Adaptive Integrated Coastal Zone Planning: History, Challenges, Advances, and Perspectives

WANG Xinyi^{1, 2}, SU Fenzhen^{1, 2}, WANG Xuege^{1, 3}, PAN Tingting^{1, 2}, CUI Yikun^{1, 3}, LYNE Vincent⁴, YAN Fengqin^{1, 2}

(1. State Key Laboratory of Resources and Environmental Information System, Institute of Geographic Sciences and Natural Resources Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100101, China; 2. College of Resources and Environment, University of Chinese Academy of Science, Beijing 100049, China; 3. School of Geography and Ocean Sciences, Nanjing University, Nanjing 210023, China; 4. Institute for Marine and Antarctic Studies, University of Tasmania, Tasmania 7004, Australia)

Abstract: Coastal zones are dynamic, rich environments, now densely populated, and increasingly challenged by human and climate-change pressures. Effective long-term integrated coastal zone planning is needed to ensure sustainable environmental protection and economic development. In this study, we reviewed the history of coastal zone planning since its birth in the 1950s based on the literature retrieved from the Web of Science (Core Collection) from 2000–2023, then summarized the tools and spatial allocation methods commonly used in the planning process, and finally proposed potential solutions to the challenges faced. The results show that after decades of development, coastal zone planning has changed from a decentralized activity to a targeted and integrated one, with an increasing emphasis on the ecosystem approach and the use of multiple planning tools. Spatial analysis techniques and environmental modelling software have become increasingly popular. Linear programming and overlay analysis are common approaches when performing spatial optimization, but land-sea interactions and planning in the marine parts still lack in-depth analysis and practical experience. We are also aware that the challenges posed by the integration of administrative hierarchies, scoping and conservation objectives, stakeholder participation, consideration of social dimensions, and climate change are pervasive throughout the planning process. There is an urgent need to develop more flexible and accurate spatial modelling tools, as well as more efficient participatory methods, and to focus on the holistic nature of the land-sea system to create more resilient and sustainable coastal zones.

Keywords: Integrated Coastal Zone Management (ICZM); coastal zone planning; spatial optimization; ecosystem-based management

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1 Introduction

Coastal zones, comprising shallow seas and variableland buffers (Lu and Ai, 2001), interface humans to coastal ecological services including: carbon storage, biodiversity conservation, hydrological regulation, and marine resources. It is estimated that with despite its small footprint of 7.6% of ocean areas, coastal zones contribute 30.0% of global marine primary productivity, more than 80.0% of marine resources, and 50.0% of blue carbon sink (IPCC, 2022). Under pressures from population growth, climate change, and accelerated sea level rise, coastal living resources are now seriously affected by land-based activities. Degradation of coastal

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Corresponding author: YAN Fengqin. E-mail: yanfq@lreis.ac.cn

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ecosystems is accelerating, and impact ranges are expected to continue to expand in the future (Moser et al., 2012; Neumann et al., 2015; Fletcher and Winton, 2021; Dai et al., 2022). Many coastal administrative sectors require coordination boundaries and management responsibilities, including responses to catastrophes such as severe flooding and storms (Chua, 2010). Without effective, coordinated and rapid responses, impacts will only worsen.

Traditional separated national planning and local implementation causes conflicts which goes against adaptive management for sustainable development (United Nations Environment Programme, 1995). Integrated Coastal zone Management (ICZM) is a decision-making process for the sustainable management, development and conservation of coastal environments and resources. ICZM aims to resolve conflicts between environmental, economic, and social elements through integration of departmental functions and transparent decisions (Lu and Ai, 2001; Wang et al., 2014). ICZM has been recognized as the preferred approach to addressing the challenges of climate change and achieving sustainable regional development.

Coastal zone planning is the intermediate link and tool of ICZM. It comprises conceptual objectives and implementation plans within an overall management framework. The key aim of these processes revolves around optimizing the location of human activities in space and time, avoiding conflicts between regional land uses, supporting long-term investment decisions, promoting integrated ecological protection networks (Kay and Alder, 1999). Currently, coastal zone planning has been successfully implemented in a large number of coastal nations such as China, the United States, Netherlands, and Australia (Douvere, 2008; Smythe and McCann, 2018; Warnken and Mosadeghi, 2018; Yue et al., 2023;). These include reducing the risks associated with rising sea levels (Popova et al., 2019), establishing sustainable blue economies (Liu et al., 2023), protecting cultural heritage (Ounanian et al., 2021), developing tourism resources (Pineda et al., 2023), and preserving ecological environments (Dhiman et al., 2022). While where have been some experiences gained from numerous coastal zone planning projects, additional systematic summary and insight are needed. It is essential for coastal environmental protection and resource utilization, especially for what we should do under climate change.

Bibliometric analysis is a quantitative method of analyzing literature by capturing its characteristics to assess the current status or gaps (Karimi and Khalilpour, 2015), and is widely used in the fields of management (Anugerah et al., 2022), environmental sciences (Zhang et al., 2024a), and ecological security (Liu et al., 2022). This method provides a clear overview of past and future research trends. We searched the Web of Science (Core Collection) for all publications in the field of coastal zone planning from 2000-2023. This study aims to provide a comprehensive description of the current state of knowledge on the topic of coastal zone planning based on bibliometric analysis and literature review, including the history of development, current problems and challenges, and ultimately to propose future trends. This study could provide some references for sustainable development of coastal zones under climate change.

2 Data and Methods

2.1 Data

Raw data used in this study were obtained from Web of Science (Core Collection) (https://access.clarivate.com/) with the ALL = Coastal Planning OR Marine Spatial Planning AND Integrated Management (searched from 1 January 2000 to 31 December 2023), with a total of 6096 publications met the selection criteria. It needs to be clarified that although the review is based primarily on a summary of the literature within the search period (2000–2023), we also cite the initial literature in the historical review section. In addition, for some recent advances, we referenced several 2024 articles (with available online dates before 31 December 2023).

2.2 Methods

This article presents a comprehensive analysis of the current state of knowledge on the topic using a combination of bibliometric analysis method and literature review. For all retrieved papers, we first used CiteSpace investigated and visualized the trends in annual publications, the countries with the largest contributions, the most productive journals, and the evolution of hot keyword. The analysis yields a scientific knowledge graph in the form of nodes and lines, as well as keyword contribution network and emergence map to further ex-

plore the evolution of popular research topics (Chen et al., 2015).

Subsequently, we meticulously reviewed and summarized the practical experience and conclusions of each article. The literature review is divided into four parts (Fig. 1). Firstly, we reviewed the history of coastal zone planning. As an important component of ICZM, evolution of coastal zone planning is closely related to ICZM. Secondly, we summarized the commonly used planning approaches to fully understand the content of planning. Thirdly, we analyzed the current challenges and issues still to be solved. Finally, based on the research trends and methodological theories in each section, we proposed future research efforts.

3 Bibliometric Analysis Results

3.1 Descriptive analysis

In terms of types of literature categories, the 6096 publications can be categorized into 11 document types. As shown in the Fig. 2, 'Article' was the most prevalent type, accounting for 83.2% of the total publications, followed by 'Proceeding Paper' (16.0%), 'Review Article' (4.4%) and other types (e.g., Book Chapters, Editorial Material and Data Paper).

Articles related to coastal zone planning experienced a significant growth in the number of publications and citations from 2000–2023, especially during 2017–2021. It indicates that the field is receiving increased attention, which mainly relates to the attention given to the urgent

challenges in recent years.

The most productive country in the field during 2000–2023 was the USA, with 1190 publications (19.5%), followed by China (18.2%), the UK (10.9%) and Australia (9.4%) (Fig. 3a). China has seen a significant increase in the number of publications since 2008, and other developing countries like Brazil and India have also witnessed a gradual increase in their contributions to publishing over the last decade. Overall, developed countries have accumulated relatively mature experience in theoretical exploration and practical activities of coastal zone management and spatial planning since the 1950s. H-index indicates 'high citations', which means that a researcher has a total of H articles that have been cited at least H times. The number of papers issued and the H-index in papers published are more prominent, exerting greater global influence. Recently, due to the increase in funding and attention, developing countries are also actively promoting relevant research and exploring coastal zone policies which suit their national conditions (Fig. 3b).

3.2 Hot keyword evolution

The most frequently occurring keywords in 6096 publications were 'management' and 'climate change' (Fig. 4). In the last two decades, countries around the world have experienced large-scale economic development. Threats of sea level rise and human activities have increased the vulnerability of coastal zones. More attention was paid to 'governance', 'protected areas', 'resilience', 'adaptation', and 'urbanization' over time. This shift suggests

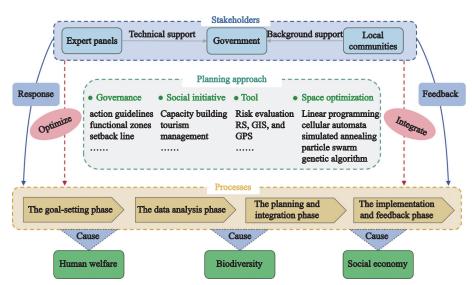


Fig. 1 Framework diagram illustrating the elements and linkages of the coastal zone planning process. RS, GIS, GPS are Remote Sensing, Geographic Information, System and Global Positioning System, respectively

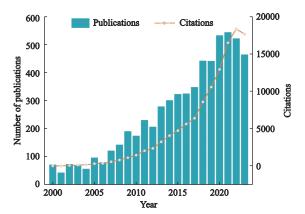


Fig. 2 Distribution of publication and citation quantity on the coastal zone planning during 2000–2023

that people are actively exploring more adaptive and ecologically resilient approaches to coastal zone management in the face of increasing climate change risks, and that this integration is not only reflected in the breadth of the challenges ahead, but also in the diversity of groups involved in planning and the diversity of metrics used to evaluate planning. 'Integration' is not only reflected in the breadth of the challenges ahead, but also in the diversity of groups involved in planning and the diversity of assessment indicators.

4 History of Coastal Zone Planning

Here we summarize coastal zone planning development (Fig. 5), key approaches, and spatial optimizations.

4.1 Development of coastal zone planning

We outline the development stages by referencing the

timing of the Coastal Zone Management Act of USA and the United Nations' Agenda 21. The enactment of these two policies marked the beginning of a new era in coastal zone planning (Caviedes et al., 2020; Thom, 2022; Botero et al., 2023).

4.1.1 Birth (the 1950s-the mid 1970s)

Rapid the 1950s post-war development of supported by road, rail and shipping, using wood, coal, and resources, caused pollution, contaminated water, and soil. Conservation and environment protection were treated independently. Initial global efforts under the 'Convention on Prevention of Marine Pollution by Dumping of Wastes and Other Matter 1972', or 'London Convention', limited the dumping of wastes at sea through proscribed lists of substances that could be dumped, might be dumped, and were banned (such as nuclear waste) from being dumped. 'Integrated Management' was first introduced the Coastal Zone Management Act of USA (CZMA) in 1972, to address complex issues across the land-sea (Fig. 5).

4.1.2 Developing period (the late 1970s–1990s)

Here, issues across policies and actions confounded implementations. In 1978, a Canadian conference (Shore Management Symposium) emphasized sectoral cooperation, access to information, and public participation (Fig. 5). UK enacted laws, including a Fisheries Act, during 1970 to 1987 (Ballinger, 1999; Wang et al., 2014). As desired outcomes became clearer, conflict resolutions shifted towards process integration. For example, in 1973, France made coastal zone conservation recommendations (Piquard, 1973). In 1979, Australia

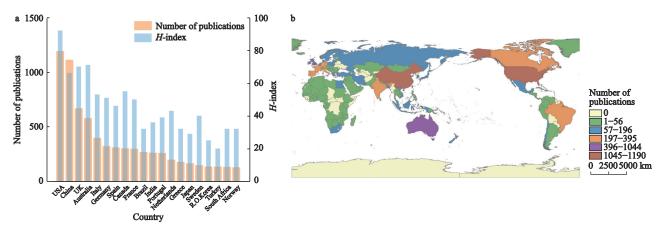


Fig. 3 Distribution of publications on coastal zone planning for different countries. a. The basic information of the top 20 most productive countries; b. global distribution of publications. Fig. 3b is drawn based on the standard map with approval number GS(2016)1666 downloaded from the website of the Ministry of Natural Resources (http://bzdt.ch.mnr.gov.cn) and the base map has not been modified

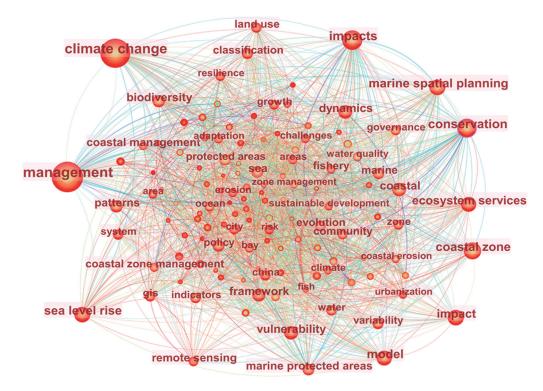


Fig. 4 Keyword co-occurrence network for coastal zone planning during 2000–2023. The size of each node reflects the frequency of keywords. The closer the color of the node is to red, the more recent the co-citation of the keyword is. And the thickness of each line reflects the intensity of co-citation

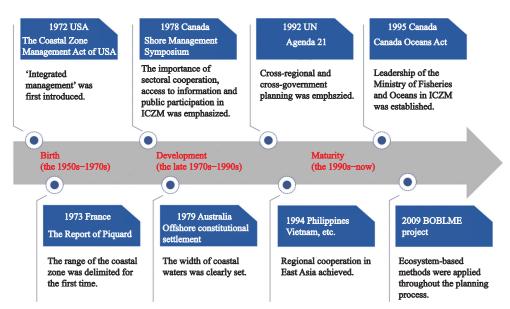


Fig. 5 Timeline of coastal zone planning from the 1950s to now globally. The figure shows influential events that have occurred globally since the birth of coastal zone planning in the 1950s. UN: United Nations; BOBLME project: Bay of Bengal Large Marine Ecosystem project

set local jurisdictional responsibility at three nautical miles offshore in the 'Offshore constitutional settlement: a milestone in cooperative federalism'. In 1980 and 1986, CZMA has undergone the most significant

amendments, particularly with regard to government funding for planning and management projects.

4.1.3 Mature period (the 1990s-now)

In 1992, United Nations' Agenda 21 was adopted by

many countries which implemented cross-regional and cross-government planning (Wang et al., 2014) (Fig. 5). In 1994, Philippines and Vietnam launched 'Building Partnership in Environmental Management for the Seas of East Asia' (Chua, 2010). In 1998, Costa Rica, Burley, and other central American countries implemented the Regional Environmental Program for Central America in 1998 (Caviedes et al., 2020).

Major countries planned larger governance scales and more rational allocated resources to overcome the shortcomings of fragmented management (Pittman and Armitage, 2016). In 1996, European Union (EU) demonstrated ICZM across 35 regions including Baltic Sea, North Sea, Atlantic Ocean, and enacted coastal zone protection for all European waters (Shipman and Stojanovic, 2007). Canada instituted the world's first Law of the Sea, separated federal and provincial jurisdictions, divided national park functional areas, and provided methodological and technical support for coastal zone planning (Li, 2011; Li and Zhang, 2014). Beginning in 1994, Australia's 'Large Marine Domains' planning involved a systematic hierarchy of biodiversity management units across State and Commonwealth waters (Last et al., 2010), supplemented by 'Key Ecological Features' for priority management (Lyne et al., 2007).

After 2000 'Ecosystem-based Management' replaced 'Integrated Management' (Kay and Alder, 1999; Pittman and Armitage, 2016) by including preventive measures, sustainability, and spatial connectivity, to extend productivity and species connectivity (Aswani et al., 2012; Guo, 2013; Pittman and Armitage, 2016). This approach was applied at various scales (Eisma-Osorio et al., 2009, Flannery and O Cinnéide, 2012, Caviedes et al., 2022) and themes (Christie et al., 2007; Wongthong and Harvey, 2014; Sierra-Correa and Cantera Kintz, 2015; Gracia et al., 2018; Elango and Arul, 2022). These projects usually involve a complete system-based spatial assessment across a range of scales as the first step. Ecosystem-based planning methods can then be incorporated at the appropriate level and scale to investigate integrity and stability of ecosystems across the hierarchy of scales. Common measures include delimiting the planning boundary according to the ecological boundary, ecosystem compatibility matrices, ecosystem functions and thresholds (Gilliland and Laffoley, 2008; Aswani et al., 2012). A successful example is the ambitious FAO's 'Bay of Bengal Large Marine Ecosystem'

(BOBLME) project of 'eight countries connected by one ecosystem'. System-science collaborative workshop was used to identify 29 marine provinces across the Bay of Bengal and shared-trans-boundary issues such as fisheries, threatened species, nurseries, productivity, corals, riverine/sediment flow, common threats, vulnerabilities, and to enable a shared understanding from sound ecosystem principles (Dai et al., 2022). Similar regional system studies identified trophic systems of Australia's North-West Shelf (Neumann et al., 2015), and nested-scale hierarchical habitat mapping (Moser et al., 2012).

4.2 Various planning approaches

Various planning approaches aim to promote stakeholder collaboration and identify vulnerabilities and hotspots in coastal ecosystems. Here we summarize three common approaches.

4.2.1 Administrative approaches

Governments clarify the protection subjects and responsibility subjects by legislation. A clear legal framework ensures effective implementation of management measures such as permits, licenses and education (Kay and Alder, 1999). Generally, strategic plans and special acts are drafted by the federal government. Local governments are bundled together under the leadership of the federal government, and are responsible for specific planning schemes and enforcement. Based on the analysis of legislative hierarchical relationships, many studies widely believe that appointed department and enhanced institutional arrangement are effective for promoting integration (Enemark, 2005; Taljaard and Van Niekerk, 2013). For China, adding more coordination mechanisms and setting simple operational guidelines are feasible ways to optimize integration mechanism (Wu et al., 2012).

Conservation planning focuses on the spatial allocation of conservation resources to different actions (e.g., protected areas, aquaculture, industrial development), so a system of functional zoning planning to set priorities for action across realms is one of objectives of coastal spatial planning (Álvarez-Romero et al., 2011). A lot of studies have explored specific methods for dividing coastal areas into ecological space, living space and production space based on land suitability evaluation (Rahman and Szabó, 2021; Wei et al., 2021). In the early phase, the main methods were multi-objective decision-making methods, such as linear programming (Sadeghi

et al., 2009) and gray linear programming (Zhang et al., 2023), and multi-attribute decision-making methods, such as hierarchical analysis (Gao et al., 2021) and weighted overlay analysis (Ferretti and Pomarico, 2013). Linear programming method and gray linear programming method convert land allocation into a linear optimization problem involving complex calculations. Multi-attribute decision-making method calculates suitability score based on the established indicator and therefore contains more subjectivity and uncertainty (He et al., 2009). Recently, many studies combine indicator evaluation with Geographic Information System (GIS) and Artificial Intelligence (AI) technology, in addition to spatial unit trend simulation (Sitzia et al., 2014) and ecological niche model assessment (Akpoti et al., 2020). The Setback line is also a method for land use control. and the retreat distance is usually determined usually based on the maximum ecosystem service value of the coast and local erosion rate (Lu et al., 2015; Qiao et al., 2020).

Compared to compulsory legislation, action guidelines and instruction manuals can provide more flexible and extensive guidance information, which usually cover different implementable options available to planners and their application scopes. For example, the 'Towards a European: Integrated Coastal Zone Management Strategy' proposed by the European Union in 1999 provides general principles and cooperative recommendations for management activities in European coastal areas (European Commission, 1999).

Administrative approaches have been criticized mainly for the lack of flexibility, implementation difficulties, weak enforcement and low adaptability. Highly centralized national models often face problems in balancing economic development and resource allocation. The devolution of authority would give stakeholders more decision-making power and promote the flexibility of governance as well as the freedom of local policies, a phenomenon that has become increasingly prevalent in coastal regions across Southeast Asia and South America (Chang and Lin, 2016; Dunning, 2020). In addition, current functional zoning of coastal areas relies mainly on planimetric planning, which is prone to disputes over boundaries (Schwartz-Belkin and Portman, 2024). Threedimensional zoning offers the possibility of more precise protection actions. However, despite some existing research, this approach has not yet become widespread (Duffy and Chown, 2017).

4.2.2 Social initiatives

Stakeholder participation and the human dimension are the cores of coastal zone planning (Smythe and Mc-Cann, 2018). Deepening mutual understanding and communication is essential to building wide governance networks. Community cooperation is a powerful tool to enhance the level and quality of stakeholder participation, helping to resolve conflicts over cultural, economic and environmental issues (Pomeroy and Douvere, 2008). It involves not only asking stakeholders what they think about the project, what they need, and what benefits they might receive, but also involving them in the assessment and regulatory process. Some participatory tools such as focus group discussion, question trees, and preference rankings can be helpful. In addition, social and economic benefits are possible from tourism management to improve tourists' travel experience, leisure opportunities/facilities, landscape planning, and promoting regional/local cultural assets (Kay and Alder, 1999). Capacity building and education contribute to stakeholder awareness of coastal management and help them to actively participate in the planning process.

However, the effectiveness of these approaches can be easily influenced by other factors, such as imbalanced stakeholder groups, lack of tools to guide discussions, funding, *etc*. Particularly when strong regulatory and participatory frameworks are lacking, simple consultation and community management approaches can lead to ineffective stakeholder engagement and poor protection in non-jurisdictional contexts.

4.2.3 Planning techniques and tools

A variety of spatial analysis techniques are used throughout the entire planning process. In the data collection phase, Remote Sensing (RS) and Global Positioning System (GPS), footprint analysis, Spatial Data Infrastructure (SDI), *etc.*, help decision makers to understand the basic background conditions of coast. In the data analysis phase, tools such as GIS, machine learning, and Cumulative Effects Assessment (CEA) are used to evaluate the risk of human activities on the natural environment. In the decision-making phase, spatial decision support tools adapted to different planning objectives have been developed. The Marxan platform is based on simulated annealing algorithm to predict possible geographic distributions (Kirkpatrick, 1984; Ball

and Possingham, 2000), and is widely used in siting problems for coastal park (Fernandes et al., 2005; Chen et al., 2022) and offshore wind farm (Virtanen et al., 2022). Ecopath improved limitations of Marxan software in addressing population connectivity, allowing for the robust assessment of ecological processes (Polovina, 1984; Christensen and Pauly, 1992; Stamoulis and Delevaux, 2015). Other GIS-based spatial decision-making tools are also widely used as parts of decision support systems, such as the Integrated Valuation of Ecosystem Services and Trade-offs (InVEST) model (Sharp et al., 2015), are applied for assessing the scenic quality of coastal landscapes (Wang et al., 2023), tourist visitation rates (Pafi et al., 2020) and wave energy effects (Zhang et al., 2024b); the AkvaVis tool was developed for aquaculture (Gangnery et al., 2021); the Coral Reef Scenario Evaluation Tool (CORSET) was applied for coral reef coral reef management (Melbourne-Thomas et al., 2011a; 2011b); the MarineMap and the Ocean-Map were applied for integrating spatially explicit socioeconomic data (Pattison et al., 2004).

Stamoulis and Delevaux (2015) believed that current problem is that the models tend to be designed for specific problems and regions, with poor extensibility and adaptability. Most of the current tools are not embedded with remote sensing technology module and spatiotemporal resolution of the outputs is coarse, which limits the application of decision-making tools at small regional scales, especially for issues related to the definition of planning zones, the mapping of ecological elements and pollution monitoring. In addition, affected by ambiguous data needs, mismatched collection sizes and data discrepancies, most tools lack mechanisms for modelling changes in ecosystem dynamics under external pressures, and are limited to assessing changes in historical ecosystem services. Machine learning and deep learning are good tools for predicting and analyzing spatio-temporal data dynamics. The integration of AI and GIS will provide more efficient, accurate and intelligent solutions for refined coastal spatial planning and governance.

4.3 Spatial optimization of coastal zone

4.3.1 Land suitability evaluation methods

Land suitability evaluation integrates economic, social and environmental needs, providing a scientific basis for spatial optimization. Evaluation methods are developing from qualitative to quantitative. Early methods are mathematical planning model and superposition analysis. AI reduces the uncertainty of previous methods, with advantages of both structural optimization and spatial pattern optimization. This method has been commonly used in many suitability assessment studies, such as genetic heuristic algorithms (Cao et al., 2012; Porta et al., 2013; Kaim et al., 2018; Ma et al., 2018; Schwaab et al., 2018): simulated annealing (Kirkpatrick et al., 1983; Aerts and Heuvelink, 2002; Santé-Riveira et al., 2008; Santé et al., 2016), ant-colony (Huang et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2012; Ai et al., 2015; Su et al., 2020), and rule-based particle-swarm optimization (Dorigo et al., 2006; Li et al., 2018; Fletcher and Winton, 2021).

Linear programming can only set an optimization goal, with other benefits converted to constraints to solve the optimal allocation of land use. However, a series of coefficients need to be fixed which can lead to unrealistic. Gray linear programming offers more flexibility by allowing fixed values to vary across 'gray' interval values, which has great advantages in processing discrete data and small sample data (Darvishi et al., 2020). However, computational complexity is their common problem, limiting further application in the GIS environment.

According to the weighted overlay method and Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP), all objective functions are combined into a scalar objective function, weights are assigned to each objective and an optimal solution is obtained (Rahman and Szabó, 2021). Both are similar to overlay mapping in GIS so they are more suited for raster data. However, the determination of evaluation indicators and weights rely on prior information and may introduce subjectivity and uncertainty. Moreover, such methods tend to ignore some suitability influences which are difficult to express in GIS (He et al., 2009).

Simulated annealing is a general probabilistic algorithm proposed by Kirkpatrick et al. (1983). This algorithm not only avoids being trapped in a local optimal solution, but also ensures that the solution is simple and global. Santé-Riveira et al., (2008) carried out optimal allocation of land use in Galicia by combining compactness and simulated annealing to avoid the deviation of secondary objectives due to weight allocation under multiple objectives. Santé et al., (2016) set suitability and compactness optimization goals and conducted land use optimization based on simulated annealing al-

gorithms. Simulated annealing simulations usually consumes a lot of time and cannot guide subsequent searches based on currently detected regions.

Particle swarm optimization was first proposed by Italian scholar Marco Dorigo (2006). Optimization is based on diverse fitness values across 'particles' each with their own fitness characteristics related to the desired outcomes from objectives. The concept of this algorithm is relatively simple, easy to implement, and results are of relatively high quality and robust. In addition, it is based primarily upon rules or pre-defined behaviors related to situations, and widely used in optimal scheduling, function optimization, and fuzzy system control. Su et al. (2020) established a framework coupling ant colony algorithm and gray linear programming for solving the coastal landscape pattern configuration problem under multi-objective constrains. However, fast convergence of particle swarm optimization algorithms, may lead to a local optimal solution. To address this issue, many relevant experts and scholars have proposed improved methods, such as adaptive particle swarm optimization algorithms, particle swarm optimization algorithms with selection mechanisms, particle swarm optimization algorithms with mutation operators, and particle swarm optimization algorithms with spatial neighbors.

Genetic algorithms, first proposed by Bagley (1967), attempt to mimic natural evolutionary processes using mechanisms such as crossover, inheritance, mutation, selection, and elimination. Organisms and groups equivalent to chromosomes are iteratively and genetically modified, and then chosen based on their survival suitability in current conditions (Kaim et al., 2018; Schwaab et al., 2018). The algorithms are suited for parallel and efficient computing, but cannot guarantee optimal solutions of a polynomial complex uncertain problem within a certain period of time.

However, currently, linear optimization is most widely used method in coastal zone spatial optimization. Coastal zone optimization in future needs to be combined with heuristic algorithms for better results. Additionally, existing spatial optimization of coastal zones is mostly based on optimization of land areas, and only a few based on land-sea integration. Few studies have incorporated stakeholders' views into the quantitative optimization process of the mathematical models, and further researches are needed on the coupling of public par-

ticipation and land use planning, such as giving more consideration to the economic benefits of planning scenarios, determining the weights of indicators through public consultation, and analyzing impacts of land-use change on the public under different scenarios.

4.3.2 Land-sea integrated optimization

In the coastal areas, the integrity and interaction between marine space and land space have received more and more attention from researchers and planners. Land-sea interaction is recognized as one of the minimum requirements for Marine Spatial Planning by the EU Directive 2014/89 (art. 6) (https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=uriserv:OJ.L .2014.257.01.0135. 01.ENG%20). Bocci et al. (2024) proposed a set of guidelines for analyzing land-sea interaction in planning, including identifying hotspots and conflicts, promoting positive impacts, and some recommended measures. Many scholars are also exploring how to carry out planning, developing, and protecting efforts with landsea coordination characteristic. For example, Li et al. (2021) proposed coordination of space utilization activities by using system theory to integrate territorial spatial planning in coastal areas with aspects such as ecology, environment, economy, resources, transportation, and disasters. Lin et al. (2018) discussed spatial control of Xiamen's coastal zone of China by combining flexibility and rigidity, from four aspects: key elements of land space, utilization of sea space, control of landbased pollution of the marine environment, and shoreline conservation of marine resources. Li et al. (2019) proposed improvements for Shenzhen of China included: enhancing ecological objectives, implanting marine culture, and planning across land-sea. Zhang (2016) integrated spaces across production, living, and ecological, evaluated with respect to utilization to resolve conflict, planning, and optimization. Current crude coastal zone classifications lack of consideration of sea carrying capacity for land-pollution emissions, and management must also consider detailed monitoring and land-sea integrated optimizations.

Advanced scenario-modelling was explored across alternative futures for Australia's North-West Shelf using an advanced integrated agent model, In-Vitro, developed by Randall Gray (Gray et al., 2013). Outcomes were explored across land-sea, fisheries, oil-and-gas exploration, tourism, conservation, maritime traffic, land-use, Aboriginal cultural values, climate change and land-

sea environmental pollution (Fletcher and Winton, 2021). However, this system requires advanced computing clusters, high-level technical expertise, funds to maintain integrated databases, computational skills, and software/hardware maintenance. However, policy makers and managers can experiment with digital-twin simulations, as if they were real world. Here, optimal or compromise, decisions are left to policy makers, with technical help provided by scientists to activate policy levers, such as industrial investments, ports, rail, roads, land-use planning schemes, environmental pollution controls, effectiveness of different enforcements, and value of different monitoring strategies.

Although many plannings studies are based on scientific evaluation results, current classifications of coastal zones are relatively crude and optimizations often neglect impact of land pollution emissions to sea which restricts the aim of 'land determined by sea'. The lack of consideration of the sea carrying capacity prevents 'promoting land by the sea'. The management must consider sea and land carrying capacity, detailed monitoring and land-sea integrated optimization.

5 Challenges in Coastal Zone Planning

5.1 Integration in coastal zone planning

Coastal zone planning seriously depends on the cooperation of government, nongovernmental organizations, and individuals in a multi-level institutional environment, so the integration involving the needs and interests from all parties is a key principle of coastal zone planning. Many studies have summarized and evaluated the methods, extent and effectiveness of integration in different countries (Enemark, 2005; Runhaar et al., 2014; Soma et al., 2015; Smythe and McCann, 2019). The previous studies paid more attention on vertical integration between government and stakeholders, ignoring the importance of intra-governmental coordination. However, a lot of experience suggests that both are equally important in promoting corporate governance in coastal zone (Kidd, 2013; Olsen et al., 2014; Smythe, 2017; Glass et al., 2023). Smythe and McCann (2019) analyzed three cases in Washington, Rhode Island, and San Francisco in the United States. The results showed that horizontal integration between government agency and equivalent jurisdiction occurs throughout the entire process. Driven by shared concerns and pressing problems, horizontal integration with informal mechanisms (e.g., informal dialogues, voluntary cooperation) was found to be more effective than formal mechanisms (e.g., agreements, new leadership agency), especially in solving multi-objective problems. It has also been argued that unified and independent leadership agency can increase cohesion and administrative efficiency (Albotoush and Tan Shau-Hwai, 2021).

In addition, land-sea conflicts are commonly presented in threats, protection objectives, and planning areas, so 'integration' also includes land-sea functions and scopes. Álvarez-Romero et al. (2011) summarized 12 common threats in the planning, including urban sprawl, nutrient loss from agriculture, and aquaculture. These cross-system threats can affect both terrestrial and marine systems, but many studies have focused on threats from land-based sources, ignoring those caused by activities in the coastal marine realm (Álvarez-Romero et al., 2011; Lucrezi, 2021). Decision makers need to prioritize conservation objectives, add governance requirements in registry forms, and use analytical tools like interest-impact matrix to coordinate every conservation objective and spatial function.

Overall, how to promote the breadth, depth, and effectiveness of integration is one of the challenges. There is no unified set of collaborative governance paradigm, instead, differentiated governance approaches are more recommended. Experiences from China (Bao et al., 2019), Chile (Vázquez Pinillos et al., 2023), and Belize (Alves, 2021) have shown that appropriate decentralization and step-by-step planning strategies are more conducive to improving the adaptability and implementation of coastal management. Compared to terrestrial spatial planning systems, the management and mapping of marine parts have not received sufficient attention, a situation that is quite common (Hassanali, 2015; Liao et al., 2023). With regard to the problem of inconsistencies in the spatial scope of planning and sea-related regulations, it is suggested to establish the conversion standard of multi-regulation indicators and find means to better co-ordinate use of physical space in the marine environment itself (Hassanali, 2015). For example, based on the coastal ecosystem services valuation, a region-specific and multi-level control mechanism for coastlines can be established. Higher-level government adopt rigid control strategies to determine the categories and directions of shoreline use, while lower-level government adopt flexible regulation strategies to formulate specific supervision and restoration regulations for each category.

5.2 Public participation in coastal zone planning

The involvement of non-governmental interests is specially emphasized in almost all studies related to coastal zone planning. The active participation of stakeholders at all phases of planning has been recognized as a key to success. A number of studies have discussed the advantages of public participation in coastal zone governance, such as facilitating understanding of specific issues (Erkkilä-Välimäki et al., 2022), enhancing social cohesion (Tafon et al., 2023) and improving the rationality and adaptation of spatial planning (Gannon et al., 2021). Key elements and quality assessment processes for public engagement have been discussed in these studies. Sanò and Medina (2012) proposed a system approach to identify stakeholders, issues, variables, and ultimately select a simplified set as management indicators. Many studies have discussed how best to engage stakeholders (Garriga and Losada, 2010; Areizaga et al., 2012a; 2012b; Zaucha and Kreiner, 2021). Pomeroy and Douvere (2008) noted that participation can range from one-directional communication, where there is no actual participation, to full-fledged negotiation, where stakeholders share in decision-making. Other examples include techniques like joint fact-finding (Gleason et al., 2010) and citizen science (Jarvis et al., 2015), advisory councils and nested institutional arrangements (Sievanen et al., 2011), and both formal and informal participatory opportunities (Moodie et al., 2019).

Nevertheless, stakeholders' misconceptions about coastal spatial planning remains a major challenge for stakeholder engagements. Piwowarczyk et al. (2019) investigated fishers' opinions of planning projects. The results showed that fishers' limited trust towards planning groups led to their limited willing to share sensitive information related to fishing grounds with planners. Capacity building of stakeholders should be designed in the 'pre-planning' phase, which can help to increase stakeholders' participation capacities and build social learning initiatives. Specific approaches of public participation need to be adapted to the planning objectives and project characteristics, and they should complement each other, rather than being applicable only at specific phases (Zaucha and Kreiner, 2021). Education,

consultation and two-way communication can go hand in hand. Stakeholder involvement at an earlier phase is preferable, allowing them to focus on geographic areas of interest, which can make participation more efficient and effective.

Researchers are also an important part of stakeholders. Multi-disciplinary knowledge integration contributes to more reliable and more appropriate spatial decision-making. The dynamics and diversity of knowledge brings challenges for integration between knowledge and policy. Although the need for 'knowledge integration' is becoming more pressing, there is still no coherent framework for how to do it (de Vries et al., 2024). In political science, knowledge integration models developed from basic linear models to relatively simple functional and later more complex co-production models (de Vries et al., 2024). Non-linear relations of joint knowledge productions, power-relations, and contextual factors have been taken into account. In organizational studies, frameworks have developed which consider interactions (Spaapen and Van Drooge, 2011), interfaces (Tromp, 2019) and pathways for impacting society (Muhonen et al., 2019). For the knowledge integration in the coastal spatial planning, de Vries et al. (2024) proposed a workable framework that considers the knowledge needs and processes of the entire knowledge system by involving interviews, observations, focus groups, and document researches into decision-making system. Based on the case of Netherlands, they argued that clear agreements, structured overviews and monitoring mechanisms were key to knowledge integration.

It is generally believed that clarifying the public participation system through legal forms is an effective way to safeguard the public's right to know and to supervise. Specifically, optional measures include holding hearings, questionnaire surveys visits, timely disclosure of project details, improving the mechanism for monitoring public opinion, and defining the procedures for permits related to public interests. The literature overwhelmingly points to the importance of stakeholder participation. However, it has also been shown that scenarios designed solely with stakeholder input rarely approach optimal solutions. For a complex multi-criteria problem, it is recommended that modelling can be used to highlight unexpected benefits or conflicts to inform stakeholders in subsequent iterations of the scenarios

(Arkema et al., 2015).

5.3 Socio-economic factors in coastal zone planning

There is a mutual influence between coastal spatial planning and coastal economic development (Weig and Schultz-Zehden, 2019). Specifically, coastal spatial planning can create new economic potential by providing new functional space and promoting synergies. At the same time, project funding, economic context, and expected benefits can determine whether the planning process is sustainable. Challenges to integrating socioeconomics into the planning have been reported in many studies, mainly the lack of detailed data about economic impacts (Weig and Schultz-Zehden, 2019; Schwartz-Belkin and Portman, 2024). Several studies used scenario modelling and economic input-output tables to describe the impacts of marine spatial use on coastal economy (Morrissey and O'Donoghue, 2013; Jacobsen et al., 2014; Carvalho and Inácio De Moraes, 2021). The socio-economic data available are mainly on monetary benefits related to sectoral values, number of firms and employment, lacking data which can reflect the geographical distribution of economic benefits. In order to fill this gap, the Spatial Economic Benefits Analysis (SEBA) tool was developed in the framework of the BONUS BaltSpace project and has been tested on the German Baltic coast (Weig, 2017). The geographic map of beneficiaries related to offshore activities, offshore wind and shipping can be obtained by this tool, but limited time and data availability restrict its further application. In addition, affected by resource type, time phase and geographical location, it is difficult to accurately estimate the non-market value assessment of coastal resources. Therefore, it is necessary to improve the system of economic statistics, accounting, monitoring and assessment of the coastal zone; and to carry out dynamic and long-term monitoring of the economic benefits and environmental impacts of projects. Optimizing the industrial layout of near-shore waters and expanding the development space for the fisheries and offshore wind farms in deep-water and far-shore areas can also help to achieve the greening and sustainable development of the coastal economy.

5.4 Long-term challenges under climate change

Coastal areas are more vulnerable to climate change-related impacts, such as sea-level rise and storm surges.

Climate change from a human-caused rise is increasing the frequency and intensity of extreme weather events in coastal areas. The integration of climate adaptation policies into existing policy frameworks meets the requirements of sustainable development strategies (Ross and Dovers, 2008; Adelle and Russel, 2013), which makes serious challenges that planners have to face. There is still a lack of effective practical experience. Moreover, the formulation of climate change policies is embedded across a number of sectors (e.g., energy, transport, industry, housing and agriculture), so the challenges for decision-makers is in fact to promote 'policy integration' while prioritizing climate objectives. Specifically, these challenges include: the lack of a normative trend towards integration, a vague understanding of the 'climate adaptation integration' concept, and a lack of synergies between sectors.

In a broader field, there is a number of literature describing the characteristics and means of Environmental Policy Integration (EPI) and analyzing experiences with combinations of various mechanisms (Jordan and Lenschow, 2010; Runhaar et al., 2014). The European Environment Agency (EEA) (2005) has produced a checklist of essential EPI elements, including the following: trends in drivers and pressures, political commitments; administrative cultures and practices, assessment and consultation, use of policy instruments, and monitoring and learning. This system has been used to evaluate progress towards EPI. However, there is relatively little written on how to undertake Climate Policy Integration (CPI), and even less from the perspective of the public policy and administration literature, with more attention paid to outputs and outcomes (Adelle and Russel, 2013). For example, Nilsson and Nilsson (2005) analyzed the integration of the climate considerations into the EU's energy, transport and agriculture sectors, while other studies have focused on the integration of climate objectives in energy sector (Wu et al., 2022) and land use planning (Di Gregorio et al., 2017). Subsequent studies have attempted to fill this gap. Serrao-Neumann et al. (2014) described the process of integration and evaluation of cross-sectoral adaptation policies under the consolidated adaptation themes, based on a study of the South East Queensland Climate Adaptation Research Initiative. They argued that the climate adaptation themes can be approached through five phases, namely foundation phase, substantiation phase, mainstreaming phase, review phase and consolidation phase. Long-term close monitoring, the adaptive management cycle, a complete policy evaluation mechanism, and broad stakeholder participation are essential to facilitate cross-sectoral integration of climate adaptation. In addition, there are concerns that complete 'integration' between coastal climate adaptation and other legislation can undermine the coastal management process (Warnken and Mosadeghi, 2018). Planners need scientific and legal tools (e.g., risk assessment, cumulative impact assessment and discretionary powers) to fight the challenges of integrating coastal management into regulatory planning, pollution control, natural resource management and biodiversity conservation frameworks.

Climate change aggravates exposure and vulnerability of the land-sea space. Therefore, it is necessary to enhance the resilience of coastal cities in planning, particularly to strengthen climate adaptation, such as by promoting disaster risk assessment, improving coastal infrastructure for disaster prevention and mitigation, and incorporating long-term sea level rise scenarios.

6 Future Progress Directions

Planners are thinking how to promote conservation across regions and scales, and 'integration' is always a primary objective of resource planning. In face of increasing climate change risks, sustainable development will be the way forward for future ICZM, reflected in the sustainability of long-term stakeholder engagement, effective communication among participants, sustainable use of ecological resources, sustainable coastal economic development, and sustainable coastal governance (Gallagher, 2010; Glass et al., 2023). Currently, several studies and projects are trying to use a 'land-sea conservation' approach based on the integration within multidomain ecosystem-based frameworks (Li et al., 2021; Yue et al., 2023). This approach emphasizes the promotion of systematic conservation of land and sea by identifying connectivity across economics and ecosystems, and optimizing the cost-benefits of actions across scales, and ecosystem responses (Pittman and Armitage, 2016; Yuan and Chang, 2021). For example, for Daly River in Australia, researchers maximized regional benefits, within a limited budget, using action-response curves (Adams et al., 2014). Requirements for refined management in the future will promote the widespread

application of new digital technologies, such as spatial ecological modelling, online spatial databases, and ecosystem service value calculation tools, covering the entire process of spatial data collection, management, analysis and decision-making.

In addition, in recent years, the 'land and sea integration' is always emphasized in many studies, which will also be one of the development directions of ICZM in the future. In terms of planning methodology, the discipline system of territorial spatial planning should involve a special chapter related to the sea. In terms of resource evaluation approaches, coordination, suitability evaluation and determination of the main functions should focus on both sides of the coastal zone. According to planning requirements and regional characteristics, ecological landscape corridors which involve important wetlands can be built, so as to enhance the connectivity of the coastal zone. In terms of social development and utilization activities, the environmental carrying capacity of marine resources and ecological sensitivity should be emphasized.

7 Conclusions

Land-sea interactions in the coastal zone pose increasingly serious challenges under the dual pressure of climate change and human activities. Countries around the world are compelled to take immediate actions to cope with the impacts. In this study, we review the development and recent advances in the field of coastal zone planning worldwide during the period 2000–2023, and suggest possible solutions to existing problems. After decades of non-sustainable development, coastal zone planning has shifted from decentralized, fuzzy, and reactive organization activities to integrated actions with clear objectives. More and more developing countries are involved. With the use of administrative and social approaches to ensure the effective implementation of planning. GIS tools have enabled integration of several data layers of environmental, social, and economic values, progressed functional zoning. Through the summary of historical studies, we find that planners could reconcile planning scopes, administrative hierarchy, and conservation objectives. Open discussions, clear monitoring mechanisms and structural frameworks facilitate deep public and researcher engagement. The absence of social datasets hampers the further dissemination of digital tools. Coastal resilience building needs to cover all phases of planning, as well as sectoral collaboration and policy development. Marine parts are not sufficiently considered, such as pollution from the sea, modelling of marine environment, and the impacts of planning on the sea. Therefore, there is a need to explore the integration of disciplines, to focus on the holistic nature of land-sea systems, and to develop more flexible and accurate spatial tools to better respond to climate change and to build more resilient coastal zones.

Conflict of Interest

The authors have no relevant financial or non-financial interests to disclose.

Author Contributions

All authors reviewed and commented on the manuscript. WANG Xinyi contributed to perform the literature search and drafted the manuscript. SU Fenzhen, WANG Xuege, PAN Tingting and CUI Yikun provided strategic advice on the manuscript. LYNE Vincent and Yan Fengqin contributed to guiding and revising the manuscript.

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