

1 Values influence public perceptions of flood management schemes

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7

8 **Abstract**

9 Natural Flood Management (NFM) is now well established as a paradigm for reducing flood
10 risk. It is characterised by adopting a catchment-wide hydrological perspective and applying
11 NFM such as wetlands, riparian vegetation and river channel rehabilitation. However, despite
12 substantial attention in the river science literature and growing appreciation for NFM among
13 environmental managers, little research has been conducted on how the public perceives
14 NFM. This study explores preferences for a variety of flood risk management schemes
15 through an online survey of the UK public, and assessed how different characteristics of these
16 schemes contribute to preferences via Q-method utilising an array of photographs.
17 Relationships between survey respondents' underlying transcendental values and their
18 preferences for NFM schemes were also studied. Results revealed that while NFM
19 approaches were appreciated for their appearance and wildlife benefits, traditional grey
20 engineering – particularly dams – was seen as more effective in ameliorating flood risk. Q-
21 sorts of photographs revealed three factors that characterise participants' preferences: (i)
22 “Engineered - Natural”, (ii) “Messy - Neat” and (iii) “Grey - Green”. Finally, transcendental
23 values were significantly related to flood scheme preferences, with ‘Self-Transcendence’
24 values positively correlated with preference for tree planting and wetlands and negatively
25 with dams and weirs. ‘Conservatism’ values were positively correlated with preferences for

26 dredging and weirs and negatively with wetlands. These findings emphasise the plurality of
27 public perceptions related to NFM and the diverse value orientations within which they are
28 grounded. River and catchment managers seeking to promote NFM solutions should focus on
29 addressing public concerns about the efficacy of NFM for mitigating flood risk, and consider
30 how to communicate solutions in ways that resonate with a diverse set of public values.

31 **Keywords:**

32 Natural flood management; public preferences; transcendental values; flooding; Q-method

33

34 **1. INTRODUCTION**

35 Flooding is the most deadly and costly natural hazard globally (Hendry *et al.*, 2018; Stevens
36 *et al.*, 2016; Llasat *et al.* 2009). Despite a long history of management, flooding remains
37 prevalent and the number of reported floods has increased noticeably since the 1960s (Jha *et*
38 *al.*, 2012; Stevens *et al.*, 2016). As such, past management has not successfully mitigated
39 these risks (Johnson *et al.* 2019) and trust in previous management techniques and strategies
40 has been tested and questioned (e.g. Bubeck *et al.*, 2017). The increased risk of flooding
41 despite vast investment in traditional, predominately grey flood infrastructure has resulted in
42 the relatively recent adoption of new methods, and particularly a shift to more integrated
43 approaches to flood risk management (Bubeck *et al.*, 2017). Integrated approaches consider
44 the whole catchment with the aim of achieving long-term sustainability by understanding and
45 aligning with natural bio-geophysical processes. As part of this shift in focus, flood risk
46 mitigation increasingly involves ‘Natural Flood Management’ (NFM). NFM utilises the
47 hydrological benefits of green infrastructure, and is promoted as a form of sustainable flood
48 risk management (Lane, 2017; Wells *et al.*, 2020), with documented success in reducing peak
49 flows and increasing lag times (e.g. LUPG, 2004; Thomas and Nisbet (2007); Wilkinson *et*

50 al. 2019). NFM also offers multiple ancillary benefits (Iacob *et al.*, 2014) including reducing
51 costs incurred by flood damages, amenity values and ecological improvements (Lane, 2017).

52

53 The paradigm of NFM reflects changing environmental management scholarship, but has
54 largely developed in isolation from the views of relevant stakeholders and the wider public.
55 Several European countries have encouraged the integration of rural land use with flood risk
56 management (Holstead *et al.*, 2017). However, a key issue that has inhibited the
57 implementation of this type of flood risk management is the permission and acceptance of
58 landowners (Howgate and Kenyon, 2009; Bark *et al.* 2021). Indeed, successful environmental
59 management depends in large part on social acceptability of environmental actions, and an
60 understanding of public perceptions (Bennett, 2016).

61

62 There has been substantial research into public engagement with, and perceptions of flood
63 risk management schemes (e.g. Myatt *et al.*, 2003; Reed, 2008; Morrison *et al.* 2019). For
64 example, scholars have identified a link between beliefs about nature and support for river
65 restoration (Connelly *et al.*, 2002; Groot and De Groot, 2009). Buijs (2009) investigated
66 public perceptions of the 'ideal' river environment using questionnaires and open interviews.
67 The results indicated that scenic beauty was preferred, and that floodplains should be well-
68 maintained, such as through mowing of grass. Furthermore, White *et al.* (2010) highlighted
69 the benefits of involving the public within flood risk management, including improving
70 understanding of decision-making processes, increasing personal responsibility, and
71 enhancing the quality of information about specific areas of flood risk.

72

73 However, increasing public engagement is a difficult process especially with newer concepts
74 or where there may be a lack of knowledge, as is the case with NFM. To date, there has been

75 a general lack of acceptance by the general public of NFM's efficacy in reducing flood risk
76 (Huq, 2017; Wells, 2019). Yet opinions are complex, with less favourable views of NFM
77 associated with individuals who have previously been flooded (Wells, 2019), a lack of
78 knowledge about the benefits of NFM (Huq, 2017; Wells, 2019), and land-owners and
79 farmers who question responsibility, ownership and costs associated with NFM (Beck et al.
80 2021). There is therefore a need for further research into the plurality of public perspectives
81 on NFM and the factors that influence them.

82

83 Values are receiving increasing conceptual and empirical attention in environmental and
84 sustainability research because they enable exploration of the underlying psychological
85 constructs that determine environmental attitudes, and have been explored from diverse
86 disciplinary perspectives (Dietz *et al.* 2005; Ives and Kendal 2014; Kenter *et al.* 2019). Given
87 the diversity of ways that the concept of value is used in environmental management (Ives &
88 Kendal, 2014), we adopt the term "transcendental values" to describe those abstract,
89 universal values assessed in this study. Drawing on Schwartz and Bilsky, (1987),
90 transcendental values are defined by Kenter et al. (2015: 88) as "conceptions about desirable
91 end states or behaviours that transcend specific situations and guide selection or evaluation of
92 behaviour and events". Empirical evidence has linked transcendental values with
93 environmental attitudes and behaviours (Stern *et al.*, 1995; Stern *et al.*, 1998), and as such
94 they have been identified as important to consider in managing ecosystem services (Raymond
95 & Kenter, 2016).

96

97 There is currently scant literature on the relationship between values and perceptions of river
98 management. One important exception is Morris-Oswald and Sinclair (2005) who
99 investigated values with regard to flood risk management in two Canadian communities.

100 They found that some values act as a constraint on management, especially where proposals
101 focus on the implementation of sustainable floodplain management practices. However, there
102 is currently no literature on the relationship between underlying transcendental values and
103 people's preferences for different river management schemes. This knowledge is essential to
104 ensure the burgeoning movement of NFM has a 'social licence'. Insights could inform how
105 flood risk management measures could be designed and communicated for both public
106 acceptability and environmental benefits. Therefore, this study aimed to:

- 107 1. Investigate individuals' preference for various flood risk management schemes.
- 108 2. Identify attributes of flood risk management schemes that influence preferences by
109 the public.
- 110 3. Explore the relationship between individuals' transcendental values and their
111 preferences towards flood risk management schemes.

112 This over-arching intention is to provide insights for those involved in the planning and
113 design of flood risk management strategies and to inform how management strategies are
114 conveyed to stakeholders. The work focuses on the UK which could potentially face
115 significant changes to environmental policy as a result of Brexit, and suffers significant
116 national flood risk annually.

117

118 **2. METHODS**

119 **2.1. Questionnaire design and dissemination**

120 An online survey was developed to collect information on respondents' preferences for
121 different flood risk management schemes, perceptions of the schemes according to relevant
122 criteria (appearance, benefits to wildlife and effectiveness), and their underlying values. It
123 was distributed via social media, including Facebook and Twitter, and on the website for a
124 funded research project on flood resilience (University of Nottingham, 2019). Although the

125 survey was open to any member of the wider UK public, our aim was not to obtain a
126 demographically representative sample but rather to ensure a sufficiently diverse set of views.
127 Ethics approval was obtained from the School of Geography, University of Nottingham prior
128 to data collection (approval granted 27th March 2019).

129

130 The questionnaire comprised three sections. The first collected socio-demographic data
131 including age, occupation, the highest level of education, gender and postcode. Only the first
132 half of postcodes was recorded and was used to split respondents into rural and urban based
133 on the 2011 Rural Urban Classification (DEFRA 2014) and the Scottish Government Urban
134 Rural Classification (Scottish Government, 2016). A binary question was also asked to
135 establish whether the individual had experienced flooding in the past, or within their current
136 property. Analysis was carried out to determine whether these data played a role in affecting
137 peoples' values and perceptions of flood risk management and, where this was the case, is
138 presented herein.

139

140 **2.2. Assessing transcendental values and preferences**

141 The second section of the questionnaire assessed individuals' transcendental values. Values
142 were assessed following Stern's et al. (1998) interpretation of Schwartz (1992) values scale,
143 which indicates a universal structure of values that includes Self-Transcendence, Self-
144 Enhancement, Openness to Change and Conservation (or traditional) values. Stern et al.'s
145 sub-scales were used to distinguish between altruistic and biospheric value orientations
146 within the broader category of Self-Transcendence values. Stern et al.'s (1998) shortened
147 version of Schwartz's values has been widely used and found to have good reliability and
148 predictive success (e.g. Corner et al., 2014). A 7-point Likert scale was used to measure the
149 importance of each of the 15 items as a 'guiding principle' in respondents' lives.

150

151 The final section assessed the preferences of the individuals regarding flood risk management
152 schemes. Six photographs were shown, representing both NFM (tree planting, wetland
153 creation and wooden dams) and traditional flood risk management (dams, dredging and
154 weirs). For each of the images the individual provided a subjective rating for: (i)
155 effectiveness for managing flooding, (ii) appearance and, (iii) benefits for nature and wildlife
156 on a 5-point Likert scale. Following this, each individual was asked to rank the images from 1
157 to 6 (1 being the best and 6 the worst) based on their overall preferred management scheme
158 for flood control. Finally, they were asked to give a short justification for their overall
159 preference ranking.

160

161 **2.3. Statistical analysis of questionnaire data**

162 Associations between respondents' socio-demographics and their overall ranking of flood
163 risk management schemes were analysed via Kruskal-Wallis H tests. Comparison of
164 preference ratings for flood risk management schemes according to different criteria
165 (effectiveness, appearance, wildlife benefits and overall rating) was also achieved via
166 Kruskal-Wallis H tests with Mann-Whitney U post-hoc comparisons. To examine the
167 structure of underlying value items from the questionnaire data, an exploratory factor analysis
168 was carried out with Varimax with Kaiser Factor Rotation (Brace *et al.*, 2012). A principal
169 component extraction method was used, with items considered to be part of a cohesive group
170 if their factor loadings were >0.4 (Samuels, 2016). Two, three and four-factor solutions were
171 calculated. The number of factors was confirmed by first analysing the scree plot to identify
172 components with eigenvalues >1 . In order to establish the categories and best fit of the
173 factors, Schwartz's circumplex model was used to determine logical item groupings, in
174 accordance with other studies (e.g. Hinz *et al.*, 2005; Perrinjaquet *et al.*, 2007). To establish

175 which value orientations most strongly relate to overall flood risk management perceptions, a
176 Spearman's Rank Correlation was used to compare the factor scores for participants with the
177 overall rankings for flood control of the management schemes. All statistical analyses were
178 completed in SPSS v25 (IBM Corp. 2017).

179

180 **2.4. Q-method**

181 To complement the survey methodology, Q-method using images of flood risk management
182 schemes was applied face to face with a smaller group of people to inductively identify
183 attributes of flood mitigation options that relate to preferences. The Q-method was devised
184 and developed in the 1930s by William Stephenson (McKeown and Thomas, 1988). It is an
185 inductive method that allows participants to demonstrate their viewpoints in response to a
186 sample set of stimuli, which can be statements or images (Herrington and Coogan, 2011).

187 One of the strengths of the methodology is that it enables quantitative structural analysis of
188 participant responses without the need for pre-determined, a-priori categories of phenomena.

189 Q-method is commonly used with statements; however, photographs can also be used and can
190 assist with engaging people from a range of ages, education levels and backgrounds (Milcu et
191 al., 2014). Within landscape perception, the use of photographs remains one of the most
192 common approaches and, by using the Q-method, a large number of situations can be
193 presented (Fairweather and Swaffield, 2001). This methodology also allows the combination
194 of both quantitative and qualitative techniques to gain an understanding of an individual's
195 point of view (Webler and Tuler, 2006; Herrington and Coogan, 2011), permitting a more
196 interpretative and exploratory analysis.

197

198 The Q-method was employed to explore interactively how people perceive visual
199 representations of flood risk management schemes. Individuals were approached and

200 interviewed at the Nottingham Lakeside Arts Centre and in the School of Geography,
201 University of Nottingham on an open day. Thirty-six images depicting twelve different
202 management options were used, with three different images for each option, selected based
203 on the clarity of the photography and requiring the management option to be the focus of the
204 photograph. For each of the management options, at least one image depicted a ‘natural’
205 approach (e.g. wetland creation, large wood, tree planting, detention basins, flow deflectors
206 and leaky dams), while at least one other image depicted a grey engineering approach (e.g.
207 dam, weir, dredging, flood wall, channelisation, and levees). Each participant was firstly
208 given the chance look through all 36 images with the name of the management option on the
209 back. They were also supplied with a list of definitions and were able to ask for further
210 clarification throughout the recorded interview. The participant was then asked to place the
211 images into three piles, representing the best, neutral, and the worst options overall for flood
212 risk management, participants were asked to consider each scheme overall thinking about
213 their appearance, benefits to wildlife and effectiveness as a flood risk management scheme.
214 The scale was relative, not absolute. Therefore, even if a participant regarded all the images
215 as having merit, a decision had to be made concerning the relative level of merit, making the
216 participant choose between the best and the worst options (Webler and Tuler, 2006). Once the
217 photographs had been assigned to the piles, participants were asked to order the images on a
218 grid, working through each of the piles, creating a Q-sort. A Q-sort is the completion of this
219 grid (see Supplementary Material for an empty Q-sort template). As they did so, they were
220 asked to explain why they had made their decisions. Distribution of the images was not taken
221 as final until the participant was content with all their choices. The participant was then asked
222 to give reasons for their choices for the best and worst option. A photographic record was
223 made of each individual’s preferences, and this was translated into excel using the definition

224 names, each photograph was then given a number to represent each definition name, to allow
225 for later analysis.

226

227 To investigate the preference for management options in the Q-sorts, a factor analysis was
228 performed on photograph scores. The results were uploaded to the Ken-Q Analysis software
229 package, as used by Ladan *et al.*, (2018) and Porter *et al.*, (2017). Eight factors were
230 extracted using Principle Component Analysis and three factors were selected for rotation,
231 with a Varimax rotation applied (Watts and Stenner, 2005). The factors were produced using
232 the image names, however, in order to see the factors visually, the image names were
233 converted back to their images in order to display results visually. For each respondent, a
234 loading score was calculated for each factor, in essence rating the degree to which that
235 individual Q-sort is related to each factor (Webler and Tuler, 2006). The analysis can isolate
236 one prevalent factor or produce several factors. From the output of the Q-sort, each image
237 was ranked, and thus image scores were derived for each factor. Additionally, for each
238 respondent socio-demographic information was recorded to enable comparison with resulting
239 factors.

240

241 **3. RESULTS**

242

243 **3.1. Respondent profile**

244 In total, 170 individuals participated in the online survey, of which 151 completed all sections
245 of the questionnaire. Only complete responses were considered for analysis. Similar numbers
246 of responses were received from females and males ($n = 78$ females and $n = 73$ males), with a
247 wide range of ages completing the survey (16 to 65+ years old). The majority of individuals
248 had a first degree (40%) or higher degree (30%), indicating that respondents were generally

249 highly educated. The most common occupation was in ‘life, physical, and social science
250 occupations’ (23%), with students comprising a further 21% of respondents. Geographically,
251 respondents were spread through England and Scotland, but with a more living in urban
252 environments (80%) than in rural environments (20%). Kruskal Wallis H Tests revealed that
253 the only significant relationship between overall ranking of the management options and
254 socio-demographics found was between education levels for the overall ranking of dredging
255 and wetlands (Supplementary Material). Those with higher qualifications ranked dredging
256 significantly lower (i.e. less preferred) and wetlands significantly higher (i.e. more preferred)
257 than people with lower qualification levels.

258

259 For the Q-method a total of 18 individuals participated, of which 11 were male and 7 were
260 female, aged between 16 and 65+ years old. The majority of individuals were either students
261 (44%) or retired (22%), and 56% had a University degree or higher qualification. Given the
262 low sample size, the role of socio-demographics on responses in the Q-method was not
263 analysed further.

264

265 **3.2 Management Preferences**

266 Average scores for appearance, effectiveness and benefits to wildlife of each management
267 option were calculated from 5-point Likert scale survey responses (Figure 1), and significant
268 preference differences were found between flood risk management schemes for each category
269 of assessment. Full statistical details of pairwise tests between scheme types for each
270 preference category can be found in supplementary material (Supplementary Material).

271

272 In terms of flood risk management effectiveness, Kruskal-Wallis tests again revealed
273 differences between scheme types ($H(5) = 119$; $p < 0.001$). Dams (mean = 3.81, SD = 0.93)

274 and wetlands (mean = 3.77, SD = 1.07) were considered more effective than all other options,
275 and there was no statistical difference between them. The remaining four schemes rated
276 lowest for effectiveness (with no discernible difference between), namely dredging (mean =
277 2.87, SD = 1.15), tree planting (mean = 3.07, SD = 1.12), weirs (mean = 3.05; SD = 0.91),
278 and wooden dams (mean = 3.13, SD = 0.85).

279

280 Flood risk management schemes were rated differently for appearance preference ($H(5) =$
281 $366; p < 0.001$). Tree planting (mean = 4.52, SD = 0.78) and wetlands (mean = 4.40, SD =
282 0.86) scored the highest for appearance, and did not statistically differ from one another.

283 Dams and dredging were the lowest scoring management approaches for appearance (means
284 of 2.81 [SD = 1.12] and 2.49 [SD = 1.18], respectively) and did not statistically differ either.

285

286 Differences in ratings for benefits to wildlife were evident between flood risk management
287 schemes ($H(5) = 455; p < 0.001$). Wetlands and tree planting scored the highest for benefits to
288 wildlife (mean = 4.62, SD = 0.74; and mean = 4.51, SD = 0.73 respectively), with no
289 statistical difference between the two. Both these schemes were found to have higher ratings
290 for wildlife benefits than all other forms of flood risk management approaches. This reflected
291 an overall trend of more natural options scoring higher than grey engineering when
292 considering wildlife benefits. The scheme with the lowest rating was dredging (mean = 2.16,
293 SD = 1.13) with post-hoc tests demonstrating that respondents considered this to be of less
294 benefit to wildlife than all other categories.

295

296

<Figure 1 here>

297

298 In terms of differences in overall preference (Figure 2), management schemes varied
299 significantly ($H(5) = 455$; $p > 0.001$) as follows: wetlands were the most preferred
300 management option, followed by dams and tree planting (no statistical difference), wooden
301 dams and weirs (no statistical difference), with dredging the least preferred management
302 option. This order closely resembled that of effectiveness ratings, with dams being ranked
303 second overall despite receiving low ratings on attractiveness and benefits to wildlife. This
304 suggests that schemes' ability to reduce frequency and magnitude of flooding strongly
305 influences overall public preference.

306

307 <Figure 2 here>

308

309 **3.3. Attributes associated with management scheme preferences.**

310 The Q-method results built upon the survey reports of preferences for flood risk management
311 schemes by revealing how people categorise different management approaches and implicitly
312 prefer particular attributes. Three Q-sort factors were identified and labelled according to the
313 gradients observed in the array of photographs, namely (i) Engineered – Natural, (ii) Messy -
314 Neat and (iii) Grey - Green. These are shown in Figures 3-5.

315

316 The general gradient of the Q-sort for Factor 1 went from traditional, engineered/concrete
317 flood risk management at the lower (less preferred) end of the scale to more natural
318 management options at the higher (more preferred) end (Figure 3). Images on the less
319 preferred end of Factor 1 depicted concrete and grey engineering features, including weirs,
320 flood walls, channelisation, and dams. The middle range included detention basins, levees,
321 flow deflectors and dredging. Images at the more preferred end of the continuum were

322 associated with the more woody structures, such as flow deflectors, leaky dams, tree planting,
323 and large wood.

324

325 <Figure 3 here>

326

327 For Factor 2, the general trend of the Q-sort was a preference towards the management
328 options that looked well-maintained and appearing to be neat, characterised by mown grass
329 (Figure 4). Dredging was positioned at the lowest end of the factor (least preferred), which
330 aligned with the results of the online survey. Tree planting was positioned at the preferred
331 end of the spectrum, aligning with results of the survey. However, in contrast to the other Q-
332 sort factors, the images within this array appeared to be organised according to visual order or
333 neatness, rather than scheme type or environmental performance.

334

335 <Figure 4 here>

336

337 Factor 3 showed a continuum from grey to green (Figure 5). The higher scoring end was
338 comprised of detention basins, wetlands and tree planting. Towards the lower end of the Q-
339 sort were the traditional flood risk management options of dams, floodwalls, and
340 channelisation, representing grey options. The middle of the array included images of large
341 wood, leaky dams and dredging.

342

343 <Figure 5 here>

344

345 **3.4 Structure of personal values**

346 To explore the association between personal values and preferences for flood risk
347 management schemes, the structure of Stern's (1998) universal value scale was explored.
348 Items with factor loadings over ± 0.4 were grouped into value orientations in accordance with
349 Samuels (2016). Some items did not load on factors as expected according to Stern or
350 Schwartz's value typologies. As such, three of the items were removed including item 2: A
351 world at peace, free of war and conflict, item 6: Equality, equal justice for all, and item 12:
352 Self-discipline, self-restraint, resistance to temptation. Through assessment of eigenvalues
353 and item loadings, a four-factor solution based on the circumplex and previous papers (Stern
354 et al., 1998) was selected as the best fit statistically, and in accordance with the theoretical
355 scale structure in Stern et al. (1998), namely Self-Transcendence, Openness to Change, Self-
356 Enhancement and Conservatism (Table 1.).

357

358 Factor 1, Self-Transcendence, comprised both Altruistic / Self-Transcendence values and
359 Biospheric / Self-Transcendence values. Items loading most strongly on this factor related to
360 the preservation of nature and the environment. Factor 2, Openness to Change, was
361 associated with the acceptance of new ideas or trying different opportunities. Factor 3, Self-
362 Enhancement, indicated values related to personal benefits. Finally, Factor 4, Conservatism
363 values, are also known as traditional values and relate to a general opposition to novelty and
364 change. The item wealth, material possessions, money loaded similarly on factor 3 ($n =$
365 0.608) and factor 4 ($n = 0.521$) but was grouped in factor 3 to maintain consistency with its
366 interpretation in other studies.

367

368

<Table 1 here>

369

370 **3.5 Relationships between values and management preferences**

371 The results from the Spearman's Rank Correlation illustrated significant, albeit weak,
372 relationships between the factor scores for participants with the overall rankings for flood
373 control of the management schemes (Table 2). For Self-Transcendence (i.e. Biospheric-
374 Altruistic values) there was a statistically significant positive correlation with preference for
375 tree planting ($p = 0.007$) and wetlands ($p = 0.030$). Negative correlations between the value
376 orientation Self-Transcendence and both dams and weirs were statistically significant,
377 although correlation coefficient values were low ($r_s < 0.3$ in all cases). The second factor,
378 Openness to Change, was only found to have a statistically significant correlation with
379 preference for wooden dams ($p = 0.011$) and there were no statistically significant
380 correlations between the factor Self-Enhancement and any of the flood risk management
381 options. Dredging ($p = 0.031$) and weirs ($p = 0.018$) both had significant, positive
382 correlations with the Conservatism factor whereas wetlands had a statistically significant
383 negative correlation with Conservatism ($p = 0.009$).

384

385 <Table 2 here>

386

387 **4. DISCUSSION**

388

389 4.1. Flood mitigation preferences

390 Across all the methods used, there was an overall preference for NFM options. For example,
391 wetland creation was given the highest overall rating in the questionnaire and was rated
392 highly across all three of the key characteristics: appearance, effectiveness, and benefits to
393 wildlife. This finding is consistent with others who have found that society places high value
394 on wetlands (Davidson *et al.*, 2019) and, as scientific understanding of their ecological value
395 has increased, public appreciation has also increased (Heimlich *et al.*, 1998). This positivity

396 towards wetlands has been associated with their mutual benefits for recreation and
397 educational opportunities, in addition to flood mitigation opportunities (Knight *et al.*, 2001;
398 Jose *et al.*, 2014). Tunstall *et al.* (2000) documented how residents in East Peckham, UK,
399 who could see detention basins from their windows felt they had a positive impact on the
400 appearance of the area. Those respondents with higher education qualifications expressed
401 stronger preferences for wetlands, indicating that prior knowledge of the potential importance
402 of wetlands is important to their value. This accords with Wells (2019) who found NFM was
403 more valued by those who had prior understood of the associated benefits. The overarching
404 preference for NFM approaches observed in the survey data is supported by the array of
405 images produced in the first factor of the Q-method results. This factor represented a gradient
406 from grey engineering to natural approaches and had 9 respondents loading onto it.

407

408 Dams were considered the most effective option and came second in the overall preference
409 ranking despite scoring low on appearance and benefits to wildlife. This firstly demonstrates
410 that while people associate NFM with aesthetic and wildlife benefits, dams continue to be
411 perceived as an effective strategy for managing flooding (Lebel *et al.* 2009). Second, it
412 suggests that perceived effectiveness is critical in establishing public support for management
413 – perhaps more than a scheme’s appearance or biodiversity. Similar findings were
414 documented in the Swiss Alps, where individuals who had suffered flooding expressed a
415 preference for more traditional measures such as dams, which they believed to be more
416 effective (Buchecker *et al.*, 2016). This type of grey engineering is especially preferred when
417 it is within or close to an urban area (Mosley, 1989). Despite this perception of grey
418 engineering as effective for managing flooding, wetlands were ranked second for
419 effectiveness. Wetlands are a key management scheme as they store water for short periods,
420 delaying flood peaks (Potter, 1994). Results from the present research suggest that this

421 benefit may be well-recognised by the broader public in the UK. In contrast, dredging was
422 perceived as the least effective option, and significantly more negatively by those with higher
423 qualifications. This may be associated with an ongoing, high profile debate in the UK media
424 with regard to dredging for flood mitigation, illustrated through the floods of winter 2013-14
425 in the Somerset Levels of South West England (Thorne, 2014). The media coverage it
426 received could have educated the public on issues surrounding the effectiveness and
427 sustainability of dredging, particularly those with University education interests in the
428 environment.

429

430 Despite the apparent perception of grey engineering as effective for managing flooding, the
431 appearance of schemes also influenced their final overall ranking. Overall, the ‘green’ options
432 were considered more aesthetically pleasing than grey engineering, with wetlands and
433 woodland also rated highly for overall preference. This result was reflected in the third Q-sort
434 factor depicting a spectrum of preference from grey to green. For example, the two
435 photographs of levees that were ‘green’ rather than the one where the grass was more
436 ‘brown’ tended to be scored higher. Lara *et al.* (2010) found similar results with local
437 managers having a preference for ‘greener’ types of flood risk management. Likewise, dry
438 wetlands were preferred if the vegetation had colour as this implied health (Dobbie and
439 Green, 2013). This is consistent with work on river restoration, where for example, Junker
440 and Buchecker (2008) found that the public in Switzerland viewed restoration outcomes
441 based on their aesthetics, with naturalness improving appearance. Similarly, Everett *et al.*,
442 (2018) found that the public in the USA preferred ‘blue-green’ infrastructure for flood
443 management, which looked more natural when compared to grey infrastructure. Indeed, there
444 is a large literature documenting people’s visual preference for green or natural features (e.g.
445 Ulrich, 1993; Kaltenborn and Bjerke, 2002; Silva *et al.*, 2013; Chiang and Jane, 2017; Zhao

446 et al., 2017). Conversely, grey engineering schemes were given the lowest rating when it
447 came to appearance and were often referred to as being an ‘eye-sore’ in conversation with Q-
448 sort participants. In particular, respondents identified the degree to which flood risk
449 management structures fitted into their surroundings as a key factor for acceptance.

450

451 Management options that appeared ‘messy’ were also scored relatively low for appearance,
452 particularly woody structures. This result from the online survey was also consistent with the
453 Q-sort results, with Factor 2 representing a gradient from schemes that were deemed messy to
454 those that were neat. Research has found that areas are seen to be less appealing if they
455 appear dry or contain dead vegetation, whilst areas that are open and have regular
456 maintenance are preferred (Williams and Cary, 2002). This may relate to an idea of order and
457 intent to ‘control’, which can be associated with mowing and removing of unfamiliar plants
458 that has been linked with flood control and safety improvements (McCormick *et al.*, 2015).
459 The messy-neat and grey-green factors represented different gradients, which align with
460 Nassauer’s (1993) well-established principles on ecological aesthetics, namely that landscape
461 attractiveness is associated with visual cues of neatness, order and care. Indeed, in the context
462 of flood risk management, previous research has shown conspicuous large wood was not
463 popular with the public, even where it had formed naturally (Gregory and Davis, 1993; Chin
464 *et al.*, 2008; Ruiz-Villanueva *et al.*, 2018).

465

466 In general, respondents associated grey engineering with negative impacts on wildlife and
467 more natural approaches to flood risk management with positive impacts. Wetlands were
468 perceived to be very important for wildlife, and this function may have contributed to their
469 high overall preference by survey respondents. Wetlands support multiple ecological
470 functions (Dobbie and Green, 2013) and are vital in supporting diverse plant communities

471 (Lishawa *et al.*, 2019) and providing habitat for fish (Heimlich *et al.*, 1998). Survey
472 respondents did not associate dams with wildlife benefits, perhaps indicating greater public
473 knowledge of the negative impacts of dams (e.g. fragmentation of habitat and impeding
474 nutrient and sediment transport) relative to other flood risk management schemes.

475

476 4.2 Values as a predictor of overall preference

477 Transcendental values were significantly related to preferences for management options,
478 highlighting both the heterogeneity of ‘public’ preferences and the deep psychological origins
479 of attitudes towards environmental management options. Our findings revealed that Self-
480 Transcendence values (including values for other people and the environment) were
481 positively associated with preferences for tree planting and wetlands, and negatively
482 associated with preferences for dams and weirs. Conversely, Conservatism values were
483 positively associated with dredging and weirs, and negatively with wetlands. These findings
484 help to explain why both grey engineering (dams) and natural flood risk management
485 (wetlands) approaches were rated highly overall in public preferences. It appears that the
486 environmental benefits of natural flood management are more salient for those with
487 biospheric value orientations (incorporated within Self-Transcendence values), while
488 conservative values underpin more ‘traditional’, ‘well-proven’ approaches. These findings
489 align well with existing research on values and environmental attitudes. For example, Schultz
490 *et al.* (2005) carried out research across six countries and found that values were important in
491 how people understood environmental issues, in particular that Self-Transcendence was
492 positively related to environmental concern whereas Self-Enhancement had a negative
493 association.

494

495 Somewhat counterintuitively, preference for wooden dams (a form of NFM) was not
496 statistically related to Self-Transcendence values, possibly because the appearance of this
497 management option is perceived as messy. However, there was a positive relationship
498 between wooden dams and Openness to Change values, perhaps because this is one of the
499 newer, more novel techniques. As expected, both dredging and weirs had a positive
500 relationship with Conservatism values and wetlands had a negative relationship.
501 Conservatism is positioned as the opposite of Openness to Change (Schwartz, 1992), and
502 here inverse relationships were found. To better understand how personal values relate to
503 preferences for river management, future research should look to combine measures of
504 transcendental values with context-specific values. For example, Morris-Oswald and Sinclair
505 (2005) identified seven community values related to floodplain management in Canada,
506 including identity, civic engagement, and personal rights and liberties. Similarly, Mould et al.
507 (2020) revealed the importance of ‘relational values’ between people and riverine
508 environments for motivating participation in river management. These examples, along with
509 the present study, demonstrate the importance of moving beyond technical understandings of
510 catchment dynamics and superficial notions of stakeholder support or opposition, to
511 comprehend the deeper value structures and dynamics that underpin public engagement with
512 rivers.

513

514 4.4 Management Implications

515 Overall, NFM approaches were preferred over traditional, grey engineering, suggesting that
516 there is substantial potential for ongoing promotion of NFM among environmental managers
517 (Vávra *et al*, 2017). However, more consistent positive responses to NFM were associated
518 with benefits for attractiveness and wildlife, rather than for effectiveness in tackling flooding.
519 The results therefore suggest that focussing on aesthetic and wildlife benefits of schemes may

520 increase public support for more natural options. River managers could improve public
521 acceptance of NFM by highlighting the attractiveness and wildlife benefits in public
522 communications such as press releases, media engagement and signage at relevant sites.

523

524 However, our findings issue a word of caution against treating the ‘public’ as a homogenous
525 group. Even though sociodemographic analyses indicated few significant differences in
526 preference of mitigation scheme, different individuals possessed different value orientations
527 (Stern *et al.*, 1993), and these transcendental values were related to preferences for flood risk
528 mitigation schemes. For example, wetlands were significantly preferred by people with
529 strong Self-Transcendent (biospheric) values as might be expected, but were significantly not
530 preferred by those holding Conservative values. In addition, the more strongly people
531 identified with Self-Transcendent values, the more strongly they preferred NFM approaches
532 over traditional, grey engineering. Therefore, a sensible strategy to improve social
533 acceptability of NFM among those with a strong orientation towards conservative values
534 would be to focus more on highlighting the safety and effectiveness of NFM for mitigating
535 flood risk, rather than the ecological benefits. This is supported by Straka *et al.* (2016) who
536 identified that when information about wetland environments was provided to the public in a
537 way that aligned with their value orientations, then those environments were given a higher
538 preference by the public. Finally, there were no statistical relationships between flood risk
539 management schemes and Self-Enhancement values. Therefore, there may be potential for
540 river managers to highlight the benefits of NFM schemes for individuals, which are currently
541 under-emphasised. Examples may include the personal health and wellbeing benefits of green
542 infrastructure.

543

544 The Q-method supports an overall preference for green, more natural approaches to flood risk
545 management. The three Q-sort factors indicate that some people prefer green areas, others
546 neat and others natural. Whilst there is a superficial similarity between these three concepts, a
547 potential contradiction exists between providing areas that are both neat and natural. This has
548 been documented for river management in the context of the provision of large wood in
549 rivers, with the general public typically regarding large wood in rivers – a natural and
550 important habitat feature – as ‘messy’ and therefore undesirable (Chin *et al.*, 2008; Kondolf
551 and Yang, 2008; McCormick *et al.*, 2015). River managers will have to accommodate this
552 diversity of views. Further work is needed to consider how the design of NFM approaches
553 can accommodate both amenity requirements and ecological function (Corney, *et al.* 2015).

554

555 Q-method has great potential as a tool for engaging members of the general public; within
556 this research it provided useful additional data, adding more insight than a traditional
557 questionnaire could. This is highlighted as the Q-method allows for more of a comparison
558 between flood risk management approaches. However, a limitation of the Q-method is its
559 small sample size due to the need for this method to be conducted in person. Adapting the Q-
560 method to be completed online may increase the response rate and strengthen the results.
561 However, it was invaluable to conduct this method in person as the interviewer was able to
562 provide the participant with support throughout the process.

563

564 **5. CONCLUSION**

565 This study has revealed that the public generally hold favourable attitudes towards NFM over
566 grey engineering, driven largely by people associating NFM with attractiveness and benefits
567 to wildlife. However, there remains a persistent perception that grey engineering schemes,
568 particularly dams, represent more effective solutions for mitigating flooding. However, this

569 research has highlighted the importance of heterogeneity among the public's values and
570 attitudes. Different groups of people orient preferences for schemes around their degree of
571 'naturalness', 'neatness' or 'greenness'. This has revealed a potential challenge for NFM
572 schemes to be perceived simultaneously as natural and tidy. Further, individuals' preferences
573 for NFM schemes are rooted in deeply held transcendental values, with these expressed in
574 often diverging attitudes towards natural and hard-engineered solutions. This study has
575 therefore highlighted the importance of taking into account public values and attitudes in the
576 design, implementation and management of NFM. Further research is now needed to validate
577 these insights in the context of real-world flood risk management schemes. Additionally, it
578 would be worthwhile for environmental management scholars to consider in more detail the
579 efficacy and ethics of shaping public values, and to explore longitudinal change in people's
580 preferences towards river management approaches.

581

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588

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Tables

Table 1. Factor loadings from the factor analysis of values, where bold text illustrates which value grouping each statement is most strongly orientated towards.

Statement	Self- Transcendence	Openness to Change	Self- Enhancement	Conservatism
"Protecting the environment, preserving nature"	0.863	0.311	0.058	0.124
"Respecting the earth, harmony with other species"	0.855	0.308	0.017	0.162
"Unity with nature, fitting into nature"	0.825	0.157	0.098	0.061
"Social justice, correcting injustice, care for the weak"	0.769	0.076	0.038	0.171
"A varied life, filled with challenge, novelty, and change"	0.156	0.804	0.083	0.167
"An exciting life, stimulating experiences"	0.193	0.752	0.197	0.369
"Curious, interested in everything, exploring"	0.372	0.717	0.179	-0.066
"Authority, the right to lead or command"	-0.024	0.226	0.829	0.033
"Influential, having an impact on people and events"	0.334	0.115	0.729	-0.007
"Wealth, material possessions, money"	-0.255	-0.024	0.608	0.521
"Honouring parents and elders, showing respect"	0.374	0.237	0.095	0.738
"Family security, safety for loved ones"	0.552	0.302	-0.045	0.596

Table 2. Spearman's Rank Correlations between transcendental value orientations and overall ranking of each management option. Significant correlations at $\alpha = 0.05$ are indicated in **bold**.

	Self-Transcendence			Openness to Change			Self-Enhancement			Conservatism		
	r_s	n	p	r_s	n	p	r_s	n	p	r_s	n	p
Dam	-0.234	151	0.004	-0.087	151	0.287	0.109	151	0.184	0.100	151	0.221
Dredging	-0.008	151	0.924	-0.088	151	0.282	-0.076	151	0.345	0.176	151	0.031
Tree Planting	0.217	151	0.007	-0.023	151	0.775	0.043	151	0.598	-0.094	151	0.252
Weir	-0.195	151	0.016	0.001	151	0.991	0.058	151	0.478	0.192	151	0.018
Wooden Dam	0.017	151	0.836	0.206	151	0.011	-0.067	151	0.413	-0.139	151	0.088
Wetlands	0.177	151	0.030	0.120	151	0.142	-0.087	151	0.290	-0.213	151	0.009

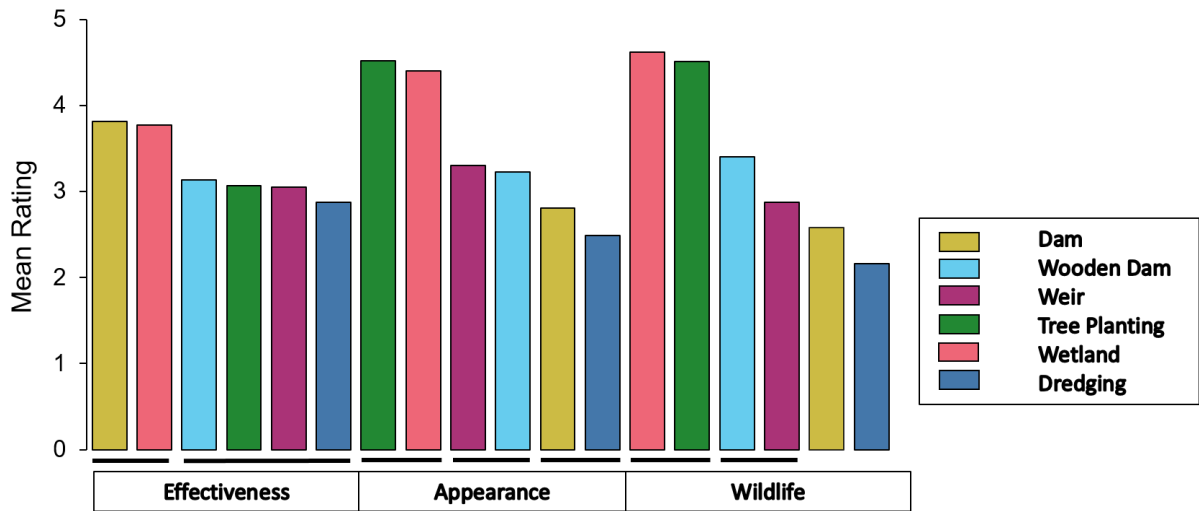


Figure 1 Mean score for appearance, effectiveness and benefits to wildlife for each of the management options in the survey. Management options that were not significantly different in ratings are denoted by a solid black line underneath the bars for each rating category. The absence of a connecting line indicates the schemes were found to be significantly different. Details of these tests can be found in the Supplementary Material.

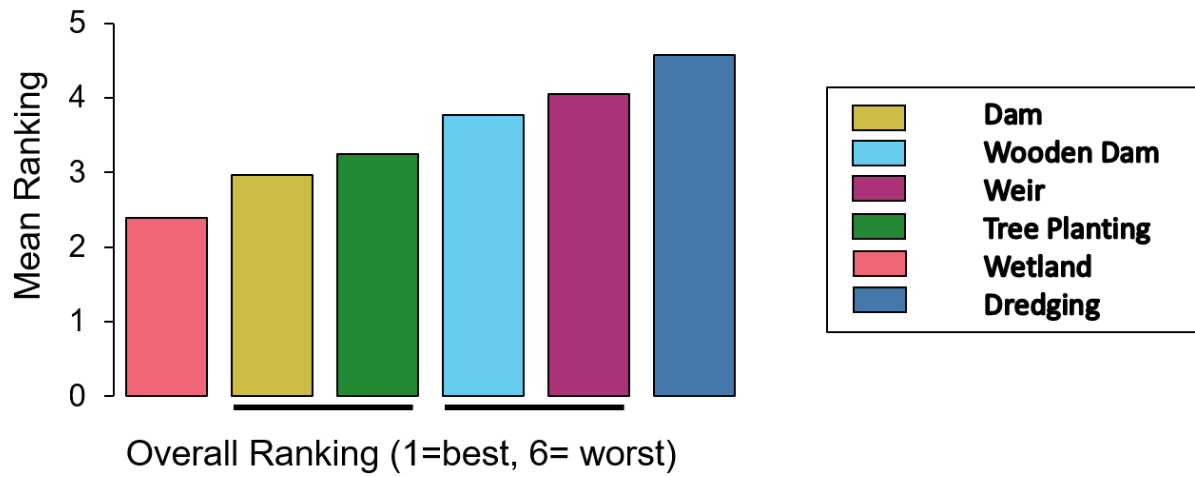


Figure 2 Mean ranking overall for the management options (1 = best and 6 = worst). Management options that were not significantly different in ranking are denoted by a solid black line. The absence of a connecting line indicates the schemes were significantly different. Details of these tests can be found in the Supplementary Material.

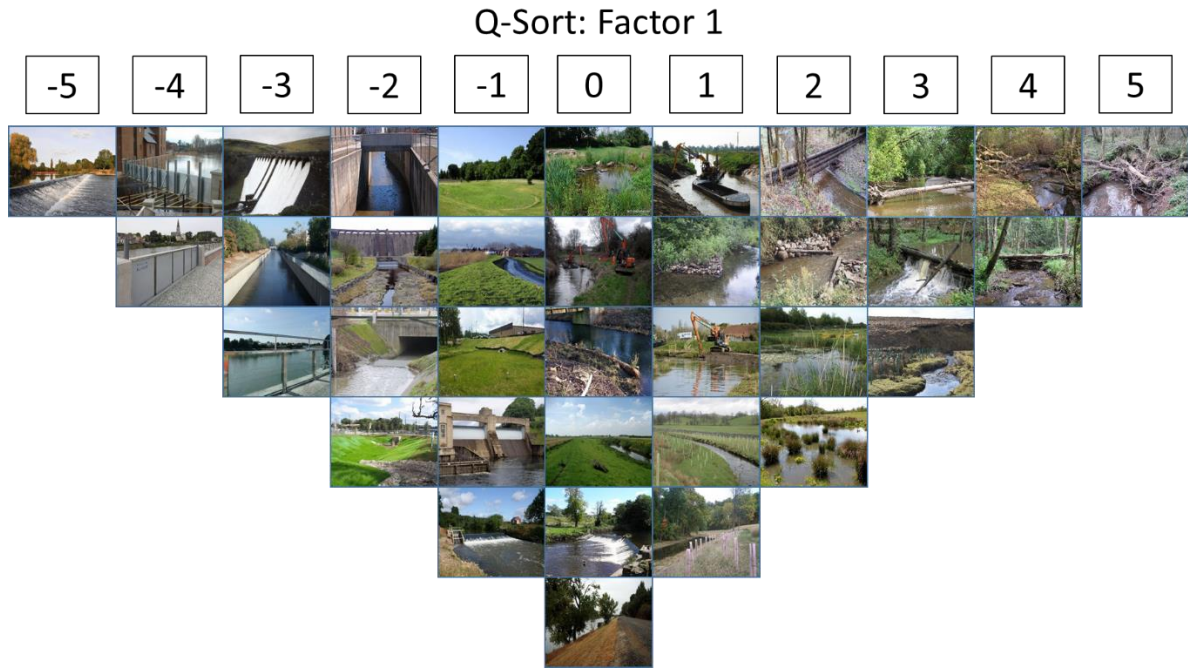


Figure 3. The Q-sort is produced by the participant sorting the photographs from worst (left) to best (right) Factor 1 Q-sort depicting a spectrum of preferences from “engineered” (left) to “natural” (right).

Q-Sort: Factor 2



Figure 4. The Q-sort is produced by the participant sorting the photographs from worst (left) to best (right). Factor 2 Q-sort depicting a spectrum of preferences from “messy” (left) to “neat” (right).

Q-Sort: Factor 3

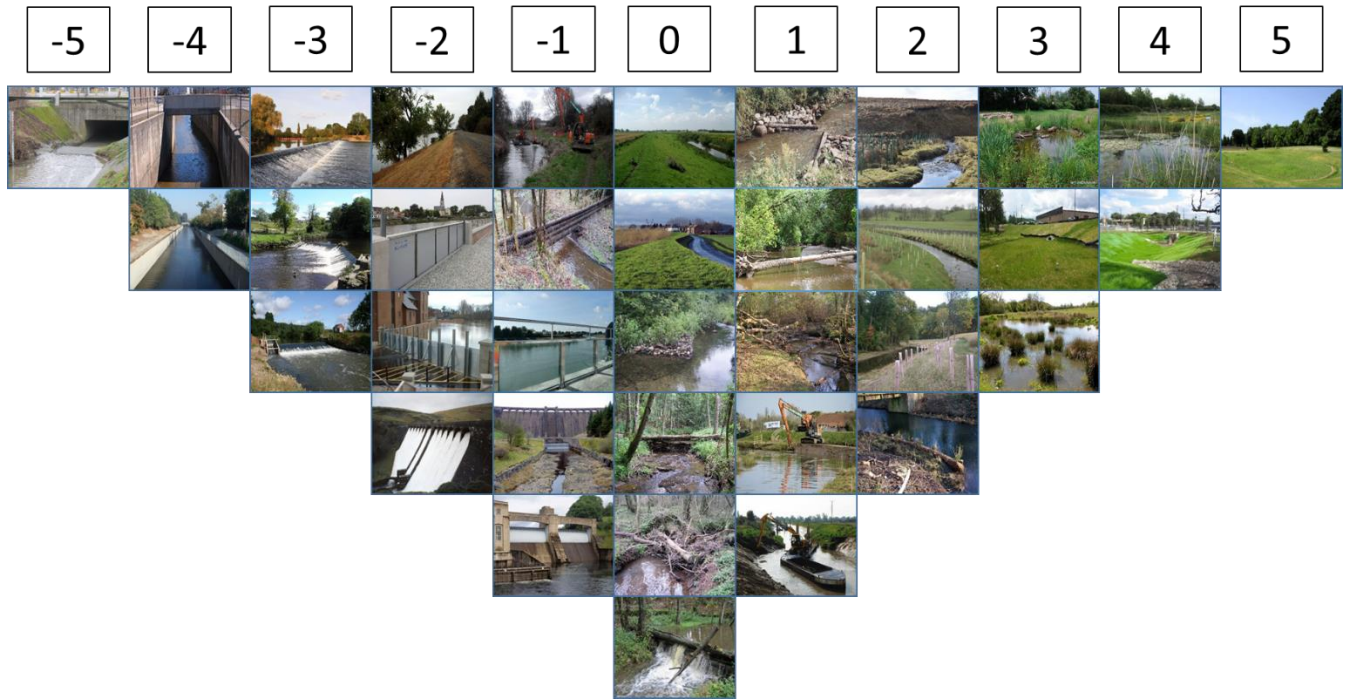


Figure 5. The Q-sort is produced by the participant sorting the photographs from worst (left) to best (right). Factor 3 Q-sort depicting a spectrum of preferences from “grey” (left) to “green” (right).