

Nature based Solutions for flood risks: what insights do the social representations of experts provide?

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Abstract

In the context of intensification of flood risks, NbS propose an interesting approach to conciliate population's protection and biodiversity. While this recently emerging concept has been the subject of numerous studies, there is still little work on this issue in social sciences. However, it is essential to understand the social representations of NbS in order to help authorities to overcome possible barriers to implementing more NbS projects for flood risk. As the opinions of experts eventually diffuse and come to shape the representations of the general public we decided to explore the social representation of NbS of flood risk experts. We interviewed 19 actors who can be divided into two groups: theorists and practitioners. These interviews were transcribed and analyzed using textual statistics and a qualitative analysis grid, in order to identify the main lines of discourse and how social representations are organized. Combining the two techniques is rather rare, but proves to be fruitful. The main findings of this work are that the social representations of the two groups of experts diverge and that the concept of NbS and the solutions it encompasses do not seem to represent the same social reality. The lack of collaboration between institutions and field actors is a major obstacle to the implementation of NbS projects. Finally, the social representations of the two groups of experts have a common basis which seems to be centered on cognitive biases such as the need to control risk and natural ecosystems, and the culture of civil engineering. Moreover, the results suggest that the expression "NbS" is not well suited to all actors.

1 Introduction

2 One of the major challenges of the Anthropocene era is undoubtedly human adaptation to climate
3 change. The latter has impacts on many phenomena and in particular on the frequency and intensity
4 of extreme climatic events such as floods [1]. In France, flooding is the leading natural hazard [2]. To
5 protect exposed populations, many solutions, both structural and non-structural, exist and are
6 implemented in the field. In addition to civil engineering infrastructures (dikes, flood control dams,
7 etc.), which are very well developed in France, the concept of nature-based solutions to flooding has
8 emerged.

9 Nature-based solutions (NBS) propose adaptation strategies to address current climate challenges [3]
10 of which flooding is one. NBS are defined as "actions to protect, sustainably manage, and restore

11 natural or modified ecosystems to directly address societal challenges in an efficient and adaptive
12 manner, while ensuring human well-being and producing biodiversity benefits" [4]. There are a huge
13 number of NbS that can mitigate the impact of flooding such as green roofs or rain parks. A rain park
14 is an urban park in which a portion is designed to receive water during a flood; by capturing some of
15 the runoff, it limits flooding while avoiding the need for concrete constructions. The risk of flooding is
16 higher in urban areas where urbanization and soil sealing are drastically increasing [5], which can lead
17 to greater runoff, thus aggravating the risk of urban flooding [6]. So-called "gray" solutions such as
18 levees, which are traditionally used in Western cities, no longer always have the capacity to keep pace
19 with the increasing rate of stormwater [7] [8]. Moreover, these "gray" solutions usually only address
20 the sole objective of protection where NbS can be multifunctional. Indeed, they contribute to the
21 adaptation to climate issues, as well as to biodiversity and human well-being, while providing an
22 effective response to the protection of populations from flood risk [9] [10]. Several territories have
23 already experimented with the use of NbS for flood risk management; these examples are documented
24 and reviewed in the literature[11] [12]. Examples include re-meandering to restore the original course
25 of a stream to dissipate its energy or vegetating the slopes of a basin to reduce and slowdown runoff.
26 In France and internationally, various institutions have adopted the NbS concept [13] [14]. It has been
27 adopted by the European Commission in its "Horizon 2020" research program to promote the
28 development of NbS in urban areas. Although this recently emerging concept has been the subject of
29 various studies [15], as yet little work on this issue has been done in the humanities and social sciences.
30 However, we believe that these disciplines, starting with social psychology, could shed new light on
31 this concept. Indeed, social representations are at the center of the processes that allow us to
32 understand how social knowledge is constructed around a new object [16] and this seems to constitute
33 a relevant framework to study NbS.

34 **1. Nature-based solutions and social representations**

35 a. How are NBS an object of social representation?

36 The theory of social representations conceptualizes common sense knowledge that is composed of
37 ideas, values and symbolic associations [17]. These representations are formulated socially and used
38 within social groups to understand a new phenomenon [18]. To identify a social representation is
39 thus to first study what individuals think about an object, how they use it and why they express it in
40 such a way in the formulation of their common reality [19].

41 Nature as a social object of representation has been studied extensively. Serge Moscovici himself, in
42 his essay on the history of nature, describes it as organic, cybernetic or mechanistic. These different
43 representations are involved in the very social construction of nature [20] and are synchronous,
44 distinct and interdependent. Each of them is intrinsically linked to a particular sense of identity, a
45 mode of knowledge and a mode of relation to nature [21]. This polysemy of nature has been
46 described at length by Descola [22], who explains that "nature" is a Western concept invented to
47 differentiate human culture from the rest of living beings. Close to the term nature, the notion of
48 environment is very broad and is also used in many contexts [23]. The very definition of environment
49 leaves much room for interpretation: indeed, Sauv  [24] described six representations of the
50 environment: the environment as a resource, a problem, a place to live, a biosphere, a community
51 project and as nature. These six paradigmatic conceptions are at the heart of a singular
52 representation of the environment [25]: they are complementary and coexist [24]. Some authors
53 invoke a utilitarian vision opposed to an ecological vision of the environment [26] [27] [28]. We
54 believe that these visions build a common ideological basis for a set of social representations of
55 other environmental objects.

56 Like nature and the environment, the term NbS is polysemous and cannot be defined in a simple and
57 univocal way. We consider it as a new technical-scientific object [29] that evokes different
58 conceptions in individuals. It is a term that triggers debate: it can be praised as much for its qualities
59 [4] as criticized for the vagueness caused by its definition [8] [30] and the lack of evidence by
60 example that accompanies its principle [31] [32]. Moreover, the observation we can make today is

61 that NbS remain relatively unknown to the general public. The media and institutions that speak
62 about NbS describe them as innovative, embodying high environmental values and whose co-
63 benefits could revolutionize the current approach to flood risk [4] [14].

64 However, several obstacles to their implementation are cited in the literature. The first barrier
65 relates to the persistence of a culture that favors gray infrastructure [33] [34]. This culture drives
66 institutions to invest in projects equivalent to those they already know, even though NbS alternatives
67 exist and are known. The actors involved prefer the certainty of a solution they have already
68 encountered and that is easily replicable. A second obstacle concerns the definition of the concept,
69 which remains poorly understood by actors [35][36]: few decision- makers clearly identify actions
70 that can be qualified as NbS. In addition, the lack of evidence by example of the effectiveness of NbS
71 is also a major barrier [37]. Finally, a third constraint is linked to the fact that implementing NbS
72 requires advanced knowledge of the local environment in terms of both the natural ecosystems and
73 the human organizations with which they interact [38] [39]. This lack of knowledge about natural
74 ecosystems is a major barrier. The literature identifies other obstacles that are land-related,
75 economic or technical.

76 The social psychology of the environment can propose an original analysis centered on the meaning
77 given to this technical-scientific concept by individuals who work with it. In this study, we decided to
78 interview flood risk experts in order to explore their social representations of NbS, in a context where
79 knowledge about them is still lacking, even on the part of flood risk experts [15]. This new
80 understanding could provide keys to the implementation of NbS in the field and help remove some
81 of the obstacles previously identified.

82 b. Social representation of experts

83 As described previously, social representations are common sense knowledge [17]. It is therefore
84 appropriate to clarify here why we have used this theory to analyze expert representations, which
85 we might want to contrast in a rather binary way: scientific and rational knowledge versus profane

86 and irrational knowledge. However, the border between these two currents of thought can be
87 porous [40].

88 The difficulties of apprehending new objects based on scientific findings is quite common [41] [16]. It
89 concerns the general public but can also involve experts themselves. In this article, we focus on
90 exploring social thinking around NbS. Social thought is a perspective in which objective reality is not
91 considered to exist: all reality is represented, i.e. appropriated by individuals and groups [42]. Social
92 thought thus refers to a set of cognitive systems that constitute the tool for reading the
93 interpretation of the world [43]. It is in this context that we wish to explore the representations that
94 experts may have of the social object of NbS.

95 In social representation theory, it is assumed that the opinions of experts eventually diffuse and
96 come to shape the representations of the general public [44]. It is interesting to study the social
97 representations of experts for this reason. However, the social representations of experts are not
98 uniform [44]. Since we wanted to scan the broadest and most representative spectrum of actors in
99 terms of professions, we interviewed fieldworkers and policymakers in addition to researchers. The
100 interviewees can be divided into two groups: theorists and practitioners. Theorists are institutional
101 and/or scientific actors, who are not necessarily close to the field (e.g., researchers). The
102 practitioners are the technical actors in the field (e.g., river basin coordinators). Our hypothesis is
103 that belonging to one or the other group will vary the SR of NbS. We decided to conduct a separate
104 analysis between these two groups.

105 **2. Method**

106 a. Participants

107 Regarding recruitment, we contacted the participants by e-mail. To determine who were experts, we
108 were able to base ourselves on their writings for scientists and on their positions in associations or
109 unions for practitioners. We indicated to those who agreed that their participation was anonymous.

110 We interviewed 19 participants who are all flood risk experts. The panel of participants was
 111 composed of 12 women and 7 men who all have a specific area of expertise with respect to flood
 112 risk. The panel was composed of 9 practitioners and 10 theorists. Our independent variable (IV) was
 113 membership in one of the two groups (theorist or practitioner). The participants were listed in
 114 chronological order of interview and their occupations are reported in the following table (Table 1).
 115 The interviews lasted an average of 41 minutes and 28 seconds. In all, 13 hours and 8 minutes of
 116 recordings were retranscribed in order to be analyzed as closely as possible to the discourse.

117 Table 1. Participants' description

Participants	Variable	Profession	Gender
P1	practitioner	In charge of aquatic environment management and flood prevention (GEMAPI), flood risk prevention association	F
P2	practitioner	Animator, River Syndicate	M
P3	practitioner	Operation officer, River Syndicate	F
P4	practitioner	Regional coordinator, French Office for Biodiversity (OFB)	M
T1	theorist	Researcher in urban planning	F
T2	theorist	Researcher in vegetal engineering	M
T3	theorist	Research teacher in civil engineering	M
T4	theorist	Director of an Social and Environmental Psychology (SEP) research office	F
P5	practitioner	Wetland manager, Geographer	F
T5	theorist	Researcher in coastal development	M
T6	theorist	Researcher in hydrogeology	F
P6	practitioner	Works engineer, river syndicate	F
T7	theorist	Project manager, OFB	F
T8	theorist	Regional coordinator, OFB	F
T9	theorist	Researcher in environmental sciences	M
P7	practitioner	Director of development and territorial management, EP Bassin	M
P8	practitioner	Animator, OFB	F
T10	theorist	Deputy director, flood risk prevention association	F
P9	Praticien	Head of the GEMAPI mission	F

118 b. Materials : semi-structured interviews

119 An interview situation, through the psycho-social gaze "translates into a ternary reading of facts and
 120 relationships" said Moscovici [17]. We conducted semi-structured interviews with an interview grid
 121 adapted to both field and institutional actors (see appendices). This grid goes from the general to the

122 specific and asks questions about the entire creation of an NbS, from its design project to its long-
123 term maintenance following its implementation. The first question concerns what the term NbS
124 evokes for the interviewee, these evocations being frequently used to describe the themes of social
125 representations [45].

126 The semi-structured interview was defined by Savoie-Zajc [46] as: "a data collection technique that
127 contributes to the development of knowledge favoring qualitative and interpretive approaches
128 pertaining in particular to paradigms. It is a discourse by theme whose order can differ according to
129 the interviewee, whose inference will be moderated and which will contain certain obligatory points
130 of passage." This methodology makes it possible to focus the interview on the specific themes to be
131 addressed but also to give the interviewee freedom of speech to develop his or her discourse.

132 c. Procedure

133 Two types of analysis were carried out jointly: a thematic analysis and a lexico-metric analysis.
134 Thematic analysis [47] consists in cutting up and grouping the speakers' interests, i.e. recurrent
135 speech, into categories. This discursive examination of the aspects addressed makes it possible to
136 classify them into themes and sub-themes. In brief, it is a matter of gradually answering the general
137 question: "What is fundamental in this speech?" [48].

138 In the second step, we conducted a lexicometric analysis of the corpus of interviews using the
139 Iramuteq software [49]. This allowed us to highlight quantitative results in terms of frequency by
140 analyzing similarities. This method is part of data analysis techniques based on the idea of association
141 [50]. It is based on graph theory and highlights the common and differentiated elements of a textual
142 corpus according to different variables [51]. Here, the two variables were technicians (V1) and
143 practitioners (V2).

144 **3. Results of the similarity analysis: from common ground to disparities**

145 a. Common basis of representation

146 The similarity analysis [50], highlighted the common aspects and differences between the two groups
147 of experts: theorists vs. practitioners (Table 1). The following graph shows the use of terms according
148 to the category of actor. In the center are grouped the terms that were most cited by the participants
149 and the further away the words are, the less they were mentioned ("NbS" was pronounced 457
150 times versus 28 times for "farmer"). The thickness of the lines varies according to whether the words
151 were uttered together (thick line) or separately (thinner line).

152 **Fig 1. Which term is used by which group of experts?** The blue word are mentioned by the theorists
153 and the red word by the practitioners. The black word are the common basis of the social
154 representation.

155 The gap between the concept and the field is widened by its very definition, which is perceived as
156 broad and vague by five experts, both theoreticians and practitioners: "it's vast, in fact, it's vast"
157 (GEMAPI project manager, trade union); "from the moment you are going to say a use of something
158 that is natural, I would say that you can qualify it as an NbS?" (researcher in hydrogeology). Two of
159 them went so far as to describe the concept as difficult to apply: "the communities that really do
160 what the IUCN definition says, there aren't that many [...] if we want to apply the whole IUCN
161 definition to the letter, it becomes complicated to really find what fits in [...] it's quite restrictive"
162 (director of a flood risk association); "It's hard to grasp the concept, to apply it in an operational way"
163 (EP basin manager). This aspect is in line with the literature: the definition of the concept remains
164 poorly understood by the actors [35][36]. The lack of evidence by example is mentioned by four
165 experts: "I am waiting for concrete operations of nature-based solutions" (GEMAPI Mission Officer);
166 "what is needed now is feedback" (SDL'E researcher). This also aligns with the literature [37].
167 Paradoxically, NbS techniques are portrayed as "old" by nine experts who detail NbS as "rustic" or
168 "rudimentary" solutions (or other term) and have been used in the field for decades. The experts
169 seemed to differentiate between the recent concept promoted by international institutions and the
170 long-proven techniques it contains. All in all, many decision-makers appreciated this concept, but this
171 was not necessarily the case for local residents: "I think that some decision-makers like this concept,

172 but the local population has a hard time understanding and accepting it" (wetland manager).
173 The opposition of the inhabitants as well as their preconceptions were cited by six experts: "a rather
174 strong opposition of these farmers [...] it was really a psychological barrier for the farmers who were
175 really against it and took a hostile stand against the principle" (in charge of GEMAPI, river syndicate);
176 "the major oppositions in the territory between the inhabitants and the managers of the natural
177 environment" (in charge of operation, river syndicate); "this concept generates a lot of conflict [...] there are quite a lot of demonstrations" (in charge of a wetland). These aspects are opposed to the
178 desire to involve the inhabitants in the projects. Moreover, three experts stated that it was
179 impossible to calm conflicts and that they are obliged to expropriate: "In the long run, it will be done,
180 but it will be painful" (works engineer, river union); "The only solution for the moment is to
181 expropriate" (facilitator, OFB); "once the project is declared to be in the public interest, that is what
182 justifies the right to expropriate" (works engineer, river union). This way of proceeding is the
183 antithesis of the community participation strongly encouraged by the institutions that support the
184 NbS concept. This discrepancy reflects difficulties in articulating this participatory concept, which is
185 not easy to implement [51] and requires scientific rigor [52]. By focusing on the NbS object, the
186 humanities and social sciences could provide adapted expertise and promote a more appeased
187 approach. This appeasement would also be beneficial for the experts themselves. Six of them told us
188 about oppositions between experts or institutions: "I don't think they tell you the same thing
189 because they work for nature, that's their primary objective" (operation manager, river syndicate
190 about environmental researchers); "they don't trust each other [...], they don't trust each other
191 between elected officials, in fact they have the impression that they won't be the ones to decide"
192 (coordinator, river syndicate).

194 Despite the opposition between theorists and technicians, their objectives are indeed the same. The
195 analysis of similarities reveals that they are situated around the terms "climate change" and
196 "protect". The two ambitions of NbS are to protect populations from flooding by responding to the
197 challenge of climate change and to biodiversity issues. Climate change mitigation through NbS is thus

198 linked to the capacity of ecosystems to capture and store carbon [53]. This same institution lists the
199 areas concerned by an NbS project for water-related risks [54] such as land use planning, agriculture
200 and the climate. The social issues addressed by the SHS are largely absent from this inventory. Other
201 sources have recently taken up these issues [55]. Their contributions in terms of conflict
202 management, environmental behavior and risk awareness would be invaluable.

203 b. What distinguishes theorist and practitioner

204 This analysis reveals that the term "NbS" was exclusively used by theorists during the interview. NbS
205 would therefore be a rather conceptual term that is not used in the field. This result is in line with
206 our thematic analysis in which seven participants describe the term NbS as conceptual and scientific,
207 which is not present in the field: "I find that there is really a distinction between the organizations
208 that drive this concept [...] and the local level, which is a little out of step and needs to be informed
209 and understand what is being proposed with this concept of NbS " (GEMAPI officer, association); "the
210 people who are more in the field do not communicate at all on this subject" (wetland manager).
211 Moreover, six participants added that when talking about NbS, their discourse must be adapted
212 according to the interlocutor, and that this term is not appropriate for all audiences: "depending on
213 the profession, we do not call things by the same name " (researcher in hydrology). The term NbS is
214 not unifying and not necessarily understandable for all stakeholders, particularly those in the field.

215 Second, the similarity analysis highlights the fact that the term "dike" is used primarily by
216 practitioners. This element further widens the gap between concept and field. In fact, the institutions
217 and scientists who support the NbS concept, such as the IUCN or the OFB, propose a sort of
218 alternative to gray solutions. Without pitting gray solutions against nature-based ones, dikes as such
219 are not present in the definition of NbS. However, the practitioners mentioned dikes a lot in their
220 speeches, explaining that we could not do without this engineering in France: "Today, cities like Arles
221 or Avignon would not exist without dikes" (works engineer, river union). Indeed, five actors, both
222 practitioners and theoreticians, defined NbS as complementary to the so-called gray solutions: "we

223 are not going to think of a total substitution but of a link between these two practices" (researcher in
224 urban planning).

225 Finally, we note that most of the terms related to the "field" are taken from the practitioners' speech
226 such as "territory", "farmers", "inhabitant", "population" and "local". These terms were very frequent
227 in the speech of the practitioners and concerned a large part of their discourse. For them, the
228 inhabitants and local populations in general represent as much the people to be protected from the
229 risk, as individuals who need to be convinced about the projects to see the light of day. They even
230 represent actors that it would be interesting to involve directly in the NbS projects: "For me, the
231 inhabitants should participate [in monitoring the works]" (OFB regional facilitator); "NbS [...] imply
232 much greater participation from local populations" (SDL'E researcher). In addition, the words
233 "funding," "policy," and "landowner" highlight problems encountered in field implementations of
234 NbS projects such as lack of funding, difficulties related to local policy decisions that do not favor
235 NbS, or the refusal of landowners to give up their land. In fact, many of the NbS projects cited by the
236 experts involve land negotiations with local farmers. Close to the previous words on the similarity
237 chart, the term "complicated" was also used by the practitioners. Presumably, it describes the
238 complications of implementing NbS projects on the ground, but also the fact that it is complicated for
239 non-specialized inhabitants and actors to understand the term NbS.

240 By carrying out an even more rigorously qualitative analysis, we explored in greater depth the
241 obstacles to the implementation of NbS and the philosophical divergences they imply.

242 **4. Results of the thematic analysis: from obstacles to cognitive biases**

243 a. Risk culture

244 The thematic analysis carried out on all the discourses highlighted several major themes that can be
245 broken down into several sub-themes. The first theme revealed that the participants' social
246 representations were very much centered on cognitive barriers and biases.

247 **Fig 2. Identified barriers and their consequences.** Four barriers to NbS identified are represented at
248 the top of the figure. They are linked to their commom consequences.

249 The first barrier echoes the persistence of a culture favorable to gray infrastructure [33] [34] that would
250 leave no room for NbS projects. Three experts told us of a cultural bias of perceived protection from
251 residents that was maintained by the habituation of engineering projects to protect them from
252 flooding. A researcher in environmental science gave us the following discourse: "there is a cultural
253 bias that makes people feel protected behind a civil engineering work" "the impression of protection".
254 For him, we are not "genuinely" protected by dikes. Civil engineering infrastructures can therefore be
255 perceived as invulnerable and guaranteeing safety [56]. Furthermore, a project manager from the OFB
256 stated that "when we build a dike we feel protected and therefore we increase vulnerability by building
257 schools and hospitals behind the dike. For her, this cultural bias would indirectly lead to increased
258 vulnerability. Indeed, the construction of a levee can sometimes increase vulnerability by amplifying
259 the number of vulnerable buildings in a flood zone [57] or by increasing the speed and rise in the water
260 level near the levees in the event of a breach or overflow [58]. Parker [59] and Sauri-Pujol [60] even
261 spoke of an "escalator effect": in addition to the technological risk caused by the potential failure of a
262 dike, the latter unduly authorizes urbanization behind it and this proves to be an essential risk factor.
263 Here, the impression of protection reduces risk culture and increases vulnerability. On the other hand,
264 a person in charge of operations in a river syndicate expressed that "there is even a somewhat general
265 demand from the population to say reinforce everything, raise everything, we want more protection.
266 It is therefore a real demand from the population to reinforce dikes and build more structures because
267 that is what makes them feel safe. In addition, two other participants mentioned old and ineffective
268 dikes: "we have dikes that are unreliable" (works engineer, river union) and "they are collapsing, they
269 are completely dead" (leader, river union). In spite of this, a firm demand from the population was
270 expressed to keep these dikes that no longer protected them in their current state. This desire to keep
271 ineffective dikes reflects a potentially weak risk culture.

272 The second obstacle is the lack of risk culture. This was mentioned by nine participants: "Elected
273 officials are also like the locals, they are not very sensitive if they have not experienced a recent
274 flood", "knowledge of the risk, there is not much of it" (facilitator, river union); "every time we say to
275 ourselves "how is it possible to have built in that place?" "I don't think we are aware of this" (OFB
276 project leader); "they [the communities] need to be informed about this" (GEMAPI officer,
277 association). This lack of awareness is accompanied by a lack of knowledge of NbS that can lead to
278 their rejection: "some cities, regarding development projects, refused to accept ditches or other
279 solutions because they did not know what they were, they did not know how to manage them" (Civil
280 engineering researcher); "we realized that the actors interviewed were not necessarily aware of the
281 concept" (Manager, EP basin). These actors all agreed on the fact that acculturation would be
282 essential: "The municipality must take charge of it and work on training agents, and also work to get
283 agents to accept this kind of differentiated nature" (Director, research office), as much on the flood
284 risk as on the NbS. In addition, two participants believed that awareness of NbS can lead to an
285 acculturation of flood risk: " NbS to maintain a flood subsidence culture that was favorable to
286 wetland species but which also allowed riparian populations to maintain their traditional flood
287 subsidence culture that had been removed with the dam" (project manager, OFB); "it is still a term
288 that allows for a better acculturation of both elected officials and citizens" (regional animator, OFB).

289 These first two obstacles highlight the fact that in certain cases civil engineering structures can
290 increase vulnerability and do not help to improve risk culture. On the other hand, they help to
291 reassure local residents through the fact these structures make human beings feel as if they
292 can control floods and therefore the risk.

293 b. Need for control: reassurance in the face of risk and climate change

294 The third obstacle relates to Climatoscepticism [61]. Three participants spoke of "denial" of the risks
295 and of climate change (Director of a research office, wetland manager, river union operations
296 manager). Another evoked the fear of consequences that leads to a taboo: "We know that they will

297 suffer from the rise in sea level but in fact it is too heavy" (Researcher in SDL'E) and the last one who
298 spoke of a denial in another form: "a meeting with inhabitants where we hear that the rise in sea
299 level does not exist" (in charge of operations, river union). This alteration of ecological awareness
300 [62] is in line with the Dominant Social Paradigm: human beings need, in order to reassure
301 themselves, to believe in the effectiveness of science in solving problems and that nature can be
302 domesticated by human beings for their benefit [63].

303
304 The fourth and final obstacle, which also relates to this paradigm, concerns the need to control the
305 ecosystem and risk. A researcher in coastal development evoked "a culture of control and
306 domination of natural spaces. Also, the director of an engineering firm described "the need to
307 control" nature. These anthropocentric beliefs unite in a libertarian conception of society ensuring
308 that each individual has the right to do, especially with regard to nature, what they feel contributes
309 most to their well-being [64]. Conversely, NbS propose a conception where humans would no longer
310 be in control of their ecosystem and would no longer be in total control of the risks: "when we
311 implement NbS we are not in control of the globality of the system we are touching but rather we
312 will try to guide a system by developing an environment hoping that a biocenosis will develop there"
313 (researcher in urban planning). This same researcher describes a "principled opposition to change
314 the way we think" while the OFB project leader suggested a "paradigm shift". All of these elements
315 refer to the New Environmental Paradigm [26]. This new worldview is based on three beliefs: the
316 existence of ecological limits to growth, the importance of preserving ecological balance, and the
317 rejection of anthropocentrism. This perspective suggests that by integrating these new beliefs, one is
318 better able to listen to environmental issues such as those related to climate change.

319 c. New paradigm

320 In contrast to this position, many participants explained that "making more room for nature" was a
321 key element in understanding NbS and the benefit it could bring to the field of risk management and
322 society. Indeed, six participants, both theorists and practitioners, linked a broader conception of

323 nature to the concept of NbS. We can summarize this thinking in the following words: NbS thinking
324 would be to leave more room for nature. Some experts express it directly in this way: "the idea is to
325 let the sea in more" (researcher in SDL'E); "to give more space to water" (in charge of GEMAPI, an
326 association); "to give space back to nature, to accept that the sea comes in" (researcher in coastal
327 development). According to these experts, NbS are conceived and designed to leave more room for
328 natural ecosystems: a positive overall idea that one could imagine being easily accepted by
329 individuals. However, more precisely, this implies knowing how to incorporate one's needs into
330 natural processes [65] and accepting to live with the hazard without trying to oppose it, leading to a
331 form of diminished control. Indeed, one expert explained this concept by speaking of "we will give
332 300 hectares of land to the river and to nature" (works engineer, river union). This need for control
333 will therefore be undermined with NbS and the individual will be forced to leave more room for risk,
334 physically and cognitively, and thus live with risk. Moreover, the urban planning researcher spoke of
335 this conception in the following terms: "instead of considering a river as a flow, we will consider it as
336 a moving fluid loaded with particles that has its own life. These words echo Descola's work on nature
337 conservation. The latter explained that for him, it is no longer a question of considering nature as a
338 useful common good but of protecting it "in and for itself" [66]. Thus, an expert added: "If you have
339 more vegetation near your home, you will have more insects [...]. Afterwards, is it serious? I think it's
340 part of this whole awareness and acculturation process that has to do with the relationship that
341 humans have with nature" (regional facilitator, OFB). NbS could also be a tool for acculturation to the
342 fauna and flora by creating proximity.

343 To measure attitudes toward nature, Dunlap and his colleagues created a scale (New Ecological
344 Paradigm Scale) to assess the emergence of this thinking. According to this view, humans are part of
345 the natural ecosystem: their very survival depends on the Earth's resources, in a delicate balance that
346 human behavior can easily disrupt. This pro-environmental orientation is set to become dominant
347 [64]. We believe that the rationale of NEP and the NbS concept are linked.

348 **5. Discussion**

349 a. From concept to the field

350 The gap between the concept of NbS and the projects carried out in the field seems to be significant.
351 Practitioners, the people in the field who are at the heart of project implementation, do not use the
352 term NbS. It is perceived as a theorist's concept, not adapted to the reality of the field. Although the
353 techniques it encompasses are presented as old and known to all, no link seems to have been made
354 between the NbS concept and the solutions it encompasses. This gap crystallizes in a strong
355 opposition from the inhabitants who, according to some interviewees, may not understand and
356 accept NbS projects on their territory. They do not always feel protected by NbS and perceive these
357 projects as an admission of weakness on the part of the managers. It is as if this different approach
358 to flood risk management was not designed to protect them. The theoreticians, those who are
359 behind the NbS concept in France, do not always seem to be connected enough to the field to
360 understand all the issues and the difficulties of implementation. However, the practitioners, who are
361 strongly linked to the field, do not seem to succeed in communicating with the inhabitants and are
362 ready to impose their projects. The broad and vague definition of the NbS concept [8] further widens
363 this gap and misunderstandings between concrete implementation and conceptual theory.

364 b. Anchoring the terme NbS

365 In terms of social representations, we assume that this term has not gone beyond the scientific
366 sphere. This would prove that it has not passed through the anchoring process described by
367 Moscovici [67]. The theory of social representations, in seeking to explain the way in which
368 individuals and groups give meaning to the objects of their social environment, is based on two
369 essential processes. The first refers to a principle of cognitive coherence, while the second responds
370 to a need to reduce uncertainty: these are objectification and anchoring [67]. Moscovici considered
371 that the close articulation of these two mechanisms allows the emergence of consensual meanings
372 within groups. The reduction of uncertainty is thus ensured by objectification. To synthesize it, we
373 can say that it consists in transposing vague beliefs or information into certainties, so that these

374 elements no longer appear as the product of the cognitive activity of the person who holds them, but
375 as the reflections of an objective external reality [68].

376 Anchoring is inserted in the continuity of objectification; it cannot be accomplished independently. It
377 is a mechanism of categorizing and naming a new or unknown object that anchoring will come to
378 make meaningful by integrating it into a familiar framework already shared within the social group
379 [69]. Jodelet described the functional value of knowledge, used to interpret our environment [70].

380 Doise described the anchoring process as long and complex [71]. The first phase comprises
381 attributing a meaning to the represented object by inscribing it in our system of values and
382 standards. This is how the object is rooted in an existing field of meanings. Then comes the process
383 of rooting in the pre-existing system of thought. Rooting refers to the notion of cognitive integration
384 of the object in a frame of reference known to all. Through this rooting, the individual is no longer
385 satisfied with objectifying the new element, but actually integrates it into their own cognitive and
386 social thought system. Finally, the last phase is the process of instrumentalization in which the new
387 element as it was at the beginning, i.e. an abstract concept and foreign to the social group, will
388 gradually become usable and functional knowledge for the group, becoming an instrument making it
389 possible for the group to understand and management its social environment. The fact of situating a
390 new object in a frame of reference makes it possible to understand and master it [71].

391 We assume that the concept of NbS, as described to us in the interviews, has not yet gone beyond
392 the scientific sphere, nor has it become embedded in a common language. It is not necessarily
393 understood or mastered by all the experts. NbS will therefore likely have to go through this process
394 of being extracted from the theoretical dialect and acquiring meaning in the eyes of a larger number
395 of individuals and specifically non-specialists such as inhabitants and elected officials.

396 The social representations that experts have of the NbS object are multiple. They are largely
397 centered around cognitive biases and the obstacles to the development of NbS. The persistence of a
398 culture favorable to gray infrastructure and the need to control the ecosystem are of the order of

399 habit. In France, civil engineering structures are traditionally used to protect against flooding, and the
400 arrival of NbS has weakened this mode. The lack of risk culture is a direct consequence of the two
401 previous elements. Indeed, by no longer considering the flood risk as part of their environment or
402 daily life, the individual will never be ready to adopt the appropriate behaviors or to take material
403 provisions to mitigate the risk. This habit of reliance on civil engineering has led to the need to
404 control the ecosystem and the risk. In terms of bias, this appeals to the illusion of control [72]. The
405 individual does not want to live with the risk or change to this psychological comfort. Finally, some
406 experts told us of a certain climatoscepticism observed among several inhabitants. Here again, it
407 could be a matter of psychological comfort: it is more convenient not to consider water-related risks
408 as impacting our living spaces. To understand the stakes of NbS and what they could contribute to
409 the territories, it is necessary to consider these risks as realities.

410 We can say that the interviewees situated NbS in a more encompassing discourse and in relation to
411 different, much larger social sets such as nature and climate change. Once again, social
412 representations serve as a guide to understanding and mastering our daily environment, since they
413 constitute a "contextualizing" rationale [43].

414 **6. Limits**

415 The limitations of our study are the small number of interviews conducted, which imposes a
416 precautionary approach to the conclusions that can be drawn from them. This small number can be
417 explained by the fact that we seemed to have satisfied the criterion of redundancy. We made this
418 observation when the new interviews no longer allowed us to create new categories of thematic
419 analysis and when many of the discourses seemed to paraphrase each other. Moreover, our results
420 are consistent with a number of sources in the literature, leading us to believe that the richness of
421 the discourses compensated for the small number of interviews.

422 Another limitation concerns an aspect of pure feasibility: we conducted these interviews by
423 videoconference as most were done during a period of confinement related to the COVID19

424 pandemic. For the sake of consistency, all the interviews were conducted by videoconference, under
425 the same conditions. Nevertheless, using a camera, interaction can be comparable to the onsite
426 equivalent with the presence of nonverbal and social cues [73].

427 Another limiting aspect concerns the discourses of the inhabitants, which are reported by other
428 actors who have themselves worked with the residents affected by the NbS they were implementing.
429 These inhabitants are not directly represented in our study. We had to make this choice following a
430 pre-test of our interview grid with a resident who showed that the term NbS was not adapted to
431 address this type of population. The results of this pre-test were then confirmed by our study. We
432 are now conducting a study exclusively focused on residents in order to address this limitation.
433 Finally, as our study is limited to the French context, it would be interesting to study the social
434 representations of NbS by experts from other countries, to establish whether there are similarities or
435 disparities in terms of obstacles.

436 **7. Conclusion**

437 In this article, we focused on experts' social representations of Nature-based Solutions for flood risks.
438 To do so, we interviewed 19 experts on flood risks and NFS. We analyzed their discourses using two
439 methods: thematic and lexicographic. These analyses revealed a social representation centered on
440 cognitive biases likely to constitute obstacles to the implementation of NbS. This concept suffers
441 from a significant gap between the principles it embodies and the reality on the ground. The lack of
442 knowledge of some decision-makers, the poor communication between actors as well as the lack of
443 training does not allow the appropriation of the concept and leads to rejections not only by
444 inhabitants but also by experts. The human and social sciences, and in particular the social
445 psychology of the environment, can propose approaches to this concept to help overcome cognitive
446 biases and promote the appropriation of the concept by the actors in the field. On the other hand,
447 the term "nature-based solution" does not seem appropriate and does not manage to go beyond the
448 scientific sphere, likewise for the anchoring process [67]. The considerable polysemy of the term

449 nature and the vague and broad aspect of its definition add to this gap. Thus, we consider that this
450 term is inadequate for communicating with all the actors, especially non-specialists such as
451 inhabitants. This is especially because experts seem to differentiate the concept from the techniques
452 it contains. It is necessary, at present, to imagine a more appropriate common language that will
453 allow everyone to know the stakes of NbS and the benefits they can contribute in terms of
454 biodiversity and flood risk protection. The perspective of "leaving more room for nature" has led to
455 the idea that the concept of NbS could be intimately linked to CIP design [26]. We even think that
456 NbS could foster a pro-environmental attitude thanks to the acculturation they allow. Our task today
457 is to understand the link between the rationale of NEP and the NbS concept. In the next part of our
458 work, we will explore this link: Could a strong NEP attitude go hand in hand with an acceptance of
459 NbS? To what extent could NbS foster a pro-environmental attitude through the acculturation they
460 allow?

461 **Acknowledgments**

462 We would like to warmly thank the Agence of the ecological transition, the Carnot Insitut and all the
463 interviews' participants.

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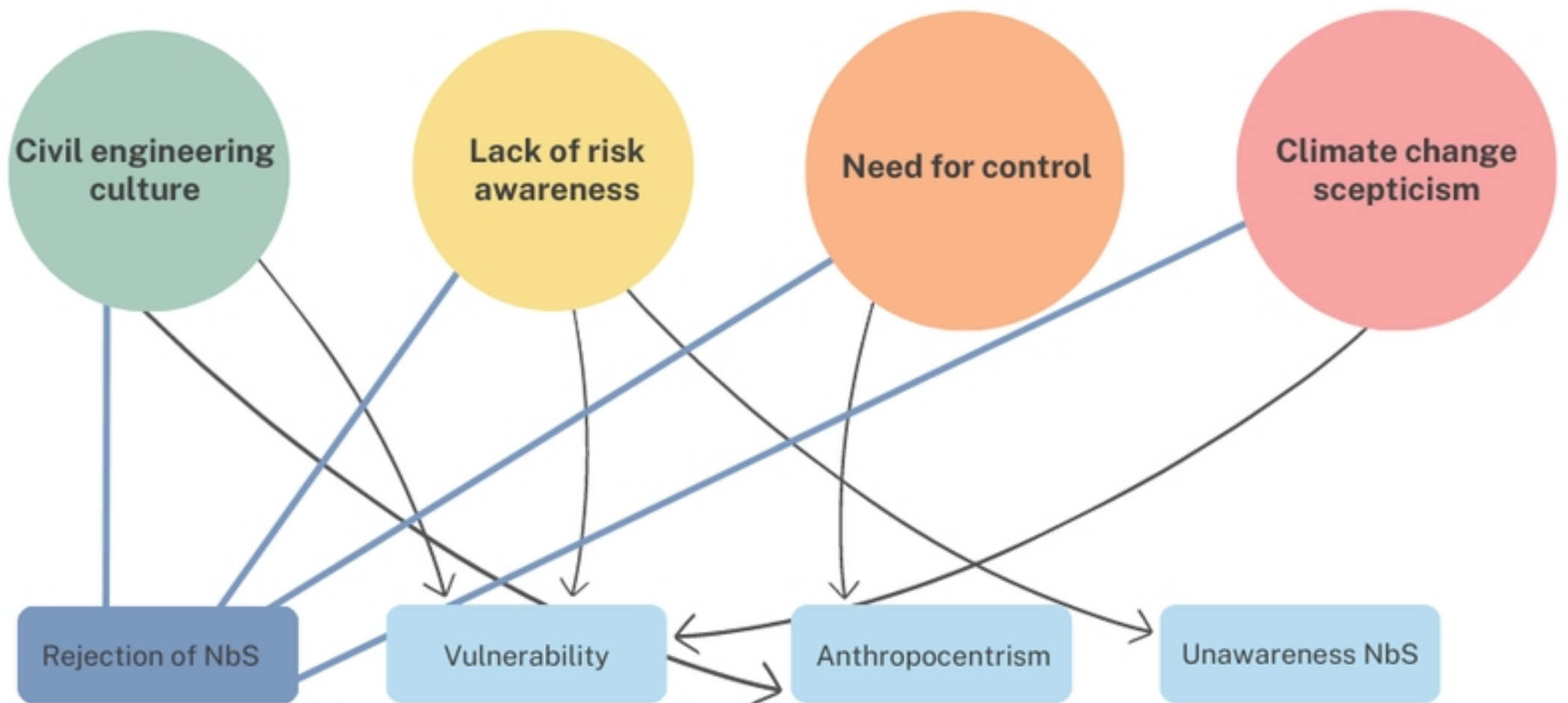
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Figure



Figure