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Operating urban resilience strategies to face climate change and associated risks: some advances from theory to application in Canada and France

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Abstract :

Faced with increasing urbanization and uncertainties linked to climate change, the scientific community has integrated the concept of resilience into urban management practices. Once revolutionary, now a buzzword, resilience is a concept that is difficult to transform into an integrated tool that stakeholders accept and adopt. This paper offers a perspective on the different interpretations of resilience, its difficult implementation and the tools that seek to operationalize it. The underlying questions are how these tools are appropriated by urban managers and territorial decision-makers, and how the theoretical concept can be translated into resilient urban development. This research paper reviews the work on resilience and investigates its use and operationalization, comparing two different approaches - organizational (Canada) and holistic (France) - that aim to clarify and operationalize resilience. These theoretical approaches have been combined to create workshops for urban managers so they can move from theoretical results to practical applications.

Keywords : Resilience issues, Climate Change, Collaborative workshops, Spatial-decision support systems

22 **1 Introduction**

23 Between 1995 and 2015, climate-related hazards became more frequent and intense
24 (UNISDR and Center for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters (CRED), 2015). The Center
25 for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters (CRED) Emergency Events Database recorded
26 6,457 weather- or climate-related disasters during this period, claiming 606,000 lives and
27 affecting 4 billion people (UNISDR and CRED, 2015). It is well known that climate change has
28 increased both the frequency (14% greater than in the decade 1980–1989) and the severity of
29 certain extreme weather-related events such as heavy precipitation, storms and floods, and this
30 trend is projected to continue (European Environment Agency, 2017).

31 The impacts of this situation are significant, both for the populations affected and for
32 current or future economic, urban, international, and political challenges. Floods represent 47%
33 of all weather-related disasters (with an average of 171 per year in the period from 2005 to 2014,
34 up from an annual average of 127 in the previous decade) and affect 2.3 billion people (UNISDR
35 and CRED, 2015). Among other things, this dramatic trend can be explained by the changing
36 nature of floods, with flash floods and coastal floods becoming increasingly frequent. Moreover,
37 urbanization has led to an increase in flood runoff, affecting urban areas where the stakes are
38 particularly high. In addition to creating new kinds of risk, urbanization has important
39 implications for exposure and vulnerability to extreme events (Field and Intergovernmental Panel
40 on Climate Change, 2012).

41 Moreover, modern threats and risks are transboundary (Boin et al., 2010), as globalization
42 is creating a connected world, where interactions between territories, societies and issues lead to
43 many interdependencies (Serre, 2018; Serre and Heinzlef, 2018). The interconnected architecture
44 of modern cities' economic, social, political, commercial, administrative and other activities and
45 the globalized world are creating interdependent networks, both formal (technical networks) and
46 informal (functioning in interrelated societies). According to the concept of the domino effect
47 (Nones and Pescaroli, 2016; Pescaroli and Kelman, 2017; Pescaroli and Nones, 2016; Robert et
48 al., 2008; Serre and Heinzlef, 2018) – a chain reaction causing changes in a territory – some areas
49 may be affected by a flood, for example, even if they are not located directly in the risk area.
50 Indeed, in the interconnected space of modern cities, risks have impacts beyond spatial
51 boundaries. Globalization, the increase in flows, social, economic and political exchanges, the
52 interdependence of networks (urban, social, political and economic networks), etc., has redefined
53 the spatial boundaries of risks. Finally, the presence of critical infrastructures (CI) in cities
54 complicates their functioning and crisis management. These critical infrastructures (CIs) are
55 defined as vital to the point that their destruction or incapacity would significantly weaken
56 defense, economic security or overall functioning on the territory. These infrastructures can be
57 physical (buildings such as hospitals, urban networks, etc.), virtual (economic, social, political
58 flows, etc.), service infrastructures (first aid service, defence service, food distribution, etc.), etc
59 (Serre and Heinzlef, 2018).

60

61 Faced with this rapid urbanization and the emergence of these new risks, managers must
62 deal with a series of uncertainties. These uncertainties, linked to climate change (Adger and
63 Brooks, 2003), urbanization, system complexity, and the emergence of new actors and new risks
64 complicate urban risk management. How should these uncertainties be managed? Our incomplete
65 understanding of the natural systems associated with human behavior makes it more difficult to
66 understand risks. Aware of these growing uncertainties, experts and scientists have questioned
67 risk management strategies and gradually integrated the concept of resilience. In recent years,
68 resilience has become a major focus in such fields as politics, economics, sports and natural
69 disaster management (Comfort et al., 2010). However, the transition between these different
70 themes has transformed this innovative concept into a mere buzzword (Brand and Jax, 2007;
71 Linkov et al., 2014), used everywhere and by everyone. The overuse of this concept can be
72 explained by its diverse academic roots (De Bruijne et al., 2010); it is applied in domains as
73 varied as physics, psychology, ecology and risk management. The many uses of the concept
74 (Cyrulnik, 2004; Holling, 1973; Koffi, 2014) have made it seem more abstract. However, despite
75 the multitude of definitions (Meerow et al., 2016), the concept is applied in many political,
76 ecological and risk management discourses, as an injunction to systems to be resilient.

77 In the chaos of these growing uncertainties, the concept of resilience is an interesting
78 approach to understanding the responses of systems and actors to the challenges posed by natural
79 disasters (Fuchs and Thaler, 2018). Resilience can be defined as the ability of populations,
80 territories and infrastructure to develop the resources, skills and capacities needed to best
81 experience a disruptive event in order to limit its negative impacts. In many ways, urban
82 resilience seems to be an appropriate response to the uncertainties associated with increased risk
83 in urban areas. It provides a sufficiently flexible framework for action to encourage innovation in
84 all its forms. However, this flexibility – this richness of interpretation – undermines the concrete
85 application of the concept. Few managers, decision-makers or urban stakeholders (planners who
86 are focused on the city growth and managers who are in charge of increasing the service life of
87 assets through optimum use) actually use the concept to influence how they act on the territory.
88 This is why some researchers have examined the difficulty of operationalizing the concept.

89 The objective of this article is to present two approaches that aim to address the biases
90 (such as the confusion between the concept of vulnerability and the concept of resilience, the
91 different interpretations according to the temporalities of crisis and resilience, etc.) and

92 limitations of the theoretical concept of resilience by working to operationalize it through
93 decision support tools, on one hand, and collaborative approaches, on the other hand, in order to
94 enhance the use and performance of spatial decision support systems and improve resilience
95 conditions. These tools protect organizational resilience, in the case of a tool developed in
96 Quebec (Canada), and holistic resilience, in the case of a tool developed in Avignon (France), in
97 areas subject to flood risk. Through a collaborative approach to understanding local managers'
98 needs and habits, the aim is to enrich and adapt these decision support tools and integrate
99 resilience into local stakeholders' risk management strategies, so they can adapt better to climate
100 change. These two case studies were selected for different reasons. First, in the spring of 2017,
101 Montreal was violently hit by flooding. The 2017 spring flooding in Quebec is a weather event of
102 exceptional flooding of rivers in the southern part of the province of Quebec, Canada, due to the
103 spring snowmelt, to which were added numerous rainfall events that resulted in abnormally high
104 accumulations for April and May. The final toll was very heavy: 261 municipalities affected,
105 5,371 homes flooded, 4,066 people evacuated and 557 roads affected. The costs were estimated
106 at several hundred million Canadian dollars, and the number of troops mobilized for this
107 operation was greater than in any other operation underway worldwide for the Canadian Armed
108 Forces at the same time. The floods were ranked the third most significant weather event in
109 Canada in 2017 by the Meteorological Service of Canada. At the same time, Avignon suffered
110 heavy flooding in the fall of 2016, which is part of a continuum of floods that weakened the
111 urban area (1993, 1994, 2002, 2003, 2016, 2019).

112 Secondly, with this very particular climatic context, the research teams of the École
113 Polytechnique de Montréal and the University of Avignon have launched a joint reflection on risk
114 management and the challenges of operationalizing the concept of resilience. While one approach
115 has focused its research on an organizational methodology (Canadian approach), the other has
116 developed a more holistic methodology. The common point between these two approaches to
117 operationalizing the concept remains a collaborative approach. The objective is to evaluate the
118 different advances in the process of operationalizing the concept of resilience and the different
119 results related to the appropriation of the concept by local actors.

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122 We will first analyze the two strategies for operationalizing resilience – organizational and
123 holistic – tested in Canada and France, and then examine the collaborative process designed to
124 integrate scientific and local expertise in order to promote the adoption of the concept of
125 resilience in risk management strategies.

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127 **2 Spatial decision support systems design for organizational and holistic resilience**

128 **assessment**

129 Starting from the observation that the implementation of resilience because of the lack of
130 clarity about how to define it, some projects have sought to define and delimit the issues in order
131 to identify specific objectives. We propose to compare two theoretical and concrete attempts to
132 clarify the concept of resilience: at the holistic level, in Avignon (France), and at the
133 organizational level, in Quebec (Canada).

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135 **2.1 French spatial decision support system for holistic resilience**

136 **2.1.1 Climate and risk issues in France’s Mediterranean region**

137 In Europe, extreme events will lead to increased costs. Floods, and especially the risk of
138 coastal flooding, should increase significantly. Consequently, the current average damages of €3
139 billion per year will be multiplied by a factor of at least 5 by the end of the century and in the
140 worst case scenario will reach €38 billion (Centre Européen de Prévention du Risque
141 d’inondation, n.d.).

142 In France, flood risk is the most frequent (60% of natural disasters) and damaging (60%
143 of damages) of all risks. Approximately, 17 million people (26% of the French population) and
144 9 million jobs are located in flood-prone areas (Larrue et al., 2016). Currently, the International
145 Disaster Data Base ranks France as the European country with the second greatest exposure to
146 very serious natural events. Damages are projected to increase because of the increasing exposure
147 of both populations and assets (Bouwer et al., 2010). The Mediterranean region is warming faster
148 than most of the rest of the world: compared to the global average increase of 1°C since pre-
149 industrial times, the average temperature has already increased by 1.4°C. And if, hypothetically,
150 the objective of maintaining the average global temperature rise at +1.5°C were met, the
151 Mediterranean area would still be an average +2.2°C warmer (Cramer et al., 2018). Furthermore,

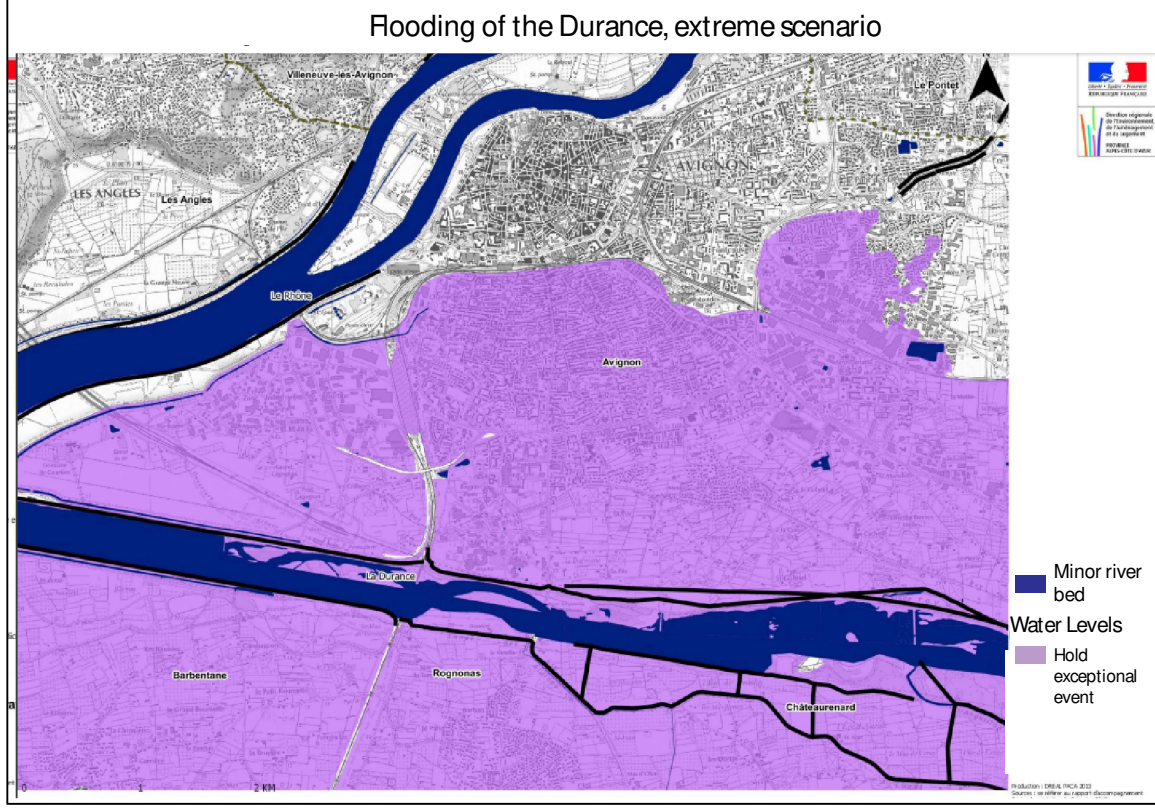
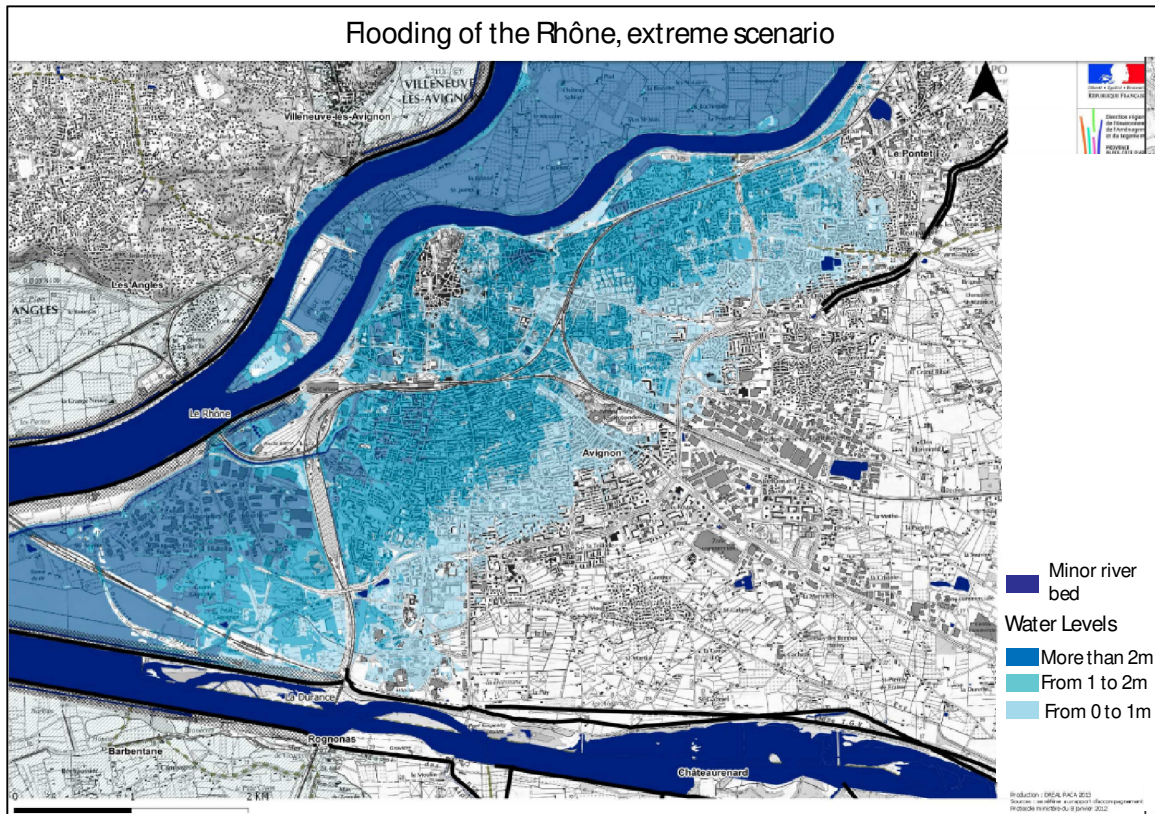
152 a report by the French Ministry of the Environment estimates that there is an average of 10 deaths
153 per year in the 12 departments (regions) along the Mediterranean coast due to specific floods.
154 The loss ratio is therefore concentrated primarily in south-eastern France, and in particular in the
155 Gard and Vaucluse regions. In addition, based on the proportion of the population estimated to
156 live in floodplains, the Vaucluse, with 42%, is among the most exposed French departments
157 (regions) , as all of its municipalities are affected by flood risk. For example, in June 2010,
158 storms hit southeast France and the heavy rain led to flash flooding. The rainfall amounts were
159 exceptional for the time of year; 400 mm of rain fell in less than two days in Provence, an amount
160 that had not been seen in the previous 50 years. Hundreds of homes were flooded in the
161 department of Var, causing several deaths (Met Office, 2011).

162 Avignon, in Vaucluse prefecture, is faced with physical (confluence of the Rhône and
163 Durance rivers) and human tensions (such as a feeling of injustice on the part of people living in
164 flood zones who feel that they are not taken into account by planners and decision-makers
165 (Gentric and Langumier, 2009)). According to the Preliminary Flood Risk Assessment on the
166 Avignon Flood Risk Territory (TRI):

- 167
- 168 - the permanent population in flood-prone areas is about 400,000 people, or 67% of the
169 estimated total population of the TRI;
 - 170 - about 185,000 jobs are based in flood-prone areas, or 76.2% of the total jobs identified
171 within the TRI (Directive Inondations Bassin Rhône-Méditerranée, 2014).
- 172

173 In 2010, it was estimated that, in Avignon, 768 inhabitants and a maximum of 606 jobs
174 would be affected in the case of a frequent flooding scenario and 73,820 inhabitants for a
175 maximum of 72,198 jobs in the case of an extreme scenario (Fig.1). With large but rare floods
176 (the most recent major one was in 2003), Avignon's risk culture, prevention strategy and
177 resilience operationality are in doubt.

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Figure 1: Extreme Flood Scenario, Avignon Scale, inspired by © DREAL PACA (Heinzlef, 2019)

181 Thus, there is a crucial need for a spatial decision support system to integrate the concept
182 of resilience into practice. It has been set up in partnership with Avignon's urban and technical
183 service departments. Although the city already has communication and protection tools, the
184 concept of resilience is, as previously noted, hardly integrated into its systems. The main
185 objective of this project was therefore to address the theoretical and practical biases of
186 operationalizing resilience by co-constructing a decision support tool. Indeed, the PACA region
187 suffers each year from events related to river overflows. Each event raises the question of
188 territorial strategy with regard to events that are (or will be) increasingly intense and recurrent
189 according to the forecasts of the IPCC (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change). However,
190 local elected officials, managers and decision-makers are sometimes powerless on the strategies
191 of territories to be developed both in the short and long term. At the same time, development
192 operations are continuing in high-risk areas but without necessarily developing management
193 strategies. Given the regional context related to flood risk and land issues, it is urgent that local
194 decision-makers can therefore integrate resilience strategies into their territorial perspectives. The
195 tool developed in this study therefore aims to provide a basis for discussion on risk and resilience
196 issues.

197 The socio-economic partnership developed with the City of Avignon and its GIS services has
198 resulted in the exchange of data necessary for the study of the territory and daily support for the
199 development, integration and processing of geographical data. The City's interest in this work is
200 explained by its geographical location, at the confluence of the Rhône and the Durance rivers.
201 Most of this territory is subject to the influence of these two rivers and has already suffered from
202 numerous floods. The life of the community and urban developments is totally conditioned by
203 this critical environment. Being able to offer decision support tools to integrate urban resilience
204 has several advantages such as providing specific knowledge about the territory and participating
205 in the preparation and anticipation of the city of tomorrow.

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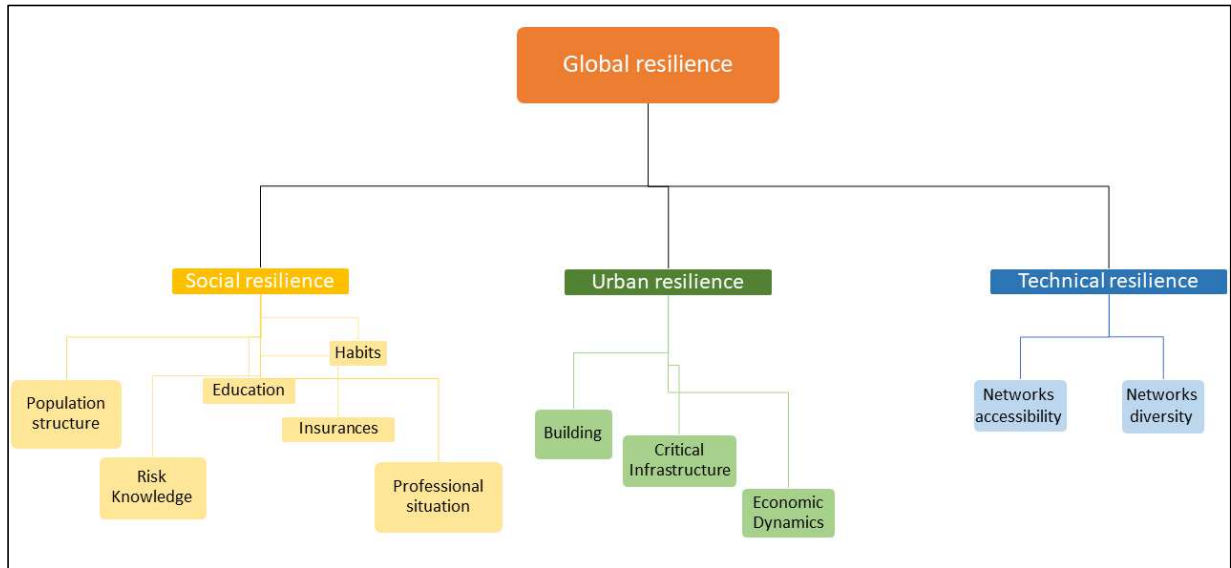
207 **2.1.2 A holistic approach to resilience**

208 In this approach, the idea is that urban resilience embodies the ability of a city and its
209 population to put measures in place before, during and after a disruptive event in order to limit its
210 negative impacts. This scientific approach makes it possible to analyze urban resilience as a
211 continuum, highlighting proactive capacities that the urban system must develop in order to

212 (re)act in response to the disaster, and thereby developing learning and anticipation skills. This
213 analysis also considers that resilience is intrinsic to the urban and human environment, and that a
214 shock is therefore not necessarily negative or even necessary to develop resilience capacities,
215 which may be pre-existing skills. Resilience factors can then be identified over a long period of
216 time, in order to study and develop the potential for resilience.

217 A decision support tool for integrating this notion into urban practices is extremely
218 innovative and useful for a flood-prone community. This collaborative project enriches
219 theoretical research work by integrating it into the social, urban, architectural, political and
220 economic needs of the community. It is therefore positioned on the border between the practical –
221 professional application – and theoretical research. Researchers and practitioners will increase
222 their understanding of urban risk in all “its dimensions of vulnerability, capacity, exposure of
223 persons and assets, hazard characteristics and the environment” (UN General Assembly, 2015),
224 as well as resilience capacities. In the last decade, methods based on indicators have been used in
225 the field of risk, specifically to measure the vulnerability of territories and populations at risk
226 (Cutter et al., 2008). A vulnerability indicator can be defined as a tool able to provide data about
227 a system’s susceptibility, fragility, vulnerability, adaptability and resilience (Birkmann, 2006). To
228 give concrete form to the notion of resilience on the territory, three indicators – urban, technical
229 and social resilience (Fig.2) – have therefore been cocreated thanks to this study conducted with
230 the Avignon GIS department to measure pre-existing resilience (Serre and Heinzlef, 2018). Co-
231 construction has been established around data exchange, the pooling of processing tools and the
232 sharing of information and knowledge.

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Figure 2: Resilience index built around three resilience indicators, social, technical and urban. Each indicator is divided into sub-variables to analyze the potential resilience of the territory.

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We used variables to study both inherent vulnerability and inherent resilience of a society and its territory (Serre and Heinzlef, 2018). These variables indicate a *potential* for resilience in order to revive a social, economic, urban, or systemic activity after a disruption (Heinzlef and al., 2019). The variables for each indicator were based on an analysis of the scientific literature in order to identify the different social (age of the population, level of education, knowledge of risk, etc.), urban (urban structure, economic dynamics, state of structures, etc.) and technical components of the territory. The scientific consensus that resilience is multidisciplinary led to the selection of data on social, economic, institutional, infrastructure and community factors (Cutter et al., 2008).

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Then, each variable was placed on a positive or negative resilience curve. This definition of the parameters corresponds to a unique form of deviation (Holand et al., 2011) for each variable, thus making it possible to vary the overall value of the resilience per indicator. In order to create a generic tool that can be used by different players, all the indicators were built using open-source national data (e.g., the Sirene database maintained by INSEE, France's National Institute of Statistics and Economic studies). The resiliency calculation for each variable and indicator was built using a Data Management Engine (ETL), the Feature Manipulation Engine, used by French cities' GIS departments. Maps and analyses were created on the QGIS platform. The spatial scale of analysis was local, given the desire to work with local stakeholders in order

256 to respond to their management problems in dealing with the risk of flooding. Thus, urban
257 projects at the neighborhood level were analyzed in terms of their contribution to the intrinsic
258 resilience of a larger area. Projects at this neighborhood or urban scale, which has not been much
259 explored, allow one to act directly on the territory, innovate, experiment and test new practices
260 directly with managers. As a result, the main scale of study chosen to assess urban resilience
261 must be as accurate as possible, namely at the IRIS scale (Regrouped Ilots for Statistical
262 Information). This scale is located between the 200 x 200 m grid (INSEE) and the District
263 Council level. Each computation is therefore multiscale but also multitemporal. Indeed,
264 resilience to risks must be conceived of according to a multitemporal paradigm: stakeholders
265 need to act before the crisis, or anticipate (urban planning), and to recover from the event
266 afterward (rebuild, restore an activity, adapt) (Barroca et al., 2013).

267 Preliminary results, based on the social and urban resilience indicator, make it possible to analyze
268 Avignon's social structure according to the capacity of the various populations and urban
269 structures to support and recover from an event. Because each indicator (urban, technical and
270 social) is independent of the others, politicians and managers find it easier to work on variables
271 with low levels of resilience and identify areas to be redeveloped and/or reintegrated in urban
272 dynamism. The impact of this study has been at several levels. Firstly, the concept itself has been
273 clarified through the definition and co-construction of indicators with local actors. This made it
274 possible to associate scientific advances in the field with the legacy of local risk management. In
275 addition, the mapping, at a sufficiently fine scale, of resilience according to the different
276 indicators has made it possible to develop a better knowledge of the territory. What was the
277 intrinsic vulnerability of the territory of Avignon, according to social, technical and urban
278 criteria, and on what spatial scale? The construction of a new database (quantitative and
279 qualitative) has made it possible to develop an anchor point in the evaluation of the territory's
280 resilience capacities but also to provide a focus for debate for potential future urban projects. The
281 results are more visible in the medium and long term and are more reflexive than economic. The
282 idea is to develop a regular evaluation every 2-3 years to understand the use of this tool and
283 assess its impact on local planning and investment decisions.

284 **2.2 Canadian spatial decision support system for organizational resilience**

285 **2.2.1 Climate and risk issues in the province of Quebec**

286 In the past few decades, Quebec's climate has changed significantly. Average daily
287 temperatures in southern Quebec have increased by from 0.2°C to 0.4°C per decade (Québec
288 (Province) and Ministère du développement durable, 2013). In winter, by 2050, average
289 temperatures are predicted to increase by 2.5°C to 3.8°C in southern Quebec and 4.5°C to 6.5°C
290 in the north. In summer, average temperatures are expected to increase between 1.9°C and 3.0°C
291 in the south and between 1.6°C and 2.8°C in the north.

292 It is accepted that the impacts of temperature changes under the 1.5°C, 2°C and 4°C
293 global warming scenarios will lead to more frequent flood events. In fact, floods are projected to
294 increase on all continents under all considered warming levels, leading to a widespread rise in the
295 flood hazard (IPCC, 2018). Climate change will result in more frequent and more intense extreme
296 weather events (winter storms, high winds, heavy rains, etc.). These events may well lead to
297 various natural hazards such as floods, erosion, etc. Expected increases in the duration, frequency
298 and intensity of rainfall will have a significant impact on the frequency of sewer overflows and
299 their indirect effects (backflows, overflows in the natural environment, flooding of urban areas)
300 and on erosion caused by water runoff. These phenomena also pose a risk to municipal urban
301 drainage infrastructure and drinking water intakes. The Quebec floods in 2017 were a harsh
302 reminder of the reality of this risk (Commission de l'Aménagement, 2017; Ministère de la
303 Sécurité publique Québec, 2017). From late February to June 2, 2017, floods occurred in 15
304 administrative regions, affecting an unprecedented total of 291 municipalities. These proven and
305 expected climate changes have prompted managers and scientists to address the challenges of
306 operationalizing resilience (Borie et al., 2019).

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308 **2.2.2 An organizational resilience approach**

309 Crises are becoming increasingly complex, largely due to the many interdependencies
310 between critical systems and their infrastructures in urban societies. A mode of operation that
311 promotes interorganizational collaboration is much more effective than a "silo" model, especially
312 when key relationships are established before the crisis itself. But few known partnerships have
313 made it possible to develop operational mechanisms for preventive mobilization related to

314 intersectoral interdependencies and the prevention of domino effects (Robert and Morabito,
315 2009). Identifying resilience as an objective to achieve is beneficial, but the manager of an
316 organization still has to implement this objective on a daily basis. The first task is to assess the
317 organization's resilience potential based on the flexibility the manager has to make internal
318 decisions. Various approaches exist to characterize and assess this resilience, but they fail to
319 capture the full specificity of an organization (resilience engineering, ecosystem resilience,
320 community resilience). In an organizational context, the objectives are always essentially the
321 same:

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- 323 - ensure acceptable operation;
- 324 - adapt to different changes in the environment, both internal and external;
- 325 - restore operations in the event of an interruption.

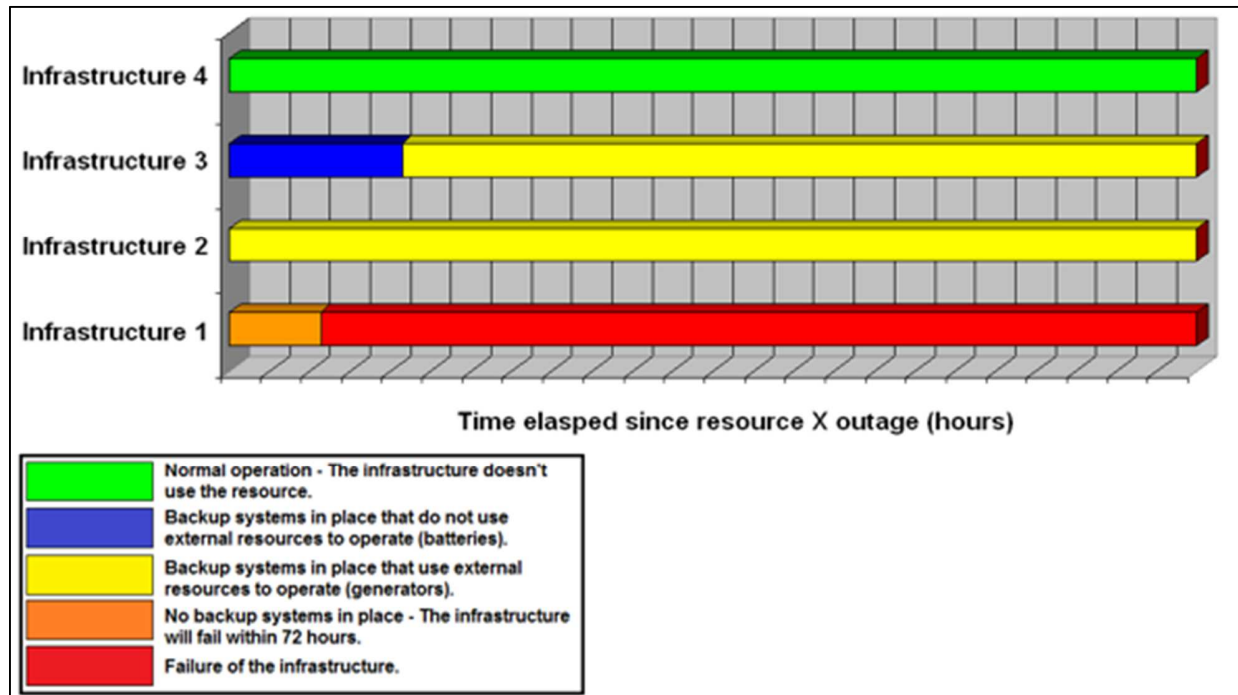
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327 The operationalization of these objectives requires the integration of emergency measures
328 and business continuity plans by both private and public organizations. It is then possible to
329 assess an organization's ability to manage disruptions and thus measure its potential for
330 resilience. In Quebec, the *Centre Risque & Performance* (CRP) at *Polytechnique Montréal*, in
331 conjunction with the Ministère de la Sécurité publique, has defined resilience as “the ability of a
332 system to maintain or restore an acceptable level of operation despite disruptions or failures”
333 (Robert et al., 2008). In partnership with more than 15 ministries and key networks, indicators
334 have been developed to assess an organization's potential for resilience, paving the way for
335 diagnoses and recommendations for action to strengthen this potential. The concept of resilience
336 is perceived as being rather theoretical and complex. Given that the assessment of resilience must
337 become an important decision-making tool for organizations, it is therefore crucial to integrate it
338 into their culture, even though the transition from theory to practice is difficult. The first way to
339 act concretely in an organization to operationalize all these concepts and make it more resilient is
340 to integrate the notion “Accept – Anticipate – Plan” (Robert et al., 2017). The cement that binds
341 these concepts and builds the system's resilience is the continuous evaluation of the coherence
342 between all elements of knowledge, anticipation mechanisms and planning rules within the
343 system, as well as its coherence with its environment.

344 The capacity of CIs to function despite disruptions is the core of community resilience.
345 Modern societies depend more and more on essential resources (telecommunications, energy,
346 drinking water, etc.); organizational management is increasingly based on lean and just-in-time
347 principles; and the service sector (financial transactions, postal services, information networks,
348 social media, etc.) relies increasingly on immediate access to remote information. In parallel with
349 this growth in needs, CIs are subject to new risks associated with major changes in their
350 environment (climate change, technological change, social change, etc.), which require them to
351 be very adaptable. In addition to society's dependency on the resources provided by CIs, we must
352 consider the complexity of these infrastructures' functioning and the many interdependencies
353 between them. The result is that all the conditions are in place to ensure that any disaster may
354 assume unsuspected proportions, with consequences that directly affect communities' health,
355 safety and socioeconomic activities.

356 Thus, when a disaster occurs, community resilience depends greatly on the resilience of
357 these organizations, that is to say, their ability to maintain a certain acceptable level of service
358 and, especially, to restore it as quickly as possible. Knowledge of the issues facing each
359 stakeholder is key to ensuring resilience. Such knowledge makes it possible to understand the
360 various issues based on different possible levels of acceptance and anticipation of the
361 consequences, but also on the variability of the numerous planning and crisis management tools.
362 To meet this knowledge sharing challenge, it is necessary to implement a collaborative
363 mechanism (Robert et al., 2008). The guidance of this collaborative mechanism is rooted in a
364 consequence-based risk management approach. Unlike traditional risk management approaches
365 (which start with a triggering event), this approach focuses on the consequences associated with
366 the failure of an infrastructure, and not with the causes of that failure. This makes it possible to
367 conduct all the necessary analyses of the dependencies among CIs. The results are shared in the
368 form of dependency curves (Fig.3) that use a color code to indicate the various organizations'
369 dependency on the resources they use (changes in the state of the system based on the duration of
370 outages). These curves provide results that are more concrete, realistic and reliable and that better
371 meet organizations' real needs; consequently, organizations are more likely to accept them and
372 take ownership of the results faster (Robert et al., 2015). The knowledge related to these curves
373 enables CI managers to determine acceptability thresholds for certain durations of possible
374 failures, anticipate the consequences for other CIs, and integrate these parameters into their

375 measurement tools (emergency measures, business continuity and asset protection plans).
 376 Although the resilience parameters of these independent organizations exist, the concept of
 377 capacity means that the coherence of these parameters throughout a community's territory must
 378 be assessed dynamically.
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 381 *Figure 3: Some example of infrastructure dependency types to external resources to operation abilities.*

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 383 **2.3 Comparative analysis of the holistic and organizational resilience approaches**

384 This work on defining the issues and characteristics of resilience has made it possible to
 385 develop two approaches intended to clarify a concept that is still very abstract for urban
 386 managers. Both the organizational approach focused on the vulnerability of CIs in a context of
 387 climate change and the holistic approach based on urban, technical and social resilience tested in
 388 Avignon have made it possible to reconsider the practical integration of resilience into risk
 389 management strategies. Because they clarify the concept and define its challenges and
 390 characteristics, these tools are essential to the work of appropriating and building resilience
 391 strategies. While they are the first step toward these resilience strategies, there is a limit to their
 392 use by local managers and elected officials.

393 The tool developed with the organizational approach allows CI managers to understand
394 the evolution of a situation likely to generate domino effects. Its primary role is therefore to
395 identify CIs and areas potentially impacted by these domino effects. The information provided by
396 this tool allows organizations to make better and faster decisions. This makes it possible to
397 increase the capacity for collective response by promoting coherence among all the stakeholders'
398 actions. Although essential and innovative in its modeling and information approach, this tool
399 examines only the resilience of CIs, which greatly limits the analysis of the resilience of the
400 urban territory and its population. In addition, certain technical limitations make this tool more
401 difficult for managers to use and adapt. Several technical challenges remain to be addressed,
402 including the automation of certain tasks and the interface and the integration of new options for
403 considering natural hazards and industrial risks. Other challenges are organizational. For
404 example, it will be necessary to determine who should have access to this system and who will be
405 responsible for managing and updating it. It is also necessary to define interorganizational
406 communication mechanisms and adopt a structure that allows 24/7 access to the system. The
407 system should be hosted by a monitoring organization with an existing foundation such as a
408 government monitoring center. On the other hand, the partner networks require the system
409 manager to be neutral so that the tool and the data that feed it are not used for any purpose other
410 than emergency management.

411 The holistic approach attempts to address the challenges of a systemic approach to
412 resilience by assessing it from an urban, technical and social perspective. The collaboration with
413 the GIS departments of the city of Avignon attempted to address the limitations affecting
414 appropriation and operationalization of urban resilience in risk management strategies. Although
415 this collaboration has provided some interesting results, and more are anticipated, the question of
416 the autonomy of urban managers may ultimately arise at the end of the project. How and to what
417 extent will this tool be used in risk management practices once the study itself is completed?

418 This is why, on the basis of these interesting and innovative tools, we propose an
419 approach built *a posteriori* to understand managers' habits and functioning, in order to better
420 understand their needs. This collaborative, participatory approach aims to enrich both approaches
421 and adapt them to the needs of managers, so that resilience strategies for risk management can be
422 developed.

423

424 **3 Improving Canadian and French spatial decision support systems with collaborative**
425 **workshops**

426 In order to diversify the approaches and, above all, to take stock of the results of the
427 implementation of resilience in practice, we decided to organize participatory workshops to
428 understand and test the appropriation of these two different tools and approaches by urban, CI
429 and risk managers, with a view to adapting our scientific approaches and improving the
430 construction of these tools so they become easier to integrate into resilience strategies and
431 policies.

432

433 **3.1 Objectives**

434 As part of a scientific analysis and a joint exercise between two regions – the province of
435 Quebec (Canada) and the city of Avignon (France) – we decided to analyze flood risk
436 management systems. These strategies, designed by the various actors and managers of a
437 community, are intended to contribute to a territory’s resilience.

438 We have therefore sought to understand how these strategies are constructed and, above
439 all, shared by the various stakeholders in the territory. The objective was to analyze the different
440 actions envisaged by the participants in each organization according to the various plans at their
441 disposal and then to analyze the coherence of these planned and unplanned actions.

442 Indeed, collaboration mainly involves the various stakeholders buying in to common
443 goals. Collaboration therefore goes beyond the simple exchange of knowledge and information
444 but allows stakeholders to “create a shared vision and articulated strategies to bring out common
445 interests that go beyond the boundaries of each particular project” (Chrislip, 2002). However, it
446 would be beneficial to build this shared vision and commitment around the concept of resilience,
447 an approach that would also allow a transition in how cities are designed, and risks understood in
448 urban environments. We therefore propose to develop strategies to integrate resilience so that
449 they can be co-constructed with municipal stakeholders, both so that they invest directly in the
450 process and so that they apply this strategy before and during a crisis (Serre et al., 2013).

451

452 **3.2 Comparative approaches in the city of Avignon and in two Quebec RCMs**

453 **3.2.1 Avignon, France**

454 The first workshop was held in Avignon (Vaucluse, France), the territory on which a
455 decision support tool is being built to integrate “holistic” resilience into flood risk management
456 approaches. The objectives of the workshop were very clear. The research team wanted to
457 identify and address several issues such as the appropriation of the concept by managers and the
458 operationalization of the concept in order to make it sufficiently interesting and useful for users.
459 To meet these objectives, it was necessary to define expectations, objectives and issues and to
460 identify the various stakeholders’ capacities for individual and joint action and consider their
461 long-term risk management strategies (Tab.1).

462

Type of actors/ Services	Attending stakeholders
Urban Managers	VEOLIA (Water management) GRDF (Gas network) ENEDIS (Electricity network)
City of Avignon (Avignon Scale)	Art and Hydraulic Dams Dyke Management Traffic lights GIS service
Agglomeration scale	Management of Aquatic Environments
Academics	University of Avignon Montreal Polytechnic

463 *Table 1: Avignon's workshop stakeholders*

464

465 In particular, we sought to analyze flood risk management systems. These strategies,
466 designed by the various actors and managers in a community, are supposed to contribute to its
467 resilience. It was therefore necessary to understand how these strategies are constructed and
468 shared by stakeholders and to analyze their coherence.

469 To prepare for this technical workshop, we created a preparatory questionnaire to initiate
470 an initial reflection process on flood risk management by CI managers and municipalities. The

471 purpose of this form was to stimulate discussion between the various actors on the following
472 points:

473

474 1. The issues at stake in the Avignon area;

475 2. The CIs concerned;

476 3. The vulnerability of CIs.

477

478 During the discussions among stakeholders, several topics that were associated with
479 tension and limits were highlighted. Firstly, the “long-term” horizon, set at 2030 by the urban
480 managers and city officials, is already obsolete. At a minimum, management plans should posit a
481 2050 horizon. Then, communication between the different decision-making levels is very
482 difficult: for example, the prefecture has a list of CIs, but the municipal government is not aware
483 of them. Another limit is the valve-based flood protection system, which is almost entirely
484 dependent on the power grid; only two valves are manual. In the event of a power failure due to
485 flooding, the valves cannot be operated. The system of manual cofferdams and gates depends on
486 the number of people on duty when a flood strikes (accessibility of flooded areas, availability of
487 workers, etc.). The natural gas distribution system is dependent on human assistance when it is
488 recommissioned. Indeed, the need to deal with each customer individually lengthens the
489 restoration of the electricity system, slowing down other services. The electricity system does not
490 seem to have planned any preventive actions to avoid the impact of a flood on the network (no
491 early shutdown is envisaged). The water and waste management company’s systems do not seem
492 to consider the amount of human and other waste produced by a flood and has no management
493 system. This waste, in addition to blocking streets and thus limiting accessibility to certain areas,
494 can cause disease. Finally, the hospital is a source of tension. It is accessible only by a single
495 dead-end road. How is such a building to be evacuated or kept running? In addition, the hospital,
496 located right in a flood-prone area, only has emergency generators if the power system should
497 become unusable. Therefore, the question arises as to these plan B systems’ capacity for use (are
498 operations possible?) and duration (a few days, a week?).

499 Despite these limitations, which stakeholders mentioned in their speeches, while the
500 academics in charge of building a decision-making tool to integrate resilience into urban practices
501 were present, urban managers and decision-makers remained essentially focused on their

502 achievements related to the experience or legacy of risk management in the Avignon area rather
503 than moving forward toward collaboration between academics and territorial players. There is a
504 clear lack of communication, cohesion and collaboration, which is all the more striking as the
505 University of Avignon and the city are partners in numerous research projects to overcome the
506 lack of tools and plans and the increased uncertainties related to flood risk in a context of climate
507 change and urban population growth.

508 Thus, despite the joint research projects and the creation of a decision support tool to
509 inform managers about holistic resilience, the workshop further demonstrated the limits of such
510 collaborations and especially the current lack of autonomous appropriation of the resilience tool,
511 or even the concept.

512

513 **3.2.2 Quebec, Canada**

514 Two exercises were carried out in Quebec concerning a more general problem related to
515 water, namely risks to the drinking water supply. This problem is interesting at many levels. In
516 the short term, it makes it possible to investigate the level of preparedness and emergency
517 measures. In the long term, combined with climate change, it shows the importance of
518 implementing measures to protect this resource (Janke et al., 2014). The long-term view also
519 highlights the importance of considering future uses in relation to current decisions.

520 The exercises were done in the course of a research project on the vulnerability and
521 resilience of regional territories' CIs in a context of climate change. The project is being executed
522 in two regional county municipalities (RCMs, or groups of municipalities) in the province of
523 Quebec. Case studies were done in each RCM. The goal is to better understand the challenges
524 related to communities' resilience in connection with their dependency on the various CIs that
525 exist on their territory.

526 These case studies made it possible bring together close to 30 participants, from numerous
527 essentially public organizations (Tab.2) in each RCM. To orient these case studies, all
528 participants were asked to do some preliminary work to identify the first management measures
529 they would apply in case of a shortage of drinking water. Ideally, these measures should be
530 supported by emergency measures, business continuity and asset protection plans. In a plenary
531 session, these actions were presented and discussed in order to identify possible disparities
532 among these decisions but also, and most importantly, to identify the relevant organizational

533 interdependencies. An assessment was done of the possible integration of concepts related to
 534 climate change in decision-making.

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Type of actors/ Services	Attending stakeholders
Urban Managers	General manager Fire department Public work department Water management Wastewater management Infrastructure management General administration
RCM	General manager's GIS expert
Government	Ministère de la Sécurité publique du Québec Ministère de l'Environnement et Lutte contre les changements climatiques Ministère des Affaires municipales et Habitation
Academics	Montreal Polytechnic The University of Public Administration
Experts	OURANOS consortium

544 *Table 2: Quebec's workshop stakeholders*

545 In terms of results, there was no disparity in the analyses carried out in the two RCMs,
 546 despite the differences in the occupation of the territory and socioeconomic issues. Several
 547 findings emerged regarding the analysis of the resilience of the communities on these territories
 548 in the face of CIs. The concept of knowledge immediately became salient. Many stakeholders did
 549 not have adequate knowledge of the concept of CI, even when their own organization was
 550 considered to be one. All decisions were made in a single-organization context, without
 551 considering possible dependencies on other CIs. The corollary is that crisis management planning
 552 tools do not take account of these dependencies, given that they are not widely known. Finally,

553 most planning tools are centered on management based on the security of the population over a
554 period of several days, but there is practically no consideration of the socioeconomic
555 consequences for the territory over a longer period.

556

557 **4 How do collaborative workshops improve risk management perspectives in France and** 558 **Canada?**

559 **4.1 Advantages and disadvantages of collaborative workshops**

560 The results of the workshops are mixed. A significant lack of coordination and cohesion
561 between stakeholders was highlighted. Both for tools meant to integrate organizational resilience
562 into the various stakeholders' operations in the territory and for tools codesigned with the players
563 in the territory to increase holistic resilience, the gap between the scientific approach and
564 managers' appropriation of the concept is still a large one.

565 Some advice and suggestions can already be made to improve cohesion between players
566 facing a common risk. In the case of Avignon, risk management measures should be put in place
567 that consider specific time frames. For instance, it is necessary to measure the duration of CI
568 autonomy. For instance, can the hospital generators' autonomy be measured in hours, days or
569 weeks? Particular attention should be paid to how to initiate joint discussions of business
570 continuity plans. What if electricity is not available for more than a week? Which spatial areas
571 will be impacted? And what part of the population will be most vulnerable? The most important
572 weakness that will have consequences in the short, medium and long term remains the lack of
573 coordination, cohesion and communication among the various stakeholders, departments and
574 managers. Efforts must therefore focus first and foremost on this point. With this in mind, the
575 academic team that worked on the Avignon decision support tool to increase resilience took
576 several actions to contribute to improving this weakness. In order to achieve a global, co-
577 constructed vision, the academic team sought to feed this collaboration – first of all by bringing
578 together local players and students to discuss the flood risk and planning. This kind of association
579 allows students to be involved in projects on the territory where they live and gives them a
580 chance to put their theoretical learning into perspective based on the realities on the ground. The
581 idea is to make this collaboration a long-term one in order to allow different points of view to
582 come into contact, to track changes in the territory and its policies, as well as the theoretical
583 advances that the students represent. In addition, following the discussions at the workshop,

584 certain city departments (mobility, waterworks, etc.) specifically asked to work together with
585 local stakeholders and researchers on the challenges of increased flooding, development and
586 resilience. This extremely positive result shows the growing need for territories to acquire
587 strategies and tools to operationalize urban resilience, but also demonstrates the feasibility and
588 usefulness of this type of approach.

589 Regarding follow-up after the workshop held in Quebec, ongoing work has been
590 arranged. Individual and/or subgroup meetings are in progress in the coming months to clearly
591 identify the issues and create a portrait of the situation. The number and diversity of the actors
592 involved also explain the need to work in subgroups in order to develop trusting discourse and
593 address the issues subject to debate in more depth; this is impossible if stakeholders cannot or do
594 not feel free to express themselves, particularly because of tensions between organizations.

595 The French study is being continued by means of weekly meetings with the city service
596 departments in order to work jointly on a short- and long-term strategy to integrate resilience into
597 communal services and vulnerable populations (particularly by means of interventions with
598 schools in flood zones). The concrete outcome of this collaboration process will be the
599 construction of an official operational document, as well as some scientific work (participation in
600 joint presentations). The aim is to develop a “toolbox” that managers can use to work through the
601 various time frames of flood risk, in order to be proactive in dealing with growing uncertainty.
602 This toolbox includes the mapping tool but expands the approach with a more general reflection
603 process intended to determine the premises for a resilience observatory, for which the test
604 territory would be Avignon; this observatory would be the outcome of a scientific analysis and
605 managers’ practice and experience on the territory.

606 The findings of the two Canadian workshops echo those of a previous workshop held on
607 the city of Montreal. Planning (emergency measures, business continuity, asset protection) exists
608 but it is not uniform. The levels of acceptance of the consequences and failures are not uniform
609 either. The anticipation thresholds of failures and alert levels are highly variable. On the other
610 hand, the stakeholders agreed that knowledge of CIs and organizations’ dependency on those CIs
611 is the core of resilience. To improve the capacity to manage disruptions, it is important to be
612 familiar with the territory and the CIs that exist on it. This knowledge can then be integrated into
613 numerous planning tools and exercises.

614 To reach this conclusion, it is important to properly characterize the territory in terms of
615 CIs. More operational exercises regarding the real-life capacity to manage disruptions must be
616 done. The act of working on a case of a shortage of drinking water – a situation that changes over
617 time and quickly affects the population, as well as industrial activity – highlighted the need to
618 link CI failures to their economic consequences.

619 From the point of view of following up on these workshops and developing a strategy in
620 accordance with managers' needs, the Canadian research work continued with the definition and
621 mapping of CIs on the test territories, with the managers' agreement. To identify and characterize
622 CIs on the RCMs' territories, the concept of key elements was used. An element deemed to be
623 key is one on which a CI manager's or owner's management, operating, exploitation and control
624 activities depends. If this element becomes unavailable, the operation or management of the CI
625 will be disrupted or interrupted. For each CI for which the key elements have been identified on
626 the territory, all the stakeholders must establish an overall level of consequences on the territory
627 in the event of a service interruption. The assessment of these consequences must incorporate a
628 temporal parameter that assigns an order of magnitude to their appearance.

629 For this reason, each key element that is mapped is linked to a CI for which the
630 consequences on the territory were evaluated by consensus. This knowledge, which is the heart of
631 resilience, will directly enable the many organizations involved to enhance their ability to
632 manage disruptions related to CIs. This knowledge must be integrated into:

633

- 634 • The creation of climate risk maps;
- 635 • The management of short- and medium-term climate risks;
- 636 • The management and development of the territory;
- 637 • The updating of municipal and regional emergency measures plans;
- 638 • The updating of business continuity plans;
- 639 • Etc.

640

641 Although the results of the first workshops have revealed the gap between scientific
642 progress and its appropriation by managers, the continuation of these discussions, particularly by
643 backtracking to engage in primarily informative work (definition, location and mapping) on CIs,
644 has made it possible to keep the discussions active, ask further questions about the status of

645 territorial knowledge related to risk, and advance together to creating a knowledge base and a
646 tool based on managers' and urban decision-makers' practices.

647

648 **4.2 Potential for spatial decision support systems use and appropriation**

649 The creation of and reflection on these tools highlighted the challenges of
650 operationalizing resilience. Although these tools have advanced the understanding, definition and
651 appropriation of the concept of resilience, its operationalization by urban managers so far has
652 been limited, to say the least. This limitation was explained in particular by the lack of support
653 and autonomy in the use of these tools, which received very limited practical use by managers.
654 The workshops highlighted the advances but also the technical and theoretical limitations of these
655 tools (general lack of knowledge of tools, too specific technicality of the tools, inadequacy of the
656 tools in the face of local risk management knowledge and practices, partial misunderstanding of
657 the vocabulary used; etc.). This reflection and collaboration process has made it possible to
658 restart the debate on the concept of resilience, its definition, and the criteria for integration into
659 risk strategies. Integrating the points of view, experiences and subtle reflections of the different
660 actors involved in risk management (both managers and citizens) leads to a profound questioning
661 of these tools and their adoption by local stakeholders.

662 Therefore, a paradigm shift must take place in order to integrate stakeholders. Although
663 this transition may seem insurmountable to some people and unproductive to others, it has
664 nevertheless been proven that the construction of a base of knowledge common to experts and lay
665 people makes it possible to reduce complexity, take each party's interests into account, and
666 encourage the acceptance and appropriation of solutions (Toubin, 2014). Thus, despite the
667 necessary efforts to build this trust, collaboration and common dialogue, the result is better
668 integration and acceptance of the work of the experts. In addition, since these subjects, such as
669 environmental issues, urban risks and climate change, affect and involve all stakeholders,
670 integrating them not only makes it possible to address new points of view and approaches but
671 also to build knowledge equity. Thus, the integration of the various players has a doubly positive
672 impact: it makes it possible to meet the objectives of an urban project by improving the proposals
673 but is also an objective in itself by respecting the wishes underlying the consultation process.

674 Managers need to be flexible so they can adapt and negotiate so they can convince
675 (Joerin, 1997). In that way, right from the outset of a project, they can formalize a vision and

676 ensure knowledge co-construction among the different actors. As a result, the outcome will be
677 more legitimate and relevant. Thus, through dialogue, compromise and individual awareness,
678 environmental strategies and adaptation strategies in response to risks will have a greater chance
679 of having a real positive impact on a territory and its population.

680 Briefly, the operationalization of resilience necessarily requires the involvement of
681 multiple actors in order to propose coherent urban planning and adaptation strategies that will
682 best respond to the threat of increasing risks in urban areas.

683

684 **5 Conclusion**

685 In a context of climate change, with the increasing frequency and intensity of natural
686 disasters, resilience emerged in the 2000s as an innovative concept in risk management. As an
687 innovative concept – at the political, urban, architectural and social levels – resilience has
688 struggled to respond to the challenges of growing climate uncertainties and to urban managers’
689 questions. While strategies now exist to attempt to address the biases of this concept by working
690 on its operationalization – notably through the creation of simulation (Robert et al., 2017) and
691 measurement tools (Serre and Heinzlef, 2018) – the appropriation of the concept of resilience and
692 its translation into risk management strategies are still very limited. This is why, after working on
693 tools to define and operationalize the concept, we focused on the need to work through
694 collaborative approaches with urban managers and decision-makers to address climate change
695 issues, climate and urban uncertainties, and resilience strategies.

696 This paper emphasizes the difficulty of operationalizing resilience. It presents two
697 approaches that are intended to be innovative, both in their theoretical underpinnings
698 (organizational approach and holistic approach) and in their implementation (collaboration with
699 local actors). Nevertheless, the results of workshops to determine whether flood risk management
700 strategies and systems integrate resilience are extremely mixed. Although the concept itself is
701 known and mentioned in official and individual speeches, its operationalization and integration
702 into objectives, actions, strategies in the short, medium and long term, has barely begun.

703 Nevertheless, setting up these workshops enabled us to make tangible progress toward
704 improving resilience tools. While they are generally known in scientific circles, their
705 appropriation by managers is not yet fully effective. Although the results in themselves are
706 mixed, they have made it possible to build a common approach over the long term.

707 These workshops allowed academic conceptions and practical realities to come face to
708 face in dealing with the issue of resilience and climate change. Awareness of the limits that still
709 persist today will allow communities to deepen their understanding of the challenges involved in
710 integrating the concept of resilience into their urban practices. In that way, they may be able to
711 face climate uncertainties and also to address some of the issues observed during these
712 exchanges. As a result, these decision support tools may become as relevant as possible in
713 dealing with practical realities and the concerns and practices of stakeholders. Ultimately, they
714 may help to build a bridge between scientific advances and the real-world experiences of urban
715 managers.

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