EVACUATION EFFICIENCY UNDER DIFFERENT DEPARTURE TIME & DESTINATION CHOICE PREFERENCES

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19 ABSTRACT

20 This paper demonstrates two types of evacuee behaviors using cumulative prospect theory (CPT) for all 21 evacuating agents and traffic simulation to evacuate flooding-vulnerable residents (12% of the region's 22 population) along the coastline of Houston, Texas. The first model assumes panic behavior, with a desire 23 to arrive as early as possible, subject to traffic congestion and travel times to different destination options. 24 The second model relies on more "patient" preference behaviors (where evacuees seek to avoid 25 heavy congestion), and results in a much more orderly evacuation. The two models' (panicked vs 26 patient) departure time and destination choices are jointly optimized to evaluate each evacuee's 27 most likely evacuation decision. The panicked assumption results in departures highly concentrated in the 28 first 2 hours of a 6-hour departure window, with those residing closer to safe destinations departing 29 earliest, on average. In contrast, the patient or orderly evacuation showed evacuees loading the 6-hour 30 window, with many evacuees reluctant to depart in the final hour or two, to avoid rising late-arrival 31 penalties. The patient case delivers a rather staggered evacuation, helping evacuate the most distant 32 residents first (i.e., those with longest routes to cover, to reach safety). Results suggest that 33 panic evacuees tend to evacuate to a closer destination, while patient evacuees tend to select more 34 inland/distance destinations, thanks to less congested traffic conditions resulting from more 35 orderly departures. Although each destination's safety level is assumed equal, more inland 36 destinations are presumably advantageous, in terms of threat avoidance (from storms in the Gulf of 37 Mexico).

38 KEYWORDS

Evacuation; Departure Time Choice; Destination Choice; Network Optimization; Cumulative ProspectTheory

41 **INTRODUCTION**

42 Hurricanes are becoming as one of the most common, but deadliest natural disasters in the United States.

43 It can disrupt residents' ordinary activities, damage the urban infrastructure, and even result in

44 considerable casualties or loss of lives. For instance, Hurricane Harvey caused \$125 billion in damages,

45 nearly a third of Houston, Texas was flooded, and 40,000 people had to evacuate to shelters (Blake &

46 Zelinsky, 2018). Local authorities are the first line to prepare for the risk management plans, issue inadvance warning alerts, and 1 assign evacuation shelters and routes. Accordingly, it is essential to facilitate the evacuation by managing

2 the traffic infrastructures, prioritizing the vulnerable population, and responding to the emergency situations.

3 If possible, the evacuees can decide when and where to evacuate, but their decisions are subject to individual

4 preferences and the decisions will affect the overall evacuation performance.

5 The research on traveler's departure time choice have focused on reflecting the early and late arrival 6 penalties on the traveler's decision-making process. Travel times are often considered as random variables, and the optimal "head-start" times for the travelers are chosen with safety margins (Noland & Small, 1995). 7 8 For evacuation purpose, evacuees are facing more risky and uncertain conditions than daily travelers, and 9 factors accounted for analyzing evacuees' departure time choices include evacuees' attitudes toward the 10 risk (Dixit et al., 2012), probability of hazard occurrence (Golshani et al., 2019), length of the time span to depart (Tamminga et al., 2011), or the type and timing of the evacuation notice (Fu et al., 2007). As late 11 12 departure may put the evacuee at risk, while early and simultaneous departure of evacuees may induce 13 severe traffic congestion, findings from evacuees' departure time choices can be adopted on planning timely

14 evacuation orders by distributing the departure times of evacuees to manage efficient evacuation.

15 The travel destination choice is another multifaceted decision process, in which demographics (Yang et al.,

16 2010), trip purposes (Molloy & Moeckel, 2017), time-of-day (Zong et al., 2019), or mode choice (Janzen

17 & Axhausen, 2017) can affect the decisions. When the research focused on evacuation destination choices,

18 factors including the presence of nearby evacuation routes (e.g., interstate highways) (Cheng et al., 2013),

regional geography (Parady & Hato, 2016), evacuees' risk attitudes (Parvin et al., 2019) are additionally

20 considered to apply the model specifically for evacuation scenarios. The evacuation destination choice 21 models provide the spatial range of evacuation traffics, which can be used to assign evacuation shelters and

infrastructures at proper locations. Even spatiotemporal analyses of jointly modeling evacuation sheriers and

time and destination choices have been conducted in an effort to account for the correlation of the two

24 different decision making processes (Carver & Quincey, 2017; Wong et al., 2020).

25 In this paper, a joint model of evacuation departure time and destination choices is developed with a focus 26 on the evacuees' preferences on arrival times by considering the traffic conditions. Depending on the 27 evacuees' preferences, two models are developed, where the first model assumes panic behavior, with a desire to arrive as early as possible, subject to traffic congestion and travel times to different destination 28 29 options. The second model relies on more "patient" preference behaviors (where evacuees seek to avoid 30 heavy congestion), and results in a much more orderly evacuation. Cumulative prospect theory is used to 31 describe human decision behaviors under risks and uncertainties by considering the valuation of a possible 32 outcome of a decision, as well as the probability of that outcome being observed.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the network and data used in the analyses to estimate the travel times of evacuation routes as well as the probability of that travel time being observed. Section 3 introduces the methodology developed in this paper to model the departure time and destination choices of two different evacuee preferences, whereas the analyses results are discussed in Section 4. Section 5 summarizes the findings and recommendations obtained from the proposed methodology.

39 NETWORK AND DATA DESCRIPTION

40 This paper's evacuation scenario assumes a hurricane will make landfall on Houston's coastline within a

41 few days. The region's network contains 36,124 links, across 5,217 traffic analysis zones (TAZs). There are

42 7.2 million persons residing across the region's 8 counties: Brazoria, Chambers, Fort Bend, Galveston,

- Harris, Liberty, Montgomery, and Waller (US Census Bureau, 2019). This paper assumes that only those
- 44 living near the coastline will evacuate, while those inlands will remain but reduce background traffic
- 45 volumes by 50 percent (versus a typical weekday). Thus, only TAZs in five counties (Brazoria, Chambers,
- 46 Galveston, Harris, and Liberty) are included in the 'Hurricane Risk Zone' and subject to the evacuation
- 47 plan (Texas Natural Resources Information Service (TNRIS), 2004).

1 The TNRIS defines 5 hurricane risk zones, where someone in zone 1 is threatened only by Category 1 2 hurricanes, while those in risk zone 5 are threatened by Category 1 through 5 hurricanes (with 5 being the 3 strongest and heading furthest inland). Residents in Houston's risk zones 1 through 5 comprise 12.4% of 4 the region's 7.2 million. Using the TAZ's population data, every resident's home location (origin) is 5 randomly sampled from the set of links that are within that TAZ. The TAZs that are not included in the 6 hurricane risk zone are assumed to have 50% of daily weekday traffic. The evacuation destination is 7 assumed to be one of the 8 exit sites in the Houston network, and when the evacuee arrived at this exit point, 8 no further evacuation trip is tracked in this paper. To improve the realism of the model, this paper assumed 9 that the simulation has 30 minutes of warm start to fill in the empty network with daily traffic, and after warm start, the evacuation begins for 6 hours of departure time slots from 6 AM until noon. The colored 10 regions in Figure 1 shows the hurricane risk zones and the locations of the 8 destinations with the 11 12 recommended evacuation routes from the local metropolitan organization (Houston-Galveston Area 13 Council).



14

15 Figure 1. Evacuation Route and Destinations

16 Evacuation Travel Time Estimation

Travel times from evacuees' origins to destinations depend on departure times and evolving traffic conditions, which can become rather severe during mass evacuations. Evacuations are rare, so that simulation methods are needed to estimate the travel time during evacuation. Microsimulation is very helpful in understanding these traffic dynamics, over time and space. Staggered loading of evacuation demand may delay the onset of congestion and speed overall evacuation times (Sbayti & Mahmassani, 2006). However, evacuees may not follow a recommended, staggered departure schedule, so a variety of departure patterns are observed in real world. Figure 2 shows 4 example departure time schedules, based 1 on a Beta distribution: early evacuation, late evacuation, uniform evacuation, and a bell-curved evacuation

(with departure times resembling a normal distribution, so that the cumulative distribution resembles an S
 curve). Within a given departure time duration (e.g., everyone must depart within a 6-hour period), any

4 cumulative distribution curve that can fill in the departure time (like those shown in Figure 2) is a feasible

5 evacuation scenario.



6

7 Figure 2. Example Departure Time Schedules

8 Here, Eq. (1)'s Beta distribution with two parameters, is used to describe the variety of feasible departure 9 time schedules. The two shape parameters, a, b, are assumed to be a random number between 0 and 3.5 to 10 describe a specific departure time schedule. This range is found via trial and error to get a good mix of the 4 different shapes as described in Figure 2. In fact, the early evacuation scenario in Figure 2 is derived from 11 12 Beta(0.34, 2.88), lazy evacuation is from Beta(2.88, 0.34), uniform evacuation is from Beta(1.00, 1.00), and bell-curved evacuation is from Beta(2.85, 3.17). From the sampled departure time schedule, the 13 14 evacuee's travel time from his/her origin to destination can be obtained via a traffic simulation. When 15 numerous departure time schedules are sampled, and the corresponding travel time of origin, destination 16 triplets are obtained from each of the schedules, the distribution of the travel time from an origin to a 17 destination can be derived from various scenarios of evacuation departure schedules.

18 Departure Time
$$\sim \frac{\Gamma(a+b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)} x^{a-1} (1-x)^{b-1} (= Beta(a,b))$$
 (1)
19

20 where

21 $a, b \in (0, 3.5)$

22 $\Gamma(z) = \int_0^\infty y^{z-1} e^{-y} dy$ (Gamma function)

Using Eq. (1), 6,000 different departure time schedules and trip routings are simulated, for 6 hours of departure time duration. The departure times are aggregated into 15-minute intervals, or 24 intervals across

- 1 the 6-hours departure period (as requested or required by authorities). Within each 15-minute interval, t,
- 2 travel times between each origin link i to destination link j are aggregated across these 6,000 simulations to
- 3 derive a travel time distribution for all *ijt* (origin destination departure time interval) triplet. An evacuee
- 4 departing from origin *i* at departure interval *t* is likely to choose the destination *j* with the smallest travel 5 time among the 8 exit sites with probability $Pr(j_{it})$, as specified in Eq. (2). This paper assumes that the
- time among the 8 exit sites with probability $Pr(j_{it})$, as specified in Eq. (2). This paper assumes that the travel time distribution of the *ijt* triplet will follow a normal distribution with mean μ_{ijt} and standard
- deviation σ_{ijt} . When fewer than 5 travel time samples are obtained for a given *ijt* triplet, μ_{ijt} is assumed
- to be the free-flow travel time (from *i* to *j*), and σ_{ijt} is assumed to be the largest observed value (5.05)
- hours) from the 6,000 simulations to reflect uncertainties in estimating the travel time of this specific ijt
- 10 triplet. However, only 0.8% of the total evacuation demand are subject to this assumption.
- From this $N(\mu_{ijt}, \sigma_{ijt}^2)$ distribution, the probability that the travel time will take no longer than TT_k in 11 a given ijt triplet can be obtained using the cumulative density function of the normal distribution. As 12 normal distribution is a continuous probability distribution, the probability that the travel time will be 13 exactly TT_k cannot be estimated. Thus, the probability of the travel time being TT_k is approximated by 14 discretizing the distribution. Define TT_{k-1} as the travel time value that is one step smaller from the sample 15 results than TT_k , and the difference of the cumulative density function of TT_k and TT_{k-1} , in which a 16 17 strict definition of this difference is the probability that travel time will be between TT_{k-1} and TT_k , is assumed to be the probability that the travel time will be TT_k . 18

19
$$Pr(j_{it}) = \frac{exp(-TT_{ijt})}{\sum_{d \in S} exp(-TT_{idt})}$$
(2)

- 20
- 21 where
- 22 $Pr(j_t)$: probability to choose destination *j* from origin *i* departing at *t*
- 23 TT_{ijt} : travel time from *i* to *j* departing at $t (TT_{ijt} \sim N(\mu_{ijt}, \sigma_{ijt}^2))$
- 24 *S*: set of destinations

This paper assumed each household has only 1 privately-owned vehicle, and all household members will evacuate together in this vehicle. The traffic simulation is performed by an open-source traffic simulator

named SUMO (Simulation of Urban MObility) with a Python API named TraCI (Krajzewicz et al., 2012).

In the simulation, only 10% of the population are sampled due to the high computational cost. The roadway

- 29 capacity is reduced proportional to the sampling rate to maintain the traffic characteristics. The outcome of
- 30 this simulation, the travel time distribution from origin i to destination j departing at t, will be used to
- 31 optimize the evacuee's departure time and destination choices.

32 METHODOLOGY

This section includes the methodologies used to model and simulate departure time and destination choice during evacuation with cumulative prospect theory. Two different models are suggested, where the first model assumes that evacuees' departure time and destination choices are subject to the willingness of evacuees to arrive as early as possible, while the second model assumes evacuees will make optimal departure time and destination choices under the willingness to arrive exactly at the desired time.

38 Panic Evacuation Simulation using Cumulative Prospect Theory (CPT)

- 39 Theoretical Background
- 40 Cumulative prospect theory (CPT) is a descriptive model proposed by Tversky and Kahneman (Tversky &
- 41 Kahneman, 1992) to describe human decision behaviors under risks and uncertainties. The utility of a
- 42 certain decision is assessed by 1) the valuation of the outcome of the decision in terms of gains and losses
- 43 and 2) a weighted function describing the probability to observe the outcome. The major difference of CPT
- 44 compared to original prospect theory is that different attitudes towards probability for gains and losses can

1 be adopted via using cumulative probability of the outcomes (Fennema & Wakker, 1997).

2 This paper defines Δx_k as the quantified difference between the decision's outcome (x_k) and a reference 3 point (x^*) , so that $\Delta x_k = x_k - x^*$. Assuming *n* different outcomes from making a decision, $\Delta x_1 \leq \cdots \leq$ 4 $\Delta x_l \leq 0 \leq \Delta x_{l+1} \leq \cdots \leq \Delta x_n$ are possible. to Δx_l to Δx_n that have larger value than the reference 5 point are gains.

- 6 The value function is typically a non-linear two-stage function that has different equations for gains and
- 7 losses. Eq. (3) shows one of the value functions used in this paper, which is obtained from (Liu & Li, 2019).
- 8 χ and ω are the median exponent parameters to demonstrate diminishing sensitivity of the gains and 9 losses, and λ is the loss aversion parameter to penalize losses over gains.

10
$$v(\Delta x_k) = \begin{cases} (\Delta x_k)^{\chi} &, \ \Delta x_k \ge 0\\ -\lambda(-\Delta x_k)^{\omega}, \ \Delta x_k < 0 \end{cases}$$
(3)

- 11
- 12 where
- 13 χ: 0.89
- 14 ω: 0.92
- 15 λ: 2.25

The probability that the outcome k and its corresponding value function, $v(\Delta x_k)$, can be observed is 16 defined as p_k . Prospect theory including CPT defines that individuals do not weight outcomes directly by 17 the objective probability p_k , but rather uses the decision weight, π_k^+ for gain and π_k^- for loss, which are 18 the transformed probabilities to overweight low probabilities and underweight high probabilities (Barberis, 19 20 2013). This decision weight is used to model individuals' risk-taking behaviors under low-probability 21 events by overweighting that probability or discounting the high-probability events since they are rather 22 common. In this version of CPT model, the decision weights are defined by using the weight function, $w(\cdot)$, 23 obtained from (Liu & Li, 2019) as written in Eq. (4). The summation part in Eq. (4) can be converted to an 24 integral using a continuous function as written in Eq. (5).

25
$$\pi_k^+ = w^+ (\sum_{m=k}^n p_m) - w^+ (\sum_{m=k+1}^n p_m), \ l < k \le n$$

26 $\pi_k^- = w^- (\sum_{m=1}^k p_m) - w^- (\sum_{k=1}^{k-1} p_m), \ 1 \le k \le l$
27 (4)

- 28 where
- 29 *n*: number of decisions
- 30 *l*: number of losses

31
$$w^{+}(p) = \frac{p^{0.01}}{[p^{0.61} + (1-p)^{0.61}]^{1/0.61}}$$

32 $w^{-}(p) = \frac{p^{0.69}}{[p^{0.69} + (1-p)^{0.69}]^{1/0.69}}$

33
$$\pi_k^+ = w^+ \left(\int_l^n p(k) dk \right) - w^+ \left(\int_{l+1}^n p(k) dk \right)$$

34 $\pi_k^- = w^- \left(\int_1^l p(k) dk \right) - w^- \left(\int_1^{l-1} p(k) dk \right)$
(5)

Using the value function, $v(\Delta x_k)$, and the decision weight, $\pi_k^{+/-}$, the expected utility of a decision that will have *n* different outcomes can be derived using Eq. (6). Since the utility equation uses both value function and decision weight, the individual will consider both the value of the outcome of the value function as well as the likelihood that the outcome will be observed. Assuming *n* different outcomes from

39 a decision, $(\Delta x_1, p_1; ...; \Delta x_n, p_n)$ pairs can be expected from this decision.

40
$$V = \sum_{k=1}^{l} v(\Delta x_k) \pi_k^- + \sum_{k=l+1}^{n} v(\Delta x_k) \pi_k^+$$
(6)

1 CPT for Evacuation Departure Time and Destination Choice

2 CPT has been applied to the field of transportation including emergency response problems (Liu et al.,

3 2014), and to model traveler's route choice behavior (Xu et al., 2011). In the evacuation problem, the kth 4 outcome of an evacuee departing from origin *i* to destination *j* at departure time interval *t* is the arrival time,

5 AT_{k}^{ijt} , he/she will finish the evacuation. The decisions that this evacuee have to make are 1) the departure

 $11 \text{ time choice to decide at which departure time interval t he/she should evacuate, and 2) the destination$

- 7 choice to decide which destination i he/she should evacuate at the departure time interval t. As the outcome
- 8 of this *ijt* decision is the arrival time, arriving to the destination earlier than the desired arrival time, $AT^{*,ijt}$,
- 9 can be posed as gain, while arriving later than $AT^{*,ijt}$ can be posed as loss. Therefore, the desired arrival
- 10 time for *ijt* decision, $AT^{*,ijt}$, can be interpreted as the reference point, and Δx_k needed in CPT is defined
- 11 as the difference between the evacuee's arrival time, AT_k^{ijt} , and the desired arrival time, $AT^{*,ijt}$.

The arrival time, AT_k^{ijt} , for an *ijt* decision is the sum of the actual departure time, *deptT*, which is the actual departure time randomly chosen within the 15 min departure time interval *t*, and the *k*th outcome of travel time, TT_k^{ijt} . The probability to arrive at AT_k^{ijt} is subject to the probability that the travel time will be TT_k^{ijt} , which is written as p_k^{ijt} . Therefore, the probability to observe the outcome AT_k^{ijt} from the *ijt* decision is subject to the travel time distribution of this *ijt* decision, which is defined as the normal distribution, $N(\mu_{ijt}, \sigma_{ijt}^2)$. Eq. (7) shows the application of CPT to the evacuation problem as described above.

19
$$v\left(AT^{*,ijt} - AT_{k}^{ijt}\right) = \begin{cases} \left(AT^{*,ijt} - AT_{k}^{ijt}\right)^{\chi} , & AT^{*,ijt} - AT_{k}^{ijt} \ge 0, early arrival \\ -\lambda \left(-\left(AT^{*,ijt} - AT_{k}^{ijt}\right)\right)^{\omega}, & AT^{*,ijt} - AT_{k}^{ijt} < 0, late arrival \end{cases}$$
(7)

20

21
$$\pi_k^+ = w^+ (\sum_{m=k}^n p_m^{ijt}) - w^+ (\sum_{m=k+1}^n p_m^{ijt}), \ l < k \le n$$

22 $\pi_k^- = w^- (\sum_{m=1}^k p_m^{ijt}) - w^- (\sum_{m=1}^{k-1} p_m^{ijt}), \ 1 \le k \le l$

23

24
$$V_{ijt} = \sum_{k=1}^{l} v \left(AT^{*,ijt} - AT_{k}^{ijt} \right) \pi_{k}^{-} + \sum_{k=l+1}^{n} v \left(AT^{*,ijt} - AT_{k}^{ijt} \right) \pi_{k}^{+}$$
25

26 where

- $27 \qquad AT_k^{ijt} = deptT + TT_k^{ijt}$
- 28 $deptT \in \{random \ actual \ time | actual \ time \ values \ in \ interval \ t\}$
- 29 V_{iit} : utility of the decision *ijt*

 $30 \qquad p_k^{ijt} \sim N(\mu_{ijt}, \sigma_{ijt}^2)$

31 $\chi, \lambda, \omega, w(\cdot)$: defined in Eq. (3) and Eq. (4)

In Eq. (7), all variables and parameters are defined except the desired arrival time of the *ijt* decision, $AT^{*,ijt}$. 32 In the real world, the desired arrival time can vary by individuals and types of disasters that trigger the 33 evacuation. In this paper, the $AT^{*,ijt}$, will be estimated using steepest hill climbing algorithm that results 34 in the maximum utility, V_{iit}^* . For a given evacuee with the origin *i*, initialize the $AT^{*,ijt}$ with a random 35 number within 0-to-6.5-hour duration and its corresponding utility. In every iteration, explore a new $AT^{*,ijt}$ 36 that is neighboring within 30 minutes, but does not exceed the 0-to-8-hour duration. Find the optimal 37 departure time interval, t*, and the optimal destination choice at that interval, j*, that results in the maximum 38 utility, V_{ijt}^* with the new $AT^{*,ijt}$. If the new V_{ijt}^* is larger than the V_{ijt}^* value from the previous iteration, 39 accept the new $AT^{*,ijt}$, its departure time choice t^* and destination choice j^* , and iterate until the algorithm 40 41 converges. Algorithm 1 describes the pseudo-code of the method, and it is terminated if the percent change 42 of the moving average of all evacuees' mean utility meets the convergence criteria or if the simulation

- 1 reached its maximum iteration. With this method, the optimal desired arrival time, $AT^{*,ijt}$, and its
- 2 corresponding optimal departure time choice, t^* , and optimal destination choice, j^* , can be found for any
- 3 evacuee departing from any origin *i*.

4 Algorithm 1. Steepest Hill Climbing for Departure Time & Destination Choices

5 Step 1: Initialize

- 6 For all evacuees:
- 7 Initialize $AT^{*,ijt}$ and utility V_{ijt} with a random *ijt* decision.

8 $AT^{*,ijt} \in [0, 6.5 hr.]$

9 Step 2: Explore

- 10 For all evacuees:
- 11 $AT_{new}^{*,ijt} = max(min(AT^{*,ijt} \pm 0.5rand, 8), 0)$ where the unit of $AT^{*,ijt}$ is in hours.
- 12 Find t^* that results in $V_{iit^*}^*$, given the destination choice as j
- 13 Find j^* that results in $V_{ij^*t^*}^*$, given the departure time choice as t^*

14 Step 3: Evaluate & Accept

15 For all evacuees:

16 If
$$V_{ij^*t^*}^* > V_{ijt}^*$$
:

17
$$AT^{*,ijt} \leftarrow AT^{*,ijt}_{new}$$

19 *j←j**

20 Step 4: Iterate until converge

- 21 Convergence criteria:
- 22 For iteration ξ , assume mean $\overline{V_{ijt}^*}$ of all evacuees as $(\overline{V_{ijt}^*})_{(\xi)}$,

23
$$\left|1 - \frac{\left(\overline{v_{ijt}^*}\right)_{(\xi=9)} + \dots + \left(\overline{v_{ijt}^*}\right)_{(\xi)}}{\left(\overline{v_{ijt}^*}\right)_{(\xi=10)} + \dots + \left(\overline{v_{ijt}^*}\right)_{(\xi=1)}}\right| < 1e - 4 \text{ or } \xi > 2,000$$

24 Go to Step 2 until converge.

25 Patient Evacuation Simulation using Cumulative Prospect Theory (CPT)

26 Patient Evacuation to Avoid Panic

The shape of the value function in the previous section implies the evacuees' behavior of 'arrive as early as possible'. The value function, $v(AT^{*,ijt} - AT_k^{ijt})$, is maximized when AT_k^{ijt} is minimized representing that the evacuees pursue to arrive as early as possible; thus, the panic behavior during evacuation is modeled with this value function. However, as this value function may improve the realism of modeling human nature, it may not result in the optimal decision-making process that can improve the overall evacuation performance.

- Staggered evacuations are known to perform better than simultaneous evacuation in terms of roadway capacity management (Liu et al., 2006) and overall evacuation time reduction (Chen & Zhan, 2014), so that
- the strategy of 'arrive as early as possible' should be avoided if possible. Nonetheless, the performance of

1 optimal evacuation plan may vary with respect to the evacuees' compliance behavior (Fu et al., 2013). A 2 well-planned staggered evacuation may not be implemented in the real world with expected evacuation 3 performance if the evacuees do not follow the rule and fall into a panic. The order compliance problem 4 during evacuation can be mitigated when the information technology is reliable enough so that the evacuees 5 will trust the expected network conditions and avoid panic behavior by using networking devices including 6 computers, smartphones, and automated vehicles (AVs). AVs can even be centrally controlled via 7 communication devices to improve the compliance rate. With a more reliable travel time estimates, future 8 evacuees may make a more patient and reasonable decision than before. In this context, the second model, 9 namely patient CPT model, where the evacuees behave more patiently to avoid falling into panic suggests 10 a transition from 'arrive as early as possible' to 'arrive exactly at your desired time'.

- The core of the patient CPT model is that arriving at the desired arrival time, $AT^{*,ijt}$, will have the highest 11
- value from the value function thanks to evacuees behaving more patient and panicking less than before. By 12
- 13 each evacuees arriving exactly at the desired arrival time, the evacuation becomes staggered with the
- 14 conditions each evacuee will be facing (e.g., origin location, level of traffic congestion, destination choice, 15 departure time choice, etc.). Two additional arrival times are introduced as well, namely early arrival time,
- $AT^{e,ijt}$, and late arrival time, $AT^{l,ijt}$ as proposed by (Li et al., 2018). Although the model from (Li et al., 16
- 2018) suggested that arriving earlier than $AT^{e,ijt}$ is defined as loss in the value function, it should be not 17
- defined as loss in the evacuation problem. Arriving too early should be still advantageous in the evacuation 18
- 19 problem since the evacuee is more likely to survive by arriving early, although the amount of gain should
- 20 converge to 0 with the amount of time arriving earlier. Likewise, in evacuation problem, arriving too late
- compared to $AT^{l,ijt}$ should be heavily penalized as loss since the evacuee may not survive if he/she arrives 21
- 22 too late.
- 23 The evacuees' perception of early and late arrival time relative to the desired arrival time may be different
- 24 by individuals. For instance, some evacuees will perceive arriving just for a few more seconds than the
- 25 desired arrival time as late arrival since they are more cautious than others, while other evacuees will
- 26 perceive arriving a few more hours than desired time as late arrival due to their optimistic personality. In
- this sense, each evacuee will have early arrival coefficient (τ_{early}) and late arrival coefficient (τ_{late}) to 27
- describe the evacuee's personality, which are random number between 0 and 1. Using the two coefficients, 28
- early and late arrival times for each evacuee can be defined as written in Eq. (8). 29

$$30 \qquad AT^{e,ijt} = AT^{*,ijt}\tau_{eat}$$

30
$$AT^{e,ljt} = AT^{*,ljt} \tau_{early}$$

31 $AT^{l,ijt} = min(AT^{*,ijt}/\tau_{late}, 8 hr.)$
32 $\tau_{early}, \tau_{late} \in (0, 1)$
33 Assuming 8 hr. is the maximum late

32

Assuming 8 hr. is the maximum late arrival time 33

By comparing the arrival time (AT_k^{ijt}) to early arrival time $(AT^{e,ijt})$, desired arrival time $(AT^{*,ijt})$, and late 34 arrival time $(AT^{l,ijt})$, four states of arrival times, namely 1) too early arrival, 2) acceptable early arrival, 3) 35 acceptable late arrival, and 4) too late arrival can be defined. The patient CPT model's value function 36 $(v(AT_k^{ijt}))$, decision weight $(\pi_k^{+/-})$, and its utility equation of is as written in Eq. (9). The parameter η represents the inflection point, H represents the maximum of the value function, α, β represent the shape 37 38 39 of the value function when the arrival time is later than the desired time, and γ represents the shape of the 40 weight function, $w(\cdot)$. All the five parameters mentioned above should be calibrated to derive the optimal 41 model performance. Thereafter, Algorithm 1 will be applied to the patient CPT model to find the optimal 42 departure time and destination choices.

$$1 \quad v(AT_{k}^{ijt}) = \begin{cases} \frac{[1/H-1]}{1+\exp\left(-\eta\left(AT_{k}^{ijt}-AT^{e,ijt}\right)\right)}, & \text{too early}\left(AT_{k}^{ijt} \le AT^{e,ijt}\right) \\ \frac{[1/H-1]}{1+\exp\left(-\eta\left(AT_{k}^{ijt}-AT^{e,ijt}\right)\right)}, & \text{acceptable early}\left(AT^{e,ijt} < AT_{k}^{ijt} \le AT^{*,ijt}\right) \\ \left[AT^{l,ijt} - AT_{k}^{ijt}\right]^{\alpha} \frac{\frac{[1/H-1]}{1+\exp\left(-\eta\left(AT^{*,ijt}-AT^{e,ijt}\right)\right)}}{[AT^{l,ijt}-AT^{*,ijt}]^{\alpha}}, & \text{acceptable late}\left(AT^{*,ijt} < AT_{k}^{ijt} \le AT^{l,ijt}\right) \\ -\left[AT_{k}^{ijt} - AT_{l}^{ijt}\right]^{\frac{1}{\beta}}, & \text{too late}\left(AT^{*,ijt} < AT_{k}^{ijt}\right) \\ \left[w^{+}\left(\sum_{m=k}^{s+c+s'+c'}p_{m}^{ijt}\right) - w^{+}\left(\sum_{m=k+1}^{s+c+s'+c'}p_{m}^{ijt}\right), & s+c+s' < k \le s+c+s'+c'\right) \end{cases}$$

$$3 \qquad \pi_{k}^{+} = \begin{cases} (1 + 1)^{k} (1 + 1)^{k} \\ w^{+} (\sum_{m=s+c+1}^{k+1} p_{m}^{ijt}) - w^{+} (\sum_{m=s+c+1}^{k} p_{m}^{ijt}), \\ w^{+} (\sum_{m=k}^{s+c} p_{m}^{ijt}) - w^{+} (\sum_{m=k+1}^{s+c} p_{m}^{ijt}), \\ s < k \le s + c \end{cases}$$

$$4 \qquad \pi_{k}^{-} = w^{-} \left(\sum_{m=1}^{k} p_{m}^{ljt} \right) - w^{-} \left(\sum_{m=1}^{k-1} p_{m}^{ljt} \right), \qquad 1 \le k \le s$$

$$5 \qquad w^{+/-}(p) = \frac{p^{\gamma}}{[p^{\gamma} + (1-p)^{\gamma}]^{1/\gamma}}$$

7
$$V_{ijt} = \sum_{k=1}^{s} v(AT_k^{ijt}) \pi_k^- + \sum_{k=s+1}^{s+c+s'+c'} v(AT_k^{ijt}) \pi_k^+$$

8

9 where

- 10 $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \eta, H \in [0, 1]$
- 11 c': number of too early outcomes
- 12 *s*': number of acceptable early outcomes
- 13 *c*: number of acceptable late outcomes
- 14 *s*: number of too late outcomes

Figure 3 graphically depicts the difference of the two CPT models. In Figure 3-(a), the maximum of the value function of the first CPT model, panic evacuation, can be expected when AT_k^{ijt} is minimized with a given $AT^{*,ijt}$. This model represents the strategy of 'arrive as early as possible'. The marginal impact of change in the value function diminishes when the distance from $AT^{*,ijt}$ increases. The diminishing sensitivity of loss especially represents that the evacuee becomes insensitive to the unit arrival time when he/she is expected to arrive too late compared to a reference time.

In Figure 3-(b), the second model's the maximum value function can be expected when AT_k^{ijt} equals AT^{*,ijt}, which represents the strategy of 'arrive exactly at your desired time'. This may become possible when evacuees are not under panic by understanding the traffic conditions better than before. Arriving earlier than the desired arrival time is always beneficial, since it still implies a successful evacuation. However, the amount of gain converges to 0 with respect to the amount of time arriving earlier, since arriving early is not the optimal arrival time.

27 The marginal impact of change in the proposed model's value function increases when the arrival time is

- expected to be too late. The increasing sensitivity of loss represents that the evacuee becomes more sensitive
- to the unit arrival time when he/she is expected to arrive too late. Thus, late arrival is more strictly avoided
- 30 with the proposed model than the original model. In the real world, the evacuee would desperately attempt
- to avoid the worst case, since the ultimate loss from arriving late during evacuation would be the evacuee's
- 32 life, which is indispensable. This may explain the evacuation behavior better than what was implied in the

1 first CPT model, where the evacuee in the first model became insensitive to the loss when the arrival time

2 is too late.

3



4 Figure 3. Value Functions of (a) the Panic CPT Model and (b) the Patient CPT Model

5 *Parameter Calibration*

6 The parameter vector, $[\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \eta, H]$, of the patient CPT model should be calibrated before Algorithm 1 is 7 implemented to find the optimal departure time and destination choices. All 5 parameters are between 0 and 1, and for simplicity, this paper assumed that these parameters are numbers with two decimal points (0.01, 8 ...,0.99). With a random $AT^{*,ijt}$ assigned to all evacuees, genetic algorithm is used to find the parameter 9 vector $[\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \eta, H]$ that results in the maximum mean utility, $\overline{V_{llt}^*}$. The genetic algorithm used in this 10 11 paper is based on single-point crossover method with population 48, selection rate 0.6 and mutation rate 12 0.1. Algorithm 2 describes the pseudo-code of the algorithm used to calibrate the parameters. For 13 calculational simplicity, only 1% of the evacuation demand is sampled for the parameter calibration.

14 Algorithm 2. Parameter Calibration with Genetic Algorithm

15 Step 1: Parameter Initialized

16 48 different $[\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \eta, H] \in [0, 1]$ vectors randomly assigned (two decimal points).

17 Step 2: Initialize AT^{*,ijt}

- 18 For all parameter vector:
- 19 For all evacuees:
- 20 Initialize $AT^{*,ijt}$ and utility V_{ijt} with a random *ijt* decision.

21 $AT^{*,ijt} \in [0, 6.5 hr.]$

- 22 Step 3: Explore
- 23 For all parameter vector:
- 24 For all evacuees:

25
$$AT_{new}^{*,ijt} = max(min(AT^{*,ijt} \pm 0.5rand, 8), 0)$$
 where the unit of $AT^{*,ijt}$ is in hours.

Find t^* that results in $V_{iit^*}^*$, given the destination choice as j

1 Find j^* that results in $V_{ij^*t^*}^*$, given the departure time choice as t^*

2 Step 4: Evaluate, Crossover and Mutate

- 3 Objective function of the given parameter vector = $\overline{V_{ij^*t^*}^*}$ (Mean $V_{ij^*t^*}^*$ of all evacuees)
- 4 Rank order the 48 parameter vectors by its objective function.
- 5 Perform single-point crossover with selection rate 0.6, mutation rate 0.1 for all parameter vectors to
- 6 maximize the objective function.

7 Step 5: Iterate until Converge

- 8 Convergence criteria:
- 9 For iteration ξ , assume the highest objective function among 48 parameter vectors as C^{ξ} ,

10
$$\left|1 - \frac{C^{\xi - 9} + \dots + C^{\xi}}{C^{\xi - 10} + \dots + C^{\xi - 1}}\right| < 1e - 4 \text{ or } \xi > 100$$

11 Go to Step 2 until converge.

12 Figure 4 shows the convergence results of the parameter calibration using genetic algorithm. Genetic

13 algorithm is a heuristic approach with inherent stochasticity, so that a sudden jump in objective function

can be observed when a random solution set is stochastically searched. Figure 4 shows that the objective function is improved greatly at iteration 4. After 24 iterations, the optimization satisfied the convergence

16 criteria and stopped the iteration. The parameters found are $\alpha = 0.01$, $\beta = 0.83$, $\gamma = 0.96$, $\eta =$

17 0.98, and H = 0.01. These parameters will be used to simulate the patient evacuation throughout this paper.



18

19 Figure 4. Genetic Algorithm Convergence Results

20 Model Convergence

In the simulation, only 10% of the population are sampled due to the high computational cost, and the nonevacuating regions are assumed to have 50% of daily weekday traffic. Each evacuee's departure time and destination choices are updated with Algorithm 1 to maximize his/her utility. Figure 5 shows the

- 1 convergence results of the two models. For the patient evacuation model, the parameters obtained from
- 2 Algorithm 2 are used. The panic and patient models are iterated for 1,876 and 240 iterations, respectively,
- 3 and both models' iteration is terminated after the convergence criteria is satisfied. The mean utility of the
- 4 panic and patient models after the iterations is 6.57 and 84.18, respectively.
- 5 The utility of the patient model is higher than that of the panic model, but it is the result of using different
- 6 value function and does not represent that the patient model outperformed the panic original model by just
- 7 having higher utility. The departure time and destination choices of all evacuees from each model's
- 8 convergence results will be used hereafter to evaluate the evacuation performance of the two models.



9

10 Figure 5. Model Convergence Results for (a) Panic CPT Model and (b) Patient CPT Model

11 EVACUATION SIMULATION

12 The departure time and destination choices will be analyzed in macroscopic level to evaluate the two models'

evacuation performance. The distribution of departure times suggest that two models will experiencedifferent levels of traffic congestions and travel distances.

15 Departure Time and Destination Choices

16 The two models' departure time histograms are shown in Figure 6-(a) and Figure 6-(b) in normalized results

of each bin's count data with 12-minute bin width. Figure 6-(a) suggests that the evacuees are in panic and nearly everyone departs within the first 2 hour (6-8 AM). Figure 6-(b) suggests that the evacuees in the patient model have more time to prepare before they depart their origin by using the whole 6-hour duration (6 AM-noon) for the evacuation. Figure 6-(a) shows taller bars than Figure 6-(b), implying that more departures are concentrated in the panic model that may result in a more severe traffic congestion. The bars in Figure 6-(b) becomes shorter when the departure time becomes closer to 6-hour, which is the result of heavily penalizing late arrivals.





9 Figure 6. Departure Time Histogram for (a) Panic CPT Model and (b) Patient CPT Model

10 Figure 7 shows the spatial distribution of each TAZ's average departure time using ArcGIS Pro's geometric interval method. This method defines the class width based on a geometric series to give consistent 11 12 frequency of observations per class. A number of TAZs are not sampled and no observations are made due 13 to their low population. In this case, using K nearest neighbor method, the average value of its 30 nearest 14 TAZs are assumed for the TAZs' value, and they are filled with patterns in Figure 7. In Figure 7-(a), the 15 evacuees from the Galveston Island at the coastline depart too late, while the evacuees from the inland part 16 depart early, which may threaten the evacuees who live in the most vulnerable zones. In Figure 7-(b), the 17 evacuees from coastline zones evacuate earlier followed by the evacuees from inland zones, demonstrating 18 a patient evacuee behavior resulting in staggered evacuation. In evacuation, the evacuees from coastline 19 zones will have longer travel time than those from the inland; thus, they should depart earlier than others 20 to facilitate the evacuation. In Houston network, Galveston Island is of special interest since a bridge 21 connecting the Interstate 45 will be a major bottleneck for evacuating the residents. The spatial distribution 22 of the two models' departure time choices implies that the evacuation from the panic CPT model not only 23 experiences more severe traffic congestion from the concentrated departure time choices, but also the 24 strategic prioritization of departure time by spatial characteristics cannot be expected.





2 Figure 7. TAZ's Average Departure Time for (c) Panic CPT Model and (d) Patient CPT Model

3 Figure 8-(a) and Figure 8-(b) show the destination choice results by 1) the percentage of choosing each 4 destination, and 2) lines to show each agent's destination choice in TAZ level. The width of the arrowed 5 lines is normalized by the number of choices where thicker line represents that origin-destination triplet is 6 chosen more often. Figure 8-(a) implies that the panic model's destination choices are focused on choosing 7 the closer destinations from the origin, while Figure 8-(b) suggests that inland destinations are chosen more 8 in the patient model. In the panic model, the concentrated departure time choices may induce severe traffic 9 congestion in the network and the evacuees may consider the far-away destinations relatively unattractive than closer destinations. The relatively favorable traffic conditions in the patient model may have attracted 10 the evacuees to choose the destinations located far away from their origin. Although this paper assumed 11 12 that the risk levels of all destinations are equal, evacuating to the deeper inland area may be more favorable

13 to avoid possible threats from the hurricanes.





2 Figure 8. Destination Choice for (c) Panic CPT Model and (d) Patient CPT Model

3 CONCLUSIONS

4 This paper demonstrated two types of evacuee behaviors using cumulative prospect theory to evacuate 5 residents from Houston, TX where a hurricane will make landfall within a few days. The two models both 6 consider the valuation of a possible outcome that will be followed by an evacuee making a decision, as well 7 as the probability of the outcome being observed, and derives the utility of the evacuee's decision under 8 uncertainties. The first model, panic evacuation, demonstrated the willingness to arrive as early as possible, 9 while the second model, patient evacuation, demonstrated the willingness to arrive exactly at the desired 10 arrival time. The two models' departure time and destination choices are jointly optimized to evaluate each 11 evacuee's most likely decisions for evacuation. While all evacuees in each model have homogeneous 12 decision-making logic under the model assumptions, their location of the origin, neighborhood traffic 13 conditions, and personality on perception of early or late arrival can result in distinct departure time and 14 destination choices.

The departure time distribution of the panic evacuation model shows that the evacuees' departures are concentrated at the first 2 hours assuming a 6-hour departure time duration, and the residents that live closer to the destinations departed earlier than others. The patient evacuation model's departure time distribution fully utilized the 6-hour duration, but the evacuees were reluctant to depart at the near-end of that duration to avoid arriving excessively late. For the spatial distribution of the departure time choices, the residents living at a faraway location (near the coastline of Gulf of Mexico) from the destinations evacuated first, demonstrating a staggered evacuation to evacuate the residents living at a distant location first.

The destination choice results suggest that panic evacuees tend to evacuate to a closer location with shorter travel distance, while patient evacuees tend to evacuate to a deeper inland part more than panic evacuees. As this paper jointly models both departure time and destination choices, the concentrated departure time distribution of the panic evacuation model induced severe traffic congestion, making the distant destinations

26 unattractive. As evacuees' departure times become more widespread in the patient evacuation, the traffic

27 condition became relatively favorable, and evacuees were attracted to evacuate to far-away destinations.

Although each destination's safety level is assumed to be equal, evacuating to the deeper inland area would

29 be advantageous to avoid possible threats from the hurricanes.

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