

# Development of a decision support system for tsunami evacuation: application to the Jiyang District of Sanya City in China

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**Abstract:** Major tsunami disasters often cause great damage in the first few hours following an earthquake. The possible severity of such events requires preparations to prevent tsunami disasters or mitigate them. This paper is an attempt to develop a decision support system for rapid tsunami evacuation for local decision makers. Based on the numerical results of tsunami disasters, this system can quickly obtain the tsunami inundation and travel time from a numerical results database. Because numerical models are calculated in advance, this system can reduce decision-making time. Population distribution, as a vulnerability factor, was analyzed to identify areas of high risk for tsunami disasters. Combined with spatial data, this system can comprehensively analyze the dynamic and static evacuation process and identify problems that negatively impact evacuation, thus supporting the decision-making for tsunami evacuation in high-risk areas. When an earthquake and tsunami occur, this system can rapidly obtain the tsunami inundation and travel time and provide information to assist with tsunami evacuation operations.

**Keywords:** development, tsunami, evacuation, decision support system

## 1 Introduction

Tsunami can cause some of the worst marine disasters possible, and they affect many coastal countries around the world. Since the beginning of the 21st century, there have been a large number of global tsunami disasters, and over the last decade, two to three tsunami have occurred every year in the Pacific (IOC, 2013). Although tsunami are low-probability events, they are often accompanied by huge economic property loss and casualties (Papathoma et al., 2003). In addition, tsunami can cross oceans and influence areas far from their sources, resulting in large-scale disasters (Hébert et al., 2001). Following the 2004 Indian Ocean tsunami (Suppasri et al., 2011) and the 2011 Japanese tsunami (Wei et al., 2011), many governments and international organizations around the world have increased research into tsunami disaster prevention and mitigation. As an important part of tsunami mitigation, tsunami risk assessment is listed as a primary focus for tsunami disaster prevention and mitigation by the United Nations Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission (IOC, 2015).

Tsunami risk assessments undertaken prior to the arrival of a tsunami are considered important and necessary (Sato et al., 2003; Strunz et al., 2011; Kurowski et al., 2011). According to natural

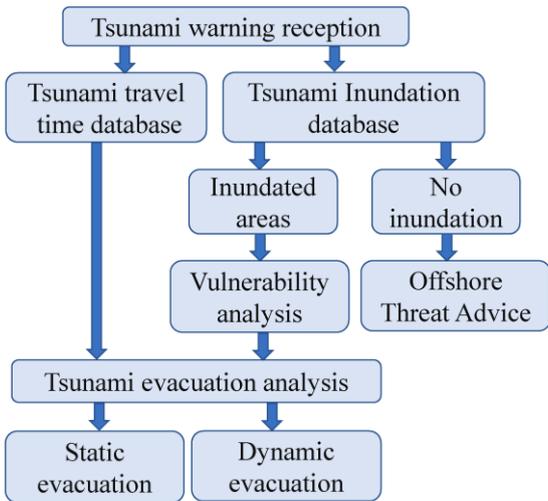
30 disaster risk assessment theory, risk assessment provides a means to quantify risk by analyzing  
 31 potential hazards and evaluating vulnerability conditions. Tsunami evacuation research has been  
 32 conducted in high-risk areas around the world, based on evaluations of tsunami hazard, vulnerability  
 33 and risk assessments. When a tsunami disaster happens, the first task for emergency rescue personnel is  
 34 to evacuate people to safe areas (Mück, 2008). Tsunami evacuation research needs related information,  
 35 such as the degree of hazard, and the distribution of people, roads, and shelters (Scheer et al., 2011).  
 36 Currently, many governments (e.g., Japan, the United States, and Thailand) issue tsunami evacuation  
 37 plans (Scheer et al., 2011) to help citizens plan for tsunami disasters.

38 This paper develops a decision support system for local decision makers to facilitate the planning  
 39 of tsunami evacuations and evacuation practices. Before the tsunami, the support system can analyze  
 40 the tsunami evacuation by retrieving the tsunami hazard and simulating the evacuation to identify  
 41 possible problems in the evacuation process. According to the analysis results, local decision makers  
 42 can take measures such as traffic control and widened lanes to improve the evacuation operations.  
 43 When an earthquake and tsunami occur, the support system can quickly provide the required  
 44 information for appropriate recommendations and decision-making to aid evacuation.

45 **2 Methods**

46 In the last 20 years, static and dynamic approaches have been used in tsunami evacuation research.  
 47 The static approaches have included the least-cost-distance model (Wood and Schmidlein, 2013),  
 48 genetic algorithms (Park et al. 2012), and discrete element methods (Abustan et al. 2012). Several  
 49 dynamic approaches can also be found in the literature, e.g., traffic simulation models (Naghawi and  
 50 Wolshon, 2010) and agent-based models (Mas et al. 2015).

51 The static least-cost-distance model is suitable for tsunami evacuation planning over relatively  
 52 large areas focusing on finding the shortest path from the hazard zone to a safe location, whereas the  
 53 dynamic agent-based model was developed for a localized area focusing on the evacuees' behavior and  
 54 dynamic travel costs. We adopt a combination of least-cost-distance and agent-based models in our  
 55 support system.



56  
 57 **Figure 1. Framework of the decision support system**

58 A framework for this system is shown in Fig. 1. The system aims to gather all the information for  
 59 tsunami hazards and vulnerability, and analyze the tsunami evacuation for a comprehensive evacuation  
 60 plan and evacuation practices. This system development process has three stages: (1) hazard analysis,  
 61 (2) vulnerability analysis, and (3) evacuation analysis. All potential tsunami are simulated by numerical  
 62 models using a range of possible magnitudes: 7.0, 7.5, 8.0, 8.5, and 9.0. The calculation results,  
 63 including tsunami travel time and tsunami inundation, are then imported into a database. If there is no  
 64 tsunami inundation, offshore threat advice is given; if there is a tsunami inundation, the tsunami  
 65 evacuation is analyzed with the tsunami travel time in the database and vulnerability analysis. The  
 66 vulnerability of the inundated region is investigated and high-risk areas are identified. Vulnerability  
 67 mainly analyzes the population distribution to ensure the proper evacuation of the entire population.  
 68 Then, both the static evacuation analysis and dynamic evacuation analysis are conducted for future  
 69 policy-making and evacuation practices.

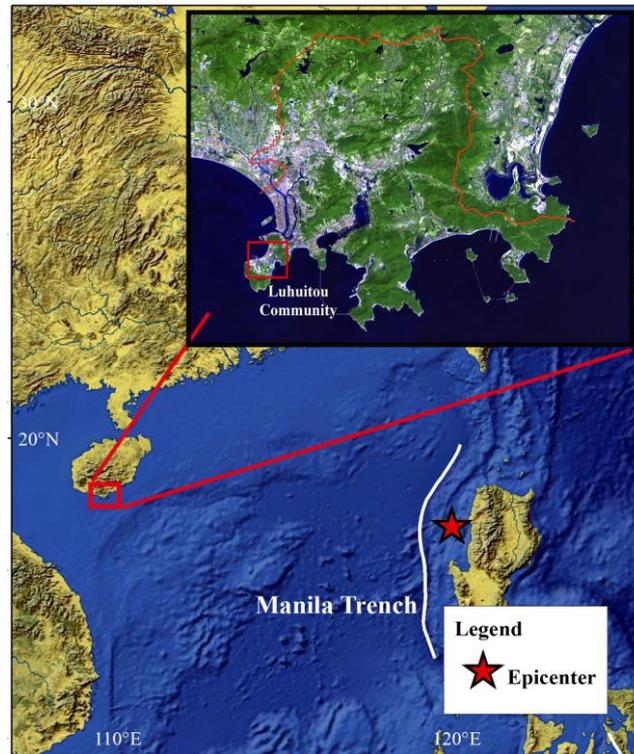
70 It may take 2 minutes to get tsunami hazard information using the decision support system. The  
 71 vulnerability analysis requires 2 to 4 minutes. It takes 5 minutes for the system to provide tsunami  
 72 static analysis results. Tsunami dynamic evacuation analysis may take several hours, but this analysis  
 73 can be used to study local tsunami evacuation problems before a tsunami occurs.

74 Suitable data are the basis of tsunami evacuation analysis. To build this evacuation system, data as  
 75 shown in Table 1 are used.

76 **Table 1. Data required for the decision support system**

No.	Data types	Purposes
1	Tsunami travel time	Hazard analysis
2	Tsunami inundation	Hazard analysis
3	Population distribution	Vulnerability analysis
4	Population characteristics	Evacuation analysis
5	Elevation data	Evacuation analysis
6	Land use data	Evacuation analysis
7	Evacuation shelters	Evacuation analysis
8	Street network	Evacuation analysis

77



79

80 **Figure 2. Location map of the study area**

81 This system is applied to the Jiyang District of Sanya City in China to show the development of  
82 the system for tsunami evacuation. Sanya, located at the southern tip of Hainan Island, is a  
83 transportation and communication hub in southern Hainan Province and an important port on the  
84 southeast coast of China. Sanya has a unique geographical advantage in international economic  
85 relations as it lies close to many ASEAN countries. The Jiyang District (Fig. 2) lies in the heart of  
86 Sanya City. The topography is high in the north and low in the south. Most of this area's elevation lies  
87 between 10 and 300 m, while the maximum elevation is 604 m. Plains dominate the terrain in this  
88 coastal area. An 8.5 earthquake in the Manila Trench is assumed to be the tsunami source (Fig. 2).

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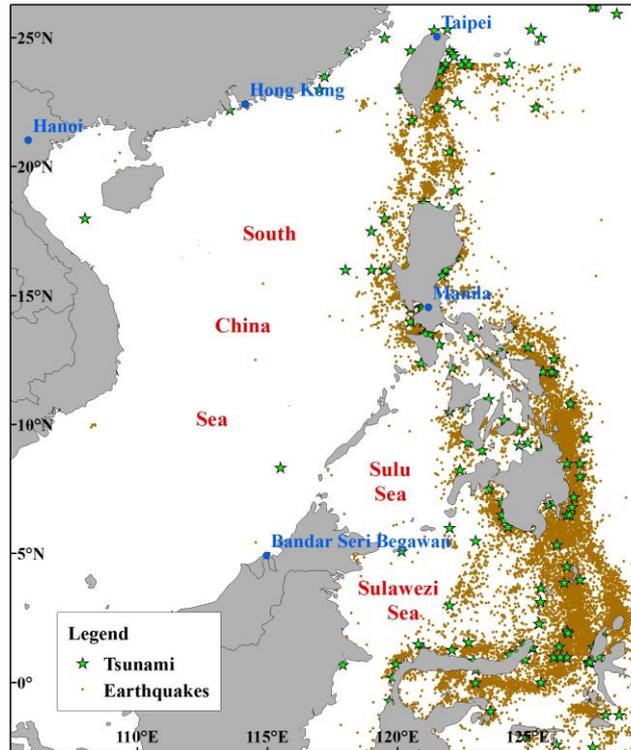


Figure 3. Location of the South China Sea

As shown in Fig. 3, the potentially most dangerous tsunami for the Jiyang District originate from the South China Sea region. The South China Sea, located in the western Pacific Ocean, and covering an area of about  $3.5 \times 10^6$  km<sup>2</sup>, is one of the largest marginal seas in East Asia (Liu et al., 2007).

The Manila Trench, an active subduction system where the Eurasian Plate subducts beneath the Philippine Plate, lies in this region. The Manila and Sulawesi subduction zones have been identified as potential tsunami sources by the United States Geological Survey (USGS; Kirby, 2006). Written records can be found of historical tsunami in the northeastern South China Sea (Lau et al., 2010; Megawati et al., 2009). For example, Sun et al. (2013) reported preliminary evidence from the Xisha Islands in the South China Sea for a large tsunami around AD 1024.

Earthquake records may underestimate the tsunami potential of the region (Okal et al., 2011). Although the probability of a major earthquake in the Manila Trench is not high, this does not mean that a major earthquake will not occur in the future (Megawati et al., 2009). Dao et al. (2009) simulated a worst-case tsunami scenario for the Manila Trench using a numerical model, and estimated a tsunami height of 14 m in the vicinity of the Philippines and southwest of Taiwan. A tsunami triggered by a giant earthquake from the Manila Trench could cause devastating damage to the Philippines, southern China, and Vietnam (Megawati et al., 2009; Ren et al., 2015).

In this paper, we consider a number of potential tsunami scenarios in the South China Sea region. The historical earthquakes and tsunami from the region are shown in Fig. 3. Earthquake data (1976–2016) are from the USGS, whereas the tsunami data (2000–2016) are from the US National Geophysical Data Center (World Data System, 2016). These data include event times, locations, and types.

113 **4 Tsunami hazard analysis**

114 A database was used in this decision support system to quickly determine the tsunami hazard. All  
115 the historical tsunami sources, covering a wide range of magnitudes, were simulated by numerical  
116 modeling in advance, including the tsunami inundation and tsunami travel time, which were then stored  
117 in the database. Once a tsunami is triggered, the system can retrieve the tsunami travel time and  
118 inundation areas from the database. The seismic source parameters for hypothetical earthquakes with  
119 different magnitudes are shown in Table 2 (Igarashi, 2013). The nodal plane parameters for the moment  
120 tensor are based on Slab 1.0 (Hayes et al., 2012). An 8.5 magnitude earthquake was used as a case  
121 study to demonstrate the system.

122 **Table 2. Fault parameters for a number of hypothetical earthquakes**

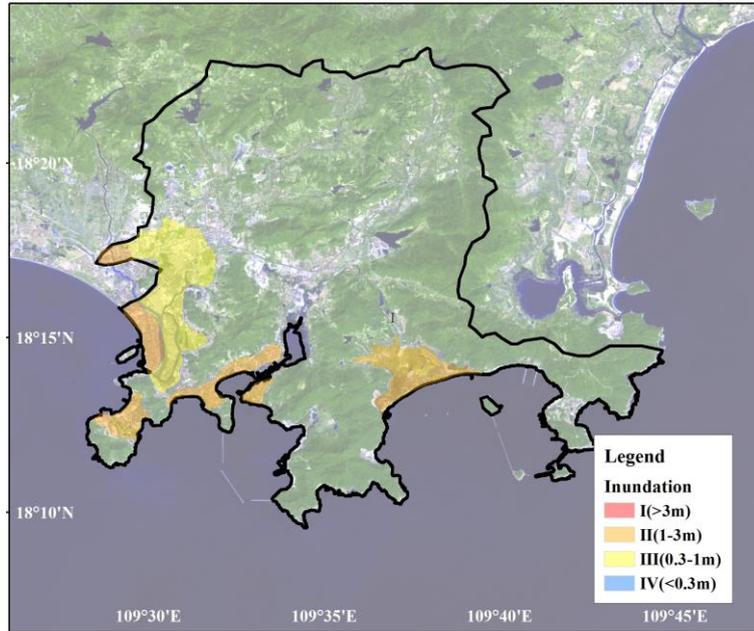
Magnitude	Rupture length (km)	Rupture width (km)	Strike (°)	Dip (°)	Slip (°)	Focal depth (km)
9.0	398.1	199.1	1	41	70	24.6
8.5	223.9	111.9	1	41	70	24.6
8.0	125.9	62.9	1	41	70	24.6
7.5	70.8	35.4	1	41	70	24.6
7.0	39.8	19.9	1	41	70	24.6

123

124 **4.1 Tsunami inundation**

125 A multi-grid coupled tsunami model (COMCOT) was used to calculate the tsunami wave  
126 amplitude. This model was developed at Cornell University (Liu et al. 1998), and has been used to  
127 successfully simulate several historical tsunami events (Wang and Liu 2006). It can study the entire  
128 life-span of a tsunami, including the inundation.

129 When the tsunami propagates over the continental shelf, linear shallow-water equations are no  
130 longer suitable. The tsunami wavelength becomes shorter and the amplitude increases. The significance  
131 of the Coriolis force and the frequency dispersion decreases. The COMCOT model uses nonlinear  
132 shallow-water equations, including the bottom friction terms, to simulate the tsunami in the coastal  
133 zone.



134  
135 **Figure 4. Inundation in the Jiyang District**

136 The inundation caused by the 8.5 magnitude earthquake tsunami covered an area of 29 km<sup>2</sup> (Fig.  
137 4). The inundation areas were classified into level 2 and level 3; the maximum amplitude is 1.8 meters.  
138 There are hospitals, schools, shopping malls, and hotels in the inundation areas. Several communities  
139 such as Luhuitou, Yalongwan, Hexi, Yulin, and Anyou were inundated.

140 **4.2 Tsunami travel time**

141 Tsunami travel time is a very important factor for tsunami evacuation systems. Evacuation time is  
142 the available response time for evacuation (Post et al., 2009), less than the tsunami travel time. The  
143 type of evacuation method that should be adopted (horizontal or vertical evacuation) mainly depends  
144 on the amount of evacuation time available.

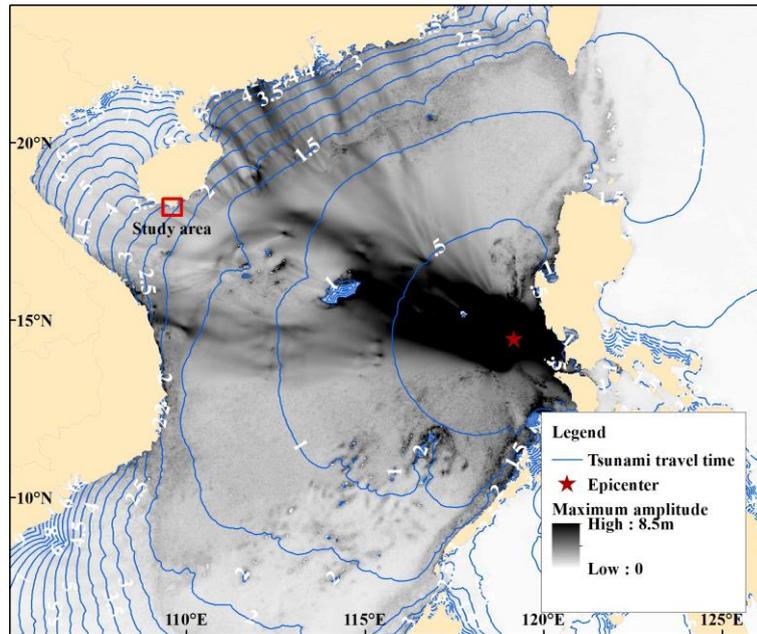
145 The evacuation time consists of four components (Post et. al., 2009): Estimated Tsunami Arrival  
146 time (ETA), Institutional Decision Time (IDT), Institutional Notification Time (INT), and Reaction  
147 Time (RT) of the population. The available response time for evacuation (RsT) can be obtained from:

148 
$$RsT = ETA - IDT - INT - RT \quad (1)$$

149 In this system, the tsunami travel time was calculated by the tsunami travel time model (TTT),  
150 developed by Paul Wessel for Geoware. This model is an application of Huygen's principle with water  
151 depth as the only variable (Murty, 1977) and is based on Eq. (2). In Eq. (2),  $h$  denotes water depth, and  
152  $C$  represents tsunami velocity.

153 
$$C = \sqrt{gh}. \quad (2)$$

154  
155



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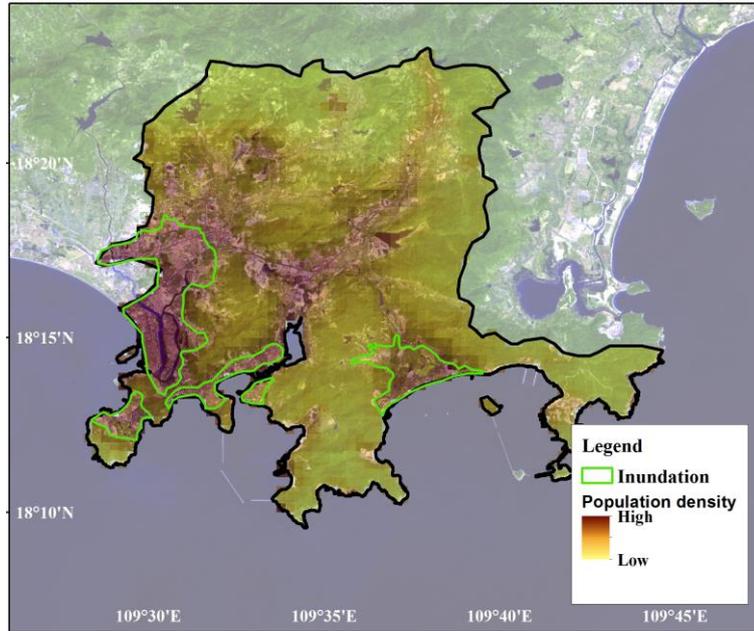
157 **Figure 5. Tsunami travel time and maximum amplitude**

158 The tsunami travel time and maximum amplitude of an 8.5 earthquake tsunami in the Manila  
 159 Trench, obtained from the hazard database, are shown in Fig. 5. According to this figure, the tsunami  
 160 arrival time for the study area is approximately 2.9 h.

161 By considering the emergency response capability of local authorities, it was found that the total  
 162 time for tsunami warning notification, reception, and public response would be 0.8 h. It was calculated  
 163 that the exposed population would evacuate in 2.1 h.

164 **5 Vulnerability analysis**

165 The second stage component in the system is vulnerability analysis. The vulnerability analysis  
 166 follows the hazard analysis to specify the number of people at risk. The population factor is used to  
 167 measure the vulnerability of the inundation areas and identify areas of high risk. Vulnerability analysis  
 168 results also can help government to enhance vulnerability management and reduce the level of  
 169 vulnerability.



170

171 **Figure 6. Vulnerability map based on population density**

172 Population data can be used to identify where evacuations should take place and what kind of  
 173 evacuation measures should be adopted. Such information will help decision makers develop measures  
 174 to mitigate tsunami disasters (National Research Council 2007). Although there is agreement that there  
 175 are no specific variables that can describe the social vulnerability of people, there are some indicators  
 176 that are often used to represent vulnerability, such as age, race, gender, nighttime and daytime  
 177 population density, income, and special needs of the population (Alabdouli 2015). The locations and  
 178 numbers of people in inundation zones can be identified by superimposing hazard and demographic  
 179 data (Wood and Schmidtlein 2013). Our system analyzes population distributions from recent  
 180 population census data. Jiyang District has a population of about 240,000, and covers an area of 372  
 181 km<sup>2</sup>. The population distribution of Jiyang District and inundation areas are shown in Fig. 6, and it can  
 182 be seen that some densely populated areas of Jiyang District are located in inundation areas. There are  
 183 114,086 people in the inundation areas, which cover an area of 29 km<sup>2</sup>. 52% of the population is male  
 184 and 48% is female. The age distribution of the people age is 15% elderly (65 years old and over), 65%  
 185 middle-aged (18–65 years old), and 20% young (less than 18 years old).

186 Using vulnerability analysis, several high-risk areas were identified. The evacuation analysis was  
 187 conducted mainly in the high-risk areas.

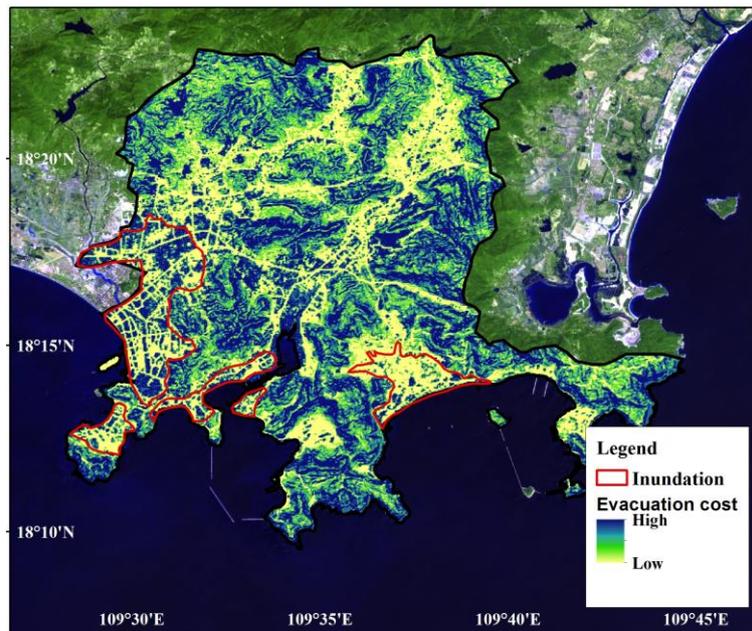
188 **6 Tsunami evacuation analysis**

189 Evacuation, with the purpose of saving lives, plays a crucial role in tsunami disaster mitigation  
 190 plans. NTHMP (2001) indicated that the primary strategy of tsunami disaster mitigation is to evacuate  
 191 people from the hazard zone as quickly as possible – and before the tsunami arrives. There are two  
 192 main evacuation methods: horizontal evacuations and vertical evacuations. The former method  
 193 evacuates people away from the coast to safe zones (that may have a higher elevation, such as a hill);  
 194 the latter approach evacuates people to nearby tsunami-resistant buildings.

195 When managers make a decision about whether to evacuate and how to evacuate, they need

196 current information on elevation, roads, and shelters. In this study, the evacuation analysis was  
197 conducted in the Jiyang District and for the Luhuitou Community, one of the high-risk areas.  
198 Evacuation analysis included static and dynamic analysis. The static evacuation analysis mainly  
199 investigated evacuation cost, road congestion, and areas serviced by shelters, while the dynamic  
200 evacuation was analyzed using the agent-based model.

## 201 6.1 Static evacuation analysis



202  
203 **Figure 7. Evacuation cost map based on land use and slope**

204 The environment that people evacuate from can influence the efficiency of evacuations. The  
205 evacuation cost should therefore be analyzed to provide information and suggestions to help managers  
206 make appropriate decisions (Sugimoto et al., 2003).

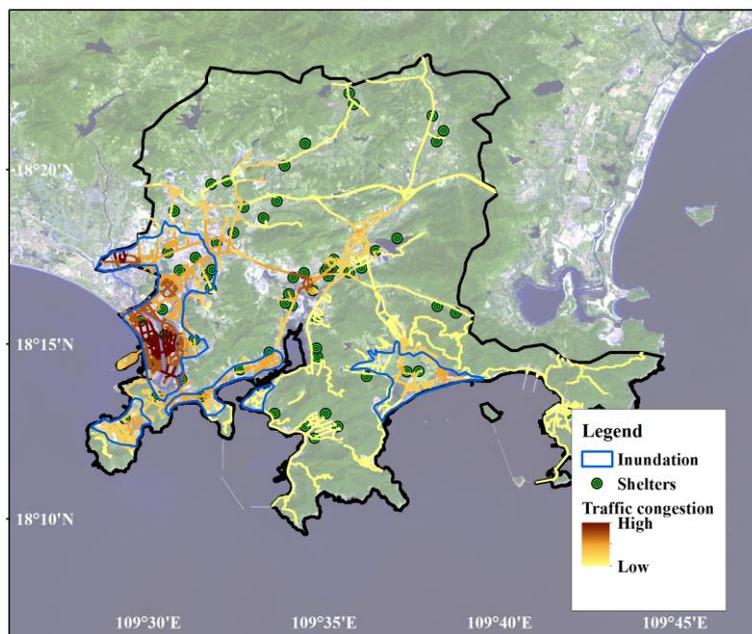
207 The best evacuation routes are not always short straight lines. Different types of land use can  
208 impact evacuations. For instance, evacuation by road is significantly faster than across agricultural land.  
209 An evacuation cost raster, which quantifies the degree of difficulty for each cell in an evacuation area,  
210 can be used to compute the influence of different environments on evacuation routes (ADPC, 2007).  
211 Evacuation cost is a combination of land use and slope. The best evacuation route should correspond to  
212 the lowest evacuation cost area.

213 Evacuation costs were analyzed in this system according to the approach of Wood and  
214 Schmidlein (2013). The spatial analysis of ArcGIS was used to create a cost surface raster that  
215 considers the difficulty of evacuation through each cell. Each cell of this raster represents an inverse  
216 speed required for evacuation. Fig. 7 shows the evacuation cost as applied to the Jiyang District. The  
217 evacuation cost of the yellow area is relatively low. The evacuation routes should be designed in the  
218 low-cost area.

219 If there is enough evacuation time, people should be able to evacuate horizontally to a safe area  
220 outside the tsunami inundation zone after receiving the tsunami warning. If there is not enough time to  
221 evacuate, people can evacuate vertically to higher terrain or structures near the coast (Heintz and  
222 Mahoney, 2012). When a tsunami occurs, decision makers need to know whether or not there is road

223 congestion and where to evacuate to before inundation starts. Our decision support system provides  
224 congestion-prone road analyses to support evacuation actions.

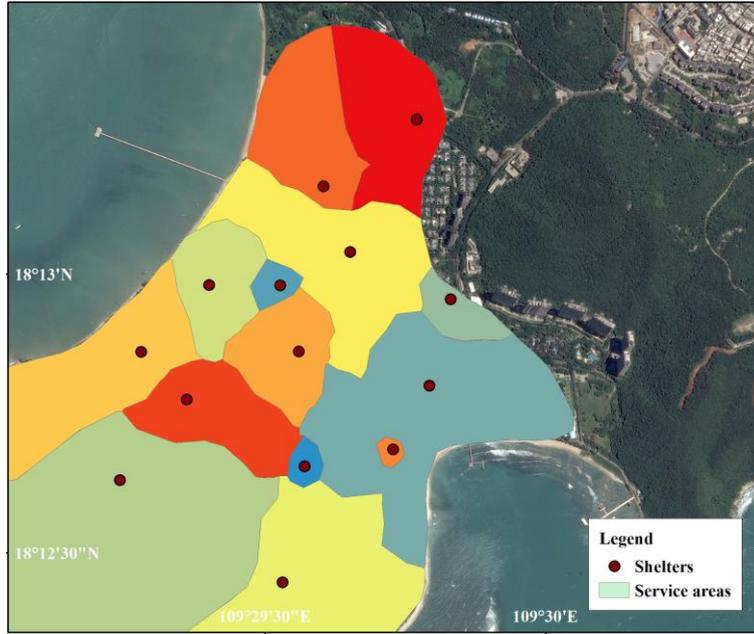
225 Road condition is a very important factor in both horizontal and vertical evacuations, as the  
226 evacuation of a large number of people in a short time may lead to road congestion, especially in a  
227 populous coastal city. For example, on April 11, 2012, thousands of people were stuck in traffic  
228 congestion after a tsunami warning was issued in Indonesia (Wu et al. 2015). Evacuation managers  
229 need to know which roads are prone to congestion. In our decision support system, congestion-prone  
230 roads (Fig. 8) were analyzed by overlying population census data and road classification data. Roads  
231 are easily congested in places where there is a larger populace. There are 240,000 people in the Jiyang  
232 District, and the built-up area covers 61 km<sup>2</sup>, which equates to 3934 people per km<sup>2</sup>. It is easy to cause  
233 congestion when people receive a warning and begin to evacuate. From the results of the  
234 congestion-prone roads we can see that some of the roads in the inundated areas are congestion-prone  
235 roads in high level, which need more attention.



236  
237 **Figure 8. Congestion-prone roads based on population census data**

238 Evacuation shelter buildings provide a destination for an evacuation. At the beginning of the  
239 evacuation analysis, some shelters (Fig. 8) are provided by the local managers. New shelters can be  
240 added according to the need in the system. Evacuation shelters are usually selected in lower cost and  
241 higher-lying areas, preferably with a road connection. In addition, the structure, function, and security  
242 of candidate shelters should also be investigated (Budiarjo, 2006). Generally, places with social  
243 functions are often used as shelters, e.g., schools, hospitals, shopping malls, convention centers,  
244 stadiums, hotels, and parks.

245 Each shelter responds to the evacuation of several communities, and the service area of each  
246 shelter was defined in our system. The cost allocation method in GIS was used to analyze the service  
247 area. This method uses the least accumulative cost to calculate the nearest source in the evacuation cost  
248 grid. The service areas of vertical shelters of the Luhuitou Community, one of the high-risk areas, are  
249 shown in Fig. 9.



250

251 **Figure 9. Service areas of vertical shelters for the Luhuitou Community**

252 To reach the shelters, residents would need the main horizontal evacuation routes and bus pickup  
 253 locations. As shown in Fig. 10, our decision support system can show the main evacuation routes,  
 254 shelters, and bus pickup stations for the Luhuitou Community. The locations of shelters and bus  
 255 pickups can be adjusted according to the different inundation areas.



256

257 **Figure 10. Pickup locations and main horizontal evacuation routes for the Luhuitou Community**

258

259

260

261 **6.2 Dynamic evacuation analysis**

262 The static evacuation analysis attempts to find the shortest path for horizontal and vertical  
263 evacuation, without considering the dynamic changes in the process of evacuation. However, the  
264 agent-based model can simulate the dynamic interactions and actions of the autonomous agents, and  
265 focuses on the evacuees' behavior.

266 This study used the NetLogo environment (Wilensky, 1999) to conduct the dynamic evacuation  
267 analysis. NetLogo uses an agent-based modeling approach to simulate the interactions and actions of  
268 all autonomous agents. Each agent assesses their situation and makes evacuation decisions based on  
269 specified rules. Evacuation modeling results can show (1) the mortality rate, (2) the provision of  
270 vertical evacuation shelters, (3) the congestion and bottlenecks of road networks, and (4) the choice of  
271 vertical and horizontal evacuation. The percentage of evacuation by car in this case is from 0 to 100%.  
272 Walking speed is assigned from 1 m/s to 3 m/s depending on different ages (Wang et al., 2015).

273



274

275 **Figure 11. Study area for dynamic evacuation analysis**

276 Fig. 11 shows the study area for dynamic evacuation analysis of the Luhuitou Community. The  
277 dynamic evacuation analysis results revealed useful information regarding evacuation. Several  
278 bottlenecks (Fig. 12) were identified as a result of the use of vehicles in this area. With the increase in  
279 car use, the mortality rate ascends because of traffic congestion. The number of vertical evacuation  
280 shelters is very effective in reducing mortality. Based on these results, emergency managers can take  
281 appropriate measures to improve evacuation operations.



282

283 **Figure 12. Bottlenecks identified from dynamic evacuation analysis**

284 **7 Conclusion**

285 Tsunami evacuation research involves not only tsunami hazard factors, such as tsunami travel  
 286 time and inundations, but also vulnerability factors like population distributions. The selection of an  
 287 appropriate evacuation method depends on the range of possible geographical environments and  
 288 evacuation times. Evacuation decision makers need a variety of information to direct evacuation  
 289 actions appropriately.

290 Based on the understanding of a future tsunami hazard, this paper presented a decision support  
 291 system for tsunami evacuation of tsunami-prone areas. The presented system considers tsunami hazard,  
 292 vulnerability, and evacuation analysis, with the purpose of helping prepare for disaster risk  
 293 management and evacuation planning in the tsunami-prone areas.

294 The development of this decision support system requires a variety of geographic data, including  
 295 catalogs of historic earthquakes and tsunami, water depth, digital elevation models, satellite images,  
 296 evacuation shelters, and roads. Note that the tsunami risk of a certain region should be assessed roughly  
 297 before the development of this system. The system is best developed in an area that is likely to suffer a  
 298 future tsunami disaster.

299 When there is no tsunami, this system can be used to simulate the evacuation and identify  
 300 potential problems influencing the evacuation. Based on the simulation results, local managers can take  
 301 measures to mitigate the adverse factors and make evacuation plans. Once a tsunami occurs, this  
 302 system can be used for interactive and adaptive evacuation management.

303 The decision support system has been applied to the Jiyang District of Sanya City, China. A total  
 304 area of 29 km<sup>2</sup> areas was inundated by an 8.5 earthquake tsunami that had its origins near the Manila  
 305 Trench. Some bottlenecks were found that would affect the Luhitou Community in a tsunami  
 306 evacuation. The analysis results can help local managers better understand the tsunami hazard and take  
 307 measures to improve the evacuation status. For example, vulnerable buildings should not be built in  
 308 inundation areas and road networks could be improved to mitigate congestion. However, the decision

309 support system needs to be further modified and improved. Future research will focus on  
310 comprehensive evacuation simulation by incorporating a vulnerability analysis of major facilities, and  
311 other advanced evacuation models.

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