

# H2020 projects and EU research needs for nature-based adaptation solutions

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#### H2020 projects and EU research needs for Nature-Based adaptation Solutions

#### Abstract

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- 3 This paper investigates the documentation produced by 21 Horizon 2020 (H2020) projects for the use of
- 4 Nature Based Solutions (NBS) for climate change adaptation (NBaS). Accordingly, an updated state-of-
- 5 the-art on current knowledge and its limits is presented. Findings are then capitalized on for highlighting
- 6 research needs. The main objective of this study is to inform future orientations on NBaS research.
- 7 Accordingly, it can be considered as an effort to complement the 2021 European strategy for climate change
- 8 adaptation, under which NBaS is listed as one of the three cross-cutting priorities. The obtained results
- 9 reflect actual outcomes from completed projects, while ongoing projects provided a substantial amount of
- 10 relevant knowledge. From the exhaustive knowledge-research need inventory, one of the most significant
- identified gaps was the need for developing further the fundamental scientific basis behind these solutions,
- as the concept favors its practical nature and places less emphasis on its scientific counterpart.
- 13 **Keywords:** nature-based solutions, adaptation, NBaS, Horizon 2020

#### 1. Introduction

The apex position of Climate Change Adaptation (CCA) and Nature-Based Solutions (NBS) in European priority agendas underlines the importance of these concepts for Europe. CCA has been a central interest for the EU since 2013 with the EU Adaptation Strategy (European Commission, 2013), while NBS as a concept, was coined at the European level. NBS are solutions that make use of ecosystems for responding to societal challenges (IUCN French Committee, 2016). First mentions of the concept (in strict terms) appeared in 2008 by the World Bank (Hanson et al., 2020). Since then, the concept has increasingly expanded and has attracted considerable scientific attention (Castellanos et al. 2020).

The European Commission (2015) defines NBS as: "Solutions that are inspired and supported by nature, which are cost-effective, simultaneously provide environmental, social and economic benefits and help build resilience. Such solutions bring more, and more diverse, nature and natural features and processes into cities, landscapes and seascapes, through locally adapted, resource-efficient and systemic interventions". NBS are particularly sought for their capacity to balance trade-offs between ecosystemic conservation, social needs and economic growth (Al Sayah et al., 2021). Cohen-Shacham et al. (2016) consider NBS as an umbrella concept that includes: (i) ecosystem restoration approaches (e.g. ecological restoration and engineering); (ii) issue-specific ecosystem-related approaches (e.g. ecosystem-based adaptation/mitigation, climate adaptation services and ecosystem-based disaster risk reduction); (iii) infrastructure-related approaches (e.g. natural and green infrastructure); (iv) ecosystem-based management approaches (e.g. integrated water resources and coastal zone management); and (v) ecosystem protection approaches (e.g. area-based conservation such as protected area management). Examples of NBS applications are quite common around the world and range from minimal interventions (Type 1 NBS), to minor ecosystem management approaches (Type 2 NBS), and extensive management/creation of ecosystems (Type 3) (Eggermont et al., 2015). Examples of minimal interventions are protected areas such as the Wet Tropics World Heritage Area of Australia, where wetlands and mangroves are used for reducing the risks of cyclones and coastal hazards (IUCN, 2014). Agroecology and agroforestry are considered as applications of regulated management approaches (Hotelier-Rous et al., 2020), while green roofs [ref. Versini et al. (2015)] are examples of extensive ecosystem management/creation.

From the European Commission's definition, the belief of Europe that long-term economic competitiveness and security depend on the sustainable use of natural resources is apparent, hence its interest in NBS (Maes and Jacobs, 2017). Nonetheless, climate change is one of the major hurdles that are preventing a smooth transition towards Europe's above-mentioned belief (Castellanos et al., 2020). For this purpose, Europe has set a path to harness the potential of NBS for CCA (Li et al., 2021). The occurrence of the term "adaptation" within the EU's definition of NBS, in the seventh criterion for NBS of the International Union for

Conservation of Nature (IUCN), and as one of the seven societal challenges NBS respond to strongly emphasized the NBS-CCA nexus (IUCN, 2020). The seventh IUCN criteria "NBS are managed adaptively, based on evidence" takes part of eight criteria set by the IUCN (2020) for a solution to be considered as a NBS [refer to IUCN (2020) for more details]. The seven above-mentioned challenges are climate change mitigation and adaptation, disaster risk reduction, economic and social development, human health, food security, water security and environmental degradation/biodiversity loss (IUCN, 2020).

In this vein, NBS for climate change adaptation (henceforth referred to as Nature-Based adaptation Solutions NBaS) have gained prominence both in scientific literature (IUCN French Committee, 2019) and in practical applications, particularly in Europe (Seddon et al., 2019). More recently, NBaS were defined as one of the three cross-cutting priorities in the EU's 2021 strategy on CCA (European Commission, 2021a). Accordingly, the strong NBaS background of Europe is pivotal to exploit for studying the evolution of these solutions. At the French scale, NBaS are trusted to be the way forward for leveraging the second national climate change adaptation plan. It is under this context that the LIFE ARTISAN (Achieving Resiliency by Triggering Implementation of nature-based Solutions for climate Adaptation at a National scale) project aims to promote the implementation of NBaS throughout the French (metropolitan and overseas) territory (www.life-artisan.fr).

With a favorable political context and a very receptive social fabric (Maes and Jacobs, 2017), the European Commission (EC) placed significant efforts to deepen knowledge on NBS-NBaS. Perhaps one of the most ample translations of this interest is the integration of NBS into the Horizon 2020 R&I (H2020) program. Accordingly, the latter is one of the most suitable platforms to explore as it reflects the role of the EC in research and innovation on NBS, in the allocation of funds for NBS, and in the production of tools, databases and scientific contributions. Knowing that NBS and NBaS are based on ecosystems and their services (Potschin et al., 2016), the interest of the EU in the latter increased even more after the COVID-19 pandemic. Accordingly, the EU is one of several parties developing programs that integrate natural solutions (thereby NBS) into post-COVID plans as nature-positive stimulus packages (Armstrong, 2021; GEF Secretariat, 2020). On a global scale, the EU's post-COVID19 recovery package is the most ecofriendly, with 37 per cent of the planned 750 billion euros directed towards green initiatives (Bayat-Renoux et al., 2020). To this end, the EU is planning for an ambitious 2030 biodiversity strategy that aims to transform minimum 30 percent of Europe's lands and sea into protected areas (even partially) to ensure healthy societies via healthy ecosystems (GEF Secretariat, 2020).

Despite the strong momentum behind the concept and the high expectations, NBaS are not as simple as expected. Since they encompass both CCA and NBS, NBaS inherently carry the difficulties and complexities of both their components. In terms of CCA, the composite nature of climate change and its uncertainties are particularly relevant (UNFCCC, 2020). In this vein, the absence of decisive measurable metrics, thresholds, and proof of risk reduction at both the short (i.e. pre-2050) and long-terms (i.e. post-2050 and climatic cycle scale) are major hurdles to overcome (UNEP, 2021). Even if the mentioned challenges are surpassed, the difficulty of understanding how adaptation functions and what its implications for resilience are still persists (IUCN, 2010). In terms of NBS, inconclusive evidence on their performance (Chausson et al., 2020), the uncertain behavior of ecosystems and their components under changing climates (Weiskopf et al., 2020), the questionable quantification of tipping points and thresholds (Groffman et al., 2006), the inconsideration of trade-offs between benefits (Seddon et al., 2020) and difficulties of upscaling (Al Sayah et al., 2021) are major gaps to bridge. Overlooking the above-mentioned challenges can lead to biased designs, conceptualization and implementation of NBaS. This in turn compounds the risks of maladaptation and multiplies the risks of disservices (Wickenberg et al., 2021). Other barriers such as public acceptance, stakeholder participation, governance obstacles and funds (Al Sayah et al., 2021) are also prevalent and can be considered as additional limiting factors.

While certainly win-win solutions, both NBS and NBaS are often portrayed as immune systems capable of resolving the challenges they were introduced to face. In this sense, a great deal of importance is given to

95 the benefits derived from these solutions, particularly for human health and socioeconomic returns.

- Although this representation might be favorable for increasing the public/political acceptance of these
- 97 solutions, it also widens the gap between the research community and practitioners by creating "language
- barriers" as highlighted by the REGREEN project (Banzhaf et al., 2020). These barriers are mainly due to
- 99 the multitude of disciplines implicated in the design and implementation of these solutions. Therefore, for
- properly unlocking the potential of these solutions, research are required to overcome the current paradigm
- 101 (Wickenberg et al., 2021), and develop further the science behind these solutions.

On the basis of what was presented, this study aims to compile an inventory of knowledge on NBaS with a

- focus on European efforts through the H2020 program. To do so, the study first explores current advances
- on NBaS from relevant projects, extracts identified limits and ultimately proposes lines of work to develop.
- The rationale behind this approach is that by providing a scientific meta-analysis, an overview of the EU's
- progress is offered (Davies et al., 2021). Accordingly, the objectives of this paper are: (1) to study the
- transition from NBS to NBaS in Europe (without narrowing the NBS concept to climate change adaptation
- only); (2) unravel current and emerging research trends for NBaS; (3) providing a state-of-the-art on
- 109 currently established NBaS knowledge and limits and (4) reviewing existing research gaps and proposing
- lines of work to develop. At no point do the Authors undermine the importance of the societal, political and
- mies of work to develop. At no point do the Authors under nine the importance of the societar, point car and
- governance domains of the concept. For fully unlocking knowledge on NBS-NBaS, the integration of these
- angles is a must. However, this was beyond the scope of this review that solely focuses on the more
- biophysical angles of the concept.

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#### 2. Materials and methods

- The workflow of this study consisted of a three-phased approach: search, filter, and extract/analyze. For the
- Search phase, the European Commission's Community Research and Development Information Service
- 117 (CORDIS) website [https://cordis.europa.eu/] was used to identify the relevant projects. The search query
- 118 consisted of "nature-based solutions" as a keyword. The "program" and "collections" filters were used to
- refine the search. Under the "program" filter, the H2020 box was selected, while the project box was
- selected under "collection". The chosen date range was from 2014 onwards, as the latter marks the start of
- the H2020 program. Within this interval, the year 2015 is one of the most important NBS landmarks in
- Europe: the official integration of NBS into the EU's agenda (European Commission, 2015)
- a) The first search (search 1) yielded NBS H2020 projects. The selected projects were then validated against
- the Oppla database, and two EC-issued reports Wild et al. (2020) and Dumitru and Wendling (2021). The
- first presents an analysis of EU-funded projects, while the second is the EC's most recent handbook for
- evaluating the impact of NBS. As a first result, 41 projects were found. Given the scope of the study (i.e.
- NBaS), a second refinement step was performed (search 2). The aim of search 2 was to zero in on strictly
- NBaS related projects. For that purpose, each CORDIS webpage was revisited to determine under which
- topic and program is the project listed. To this end, projects with the following topics were selected:
- SC5-10-2016 Multi-stakeholder dialogue platform to promote innovation with nature to address societal challenges.
  - SCC-02-2016-2017 Demonstrating innovative nature-based solutions in cities.
- SC5-09-2016 Operationalizing insurance value of ecosystems.
  - SCC-03-2016 New governance, business, financing models and economic impact assessment tools for sustainable cities with nature-based solutions (urban re-naturing).
    - SC5-08-2017 Large-scale demonstrators on nature-based solutions for hydro-meteorological risk reduction.
    - SC5-13-2018-2019 Strengthening international cooperation on sustainable urbanization: nature-based solutions for restoration and rehabilitation of urban ecosystems.
    - LC-CLA-06-2019 Inter-relations between climate change, biodiversity and ecosystem services.
  - SC5-14-2019 Visionary and integrated solutions to improve well-being and health in cities.

- For further validation, the program heading in each project's CORDIS webpage was also examined for inclusion. Accordingly, the following programs were of interest:
  - H2020-EU.3.5.1. Fighting and adapting to climate change.

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- + H2020-EU.3.5.1.2 Assess impacts, vulnerabilities and develop innovative cost-effective adaptation and risk prevention and management measures.
  - H2020-EU.3.5.2.1. Further our understanding of biodiversity and the functioning of ecosystems, their interactions with social systems and their role in sustaining the economy and human wellbeing.

To make sure that no project was left out, each project's website was then revisited. Accordingly, any elements related to the scope of the study in the project's impacts, description or objectives were considered as additional inclusion factors. Following *Search 2*, a total of 27 NBaS projects were retained. Each project's deliverables were then obtained from the CORDIS results tab as well as the project's webpage. This step was performed since some deliverables are not yet listed on CORDIS despite their existence on the projects' webpages.

b) The filtering phase consisted of two steps. The first was a general approach where deliverables were retained based on their titles, general content and relevant sections. At this stage it is important to mention several elements: (1) textual material was compiled and collected during the January-July 2021 period. Therefore, any outcome following this period is not included. (2) At the time of this study several projects were still ongoing while others have only begun in 2020. Some were affected by the COVID-19 pandemic while others were still in their pre-results phases. Consequently, some projects had no deliverables during the study period. (3) Some projects had no/restricted access to deliverables and hence were unavailable. In order to account for these shortcomings, the results packages on the related CORDIS webpage and scientific publications (articles) issued from these projects were included where applicable. The inclusion of scientific articles where applicable also contributed to the solidification and the enrichment of the study's corpus as these are peer-reviewed by scientific experts. Projects from which scientific articles were added are: ThinkNature, CLEVER Cities, Nature4Cities, PHUSICOS, REGREEN, RENATURE, NATURVATION, Connecting Nature, CLEARING HOUSE, OPERANDUM, NAIAD, DRYVER, Urban GreenUP, PHUSICOS, and RECONECT. Accordingly, 21/27 projects with 137 deliverables were passed to the second filtering phase. The second step was more specific and consisted of examining the reports individually and entirely through careful reading of each.

c) Finally, findings were extracted during the extract/analyze phase. At no point do the Authors assume that their findings are not debatable. The Authors acknowledge that some sample-related or selection flaws may be inherent. However, the best possible measures were taken to avoid any unjustified assumptions and to ensure a minimal error margin.

#### 3. Results and discussions

This section provides a number of results and discussions grouped under different themes. Accordingly, the first section discusses the way NBaS are addressed in the H2020 projects. The second section discusses the NBaS terminology in H2020 projects and the NBS-NBaS transition, the third section discusses geographical distributions and gradients, while the forth section presents the target ecosystems and their challenges. The fifth section details current knowledge and limitations per ecosystem, while the sixth presents the same pattern per main research topics. Further details can be found under each throughout the different sub-sections.

#### 3.1. General presentation of the studied projects

## The retained projects are of different backgrounds and encompass several objectives for the use of NBS-NBaS (Figure 1).

H2020 NBaS projects		Ecosystem services					
Name	Ecosystem	Provision	Regulation	Support	Cultural		
F3vYFC	Freshwater	•			•		
Future MARES	Marine and coastal	•	•	•			
PHUSICOS	Mountainous	•	•	•			
ReNature ReNature	All	•	•	•			
NAIAD	All	•	•	•	•		
thinknature	All	•	•	•	•		
OPERANDUM	All	•	•	•	•		
UNaLab	Urban	•	•	•	•		
CLEVER Cities	Urban	•	•	•	•		
EdiCitNet	Urban	•		•	•		
Connecting Nature	Urban	•	•	•	•		
Grow Green	Urban	•	•	•	•		
NATURVATION	Urban	•	•	•			
ARENUP	Urban	•	•	•	•		
UN URBINAT	Urban		•		•		
proGlreg	Urban	•	•	•	•		
euPOLIS	Urban	•	•	•	•		
REGREEN NATURE-BASED SOLUTIONS	Urban		•	•.	•		
CLEARINGHOUSE	Urban		•	•	•		
RECONECT	Urban	•	•		(*)		
NATURE 4 CITIES	Urban		•	•	•		

Figure 1: A representation of retained projects and the ecosystem services these target (colors refer to ecosystems)

Only those with deliverables, i.e. 21 NBaS H2020 projects, will be detailed from this point onwards. The list of retained projects is as follows: CLEARING HOUSE, CLEVER Cities, Connecting Nature, DRYvER, EdiCitNet, EuPOLIS, FutureMARES, GrowGreen, NAIAD, Nature4Cities, NATURVATION, OPERADNUM, PHUSICOS, proGIreg, RECONECT, REGREEN, RENATURE, ThinkNature, UNaLab, Urban GreenUP and URBiNAT. Table 1 provides each project's CORDIS/website access links, topic and number of retained deliverables.

Table 1: The inventory of retained H2020 NBaS projects and their retained deliverables

Project name	CORDIS page	Website	Topic	Action	Retained deliverables
CLEARING HOUSE	https://cordis.europa.eu/project/id/821242	http://clearingho useproject.eu/	SC5-13- 2018-2019	Research and Innovation	2

CLEVER Cities	https://cordis.europa.	https://cleverciti	SCC-02-	Innovation action	
CLE VERT CHICS	eu/project/id/776604	es.eu/	2016-2017	innovation action	9
Connecting	https://cordis.europa.	https://connectin	SCC-02-	Innovation action	
Nature	eu/project/id/730222	gnature.eu/	2016-2017	innovation action	3
DRYvER EdiCitNet	https://cordis.europa.	https://www.dry	LC-CLA-	Research and	
	eu/project/id/869226	ver.eu/results	06-2019	Innovation action	1
	https://cordis.europa.	https://www.edi	00 2019	Innovation action	
	eu/project/id/776665	citnet.com/medi	SCC-02-	innovation action	
	- ar projecti la 17 0000	alibrary/delivera	2016-2017		11
		bles/			
EuPOLIS	https://cordis.europa.	http://eupolis-	SC5-14-	Innovation action	
	eu/project/id/869448	project.eu/	2019		3
FutureMARES	https://cordis.europa.	https://www.futu	LC-CLA-	Research and	2
	eu/project/id/869300	remares.eu/	06-2019	Innovation action	2
GrowGreen	https://cordis.europa.	http://growgreen	SCC-02-	Innovation action	
CIOW GICCH	eu/project/id/730283	project.eu/	2016-2017		4
NAIAD	https://cordis.europa.	http://naiad2020.	SC5-09-	Research and	
	eu/project/id/730497	eu/	2016	Innovation action	7
Nature4Cities	https://cordis.europa.	https://www.nat	SCC-03-	Research and	10
	eu/project/id/730468	ure4cities.eu/	2016	Innovation action	10
NATURVATION	https://cordis.europa.	https://www.nat	SCC-03-	Research and	1.4
	eu/project/id/730243	urvation.eu/	2016	Innovation action	14
OPERANDUM	https://cordis.europa.	https://www.ope		Innovation action	
	eu/project/id/776848	randum-	SC5-08-		10
		project.eu/	2017		10
PHUSICOS	https://cordis.europa.	https://phusicos.	SC5-08-	Innovation action	12
	eu/project/id/776681	<u>eu/</u>	2017		12
proGIreg	https://cordis.europa.	https://progireg.	SCC-02-	Innovation action	5
	eu/project/id/776528	<u>eu/</u>	2016-2017		<i>J</i>
RECONECT	https://cordis.europa.	http://www.reco	SC5-08-	Innovation action	9
	eu/project/id/776866	nect.eu/	2017		
REGREEN	https://cordis.europa.	https://www.regr	SC5-13-	Research and	4
	eu/project/id/821016	een-project.eu/	2018-2019	Innovation action	<del></del>
RENATURE	https://cordis.europa.	http://renature-	*	Coordination and	7
	eu/project/id/809988	project.eu/		support action	,
ThinkNature	https://cordis.europa.	https://www.thin	SC5-10-	Coordination and	
	eu/project/id/730338	<u>k-nature.eu/</u>	2016	support action	8
UNaLab	https://cordis.europa.	https://unalab.eu	SCC-02-	Innovation action	6
	eu/project/id/730052	<u>/en</u>	2016-2017		0
Urban GreenUP	https://cordis.europa.	https://www.urb	SCC-02-	Innovation action	9
	eu/project/id/730426	angreenup.eu/	2016-2017		<i>J</i>
URBiNAT	https://cordis.europa.	https://urbinat.eu	SCC-02-	Innovation action	1
	eu/project/id/776783	<u>/</u>	2016-201		1

<sup>\*</sup>RENATURE is not attributed to the same topics, but generally it can be listed under several ones.

Connecting Nature, GrowGreen, UNaLab and Urban GreenUP utilize NBS for climate and water resilience in cities. Nature4Cities and NATURVATION investigate governance, business, finance and economic models and assessment for NBS. The NAIAD project complements the actions mentioned-above by providing an assessment of the insurance value of ecosystem services. OPERANDUM develops NBS to mitigate hydro-meteorological phenomena, URBiNAT focuses on regenerating and integrating deprived urban contexts through NBS, proGlreg harnesses the power of nature for urban regeneration, while RECONECT aims to reconcile Europe with its citizens through democracy and the rule of law. PHUSICOS will demonstrate how NBS can reduce risks in mountain landscapes in one the very few H2020 mountain

206 related projects. ThinkNature aims to develop a communication platform to connect various stakeholders 207 and to support the understanding and promotion of NBS at different geographical levels. RENATURE 208 builds a strategy and research cluster targeting NBS for sustainable development through scientific 209 excellence and innovation. EdiCitNet aims to explore the potential of Edible City Solutions in cities to increase social cohesion, equality, food security and adapt these solutions to the urban realm. CLEVER 210 Cities targets urban regeneration (social, environmental and economic improvements) through NBS. 211 212 CLEARING HOUSE aims to mobilize urban forest-based solutions for rehabilitating, restoring and 213 reconnecting urban settings. REGREEN aims to generate evidence on the integration of ecosystem services and biodiversity into NBS and to advocate the latter for urban planning. FutureMARES aims to provide 214 NBS for CCA and Climate Change Mitigation (CCM) in marine environments around Europe. EuPOLIS 215 aims to utilize natural systems (NBS) to enhance public health and well-being and create resilient urban 216 217 ecosystems. DRYvER aims to established strategies for the mitigation and adaptation to climate change 218 effects in dry river networks through the integration of hydrological and ecological (NBS) perspectives among other factors. 219

As can be noticed, the projects cover a range of different backgrounds, and possess objectives that do not cover the same scopes. The different nature, scales, data, objectives and methods of the projects make drawing parallel between them difficult. However, it is possible to draw on similar lines of work and

research needs.

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#### 3.2. On the NBS-NBaS terminology, concept and transitions

225 In terms of definitions, some projects adopt the EC's definition, others compare between the EC's and the IUCN's definitions (Cohen-Shacham et al., 2016), while many reformulate their own definition of the 226 227 concept. This discrepancy may reflect the various foci or interpretations. However, it can also indicate that the scientific progress behind the concept has not been fully transposed into the policy and management 228 229 angles (Grace et al., 2021). Two remarkable and important insights from H2020 projects stand out: 1) some 230 Authors believe that NBS are sometimes oversold (discussion in section 5.2.), and 2) others do not favor the term NBS in the first place. In this context, Bailly et al. (2019a) state the following: "NBS is a recent 231 232 European expression that is inappropriate. Experts and researcher prefer the term Nature. NBS can be 233 interesting to refer to the ecosystem services of nature, but tends to reduce nature to its utility without considering the others dimensions that surround it." 234

Throughout the projects, the transition from NBS to NBaS can be considered as progressively ongoing. This transition was noticed within the individual projects, but can also be attributed to a stronger emphasis on climate change adaptation within the NBS framework. It is safe to assume that this transition is a subject of study in Europe (since 2014 at least), and that several projects tend to extend their knowledge to extra-European contexts (namely in Asia and Latin South America). Clearly, the root causes of this ongoing transition and its future trajectory are interesting elements to study. However, such an analysis will require time to become fully possible.

#### 3.3. Geographical distribution and analysis

The geographical distribution is presented in Figure 2. Several large scale projects such as full mountain ranges, the EU scale or the EU's coastal environments are not represented in Figure 2 for display purposes only. This is the case of the PONDERFUL, FutureMARES, MaCoBioS, Green CURIOCITY, OPERANDUM, RECONECT, PHUSICOS and NAIAD sites. However, these were not excluded from the analysis phase.

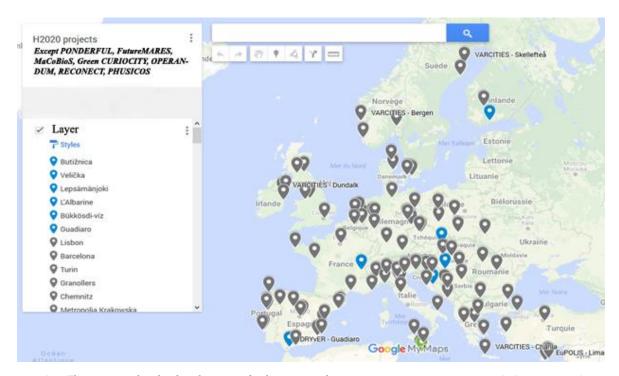


Figure 2: The geographical distribution of the retained projects' intervention sites, link to Google map: <a href="https://www.google.com/maps/d/u/1/edit?mid=1OScN37smu3dWN9w1\_W2gHDDP3HwNySP4&usp=sharing">https://www.google.com/maps/d/u/1/edit?mid=1OScN37smu3dWN9w1\_W2gHDDP3HwNySP4&usp=sharing</a> map 2: <a href="https://www.google.com/maps/d/u/1/edit?mid=11HBRW5Ogpm3RPbJ4L-0O25KS0OyIbru2&usp=sharing">https://www.google.com/maps/d/u/1/edit?mid=11HBRW5Ogpm3RPbJ4L-0O25KS0OyIbru2&usp=sharing</a> color code: grey refers to urban pilot sites, blue to freshwater/watersheds and green for natural areas. A detailed representation of each projects NBS-NBaS can be found on <a href="https://cloud.enpc.fr/s/damrKF3zZzpCKiT">https://cloud.enpc.fr/s/damrKF3zZzpCKiT</a>

As can be seen from Figure 2, many sites are scattered across the European continent. Accordingly, the most targeted climatic regions are the temperate continental climate, the oceanic and northern temperate regimes and the Mediterranean climate (Nikolaidis et al., 2019). The interest in the latter is particularly translated by the dense concentration of pilot areas in Southern Europe. This can be attributed to the following reasons: 1) The Mediterranean climate is expected to be the most impacted by climate change and its manifestations (Finér et al., 2019; Grace et al., 2021); and 2) The need for more evidence on the efficiency and co-benefits of NBS-NBaS as well as on the ecological responses of Mediterranean ecosystems under changing environmental conditions (Balzan et al., 2020 and IUCN 2019 *in* Grace et al. 2021). Northern and Eastern Europe display scattered concentrations with much less sites in the Eastern part. This may be due to: 1) the limited number of scientific publications on NBS in Eastern Europe since 2005 (Cooper et al., 2018), 2) the lesser number of scientific publications on NBS-NBaS in Eastern Europe with respect to the Western counterpart (Hanson et al., 2017) and 3) less projects are based in this region. At a finer scale, Figure 3 shows that most pilot sites are concentrated in Italy, Spain, Germany and France.

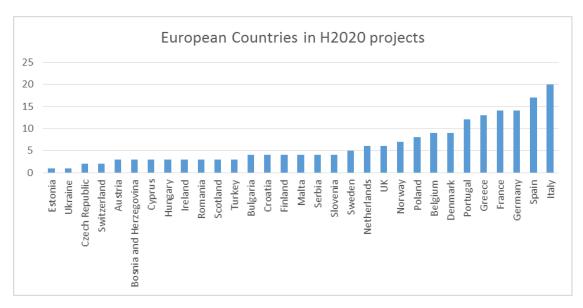


Figure 3: Location of the pilot sites of European countries in H2020 projects

#### 3.4. Target ecosystems, challenges and NBaS

The targeted ecosystems in each project are presented in Figure 4 (from each project's pilot sites). As can be seen, the urban environment predominates the H2020 NBaS projects landscape (61%). This distribution reflects the current European strategies that are mostly focused on cities and urban contexts under climate change and demographic development. However, this interest comes at the expense of other media that are significantly underrepresented and understudied. Accordingly, the coastal (9%) and mountainous environment (3%) are remarkably overlooked with coastal resilience and marine protection being one of the least targeted goals (Hanson et al., 2017; Nikolaidis et al., 2019; Ruangpan et al., 2020; Veerkamp et al., 2018), while mountainous environment is only targeted by a single project (PHUSICOS). Strikingly, the agricultural medium is absent as a distinct ecosystem, despite its marginal occurrence as pilot intervention site in some projects.

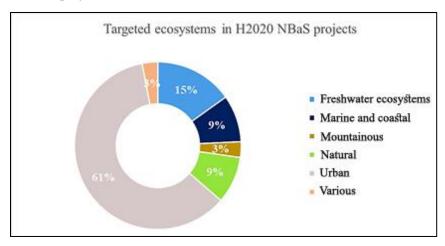


Figure 4: Target ecosystems of H2020 NBaS projects

In terms of climatic challenges, urban heat islands, coastal hazards (mostly in relation to urban coastal settings), floods, sea level rise, heavy rainfall, temperature rises, heat stress, erosion, landslides, and storm surges are the most addressed. From these challenges, flooding occupies the top position and is almost present in all intervention sites (Debele et al., 2019). Urban Heat Islands (UHI) are the second topmost

addressed challenge. While UHI mostly concern the urban environment, other challenges are crosssectorial. However, the focus on urban ecosystems, as a result of the increasing number of urban populations, reduces the efforts needed to address the above-mentioned challenges in other media. Another tier of challenges throughout the projects focus on socioeconomic disadvantages, social inequities, vulnerable populations' status, human health, environmental and resource degradation, overpopulation, air quality, reduction of green cover, agricultural decline, etc. However, these are beyond the scope of this study as the latter focuses more on the biophysical angles of NBS-NBaS.

The dominant focus on urban ecosystems makes urban green solutions (green parks, urban forests, ecological corridors, etc.) and blue-green infrastructure (green roofs, urban wetlands, ponds, grass waterways, etc.) the most studied type of NBaS, thus missing out on a variety of other non-urban solutions. Moreover, targeting the urban realm which ranges from the building to the city level at best, relatively covers small scale interventions. This "narrow scale" approach leads to missing out on macroscale interventions and subsequent large scale NBS-NBaS. Given the large focus on urban systems, most presented solutions correspond to Type 3 (i.e. NBS that target the management or creation of new ecosystems, e.g. urban parks, green roofs, etc.), and to a lesser extent to Type 2 NBS (i.e. interventions in managed ecosystems and landscapes, e.g. agrobiodiversity, agroecology, etc.). Type 1 (i.e. minimal interventions – protected ecosystems, e.g. protected areas) are relatively rarely to never targeted. This distribution signifies that most efforts are concentrated on a particular type of NBS-NBaS, leaving behind and potentially missing out on the potential of others. These observations converge with those of Wendling et al. (2019) who reported that most European NBS are of type 3 nature.

#### 3.5. Current knowledge and limitations per ecosystem

In this section, a state-of-the-art from H2020 literature on current knowledge and identified limits is presented. Outcomes of this section were the basis for formulating the research perspectives and lines of work proposed in the conclusion section.

#### 3.5.1. The urban ecosystem

The European Commission focuses mostly on the urban medium due to two main reasons: i) the increasing number of European populations living in cities, and ii) the urge to address numerous challenges, namely climate change, impacts on human health, and the degradation of natural capital (Cohen-Shacham et al., 2019). Despite being major contributors to climate change, and one of the most affected contexts, cities can also be part of the solution (Arlati et al., 2021; Gerstetter et al., 2020; Knoblauch et al., 2019; Tozer and Xie, 2020). This is mainly due to the long term accumulation of emitted carbon dioxide in urban vegetation and underlying soils as underlined by Richter et al. (2020) for the CLEARING HOUSE and Connecting Nature projects. 

The concept of NBS is the most recent entry in the debate on nature's role for increasing the climatic resilience of urban settings (Bailly et al., 2019b; O'Sullivan et al., 2020). In urban settings, NBS are being developed as part of urban climate infrastructure strategies for which cities use resilience principles as a guiding framework (Oke et al., 2021). According to the CLEVER Cities framework, the logic behind this approach is that NBS allow progress towards flexible and equitable urban resilience while promoting CCA (Mahmoud and Morello, 2018). According to the euPOLIS project, NBS are also considered as key factors for retrofitting and rehabilitating existing urban areas (Maksimovic et al., 2021) and also contribute to urban biodiversity (Xie and Bulkeley, 2020). For the REGREEN project, at this level the role of biodiversity is multi-leveled: a) it can be part of the NBS-NBaS, b) it can serve as an important attribute to help the sought solutions withstand pressures such as climate change, or c) it can be obtained as an end product from the implemented solution (Fletcher et al., 2020). Nonetheless, as highlighted by the NATURVATION project, the approach to urban NBS-NBaS biodiversity is not very centric, but rather focuses on ecosystem-based approaches for protecting and restoring functionalities, or ensuring the connectivity of habitats (Xie and Bulkeley, 2020).

338 Most research on NBS in the urban environment is biased towards disciplinary perspectives (Haase et al., 339 2014 in Veerkamp et al. 2018). In this regard, according to the Connecting Nature project, there is a new 340 role of science with cities instead of science for cities (Holscher et al., 2019). Science for cities represents 341 a somehow rigid approach where generated knowledge is often trapped in disciplinary silos. On the other hand, science for with cities is perhaps a more flexible concept as it includes the active participation of the 342 city's inhabitants and other urban stakeholders. Accordingly, the shift from "science for" to "science with", 343 344 ensures the democratization of knowledge on cities (Carton and Ache, 2017 in Holscher et al. 2019). 345 However, as most city science is generated by consultants, scientific researchers are needed to generate 346 new knowledge in addition to synthesizing already existing information (Holscher et al., 2019). To this end, a scientist's critical logic can be beneficial for providing perspectives and recommendations that take into 347 consideration the complexity of cities and the urban climate (Steiner, 2014 in Holscher et al. 2019). 348 349 However, many elements related to the urban realm still pose significant challenges for this task, these can 350 be considered as current knowledge limits that should evolve into research lines of work:

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First, the relationship between nature and cities is inversely proportional for its most part (Bailly et al., 2019a). In this regard, there is a need to clearly define all aspects of the city-nature relationship and determine how the trade-offs between these two different ecosystems (urban-nature) can be balanced in terms of service provision and delivery, as well as to understand the negative feedback loops and counteract them. Second, the urban context is highly non-uniform as it is formed from a mosaic of different systems, landscapes and media (Bulkeley and Raven, 2018). Similarly, urban nature extends beyond the misconception of scarce vegetation and artificial nature, and englobes water, lands, soils, air, and energy (Bailly et al., 2019b). The often oversimplified representation of the urban realm undermines the contribution of different land cover elements to the modification or creation of services or processes (Babí Almenar et al., 2018). Therefore, according to Nature4Cities, any approach should consider this heterogeneity to adequately define the challenge in hand and the subsequent solutions. Nonetheless, complex approaches to mosaics of ecosystems are still rare. This is due to the fact that ecosystems, much like their services, are not bound by geographical boundaries, which means that these engage in loops that aren't still well understood. To this end, a mosaic of ecosystems means different tipping points, different ecological thresholds and different responses. Therefore, no solution can be accurately designed without a sufficient understanding of the stated elements. While this aspect is certainly difficult and bound by many challenges, it remains a necessary line of work to develop.

Third, ongoing urbanization constrains planners and scientists to design solutions in continuously limited spaces (Knaus and Haase, 2020). This is also compounded by the fact that turning impervious areas to green or blue spaces often conflicts with the need of building more housing structures. Therefore, space-sensitive solutions are needed (Knaus and Haase, 2020). Nonetheless, space-sensitive solutions often imply small-scale interventions. The efficiency of small-scale interventions, particularly for large scale challenges such as climate change is yet to be decisive. To this end, NBaS for microclimate adaptation (i.e. a proportional scale to the proposed solutions) might be a more logical approach to develop. Fourth, the urban setting is a multi-scalar context, it encompasses different scales from the building, to the urban zone and ultimately the cityscape level (Somarakis et al., 2019). The multiplicity of scales complicates the choice of a scale-efficient solution. For instance, a green roof at the building scale will have a negligible effect at the cityscape level in terms of cooling. Likewise, an urban park at street level while have negligible effects at the building scale.

Lastly, isolated NBS-NBaS (small interventions) can collapse under the "harshness" of the urban realm where entwined pressures may significantly surpass the solutions' capacity and cause an inflexion of their functions (Bailly et al. 2019a). In this vein, understanding the interactions between the solution and the medium it has been introduced in is an important platform to consider. Often, NBaS are wrongfully introduced as immune systems without considering how the components of the ecosystems they were introduced into influence their survival/efficiency. The most studied solutions are urban parks and forests, followed by urban green spaces, blue areas, and community gardens (Cooper et al., 2018). Accordingly,

- 387 there is a need for mapping and deriving more evidence from a wide range of NBS other than Blue Green
- Infrastructure (BGI) (Hanson et al., 2017). 388
- 389 The urban climate, water management and related solutions
- 390 What differentiates the urban medium from others is its particular climatic behavior. This is mainly due to
- the multitude of land covers that form the urban settings and the morphology of cities (degree of 391
- 392 compaction, building heights, extension and sprawling). UHIs are the most studied and documented urban
- 393 climate phenomena (Bailly et al., 2019a). According to the GrowGreen project, they have become central
- elements of planning particularly under an ever changing climate (Gutierrez et al., 2020). Water 394
- management comes second after UHI and is particularly addressed for stormwater management and urban 395
- flooding reduction. In response to both challenges, green cover expansion and green roof installation are 396
- the most frequent solutions throughout the retained projects. In what follows, an explanation of each one's 397
- effects along with knowledge needs are presented 398
- 399 Trees
- 400 Street trees, along with other types of plantation, are considered as some of the most used solutions for
- 401 attending to UHIs. Through evaporative cooling they tend to reduce local temperatures while enhancing air
- quality through photosynthesis. Nonetheless, there have been reports on disruption of air flows and creation 402
- 403 of localized heat pockets as a result of tree configurations. In addition, negative effects on air quality have
- 404 been reported due to blocking of ventilation within street canyons as a result of specific configurations of
- 405 connected trees.
- 406 Trees are also considered as key elements for stormwater management in urban settings through
- 407 precipitation interception, runoff reduction, increased evapotranspiration and infiltration (Baker et al.,
- 408 2021). However, as highlighted by Baker et al. (2021) in the REGREEN project, the extent of their
- 409 efficiency has yet to be defined, and related literature hasn't been objectively reviewed. They are also
- efficient measures for reducing temperatures through evaporative fluxes and shading. According to the 410
- Connecting Nature projects, if tree-based solutions are imperfectly designed, they can disrupt air flow, 411
- hence causing localized increases in air temperatures (Connop et al., 2020). While the general consensus is 412
- that temperature increases in urban environments will only worsen UHIs, these may also induce longer 413
- vegetation growing season, increased photosynthesis rates, and hence more carbon storage (Vasenev and 414
- 415 Kuzyakov, 2018 in Richter et al., 2020). This could also possibly mean promoted cooling as a result of
- biomass growth or development. Nonetheless, these feedbacks should be better understood when an NBS-416
- NBaS is designed. At this level, according to proGIreg, the definition of buffer zones for the analysis of 417
- 418 NBS-NBaS impacts could be helpful as their effect may not extend beyond a certain zone (Leopa and Elisei,
- 419 2020) particularly for cooling. The arrangement of trees in cities dictates the nature of the solution, however
- 420 evidence on the effect of tree arrangement for maximizing performances and benefits is inconclusive (Baker
- et al., 2021). Considering this aspect is important as tree arrangement is often dictated by space availability 421
- 422 in cities. Regardless of their sizes and arrangements, trees and green covers address CCA and Climate
- 423 Change Mitigation (CCM) simultaneously as they can sequester carbon while reducing temperatures (Tozer
- and Xie 2020). However, prior to the design and implementation of any green solution, several factors 424
- should be accounted for. For instance, some green solutions are irrigation dependent. This raises concerns 425
- in terms of resource efficiency, particularly in the context of climate change where water scarcity is 426
- expected to increase and droughts to extend further. In this context, the resource efficiency (consumption 427
- 428 versus generation/conservation potential) of any planned solution should be better investigated as
- 429 throughout their existence NBaS consume natural capital in their own rights. Understanding how NBS-
- NBaS utilize natural resource and nature is relatively an unexplored line of work. 430
- Even if green spaces are perceived as performant NBS-NBaS, heatwayes and extended drought periods 431
- 432 can severely degrade them (Morakinyo et al., 2017). Additionally, tree (particularly juvenile ones) survival
- 433 rate is very low during the first year as these are prone to be affected by climate change and particularly

- heat stress (Richter et al., 2020). Accordingly, what seems to be a solution to an intended problem can also
- be susceptible to the challenge it was intended to address.
- 436 Green roofs: A solution for limited spaces
- Green roofs are very widely targeted under various H2020 urban projects. As reported by Urban GreenUP,
- 438 in cities infrastructural and space availability challenges can limit the expansion of NBS-NBaS (Kuban et
- al., 2019). That is why cities often cannot support large NBS projects (Bailly et al., 2019b). For this purpose,
- green roofs are considered as some of the most effective multi-purpose "ground-free" solutions that are
- ideal for cities and their continuous densification (Knaus and Haase, 2020). According to Zölch et al. (2017)
- in Baker et al. (2021), green roofs even outperform trees in terms of runoff reduction due to their larger
- permeable surfaces when aggregated, as opposed to the limited surface of trees planted in urban settings.
- permeable surfaces when aggregated, as opposed to the infinited surface of trees planted in urban settings
- The most decisive factor for a green roof is its substrate as it also defines its type, i.e. extensive or intensive
- 445 (Knaus and Haase, 2020). Most green roof studies focus on extensive roofs rather than intensive ones
- (Knaus and Haase, 2020), despite the fact that the latter outperform the former on an environmental scale
- (Morakinyo et al., 2017 *in* Knaus and Haase, 2020). In this vein, intensive green roofs are more efficient in
- 448 terms of stormwater management, control of dissolved pollutants, evaporative cooling as a result of higher
- biomass indices, and biodiversity support (Cascone, 2019).
- 450 Regardless of their types, these roofs are mainly used for climate resilience and long-term urban water
- 451 management (Snep et al., 2020). They are important surfaces for ecological compensation in cities, and
- have a large potential for renaturing urban contexts (Santos et al., 2016). They effectively retain incoming
- water, help in CCA/CCM, modify surface energy balances, reduce runoff/peak flows, and promote urban
- biodiversity (Pardela et al., 2020). Whether intensive or extensive, the performance of green roofs for
- stormwater management is highly related to rainfall events and the initial saturation of their substrate.
- 456 Many studies report several insights on the behavior of green roofs on peak reduction and water retention
- However, lesser studies focus on assessing their impact on temperature reduction (Jamei et al., 2021). In a
- 458 study on the effect of green roofs' in a neighborhood located in central Berlin Germany, Knaus and Haase
- 459 (2020), found the following:
- i) In relation to the CLEARING HOUSE and CONNECTING Nature projects, at a street level, the cooling
- effect of green roofs is very minor with values as low as 0.04°C (mean temperature reduction). On a
- pedestrian level, the maximal reduction effect is of 0.3 °C (with a mean of 0.1 °C), also negligible. ii) The
- most pronounced effects on temperature are observed at the roof's level with a decrease of surface
- 464 temperature by as much as 26 °C, Physiological Equivalent Temperature (PET) by 4 °C compared to street-
- level, and by 9 °C when compared with a non-green roof, and iii) in areas of mid to high buildings, the
- down spill of cool air generated by green roofs hardly reaches the street. According to Müller et al., (2014)
- 467 in Knaus and Haase (2020), the downward effect of green roofs is negligible for buildings higher than 10
- 468 meters.
- However, these findings are case-specific and are applicable to the specific conditions they were found in
- 470 (Davis et al., 2018). In a different climatic setting, different behavior could be expected. Regardless of their
- exact number, in general terms the above-mentioned findings indicate that the effect of green roofs is only
- pronounced at the level of the building they are located on, and hence do not replace ground greening (in
- terms of cooling), but can be only considered as a complementary effort (Knaus and Haase 2020). However,
- when considering the surface of green roofs when spread over the city, a considerable increase of green
- cover can be noted (Knaus and Haase 2020). Another advantage of green roofs is that these can be coupled
- 476 to other solutions. For instance, urban farming on a green roof (Somarakis et al., 2019), or a constructed
- wet roof that combines an extensive green roof and a constructed wetland for water treatment (UNaLab,
- 478 2019). However, further investigations on the combined effects of ground and roof solutions are still a line
- 479 of work to develop.

#### 3.5.2. Freshwater ecosystems

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The freshwater medium is the second most targeted ecosystem under the H2020 projects. In each project, different freshwater realms of various scales are present. These range from lakes, to rivers, to river networks and watersheds. Most of the prevalent measures are of structural or functional measures. Examples are river restoration, floodplain enlarging, river meandering, daylighting, installation of levees, wetland restoration, modification of the hydrologic network (connection/disconnection), retention basins and others. At this level, nature contributes to CCA through flood management and the provision of better water quality (Bailly et al., 2019b). Water quality is mainly addressed through phytoremediation, the use of wetlands or other small water retention features for sediment or soil bound pollutant retention. Another measure is the installation of grass or vegetation belts and canals around waterbodies to protect the latter from pollutant bound runoff from neighboring systems (urban or agricultural). In river management and flooding, several projects highlighted many factors that are responsible for the complexity and difficulty of NBS-NBaS. According to the ThinkNature project, the multitude of factors that interfere [i.e. socioeconomic, climatic, geological, and geomorphological, etc] (Banwart et al., 2018) make the design and conceptualization of these solutions complicated. Moreover, the challenges involved call for different scales, and that itself is a considerable barrier; for instance, pluvial flooding requires an urban zone scale, while river flooding requires a whole watershed scale approach (Somarakis et al., 2019). For NAIAD, the role of ecosystems (underlying basis of NBS and NBaS) on water supplies is still an open empirical research topic (Hérivaux et al., 2019). Also, the size and location of NBS-NBaS is also an important factor to consider. According to Burke et al. (2018) as part of the NAIAD project, small (many) interventions should be concentrated in upper watershed sections where flows are less than the downstream parts where large interventions should take place.

For OPERANDUM, the same hazard, e.g. flooding, can be initiated by different triggering factors. For instance, river floods can be initiated by precipitation in a particular context (e.g. Western Europe), while in other regions (e.g. Northern Europe), snow melt can be the main reason (Aguzzi et al., 2019). An example would be the case of Finland (Finér et al., 2019), where significant efforts are needed to take into consideration the effect of melting, its timing (changes) and the effects on the sought solutions. Accordingly, sought solutions in these contexts should take account for these manifestations along with other ones. Therefore the same NBS-NBaS for the same freshwater hazard cannot be applicable in different locations.

In terms of flooding, NBS-NBaS are designed to increase floodwater storage capacities upstream of the studied contexts (Muligan et al., 2017). Storage capacities usually concern four compartments: water bodies, canopy, floodplains and soil (Muligan et al., 2017). Increasing the storage capacity of any compartment impacts flood hydrographs by reducing the velocity of floodwaters, influencing peak flows and buffering risks in both the river and downstream sections (Muligan et al., 2017). Van Soesbergen and Mulligan (2018) found through storage capacity analyses that targeting soil and canopy storages was needed to reduce flood risk. While several NBS-NBaS target the floodplain (e.g. floodplain enlarging), water body (e.g. river restoration and daylighting) and canopy compartments (e.g. increase of green cover), rare are those who target soils despite the fact that increased soil infiltration can significantly reduce flood risks (Muligan et al., 2017). Infiltration solutions are also potent drought NBS-NBaS as these can increase groundwater storage (Muligan et al., 2017). However, groundwater systems are not routinely monitored (Douglas et al., 2019). Moreover, increased infiltration is not always an advantage as in contexts where groundwater supply is high increasing infiltration will only compound groundwater flooding risks due to water table rise (Hérivaux et al., 2019). A relevant example is karst saturation as the latter can lead to amplified risks particularly when soil saturation is also high (Graveline et al., 2018). It is also important to understand how NBS-NBaS can influence groundwater levels after extreme events (Pérez-Lapena et al., 2018). In this vein, the groundwater-aquifer-NBS nexus has been highlighted in several sources (such as the OPERANDUM project) as a significant gap to address particularly given their importance for attending to droughts and floods simultaneously (Tuomenvirta et al., 2019).

Currently, flooding is mainly addressed using hybrid solutions (Debele et al., 2019). According to CLEVER Cities, in the green versus grey debate, NBS-NBaS often lose the argument of collected experience and evidence compared to grey infrastructures (Knoblauch et al., 2019). Therefore, the ThinkNature project underlines the need to develop tools and indicators for assessing mixed solutions (Nikolaidis et al., 2019). According to NATURVATION, the environmental impact of hybrid solutions also requires further investigations (Kiss et al., 2019). It is therefore logical to question if NBS-NBaS are fully capable of masking the disruptive effect of their grey counterparts. For RECONECT, the latter's performance under an uncertain evolution of climate is also still relatively unknown, and can be considered as an important line of work to explore (Watkin et al., 2019). Under this context, significant efforts are needed for the assessment of large scale NBS-NBaS, watershed scale NBS-NBaS and hybrid structures that contain both small and large NBS (Watkin et al., 2019).

It is worthwhile mentioning that an important aspect of freshwater systems is targeted through the DRYvER project. The latter is the only H2020 project that considers intermittency of water bodies. Although the project is still undergoing, the work done by Messager et al. (2021) provides solid arguments on the gaps this project is filling. According to the same Authors, unlike rivers and permanent streams, the value and future of intermittent water bodies are often undermined, understudied and overlooked (Messager et al., 2021). Until recently, freshwater sciences were particularly concentrated on perennial water bodies, and it isn't until lately that scientists acknowledged the seriousness of intermittent water bodies' degradation (Messager et al., 2021). As a result, the related scientific methods and management tools are either limited or absent (Messager et al., 2021). In a map presented by the same Authors, stream intermittency was shown to be particularly pronounced in Southern Europe (i.e. the region under Mediterranean climate) where droughts are causing significant stress on water resources. However, as mentioned-above, this discipline is still nascent and more significant efforts are needed.

#### 3.5.3. Marine and coastal ecosystems

The EC's seven NBS actions for R&I are according to Morello et al. (2018): Urban regeneration through NBS, NBS for well-being in urban areas, NBS for coastal resilience, multi-functional nature-based watershed management and ecosystem restoration, NBS for sustainability of the use of matter and energy, NBS for enhancing the insurance value of ecosystems, and NBS for carbon sequestration. Despite the high rank of coastal resilience on this list, coastal areas are very rarely addressed within the NBS-NBaS framework (Ruangpan et al., 2020) and through the H2020 NBaS projects. In a review performed by Hanson et al. (2017), climate action for adaptation, resilience and mitigation were found to be NBS priority number one, while coastal resilience was quasi-absent. Another review by Nikolaidis et al. (2019) for case studies in the ThinkNature database revealed that coastal resilience is also one of the least targeted goals. The same was also found in a review conducted by Veerkamp et al. (2018), where climate adaptation, resilience and mitigation were found to be the most targeted aspects within ecosystem service assessment, in contrast to coastal resilience and marine protection. Several of the retained projects target coastal areas as part of their pilot zones. However, only two H2020 NBaS project are dedicated for coastal and marine areas (FutureMARES and MaCoBioS). Both are still undergoing (2020-2024) and consequently not many related references have been produced during the time of this study. Therefore, not much research gaps were extracted from these projects.

However, a general picture of current knowledge shows that the underrepresentation of marine and coastal ecosystems is surprising, since these are some of the most influenced contexts by hydrometeorological hazards and climate change (Debele et al., 2019). The complexity of these settings might be a reason (Dudley et al., 2010), as challenges in these systems may be closely overlapping [e.g. coastal resilience and climate change] (Bulkeley and Raven, 2018). Some hazards may be also interlinked, for instance storm surges and coastal erosion have a cause-consequence relationship (Debele et al., 2019). Under the current reviewed offer (excluding FutureMARES and MaCoBios), coastal erosion is an addressed hazard in coastal urban contexts (coastal cities). The main objective behind this approach is to protect or adapt the concerned

cities to coastal hazards. As such, coastal resilience and the coastal ecosystem are not targeted for land loss, sediment balance, foreshore stability or seafloor configuration (i.e. the ecosystem's intrinsic value), but for the sake of the urban system. This indicates that the importance of an ecosystem increases only when an urban context is in vicinity. Subsequently, the proposed NBS-NBaS will be indirectly implemented as utilitarian anthropocentric interventions. Moreover, the solutions offered by marine and coastal ecosystems are also somewhat underutilized despite their potential. For instance, marine habitats such as seagrass, salt marshes, mangroves, coastal wetlands and kelp forests, coral and shellfish reefs are efficient coastal protection elements that help adapt to increased storms, sea level rise and climate change induced floods (FutureMARES, 2021). For example, salt marshes and coral reefs are capable of decreasing flood waves by 70% and 72% on average (Debele et al., 2019). However, these are still underused and are not studied as much as green or blue-green solutions. Much of these solutions are expected to be implemented and studied in the FutureMARES and MaCoBioS project, and hence considerable knowledge is expected to be generated. However, during the time of this study, no data was yet available.

#### 3.5.4. Mountainous ecosystems

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591 The mountainous medium is the least targeted ecosystem in H2020 projects. The only dedicated project is PHUSICOS that aims to demonstrate how NBS can reduce risks in mountainous landscapes. Currently, 592 none of the present platforms on NBS are specifically focused on natural risks in hilly and mountainous 593 regions (Baills et al., 2021), nor on climate change adaptation. Despite the role of mountains in amplifying 594 595 hydrometeorological risks, particularly under a changing climate, not much attention is given to these 596 environments especially in European Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) plans (Autuori et al., 2019). 597 Accordingly, very little research on NBS for DRR in mountainous environments has been conducted so far 598 (Accastello et al., 2019 in Martin et al., 2019). In the very few studies, most address floods while fewer 599 target landslide and rockfall hazards (Baills et al., 2021). To this end, success stories of NBS-NBaS for landslide and flood mitigation in rural and mountainous areas are still meagre (Solheim et al., 2021). When 600 considered, most solutions consist of forests (afforestation/reforestation) for stabilizing slopes, reducing 601 rockfall, landslides and avalanches as well as for buffering flood risks. 602

#### 3.5.5. Forest and natural (protected areas) ecosystems

Within most of the retained projects, forests are some of the most common solutions (e.g. Clearing House, OPERANDUM, euPOLIS, RECONECT and UNaLab, etc.), but are rarely addressed as target ecosystems. The range of environmental challenges that forests are used as solutions to is wide, and spans across climate change adaptation/mitigation, disaster risk reduction, biodiversity support, climatic regulation, stormwater management, air regulation, erosion counteraction, water quality support, floodplain restoration, and others. Seemingly, trees and forests are "the" solution for almost all environmental challenges in different ecosystems. Under the retained projects, most of their use was concentrated in the urban ecosystem. Within the latter, urban forests are designed/implemented for various objectives. For instance, in the URBiNAT project, urban forests in Brussels (Belgium) are proposed as solutions for urban heat island and flood mitigation. Under Nature4Cities, urban forests are used among other solutions for rehabilitating the waterfront of the Tisza River in the Szeged Municipality of Hungary. In the same project, urban forests are used in Alcalà de Henares (Spain) for heat comfort, as part of edible solutions and for renaturalisation. For the Clearing House project, urban forests are used in Barcelona (Spain) for river catchment restoration and for the delivery of green infrastructure strategies. In Brussels (Belgium), urban forests are used for enhancing urban-rural territorial linkage, while in Gelsenkirchen (Germany), they are used as means for restoring former mining sites, urban and sociocultural regeneration. In Kraków (Poland), urban forests are used for air quality improvement, while in Leipzing-Halle (Germany) they are used for river catchment restoration, increasing the attractiveness of the site and for nature connectivity.

In other than urban systems (namely the mountainous environment and watersheds), forests were mostly used for risk reduction (landslide and flood risk reduction, respectively).

624 In their own right, protected areas are relatively untapped despite their spread across the European continent 625 (Natura 2000, regional parks, and others). This is a major research gap to address, as the potential of these 626 solutions is relatively underutilized in NBaS projects. This could be due to the fact that the urban medium 627 is the most favored ecosystem, and that protected areas do not correspond much to urban priorities. However, when implemented at the outskirt of cities or urban contexts, protected areas can increase the 628 connectivity between urban, peri-urban and rural contexts, thus promoting the resilience of urban 629 630 ecosystems (Naumann and Davis, 2020). Moreover, the use of protected areas as means to protect other 631 NBaS is not very developed. While some projects propose the use of buffer strips to protect downstream 632 waterbodies from agricultural runoff, none make use of protected areas for the same purpose (protection of other NBaS). This could be an interesting line of work to develop for maximizing the use of protected areas 633 as part of NBaS or for their protection. In terms of marine protected areas, the narrow focus on marine 634 635 environments can also be a reason for the relative absence of protected areas. On these bases, significant 636 efforts are needed to leverage the use of protected areas (both terrestrial and aquatic) as NBS-NBaS, and to define relevant knowledge and research needs. The latter might be addressed throughout the EU's far-637 reaching 2030 biodiversity strategy that will transform at least 30 percent of Europe's lands and seas into 638 effectively managed protected areas (GEF, 2020). 639

#### 3.5.6. Agricultural medium

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The agricultural medium as an ecosystem of interest is absent. Many projects target agriculture in some related pilot sites, however not as a primary focus. The absence of the agricultural sector as a biome of interest is a significant element to consider given the importance of the latter for food security and the sustainability of humans and ecosystems. While edible solutions have been proposed as part of urban agriculture in the EdiCitNet project, very few other solutions are proposed. The reduced interest in the agricultural sector causes a subsequent underrepresentation of agricultural NBS-NBaS, and hence underlines a major gap to address.

#### 3.6. Current knowledge and limitations per main research topic

#### 3.6.1. Climate change and adaptation

A wide range of discussion on the underlying concepts and bases of climate change is available throughout the different references. The current red line threshold is the 2 °C increase, beyond which climate change is assumed to become dangerous and its effects on ecosystems irreversible (Garcia Blanco et al., 2021). Therefore, adaptation to climate change stands first among the priority areas mentioned in international, European, national, local and regional policies reviewed by Knoblauch et al. (2019). Mitigation of climate change is also of equal importance, in an effort to keep warming beyond the 2 °C limit. All projects agree with Grow Green's insight that in the face of a changing climate, adaptive policymaking is needed to account for uncertainties, while a certain degree of flexibility is inevitable to avoid robust decision making (Zorita et al., 2021). The importance of research at this level lies not only in the generation of a successful solution, but also in refining interventions once implemented (Naylor et al. 2012 in Kiss et al. 2019). A general agreement on the importance of environmental risk evaluation for ensuring the success of NBaS and NBS for CCM (Garcia Blanco et al., 2021) is also common between the projects. Most projects approach CCA from the IPCC's (2014) perspective, where risk is expressed as a function of hazard, exposure and vulnerability. To this end, an analysis of all three risk components is often seen throughout the projects. Accordingly, this can be considered as a lever to overcome the classical confusion between risk and hazard in climate-related risk assessments (Kumar et al., 2019). Nonetheless, several challenges are apparent due to the difficulty of calculating/quantifying the occurrence probabilities for climatic hazards (Kumar et al., 2019), and the short-term variability of exposures and vulnerabilities due to intra annual variations (Fletcher et al., 2020).

In the case of NBS (including NBaS), mitigation and adaptation are closely entwined as any adaptation activity will promote mitigation potential and subsequently promote climate resilience (GMV et al., 2019).

To this end, both NBaS and NBS for CCM commonly aim to enhance ecosystemic resilience and stabilize ecoservices (Morello et al., 2018). For NBaS specifically, the aim is 1) to preserve the services needed by humans to make the impacts of climate change less adverse (Bailly et al., 2019b); and 2) to decrease the impact of the expected climatic effects (Morello et al., 2018). However, it is possible for a NBaS to target CCM (Morello et al., 2018), hence the advantage of these solutions. For example, a green park established from reducing the Urban Heat Island (UHI) effect [CCA] can simultaneously store carbon in its above and below ground components [CCM]. Another strong point of NBaS is that they cover the cross-cutting elements of climate action, i.e. environmental, social, cultural, and economic factors (Tozer and Xie, 2020) through the provision of multi-benefits. Xie and Bulkeley (2020) reported that NBaS and NBS for CCM were found to operate on five levels: 1) flood prevention and regulation, 2) UHI mitigation, 3) carbon sequestration-reduction of emissions, 4) microclimate enhancement and 5) drought and desertification prevention or reduction. From the levels mentioned, one can notice that some elements are related to climate change impacts mitigation rather than CCM itself. In the same vein, levels 1 and 5 are closer to adaptation. This intersection between CCA and CCM underlines the mutually beneficial nature of NBS-NBaS, hence their importance for action on climate. 

In the case of NBaS, current research efforts are mostly focused on green infrastructures, ecological connective functions and ecoservices provision for climate change resilience (Collier, 2021). However, a significant knowledge gap for assessing the impact of NBaS across a range of climate resilience challenges, and through different geographic levels exists (Somarakis et al., 2019). Another gap concerning the assessment of their long-term effectiveness under climate change scenarios is also prevalent (Bowyer et al., 2020; Gómez Martín et al., 2021). This last point should be particularly focused on as it can help understand the conditions these solutions will face and will have to perform under (Bowyer et al., 2020).

From the five levels listed by Xie and Bulkeley (2020), flood (Debele et al., 2019) and drought-related NBS-NBaS still require significant efforts (Xie and Bulkeley, 2020). In the case of droughts, research needs are more pronounced as studies on NBS-NBaS for slow onset events and their post-occurrence effects are still limited (Tuomenvirta et al., 2019). Within some of the pilot sites that include droughts, the latter are mainly addressed as a lack of precipitation (e.g. Mayor et al., 2018). This may be due to their confusion with water scarcity which is also often wrongly used as a synonym (GMV et al., 2018). However, this representation constricts the process to precipitation availability, and does not consider the four natures of droughts, i.e. meteorological, hydrological, agricultural and socioeconomic. Accordingly, this depiction might lead to an underestimation of drought risks (Vogt et al., 2018 *in* Tuomenvirta et al. 2019), which in reality are the most complex weather-related disasters due to their widespread cross-sectoral impacts (Tuomenvirta et al., 2019). The underestimation of risk will subsequently affect the accuracy of the related solutions. This can be considered as the starting point for drought NBS-NBaS research.

Whether designed for slow or rapid onset climatic events, climate change, the climatic characteristic of the concerned setting, and the frequency and intensity of extreme <u>weather</u> events are very susceptible of reducing the efficiency of NBS-NBaS (Gomez Martin et al., 2019). Climate change also influences the benefits and trade-offs provided by these solutions (Gomez Martin et al., 2019). To consolidate this fact, the following examples are given

- Climate characteristics: Small natural water retention features showed considerable potential in the UK, but had very reduced efficiency in Mediterranean contexts (Douglas et al., 2019). This is due to the differences of rainfall intensities that require a greater number of retention measures in the Mediterranean climatic regime (Douglas et al., 2019). In cold climates, the efficiency of edible solutions is questionable since they won't be able to deliver their service around the year (Wubben et al., 2020) due to plant growth factors.
- Seasonal variations: A spatio-temporal variation in the capacity of NBS-NBaS to provide ecosystem services can be observed in several cases (Fletcher et al., 2020). Per example, solutions based on broad leaved trees can become relatively inefficient during autumn and winter as they shed their leaves (seasonal

- variation of ecoservices provision). In climates where evapotranspiration fluctuates throughout the seasons,
- the flood volume reduction capacity of green solutions will equally vary (Fletcher et al., 2020). Other NBS-
- NBaS used to reduce incoming solar radiation on buildings will fulfill their functions in summer, but might
- 722 cause increases in heating loads during winter (Canton et al. 2001 in Bailly et al., 2019a).
- 723 Extreme weather events: In summer, an unexpected succession of rapid storms may saturate water storage
- capacity much faster than the solutions' evapotranspiration rates, hence overpowering the NBS-NBaS
- 725 (Fletcher et al., 2020). Similarly, increasing rainfall return periods can reduce the effectiveness of green
- roofs, pervious pavements, bio-retention elements and rain gardens (Majidi et al., 2019).

#### 727 3.6.2. Risks of oversimplification

- 728 In the words of Albert Einstein, "Everything should be made as simple as possible, but not simpler". One
- of the strongest points of the NBS-NBaS concept is its relative simplicity that makes it widespread and
- more or less grasped by a large audience. In this vein, O'Sullivan et al. (2020) report that in current NBS
- 731 literature, a discussion of what forms the N of NBS-NBaS is still missing. According to the same Authors,
- 732 it is unclear if nature only refers to biotic components, or also includes the abiotic factors and their effect
- on biotic ones. This may be due to the fact that "nature" in NBS-NBaS is defined and interpreted according
- to the viewer's background or discipline (CER et al., 2018). Most commonly, it seems that actual nature
- 735 (ecological resources, processes, and feedback loops) is undervalued, with most of the discourse focusing
- on nature's positive socioeconomic outcomes (O'Sullivan et al., 2020). This narrow focus on benefits
- 737 makes NBS and NBaS utilitarian anthropocentric concepts according to Nature4Cities (CER et al., 2018).
- 738 While in reality, these concepts encompass complex processes that include different components of the
- 739 geosphere, hydrosphere, atmosphere and a range of ecosystems (Kumar et al., 2019).
- 740 In terms of NBaS, not only is nature undervalued, but their potential for reducing climate vulnerability and
- promoting sustainability is also oversold (O'Sullivan et al., 2020). According to Sekulova and Anguelovski
- 742 (2017) in O'Sullivan et al. (2020), nature is romanticized and overestimated to the point where the concepts
- of NBS-NBaS risk becoming unscientific (O'Sullivan et al., 2020). The same Authors provide a "dose of
- reality" through a literature discussion of the current perspectives on nature using five references; the most
- 745 important elements to retain are:
- 746 In terms of NBaS: Nature is being represented as a green injection primarily into cities (Kaika, 2017 in
- O'Sullivan et al. 2020) to help governments make citizens immune to climate change (Esposito, 2013 in
- 748 O'Sullivan et al., 2020).

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- 749 In terms of NBS and NBaS: The drive for green and blue spaces is not environmental nor scientific, but is
- 750 rather economic, i.e. growth obsession (Kabisch et al., 2016 in O'Sullivan et al. 2020). According to
- 751 Sekulova and Anguelovski (2017) in O'Sullivan et al. (2020), the environmental angle will almost always
- lose at the expense of the socioeconomic goals. This might be due to three reasons:
  - i. Emerging literature on urban NBS-NBaS deals mostly with the ecological, socio-cultural and economic dimensions (Veerkamp et al., 2018). The integration of "harder science" insights is still lacking and can be considered as an important line of research to develop. Hence, one might consider
- that there is a lack of ready-to-apply scientific knowledge (Egusquiza et al., 2017).
- 757 ii. The IUCN labels challenges that NBS-NBaS respond to as societal challenges. This nomenclature
- can be assumed to be logical as these arise from a combination of natural and anthropogenic causes
- 759 (Balzan et al., 2020). However, this indirectly undermines the scientific background of these
- challenges and gives NBS-NBaS a more "practical" nature. This simplification may be beneficial for
- spreading the concepts across different target groups, but risks oversimplifying the underlying science
- behind the challenges, the solutions and the intended outcomes.

iii. Environmental challenges are marked by complexity, uncertainty, large spatio-temporal variability and often irreversibility (van den Hove, 2000 *in* Fohlmesiter et al., 2019). These elements are particularly amplified in the case of climate change, hence the increased difficulty of NBaS compared to NBS. The latter rely largely on the ecosystem service concept in which also insufficient scientific basis coupled to the inconsideration of nature's intrinsic value are major weak points (Bull et al., 2016). For NBaS, the same principles apply in addition to the layers of complexity brought about by the introduction of the already uncertain and complex climate change.

If the environmental dimension and science(s) behind NBS-NBaS remain underdeveloped as the concept favors its practical and economic sides, NBS-NBaS risk being lost as buzzwords. To overcome these barriers, significant research efforts are required along with long term visions of resilience (particularly for climate change), instead of short-term research on quality (Bailly et al., 2019a). At this stage, the cross-sectoral nature of NBS-NBaS might be a helpful factor, yet current efforts are compartmentalized (silo approaches), and the concerned disciplines have very limited interactions with each other (Maksimovic et al., 2021). Even when solid knowledge exists, it is often scattered across different disciplines (Bulkeley and Raven, 2018).

#### 3.6.3. System complexity

- Addressing NBS and to a certain extent NBaS, from the EC's perspective requires a complex interplay between definitions, challenges and sought solutions (Morello et al., 2018)..
- A solid understanding of nature's and systems' complexity is needed for successfully designing NBS-NBaS (Schmalzbauer, 2018). This element is currently one the major gaps for upscaling NBS-NBaS (Ruangpan et al., 2020). Once integrated, this understanding can help in complementing the effort of actors of various backgrounds (including ordinary citizens) to ensure the success of any designed/implemented solution.
- Whether of small or large scale, the introduction of NBS-NBaS into an already existing (eco)system implies the introduction of new nature processes that are often complex and interdependent (Debele et al., 2019). Nearly all the retained projects acknowledge this state and call for adopting complex thinking. The latter is necessary for dealing with the associated uncertainties and risks (Morin 2014 in Bailly et al. 2019b), as it also allows to draw attention to the undesirable effects (disservices) that may be brought about (Bailly et al., 2019b). Within the retained projects complexity is addressed in both theoretical and technical angles. The most pronounced aspect of theoretical complexity stems from the targeted environmental challenges, namely climate change and hydrometeorological risk reduction. In terms of CCA, both climate change and adaptation are complex entwined elements. In terms of hydrometeorological risks, the combined meteorological and hydrological processes that give rise to a certain event (hazard) create a layer of considerable complexity to consider (Debele et al., 2019). Moreover, hydrometeorological hazards are also capable of occurring simultaneously, in a cascading manner or even additively (Aguzzi et al., 2019). This means that a multitude of factors can interfere hence compounding complexities.

In terms of technical and fundamental knowledge on NBaS, the different projects acknowledge that some solutions are more complex than others, and thus require different approaches. For example, reconnecting floodplains (along with the involved hydrological, geomorphological and pedological processes and knowledge) is much more complex than designing allotment gardens (Somarakis et al., 2019). Similarly, some solutions are less difficult to grasp given their relative simplicity and their direct tangible effects. For instance, as highlighted in proGIreg, urban farming delivers edible products in a relatively fair amount of time, making it simpler and more lucrative than green roofs that provide less tangible effects, and require extensive expert [scientific and technical knowledge] (Wilk et al., 2020). On the implementation side, Saraco et al. (2020b) revealed that during their project, the implementation phase was longer and harder than originally planned. This operational complexity is often a significant hurdle that complicates the dialogue between the different concerned actors and can even be a backdrop for a given plan.

- While most of the theoretical and technical difficulties can be resolved through the introduction of more
- knowledge, several limits and gaps should be addressed:
- The complexity of the environmental challenges and the solutions themselves calls for significant efforts
- that are still somewhat underdeveloped, particularly in the domain of assessing the changes brought about
- by the (re)introduction of "nature" and its processes into a specific ecosystem. Accordingly, there is a need
- to develop tools that take into consideration the interconnectivity of the natural and newly inserted system
- 815 (Altamirano et al., 2020). This aspect calls for better understanding of ecological dynamics, in which often
- a particular's system equilibrium comes from the dynamic interactions of factors that result in zero net
- entropy. While understanding this equilibrium and its components might be a difficult task, it certainly
- 818 forms an important line of research to develop.
- Solutions that target the links between stressors, driving forces and causal factors, while addressing
- 820 adaptation at different spatial and temporal scales are particularly required for addressing multi-hazard
- approaches (i.e. multipurpose NBaS and/or NBaS for DRR).

#### 822 *3.6.4. Uncertainty*

- 823 Addressing multi-faceted solutions such as NBS-NBaS requires the consideration of complexity,
- redundancy and associated uncertainty particularly through different scales (Egusquiza et al., 2017). A
- chain of uncertainties associated with NBS-NBaS can be observed throughout the different projects:
- The starting point of uncertainties in NBS-NBaS is the dynamic and complex nature of the challenges
- these respond to (Somarakis et al., 2019), namely climate change.
- The second point comes from the unpredictability and uncertainty of the nature (NBaS) "base" itself
- 829 (Somarakis et al., 2019). Linked to that point are two facts: i) under the natural hazard scope, nature is
- perceived by people as an unstable element that might generate catastrophic events, accordingly, the use of
- nature under the form of NBS-NBaS to reduce risks raises some skepticism (Chou, 2016 in Han and
- Kuhlicke, 2019). ii) NBS-NBaS build on ecosystem functions and services, which in turn are dynamic,
- uncertain and evolve over time often in non-linear manners (Somarakis et al., 2019).
- The use of NBS as tools for CCA is still relatively recent and not very widespread due to underlying
- conservationism (Kuban et al., 2019). The latter might be due to lack of knowledge that creates a fear of
- the unknown (Solheim et al., 2021) that subsequently propagates across the various elements of the NBS-
- 837 NBaS chain (design, implementation, operationalization, etc.). According to the NAIAD and UNaLab
- 838 projects, as NBS-NBaS are still perceived as innovations, their conception as uncertain elements is a source
- of risk (Altamirano et al., 2020; Stahlbrost et al., 2018). In this vein, upscaling and mainstreaming NBS-
- NBaS become challenged by: i) the difficulty of capturing the value of NBS-NBaS, ii) the lack of
- understanding of long-term benefits and iii) the uncertainties due to the disconnection between short-term
- actions and long-term goals (Perrin, 2018).
- Adaptation is often challenged by the absence of decisive metrics. Therefore, measuring adaptation is an
- uncertainty barrier to overcome for NBaS. To this end, when adaptation is questionably calculated, NBaS
- are inaccurately designed, and uncertainties for quantifying climate resilience increase since the latter is the
- sum of CCA and CCM actions.

#### 3.6.5. The scale quandary

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- 848 Most H2020 NBaS projects are demonstration projects that often target small or specific pilot scales (except
- $\ \, \text{for OPERANDUM, PHUSICOS, RECONECT, Future MARES and PONDERFUL)}. With the global spread$
- 850 of NBS around the world, European pilot-sites and cluster projects intervention are making Europe stand
- 851 out as the world NBS leader (CLEVER Cities, 2021). Per example, living labs are much addressed
- throughout different projects, namely those that concern the urban medium (Wilk et al., 2020). In these

units, economic/technological methods and concepts are developed and put to the test in a small real-life context (Wilk et al., 2020). It is believed that the diversity of size and scales of the pilot sites facilitates the extrapolation of findings to bigger scales having similar climatic properties (Boskovic et al., 2021). However, despite their importance, demonstration projects only generate applied and site-specific knowledge (Xie et al., 2020) and are often practical variations of earlier research (Strout et al., 2021). This recurrently makes of them NBS-NBaS awareness raising projects (Altamirano et al., 2020), rather than knowledge generating elements. This might be due to the site-specific nature of NBS-NBaS that complicates the generation or communication of "harder" aspects of knowledge (Xie et al., 2020), or to the oversimplification of the concept as discussed in the previous section.

Regardless of the type of knowledge generated, the narrow focus on specific scales (mostly pilot site interventions that do not extend beyond a plot, district or neighborhood scale or plot, tributary, sub-basin) makes the identified limitations, achieved successes and the methods developed not necessarily applicable or replicable at both finer or larger scales (Somarakis et al., 2019). In this vein, upscaling to larger scales (i.e. greater than pilot sites) is a significant challenge for scientists and researchers, as the knowledge and methods utilized in pilot sites may not be applicable at larger scales (von Wirth et al., 2019 *in* Schmalzbauer, 2018). In addition, the requirements for much more resources and the buy-in of powerful actors add another layer of difficulty.

Moreover, the scales used by the research community do not always match those of planners (Knaus and Haase, 2020). This scale mismatch poses direct barriers to knowledge transfer and researcher-practitioner contact (Knaus and Haase, 2020). While the pilot scale approach is very important, NBS should be considered beyond their local effects, must be connected and should have a multi-scalar nature (Bailly et al., 2019a), i.e. they should be studied across and through different scales. To that end, there is a pronounced gap in the amount of research on small scale (e.g. urban) and large scale (e.g. catchment or regional) NBS (Ruangpan et al., 2020). Currently, the implementation of NBS-NBaS at large scales is limited, and is rather restricted to pilot site interventions of limited sizes (Altamirano et al., 2020). The complexity of larger systems might be a valid underlying reason, however this disconnection between scales is a significant hurdle for upscaling (Ruangpan et al., 2020). The lack of experience in large scale ecosystem restoration practices (Banwart et al., 2019, 2018) may also be a contributing factor.

In the case of NBS-NBaS for DRR, particularly hydrometeorological hazard reduction, implementation is often at small-scale, and hence with a negligible effect on large hazards (Kumar et al., 2019). Expecting from a single NBaS to reduce risks and damage costs, as well as provide a quantum leap in resilience might be too ambitious. Per example, punctual/local stormwater management solutions aren't as effective as watershed scale NBS-NBaS that buffer peak runoff and flooding risks in the whole spatial unit including the target area (Somarakis et al., 2019). However, relevant evidence and knowledge are still somewhat limited when NBS-NBaS are part of a larger hydrological system (Ruangpan et al., 2020 *in* Solheim et al., 2021; Turconi et al., 2020; van Soesbergen and Mulligan, 2018). The same applies for watershed scale hybrid solutions that contain both small size or large sized NBS-NBaS (Watkin et al., 2019). As a result of these factors, most risk assessments target small scales (local to regional approaches) often leaving out the larger matrix (Renaud et al., 2019). Consequently, large scale NBS for hydrometeorological risk reduction are left out of the picture as the spatial unit of assessment disregards them. Therefore, these solutions are still in serious need for further studies particularly in European reference frameworks (Vojinovic et al., 2019). This knowledge gap can be considered as a major bottleneck for holistic risk management and resilience plans where large scale NBS-NBaS interventions are often needed (Somarakis et al., 2019).

In the case of NBS for climate resilience (i.e. NBaS and NBS for CCM), the difference of scales is also a complex factor. Generally, these type of solutions call for two scales: for mitigation, solutions are sought at macro scales while adaptation solutions target the meso and micro scales (CAR et al., 2017; GMV et al., 2018). However, other Authors believe the opposite and stress that adaptation plans and actions should target the landscape or wider scales to account for all the interactions of the concerned ecosystems (Kapos

901 et al. (2019) in Altamirano et al. 2020). Yet different climatic challenges also require different scales and 902 that itself is an additional barrier. For instance, NBaS for UHI reduction require a city scale approach, 903 pluvial flooding requires an urban zone scale intervention, while river flooding requires a watershed scale approach (Somarakis et al., 2019). Arguably, evidence of small scale interventions is more or less 904 established, however similarly to NBS for DRR, evidence of efficiency is particularly lacking at large scales 905 (landscape or watershed). As the concerned challenges are often multi-scalar, the difficulty of measuring 906 907 the solutions' multi-benefits and efficiency increases (Davis et al., 2018). To this end, sufficient best 908 practices in different settings are still lacking (Knoblauch et al., 2019) and significant research efforts are 909 still needed.

#### 3.6.6. Measuring progress and monitoring NBaS

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911 The efficiency and the success of a solution are generally measured after its implementation by determining the changes between its pre and post existence phases. However, a solid base on NBS evidence is still 912 913 lacking in scientific literature (Douglas et al., 2019). NBaS also still lack well-established proof of their 914 effectiveness for CCA/CCM, especially in relation to the achievement of their set targets (CAR et al., 2019). Accordingly, NBaS are still in a state of unknown performance (CAR et al., 2019). In this vein, research 915 efforts yielded many evidence of climate change, yet no conclusive evidence of NBS-NBaS benefits, 916 performance and functionalities is established (Bailly et al., 2019a). The same also applies in the domain 917 of NBS-NBaS for hydrometeorological hazards (Debele et al., 2019). 918

In response to this state, current research on NBS is focusing on finding/building indicators for providing conclusive evidence on the efficiency of these solutions (Collier, 2021). However, this line of research is still somewhat embryonic, and further efforts are needed (Somarakis et al., 2019). Under the H2020 projects, a multitude of monitoring and assessment frameworks, and a plethora of indicators are used and presented (namely MAES, UNaLab, NATURVATION, EKLIPSE and others). Most projects use the EKLIPSE framework (Raymond et al., 2017), while others develop their own assessment frameworks such as the projects listed in Table A (refer to Supplementary Material 1).

However, there still isn't a commonly accepted or uniform monitoring and evaluation framework (Schmalzbauer, 2018). Even when monitoring occurs, the length of monitoring period is often short or is characterized by a low frequency. This may be due to the fact that an unknown amount of time is needed for a NBS-NBaS to become fully effective (Somarakis et al., 2019). According to Kuban et al. (2019), the difference of time scales between the short to medium NBS-NBaS interventions, and the long time needed to unravel their effects makes this type of analysis difficult. In this sense, Garcia Perez et al. (2018) in the CLEVER Cities project recommend that monitoring and evaluation should go along with the maturity of the solution, i.e. at least five years post-implementation. Conversely, Holscher et al. (2019) recommend the integration of monitoring and evaluation as early as the design phase, since the whole NBS-NBaS chain is loaded with underlying assumptions and uncertainties. Accordingly, the NBS-NBaS monitoring and evaluation framework should be progressive and continuous, to the point where outcome data following implementation can become baseline data for the future implementation of other solutions. Following this logic, NBS-NBaS should be gradually introduced to have a sufficient time period for a detailed and careful assessment of their efficiency (Albert et al., 2017). This gives a certain degree of flexibility for refinement throughout the process (Albert et al., 2017) and ensures the gradual success of the solution. Then again, the question of measuring success is raised by the UNaLab project: what are the acceptable thresholds to consider the solution as a success and at what scale (Wendling et al., 2019)? This last point is particularly important since the most significant difficulty for designing a monitoring scheme is to determine the scale of impact (Wendling et al., 2019). Accordingly, the following questions are also raised: will the implemented NBS-NBaS have benefits beyond its location? Is it part of a bigger NBS-NBaS network? If so, how can it be individually assessed within the larger matrix?

All of the retained projects contained different sets of Key Performance Indicators (KPIs) for monitoring and evaluating their implemented solutions. Some projects also address monitoring and evaluation through

949 a modeling and/or impact assessment approaches. The former surpasses the latter with it predictive 950 capacities (Bulkeley and Raven, 2018) that can provide better insights, namely by comparing pre, peri and 951 post NBaS phases. They can also serve to project future changes in scenarios (NBaS expansion, climate 952 change, etc.). However, it is crucial to acknowledge data and model limitations as even the best available data can hold large uncertainties at different scales (Burke et al., 2018). For instance, engineering models 953 are not very suitable for tackling NBS-NBaS interventions as the latter are of highly distributed nature 954 955 (Burke et al., 2018). Modelling can also be a source of skepticism since it is based on assumptions that are 956 not necessarily justifiable in real-life cases (Olsson and Andersson, 2006 in Kumar et al. 2019). In addition, 957 over ambition in modeling must be avoided as in some cases, simulations are run on the basis of scenarios that may never occur (e.g. 100% case of green roofs in an urban setting). 958

959 NBaS aim to address climatic challenges through specific actions. In turn, each action has an associated set of awaited impacts that also requires specific array of quantitative indicators related to climate resilience 960 (Bailly et al., 2019b). To that end, there are still questions concerning: i) the efficiency of NBS-NBaS under 961 962 different climatic situations, and ii) how NBS-NBaS accelerate the adaptability of a context (Debele et al., 2019). As NBS-NBaS require time to mature and become fully effective, the delivery of their co-benefits 963 can be gradually produced at different time steps (Giordano et al., 2020 in Gomez Martin et al. 2019). A 964 965 certain co-benefit can decrease the delivery of another, meaning that the overall effectiveness of NBS-NBaS will also be influenced (Gomez Martin et al., 2019). This issue should also be monitored as the 966 success of a NBS-NBaS not only depends on the delivery of co-benefits, but also on producing a balance 967 between them (Gomez Martin et al., 2019). 968

The debate on qualitative versus quantitative assessment is also polarized. While quantitative indicators are needed to provide solid numerical insights, qualitative indicators are equally needed to provide contextspecific information that often characterize NBS-NBaS (Da Silva et al., 2020). Even if several indicators of quantitative nature have been built, there's still a call in literature for more robust numerical frameworks to assess the performance and benefits of existing or newly installed NBS (Watkin et al., 2019). In their own right, defining qualitative indicators - e.g. measuring well-being - is a challenge, since these can be subjectively interpreted and lack a straightforward/consistent methodology (Da Silva et al., 2020). This limitation poses subsequent difficulties for the evaluation of these solutions' efficiency, values and benefits (Ruangpan et al., 2020). Despite the various efforts of some projects for developing a common indicator framework (e.g. ThinkNature), measuring intangible values is still a considerable hurdle to overcome (Schmalzbauer, 2018). For this purpose, significant multi and transdisciplinary approaches are needed (European Commission, 2021b). However, according to Basta (2021), none of their examined H2020 projects up until 2019 implemented frameworks for evaluating the credibility, relevance and effectiveness of the knowledge generated or reported during their research phases. This means that there weren't any uses of systematic monitoring and evaluation for documenting transdisciplinary research or methods (Basta, 2021).

#### 3.6.7. On resilience in the H2020 projects

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As can be noticed, the term resilience is present throughout the different sections of the manuscript. It is often associated with the process of adaptation. However, the resilience-adaptation nexus is quite polarizing as both can promote and demote each other at the same time (Nelson, 2011). Under the climate change scope, both concepts show pronounced differences (Leggett, 2021). Generally, climate change response strategies often require resilience OR adaptation (Wong-Parodi et al., 2015), i.e. a sort of separation/competition between the two concepts.

Adaptation is mainly sought for coping with the implications of climate change, while resilience is sought for developing the capacity of withstanding the threat. As such, adaptation is a process, while resilience is a capacity (Leggett, 2021). In the IPCCC's definition of resilience, a great deal of importance is given to the amount of change that a system can withstand, hence relating resilience to coping ranges (Levina and Tirpak, 2006).

Arguably, adaptation helps a system to absorb shocks while resilience helps the system to do so and resume its functioning (Der Sarkissian et al., 2021). However, no consensus on the resilience-adaptation nexus exists. This could be due to the fact that adaptation and resilience have emerged from different research disciplines (Nelson et al., 2007) and under dissimilar contexts (Nelson, 2011). Nonetheless, one might argue that resilience is needed for managing systems in a flexible and adaptive way. Under this context, resilience can be considered as a mean to broaden the reach of adaptation, hence the intersection zone between both concepts (Nelson et al., 2007).

As climate change is the main scope of the retained projects, climate resilience is addressed as the sum of CCM and CCA. The former (i.e. CCM), is usually better quantified since it is related to the reduction of emissions and carbon storage or removal. Such indicators are well-established throughout the different projects with many metrics for carbon storage/removal capacities of soils and biomass (e.g. UNaLab). Conversely, the lack of adaptation targets, metrics, and indicators hinders accurate resilience quantification efforts. Moreover, under the NBS-NBaS scope, resilience is often delivered through ecosystem services. As mentioned in previous sections, the difficulty of quantifying ecosystem services adds another layer of complexity. Certainly, these disparities complicate regional comparisons for evaluating the quality of NBS-NBaS beyond the pilot sites they exist in. The site-specific nature of these solutions also prevents cross-comparisons. Consequently, the evaluation of NBS-NBaS currently does not extend beyond pilot sites.

In relation to adaptation pathways, these were created for efficient policymaking in the face of future uncertainties. Accordingly, these ensure iterative and flexible approaches that accommodate for climate change and its uncertainties. By aggregating adaptation options, assessing their effectiveness and sequencing them in the form of pathways, Zorita et al. (2021) indicated that the use of adaptation pathways is an efficient method for city or sector levels. Nonetheless, do not extend to higher scales. Therefore, the connection of adaptation pathways to resilience trajectories in a multi-scalar feature-space is yet to be understood. These observations converge with the recommendations of Cai et al. (2017) for promoting further research on multi-scalar resilience.

#### 3.6.8. The other side of the coin: disservices

One of the main advantages of the NBS framework is that it acknowledges the existence of disservices (Schaubroeck, 2017). However, it isn't until recently that disservices became well discussed in NBS literature. In terms of NBaS, one of the most perceivable risks is climate gentrification (Kiss et al., 2019). Almost all of the retained projects acknowledge their existence and incorporate some related types of analysis during their design or planning phases. However, only accounting for disservices is not enough. There is an equal need to account for trade-offs particularly when one ecosystem service decreases due to an increase of another (Bailly et al., 2019a). In that sense, NBS-NBaS may lead to negative consequences on ecosystemic balance (Banwart et al., 2019). It is therefore important to acknowledge that any NBS-NBaS can have unexpected or unplanned negative outcomes, for despite their importance, NBS and NBaS consume natural resources while they exist (Somarakis et al., 2019). Therefore, one should not assume that the NBS-NBaS intervention will surely work (Burke et al., 2018). That is why the risk of failure should always be accounted for. Therefore three scenarios are recommended to be expected. The first is a case where everything occurs as planned, the second is a best scenario where all expected elements are achieved to the maximum, and the third is a critical scenario where failure is expected.

However, according to UNaLab, disservices and risks are often outweighed by the long-term benefits of NBS-NBaS (Hawxwell et al., 2018). Nonetheless, this does not mean that disservices are to be treated lightly as in some cases these can have serious consequences. For instance, with a changing climate, increasing the extent of water bodies might be a serious proliferation factor for water-borne diseases (particularly in tropical or equatorial settings). Such considerations need to be made according to the reigning climatic regimes. To this end, disregarding disservices during early analysis is a significant threat that can amplify risks and lead to efforts in vain (Bailly et al., 2019a).

#### 4. Conclusion

In this paper, a thorough analysis of NBaS projects issued from the H2020 program was performed. The purpose of this study was to build a scientific state-of-the-art on current knowledge and research needs from the analysis of European contributions. For this purpose, 21 out of the retained 27 projects had deliverables at the time of this study and thus formed its basis. From a total number of 173 deliverables, 137 were retained and analyzed with respect to the scope of this study. In this regard, only environmental and biophysical elements were included as this study was concerned more with the fundamental and theoretical basis of the concept. Nonetheless, this does not take away any degree of importance from the concept's technical, political and socioeconomic aspects. In this vein, one of the main challenges for this study was to synthesize and compile knowledge from very different sources as a result of the projects' diverse background (different nature and disciplines). This last element prevented drawing clear parallels between projects and directly comparing their outcomes even within the same study areas. The different targeted contexts, climatic settings, and socioecological characteristics also added another layer of complexity for direct comparisons. To account for this factor, an extensive review and in-depth analysis were performed to connect the different dots and draw a clear line of work.

The Authors acknowledge the partial descriptive nature of the results. However, the aims of this paper was to present a timely inventory of H2020 efforts with a focus on the EU's progress, contribution, and status. It can be considered more or less as a roadmap of what has been accomplished/found till now (state-of-the-art), with a contribution to develop lines of work that were proposed based on identified limitations and gaps. On this basis, the paper can be listed as an effort to provide a comprehensive roadmap for studying the ongoing and progressive transition from NBS to NBaS.

While many projects generate/generated substantial amount of knowledge, most of their approaches are still demonstration or pilot-site interventions. Accordingly, these often take the form of awareness-raising elements rather than knowledge generators. As mentioned previously, the findings of this paper are not undebatable as the sample choice and size may induce certain flaws. However, the flaw margin was reduced as much as possible by filtering the documents thoroughly and by avoiding assumptions. In what follows several relevant recommendations are given:

#### i. Extending interests beyond the urban ecosystem

The interest of the EC's H2020 program in the urban realm is justifiable. Yet, a deeper approach to other ecosystems is much needed. The relative dominance of the urban medium makes most of the knowledge generated from the H2020 projects related to these settings. Accordingly, a large proportion of the generated knowledge and methods cannot be necessarily generalized to other media. In the same vein, the biased focus on urban contexts complicates the identification of NBS-NBaS gaps in other ecosystems. In a given way, the current interest in ecosystems is constraining NBS to cities, hence the risks of missing out on their potential in other systems.

This is particularly the case of mountainous, forested and marine and coastal environments. While forests are very appreciated as NBS-NBaS, they are rarely targeted as a sensitive media to climate change. In its own right, the mountainous environment is significantly underrepresented despite its importance and relative widespread coverage in Europe. The marine and coastal realms are also underrepresented as both a medium and a source of solutions.

#### ii. Enhancing knowledge on nature (N) in NBS and NBaS

European findings underlined the need to focus more science on the N (nature) behind NBS and NBaS. For this purpose, scientific and physical methods are needed to better understand the interaction of nature both with and within the implemented or planned NBS-NBaS. However, this does not come as an alternative to the concept's practical and socioeconomic nature, but rather as supplement. The rationale behind this logic is to have a holistic framework that balances between all the theoretical and fundamental components of

NBS and NBaS. This is due to the fact that the introduction of these solutions into ecosystems causes the entry of new systems along with their processes. Yet the investigation of these interactions and their cascading effects is still somewhat limited. This gap could be on the most pronounced challenges for upscaling and outscaling NBS-NBaS as well as for unlocking their full potential.

#### iii. Exploring and developing several lines of research work

Cross-cultural analysis in a global sense, does not appear in the H2020 environment. While community-based actions and civil society participation are well accounted for, an analysis of how cultural knowledge reconcile with natural ecology and sustainability is not always present. Embedding this approach into a global scale environment (beyond a Europe-focused approach) might be worthwhile considering. The rationale behind this proposition is that deeper insights on cross-cultural aspects can leverage the use of NBS-NBaS by providing inputs to the science-practice-policy sphere. Accordingly, the co-design, co-implementation and co-production of solutions are ensured. In this vein, the ARTISAN project, through its analysis of international, regional (European) and national (French) efforts is aiming to position each scale with respect to other. With the advances of the project, more multi-scalar insights on NBS-NBaS are expected.

- 1107 In terms of European outlooks, according to Davies et al. (2021), the EU's intention to continue investments in NBS is still increasing. The same Authors indicated that the recently launched FP9 Horizon Europe 1108 1109 program (2021-2027) will aim to integrate NBS into areas such as health, bioeconomy and food systems 1110 with a particular emphasis on climate change. Accordingly, the extension beyond urban ecosystems is 1111 starting to appear. While climate change remains a central challenge under the Horizon program, the transition from NBS to NBaS can still be considered as ongoing. In this vein, studying the intersection 1112 1113 between this paper's listed projects (ongoing ones), and those launched under FP9 could be an interesting platform to consider. According to Davies et al. (2021), both in the EU and beyond, the discourse on NBS-1114
- NBaS should shift from their representation as "products" to become considered as a "process". In this
- vein, several perspectives can be proposed:
- 11. It is crucial to understand if NBS-NBaS are being currently designed to withstand weather change and/or
- climate change. In a second step, it is important to determine if these solutions be capable of overpassing
- weather change to then withstand climate change.
- 1120 2. The labelling of the NBS-NBaS challenges as societal makes the concept tip towards more practice-
- centered orientations rather than knowledge generation or science-focused priorities. Moreover, under any
- 1122 context, the definition of the societal/environmental challenge to be targeted by NBS-NBaS should be an
- 1123 ongoing process

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- 3. While oversimplification might be attended to by increasing the integration of hard sciences, a solid
- understanding of the complexity of natural systems and their processes is needed. However, a careful
- balance between simplification and complication should always be kept to avoid losing NBaS. The aim of
- this approach is not to make NBS-NBaS limited to experts as one of the concept's strongest points is its
- ability to create a shared vision/language and implicate a broad societal commitment to the design and
- 1129 implementation of nature. Yet, oversimplifying the concept can make it a simple buzzword, while
- overcomplicating it can make it lose its acceptance/popularity among the different groups that are needed
- to leverage these solutions.
- 4. The role of uncertainties in NBS and NBaS should be better accommodated and explored through further
- research (Bailly et al., 2019b; Han and Kuhlicke, 2019; Van der Jagt et al., 2020). The same can be said for
- uncertainties and trade-offs (Kumar et al., 2019). While these are developing lines of work, their current
- acknowledgment under all projects reflects the attainment of an ample awareness level.
- 1136 5. For the implementation of system scale NBS-NBaS, a leap beyond conservationism is needed. Studying
- a mosaic of existing projects as a large scale NBS-NBaS approach through scale transitions may be a good

- start. To this end, large scale NBS-NBaS (when existent) should be treated as aggregated multi-scale small
- 1139 NBS-NBaS interventions to attend to their implementation, monitoring and benefit quantification angles.
- 1140 It is important to consider that large scales (e.g. watersheds) cover a mosaic of ecosystems. That means that
- different responses to various stimuli (in this study's case climate change) are to be expected. For this
- 1142 purpose, understanding tipping points and thresholds is a must. However, this task is quite complicated and
- is still a major gap in research.
- 6. For attending to large scale NBS-NBaS (upscaling), as indicators cannot be simply added up or
- extrapolated, connecting the different solutions scattered throughout a large area might be a better idea than
- aggregating small disconnected solutions. The connection between solutions implies a connection of
- ecosystems, which in turn creates various ecotones. This ecotone effect allows a maximization of individual
- efficiencies and multiplies benefits (UNaLab, 2019). To the knowledge of the Authors, tapping the potential
- of NBS-NBaS ecotones hasn't been dealt with yet in literature, neither have their transitions through
- 1150 different scales.
- 7. Understanding how NBS-NBaS utilize natural resources and nature during their existence is a relatively
- understudied and unexplored line of work.
- 8. The implementation of new NBS-NBaS in sites may lead to soil disturbance (Connop et al., 2020).
- Accounting for soil as both an ecosystem and a potent solution should be further developed namely for
- flood storage capacities and climate change regulation.
- 9. Within the urban realm, it is crucial to acknowledge that the city will continue to develop throughout the
- existence of the solutions. Therefore, the parallel evolution of both ecosystems should be further studied in
- 1158 order to determine how both influence each other and to orient proper decision making. Tracking the
- parallel evolution (current and future) of both ecosystems and solutions is still a relatively untapped domain
- that deserves further attention.
- 1161 10. As one NBaS is not sufficient to attend to CCA, the multiplicity of solutions will deliver more
- pronounced effects since these power the necessary interconnections (Bailly et al., 2019b). However, to the
- knowledge of the Authors, measuring the climatic connectivity effect of NBaS is still an untapped domain.
- 11. Understanding ecosystem tipping points and ecological thresholds is a must. Currently, very few to no
- efforts focus on these central elements.
- 1166 12. An understanding of the supply and demand of ecosystems and their services in complex
- multidimensional contexts is still limited.
- 13. A systematic approach to understand how the different systems, i.e. ecosystem-NBS-NBaS, interact
- 1169 with and influence each other is still limited. Hence the need to provide a more inclusive and holistic
- evaluation framework for properly understanding combined benefits, co-benefits and disservices

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