

1 **Stakeholders' views on natural flood management: Implications for the nature-based solutions paradigm**
2 **shift?**

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14 **Highlights:**

- 15
- 16 • We surveyed UK stakeholders views on Natural Flood Management (NFM)
 - 17 • There is widespread interest but some (farmers/landowners) are cautious
 - 18 • If, how and who pays for NFM is the most contested topic
 - 19 • Views on NFM highlight challenges for this and other Nature-Based Solutions (NBS)
 - 20 • There is a need to debate underlying expectations of responsibility and nature

20

21 **Key words:**

22 Nature based solutions; natural flood management; paradigm shift; environmental management; stakeholder
23 views

24

25 **Abstract**

26 An exemplar of nature-based solutions (NBS) is natural flood management (NFM), for which interest is
27 growing worldwide. As with many NBS, implementing NFM requires the participation of support of multiple
28 stakeholders. However, we lack understanding about the views and expectations of the many stakeholders
29 who might be expected to enable or implement it. Understanding such views may offer insights regarding
30 whether and how the dominant flood risk management protection paradigm is really being challenged.
31 Using the first survey (N =118) across a range of water and environmental management stakeholders in the

32 United Kingdom (UK), this research explores whether there is support for a paradigm shift to “work with
33 nature” as intended with NBS. We find evidence that some stakeholders view NFM as a “no-brainer”; a
34 judgement based on perceived cost-effectiveness, social and environmental benefits and the failure of the
35 protection paradigm exposed in recent floods. Others, typically farmers and landowners, have more cautious
36 views about change.

37 All our respondents generally agree that responsibility to enable, implement, and fund NFM should be
38 shared across society, but disagreements remain about the detail and the basis for any enabling payments.
39 We argue that the shared perception of roles and responsibilities provides a foundation for further work to
40 facilitate NFM, explicitly considering principles and specific contractual details. In the UK, the possibilities of
41 post-Brexit agri-environment policy make such a debate particularly pertinent. It is also likely to be
42 productive in many other cases and places, since the paradigm shift entailed by ideal visions of NBS often
43 entails new relationships between stakeholders and new activities ‘on the ground’.

44

45 **Introduction**

46 Scholars of environmental management and governance increasingly emphasise the need to work with
47 nature to support societal well-being, rather than defending or separating the ‘human’ from the ‘natural’
48 (Iacob et al., 2014; Potschin et al., 2016; Lane, 2017; Nesshöver et al., 2017). The promotion of such ‘Nature-
49 Based Solutions’ (NBS) can be seen in research agendas (e.g. for the European Union, DG Environment
50 (2015)), conservation advocacy (e.g. by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature¹),
51 government policies (e.g. as reflected in the UK’s 25 Year Environment Plan, HM Government (2018)), and in
52 financial investments internationally (Coles et al., 2019).

53 There are varying definitions of NBS, but the most ambitious interpretations entail a radical reappraisal of
54 who, how and for what end we manage the environment (Seddon et al., 2020), often linked to debates
55 about managing the land for public goods (e.g. Calliari et al., 2019). Paavola and Primmer (2019) argue that
56 recalibrating land management for public goods provision, calls for attention to incentives, rights and
57 responsibilities and a new governance framework that supports catchment-scale collaboration and
58 networking within and across scales. NBS can thus be seen to entail a paradigm shift in the approach to
59 environmental management by those directly involved in, and affected by it. A paradigm shift, understood as
60 a transition by which a dominant paradigm is superseded by a new incommensurable paradigm that is based
61 on different conceptual framings (Kuhn, 1996), entails those involved to both think and act differently.

62 It is notoriously difficult to achieve a paradigm shifts, since pre-existing ways of thinking, working and
63 governing tend to prove remarkably ‘sticky’ (Waylen et al., 2015). Implementing NBS requires collaborating
64 with and adapting to multiple stakeholders (Ferreira et al., 2020). Yet liaising with new networks of
65 stakeholders generally entails more time, complexity and contestation than interventions delivered by a
66 single agent (Waylen et al., 2017). This is compounded where concepts challenge familiar stakeholder
67 conceptions or knowledge backgrounds. There is evidence that changes in discourse can reveal early signs of
68 conceptual changes that prefigure or form the beginning of a paradigm shift (Pahl-Wostl et al., 2011).

69 A prominent example of NBS is Natural Flood Management (NFM). NFM involves “techniques that aim to
70 work with natural hydrological and morphological processes, features and characteristics to manage the

¹ See, <https://www.iucn.org/theme/nature-based-solutions>

71 sources and pathways of flood waters” (SEPA, 2015, page 6). Interventions include installing in-stream
72 woody debris and re-meandering and connecting floodplains (cbec and EA, 2017). Past approaches to flood
73 risk management (FRM) have generally viewed floodplains as something to ‘protect’ (Baldassarre et al.,
74 2013) and floods become something to defend against with engineered structures (O’Connor, 2020).
75 However, more recent approaches of Sustainable Flood Management do not always seek to resist or prevent
76 floods, but rather to minimise and mitigate their impacts on society and infrastructure (Everard and
77 Moggridge, 2012).

78 Working with, and for society, is an important part of the rationale for all NBS. For NFM, it is also essential,
79 since implementing many of its interventions requires the consent and cooperation of multiple stakeholders,
80 including, landowners, statutory agencies, and local authorities as well as broad acceptance from the general
81 public. NFM is explicitly supported by many scientists and in policy, including in the European Union and UK
82 (e.g. EC, 2014; Barlow et al., 2014; Dadson et al., 2017; Lane, 2017). There are some high-profile initiatives
83 such as *Room for the River* in The Netherlands (Klijn et al., 2018) and *Engineering with Nature* in the USA
84 (Bridges et al., 2018). Nevertheless, there has been slow progress in delivering NFM. To some extent this is
85 common to other NBS concepts (Seddon et al., 2020), particularly those involving large-scale landscape
86 interventions and multiple stakeholders, i.e. with challenges centred around collaborative governance and
87 funding (Benson et al., 2013) and rhetorical support for NBS is often not matched by resources and tailored
88 policy instruments. For example, in July 2020, the UK government announced a £5.2 billion long-term plan
89 to tackle flooding, of which only £200 million was earmarked for local initiatives including NBS (HM
90 Government, 2020).

91 In the UK, there have been NFM pilots, but it is far from being commonly implemented at scale. Some argue
92 this is because it has been inserted into the existing FRM paradigm, in which technical solutions remain the
93 priority with little stakeholder participation (Cook et al., 2016). Some insights about the challenges of
94 adopting NFM come from assessments of these pilots (on the Holnicote Estate, National Trust (2015) and the
95 Yorkshire Integrated Catchment Solutions Programme (iCASP) Richardson et al., (In press)), and studies of
96 farmer, land manager, and FRM practitioner attitudes in the UK and USA (Holstead et al., 2014; Nazmul et
97 al., 2017, Milman et al., 2018; Wells et al., 2019). They indicate that tradition and custom is a barrier for
98 many landowners, that attitudes to government flood assistance and land management regulation is
99 determinative of landholder support, and that uncertainties regarding effectiveness, benefits and
100 responsibility are concerns for FRM practitioners. Furthermore, the views of other stakeholder groups may
101 not uniformly or completely support NFM (Waylen et al. 2017; Wells et al. 2019). What is missing is a direct
102 survey across a range of stakeholder groups.

103 All this points to the question on whether there is support for a paradigm shift “to work with nature” as
104 intended with NBS. Our research questions are: (1) What is the current understanding of NFM, and what are
105 the expectations for its wider adoption? (2) What are the challenges and opportunities to NFM? (3) Do
106 responses from different stakeholders diverge and what are the implications of such divergent views? In
107 addressing these questions, this study augments the growing body of literature on the views of
108 environmental practitioners in the development of innovative environmental management tools beyond
109 NFM (Martin-Ortega et al., 2019; Sandbrook et al., 2019).

110 **Methodology**

111 *2.1 Survey design*

112 An online survey was designed to improve understanding of a combination of issues that had arisen in the
113 authors' prior work on NFM and in the literature on NFM and NBS. These themes were explored adapting to
114 NFM the survey design of Waylen and Martin-Ortega (2018). The survey was piloted by an academic and a
115 rivers trust practitioner.

116 The survey (see Supplementary Information (SI)) began with a set of categorical questions to establish each
117 respondent's professional background and self-reported NFM expertise. Respondents were then asked to
118 define NFM in their own words, report any NFM projects they had knowledge of or experience with, before
119 answering Likert scale questions on the barriers and opportunities for NFM. A set of questions asked about
120 respondent views on the future of NFM and mechanisms for enabling, implementing, and funding it.

121 *2.2 Survey hosting and sampling procedure*

122 The survey was configured with the BOS online survey tool² and hosted at the University of Leeds. It was
123 open from January to March 2017. To disseminate the survey, the authors utilised their professional
124 networks, including water@leeds, the Ecosystems Knowledge Network, the Priestly International Centre for
125 Climate, and The James Hutton Institute. Additionally, a snowball process was encouraged with an explicit
126 request to circulate the survey link to respondents' networks. This may have introduced some selection bias
127 and to counter this, the survey introduction included the disclaimer that all views, including negative ones,
128 were welcomed. However, it is possible that selection bias remains.

129 *2.3 Sample description*

130 The survey did not presuppose nor require an expert understanding of, or support for, NFM, rather the
131 sampling strategy was more generic targeting any individual "working on flood risk, water or environmental
132 management: land managers and farmers; national or local government and public agencies; industry;
133 voluntary and 'third sector' organisations; consultants; and academics". Respondents not self-identifying
134 with this description were screened out from the survey. Furthermore, broader societal views were not
135 captured.

136 Answers to initial questions established that respondents were diverse in terms of their current employment
137 and professional training. Note we did not ask about specific roles, for instance, town planner. Of the total
138 118 respondents, 50 work in the public sector (30 public agency, 15 local and 2 national government, 1
139 National Park Authority, 1 retired EU, 1 government policy and land management), 30 in the private sector,
140 16 in the third sector, 13 as academics, and 9 in farming. For professional training, 90 respondents reported
141 training in a single field and 27 in two or more fields (there was one non-respondent); the most common
142 background was conservation/environmental management (51), then natural sciences (35), engineering (21,
143 including 6 working for a public agency, 2 for local and 1 for national government), agriculture (14), and
144 social sciences/economics (12).

145 Two-thirds (80) of respondents considered themselves familiar with NFM, however, only 8 strongly
146 considered themselves experts. Understandings of NFM were informed, in many cases, by active
147 participation in NFM projects; over half (62) have been connected to, or participated in, one or more. Their
148 participation ranged from project commissioning and proposal development, modelling and project design

² See, <https://www.onlinesurveys.ac.uk/>

149 and communication, to delivery, monitoring, and appraisal. Some respondents noted their specific roles on
150 steering committees, in partnerships as NFM advocates and in the provision of written guidance for projects.
151 Most respondents (98) were able to name specific projects, together listing 27 initiatives.

152 In September 2017, a two-page summary of results was circulated to the 91 survey participants who had
153 provided contact details for this purpose. This contact provided respondents an opportunity to query our
154 interpretation of the results or to provide feedback. All the farmers requested this summary and of the 27
155 respondents who did not, 17 were public sector (14 public agency, 1 national government, 4 local
156 authorities), 5 private sector, 1 third sector and 4 academics.

157

158 *2.4 Analysis of responses*

159 There was strong engagement with the survey, as all 118 individuals who started the survey reached the
160 final question. The response rate for individual (sub)questions varied from 98 to 118 and is reported in Table
161 SI.1. In the table and figures below, the relevant question in Table SI.1 is provided.

162 Data analysis consists of a combination of descriptive and inferential statistics of quantifiable variables and
163 thematic analysis of open-ended responses. We also tested for the relationship between personal attributes
164 – stakeholder group – and responses as well as between responses using the Chi-square test of
165 independence. NVivo 12 was used to manage the qualitative data. In the Results section, quotes are in italics
166 and current occupation and fictional initials of the respondent are provided.

167

168 **3. Results**

169 *3.1 Understanding of NFM*

170 Open text answers defining NFM were received from 114 respondents. NFM was frequently described using
171 terms such as ‘working with’, ‘mimicking’ and ‘imitating’ natural processes, more occasionally in terms of
172 ‘manipulating’ and ‘restoring’ the environment. Specific measures were frequently listed to ‘slow the flow’ in
173 the upper catchment, for example, peatland restoration, woody debris dams, and soil husbandry, and 25
174 respondents mentioned floodplain storage, reconnecting rivers to floodplains and use of washlands. NFM
175 was also referred to as an approach that has ‘co-benefits’ and is: ‘soft’ explicitly contrasting it with hard-
176 engineered approaches; ‘targeted’ or ‘integrated’; and implemented at the catchment-scale. It was defined
177 also by its outcomes; to reduce flood risk/flood peaks and flood impacts. Others noted it involves private
178 landholders or deemed it ineffective.

179 To further explore stakeholders’ understanding of the role of NFM – including in comparison to or in
180 combination with existing dominant approaches to FRM – we asked for their views on whether a set of
181 specific interventions are ‘part of’, ‘complementary’, or ‘unrelated’ to NFM, see Table SI.2. Tree planting,
182 naturalising rivers, creating/restoring wetlands, installing woody debris dams, and restoring peatlands were
183 identified by 85 or more respondents as NFM interventions. Respondents were split between choosing: ‘part
184 of’ vs ‘complementary’ for no-till agriculture, earth bunds and preventing floodplain development; and
185 ‘complementary’ vs ‘unrelated’ for embankments and flood defence walls. Overall, NFM is seen as distinct

186 from a hard-engineering approach to FRM, but there are also areas of ambiguity both about what NFM
 187 consists of, and how distinct it is from, other approaches.

188 *3.2 Expectations of NFM*

189 To understand what respondents believe are the key opportunities for and barriers to NFM, we asked them
 190 to rate their agreement with a set of expectations and views of NFM. These were categorised post hoc into
 191 three themes.

192

193 **Table 1. Views and expectations on NFM, grouped post hoc. % of respondents, note row may not sum to**
 194 **100% if any respondents answered 'Unsure' (Table SI.1-Q11).**

Statement	Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
Effectiveness				
E1: To be effective NFM needs to be coordinated at the catchment scale	63	30	6	-
E2: There is sufficient evidence of the effectiveness of NFM	19	37	25	14
E3: NFM schemes are only effective at mitigating the effects of low flood flows	11	22	32	22
E4: NFM enables delivery of FRM to become more cost-effective	46	40	8	2
Wider benefits				
WB1: NFM raises awareness of the importance of catchment management to society	54	40	4	-
WB2: NFM aids delivery of multiple benefits (e.g. biodiversity, soil conservation)	78	19	2	1
WB3: Implementing NFM can provide a new source of income for land-managers	24	51	15	2
WB4: NFM will result in acceptable visual impacts to the UK landscape (e.g. tree planting on moors, flooding of farmers' fields)	56	26	7	3
Challenges				
C1: NFM measures take too long to establish to be useful	1	6	37	48
C2: It will be challenging to install NFM where there are tenant farmers	19	52	19	3
C3: It will be challenging to install NFM where there are multiple landowners	35	57	6	2
C3: NFM schemes risk unintended consequences (e.g. animal disease)	3	13	40	21
C4: NFM schemes will require too much maintenance	2	8	36	41

195 (Dark grey/light grey shading indicates that the 'agree' or 'disagree' options were chosen by over 75%/less than 50% of
196 the respondents).

197 From Table 1, we can see there was broad agreement that NFM should be implemented at the catchment
198 scale and that it should prove cost-effective even though there was a mixed response around evidence of its
199 general effectiveness and at high flows. Further, there was almost unanimous support for the potential for
200 NFM to deliver co-benefits. 'Technical' challenges were less concerning to respondents than issues of tenure
201 and coordination. In four instances – E3, WB3, C3, C4 – ten or more respondents answered 'Unsure'.

202 Using Chi-squared tests of independence, we checked for consistency across answers in Table 1, i.e. for
203 responses that convey implicitly shared or related expectations. We found evidence that some respondents
204 are particularly supportive of NFM and refer to them as 'NFM enthusiasts'. Respondents who agreed with
205 the statement on the sufficiency of evidence of NFM effectiveness (E2) also agree that it is cost-effective
206 FRM (E4) ($\chi=11.27$, $p=0.02$). Those that agree it is cost-effective FRM (E4) also agree that it delivers multiple-
207 benefits (WB2) ($\chi=12.14$, $p=0.02$) and that it will result in acceptable visual impacts (WB4) ($\chi=10.73$, $p=0.03$).

208 Open-ended responses provided detail on the two key arguments provided by 'NFM enthusiasts'. The
209 strongest theme was to assert NFM is a 'cost-effective' approach to FRM, including in the face of climate
210 change: *'Because it's cost-effective, sometimes feasible where hard structures would be prohibitively*
211 *expensive, and helps to achieve wider benefits, and also because hard defences are deteriorating and/or*
212 *inadequate to deal with climate change impacts.'* (KH: Private sector). Specific recent flood events were
213 sometimes cited as part these explanations to demonstrate that existing hard-engineered approaches were
214 insufficient by themselves. Additionally, co-benefits were critical in their support. Respondents (82) named
215 specific co-benefits such as carbon sequestration and improvements to: soil, biodiversity, water quality,
216 recreation, wildlife habitat, local communities, and visual amenity as well as engaging the public in flood risk
217 attenuation.

218
219 'NFM enthusiasts' were undeterred by the challenges listed in Table 1. Respondents who agreed with: the
220 sufficiency of evidence of NFM effectiveness (E2) did not view time lags (C1) as a serious concern ($\chi=10.34$,
221 $p=0.04$); and NFM as cost-effective FRM (E4) did not view unintended consequences (C3) or maintenance
222 (C4) as significant barriers ($\chi=12.18$ $p=0.02$; $\chi=26.90$, $p=0.00$). Their open-ended responses revealed nuanced
223 acknowledgement of such issues as challenges to be tackled rather than reasons to slow NFM efforts. For
224 example, AB, an academic, noted the complexity of NFM implementation, including the fit with FRM, and
225 the availability of evidence: *'Tricky balance between public opinion, landowner consent and rights and*
226 *economic development. More evidence for benefits required and to be put into the public domain.'*

227

228 3.3 Prospects for NFM

229 In thinking about the future prospects for NFM, 76% of respondents were supportive of it being more
230 implemented in the UK. Nevertheless, 95% of respondents acknowledged a need for other actions and
231 changes. Practical steps were identified such as *'producing a consistent and accurate modelling and*
232 *appraisal methodology that can be done by consultants without access to physically based models only*
233 *used in academia'* (SC: Public sector) and integrating NFM in a wider UK strategy around natural capital
234 across government departments. Public sector respondents were more explicit calling for: *'a massive*
235 *culture shift in the farming and landowner community'* (AR); *'political will to create a 'sea change' to move*

236 to NRM' (KS); and 'to live more in harmony with nature' (DS). Whereas academics were keen to 'sell the
237 benefits to insurance companies and other financial institutions offering mortgages and building
238 developers' (CC) and 'to educate politicians, planners, engineers and the public that hard engineering
239 alone is not the answer' (JJ).

240 More nuanced answers were provided by 115 respondents to a question about the number of NFM schemes
241 in the UK in ten years time (Many more – 69, Several more – 35, Same number – 9, Removal of some
242 schemes – 2). There is statistical evidence that the occupation of the respondent is important in shaping
243 these responses ($\chi=34.62$, $p=0.02$). In particular, farmers are more likely to respond "The same number of
244 NFM schemes", than the other occupation groups. Open-ended comments demonstrate the personal nature
245 of the concerns of the farming community, such as the farmer JT: 'How will it affect the viability of my family
246 farm?'

247 We tested for a relationship between expectations around NFM schemes and the statements in Table 1.
248 Respondents who agreed that NFM should be more widely implemented also agree: that there is sufficient
249 evidence of effectiveness (E2) ($\chi=16.45$, $p=0.01$) and that NFM is cost-effective FRM (E4) ($\chi=39.05$, $p=0.00$).
250 Furthermore, they did not view unintended consequences (C3), maintenance (C4) or effectiveness at high
251 flows (E3) as barriers ($\chi=14.67$, $p=0.02$; $\chi=30.94$, $p=0.00$; $\chi=17.24$, $p=0.01$).

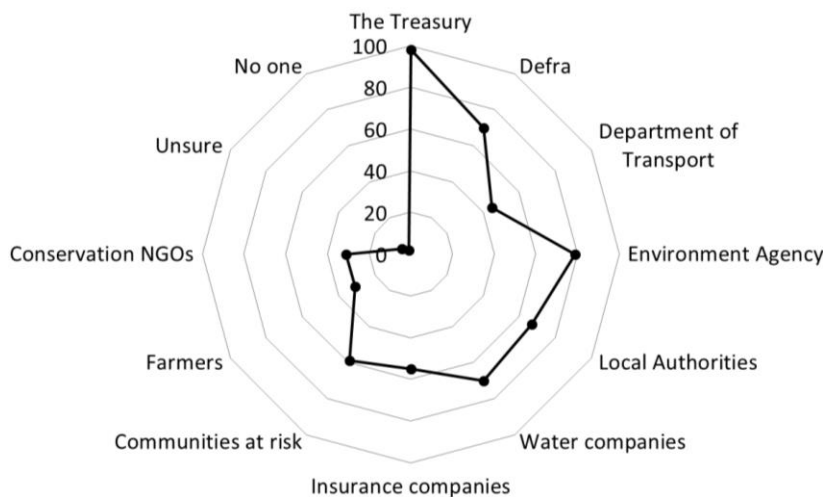
252 Amongst the most frequently mentioned reasons for supporting wider implementation of NFM schemes was
253 alignment with high-level policy such as the 25 Year Environment Plan and reference to wider benefits.
254 These include quotes around it being a 'no-regrets' climate change action (CR: Private sector) and how it is
255 viewed by communities: 'It has additional benefits to FRM, for example psychological benefits giving back
256 communities some control over flooding and its impacts. It can also engender greater preparedness for
257 flooding.' (RB: Private sector).

258

259 3.3.1. Funding NFM

260 Respondents were asked if land managers/farmers should be paid to implement NFM and all 118 responded
261 (Yes – 56, It depends – 59, Unsure – 4). All farmers responded 'Yes': 'I would need to be compensated for my
262 inability to grow the crops needed, to keep me viable.' (JT: Farming). This contrasts with an average of 43% of
263 non-farmers (47% private sector, 46% public sector, 44% third sector, and 23% academics). Private sector
264 respondents noted 'landowners.. and issues of equality' (BR) strongly shape views on what is reasonable and
265 had a pragmatic focus on additionality, i.e. that paid-for actions must be 'additional to existing behaviour'
266 (DG). Another tried to balance these viewpoints: 'We should not be paying subsidies just for ownership of
267 huge tracts of land. There should be services provided in return for subsidies. If NFM and floodwater storage
268 impact on yields or productive land, there should be reasonable compensation. They should also have
269 reasonable monitoring and maintenance responsibility in return too.' (BF).

270 Figure 1 breaks down the responses about who should pay for NFM. Respondents could choose more
271 than one organisation/group.

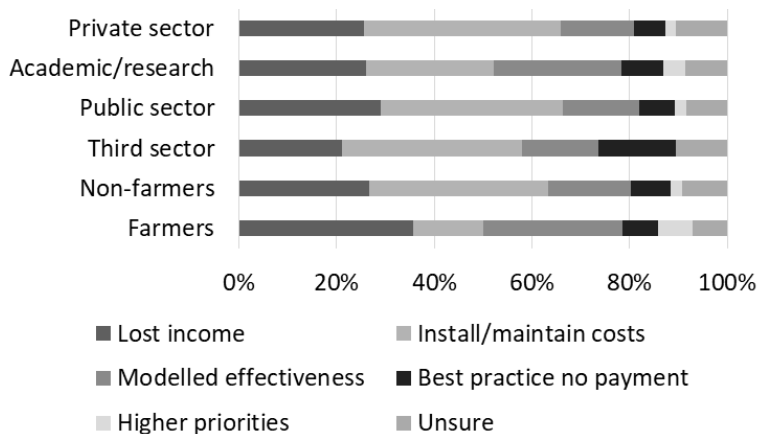


272

273 **Figure 1: Organisations/groups with responsibility to pay for NFM (No. of respondents. Table SI.1-Q16.b).**
 274 **NGO=Non-governmental Organisations.**

275 Most respondents expect payments should come from the public budget through key statutory bodies,
 276 however, the results also suggest some acknowledgment of a shared responsibility extending to water
 277 companies, insurers, and even directly from those at-risk. Some respondents suggested that our list was
 278 incomplete, for instance the local government respondent JC, *'how about residents in areas not at risk of*
 279 *flooding but which can contribute to NFM for instance in the upper catchment or all residents of urban*
 280 *areas'*.

281 There were differences between groups on how to calculate NFM payments, see Figure 2. A total 103
 282 respondents answered this question including all farmers. Farmers' most favoured option was to base
 283 payments on lost income, followed by modelled effectiveness, and lastly on installation costs (36%, 29% and
 284 14%, respectively). For non-farmers the most favoured option was to base payments on installation costs
 285 (37%) followed by lost income (27%) and within this academic views were divided equally amongst these
 286 three options (all 26%). This preference for installation costs might reflect a desire for straightforwardness as
 287 articulated by a public sector respondent (NM) drawing on their knowledge of a rural scheme.



288

289 **Figure 2: Group preferences for payment design (Key: Left to right. Table SI.1-Q16.c)**

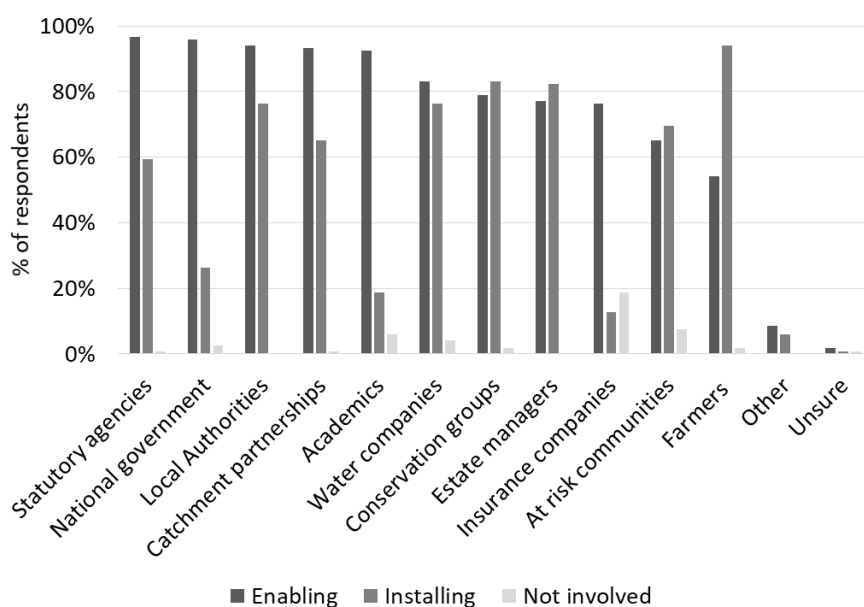
290 Another payments issue is whether to pay for co-benefits; 67% of farmers responded in the affirmative compared
 291 to an average 72% of non-farmers. Respondents from the third and private sectors had similar views to this average,

292 however, public sector and academic respondents overwhelmingly supported paying for co-benefits (81% and 92%).
 293 Arguments in support centred around to win support, generate efficiencies, and boost holistic management. *TG* a
 294 public sector respondent noted the potential *'to match different funding streams together for integrated outcomes.'*
 295 Other actions raised to foster NFM included compensation procedures, such as a need for *'simpler*
 296 *mechanisms for farmers to bid for funding'* (SA: public sector) and compensation types, specifically for an
 297 *'inundation payment on productive land'* (RS: third sector). However, some respondents were opposed to
 298 paying for co-benefits as they are incidental to flood risk reduction and *'not why the work has been done'*
 299 (RM: public sector) or because some NFM interventions can directly benefit landowners/land managers.

300

301 3.4 Enabling and installing NFM

302 Using a list of organisations/groups³ respondents were asked who should be involved in enabling
 303 (coordinating, assisting, advising, incentivising) and installing (carrying out physical activities to install and
 304 maintain NFM measures) NFM, see Figure 3.



305

306 **Figure 3: Respondents' choices on which organisations/groups could enable and install NFM (% of**
 307 **respondents' answering. Table SI.1-Q15)**

308 Most respondents (92%) identified as enablers (in this order): statutory agencies, national government, Local
 309 Authorities, catchment partnerships, and academics. This leading group was closely followed by water
 310 companies, conservation groups, estate managers, and insurance companies. At-risk communities (not
 311 defined) and farmers were chosen by more than half of the respondents. For installation, land managers
 312 (farmers and estate managers) were identified as key as were other groups with land management
 313 experience, FRM obligations and practical and partnership experience (water companies and Local
 314 Authorities, conservation groups and catchment partnerships) and more than two-thirds believe at-risk

³ Eleven respondents suggested other organisations/groups, such as Internal Drainage Boards, developers, planning authorities, residents that are not at risk of floods and the EU (flood and climate change policies).

315 communities and statutory agencies have a role. There were no significant differences between stakeholder
316 groups.

317 An aspect of enabling NFM schemes is to identify research needs and implementation issues. A majority of
318 respondents (86%) agree that there is a specific need for more evidence on NFM. Research gaps identified
319 included an urgent need for: catchment-scale pilots across the nation and the rural-urban gradient and to
320 test combinations of different NFM interventions; and social science research to understand societal
321 acceptability of NFM interventions. Nonetheless, a number of respondents were concerned with research
322 gaps being used an argument for delay, such as: *'I'm sure we do need more research and evidence for NFM
323 and monitoring of NFM projects as they are delivered, but I'm equally sure we need to crack on now and not
324 use this research imperative as an excuse for inaction' (JC: public sector)*. To deliver on this call for action a
325 precursor shift from farmers (and others), was identified by some respondents, such as, *'We need to change
326 people's, particularly farmers' attitudes to how the landscape should look, be managed and what it is being
327 farmed for' (AD: third sector)*.

328

329 **4. Discussion**

330 Our findings highlight several key issues around the future prospects of NFM implementation in the UK, with
331 broader implications for the implementation of other types of NBS and in other contexts. In summary, the
332 stakeholders we surveyed showed some support for NFM and acceptance of a shared responsibility for
333 enabling, implementing and funding it but reported differing views over the detail of when, how and who
334 could or should pay or be paid for its implementation. Public sector and academic respondents often were
335 supportive of NFM and called for action despite various uncertainties and challenges (National Trust, 2015;
336 Iacob et al., 2014; Wilkinson et al., 2019). In contrast, other groups, especially land-managers, are less
337 convinced, which echoes earlier findings (Holstead et al., 2015; Milman et al., 2018).

338 Therefore, there is not yet a shared understanding of the details of how to enable and implement NFM even
339 if the abstract concept itself is generally supported. This compounds the coordination, integration and
340 resourcing challenges expected for NFM delivery (Waylen et al., 2017) and helps to explain slow progress
341 towards landscape transformation (Wilkinson et al., 2019). We do not yet see activities at a scale that could
342 be considered to reflect a paradigm shift, even though many discourses support it (e.g. DG Environment,
343 2015).

344 Differing perceptions represent a conflict, albeit one not often voiced, about what constitutes good land
345 management and who should be responsible for it. Many NFM schemes rely on cooperative voluntary
346 adoption of measures, such as floodplain storage or restoring wetlands, so may be resisted by land-
347 managers who expect the right to decide their own management choices, and to be fully compensated for
348 them. This does not mean that NFM implementation will never become widespread. Indeed there are many
349 other positive prerequisites: eligibility for public funding (e.g. HM Government, 2020), willingness of some
350 landowners to debate their participation (e.g. in pilots, National Trust, 2015), engagement of other
351 stakeholders (e.g. in iCASP), and widespread agreement about problems with pre-existing approaches to
352 FRM (e.g. leaving many areas unprotected, Paavola and Primmer, 2019). However, capitalising on these
353 positive factors to achieve landscape transformation will require a deeper and widened engagement and
354 reconceptualization, especially with landowners. It may also entail other sectors and stakeholders to
355 become more active participants, especially water companies who often intervene in other aspects of

356 catchment management to safeguard drinking water, and insurance companies with an interest in mitigating
357 flood risk.

358 Differing expectations for enabling NFM may also reflect differing worldviews about relationships with
359 nature and flooding, and also on the balance of rights and responsibilities of different societal groups. In the
360 UK (with some similarities to what Milman et al. (2018) find in the USA), land managers – who are mostly
361 private – have the right to use and manage their land as they please, subject to regulation by statutory
362 bodies (Quinn et al., 2010; Paavola and Primmer, 2019). Regulations do not affect many existing practices
363 that affect river hydromorphology – for example drainage and dredging are a ‘normal’ part of farming and
364 legally permissible, and are seen as essential for helping to maintain lands agricultural productivity (Rust et
365 al., 2014; Holstead et al., 2014; Dadson et al., 2017). Removing what are seen as established rights and/or
366 requiring alterations to historical river course alterations without compensation could thus be hugely
367 contentious. However, without change, the risk of downstream flooding will continue to persist and possibly
368 increase due to climate change (Dadson et al., 2017).

369 Connecting these different viewpoints is a challenging task, as it is likely to confront existing values and
370 interests (Cook et al., 2016). Our results suggest that being able to demonstrate the multiple co-benefits to
371 society that arise from NBS initiatives may assist in galvanising wider societal support, for example, in the
372 case of NFM, focusing on biodiversity and carbon sequestration (Iacob et al., 2014). Where payments and
373 incentivisation are needed, co-benefits may also increase the set of potential actors willing to pay for
374 changes in landscape management – though doing so may trade-off with the desire for straightforward
375 arrangements. Respondents’ ideas about what is new or special about the NFM approach can also inform
376 FRM policies, plans and communication, including connections and complementarity with existing
377 approaches and issues connected with nature, communities, responsibility, and catchment land
378 management. In a more radical conceptualisation of future FRM, NFM could even be incentivised and widely
379 implemented across (sub)catchments as a standard, ‘no-regrets’ option thereby redirecting engineered
380 defences to reduce residual flood risk.

381 Furthermore, better understanding of normative and information uncertainty in decision making (Newig et
382 al. 2015) will be helpful, as uncertainty is often cited as a barrier to delivery of NBS and confirmed by this
383 study of NFM. Where a decision has already been made to go ahead with implementing NFM, the normative
384 uncertainty is about how to achieve it. In this case, our research provides some helpful guidance to promote
385 schemes with social and environmental co-benefits and direct future support to stakeholder groups that
386 currently do not yet play a big role in FRM or in NFM. Additionally it is important to learn about collaborative
387 environmental management (Benson et al., 2013) and underpinning social processes that can enhance
388 catchment-scale action (Bark and Acreman, 2020). For information uncertainty arising from a lack of
389 knowledge and data, important research is being carried out, for example in Yorkshire where iCASP is:
390 testing how to provide tailored modelling and monitoring support for NFM pilots; growing a NFM
391 community of practice to increase regional capability; and contributing updates to the Environment Agency’s
392 national evidence base and guidance.⁴ Other information needs are around cost-effectiveness which is a key
393 argument in the advocacy of NBS (Coles and Tyllianakis, 2019) and also strongly reflected in our results.
394 However, there are few comprehensive and systematic social and economic analyses of NBS (ibid). It is
395 important that this research gap is filled to avoid confirmatory bias in the endorsement of NBS.

⁴ See, <https://icasp.org.uk/projects-2/natural-flood-management/>

396 Better understanding of existing knowledges and their multiple uncertainties is helpful but unlikely by itself
397 to achieve the paradigm shift that NFM represents. It is important to acknowledge that NFM – as for all NBS
398 – will necessarily entail trade-offs between different groups, with winners and losers versus the status quo.
399 In the UK, in the discussion of post-Brexit CAP arrangements, we see this tension more publicly aired, as
400 commentators and scholars (Gawith and Hodge, 2017) debate the pros and cons and feasibility of basing
401 agri-environmental payments on ‘public goods for public money’, i.e. England’s new Environmental Land
402 Management system. Evolving arrangements for incentivising and influencing land managers may offer a
403 useful ‘natural experiment’ to inform and enable implementation of other NBS. This might lead to a deeper
404 paradigmatic shift through which radically new relationships between land managers and flood mitigation
405 could be imagined, for example, explicitly “*farming water*”, i.e. receiving payment for flood attenuation and
406 flood storage. A “re-imagining of what flood management is” (Cook et al., 2016, p323) also entails activities
407 beyond the scope of this study, such as support to at-risk communities to live with flooding (Bark and
408 Acreman, 2020). This highlights a wider issue of societal understanding – and responses – to risks and
409 uncertainties arising from natural processes, which include but are not limited to flooding. Arguments for
410 accepting and adapting to its multiple uncertainties may sit uneasily in dominant ‘modernist’ paradigms of
411 command and control but are an essential to achieving more adaptive and holistic approaches to
412 environmental governance (Nobert et al., 2015).

413

414 **5. Conclusion**

415 This research explored the views of NFM held by a diverse set of FRM stakeholders in the UK, as a key
416 example of the challenge around integrating NBS into – or instead of – conventional FRM. There are signs
417 that NBS has entered the UK’s discourse on FRM, in part in response to the failure of conventional flood
418 protection as well as the promise of NBS. However, our mixture of survey responses highlights the challenge
419 of achieving change in the face of the practicalities of balancing multiple interests, objectives, and
420 uncertainties. What are the implications for the NBS paradigm shift that NFM represents? Some progress
421 has been made in achieving the needed conceptual and discursive shift – as reflected by the enthusiastic
422 endorsement of some but not all stakeholders – but more intervention will be required if all relevant
423 stakeholders are to work together for the landscape transformations that NFM implies.

424 There are several practical strategies that could help further implement NFM, such as landscape scale pilots,
425 provision of land management extension services, pilot partnerships to navigate multi-level governance, and
426 consideration of incentives for good practice across a range of sectors. Similar strategies may also assist in
427 promoting delivery of other NBS. However, such specific initiatives may also need to be complemented by
428 cross-sector societal debate concerning both the rationale and specific implications of greater
429 implementation. In the case of NFM in the UK, evidence that stakeholders generally accept NFM should be a
430 shared responsibility can provide a good basis for such debates. An opportunity for more explicit debate on
431 the rights and responsibilities associated with land management would likely be of value to enabling NBS in
432 many places and cases worldwide.

433

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