

1           **Quantifying stakeholder learning in climate change adaptation across**  
2           **multiple relational and participatory networks**

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14 **ABSTRACT**

15  
16 Responding to accelerating climate change impacts requires broad and effective engagement  
17 with stakeholders, at multiple geographic and governance levels. Stakeholder participation  
18 has been hailed as a facilitated approach in climate change adaptation that supports social  
19 learning, depolarization of perceptions, and fosters collective action. But stakeholder  
20 participation remains loosely interpreted and evaluating measures are limited. This study  
21 employs social network analysis (SNA) to investigate how social relations among  
22 stakeholders, which emerge as a result of participation, are associated with stakeholder  
23 learning, as changes in perceptions of climate change. We hypothesized that reciprocal ties of  
24 understanding, respect, and influence can predict changes in perceptions of climate change.  
25 This approach was applied to a case study in Deal Island Peninsula, Maryland (USA) where  
26 local residents, scientists, and government officials met from 2016 – 2018 to collaboratively  
27 manage the impacts of sea-level rise in their communities. We found that social relations  
28 based on mutual *understanding, respect and influence* are positively associated with  
29 perceptions of climate change. We provide a detailed conceptualization and implementation  
30 of a network-based approach that may serve as a potential quantitative performance measure  
31 of stakeholder participation processes in climate change adaptation. Overall, this study  
32 provides empirical evidence of the role that emerging social relations have on enhancing or  
33 constraining social learning among stakeholders in the Deal Island Peninsula project.  
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41 **1. INTRODUCTION**

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44 Climate change is increasingly portrayed as a complex, ‘wicked’ environmental problem  
45 (Balint et al., 2011; Markowska et al., 2020). Developing local responses to climate change  
46 requires flexible, adaptive strategies based on a holistic understanding of climate change, its  
47 drivers and impacts, and the governance structures at varying geographic scales (Pasquier et  
48 al., 2020; Teodoro and Nairn, 2020). Stakeholder participation is increasingly seen as a key  
49 factor in acquiring a more holistic understanding of complex environmental problems (Baird  
50 et al., 2016; Calliari et al., 2019; Pasquier et al., 2020; van Aalst et al., 2008) and developing  
51 well-informed local governance responses to climate change impacts (Calliari et al., 2019;  
52 Shackleton et al., 2019). Stakeholder participation facilitates knowledge innovations  
53 (Cvitanovic et al., 2019; Rathwell et al., 2015), is fundamental for social learning processes  
54 (Cundill and Rodela, 2012; Lankester, 2013), and builds social ties among diverse  
55 stakeholders (Cockburn et al., 2016; Macgillivray, 2018). Yet evaluating stakeholder  
56 participation efforts can be difficult as evaluation frameworks vary across different case  
57 studies and research contexts (see Hassenforder et al., 2016). As such, understanding the link  
58 between stakeholder participation and its targeted outcomes could be strengthened by  
59 frameworks and evaluations that cut across a wide range of cases.

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61 In this paper, we employ exploratory research to evaluate how stakeholder participation  
62 facilitates social learning in climate change adaptation. In constructing our evaluation  
63 framework, we draw upon the environmental management (EM) literature pertaining to  
64 processes of participation, social networks, and social learning. We apply this framework to a  
65 2.5-year collaborative research project (2016 – 2018) taking place in Chesapeake Bay, USA.  
66 Here, researchers from multiple disciplines actively engaged, via a range of workshops and  
67 meetings, with community residents and government employees to collaboratively construct  
68 a vulnerability-resiliency assessment of the area (Paolisso et al., 2019). Evaluation of the  
69 effects this project had on stakeholders’ learning and social networks occurred through an  
70 online survey, which was administered at the beginning, middle, and end of the project. This  
71 survey measured stakeholders’ climate change perceptions, as well as a range of social ties to  
72 one another. Data gathered from this survey was then compiled and submitted to a network  
73 panel linear modeling framework, to assess the extent to which individual stakeholders’  
74 perceptions corresponded to the perceptions of others with whom they had social ties. In what  
75 follows, we first summarize the literature informing our evaluation framework, and then  
76 proceed with a description of our research site, measures, analyses, and results. We conclude  
77 with a reflection on how our results link to the larger body of literature on stakeholder  
78 participation and social learning, calling attention to the important role played by social  
79 networks.

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81 **2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

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83 Our basic premise is that stakeholder participation leads to social interaction and the  
84 formation of social ties, and in turn, these interactions and ties lead to social learning on the

85 individual level. By *stakeholder participation*, we mean the process in which all relevant  
86 actors engage to discuss a management objective and is guided by a philosophy of  
87 empowerment, equity, trust, and learning (Anggraeni et al., 2019; Reed, 2008). This  
88 participatory process aims to systematize knowledge in a way that is useful to practitioners  
89 and scientists (Schwilch et al., 2012). *Social ties* refer to the relations linking individuals  
90 together and can range from those based on social interaction to relations based on respect  
91 and understanding. Finally, *social learning* refers to an individual's change in perceptions or  
92 beliefs as a result of being exposed to the perceptions or beliefs of others within a  
93 participatory group (van der Wal et al., 2014). In what follows, we summarize the literature  
94 linking these processes together.

## 95 96 **2.1 Participation and social networks**

97  
98 Environmental management studies indicate that engaging stakeholders in participatory  
99 processes provide unique opportunities for stakeholders to interact face-to-face and share  
100 their views (Daniels and Walker, 2001; Lumosi et al., 2019; Paolisso et al., 2019). Such  
101 interactions form channels through which information can flow (Ernoul and Wardell-  
102 Johnson, 2013), and mutual understanding to occur (Rist et al., 2006). In addition, these  
103 interactions can lead to the formation of collaboration ties (Anggraeni et al., 2019; Baird et  
104 al., 2018; Bodin and Crona, 2009; Kochskämper et al., 2016; Masuda, 2007), and ties based  
105 on trust and/or respect (Cundill and Rodela, 2012; García-Nieto et al., 2019). The field of  
106 social network analysis (SNA) has increasingly been adopted within the EM field as a means  
107 for capturing such relations (Bodin, 2017; Bodin and Prell, 2011). The application of network  
108 analysis has tested the extent to which participation leads to tie formation among stakeholders  
109 (Baird et al., 2016; Plummer et al., 2017a), as well as a means for identifying diverse  
110 stakeholders in participatory processes (Prell et al., 2011).

111  
112 In this study, stakeholder participation is practically seen as the number of times stakeholders  
113 attend project workshops and meetings in which they engage in collaborative decision-  
114 making processes. A substantive amount of work has been done in the methods for  
115 identifying heterogenous stakeholders who represent different aspects of the social-ecological  
116 system in focus, with keen attention to the inclusion of minorities and/or marginalized groups  
117 (Colvin et al., 2016; Hauck et al., 2016; Prell et al., 2008). Once stakeholders are identified  
118 and participate (i.e., attend meetings), it is expected that social ties will be formed and  
119 strengthened across stakeholder groups. The dynamics of connectivity are capture and  
120 studied through the use of SNA.

## 121 122 **2.2 Participation and learning**

123  
124 EM research adopting an SNA approach also indicates that social networks act as moderating  
125 mechanisms that lead to stakeholder learning (Cundill and Rodela, 2012; Lankester, 2013;  
126 Schwilch et al., 2012). Here, social ties are seen as conduits for explicit and implicit  
127 information flows regarding environmental problems and management issues (Sandström et  
128 al., 2014), which exposes stakeholders to the perceptions and beliefs of others and may lead

129 them to modify their views and/or behaviors regarding an environmental issue (Crona et al.,  
130 2011; Muter et al., 2013). Such a process of linking, sharing information, and modifying  
131 one's views and/or behavior is referred to as social contagion (Burt, 1987). Leenders (2002)  
132 operationalized social contagion as a result of an individual's embeddedness in a social  
133 network, where *embeddedness* refers to the degree to which an individual is linked to others  
134 within a bounded set network of actors (e.g., participatory workshops). As the level of  
135 embeddedness increases for an individual, so is the likelihood of that person changing his/her  
136 views based on the views of networked partners, thus enabling the process of social  
137 contagion to occur (Burt, 1987; Doreian et al., 1989; Leenders, 2002).

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139 Studies across a range of empirical contexts have given support for social contagion (e.g.,  
140 Christakis and Fowler, 2013; Friedkin, 2001; Marsden and Friedkin, 1993). In the context of  
141 EM, Muter et al. (2013) found evidence for contagion happening between experts and  
142 laypeople regarding their perceptions of wildlife conservation. In particular, they found that  
143 having more and stronger communication ties between experts and laypeople made them  
144 more likely to share similar perceptions about wildlife management. Prell et al. (2010) and de  
145 Nooy (2013) found similar results when evaluating how stakeholders share similar  
146 knowledge, values, and perceptions with communication partners. However, not all types of  
147 knowledge, values, and perceptions have the same degree of contagion, as individuals may  
148 seek only certain types of information from their networked partners but not others (de Nooy,  
149 2013). Similarly, Matous and Todo (2015) found that information-exchange ties among  
150 farmers led to the diffusion of composting practices in Ethiopia. As such, social networks can  
151 lead to more than the contagion of knowledge and perceptions, it may lead to behavioral  
152 changes in environmental management (Matous and Todo, 2015).

153

154 Social contagion can occur via *different* types of social networks, but not necessarily in *all*  
155 kinds of networks. For example, Muter et al. (2013) showed that some perceptions were not  
156 associated with communication ties but did not discard the possibility that actors may have  
157 been influenced by other, unobserved, networks. Other studies indicate that relations  
158 containing a more social dimension (e.g. friendship or social rapport) tend to lead to  
159 contagion processes more readily than relations based solely on instrumental pursuit (Prell  
160 and Lo, 2016; Uzzi and Lancaster, 2003). As such, studies that only consider one social  
161 network, such as communication (de Nooy, 2013; Prell et al., 2010), collaboration ties  
162 (Bodin, 2017; de Klepper et al., 2010), or advice (Freitag et al., 2018; Gibbons, 2004; Matous  
163 and Todo, 2015), may only provide partial views of social contagion within the scope of a  
164 single network. Gathering data on multiple networks may enable a study to better capture the  
165 variety of social processes linking stakeholders together (Hauck et al., 2016; Therrien et al.,  
166 2018). Thus, providing a deeper, more nuanced understanding of the dimensionality of the  
167 social processes influencing perceptions and behavior.

168

169 In this study, we present a quantitative SNA approach that captures specific relational  
170 networks among stakeholders arising out of a participatory process. These ties are based on  
171 understanding, respect, and influence. Ties based on understanding are those in which actors  
172 believe other actors in the network understand their views, beliefs, and/or values. Such ties

173 are expected to increase among stakeholders as a result of participatory practices (Lumosi et  
174 al., 2019; Mostert et al., 2007; Reed et al., 2010; Rist et al., 2006; Schwilch et al., 2012).  
175 Similarly, ties based on respect are those in which stakeholders feel that other participants  
176 respect their views, beliefs, and values, and again, the participation literature notes the  
177 importance of maintaining and strengthening respect among stakeholders via the  
178 participatory process (Kocho-Schellenberg and Berkes, 2015; Rathwell et al., 2015; Rist et  
179 al., 2006). Finally, ties based on influence are those in which stakeholders feel that other  
180 participants have influenced their views, beliefs, and values. The literature refers to influence  
181 in participation as the relative power some individuals have to influence others (Ceddia et al.,  
182 2017; Hauck et al., 2016, 2015; Schiffer and Hauck, 2010). Collectively, this range of  
183 networks aims to capture the multidimensionality of cognitive relationships that arise among  
184 stakeholders via participation, and then tests the extent to which these relations (individually  
185 or collectively) lead to contagion. Yet in addition, we also capture the varying strength of ties  
186 for each relation. Tie strength refers to the degree of emotional intensity, intimacy, and  
187 reciprocity of a social tie between two actors (Krackhardt et al., 2003), and may be captured  
188 through a Likert scale item. In the literature, stronger ties are often linked to stakeholder  
189 influence and mutual learning (Prell et al., 2009), while weaker ties are linked to access to  
190 new information (Granovetter, 1983). For contagion processes, stronger ties between two  
191 actors in a network increase the likelihood of both adopting similar views and behaviors  
192 (Muter et al., 2013).

193  
194 An additional network of interactions between stakeholders outside of the participatory  
195 process was gathered to control for potential contagion from outside project sources. The  
196 distinction between interaction-based and cognitive networks is not fully understood in the  
197 literature. As such, this study may also contribute in filling this gap in the literature.

198  
199 Taken together, the evaluative approach presented here advances the work linking social  
200 networks to EM outcomes in a number of key respects. First, we capture greater complexity  
201 by measuring a range of networks, over time, among the same set of actors. These networks,  
202 moreover, also capture the varying strength of ties linking actors together. As such, by  
203 quantitatively measuring network multiplexity and varying tie strength, over time, we bring a  
204 level of precision to EM studies that aim to capture complex social processes and their  
205 outcomes. Second, we measure the impact that stakeholder networks, formed through  
206 participatory processes, have on individual learning by linking these two via a contagion  
207 approach that directly accounts for stakeholders' ties and the perceptions of networked  
208 partners. In this way, our approach advances the measurement of learning from perception-  
209 based measures to one that accounts for the role of social relations. Finally, this approach is  
210 embedded within a transdisciplinary research project, where scientists engaged directly as  
211 part of the research project, in this way, this knowledge can be facilitated to practitioners and  
212 other stakeholders that may employ a similar approach in different regions.

213

### 214 **3. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

#### 215 **3.1 Study Area**

216

217 To address the aim of this study, we selected a case study with the participatory conditions  
218 needed to test our methodology. The Deal Island peninsula is located on the Eastern Shore of  
219 Maryland, USA, along the Chesapeake Bay. The peninsula covers an area of approximately  
220 18 square miles, inhabited by about 1000 people. Given the ideal location at the shore, the  
221 main source of income is from harvesting seafood, mainly crabs (*Callinectes sapidus*) and  
222 oysters (*Crassostrea virginica*), and many of the inhabitants' families have lived similar  
223 lifestyles on this island for many generations over the last 300 years. The island is  
224 experiencing an increase in flooding and coastal erosion related to a changing climate  
225 (Paolisso et al., 2019). Projections of future climate change in the Chesapeake Bay show,  
226 among others, an increase in sea-level rise, storm frequency and severity, flooding, and  
227 erosion (Teodoro and Nairn, 2020). In light of these impacts, community members have  
228 sought out for support from county and state government (Paolisso et al., 2019). As a result, a  
229 network of stakeholders including scientists, local and state government representatives, and  
230 residents have established the Deal Island Peninsula Partnership (DIPP), which aims to  
231 reduce the vulnerabilities of the Deal Island Peninsula area to the climate impacts by creating  
232 partnerships between communities and relevant stakeholders through a collaborative science  
233 and learning approach (Miller Hesed et al., 2020). We chose this area because of DIPP's  
234 focus on climate adaptation and its goal to facilitate learning across a diverse set of  
235 stakeholders.

236

237 DIPP stakeholders were invited to participate in the Integrated Coastal Resilience Assessment  
238 (ICRA) project, which aimed to bring stakeholders together, via a number of collaborative  
239 activities, to identify geographic areas of concern on the Deal Island peninsula, document the  
240 vulnerabilities and resilience within these areas, and identify a list of adaptation strategies.  
241 Initial participants were invited from previous DIPP engagements and notices were placed in  
242 community centers, newspapers, and mail to invite all interested persons to the project  
243 events.

244

### 245 **3.2 Data collection and data characteristics**

246

247 Online surveys were distributed to active ICRA participants, which collected data three times  
248 between 2016–2018. The survey was divided into two main components: a part of the  
249 perceptions of climate change and another part of the social ties between stakeholders. The  
250 questions on perceptions included seven 4-point Likert statements on climate change (Table  
251 1). Participants were asked to rate the statements depending on how much they agreed or  
252 disagreed with each statement. Individual statements were intended to gauge the perceptions  
253 of the respondent on climate change awareness, risks, and actions. The responses had high  
254 internal reliability (Cronbach  $\alpha = 0.96$ ) and were combined into a single averaged score. This  
255 score can be interpreted as a person's overall level of awareness of the causes and impacts of  
256 climate change in their community.

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1. The climate is changing in different ways from before due to the impacts of human activities.
2. Climate change is affecting the communities of the Deal Island Peninsula already.
3. Climate change is affecting the environment of the Deal Island Peninsula already.
4. The Deal Island Peninsula area will experience more storms and floods in the future due to climate change.
5. The resilience of Deal Island Peninsula communities will be reduced in the future due to climate change.
6. Climate change is a significant threat to the social and ecological system of the Deal Island Peninsula.
7. Building relationships with people and organizations that have an interest in the Deal Island Peninsula and can help communities cope with climate change.

261 *Table 1. Questions for measuring perceptions of climate change in the survey*

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On the social networks section of the survey, participants were asked to provide information about four types of social relations they held with other participants in the DIPP (Table 2). A roster was provided to each respondent with the names of all other DIPP members, and respondents were asked three Likert scaled network questions (where 1 = ‘a little’, 2 = ‘somewhat’, 3 = ‘a lot’, 0 = non-existent) pertaining to perceived feelings of understanding, respect, and influence (see Table 2). These three network measures were included to gauge how feelings of respect, understanding, and influence changed over time as a result of DIPP participation. However, as some participants had more face-to-face interaction outside of DIPP meetings than others (e.g. they were neighbors or worked at the same organization), we also included this interaction network as a control measure to take into account the extent to which stakeholders interacted with others outside of the DIPP (see question 4, Table 2).

Type of network	Network question in the survey
1. Understanding	This person understands my views regarding the DIPP area.
2. Respect	I feel this person respects my views/ beliefs regarding the community and environmental problems facing Deal Island.
3. Influence	This person has influenced my understanding of the community and environmental problems affecting the DIPP area.
4. Interaction	Do you interact with this person outside the project?

275 *Table 2. Social relations data and corresponding survey questions*

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Additional control data collected via the survey included age, gender, income level, and stakeholder category (i.e., whether a person was a local, a government official, or a scientist; see Table 3). By including the stakeholder category as a dummy variable, we were able to isolate the network effects within stakeholder categories.

	T = 1 (N = 53)	T = 2 (N = 52)	T = 3 (N = 42)
<b>Stakeholder Type</b>			
Local	19	19	19
Scientists	13	12	8
Government	21	20	14
<b>Age</b>			
Mean	42.21	52.77	52.83
Min	29	29	29
Max	79	79	75
<b>Gender</b>			
Male	31	28	22
Female	22	24	20
<b>Income (1 – 9)</b>			
Mean	4.51	5.81	5.80

282 *Table 3. Longitudinal qualities of collected data.*

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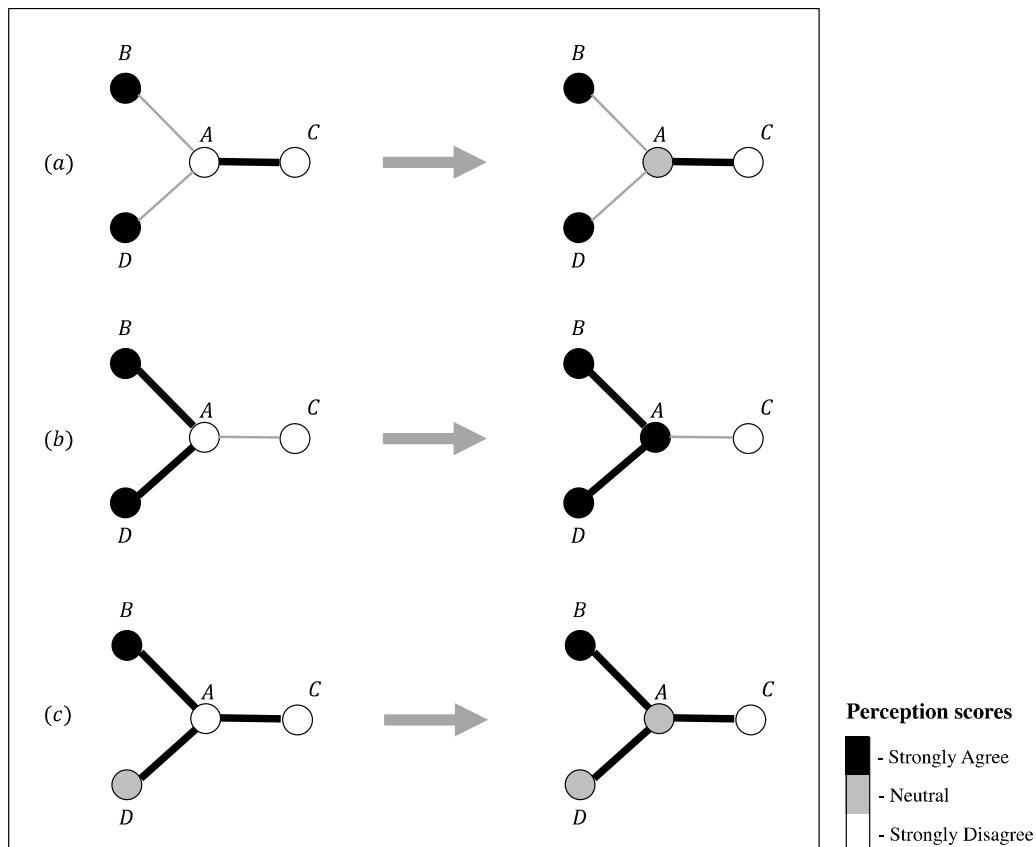
284

### 3.3 Operationalizing social contagion

285  
 286 Social ties are commonly represented in SNA as a square matrix ( $W$ ), where all stakeholders  
 287 sending ties are represented in rows ( $W_i$ ) and stakeholders receiving ties are represented in  
 288 columns ( $W_j$ ). The tie value between any pair of stakeholders is represented in matrix  $W$  as  
 289 nonzero  $W_{ij}$  values.

290  
 291 Although most network studies focus on binary networks, modeling empirical networks in  
 292 which the strength or intensity of tie varies could provide greater insights into the social  
 293 system under question, and a richer understanding of the social relationships overall (Barrat  
 294 et al., 2004). In our dataset, although we captured ties ranging from weak, i.e. where  
 295 respondents gave their relationship with another participant a ranking of 1 ('little'), to  
 296 moderate, i.e. with a ranking of 2 ('sometimes'), and strong, i.e. where respondents ranked  
 297 the strength of a tie as 3 ('a lot'), for modeling purposes, we discarded all weak ties from the  
 298 dataset, and only included those ties with a rank of moderate ('sometimes') or strong ('a lot').  
 299 This decision to discard weak ties was based on the fact that (i) past SNA research has  
 300 shown, across an array of empirical contexts, that stronger ties are good in the  
 301 implementation of conservation and adaptation actions (Barnes et al., 2017; Bodin et al.,  
 302 2019; Weenig and Midden, 1991), and (ii) stronger ties are better predictors of changes in  
 303 views among stakeholders because a person is more likely to adopt the views of someone  
 304 they trust and share a degree of intimacy (Prell et al., 2010). The strength of a tie may affect  
 305 the perceptions of actors in different ways depending on the number of ties a given actor  
 306 holds with others and the perceptions of those others (Figure 1).  
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309

310 *Figure 1. Different settings where strong ties may impact perceptions over time: (a) a strong tie may counteract*  
311 *influence from others, (b) strong ties with actors with drastically different views may accelerate a rapid change*  
312 *in perceptions, (c) strong ties with actors with varying degrees of perceptions may lead to a moderate change in*  
313 *perceptions.*

314

315

316 In addition to discarding weak ties from our dataset, we also discarded non-reciprocated  
317 links, following Krackhardt et al. (2003). The decision for focusing on reciprocal ties was  
318 founded, firstly, on the emphasis placed in participatory literature, and on the importance of  
319 *mutual* learning in participation (Bhattachan et al., 2018). This means that the exchange of  
320 knowledge among stakeholders is expected to be a two-way exchange based on  
321 understanding, respect, and/or influence (Bhattachan et al., 2018; Rathwell et al., 2015; Rist  
322 et al., 2006).

323

324 Our resulting matrix thus consisted of valued, reciprocal ties among stakeholders, where a 1  
325 = moderate, and 2 = strong ties. Additionally, following suggestions of Leenders (2002), we  
326 normalized  $W$  by row, which transforms the network ties into weights distributed to all of the  
327 ego's outgoing ties and whose sum equals 1 for all stakeholders. The row-normalization is  
328 applicable when the goal is to limit the incoming influence for all stakeholders. However, by  
329 doing this we do not consider the influence people exert on others. This approach was used  
330 because of our focus on individual learning. Using this transformed  $W$  matrix, we can then  
331 operationalize influence using the following formula:

332

$$333 \quad (1) \quad A_{rt} = W_{rt} \cdot p_t$$

334

335 Where  $A_{rt}$  contain the variables of influence for each social relation ( $r$ ) in period  $t$ ,  $W_{rt}$  are  
336 distinct network weighted matrices (four in our case) in period  $t$ , and  $p_t$  is the vector of  
337 climate change perception scores for all stakeholders in period  $t$ . This multiplication  
338 generated a vector of weighted sums of perceptions to which each stakeholder was exposed.  
339 After computing the influence variables ( $A_{rt}$ ) we introduced it to a network panel linear  
340 model (formula 2) to evaluate the effect each network ( $r$ ) has on climate change perception  
341 scores:<sup>1</sup>

342

$$343 \quad (2) \quad p_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 A_{rt} + \beta_2 x_{it} + a_i + \varepsilon_{it}$$

344

345 where  $i = 1, \dots, n$  is the individual stakeholder index,  $t = 1, \dots, T$  is the time index,  $a_i$  is the  
346 individual unobserved effect, and  $\varepsilon_{it}$  a random disturbance term of mean 0. We assume that  
347 the unobserved effect  $a_i$  is uncorrelated with the explanatory variables (independent of all  
348 explanatory variables in all periods) and we consider the network as non-random and  
349 exogenous, following Jochmans and Wiedner (2019). The analysis was done using the *plm*  
350 routine in R package *plm* (Croissant and Millo, 2008). This modeling approach was adequate

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<sup>1</sup> This model is akin to network autocorrelation models (Doreian, 1989; Leenders, 2002) for longitudinal data.

351 to deal with changes in the network size at every data collection period, addressing an  
 352 important challenge in the study of stakeholder participation processes over time.

353  
 354 **4. RESULTS**  
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356 In this section, we first present the descriptive results for each social network and the  
 357 corresponding variable of influence. Then, we present the modeling results for each social  
 358 network as well as the results of a combined model.

359  
 360 **4.1 Descriptive network-level data**  
 361

362 Descriptive measures were computed to characterize the structure of our social relationships  
 363 (Table 4). Summary statistics of each network include (1) the density, which refers to the size  
 364 and level of connectivity in a network (i.e., the ratio of existing ties and the number of all  
 365 possible ties); (2) the average degree centrality, which is the average number of reciprocal  
 366 ties for all stakeholders at any given time; (3) its centralization, which indicates the level of  
 367 hierarchy present in the network; and (4) the number of total ties in each network. These  
 368 measures are descriptive indicators of social connectivity and provide information on the  
 369 network dataset used in this analysis.  
 370

Networks	Waves	Ave. Centrality (SD)	Centralization	Density	Total ties
<i>Understand</i>	Wave 1:	2.98 (3.35)	0.367	0.057	158
	Wave 2:	3.85 (4.02)	0.370	0.075	200
	Wave 3:	6.00 (5.72)	0.613	0.146	252
<i>Respect</i>	Wave 1:	3.17 (3.70)	0.529	0.061	168
	Wave 2:	4.31 (4.32)	0.406	0.084	224
	Wave 3:	6.09 (5.74)	0.743	0.148	256
<i>Influence</i>	Wave 1:	2.19 (2.99)	0.409	0.042	116
	Wave 2:	2.19 (3.21)	0.292	0.043	114
	Wave 3:	3.62 (4.32)	0.487	0.088	152
<i>Interaction</i>	Wave 1:	2.38 (2.33)	0.138	0.048	126
	Wave 2:	3.08 (2.71)	0.241	0.060	160
	Wave 3:	2.95 (2.65)	0.254	0.072	124

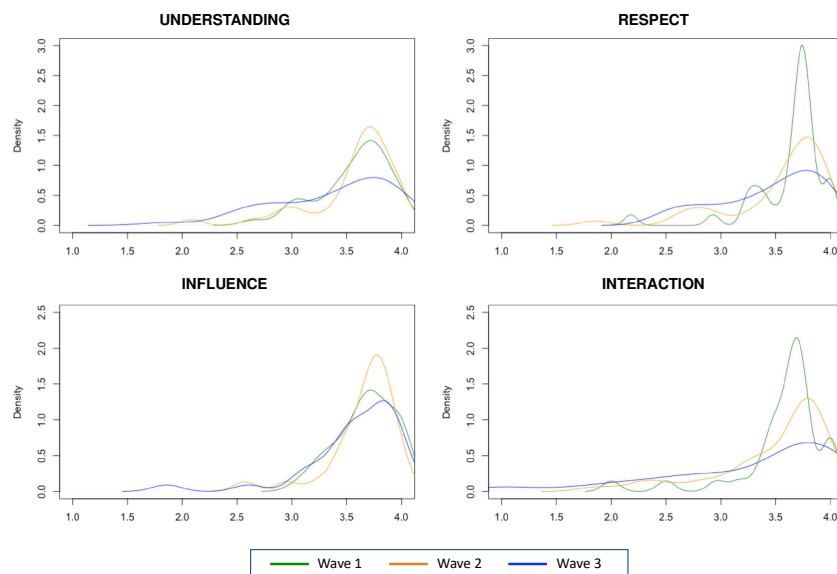
371 *Table 4. Summary of reciprocal network-level descriptive statistics*

372  
 373 Looking at the structural characteristics of the social network (Table 4), we observed the  
 374 following: both the *Understanding* and *Respect* networks follow similar trends over time.  
 375 Their sizes grew in similar proportions as shown by their densities and number of ties. Their  
 376 average degree jumps to 6.00 and 6.09 at period 3 for *Understanding* and *Respect* networks,  
 377 respectively; making these networks the ones with the most connectivity increase in our data.  
 378 The centralization scores of *Understanding* and *Respect* networks differ in that *Respect* drops  
 379 to 0.406 in wave 2, compared to a 0.529 in wave 1. Similarly, the centralization score of the  
 380 *Influence* network drops to 0.292 in wave 2, compared to 0.409 in wave 1. This drop in  
 381 centralization scores in wave 2 indicates that the distribution of ties, for both social relations,  
 382 became more even and less centered around a few, dominant stakeholders. Other measures of  
 383 the *Influence* network show a similar size and centrality for wave 1 and 2, and an increase on  
 384 all measures in wave 3. The *Interaction* network shows a steady composition throughout the

385 three periods. Its size, centrality, and centralization remain roughly consistent, and one might  
 386 interpret this as an indication that ICRA activities did not lead to greater interactions outside  
 387 project meetings, but rather, such outside interactions were separate from ICRA related  
 388 events. Its lower centralization score compared to other networks suggests informal  
 389 interaction ties are spread out among stakeholders and that there is no central group of actors  
 390 that everybody interacts with outside the project.

391  
 392 Perceptions of climate change are mostly within the upper side of the scale—most actors hold  
 393 climate change perception scores between 3 and 4 (4 = “strongly agree”). The generally high  
 394 level of climate change perceptions in our dataset was expected, given that most stakeholders  
 395 in DIPP had been meeting and collaborating for a few years before the ICRA data was  
 396 collected. A visualization of the level of climate change perceptions to which stakeholders  
 397 were exposed is shown in Figure 2.

398



399  
 400

401 *Figure 2. Density plots of overall perceptions of climate awareness to which stakeholders are exposed to*  
 402 *divided by data periods.*

403

404 The majority of respondents (60%) in our sample were exposed to high levels of climate  
 405 change perceptions. This pattern is true for all networks at all periods, with some important  
 406 nuances. First, the *Understanding* network shows a decreasing trend in the proportion of  
 407 people exposed to high levels of climate change perceptions, from 67.8% in period 1 to  
 408 61.9% in period 3. A decreasing value may be seen as a positive outcome, given that more  
 409 *Understanding* ties may have been formed between stakeholders with initially different views  
 410 on climate change (e.g., scientists reporting they felt understood by locals). On the other  
 411 hand, the *Respect* and *Influence* networks show an increase in the proportion of people  
 412 exposed to high levels of climate change perceptions from period 1 (66% and 60%) to period  
 413 3 (69% and 70%), respectively. An interpretation of this may be that more people reported  
 414 being respected and influenced by individuals who reported high scores of climate change  
 415 perceptions (e.g., locals increasingly reporting they felt respected and influenced by  
 416 scientists). The network of outside-project interaction shows some variability in the

417 proportion of stakeholders influenced by high levels of climate change perceptions, but with  
418 no recognizable trend.

419

#### 420 **4.2 Panel model results**

421

422 The results of models (1) – (10) in Table 5 show that the individual social networks based on  
423 reciprocal understanding, respect, influence, and interaction outside of the project, predict a  
424 statistically significant and positive relationship with the levels of climate change perceptions  
425 among stakeholders. When looking at the effects of control variables (age, gender, income),  
426 we see that age is consistently significant in the full model of all networks. Age's negative  
427 coefficient suggests that older respondents are more likely to have lower climate change  
428 perception scores when controlling for all other effects and social networks. In the literature,  
429 the relationship between age and perceptions of climate change is inconclusive, with some  
430 finding a positive relationship (Apata et al., 2009) and others a negative (Aphunu and  
431 Nwabeze, 2013). Here, we show that age is indeed a significant predictor of climate change  
432 perceptions, with a negative relationship. Income is significant in the *Influence* network,  
433 suggesting that individuals with high income are more likely to have higher levels of climate  
434 change perceptions.

435

436 When looking at stakeholder characteristics (i.e., stakeholder type), belonging to a local  
437 resident category was only significant in the base models but became insignificant in the full  
438 models for all networks. The dummy variable for data period 3 (*t3*) was significant in the  
439 *Understanding* and *Respect* networks; suggesting that on that period of data collection, a  
440 significant number of understanding and respect ties were created that facilitated the  
441 influence of perceptions of climate change.

442

Predicting: Perceptions of Climate Change											
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
<b>Social networks effects:</b>											
<i>Understanding</i>	0.484***	0.448***	0.491***								0.297
	(0.105)	(0.102)	(0.104)								(0.242)
<i>Respect</i>				0.514***	0.493***	0.540***					0.036
				(0.125)	(0.121)	(0.123)					(0.276)
<i>Influence</i>							0.358***	0.415***	0.424***		0.228*
							(0.133)	(0.129)	(0.128)		(0.135)
<i>Interaction</i>										0.436***	0.337**
										(0.090)	(0.170)
<b>Control variables:</b>											
Research	0.029	0.190	0.179	0.047	0.191	0.187	0.099	0.280	0.273	0.251	
	(0.171)	(0.172)	(0.173)	(0.170)	(0.167)	(0.168)	(0.219)	(0.205)	(0.208)	(0.169)	
Local	-0.616***	-0.289	-0.305	-0.569***	-0.259	-0.255	-0.792***	-0.356	-0.366	-0.125	
	(0.194)	(0.209)	(0.209)	(0.192)	(0.205)	(0.205)	(0.239)	(0.241)	(0.244)	(0.209)	
Age		-0.011**	-0.011**		-0.010**	-0.011**		-0.013***	-0.014***	-0.014***	
		(0.004)	(0.005)		(0.004)	(0.004)		(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.005)	
Gender		-0.165	-0.141		-0.212	-0.188		-0.209	-0.198	-0.122	
		(0.155)	(0.156)		(0.146)	(0.147)		(0.183)	(0.185)	(0.148)	
Income		0.040	0.034		0.032	0.028		0.066**	0.063*	0.011	
		(0.029)	(0.029)		(0.028)	(0.029)		(0.033)	(0.033)	(0.029)	
t2			0.068			0.087			0.104	0.062	
			(0.067)			(0.069)			(0.077)	(0.059)	
t3			0.151**			0.137*			0.101	0.091	
			(0.074)			(0.074)			(0.081)	(0.067)	
Constant	1.849***	2.271***	2.094***	1.737***	2.150***	1.958***	2.195***	2.291***	2.245***	2.598***	0.252
	(0.402)	(0.445)	(0.452)	(0.473)	(0.497)	(0.508)	(0.516)	(0.575)	(0.575)	(0.405)	(0.659)
Observations	112	111	111	115	114	114	92	91	91	110	84
R <sup>2</sup>	0.391	0.447	0.466	0.382	0.447	0.463	0.314	0.416	0.427	0.494	0.399
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.374	0.415	0.425	0.366	0.416	0.422	0.291	0.375	0.371	0.454	0.369
AIC	31.85	27.54	24.37	34.39	32.82	31.07	23.99	23.12	21.59	-4.14	15.452
F Statistic	64.192***	80.145***	85.077***	65.764***	84.017***	87.887***	33.868***	54.740***	56.266***	97.937***	48.877***

\*p<0.1; \*\*p<0.05; \*\*\*p<0.01

444 **Table 5.** Social network effects show a significant relationship with climate change perceptions in network  
445 panel modeling frameworks with prominent control variables.

446

447 Model (11) in Table 5 indicates that when modeled jointly, although all social network  
448 effects are positive, only the reciprocal networks of *Influence* and *Interaction* have a  
449 significant association with climate change perceptions. This may be because stakeholders  
450 can aptly identify those others that have influenced them the most, and thus the relation  
451 between influence ties and actual influence in perceptions are stronger than those of  
452 understanding and respect. In model (11), no other covariates were included to increase the  
453 degrees of freedom given the smaller number of observations. The number of observations  
454 decreases in Model (11) because it includes only the observations that have responses in all  
455 four networks.

456

457

458 **5. DISCUSSION**

459

460 The goal of this study was to investigate the effect that social networks have on social  
461 learning, which we defined as a change in perceptions in stakeholder participation.  
462 Specifically, we constructed variables to capture the social contagion process from different  
463 social networks that emerged during a stakeholder participatory process. This paper focused  
464 on multiple, valued social networks that are believed to be important aspects of stakeholder  
465 participation. Results show that reciprocal networks of *Understanding*, *Respect*, *Influence*,  
466 and *Interaction* have a statistically significant and positive relationship with perceptions of  
467 climate change among ICRA stakeholder participants. Thus, stakeholders in our study  
468 aligned their climate change views with those of their networked partners, across a range of  
469 social relations. These results provide implications for researchers and practitioners in  
470 climate change adaptation: namely in the management of stakeholder engagement processes.  
471 The methodological approach presented in this study may be replicated elsewhere to expand  
472 our findings and as an evaluation tool. Stakeholder participation is costly and time-  
473 consuming, and achieving its desired outcomes requires long-term commitments from all  
474 parties involved. However, our study shows that networks can capture social dynamics  
475 associated with learning even in 2.5 years.

476

477 The understanding network seems to be a reliable predictor of climate change perceptions  
478 among DIPP stakeholders. Asking individuals if they felt understood by other participants  
479 involves asking them about their experience within the participatory process, which goes  
480 beyond a simple connection. Indeed, feeling understood is a sign that, regardless of  
481 stakeholder type, individuals care about being able to express themselves and feeling like  
482 others acknowledge their views and understand them (Lauer et al., 2017). Reciprocal ties of  
483 understanding translate to mutual-understanding, which has shown to be a viable social  
484 dynamic that facilitates learning (Lumosi et al., 2019). Similarly, our results show that feeling  
485 respected by and respecting other individuals are also social processes that support learning  
486 in stakeholder participation. In the case of the ICRA participants, feeling understood and  
487 respected showed similar results. Certainly, one could argue that both mutual understanding  
488 and mutual respect contribute to an inclusive atmosphere in heterogeneous participatory  
489 projects (de Vente et al., 2016). Moreover, mutual influence in the joint model (11) showed a  
490 statistically significant and stronger effect than that of understanding and respect ties, which  
491 suggests that asking stakeholders to identify those who had influenced their understanding of  
492 the community and environmental problems in the DIP area is a direct and meaningful  
493 approach to map how the contagion of perceptions spreads through a network. Mutual-  
494 influence ties between individuals who have different, often opposing, views suggest that  
495 participatory projects like the ICRA can facilitate the formation of cognitive ties based on  
496 understanding and respect that support learning among a set of heterogeneous individuals.  
497 For example, scientists may learn about the local priorities and challenges directly from local  
498 residents who, in turn, may become more open to scientific information if they feel respected  
499 and understood by scientists. As a result, both may be open to learning from each other.

500

501 In our study, we used an *Interaction* network as a control to capture those social processes,  
502 outside the ICRA project, that may impact perception changes among stakeholders. The fact

503 that the *Interaction* network was significant echoes previous studies that had considered the  
504 role of communication and interaction ties on actors' environmental perceptions (Gore et al.,  
505 2009; Jasny et al., 2015; Prell et al., 2010; Scherer and Cho, 2003). In addition, controlling  
506 for these outside-ICRA interactions was important, as it helped tease apart the impact of  
507 *outside*-ICRA project interactions from cognitive processes taking place *within* the ICRA  
508 project. By finding support for both *within*- and *outside*-project relations, our study  
509 demonstrates that outside interactions *may* contribute to contagion processes, yet they  
510 certainly do not replace the influence that cognitive relations (i.e. mutual understanding,  
511 respect, and influence), engendered via stakeholder participation, have on participants  
512 learning from one another and becoming more similar in their perceptions overtime. As such,  
513 our results advance the literature on participation and learning by offering greater precision  
514 on the comparative role of within-project relations alongside outside-project interactions. As  
515 of this writing, we are unaware of any study in the participatory literature that accounts for  
516 such an array of competing tendencies as those we tested here.

517  
518 This study's findings suggest that a participatory process that nurtures an atmosphere where  
519 stakeholders increasingly feel understood, respected, and open to the influence of others is  
520 conducive for learning. The fact that all networks show significance in predicting perceptions  
521 of climate change show that the multidimensional nature of social relations can, and should,  
522 have an impact on contagion processes (Prell and Lo, 2016; Uzzi and Lancaster, 2003), and  
523 hence, be measured in stakeholder participation. Several scholars have argued that the quality  
524 of outcomes depends greatly on the quality of the participatory process (de Vente et al., 2016;  
525 Plummer et al., 2017b), and our findings supplement this, by showing which kinds of social  
526 relational processes matter. Networks of understanding, respect, and influence, enabled by  
527 participatory processes, highlights the positive impact that stakeholder engagement can have  
528 in developing larger, stronger, and diverse networks that may increase the adaptive capacity  
529 of a community to climate changes (Anggraeni et al., 2019; Cundill and Rodela, 2012).

530  
531 Our results show that the level of climate change perceptions is the highest in the scientist  
532 group, moderately lower in the government official group, and the lowest in the local resident  
533 group, although the difference is not significant among the first two groups and is not  
534 statistically robust among the first and third group. This may be attributed to the limited  
535 number of categories stakeholders could belong to. If a greater distinction would have been  
536 made between different levels of government, for example, or the inclusion of additional  
537 stakeholder sub-groups (e.g., local residents and seasonal residents, or municipal government  
538 and state government), it is possible that inter-group differences may become more visible.  
539 However, previous research has shown that perceptions of environmental issues are not  
540 necessarily correlated to the type of stakeholder or their institutional affiliation (Prell et al.,  
541 2010).

542  
543 We have presented a model-driven approach as a viable means of capturing social learning  
544 within stakeholder participation. This approach draws from a long tradition of network  
545 autocorrelation models that used valued network data and assigns weights to the ties each  
546 stakeholder hold (e.g., Dekker et al., 2007). The approach presented here can be applied in

547 different cases and contexts where learning is the desired outcome in participatory processes.  
548 We suggest that this framework is more appropriate in stakeholder participation projects  
549 where network data collection is accessible. Our measure of social contagion directly links  
550 learning to social ties that are established or strengthened during participation. In this way,  
551 we separate ourselves from common measures, such as Plummer et al. (2017a), which only  
552 include self-reported learning and participatory process variables. Our approach instead is  
553 aimed at capturing greater precision in the various social relational processes that may be at  
554 work in social learning environments.

555

556 This study has important implications for policy-making and management of climate change  
557 adaptation. Stakeholder participation is becoming commonplace in climate change adaptation  
558 and environmental governance (García-Nieto et al., 2019; Reed, 2008). However, the  
559 implementation of these processes is dependent on financial and human resources from  
560 funding agencies. In the case of the ICRA project, funding came from the Maryland Sea  
561 Grant (MDSG), a state-level research institution that supports participatory science and  
562 science-based policy-making. Funding institutions need to justify their investment and  
563 provide supporting evidence of the outcomes of participatory projects. We believe that this  
564 study enables both researchers and practitioners to think of new ways of measuring social  
565 outcomes of participation, like learning. Participatory processes, in effect, are akin to group  
566 decision making processes that lead to outcomes. If so, then providing a measure of  
567 understanding and respect in relation to social learning within stakeholder deliberations may  
568 provide valuable insight into the decision-making process.

569

570 This study is not without its limitations and an important one to mention is that we did not  
571 evaluate whether participation leads to tie formation. Active participation can be measured by  
572 considering the instances where stakeholders were present in participatory events, i.e., the  
573 number of times they met throughout the course of the study. Our study did not consider how  
574 co-attendance by two stakeholders would lead to tie formation between them, and this is  
575 something future research may consider. This framework uses tie strength data as weights in  
576 the network analysis (Figure 1). However, our analysis may not have captured a wide enough  
577 range of tie strengths, as we only considered two degrees of tie strength (i.e., moderate and  
578 strong). The limited range of strength values may have resulted in a marginal difference in  
579 the estimation of the contagion process. As such, future work can extend the range of tie  
580 strength to more detailed levels and test the specific configurations presented in Figure 1 and  
581 the extent to which the tie strength matters when testing for social contagion of perceptions.  
582 Moreover, the process and the results of this study do not point concretely on the dynamic  
583 interaction between the ties and the perception change. In other words, we cannot assert  
584 whether (i) establishing more mutual-understanding ties raises climate change perception  
585 scores, or if (ii) individuals with high climate change perception scores establish ties with  
586 others that share similar perceptions. To answer these questions between competing  
587 hypotheses of social contagion (Burt, 1987; Leenders, 2002) and social selection (McPherson  
588 et al., 2001) requires the use of more complicated statistical analyses that can simultaneously  
589 test both hypotheses (Stadtfeld et al., 2018).

590



591 In this study, stakeholder participation partly emerged from pre-existing social ties among  
592 ICRA participants and was partly driven by individuals' decision to participate after  
593 becoming aware of the project's existence. It is therefore important to expand on the possible  
594 effects of participation bias in our data. It is possible that participants in the ICRA project  
595 were more willing to engage in collaborative and learning experiences than others who chose  
596 not to participate or dropped out from the project. One way that a learning bias is controlled  
597 for is by including multiple perceptions. Muter et al. (2013) collected a control perception  
598 from respondents and showed that even in the same set of participants, influence does not  
599 occur for all perceptions. In this study, we only measured climate change perceptions and  
600 therefore were not able to include a control perception variable. Our modeling approach is  
601 not compromised by this limitation given that (i) our network analysis does not assume  
602 independence of observations and we introduce the influence variables ( $A_{rt}$ ) to capture the  
603 inter-dependence of the observed climate change perception scores, and (ii) because previous  
604 studies have showed that learning or influence in perceptions cannot be assumed to be biased  
605 by participation (Muter et al., 2013).

606

607 It would be relevant to employ a study of this sort to a participatory context at an earlier stage  
608 of engagement, where stakeholders do not have pre-existing social contact and test the time it  
609 takes for social learning to be picked up by an evaluation framework such as ours. Future  
610 research can improve the understanding of social contagion through ties of mutual  
611 understanding and respect by testing their predictive power on other types of perceptions  
612 (e.g., perceptions of resilience, adaptive capacity, or vulnerability). Also, collecting network  
613 and perception data for a longer period may provide insights into the strength of this  
614 relationship in longer periods. Moreover, this model would benefit from additional  
615 covariates, like educational level of stakeholders, to control for other predictors of  
616 perceptions.

617

618 Overall, we can interpret these results in the following way: stakeholders that share bonds of  
619 mutual-understanding, mutual-respect, and mutual-influence with other stakeholders that  
620 have a high level of climate change perceptions are more likely to have a high level of  
621 climate change perceptions themselves. The degree to which these networks support the  
622 transfer of perceptions (i.e., social learning) can be measured, as we have done in this study,  
623 by directly linking changes in perceptions to properties of the collaborative process, namely  
624 the set of emerging social networks between stakeholders. As a result, we can assume that a  
625 participatory process that fosters mutual understanding, respect, and influence among  
626 participants, is likely to increase the similarity of climate change perceptions among these  
627 participants. We limit our interpretation of the results to the ICRA stakeholder network. The  
628 implementation of stakeholder participation mechanisms is to a large extent locally-bound  
629 and addresses local problems with the involvement of locally-relevant individuals. As such,  
630 we cannot generalize our findings to all processes that bring about shared understanding and  
631 social influence, but we can state that our findings support arguments found in the literature  
632 linking participation to learning outcomes. Notwithstanding, this study demonstrates a  
633 generalizable model-driven approach for quantifying individual learning across multiple  
634 stakeholder participation networks and enriches a growing empirical literature of social

635 contagion and social learning, to which our study adds support for processes of social  
636 learning in stakeholder participation in the context of climate change adaptation.

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638  
639

## 6. CONCLUSION

640  
641 Responding to accelerating climate change impacts requires broad and effective engagement  
642 with stakeholders, at multiple geographic and governance levels. In this study, we tested the  
643 relationship that exists between social ties among stakeholders in a participatory process and  
644 changes of climate change perceptions (i.e., learning). Our findings suggest that social  
645 learning can be partially explained by social ties that are established and nurtured within  
646 participatory processes. Specifically, reciprocal ties based on understanding, respect, and  
647 influence capture important processes and outcomes characteristic of stakeholder  
648 participation. These findings showcase the moderating role of social ties on contagion  
649 processes of climate change perceptions.

650

651 Our findings add to the environmental management literature in three ways: First, we have  
652 shown that social ties among stakeholders are complex and multidimensional, and studies  
653 that employ SNA frameworks and tools should account for this complexity. We used three  
654 social networks that emerged through participation and a control network for outside the  
655 project interaction. In this study, all networks had a positive relationship with perceptions of  
656 climate change with *Understanding* and *Respect* networks showing the most growth in time  
657 and *Influence* showing the most statistically significant association with climate change  
658 perceptions. As such, we have shown that perceptions of climate change may not only be  
659 influenced via communication ties, but also through relations based on understanding,  
660 respect, and influence. Second, our study provides support for stakeholder participation in  
661 showing that it leads to network tie formation among participants. In the case of ICRA,  
662 descriptive network statistics showed that mutual understanding and respect increased over  
663 time. However, future research may further expand on how different aspects of participation  
664 (e.g., co-attendance) may lead to tie-formation. As we have shown, understanding, respect,  
665 and influence ties can predict learning, and so our study may be seen as providing a positive  
666 evaluation of the ICRA process. Third, our study provides a methodology to evaluate social  
667 learning in stakeholder participation that directly accounts for the number and strength of  
668 social networks; something that is not common in the EM literature that employs SNA.

669

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670

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**Appendix A - Additional statistical models for robustness**

**Table A1. Single models for each network - (Pooled)**

<i>(Pooled): Climate Change Perceptions</i>				
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
<i>Interaction</i>	0.554*** (0.140)			
<i>Understanding</i>		0.642*** (0.196)		
<i>Respect</i>			0.619** (0.285)	
<i>Influence</i>				0.446** (0.203)
Age	-0.012** (0.005)	-0.004 (0.006)	-0.005 (0.008)	-0.005 (0.007)
Gender	-0.041 (0.109)	-0.204 (0.128)	-0.236 <sup>c</sup> (0.140)	-0.205 (0.133)
Income	0.019 (0.024)	0.006 (0.024)	0.013 (0.027)	0.007 (0.025)
Research	0.180** (0.078)	0.235*** (0.089)	0.267*** (0.098)	0.219*** (0.083)
Local	0.001 (0.212)	-0.183 (0.222)	-0.112 (0.276)	-0.341 (0.223)
t2	-0.051 (0.126)	-0.041 (0.123)	-0.036 (0.125)	-0.004 (0.118)
t3	0.029 (0.126)	0.031 (0.126)	0.003 (0.127)	0.086 (0.129)
Observations	121	116	116	129
R <sup>2</sup>	0.391	0.362	0.351	0.322
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.348	0.314	0.303	0.277
AIC	208.5796	211.3402	213.7128	236.5874

Note: \*p<0.1; \*\*p<0.05; \*\*\*p<0.01

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683

**Table A2. Overview model of climate change perceptions (dependent variable) and all networks (interaction and perceptual networks).**

<i>Predicting Perceptions of Climate Change</i>			
	<i>coefficient test</i>		<i>panel linear</i>
	(1)	(2)	(3)
<i>Understanding</i>	0.259 (0.852)	0.311 (0.235)	0.297 (0.242)
<i>Respect</i>	1.003 (0.997)	-0.610** (0.275)	0.036 (0.276)
<i>Influence</i>	0.236 (0.278)	0.130 (0.130)	0.228* (0.135)
<i>Interaction</i>	-0.067 (0.184)	0.443** (0.187)	0.337** (0.170)
Observations	84	84	84
R <sup>2</sup>	0.478	0.279	0.399
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.452	-0.869	0.369
F Statistic	18.114*** (df = 4; 79)	3.102** (df = 4; 32)	48.877***

Note: \*p<0.1; \*\*p<0.05; \*\*\*p<0.01

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