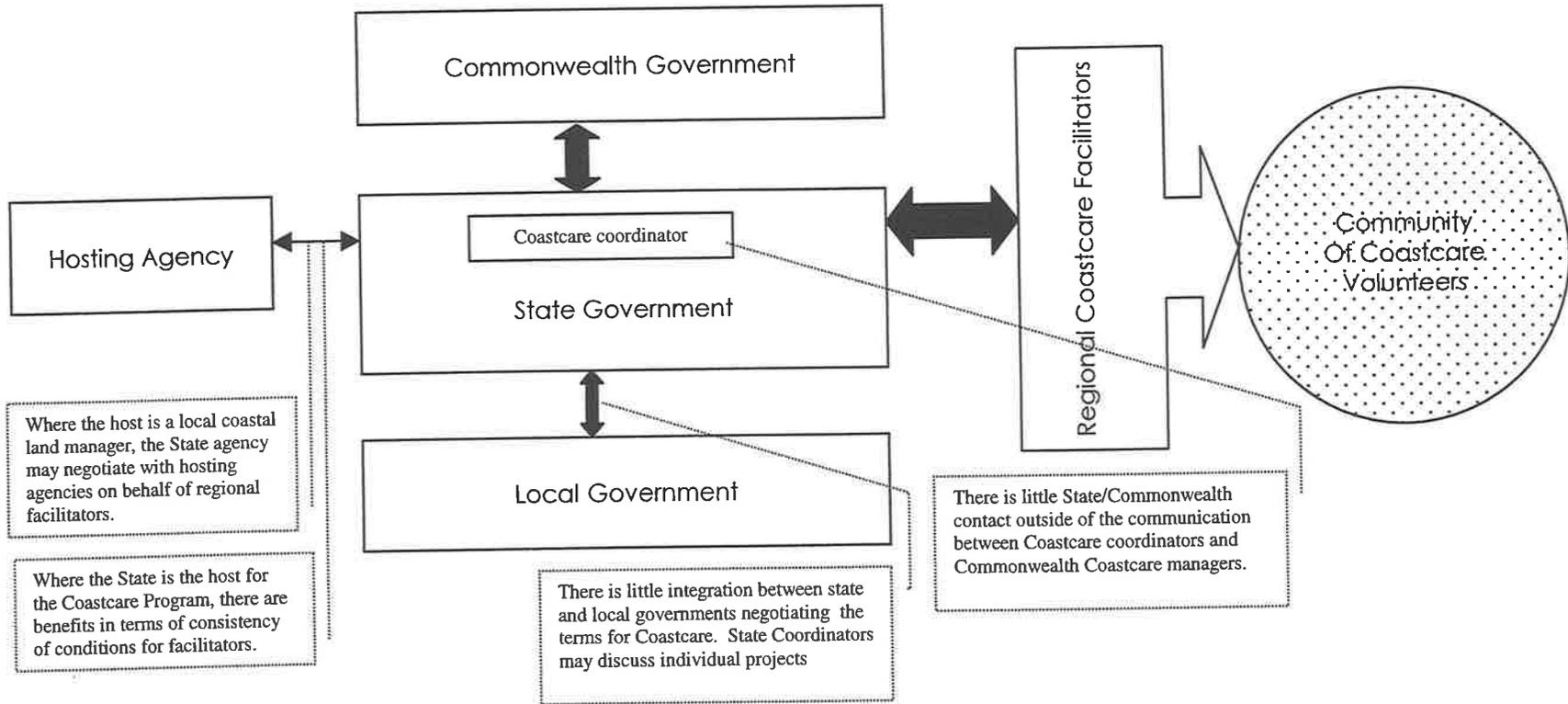


Figure 6.3: Locus of information exchange and communication between States and other participants

In signing the Coasts and Clean Seas MoU, the representatives of local government agreed that 'they would promote among their member organisations' the adoption of the philosophy and intent of the MoU, which included:

- adopting coastal management policies consistent with the principles of sustainable resource use, resource conservation, public participation and capacity building; and
- establishing mechanisms for consultation with coastal interest groups.

Local Government had the most hands-on responsibility of the three spheres of government in conjunction with Coastcare. It is the jurisdiction that directly entered the joint agreement with groups to undertake coastal works. It is the jurisdiction for which Coastcare works became a responsibility once a group had completed its task. So, for example, built structures like boardwalks, steps and so on become the responsibility of the land manager on whose land they were situated. It should therefore have been imperative that the sweep of local land managers were involved in the development of Coastcare from the outset. However, of the three signatories of the MoU, local government was considered to have been the weakest link or the sphere lacking full commitment across councils.

Local government commitment could be increased. (Manager, state coastal program)

The MoU as a concept is a real strength but in reality the local government link, while it has been a really good step, it can be taken a lot further. (Commonwealth Coastcare Manager)

The role of Local Governments in the preparation of the MoU is worthy of note. It was representatives of local government, the president of the Local Government Associations in each state, who signed the Coasts and Clean Seas MoU on behalf of local coastal councils. Tracing the process by which coastal councils were included in negotiations for Coastcare proved very difficult because, after five years, files had been sent to storage and people had moved on or were vague about the process. The role of individual councils in the formation of the detail of delivery of Coastcare is unclear. However, a comment by one of the Commonwealth Coastcare Managers suggested that communication of the intent of the MoU across councils was not strong:

It is all very well to have an MoU at that higher level, and you know, the state. Local government overarching representative body have signed it but the local government may not necessarily be aware that it exists. (Commonwealth Coastcare Manager)

A response by one facilitator during the interview process also suggested a lack of inclusion in the development and adoption of Coastcare by councils:

... councils say, 'We didn't ask for Coastcare, it was imposed upon us and now we're being required to pay for it'. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

There are several issues that will be drawn out in the following discussion in regard to local government inclusion in the planning of the Coastcare and the way it has unfolded in practice. Broadly speaking, the Productivity Commission noted that coordination with local government (and other government bodies) in the past in implementing ESD strategies has been inadequate, 'resulting in poor decisions being made at the implementation level which usually means at the local government level' (Productivity Commission 1999: 98).

An example of the lack of clarity of local government's role, and a position that would have benefited from firmer guidance within the MoU, was the financial commitment required from individual local governments. Facilitators had the task of approaching individual councils to contribute to their operating budgets. This proved difficult given the large variation between councils and their individual financial standing. An agreement up front of what was expected financially from councils, in the way of support for the facilitators, would have been ideal.

When it comes to our every 6 months or every 12 months when we ask for money off of our local councils, we always have them turn around and say 'Well what do you do for us?'. And its that battle that you have to go through. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Financial support is waning because [local government] are not required to make any commitment. I basically have to go begging for money. The Program doesn't look important when facilitators are begging for money. There should be that agreement made, it's a tri-lateral agreement Commonwealth, State and local government. That agreement should be entered into in the same way that's its entered into with the State. It has to be written down that local government says, 'Yes, we're going to commit X amount of dollars over 5 years', and then its done. Facilitators shouldn't have to get involved with that because it denigrates their position. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Support from local government has been really disappointing. Local government has been very willing to take and not give anything back. A prime example would be council [X]. Hundreds of dollars of work has been spent in their council area through grants and work through community groups, and yet they won't even chip in a thousand bucks towards running the program. I think that is appalling. Poor old [host council] ends up footing the bill for running the program for [the other council]. If you were [the host council] you'd have to ask, 'Why are we doing that?'. Local government really hasn't supported Coastcare as much as they should, and that is a disappointment. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

In short, the interaction between Coastcare participants and coastal councils around Australia was highly variable. This was expressed by 23 respondents (the Coastcare team and managers state coastal programs n= 23 of 47; 48%). It is necessary to establish the factors that created hospitable and productive relationships between groups and councils in order to continue to promote and develop functional connections in the future. The following discussion provides evidence that partnerships were established through Coastcare, and outlines the conditions that supported such developments.

6.4.1 Evidence of Partnership development between Local Government and community

As a consequence of Coastcare, the outcomes of many coastal local government and community partnerships were positive:

In a lot of cases [Coastcare] has worked very, very well. The council speaks highly of Coastcare and the groups themselves reciprocate. It has actually brought a lot of the council people closer to the community. Because these people are carrying out work that is straight up and down the land manager's wishes, it's been really good. (State Coastcare coordinator)

I have worked as a coastal land manager in [several areas] and seen the benefits these well funded [Coastcare] projects have contributed to the environment and community interest groups. By utilising local knowledge, equipment and expertise, a bond develops between government agencies and the wider community as progress towards common goals is achieved (Local coastal land manager)

Four elements, emerging from the survey data, provided evidence that functional partnerships between groups and local coastal land managers were forged as a result of Coastcare. These elements are:

1. Local land managers provided additional financial resources beyond the Coastcare grant agreement

Some councils put funding aside in their budgets specifically for Coastcare and they give them (groups) that and the groups can spend it as they like. Others put aside larger amounts and groups can ask for it. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Also the fact that sometimes [a group] has had one grant and the local manager has been so happy with the work that the community has done that they've put a budget in their next funding round and worked with the community one on one. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

2. Local Managers helped groups undertake works and tasks

Some land managers attend and provide assistance at working bees run by the group and provide them with their necessary tools and equipment, mulch and materials and stuff to do the job. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Some councils provide administrative support, like distributing minutes, agendas and that sort of stuff. They might send a long a counsellor who will take minutes for

Coastcare meetings (every group [in my region] has monthly meetings). Councils will do mail-outs to local residents. Counsellors attend clean-up days and planting days. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

3. Local coastal managers invited groups to attend functions or meetings; or invited groups to offer their opinions and advice about strategic or policy decisions

The community groups are actually finding that the council contacts are actually seeking them to come on board on committees, seeking their input. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

I think the [local] land managers get invited to Coastcare meetings and BBQs and working bees. The land managers know about the groups activities and through the groups telling them, so they have this interaction happening. It's a two way thing. The ranger will ring up one of the local people to get their expertise or advice. That's happening. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

4. Local land managers attend community forums and conferences

The Coastcare team in Tasmania coordinated their state coastal conference. Some of the facilitators in Queensland, Victoria and Western Australia initiated their own regional forums, inviting groups and land managers. One facilitator organised an annual bus tour for participants to visit the different Coastcare projects in the region. These events served to raise the profile of the Program and of central messages about coastal management, as well as to encourage community and partnership development. The conferences proved beneficial. Bringing the different stakeholders together at one time enabled them to express their individual positions and to make contacts.

Community conferences [are evidence that effective interaction has taken place between Coastcare groups and local coastal land managers]. A Queensland facilitator had one on the central coast of Queensland and there were a lot of representatives from local government there, as well as Coastcare groups. Similarly in Tasmania [at their conference groups and land managers] knew each other well and had developed relationships through undertaking projects. (Commonwealth Coastcare manager)

6.4.2 Factors enhancing the development of partnerships between local land managers and coastcare groups

There are specific reasons why some partnerships between groups and councils developed better than others. Interviews with the coordinators and facilitators revealed significant factors that assisted in the development of beneficial and productive interaction between councils and groups. These are addressed in turn below.

6.4.3 *The design of Coastcare*

The Coastcare grant scheme was identified by 20 respondents (12%) as an essential and significant means of establishing the initial partnership between local government and community. They suggested that because of the requirement for a jointly signed application, local government and community had no choice; they had to and did make contact and had to work out ways of negotiating and working cooperatively.

Through the process of a project the group naturally starts to rely on the land manager for certain things. Because they are forced into it. At first when they put the applications in they are perplexed, 'We just want funding. Why do we need the support of the council? Why can't we just do it ourselves?'. They are kind of forced into that partnership through the process of the project. They need certain things from the council and they start to build up a relationship. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

The grant system has brought them together. The local manager has to approve what the group wants. That's forced them together. They have to discuss the issue of what they want to do and we get involved. They usually do agree on what the group wants. [Coastcare] has brought them together, it's been the conduit there. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

6.4.4 *Dedicated council officers*

Twenty-two of the forty-one facilitators and coordinators interviewed (54%) made strong statements that a designated environmental officer in local council greatly assisted the formation of a functional partnership between council and Coastcare groups. The role of dedicated environmental officers, working within councils, was to work alongside community groups and to be a point of contact for community members. The officer then could feed information back to the council. Facilitators described councils with environmental officers as lifting their load. Such council staff had a good understanding and patience for working with community members. They took the time to visit sites and listen to groups. The role of such a person raised awareness of the program and issues within council. Not all councils employed environment staff and this seemed directly related to council size. Small remote councils were the least likely to have such a person in their employment. An example of the benefit of dedicated staff is illustrated below:

[Council X] has been a massive problem council. All their Coastcare projects have been absolute flops with them and everything has just fallen to pieces. But in the last 9 months they've got a new Bushcare officer and this has just changed everything for the whole council area. All the groups are happy again. They feel like they're wanted, needed, understood, what have you. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

6.4.5 Challenges to partnership development between local land managers and the community

Success of partnership development between community groups and local coastal land managers is a matter of supportiveness of councils. Twenty-one people (12% of all respondents answering the question related to challenges faced by Coastcare) identified local governments' lack of commitment as a challenge. This included attitude to coastal management generally; they reported there was still considerable resistance by some local coastal land managers to work with community. Particular themes emerged that indicated how and why councils had not been supportive of the Program. These reasons are discussed in turn below.

- Local land managers lacked experience in working with volunteers and community groups; they demonstrated a lack of confidence in the ability of groups.

There was a sense of reluctance from some agency staff to work with community on the grounds that tasks would take longer and there was an associated lack of faith in the ability of community groups to work effectively. Some respondents suggested that at times Coastcare was not taken seriously by local government and other government agencies as a program able to contribute to coastal management.

There have been one or two clear failures but that often comes down to personalities, and sometimes that's land managers not really understanding how to work with the community because that is not their background or training. (State Coastcare coordinator)

Convincing local government that it's worth their while to support community groups. Local government and other industry bodies consider it is easier to get on and do the job rather than involving the community. They think involving the community makes the project more lengthy or complicated. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

- Lack of understanding of Coastcare, a mismatch of interests between Local land managers and the community

Friction between groups and land managers on a number of fronts proved to be a challenge for Coastcare. Friction resulted from historical differences of opinion such as a mismatch of conservation versus development ideals between councils and groups; and there were numerous reports of personality clashes between individuals in council and groups that hampered partnership development.

With some of the ones that aren't so good there is often some antagonism between the groups and the land managers for some historical political reason. So in one situation the friends group is very politically active in opposition to the land manager sometimes and from time to time there may be conflict on development versus conservation. Even though in most cases the land manager does its best to assist

them with the other things like money within projects there's just not that warm happy relationship like there is in some councils. I can't say whose fault that is either. It's just a historical thing [a personality thing], exactly yeah. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

The attitude of both some land managers and community groups has hindered the development of [facilitator] interaction with local coastal land managers associated with Coastcare. That might mean, I've got a bloke in council who hates the community to be involved in anything. I've got community groups that reckon land managers are a mob of drongos. If I didn't have a funding program I wouldn't have leverage to be listened to in some cases. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

➤ Lack of an environmental focus, in particular a coastal focus

At the beginning I got the feeling that half the local governments in my region didn't give coastal management a priority. Often they don't consider the natural environment part of coastal management a concern. More concerned about providing facilities. That was something to overcome. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Trying to get councils who haven't traditionally had much of an environmental focus, trying to get them to even consider the environment is difficult enough but as well as the coast, because it is such a small strip of land, it's a real challenge. In some areas you don't even have environmental office, just engineers. It is really difficult to get them to think beyond groynes. That is a challenge for coastal management in general. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

➤ Some community groups were difficult for Councils to work with

Some councils have voiced that some Coastcare groups can be difficult and don't necessarily understand councils needs. Some councils have had difficulties with Coastcare groups wanting unreasonable things. So there has been some tension in areas where the expertise or what has been proposed by the Coastcare groups is inappropriate. Councils have had difficulties facing vociferous community members on the issues. (Manager, state coastal program)

There have been projects where we get letters in where the Coastcare groups have constructed something that has gotten away from councils and ourselves. That has got up the nose of some locals. I think sometimes councils have projects that have not run as well as they would have liked, in terms of the end product. They have had to involve themselves in some remedial works to sort them out. When projects get to a complicated stage, such as a timber walkway, they require a fair bit of organisation and then it gets into to the realms where local government need to take more involvement. They're usually the ones that have signed off on it, but sometimes they don't pay as much attention as they wish they had. (Manager, state coastal program)

➤ Council Staff and Size of Council

While councils with environmental officers proved a key element of good partnership development, other staffing issues hindered the formation of linkages between groups and councils. Council amalgamations, restructuring and the rapid turnover of staff in councils were such an issue. This type of change was reported by five facilitators to be unsettling in that established relationships were instantly undermined, and this was suggested to happen repeatedly within the same councils.

A further nine facilitators suggested that they had had bad experiences with council staff who had no interest in working with the community. These fourteen comments represent 44% of the facilitator network.

6.4.6 Size and location of councils

The appointment of environment officers and the attitude of council staff were closely associated with council size and location. Smaller councils and rural councils were not as well resourced. Busy, under-resourced councils reportedly did not always place a high priority on coastal issues; in more remote communities the focus of council effort was landward. Faced with limited resources and burdened by other tasks, councils did not always see Coastcare as having much to offer. Alternatively, large, well resourced councils did not need Coastcare money, had numerous environment offices and again did not utilise the Program.

Smaller councils probably don't have a diverse range of staff. It may be the engineer that has involvement with community groups. The background of the staff member that is assisting the group has an effect. The area that some of the authorities have to manage makes some of the supporting with resources pretty difficult. Distances, some groups, for one council to get a group can take 2 hours to get up to this small community, so regular meetings are not really an option. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

The Council I was least involved in was the biggest of the lot. One of the reasons they weren't so interested [in Coastcare] was because they had stacks of money themselves. They weren't too worried about chasing any outside funding. They had environment or conservation type staff and they had stacks of work on themselves. It gets back to staff having an interest in coastal issues. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

6.4.7 Models of local government and community partnership development

Around Australia several different models evolved that brought together local Coastcare groups and councils. The most successful models that served to improve communication and coordination between groups and councils are discussed below.

6.4.8 Umbrella groups meeting and planning with councils

One of the most effective models that was established as a consequence of Coastcare was the formation of Coastcare advisory or coordinating committees. Such committees comprised 'umbrella' groups, or regional collectives of Coastcare members who met in conjunction with council officers from across a region. Meetings were regular and structured community and council work in a coordinated way. This was described as a more strategic approach for planning Coastcare activity. Through such meetings, work plans were developed outlining

the projects to be tackled during the year ahead. Small tasks were set requiring cooperation and coordination between groups and councils. For example, working bees were scheduled. Jointly prepared community work plans served to support the groups and to reduce potential conflict. Councils were clear about the nature and location of community activity and planned their own works accordingly.

Advisory or coordinating committees provided a forum for information exchange. Participants benefited by learning about the different Coastcare activities within their region. Groups shared their knowledge and experiences while councils also were alerted to issues that they may not have previously been aware of. These committees generated action and contributed to the development of community-local government partnerships. In some instances members went on site visits around the region to get a clearer perspective of coastal management activity.

Where we don't have those [umbrella] groups the interaction is a lot more hit and miss and more reactive and responsive than strategic. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Most states had examples of these advisory committees. Descriptions of them were provided by coordinators and facilitators in New South Wales, Queensland, Western Australia, South Australia and Victoria. New South Wales had some of the most organised and sophisticated examples where umbrella groups were driven by the community and councils played a lesser role in setting the strategic direction.

In all my councils I have a group of groups. I've helped set them up. In two of my six areas I set them up. They have been very effective in contributing to the group/land manager relationship. All the groups meet every two months. In NSW there are a lot of these group of groups. In some areas that's where we've tried to get the Coastcare name. In Tweed, it's the 'Tweed Dunecare Advisory Committee', in Coffs Harbour, its the 'Coffs Regional Coastcare', in Maclean its 'Central Coastcare'. We've got 41 groups in the Coffs one. Seven in the Byron Bay one. Twelve groups in the Tweed One. Fourteen groups in the Ballina one. It's working really well. We try to do it by Shire and a maximum of two shires. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

In contrast in Queensland, on the Sunshine Coast, sixteen Coastcare groups, through the council's initiative, formed an 'adopt a park' scheme. These Coastcare groups were coordinated by the council and projects were designed in a more strategic way in conjunction with the council environment officer who had a good understanding of the different projects being undertaken in the region, and could assist groups with issues or troubles they experienced. The Queensland coordinator

described this as 'an extra level of management' that the facilitator could not provide, being 'spread too thinly on the ground'.

6.4.9 Model for remote coasts

A model that eventuated for a group of remote councils on the West Coast of South Australia comprised the quarterly meeting of a group of senior council officers (CEOs or district clerks) from 8 coastal councils. These land managers met with the regional Coastcare facilitator to develop a structured works program that suited each of the councils. This arrangement transpired when one of the councils aired some frustration over being unable to access the facilitator who has to travel long distances between groups and councils. These meetings have produced greater cooperation and better communication about what Coastcare has been achieving across the region. Works have been initiated in places deemed priority sites. A Coastcare Association, formed and is credited as coming out of the direct interaction between the councils. This Coastcare Association, in conjunction with councils, put in a group bid, framed in a strategic way to the South Australian SAP, and was successful in receiving funds over \$100,000 for approximately 10 projects.

Figure 6.4 shows that the strongest links with local government in respect to the Coastcare program are with the regional Coastcare facilitators. There is limited exchange between the state element of the program. An important development is the direct contact established between groups and land managers.

6.5 Regional Coastcare Facilitators

One of the most critical aspects affecting the functioning and implementation of the Coasts and Clean Seas MoU was the team of regional Coastcare facilitators funded by the Commonwealth and placed regionally around the coast to support groups and build capacity at the local level. They provided a resource for coastal management that was not available prior to Coastcare. The regional Coastcare facilitators were, as one respondent put it, 'essential to the whole system'; another stated that 'I don't think it is clearly recognised just how valuable they are...we couldn't have done it without them'. Twenty-four respondents (14%) when asked to identify Coastcare's strengths, suggested the regional Coastcare facilitators were

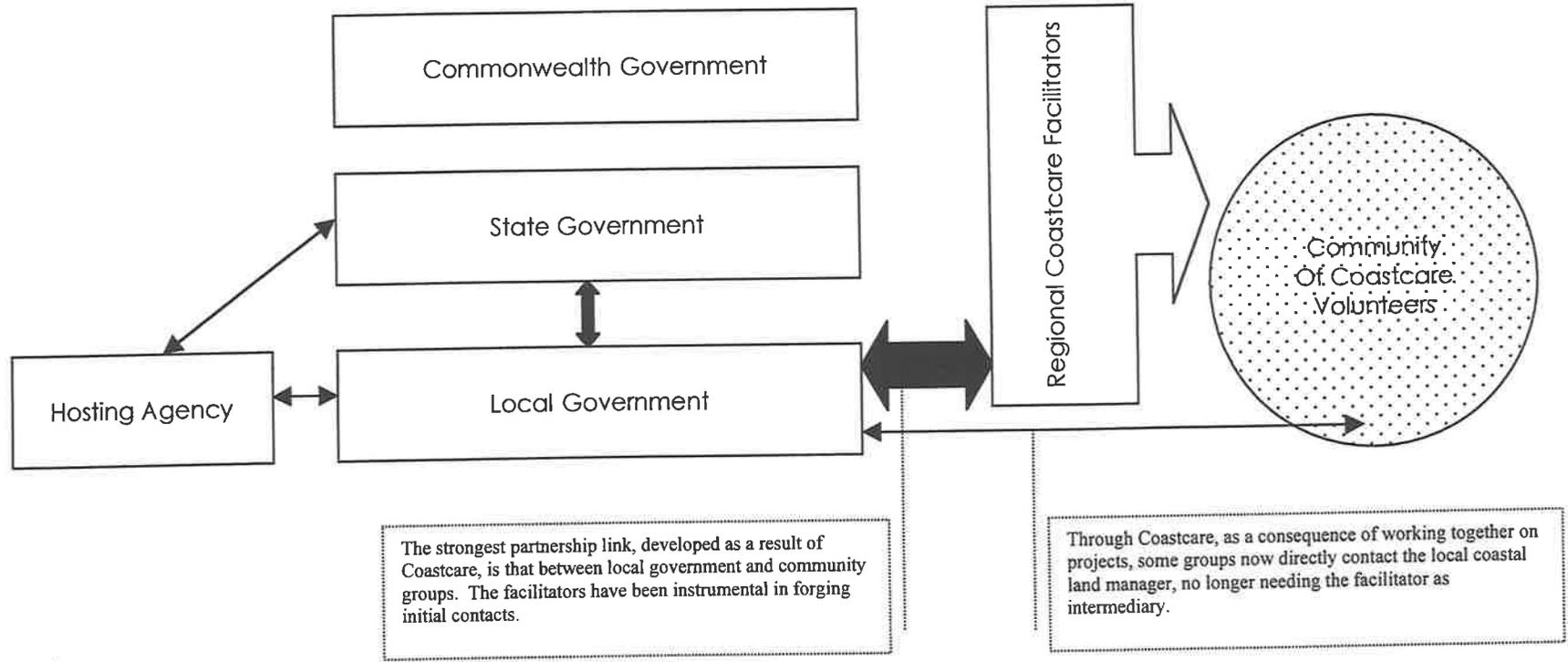


Figure 6.4: Locus of information exchange and communication for local government in regard to Coastcare

its major strength.

The fact that [Coastcare] has been as successful as it has I think is purely because of use of the facilitators and the involvement of those facilitators. (Manager, state coastal program)

The Coasts and Clean Seas MoU stated the role of the Facilitators was to:

- assist in raising the awareness and profile of Coastcare in particular and Coasts and Clean Seas in general
- advise on and coordinate activities funded under Coastcare within their region
- assist, where appropriate, with the implementation of Coasts and Clean Seas initiatives and contribute to integrated approaches to coastal management
- work closely with and encourage community participation in coastal zone management and associated activities within their region;
- provide advice to community groups and others on best practice coastal management
- facilitate communication and cooperation within and between community interest groups, industries, local government and government agencies
- assist in the promotion of indigenous interests in coastal management
- assist community groups and others to prepare applications for Coastcare Program funding.

The regional Coastcare facilitators had it as part of their core business that they should, if you like, act like a catalyst in the regions and make the linkages between people that needed to be made to overcome the natural tendency of things to decouple. (Commonwealth Coastcare manager)

In terms of delivering an integrated approach to management the facilitator position was the one which had the greatest access to different participants of the MoU and greatest flexibility at the local level. Metaphorically speaking, the facilitators were the oil in the integration framework. This concept is illustrated by Figure 6.5. They had access to all participants of the MoU and they smoothed the linkages between the different participants of this integration strategy. For example, they were:

- funded by Commonwealth and shared a direct link with the National Coastcare office
- funded by the Commonwealth to attend the biannual national coastal conference and were therefore aware of current coastal management issues

- hosted by either local councils or State agencies and therefore were positioned on a day-to-day basis alongside one of the partners
- co-ordinated by a state coastal manager, who was typically placed within a state government agency with a coastal focus and hence (in theory) had access to managers and information at that level
- ‘on-side’ and in frequent contact with local coastal land managers
- able to make inter-agency links and could access information and disseminate information by informal and formal means
- the closest of partners to the ground, had good understanding of group dynamics and of the needs of the community in their region and earned the trust of the community.

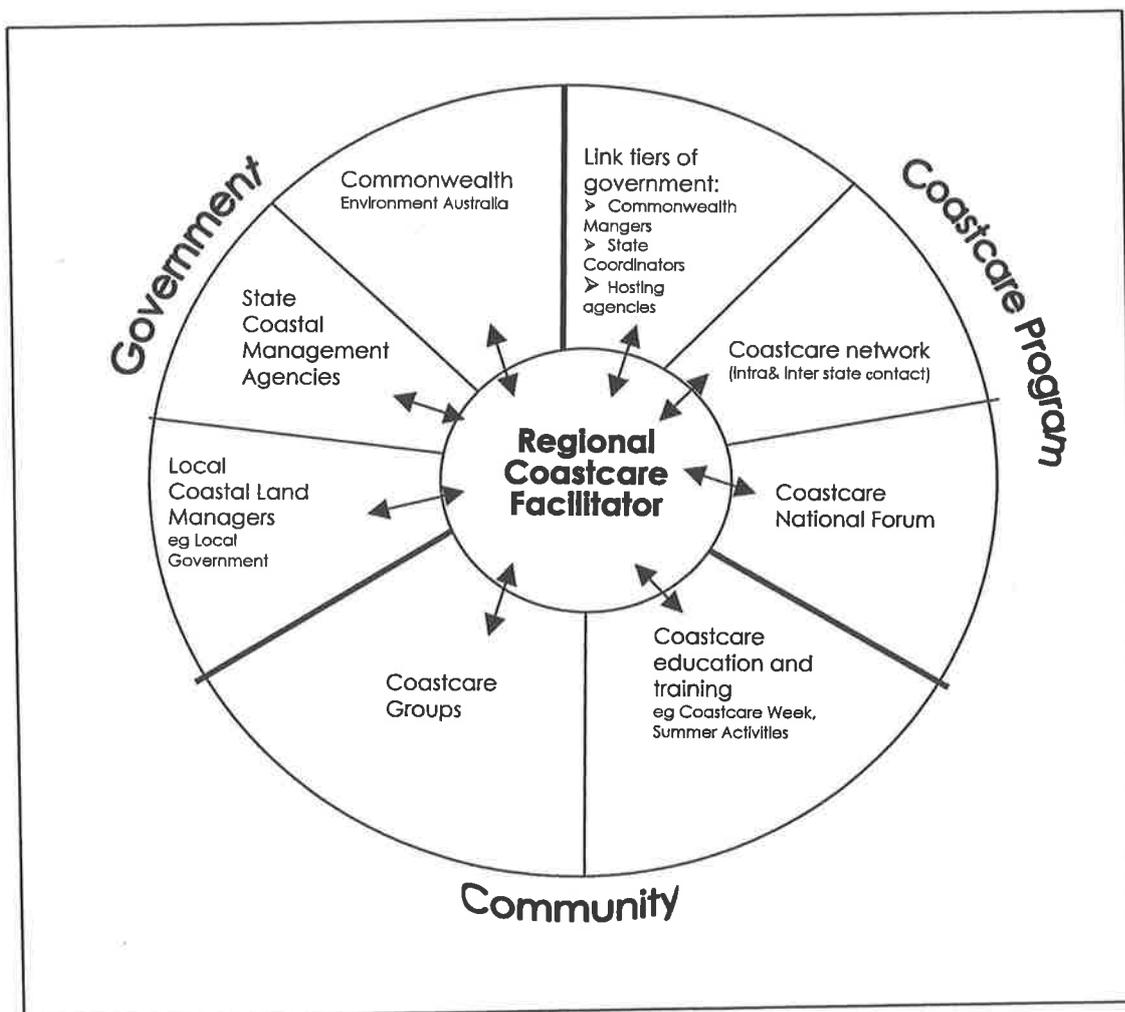


Figure 6.5: Coastcare regional facilitators: ‘oil’ of the integration strategy

Each of the tasks expected of the facilitators will be reviewed below as a means to understanding how they fulfilled their roles.

6.5.1 Assist in raising the awareness and profile of Coastcare in particular and Coasts and Clean Seas in general

According to the survey, one of the most significant contributions made by Coastcare to coastal management was the educative role and awareness raising role undertaken by the facilitators. Over half of all respondents (n=98; 56%) cited Coastcare's awareness raising contribution as a key strength or contribution of the Program. Through the skills of the facilitators, Coastcare's role in environmental education, contributed to a greater understanding by community and local government about coastal processes, coastal management arrangements and government processes. Facilitators ably assisted groups undertaking projects and they provided training and support. In addition, the facilitators were directly responsible for distributing information about coastal management and coastal environments to the broader community, through initiatives like Coastcare Week and Summer Activities programs.

[A strength of Coastcare has been its role in creating] a significant increase of awareness about natural processes in coastal areas. LGA officers have gained increased understanding of the public perceptions about coastal values. The projects have focused LGA's attention and efforts on areas that require more active management. (Local coastal land manager)

[Coastcare has] contributed to a general increase in awareness among the broader community. The sections that are involved with Coastcare have increased their awareness quite considerably because they get hammered relentlessly by [the facilitators] with information and various demands that [facilitators] put upon them. Whether its enlightened the broader community its really hard to say. They have heard coastal management messages through the general media and there does seem to be a general raising of awareness but its hard to quantify. (Regional Coastcare Facilitator)

6.5.2 Advise on and coordinate activities funded under Coastcare within their region

Seventeen facilitators, when asked how they maintained working relationships with local land managers, explained that they were vigilant in making and sustaining contact with the land managers in their regions. The nature of interaction was varied and included face-to-face meetings, telephone calls and e-mail. Some facilitators gave formal presentations, or prepared annual reports detailing Coastcare activity and outcomes for their region; others ran training workshops. Some facilitators attended council meetings. One of the benefits of such interaction was that land managers were well informed about the various Coastcare projects and coastal management issues within their locale.

Because of the flexibility of the program and the fact that you can [as facilitator] get involved in lots of different aspects of coastal management, like education, its given me scope to target different officers in council as well. It's not just the environment officer or the technical officer. I've worked with visitors' services and community development. So it's about targeting and getting council interested in it as well. By organising events and inviting them all to come along and letting them know what's happening. They seem to appreciate that as well. (Regional Coastcare Facilitator)

In addition, a further 22 respondents (13%) provided examples of the value of Coastcare facilitators coordinating various activities beyond the grants program. These included community forums or mini-conferences as well as Coastcare Week and Summer Activities programs. Some facilitators around the country organised regional conferences. The benefits of such initiatives are outlined below:

One of the real management strengths [of Coastcare] was that it brought groups together, like through coastal conferences. That brought united groups together. That was nothing to do with funding, but it was people with common goals. As facilitator I tried to bring all these people together. They started to share resources and had similar issues in different parts of the region. The conference provided a common platform where they could discuss solutions to their problems at a local level. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

The facilitators have encouraged interaction by: organising training courses and seminars; providing newsletters highlighting completed and upcoming projects; assisting in recruiting volunteers; providing contact lists. As I have mentioned earlier, I feel I have received very good support from the 3 facilitators I have worked with. (Local coastal land manager)

Facilitators were able to offer this support because of the nature of their job. They had the capacity to network widely with groups and agencies in their region and therefore had the knowledge, insight and understanding to contribute a regional overview.

6.5.3 Assist, where appropriate, with the implementation of Coasts and Clean Seas initiatives and contribute to integrated approaches to coastal management

The role of the facilitators was specifically designed to give them the opportunity and time to liaise with a wide range of different stakeholders. The unique position of facilitators was mentioned by seven respondents (4%) as a highly beneficial one that assisted drawing participants together in an integrated approach.

The facilitators are a stabilising face. It gives the council a bit more confidence to deal with the group because they know the group is backed by a state and Federal program and therefore they are more willing to put some funding into it. Rather than off their own bat, fling some tools at someone. It gives stability and gives the council some leverage within management, that whole concept of mix and match of community with government and the outcomes. (State Coastcare coordinator)

6.5.4 Work closely with and encourage community participation in coastal zone management and associated activities within their region

Forty-seven respondents comments (27%) related to the benefits of the facilitators encouraging and supporting community involvement in coastal management. Among these comments were suggestions that Coastcare groups had become more involved in coastal management initiatives, through the facilitators support, than they otherwise might. Facilitators were able to offer support because they worked in the field, on-ground and met face-to-face with groups to offer advice, assistance and encouragement. The facilitators suggested that they had good rapport with groups, and made an effort to know group members on a first name basis. This encouraged open communication. The facilitators' knowledge of their regions and groups meant that they understood local issues and could cater to the needs of individuals and groups appropriately. Groups appreciated having a government person take interest in their work.

The facilitators are the strength of the program because they are the people out there on the ground providing support to the volunteers and to the groups. Some of it is moral support, having someone who works in coastal management that understands the coast and what is going on. These groups can talk to the facilitator about their problems and about technical queries and questions and help write grant applications or final reports. Sometimes a group will get stuck and a facilitator can help them get through: 'What do we want to do next, What is our direction or plan?' A facilitator can even help down to the level of how the group can get started and organised, 'How do we run a meeting for a group like this?', and 'How can we get incorporated?', down to the nitty gritty of group dynamics. (State Coastcare coordinator)

Three respondents compared Coastcare facilitators with other 'care' programs, stating that Coastcare was better at forging relationships with groups because funding was provided through Coastcare (in some states) for training and because the facilitator was instrumental in the development of groups and in creating a network of groups.

Landcare has a network of over 100 staff in [this state] but not one has the job description of overseeing any of the Landcare program grants. It is the same with the Bushcare network. There is about 10 of those and not one has the job description that says 'oversee community groups doing Bushcare grants, see they are doing the right thing, spending the money properly'. The Coastcare facilitators hound groups. While they are being hounded they are also being given information exchange on new techniques. (State Coastcare coordinator)

From my point of view as Bushcare officer, coordinating community groups in the area, Coastcare has been the most effective of the 'Care' organisations in providing the support that groups need. (Local Coastal Land Manager)

6.5.5 Provide advice to community groups and others on best practice coastal management

The provision of technical information and advice to groups by facilitators was identified by twenty-one respondents (12%) as a strength of the Program.

Being able to access funding for projects and seek advice and support as a community group can help direct funds to a project that will benefit the whole community. (Local coastal land manager)

Coastcare facilitators appear to have solid knowledge of coastal issues and give plenty of support to the betterment of the areas where projects have been implemented. (Local coastal land manager)

6.5.6 Facilitate communication and cooperation within and between community interest groups, industries, local government and government agencies

Thirty-nine respondents (23%) talked about the significance of the facilitators linking and bringing together different players from within government and the community to work more constructively together. They then maintained those links. The facilitators built and looked after networks of interest groups. They were described as 'go-betweens'. They opened the lines of communication between participants and remained 'in the middle' to manage the interaction between agency and community. This aspect of Coastcare was considered critical in the early stages.

The facilitators are the vital link for all of this to happen. They provide that conduit between a group of people who want to get established and need to be introduced and a relationship brokered in the first instance. (Manager, state coastal program)

They provide a conduit between levels of government...They are the people that make the links up and down the hierarchy of government and community. (Commonwealth Coastcare Manager)

One of the important aspects of their role as facilitators was to mediate between different interests, particularly those of groups and land managers. Land managers reportedly respected the facilitator's role because it got them 'out of the hot seat' and they didn't 'get any more aggro from the community'. The facilitators took 'some of the sting' out of community dissatisfaction with land manager decisions. Facilitators 'created a safe space' for interaction.

We have two extremes here. The land managers who want to get things done and see Coastcare as a way of getting money. We've got community groups who see Coastcare as a way of getting things done that the land manager mightn't agree with. The beauty of having a facilitator on the ground is that that is brought together. (Regional Coastcare Facilitator)

The facilitators also have strong linkages with different agencies and are useful in being able to refer groups and land managers to resources and information.

Local managers know we have a lot of meat because we're a three level government approach. They quite often don't have the links between other agencies. It's quite typical to sit down in a meeting say, with National Parks and Wildlife Service, who are discussing a fantastic project or initiative that they want to undertake, and the EPA have already done it. I've been there with [three state agencies]; they understand that the Coastcare facilitator floats between the three levels and I will quite often know if the university has done research or has maybe done a component of research which would assist them. So they quite often rely on us for that kind of networking (Regional Coastcare Facilitator).

Reasons provided for why the facilitators should have been successful in this respect is attributed to the fact that they are perceived neither as government nor community representatives. This neutrality has proven politically advantageous. They are able to relate to other government employees on an even footing but at the same time community groups are amenable to their advice and assistance.

Because Coastcare is independent of State Government people haven't perceived it as being a government body which is interesting from my perspective. They see it like a third party or NGO I guess. We become their middle person when issues come up. People are less suspicious of us in that role. (Regional Coastcare Facilitator)

6.6 Hosting Regional Facilitators

Each Coastcare facilitator was hosted either by local government or within a state agency. Western Australia was an exception with one facilitator position hosted by an industry body: the Pilbara Development Commission. The purpose of the host was to provide the facilitator with administrative support, an office and point of contact. Hosts also provided operating budgets for facilitators and often vehicles and computing facilities. Different states arranged different hosts. Victoria and Queensland negotiated for their facilitators to be hosted by the central agency in their State responsible for coastal management. New South Wales and South Australia negotiated with local councils and regions of councils to host their facilitators. Tasmanian hosting arrangements were shared between regions of councils and the state agency. Western Australian hosting arrangements also comprised a mixture of hosts: local government, state agency and the industry body.

Initially the Commonwealth was firm in its resolve that the facilitators be hosted by local agencies and not central state ones because there was a strong suspicion that

state agencies would capture the facilitator and divert their energies away from their specified role.

One of the things that we did try early on in the peace, and was an underlying philosophy, was that we were trying to avoid having the delivery mechanisms for the Commonwealth coastal programs strongly linked to state agencies. We were looking to the states to say: 'Lets put up the framework in which Coastcare can operate but take one step back and let local councils and communities have more say in things'. To the point where we used negotiating positions as much as we possibly could, we were looking to place the facilitators in local councils, not in state agencies. Our thinking at the time was the ones in local councils would be working across groups of councils, so they wouldn't be owned, if you like, by a council and they would therefore be able to work more like a facilitator across a broad range of interests. We were concerned that those in state agencies would over time, and a short period of time, would effectively become surrogate staffers for a particular agency. They would a) be perceived as that by the public and other jurisdictions and b) their managers would forget that they were being funded to do something else outside of the agency, at the directive of the agency. (Commonwealth Coastcare manager)

Ironically, the results of the survey undertaken for this study revealed that facilitators hosted within a state agency felt more supported than those at the local government level. Reasons for this included that

- The consistency of conditions created through the central state bureaucracy offered better support. Such conditions included being paid and employed at a standard rate and level; operational budgets were more easily attained through state government than local government hosts. Facilities accessible to facilitators such as computer, vehicles and so on were more equitably dispersed to state hosted facilitators. The state hosting the facilitators had a clear understanding of Coastcare and its purpose and in that way provided good support to the facilitators.
- There was better communication flow, and funding 'and all the things that come with state departments' (State Coastcare coordinator). Regionally based facilitators, hosted by their state agency, were strategically well placed. They were closely linked to coastal planners and management teams and had the opportunity to work in conjunction with them. State agency hosted facilitators still had the opportunity to work closely with local land managers and they maintained links at the local level by making consistent and regular contact either by visiting or calling or emailing.

The benefits of being hosted by a single agency was explained by one facilitator as follows:

I think it works well, [facilitators] being in the one agency. We all work under the same conditions. Because we all work for the same department and working on the coast and on the same program, [the agency] is very supportive of us getting together. I have no issues with getting all the facilitators from the regions to one central place and having regular catch-ups. We are able to get together and set the directions together of where the program is going and I write that into service agreements with the regions and it happens. It just seems to work well in that the priorities we come up with can be initiated and put into place. There are no work load issues. The work

load that I set, there is no 'you can't tell us what to do'. We have access to other departmental resources. It works well for us. We are the same e-mail and internal mail. It works extremely well (State Coastcare coordinator)

The fact that we are all hosted by the one organisation is very positive....We are not perceived by the community as being captured by any one council. When you have a number of councils within your region that is potentially a problem. [You can still step outside the bureaucratic hat?]. Yes, you can step both ways, whichever would be most beneficial (Regional Coastcare facilitator).

The state agency acting as host for facilitators is represented in Figure 6.6.

Experiences often worked inversely where facilitators were hosted at local government level. In New South Wales the coordinator felt that regional links through the state agency were not as strong as they should be: 'We are not as adopted as we might be if we were situated in their offices'. One of the New South Wales facilitators felt stronger links could have been forged with state agencies by being hosted with them. The irony of the Commonwealth preference for facilitators to be hosted by individual councils is that facilitators in these positions were the least satisfied. Reasons for their dissatisfaction included:

- feeling directed or captured by their local government host.
- lack of understanding of the role of facilitators and of the Program from within local government. Tendency for these agencies to treat facilitators as council employees or to be put out by the degree of out of office work by facilitators.
- Local government agencies acting as Coastcare hosts have been criticised as being hands off and somewhat apathetic. Some facilitators expressed they would have liked more direction or interaction from the host agency.
- Facilitators host by local councils also expressed the feeling that they were not part of a team or of the local system in which they were based. They were not part of a section, were not included in team meetings and missed out on a lot of internal communication.
- Local government hosts increasingly found Coastcare to be a financial burden. The local government host was footing the bill for surrounding regions that were reluctant to contribute (because they are not enforced to). Some facilitators mentioned that it was difficult to attain resources (like computers) from financially struggling local government agencies.

My [local government] host doesn't deal with the environment as core business. The environment is not a high priority. Coastal management is not a priority either. When they took on this position I think there was a thought process that went 'Ok we'll get this person to take care of all our coastal policy issues'. [It has been a problem] negotiating my role to a regional level and not doing [the agency's] work (cont).

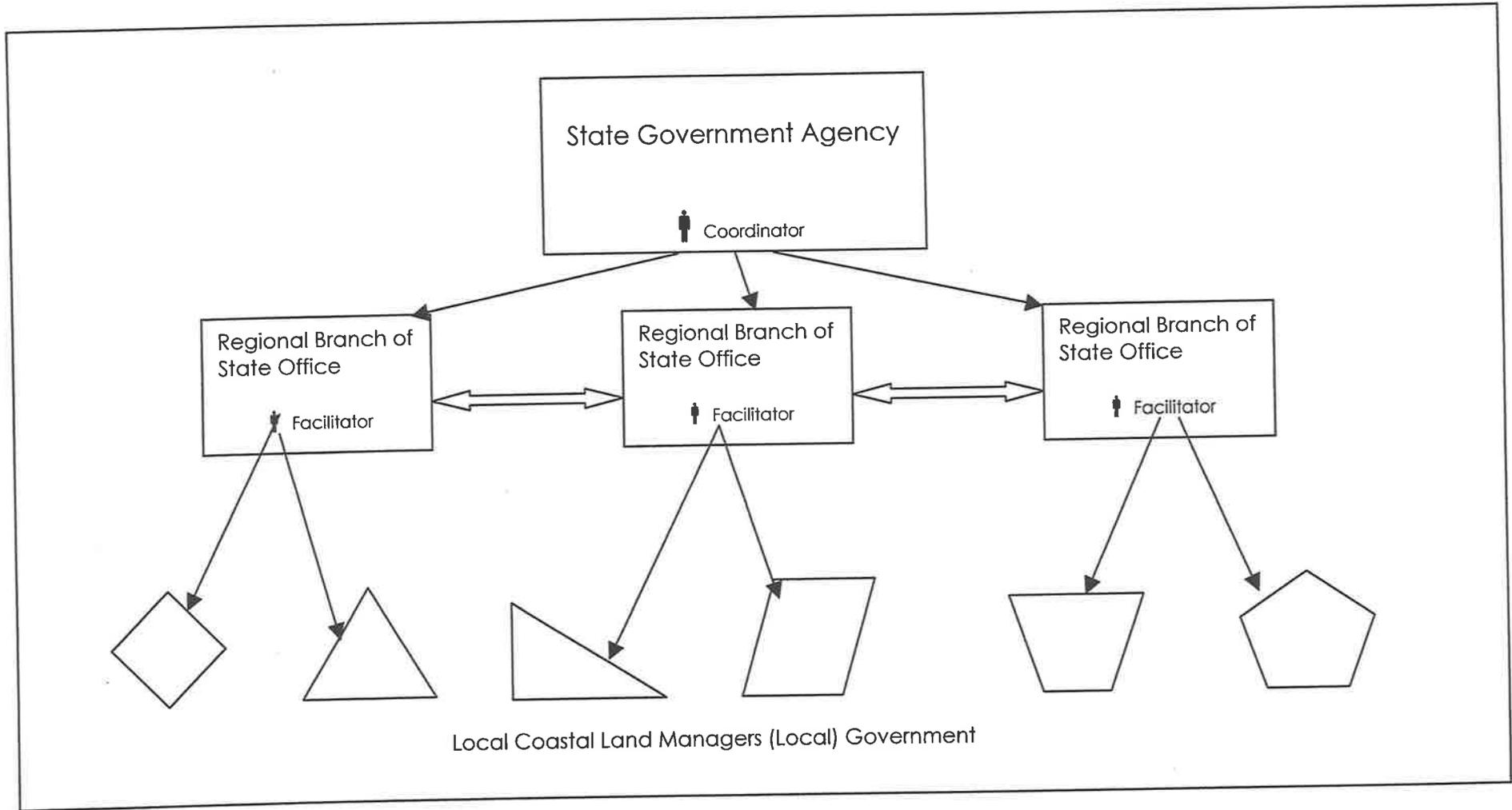


Figure 6.6: Hosting Arrangements – State Agency as Host Organisation
(Examples of this model: VIC, QLD, NT & one facilitator in both TAS and WA)

(cont..) There's a lot of difficulty understanding that and the fact that I spend a lot of time out in the field which is so far removed to what everyone else in the organisation does here. So there is a lack of understanding, and not a lot of interest either. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

There was a time when we were seen as fringe dwellers because we work different hours. We come in and out. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

The linkages with local coastal land managers as host are depicted in Figure 6.7. Three of the five Western Australian facilitators stated that their preference was for them all to be hosted within their state's conservation department. One facilitator was hosted by that agency and expressed:

I think its highly suitable and am very satisfied. The Program is beneficial to my host's aims and objectives. The host is very supportive and allows me space for creativity and initiative without interference. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

The three facilitators who requested the hosting arrangements be amended felt that their role as a team was undermined by being fragmented between different hosts. Because they were with different hosts, the state agency administering Coastcare found it difficult to 'relate to' the facilitators as a team, and consequently the facilitators were not well informed by the state agency about current programs and planning. They felt that because they were not conceived of as a team their skills in community liaison were under utilised in the development of coastal planning by the state agency. They felt that a conservation focus was more appropriate for Coastcare; and because the conservation agency had regional offices, resources for the Program would more accessible across the state level.

[moving to the conservation agency] is a good thing for the Program because conservation will be the core business for Department of Conservation and coastal management will be a part of that so there will be more focus towards things like Coastcare as a priority. There will be a lot more resources across the state regional and district offices which could be accessed to help the implementation of the Program. It doesn't happen now because it's not core business of [planning agency] and they have no district offices and few regional offices. All Coastcare facilitators should be based in the state agency. Experience to date has been fragmented because we are all with different hosts. We'd work better as a team if we were in one department. A state department makes more sense than local government. Local government would still be fragmented as Local Governments are just that – they're local. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Six respondents suggested that the Commonwealth needed to take an increased role in hosting arrangements including consolidating details of the financial contributions made by all local governments to assist hosts. These respondents felt it was inappropriate for facilitators to have to negotiate with each council for extra funds because it placed extra pressure on the individual facilitators 'to sing for their

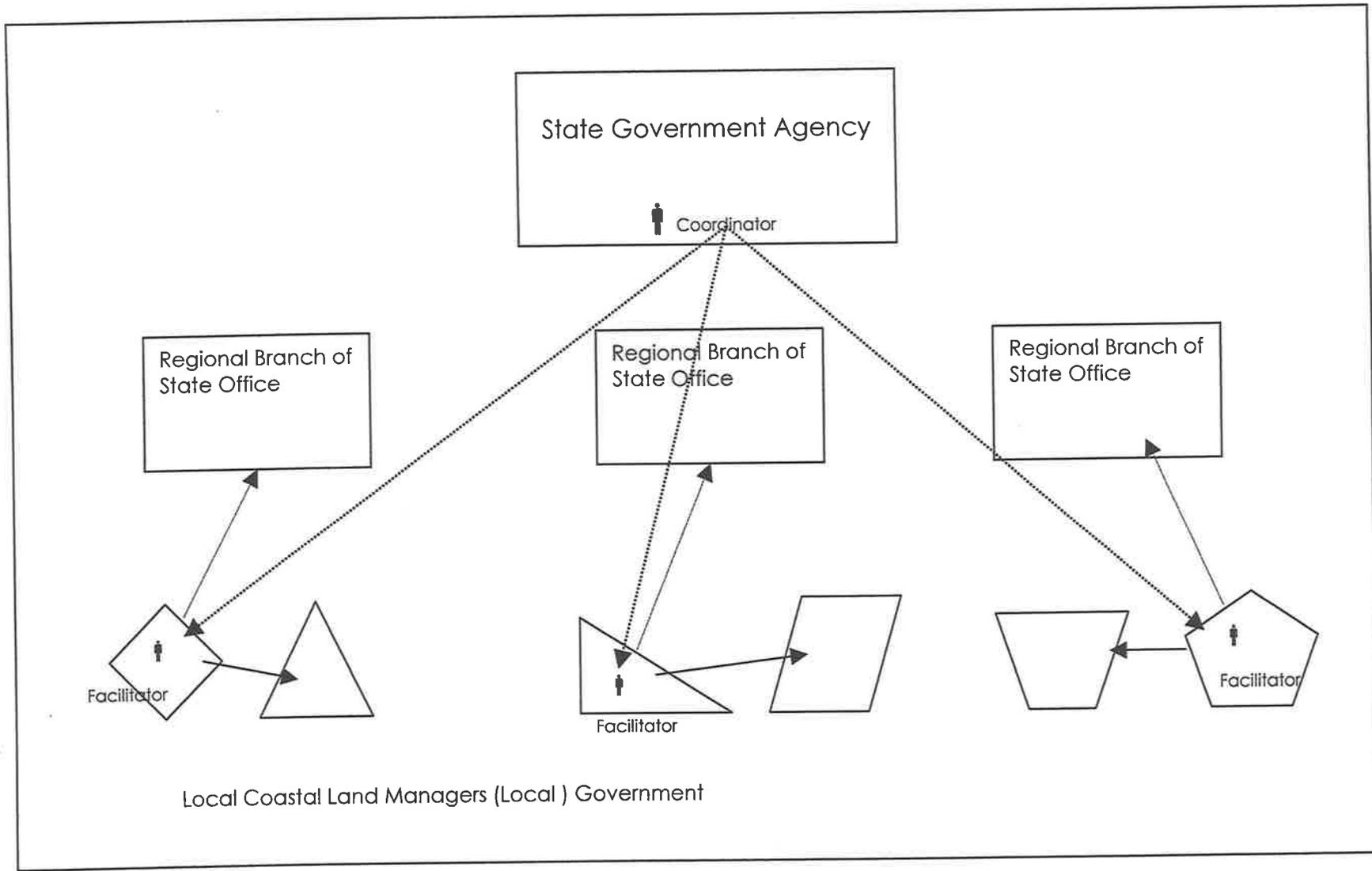


Figure 6.7: Hosting Arrangements – Local Government as Host Organisation
 (Examples of this model include NSW, SA and some facilitators in WA and TAS)

supper' and 'prove their worth' to obtain funds.

There is support for [Coastcare by the host] because the Program provides monetary benefits for the region. But there is a difference in supporting the program and support for the facilitator. There's no avenue for contribution [for the host] towards the facilitator's role. It's lack of [the host] having say over what I do. That is set by the Commonwealth. There isn't very much ownership of me [by the host] in that respect. The input isn't required from the coast. If the Commonwealth could facilitate a better two way dialogue between the host and the Commonwealth and continue to develop that understanding of what we do (Regional Coastcare facilitator).

6.6.1 Models of best practice for hosting agencies

The state based facilitators were the most satisfied. They were given flexibility to meet and plan as a team. The central philosophy of the hosting agency was considered important and a conservation or environmental ethic was necessary. There was scope for the formation of a regional committee, made up of the host agency and local councils within a region, to meet to reflect upon Coastcare activity and to assist in the setting of future priorities in a framework for the facilitator. This could have been negotiated by the State coordinator. A stronger role was requested of the Commonwealth in promoting the Program for potential hosts and for them to elaborate more clearly what was expected of the host agency. More specific information needed to be provided to all local councils about the financial aspects of contributing to Coastcare. This pressure was considered most appropriate to come from the Commonwealth, in conjunction with the state. A more equitable arrangement is required there.

6.7 Horizontal integration

As a national program, Coastcare had numerous mechanisms in place that linked its team and therefore tiers of government together. These linkages were sometimes patchy, and they worked better in some states than others. An issue that was raised by twenty six respondents (15%) was that progress in terms of horizontal integration, or the communication that occurs within and between departments, was limited. Consequently, there was a feeling that there was a lack of awareness about Coastcare within some agencies that hosted or administered the Program. In some states Coastcare struggled even to integrate within departmental structures. For the states with good communication strategies within departments and sections,

moving beyond that sometimes posed a problem. Several explanations were provided for the lack of horizontal integration.

- In one state the central agency had undergone a restructure and departments were physically separated. This had had a serious impact on the exchange of information that had occurred previously.
- Another factor that influenced the limited success of information exchange between departments was due to the size of the particular state agency within which Coastcare was situated. Formation of 'Super Departments', the result of agency amalgamations; had made information exchange difficult. Respondents expressed that Coastcare, as a small component of such agencies was easily overlooked.

We [the EPA] have other programs which we only hear about when one of our groups tells us about it. One that is a big one is 'healthy waterways'. So there are other programs within the agency and we could be very supportive of each other but we don't know that they are running until a third party tells us. So there is perhaps room for more co-ordination of internal programs. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

Quite often I speak to people [working in the same [agency] that really don't know what Coastcare is and what we do. I mean that's fine, it's a big organization. Not every one can understand what's going on in all aspects. But within the department we really have to make that effort to show our face. Like we have a newsletter which we have to make sure they get to remind them that were here and were working. That's fine, I'm happy to push and make those contacts. But maybe it's a case of big organizations, its easy to be forgotten. I think we need to jump up and down a bit to be noticed sometimes. (Regional Coastcare facilitator)

- Information exchange within a single department was reported to be an issue in two states. This happened because no formal structure was in place, such as regular meetings between Coastcare and agency staff, to facilitate such an exchange. Communication in regard to Coastcare between branches and divisions of agencies, beyond environmental sections within which Coastcare is placed, is limited.

6.8 Conclusion

This Chapter is based on the understanding that partnership development between governments and community is an essential component for furthering sustainability in natural resource use. In the case of Coastcare, the roles and responsibilities for cooperation and coordination for improved management of the coast are clearly stated in the Coasts and Clean Seas MoU. The central purpose of this Chapter has been to establish how successful Coastcare has been in achieving vertical integration or integrating different tiers of government, in light of the guidance by the MoU.

The discussion has shown that survey participants consider Coastcare to have offered a sound structure for different spheres of government to work with one another and with the community. The most critical feature of the Coastcare structure, in creating a cooperative approach, is the network of regional facilitators. Their role provides them with access to each of the spheres of government, as well as the community. The Commonwealth indicated a sense of ownership of them, providing the national forum and support when requested; the States, in most cases, provided some strategic direction for facilitators and facilitators provided an avenue of information to central decision makers from the field. The facilitators were integral to the success and effectiveness of the grants at the local level. Brokering the relationship between government agencies and the community has been highly beneficial. Their understanding and insight into local issues and people has been critical. The facilitators have been an important asset in engaging and continuing community effort, assisted in part because of the perceived neutrality of their position. They played a powerful mediating role between local coastal land managers and community groups. Coastcare facilitators have also provided training both on site and through organised workshops that have benefited local coastal managers and groups. The vast geographical coverage of the facilitator network provided a facility never before experienced in managing the Australian coastline.

Coastcare's role in improving Commonwealth-State cooperation and coordination has been negligible. Despite there being a structure in place, historical political tensions continue to hinder and impede improved integration, especially between managers within Commonwealth and managers within State government agencies. There was good potential for the Commonwealth Coastcare managers to encourage the development of partnerships with the managers of state coastal programs and to better understand the structural systems in each state. In so doing they may have been able to promote greater acceptance of the Program in the less enthusiastic jurisdictions. The Commonwealth liaised with the states primarily through the Coastcare coordinators. This was sufficient for the states that promoted Coastcare as a beneficial and important initiative, but different strategies were needed in the

jurisdictions that were not as supportive of the Program. Making contact with the managers of the state coastal programs would have been such an approach.

Horizontal linkages have not been well developed through Coastcare. Respondents in this study inferred that the Commonwealth Coastcare managers had little influence upon their managerial hierarchy. The decision making process at the highest levels, in regard to the Program, was not transparent. Decisions were made and handed down to be implemented via the Coastcare team. State agencies reported the same problems that plagued institutions and prevented integration prior to the RAC inquiry persist. Large institutions, divided into separate divisions are not amenable to productive communication or effective information flows. This affirms the concern, noted previously, that programs instituted by the NHT are simply adding a new layer of administration without addressing structural inadequacies that obstruct integration.

Whilst the response by local coastal land managers to Coastcare has been variable, it is at this local level that good models of integration have begun to emerge. It is possible that the more progressive umbrella groups established in northern New South Wales and Southern Queensland may continue their partnerships and continue to do works in the absence of Coastcare as a stand alone initiative. These councils are fortunate to have large and growing populations and prosperous councils able to resource such community initiatives. For councils not well resourced, the Program has injected needed funds and expertise. Other valuable achievements for communities and local council partnerships, developed by Coastcare, were that managers joined in and assisted with community projects, invited groups to participate in local government decision-making forums and participated in community-initiated conferences. Challenges for Coastcare at the local level occurred where local councils did not have dedicated staff, did not have expertise or understanding about Coastcare's role, lacked an environmental ethic, and where such councils were confronted by antagonistic groups.

The establishment of the MoU was inadequate in involving local coastal councils. This was demonstrated by the unwillingness of some councils to contribute to

facilitators operating budgets. Further, the fact that some significant local land managers were not signed as partners in the formal agreements is worthy of consideration in the future. The main failing of the MoU is the absence of review and performance indicators specified (and signed off on) within the agreement. This has left Coastcare without a flag to wave and with nothing by which to gauge its performance. In light of the unfolding position of Coastcare in NHT II, the opportunity to raise an argument for a separate coastal initiative, based on the evidence of its performance, has been foregone.

This Chapter concludes a series of explorations of aspects of Coastcare as a model of an integrated approach to coastal management. The remaining Chapter provides an overview of the thesis with a view to unearthing questions raised by this study, and to proposing directions for further research that relate to integrated natural resource management and the role of the community.

Discussion

7.1 Introduction

Australia's early 1990s response to the UNCED call for an integrated approach to coastal management culminated in the adoption of tri-partite formal government agreements and a national coastal program. By responding in this way Australia passed the ICM 'acid test', moving beyond planning to implementation. This thesis provides a thorough investigation of one of the principle initiatives of that national coastal program, namely Coastcare, which was designed to engage government and community to sustainably manage the Australian coast. Preliminary investigation for this study, which surveyed a suite of coastal programs in other countries, revealed that in a global context, Coastcare provides a unique example of an initiative that has been able to demonstrate ICM in practice. The Coastcare program is particularly significant due to its design which incorporates the entire length of Australia's coastline, offering truly national scope. Many other countries have national ICM policies but in practice there are very few that can demonstrate national coverage by coastal programs or projects. Most comparable community-based ICM programs elsewhere have directed their implementation to demonstration sites; and there is a lack of confidence that such pilot projects will be expanded to a national scope.

The international studies by Sorensen (1997) and Cicin-Sain and Knecht (1998) discussed in this thesis, both of which set out to determine the achievements and degree to which ICM had been adopted internationally, whilst producing valuable overviews and summary data, lack depth of analysis. Within Australia, Wescott's (2000b) state-by-state 'rapid assessment' of ICM provided an overview of progress made by individual state and Commonwealth jurisdictions. However, his study examined the Commonwealth, states and the Northern Territory in isolation to each other. His rapid assessment, therefore, did not attempt to investigate vertical integration, namely the interaction between the Commonwealth, the states and local government through the Federally funded suite of programs, in place to

encourage cooperation and coordination. As such none of these earlier studies has yet provided detailed investigation of ICM programs against all of the dimensions specified for an ICM approach.

This thesis, therefore, provides an important contribution to the study of ICM by assessing Coastcare against the internationally agreed necessary elements and dimensions for such an approach, as endorsed by the OECD, IUCN, the World Bank and UNEP. Detailed analysis of this kind has not been attempted by other studies. Coastcare provided a model to focus on the process of integration between each of the tiers of Australian government, and to research whether a strategic approach has been implemented at state and local levels in developing and planning for valuable coastal resources. This thesis, by establishing a set of criteria upon which to gauge participation, has also demonstrated the success of Coastcare in involving local communities around the Australian coastline in coastal management. These aspects of the thesis will be elaborated later in the discussion.

The national, descriptive overview of the achievements of Coastcare, that highlighted the contrasts between the states and the Northern Territory in Chapter Three, is the first of its kind for the Program. The Commonwealth's Coastcare data set prior to this study had never been utilised to full capacity. There has been no other national analysis of Coastcare's activities, nor an evaluation against its stated objectives. While Coastcare funding amounts and numbers of projects attempted are strikingly varied across the country, the nature of community group activity, the types of initiatives undertaken and composition of groups are consistent. The substantial differences between the states and the Northern Territory included state funding contributions, SAP project assessment processes, and the number of Coastcare staff in each state available to support groups. The Commonwealth has been effective in its commitment to encouraging on-ground works, with the majority of Coastcare effort focussed on improving access onto beaches and protecting coastal vegetation.

It is important to bear in mind that Coastcare has only just completed a single cycle of an ICM process, according to Olsen's model (1999), shown in Chapter One, having concluded its 7th year in 2002. Implementing a national coastal program,

within pre-existing jurisdictional structures responsible for managing the coast, has been a significant achievement. Coastcare has proven to be an extremely adaptable venture, put into practice between three tiers of government that share a history of political tension and protracted negotiation over various aspects of coastal management. Coastcare has been successfully adopted between seven state jurisdictions, each with an idiosyncratic set of coastal management legislative and administrative systems in place. It has been successfully implemented at the local level of government where there is an even greater layer of diversity of management practice, guidance and capacity for managing coasts. This is a significant achievement.

The regional facilitator network is a noteworthy feature of the design of Coastcare. The national network of regional Coastcare facilitators represents a novel national approach to coastal management. The United States national volunteer program provides support through information, but offers neither funds nor direct assistance to groups working on coastal projects. New Zealand's Coastcare facilitators are typically local council staff or contractors brought in to run specific projects. While the ACAP program in Canada funded 'community coordinators' through local organisations, their program did not provide the on-ground assistance on a scale comparable to the Australian network. The immediate support and technical advice provided to groups doing on-ground project work appears to be singular to the Australian Coastcare facilitators. The individual development and evolution of each Canadian ACAP group/region also contrasts to Coastcare which fostered a national identity for the network, demonstrated through the annual Coastcare forums. The facilitators reported that they benefited from sharing their ideas and experiences during the national forums that also provided valuable moral support and re-ignited enthusiasm for the team.

The Australian network of Coastcare facilitators achieved several impressive outcomes. The success of the development of partnerships between local coastal managers and the community was largely a result of the vigilance and skills of the network. Their mediation skills and neutral countenance were vital in progressing community-local government working relationships. It was at this level that the

greatest achievements toward an integrated approach were realised, and mechanisms for consulting with groups established.

However, attention paid to the various elements required for an integrated approach (policy, structural arrangements and funding agreements) unveiled certain limitations that hindered Coastcare's progress in achieving an integrated approach.

7.2 Strategy, commitment and institutional capacity

7.2.1 Structural Considerations

The noticeable differences in Coastcare's operation and the outcomes between the states and Northern Territory may be explained by three key reasons:

- First, Coastcare was implemented according to the different structural coastal management arrangements in each of the States and the Northern Territory. This affected fundamental aspects of the Program, such as: selection procedures of the SAPs, hosting arrangements of regional facilitators and the profile or 'clout' that coastal management issues had in general.
- Second, the strength of (or lack of) legislation and state coastal policy, provided through the state and Northern Territory agencies, that offered direction to the Program.
- Third is the external factors shaping the Program. Social, physical and cultural influences had an impact on the delivery of the Program in the respective States and the Northern Territory. Factors of population size and density, remote coasts, indigenous population and land tenure each influenced application numbers and issues faced by the regional facilitators.

Victoria offered the most successful model of Coastcare, at a state level, in terms of the development of mechanisms for integration. Victoria had the most well developed intra-state linkages for the team of regional facilitators and the state agency encouraged interaction and group meetings. Such meetings were rotated between the different facilitator regions. Albeit, compared to the other states Victoria was assisted in this respect, in terms of geographical propinquity. The state agency provided substantial additional funds to run educational programs and training for groups. The Coastcare coordinator was closely incorporated in coastal planning and management within the state department responsible for coastal management and made deliberate efforts to extend the Program by making linkages with other sections. Each of the facilitators in Victoria was very satisfied with their hosting conditions. They were happy with and had access to all the facilities they

required. The strong regional focus for coastal management, and associated agency structure in Victoria, benefited the facilitators as they were well placed near other agency staff working on coastal management. Coastcare in Victoria produced a regular and substantial newsletter that detailed state-wide activities and events and was disseminated widely. The SAP process was assisted considerably by the prior assessment of regional panels.

7.2.2 Best practice partnership models

Examples from Northern New South Wales and Southern Queensland provided the most successful models of local managers and community groups liaising over works programs. Efficiencies in these places resulted where 'umbrella' Coastcare groups and several councils worked together on a regional scale. Works plans were approached more strategically by focusing on issues regionally. Coastal managers organised their work schedules and budgets around community efforts. Groups reportedly felt a stronger sense of purpose, knowing that their individual efforts were contributing to a greater good. In New South Wales the community drove the umbrella initiative, yet the local council managers were a central part of the coordination and financial support of activity. Queensland had similar Coastcare associations but these were promoted and directed by councils, not by the individual groups.

Policy support

This study has shown that Coastcare attempted to be strategic in its approach to developing localised projects. It had an inbuilt but unrealistic clause in the application forms that required groups to fit their projects into localised plans. An analysis of the particular policy and management arrangements for each state reveals that, for the majority of the country, local plans, and in some instances broader coastal strategies, do not exist. In this sense the Program has been at the mercy of the capacity of the institutions within which it has had to operate. The status of Coastcare between the states of Australia is significantly different. Where strong state policy was supported by linked local plans, Coastcare was integrated very successfully. Where plans and policies were insufficient, it is clear that the process has been hit and miss, and issue driven, in some cases with Coastcare breaching the planning gap.

7.3 The effectiveness of the MoUs - guiding principles for managers

The Coasts and Clean Seas MoU laid out the particular roles and responsibilities for the participants of Coastcare. This thesis has assessed the extent to which this formal agreement has afforded direction to an integrated approach. While there was general acceptance that Coastcare, through the MoU, has provided a sound structure for the development of an integrated process, there is considerable room for improvement.

7.3.1 Coordination and Cooperation

Historical inertia of Commonwealth-state interaction is evident within Coastcare. The political delicacy of the Commonwealth dictating terms to the states remains an issue, and lack of trust held by some state coastal managers resenting Commonwealth interference is evident.

A model that would have greatly enhanced the degree of coordination nationally, and one that would have created greater awareness of each of the different participants roles and duties, would have been state-wide forums. A state forum that included the Commonwealth team (or at least a representative of the Commonwealth team), managers of state coastal programs, the state coordinator, the regional facilitators and host agencies would have afforded an opportunity to share ideas, plan direction and confirm common goals for the Program. It would also have provided an opportunity for showcasing the Program's achievements, at a state level; information that could be later fed into a national overview. This might have greatly assisted the development of increased confidence in the worth of Coastcare in jurisdictions that were less enthusiastic.

7.3.2 Communication

There was also room for increased and focused communication extending from the Commonwealth to the rest of the Coastcare network. Regular updates via an email newsletter that reflected national agendas and activity, as well as state-by-state reports, would have provided a clear national picture of the Program. Facilitators appreciated the Coastcare forum because it provided a point of contact. On a day-to-day basis they are geographically dispersed and disconnected. The majority of

facilitators had little regular contact with the Coastcare managers. Increased communication through a quarterly email newsletter, or a message from the Coastcare manager that shared Commonwealth and state news and ideas, would have assisted in the promotion of a sense of community and shared vision for the network.

7.3.3 *Inadequacies of the MoU*

While the MoU served as an important document to formally bind participants to agreed goals, there are several aspects to the agreement that should have been strengthened. Utilising the president of the LGAs in each state to agree to the terms and conditions of the MoU on behalf on local coastal councils was not satisfactory. There needed to be a transparent process by which councils were informed about their expected role and responsibility under the MoU. Future natural resource management models that involve coastal councils should incorporate a more consultative approach. There seems to have been little communication tailored specifically for individual coastal councils involved in Coastcare, either from Commonwealth or State agencies. Interviews for this study indicated that there is considerable lack of understanding of the Program's intent and of the benefit of encouraging community involvement held by local government land managers. As a consequence there has been reluctance by some councils to be involved in Coastcare and to contribute to the facilitators' operating budgets. Regular communication and update about the Program is limited to the dissemination of newsletters that provided case studies and a general feel for various projects around each state. Given the great diversity of councils and variable capacity of staff, there would be benefit in bringing coastal land managers together to identify coastal management issues, best practice management and methods of encouraging involvement of the community.

7.4 Measuring Coastcare's success in engaging community participation

This thesis confirms that Coastcare has been very successful in attracting a large number of people to undertake a considerable amount of activity, tending to their respective patches of coastline. However, as pointed out in Chapters Three and Four, the anticipated role of the community in managing the coast is not clearly

articulated in Coastcare's objectives. The Program was to provide opportunities for the broadly defined 'community' 'to participate' in coastal management. The desired outcome from such participation was for an increase in degree and 'effectiveness' of community involvement in coastal management. Chapter Four explained that 'participation' is an ambiguous concept and that measuring the success of participation is a subtle and challenging task. The key Coastcare objective of 'encouraging stewardship' requires more than completing single, on-ground projects, and as such the routinely collected state data, for the Program is inadequate to test outcomes of participation. Interview and questionnaire data for this study highlighted the ambiguity of the objective through the divergent opinions of what was expected of community groups participating in the Program.

In order to better understand the meaning of participation and therefore determine how to measure Coastcare's performance, this thesis explored the meaning of community involvement according to classical theorists and modern interpretations of participation. Five performance indicators, based upon theories of participatory democracy and designed to assess different elements of public participation, were applied to the data collected for this thesis to measure the success of Coastcare in encouraging community involvement. The five indicators used to evaluate Coastcare's performance in engaging the public were:

1. 'efficacy'
2. 'representation and access'
3. 'information exchange and learning'
4. 'continuity' and
5. 'decision-making authority'.

The analysis of participation highlighted the fact that access to Coastcare by the community is a critical issue. Despite the fact that the Program was open to a wide variety of coastal 'users', the grant scheme itself represented a gateway. Those proficient at completing bureaucratic forms typically fared the best. A sophisticated application however, did not necessarily reflect the capacity of group to perform on-ground tasks. It was difficult to determine from this study how formal application processes influenced the type of groups that chose to apply. It

was reported that the effect upon groups unsuccessfully applying for grants did little to invigorate community spirit and enthusiasm.

The requirement of the Coastcare grant scheme, that projects be completed within the year of a group signing its management agreement, a time frame suited to funding cycles and acquittal requirements of formal administrations, did not bear any consideration for the complexities of the lives of volunteers offering their free time to contribute to a public benefit. A future longitudinal study of the morphology of a community group might offer important insights into the challenge of managing volunteer group activity.

This thesis's review of Coastcare's role in attracting community participation is supported by the classical theories of participation: the act of being directly engaged in project activities provided an initial learning experience. Through learning, groups and individuals demonstrated confidence and understanding. This was followed in some cases by people from Coastcare groups increasing their level of participation by becoming involved in broader decision-making arenas. The Program, through projects and grants, provided the structure for learning and incentive for involvement.

There are two aspects of Coastcare's design that are relevant for future coastal programs seeking volunteer input. First, the regional facilitators were responsible for discrete lengths of coast, giving the Program national coverage. However, in remote areas where there was no community to apply for grants, it was difficult to generate activity. This is significant because many remote places are attractive destinations for holiday makers, four-wheel drive enthusiasts and recreational fishers. These groups tend to have an impact upon isolated coastal locations, typically not developed to cater for visitor numbers. These places are often geographically distant to central agencies responsible for managing the coast and therefore not always designated as priority areas nor as a focus for management. They are often out of sight and mind. The regional facilitators have been messengers, in some cases, reporting on activity and issues in remote regions, being the only staff working in these locales. It is necessary to find a means to

raise the profile in management of issues faced by remote coastal areas, and to make these known to volunteer groups looking for new opportunities.

The second design issue related to indigenous participation in Coastcare. Queensland is the only state to have employed an indigenous facilitator. This person understood the needs of Aboriginal people and was able to assist them in developing appropriate projects and to apply for grants. Admittedly, given that the majority of the Territory's coastline is in Aboriginal freehold title, the Northern Territory facilitator primarily assisted indigenous groups, but his region spanned the entire state, and many Aboriginal communities were accessible only by light plane. His ability to offer a dedicated service to the entire state was challenged. Northern Western Australia has a significant proportion of land under Aboriginal title and groups in that region would have benefitted from a dedicated facilitator. It may be beneficial to consider an alternative funding system for indigenous groups working on land in their ownership. They were reportedly not well served by Coastcare due to cultural, language and literacy issues.

7.5 Reflection on past activity

A significant shortcoming of Coastcare was the absence of evaluation at various levels. Appropriate performance indicators were not developed by the national office, which also failed to utilise its national data set and final report data to provide thorough analyses of Program achievements and features. The stated desired outcomes within the MoU were never addressed, so factors of community development and stewardship have been neglected. The SAP panels around the country have been inadequately reviewed and have been starved of information about the projects they have funded. There has been an absence of attention paid to Coastcare's influence in improving structural arrangements and communication between sectors of coastal management agencies.

7.5.1 Efficiencies of scale

A lost opportunity due to lack of reflection and analysis, and one which would have minimised some of the inefficiencies experienced, would have been to prepare some standardised procedures. Particular aspects of the Program have been reinvented seven times over, as each state grappled with developing its own

systems; for example the development of project management agreements and costing examples. Groups around the country could have benefited enormously by being linked to groups having attempted like projects. Tips and training for regional facilitators presenting Program outcomes to the broader stakeholder groups in their regions would have been worthwhile. Data collection requirements, suitable for evaluation purposes, should have been collectively developed for central administration and analysis.

7.5.2 Performance Indicators

Performance indicators were intended for the Program, and were referred to in the formal partnership agreements, but were never developed. This was a major failing of the parties managing Coastcare at both Commonwealth and State levels. Data to support its achievements was not collected. The detail within final reports was under utilised; the information within them was not thoroughly analysed at state or Commonwealth levels. Models that were established to forge partnerships between the participants were not recorded; the dedicated team of regional Coastcare facilitators and the significant linkages they constructed within the community have the potential to be lost, undermining the trust and expectation that has been cultivated through the Program for volunteer groups. In addition, the potential for transferable lessons is much reduced by this lack of reflection and evaluation.

7.5.3 Stewardship

A flaw in the data collection and reporting of Coastcare is that only active grants are tracked and listed on the central data set. The Commonwealth figures do not account for groups that are financially self sustaining and still working on coastal projects. Many groups remain in contact with the facilitators as a support and information source but are not traceable for reporting purposes. Ongoing group activity is an indication that Coastcare has succeeded, but there is no substantiated data to support this. One of the most significant aspects of the success of Coastcare is the number of groups that continue to function and call themselves Coastcare groups but are no longer in receipt of a grant.

A thorough evaluation (one that focused on the original objectives of Coastcare, and therefore focused on community development and partnership models, and detailed the outcomes of the grants) would have offered a great deal of

encouragement and the benefit of hindsight to policy makers, state and local coastal land managers as well as the community working on the Program.

Policy makers, distant from volunteer groups are forging new policy in an information vacuum. There has been a considerable lack of regard, at the highest levels, as to how changes to the structure of the Program will affect the partnerships that have been crafted to date. There is every possibility that no lessons from Coastcare will be carried over to a new structure, except perhaps by the people who have gained direct experience working as a participant on Coastcare. The number of facilitators who have left the Program due to employment insecurity reduces the potential benefit of intellectual carry-over for the new design. There needs to be greater clarity regarding evaluation criteria. What should be measured to show that there has been an improvement in management? There is an assumption that environmental gains will result from increased effort by volunteer groups. This is not necessarily the case because there is no monitoring to show whether or not on-grounds works have been successful. There needs to be much better criteria developed for measuring stakeholder cooperation and the beneficial outcomes expected from this.

7.6 Strategic goal of 25-50 years; will to implement the strategy - implications for the future....

Coastcare has been described by survey respondents as a 'movement' or 'catalyst' for change, and as creating a 'push' for agencies to modify their approach to management. Partnership development between some agencies and the community was encouraging. The interaction that was established took time, trust and commitment. These were significant achievements.

The progress achieved under Coastcare is diminished by lack of long term vision, a necessary element for an ICM approach. Outcome measures of Coastcare's performance, had they been collated, may have had some sway in positioning Coastcare in the roll over of Coastcare in NHT II, currently taking place. Coastcare only had seven years to establish itself as a Program. Considering that international research on ICM recommends a time frame of 25-50 years to achieve desired goals or conditions for an ICM program, Coastcare has made significant

progress. However, Coastcare has now been embedded with the other 'care' initiatives funded by the Commonwealth under the NHT II, and a new model is unravelling. Under this new scheme of regional bids for funding, the focus on the coast has the potential to be obscured by landward issues and projects.

7.6.1 *The role of people*

One of the issues that has arisen within previous chapters of this thesis is that particular individuals (and there are examples from each layer of governance) directly advanced or hindered progress of Coastcare. Certain individuals influenced the Program in significant ways. Coastcare flourished where key people had a strong motivation to create linkages within their own agency and where they extended links to other relevant departments. Conversely, where people failed to have a vision for Coastcare, the Program struggled. This may be an obvious observation but it has important implications. All future positions for similar programs should be appointed against carefully constructed employment criteria that require an understanding of ICM. Individuals appointed to work with similar programs need to understand 'integration' as it was stated in the Coasts and Clean Seas MoU. Appointees clearly need to demonstrate well developed communication and negotiation skills.

The Natural Heritage Trust has proven to be an unstable financial benefactor for individual groups that were initially nurtured and developed over time, with the assistance of their coastal facilitator. The reshuffle of NHT framework has the capacity to erode the trust and momentum that was established during Coastcare's first phase. Removing the Coastcare facilitator network and replacing it with regional staff has the propensity to damage the partnerships that had been developed through Coastcare. These community-local government partnerships were one of the most significant outcomes of the Program. The support offered to groups by the team of facilitators was highly regarded. Coastcare, in this respect, was considered better than the other 'care' models. It took serious effort and commitment to build those partnerships, and there is little evidence that this commitment was truly appreciated by the Commonwealth because it is no longer going to fund the national network of facilitators; this responsibility has been devolved to regions and local centres.

7.7 Future Studies

This research project did not canvass the opinions nor collect the demographic details of groups participating in the Coastcare program. Further research into volunteer programs would do well to establish the morphology of group function and get a clear picture of the program population. At national and state levels, not much is known about the groups that received Coastcare money. For example:

- Were groups active in coastal management prior to Coastcare? If so what is the motivation to be involved in the Program?
- Are groups opportunists, seeking any source of funds to achieve specific local works to improve their locale?
- Are groups truly aligned with the objectives of Coastcare, and do they see themselves as part of wider network?
- Do one-off grants lead to continued support?
- To what extent are groups self-sustaining? i.e. Will groups continue to work independently of funding and support?
- Will groups be motivated to make their way into the decision-making process?
- What have the consequences been of increased participation, in terms of changes in policy, improved governance and service delivery?
- Has Coastcare encouraged a more vibrant society through the engagement of local people working towards an agreed goal?

These questions may be applied to the next phase of NHT, and to the groups that apply for funds under the regional schemes.

This study has not delved into the quality of local coastal plans around the country. It would be a worthwhile exercise to review a selection of past Coastcare applications from around the country and examine in detail the plans to which the applications refer, especially in states with inadequate state and patchy local policy documents. As project suitability (in keeping with local planning) is a key aspect of consideration in the assessment process. This is an issue that should be addressed in future programs that fund on the basis of project compatibility within local planning and management frameworks.

Performance indicators tailored to measure community engagement within natural resource management programs, that may be utilised by the central agencies funding

programs like Coastcare, are not currently utilised by government agencies. An endeavour to produce a set of clear guidelines and indicators for measuring participation for use by natural resource management programs would be a valuable undertaking.

This thesis has drawn on Coastcare to present an array of issues that have confronted Australia's attempt at ICM through a national coastal management program. It is discouraging that a long-term view necessary for an ICM approach has not been upheld by the NHT, made evident by the reshuffle and repackaging of alternative programs for the near future. Coastcare, however, has been an impressive program and has made considerable inroads in its short duration. There is also potential for newly established volunteer initiatives to draw on the findings of this thesis. Given the complexity of ICM and the long time frame recommended for such programs, recognised within the international context of ICM, the fact that there has been any success sets Coastcare apart as a valuable model.

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Appendix 1

Summary of Sorenson's list of nations and their progress towards ICM

PROGRAMS							
Country	ICM 'Effort'	Date	Donor Assisted	Coverage	Progress	Barriers to Implementation	Source
Albania	Integrated Coastal Area Management (ICAM) Program	1993	UNEP		Research study focussing on coastal zone management.	Lack: technical knowledge and staff, co-ordination, legislation, local area capacity low. Insufficient institutional framework to enforce. Lack organisational structure. Lack of data.	(Prepared by Martijn Onderstal at EUCC International Secretariat © Copyright: European Union for Coastal Conservation (EUCC), 2000) http://www.coastalguide.org/icm/index.html
Belize	Belize coastal zone management program	1998	GEF/ UNDP		Legislation passed, CZM authority and CZM institute established. Coastal planning program in operation. Produced 2 of 9 development plans.		http://www.coastalzonebelize.org/pr_planning.html maintained by © 2000 NATURALIGHT Productions
British Virgin Islands	Coast Conservation and Management Program	1998		Site specific	Institutions established, legislation strengthened, studies underway		http://www.sdn.undp.org/~eclac/CARMIN/DOCS/bv_i.htm Revised 4 April 1998
Canada	Atlantic Coastal Action Program (ACAP)	1991 -		13 coastal regions of Canada's Eastern seaboard	Program has moved from government funded and directed to community-led. Government playing a support role, providing information and guidance when required. Good model of partnership development between agency and community.		See special mention in Chapter 1 (Ellsworth, Hildebrand and Glover 1997; Robinson 1997)
Costa Rica	National Marine and Coastal Program						
Denmark	No specific coastal program				Decentralised system for horizontal and vertical integration of decision-making processes has been developed over the last 20 years. A 'fairly high' level of co-ordination of sectoral laws has been developed through the planning process.		(Worm 1997)

PROGRAMS (Cont.)							
Country	ICM 'Effort'	Date	Donor Assisted	Coverage	Progress	Barriers to Implementation	Source
Egypt	No specific coastal program.				Laws and by-laws created during the 1980s 'related' to management of coastal resources mainly about protection and conservation issues. Provision for interaction is insufficient.	Lacks institutional mechanism to ensure co-ordination. Sectoral focus and fragmented responsibilities between agencies responsible for the coast.	(Aly Mohammed Aly Abd-Alah 1999)
Greece	National Programme for the Sustainable development of Greek Islands and Coasts	1999			Coastal plans and policies approved at national and regional levels but not effectively implemented. No successful examples of coastal area planning.	Lacks institutional mechanism to ensure coordination. Centralised decision-making. Lack of capacity at the local level. Absence of horizontal integration between agencies.	http://www.minenv.gr/frame.html?2&1&2&4/41/e4100.html
South Africa	Coastal Management Policy Program	1999			In the process of implementing the White Paper for Sustainable Coastal Development in South Africa: 28th August 2000	Lacks financial investment; political leadership and commitment; lack of co-operation between stakeholders.	(Glavovic 2000: 270)
Sri Lanka	Coastal 2000: A Resource Management Strategy for Sri Lanka's Coastal Region	1990	USAID ASEAN-US	Site specific	Developing site-specific and special area management projects on the south coast.	Inability to mobilise the support and commitment of local community. Poor vertical co-ordination and co-operation for developing and implementing plans. Reliant upon international financial assist to continue with program.	(White, Barker and Tantrigama 1997; White, Courtney and Tobin 1998)
Thailand	National Coastal Resource Management Project	1986	USAID ASEAN-US	Development of a National CRM program and a pilot project; Marine Park initiative	Thai government accepted a national strategy for the management of coral reefs. Partially implemented. Pilot project implemented on the island of Phuket and successfully engaged community.	Highly centralised government, devolution to local authority uncommon. Lack of horizontal co-operation between agencies.	(White, Courtney and Tobin 1998)

PROGRAMS (Cont.)							
Country	ICM 'Effort'	Date	Donor Assisted	Coverage	Progress	Barriers to Implementation	Source
Tunisia	Coastal Zone Management and Protection program	1995		National	National agency established. Responsible for the protection and management of the whole Tunisian coasts. Coastal zone charter established and creation of coastal zone law complete with conditions for development environmental protection.		http://www.arab-heritage.com/Tunisia/tunisia-environment.htm (Snoussi and Aoul 2000)
United States	National Coastal Zone Management (CZM) Program	1972			A voluntary partnership between the federal government and U.S. coastal states and territories authorized by the Coastal Zone Management Act of 1972. It supports states through financial assistance, mediation, technical services and information. Provides a framework for management of the coastal zone.	There has yet to be a comprehensive analysis of program effectiveness based on systematic study of program policies and the outcomes of policy implementation.	See special mention of the US, chapter 1. (Hershman, Good, Bernd-Cohen et al. 1999)

PLANS/ POLICY (Cont.)							
Country	ICM 'Effort'	Date	Donor Assisted	Coverage	Progress	Barriers to Implementation	Source
Barbados	ICZM Management Plan	1996	Inter-American Development Bank		Plan produced		http://environment.gov.bb/
Belgium	Integrated Management of the Flemish Coast	2000			Co-operation agreement in preparation		http://icm.noaa.gov/country/belgium.html Last update: December 6, 2000
Brazil	National Coastal Zone Management Plan	1998	Inter-American Development Bank	Site Specific	In preparation phase of management plan and formation of co-ordinating stakeholder group		(Yanez 1999)
Brunie Darussalam	Integrated Coastal Management Plan for Brunei Daruassalam	1998	ASEAN-US Coastal Resources Management Project		Preparation of a strategy on protection of coastal and marine resources.. Implementation under review.		http://www.un.org/esa/sgenda21/natinfo/countr/brunei/natur.htm#oceans
Gambia	ICAM		FAO/ UNEP		Management strategy preparation		
India	National Coastal Zone Management Plan (for ecologically important zones)				The approach to coastal management in India is both sectoral and regulatory Central coastal zone management authority. Coastal zone management policy and implementation strategy not clearly defined for India.	Low level of government and public awareness of problems. Lack of capacity. Lack of data.	(Nayak, Chandramohan and Desai 1992); (Gupta and Fletcher 2001)

PLANS/ POLICY (Cont.)							
Country	ICM 'Effort'	Date	Donor Assisted	Coverage	Progress	Barriers to Implementation	Source
Indonesia	Indonesian coastal resources project. Marine resources Evaluation and Planning Project. Coral Reef Rehabilitation and Management.	2000-2006	Asian Development Bank	42 districts covering 15 provinces	Developing of management strategy and zoning, management and action plans. Primarily focused on marine park management.	Indonesia is in the process of decentralizing responsibility for natural resources management from national to local level - but local governments need capacity-building to carry out their new duties properly.	http://www.adb.org/Documents/News/2000/nr2000110.asp ; (Pallis, Dahuri, Knight et al. 2001)
Ireland	Coastal Zone Management – Draft Policy for Ireland	1998		National	Policy document in draft form		http://icm.noaa.gov/country/ireland.html
Italy	Management of Coastlines for Marine and Terrestrial Areas National Coastal Plan	2002		National	Developing a national coastal strategic plan.		http://www.udel.edu/CM/S/csmp/pages/network.html
Jamaica	Jamaica Coral Reef Action Plan						
Lebanon	ICZM Program	1999	World Bank	4 sites	Formulation of national, regional and local level coastal zone management plan.	No coordinating committee established. Lack of funds.	http://icm.noaa.gov/country/Lebanon.html#Integrated Decision-Making
Malta	Coastal Strategy	2001			Draft public consultation document		http://www.pamalta.org/ 'Monitoring Report – Structure Plan Review 1990-1995'

PLANS/ POLICY (cont..)							
New Zealand	The Resource Management Act 1991/New Zealand Coastal Policy Statement	1991/1994		National	Series of general principles for the sustainable management of New Zealand's coastal environment. Directs regional plans		http://www.mfe.govt.nz/management/rma/subms.htm#nzpolicy http://www.rma.co.nz/nz/cps/preface.html
Norway	Demonstration Program	1997-1999			The main part of the work was to give assistance and advice to the municipalities planning processes towards a local coastal zone plan.	Legal barriers not enough time to make integrated coastal zone management a reality. For these reasons it is necessary that that the planning processes will continue	© Copyright: European Union for Coastal Conservation (EUCC), 2001 Last update 23 January 2001 http://www.coastalguide.org/icm/index.html
Nicaragua	Action Plan for the coastal zone	1996			Actions proposed for regionalisation of ICZM		http://www.vu.nl/english/o_o/instituten/IVM/research/climatechange/nicaragua.htm
Spain	Plan of Coasts	1993-1997				Jurisdictional overlap-duplicative and inefficient. Lack of integration between sectors.	(Cicin-Sain and Knecht 1998)
Taiwan	Integrated Coastal Zone Management Plan	1998			Draft plan awaiting further comment.	Coastal management a low priority on national policy agenda; ambiguous roles for agencies responsible for coastal issues; lack of capacity; lack of community participation.	(Chiau 1998)

FEASIBILITY STUDIES/ PROJECTS							
Country	ICM 'Effort'	Date	Donor Assisted	Coverage	Progress	Barriers to Implementation	Source
Bulgaria, Georgia, Ukraine #	National Black Sea Strategic Action Plan	1992	GEF/ World Bank		Pilot programs	Lack of strategic framework or clear guidelines for government	(Prepared by Martijn Onderstal at EUCC International Secretariat © Copyright: European Union for Coastal Conservation (EUCC), 2000. Last update 12 July 2000 http://www.coastalguide.org/icm/blacksea/bulgaria.html
East Africa (Benin, Camaroon, Cote D'Ivoire, Ghana, Nigeria *)	Gulf of Guinea – Large Marine Ecosystem Project*	1998	GEF			Weak institutional capacity; lack of policy; inadequate resources; lack of evaluation mechanisms	http://stone.undp.org/ma/indiv/gef/biodiversity/lesson_one/annex.html http://www.namibian.com.na/Netstories/Environment/10-98/unep.html http://www.africaonline.co.ci/AfricaOnline/societes/goglme/goglme.html
Ecuador	Coastal resources Management Project (CRMP)		USAID ASEAN-US	Site specific. 6 special area management plans.	Sites being used as tests for potential new national policy. Training programs in place for coastal rangers to strengthen enforcement of laws.		http://www.ipse.net/pmr/c/principal.htm http://www.vu.nl/english/o_of/instituten/IVM/research/climatechange/ecuador.htm

FEASIBILITY STUDIES/ PROJECTS							
Country	ICM 'Effort'	Date	Donor Assisted	Coverage	Progress	Barriers to Implementation	Source
China	Marine Area Use Management Program	1994-1999	GEF, UNDP and IMO	Marine focus. Demonstration Projects.	Pollution alleviation efforts. Legislation passed.	Lack of financial resources.	http://icm.noaa.gov/country/China.html
Caspian States: Azerbaijan, Iran, Kazakhstan, Russian Federation and Turkmenistan	National Caspian Action Plan Caspian Environment Program (CEP)	1995-2002			Integrated Trans-boundary Coastal Area planning and management. Combating Coastal Area Planning and Management. In process	Economic interests usually win when in conflict with ecological interests. Low level of ecological awareness. There are no possibilities for public participation	http://ruzgar.aznet.org/ruzgar/3-1.htm http://www.caspianenvironment.org/index.htm Prepared by Marian Eeltink at EUCC International Secretariat © Copyright: European Union for Coastal Conservation (EUCC), 2000 Last update 12 July 2000 http://www.coastalguide.org/icm/index.html
Baltic States (Latvia, Lithuania, Estonia and Poland, Slovenia)	PHARE program		World Bank		Demonstration program. Production of plans at National and local levels.	Legislative, institutional problems; jurisdictional overlap and conflict; lack of funds and capacity – especially at local government level.	© Copyright: EUCC, 2001 Last update 11 May 2001 http://www.coastalguide.org/icm/index.html

FEASIBILITY STUDIES/ PROJECTS (Cont.)							
Country	ICM 'Effort'	Date	Donor Assisted	Coverage	Progress	Barriers to Implementation	Source
Eastern Africa (Comoros, Eritrea, Kenya, Madagascar, Mauritius, Mozambique, Reunion (Fr.), Seychelles, South Africa, Tanzania)	SEACAM	1997-	World Bank, SIDA (Swedish International Development agency); DANINDA (Danish International Development Assistance) Finnish Government, Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland		SEACAM provides information and builds capacity in countries to implement their ICZM programs		http://www.seacam.mz/home.htm (last update September 2001)
Mexico	Coastal Resources Management Project (CRMP Project II)	2001	USAID Rhode Island CRC	Site specific	Promoting protection of critical areas, adoption of good practices, improved coastal governance, and capacity-building for ICM	Limited capacity prior to the implementation of the CRMP project. High staff turnover has resulted in a major challenge for developing a lasting conservation strategy.	(University of Rhode Island 2001)
Philippines	Coastal Resource Management Project CRMP	1996-2000	USAID (CRMP project)	6 Demonstration sites	National policy formation, local level implementation in demonstration sites, information, education and enterprise development are four components of the scheme.	Lack of central agency responsible for ICM, issue of co-ordination between two central agencies; lack of vertical integration between National and regional agencies.	(White, Courtney and Tobin 1998) http://www.oneocean.org/

FEASIBILITY STUDIES/ PROJECTS (Cont.)							
Country	ICM 'Effort'	Date	Donor Assisted	Coverage	Progress	Barriers to Implementation	Source
Russia (Black Sea, Baltic Sea, Caspian Sea)	Integrated Coastal Zone Management in Russia Project		GEF			The main problems for the development of ICZM in Baltic Russia are: Economic crisis in Russia which has caused a reduction in the financing of, amongst others, nature conservation Absence of effective tools pressing stakeholders towards sustainable management Lack of traditions of "ecological" behavior among the population Poor information of ICZM activities	© Copyright: EUCC, 2001 Last update 11 May 2001 http://www.coastalguide.org/icm/index.html
Turkey	CAMP						http://icm.noaa.gov/country/turkey.html
Turkmenistan	National Caspian Action Program				There exists no separate programme for integrated coastal zone management	Economic interests usually win when in conflict with ecological interests. Low level of ecological awareness. There are no possibilities for public participation	
Vietnam	Vietnam Integrated Coastal Zone Management Project						

Appendix 2

South Australia's Coasts and Clean Seas MoU

MEMORANDUM OF UNDERSTANDING *COASTS AND CLEAN SEAS*

MEMORANDUM OF UNDERSTANDING made on the day of April 1998

PARTICIPANTS

The COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA,
The STATE OF SOUTH AUSTRALIA, and
the LOCAL GOVERNMENT ASSOCIATION OF SOUTH AUSTRALIA

SECTION 1 INTERPRETATION

'ALGA' means the Australian Local Government Association Ltd, ACN 008613876, the Federation of State-wide Local Government Associations of the States, constituted by Local Government bodies.

'Coastal zone' means that area extending as far inland and as far seaward as necessary to achieve the coastal management objectives described in Schedule 1 of this Memorandum of Understanding, with a primary focus on the land-sea interface.

'Coastal' means within the coastal zone.

'*Coasts and Clean Seas*' means the group of programs under the Natural Heritage Trust described in the Commonwealth publication *Natural Heritage Trust: Coasts and Clean Seas* (1997) and included in the Schedules to this Memorandum.

'Commonwealth Minister' means the Commonwealth Minister for the Environment.

'Commonwealth' means the Commonwealth of Australia.

'Community' means all non government organisations, bodies and individuals.

'DEHAA' means the South Australian Department of Environment, Heritage and Aboriginal Affairs.

'Ecologically Sustainable Use' means the use of natural resources as set out in the National Strategy for Ecologically Sustainable Development.

'Environment Australia' means the environment related groups in the Commonwealth Department of the Environment and the Statutory Authorities within the Commonwealth Environment Portfolio or such other Department as may from time to time have responsibility for the Natural Heritage Trust on behalf of the Commonwealth.

'Local Government Association of South Australia' means the Association incorporated under Section 34 of the South Australian Local Government Act 1934.

'Local Government' means Councils incorporated under the South Australian Local Government Act 1934.

'MOU' means the *Coasts and Clean Seas* Memorandum of Understanding.

'Natural Heritage Ministerial Board' means the Board established under the Commonwealth *Natural Heritage Trust Act of Australia 1997* and which consists of the Commonwealth Ministers for the Environment and Primary Industries and Energy.

'Natural Heritage Trust' means the Trust established under the Commonwealth Natural Heritage Trust Act of Australia 1997.

'Partnership' means cooperation and consultation as developed in the Intergovernmental Agreement on the Environment (IGAE) with no other legal effect intended.

'State' means the State of South Australia.

SECTION 2 PURPOSE

This Memorandum establishes the principles of partnership between the Commonwealth, the State of South Australia and the Local Government Association of South Australia for:

- implementation of the intergovernmental aspects of the Coasts and Clean Seas programs set out in Schedules to this Memorandum;
- outlining processes by which inter-governmental cooperation in coastal management can be achieved.

SECTION 3 BASIS FOR THE AGREEMENT

- 3.1 The goal of this MOU is to promote ecologically sustainable use of Australia's coastal zone. Cooperation between the three spheres of government in the implementation of the initiatives described in the schedules will provide a mechanism to achieve further practical improvements in coastal management.
- 3.1.1 The Participants recognise that the Commonwealth's goal for Coasts and Clean Seas is to accelerate activities in the national interest to achieve the conservation, sustainable use and repair of Australia's coastal and marine environments.
- 3.1.2 Coasts and Clean Seas is a component of the Natural Heritage Trust. This MOU forms part of the Natural Heritage Trust Partnership Agreement in so far as it relates to the responsibilities of the Commonwealth and State with respect to the Natural Heritage Trust. The relationship between this MOU and the Natural Heritage Trust Partnership Agreement is set out in Attachment D of the Partnership Agreement.
- 3.2 The participants agree that implementation of Coasts and Clean Seas should be guided by the following considerations.
- (i) The participants recognise that coastal management is a cross sectoral activity, requiring integration.
 - (ii) The participants recognise the value of a joint approach between the three spheres of government, and the community, in the implementation and further development of Coasts and Clean Seas.
 - (iii) The participants acknowledge the role of State and Local Governments in land use planning and decision making and of the Commonwealth in relation to the national interest.
 - (iv) The participants agree that Commonwealth funding provided under Coasts and Clean Seas is to supplement and not to be a substitute for existing funding for coastal management.
- 3.3 Conflict Resolution
- 3.3.1 In the event that conflict arises, the participants will confer and use their best endeavours, acting in a spirit of cooperation, to resolve the same.
- 3.4 Each of the participants will notify and consult on matters that come to their attention that may affect the Memorandum.

SECTION 4 ACTIONS AGREED BY THE PARTICIPANTS

- 4.1 All participants agree:
- (i) to cooperate and consult in implementation of the coastal management initiatives as set out in the Schedules to this Memorandum;
 - (ii) to establish mechanisms within their jurisdiction to promote integration across government agencies and departments;
 - (iii) to establish mechanisms for consultation with the community on coastal management issues;
 - (iv) to undertake coastal management in a manner consistent with the coastal management goal, principles and objectives set out in Schedule 1 of this Memorandum;
 - (v) that it is desirable for all spheres of government to have in place consistent coastal management policies within which all coastal management activities are undertaken;

- (vi) to make a financial commitment, in cash or kind, to implementation of the Schedules to this Memorandum;
 - (vii) to investigate and implement options other than government funding for financing coastal management in the long term.
- 4.2 The Local Government Association of South Australia will promote among its member organisations:
- (i) the adoption of the philosophy and intent of this Memorandum of Understanding;
 - (ii) the adoption of coastal management policies and practices that are consistent with the goal, the objectives and the principles set out in Schedule 1 of this Memorandum;
 - (iii) the establishment of mechanisms for consultation with coastal interest groups.

SECTION 5 SCHEDULES

The Schedules to this Memorandum deal with specific coastal management initiatives and form part of the Memorandum. The Schedules have been prepared and are to be interpreted in accordance with Sections 1 to 4 of this Memorandum.

SECTION 6 Responsible Agencies

- 6.1 Environment Australia is the lead agency for coordinating coastal policy within the Commonwealth Government and for implementing the Schedules to the MOU.
- 6.2 DEHAA is the lead agency for coordinating coastal policy within the South Australian Government.
- 6.3 The Local Government Association of South Australia is the lead agency for coordinating coastal policy among local councils in South Australia.
- 6.4 For each particular Schedule included in this Memorandum, the State undertakes to nominate an agency or Ministry to assume primary responsibility within its jurisdiction for matters covered in the Schedule, including:
- (i) ensuring that projects are undertaken as approved by Ministers and with the terms of this MOU;
 - (ii) ensuring that recipients of Coasts and Clean Seas payments are able to manage and monitor expenditure in accordance with South Australia's financial accounting requirements and in conformity with sound financial practices.
 - (iii) ensuring that, where appropriate, recipients of Coasts and Clean Seas payments provide the outcomes of projects to the Commonwealth in a suitable electronic format as specified in the relevant project contract.
- 6.5 The State will nominate a single agency to be responsible for administering financial assistance provided through the publicly advertised component of Coasts and Clean Seas. Payments will be made to the State by the Commonwealth under a Financial Agreement and shall be made either to the lead agency, or direct to the State, for full and direct passing to the lead agency. The lead agency will be responsible for timely delivery to project proponents.

SECTION 7 The Coasts and Clean Seas Assessment Panel

- 7.1 The Coasts and Clean Seas Assessment Panel (the Panel) will consist of:
- (i) state agencies with a direct interest in coastal and marine management, to ensure the integration of State agency involvement in program implementation;
 - (ii) Local Government members nominated by the Local Government Association of South Australia;
 - (iii) non government members drawn from conservation groups, indigenous communities, community user groups and industry.

- 7.1.1 The majority on the Panel shall be Local Government and non government members combined.
- 7.1.2 The non government members are to be appointed by the responsible State Minister in consultation with the other Participants to this Memorandum and the agreement of the Commonwealth Minister.
- 7.1.3 A Panel member with educational expertise would be desirable.
- 7.1.4 If the Participants agree that additional expertise is required to properly assess certain types of projects, an additional member, as agreed by the Participants, may be added or substituted for another Panel member, provided the balance of State Government to non government and Local Government members combined is maintained, to fully participate in the assessment of these projects.
- 7.1.5 The Panel shall have an independent Chair, selected in consultation between the Participants.
- 7.1.6 The Panel and the State Natural Heritage Trust Assessment Panel will have a reciprocal member to ensure appropriate integration.
- 7.1.7 The Commonwealth may nominate observers, who will provide advice on Commonwealth priorities and project eligibility, to attend Panel meetings.
- 7.2 The State will convene and provide facilities and secretariat support for the Panel.
- 7.3 By preference, all decisions of the Panel shall be agreed by consensus.
- 7.4 All costs associated with the Panel will be met by the State.
- 7.5 Functions of the Panel
- 7.5.1 The Panel will, for the State of South Australia:
- (i) determine the priority of applications for project funding under Coasts and Clean Seas, according to the Coasts and Clean Seas guidelines, national and State/Territory priorities and technical advice provided by any of the Participants;
 - (ii) make recommendations to the State and Commonwealth Ministers on the priority order of projects seeking funding;
 - (iii) provide advice to program managers on the implementation and further development of these programs.
- 7.6 The recommendations of the Panel will be forwarded to appropriate State Minister(s) for endorsement, and in the case of Coastcare, for approval.
- 7.7 The State will forward all recommendations of the Panel to the Commonwealth Environment Minister as a single package within 3 months of the closing date for applications.
- 7.8 Final approvals will be made by the Natural Heritage Ministerial Board, through the Commonwealth Environment Minister, except for Coastcare where approval will be by both the State Minister and the Board.
- 7.9 The Participants will use their best endeavours to ensure that assessment processes and approvals are completed and payments are made to successful applicants in a timely manner.

SECTION 8 FINANCIAL AND COST SHARING ARRANGEMENTS

The parties recognise that all levels of government and the community currently contribute resources and effort to the conservation, sustainable use and repair of coastal and marine environments in Australia.

- 8.1 To ensure the maximum flexibility in the administration of the Coasts and Clean Seas, and to take fully into account different circumstances across jurisdictions, financial arrangements will be determined in accordance with the following principles:
- (a) with the exception of Coastcare, expenditure of Commonwealth funds under this Agreement is not contingent on a matching contribution from the States. The parties agree to use Coasts and Clean Seas to enhance the total government and community effort applied to the pursuit of its objectives. The Commonwealth allocation of funds will, in part, be influenced by the contribution of effort by the State and/or the alignment of programs, policies and regulations with Coasts and Clean Seas objectives;

- (b) the provision of funding by the Commonwealth is subject to the agreed objectives and outcomes described in Schedules 3 - 9 of this MOU being met;
 - (c) the Commonwealth and the States will agree which types of costs are included or excluded in identifying the level of effort applied to Coasts and Clean Seas programs;
 - (d) Coasts and Clean Seas funding is available to meet reasonable and transparently identified administrative and related costs, including monitoring and evaluation, associated with the accelerated or additional development and implementation of Coasts and Clean Seas programs;
 - (e) Coasts and Clean Seas funding is not to be used for existing activities of State governments unless otherwise agreed in the Schedules. In seeking the enhancement of total effort in environmental protection, sustainable agriculture and natural resources management, innovation in service delivery, the use of alternative policy approaches or improved productivity are encouraged, provided that outputs and outcomes are maintained or improved; and
 - (f) the focus of Coasts and Clean Seas is on public land. Activity on private land may be funded taking into account the amount of public benefit received relative to the private benefit derived from the activity. Individuals who are direct beneficiaries of Coasts and Clean Seas funding will be expected to make complementary efforts to contribute to the project being funded in recognition of the private benefit they derive. They will also be expected to act consistently with the objectives of Coasts and Clean Seas.
- 8.1 Specific criteria to be addressed in the assessment of proposals include the proposed contribution of the proponent and the relative proportions of public and private benefit to flow from the proposal.
- 8.2 In the spirit of partnership, funding under Coasts and Clean Seas for proposals undertaken in conjunction with State agencies will require a contribution from the State. The level of contribution will take account of priorities and outcomes for the program set at a national level, and the current complementary effort by the State in relation to this program (this may include contributions from catchment levies).
- 8.3 Community projects will be funded on the basis of a community cash or in-kind contribution, as agreed between the parties, which will be outlined in annual guidelines.
- 8.4 Proposals submitted by State agencies should include an explanation of the basis for proposed funding arrangements, particularly the respective Commonwealth and State contributions proposed, reflecting the flow of benefits at these levels.
- 8.5 Other criteria being equal, priority will be given to proposals which have higher levels of proponent(s) contributions, either in cash or in kind.
- 8.6 Proposals involving capital infrastructure should reflect beneficiary/user/polluter pays principles recognising that benefits are likely to accrue at the local, state and national levels. As a general rule, the Commonwealth contribution will not exceed the State Government contribution.

SECTION 9 Use of Existing Mechanisms

- 9.1 Where not otherwise provided in the Schedules and subject to agreement between the participants, existing intergovernmental arrangements will be the primary mechanisms for the cooperative application of the provisions of this Memorandum.

SECTION 10 Promotion of Coasts and Clean Seas Activities

- 10.1 The participants agree to acknowledge the role of the respective spheres of government and to consult on all publicity and media releases and key correspondence concerning Coasts and Clean Seas.
- 10.2 The Participants agree that in all circumstances where programs or projects receive Commonwealth funds through Coasts and Clean Seas, or where programs or projects receive State funds, that appropriate acknowledgment will be given to Coasts and Clean Seas and the State as a source of those funds.

- 10.3 Specifically, in addition to recognising its own contribution, each party will give recognition to the other party's contributions to projects and ensure that:
- (a) any publications, articles, newsletters or other literary works prepared as part of a project acknowledge that it is being conducted under Coasts and Clean Seas and has received Commonwealth and State financial support. A copy of any such publication is to be provided to the other party;
 - (b) signs, posters or other appropriate means are used to acknowledge Coasts and Clean Seas programs and the Commonwealth and State financial support; and
 - (c) each party's role and the relevant Coasts and Clean Seas program is acknowledged at relevant forums, conferences and at project openings.
- 10.4 The parties agree to consult on funding announcements.
- 10.5 The participants agree to cooperate in the promotion of information about coastal management best practice.

SECTION 11 Reporting

- 11.1 The South Australia Minister for Environment, Heritage and Aboriginal Affairs will, following consultation with the Local Government Association of South Australia, provide the Commonwealth with an annual report on implementation of the Coastal Action Program by 31 October of each year. The report will include, but not necessarily be limited to:
- (i) an expenditure acquittal;
 - (ii) an evaluation of the extent to which program objectives and outcomes were achieved, using the agreed performance indicators which are to be developed for Schedules 3 - 9 of this MOU, as the principal basis for evaluation;
 - (iii) the overall level of State resourcing for each Coasts and Clean Seas program covered in this MOU in an agreed form.

SECTION 12 Minor variations to the Memorandum

- 12.1 Minor variations to the Memorandum may be agreed in writing at any time between the 3 participants.

SECTION 13 Evaluation and Review

- 13.1 The participants will consult regularly on the operation of the Memorandum and its progress in meeting the objectives of Coasts and Clean Seas and the Memorandum will be reviewed within 12 months of its signing, and annually thereafter, by the participants.
- 13.2 The Participants agree to cooperate in the development of a Coasts and Clean Seas Evaluation and Monitoring Strategy, to be completed by 30 June 1998, and in the collection of information for accountability and performance improvement purposes. As far as is practical, information will be collected through project reports prepared by the recipients of financial assistance.

SIGNED on behalf of the COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA by

.....

Robert Hill
Minister for the Environment

SIGNED on behalf of the STATE OF SOUTH AUSTRALIA by

.....

Dorothy Kotz
Minister for Environment and Heritage

SIGNED on behalf of the LOCAL GOVERNMENT ASSOCIATION OF SOUTH AUSTRALIA by

.....

Mayor Rosemary Craddock
President, Local Government Association of South Australia

SCHEDULE 1

COASTAL MANAGEMENT OBJECTIVES AND PRINCIPLES

1. The participants acknowledge that the goal of coastal management is ecologically sustainable use of coastal resources.
2. The coastal management objectives and principles set out in clauses 6 and 7 of this Schedule have been adopted by the Commonwealth.
3. The participants agree that the Schedules 2-9 of this Memorandum will be implemented in accordance with the objectives and principles set out in clauses 6 and 7 of this Schedule, to assist in achieving the goal of ecologically sustainable use of coastal resources.
4. Participants affirm that coastal management policies and practice within their jurisdiction are and will remain consistent with this goal and these objectives and principles.
5. The Local Government Association of South Australia undertakes to promote the adoption, by its member Local Governments, of coastal management policies and practices that are consistent with this goal and these objectives and principles.

6. Coastal Management Objectives

- 6.1 The coastal management objectives are:

Sustainable resource use

- (i) to ensure that coastal zone resources are available for fair and equitable public and commercial use, so that their use optimises the long-term benefits derived by the community;
- (ii) to ensure that consequences arising from the dynamic nature of coastal environments are recognised. This includes taking into account natural fluctuations in sea level and climate, climate change, impacts associated with storm events, changes in shoreline position, and species mobility within coastal ecosystems;
- (iii) to maintain adequate and appropriate public access to the coast, so that it is possible to enjoy a range of recreational opportunities that are consistent with these objectives. Where appropriate, public access should be managed to protect coastal resources and public safety;

Resource conservation

- (iv) to conserve and manage areas and features of significant ecological, physical, cultural, historic, landscape and scientific importance, so that their values are maintained;
- (v) to maintain the biological diversity and productivity of marine and terrestrial ecosystems and natural processes within the coastal zone for present and future generations. Where environmental qualities have been degraded remedial action should be taken to restore them;
- (vi) to maintain or restore the quality of coastal waters, so that there is no significant detrimental impact on the integrity of coastal ecosystems and their ability to support a range of beneficial uses;

Public participation

- (vii) to ensure that there is informed public participation in open, consultative processes dealing with planning and management of coastal resources;
- (viii) to recognise the interests in the coastal zone of Australia's indigenous peoples and incorporate these interests in management arrangements;

Knowledge and understanding

- (ix) to enhance and incorporate in decision making an understanding of coastal zone ecosystems and natural processes and the effects on them of human activities; this enhanced understanding should also be reflected in the skills of managers with responsibilities in the coastal zone;
- (x) to encourage and support relevant decision making organisations in the preparation of management guidelines and codes of practice to deal with specific coastal management issues.

7. Guiding Principles For The Management Of Coastal Resources

7.1. The coastal management guiding principles are:

Sustainable resource use

Integrated assessment

- (i) The ecological and physical links between terrestrial and marine systems must be taken into consideration in the use and management of coastal zone resources.
- (ii) The economic, environmental, social and cultural values of coastal zone resources should be identified and the impacts of uses on those values should be determined as far as practicable before decisions are made.
 - (a) As far as practicable, assessments should be made on local, regional, national and global scales. They should take into account long-term impacts on the resource itself and on other resources and other users. As far as practicable, negative effects of resource use should be minimised.
 - (b) Cumulative impacts should be taken into consideration before decisions are made about the use of coastal resources. As far as practicable, cumulative impacts that have net negative effects should be avoided. It is also necessary to guard against the unintended negative effects of numerous small decisions.
 - (c) Resource uses in the coastal zone should have significant adverse long-term effects on landscape or visual character only if the change induced is consistent with the management objectives for the area.
- (iii) Coastal zone resource uses should be monitored to ensure that impact assessments are accurate. If impacts differ significantly from those predicted, remedial actions, including reviewing the resource allocation, should be undertaken.

The precautionary approach

- (iv) If there is a high risk of serious or irreversible adverse impacts resulting from the use of a coastal resource, that use should be permitted only if those impacts can be mitigated or there are overwhelming grounds for proceeding in the national interest.
- (v) If a use is assessed as having a low risk of causing serious or irreversible adverse impacts, or if there is insufficient information with which to assess fully and with certainty the magnitude and nature of impacts, decision making should proceed in a conservative and cautious manner. The absence of scientific certainty should not be a reason for postponing measures to prevent or mitigate negative impacts.

Resource allocation

- (vi) Coastal resources should be allocated to the use with the greatest long-term community benefit, where benefit is determined by taking economic, environmental, social and cultural considerations into account.
 - (a) The degree to which an activity is dependent on being located in the coastal zone should be taken into account when resources are being allocated. Priority should be given to uses that are particularly dependent on coastal locations or coastal resources.
 - (b) Alternative uses of coastal resources and opportunities for multiple or sequential use should be identified before allocation decisions are made. Multiple or sequential use of the coast should occur only when one use will not significantly diminish a resource's value for subsequent uses. When this is not possible resources in an area should be allocated to competing uses, so that the greatest range of beneficial uses is satisfied while minimising conflict between uses. At times it may be necessary to use areas for a single purpose or a restricted number of purposes.
 - (c) Coastal areas in or near their natural state should be developed for uses that diminish their value only if development would provide considerable benefit and no other viable alternative exists.
- (vii) Development in the coastal zone should occur in accordance with predetermined strategic coastal management plans. Incremental linear development around coastal towns should be discouraged.

- (viii) Public access to the coast, including beach, foreshore and marine areas, should be maintained for recreation, tourism and other public activities. The extent, location and type of access may, however, need to be controlled to mitigate adverse effects of this access, to resolve incompatible uses, or in the interest of public safety.

The user-pays principle

Prices charged for access to coastal resources should reflect all short-term and long-term economic, environmental and social costs associated with use of those resources.

- (a) If it is not possible to measure these costs their existence and relative importance should be taken into account before decisions are made.
- (b) Economic instruments should be applied equitably across all sectors of society, although the circumstances of disadvantaged groups should be taken into account.
- (c) The costs of development in coastal areas—including infrastructure costs, the costs of environmental management and monitoring, and the costs of managing natural hazards—should be borne by development proponents.
- (d) If a direct benefit accrues to the community as a result of a development it is reasonable that costs be apportioned between the developer and the community in accordance with the distribution of benefits.
- (e) When developments in the coastal zone will result in increased tourism and recreational use, it is necessary to assess the hazards that might affect users and to develop facilities for managing the increased use. Comprehensive arrangements should be established to meet the continuing costs of management and maintenance.

Resource conservation

- (xi) Natural physical processes should be safeguarded. Development should take account of natural processes and be located so as to disrupt or be affected by these processes as little as possible. When the disruption of natural processes is unavoidable every attempt should be made to limit that disruption and its impact on adjoining coastal areas.
- (xii) Biological diversity and the biological processes on which it relies should be maintained. As far as practicable, use of the coastal zone should have minimal adverse impacts on regional biological diversity and biological processes.
- (xiii) Sites of ecological, cultural, archaeological, historic and scientific significance should be identified and maintained.
- (xiv) The disposal of waste, particularly into rivers, estuaries and the ocean, should be limited to the quantity and quality that the receiving environment can assimilate without suffering long-term degradation.
 - (a) Waste disposal into coastal waters should be a last resort after all avenues for re-use and recycling have been exhausted.
 - (b) If the assimilative capacity is unknown, existing pollution discharges should be progressively reduced to levels where there is a low probability of adverse impacts on the receiving environment beyond the discharge mixing zone. New discharges should be avoided.

Public participation

- (xv) Effective public consultation and participation are essential to the planning process and should be encouraged before decisions are made. For participation to be effective, the public requires sufficient information and opportunity to be informed about alternative uses. Processes for deciding about coastal zone management should be open and publicly documented to allow for scrutiny.
- (xvi) Local communities, including local industries, should be encouraged to share direct responsibility for management of local coastal areas and to participate in the development and implementation of management strategies.
- (xvii) The interests of indigenous peoples should be recognised and incorporated in resource use decision making. This requires, among other things, effective protection of cultural and intellectual property, including storylines; participation in the management of resources in which people have traditional or cultural interests; recognition of indigenous rights to hunt, gather and fish, consistent with conservation objectives; and conservation of the resources upon which these activities are based.

SCHEDULE 2

THE INTERGOVERNMENTAL COASTAL REFERENCE GROUP

1. The Participants agree to participate in the Intergovernmental Coastal Reference Group. The terms of reference of the group are to:
 - (i) provide a forum to discuss issues associated with the implementation of the Schedules to this MOU;
 - (ii) provide an opportunity for all governments to exchange information on coastal management practices;
 - (iii) provide advice to the Commonwealth on the implementation of these Schedules;
 - (iv) provide advice on the intergovernmental aspects of coastal matters directly to their respective governments.
2. Membership of the Intergovernmental Coastal Reference Group shall comprise representatives of the Commonwealth, each State and State Local Government Association, the Northern Territory, the Northern Territory Local Government Association and the Australian Local Government Association.
3. Members of the Group should have a direct responsibility for coastal policies and/or management within their jurisdiction.
4. The Chair will be selected by the Group.
5. Environment Australia will:
 - (i) provide secretariat support to the Group;
 - (ii) lead the Commonwealth representation on the Group.
6. Participants will meet their own costs associated with membership of the Group.

SCHEDULE 3
COASTCARE

The participants acknowledge the benefits to be derived from community participation in coastal management; in particular, the creation of local ownership of environmental and natural resource management problems and their solutions.

The participants agree to cooperate in the implementation of Coastcare.

3. The objectives of Coastcare are:

- (i) to engender in local communities, including local industries, a sense of stewardship for coastal and marine areas;
- (ii) to provide opportunities and resources for residents, volunteers, business and interest groups to participate in coastal management;
- (iii) to support community identification of natural and cultural heritage resources;
- (iv) to facilitate interaction between the community and bodies with responsibility for managing coastal areas.

4. The desired outcomes of Coastcare are:

- (i) to increase the level and effectiveness of community involvement in coastal management;
- (ii) to increase the capacity of those contributing to coastal management through documentation and dissemination of best practice coastal management information;
- (iii) to raise awareness of coastal issues - the problems and possible solutions;
- (iv) to increase the level of effective coastal management activity;
- (vi) to increase cooperation in and between all spheres of government and the community.

5. Performance indicators (based on the desired outcomes of Coastcare)

5.1 The Participants agree to cooperate in the development of performance indicators, as set out in Clause 11.1 (ii) of this MOU.

6. The South Australian Minister for Environment, Heritage and Aboriginal Affairs (the State Minister) will be the responsible Minister for the administration of Coastcare in South Australia.

6.1 DEHAA will be Coastcare manager in South Australia.

7. Coastcare will be advertised as part of the publicly advertised component of the Guide to Coasts and Clean Seas Applications.

8. **ASSESSMENT OF COASTCARE APPLICATIONS**

8.1 Coastcare applications will be assessed by the Coasts and Clean Seas Assessment Panel, as set out in Clause 7 of this MOU.

9. NATIONAL CRITERIA

- 9.1 Coastcare will focus primarily on publicly owned or managed coastal terrestrial and marine environments and/or coastal land held in trust for or owned or managed by the Aboriginal community.
- 9.2 To ensure that management actions are integrated, projects should:
- (i) be consistent with relevant local or regional management plans;
 - (ii) involve a partnership between the community, the relevant local coastal manager or owner and Local Government.
- 9.3 Preference will be given to projects that:
- (i) are consistent with the objectives and principles in Schedule 1 of this Memorandum and State and Local Government coastal management policies;
 - (ii) will assist in achieving the objectives and the desired outcomes of Coastcare, set out in clauses 4 and 5 of this Schedule;
 - (iii) are of demonstrable public benefit;
 - (iv) are of merit;
 - (v) form part of a larger strategic project, particularly those strategies developed under Schedule 5;
 - (vi) identify the strategies to be used to maintain the outcomes of the project in the longer term;
 - (vii) demonstrate how the education, information dissemination and public awareness implications of the project will be addressed;
 - (viii) have been prepared in consultation with a Coastcare facilitator, to ensure that all key interest groups that may be affected by the proposal have been consulted in its development.

10. Types Of Projects

- 10.1 Types of projects which will be funded under Coastcare include, but are not restricted to:
- (i) community participation in development and implementation of management plans;
 - (ii) protection and rehabilitation of sensitive areas;
 - (iii) enhancement of sustainable tourism, recreation and other activities, including access to the coast;
 - (iv) community-based monitoring of coastal environments;
 - (v) identification and protection of natural and cultural heritage resources;
 - (vi) involvement of coastal industries in community projects and the adoption of sustainable management practices;
 - (vii) enhancement of coastal landscape and improved coastal urban design.
- 10.2 Consideration will be given to:
- (i) projects that run for more than one year. However, funding for ongoing projects will be reviewed annually;
 - (ii) paying project officer salary and other costs, only where these relate to a particular project;
 - (iii) projects on private land, provided they are of demonstrable public benefit.
- 10.3 Major capital works, for example, seawalls, groynes, roads and toilet blocks, will not be funded.

11. Conditions of Coastcare Program Grants

- 11.1 The following conditions apply to all grants made under Coastcare.

- (i) The project must acknowledge Coastcare and logo in the form of signage.
- (ii) The Coastcare logo must be prominently displayed in any documents associated with the project.
- (iii) The grant must be acquitted, on completion of the project, with Coastcare manager, DEHAA.
- (iv) All participants will be free to use the products/outcomes of the project, provided that the Commonwealth's financial support is acknowledged, unless it is specifically agreed otherwise at any time by all participants.
- (v) For all grants greater than \$20 000, progress reports must be submitted every 3 months to Coastcare manager, DEHAA.
- (vi) For all grants, a final report must be submitted to Coastcare manager, DEHAA, following completion of the project.
- (vii) For projects that have in principle agreement to funding beyond one year, a satisfactory progress report, including acquittal of expenditure to date, must be provided to Coastcare manager, DEHAA before funding for the subsequent year is considered.
- (viii) Any group applying for funding under Coastcare must satisfactorily complete and acquit all previous projects supported by Coastcare before any new projects will be considered for funding, unless the Panel is sure that the group is capable of concurrently managing and completing more than one project.
- (ix) Grants may only be paid to an incorporated body.
- (x) Relevant approvals, including the specific endorsement of the relevant coastal manager(s) or owner(s) must have been obtained for the project.

12. Funding

12.1 Participants agree that responsibility for funding Coastcare grants will be shared as follows:

- (i) the Commonwealth will allocate funds to each State and the Northern Territory based on a division of the available monies in accordance with the following formula: equal proportions of base grant:population:length of coastline. The Commonwealth anticipates making available to SA \$311 000 for each financial year 1997/98 to 2000/01 inclusive. These figures include funding for the Indigenous Component of Coastcare (refer to clause 15);
- (ii) the State will match the Commonwealth allocation of funds in a combination of cash and agreed 'in kind' contributions. States may claim an in kind contribution of either one dollar for every cash dollar they provide for grants, up to a maximum of \$85 000—or 25% of their cash contribution, whichever is the larger;
- (iii) the actual funding provided by the Commonwealth will be equal to the State's contribution in cash and agreed 'in kind', up to the State's allocation;
- (iv) the total amount of cash funds so provided by the Commonwealth and the State will constitute the pool of funds for that State's Coastcare Program projects;
- (v) the pool of funds will be used exclusively for community based coastal projects determined in accordance with the recommendations of the Panel;
- (vi) Local Government contributions to individual projects may include 'in kind' contributions associated with minor capital works, such as small scale car parks, provided these are an integral part of a larger integrated Coastcare Program project.

12.2 The Commonwealth, in consultation with the States, will promote Coastcare nationally and will support a program to attract corporate sponsorship for Coastcare. Sponsorship funding will be additional to the pool of funds (refer to 12.1(iii)) and will not require matching funds.

13. Facilitators

13.1 3 Coastcare facilitators will be employed in regions, to be agreed by the Participants, to:

- (i) assist in raising the awareness and profile of Coastcare in particular and Coasts and Clean Seas in general;

- (ii) advise on and coordinate activities funded under Coastcare within their region;
- (iii) assist, where appropriate, with the implementation of Coasts and Clean Seas initiatives and contribute to integrated approaches to coastal management;
- (iv) work closely with and encourage community participation in coastal zone management and associated activities within their region;
- (v) provide advice to community groups and others on best practice coastal management;
- (vi) facilitate communication and cooperation within and between community interest groups, industries, local government and government agencies;

- (vii) assist in the promotion of indigenous interests in coastal management;
- (viii) assist community groups and others to prepare applications for Coastcare Program funding.

13.2 Coastcare facilitators will carry out their functions in a manner consistent with the coastal management objectives of each of the Participants.

13.3 Consideration will be given to employing at least one facilitator who is an Indigenous person, or who is acceptable to Indigenous communities.

13.4 It is not the function of Coastcare facilitators to:

- (i) act as community representatives or lobbyists;
- (ii) play a formal role in the assessment of projects for grants.

13.5 Coastcare facilitators will be located within a host organisation (refer to clause 13.8).

13.6 Coastcare facilitators must provide progress reports at least every 3 months to the host organisation, the State Coastal Coordinator (refer to clause 13.9), the Commonwealth Coastcare Officer (refer to clause 13.10) and the Local Government Association of South Australia, identifying contacts, progress on projects and emerging issues, and evaluating progress in terms of the desired outcomes set out in clause 4 of this Schedule.

13.7 Selection of Coastcare Facilitators

13.7.1 Coastcare facilitators will be selected by a selection panel consisting of at least 1 State Government representative, 1 Local Government representative agreed with the Local Government Association of South Australia and 1 community representative to be agreed by the participants. One of these representatives will be from the host organisation. This representative will also be the chair of the selection panel.

13.7.2 Duty statements and selection criteria will be determined in consultation between the participants. The Commonwealth will consult with non government organisations on these matters.

13.8 The Host Organisation

13.8.1 The Commonwealth will make payments of at least \$50 000 annually under contract to each host organisation to cover salary and associated costs for Coastcare facilitators.

13.8.2 The host organisation will employ the Coastcare facilitator to carry out the duties as specified in the duty statement.

13.8.3 The Coastcare facilitator will not carry out any of the core functions of the host organisation.

13.8.4 The host organisation will be responsible for:

- (i) the administrative management of the Coastcare facilitator;
- (ii) providing for the administrative needs of the Coastcare facilitator. Such support might include office space, telephone, personal computing equipment, access to a vehicle for work purposes and human resource management;
- (iii) overseeing the facilitator's day-to-day activities.

13.8.5 The host organisation will be selected following either consultation between the participants or a call for expressions of interest in each region agreed by the participants.

13.9 The State Coastal Coordinator

13.9.1 As part of its Coastcare Program management function, the State will provide a State Coastal Coordinator to provide support for and promote State wide linkages between the Coastcare facilitators. In addition, the State Coastal Coordinator will provide support for and promote State/Local Government aspects of Coasts and Clean Seas generally.

13.9.2 The State Coastal Coordinator will have responsibility in cooperation with the host in developing, monitoring and reviewing the Coastcare facilitators work program. To the extent necessary for ensuring the overall coordination of the Facilitators, the State Coastcare Manager shall also oversee and direct the performance and duties of the Facilitators as set out in the relevant contracts with Host Organisations.

13.9.3. Where there is disagreement between the State Coastcare Manager and a Facilitator about the activities of the Facilitator that cannot be resolved by discussions between the two, the participants to this MOU will confer to resolve the matter consistent with clause 3.3 of the MOU.

13.10 The Commonwealth Coastcare Officer

13.10.1 The Commonwealth will provide a Commonwealth Coastcare Officer to:

- (i) provide a national point of contact for Coastcare;
- (ii) provide a national perspective for Coastcare;
- (iii) promote national linkages;
- (iv) provide national support for the Coastcare facilitators;
- (v) coordinate the evaluation of Coastcare nationally.

13.11 Training

13.11.1 All participants will cooperate in the provision of relevant and timely training for the Coastcare facilitators.

14. Reporting

14.1 The State Minister will, after consultation with the Local Government Association of South Australia, provide an annual report on Coastcare to the Commonwealth by 31 October of each year or by a date agreed between the State and the Commonwealth. The report will include, but not necessarily be limited to:

- (i) an audited expenditure acquittal of all Coastcare Program funds;
- (ii) the total number and total cost of projects funded;
- (iii) the title, aim, proponent, amount of grant and outcome of each project funded;
- (iv) the number of projects completed;
- (v) the number of projects requiring an extension;
- (vi) an evaluation of the year's Coastcare Program activities, using agreed performance indicators as the principal basis for the evaluation.

15. Indigenous Component of Coastcare

15.1 A minimum pool of funds will be established for an Indigenous Component of Coastcare under the same arrangements as set out in clause 12 of this Schedule.

15.1.1 Indigenous projects will also be eligible for funding out of the main pool of Coastcare Program funds.

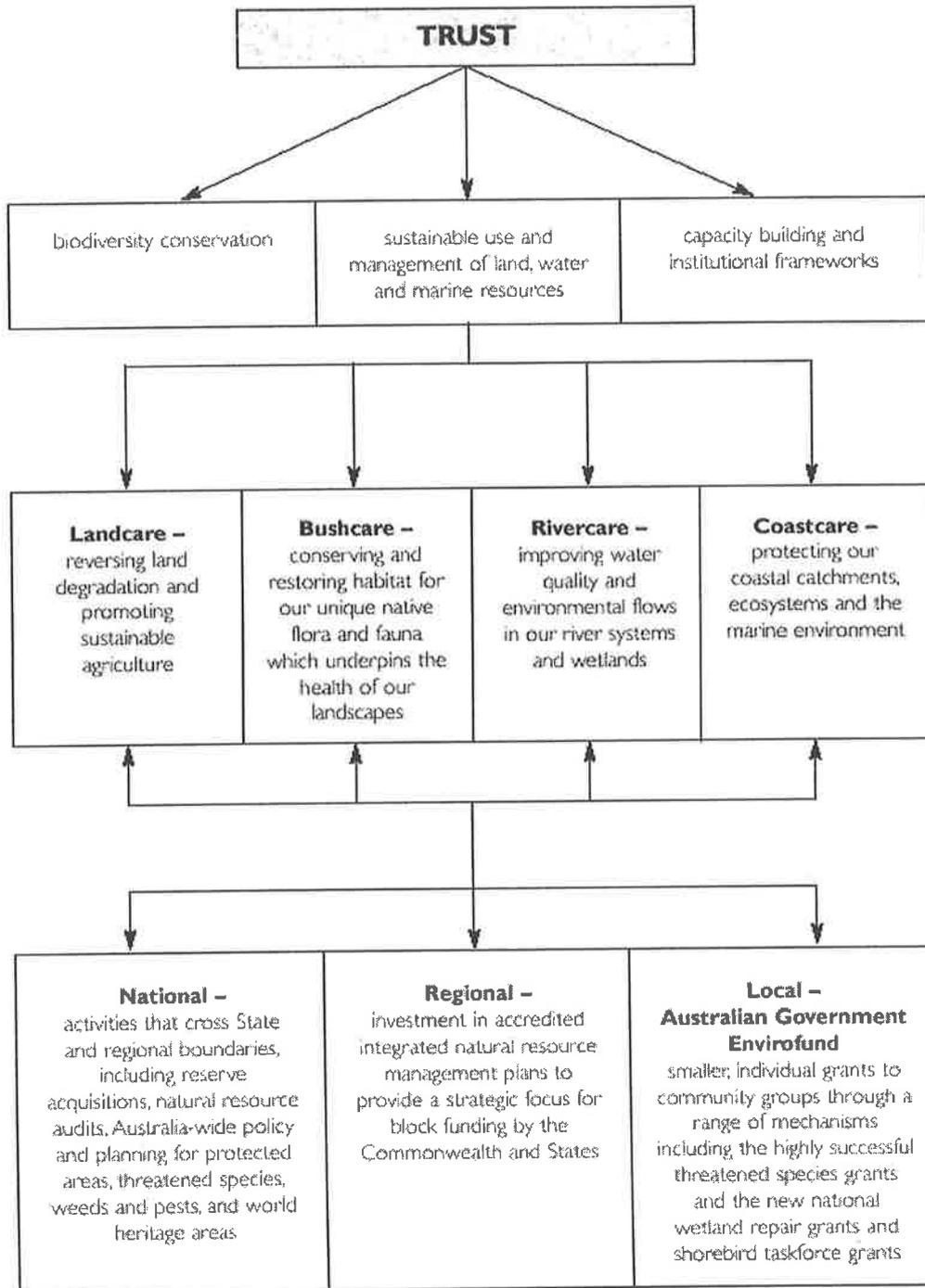
15.2 In addition to the national criteria, set out in clause 9 of this Schedule:

- (i) projects must be sponsored by an Indigenous community group;

- (ii) subject to the accountability requirements set out in this Memorandum, submissions from Indigenous community groups may be accepted in a form different from the standard application, where this is agreed by the Panel.
- 15.3 In addition to the types of projects set out in clause 10 of this Schedule, the types of projects which will be funded under the Indigenous Component of Coastcare include, but are not restricted to:
- (i) recording and protection of cultural heritage sites in the coastal zone;
 - (ii) development of management strategies for land and sea areas under Indigenous control;
 - (iii) participation in the development of strategies for areas in which Indigenous peoples have an interest.
- 15.4 The Panel will, for the State of South Australia:
- (i) determine, within agreed national criteria and guidelines, the priority of applications for project funding under the Indigenous Component of Coastcare;
 - (ii) make recommendations to the State and Commonwealth Ministers on the priority order of projects seeking funding under the Indigenous Component of Coastcare.

Appendix 3

Framework for the Natural Heritage Trust extension (NHT II)



Source: (Western Australian Government, 2002)

Appendix 4

Interview schedules

Interview Questions for managers of State Lead Coastal Management Agencies

Section One: COASTCARE AND COASTAL MANAGEMENT

The following section requires you to consider your overall impressions of the success of the Coastcare program since its inception. It also seeks your views of how Coastcare has functioned within the coastal management framework in your State/Territory.

1. In your opinion how successful has the Coastcare program been in providing a contribution to coastal management in your State?
2. In what ways has Coastcare contributed to coastal management in your State/Territory?
3. In your opinion, what are the strengths of the Coastcare program?
4. Coastcare reaches the end of its first phase of NHT funding this year, (2001/2002). On reflection, what do you consider to have been the main challenges faced by the Coastcare program?

Section Two: RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN COASTCARE AND OTHER COASTAL MANAGERS

The following questions seek your opinion about how well Coastcare has worked towards its aim of facilitating interaction between the community and those responsible for managing coastal areas.

COASTCARE AND STATE COASTAL MANAGEMENT

5. How successful have Coastcare projects been in addressing:
 - a) State coastal management strategies/policy?
 - b) Regional coastal management plans/strategies?
6. How committed is your department/agency to the Coastcare program?
7. How does your department/agency demonstrate its support for the Coastcare program?

COASTCARE AND ROLE OF COMMONWEALTH GOVERNMENT

8. In your opinion how supportive has the Commonwealth Government been in developing the Coastcare program in your State/Territory?
9. In what ways could the Commonwealth Government better support Coastcare in your State?

COASTCARE AND LOCAL COASTAL LAND MANAGERS

10. The nature of interaction between Coastcare groups and local coastal land managers may take several different forms (i.e. regular meetings, technical support, and so on).
11. In your opinion how supportive have local coastal managers been in developing the Coastcare program in your State/Territory? (Local Government/State agencies – Parks and Wildlife or equivalent).

Interview Questions for managers of State Lead Coastal Management Agencies (cont...)

12. In your opinion how effective is the interaction between local Coastcare groups and local coastal land managers?
13. In your opinion, how effective have the regional Coastcare facilitators been in encouraging interaction between community groups and local coastal managers?
14. What evidence is there that effective interaction is taking place between Coastcare groups and local coastal land managers?
15. How could interaction between local coastal land managers and Coastcare groups be improved?

COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

A key element of the Coastcare Program is to encourage local communities, including local industry, to share responsibility for management of local coastal areas.

16. In your opinion, how effective is the Coastcare program's grant scheme as a means of involving local communities in coastal management?
17. How successful has Coastcare been in developing community responsibility for managing coastal areas?
18. How successful has the Coastcare program been in involving the community in decision making for coastal planning and management at:
 - a) the local level?
 - b) the regional level?
19. Do you have any further comments in regard to Coastcare which have not been addressed in this interview?

Interview Questions for Commonwealth Coastcare Managers

Section One

COASTCARE AND COASTAL MANAGEMENT

The following section requires you to consider your overall impressions of the success of the Coastcare program since its inception.

1. In your opinion how successful has the Coastcare program been in providing a contribution to coastal management in Australia?
2. In what ways has Coastcare contributed to coastal management around Australia?
3. In your opinion, what are the strengths of the Coastcare program?
4. Coastcare reaches the end of its first phase of NHT funding this year, (2001/2002). On reflection, what do you consider to have been the main challenges faced by the Coastcare program?

Section Two

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN COASTCARE AND OTHER COASTAL MANAGERS

The following questions seek your opinion about how well Coastcare has worked towards its aim of facilitating interaction between the community and those responsible for managing coastal areas.

5. How satisfied are you with the degree of interaction you share with the State Coastcare co-ordinators?
6. What is the nature of that interaction?
7. How do you think your interaction with State Coastcare co-ordinators could be improved to further develop Coastcare?
8. In your opinion how effective have the lead coastal management agencies/departments (at a managerial level) around the country been in implementing the Coastcare program?
9. In what ways could the role of the lead State coastal management departments/agencies (at a managerial level) be improved to further develop Coastcare?
10. How satisfied are you with the degree of interaction you (the Commonwealth Coastcare managers) share with the managers of State coastal planning/management agencies in each of the States and the Northern Territory?
11. What is the nature of interaction you, (the Commonwealth Coastcare managers), share with the managers of State coastal planning/management agencies in each of the States and the Northern Territory?
12. In your opinion, how effective have the Coastcare co-ordinators been in involving the State coastal planning/management agencies in each of the States and the Northern Territory in the Coastcare program?
13. What evidence is there that effective interaction is taking place between the broader State coastal programs and Coastcare in each of the States and the NT?
14. How satisfied are you with the degree of interaction you (the Commonwealth Coastcare managers) share with the regional Coastcare facilitators in each of the States and the Northern Territory?
15. What is the nature of interaction you share with the regional Coastcare facilitators?

Interview Questions for Commonwealth Coastcare Managers (Cont..)

COASTCARE AND LOCAL COASTAL LAND MANAGERS

The nature of interaction between Coastcare groups and local coastal land managers may take several different forms (i.e. regular meetings, technical support, and so on).

16. In your opinion, how effective have the regional Coastcare facilitators been in encouraging interaction between community groups and local coastal managers?
17. What evidence is there that effective interaction is taking place between Coastcare groups and local coastal land managers?
18. How satisfied are you with the hosting arrangements for regional Coastcare facilitators?
19. How do you think the hosting arrangements for regional Coastcare facilitators could be improved?

Section Three

COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

A key element of the Coastcare Program is to encourage local communities, including local industry, to share responsibility for management of local coastal areas.

20. In your opinion, how effective is the Coastcare program's grant scheme as a means of involving local communities in coastal management?
21. How successful has Coastcare been in developing community responsibility for managing coastal areas?
22. How successful has the Coastcare program been in involving the community in decision making for coastal planning and management?

Section Four

SELECTION PROCESS OF COASTCARE APPLICATIONS

23. How successful do you consider the State Assessment Panel process is in selecting suitable projects for funding?
24. How do you think the SAP process could be improved?
25. Do you have any further comments in regard to Coastcare which have not been addressed in this interview?

Interview Questions for State Coastcare Coordinators

Section One

COASTCARE AND COASTAL MANAGEMENT

The following section requires you to consider your overall impressions of the success of the Coastcare program since its inception. It also seeks your views of how Coastcare has functioned within the coastal management framework in your State/Territory.

1. In your opinion how successful has the Coastcare program been in providing a contribution to coastal management in your State?
2. In what ways has Coastcare contributed to coastal management in your State/Territory?
3. In your opinion, what are the strengths of the Coastcare program?
4. Coastcare reaches the end of its first phase of NHT funding this year, (2001/2002). On reflection, what do you consider to have been the main challenges faced by the Coastcare program?

Section Two

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN COASTCARE AND OTHER COASTAL MANAGERS

The following questions seek your opinion about how well Coastcare has worked towards its aim of facilitating interaction between the community and those responsible for managing coastal areas.

COASTCARE AND STATE COASTAL MANAGEMENT

5. How successful have Coastcare projects been in addressing:
 - a) State coastal management strategies/policy?
 - b) Regional coastal management plans/strategies?
6. In your opinion how supportive has the lead coastal management agency/department in your State been in implementing the Coastcare program?
7. In what ways could the role of the lead coastal management department/agency in your State be improved to further develop Coastcare?
8. In what ways do you as the Coastcare co-ordinator, interact with the lead coastal management department/agency in your State (at a managerial level)? (i.e. are there mechanisms in place for information exchange?)
9. How satisfied are you with the degree of interaction you share with the lead coastal management department/agency (at a managerial level) in your State?

COASTCARE AND ROLE OF COMMONWEALTH GOVERNMENT

10. How satisfied are you with the degree of interaction you share with the Commonwealth Coastcare managers?
11. In your opinion, how effective have the Commonwealth Coastcare managers been in encouraging the lead State agencies to support the Coastcare program?
12. In what ways could the Commonwealth Government better support Coastcare in your State?

Interview Questions for State Coastcare Coordinators (cont...)

COASTCARE AND LOCAL COASTAL LAND MANAGERS

The nature of interaction between Coastcare groups and local coastal land managers may take several different forms (i.e. regular meetings, technical support, and so on).

13. In your opinion how supportive local coastal managers been in developing the Coastcare program in your State/Territory? (Local Government/State agencies – Parks and Wildlife or equivalent).
14. In your opinion how effective is the interaction between local Coastcare groups and local coastal land managers?
15. In your opinion, how effective have the regional Coastcare facilitators been in encouraging interaction between community groups and local coastal managers?
16. What evidence is there that effective interaction is taking place between Coastcare groups and local coastal land managers?
17. How could interaction between local coastal land managers and Coastcare groups be improved?
18. How supportive do you think the hosts have been of the Coastcare program?
19. How do you think the hosting arrangements for regional Coastcare facilitators could be improved?

Section Three

COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

A key element of the Coastcare Program is to encourage local communities, including local industry, to share responsibility for management of local coastal areas.

20. In your opinion, how effective is the Coastcare program's grant scheme as a means of involving local communities in coastal management?
21. How successful has Coastcare been in developing community responsibility for managing coastal areas?
22. How successful has the Coastcare program been in involving the community in decision making for coastal planning and management at:
 - a) the local level?
 - b) the regional level?

Section Four

SELECTION PROCESS OF COASTCARE APPLICATIONS

This final section asks you to reflect upon various aspects of the process of selecting Coastcare applications.

23. How successful do you consider the State Assessment Panel process is in selecting suitable projects for funding?
24. Do you consider the representation of stakeholders on the State Assessment Panel to be adequate? How could representation of stakeholders of the panel be improved?
25. What do you consider to be the strengths of your panel's selection process?
26. How could your panel's selection process be improved?
27. In your opinion does your State Assessment Panel receive adequate feedback regarding the outcomes of previous Coastcare grant rounds? In what ways could the feedback process to your State Assessment Panel be improved?
28. Do you have any further comments in regard to Coastcare which have not been addressed in this interview?

Interview Questions for Regional Coastcare Facilitators

Section One

COASTCARE AND COASTAL MANAGEMENT

The following section requires you to consider your overall impressions of the success of the Coastcare program since its inception. It also seeks your views of how Coastcare has functioned within the coastal management framework in your State/Territory.

1. In your opinion how successful has the Coastcare program been in providing a contribution to coastal management in your State?
2. In your opinion, what are the strengths of the Coastcare program?
3. In your opinion, how effective is the Coastcare program's grant scheme as a means of involving local communities in coastal management?
4. Coastcare reaches the end of its first phase of NHT funding this year, (2001/2002). On reflection, what do you consider to have been the main challenges faced by the Coastcare program?

Section Two

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN COASTCARE AND OTHER COASTAL MANAGERS

The following questions seek your opinion about how well Coastcare has worked towards its aim of facilitating interaction between the community and those responsible for managing coastal areas.

COASTCARE AND STATE COASTAL MANAGEMENT

5. How successful have Coastcare projects been in addressing State coastal management strategies?
6. How successful have Coastcare projects been in addressing regional coastal management plans/strategies?
7. In your opinion how supportive has the lead coastal management agency/department in your State been in implementing the Coastcare program?
8. How could the role of the lead coastal management department/agency in your State be improved to further develop Coastcare?
9. How supportive has the State Coastcare Co-ordinator been of you in your role as a regional Coastcare facilitator?
10. How satisfied are you with your hosting arrangements?
11. How supportive is your host of the Coastcare program?
12. How could the hosting arrangement be improved?

COASTCARE AND LOCAL COASTAL LAND MANAGERS

The nature of interaction between Coastcare groups and local coastal land managers may take several different forms (i.e. regular meetings, technical support, and so on).

13. In your opinion how effective is the interaction between local Coastcare groups and local coastal land managers?
14. What evidence is there that effective interaction is taking place between Coastcare groups and local coastal land managers?
15. How could interaction between local coastal land managers and Coastcare groups be improved?

Interview Questions for Regional Coastcare Facilitators (Cont..)

16. How supportive overall have local coastal managers been of your role as a regional Coastcare facilitator?
17. As a regional Coastcare facilitator how have you gone about developing a working relationship with local coastal land managers?
18. What factors have helped establish positive interaction with local coastal land managers associated with Coastcare?
19. What has hindered your interaction with local coastal land managers associated with Coastcare?

COASTCARE AND ROLE OF COMMONWEALTH GOVERNMENT

20. In your opinion how supportive has the Commonwealth Government been in developing the Coastcare program in your State/Territory?
21. How could the Commonwealth Government better support Coastcare?

Section Three

COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

A key element of the Coastcare Program is to encourage local communities, including local industry, to share responsibility for management of local coastal areas.

22. Has Coastcare been successful in developing community responsibility for managing coastal areas?
23. How successful has the Coastcare program been in involving the community in decision making for coastal planning and management at the local level?
24. How successful has the Coastcare program been in involving the community in decision making for coastal planning and management at the regional level?

Section Four

SELECTION PROCESS OF COASTCARE APPLICATIONS

This final section asks you to reflect upon various aspects of the process of selecting Coastcare applications.

25. How successful do you consider the State Assessment Panel process is in selecting suitable projects for funding?
26. How could the Coastcare Application Form 'Guidelines to Applicants' be improved?
27. Do you consider the representation of stakeholders on the State Assessment Panel to be adequate?
28. What do you consider to be the strengths of your panel's selection process?
29. How could your panel's selection process be improved?
30. In your opinion does your State Assessment Panel receive adequate feedback regarding the outcomes of previous Coastcare grant rounds?
31. Do you have any further comments in regard to Coastcare which have not been addressed in this interview?

Questionnaire for local coastal land managers

Section One

COASTCARE AND COASTAL MANAGEMENT

The following section requires you to consider your overall impressions of the success of the Coastcare program since its inception. It also seeks your views of how Coastcare has functioned within the coastal management framework in your State/Territory.

1. In your opinion how successful has the Coastcare program been in providing a contribution to coastal management in your area?
2. In what ways has Coastcare contributed to coastal management in your area?
3. In your opinion, what are the strengths of the Coastcare program?
4. Coastcare reaches the end of its first phase of NHT funding this year, (2001/2002). On reflection, what do you consider to have been the main challenges faced by the Coastcare program?

Section Two

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN COASTCARE AND OTHER COASTAL MANAGERS

The following questions seek your opinion about how well Coastcare has worked towards its aim of facilitating interaction between the community and those responsible for managing coastal areas.

5. Does your organisation have a dedicated staff member to work with Coastcare groups?
(Please tick one box)
6. In what ways does your organisation participate in the Coastcare program?
7. In your opinion, how effective have the regional Coastcare facilitators been in encouraging interaction between you (the local coastal land managers) and community groups?
8. In what ways have the facilitators encouraged interaction?

Section Three

COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

A key element of the Coastcare Program is to encourage local communities, including local industry, to share responsibility for management of local coastal areas.

9. In your opinion, how effective is the Coastcare program's grant scheme as a means of involving local communities in coastal management?
10. What are the reasons for your choice?
11. From your perspective of local coastal land manager, in what ways could the Coastcare program be improved to make a more effective contribution to coastal management in your area?
12. Do you have any further comments in regard to Coastcare which have not been addressed in this questionnaire?

Questionnaire for agencies hosting regional Coastcare facilitators

Section One

COASTCARE AND COASTAL MANAGEMENT

The following section requires you to consider your overall impressions of the success of the Coastcare program since its inception. It also seeks your views of how Coastcare has functioned within the coastal management framework in your State/Territory.

1. In your opinion how successful has the Coastcare program been in providing a contribution to coastal management in your area?
2. What are the reasons for your choice?
3. In what ways has Coastcare contributed to coastal management in your area?
4. In your opinion, what are the strengths of the Coastcare program?
5. Coastcare reaches the end of its first phase of NHT funding this year, (2001/2002). On reflection, what do you consider to have been the main challenges faced by the Coastcare program?

Section Two

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN COASTCARE AND OTHER COASTAL MANAGERS

The following questions seek your opinion about how well Coastcare has worked towards its aim of facilitating interaction between the community and those responsible for managing coastal areas.

6. In your opinion how supportive has your organisation (as the host) been in developing the Coastcare program in your area?
7. What are the reasons for your choice?
8. Does your organisation have a dedicated staff member to work with Coastcare groups?
9. In what ways does your organisation demonstrate its support for Coastcare?
10. In what ways does your agency, as the host, work with the Coastcare program?
11. In your opinion, how effective have the regional Coastcare facilitators been in encouraging interaction between the local coastal land managers and community groups? What are the reasons for your choice?
12. In your opinion how supportive has the lead coastal management agency/department in your State been in implementing the Coastcare program? What are the reasons for your choice?
13. In what ways could the role of the lead coastal management department/agency in your State be improved to further develop Coastcare?

COASTCARE AND ROLE OF COMMONWEALTH GOVERNMENT

14. In your opinion how supportive has the Commonwealth Government been of you as the host agency developing the Coastcare program in your area?
15. In what ways could the Commonwealth Government better support you as the host agency?

Questionnaire for Agencies Hosting Coastcare Regional Facilitators (cont...)

Section Three

COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

A key element of the Coastcare Program is to encourage local communities, including local industry, to share responsibility for management of local coastal areas.

16. In your opinion, how effective is the Coastcare program's grant scheme as a means of involving local communities in coastal management? What are the reasons for your choice?
17. From your perspective, in what ways could the Coastcare program be improved to make the projects more effective?
18. From your perspective, in what ways could the Coastcare program be improved to make a more effective contribution to coastal management in your area?
19. How successful has Coastcare been in developing community responsibility for managing coastal areas? What are the reasons for your choice?
20. Do you have any further comments in regard to Coastcare which have not been addressed in this questionnaire?
- 21.

State Assessment Panel Questionnaire

Section One

COASTCARE AND COASTAL MANAGEMENT

The following section seeks your general views of how Coastcare has functioned within the coastal management framework in your State/Territory. It also requires you to consider your overall impressions of the success of the program since its inception.

1. In your opinion how successful has the Coastcare program been in providing a contribution to coastal management?
2. In your opinion, what are the strengths of the Coastcare program?
3. In your opinion, how effective is the Coastcare program's grant scheme as a means of involving local communities in coastal management?
4. Coastcare reaches the end of its first phase of NHT funding this year, (2001/2002). On reflection, what do you consider to have been the main challenges faced by the Coastcare program?

Section Two

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN COASTCARE AND OTHER COASTAL MANAGERS

The following questions seek your opinion about how well Coastcare has worked towards its aim of facilitating interaction between the community and those responsible for managing coastal areas.

Coastcare and State coastal management

5. In your opinion how supportive has your State coastal management agency/departments been in developing the Coastcare program?
6. How could the relationship between Coastcare and your State coastal management department/agencies be improved?

Coastcare and Local Coastal Land Managers

The nature of interaction between Coastcare groups and local coastal land managers may take several different forms (i.e. regular meetings, technical support, and so on).

7. In your opinion how effective is the interaction between local Coastcare groups and local coastal land managers?
8. What evidence is there that effective interaction is taking place between Coastcare groups and local coastal land managers?
9. How could interaction between local coastal land managers and Coastcare groups be improved?
10. In your opinion, how effective have the regional Coastcare facilitators been in encouraging interaction between community groups and local coastal managers?

Coastcare and role of Commonwealth Government

11. In your opinion how supportive has the Commonwealth Government been in developing the Coastcare program in your State/Territory?
12. How could the Commonwealth Government better support Coastcare?

State Assessment Panel Questionnaire

Section One

COASTCARE AND COASTAL MANAGEMENT

The following section seeks your general views of how Coastcare has functioned within the coastal management framework in your State/Territory. It also requires you to consider your overall impressions of the success of the program since its inception.

1. In your opinion how successful has the Coastcare program been in providing a contribution to coastal management?
2. In your opinion, what are the strengths of the Coastcare program?
3. In your opinion, how effective is the Coastcare program's grant scheme as a means of involving local communities in coastal management?
4. Coastcare reaches the end of its first phase of NHT funding this year, (2001/2002). On reflection, what do you consider to have been the main challenges faced by the Coastcare program?

Section Two

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN COASTCARE AND OTHER COASTAL MANAGERS

The following questions seek your opinion about how well Coastcare has worked towards its aim of facilitating interaction between the community and those responsible for managing coastal areas.

Coastcare and State coastal management

5. In your opinion how supportive has your State coastal management agency/departments been in developing the Coastcare program?
6. How could the relationship between Coastcare and your State coastal management department/agencies be improved?

Coastcare and Local Coastal Land Managers

The nature of interaction between Coastcare groups and local coastal land managers may take several different forms (i.e. regular meetings, technical support, and so on).

7. In your opinion how effective is the interaction between local Coastcare groups and local coastal land managers?
8. What evidence is there that effective interaction is taking place between Coastcare groups and local coastal land managers?
9. How could interaction between local coastal land managers and Coastcare groups be improved?
10. In your opinion, how effective have the regional Coastcare facilitators been in encouraging interaction between community groups and local coastal managers?

Coastcare and role of Commonwealth Government

11. In your opinion how supportive has the Commonwealth Government been in developing the Coastcare program in your State/Territory?
12. How could the Commonwealth Government better support Coastcare?

State Assessment Panel Questionnaire (Cont...)

Section Three

COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

A key element of the Coastcare Program is to encourage local communities, including local industry, to share responsibility for management of local coastal areas.

13. Has Coastcare been successful in developing community responsibility for managing coastal areas?
14. How successful has the Coastcare program been in involving the community in decision making for coastal planning and management?

Section Four

SELECTION PROCESS OF COASTCARE APPLICATIONS

This final section asks you to reflect upon various aspects of the process of selecting Coastcare applications.

15. What principles do you apply to ensure that an individual Coastcare application is worthy of funding? Please identify the origin of such principles, if possible.
16. How helpful are the Commonwealth 'Coastcare Guidelines to Applicants' for selecting successful Coastcare applications?
17. (How could the 'Coastcare Guidelines to Applicants' be improved?)
18. What additional criteria (information/guidance) would assist you in assessing Coastcare applications?
19. Do you consider the representation of stakeholders on the State Assessment Panel to be adequate?
20. What do you consider to be the strengths of your panel's selection process?
21. How could your panel's selection process be improved?
22. In your opinion does your State Assessment Panel receive adequate feedback regarding the outcomes of previous Coastcare grant rounds?
23. Do you have any further comments in regard to Coastcare which have not been addressed in this questionnaire?

Questionnaire for state coastcare coordinators

**COASTCARE GENERAL DATA COLLECTION
COMPILING THE COASTCARE STATISTICS NATIONALLY**

As yet, there has been no national compilation of the impressive achievements made by Coastcare since it began in 1995. A National summary of Coastcare activities is necessary for showcasing Coastcare and the range of coastal initiatives, the number of people involved and considerable funds it has attracted. Some of the data will be used in an upcoming Coastcare Brief to Senator Hill and for input into post NHT discussions and possible new policy initiatives. It is hoped that some of the overarching data will be compiled into a booklet, including case studies and photos, for distribution during Coastcare Week. A National picture of Coastcare from its inception to present is valuable for many other uses including pursuing funding from local land managers and sponsors and presenting material to both State and Commonwealth departments. It is hoped that some of you may also wish to use the data you compile for your state for an additional purpose. All appropriate data collected nationally will be available for you by each state and the Northern Territory.

Below is a series of questions relating to the Coastcare program. Please, where possible, provide the following information from your databases and other sources. It is anticipated and acknowledged that you may not have kept a record of all the information requested. If the information provided is an estimate, please indicate with an (E) beside the response. If you don't have the data and are unable to provide an accurate estimate, please leave the space BLANK. If possible, please return to the Coastcare National Office by Wednesday 13 September 2000 – please call or email if this is a problem. Thank you for your input and time – your efforts are greatly appreciated.

STATE (Please complete):	95/96	96/97	97/98	98/99	99/00	00/01
COASTCARE APPLICATIONS & FUNDING						
Number of Coastcare applications received						
Number of Coastcare projects funded						
Number of Coastcare projects completed (final reports received)						
Number of Project Officers employed full-time by Coastcare as part of approved project funding						
Number of Project Officers employed part-time by Coastcare as part of approved project funding						

MAIN PROJECT ACTIVITIES

Number of **on-ground** projects funded

Number of **planning** projects funded

Number of **monitoring** projects funded

Number of **education** projects funded

Number of **indigenous** projects funded

GROUP CHARACTERISTICS

Number of Coastcare groups (funded groups only)

Estimated Number of Coastcare groups in total (including funded and non-funded groups)

Number of Coastcare Group members in total (00-01 G'lines Q.20a)

Average number of members in each Coastcare group

Estimated number of Indigenous Groups

ABOUT THE LAND MANAGER

Number of coastal councils in your state

Estimated number of Councils involved in Coastcare (providing Facilitator support, signed as land manager, providing in-kind support etc)

Number of councils signed as land manager for Coastcare projects in your state

Number of State Departments signed as land manager for Coastcare projects in your state

Number of Indigenous Owners signed as land manager for Coastcare projects in your state						
Number of Private Land Owners signed as land manager for Coastcare projects in your state						
Number of Crown Land Managers signed as land manager for Coastcare projects in your state						
OTHER COASTCARE ACTIVITIES						
Number of Coastcare initiatives** (festivals/community conferences/ workshops) in each state (please provide names of these in the box provided below)						
FUNDING QUESTIONS						
Amount of Commonwealth Funding contributed to Coastcare projects						
Amount of State Funding contributed to Coastcare projects						
Amount of Local Land Manager funds/in-kind contributed to Coastcare projects						
Amount of Community funds/in-kind contributed to Coastcare projects						
Other Contributions to Coastcare projects						

* Definition of a 'Coastcare' group: a group can be a community group, a Dunecare, CoastAction or Coastwest group, a progress association, a volunteer association, a Landcare group, Any group involved in coastal management related projects that have some involvement in Coastcare.

OTHER COASTCARE ACTIVITIES

You outlined above the number the Coastcare related activities etc. that have been initiated/undertaken in your state. Please provide details below.

**** Coastcare initiatives** (festivals/community conferences/ workshops) can include those funded by Capacity Building, local regional conferences/workshops or seminars, festivals, conferences etc. The workshops do not need to be fully funded by Coastcare but need to have a strong Coastcare influence. Please list these initiatives in the box provided below.

STATE	YEAR	NAME OF FESTIVAL

Appendix 5

Comparison of Coastcare State Assessment Panel Processes

SAP Membership

State	Members	Voting Members
NSW	15	11
VIC (2000)	10	10
QLD	9	6
WA	14	9
SA (2000)	13	12
TAS	17	8
NT	8	8

Technical Assessment Prior to SAP

NSW	NSW north coast utilises a team of technical assessors. Each member of the team is allocated particular issues to evaluate. The team reconvenes and assesses each application in turn. Coastcare applications for the South Coast of NSW utilise regional staff from the Department of Land and Water Conservation (DLWC) who undertake a desk-top assessment of allocated applications. They sometimes do site visits.
VIC	Individual site assessment by technical team, followed up by regional assessment panel.
QLD	Individual assessors selected by the state coordinator, undertake desk top assessment, completing a proforma for each application.
WA	Technical assessment team of 7 individually assess applications and then meet to discuss. Administrative assessment completed by state coordinator.
SA	No technical assessment prior to SAP
TAS	A Technical Panel of 10 people meets for 1 day and completes a proforma for each application assessing technical feasibility and project relevance. A budget Assessment Panel of 3 people assess all the budget and administrative details for each application.
NT	No technical assessment panel; all technical experts are part of SAP.

SAP Criteria

NSW	The NSW criteria rely on the Guidelines to applicants.
VIC	RAP undertake site visits. SAP begin their panel by a round table discussion of criteria for selection including: value for money, strategically focussed applications, follow-on projects, emphasis on marine issues.
QLD	Each SAP member received a copy of Queensland's Coastcare priorities document that identified State and regional coastal priorities and important local issues
WA	Criteria for assessment are included with technical assessment summaries. This includes Coastcare objectives and funding criteria, a summary of Western Australian State Priorities, as well as ineligible project activities.
SA	A summary checklist derived from the Coastcare 'Guidelines to Applicants'.
TAS	Each application is assessed by each member of the SAP according to 10 criteria and scored against each. Criteria include value for money, demonstrable on-ground improvement, addressing of state/regional priorities.
NT	Coastcare 'Guidelines to Applicants'.

Cultural Heritage

NSW	Indigenous representative on panel in 2001.
VIC	Indigenous representative on panel in 2000. Desk top study of Aboriginal Heritage for each project
QLD	Indigenous representative on panel in 2001. Coastcare provide the QLD Cultural Aboriginal Reference Group with all applications. This group assesses each application and reports their findings back to the Coordinator prior to the SAP.
WA	Indigenous representative on panel (not in attendance). Regional facilitators utilise the services of the Indigenous Land Management Facility (ILMF) through the Dept of Indigenous Affairs to enquire about specific applications.
SA	Cultural heritage issues are dealt with at SAP. Indigenous representative on panel (not in attendance in 2000)
TAS	No indigenous representative on panel. Each funded project is expected to use funds designated in project design to seek their own Aboriginal Heritage Assessment coordinated by Tasmanian Aboriginal Lands Commission (TALC).
NT	Applicants are required to contact the traditional owners in the area for which their project is to take place. Applications are checked against DLWC land claims by technical assessors and by the Heritage Officer who has access to the Aboriginal Sites register.

Duration of Assessment

State	Number of Days
NSW	1
VIC	1
QLD	1
WA	2
SA	2
TAS	1
NT	1

Ranking/Order of project Selection

NSW	SAP panel is presented with a ranked listing of all applications, showing their cumulative scores. Each application then reviewed in turn from highest to lowest score for comment – mainly budget adjustments. Applications below the funding limit available are then open to discussion and some moved forward.
VIC	Applications individually assessed. Those projects not recommended by RAPs eliminated. Regions ranked one after the other. Using the Regional Assessment Panels rankings, all projects ranked High get funded.
QLD	Applications are sorted by project type. The panel then assesses in turn, firstly all planning and education applications, followed by all monitoring and finally all on-ground works applications.
WA	Ineligible projects are agreed upon. Anomalies or outliers from the voting are discussed and some decisions and votes amended. A general check of each project likely to receive funding (those with high scores) is followed by a general check of those not likely to be funded (those with low scores). Choices are made over marginal projects – those with equal rankings – facilitators play a role here, justifying particular projects. Conditions checked for all projects likely to receive funding.
SA	5 projects assessed per region, in turn until all projects considered.
TAS	Each region's applications are assessed in turn.
NT	Panel members meet prior to the SAP and discuss each project, clarify any issues and the facilitator provides background information. The voting members take away a scoring sheet and send in their selection prior to the SAP.

Voting System

NSW	Pre SAP voting. Votes of individual members for each application are recorded and collated prior to the meeting of the SAP.
VIC	Regional Assessment Panels firstly rank applications either Low Medium or High, along with a numerical score. Their assessment is sent to the SAP who discuss the projects in turn and may adjust a few of the RAP scores. Typically applications ranked High are funded.
QLD	Open Voting. Each panel member calls out their vote in turn. All votes are tallied and ranked in an ongoing process for the duration of the SAP. Ranked projects are displayed on a projector screen for the SAP
WA	Pre SAP voting. Votes are pre-recorded prior to the meeting of the SAP and ranked projects are displayed for the SAP.
SA	Open voting. Each panel member calls out their vote in turn
TAS	Closed voting system. Panel members complete a score sheet tallied at the end of the panel session.
NT	Pre SAP voting. Scores handed in prior to meeting of the SAP. SAP provided with list of projects by their ranked average score. The panel then rediscuss projects and sometimes readjust the score.

Feedback to SAP

NSW	Not provided.
VIC	SAP panel are sent Commonwealth announcements and receive copies of the CoastAction/Coastcare nesletter throughout the year.
QLD	SAP panel are sent the Commonwealth announcements.
WA	Not specifically required as part of the Project Management Agreement.
SA	Not provided.
TAS	Not provided
NT	Commonwealth announcements are emailed to the panel. Newsletters were sent to the panel but these are no longer produced due to lack of funds.