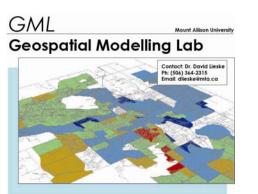
Atlantic Climate Adaptation Solutions Association Solutions d'adaptation aux changements climatiques pour l'Atlantique

Visualizations and their Role in Communicating the Risk of Coastal Flooding: a Tantramar Case Study

By David J. Lieske

October, 2012

Geospatial Modelling Lab (GML) http://www.mta.ca/~dlieske/GML Department of Geography and Environment Mount Allison University







Natural Resources Re Canada Ca

Ressources naturelles Canada



Report prepared by: David J. Lieske, commissioned by the Atlantic Climate Solutions Association (ACASA), a non-profit organization formed to coordinate project management and planning for climate change adaptation initiatives in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland and Labrador and supported through the Regional Adaptation Collaborative, a joint undertaking between the Atlantic provinces, Natural Resources Canada and regional municipalities and other partners.

Project management: Climate Change Secretariat, New Brunswick Department of the Environment. P.O. Box 6000, Fredericton, NB, E3B 5H1. E-mail: env-info@gnb.ca

Acknowledgements: We thank the original 172 participants who kindly agreed to participate in focus groups and share their perceptions of the visualizations presented during this study. Mount Allison University for providing logistical support.

Disclaimer: This publication is not be used without permission, and any unauthorized use is strictly prohibited. ACASA, the authors, the provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Newfoundland and Labrador, and the Regional Adaptation Collaborative are not responsible for any unauthorized use that may be made of the information contained therein. The opinions expressed in this publication do not necessarily reflect those of ACASA, its associated provinces, or other partners of the Regional Adaptation Collaborative.

This report is also available for download from the ACASA website at: www.atlanticadaptation.ca

Table of Contents

Executive Summary	
1. Introduction	6
2. Methods	9
2.1 Tantramar Study Area	9
2.2 Sampling Design	9
2.3 Assessment of Risk Perception	
2.4 Communication Strategies (Treatment Types)	
2.4.1 Base communication strategy	10
2.4.2. Geovisually-augmented communication strategies	
2.5. Statistical Analysis	
3. Results	
3.1 Characteristics of sample groups	
3.2 Initial risk perception and influencing factors	
3.3. Quantitative change in risk perception, post-treatment	
3.4. Qualitative responses	
4. Discussion	
5. Conclusions	19
Acknowledgments	19
References	
Appendix A: Summary of Comments Gathered During Focus Group Discussions	

Executive Summary

Rising sea levels, due to thermal expansion of the ocean, and higher frequency and intensity of coastal and inland storms threaten coastal communities worldwide. The implementation of pro-active, planned adaptation to reduce community vulnerability is strongly dependent upon people's perception of the threat posed to their communities at the local scale. Unfortunately, the scarcity of research into effective risk communication limits our understanding of how climate change evidence can most effectively raise risk awareness and inspire community adaptation.

With a focus on a case study situated in the Tantramar area of South-East New Brunswick, Canada -- an area subject to very large tidal forces from the Bay of Fundy -- this study set out to assess public awareness about the link between climate change and elevated risk of regional dyke failure, measure how different multimedia visualizations influence public risk perception, and provide general recommendations for the development of flood risk communication strategies in coastal zones.

The results from 14 focus groups (n = 157 participants) revealed that 81% of respondents felt that the problem of climate change was considerable or severe. However, high levels of awareness of the threat posed by global climate change do not necessarily translate into an awareness of personal flood risks at the local level. When asked for their assessment of personal vulnerability to dyke failure and subsequent coastal flooding, only 35.6% considered themselves to be at considerable or severe personal risk. Gender, education, and age were found to significantly influence initial risk perception to varying degrees, and were also associated with changes in risk perception following the communication session. While geovisually-enhanced communication strategies, involving 3D flood animations and web-based GIS maps, were no more effective at raising risk awareness than a non-enhanced communication package, qualitative responses suggested that the geovisualizations had greater emotional impact ("shock"), and contributed disproportionately to an expressed desire to become politically and socially active around the issue.

Well designed communication strategies, which address cognitive biases and present the evidence with supporting context, are capable of addressing climate change knowledge gaps. The qualitative results showed that advanced visualizations were accompanied by an emotive component that was absent from the baseline communication strategy and was manifested in, for example, greater expressions of sentiment to mobilize for political and community advocacy. While no data is available to assess long-term retention of the focus group materials, informal discussions with a number of participants suggested that there may have been a persistent change in perception following exposure to geovisualizations.

Translation of risk awareness to a willingness to make proactive adaptation decisions is poorly understood, but can be expected to require a supporting framework to occur. Necessary co-requisites include trust in higher levels of government and the experts involved in the production of communication materials; an accessible set of alternative adaptation strategies to choose from; appeal to personal responsibility and agency; and effective land use planning. Participatory public GIS (PPGIS) and community-based social marketing may involve the public in the process of knowledge creation and help identify impediments to adaptation.

1. Introduction

Climate change is a problem of global scope, with significant consequences for coastal communities. Risks include increased sea levels due to thermal expansion of the ocean, a higher frequency and intensity of coastal and inland storms, and accelerated erosion (Dronkers et al., 1990; Wu et al., 2002). Unfortunately, these zones are also heavily populated (Dronkers et al., 1990). In the face of these threats, pro-active, planned adaptation to reduce community vulnerability is highly desirable. But the implementation of particular adaptation strategies is complicated by the 'wicked' nature of the climate change problem (Bord et al., 1998): there is a general lack of public awareness, or worse, complete misunderstanding, which undermines the public's willingness to participate or support adaptation efforts (Seacrest et al., 2000; Lorenzoni et al., 2007; Jude, 2008); differential perception of the appropriate balance between long- and short-term considerations can lead to divergent opinions about the efficacy of candidate options (Lorenzoni and Pidgeon, 2006); and the fact that people generally resist making uncomfortable behavioural changes (Bord et al., 1998; McKenzie-Mohr, 2000; Seacrest et al., 2000).

A recent Gallup Poll reported that 55% of Americans worry a great deal or fair amount about global warming (Newport, 2012), but historically, this has varied between 50% and 72% (Lorenzoni and Pidgeon, 2006). As summarized by Lorenzoni and Pidgeon (2006), a 1992 Gallup Health of the Planet (HOP) survey revealed that 13 of 24 countries (of which eight were European) had >50% of respondents indicate climate change to be a serious problem. In a more recent, 2004 European survey poll, the greatest proportions of concerned respondents resided in Sweden (68%), Luxembourg (58%), Germany (57%), the Netherlands (53%) and Finland (53%). Twenty-six percent of all EU-25 respondents felt they lacked information specifically about climate change (Lorenzoni and Pidgeon, 2006). While perceptions vary, there is a general and widespread belief in the seriousness of global climate change (Bord et al., 1998; Lorenzoni and Pidgeon, 2006).

How does this general acceptance of the immediacy of the climate change problem translate to the local scale? Do people understand the threats facing their own community? Bickerstaff et al. (2004, cited in Lorenzoni and Pidgeon, 2006; Burningham et al., 2008) provide evidence that in the U.K., individuals in areas directly vulnerable to climate change are often of the connection to their local areas, or fail to see a potential impact on their day-to-day lives. A key challenge facing regional coastal managers, therefore, is how to develop public communication tools capable of effectively illustrating possible future scenarios at meaningful scales while simultaneously involving the public in the difficult discussions surrounding adaptation (Jude, 2008).

Risk communication is further complicated by idiosyncracies in the way people perceive environmental threats, and research has shown that this is partially shaped by human psychology. For example, people tend to draw inferences from information without regard for the weight of the evidence ('insensitivity to sample size', Tversky and Kahneman, 1974), display overconfidence in their ability to derive accurate inferences (Slovic, 1987), and exhibit arbitrariness in their risk tolerances (Burgman, 2005). Research has also shown that peoples' perceptions of climate change are also heavily influenced by such factors as social background, cultural orientation, and behavioural disposition, which complicates the planning of risk communication materials (Slovic, 1987; Nicholson-Cole, 2005). The paucity of research on effective risk communication led Sterman (2011) to declare this a major bottleneck limiting the effective application of science to climate policy. At worst, poor risk communication efforts leave a "knowledge vacuum" that will be filled by "error, disinformation and falsehood" (Sterman 2011: 402). Left to their own devices, risk communication recipients will create their own "mental models" to interpret the information they are exposed to (Moser and Dilling, 2004).

Even if clearly articulated adaptation plans are in place, gaining public support (i.e., instilling the intention to adapt, Grothmann and Patt, 2005) is very unlikely to occur without successfully communicating the risk of inaction. Sterman (2011) further argues that risk communication strategies will only be successful when they are informed by a thorough understanding of the publics' beliefs. Further to this notion, Pelletier and Sharp (2008) suggest that the form and nature of the communication has also to accommodate the "psychological state" of the intended recipient. The general public is unlikely to accept adaptation strategies (i.e., be in a "decision phase") without first passing through a "detection phase".

In practice, risk communicators often rely too heavily on technical experts' opinions about what should be communicated rather than directly assessing the perception states of their intended audiences. Also, most communication products are produced for and by domain experts, leaving their effectiveness in the public communication arena unevaluated (Lieske 2012). People respond differently to the presentation of different information, coloured by education, gender, etc. Willingness to act is also eroded by overreliance on public infrastructure, e.g., dykes. This can lead to a dangerous, false sense of security in their integrity and reliability (see Tobin, 1998).

The chief question posed by this study is whether it is possible to communicate coastal flood risk in a way that appeals to the widest range of people's personalities but is, at the same time, constructive, and less likely to push people into maladaptive positions (e.g., fatalism, anti-social behaviour). Visualizations, ranging from conventional 2D maps to 3D animations, may have an important role to play in raising people's awareness and encouraging them to form what an adaptation intention. As a theoretical tool to support spatial

reasoning, and as a means to stimulate spatial imagination, visualization has a long and established history in geographic research (Tukey 1977; MacEachern et al., 1992; Andrienko et al., 2003; Keim et al., 2005). It is expected that visualization has an important role to play in climate change communication through its capacity to make sporadic (e.g., flooding) or gradual (e.g., erosion) risks 'visible'. With a focus on the Tantramar area of South East New Brunswick, this article builds on the research described in Lieske (2012) to advance the following goals:

- 1. Assess public awareness about local climate-change impacts, in particular, elevated risk of coastal flooding in the Tantramar;
- 2. Measure how different multi-media visualizations influence public risk perception and assess their potential for enhancing risk communication;
- 3. Provide general recommendations for the development of flood risk communication strategies in coastal zones.

2. Methods

2.1 Tantramar Study Area

The Tantramar Region is situated in South-East New Brunswick, Canada, and is governed by four municipal governments (of which the Town of Sackville is one), one First Nation, and nine local service districts. Situated at the head of the Bay of Fundy (Fig. 1), the region is subjected to strong tidal forces, and relies on a dyke system to protect the Town of Sackville, an interprovincial railway and highway, and surrounding agricultural lands. Current 1-in-10 year extreme storm levels are estimated at 8.9m \pm 0.1m (CGVD28 datum), which has the capacity to overtop 89% of the existing dyke system (average height: 8.6m) and flood approximately 20.6% of the town (Lieske and Bornemann, 2011). As summarized by Roness and Lieske (2012), the population is well educated (14% have university certificates, diplomas or degrees, 12% have apprenticeship or trades certificates or diplomas, and 18% have college, CEGEP or other non-university certificates or diplomas), with a median age of 42 (compared to the Canadian median age of 40.6, based on 2011 census), and generally high rates of labour force participation (64.6%), and high levels of home ownership (82%).

2.2 Sampling Design

Initially, potential focus group participants were randomly and individually solicited via newspaper advertising, media presentation, and word-of-mouth. This survey approach was largely unsuccessful, attracting less than a dozen people. To improve recruitment, schools, professional bodies and non-governmental, community-based organizations were contacted and presentations delivered during their normal meeting times from October, 2011 to March, 2012.

Sessions commenced with participants completing a pre-focus group questionnaire (Section 2.3). Focus group attendees were free to decline to participate, and no personal identifiers (e.g., name, home address) were recorded to ensure anonymity. Focus group content consisted of one of three randomly assigned communication treatments (Section 2.4), which took from 45 minutes to an hour to complete. All treatments were initiated using the baseline communication material, which involved the presentation of a series of Powerpoint (Microsoft, 2002) slides accompanied by a verbal commentary by the authors. Treatments two

and three were augmented by the presentation of special geovisualizations (Section 2.4). The sessions ended with participants completing a post-focus group questionnaire, which replicated the same questions as appeared in the pre-focus group version, supplemented by a number of open ended, qualitative questions.

2.3 Assessment of Risk Perception

As with Lorenzoni et al. (2007), this study employed a mixed-methods approach combining both quantitative and qualitative approaches within pre- and post- focus group surveys. As pointed by Lorenzoni et al. (2007: 498) this "allows a certain degree of triangulation of the findings and underlines their complementariness".

Perceptions were assessed in the pre-focus group survey using four key questions:

- 1) "Do you feel that global climate change is a problem?"
- 2) "Do you think there is a link between a possible failure of the Tantramar dykes and climate change"?
- 3) "How likely to you think the risk is of a dyke failure in the Tantramar?"
- 4) "How vulnerable are you to the risk of a Tantramar dyke failure?"

A number of socio-demographic variables have been previously identified to influence risk perception, including: age, gender, annual family income, highest level of educational attainment, and home ownership status (NRC, 2006; Burningham et al., 2008). All of these variables were gathered as part of the pre-focus group assessment.

The same four key questions were also administered in the post-focus group survey, with a participantprovided code word used to link the responses to particular individuals while preserving anonymity.

2.4 Communication Strategies (Treatment Types)

2.4.1 Base communication strategy

All three treatments shared the same base communication strategy, which involved a verbal presentation and a series of static images. The following hierarchy of topics were considered: (1) the general phenomenon of global climate change, with a focus on empirical evidence such as a time-series plot of sea levels recorded by the Saint John tide gauge – it was anticipated that this would help to counteract possible cognitive biases, e.g., denial of climate change as theoretical or unknowable; (2) presentation of locally-relevant sea level estimates under current 1-in-10 year expected return frequencies, based on a report by Daigle (2011); (3) an overview of the role played by engineered dykes in the Tantramar area, their vulnerability to erosion, and their susceptibility to being overtopped by new sea levels under intensified storm surge events, anticipating a possible overreliance on these structures on the part of the public (see Tobin, 1995); and (4) an overview of the potential flood zone under 8.9m and 9.7m "bath tub" model.

Attention focused on communicating the risk of dyke compromise, centering on illustration of the probability of occurrence and the maximum extent of floods under 8.9m and 9.7m flood scenarios. Economic and social impacts of flooding were not discussed, nor were short-term emergency responses and long-term community-wide adaptation strategies mentioned.

Data was obtained from a number of sources (Table 1) and led to a number of derived products, for example, sea level-specific flood extents and vulnerable infrastructure. The base communication strategy presented static flood maps as part of the Powerpoint presentation, and also made a paper map available for closer examination by interested participants.

2.4.2. Geovisually-augmented communication strategies

Communication strategies two and three, in addition to disseminating the base communication package (Section 2.4.1), also presented special geovisualizations. Treatment two was augmented by an animated version of the Saint John tide gauge (Fig. 2), as well a 3D animation of the flooded downtown core of the Town of Sackville (Fig. 3). Previous studies in climate change communication have identified animations as potentially simpler to understand than traditional maps (e.g., Jude 2008), though they are also more resource intensive to develop (Lai et al., 2010). The 3D visualization was created using ArcScene (ESRI, 2012), and involved the simultaneous display of both the flood zone and 3D buildings, based on both LiDAR and high-resolution orthometric imagery (Table 1). A movie clip (.wmv) was created using ArcScene, focusing on the downtown commercial core of the Town of Sackville.

Treatment three offered these same animations as well as a dynamic, web-based interactive GIS map (Fig. 4). A key advantage of a web-based GIS is the ability to flexibly view the scale and perspective, e.g., allowing consideration of both the entire planning district as well as individual neighbourhoods. It allows interactivity, facilitates spatial reasoning, and also provides a platform preparatory to wider dissemination of geographic information about climate change threats (Kingston et al.,2000).

2.5. Statistical Analysis

Generalized linear models (McCullagh and Nelder, 1989) as implemented in the R Statistical Package (R Development Core Team, 2012) were used to model both the initial risk perceptions and the change in risk perception (post-pre focus group response). For initial risk perception, raw Likert scores were modeled as a function of the socio-economic variables. Change in risk perception (response $_{post}$ – response $_{pre}$) was similarly modeled, with the additional interpretation of the intercept as the baseline measure of the impact of exposure to focus group communication materials.

All variables were entered into an initial model, and a stepwise model selection procedure applied using the stepAIC function in the MASS library (Venables and Ripley, 2002). The Akaike Information Criteria (AIC) served as the decision rule for determining which variables should be retained in the final model. Given that school, professional, and non-governmental community groups were recruited en masse in a "stratified" manner, an alternative hierarchical model (with "group" serving as the random effect term) was assessed for each as well.

3. **Results**

3.1 Characteristics of sample groups

A total of 14 focus groups were conducted, involving 172 participants. Of the submitted questionnaires, 157 were fully completed. Only the fully completed subset was then used for the analysis. In terms of age, 38.2% were less than 25 years of age, 49.0% between 26 and 65, and 12.7% over 65. In terms of gender, 44.6% and 55.4% were females and males, respectively.

With regards to economic status, participants represented a cross section of family income and levels of home ownership: 17.8% reported an annual family income of less than \$30K (CDN); 49.7% between \$30K and \$80K; and 32.5% greater than \$80K. In terms of home ownership, 53.5% reported that they owned their own home, 26.2% indicated that they rented, and 20.4% defined themselves as dependents.

From the perspective of highest levels of educational attainment, 51.6% were university educated, while 18.5% were college or trade certified. The remaining participants (29.9%) had high school education or less.

3.2 Initial risk perception and influencing factors

Risk perceptions are summarized in Figure 5, with initial, pre-treatment assessments represented by white bars. In response to the question: "do you feel that global climate change is a problem?", 81% felt that the problem of global climate change was either severe (35.0%) or considerable (45.9%). When asked if they felt there was a link between climate change and the possibility of failure of the Tantramar dykes, respondents were more tentative: 70.1% considered the link to be either severe (15.3%) or considerable (54.8%). In response to the question: "how likely do you think the risk is of a dyke failure in the Tantramar?" 53.5% considered the risk to be either severe (18.5%) or considerable (35%). When asked "how vulnerable are you to the risk of a Tantramar dyke failure?", only 35.6% considered themselves to be either considerably or severely at personal risk in the event of dyke failure while 28.6% felt they were personally vulnerable to a "very small degree" or "not at all".

Figure 6 illustrates the relationships between important influential factors and initial risk perception, as determined by the model construction phase.

3.3. Quantitative change in risk perception, post-treatment

As indicated by the black bars in Figure 5, as well as the non-zero intercepts in Table 2, exposure to flood risk communication consistently elevated perception of the severity of risk (on a Likert scale). This effect manifested regardless of the question. In the case of global climate change, the participants' assessment of the severity of the problem increased by an average of 0.11 ± 0.057 SE (t = 2.77, df = 156, P = 0.0063). Responses to the question about the strength of the link between climate change and the risk of dyke failure increased by 0.36 ± 0.071 SE (t = 5.67, df = 156, P < 0.001, while assessment of the risk of dyke failure increased by 0.64 ± 0.073 SE (t = 9.58, df = 156, P < 0.001). Finally, assessment of personal vulnerability increased by 0.21 ± 0.089 SE (t = 2.13, df = 156, P = 0.035).

To better understand the role that the type of communication (treatment), as well as social, economic and demographic factors played in influencing the change in risk perception, linear models were constructed for each of the four questions. Age, gender, income, education and home ownership were assessed along with treatment type. The initial assessment of risk, for each question, was also included to incorporate the predisposition of each participant prior to exposure to the information in the focus group. Stepwise model selection (with change in AIC as a decision rule) resulted in a final model for each of the four questions.

For perception of the severity of global climate change, the most parsimonious model only incorporated initial risk assessment (Likelihood Ratio $\chi^2 = 13.59$, df = 1, P < 0.001). Treatment type, social, economic and demographic factors did not influence the change in opinion for this question (Table 2). A similar result was found for perception of the link between climate change and the risk of dyke failure: the only significant factor influencing the rate of change was the initial perception (LR $\chi^2 = 66.7$, df = 1, P < 0.001, Table 2). For both of these questions, participants entering the study with a pre-formed opinion that risks were considerable or severe experienced little change in this position relative to those who initially considered the problem moderately important. Hierarchical versions of these models fit more poorly and were not adopted for either the first (AIC: 242 vs. 231.1) or second (AIC: 334.9 vs. 325.04) questions.

Change in the perception of the likelihood of dyke failure not only responded to the initial risk assessment (LR $\chi^2 = 94.61$, df = 1, P < 0.001), but also age (LR $\chi^2 = 7.56$, df = 2, P = 0.023), education (LR $\chi^2 = 5.63$, df = 2, P = 0.060), and home ownership (LR $\chi^2 = 8.15$, df = 2, P = 0.017). Relative to the 26-65 age class, older individuals (66+) exhibited a greater increase (0.16 ± 0.17 SE; Table 2) while younger individuals (<25) exhibited a lesser increase (-0.42 ± 0.17 SE; Table 2). Greater educational levels led to greater increases in risk perception (Table 2); relative to college or trade certified individuals, high school educated or less exhibited a lesser increase (-0.14 ± 0.18 SE), while university educated exhibited a greater

increase (0.19 \pm 0.14 SE). In terms of home ownership, relative to "dependency" status, renters exhibited enhanced risk perception (0.32 \pm 0.19 SE) while home owners showed a lesser change (-0.09 \pm 0.22 SE). . The hierarchical version of this model fit more poorly and was not adopted (AIC: 338.4 vs. 316.03).

With regards to the change in the perception of personal vulnerability, initial risk assessment (LR χ^2 = 23.46, df = 1, P < 0.001), age (LR χ^2 = 9.64, df = 2, P = 0.008), and gender (LR χ^2 = 5.59, df = 1, P = 0.018) were significant influences (Table 2). Older (66+) and younger (< 25) individuals realized a lower change in the perception of personal vulnerability than middle-aged (26-65) people (-0.66 ± 0.28 SE and -0.51 ± 0.19 SE, respectively). Male participants also exhibited less change in opinion than female (-0.43 ± 0.18 SE). The hierarchical version of this model fit more poorly and was not adopted (AIC: 499.8 vs. 487.56).

3.4. Qualitative responses

Overall, 82 of the 108 responses (76%) appraising the effectiveness of communication materials identified maps and animations as a key component (Table 3a, question 4). When prompted to recommend improvements, the majority of comments pertained to the need for more information about what was being done to address the problem (8 of 30, or 27%) or more details about what an unfolding flood would be like (9 of 30, or 30%). Some requested a simplification of, for example, the information summarized in tables (4 of 30, or 13%), while others expressed difficulty reading text and maps (7 of 30, or 23%).

A large number of the responses regarding long-term adaptation involved moving to an alternate location (55 of 122, or 49%). Curiously, 71% (39 of 55) of the responses which singled out the moving strategy originated from participants exposed to the geovisually-augmented treatments (two and three).

Of 18 responses that indicated a desire to raise awareness, organize, or apply political pressure to advance a community adaptation strategy, 15 (83%) originated with participants exposed to geovisuallyaugmented treatments (two and three).

On four occasions respondents identified "shock" as their response to the event of a flood that affected them personally (question 3, Table 3a). All four were respondents exposed to treatment two (which prominently featured the 3D flood animation, Figure 3).

4. Discussion

In summing up risk communication, Pelletier and Sharp (2008) argue that information needs to be tailored to "where people are at" in terms of readiness and intention to adapt. Grothmann and Patt (2005) point out that personal adaptation decisions are predicated on an awareness of the severity of the problem. In Grothmann and Patt's (2005) socio-cognitive model of private proactive adaptation to climate change, risk adaptation proceeds in two stages. First, exposure to communication materials prompts a process of personal "risk appraisal", moderated by cognitive biases, previous exposure to risk, and the degree of reliance on public adaptation strategies (see Tobin, 1995). The outcome is an assessment of risk probability and severity, which is immediately accompanied by a second stage: adaptation appraisal and response. At this point, communication recipients evaluate three things: (1) their perception of the overall possibility for effective adaptation (perceived adaptation efficacy), (2) their perception that it is possible for them to personally take action (perceived self efficacy), and (2) the perceived costs of adaptation (Lieske, 2012).

Participants in this study generally considered global climate change a serious threat, but this was moderated by education level and gender. The group most predisposed to assess climate change as a serious threat were university-educated females. However, despite the relatively high overall assessment of the climate change threat, fewer participants considered themselves to be personally at risk. This result was similar that of Lorenzoni and Pidgeon (2006), and illustrate Bord et al.'s (1998) observation that the general public tends to separate societal from personal implications. This emphasizes the need for more personalized, individually-relevant risk messaging: people need to see things of relevance to them in communication packages, e.g., potential impacts on locations and activities familiar and meaningful to them.

Furthermore, Lieske (2012) argues that there is a subtle difference between (1) informing people about a problem and (2) inspiring them to do something about it. Clearly, the quantitative analysis indicated that participants' perception of the seriousness of Tantramar flood risk increased regardless of treatment type. A well organized, clearly delivered presentation could raise peoples' awareness without the use of 3D animations or dynamic web maps. However, closer inspection of the qualitative responses suggests that there was an emotive component to the more elaborate geovisualizations: maps and animations were widely identified as especially effective communication materials, elicited "shock", were associated with the majority of respondents who declared an intention to move out of the risk zone, and inspired them to consider organizing to apply political pressure.

What is the potential role of visualizations in risk communication? Cleary, they can reduce some of the challenges of communication by visually demonstrating potential consequences. They can inspire interest,

command attention, and possibly attract a wider and more diverse audience (Berry and Higgs, 2012). They have the potential to enable rare events to be imagined and perceived. They can quickly show the extent of climate change risks without the need for extensive verbal commentary. But research suggests that more complicated visualizations should be accompanied by background explanatory information (Appleton and Lovett, 2005; Jude, 2008). In this study the base communication materials, which were presented as part of every focus group, served this purpose. Without this support, people may fail to understand the assumptions inherent in the representation or may draw incorrect conclusions. For this reason it could be argued that while visualizations support the message, they are inadequate for standalone communication. Advanced visualizations also impose a demand for data and expertise that may render them impractical in some contexts.

This study identified an emotive component accompanying the viewing of advanced visualizations. The 3D visualization (Figure 1), with its recognizable features (e.g., Salvation Army store) and more "human" scale, led to results that mirrored those of Nicholson-Cole (2005). In that study, local imagery "had more resonance" and was "easier to relate to and consequently more upsetting in some cases". While no data is available to assess long-term retention of the focus group materials, informal discussions with a number of participants suggested that their perception of the townscape changed from merely being a network of streets and buildings to areas with contour, i.e., high and low points of differing flood vulnerability. A related question, not pursued in this study, was the accuracy of participants' understanding of the geographic pattern of flood risk. It is possible that the "cognitive load" associated with, for instance, imagining a conventional 2D map in the 3D real world, may lead to misunderstandings (Appleton and Lovett, 2005). However, research into change detection blindness suggests that people are inevitably prone to miss many details in animations (Simons, 2000; Fish et al., 2011). Special 3D perspectives and photorealistic visualizations are only effective for displaying smaller areas (Tress and Tress, 2003). There are also unresolved issues surrounding the impact of the choice of viewpoint (Appleton and Lovett, 2005), effective level of detail (Appleton and Lovett, 2005), and the presentation of uncertainty (Roth, 2009). Clearly, more work needs to be done to improve our understanding of how people perceive, process and interpret spatial visualizations.

What has to be in place for risk communication (with or without visualization support) to be effective in inspiring pro-active change? First, there has to be trust in higher levels of government (Lorenzoni and Pidgeon, 2006) as well as the experts involved in the production of communication materials (Dransch et al., 2010). Lorenzoni and Pidgeon (2006) argue that even a well designed communication strategy, geared towards particular audiences, is unlikely to succeed in an atmosphere of distrust. Building trust should be part of all risk communication approaches, and provision made for cultivating citizen involvement. Participatory public GIS (PPGIS), intended to draw the public into discussions about spatial planning issues, could help facilitate

citizen involvement (Berry and Higgs, 2012; Geertman, 2002). Ultimately, adaptation strategies (and risk communication efforts in general) are more likely to succeed when they naturally emerge from the coupling of top-down, "expert-driven" and bottom-up "grass roots" approaches (Fischhoff 1995). Callon's (1999) "co-production" of knowledge model articulates a philosophy which involves the public in the process of knowledge creation.

Second, pro-active, risk-reducing behaviours are more likely to occur when there are adaptation strategies to choose from, they have been clearly and rationally presented, and they stand to be reasonably effective (Pelletier and Sharp, 2008). Information needs to be communicated through channels perceived to be credible, and be sustained on a regular basis (Moser and Dilling, 2004; Lorenzoni et al., 2007).

Third, enhancing the public's sense of "response-ability" (Moser and Dilling, 2004) by openly highlighting the effectiveness of recommended actions in relation to perceived costs, as well as publicly acknowledging successful case examples, is critical.

Lastly, mere possession of knowledge is not enough to motivate people to take action (McKenzie-Mohr, 2000; Lorenzoni et al., 2007). In some cases, people may be unresponsive to calls for voluntary action and may require external pressure to adapt to lower personal risk. Land use planning will be central to communities such as the Tantramar, as zoning bylaws are the one mechanism capable of prohibiting development in high-risk flood zones. When borne out of well rationalized land use policies, zoning bylaws send a signal that municipalities or planning districts take the climate change risks seriously and that the public should too. These policies also help pave the way towards providing incentives for relocation out of already inhabited areas. For example, freshwater flooding drove the American community of Dubuque, Iowa to devise a master plan to acquire 74 properties and open up a submerged creek (Carey, 2011). While the Dubuque planners initially encountered community resistance, a serious flood helped unite the city leaders and convince the public of the wisdom of the \$21 million dollar (USD), 11-year plan. Community-based social marketing, where particular adaptation strategies are promoted as part of an adaptive campaign that addresses perceived barriers to change, may also constitute an important approach for encouraging pro-active adaptation (McKenzie-Mohr, 2000). While identification of barriers to adaptation will lengthen the time required to implement an adaptation-focused communication strategy (McKenzie-Mohr, 2000), it provides an evaluative framework (e.g., through focus groups and pilot studies) that can also be used to test the effectiveness of related communication and visualization materials.

5. Conclusions

High levels of awareness of the threat posed by global climate change do not necessarily translate into an awareness of personal flood risks at the local level. In coastal zones reliant on engineering solutions to abate flood waters, communities are commonly unaware of the risk of dyke failure. Well designed communication strategies, which address cognitive biases and present the evidence with supporting context, are capable of addressing this knowledge gap. Furthermore, the results of this study show that the type of communication strategy, whether or not it made use of special 3D and web-based geovisualizations, did not significantly differ in the way it influenced quantitative measures of risk perception. Qualitative analysis showed that advanced visualizations were accompanied by an emotive component that was absent from the baseline communication strategy. This component manifested in, for example, greater expressions of sentiment to mobilize for political and community advocacy. While no data is available to assess long-term retention of the focus group materials, informal discussions with a number of participants suggested that there may have been a persistent change in perception following exposure to geovisualizations. Translation of risk awareness to a willingness to make proactive adaptation decisions is poorly understood, but can be expected to require a supporting framework to occur. Necessary co-requisites include trust in higher levels of government and the experts involved in the production of communication materials; an accessible set of alternative adaptation strategies to choose from; appeal to personal responsibility and agency; and effective land use planning. Participatory public GIS (PPGIS) and community-based social marketing may involve the public in the process of knowledge creation and help identify impediments to adaptation.

Acknowledgments

The author thanks the following for funding and logistical support: the Atlantic Climate Change Adaptation Association (ACASA), the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council (SSHRC), and Mount Allison University. The author acknowledges the important contributions made by T. Wade and L.A. Roness. Also acknowledged is the spatial data management and visualization development support of J. Bornemann and L. Salisbury. Finally, the author thanks R. Corbett for providing valuable advice and recommendations early in the projects genesis.

Dataset	Source	Date	Description	Derived Product(s)
LiDAR	Leading Edge Geomatics, Govt. of New Brunswick (GNB), ACASA	November 9, 2009 and December 18, 2010	High resolution elevation data (15 cm vertical precision, 30 cm spacing)	Sea level flood extents, building heights, dyke centreline elevation
Property Mapping	Service New Brunswick (SNB), Tantramar Planning District Commission (TPDC)	April 2011	Location of property parcels, zoning and land use	Identification of property at risk
High resolution orthometric imagery	Leading Edge Geomatics, GNB, ACASA	November 13, 2009	10 cm ortho- imagery	Building footprints
Topographic	SNB	1996	Transportation, hydrographic and elevation (1.5m vertical precision, 30m spacing)	Identification of assets at risk, elevation used to construct DEM
Environmental and cultural areas	Parks Canada	2011	National historic sites and conservation areas	Identification of assets at risk

Table 1. Summary of datasets used in the study.

Table 2. Unstandardized OLS regression coefficients (\pm SE) of treatment baseline (intercept), socio-economic, and demographic variables on the change in risk perception (final score – initial score) for each of four main questions: (a) "do you feel that global climate change is a problem?", (b) "do you think there is a link between a possible failure of the Tantramar dykes and climate change?", (c) "how likely do you think the risk is of a dyke failure in the Tantramar?", and (d) "how vulnerable are you to the risk of a Tantramar dyke failure?"

Question	Intercept (Treatment)	Initial Percep.	Age (< 25 yrs) ^a	Age (\geq 66 yrs) ^a	Gender (Male) ^b	Education $(\leq H.S.)^{c}$	Education (Univ.) ^c	Own Home ^d	Rent Home ^d
(a)	0.81 (0.19)	-0.17 (0.046)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
(b)	2.14 (0.22)	-0.48 (0.06)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
(c)	2.77 (0.32)	-0.58 (0.06)	-0.42 (0.17)	0.16 (0.17)	n.a.	-0.14 (0.18)	0.19 (0.14)	-0.09 (0.22)	0.32 (0.19)
(d)	1.85 (0.29)	-0.36 (0.075)	-0.51 (0.19)	-0.67 (0.28)	-0.43 (0.18)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

^a Relative to the age category: 26-65 years of age.

^b Relative to the gender category: Female.

^c Relative to the education category: Trade or College Certified.

^dRelative to the home ownership category: Dependent.

Table 3a.

1. Take Home Messages (385)

(106)	High risk of flooding due to climate
	change

- (73) Dykes are at risk
- (60) Planning is required for mitigation / adaptation
- (27) Maps helpful in realizing flooding footprint
- (22) Not concerned
- (20) Education/awareness raising is required
- (19) Concerned about infrastructure and buildings (transportation infrastructure, sewage lagoon, etc)
 (12)
- (13) Will make a personal plan
- (9) Frustration
- (8) Want to move
- (8) Surprised
- (7) Humour
- (7) We should invest in boats
- (6) Government should take action

3. What would you do in the event of a flood that affected you personally (e.g., flooding a pasture, damaging a basement)? Please imagine what your immediate, as well as long term response might

- be.
- (15) Unsure/Nothing
- (120) Short Term
- (29) Find shelter
- (23) Drain, divert, pump water
- (17) Ensure protection of family, friends, and possessions
- (13) Clean up
- (12) Help others
- (11) Insurance
- (9) Salvage, sell, restore
- (6) Wait for help

(112) Long Term

- (55) Move if risk persists
- (20) Reduce vulnerability
- (18) Participate in political action (awareness raising, advocating for more dyke funding,
- etc)
- (8) Boats
- (7) Landscaping
- (4) Sump pump

2. Have you taken any measures to lower your risl of flood damage? E.g., structural modification to house, special placement of buildings?

- (56) Yes
- (38) High location
- (18) Landscaping/Property modifications
- (50) No
- (28) None
- (12) I rent
- (7) I will
- (3) I don't live in Sackville

4. Please explain how the materials worked or did not work.

- (29) statements affirming that materials worked well.
- (138) statements suggesting why the materials worked and/or where improvements could be made.

Why they worked (108)

- (82) Maps and Animations
- (17) Clear explanation
- (9) Graphs and Data

Improvements (30)

- (8) What is being done now?
- (8) What can be expected in the event of a flood?
- (4) Simplify
- (4) Text and maps hard to read
- (3) Unclear
- (1) Spelling
- (1) More historical photographs
- (1) More detail

Table 3b.

5. What resources (personal, government, or other) would you expect to be able to access in the event of a Tantramar-area flood?

- (6) All
- (10) None
- (4) Unsure
- (2) Not applicable

Personal (30)

- (18) Help from family, friends, neighbours
- (5) Food and water
- (5) Financial
- (2) Shelter

Government (261)

- (77) General Aid
- (48) Food and Water
- (42) Emergency Services
- (29) Medical
- (22) Police, RCMP, Military
- (22) Transportation
- (18) Shelter
- (11) Financial compensation
- (4) Information

Other (27)

- (9) Insurance
- (9) Community service groups
- (5) Grocery stores
- (4) Access to buildings (University, schools, banks)

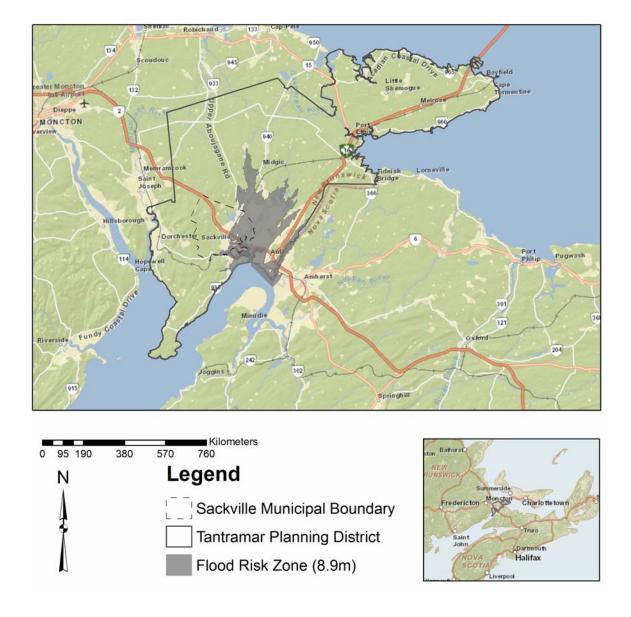


Figure 1. Map of the Tantramar Planning District within the Province of New Brunswick, Canada. Also indicated is the Sackville Municipal boundary, and the flood risk zone at an 8.9 (CGVD28 datum) extreme sea level. The basemap is OpenStreetMap (http://wiki.openstreetmap.org).

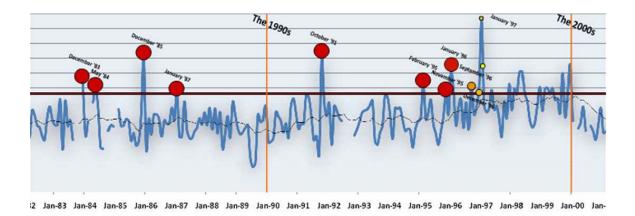


Figure 2. Adobe Flash-enabled viewer for displaying an animated time series of tide gauge records for the City of Saint John, New Brunswick. Animated icons indicated when an anomalous tide level was recorded (reprinted with permission from Geomatica 66: 255-265, published by the Canadian Institute of Geomatics).



Figure 3. Three-dimensional visualization of the probable worst-case flood depth for a 1-in-10 year, 8.9 m flood event (CGVD28 datum) affecting the downtown core of Sackville, New Brunswick (reprinted with permission from Geomatica 66: 255-265, published by the Canadian Institute of Geomatics).

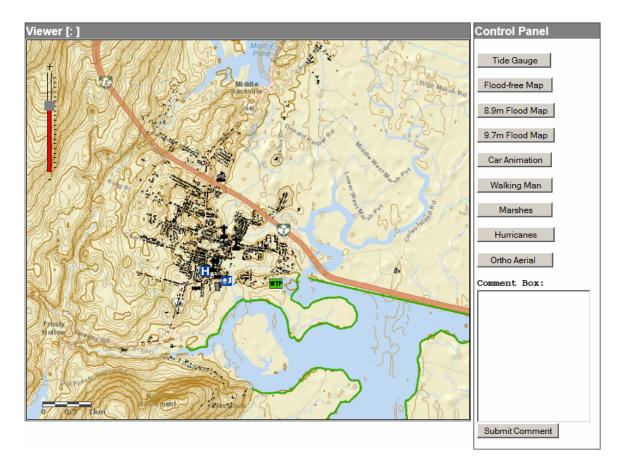


Figure 4. Map viewer interface for dynamic display of flood risk zones and related infrastructure. The web-based viewer was implemented using the Javascript API and ArcGIS Server (Environmental Systems Research Institute, 2012).

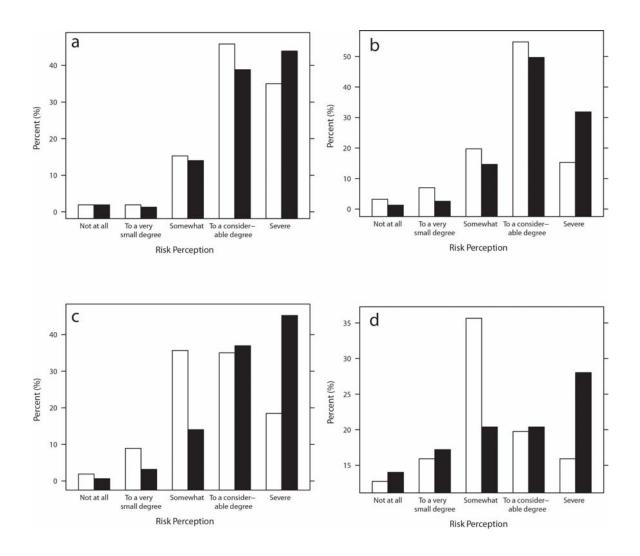


Figure 5. Perception of risk, before (white bar) and after (black bar) participating in a risk communication focus group. Responses to the following questions were assessed: (a) "do you feel that global climate change is a problem?", (b) "do you think there is a link between a possible failure of the Tantramar dykes and climate change?", (c) "how likely do you think the risk is of a dyke failure in the Tantramar?", and (d) "how vulnerable are you to the risk of a Tantramar dyke failure?".

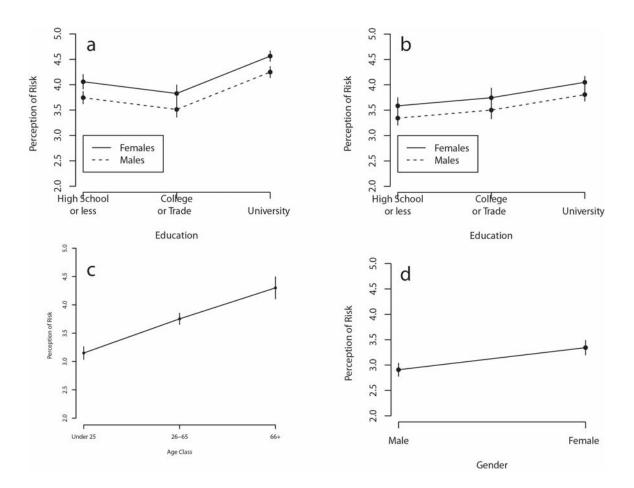


Figure 6. Factors significantly influencing the initial perceptions of risk, as assessed by responses to the following questions: (a) "do you feel that global climate change is a problem?", (b) "do you think there is a link between a possible failure of the Tantramar dykes and climate change?", (c) "how likely do you think the risk is of a dyke failure in the Tantramar?", and (d) "how vulnerable are you to the risk of a Tantramar dyke failure?".

References

- Andrienko, N., Andrienko, G., Gatalsky, P., 2003. Exploratory spatio-temporal visualization: an analytical review. J Visual Lang Comput 14, 503-541.
- Appleton, K., Lovett, A., 2005. GIS-based visualization of development proposals: reactions from planning and related professionals. Comput Environ Urban 29, 321-339.
- Berry, R., Higgs, G., 2012. Gauging levels of public acceptance of the use of visualization tools in promoting public participation; a case study of wind farm planning in South Wales, UK. J Environ Plann Man 55, 229-251.
- Bord, R.J., Fisher, A., O'Connor, R.E., 1998. Public perceptions of global warming: United States and international perspectives. Clim Res 11, 75-84.
- Burgman, M., 2005. Risks and Decisions for Conservation and Environmental Management. Cambridge University Press, New York.
- Burningham, J., Fielding, J., Thrush, D., 2008. 'It'll never happen to me': understanding public awareness of local flood risk. Disasters 32, 216-238.
- Callon, M., 1999. The role of lay people in the production and dissemination of scientific knowledge. Sci Techn Soc, 81-94.
- Carey, J.A., 2011. After the deluge. Sci Am 305, 72-75.
- Daigle, R.J., 2011. Se-level rise estimates for New Brunswick municipalities. R. J. Daigle Enviro, Atlantic Climate Adaptation Solutions Association.
- Dransch, D., Rotzoll, H., Poser, K., 2010. The contribution of maps to the challenges of risk communication to the public. Int J Digit Earth 3, 292-311.
- Dronkers, J., Gilbert, J.T.E., Butler, L.W., Carey, J.J., Campbell, J., James, E., McKenzie, C., Misdorp, R., Quin, N., Ries, K.L., Schroder, P.C., Spradley, J.R., Titus, J.G., Vallianos, L., Dadelszen, J. von., 1990. Strategies for adaptation to sea level rise. Report of the IPCC Coastal Zone Management Subgroup: Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, Geneva.
- Environmental Systems Research Institute, 2012. ArcGIS Server. <u>http://www.esri.com/software/arcgis/arcgisserver</u>, accessed: September, 2012.
- Fish, C., Goldsberry, K.P., Battersby, S., 2011. Change blindness in animated choropleth maps: an empirical study. Cartogr Geogr Inform Sci 38, 350-362.
- Fischhoff, B., 1995. Risk perception and communication unplugged: twenty years of process. Risk Anal 15, 137-145.

Geertman, S., 2002. Participatory planning and GIS: a PSS to bridge the gap. Environ Plann B, 29, 21-35.

- Grothmann, T., Patt, A., 2005. Adaptive capacity and human cognition: the process of individual adaptation to climate change. Global Environ Chang 15, 199-213.
- Huddy, L., Gunnthorsdottir, A.H., 2000. The persuasive effects of emotive visual imagery: superficial manipulation or the produce of passionate reason? Polit Psychol 21, 101-114.
- Kingston, R., Carver, S., Evans, A., Turner, I., 2000. Web-based public participation geographical information systems: an aid to local environmental decision-making. Comput Environ Urban 24, 109-125.
- Jude, S., 2008. Investigating the potential role of visualization techniques in participatory coastal management. Coastal Manage 36, 331-349.
- Keim, D.A., Panse, C., Sips, M., 2005. Information visualization: scope, techniques and opportunities for geovisualization. In M.-J. Kraak (Ed.) Exploring Geovisualization, Elsevier, Amsterdam, pp.23-52.
- Lai, P.C., Kwong, K.-H., Mak, A.S.H., 2010. Assessing the applicability and effectiveness of 3D visualization in environmental impact assessment. Environ Plann B 37, 221-233.
- Lieske, D.J., 2012. Towards a framework for designing spatial and non-spatial visualizations for communicating climate change risks. Geomatica 66, 255-265.
- Lieske, D.J., Bornemann, J., 2011. Coastal dykelands in the Tantramar area: impacts of climate change on dyke erosion and flood risk. Atlantic Climate Adaptation Solutions Association. <u>http://www.mta.ca/~dlieske/GML/docs/CoastalDykelandsinTantramar-ImpactsofClimateChange.pdf</u>, accessed October, 2012.
- Lorenzoni-I., Nicholson-Cole, S., Whitmarsh, L., 2007. Barriers perceived to engaging with climate change among the UK public and their policy implications. Global Environ Chang 17, 445-459.
- Lorenzoni, I., Pidgeon, N.F., 2006. Public views on climate change: European and USA perspectives. Climatic Change 77, 73-95.
- MacEachern, A.M., Buttenfield, B.P., Campbell, J.B., DiBiase, D.W., Monmonier, M., 1992. Visualization. In
 R. Abler, Marcus, M., Olson, J. (Eds.) Geography's Inner Worlds: Pervasive Themes in American
 Geography. Rutgers University Press, New Brunswick, New Jersey, pp. 99-137.

McCullagh, P., Nelder, J.A., 1989. Generalized linear models. CRC Press, New York.

- McKenzie-Mohr, D., 2000. Fostering sustainable behavior through community-based social marketing. Am Psychol 55, 531-537.
- Microsoft Corporation, 2002. Microsoft Powerpoint, 2002. http://www.microsoft.com.

- Moser, S.C., Dilling, L., 2004. Making climate hot: communicating the urgency and challenge of global climate change. Environment 46, 33-46.
- Newport, F., 2012. Americans' worries about global warming up slightly. <u>http://www.gallup.com/poll/153653/Americans-Worries-Global-Warming-Slightly.aspx</u>, accessed August, 2012.
- Nicholson-Cole, S. A., 2005. Representing climate change futures: a critique of the use of images for visual communication. Comput Environ Urban 29, 255-273.
- NRC, 2006. Facing hazards and disasters: understanding human dimensions. The National Academies of Sciences Press, Washington, D.C. 394 pages.
- Pelletier, L.G., Sharp, E., 2008. Persuasive communication and proenvironmental behaviours: how message tailoring and message framing can improve the integration of behaviours through self-determined motivation. Can Psychol 49, 210-217.
- R Development Core Team, 2012. R: A language and environment for statistical computing, R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. http://www.R-project.org.
- Read, D., Bostrom, A., Morgan, M.G., Fischoff, B., Smuts, T., 1994. What do people know about global climate change? 2. A survey of educated laypeople. Risk Anal 14, 971-982.
- Roness, L.A., Lieske, D.J., 2012. Tantramr dyke risk project: the use of visualizations to inspire action. Atlantic Climate Adaptation Solutions Association. <u>http://www.mta.ca/~dlieske/GML/docs/Tantramar</u> Dyke Risk Project - Risk Communication Report – FINAL.pdf, accessed October, 2012.
- Roth, R.E., 2009. A qualitative approach to understanding the role of geographic information uncertainty during decision making. Cartogr Geogr Inform Sci 36, 315-330.
- Seacrest, S., Kuzelka R., Leonard, R., 2000. Global climate change and risk perception: the challenge of translation. J Am Water Resour Assoc 36, 253-263.
- Simons, D.J., 2000. Current approaches to change blindness. Vis Cogn 7, 1-15.
- Slovic, P., 1987. Perception of risk. Science 236, 280-285.
- Sterman, J. D., 2011. Communicating climate change risks in a skeptical world. Climatic Change 108, 811-826.
- Stoll-Kleemann, S., O'Riordan, T., Jaegar, C.C., 2001. The psychology of denial concerning climate mitigation measures: evidence from Swiss focus groups. Global Environ Chang 11, 107-117.
- Tobin, G.A., 1995. The levee love affair: a stormy relationship? J Am Water Res Assoc 31, 359-367.
- Tress, B., Tress, G., 2003. Scenario visualization for participatory landscape planning—a study from Denmark. Landscape Urban Plan 64, 161-178.
- Tsversky, A., Kahneman, D., 1974. Judgment under uncertainty: heuristics and biases. Science 185, 1124-1131.

Tukey, J.W., 1977. Exploratory Data Analysis, Addison-Wesley, Ontario. 503 pages.
Venables, W.N., Ripley, B.D., 2002. Modern Applied Statistics with S. Fourth Edition. Springer.
Wu, S-Y., B. Yarnal and A. Fisher. 2002. Vulnerability of coastal communities to sea-level rise: a case study of Cape May County, New Jersey. USA. Clim Res 22, 255-270.

Appendix A: Summary of Comments Gathered During Focus Group Discussions

2011-9-28	Thought it would flood more
2011-9-28	Significant amount of flooding major service delivery impact
2011-9-28	Frustrating to say it's coming but don't feel able to do anything
2011-9-28	Severity if and when it hits - amount of property damage and people affected
2011-9-28	Need a plan to deal with it when it happens what do we do?
2011-9-28	We know it's going to happenit's just a matter of time
2011-9-28	Emerg perspective: people will be isolated
2011-9-28	Need to cut holes in dyke to get water out but built for agriculture
2011-9-28	Public perception: important - can't improve/enhance structures doesn't fall in mandate
2011-9-28	Surprising how isolated the town would be need to get a plan mobilized
2011-9-28	Need to stockpile
2011-9-28	Alarming
2011-9-28	Provincial impact - we can't fly everyone to halifax
2011-9-28	wasn't surprising and have talked about dykes and floods for a long time
2011-9-28	How do we convince decision makers this is a problem?
2011-9-28	We can plan all we want but we need the province to get on side
2011-9-28	This isn't just Tantramar - it's PEI, NS, too

2011-9-28	How much can people do here?
2011-9-28	We need to figure out how to adapt
2011-9-28	when we built a new building we did do flood mapping and raise the site during construction (+1.5m)
2011-9-28	All pipes put in at roads are overshot (last 10 years)
2011-9-28	Storm-water management study was ocnducted with replacement strategy set in
2011-9-28	King Street and Ogden Road have had pro-active replacements of structures
2011-9-28	time to move!
2011-9-28	Sell it while you still can
2011-9-28	When told they wouldn't get disaster relief, many people just built higher (didn't move)
2011-9-28	Basement apartments? Should these be abandoned in some cases?
2011-9-28	If I lived in flood areas I'd be lobbying my MLA and take a personal interest in tidal surges
2011-9-28	Frustration re. making recommendations that are not heeded
2011-9-28	Needs to be education of public as well as council
2011-9-28	Expect that we're going to have to be pretty self-reliant - others will have their own problems
2011-9-28	Problems with goods and materials stuck on HWY hazards?
2011-9-28	Worst two trucks: Coop and Cnd Tire could have ammunition, propane
2011-9-28	Need a list of flat-bottom boats

2011-9-28	Need to communicate that there's a response in the works and there is a plan in place to direct you
2011-9-28	Need to know the dykes are being topped up to 30'
2011-9-28	Dyke augmentation: a provincial issue, not within municipality's power
2011-9-28	But town got built behind dyke why?
2011-9-28	Who's responsible for dyke maintenance = debate
2011-9-28	Convert Lorne St. to a park and central area (but not living)?
2011-9-28	Can we get a million dollar budget for dykes rather than \$400,000?
2011-9-28	Downtown animation very impactful
2011-9-28	Not being able to get past the park = really hard hitting
2011-9-28	Before and after = really works well -> looking at where the islands are
2011-9-28	WTP -> should be STP (sewage treatment plant)
2011-9-28	With public: be sure to explain geography a bit more
2011-9-28	Key map = houses + flood water
2012-1-12	Public works needs to be moved
2012-1-12	Can we reinforce the lagoon perimeter?
2012-1-12	Animations the best
2012-1-12	Need both to have perspective

2012-1-12	Need a depth map
2012-1-12	Zodiac = limited where it can go; flat bottoms no problem
2012-1-12	Reassuring to know that reception centres unaffected
2012-1-27	Purpose of presentation? You have my attention but now what?
2012-1-27	Focus on downtown really drives home the community impact side of things
2012-1-27	Need for members of the town to be present at public sessions to answer questions and reassure people
2012-1-27	Action plan needs to be in place: 72-hr food kit, talk to your insurer need a reassurance that there is an action plan
2012-1-27	Boats? Canoes?
2012-1-27	Rating the towns readiness?: 1 zodiac with one driver
2012-1-27	University commitment to action plan? What if school is in?
2012-1-27	CN Rail someone on the province needs to speak to their community responsibility
2012-1-27	CN Rail needs to be informed that they may face pressure from the public to be more responsible
2012-1-27	Needs to be assurance that there are steps that can be taken people need to feel secure that something can be done or they are going to try to get out
2012-1-27	When is flooding a serious problem how long will the flooding last? That changes the perception of the severity
2012-1-27	Public appreciation for impact of flooding on services we take for granted? Do we fight or flight?
2012-1-27	Animation and mapping is the most accessible
2012-1-27	Could you build an unfolding flood scenario

2012-1-27	Most important thing: community action plan and make it available to people
2012-1-27	Contour lines: may be confusing
2012-1-27	Using shading of contours
2012-1-27	Maybe a lidar map next to it?
2012-1-27	Pointing out the marker points
2012-1-27	No indication of the waterfowl park important reference
2012-1-27	Taking a service perspective
2012-1-27	Need to mention up-front the limitations about knowing how long it will take the water to get to those high water marks
2012-1-27	Engineers still need to check on infrastructure after water has receded
2012-1-27	Where are the problem spots in the dyke whos responsible?
2012-1-27	People will want to know where to go in order to advocate for change (e.g., calling the MP)
2012-1-27	Need to balance the presentation with adaptation to help reassure
2012-1-27	If we can build a bridge to PEIsurely we can invest in preventing the HWY from getting knocked out
2012-2-13	Animations of where water would go = most effective + what's in path
2012-2-13	Intention? To use this as a public communication tool
2012-2-13	what's come from this study: inventory of flat bottom boats
2012-2-13	What is the speed/duration of flooding (rise and fall)

2012-2-13	Winter ice conditions + heavy rainfall + high tide = led to flooding of dorchester road near dorchester cape = 1m+ water, not driveable
2012-2-13	Queens Rd. bend also flooded = more than once
2012-2-13	Dorchester Cape = can only remember once in 27 years when I was on an island
2012-2-13	Aboideaux need to be built to accomodate higher dykes, too
2012-2-13	1/3 of Netherlands has to be actively involved to transport accumulated fresh water to ocean = used to be windmills, now electric
2012-2-13	Need to tap into global knowledge, e.g., Dutch govt
2012-2-13	Sewage lagoons = big problem
2012-2-13	Are water pipes at risk?
2012-2-13	Railbed = source of worry for me when shale is used as basement material for rail bed, and needs to be replaced every few years, how well will it withstand serious flooding?
2012-2-13	Pictures of old floods = available?
2012-2-20	didn't realize flooding was so continuous
2012-2-20	if TCH here is affected, what about other roads (e.g., Moncton)
2012-2-20	Need answeres for Amherst side as well
2012-2-20	As town planner: would you advise on purchases?
2012-2-20	Depends on the Town Council
2012-2-20	People need to know the solution
2012-2-20	People need to know possible solutions otherwise feel gloomy

2012-2-20	Most striking: before and after maps
2012-2-20	showing homes = really important
2012-2-20	Impact of flooding the sewage processing?
2012-2-20	Pumping station: vulnerable to flooding (unfortunately)
2012-2-20	Impact of flooding on electrical transmission
2012-2-20	flooding from outside, above, pipes, etc. = different policies cover these risks
2012-2-20	Blue button = big impact
2012-2-20	Topographic "picture " important to help us to understand what's happening
2012-2-20	Could do more visually to emphasize the land form
2012-2-20	Controlling factor of vulnerability = topography
2012-2-20	Animation = could you make a more detailed flood scenario?
2012-2-29	Important and vulnerable areas protected by Agricultural producers
2012-2-29	How solid are the dyke repairs
2012-2-29	working with EMO? yes
2012-2-29	Impact of flooding on water quality?
2012-2-29	Possibility of energy dams on the Fundy - need to be worked into planning for energy generation
2012-2-29	Pecks Cove and Jolicure = 1970 study

2012-2-29	Need to provide shelter in event of flood
2012-2-29	Responsibility for dyking is at the Provincial level
2012-2-29	A solution needs to be there, if not now, then in the future
2012-2-29	Town's been doubling up drainage pipes to accomodate extra loads
2012-2-29	Needs to be discussion with people in the entire region, e.g., Maine
2012-2-29	How are people reacting in other focus groups?
2012-2-29	Need to stress the 2085 side of the 9.7m prediction
2012-2-29	If you make a plan when you don't take into consideration land ownership, there will be implications
2012-2-29	Tantramar marshes are arable land (only 8% of Canada is) so it has an important role to play in food security
2012-2-29	Insurance bureau perspective?
2012-2-29	Municipalities don't necessarily know who lives where for assessing vulnerability
2012-2-29	Need an inventory of vulnerable populations
2012-2-29	Red Cross reporting might help with planning for vulnerable populations
2012-2-29	Coastal policy has to bring in the all of this new information
2012-2-29	the concept of 'municipality' is about to changewhich is scary. Who will make the decisions about buying the boat, for instance
2012-3-1	what about the dykes themselves? Can they be raised?
2012-3-1	Need to reinforce that the EMO knows about this

2012-3-1	Can we anticipate how people will react?
2012-3-1	need to compare various strategies and determine what makes sense financially
2012-3-1	visualization of Memorial Park = anything that can show that makes it more real> e.g., car completely under water
2012-3-1	Found the car driving very clear
2012-3-1	If you go down to street level, need finer modelling
2012-3-1	Google Street view as a possiblity for increasing usability?
2012-3-1	policy makers = dollar figures

2012-3-1 Do a scenario and fully cost out the cleanup, etc.