

The UK needs an open data portal dedicated to coastal flood and erosion hazard risk and resilience

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40 **Abstract** – In the UK, coastal flooding and erosion are two of the primary climate-related
41 hazards to communities, businesses, and infrastructure. To better address the ramifications of
42 those hazards, now and into the future, the UK needs to transform its scattered, fragmented
43 coastal data resources into a systematic, integrated, quality-controlled, openly accessible data
44 portal. Such a portal would support analyses of coastal risk and resilience by hosting, in addition
45 to data layers for coastal flooding and erosion, a diverse array of spatial datasets for building
46 footprints, infrastructure networks, land use, population, and various socio-economic measures
47 and indicators derived from survey and census data. Rather than prescribe user engagement, the
48 portal would facilitate novel combinations of spatial data layers in order to yield scientifically,
49 societally, and economically beneficial insights into UK coastal systems.

50

51 **Keywords**

52 open data, geomatics, geospatial information systems

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55 **1. A clear and present need**

56 This team of authors – who collectively have many decades of professional experience working
57 with coastal and marine science issues in the UK – recently attempted to produce a national-
58 scale, quantitative, analytical map of risk from coastal flood and erosion hazard in England using
59 existing open-access datasets. We found that this could not be done to our collective satisfaction
60 – nor to the satisfaction of nearly forty well-informed stakeholders at a national workshop that
61 we hosted. Difficulties stemmed from the availability, accessibility, and quality of the necessary
62 datasets: gaps in the spatial data that precluded a national synthesis; proprietary and thus
63 inaccessible data sets; inconsistent levels of spatial and temporal resolution; incompatible
64 analytical methodologies between related datasets; and information that had simply never been
65 gathered.

66 Analyses of risk and resilience to coastal hazard like the kind we attempted matter because, in the
67 UK, flooding and coastal change are leading climate-related hazards to communities, businesses,
68 and infrastructure (CCC, 2018). Managing the impacts of flooding and coastal change carries a
69 heavy financial burden (Penning-Rowsell, 2015; Uberoi and Priestley, 2017; EA, 2018). Reports
70 to UK Government on flood risk (Uberoi and Priestley, 2017) highlight the need for more
71 maintenance spending on flood protection, efficiency savings to offset costs of new defences,

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72 and "value for money" analysis of local flood protection. The UK Department for Environment,
73 Food & Rural Affairs (Defra) recently announced a project titled "Updating guidance on
74 shoreline management plans: UK Coastal Database", motivated by the fact that "to date there is
75 no record of the total loss of homes, land or infrastructure on the coast", and there exists no
76 clear, systematic way to estimate what future losses might occur under different climate scenarios
77 (Defra, 2020). The UK Environment Agency has a statutory duty, per the Flood and Water
78 Management Act of 2010, to develop and deliver a National Flood and Coastal Erosion Risk
79 Management Strategy for England, which is being revised (EA, 2020a). In November, 2020, the
80 Environment Agency and Defra announced a £200 million Flood and Coastal Resilience
81 Innovation Programme in England, which will fund competitively selected projects to run into
82 2027 (EA/Defra, 2020).

83 Our national analysis confirmed that England lacks the comprehensive, quality-controlled,
84 compatible, and collated open-access datasets of coastal hazard, exposure, and defences required
85 to assess spatial patterns of risk and resilience (**Box 1**). Analysis of those patterns support data-
86 driven, forward-looking decisions for sustainable management of current and future coastal
87 systems. We emphasise open-access. There are proprietary databases and data products
88 maintained by the insurance industry, engineering consultancies, and private geospatial
89 companies. There are also relevant datasets maintained by government agencies but not
90 necessarily publicly available. In some cases, awareness of certain datasets (and their provenance)
91 depends on the institutional knowledge of a handful of individuals nearing retirement. Many
92 datasets that are available lack the completion and standardisation needed to systematically assess
93 coastal risk or resilience (**Box 2**). We found potentially relatable datasets that were not
94 standardised or coordinated scattered across a fragmented network of organisations with
95 responsibility for coastal protection and defences infrastructure. Some datasets exist for one
96 nation of the UK (e.g., England or Scotland) but not the others, forcing certain comparisons to
97 end abruptly at political rather than geographical boundaries. There are also plentiful "raw" data
98 sources available – historical maps, ortho-rectified aerial imagery, lidar, bathymetry, and more –
99 that are not yet processed into standardised data products (e.g., benchmarked shoreline position)
100 ready for data users.

101 This is not a plea for more data – the Big Data revolution and rapid expansion of remote-sensing
102 capabilities are already ensuring that more data are coming. Rather, this is a call for quality-
103 assured, openly accessible data, which is a catalyst not only for innovation in analytical and
104 fundamental scientific insight, but also for the delivery of coastal risk and resilience strategy and
105 planning. The UK has an opportunity to take better care of the diverse coastal spatial datasets it

106 already has developed, and to build the data-management infrastructure for new generations of
107 spatial data products – including those from remote-sensing technologies that are yet to be
108 operationalised. An open-data portal dedicated to the component systems from which coastal
109 flood and erosion risk emerge – spatial and temporal datasets that represent not only
110 characteristics of the coastal hazards themselves, but also the assets and populations exposed to
111 coastal hazard and how vulnerable they are to impacts – needs to be regarded as an achievable
112 and essential national resource and priority.

113

114 **2. Examples of issues encountered with spatial datasets in England**

115 The spatial scale of our attempt to evaluate coastal flooding and erosion hazard risk was
116 effectively set by the most complete spatial coverage of coastal defences that we could source. A
117 dataset of English coastal defences, both engineered and natural, is available through the
118 Channel Coastal Observatory (CCO, 2020b), and is based on the 1997 Coastal Protection Survey
119 of England and aerial photography. Aside from extending only to England, the dataset is
120 valuable but incomplete: for example, the dataset only includes open coastline and does not
121 follow the interior coastline of any estuaries, despite the presence of defences there; no beach
122 nourishment works are included; nor does the dataset include records of defence installation,
123 maintenance, functional condition, or repairs. (There is a national statutory requirement to
124 maintain a registry of inland flood defences, but not coastal defences.) Despite the ubiquity of
125 beach-nourishment projects around the country, the UK lacks any comprehensive record of
126 their application, cost, volume, or spatial extent. The review of European beach-nourishment
127 practices by Hanson et al. (2002) is nearly two decades old, and unlike the US dataset maintained
128 by the Program for the Study of Developed Shorelines (PSDS, 2020), its underlying dataset is
129 not publicly available.

130 Given the extent to which readily erodible shorelines in England and the wider UK are
131 constrained by coastal-defence infrastructure, information on hard and soft defences, and their
132 management, is vital. In addition to the Coastal Protection Survey of England from 1997, there
133 is the National Flood and Coastal Defence Database, now included within the Environment
134 Agency's new Asset Information Management System, but this only includes assets under the
135 auspices of the Environment Agency in England, omitting defences under other jurisdictions.
136 The National Receptors Dataset likewise provides some information on assets and property at
137 risk, but access is limited by a restricted licence (EA, 2020b). The problem extends to other UK
138 nations. Reporting for Scotland's recent comprehensive national assessment of coastal change

139 (Dynamic Coast, 2020) notes that data availability for coastal defences around the Scottish coast
140 is "nationally patchy and has not yet been assimilated into a single and standardised dataset"
141 (Fitton et al., 2017).

142 To address coastal-erosion hazard at a spatial scale that matched the coastal defences dataset for
143 England, we ultimately used a Landsat-derived global dataset of shoreline-change trends
144 (Luijendijk et al., 2018) because it was the only resource that offered complete, standardised
145 coverage of shoreline change at a spatial scale greater than sub-national regions. England-wide
146 data ostensibly exist from the FutureCoast project (FutureCoast, 2002), but these are not in a
147 readily accessible format and are approaching two decades of dormancy. The Environment
148 Agency National Coastal Erosion Risk Map (EA, 2020c) comprises binned projections of future
149 change based on past erosion rates, and thus as a data product is some steps removed from the
150 data that underpin it.

151 To capture broad categories of flood likelihoods on coastal floodplains in the presence of
152 current flood defences, we used the Environment Agency "Risk of Flooding by Rivers and Sea"
153 dataset (EA, 2020b). However, because that dataset does not include specific information about
154 flooding source (i.e., river or sea), we overlaid the "Flood Map for Planning (Rivers and Sea)"
155 (EA, 2020d) to define areas of coastal floodplain susceptible to flooding from coastal, tidal
156 and/or fluvial events. Notably, the polygons that comprise these two datasets – "Risk of
157 Flooding by Rivers and Sea" and "Flood Map for Planning (Rivers and Sea)" – differ in their
158 spatial extents because the former considers the influence of extant flood defences and the latter
159 does not.

160 These examples illustrate just some of the data-assimilation issues we encountered – even having
161 limited our analysis to England.

162

163 **3. The data-management legacy of Shoreline Management Plans**

164 Much of the impetus for a data-driven understanding of national coastal flood and erosion risk,
165 is to gain an integrated vantage of regional Shoreline Management Plans (SMPs). Shoreline
166 Management Plans are non-statutory, large-scale, long-term strategic plans that aim at reducing
167 the impacts of coastal flooding and erosion on population, infrastructures, and natural
168 environments (Cooper et al., 2002). The first generation of SMPs were developed in the 1990s –
169 with contributions from a few of the authors here – and segmented the coastline of England and
170 Wales into 11 littoral cells and 46 sub-cells according to general patterns of alongshore sediment

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171 transport (Motyka and Brampton, 1993; Cooper et al., 2002; Leafe et al., 1998; Nicholls et al.,
172 2013). The process of establishing the SMPs prompted recommendations for an improved
173 evidence base of coastal change, which ultimately led to the creation of the National Network of
174 Coastal Monitoring Programmes of England (CCO, 2020a). Revised between 2006–2011, 22
175 SMPs, subdivided into nearly 2000 Policy Units, presently cover the coastline of England and
176 Wales. Shoreline Management Plans have also been applied to reaches of Scotland's coast
177 (Dynamic Coast, 2020).

178 Data compilation and analysis for previous rounds of coastal assessments in England and Wales,
179 particularly in the late 1990s, were outsourced to consultants, but those datasets were largely lost
180 or remain proprietary information, rather than being made publicly available. Different SMPs
181 employed different consultants, introducing methodological disparities and differences in quality
182 control (Potts, 1999). Regional studies have used different methods of shoreline-change analysis,
183 for example, without standardizing to a common data framework, complicating the essential
184 process of stitching regional datasets into a freely accessible, searchable national inventory. The
185 recent Infrastructure UK review (EA, 2014) recognised the need for better asset data, to be
186 supported by the Creating Asset Management Capacity (CAMC) programme, including
187 improved records for defences, such as berm-crest levels and standard-of-protection. Five years
188 later, recognition of that need has not yet translated into accessible, publicly available data
189 products or a platform for them – though user communities of coastal data remain hopeful.

190 For now, separate databases for different jurisdictions, the lack of integrated datasets from local
191 to national scales, inconsistent data protocols, and the patchiness of public availability present
192 significant hurdles to any transparent and open-source analysis of UK coastal flood and erosion
193 risk. Availability of baseline coastal data has been highlighted by the UK Geospatial Commission
194 as a national spatial data infrastructure need (Geospatial Commission, 2019). Further work is
195 planned through the UK Hydrographic Office (UKHO) to support the greater understanding of
196 the British coastline via the Coastal Zone Mapping Project (UKHO, 2020). This initiative is
197 currently specifying best-practice and collating an understanding of needs and auditing current
198 data "so that integration, discoverability and access to this data can be improved" (UKHO,
199 2020). In addition, the UKHO has developed an automated mapping of the present coastline
200 from Sentinel 2 satellite data, which will provide an updated framework for coastal mapping and
201 be openly accessible. National agencies and regional groups are developing their own platforms
202 of standardised, openly accessible coastal and coastal-change data, such as the Regional Flood
203 and Coastal Committees (RFCC) Decision Support Tool, which provides web-based applications
204 for the East Anglia RFCC region (RFCC, 2020), and the data resources from the National

205 Coastal Change Assessment in Scotland (Dynamic Coast, 2020), which were created as an
206 evidence base for strategic management (Hansom et al., 2017).

207

208 **4. From risk to resilience – a portal imagined**

209 Using open and accessible datasets with common standards to develop a more holistic, multi-
210 dimensional perspective of coastal risk can reinforce policy instruments of coastal management
211 in a world where sea-level rise and climate change are recognised as a growing threat to
212 livelihoods and lives. Beyond risk, there is growing interest in measuring and enhancing resilience
213 to coastal hazards (Rosati et al., 2015; Masselink and Lazarus, 2019; Townend et al., 2020). If risk
214 represents systemic exposure to disruption by a hazard, then resilience extends to how a system
215 anticipates and recovers from disruption. While there are a set of established metrics for risk,
216 metrics for resilience are still taking shape (Masselink and Lazarus, 2019). The data portal
217 proposed here will greatly facilitate the development of such metrics, which are multi-
218 dimensional, requiring stakeholder valuation and multi-criteria analysis (e.g., Townend et al.,
219 2020).

220 In the UK, some coastal data acquisition, processing, and analysis is undertaken and archived by
221 the Channel Coastal Observatory and the British Geological Survey. The Environment Agency –
222 and its equivalents in the devolved national administrations – also maintains their own geomatics
223 teams, in charge of surveying, remote sensing, and data analysis. Independent research teams
224 funded by national research councils also generate new coastal geospatial datasets, including
225 repeated high-resolution imagery, topographic and bathymetric scans, and surveys of coastal
226 ecological biodiversity. Where public money is spent on data-generating projects via national
227 funding bodies, an open framework for data management and public provision could ensure
228 national standards across datasets, rapidly integrate new datasets into the national catalogue,
229 generate simple but valuable products from these data (e.g., shorelines from orthophotos and
230 structure-from-motion terrains).

231 To integrate these and other coastal data sources, both archival and new, the Channel Coastal
232 Observatory is an obvious host – although quality control, standardization, and geospatial
233 analysis (e.g., systematic shoreline delineation) are resource-intensive activities. But to support
234 analyses of coastal risk and potentially coastal resilience – not just coastal hazard – any such
235 portal will need to integrate a wide array of spatial datasets for building footprints, infrastructure
236 networks, land use, heritage sites, ecosystem services, population, and various socio-economic
237 measures and indicators derived from survey and census data. The portal could ensure that

238 different datasets could be readily and reliably integrated to facilitate novel analyses of spatial
239 relationships of interest to a given user.

240 One example of new, value-added data resources that such a portal could provide would be
241 layers of housing footprints, infrastructure, transportation networks, and coastal defences
242 digitized from detailed (1:2500) historical maps, of which the UK has a rich catalogue. Such a
243 resource would enable quantitative assessments of how patterns of coastal risk have evolved in
244 space and time. These patterns could be linked to datasets derived from census data, such as
245 indices of social disadvantage at the coast (UK Parliament HL, 2019), and to historic hazard
246 events, such as data archived by SurgeWatch (Haigh et al., 2017). The data portal could also
247 include repeated empirical and modelled assessments of natural defences – beaches, tidal
248 wetlands – that may be impacted by human activities, given that changes in the states and
249 behaviours of those natural systems can affect, and be affected by, engineered interventions. By
250 including coastal physical topography, management units such as mapped floodplains, and
251 administrative units such as post codes and local authorities, users would be free to define the
252 coastal zone according to their specific focus – by some fixed shoreline, or a threshold elevation,
253 or official delineation – and pursue anything from local case studies to regional comparisons to a
254 national assessment. Moreover, users could select from different data levels (e.g., raw imagery,
255 post-processed/simplified layers, value-added analytics), spatial scales, and temporal series,
256 depending on their analytical needs.

257

258 **5. Realising a resource**

259 One existing model of a standardized, searchable, freely accessible platform for coastal datasets –
260 national-scale coverage of sea-level rise impacts and short- and long-term shoreline change,
261 along with hurricane strikes and geomorphic forecasts of storm-driven change – is the USGS
262 Coastal Change Hazards Portal (USGS, 2020a), which is further reinforced by the USGS
263 EarthExplorer (USGS, 2020b). Others examples include coastal portals for Scotland (Dynamic
264 Coast, 2020), Belgium (Flanders Marine Institute, 2020), and the Netherlands (Rijkswaterstaat,
265 2020). The European Topic Centre on Inland, Coastal and Marine waters, an international
266 consortium working with the European Environment Agency, has likewise highlighted a vision
267 for the assimilation of coastal datasets (ETC-ICM, 2020). Our concept of an open data portal
268 aligns with and encourages the ambitions articulated in a recent strategy document by the
269 Environment Agency for a revamped National Flood Risk Assessment tool that would use an
270 open-data framework to provide "a single picture of flood and coastal risk" (EA, 2020a).

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271 An open data portal for risk and resilience to coastal flood and erosion hazard for risk should
272 not prescribe user engagement: any number of outcomes could emerge from novel combinations
273 of spatial datasets, facilitated by robust data management, from unanticipated scientific insights
274 into UK coastal systems to better support of ongoing monitoring and assessment initiatives. The
275 portal for which we advocate would not only comprise a public good unto itself, but also enable
276 societal and economic benefits of innovation and discovery from analysis of those data (Zhu et
277 al. 2019; Nagaraj et al., 2020; Tassa, 2020) – precisely because they are openly accessible.

278

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Box 1 – Defining coastal risk

There are many ways to map risk from geohazards, but most combine probabilistic representations of physical *hazard*, *exposure* of assets or people, and/or *vulnerability*.

Natural coastal phenomena such as storm-driven flooding and erosion are *hazards* when they threaten damage to human communities or environmental resources that people value (Lavell et al., 2012). *Exposure* may refer to people, infrastructure, and socioeconomic and environmental assets that are subject to potential damage or loss in the event of a hazard occurrence. *Vulnerability* attempts to characterise ways in which exposed people and assets may be adversely affected by a hazard, especially where hazard impacts may have differential effects across a demographic mosaic (Cutter and Emrich, 2006; Lavell et al., 2012; Leuttich et al., 2014).

Natural coastal systems, such as beaches and marshes, can buffer some of the flood and storm impacts on exposed populations and assets, but their protective capacities – which also have limits – are often compromised by development pressures. As a result, on many developed coastlines around the world, engineered hazard protection plays an important role: infrastructure like "hard" seawalls or "soft" beach nourishment can buffer exposed populations and assets from all but very large-magnitude hazard events. Flood defences are built to a design standard of, for example, a 1:100 year flood event (0.01 likelihood of occurring each year). Seawalls might have an expected lifespan on the order of a century, whereas beach nourishment requires sustained, cyclical renourishment every few years.

Hazard protection alters the probabilistic distribution of hazard events (Werner and McNamara, 2007) and may also encourage additional development behind it – an unintended feedback variously termed "the levee effect" or the "safe-development paradox" (Burby, 2006; DiBaldassarre et al., 2015, 2018; Armstrong et al., 2016; Armstrong and Lazarus, 2019; Tobin, 1995; White, 1945). Spatial connectivity may add further complexity, if the failure of defences in one location results in damage at another, as can occur in many low-lying floodplains (Wang et al., 2019).

Quantifying coastal risk in some coastal regions, such as estuaries or large bays, may be especially challenging because flood hazard can arise from oceanographic (storm surges plus tides and/or waves), fluvial (increased river discharge) and/or pluvial (direct surface runoff) sources. Most existing flood risk assessments consider these main drivers of flooding separately, despite their intrinsic correlation. Depending on local geographic characteristics (which influence lag times between flooding drivers), "compound flood events" can result in disproportionately extreme impacts (Wahl et al., 2018; Zscheischler et al., 2018). Compound events remain underexamined and excluded from disaster-management plans – an omission that fundamentally and seriously biases existing flood risk assessments.

Box 2 – Completion and standardisation of dataset attributes

Geospatial coastal datasets tend to be structured and managed differently by different local authorities and other agencies, making the collation and integration of data at the UK-wide scale a challenging process. A basic dataset attribute that would aid integration is spatial coverage and spatial registration to a common basal reference. At present, coastal datasets do not necessarily include both the open coast and estuaries, for example. (Users can always exclude what they do not want, but they cannot include data that do not exist.) For datasets that track (or could track) changes over time, versions and metadata that are not recorded consistently – that is, according to a standardised protocol – ultimately hinder efforts to investigate evolving, spatially correlated relationships among hazard, exposure, and vulnerability.

We suggest that key coastal data to support UK coastal assessments might include:

- coastal physical characteristics, morphology and physiography and material
- coastal erosion / accretion datasets – geospatial data and attribute data by erosion and accretion mechanism, reclamation
- coastal defence data, record of defences over time, by type, condition, and maintenance actions, defended area
- natural defence types, structure, standards, and condition
- event records, by type (e.g., landslide, erosion, flooding), severity, and impact
- coastal setback actions / managed realignment / natural breaches, locations, extent and mechanisms
- assets / infrastructure defended, including buried infrastructure
- records of losses, by actions and costs incurred in response to erosion and flood
- monitoring types, responsibilities, and costs
- historic properties / development histories, by type
- location of planning policies for protection vs development, land cover, habitat, and land-use histories
- coastal community structure and historic records of demographic change and disadvantage (sensitivity and adaptive capacity)