



1 **Development of an integrated socio-hydrological modeling framework**
2 **for assessing the impacts of shelter location arrangement and human**
3 **behaviors on flood evacuation processes**

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13

14 **Abstract**

15 In many flood-prone areas, it is essential for emergency responders to use advanced
16 computer models to assess flood risk and develop informed flood evacuation plans.
17 However, previous studies have limited understanding of how evacuation performances
18 are affected by the arrangement of evacuation shelters regarding their number and
19 geographical distribution and human behaviors regarding the heterogeneity of household
20 evacuation preparation times and route searching strategies. In this study, we develop an
21 integrated socio-hydrological modeling framework that couples (1) a hydrodynamic model



22 for flood simulation, (2) an agent-based model for evacuation management policies and
23 human behaviors, and (3) a transportation model for simulating household evacuation
24 processes in a road network. We apply the model to the Xiong'an New Area and examine
25 household evacuation outcomes under various shelter location plans and human behavior
26 scenarios. The results show that household evacuation processes are significantly affected
27 by the number and geographical distribution of evacuation shelters. Surprisingly, we find
28 that establishing more shelters may not improve evacuation results if the shelters are not
29 strategically located. We also find that low heterogeneity in evacuation preparation times
30 can result in heavy traffic congestion and long evacuation clearance times. If each
31 household selects their own shortest route without considering the effects of other evacuees'
32 route choices, traffic congestions will likely to occur, thereby reducing system-level
33 evacuation performance. These results demonstrate the unique functionality of our model
34 to support flood risk assessment and to advance our understanding of how the multiple
35 management and behavioral factors jointly affect evacuation performances.

36 **Keywords:**

37 Socio-hydrology; Flood management; Agent-based model; Emergency evacuation; Shelter
38 allocation

39

40 **1. Introduction**

41 Flooding is one of the most devastating natural disasters and can lead to significant
42 numbers of fatalities, social and economic disruptions, property and infrastructure damage,
43 and environmental degradation around the world (Smith and Matthews, 2015; McClymont



44 et al., 2020; Brunner et al., 2020; Tanoue et al., 2016; Kreibich et al., 2014; Wang et al.,
45 2019). The global flood database shows that the global flood inundation land area is
46 approximately 2.23 million km², with 255~290 million people being directly affected by
47 floods (Tellman et al., 2021). Flood-related economic damage increased globally from \$94
48 billion in the 1980s to more than \$1 trillion U.S. dollars in the 2010s (Hino and Nance,
49 2021). Furthermore, the severity, duration and frequency of damaging floods are expected
50 to continue to increase in the future due to changes in climate, land use and infrastructure
51 (Jongman et al., 2012; Moulds et al., 2021; Wedawatta and Ingirige, 2012; Tellman et al.,
52 2021). In many areas facing increasing flood threats, it is essential for emergency
53 responders and decision-makers to use advanced computer models to assess the flood risk
54 in flood-prone areas and to establish effective disaster-mitigation plans for informed flood
55 management (Simonovic and Ahmad, 2005).

56 Before an extreme flood occurs, evacuation is a critical emergency preparedness measure
57 and a common practice because it is impractical and/or economically costly to construct
58 the necessary infrastructure to resist floods (Wang et al., 2016; Liu and Lim, 2016; Islam
59 et al., 2020; Kreibich et al., 2015). However, studies have shown that emergency
60 evacuation is a complex and dynamic process that can be affected by factors from a wide
61 range of interdisciplinary domains (Zhuo and Han, 2020; Hasan et al., 2011; Huang et al.,
62 2012; Chen et al., 2021; Sung et al., 2018). These factors include, but are not limited to, (1)
63 the accuracy, lead time and sources of flood early warnings and the broadcasting channels
64 through which flood information is disseminated to the affected population (Shi et al., 2020;
65 Verkade and Werner, 2011; Alonso Vicario et al., 2020; Palen et al., 2010; Nester et al.,
66 2012; Goodarzi et al., 2019), (2) the infrastructure and engineering facilities needed for



67 emergency evacuation, which are influenced by the accessibility of transportation networks,
68 road capacity and location of evacuation zones (Mostafizi et al., 2017; Chen and Zhan,
69 2008; Saadi et al., 2018; Mostafizi et al., 2019; Koch et al., 2020; Oh et al., 2021; Liu and
70 Lim, 2016), and (3) demographical attributes and household behavioral characteristics,
71 such as residents' belief and risk perception, previous knowledge, social networks, and past
72 experience with flood events (Hofflinger et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2017; Lindell et al.,
73 2020; Wang and Jia, 2021; Shahabi and Wilson, 2014; Du et al., 2017). These studies
74 highlight the need to develop comprehensive socio-hydrological modeling tools that can
75 adequately incorporate various factors and processes to support flood management plans
76 in the context of coupled flood-human systems.

77 Among the many emergency management policies and plans, shelter location arrangement
78 is essential for massive evacuation operations. City planners and policy makers need to
79 identify safe areas outside of flood inundation region as feasible shelter locations for
80 households who live in the at-risk areas. There have been some studies that explored the
81 criteria of shelter location arrangement for evacuation planning (Alçada-Almeida et al.,
82 2009; Nappi and Souza, 2015; Bayram et al., 2015; Li et al., 2012; Alam et al., 2021). For
83 instance, Bayram et al. (2015) developed an optimization model to allocate evacuation sites
84 and assign each evacuee to the nearest shelter, with the objective of minimizing the total
85 evacuation time. However, in this study each evacuee's travel time is estimated based on a
86 simple traffic volume-travel time function, which is not able to fully represent evacuees'
87 complex interactions in a road network. Liu and Lim (2016) applied spatial analysis
88 methods to assign shelters to evacuating households, considering the spatial relationships
89 between households and shelter sites. A limitation of this study is that evacuee's travel time



90 is obtained from a simplified traffic model and the road network is not well represented in
91 the network analysis. In a recent study, [Alam et al. \(2021\)](#) used a massive traffic simulation
92 model and a multiple criteria evaluation method to identify candidate evacuation shelters,
93 taking into account of environmental conditions, structural attributes, emergency services
94 and transportation aspects. However, this study focused on obtaining a suitability score for
95 each candidate shelter site with various weighting factors, and failed to examine to what
96 extent evacuation performance could be affected by the number of shelters and their
97 geographical distribution in the community. Nevertheless, the current studies have left a
98 research gap that warrant research efforts to use physically-based flood simulation models
99 to identify safe areas as feasible shelter locations, and more importantly, to use
100 transportation models to systematically evaluate how evacuation performances could be
101 affected by the number and geographical distribution of evacuation shelter locations. This
102 is the primary research question we seek to explore in this study.

103 The second research question to be explored in this study is associated with the role played
104 by human behaviors in evacuation processes, which is an important research direction in
105 disaster management ([Aerts et al., 2018](#); [Simonovic and Ahmad, 2005](#); [Urata and Pel,
106 2018](#)). After receiving flood evacuation warnings, households will make decisions based
107 on flood risk information, spend some time to complete a set of preparation tasks, and then
108 evacuate from their homes to safe areas. Among these decisions and behaviors, households'
109 evacuation preparation times (i.e., from the time when they receive flood evacuation orders
110 to the time when they start to evacuate on road) play an important role in evacuation
111 performances. Many empirical studies have examined the geographic, demographical and
112 behavioral factors that affect households' preparation times ([Lindell et al., 2005, 2020](#);



113 [Huang et al., 2012, 2017; Chen et al., 2021](#)). They found that household evacuation
114 preparation times could vary significantly from a household to another, exhibiting a certain
115 degree of behavioral heterogeneity in a community ([Lindell et al., 2005, 2020; Rahman et](#)
116 [al., 2021](#)). As a result, here we hypothesize that the heterogeneity in households'
117 evacuation preparation times affect the traffic flow on the road network and consequently,
118 affect the final evacuation outcomes. However, there are few studies that have explicitly
119 examined how traffic condition and evacuation performances are affected by different
120 degrees of heterogeneity in households' evacuation preparation times ([Wang et al., 2016](#)).
121 This is the second research question we aim to explore in this study.

122 Furthermore, in this study we also seek to examine how evacuation processes are affected
123 by households' evacuation route searching strategies, which is another question that
124 concerns emergency responders and policy makers. Previous studies have mostly applied
125 the shortest distance path searching method for evacuees to find evacuation routes from
126 their original locations to evacuation destinations ([He et al., 2021; Bernardini et al., 2017;](#)
127 [Du et al., 2016; Li et al., 2022](#)). However, each evacuee's searching for the shortest
128 evacuation path may not ensure system-level evacuation outcomes. In this study, we focus
129 on comparing the evacuation scenario in which each household chooses the shortest path
130 for evacuation with the scenario in which system-level global optimal routes are assigned
131 to the evacuees. Such comparative analyses are expected to provide policy implications in
132 terms of evacuees' route selections to improve evacuation performances during natural
133 disasters.

134 Motivated by the above research questions and knowledge gaps, in this study we develop
135 an integrated socio-hydrological modeling framework that couples (1) a physically-based



136 hydrodynamic model for flood inundation simulation, (2) an agent-based model (ABM)
137 for simulating flood management plans and human behaviors, and (3) a large-scale traffic
138 simulation model for simulating households' evacuation processes in a road network. We
139 apply the modeling framework to the Xiong'an New Area, a large residential area with a
140 high risk of flood in north China. Using a 100-year flood hazard as an example, a set of
141 scenario analyses are conducted to explore how residents' evacuation processes are jointly
142 affected by management policies (i.e., the number and geographical distribution of
143 evacuation shelter locations) and human behaviors (i.e., the heterogeneity in households'
144 evacuation preparation times and route searching strategies). This study aims to provide
145 both modeling and policy implications for researchers and emergency responders to
146 develop advanced socio-hydrological modeling tools for flood risk assessment and to
147 improve our understanding of how flood evacuation performances are jointly affected by
148 many management and behavioral factors.

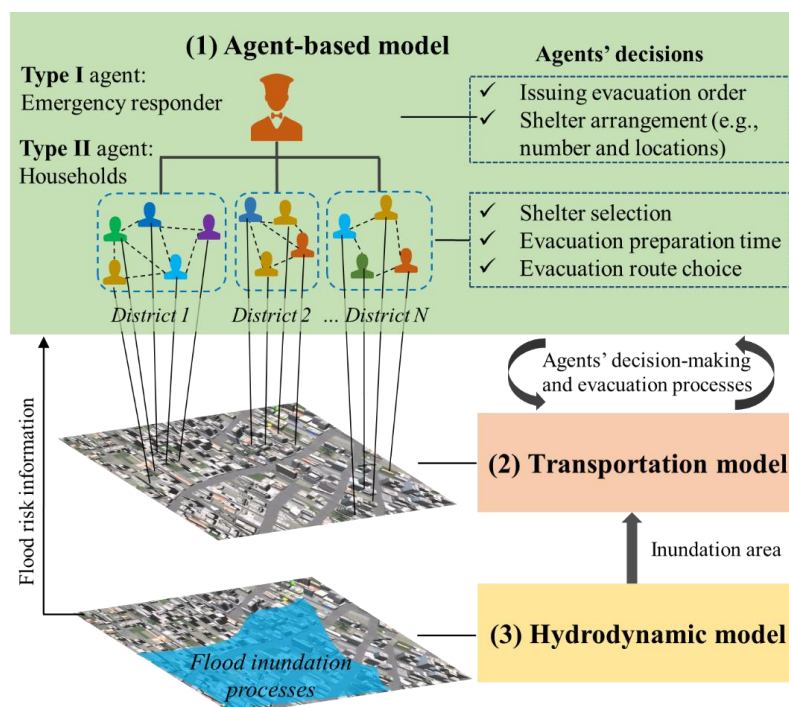
149 The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the modeling
150 framework. Section 3 introduces the case study site, model construction and scenario
151 design. Section 4 presents the modeling results. Section 5 discusses the insights, limitations,
152 and future research directions of this study, followed by the conclusions in Section 6.

153 **2. Methodology**

154 This section introduces the integrated modeling framework of this study. As illustrated in
155 Figure 1, the modeling framework consists of three models: (1) an ABM for simulating
156 household decision-making and emergency responders' flood management policies, (2) a
157 transportation model for simulating residents' evacuation activities in a road network, and



158 (3) a hydrodynamic model for simulating flood inundation processes. Detailed introduction
159 to the three models and their coupling methods are described in turn as follows.



160

161 **Figure 1.** Illustration of the integrated modeling framework that couples an ABM for
162 simulating household decision-making and emergency responders' flood management
163 policies, a transportation model for simulating residents' evacuation processes in a road
164 network and a hydrodynamic model for simulating flood inundation processes

165 2.1. The ABM for human decision-making during flood events

166 In this study, an ABM is developed to simulate government's disaster management plans
167 and residents' flood evacuation behaviors. Therefore, two types of agents are considered
168 in the ABM: (1) an emergency responder (Type I agent) and (2) the set of households (Type
169 II agents), which are described in turn below.



170 The emergency responder agent represents a government institution that makes flood
171 management plans. As shown in Figure 1, in this study, we specifically consider two flood
172 management decisions: (1) issuing a flood evacuation order to the residents who live in
173 flood-prone area and (2) shelter arrangement (i.e., deciding the number and location of
174 evacuation zones that should be used to protect evacuees from flood hazards). Note that
175 other management practices (e.g., sandbagging and levee construction) are also important
176 flood management measures, which are not explicitly discussed in this study.

177 In this study, each household is represented by an autonomous decision unit (i.e., an agent),
178 considering that all the family members in a household typically evacuate in a shared
179 transportation mode after communicating with each other in arriving at a final evacuation
180 decision (Du et al., 2016). After receiving evacuation orders, an agent will spend some
181 time to complete a set of evacuation preparation tasks and then evacuate from its household
182 location to a chosen evacuation destination. The following three decisions and/or behaviors
183 are explicitly considered during this process.

184 The first decision is selecting an evacuation shelter if multiple optional shelters are
185 available. In this study, we assume that an agent will choose the evacuation destination
186 (i.e., shelter) that is located the shortest geographical distance from its residential location.
187 The second decision is associated with evacuation preparation activities (e.g., gather family
188 members, pack bags, board up windows, and shut off utilities). These activities are
189 aggregated and represented by a behavioral parameter called the evacuation preparation
190 time. This parameter measures how long it takes an agent to prepare for evacuation and is
191 indicated by the interval between the time when an agent receives an evacuation order and
192 the time when they start to evacuate via a road network. Previous studies have shown that



193 households' evacuation preparation times are influenced by both psychological and
194 logistical preparation tasks, which may vary among agents, with noticeable behavioral
195 heterogeneity even at the community scale (Lindell et al., 2020, 2005; Wang et al., 2016).
196 In this study, the heterogeneity in agents' evacuation preparation times is represented by
197 the variation (i.e., standard deviation) in all the households' evacuation preparation times,
198 and we explicitly examine the role of human behavioral heterogeneity in community
199 evacuation outcomes.

200 The third decision is related to agents' route selection strategy during evacuation processes.
201 In a complex road network, an agent may have multiple route choices from an origin to a
202 destination. In this study, we assume that each agent has good knowledge of the road
203 network in their community. Thus, two route search methods are incorporated into the
204 model as (1) the shortest distance route search method (Mode 1) and (2) the system
205 optimization-based route search method (Mode 2). In the shortest distance route search
206 method, each agent focuses on finding the shortest route from their current location to the
207 selected evacuation destination in the road network (Gallo and Pallottino, 1988; Fu et al.,
208 2006; Li et al., 2022). Notably, an agent seeks to reduce their evacuation time without
209 considering the effects of other agents' evacuation route selections. In comparison, the
210 optimization-based route search method adopts a heuristic iterative method to optimize
211 agents' collective evacuation routes so that system-level evacuation efficiency is achieved
212 (Zhu et al., 2018; He et al., 2021). Based on the above three decisions and behaviors, all
213 the agents' movements and interactions in the road network are incorporated into a
214 transportation model, which is described in the following section.



215 **2.2. Transportation model for large-scale evacuation simulation**

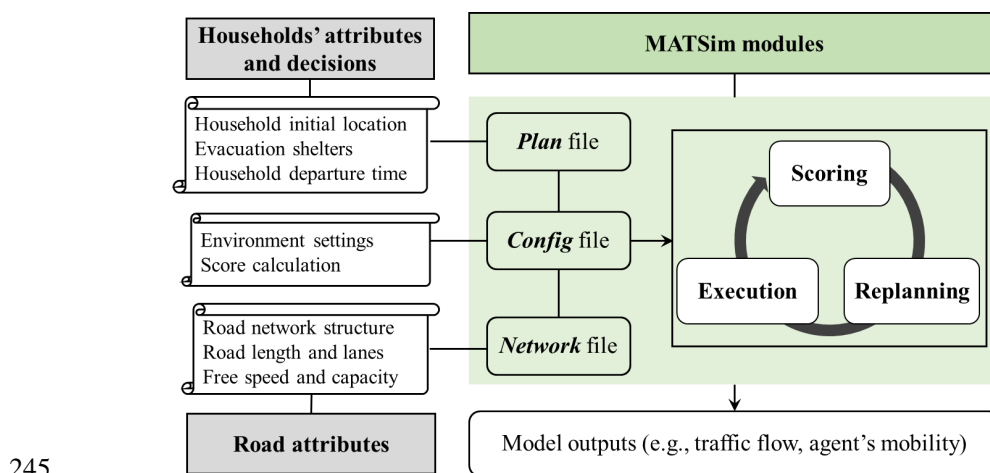
216 As mentioned in Section 2.1, after an agent decides to evacuate, it will move from its
217 household location to a chosen evacuation destination through the traffic network. During
218 evacuation processes, an agent interacts with other agents and with the environment to
219 adjust their movement in the road network over time. There are a number of modeling
220 platforms and software packages used to model agents' evacuation processes. These
221 include the Network Explorer for Traffic Analysis (NEXTA), the Transportation Analysis
222 and Simulation System (TRANSIMS), the Planung Transport Verkehr (PTV) VISSIM, the
223 City Traffic Simulator (CTS), and the Multi-Agent Transport Simulation model (MATSim)
224 ([Mahmud and Town, 2016](#); [Lee et al., 2014](#); [Murray-Tuite and Wolshon, 2013](#)).

225 This study applies MATSim to simulate agents' evacuation processes. MATSim is a widely
226 used open-source software for large-scale transportation simulation. The model can
227 provide detailed information about each evacuee's travel demand, traffic flow and
228 movement in a road network ([Horni, 2016](#); [Lämmel et al., 2009, 2010](#); [Zhuge et al., 2021](#)).

229 As shown in Figure 2, MATSim requires a variety of data as model inputs. The *plan* data
230 include the initial locations, evacuation destinations, and departure times of all agents, and
231 these data can be retrieved from agents' attributes and evacuation decisions in the ABM.
232 The *network* data describe the attributes of the road network, such as the geographical
233 structure of the road network, the number of lanes of each road, and road segment lengths
234 and speed limits. These data are available from local or regional government institutions
235 (e.g., the Department of Transportation) or from online data retrieval platforms such as
236 Open Street Map or Google Maps ([Farkas et al., 2014](#)). Finally, the *config* input includes
237 a model execution engine that defines a set of global model environments. Three modules,



238 namely, an execution module, a scoring module, and a replanning module, are incorporated
239 into MATSim for transportation simulation. This model has been widely used by
240 researchers and practitioners to support evacuation planning and simulation for various
241 types of natural disasters, such as earthquakes (Koch et al., 2020), hurricanes (Zhu et al.,
242 2018), tsunamis (Muhammad et al., 2021), and floods (Saadi et al., 2018). For more details
243 about MATSim and its applications in transportation simulation, see Lämmel et al. (2009)
244 and Horni (2016).



246 **Figure 2.** Input, modules and processes of the MATSim model

247 2.3. The hydrodynamic model for flood inundation simulation

248 Information on flood inundation processes (e.g., flood extent and water level) is essential
249 for governments and the public to make flood management and evacuation decisions.
250 Hydrodynamic models are important tools to simulate the timing and duration of flood
251 dynamics by solving a set of mathematical equations that describe fluid motion (Guo et al.,
252 2021). There are many hydrodynamic models available for flood dynamics simulation.



253 These include, but are not limited to, HEC-RAS, MIKE11, MIKE 21, JFLOW, TRENT,
254 TUFLOW and DELFT3D (Teng et al., 2017).

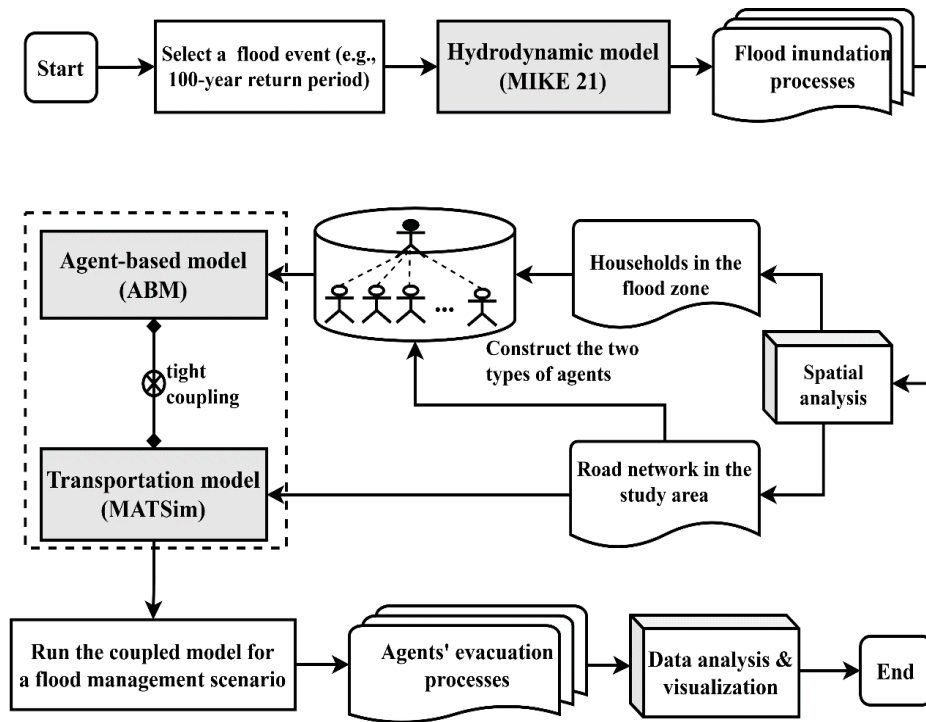
255 Following our prior work (Wu et al., 2021), in this study we use the classic hydrodynamic
256 model, MIKE 21, to simulate flood inundation processes in a floodplain. MIKE 21
257 numerically solves the two-dimensional shallow water equations to obtain water levels and
258 flows across space and over time in various watershed environments, such as rivers, lakes,
259 estuaries, bays and coastal areas. MIKE 21 has been widely used to simulate flood
260 inundation processes in many floodplains across the world, and is considered as one of the
261 most effective modeling tools for flood risk mapping, flood forecasting and scenario
262 analysis (Nigussie and Altunkaynak, 2019; Papaioannou et al., 2016). Interested readers
263 may refer to our prior work (Wu et al., 2021) for detailed introductions to the construction,
264 calibration and validation of MIKE 21 model in the specific study area.

265 **2.4. Model integration and flowchart of the modeling framework**

266 In the prior sections (Sections 2.1-2.3), the structures and functionalities of the three
267 models were introduced; this section introduces how they are coupled in an integrated
268 modeling framework. Previous studies have shown that computer models can be coupled
269 in either a loose or a tight manner (Harvey et al., 2019; Bhatt et al., 2014; Murray-Rust et
270 al., 2014; Du et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021). The former refers to models that are linked
271 together by input/output data interfaces. That is, the output of one model is used as the
272 input of another model. In contrast, for the latter, a model uses a common data pool and
273 workload to exchange data among multiple model components and, as a result, components
274 affect each other during model running processes.



275 In this study, both the loose and tight coupling methods are employed to combine the three
276 models. Specifically, MIKE 21 is coupled with the ABM and MATSim in a loose manner,
277 while the ABM and MATSim are coupled in a tight manner. The model coupling process
278 and flowchart of the integrated model are illustrated in Figure 3. First, MIKE 21 simulates
279 flood inundation processes for a specific flood event (e.g., a 100-year flood). The modeling
280 results of MIKE 21 are then used to assess the inundated area and affected households in
281 the flood zone, which are used as input data for the ABM and MATSim. Next, based on
282 the modeling results of MIKE 21, the two types of agents in the ABM are generated. The
283 household agents who are located in the flood zone will receive flood warnings from an
284 emergency responder agent and make evacuation decisions. Finally, all the agents'
285 movements and evacuation activities are simulated by MATSim. By integrating the three
286 models, the proposed modeling framework is capable of simulating flood inundation
287 processes, flood management practices, and household decision-making and evacuation
288 processes in a coherent manner. In the next sections, we will use a real-world case study to
289 demonstrate how the modeling framework can be used by researchers and practitioners for
290 flood risk assessment and evacuation management.



291

292

Figure 3. The flowchart of the integrated modeling framework

293

2.5. Measurement of flood evacuation performance

294

Agents' evacuation processes reflect their evacuation status and movements across space

295

and over time in a road network. In this study, we use multiple parameters and indicators

296

to represent agents' evacuation processes and evaluate their evacuation performance. For

297

a residential area with n household agents, we first use a categorical variable, $S_{j,t} \in \{1, 2, 3\}$,

298

to describe an agent j 's evacuation status at time step t . $S_{j,t} = 1$ denotes that agent j has not

299

started their evacuation process at time t . $S_{j,t} = 2$ denotes that agent j has already started

300

evacuation but has not arrived at their evacuation destination at time t . $S_{j,t} = 3$ denotes that

301

agent j has arrived at their evacuation destination at time t , which represents a successful



302 evacuation case. Let τ_0 denote the time when the flood evacuation order is issued to the
303 public, and let τ_j and τ_j^* denote agent j 's departure time (i.e., the time when the agent starts
304 their evacuation in the road network after evacuation preparation time) and arrival time
305 (i.e., the time when agent j arrives at their evacuation destination), respectively. The agent's
306 evacuation time ϕ_j is defined as the time period from their departure time τ_j to their arrival
307 time τ_j^* (i.e., $\phi_j = \tau_j^* - \tau_j$).

308 By summarizing all the agents' evacuation statuses over time, the effectiveness of flood
309 evacuation processes in a region can be reflected by a matrix with two indicators at the
310 system level: (1) agents' average evacuation time Φ and (2) the system-level evacuation
311 clearance time Γ . Agents' average evacuation time Φ is the average value of all the agents'
312 evacuation times, which is calculated by $\Phi = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n \phi_j$. In comparison, the system-level
313 evacuation clearance time Γ for a region is the duration from the time when the flood
314 evacuation warning is issued in the residential area to the time when the last agent arrives
315 at their evacuation destination (i.e., $\Gamma = \max(\{\tau_j^* \mid j = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}) - \tau_0$).

316 **3. Case study and scenario design**

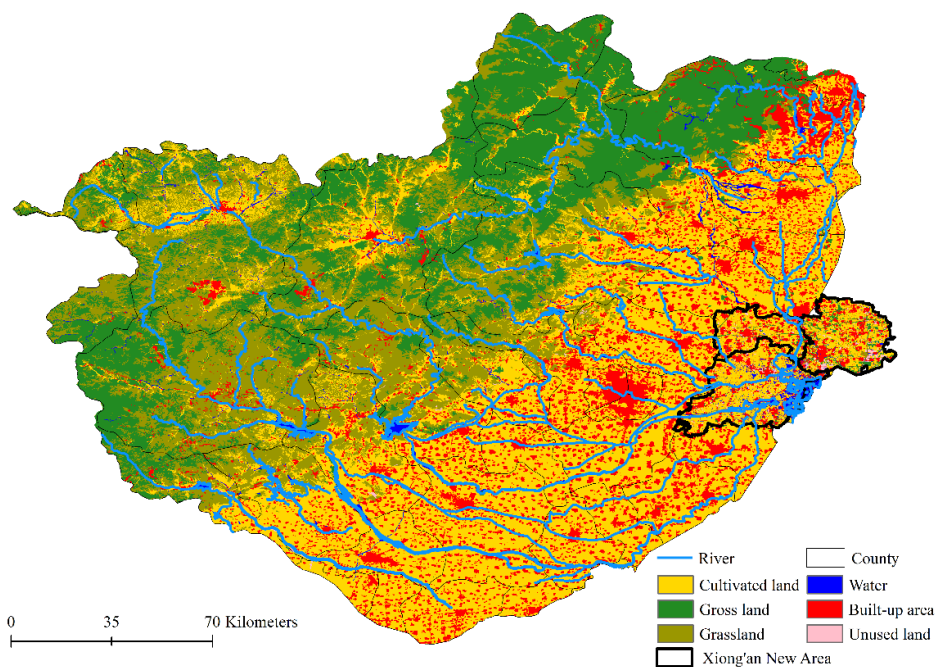
317 **3.1. Study site**

318 The Xiong'an New Area (XNA) is used as a case study to illustrate the functionality of the
319 proposed modeling framework in flood simulation and evacuation management. The XNA
320 is located in the Baiyangdian River Basin, which includes the largest freshwater wetland
321 in North China. This region covers three counties (i.e., Xiongxian, Rongcheng, and Anxin),



322 encompassing a total area of 1768 km² (Figure 4). The region has a population of 1.1
323 million, and the GDP is 21.5 billion RMB (Sun and Yang, 2019).

324 The XNA has a typical continental monsoon climate, with annual average precipitation
325 totaling approximately 570 mm. The region is influenced by various natural disasters and
326 environmental problems, such as water pollution, heat waves, and groundwater
327 overexploitation. In particular, the XNA has a high risk of flooding due to frequent extreme
328 rainstorm events (Jiang et al., 2018; Su et al., 2021). Historical climate records show that
329 a total of 139 flood events have occurred in the XNA over the past 300 years (Wang et al.,
330 2020). For example, the heavy storm from 19 July to 21 July in 2016 affected a total
331 population of approximately 517,000, leading to severe destruction and economic losses.
332 Studies have found that compared with historical flood conditions, both the frequency and
333 intensity of extreme flood events in the region are expected to increase under future climate
334 change (Zhu et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2020). The flood problems in the XNA and many
335 other flood-prone areas worldwide call for developing advanced computer models and
336 decision support systems for robust flood risk assessment and informed management
337 practices during extreme flood events.



338

339 **Figure 4.** Map of the Baiyangdian River Basin and the Xiong'an New Area (marked with
340 solid black lines)

341 **3.2. Data collection and model construction**

342 Based on the modeling framework, data from various sources were collected and compiled
343 to construct the model, including meteorological, land-use, hydrological, transportation
344 and census data. Among them, land topology is retrieved from the 7-meter resolution DEM
345 from the State Bureau of Surveying and Mapping. Meteorological data (e.g., daily
346 precipitation, temperature, solar radiation and wind speed) from 98 stations in the study
347 area are collected from the China Meteorological Administration. Population and
348 household distribution are based on 30-meter resolution census data from the census bureau



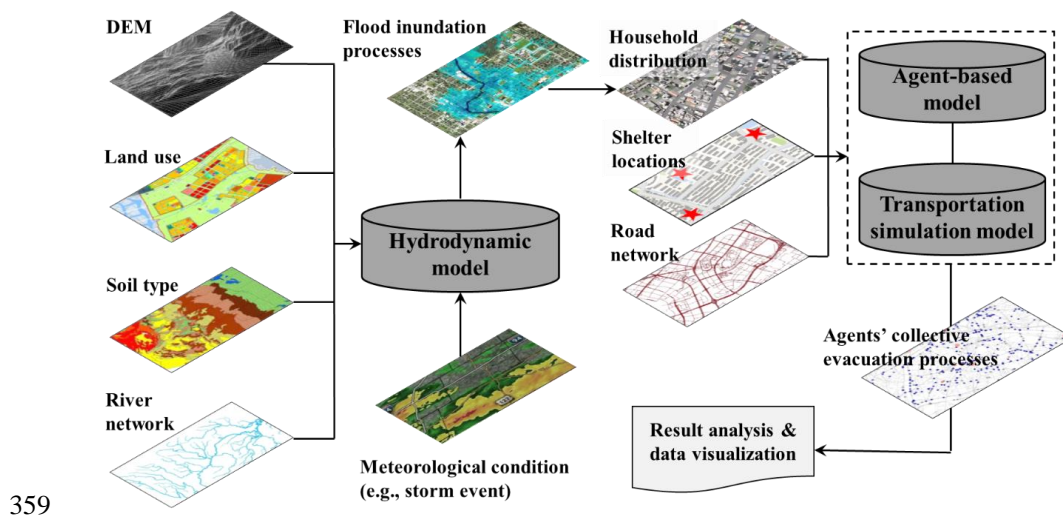
349 of local government. Road network data is retrieved from OpenStreetMap, an open source
350 global map data repository. Table 1 presents the primary data in this study and their sources.

Table 1. List of data used in the integrated model

Data type	Data source	Period	Resolution	Format
Land elevation	State Bureau of Surveying and Mapping	2019	7 m	TIF
Land use	Data Center of the Chinese Academy of Sciences	2015	30 m	TIF
River network	Data Center of the Chinese Academy of Sciences	2015	-	SHP
Streamflow	Hydrological Yearbook in China	1980-2010	Daily	EXCEL
Weather conditions	China Meteorological Administration	1980-2010	Daily	EXCEL
Soil type	Data Center of Science in Cold and Arid Regions	2009	1 km	TIF
Population	Census Bureau of the local government	2020	30 m	EXCEL
Household distribution	Census Bureau of the local government	2020	30 m	TIF
Road network	Open Street Map	2022	-	XML

351

352 Figure 5 illustrates how the data are merged and integrated into the modeling framework.
353 As introduced in Section 2, the model starts by running the MIKE 21 model, with the
354 meteorological, DEM, land use, soil type and river network data as the model input. For a
355 given storm event, the MIKE 21 model generates flood dynamics processes, which can
356 predict the inundated area and the affected population. These data are then used to construct
357 the ABM and the MATSim model to simulate agents' flood management and evacuation
358 behaviors.



360 **Figure 5.** Data sources and flowchart of the integrated modeling framework

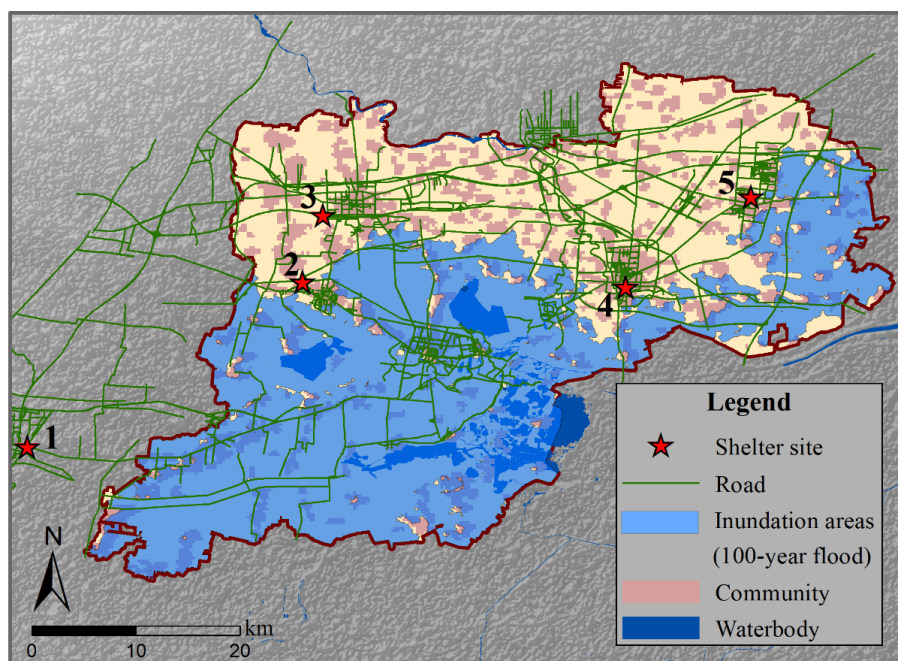
361 3.3. Flood simulation and scenario design

362 As mentioned above, the case study site has a high risk of flooding due to frequent extreme
363 rainstorm events. Following the precautionary principle in natural disaster management
364 (Etkin et al., 2012), we use the 100-year flood event as an example to evaluate the impacts
365 of extreme flooding on the study area, and then examine the role of various management
366 policies and human behaviors in household evacuation processes.

367 We run the hydrodynamic model to simulate flood inundation processes under the 100-
368 year return period. The modeling results show that the inundated area is 66.5% of the land
369 area in the 100-year return period (Figure 6). The affected population is 508,986 (45.8%
370 of the total population). These modeling results are consistent with the results that have
371 been reported in our prior work, and also agree with the empirical flood hazard experienced
372 by this region in July 2016. For detailed introductions to the construction, calibration and
373 validation of the hydrodynamic model, see Wu et al. (2021). With such a high flood risk,



374 it is essential for emergency responders to understand how flood evacuation performances
375 are affected by various human behavioral factors and evacuation management plans.



376

377 **Figure 6.** Flood inundation areas for the 100-year floods in the study area

378 A scenario-based analysis is conducted to examine the roles played by the following factors
379 in flood evacuation outcomes: (1) evacuation shelter establishment (i.e., the number and
380 geographical distribution of shelter locations), (2) heterogeneity in households' evacuation
381 preparation times, and (3) evacuees' route search strategies. Three experiments are
382 designed to assess the joint impacts of the above three factors (Table 2), which are
383 introduced in turn below.

384 The first experiment focuses on assessing the impact of the number and geographical
385 distribution of evacuation shelters on agents' evacuation processes. Note that in the XNA,



386 five optional sites for evacuation shelters are identified based on the flood inundation area
387 for the 100-year flood (illustrated by the red stars in Figure 6). Considering all the possible
388 combinations of these shelters, a total of 31 simulations are performed in this experiment
389 (i.e., 5 simulations for single-shelter scenarios and 26 simulations for multiple-shelter
390 scenarios). Experiment 2 assesses the impacts of agents' behavioral heterogeneity (i.e.,
391 variation in households' evacuation preparation times) on traffic flow and evacuation
392 outcomes. Note that in the first and second experiments, agents apply the shortest-distance
393 route search method (i.e., Mode 1) to evacuate from their household locations to evacuation
394 destinations. Experiment 3 simulates evacuation processes in which agents apply the
395 system-level optimization method (i.e., Mode 2) for route selection. The simulation results
396 of experiment 3 are compared with those of the first and second experiments to explore the
397 effects of agents' route search strategies on evacuation outcomes.

Table 2. Scenario design for simulating household evacuation processes

Experiment	Shelter arrangement	Heterogeneity in agents' evacuation preparation times	Evacuation route searching strategy
1	All the combinations of the five optional shelters #1, #2, #3, #4, and #5	1.5 ^(a)	Mode 1 (Shortest distance)
2	{#1, #2, #3, #4, #5} ^(b)	0.2~3.0 ^(a)	Mode 1 (Shortest distance)
3	Five one-shelter scenarios and {#1, #2, #3, #4, #5}	0.2~3.0 ^(a)	Mode 2 (System optimization)

Note:

^(a) Residents' behavioral heterogeneity is measured by the variation (i.e., standard deviation) in their evacuation preparation times. In the study area, residents' average evacuation preparation time is set to 4 hours based on our communication with the local flood management authorities.

^(b) The set {#1, #2, #3, #4, #5} denotes that all five shelters are selected for this scenario.

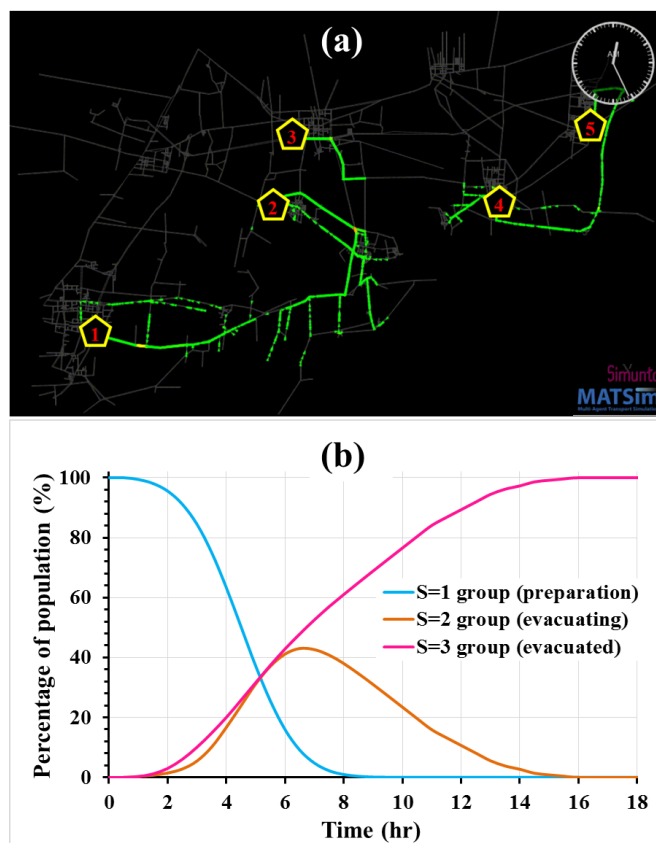
398



399 **4. Modeling results**

400 **4.1. An example of household evacuation processes**

401 In this study, the results of household evacuation simulations are extracted and analyzed
402 with a data visualization tool *Senozon Via* (Milevich et al., 2016). Figure 7a presents a
403 snapshot of residents' evacuation schemes for the case in which all five evacuation shelters
404 are used in the study area (note that each household is illustrated by a green dot in Figure
405 7a). Figure 7b depicts the change in the ratio of the three groups of the population during
406 the evacuation processes. The percentage of the population in the S=1 group (i.e., the
407 agents that have not started evacuating) displays a consistent decreasing trend, as more
408 agents start their evacuation processes over time. Consequently, the S=3 group (i.e., the
409 agents that have arrived in a safe zone) exhibits a consistent increasing trend. The S=2
410 group (i.e., the agents that have started evacuating but have not arrived at a safe zone,
411 representing the residents who are moving in the road network) increases at the beginning
412 of the evacuation period, reaching a peak of 43.1% after approximately 6.5 hours, and then
413 decreases until the end of the evacuation period. The entire evacuation process takes
414 approximately 15.5 hours (i.e., evacuation clearance time). In the following sections, the
415 factors that influence the evacuation process will be assessed under different conditions.



416

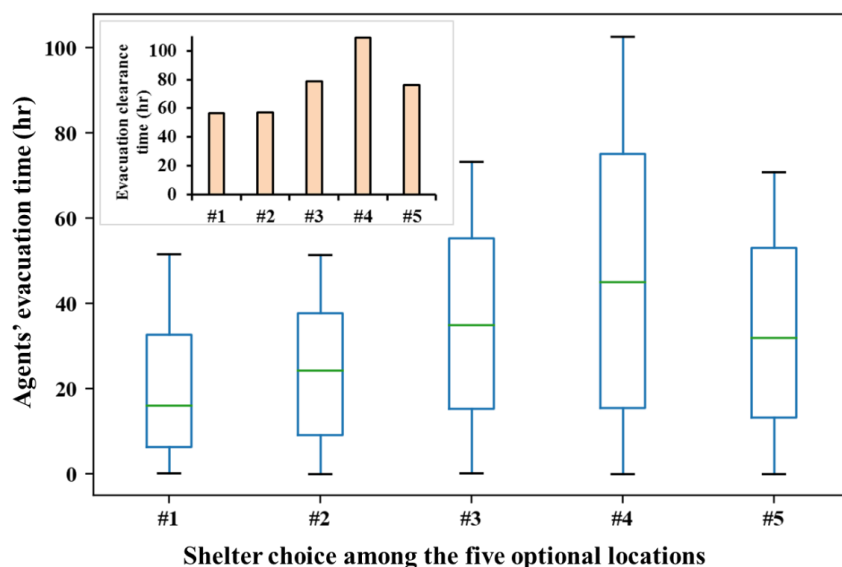
417 **Figure 7.** (a) A snapshot of residents' evacuation schemes when all five evacuation shelters
418 are established in the study area; (b) The percentages of the population in the three groups
419 of agents. Note that the S=1 group includes agents who have not started evacuating, S=2
420 includes agents who have started evacuating but have not arrived at an evacuation
421 destination, and S=3 includes agents who have successfully arrived at their destinations.

422 **4.2. Impacts of shelter location arrangement on evacuation processes**

423 We first conduct experiment 1 to examine agents' evacuation processes for the five
424 scenarios in which only one evacuation shelter is established. Figure 8 shows that the
425 geographical location of an evacuation shelter has a fundamentally important influence on



426 residents' flood evacuation performance. Residents' average evacuation time is the shortest
427 for shelter site #1 (20.1 hours), followed by sites #2 (23.7 hours), #5 (33.3 hours), #3 (35.7
428 hours) and #4 (46.8 hours). The boxplot of all the agents' evacuation times also shows that
429 the variation in agents' evacuation time is the largest for shelter site #4 (32.4 hours) and
430 the shortest for shelter site #1 (15.4 hours). In terms of the system-level evacuation
431 outcomes, shelter sites #1 and #2 are associated with the shortest evacuation clearance time
432 (~ 56 hours), and shelter site #4 is associated with the longest evacuation clearance time
433 (~108.9 hours) (the embedded figure in Figure 8). In this regard, among the five optional
434 shelter locations, sites #1 and #2 are the best locations for shelter establishment, and site
435 #4 is the worst, with the longest evacuation time.

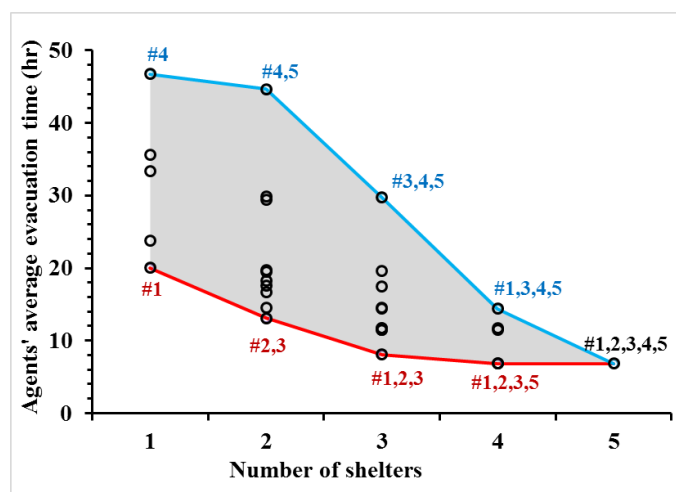


436

437 **Figure 8.** Boxplot of agents' evacuation times (the main figure) and the system-level
438 evacuation clearance times for the five one-shelter scenarios



439 Next, we compare the average evacuation time of agents for simulations in which all 31
440 combinations of the five optional evacuation shelter locations are considered. As shown in
441 Figure 9, when there are a small number of evacuation shelters, establishing more shelters
442 in the system can notably reduce agents' evacuation times, and this effect is more
443 noticeable for the worst shelter allocation scenario (illustrated by the blue line) than for the
444 best shelter allocation scenario (illustrated by the red line). For example, as the number of
445 shelters increases from two to three, the average evacuation time is reduced from 44.7
446 hours (shelter set {#4, #5}) to 29.7 hours (shelter set {#3, #4, #5}) for the worst shelter
447 allocation scenario (i.e., a total reduction of 15 hours). In contrast, the reduction in
448 evacuation time is only 5 hours for the best shelter allocation scenario (from 13.1 hours for
449 set {#2, #3} to 8.1 hours for set {#1, #2, #3}).



450

451 **Figure 9.** Residents' average evacuation time under the scenarios that consider all the
452 possible combinations of the five optional evacuation shelters



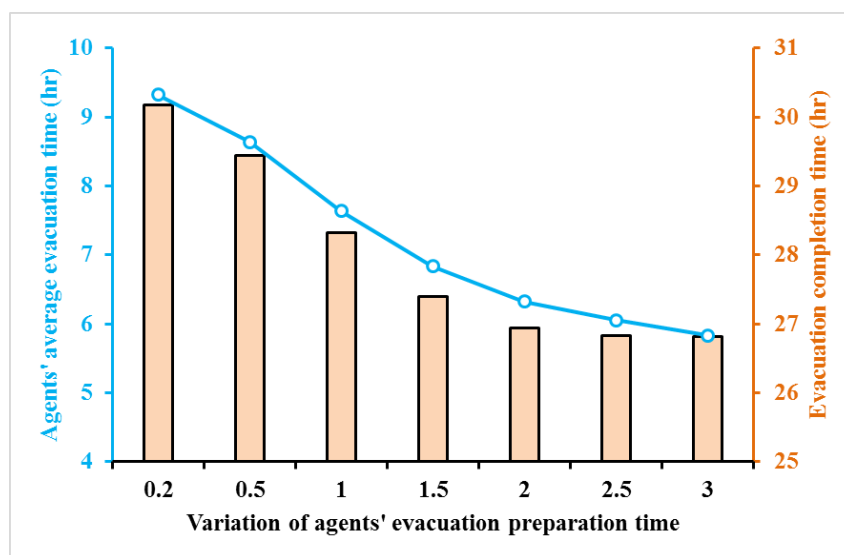
453 Notably, we find that the reduction in residents' evacuation time due to the increase in the
454 number of evacuation shelters is significantly affected by the existing number of
455 evacuation shelters and, in particular, their geographical distribution in the region. After a
456 certain number of evacuation shelters are established (larger than three in this case),
457 including more shelters in the system has a marginal effect in reducing evacuation times.
458 Taking the best shelter allocation scenario as an example (the red line in Figure 9), when
459 there are only two evacuation shelters ($\{ \#2, \#3 \}$), adding one more evacuation shelter ($\#1$)
460 in the system can reduce the evacuation time by 5 hours (i.e., from 13.1 hours for set $\{ \#2,$
461 $\#3 \}$ to 8.1 hours for set $\{ \#1, \#2, \#3 \}$). In contrast, the reduction in evacuation time is only
462 1.3 hours when shelter $\#5$ is added to the shelter set $\{ \#1, \#2, \#3 \}$. In particular, it is noticed
463 that the average evacuation time is 6.8 hours for shelter sets $\{ \#1, \#2, \#3, \#5 \}$ and $\{ \#1, \#2,$
464 $\#3, \#4, \#5 \}$, which indicates that adding one more shelter in the system did not reduce the
465 average evacuation time. This phenomenon is supported by the Braess paradox phenomena
466 in the field of transportation research (Braess et al., 2005; Pas and Principio, 1997;
467 Murchland, 1970), which suggests that including a new link in a traffic network could
468 possibly result in heavier traffic congestion and longer travel times. This phenomenon and
469 its policy implications will be further discussed in Section 5.

470 **4.3. Impacts of residents' behavioral heterogeneity on evacuation processes**

471 Previous studies have shown that the evacuation preparation time of households plays an
472 important role in their emergency evacuation outcomes during natural disasters (Lindell et
473 al., 2005, 2020). However, the heterogeneity in human behaviors has not been explicitly
474 examined in flood evacuation processes. In this section, we conduct experiment 2 to assess
475 the impacts of human behavior heterogeneity (i.e., measured by the variance in agents'



476 evacuation preparation times) on evacuation processes. Figure 10 shows that human
477 behavioral heterogeneity has a nonlinear effect on agents' evacuation outcomes. Increasing
478 the heterogeneity in households' evacuation preparation times will result in reductions in
479 the average evacuation time and the system-level evacuation clearance time, and this effect
480 is more significant when the variation in the evacuation preparation time is small (< 1.5
481 hours). In particular, when the variation in preparation time is large (> 2 hours), the change
482 in the heterogeneity of preparation times will not notably affect the average evacuation
483 time or the system-level evacuation clearance time. These results are consistent with the
484 modeling results obtained from our prior work, which examined the role of heterogeneity
485 in residents' tolerance to flood risk during evacuation processes (Du et al., 2016).

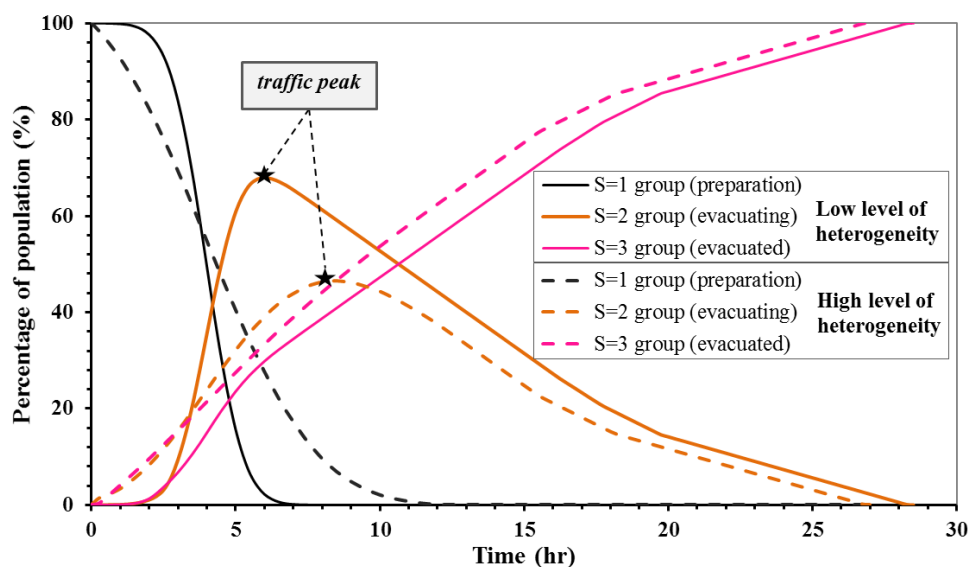


486

487 **Figure 10.** The impacts of human behavioral heterogeneity (i.e., the variation of agents'
488 evacuation preparation times) on their average evacuation time (the left Y-axis) and the
489 system-level evacuation clearance time (the right Y-axis)

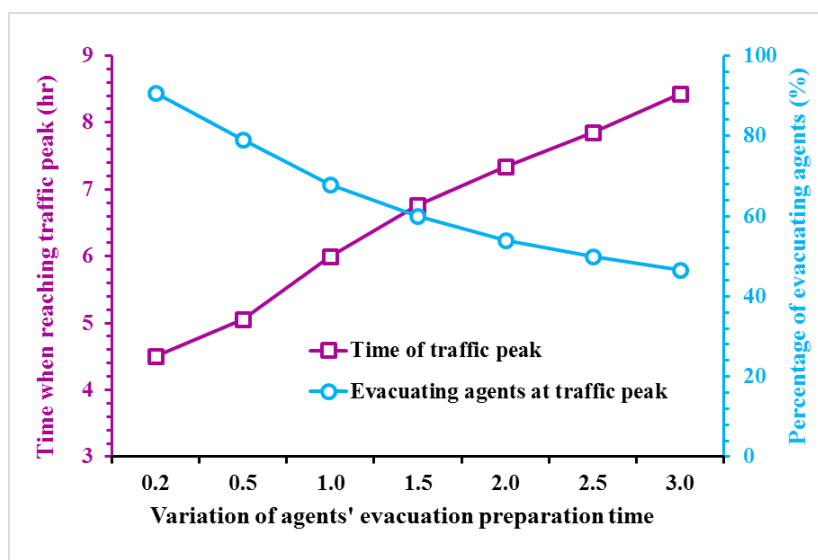


490 Next, we assess the impacts of human behavioral heterogeneity on the traffic flow
491 conditions in the road network. Figure 11 plots the percentage of the three groups of the
492 population during evacuation processes, and the $S=2$ groups (illustrated by the two brown
493 lines) are the agents who are evacuating in the road network. The modeling results show
494 that the traffic peak time (i.e., the time when the number of agents in the road network
495 reaches a maximum during the evacuation period) is delayed as the level of agents'
496 behavioral heterogeneity increases. In addition, the percentage of agents in the road
497 network at the peak traffic time is significantly lower in the high behavioral heterogeneity
498 scenario than in other scenarios. For example, the traffic peak time can be delayed from
499 6.0 hours to 8.5 hours as the variation in the evacuation preparation times increases from
500 1.0 hours to 3.0 hours. At the time of the traffic peak, the percentage of agents in the road
501 network is reduced from 67.9% (the low-heterogeneity scenario) to 46.6% (the high-
502 heterogeneity scenario), and the system-level evacuation clearance time is reduced from
503 28.5 hours (the low-heterogeneity scenario) to 27 hours (the high-heterogeneity scenario).
504 Figure 12 compares the peak traffic time and the percentage of evacuating agents at the
505 peak time under various levels of heterogeneity in agents' evacuation preparation times.
506 The modeling results show that as agents' behavioral heterogeneity increases, flood
507 evacuation outcomes can be improved (i.e., the traffic congestion problem is alleviated, the
508 peak traffic time is delayed, and the evacuation clearance time is reduced).



509

510 **Figure 11.** Comparison of the evacuation processes for low (solid lines) and high (dotted
 511 lines) levels of human behavioral heterogeneity. Note that agent’s behavioral heterogeneity
 512 is measured by the standard deviation of their evacuation preparation time, and the low and
 513 high levels of heterogeneity are 1.0 hours and 3.0 hours, respectively.



514

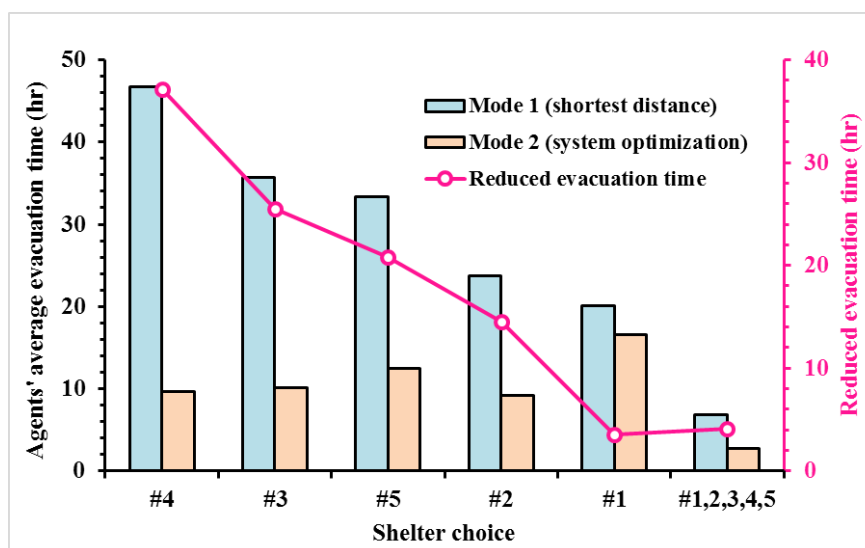


515 **Figure 12.** Peak traffic time (the left Y-axis) and the percentage of evacuating agents (i.e.,
516 S=2 group) at the peak traffic time (the right Y-axis) for various levels of human behavioral
517 heterogeneity.

518 **4.4. Impacts of households' evacuation route choices on evacuation processes**

519 In the above sections, the modeling results for scenarios in which the agents apply the
520 shortest-distance route search method to travel from their original locations to destinations
521 (i.e., Mode 1) during evacuation processes were presented. In this section, we conduct
522 experiment 3, in which agents' evacuation routes are obtained based on a system-level
523 optimization approach (i.e., Mode 2). Then, we compare the three experiments to explore
524 the joint impacts of the route search method and behavioral heterogeneity of residents on
525 evacuation processes.

526 Figure 13 compares agents' average evacuation times for the two travel modes. Two
527 implications are obtained from the modeling results. First, the results show that the average
528 evacuation time is consistently smaller for Mode 2 than for Mode 1. This result agrees with
529 the common belief in transportation research, in the sense that if each agent selects their
530 shortest evacuation route without considering the effects of other agents' route choices,
531 traffic congestion will likely occur in the road network. In contrast, if agents' evacuation
532 route choices are optimized from the system level, traffic flow conditions can be improved,
533 leading to a noticeable reduction in traffic congestion and shorter evacuation times.



534

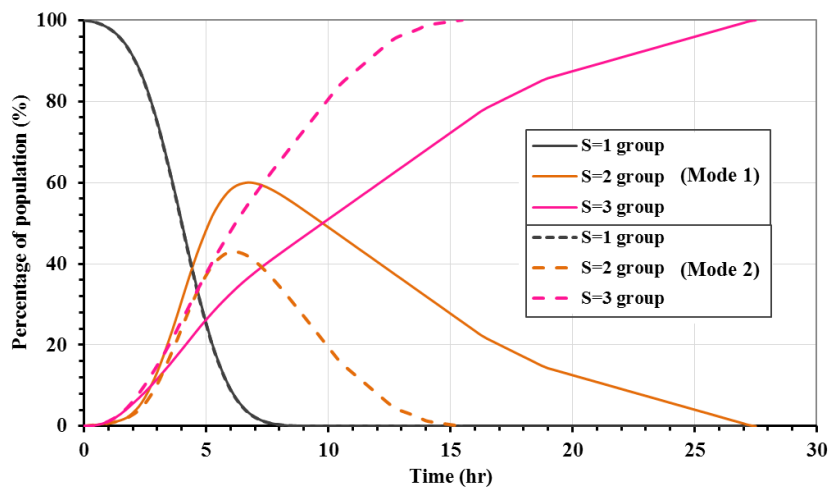
535 **Figure 13.** Comparison of the average evacuation time of agents for the two evacuation
536 route search strategies

537 Second, one can observe that the variation in evacuation time across different shelter
538 establishment scenarios is significantly higher for Mode 1 than for Mode 2. For example,
539 among the five one-shelter scenarios, the agents' average evacuation time ranges from 46.7
540 hours to 20.1 hours (a difference of 26.6 hours) for Mode 1. In contrast, this value ranges
541 from 16.5 hours to 9.2 hours (a difference of 7.3 hours) for Mode 2. This result implies that
542 shelter establishment plays a more important role when residents only seek to minimize
543 their individual evacuation times. In comparison, if agents' evacuation routes are optimized
544 from the system level, shelter establishment will become a less significant factor affecting
545 evacuation performance.

546 Figure 14 presents the percentages of the three groups of agents during the evacuation
547 process, which aim to explicitly examine the impacts of different route search strategies.
548 Compared with the shortest-distance search strategy (Mode 1), the system-level



549 optimization route search strategy (Mode 2) can reduce the evacuation clearance time by
550 12 hours (i.e., from 27.5 hours for Mode 1 to 15.5 hours for Mode 2). In addition, the
551 percentage of agents in the road network at the peak traffic time is reduced from 60.4% for
552 Mode 1 to 43.1% for Mode 2, indicative of a significant improvement in traffic congestion
553 during the evacuation period. However, the peak traffic time is similar in the two scenarios,
554 suggesting that changing agents' route search strategies does not considerably affect the
555 peak time of traffic flows.



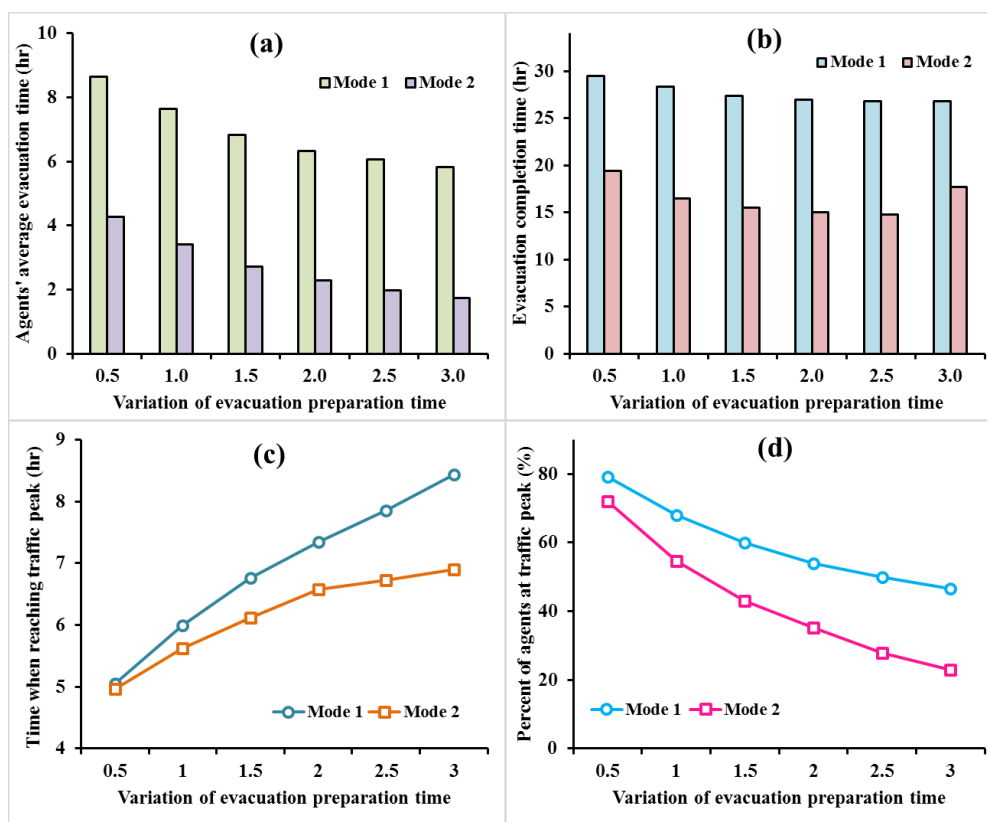
556

557 **Figure 14.** Comparison of residents' evacuation processes for the two route search
558 strategies (note that all five evacuation shelters are selected for the two scenarios, and the
559 variation in residents' evacuation preparation times is 1.5 hours)

560 The above analyses focused on assessing the impacts of a single factor (i.e., agents'
561 behavioral heterogeneity or evacuate route search strategies). Figure 15 examines how the
562 two factors jointly affect evacuation processes. Notably, in general, the average evacuation
563 time of agents and the system-level evacuation clearance time are small when the variation



564 in the evacuation preparation time is low and/or when agents follow Mode 2 to determine
565 their evacuation routes. Interestingly, when the variation in agents' evacuation preparation
566 times is low (<1.0 hour), the difference between Mode 1 and Mode 2 is not significant in
567 terms of the peak traffic time or the percentage of evacuating agents at the peak traffic time.
568 This result indicates that changing agents' route search strategies will not considerably
569 affect the peak traffic time or the maximum traffic flow if all the agents start their
570 evacuation activities within a short time window. In contrast, as the variation in the
571 evacuation preparation time of agents increases, the evacuation route search strategy used
572 can significantly affect the peak traffic time and the maximum traffic flow (Figures 15c-
573 15d). However, the variation in agents' evacuation preparation times does not notably
574 affect the changes in the average evacuation time or system-level evacuation clearance time
575 between the two route search strategies.



576

577 **Figure 15.** The joint impacts of evacuation route search strategies and the variations in
578 agents' evacuation preparation times on (a) the average evacuation time, (b) the system-
579 level evacuation clearance time, (c) the time when the traffic peak is reached during
580 evacuation processes, and (d) the percentage of evacuating agents at the peak traffic time

581 **5. Discussion**

582 **5.1. Implications for flood risk assessment and evacuation management**

583 In this study, we employ an interdisciplinary socio-hydrological approach that incorporates
584 a physically based hydrodynamic model, an agent-based human behavior and decision-
585 making model, and a large-scale transportation model into an integrated modeling



586 framework. We apply the model to the Xiong'an New Area (XNA) in China to assess the
587 inundated areas of an extreme flood event and to examine household evacuation outcomes
588 under various management policies and human behaviors. Several modeling and policy
589 implications can be obtained based on the model construction and simulation results.

590 First, the simulation results of this study show that the flood risk of and the flood damage
591 to an area are not only affected by the hydrological characteristics of flood events but also
592 by infrastructural, socioeconomic and human behavioral factors. In particular, the results
593 show that household evacuation outcomes are significantly affected by shelter location
594 arrangement, route selection strategies, and evacuation preparation times. Therefore, it is
595 essential for researchers and policy makers to incorporate various social, hydrological and
596 human behavioral factors into an integrated framework to obtain more robust estimations
597 of flood risk and to design informed policies to support holistic flood management.

598 Second, the modeling results show that the number of evacuation shelters and, in particular,
599 their geographical distributions have important effects on flood evacuation processes. For
600 example, by comparing the evacuation outcomes obtained for the five optional shelter sites
601 in the case study area, we find that the average evacuation time of residents varies from
602 20.1 hours (shelter site #1) to 46.8 hours (shelter site #4) (Figure 8). In this regard, if there
603 are limited available resources and only one evacuation site can be established in the area,
604 shelter #1 would be a better site than shelter #4 if the management goal is to minimize the
605 average evacuation time of residents. Another implication associated with shelter choice is
606 that establishing more shelters in the area does not necessarily lead to improvements in a
607 community's evacuation processes if there is already a sufficient number of evacuation
608 shelters or if the shelters are not well distributed in the region. For example, in the case in



609 which there are three shelters (e.g., {#1, #2, #3}), including more shelters in the system
610 (e.g., #4, #5, or both) will not effectively reduce households' the average evacuation time
611 (Figure 8). This finding, although somewhat contrary to what one would intuitively expect,
612 is in line with the classic Braess paradox in the field of transportation research; notably,
613 adding a new link in a traffic network may not improve the operation of the traffic system
614 (Frank, 1981; Murchland, 1970). Some studies have shown that the occurrence of Braess
615 paradox phenomena may be affected by the road network configuration, travel demand,
616 and travelers' route search behaviors (Pas and Principio, 1997; Braess et al., 2005).
617 Therefore, regarding emergency management policies such as where to establish more
618 shelters, policy-makers need to scrutinize the relationships among these factors to
619 determine the number and geographical distributions of shelters in the system.

620 Third, flood evacuation is a complex process in which residents' evacuation activities can
621 be affected by various social, economic, environmental and infrastructural factors. Thus,
622 in a particular flood-prone area, residents' decisions and evacuation behaviors could be
623 highly heterogeneous, varying from family to family, from community to community, and
624 from time to time (Paul, 2012; Huang et al., 2017). This study shows that human behavioral
625 heterogeneity can significantly affect the flood evacuation outcomes in a given region. For
626 example, the modeling results show that variations in residents' evacuation preparation
627 times could result in noticeable differences in traffic congestion conditions and the time
628 required for evacuees to complete their evacuation processes (Figures 10-12). Therefore,
629 in flood management practice, emergency responders need to explicitly consider the
630 heterogeneity in residents' behaviors and determine how to promote behavioral changes
631 by providing the needed resources to vulnerable groups who are not able to take effective



632 flood mitigation actions to improve the overall disaster management performance in the
633 community (Nakanishi et al., 2019; Hino and Nance, 2021).

634 **5.2. Limitations and future research directions**

635 Our modeling framework and the simulations in this study have a number of limitations
636 that warrant future research to make improvements and extend the current approach. First,
637 similar to other studies on emergency evacuation simulation (Wood et al., 2020; Zhu et al.,
638 2018; Koch et al., 2020; Saadi et al., 2018), this study focuses on car-based traffic
639 simulation without considering other transportation modes (e.g., motorcycles). In real-
640 world evacuation cases, residents may use various types of transportation modes to
641 evacuate, including by automobile, motorcycle, bus, or on foot (Melnikov et al., 2016).
642 Residents may also change their travel modes during evacuation processes, for example,
643 due to a change in the available transportation facilities. Recent studies have attempted to
644 improve emergency evacuation simulations by considering more factors in evacuation
645 simulation, such as multiple transportation facilities, changes in traffic network
646 accessibility, variations in travel demand, pedestrian/vehicle interactions and speed
647 adjustments (Dias et al., 2021; Takabatake et al., 2020; Wang and Jia, 2021; Sun et al.,
648 2020; Chen et al., 2022). Future research can extend upon this study by incorporating these
649 factors into the modeling framework.

650 Second, regarding the analyses of shelter establishment, we primarily focus on the number
651 and geographical distribution of evacuation shelters without considering other important
652 shelter characteristics, such as shelter capacity. However, it is sometimes necessary to
653 consider the constraint of shelter capacity in evacuation management, especially in large-
654 scale evacuation scenarios. Recently, studies have analyzed the impacts of shelter



655 capacities and their geographical distribution on evacuation outcomes (Alam et al., 2021;
656 Khalilpourazari and Pasandideh, 2021; Oh et al., 2021; Liu and Lim, 2016). Future studies
657 should consider more shelter properties to improve the current modeling framework.

658 Third, in this study, the hydrodynamic model is coupled with the agent-based model and
659 transportation model in a one-way coupling manner. That is, the hydrodynamic model
660 generates flood inundation results as the input for the agent-based model and transportation
661 model, but the modeling results of the agent-based model and transportation model do not
662 affect the hydrodynamic modeling processes. Such a one-way model coupling method is
663 suitable for simulating residents' evacuation activities before a flood occurs, but it is not
664 suitable for cases in which evacuation processes and flood inundation processes have an
665 overlapping time period. In particular, the model is not capable of simulating how human
666 behaviors affect flood inundation processes, which is another limitation that needs to be
667 addressed in future work.

668 **6. Conclusions**

669 A fundamental aspect of societal security is natural disaster management. Computational
670 models are needed to assess the flood risk in flood-prone areas and to design holistic
671 management policies for flood warning and damage mitigation. In this study, we propose
672 an integrated socio-hydrological modeling framework that couples a hydrodynamic model
673 for simulating flood inundation processes, an agent-based model for simulating the flood
674 management practices of emergency responders and human behaviors, and a large-scale
675 transportation model for simulating household evacuation processes in a road network.
676 Using a case study of the Xiong'an New Area in China, we demonstrate the effectiveness
677 of the modeling framework for assessing flood inundation processes for a 100-year flood



678 event and examining households' evacuation outcomes considering various evacuation
679 management policies and human behaviors. A number of scenario analyses are performed
680 to explore the impacts of shelter location arrangement, evacuation preparation times and
681 route search strategies on evacuation performance.

682 Through a set of scenario analyses, the modeling results show that for a 100-year flood
683 event, approximately 66.5% of the land area will be flooded, affecting 0.5 million people.
684 Household evacuation processes can be significantly affected by the number and
685 geographical distribution of evacuation shelters. For the five optional sites of evacuation
686 shelters, the average evacuation time of residents ranges from 20.1 hours to 46.8 hours,
687 depending on where the evacuation shelter is located. Counterintuitively, yet in line with
688 the Braess paradox in the transportation field, we find that including more shelters in the
689 system may not improve evacuation performance in a region if the number of shelters or
690 shelter distribution is already optimal or near optimal. In addition, the simulation results
691 show that residents' flood evacuation outcomes are significantly affected by human
692 decision-making processes, such as the selection of evacuation route search strategies.
693 Compared with the system-level route optimization method, the shortest-distance route
694 search method is associated with a longer evacuation travel time because evacuees seeking
695 to minimize their own travel time may experience traffic congestion. We also find that a
696 low level of heterogeneity in agents' evacuation preparation times can result in heavy
697 traffic congestion and long evacuation clearance time. These modeling results highlight
698 that the flood risk of, and the ultimate damage to, an area is affected not only by the level
699 of the flood itself but also by flood management practices and household behavioral factors.
700 This study is therefore in line with some previous studies that highlight the significance of



701 a socio-hydrological approach for water science and watershed management (Di
702 Baldassarre et al., 2013; Sivapalan et al., 2012; Abebe et al., 2019).

703 This study still has a number of limitations that need to be addressed. Recommended future
704 work includes incorporating more types of transportation facilities into the transportation
705 model, considering the role of shelter capacity in evacuation management, and improving
706 the model coupling method by employing a two-way coupling approach to simulate the
707 impacts of human behaviors on flood inundation processes. We envision that these
708 extensions will improve the functionality of the proposed modeling framework, and the
709 simulation results with these improvements can provide more useful modeling and policy
710 implications to support flood risk assessment and emergency evacuation management.

711

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715

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