

RESIDENTS AND FLOOD RISK MANAGEMENT IN FLANDERS: TWO WORLDS APART?

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Although flood risk is usually framed as a physical problem, there is also a social side to the issue. Potential damages are influenced by a large number of individual factors such as location choice or private flood protection measures. Flood risk management should include these elements through responsabilization of spatial planners and citizens.

However, since flood risk management in Western Europe is strongly government-driven, measures were usually confined within the boundaries of the water system itself, there is a need to do this. Therefore, this paper looks into the point of view of residents in Flanders through a survey (n=183) in the Dender basin (Flanders, Belgium). The paper first discusses residents' knowledge, risk perception, location choice, sense of responsibility, and seeds of self-initiative. The survey shows that residents are very much attached to their homes at the same time take little action. Remarkable is that even though Flanders has a long tradition in spatial planning, residents place responsibility for living in flood-prone areas on the government, and therefore they feel entitled to public protection.

## 1. Introduction

Under influence of increasing flood risks and uncertainty, many Western European countries have recently adopted a risk-based approach to flood management (Kellens et al., 2010). While the earlier flood protection paradigm considered the socio-spatial context of flood risks and tried to find solutions within the confines of the water system itself, the risk-based approach altogether, the risk-based approach incorporates the socio-spatial aspect of flood risks, such as urbanization in floodplains and increases in sealed land. Subsequently this risk-based approach emphasizes on avoiding damage due to flooding (Johnson and Priest, 2008). The dimensions of natural hazards are becoming more and more important (Raschky, 2009) and the reciprocal interaction between society and water management (Tempels and Hartman, 2011).

Consequently, there is a growing awareness that spatial planning could play an important role in flood risk management (Jong and van den Brink, 2013, White, 2013, De Smedt, 2014, Pahl-Wostl, 2012). Flood management is no longer reactive to changes in spatial developments but an integral part of spatial planning and the conception of spatial developments (Wolff, 2011). In line with the tendency in spatial planning theory towards actor involvement (Bourgeois, 2009), societal actors should play an increasingly important role in flood risk management (Kellens et al., 2014, Penning-Rowsell and Pardoe, 2012, Fleischhauer et al., 2012). Taking into account the limited resources of governments, climate change and inherent limitations of flood risk management involving residents in flood risk management can become an important part of the flood risk management (Kellens et al., 2011).

However, until now flood management research has mainly focused on the isolated technical systems (Pahl-Wostl, 2007). As a result, the frequency of flooding and the damage caused have been well studied (de Moel et al., 2009), while the role of societal actors in flood risk management is a matter of debate. Only in the United States, social issues in relation to flood risks have been the subject to research for some time (Waterstone, 1978, Montz and Gruntfest, 1998). In the Western European context they gained relevance only recently due to the high degree of responsibility (Kreibich et al., 2005, Bubeck et al., 2013, Terpstra and Guttenberg, 2011). In most of these topics, such as flood risk knowledge and awareness, risk perception, individual responsibility and protective behavior, including the economic, psychological and social aspects, there is a need for research.

mechanisms behind them, have been mainly described individually within different geographical or political contexts (see further). Therefore, an integrated understanding of risks and societies interact, and how this affects spatial planning and flood risk management is lacking.

This paper analyzes a wide array of interactions of residents with flood risk management (Flanders, Belgium), based on a survey amongst residents in flood-prone areas. The results include (1) the availability and use of knowledge, (2) the way risks are experienced, (3) how they chose their location and the extent to which they are willing to move, (4) who they consult for different aspects of the issue and (5) what they do to protect themselves. The paper discusses how these interactions contribute to flood risk management, and how they could be used to improve flood risk management in the future.

As such, this research contributes to the existing knowledge in two ways. On the one hand, it focuses specifically on residents and spatial planning, since the debate on flood risk management is usually conducted from the perspective of water managers. On the other hand, it discusses flood risk management topics from psychosocial aspects such as awareness and knowledge, to behavior and how it eventually leads to the translation to policy.

In what follows, we will give an overview of the state of the art on resident behavior and flood risk management based on literature review. Next, the main elements of flood risk management in Flanders (Belgium) will be discussed, as a context to the survey results presented in this paper. The paper ends with a discussion on what these results imply for flood risk management.

## 2. Research design and case study area

### 2.1 Key topics

#### 2.1.1 Knowledge

Knowledge on flood risks is a prerequisite for taking action. As memories of flood events fade through time, risks are disregarded. Therefore, risk communication is an important strategy to activate residents. However, the rigid institutionalization of risks through flood maps can give rise to a biased and oversimplified perception of complex concepts (e.g. return period). Accordingly, local knowledge is often undervalued.

#### 2.1.2 Risk perception and experience

Since knowledge of risks does not always translate into personal worry, merely having information about risk is not enough (Parker et al., 2009, Willis et al., 2011). Risk perception is influenced by personal characteristics, situational factors and risk characteristics (Lindell and Frydholm, 2004). Explicitly dealing with risk perceptions in risk communication can make flood risk communication more effective (Buchecker et al., 2013, Grothmann and Reusswig, 2006, Kellens et al., 2004, Klijn, 2004). Flood forecasting and warning play a central role in this (Brilly et al., 2004).

#### 2.1.3 Location choice and willingness to move

Filatova et al. (2011) state that low individual flood risk awareness leads to poor land use developments and increased flood risks. They argue that by increasing individual flood risk awareness, it is likely that flood risks are integrated in the individual economic decisions at the time of housing choice. Housing prices are often lower in flood-prone areas (Tobin and Montz, 1988, Eves et al., 2004).

Individual decisions on private risk mitigation measures and location choice are influenced by the extent to which insurance premiums internalize actual variations in risk and

subsidized by the whole population (Bouwer et al., 2007). Possible incentives reduction might include lower premiums, higher coverage and lower deductibles (E However, in practice, premiums generally as risk is reduced (Penning-Rowsell and Pardoe, 2012).

#### 2.1.4 Sense of responsibility

The limits of the capacity of the state to manage flood risk is widely recognized an overall plea towards more individual responsibility in flood risk management (2008). However, the division of responsibility between state, public organization management of flood risk is often not clearly established. Lalwani and Duval (2008) personal responsibility is not assumed when there is no clear information indicating who is personally responsible for threat management, even under conditions of high resources to deal with the risk. When governments are assumed to provide protection, there is a reluctance to accept responsibility. The strong reliance on and confidence in government hampers the private sense of responsibility (Grothmann and Reusswig, 2006). When responsibility is clear, it is mostly accepted if individual resources or instruments are available (Filatova et al., 2011).

#### 2.1.5 Protective behavior

Risk perception and awareness are often analyzed in the light of understanding the factors that trigger precautionary action against flooding (Waterstone, 1978, Grothmann and Reusswig et al., 2013). However, perceived risk does not contribute directly to taking protective action (et al., 2009). Several studies have shown that there are wider socio-psychological factors. These include risk appraisal elements (e.g. risk perception, awareness, potential consequences, exposure) and coping appraisal (e.g. self-efficacy, resources and outcome expectancy ratio), within an institutional context (e.g. political focus and reliance on government) (Grothmann and Reusswig, 2006, Waterstone, 1978, Kreibich et al., 2011, Zhai et al., 2009).

On the other hand, the impetus for individual adaptation can be reduced or eliminated by technological or financial assurances (Smithers and Smit, 1997). The confidence in government and centrally led, engineered solutions implicitly triggers a low risk awareness and a low sense of efficacy and practicability of private damage prevention, which may contribute to a lack of autonomous adaptation measures (Grothmann and Reusswig, 2006).

The above shows that the interaction between residents and flood risk management is a complex economic, psychological and social mechanisms. Therefore, the transition to a more active residents involvement and a more active role for spatial planning in flood management in literature and policy plans alike, is difficult to realize. Existing flood management plans are a way self-preserving as they reproduce themselves through feedback mechanisms (Brink, 2013). The path dependencies following the high expenditures for flood management lead to a low responsibility awareness among the involved citizens.

## 2.2 Flood management and spatial planning in Flanders

Flanders, the low-lying northern part of Belgium, is densely built (more than 90% of the land) and has a dense river network, causing it to be sensitive to flooding. According to the water assessment maps 71,556 ha or 5.3 % of Flanders have recently been flooded. The return period of 100 years with a flood depth of 30 cm. According to the Flemish Environment Agency 36,000 to 56,000 buildings and 23,000 building parcels are located within the flood risk area.

Until the 1990s, flood risks were not systematically included in the conception of spatial plans, due to a variety of reasons such as the limited knowledge on flood risks.

political prioritization of flood-related issues in planning, and even for (Boussauw and Boelens, 2015). In addition, the impact of the enormous increase of up land and the subsequent increase in flood frequency was not anticipated in (Van Rompaey, 2009). Moreover there was a strong belief in an engineering prevention, as exemplified by the Dutch Delta Works. After the 1976 flooding materialized in the Sigma plan. Within this plan, a remarkably strong divide between and spatial planners was maintained. Controlling flooding through engineering considered to be the main or even sole responsibility of water managers, while flood was still not a core issue for spatial planning. Therefore, little effort was put in development in flood-prone areas. It was only in the revision of the Sigma plan a based approach was adopted, in which spatial planning for the first time plan limited to providing space for retention basins.

Since the Spatial Structure Plan for Flanders (in Dutch Ruimtelijk Structuurplan, 1997 and the adoption of the principles of integrated water management in 2003, flood is receiving more attention in planning practice. Nevertheless, the integration of spatial planning is difficult since water management (especially for larger rivers) is on a scale, while spatial planning is practiced – to a large extent – on a local level. This complex actor network makes integration, responsiveness and decisiveness hard to achieve.

To deal with this, the 2003 Decree on Integrated Water Management has led to the creation of the Coordination Commission on Integrated Water Management (CIW), which brings the different domains and levels within the Flemish government administration together (Van Rompaey and Sutter, 2014, Wiering and Crabbø, 2006). Over the last decade, they have developed strategies and tools to improve this situation. Examples include the so-called water assessment as a mandatory part of the approval procedure for buildings or spatial plans, and the creation of signal areas where rezoning is considered because of imminent water issues. The goal is to have a more steering role through regulation, especially for flood-prone areas. However, decision-making remains the responsibility of the individual planning instruments.

Additionally, regulations on insurance and damage compensation, and information campaigns have been developed. Federal legislation from 2007 stipulates that flood damages are covered by the private fire insurance. Even though fire insurance itself is not obligatory for households buy such insurance, as it is often a condition for obtaining a mortgage. Flood risk maps indicate where residents pay a higher premium, as determined by the legal limit of a 90% surplus premium related to natural disasters. For houses built before 2008, insurers are free to decide whether they want to provide insurance and a higher premium. This accommodates a certain, but limited solidarity principle.

Since 1992, the location of real estate in a flood risk zone (following the federal legislation) can be disclosed in the real estate deed. Since 2013, flood risks (based on the regional flood maps) also need to be mentioned in publicity for real estate for sale or for long-term rental. Information on flood risks and possible measures residents of flood prone areas can find available online, but not actively disseminated. Moreover, the different flood risk maps (national, regional) cause inconsistent communication towards citizens and therefore ambiguity.

The above shows little involvement of residents in flood risk management on the one hand and a weak planning tradition on the other. While the first element suggests a relative lack of awareness and responsibility, and therefore no inclination toward self-initiated action, the second suggest the exact opposite.

### 2.3 Study area: Dender basin

Within these settings, the Dender region is one of the areas with the most frequent and most devastating consequences within Flanders. The most recent floods took place in

2002–2003, 2010, 2011 and 2014 (Coninx and El Kahloun, s.d.). The Dender basin is a Scheldt basin. The upstream part of the basin (675 km<sup>2</sup>) is located in the Walloon Region, the downstream part (709 km<sup>2</sup>) is located in Flanders and managed by the Flemish government. The flooding issue in the Dender basin is often debated in the media and political debate going on about what needs to be done to reduce floods and flood damage. Known problems are the (relatively) high density of buildings and sealed land (already reported in the 1960s by Van Nuffel (1969)), the outdated infrastructure and poor coordination with the Walloon Region, both during floods as in general (CIW, 2011).

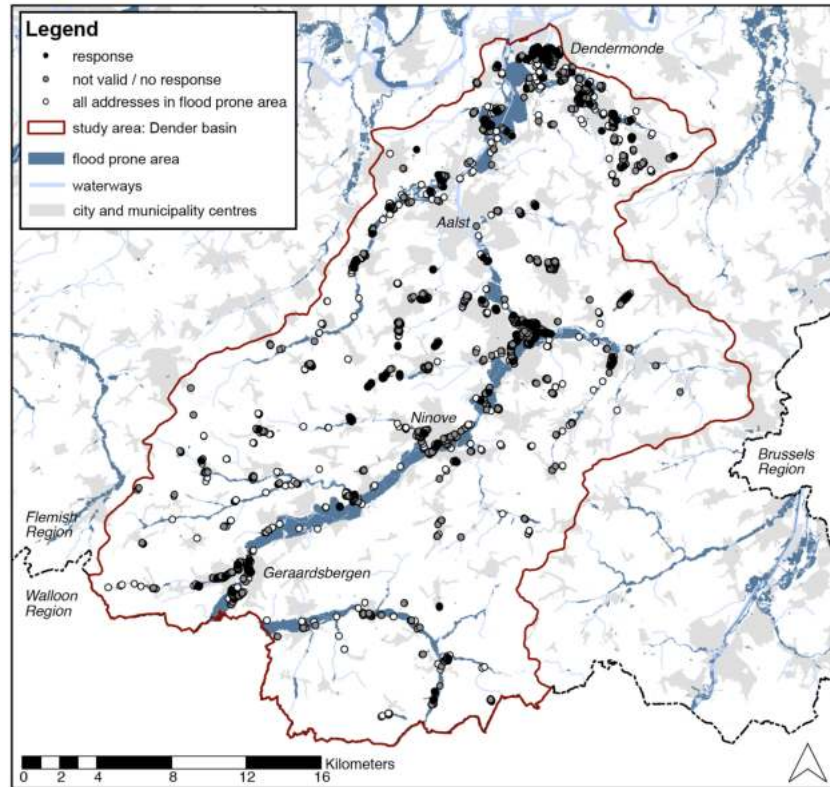


Figure 1. Map of the case study area: the Flemish part of the Dender basin, with flood-prone areas according to the water assessment maps and the sample of the survey.

## 2.4 Research hypothesis and design

We conducted a survey amongst residents of flood-prone areas in the Dender basin to assess the attitude and behavior of residents in relation to riverine flood risks. The questionnaire comprised 66 questions and resulted in a database with 317 responses. We discussed the respondents' experience with flooding, their knowledge on the risks and measures, their housing location choice and flood protection behavior, and their perception of flood risk management. It was the explicit choice of the authors, in line with the research objectives, to use a broad and comprehensive questionnaire, addressing a wide range of flood-related issues, in relation to the role of spatial planning in flood risk management, as illustrated in the text given above.

In September 2014 the survey was distributed amongst residents of actual flood-prone areas according to the Water Assessment maps (version 1 September 2014). These areas have recently experienced a flood with a return period of 100 years with a flood depth of 30 cm. From the population of 1,100 in these areas, 1,100 were sampled. Businesses and public institutions, vacant homes and incomplete addresses were omitted, based on onsite assessment. This led to a sample of 916 active private households. A relatively small sample was chosen in order to use the available resources to

possible response rate and therefore better representativeness. In order to maximize the questionnaire was personally delivered and could be returned on paper and online.

We used different explorative methods, including bar charts, chi square tests and Spearman's bivariate rank tests for non-parametric variables (such as Likert scales), Mann-Whitney tests for dichotomous variables (such as yes/no question). For Spearman's correlation coefficients, significance level ( $* = 0.01 < p < 0.05$ ;  $** = p < 0.01$ ) and for the Mann-Whitney test, the significance level is reported. Some socio-economic variables from the survey that did not yield significant correlations were left out.

### 3. Results

We received 184 completed questionnaires. One response was excluded because of double entry, resulting in 183 valid responses (response rate 18.8%). Considering the size of the questionnaire and the relatively small population, this was considered representative. Representativeness of the sample could not be tested because socio-economic data (residents of actual flood-prone areas) are not available for privacy reasons. The demographic characteristics of the sample can be found in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics on the survey sample

		total
N		183
age, mean (standard deviation)		57.01 (5.5)
gender	male	61.2 %
	female	38.3 %
occupation	retired	39.3 %
	non-active	7.1 %
	active	53.0 %
flood experience	none	41.2 %
	without damage	25.3 %
	with damage	33.5 %

Following the research design, the results are discussed in five themes: (1) awareness, (2) risk perception, (3) location choice and willingness to move, (4) sense of responsibility and protective behavior and seeds of self-initiative.

#### 3.1 Awareness and knowledge

About two thirds of the respondents are aware that they live in a flood-prone area, while the other third of the respondents think their residence is not situated in a flood-prone area. This is confirmed by the fact that respondents with flood experience ( $p < 0.01$ , Mann-Whitney). This is confirmed by the fact that respondents indicate they were aware of the flood risk when they moved there. This is also confirmed by the length of residency: respondents that have recently moved were at that time more aware of the flood risk. However, younger respondents are better aware of flood risk when moving ( $0.01 < p < 0.05$ , Mann-Whitney).

However, the knowledge on the flooding issue is rather limited. A bit more than half (57.5%) say they know little or very little about the flood risk. Here again, respondents with flood experience are more aware of the flood risk (also length of residency and home ownership are of significance,  $p < 0.01$ ). Respondents that were aware of the flood risk at the time of moving know more about the flood risk ( $p < 0.01$ , Mann-Whitney). Respondents that

they are living in a flood-prone area however do not necessarily feel that the flood risk ( $p > 0.1$ , Mann-Whitney).

About 80% of the respondents say they know little about measures they can take. However, the knowledge on flood risks, the respondents who have experienced more floods have lived longer in the same house indicate that they know more about possible measures. Respondents that know more about flood risks (were aware of the flood risk at the time of housing choice ( $p < 0.01$ , Mann-Whitney) know more about measures. However risk perception does not yield a significant correlation ( $p > 0.1$ , Mann-Whitney).

The above suggests that knowledge on flood risks and measures is for a large part based on personal experience. This is confirmed by looking into where this knowledge is coming from (Figure 2). Personal experience, the most important actors that provide information on flood risks are family and friends, followed by governmental bodies (especially local governments) and business parties, followed by governmental bodies (especially local governments) and business parties. The relative importance of these actors in information dissemination is generally the same for flood risks and possible measures, with the exception of the differences between civil parties and possible measures, with the exception of the differences between civil parties and possible measures, with the exception of the differences between civil parties and possible measures.

Although over half of the respondents (59.2%) know the water assessment maps, only 36.9% of respondents know the correct classification. Only 18.7% of the respondents know the correct classification of water assessment maps, which is nevertheless most of all information sources (e.g. personal conversation, brochure or newsletter). Also the governmental website with information reaches 13.7% of the respondents, which is similar to informal conversation and personal information.

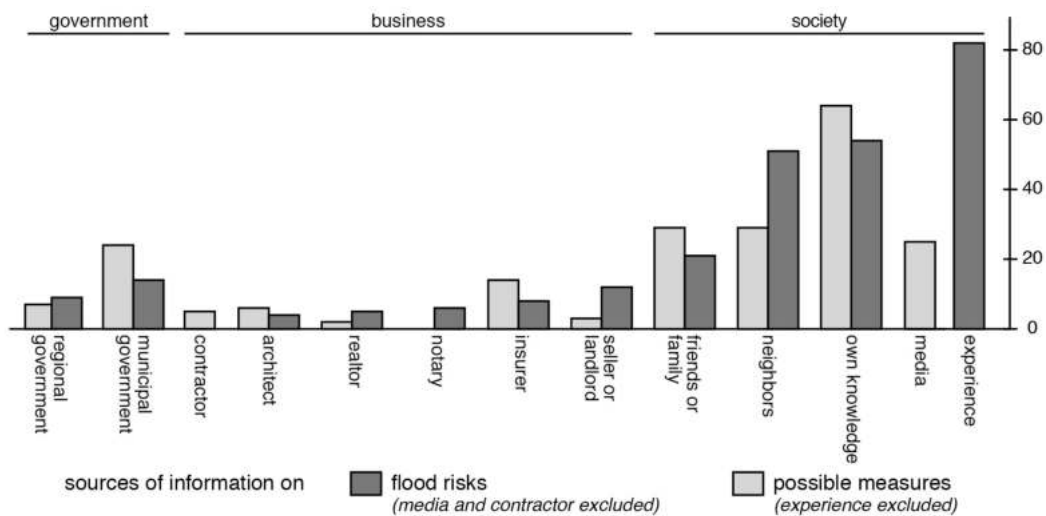


Figure 2. Sources of information on flood risks (a) and measures (b), measured among respondents that have accessed these sources.

### 3.2 Risk perception and experience

Around half of respondents (55.6%) indicate not knowing when the next flood will occur. 21.3% think it will be in less than 5 years, and another fifth (19.1%) between 5 and 10 years. Respondents living in areas that have a modeled return period of 100 years (or less) and a flood depth of at least 30 cm, these answers might indicate that there is no real underestimation of the risk, but rather that there is a great uncertainty or lack of knowledge on the flood frequency. There is a significant difference between the estimation of the current expected flood frequency and the expected flood frequency in 2050 ( $p > 0.05$ , Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test). This indicates that respondents expect a substantial increase in flood frequency.

The emotional impact from the flood risk is analyzed for three different aspects: worrying, suffering and fear. About 40% indicate that they suffer from these emotional impacts. The emotional impact is fearing floods ( $m=3.02$  on a 5-point Likert scale,  $s.d.=1.41$ ), worrying about the flood risk ( $m=3.00$ ,  $s.d.=1.41$ ), while suffering from the flood risk is perceived as the most important emotional impact ( $m=2.64$ ,  $s.d.=1.45$ ). All three emotional impacts (worrying, suffering and fear) show similar patterns of association with other variables. Significant correlations were found with the age of the respondent ( $r_s=0.22^{**}$  and  $0.20^{**}$ ), flood experience ( $r_s=0.61^{**}$ ,  $0.45^{**}$  and  $0.43^{**}$ ) and risk awareness ( $p<0.00$  for all three variables). However, only for suffering correlations were found with knowledge on flood risk ( $r_s=0.25^{**}$ ). For worrying and fear also associations were found with length of residency ( $r_s=0.20^{**}$ ) and state of residence ( $r_s=0.19^{**}$ ).

Subsequently, the impact of flooding in terms of the way different types of damage affect respondents (with flood experience) was examined (Figure 3). Emotional impacts such as the effort to clean, and the uncertainty, fear, shock and helplessness appear to be frequent impacts. More temporal effects, such as the difficult accessibility and disruption of everyday life are frequent, but less disruptive. However, more long-term effects such as the slow process of repair, negotiation with insurance companies and contractors, and financial and material damage to be less frequent, but very disruptive. These findings largely correspond to what Gutscher (2008) have observed. However, it is remarkable that in this case financial and material damage are quite hindering, which is not in line with Siegrist and Gutscher's observations. Emotional impacts are greater than material and financial ones.

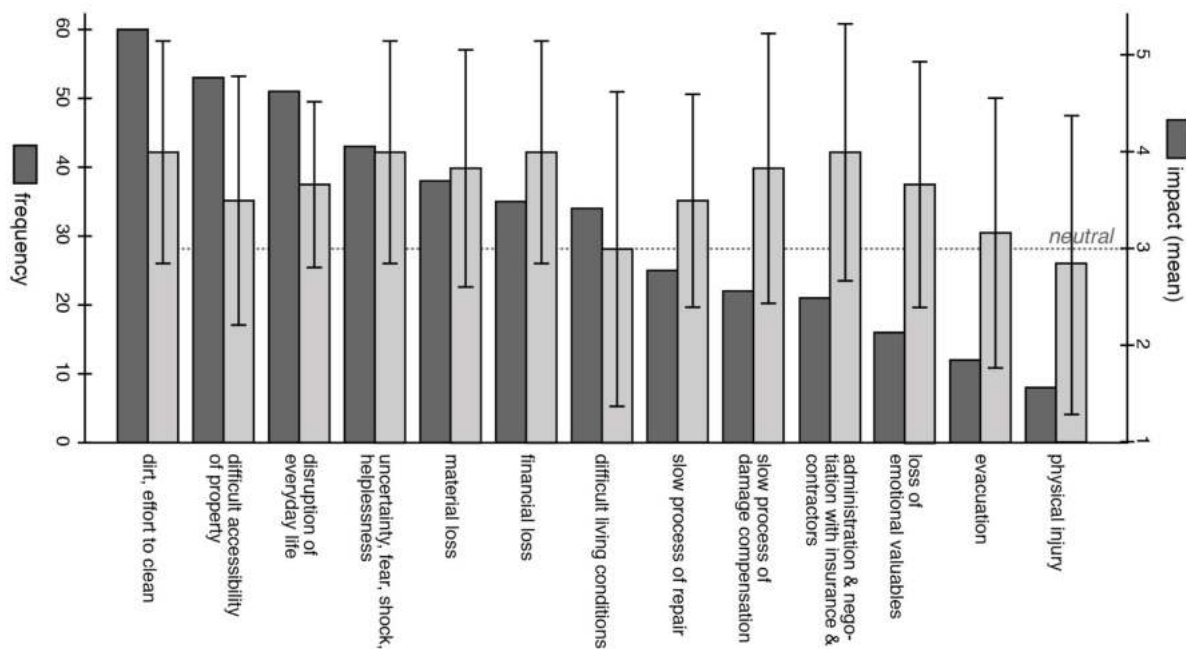


Figure 3. Frequency of different damage aspects (a) and perceived impact of different damage aspects (b). The response categories for this question inspired by the findings from Siegrist and Gutscher (2008).

### 3.3 Location choice and willingness to move

The respondents like living where they reside: more than three quarter of respondents live in their home and 60.7% are planning to spend the rest of their life there, while only 10.3% are planning to move away within five years. Respondents who know more about flood risks more often move to a new location ( $r_s=0.18^{*}$ ) and plan on staying there longer ( $r_s=0.24^{*}$ ). Besides that, mainly non-flood related variables play a significant role. The pleasure of living is associated with the willingness to move ( $r_s=0.18^{*}$ ).

residence (0.22\*\*) and income (0.20\*). On the other hand, desired future length of residence is correlated with ownership (0.32\*), how long respondents have lived there and age (r=0.33\*\*). It is remarkable that respondents with experience of flooding do not have the idea of staying, as no significant correlation for these variables was found.

The overall satisfaction with their home is confirmed by the fact that only 14% regret their choice of location. There is a strong correlation (0.49\*\*) between flood experience and respondents that regret their location choice have experienced floods. However, regretting having regrets correlates with the pleasure of living there (rstate of the residence) (r=0.22\*\*), but not with the intended length of residency: respondents that regret their location choice are not planning to move away faster. Respondents that were not aware of the flood risk at the moment of their location choice, also regret having decided to live there more often (0.22\*\*).

The question comes up why respondents live in flood-prone areas. The main motivations for their choice are non-water related factors, such as accessibility, proximity of facilities, green environment, residence and social ties with the area (Figure 4a). These are far more important than flood risks to the location in the flood-prone area, such as proximity of water or possibly flooding. So there is no clear link between location choice and flood risks. On the other hand, a green environment is an important attractor as well, but it is unclear whether this is specific to the flood-prone area, or rather to the broader (rural or suburban) environment.

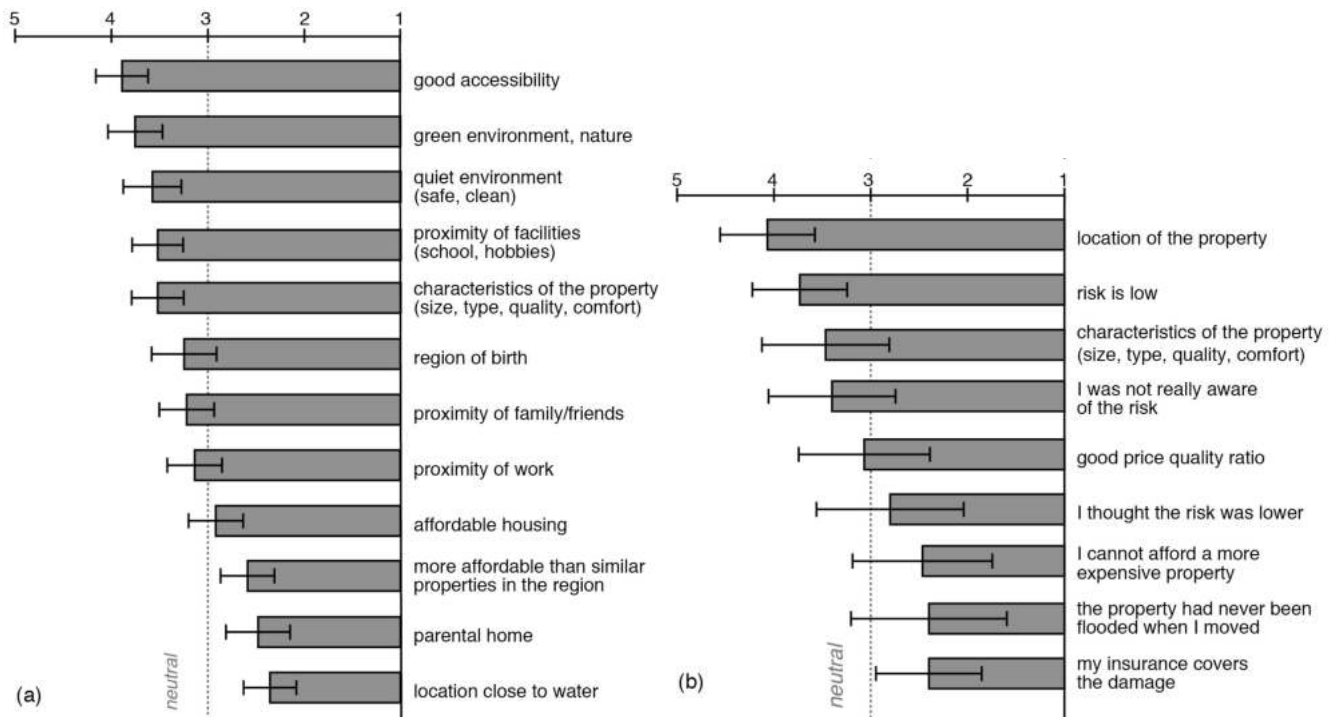


Figure 4. Reasons for housing choice in general (a) and for respondents aware of flood risk at the moment of housing choice (b), measured in mean score on a 5 point Likert scale, 95% CI

For respondents that were aware of the flood risk at the moment of location choice, the most important considerations for their location choice are that the risk is low on the one hand and characteristics of the residence are favorable on the other (Figure 4b). From a flood management perspective, such as misjudgment of flood risk, lack of flood insurance and financial deprivation are of less importance. This might indicate that respondents aware of the flood risk are well informed. However, it is possible that the actual risk is higher than expected and issues could emerge in the near future.

In line with the finding that respondents like to live where they live, the desire to move is low: 5.4% want to move, while 85.5% do not want to move. The desire to move is associated with flood experience (0.27\*\*) and risk awareness at the moment of location choice (0.01). Also the willingness to move (as a flood protection measure) is low: only 10.8% are willing to move, while 89.2% are not willing to move. This willingness to move correlates with risk-related variables such as knowledge or flood experience, but also with socio-economic related variables such as age (rs=0.21\*) and length of residency (rs=-0.19\*): the younger respondents and the shorter they live there, the more willing they are to move. The willingness to move and willingness to move away is associated with high emotional impact: respondents who are suffering (only desiring to move 0.37\*\*) and 0.29\*\* for fear, 0.37\* and 0.29\*\* for worrying, and 0.59\*\* and 0.38\*\* for regretting their location choice.

When asked after how many floods respondents might want to move, 40.5% of respondents indicated that they would never move due to flooding. Surprisingly this persistence correlates with flood experience (0.25\*\*). This means that respondents with flood experience are more willing to stay in wanting to stay there than respondents without flood experience. These are also respondents with the highest knowledge of flood risks and measures (0.31\*\*), and the respondents that have lived there longest (0.28\*\*).

Parallel to the considerations of respondents aware of flood risks at the moment of location choice, the main reason why respondents do not want to move is that the risk is low (Figure 5). The second most important reason is that the respondents can live with the flood risk, although again, it is possible that this is due to a certain acceptance of the flood risk, although again, it is possible that this is due to a certain acceptance of the flood risk. Notwithstanding the low desire to move, 20.1% of respondents indicate that if they were to move, it would be at least partly because of the flood risks, and a third of the respondents indicate that they would move to a similar residence outside of the flood prone area if it would be possible.

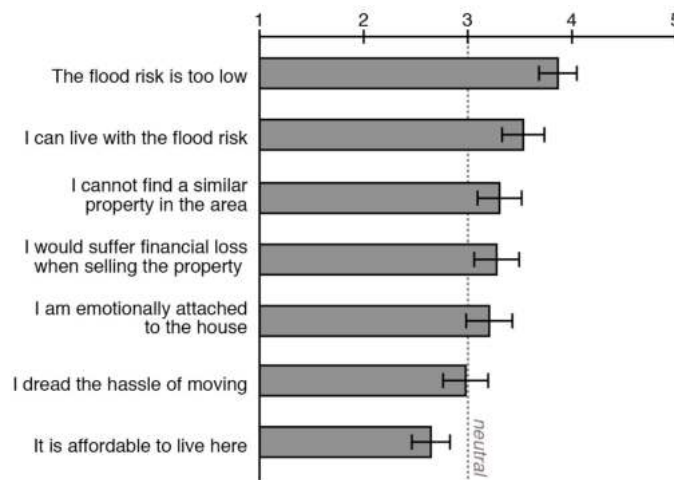


Figure 5. Reasons not (willing) to move, measured in mean score on a 5 point Likert scale. Error bars indicate 95% CI

Thus, the attachment of respondents to their homes is rather associated with socio-economic variables, such as socio-economic and real estate characteristics, while flood risks do not necessarily reduce this attachment. Also the willingness to move seems to be associated with economic variables, rather than flood risks.

### 3.4 Sense of responsibility

The respondents consider the government (both local and regional) to be the main responsible party for the existing flooding issue, while they perceive the residents to be least responsible.



A bit less than half of respondents (43.4%) are willing to take measures against that are willing to take measures have more often sought information on risks possible measures ( $p < 0.01$ ). The willingness to take measures is also associated ( $r = 0.33^{**}$ ) and knowledge on measures ( $r = 0.27^{**}$ ). Considering under which conditions respondents would be willing to take measures, we see that an increased flood frequency incentives such as subsidies, tax reduction and practical support are most preferred. A low score for the option if the rest of the neighborhood does this as well indicates a low willingness to take collective action.

If we look at what type of measures the respondents are willing to take, it is low-cost and low-key measures are preferred (Figure 7b). However, it is remarkable that the willingness to take action scores high, especially since the previous results showed little belief in one's own capacities in dealing with flood risks.

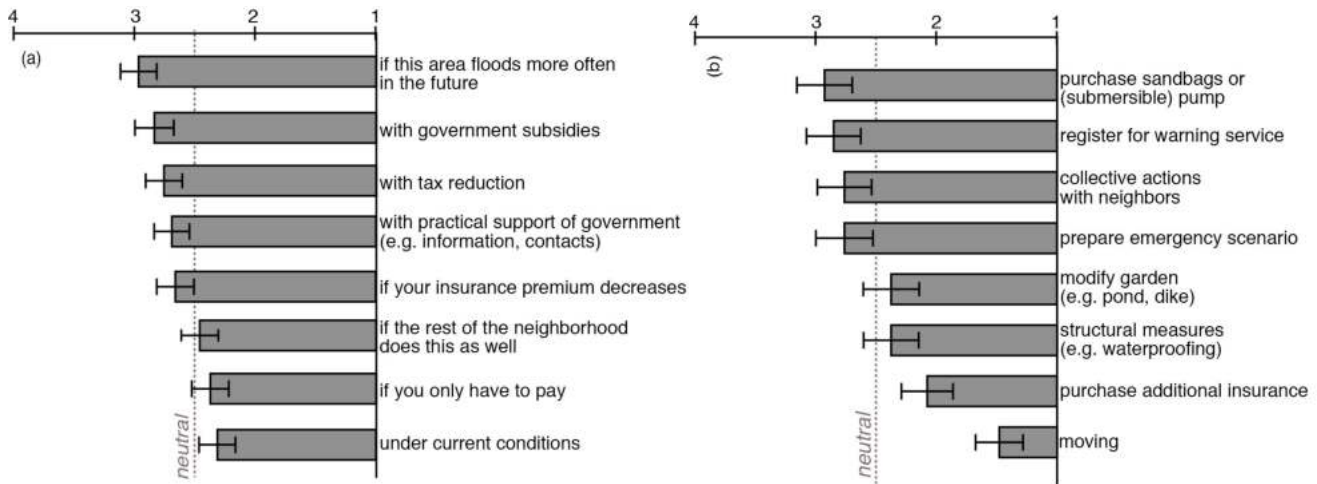


Figure 7. Willingness to take measures to reduce flood damage under different conditions (a), and willingness to take different types of measures (b), measured in mean score on a 4 point Likert scale, error bars represent standard error.

Nevertheless, half of all respondents have already taken action to reduce the consequences of flooding. Taking action is mainly associated with flood experience ( $r = 0.68^{**}$ ) of respondents without flood experience, 47,6% of respondents with flood experience without damage have taken measures. This indicates that taking action is mainly reactive to flooding. Other significant flood-related variables are flood experience ( $r = 0.31^{**}$ ) and measures taken ( $r = 0.31^{**}$ ), information-seeking behavior on risks ( $0.01 < p < 0.05$ ) and willingness to take measures ( $p < 0.01$ ), but also non-flood related variables such as condition of the house ( $r = 0.27^{**}$ ) and age of residence ( $r = 0.27^{**}$ ), and length of residence ( $r = 0.13^{**}$ ) play a significant role.

However, the investment in these measures is rather limited: 60% of the respondents who have taken action, invested less than 500 in these measures. The invested amount is associated with flood experience ( $r = 0.31^{**}$ ), knowledge on measures ( $r = 0.29^{**}$ ) and the extent to which respondents are willing to live there ( $r = 0.30^{**}$ ). The most frequent measure is purchasing sand bags or installing them (73%), followed by storing valuables on an elevated spot in the house (around 30%), while only a small fraction (around 5%) joined a neighborhood collective action, waterproofed their interior, registered for a warning service or purchased an additional insurance. Again, low-cost and low-key measures are preferred above structural measures. We observe very little collective action, although the findings above have indicated a high willingness to take collective action. About half of the respondents that have taken action with the measures they have taken. Nevertheless, only about a third of respondents who have taken measures protect them sufficiently against flooding and feel more at ease since

The motives to take action (Figure 8a) are mainly flood-event related. We notice more ad-hoc decisions in the context of a specific flood event, rather than reasoning. In addition new information appears to be quite unimportant as a motive. So even though our survey has showed strong correlations between knowledge level and responsibility on the one hand, and willingness to take action on the other, it itself is not sufficient as an incentive to take action. However, if we look at respondents who do not take action (Figure 8b), we see that the main reasons are collective action and government responsibility, followed by the consideration of the distrust in individual actions. Personal circumstances were mentioned least. In collective action again conflicts with observed protective behavior.

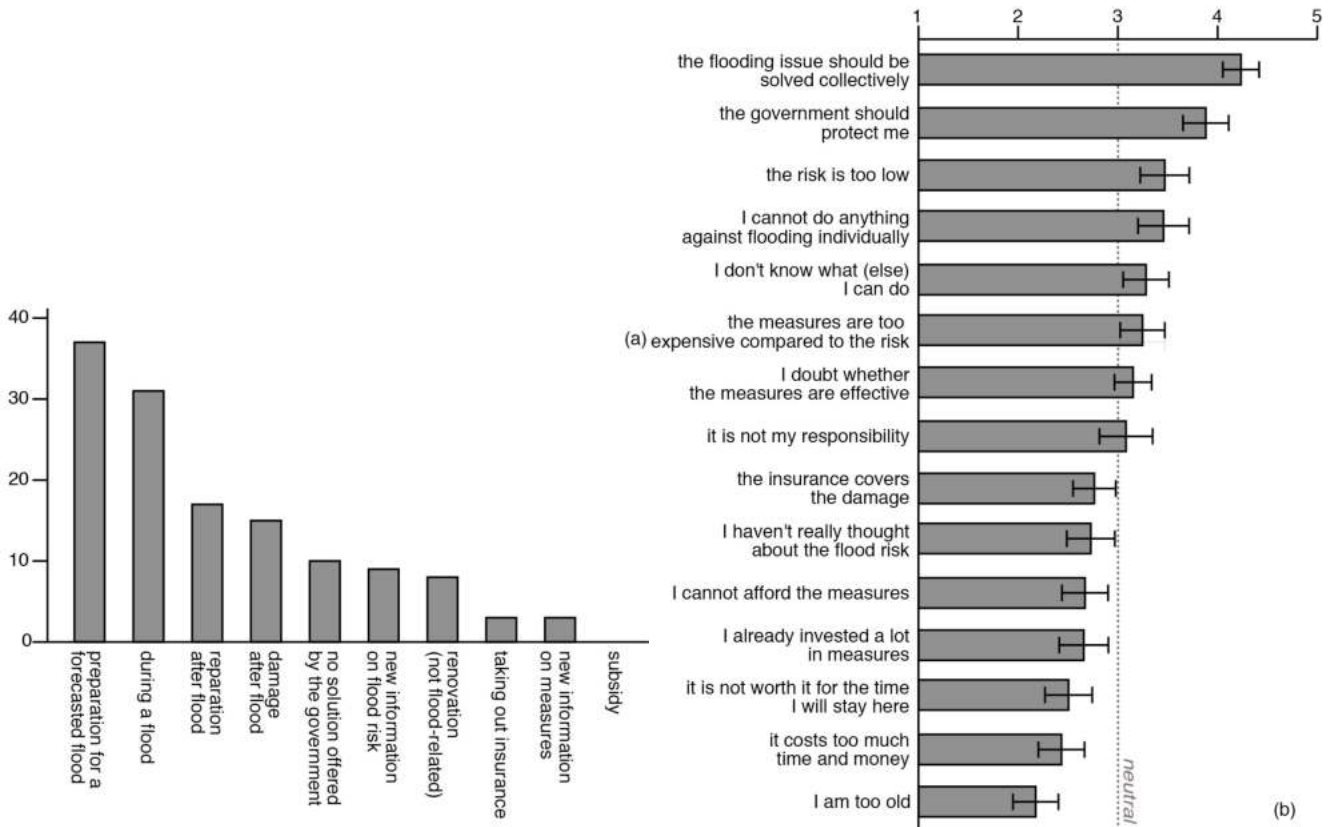


Figure 8. Motives to take action (a), measured in number of respondents, and motives for not taking action (b), measured in mean score on a 5 point Likert scale, error bars in (b) indicate standard deviation.

#### 4. Discussion and conclusions

Research in water management and planning often presents the flooding issue as a technical matter, while the interrelationship with broader social dynamics and institutional context is not discussed thoroughly. We have therefore conducted a survey that assesses how residents in flood-prone areas in the Dender basin (in Flanders, Belgium) deal with the risk to their homes. Our survey has probed for the residents' knowledge of the flood problem, their perception of the associated risks, the measures they take, their satisfaction with their home, and their sense of responsibility. We started from a sample of households whose residence is designated as a flood-prone area in official maps. This research base is interesting since Belgium is known for its position in steering development (Boussauw and Boelens, 2015, Verbeek et al., 2015), and neighboring countries such as the Netherlands. This context would suggest that residents play an active role in flood risk management. However, very little efforts have been made to activate residents in flood risk management, as opposed to for example the United Kingdom.

would suggest that residents included in our research would show a relatively low awareness and responsibility, and would not be inclined toward self-initiative.

This hypothesis has largely been confirmed. A large majority of residents are not informed, have little or no intention to relocate, and strikingly often impose the risk they run on the authorities. Residents do not really see themselves as being responsible; they do not believe they can actively contribute to managing flood risks. Nevertheless, some actions are taken, but these actions are low-key, individual and ad hoc. So far, recent government actions such as publishing and regularly updating flood risk maps, adjusting insurance policies, and mandatory notification on flooding issues when a house is sold, seem to bring little change.

These findings represent a clear connection with the Belgian institution of regional land use plans (area-wide set of land use plans that are in force since the seventies and disallow construction in certain zones which in principle could be developed, and zones that are intended for agriculture and where construction is, in principle, not allowed). Although these plans have managed to keep some open space areas free of any construction, they also imply that construction is allowed on land that was actually never thoroughly evaluated as being appropriate. Therefore, today a number of flood-prone areas are still considered to be constructed by owners, developers and residents, while the responsibility to keep the lot clear (and the house on it as well) is placed on the government.

A number of measures that are currently being taken by the government, aim at increasing awareness and raising awareness and sharing responsibility between governments and citizens. In the future these will contribute to improved control of the flooding issue. (2001) state that increased knowledge does not necessarily lead to declining damage. Residents of flood-prone areas may be in denial about the flood risks, and expect to be protected. Recent developments in policy-making are looking into the possibilities to look at the consistency between a particular land use designation in the zoning plan and the actual rights of the land. In some cases to cancel such existing, although inappropriately awarded development rights. It is still unclear what how these policies will be implemented. Moreover, a strong emphasis on governmental technical protection has proven to be counterproductive in terms of increasing community refusing responsibility. Therefore, we should also look at the uniformity of common protective policies. In the context of budget cuts and uncertain climate change, there is a growing need to rethink this position.

This research contributes to this discussion. On the one hand policy-making should be based on what residents think and do. On the other hand, individual action is framed by the existing policy, even if this is not addressed explicitly. Flood risk management choices generate responsibilities towards civil society and the way they deal with flood risks through experience. Over a long time, flood protection was a governmental activity and flood risks were not taken into account in spatial plans and developments. Dissemination of information has only taken a limited form and there is very little experience in private flood protection measures. The transition towards citizen responsabilization does not comply with the present responsibilities in flood risk management, and therefore, this discussion needs to be continued.

From a resilience stance, one cannot expect that residents are spontaneously self-organizing. The way they deal with flood risks has co-evolved with a flood risk management paradigm that has given more importance to a technical, top-down approach. The shift towards more resident involvement needs to be openly addressed and supported in all aspects of the interactions between residents and flood risks. In this light, the survey provides some promising results. Respondents are satisfied with their current homes, and civil parties play an important role in knowledge dissemination. There is quite some confidence in the power of collective action, although confidence in the government seems to be lacking to put this into practice. These elements can be interpreted as a positive sign that could lead to more resident involvement and active contribution in flood risk management under conditions of appropriate support.

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