How do people perceive, understand, and anticipate responding to flash flood risks and warnings? Results from a public survey in Boulder, Colorado, USA

Rebecca E. Morss^a, Kelsey J. Mulder^b, Jeffrey K. Lazo^c, Julie L. Demuth^a

^a Mesoscale and Microscale Meteorology Laboratory; National Center for Atmospheric

Research, P.O. Box 3000, Boulder, CO 80307 USA

^bCentre for Atmospheric Sciences, School of Earth, Atmospheric and Environmental Sciences,

University of Manchester, Simon Building, Oxford Road, Manchester M13 9PL, UK.

^c Research Applications Laboratory; National Center for Atmospheric Research, P.O. Box 3000,

Boulder, CO 80307 USA

Corresponding Author: Rebecca E. Morss, morss@ucar.edu

1

Abstract

2 This study investigates flash flood forecast and warning communication, interpretation, and 3 decision making, using data from a survey of 418 members of the public in Boulder, Colorado, 4 USA. Respondents varied in their perceptions and understandings of flash flood risks in Boulder, 5 and some had misconceptions about flash flood risks, such as the safety of crossing fast-flowing water. About 6% of respondents indicated consistent reversals of U.S. watch-warning alert 6 7 terminology. However, more in-depth analysis illustrates the multi-dimensional, situationally 8 dependent meanings of flash flood alerts, as well as the importance of evaluating interpretation 9 and use of warning information along with knowledge about warning terminology. Some public 10 respondents estimated low likelihoods of flash flooding given a flash flood warning; these were 11 associated with lower anticipated likelihood of taking protective action given a warning. 12 Protective action intentions were also lower among respondents who had less trust in flash flood 13 warnings, those who had not made prior preparations for flash flooding, and those who believed 14 themselves to be safer from flash flooding. In addition, the analysis elucidates the complex, 15 contextual nature of protective decision making during flash flood threats. These findings 16 suggest that warnings can play an important role not only by notifying people that there is a 17 threat and helping motivate people to take protective action, but also by helping people evaluate 18 what actions to take given their situation.

- 19

20 Keywords: Flash flooding, warnings, risk perception, communication, decision making

21 **1. Introduction**

22 Over the last few decades, flash flood detection, forecasting, and warning capabilities have 23 improved dramatically. Yet flash floods are still one of the most deadly weather-related hazards 24 (French et al. 1983, Jonkman and Vrijling 2008). In the U.S., Europe, and Australia, a large 25 portion of flash flood deaths occur when people enter or are swept into floodwaters, either in a 26 vehicle or on foot, in part because they are unaware of or misjudge the risks (Gruntfest et al. 27 1978, Jonkman and Kelman 2005, Ruin et al. 2007, Ashley and Ashley 2008, Haynes et al. 2009, 28 Kellar and Schmidlin 2012, Diakakis and Deligiannakis 2013, Sharif et al. 2015, Becker et al. 29 2015). Thus, it is important not only to issue timely flash flood forecasts and warnings, but also 30 to understand how people perceive flash flood risks and what influences their responses to 31 warning information. This knowledge can then be used to develop evidence-based 32 recommendations for improving communication about flash flood risks in ways that help people 33 understand when, where, and how they are at risk and how to protect themselves when needed. 34 Although a number of studies have examined public risk perceptions and protective 35 decisions for other hydrometeorological hazards, such as hurricanes and slower-onset floods (e.g., Dash and Gladwin 2007, Lazo et al. 2015, Huang et al. 2015, Bubeck et al. 2012, Kellens 36 37 et al. 2013, Sherman-Morris 2013), few studies have investigated these issues for flash floods 38 (Gruntfest et al. 2002; Knocke and Kolivras 2007; Wagner 2007; Benight et al. 2007; Drobot et 39 al. 2007; Ruin et al. 2007, 2008, 2014; Coles 2008, League 2009, Lazrus et al. 2015). Flash 40 floods evolve rapidly, often with significant variability and uncertainty in local conditions and

impacts, and thus present distinct challenges for communicating and responding to threats. To
help address these challenges, this study investigates people's perceptions, understandings, and
interpretations of flash flood risks and alerts¹ and their anticipated responses to flash flood
warnings. The analysis focuses on members of the public in the U.S., utilizing data from a survey
of 418 residents of Boulder, Colorado, conducted in 2010.

46 The article examines three research questions: 1) How do members of the Boulder public 47 perceive and understand flash flood risks? 2) How do they perceive and interpret flash flood 48 warnings and other alerts?; and 3) How do they anticipate responding to flash flood alerts, and 49 what influences their anticipated responses? This includes investigating people's knowledge, 50 attitudes, and beliefs about flash flood risks and alerts and their anticipated decisions when a 51 flash flood threatens. For time-sensitive hazards such as flash floods, people's interpretations and decision processes during a real threat are complex and difficult to measure, especially among 52 53 people at high risk. By examining people's anticipated interpretations and behavior in 54 hypothetical contexts, this study seeks to develop knowledge that can help understand what 55 people think and do during more complicated real-world flash flood situations.

56

The study area, Boulder, Colorado, is a community of approximately 100,000 people at the

¹ In this article, we use the term "alerts" to encompass multiple types of forecast and warning communications, including (but not limited to) the flash flood "watch" and "warning" products issued by the U.S. National Weather Service (NWS). The NWS watch and warning products are discussed further in section 4.1.

57 base of the foothills of the U.S. Rocky Mountains, and more than 30,000 students are enrolled 58 annually at the University of Colorado Boulder. To sample this population, survey respondents 59 were recruited by mail, supplemented by convenience recruitment of students on the university 60 campus. Flash flooding is a risk in the study region, and Boulder and nearby foothills and canyons experienced devastating and deadly flash flooding in September 2013. However, at the 61 62 time of the survey, severe, widespread flooding had not occurred in Boulder in several decades 63 (City of Boulder 2012). Thus, the study examines a population with little or no direct local 64 experience with flash flooding.

65 The article makes several novel contributions to the literature on public perceptions of and 66 responses to flash flood (and other) risks. First, we examine respondents' perceptions and 67 interpretations of flash flood risks and alerts in greater depth than previous studies and from new 68 perspectives. For example, we build on previous work examining whether people can correctly differentiate the NWS alert terminology "watch" and "warning" by investigating people's 69 70 understandings and interpretations of the alerts more broadly, using data from multiple survey 71 questions. This includes utilizing new measures, such as perceived likelihood of flash flooding 72 given a warning, that we anticipate may be related to how people respond to warnings. In 73 addition, we aim to better understand how different aspects of people's flash-flood-related 74 perceptions and interpretations influence their responses to flash flood warnings by 75 quantitatively examining these relationships, using regression analysis. To help contextualize and 76 interpret results from the quantitative analyses, we incorporate analysis of data from open-ended 77 questions on flash flood warning decision making.

Another contribution of this research is that it was conducted as part of a larger, multimethod study, which included research using a mental models approach (e.g., Morgan et al.

80 2002) to examine how Boulder-area professionals and members of the public conceive of and 81 make decisions about flash flood risks (Morss et al. 2015a, Lazrus et al. 2015). This related 82 work, found that some members of the Boulder public have misconceptions or incomplete 83 understandings about several aspects of flash flood risks and risk reduction, which may influence 84 their ability to avoid life-threatening situations when a flash flood threatens. The analysis 85 presented here builds on this mental models research, first, by examining the extent to which 86 some of these types of misconceptions are present in the larger public survey sample, and 87 second, by using regression analysis to quantitatively examine whether such misconceptions are 88 associated with differences in anticipated responses to flash flood warnings. Further, as part of 89 the larger study, a similar questionnaire to that examined here was implemented with 20 90 Boulder-area professionals with job responsibilities related to the Boulder-area flash flood 91 warning system, including U.S. National Weather Service (NWS) forecasters, local emergency 92 managers and other public officials, and television and radio broadcasters (Morss et al. 2015a). 93 This allows us to compare, for some of the survey questions, public perceptions and 94 interpretations with those of flash flood warning professionals. 95 Section 2 describes the study methodology, including the survey design, implementation, and 96 data analysis. Sections 3 and 4 discuss how respondents perceive and understand flash flood 97 risks and flash flood forecasts and alerts (including NWS watches and warnings). Section 5 98 examines whether and how respondents anticipate acting given a flash flood alert and how this 99 varies with some of the factors discussed in sections 3 and 4. Section 6 summarizes key results 100 and discusses potential implications for improving flash flood alerts and risk communication. 101 2. Methodology

102 2.1 Survey questionnaire development

103	The survey questionnaire was initially developed as part of the flash flood mental models
104	studies discussed in Morss et al. (2015a) and Lazrus et al. (2015). The 20 Boulder-area
105	professionals and 26 Boulder residents who participated in those studies were each asked to fill
106	out a paper version of the questionnaire towards the end of their mental models interviews. In
107	late fall – early winter 2009, the questionnaire was revised for a larger-scale public survey based
108	on this initial implementation as well as ideas from members of the research team and
109	collaborators ² . Revisions included modifications to existing questions as well as development of
110	several new questions.
111	The revised version of the questionnaire was pretested in person in January 2010 with five
112	Boulder residents, using one-on-one interviews in which the participants were asked to think
113	aloud while reading and responding to the survey (Ericsson and Simon 1993). The findings from
114	the pretest were used to revise and finalize the survey questionnaire.

115 2.2 Survey data collection and respondents

² The survey data used in this article were gathered as part of a Senior Capstone project conducted by Kelsey Mulder and Curtis McDonald at the University of Oklahoma, under the mentorship of Jeffrey Lazo; Randy Peppler (Cooperative Institute for Mesoscale Meteorological Studies); and Kimberly Klockow and Gina Eosco (University of Oklahoma). Additional contributors to the survey design include the other co-authors of this article; Ann Bostrom and Rebecca Hudson (University of Washington); and Emily Laidlaw (National Center for Atmospheric Research).

The survey data used in this article were collected using two sampling strategies: mailings to residents of Boulder zip codes (referred to as the "mail sample") and distribution to students on the University of Colorado Boulder campus ("university sample").

119 For the mail sample, surveys were mailed to 1000 addresses randomly sampled from 120 Boulder zip codes, provided by a survey sampling company. Of the 1000, 750 were sent 121 following Dillman's (2000) recommendations, with multiple mailings, using incentives ranging 122 from none to \$5; the remaining 250 were sent in a single mailing with no incentive. All of the 123 mail surveys were sent with a stamped and addressed return envelope. Of the mailings sent to 124 valid addresses (Table 1), 408 completed surveys were returned, a response rate of 47%.³ 125 Students at the University of Colorado Boulder are potentially at risk from flash flooding, 126 and they (and young adults in general) may perceive risks and interpret and respond to weather 127 alerts differently than non-students (e.g., Gruntfest et al. 2002, Knocke and Kolivras 2007, 128 Sherman-Morris 2010, Lovekamp and McMahon 2011). However, because students tend to be 129 more transient, they were expected to be underrepresented in the mail survey. Thus, the mail 130 sample was supplemented with a convenience sample of 200 surveys personally distributed by

³ For surveys mailed using the non-Dillman method, the response rate was 27%. For those mailed using the Dillman method with no incentive, the response rate was 36%. For those mailed using the Dillman method with an incentive, the response rate varied between 53% and 66%, depending on the incentive (\$1, \$2, or \$5). Further details on the mail survey and response rates, are available in Mulder (2012) or from the authors.

researchers to students walking on the university campus (Table 1). Forty-three of these surveyswere returned completed, a response rate of 22%.

When asked for their home zip code, a portion of respondents either did not provide a zip code or reported a zip code outside of Boulder (Table 1). Since these respondents were not confirmed residents of Boulder zip codes, they were not included in the data set used in this article. Thus, the mail sample analyzed here contains 388 respondents, the university sample contains 30 respondents, and the full "public sample" (mail plus university) contains 418 respondents (Table 1).

139 Addresses were not available for the university sample, so these 30 respondents could not be 140 geolocated. Based on their reported zip code, the correct addresses for 16 respondents in the mail 141 sample could not be confirmed, and so their locations were not used (Table 1). Residence 142 locations for the remaining 372 respondents in the mail sample (the "geolocated subsample") 143 were geolocated as described in Mulder (2012) and are shown in Figure 1. 144 Table 2 shows sociodemographic characteristics of the full Boulder public sample compared 145 to estimates for the City of Boulder population in 2010. The survey sample contains a higher 146 percentage of people who are older, own their residence, have more formal education, have

147 higher incomes, and speak English as their primary language. Many of these differences are

148 likely associated with the under-sampling of University of Colorado Boulder students and other

149 more transient groups that are more difficult to access with a mail survey. Although there were

150 23 mail sample respondents who reported being university students, the majority of the 53

students in the full survey sample came from the university convenience sample (Table 1).⁴ *2.3 Data analysis*

Data entry for the public survey was performed by a professional research company and quality controlled by a member of the research team. For the 372 respondents in the geolocated subsample, ArcGIS was used to determine the respondents' residence locations relative to the 100-year and 500-year designated floodplains (Figure 1; Mulder 2012). Results from additional geospatial analysis can be found in Mulder (2012).

158 For quantitative analysis of data from the closed-ended questions, we coded categorical 159 responses onto numerical scales, if one was not provided on the survey (e.g., questions with 5 160 response options ranging from "Not at all likely" to "Extremely likely" were coded onto a 1-to-5 161 scale). Where possible, "Other" responses to closed-ended questions were recoded into one of 162 the closed-ended responses, based on the open-ended response provided. For the open-ended 163 questions, we analyzed the data qualitatively by developing categories inductively based on the 164 data, then coding the responses into those categories (e.g., Miles and Huberman 1994). 165 We then calculated summary statistics for the quantitative data, as well as additional statistical analyses to examine variations and associations across the data set. The quantitative 166

⁴ Survey question H10a: "Are you a student at the University of Colorado?" [Response options: Yes, No] (N=363). All 30 respondents in the university sample responded Yes. Non-respondents were coded as No.

analysis included multiple linear regressions⁵ with stated likelihood of taking protective action
given a warning as the dependent variable, and different hypothesized predictors as independent
variables. For the regression analyses, missing values for the independent variables were
replaced by the median response for that variable.

171 Unless otherwise noted, all results presented and discussed are for the Boulder public 172 sample (mail plus university). Because some respondents did not provide responses for some of 173 the questions, the number of respondents (N) varies by question (or question item). For some of 174 the survey questions, we also compared data from the public sample with data from the Boulder-175 area professionals studied in Morss et al. (2015a); due to the small number of professionals, we 176 did not perform statistical comparisons across these samples. The wording of each survey 177 question examined in the article is provided in the relevant table or figure or, if the data is not 178 presented in a table or figure, in a footnote in the main text.

179 **3.** Perceptions and understandings of flash flood risks

In this section, we examine how respondents perceive and understand flash flood risks,
based on data from the survey. These findings are of interest because they describe potentially
important aspects of Boulder residents' attitudes towards and beliefs about flash flood risks,
which interact with interpretations of flash flood alerts and their protective decisions.

⁵ Results are shown for an ordinary least squares regression. Because the dependent variable is ordinal, we also performed the same analysis using an ordered probit regression, and the substantive results are the same as those shown.

184 *3.1 Previous flash flood experience and preparations*

185 A number of previous studies have found that people's previous experiences with a hazard 186 (such as flooding) can influence their perceptions of the hazard as well as their protective 187 decisions (e.g., Wagner 2007, Siegrist and Gutscher 2006, Knocke and Kolivras 2007, Lin et al. 188 2008, Kellens et al. 2013, Wachinger et al. 2013, Lazrus et al. 2015, Morss et al. 2015b, Demuth 189 2015). In this sample, 57% of respondents indicated that they had no experience with flash 190 flooding⁶ (N=381)⁷. Ten percent mentioned direct personal experience with a significant flash 191 flood event as it occurred. Most of these experiences were outside the Colorado Front Range. 192 The remainder discussed issues such as being aware of flooding (e.g., from the media), seeing 193 impacts after a flood, hearing about flood experiences from family or friends, or experiencing a 194 flash flood warning or threat. This limited personal experience with flash flooding is not 195 surprising since flash flooding is rare in any one location and (at the time of the survey) major 196 flooding had not occurred in Boulder in decades. 197 Taking preparatory action for a hazard can be an indication that people perceive the hazard

as risky, and it can also facilitate protective action if the hazard threatens. To examine whether

199 people had made any prior preparations for a potential flash flood, the survey asked respondents

⁶ Survey question H1: "What previous experience, if any, do you have with flash flooding?" [Open-ended response].

⁷ N indicates the number of respondents for the relevant survey question, excluding missing responses and, unless otherwise noted, "Other" and "Don't know" responses.

if they had engaged in five different preparatory activities⁸. Forty-one percent of respondents
indicated that they had made at least one type of preparation for flash flooding (N=373). The
most common preparation was planning an evacuation route (23% of total), followed by making
plans with household members (15%) and packing an emergency kit (14%). Fewer indicated
having made changes to their home or property (10%) or making plans with non-household
members (7%).

206 3.2 Perceptions and understandings of whether residence is located in a designated floodplain

207 As one measure of perceived exposure to flash flooding, the survey asked respondents

208 whether their residence was in a designated floodplain. Table 3 shows results for perceived

209 floodplain location for the full public sample, comparing the student and non-student

210 subsamples. Overall, approximately 20% of respondents said they lived in a floodplain, and

211 nearly 40% of respondents said they did not know. "Don't know" responses were especially

⁸ Survey question H2: "Which of the following, if any, have you done to prepare for a flash flood event? Planned an evacuation route; Packed an emergency kit; Made plans with family members who live within your residence; Made plans with family or friends who do not live in your residence; Made changes to my home or property to protect it from flash floods; Other preparations (please describe)" [Response options for each item: Yes, No, Not applicable]. The survey also asked about flood insurance, which is not included in the preparations examined in this article since insurance is not specific to flash flooding. prevalent among students (and among renters⁹). This suggests that university students in our
sample tend to exhibit some differences in flash flood risk perceptions from non-students; this
will be examined further in section 5.2.
Table 4 and Figure 1 compare perceived floodplain location with actual floodplain location
for the geolocated respondents. Of the 33 geolocated respondents who actually lived in a
designated 100-year or 500-year floodplain, only about half knew that they did. Of the 315

218 geolocated respondents who did not live in a floodplain, approximately one-fifth thought that 219 they did.

220 As shown in Figure 1, many of the 56 respondents who erroneously believed that they lived 221 in a floodplain did not live near a designated floodplain or near a creek. Flooding — especially 222 flash flooding in an urbanized area such as Boulder with multiple creeks and drainages — can and often does occur outside mapped floodplains (e.g., Highfield et al. 2013). However, most 223 224 areas of Boulder had not experienced major flooding in decades (City of Boulder 2012), and so 225 most respondents' perceptions of floodplain locations (at the time of the survey) are not likely 226 related to having seen flooding (or near-flooding) in these areas. Thus, it is not clear why many 227 of these respondents thought that they lived in a designated floodplain. These perceptions could, 228 however, influence people's responses to a flash flood threat.

229 3.3 Perceived likelihood of flash flooding and seriousness and controllability of flash flood

⁹ Seventy-five percent of renters said that they did not know whether they lived in a floodplain, compared to 26% of residence owners.

230 impacts

231 As another measure of risk perception, the survey asked respondents to estimate the 232 likelihood of flash flooding occurring in Boulder during the next year. To elicit likelihood 233 judgments (here and in section 4.2), we used the "magnifier scale" that was developed by 234 Woloshin et al. (2000). This scale was designed to facilitate elicitation of a wide range of 235 numerical probabilistic estimates, including low probabilities (<1%). Woloshin et al. (2000) 236 found that this scale has validity, reliability, and usability similar to or better than other 237 commonly used scales, even among respondents with low numeracy. Nevertheless, it can be 238 challenging for people to estimate probabilities associated with rare events such as flash floods, 239 and responses can be influenced by the question framing and response format (e.g., Slovic 2000, 240 Fischhoff 2012, Persoskie and Downs 2015). Thus, we use the elicited likelihood estimates not 241 as absolute judgments of risks, but as a way to explore differences in perceptions and 242 interpretations among the surveyed members of the public and professionals (all of whom were 243 asked to respond to the same question using the same scale). 244 As shown in Figure 2, public respondents indicated a wide range of likelihoods of flash 245 flooding in Boulder. The median values for the public's and professionals' estimates are similar. 246 However, some members of the public indicated very low probabilities, in the 0-0.1% range — 247 lower than all of the professionals. This suggests that some members of the public perceive 248 Boulder as less susceptible to flash flooding than local flash flood professionals (see also Morss 249 et al. 2015a, Lazrus et al. 2015).

250 Psychometric studies of risk have found that characteristics other than risk likelihood, such
251 as controllability and seriousness of consequences, are important attributes of laypeople's
252 judgments of risks (e.g., Fischhoff et al. 1978, Brun 1992, Teigen et al. 1999, Kellens et al.

2013). Following this previous work, the survey asked respondents to rate these two aspects of
risk perceptions for flash flooding (along with six other types of risks).¹⁰ For seriousness of
consequences, public respondents' mean rating was 4.4 (SD¹¹=1.5), near the midpoint (between
minor injuries and mostly deaths). For controllability of impacts, their mean rating was 3.1
(SD=1.8), suggesting that respondents felt on average that they had some, but not substantial,
personal control over the impacts of flash flooding.

259 3.4 Perceptions and understandings of the risks posed by flash flooding

To investigate perceptions of the risks posed by flash flooding in Boulder in greater detail, the survey asked respondents about the likelihood of eight types of potential impacts if a flash flood were to occur in Boulder. As shown in Table 5, on average public respondents rated

¹⁰ Survey question 1: "For some hazards, the impact is minor (for example, minor injuries or illnesses). For other hazards, the most serious consequences are those that result in deaths. For each of the following hazards, if they occurred in the United States how serious are the consequences?" [Response options: Minor injuries / illnesses (1) to Mostly deaths (7), for each of the 7 hazards shown], and survey question 2: "How much personal control do people in the United States have over the impacts on themselves from each of the following hazards?" [Response options: Little personal control (1) to Much personal control (7), for each of the 7 hazards]. Results for flash flooding compared to the six other hazards, and for the public sample compared to the professionals, are shown in Figure S1.

¹¹ SD = standard deviation

economic losses, disrupted transportation, and building and property damage as the most likely
impacts of flash flooding in Boulder. They rated people killed, on average, as the least likely of
the eight impacts but still as somewhat likely (the scale mid-point). The public respondents'
average ratings of likelihood of the impacts were similar to those of the forecaster and media
professionals, but less than those of the public official professionals (who rated each of the eight
types of impacts as very to extremely likely).

269 The most prominent drainage in Boulder is Boulder Creek, which travels down Boulder 270 Canyon and then through downtown Boulder (Figure 1), where a large number of people and 271 buildings are located in the floodplain. Thus, Boulder Creek is often considered as the place of 272 highest flood risk in Boulder due to the potential for significant loss of life and catastrophic 273 impacts (Gruntfest et al. 2002, Stewart 2006, City of Boulder 2012, Morss et al. 2015a). 274 However, as demonstrated in the 2013 flood, multiple creeks and areas in Boulder are at risk for 275 flash flooding (NWS 2014b, Gochis et al. 2015, Morss et al. 2015a). To explore perceptions of 276 which locations in Boulder are at risk, the survey asked respondents how much they agreed that 277 *only* areas in Boulder near Boulder Creek are at risk from flash flooding¹² (N=414). Although 278 75% disagreed, 19% said that they strongly or somewhat agreed. This suggests that (at the time

¹² Survey question 12: "How much do you agree or disagree with the following statement? 'Only those on or near Boulder Creek are at risk from flash flooding in Boulder.' " [Response options: Strongly agree, Somewhat agree, Neither agree nor disagree, Somewhat disagree, Strongly disagree (coded on a 1-to-5 scale), or Don't know].

of the survey) some members of the Boulder public did not understand that areas further from
Boulder Creek, including but not limited to areas along other creeks and drainages, are at also
risk.

282 In the U.S., the majority of flash flood deaths in recent decades have occurred when people 283 become trapped in or enter floodwaters, usually in a vehicle or on foot (Drobot et al. 2007, 284 Ashley and Ashley 2008). Previous research suggests that this may be because some people 285 misunderstand the risks posed by flash-flood waters (Knocke and Kolivras 2007; Drobot 2007; 286 Lazrus et al. 2015, Becker et al. 2015). To investigate people's understandings of these risks, the 287 survey asked respondents what depth of fast-flowing water was safe to cross by foot and by 288 automobile, in separate questions (Figure 3). Although estimates of what is "safe" vary, most 289 U.S. guidelines indicate that six inches (15 cm) or less of moving water is unsafe on foot; 24 290 inches (60 cm) of water can carry away most vehicles, and lesser depths (6-18 inches; 15-46 cm) 291 can cause many vehicles to stall and float and thus are unsafe (NWS 2015a, FEMA 2015, City of 292 Boulder 2015). Approximately one-third of respondents provided conservative estimates, saying 293 that little or no water (0-3 inches; 0-8 cm) was safe to cross by foot or car. However, 41% 294 indicated that more than 6 inches (15 cm) of fast-flowing water was safe to cross on foot, and 295 17% indicated that more than 12 inches (30 cm) was safe to cross in a car. This suggests that, 296 similar to previous findings in Boulder and other U.S. communities (Gruntfest et al. 2002, 297 Knocke and Kolivras 2007, Drobot et al. 2007), a significant portion of the Boulder population 298 misunderstands the risks of entering flash-flood waters on foot or in a car. 299 The above discussion examines respondents' perceptions of the risks posed by flash 300 flooding to a person or in Boulder in general. Previous research indicates that people take 301 protective action for a hazard when they feel that they or their family are personally at risk, or

not safe (e.g., Mileti 1995, Mileti and Sorensen 1990, Riad et al. 1999, Whitehead et al. 2000,
Dow and Cutter 1998, Dash and Gladwin 2007, Burnside et al. 2007, Morss and Hayden 2010,
Lindell and Perry 2012, Brotzge and Donner 2013, Lazo et al. 2015). As a more personalized
measure of risk perception, the survey asked respondents' about their perceived personal safety
from flash flooding¹³ (N=403). Only 18% of respondents selected "Neither agree nor disagree";
most either strongly or somewhat agreed (43%) or disagreed (39%) that they were safe from
flash flooding.

309 3.5 Perceptions of factors contributing to flash flooding

As discussed in the introduction, Lazrus et al. (2015) found that some members of the Boulder public have misconceptions or incomplete understandings of the factors contributing to flash flood risks. This was examined in the survey by asking respondents to rate the importance of eight different factors in determining the occurrence of flash flooding at a location. As shown in Table 6, on average public respondents rated elevation, nearness to a creek or canyon, and amount of rain in the last hour or 24 hours as the most important contributing factors. These

¹³ Survey question 19: "The following are statements some people tell us about not personally taking action in response to a flash flood warning. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with these statements. Check the box indicating your level of agreement for each statement. ... I believe I am safe from flash flooding." [Response options: Strongly disagree, Somewhat disagree, Neither agree nor disagree, Somewhat agree, Strongly agree (coded on a 1-to-5 scale), or Don't know].

results are similar to those from the mental models interviews with members of the Boulder
public discussed in Lazrus et al. (2015), in which elevation or terrain, creeks or streams, and rain
were mentioned by all or nearly all interviewees.

319 For most of the contributing factors, the public's average ratings of importance were similar 320 to the professionals' ratings. One potentially important difference is that the professionals 321 (especially the forecasters and public officials) rated rainfall in the last 24 hours as less important 322 than rain in the last hour, whereas the public on average did not. All of the professionals rated 1-323 hour rainfall as Very or Extremely Important in determining flash flooding, compared with 86% 324 of the public respondents. This corroborates results from Lazrus et al. (2015) that (compared to 325 professionals) some members of the Boulder public underestimate the rapid-onset nature of flash 326 flooding and the importance of thunderstorm rains in contributing to flash flood risks, relative to 327 the risks of snowmelt and rain from other types of storms (see also Knocke and Kolivras 2007, 328 Wagner 2007).

4. Perceptions and interpretations of flash flood forecasts, warnings, and other alerts

330 In this section, we examine how respondents perceive and interpret flash flood forecasts and 331 alerts. This includes respondents' understandings of NWS watch and warning alert terminology 332 and their interpretations of what flash flood warnings mean, analyzed using data from several 333 survey questions, . It also includes respondents' trust in flash flood forecasts and warnings, their 334 opinions about flash flood forecast and warning accuracy, and the relationship between them. 335 4.1 Interpretations of U.S. National Weather Service "watch" and "warning" alerts 336 The U.S. NWS currently issues two primary types of alerts for potential flash flooding (and other hazards): a *watch*, which indicates that the risk of a hazardous event has increased 337

338 significantly in the area, and a *warning*, which indicates that a hazardous event is occurring,

339	imminent, or highly probable in the area. ¹⁴ Previous studies have found that many or most, but
340	not all, members of the U.S. public understand these two terms (although specific results vary
341	depending on the hazard, location, and question format; see, e.g., Legates and Biddle 1999,
342	Balluz et al. 2000, Gruntfest et al. 2002, Mitchem 2003, Powell and O'Hair 2008, Schultz et al.
343	2010, Sherman-Morris 2010, Ripberger et al. 2015). The fact that some people confuse or
344	otherwise misunderstand these two terms has raised concerns about watch/warning terminology
345	in the U.S. and helped motivate discussion in the U.S. meteorological community about
346	modifying NWS hazard messaging (e.g., Jacks et al. 2013, Horvitz et al. 2014, NWS 2015c).
347	When asked to describe the difference (if any) between a flash flood watch and warning,
348	74% of respondents in this survey indicated a correct understanding of the difference between
349	the two types of alerts (see Table 7 for question wording). Twelve percent reversed the
350	definitions of the two terms. ¹⁵ A few respondents (1%) indicated that the two terms were the

¹⁴ According to the U.S. NWS glossary (NWS 2015b): "A watch is used when the risk of a hazardous weather or hydrologic event has increased significantly, but its occurrence, location, and/or timing is still uncertain. It is intended to provide enough lead time so that those who need to set their plans in motion can do so." "A warning is issued when a hazardous weather or hydrologic event is occurring, is imminent, or has a very high probability of occurring. A warning is used for conditions posing a threat to life or property."

¹⁵ Unlike Powell and O'Hair (2008), we did not find that many respondents were confused by thinking that the term "watch" meant visual confirmation of the hazard. Five respondents who same, and 5% said that they did not know. The remainder (8%) of the responses could not be
categorized (e.g., "One is less serious than the other"). Thus, when viewed from this perspective,
our results are similar to those from past studies: most, but not all, respondents can correctly
differentiate between a "watch" and a "warning".

355 To help build deeper understanding of people's interpretations of flash flood watches and 356 warnings, we examined this issue from several additional perspectives. First, we examined the 357 ways that respondents described the difference between the two types of alerts, shown in Table 358 7. This analysis indicates the multiple, overlapping ways that people can interpret watches and 359 warnings. For example, some discussed the terms as conveying the likelihood of event 360 occurrence, imminence of the event, or seriousness of the threat. Others discussed the terms with 361 respect to the temporal or spatial aspects of the alerts or actions to take in response. Moreover, within these conceptualizations, public respondents discussed the meanings of "watch" and 362 "warning" differently (for example, warning likelihood as "possible," "likely," "very likely," 363 364 "extremely likely," "almost certain," or "happening"). Thus, even when people can correctly distinguish the two terms, they can have different interpretations, which may or may not 365 366 correspond to the intended information content.



As shown in Table 7, each of these conceptualizations of the difference between "watch"

reversed the definitions said (incorrectly) that a watch means a flood has been observed or spotted, but 14 of the respondents who correctly differentiated the terms said that a warning means a flood has been observed or spotted. and "warning" — except for certainty and accuracy — was also mentioned by one or more of the professionals. In other words, these different interpretations are also evident among the professionals who create and convey the alerts. This suggests that the alerts have multidimensional, situationally dependent meanings, among professionals as well as members of the public. Because these more complex underlying meanings are difficult to convey with a single word, additional information is often needed to interpret what a watch or warning means in a given situation.

375 To investigate respondents' relative understandings of a watch and warning in two 376 additional ways, we compared: 1) each respondent's estimates of the likelihood of a flash flood 377 occurring if a flash flood a) watch or b) warning is issued (discussed further in section 4.2); and 378 2) each respondent's stated likelihood of taking protective action after receiving a flash flood a) 379 watch or b) warning for their location (discussed further in section 5.1). About half of the 12% of 380 respondents who reversed the terms in the open-ended question also reversed them in both of 381 these two comparisons, suggesting a consistent reversal in their understandings of the two terms. 382 However, many of those who reversed the terms still indicated high likelihood of flash flooding 383 and high likelihood of taking protective action given a warning. Together with Table 7, these 384 results illustrate the importance of investigating people's interpretations of watches and warnings 385 in context as well as their definitions of the terminology.

When people receive alerts for real flash flood threats, the term watch or warning is usuallyaccompanied by information that helps people evaluate the level of threat and appropriate action.

388 To investigate how people understand and interpret warning information (rather than warning 389 *terminology*), the survey included a question that asked respondents what they would do if they received the hypothetical NWS flash flood warning message shown in Figure 4.¹⁶ As discussed 390 391 further in section 5.1, when given a warning along with this informational context, nearly all 392 respondents discussed either taking an action or evaluating the risk given their situation. This 393 suggests that even if people misunderstand or are unclear about the meaning of the NWS term 394 "warning" compared to "watch", most can still adjust their understandings when given warning 395 information in context. In other words, while the phrase "flash flood warning" may be useful in 396 triggering actions for professional users such as public officials, a warning is often most 397 meaningful and useful to members of the public within its informational context. This is not 398 surprising, since the term "warning" is used for purposes other than alerting people about imminent life-threatening weather-related events, and thus can have different meanings in 399 400 different situations.

401 4.2 Perceptions of flash flood likelihood given a warning

¹⁶ Survey question 27: "Say it was 9:30PM, you were in Boulder, and you received the following message:" [See Figure 4 for message] "Again, if it was 9:30PM and you were in Boulder, what would you do?" [Open-ended response] (N=392). Flash flooding is most likely to occur in Boulder in the evening or night, and the 9:30PM time was selected to reduce variation in what people would typically be doing when they received the warning (i.e., most would not be at work, commuting, or asleep).

402 Using the same magnifier scale discussed in section 3.3, the survey asked respondents to 403 estimate the likelihood of a flash flood occurring in Boulder in the next 24 hours if a flash flood warning were issued in Boulder.¹⁷ Results are shown in Figure 5. NWS guidelines for the 404 405 Boulder region indicate that forecasters are to issue a flash flood warning if there is "an 80% or 406 greater chance of flooding that is expected to reach warning criteria" (NWS 2014a, p. 3). 407 Corresponding to this, NWS forecasters provided estimates within a small range around 80%. On 408 average, public respondents' estimates of the likelihood of flash flooding given a warning were 409 lower than the forecasters' (and other professionals') estimates. Moreover, a significant portion 410 of public respondents indicated low likelihoods of flash flooding given a warning, suggesting 411 that they have a different interpretation of the threat indicated by a flash flood warning than the 412 forecasters and other professionals. 413 One might expect that these low estimates of flash flood likelihood in Boulder given a 414 warning for Boulder are primarily associated with reversals of the watch-warning terminology. 415 However, they are not: the mean estimate was 45% for public respondents who correctly 416 differentiated the two terms in their open-ended responses in section 4.1, compared with 49% for 417 those who reversed the terms. This suggests that, whether they confuse watches with warnings or 418 not, a significant portion of public respondents underestimated the level of risk that forecasters

419 intend to convey when they issue a flash flood warning. Such interpretations are likely to

¹⁷ Respondents were also asked the same question for a flash flood watch; results are shown in Figure S2.

420 influence people's behavioral responses to warnings.

421 *4.3 Trust in and perceived accuracy of flash flood forecasts and warnings*

422 Previous research has shown that trust in information and information sources can be an 423 important component of people's interpretations and use of information about risks, including 424 floods and other weather-related hazards (e.g., Mileti 1995, Mileti and Sorensen 2000, Sherman-425 Morris 2005, McComas 2006, Parker et al. 2009, Morss 2010, Lazrus et al. 2012, Lindell and 426 Perry 2012, Wachinger et al. 2013, Ripberger et al. 2015). When asked about their trust in flash flood forecasts and warnings¹⁸, respondents on average said that they trust the information 427 428 somewhat or very much (mean=3.6, SD=0.7; N=404, excluding missing responses). No 429 respondents selected "I don't trust them at all", and only 5% selected "Don't know". 430 As discussed in Ripberger et al. (2015), it seems likely that perceived trust in forecasts and warnings would be related to perceived accuracy. When asked about perceived accuracy of flash 431 flood forecasts and warnings¹⁹, respondents on average said "somewhat accurate" (mean=3.2, 432

¹⁸ Survey question 23: "How much do you, or would you, trust flash flood forecasts and warnings?" [Response options: I don't trust them at all, I do not trust them very much, I trust them somewhat, I trust them very much, I trust them completely (coded on a 1-to-5 scale), or Don't know].

¹⁹ Survey question 21: "In your opinion, how accurate are flash flood forecasts and warnings in general at this time?" [Response options: Not at all accurate, Not very accurate, Somewhat accurate, Very accurate, Extremely accurate (coded on a 1-to-5 scale), or Don't know].

SD=0.7; N=403, excluding missing responses). Only one respondent selected "Not at all
accurate." However, 37% selected "Don't know", many more than in the trust question. This is
likely because flash floods are sufficiently rare that many respondents (at the time of the study)
felt that they could not evaluate flash flood forecast and warning accuracy. For example, at
the time of our study, the NWS had issued only 4 flash flood warnings and 12 flash flood
watches for Boulder County in the previous 10 years.²⁰

439 For those who responded to both questions, trust and perceived accuracy were significantly 440 and positively correlated (Pearson's r=0.66, p<0.001). However, overall, those who said they did 441 not know how accurate forecasts and warnings are had similar levels of trust (mean=3.7, 442 SD=0.7) to those who did provide an estimate of accuracy (mean=3.6, SD=0.7). This suggests 443 that although trust in forecasts and warnings can be related to perceptions of accuracy, they are 444 different constructs, at least for some individuals (see also Demuth et al. 2011, Lazo et al. 2015). 445 Further, these results indicate that members of the public can trust forecasts and warnings even if 446 they have limited direct experience with them and do not know how accurate they are.

447 **5.** Protective decision making in response to flash flood warnings

Finally, we examine respondents' anticipated likelihood of taking protective action given aflash flood warning, followed by an analysis of which perceptions, understandings, and

²⁰ Data obtained from http://mesonet.agron.iastate.edu/vtec. Note, however, that respondents' experience with flash flood alerts for other areas and with other types of weather forecasts and warnings likely influenced their perceptions of flash flood forecast and warning accuracy.

interpretations influence anticipated warning responses. We then use data from open-ended
questions on the survey to explore how respondents discussed their choices of protective action
and their decision processes, and what this means for protective decision making when a flash
flood threatens.

454 5.1 Anticipated likelihood of taking action given a flash flood watch or warning

The survey included several questions to examine anticipated responses to flash flood alerts, in closed-ended and open-ended formats. The closed-ended questions asked respondents how likely they were to take protective action if they received a flash flood watch or a warning for their location (in separate questions).²¹ As shown in Figure 6, nearly three quarters (72%) of respondents said that they were very or extremely likely to take action if they received a warning.²²

Another survey question provided a hypothetical NWS flash flood warning message for
Boulder, which would be disseminated to the public (often verbatim) via NOAA Weather Radio,
television, radio, and internet when a warning was issued. Respondents were then asked (in an
open-ended format) what they would do if they received this message (see Figure 4 and section
4.1). In their response, 87% of respondents discussed engaging in some sort of protective

²¹ Because the questions did not specify what type of protective action, different respondents may have had different actions in mind when answering these questions.

²² Respondents were also asked the same question for a flash flood watch; results are shown in Figure S3.

466 activity, such as moving to a higher or different location, avoiding risky areas, seeking more 467 information, assessing the situation or staying alert, making preparations, or notifying others. 468 Most of the remaining respondents (13%) said they would stay home or do nothing, usually 469 because they did not believe their home was at risk and/or they were trying to avoid risky areas. 470 Only a few said that they did not know what they would do or suggested that the warning would not change their activities at all. Thus, if they received flash flood warning information, most 471 472 respondents anticipated, at minimum, assessing their risk and deciding what (if anything) to do. 473 5.2 Factors explaining likelihood of taking action in response to a flash flood warning 474 To explore how individuals' flash flood warning responses relate to their perceptions, 475 understandings, and interpretations, next we investigate the variations in Figure 6 in greater 476 depth using regression analysis. The dependent variable is individuals' anticipated likelihood of 477 taking some kind of protective action (also referred to as protective action intentions) if they 478 received a flash flood warning. Independent variables used in the regression included 479 sociodemographic characteristics and a subset of the variables discussed in sections 3-4 that we 480 anticipated might influence responses to warnings, based on the results in sections 3–4, previous 481 work on protective decision making for flash flooding and other hazards, and the findings in 482 Lazrus et al. (2015). Regression results are shown in Table 8. The adjusted R-squared of 0.35 483 suggests a strong fit for a model of human behavior.

484 Of the sociodemographic characteristics, only age was a significant predictor in the 485 regressions: younger respondents had significantly lower protective action intentions for a flash 486 flood warning. As anticipated in section 2.2., respondents who were university students exhibited 487 lower perceptions and understandings of flash flood risks in several ways. For example, as 488 discussed in section 3.2, students were significantly more likely than non-students to say they did not know whether they lived in a floodplain. Students also rated flash flood impacts as
significantly less serious and controllable, thought that people were significantly less likely to be
killed if a flash flood occurred, and thought that deeper fast-flowing water was safe to cross on
foot (additional analyses not shown). However, there was not a strong association between being
a student and protective action intentions, controlling for the other variables included in the
regression.

495 Protective action intentions for flash flooding were significantly higher among respondents 496 who said they had developed an evacuation plan or made other preparations for the hazard. This 497 is consistent with previous research investigating factors associated with public responses to 498 tornado and hurricane threats (e.g., Balluz et al. 2000, Nagele and Trainor 2012, Lazo et al. 499 2015). Past direct experience with a significant flash flood, on the other hand, was not a 500 significant predictor in the regression.

501 Several flash flood risk perception and understanding variables from sections 3.2-3.5 were 502 included in the regression, but only two were significant predictors. First, protective action 503 intentions were higher for respondents who perceived a greater likelihood of people being killed 504 if a flash flood hit Boulder. This is likely because respondents who think that people are more 505 likely to be killed in a flash flood perceive a greater threat to their own lives in a flash flood 506 warning situation. Second, protective action intentions were higher for respondents who 507 perceived that they were less safe from flash flooding, consistent with the previous literature 508 discussed in section 3.4. The flash flood likelihood, seriousness, and controllability measures 509 tested were not significant predictors of anticipated warning response (see also Lazo et al. 2015). 510 The analysis in section 3 found that some respondents have incorrect or incomplete 511 understandings of their residence location relative to floodplains, the areas in Boulder at risk

from flash flooding, the depth of fast-flowing water that is safe to cross, and the importance of 1hour and 24-hour rainfall in contributing to flash flooding. Similar misconceptions of flash flood
risks have also been found in other studies, and these have potential to influence warning
decisions (Gruntfest et al. 2002, Drobot et al. 2007, Knocke and Kolivras 2007, Wagner 2007,
Ruin et al. 2007, Lazrus et al. 2015). However, in our analyses, none of these variables was a
significant predictor of protective action intention, controlling for the other variables included in
the regression.

519 Three measures of flash flood warning perceptions and interpretations from section 4 were 520 included in the regression, and all were highly significant predictors. Respondents who correctly 521 differentiated a flash flood watch from a warning, when asked to describe the difference, had 522 higher protective action intentions. This suggests that although understanding of watch/warning 523 terminology is not a comprehensive measure of whether people understand and can use warning 524 information, people who understand the terminology may be more likely to take action when 525 they hear that there is a flash flood warning with little or no accompanying information. 526 Protective action intentions were also higher for respondents who thought that flash flooding was 527 more likely given a warning and for those who had greater trust in flash flood forecasts and 528 warnings. This corroborates the discussion in section 4.1, that what people think a warning 529 means (as measured here, in terms of likelihood of threat) and how much they trust it are also 530 important for warning decision making.

531 5.3 What protective action? Complexity of decision making when a flash flood threatens

532 Sections 5.1 and 5.2 focused primarily on whether respondents anticipated taking some type 533 of action given a flash flood warning. To explore whether people know what protective actions 534 to take, the survey asked respondents what they should do if they heard a flash flood warning while driving, while in a building (on the ground floor or below), or while outdoors (in different
questions). Analysis of responses in the outdoors scenario are presented in Table 9; results from
the other two questions are similar (except as noted).

538 Two frequently advocated safety rules for flash flood threats in the U.S. are to seek higher 539 ground ("climb to safety"; e.g., Gruntfest et al. 2002) and to not try to drive or go through 540 flooded areas ("turn around, don't drown"; NWS 2015a). As shown in Table 9, most respondents 541 mentioned moving to a higher location or avoiding risky areas, suggesting that at least in theory, 542 they know how to protect themselves when a flash flood threatens (see also Gruntfest et al. 543 2002). A closer examination of the responses, however, illustrates how even if one knows these 544 safety rules, deciding what specific actions to take can be complex. A person can seek higher 545 ground, for example, by climbing or running on foot outside, driving to a higher location, 546 entering a building and moving up, or even climbing a tree. Sometimes it may be best to move to 547 a different location or seek shelter inside. Which course of action is best depends on the specific 548 circumstances, which are often difficult to evaluate in the midst of a spatially variable, highly 549 uncertain, rapidly evolving flash flood threat (Ruin et al. 2014, Morss et al. 2015a). Thus, as 550 some respondents noted, it may also be important to assess the situation, be alert, or seek more 551 information.

In the driving scenario, responses were similar to those in Table 9, except that many respondents mentioned that they would seek safety in the car (27%), out of the car (20%), or by

either staying in or leaving the car depending on the situation (13%).²³ Many of those who said
they would try to drive to safety discussed avoiding low-lying areas or driving through water,
suggesting that they recognized the potential hazards of trying to drive in a flash flood situation.
However, as indicated by the number of deaths and rescues of people caught in flash flooding in
cars, it is not always apparent what is hazardous and what is not until it is too late.

The complex, contextual nature of protective decision making for flash flooding is also 559 560 evident in people's responses to the hypothetical warning message in Figure 4 (section 5.1). For 561 example, some respondents discussed situational factors (such as family members or their 562 routine activities at that time) that would influence their actions. Many indicated the importance 563 of their location, compared to at-risk locations mentioned in the warning message or in general. 564 As one respondent said: "Note the areas affected and get out of there if in them or do not go in the areas if out of them"; another simply said that "It depends on where in Boulder I am." Such 565 566 assessments are useful; however, given the rapidly changing, localized, and often extreme nature 567 of flash flooding, it is often difficult to know which locations are at risk, which are safe, and 568 where one is relative to those locations in a specific flash flood threat, and how those will change 569 as the threat evolves. Thus, as some respondents noted, environmental and social cues (e.g., 570 "Look out the window. Check the Internet for more information. Call friends to get their

²³ Only four responses to the outdoor scenario (and none in the building scenario) mentioned getting in a car or driving, suggesting that most who were not in car when they received the warning would not try to move to a safer location by car.

571 experiences. ...") are often important in conjunction with warnings, to help assess the risk that 572 the threat poses to oneself (Lindell and Perry 2012, Ruin et al. 2014, Morss et al. 2015a).

As these results indicate, even when people are aware of and decide to respond to a flash flood threat, deciding what specific actions to take can be complex. Thus, flash flood warnings are important not only for notifying people about a threat and motivating them to take protective action; warning communication can also play an important role in helping people assess what the threat means given their situation and decide which actions to take, as the situation evolves.

578 **6. Summary and discussion**

579 Warning systems are a key component of effective flash flood risk management. However, 580 the rapid, complex evolution of flash flood events and the associated uncertainty create major 581 challenges for timely warning and protective decision making. This study aims to improve flash 582 flood warning communication and responses by investigating how members of the U.S. public 583 perceive and understand flash flood risks, how they interpret and anticipate responding to flash 584 flood alerts, and what factors influence their warning responses. The findings are based on 585 quantitative and qualitative analysis of data from a survey of 418 members of the public in 586 Boulder, Colorado, including a random mail sample and a convenience sample of university 587 students. A similar questionnaire was implemented with 20 Boulder-area flash flood warning 588 professionals, allowing a comparison of public and professional perspectives.

Public respondents' estimates of the likelihood of flash flooding in Boulder varied widely, as did their perceptions of the seriousness and controllability of flash flood impacts. Some public respondents incorrectly believed that only areas of Boulder near Boulder Creek were at risk from flash flooding, and many (especially students and renters) could not accurately identify whether their residence was in a designated floodplain. Some also overestimated the depth of fast-flowing 594 water that is safe to cross by foot or automobile. In the regression analysis, however, these 595 measures of general flash flood risk perceptions and understandings were not significant 596 predictors of anticipated likelihood of taking protective action given a warning. Protective action 597 intentions in response to a warning were, however, higher for respondents who said they had 598 made preparations for flash flooding, such as planning an evacuation route or creating a 599 household plan. Protective action intentions were also higher for respondents who perceived a 600 greater likelihood of people being killed if a flash flood hit Boulder and those who believed they 601 were less safe from flash flooding. These latter results are consistent with other research showing 602 that more concrete and personalized perceptions of risks are stronger motivators for protective 603 behaviors (e.g., Mileti and Sorensen 1990, Lindell and Perry 2012, Bubeck et al. 2012, Zwickle 604 and Wilson 2014).

605 To contribute to discussions about improving weather alert messaging, we explored 606 respondents' understandings and interpretations of the two primary types of flash flood alerts 607 issued by the U.S. NWS, watches and warnings, using data from several survey questions. The 608 analysis indicates that a small segment of respondents did confuse a flash flood watch with a 609 warning. According to the regression analysis, respondents who correctly described the 610 difference between the two terms indicated higher likelihoods of taking protective action given a 611 warning (presented without additional information). However, when asked how they would 612 respond to a hypothetical U.S. warning message, nearly all respondents (even most of those who 613 reversed the terminology) mentioned engaging in some type of protection-related activity. The 614 analysis also indicates that flash flood watches and warnings have multi-dimensional, 615 situationally dependent meanings, for both members of the public and professionals, that are 616 difficult to convey with a single word or other piece of information. Thus, it is unlikely that any

617 simple alert classification scheme (e.g., terminology, color, symbol) will, on its own, be
618 sufficient to convey what people need to know to interpret the alert's meaning in a given
619 situation. Together, these results suggest that the term "warning" (or "watch") itself is not as
620 important as the overall information content, since recipients will interpret the meaning of the
621 words in the context of other available information.

622 Respondents provided a wide range of estimates of the likelihood of flash flooding given a 623 watch or a warning, indicating significant variation in how they interpret the alerts. Respondents 624 who perceived a lower likelihood of flash flooding given a warning reported lower likelihoods of 625 taking protective action in response to a warning. Protective action intentions were also lower for 626 those who indicated less trust in flash flood forecasts and warnings. This suggests that in order to 627 enhance forecast and warning response, it is important to understand how people interpret risks 628 given forecast and warning information, how much they trust the information, and why. 629 Additional measures of how people interpret forecast and warning information would be 630 valuable to test in future work.

631 Analysis of data from open-ended survey questions asking what people should or would do 632 given a warning illustrate the complex, context-dependent nature of protective decision making 633 for a flash flood threat. General safety rules, such as those in the last paragraph of the warning 634 message in Figure 4, are valuable. However, the best way to implement those safety rules 635 depends on one's specific location and other circumstances relative to the details of the flash 636 flood event, as it evolves. Moreover, it can be difficult to evaluate what to do (e.g., where and 637 how to seek higher ground, which roads and other areas to avoid) during a rapidly evolving, 638 highly uncertain flash flood situation. The challenge is, as one person responded to the 639 hypothetical warning message: "Get to higher ground - but I really wouldn't know quite where to

640 go!"

641 These results, together with related work, identify several important areas for future 642 research. First, more in-depth investigation of how different people perceive, interpret, and 643 respond to hydrometeorological alerts is needed, in realistic informational, social, and decision 644 contexts. More specifically, our findings suggest that it is important to understand what 645 influences people's trust in flash flood warnings, what underlies their beliefs about whether they 646 are safe from flash flooding or not, and how these interact with their warning interpretations and 647 decisions. In addition, the study reported here focused on investigating cognitive risk perceptions 648 (e.g., perceived likelihood of threat, severity of impacts, and controllability). As other research 649 suggests, it is also important to investigate people's affective responses (such as fear and worry) 650 to flash flood threats and their perceived efficacy (or coping appraisal), since these can have 651 important influences on decisions (e.g., Witte 1992, Loewenstein et al. 2001, Slovic et al. 2004, 652 Grothmann and Reusswig 2006, McComas 2006, Terpstra 2011, Keller et al. 2011, Bubeck et al. 653 2012).

654 The findings also suggest that in order to improve flash flood warning communication and 655 response, it is important to go beyond investigating whether people understand what a warning 656 is, whether people will take protective action if they receive a warning, and whether people know 657 in general what they should do to protect themselves. It is also critical to understand how people 658 integrate and use different types of information (including warnings and environmental and 659 social cues) to make decisions for flash floods and other rapidly evolving threats (Mileti 1995, 660 Ruin et al. 2014). This knowledge can then be used to improve alerts with the goal of helping 661 people evaluate their risk and decide what to do as quickly and effectively as possible, given the 662 dynamic, uncertain, location-dependent nature of such threats (Morss et al. 2015a). This will be

663	especially valuable as flash flood detection, forecasting, and warning capabilities continue to
664	improve, providing more detailed information about approaching and evolving threats.
665	
666	Acknowledgements The authors thank Curtis McDonald, Gina Eosco, Kimberly Klockow, and
667	Randy Peppler for their collaboration on the University of Oklahoma Capstone project that
668	collected the data for this study; Emily Laidlaw, Marybeth Zarlingo, Ann Bostrom, and Rebecca
669	Hudson for their assistance with survey design and implementation; Jennifer Boehnert for her
670	assistance with GIS analysis; and Burrell Montz for her guidance and insight in the data analysis
671	and interpretation that Kelsey Mulder performed for her M.A. thesis at East Carolina University.
672	This study was partly supported by U.S. National Science Foundation grant 0729511. The
673	National Center for Atmospheric Research is sponsored by the National Science Foundation.

674 **References**

- Ashley, S. T., and W. S. Ashley, 2008: Flood fatalities in the United States. *Journal of Applied Meteorology and Climatology*, 47, 805-818.
- Balluz, L., L. Schieve, T. Holmes, S. Kiezak, and J. Malilay, 2000: Predictors for people's
 response to a tornado warning: Arkansas, 1 March 1997. *Disasters*, 24, 71-77.
- Becker, J. S., H. L. Taylor, B. J. Doody, K. C Wright, E. Gruntfest, and D. Webber, 2015: A
 review of people's behavior in and around floodwater. *Weather, Climate and Society*, 7,
 321–332.
- 682 Benight, C. C., E. C. Gruntfest, M. Hayden, and L. Barnes., 2007: Trauma and short-fuse
- 683 weather warning perceptions. *Environmental Hazards*, **7**, 220-226.
- Boulder Economic Council, 2011: Demographic Profile: Boulder, Colorado. [Available online at
 https://www-static.bouldercolorado.gov/docs/boulder-demographic-profile-december-2011 1-201305151232.pdf]
- 687 Brotzge, J., and W. Donner, 2013: The tornado warning process: A review of current research,
- challenges, and opportunities. *Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society*, **94**, 17151733.
- Brun, W., 1992: Cognitive components in risk perception: Natural versus manmade risks. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making*, 5, 117-132.
- Bubeck, P., W. J. Botzen, and J. C. Aerts, 2012: A review of risk perceptions and other factors
 that influence flood mitigation behavior. *Risk Analysis*, **32**, 1481-1495.
- Burnside, R., D. S. Mille, and J. D. Rivera, 2007: The impact of information and risk perception
- 695 on the hurricane evacuation decision-making of greater New Orleans residents. *Sociological*.
- 696 Spectrum: Mid-South Sociological Association, 27, 727-740.

- 697 City of Boulder, 2012: City of Boulder Multi-Hazard Mitigation Plan: Comprehensive Update,
- 698 October 2012. [Available at https://www-static.bouldercolorado.gov/docs/multi-hazard-
- 699 mitigation-plan-update-2012-1-201303291127.pdf]
- 700 City of Boulder, 2015: Flash Flood Safety. [Available at
- 701 http://www.bouldercounty.org/flood/communityresiliency/pages/flashfloodsafety.aspx]
- 702 Coles, A. R, 2008: Managing flash floods: Risk perception from a cultural perspective. Master's
- 703 Thesis, University of Arizona.
- 704 Diakakis, M., and G. Deligiannakis, 2013: Vehicle-related flood fatalities in Greece.
- 705 Environmental Hazards, **12**, 278-290.
- Dash, N., and H. Gladwin, 2007: Evacuation decision making and behavioral responses:
 Individual and household. *Natural Hazards Review*, 8, 69-77.
- Demuth, J. L., 2015: Developing a valid scale of past tornado experiences. Doctoral dissertation,
 Colorado State University.
- 710 Demuth, J. L., J. K. Lazo, and R. E. Morss, 2011: Exploring variations in people's sources, uses,
- and perceptions of weather forecasts. *Weather, Climate, and Society*, **3**, 177-192.
- 712 Dillman, D. A., 2000: *Mail and Internet Surveys*. New York, NY: Wiley.
- 713 Dow, K., and S. L. Cutter, 1998: Crying wolf: Repeat responses to hurricane evacuation orders.
- 714 *Coastal Management*, **26**, 237-252.
- 715 Drobot, S. D., C. Benight, and E. C. Gruntfest, 2007: Risk factors for driving into flooded roads.
- 716 Environmental Hazards, 7, 227-234.
- 717 Ericsson, K. A., and H. A. Simon, 1993: Protocol Analysis: Verbal Reports as Data. Cambridge,
- 718 MA: MIT Press.

- 719 FEMA (Federal Emergency Management Agency), 2015: Before a Flood: Driving: Flood Facts.
- 720 [Available at http://www.ready.gov/floods]
- 721 Fischhoff, B., 2012: *Risk analysis and human behavior*. New York, NY: Earthscan.
- 722 Fischhoff, B., P. Slovic, S. Lichtenstein, S. Read, and B. Combs, 1978: How safe is safe enough?
- A psychometric study of attitudes toward technological risks and benefits. *Policy Sciences*,
 9, 127-152.
- French, J., R. Ing, S. Von Allmen, and R. Wood, 1983: Mortality from flash floods: a review of
 national weather service reports, 1969-81. *Public Health Reports*, 98, 584-588.
- 727 Gochis D., R. Schumacher, K. Friedrich, N. Doesken, M. Kelsch, J. Sun, K. Ikeda, D. Lindsey,
- A. Wood, B. Dolan, S. Matrosov, A. Newman, K. Mahoney, S. Rutledge, R. Johnson, P.
- 729 Kucera, P. Kennedy, D. Sempere-Torres, M. Steiner, R. Roberts, J. Wilson, W. Yu, V.
- 730 Chandrasekar, R. Rasmussen, A. Anderson, and B. Brown, 2015:. The Great Colorado
- Flood of September 2013. *Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society*, 2015, **96**, 1461–
- 732 1487.
- Grothmann, T., and F. Reusswig, 2006: People at risk of flooding: why some residents take
 precautionary action while others do not. *Natural Hazards*, **38**, 101-120.
- Gruntfest, E. C., T. C. Downing, and G. F. White, 1978: Big Thompson flood exposes need for
 better flood reaction system to save lives. *Civil Engineering*, 48, 72-73.
- 737 Gruntfest, E., K. Carsell, and T. Plush, 2002: An Evaluation of the Boulder Creek Local Flood
- 738 *Warning System.* Report prepared for Urban Drainage and Flood Control District Boulder
- 739 City/County Office of Emergency Management.

- Gurmankin, A. D., Helweg-Larsen, M., Armstrong, K., Kimmel, S. E., & Volpp, K. G. M.
 (2005). Comparing the standard rating scale and the magnifier scale for assessing risk
 perceptions. Medical Decision Making, 25, 560–570.
- 743 Haynes, K., L. Coates, R. Leigh, J. Handmer, J. Whittaker, A. Gissing, J. McAneney, and S.
- 744 Opper, 2009: 'Shelter-in-place' vs. evacuation in flash floods. *Environmental Hazards*, 8,
 745 291-303.
- Highfield, W. E., S. A. Norman, and S. D. Brody, 2013: Examining the 100-year floodplain as a
 metric of risk, loss, and household adjustment. *Risk Analysis*, 33, 186–191.
- 748 Horvitz, A., E. Jacks, V. Y. Brown, and C. L. Ellis, 2014: A nation speaks: Focus groups
- 749 feedback on NWS Hazard Simplification. Presentation at 2014 National Weather

Association Annual Meeting, 21 October 2014, Salt Lake City, UT.

- Huang, S.-K., M. K. Lindell, and C. S. Prater, 2015: Who leaves and who stays? A review and
 statistical meta-analysis of hurricane evacuation studies. *Environment and Behavior*, in
 press.
- Jacks, E., A. Horvitz, A. J. Ansorge, K. J. Runk, J. T. Ferree, J. Keyes, S. A. Erickson, G. M.
- 755 Schoor, J. M. Margraf, M. Magnus, C. C. Schmidt, and V. Brown, 2013: Improving NWS
- 756 communication: Hazard simplification demonstration. Presentation at Second American

757 Meteorological Society Conference, 27 October 2013, Nashville, TN.

- Jonkman, S. N., and I. Kelman, 2005: An analysis of the causes and circumstances of flood
 disaster deaths. *Disasters*, 29, 75–97.
- Jonkman, S. N., and J. K. Vrijling, 2008: Loss of life due to floods. Journal of Flood Risk
- 761 *Management*, **1**, 43-56.

- 762 Kellar, D. M. M., and T. W. Schmidlin, 2012: Vehicle-related flood deaths in the United States,
- 763 1995–2005. *Journal of Flood Risk Management*, **5**, 153-163.
- Kellens, W., T. Terpstra, and P. De Maeyer, 2013: Perception and communication of flood risks:
- A systematic review of empirical research. *Risk Analysis*, **33**, 24–49.
- 766 Keller, C., A. Bostrom, M. Kuttschreuter, L. Savadori, A. Spence, and M. White, 2011: Bringing
- appraisal theory to environmental risk perception: A review of conceptual approaches of the
- past 40 years and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Risk Research*, **15**, 237-256.
- Knocke, E., and K. Kolivras, 2007: Flash flood awareness in Southwest Virginia. *Risk Analysis*,
 27, 155-169.
- Lazo, J. K., A. Bostrom, R. E. Morss, J. L. Demuth, H. Lazrus, 2015: Factors affecting hurricane
 evacuation intentions. *Risk Analysis*, in press.
- 773 Lazrus, H., B. H. Morrow, R. E. Morss, and J. K. Lazo, 2012: Vulnerability beyond stereotypes:
- 774 Context and agency in hurricane risk communication. *Weather, Climate, and Society*, 4,
 775 103-109.
- 776 Lazrus, H., R. E. Morss, J. L. Demuth, A. Bostrom, J. K. Lazo. "Know what to do if you
- encounter a flash flood": Mental models analysis for improving flash flood risk
- communication and public decision making. *Risk Analysis*, in press.
- T79 League, C., 2009: What were they thinking? Using Youtube to observe driver behavior while
- 780 crossing flooded roads. Master's Thesis, University of Colorado at Colorado Springs.
- 781 Legates, D. R., and M. D. Biddle, 1999: Warning response and risk behavior in the Oak Grove—
- 782 Birmingham, Alabama, Tornado of 08 April 1998. Quick Response Report #116. Boulder,
- 783 CO: Natural Hazards Research Applications and Information Center.

- Lin, S., D. Shaw, and M.-C. Ho, 2008: Why are flood and landslide victims less willing to take
- 785 mitigation measures than the public? *Natural Hazards*, **44**, 305–314
- 786 Lindell, M. K., and R. W. Perry, 2012: The Protective Action Decision Model: Theoretical
- 787 modifications and additional evidence. *Risk Analysis*, **32**, 616-632.
- 788 Loewenstein, G. F., E. U. Weber, C. K. Hsee, and N. Welch, 2001: Risk as feelings.
- 789 *Psychological Bulletin*, **127**, 267-286.
- 790 Lovekamp, W. E., and S. K. McMahon, 2011: I have a snickers bar in the trunk of my car:
- 791 Student narratives of disaster risk, fear, preparedness, and reflections on Union University.
- 792 *International Journal of Mass Emergencies and Disasters*, **29**, 132-148.
- McComas, K. A., 2006: Defining moments in risk communication research: 1996-2005. *Journal of Health Communication*, **11**, 75–91.
- Miles, M. B., and A. M. Huberman, 1994: *Qualitative Data Analysis: An Expanded Sourcebook*.
 ^{2nd} ed. Sage Publications.
- 797 Mileti, D. S., 1995: Factors related to flood warning response. US-Italy Research Workshop on
- the Hydrometeorology, Impacts, and Management of Extreme Floods. Perugia, Italy.
- 799 Mileti, D. S., and J. H. Sorensen, 1990: Communication of emergency public warnings: A social
- 800 science perspective and state-of-the-art assessment. Report # ORNL-6609. Oak Ridge, TN:
- 801 Oak Ridge National Laboratory.
- 802 Mitchem, J. D., 2003: An analysis of the September 20, 2002 Indianapolis tornado: public
- 803 response to a tornado warning and damage assessment difficulties. Quick Response Report
- #161. Boulder, CO: Natural Hazards Research Applications and Information Center.
- 805 Morgan M.G., B. Fischhoff, A. Bostrom, and C. Atman. Risk communication: A mental models
- 806 *approach*. New York: Cambridge University Press; 2002. 366 p.

- Morss, R. E., 2010: Interactions among flood predictions, decisions, and outcomes: A synthesis
 of three cases. *Natural Hazards Review*, **11**, 83-96.
- 809 Morss, R. E., and M. H. Hayden, 2010: Storm surge and "certain death": Interviews with Texas
- 810 coastal residents following Hurricane Ike. *Weather, Climate, and Society*, **2**, 174-189.
- 811 Morss, R. E., J. L. Demuth, A. Bostrom, J. K. Lazo, and H. Lazrus, 2015a: Flash flood risks and
- 812 warning decisions in Boulder, Colorado: A mental models study of forecasters, public
- 813 officials, and media broadcasters. *Risk Analysis*, in press.
- 814 Morss, R. E., J. L. Demuth, J. K. Lazo, K. Dickinson, H. Lazrus, and B. H. Morrow, 2015b:
- 815 Understanding public hurricane evacuation decisions and responses to forecast and warning
- 816 messages. *Weather and Forecasting*, submitted.
- 817 Mulder, K., 2011: Predicting responses to flash flooding: A case study of Boulder, CO.
- 818 Master's Thesis, East Carolina University.
- 819 Nagele, D. E., and J. E. Trainor, 2012: Geographic specificity, tornadoes, and protective action.
- 820 Weather, Climate, and Society, 4, 145-155.
- 821 NWS (U.S. National Weather Service), 2014a: National Weather Service Central Region
- 822 Supplement 02-2002, Applicable to NWSI 10-922, Weather Forecast Office Hydrologic
- 823 Products Specification. [Available online at
- 824 http://www.nws.noaa.gov/directives/sym/pd01009022c022002curr.pdf]
- 825 NWS, 2014b: Service assessment: The record Front Range and Eastern Colorado floods of
- 826 September 11-17, 2013. Silver Spring, MD: National Oceanic and Atmospheric
- Administration, 74 p.
- 828 NWS, 2015a: Turn Around Don't Drown®. [Available online at
- 829 http://www.nws.noaa.gov/os/water/tadd/]

830	NWS, 2015b: National Weather Service Glossary. [Available online at
831	http://w1.weather.gov/glossary]
832	NWS, 2015c: Public Information Notice: NWS to hold Hazard Simplification Workshop October
833	27-29, 2015, to discuss possible changes to NWS Watch, Warning and Advisory System
834	[Available online at
835	http://www.nws.noaa.gov/os/notification/pns15hazsimp_workshop.htm]
836	Parker, D. J., S. J. Priest, and S. M. Tapsell, 2009: Understanding and enhancing the public's
837	behavioural response to flood warning information. Meteorological Applications, 16, 103-
838	114.
839	
840	,
841	Powell, S. W., and H. D. O'Hair, 2008: Communicating weather information to the public:
842	People's reactions and understandings of weather information and terminology. Preprints,
843	Third Symposium on Policy and Socio-Economic Research, New Orleans, LA, Amer.
844	Meteor. Soc., P1.3.
845	Riad, J. K., F. N. Norris, and R. B. Ruback, 1999: Predicting evacuation in two major disasters:
846	Risk perception, social influence, and access to resources. Journal of Applied Social

847 *Psychology*, **29**, 918-934.

_ ____ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

~ ~ ~

.

.

~ .

~1

F 4

.. . .

...

848 Ripberger, J. T., C. L. Silva, H. C. Jenkins-Smith, D. E. Carlson, M. James, and K. G. Herron,

- 849 2015: False alarms and missed events: The impact and origins of perceived inaccuracy in
 850 tornado warning systems. *Risk Analysis*, **35**, 44-56.
- Ruin, I., J.-C. Gaillard, and C. Lutoff, 2007: How to get there? Assessing motorists' flash flood
- risk perception on daily itineraries. *Environmental Hazards*, **7**, 235-244.

- 853 Ruin, I., J.-D. Creutin, S. Anquetin, and C. Lutoff, 2008: Human exposure to flash floods—
- 854 Relation between flood parameters and human vulnerability during a storm of September
- 855 2002 in southern France. *Journal of Hydrology*, **361**, 199–213.
- 856 Ruin, I., C. Lutoff, B. Boudevillain, J.-D. Creutin, S. Anquetin, M. Bertran Rojo, L. Boissier, L.
- 857 Bonnifait, M. Borga, L. Colbeau-Justin, L. Creton-Cazanave, G. Delrieu, J. Douvinet, E.
- 858 Gaume, E. Gruntfest, J.-P. Naulin, and O. Payrastre, 2014: Social and hydrological
- 859 responses to extreme precipitations: An interdisciplinary strategy for post-flood

860 investigation. *Weather, Climate, and Society*, **6**, 135-153.

- 861 Schultz, D. M., E. C. Gruntfest, M. H. Hayden, C. C. Benight, S. Drobot, and L. R. Barnes,
- 862 2010: Decision making by Austin, Texas, residents in hypothetical tornado scenarios.
- 863 Weather, Climate, and Society, 2, 249–254.
- Sharif, H., T. Jackson, M. Hossain, and D. Zane, 2015: Analysis of Flood Fatalities in Texas. *Natural Hazards Review*, 16, 04014016.
- 866 Sherman-Morris, K., 2005: Tornadoes, television and trust—A closer look at the influence of the
- 867 local weathercaster during severe weather. *Environmental Hazards*, **6**, 201–210.
- 868 Sherman-Morris, K., 2010: Tornado warning dissemination and response at a university campus.
- 869 *Natural Hazards*, **52**, 623–638.
- 870 Sherman-Morris, K, 2013: The public response to hazardous weather events: 25 years of
- 871 research. *Geography Compass*, **7**, 669-685.
- 872 Siegrist, M., and H. Gutscher, 2006: Flooding risks: A comparison of lay people's perceptions
- and expert's assessments in Switzerland. *Risk Analysis*, **26**, 971–979.
- 874 Slovic, P., 2000: *The perception of risk*. New York, NY: Earthscan.

875	Slovic, P., M. L. Finucane, E. Peters, and D. G. MacGregor, 2004: Risk as analysis and risk as
876	feelings: Some thoughts about affect, reason, risk, and rationality. Risk Analysis, 24, 311-
877	322.
878	Stewart, K., 2006: Flood program warning notes. Flood Hazard News, 36(1), Dec 2006.
879	[Available online at http://www.udfcd.org/downloads/pdf/fhn/fhn2006/fhn2006_fw.html]
880	Teigen, K. H., W. Brun, and R. Frydenlund, 1999: Judgments of risk and probability: The role of
881	frequentist information. Journal of Behavioral Decision Making, 12 , 123–139.

- 882 University of Colorado Boulder, 2010: University of Colorado at Boulder Enrollment Summary -
- 883 Spring 10. [Available online at
- 884 http://www.colorado.edu/pba/records/enrlsum/101/table0.htm]
- Terpstra, T., 2011: Emotions, trust, and perceived risk: Affective and cognitive routes to flood
 preparedness behavior. *Risk Analysis*, **31**, 1658–1675.
- 887 U.S. Census Bureau, 2010: 2010 Census. [Available online at
- 888 http://www.census.gov/2010census]
- 889 Wachinger, G., O. Renn, C. Begg, and C. Kuhlicke, C., 2013: The risk perception paradox—
- 890 Implications for governance and communication of natural hazards. *Risk Analysis*, **33**, 1049891 1065.
- 892 Wagner, K., 2007: Mental models of flash floods and landslides. *Risk Analysis*, **2**7, 671–682.
- 893 Whitehead, J., B. Edwards, M. Van Willigen, J. Maiolo, K. Wilson, and K. Smith, 2000:
- Heading for higher ground: Factors affecting real and hypothetical hurricane evacuation
 behavior. *Environmental Hazards*, 2, 133–142.
- 896 Witte, K., 1992: Putting the fear back into fear appeals: The extended parallel process model.
- 897 *Communication Monographs*, **59**, 329-349.

Woloshin, S, L. M. Schwartz, S. B. Byram, B. Fischhoff, and H. G. Welch, 2000: A new scale
for assessing perceptions of chance: A validation study. *Medical Decision Making*, 20, 298307.

902	Table	captions
/ · · -		

Table 1. Summary of response rates and numbers of respondents for the mail, university, and
full public (mail plus university) samples, and for the geolocated, student, and non-student
subsamples.

Table 2. Sociodemographic characteristics of the Boulder public sample (excluding missing
data) and of the City of Boulder, Colorado, USA (estimated based on 2010 Census data, unless
otherwise noted; U.S. Census Bureau 2010, Mulder 2012).

909 Table 3. Respondents' perceptions of whether their residence was located in a designated (100-

910 year or 500-year) floodplain, comparing students and non-students in the full public sample.

911 N=394 (excluding missing responses). Percentages in the table are calculated based on the values912 in each row.

913 Table 4. Respondents' perceptions of whether their residence was located in a designated (100-

914 year or 500-year) floodplain, compared to their actual residence location, for the geolocated

915 subsample. N=348 (excluding missing responses). Percentages in the table are calculated based

916 on the values in each row.

917 **Table 5.** Perceived likelihood of different types of impacts if a flash flood occurs in Boulder^a, for

918 the public sample (N=384-406) and for the professional sample [NWS forecasters (N=6), public

919 officials (N=8), and broadcasters (N=6)] from Morss et al. (2015a). In the table, impacts are

920 presented in decreasing order of likelihood for the public sample (not the order presented in the

921 survey). "Economic losses or effects" was not included on the professional version of the

922 questionnaire.

923 **Table 6.** Perceived importance of different factors in contributing to flash flooding^a, for the

924 Boulder public sample (N=394-404) and for the NWS forecasters (N=6), public officials (N=8),

and broadcasters (N=6). In the table, contributing factors are presented in decreasing order of
importance for the public sample (not the order presented in the survey).

Table 7. Summary of respondents' descriptions of the difference between a flash flood watch

928 and a flash flood warning (the two major types of flash flood alerts provided by the U.S. NWS).^a 929 The left-hand column shows the major categories of responses, based on the qualitative analysis. 930 For each category, the middle column shows the percent of public respondents coded into that 931 category, and the right-hand column shows an example public response. Many of the responses 932 were coded into more than one category, as illustrated by the examples. Description categories in 933 italic text were mentioned by at least one of the 20 Boulder-area professionals in their responses 934 to the same survey question. N=386, excluding missing responses to question. 935 Table 8. Results from multiple linear regression with respondents' likelihood of protective action if they received a warning as the dependent variable (N=397). Independent variables 936

937 significant at p < 0.1 are indicated in bold text.

938 **Table 9.** Summary of respondents' descriptions of actions that a person should take in response 939 to a flash flood warning.^a The left-hand column shows the major categories of responses, based 940 on the qualitative analysis. For each category, the middle column shows the percent of 941 respondents coded into that category, and the right-hand column shows one or more example

942 responses. Many of the responses were coded into more than one category, as illustrated by the

943 examples. N=405, excluding missing responses to question.

944

927

946 **Figure captions**

947 Figure 1. Residence locations for respondents in the geolocated subsample (N=372), overlaid on 948 a map of the Boulder-area landscape and the designated Boulder County 100-year (light blue) 949 and 500-year (dark blue) floodplains. The large floodplain that runs from west to east near the 950 center of Boulder is along Boulder Creek. Boulder Creek has a drainage area of approximately 951 1160 km². In the geolocated subsample, 21 respondents (6%) lived in the 100-year floodplain, 15 952 (4%) lived in the 500-year floodplain, and 336 (90%) lived outside the designated 100- or 500-953 year floodplain. The symbol color depicts the respondents' perceived location: in 100-year or 954 500-year floodplain (yellow), not in 100-year or 500-year floodplain (pink), don't know 955 (orange), and missing response (white); see also Table 4. 956 Figure 2. Respondents' estimates of the likelihood of flash flooding in Boulder in the next year. 957 The graph depicts results for the public sample (N=406, excluding missing responses). The table 958 in the upper right of the graph depicts the median and range of the estimates for the public 959 sample and for the forecasters (N=6), public officials (N=8), and broadcasters (N=6) sampled in 960 the study of Boulder-area flash flood professionals (Morss et al. 2015a). Survey question 4: "In the diagram below, please put an "X" on the line that describes your best estimate of how likely 961 962 it is that flash flooding will occur in Boulder in the next year." [Respondents were given a 963 diagram with a scale ranging from 0% to 100%, with a magnified section between 0% and 1% 964 (Woloshin et al. 2000).] 965 Figure 3. Respondents' perceptions of the depth of fast-flowing water that is safe to cross by 966 foot or by car. Survey question 17: "The deepest amount of fast-flowing water that is safe to

967 cross by foot is _____" (N=376) and survey question 18: "The deepest amount of fast-flowing

968 water that is safe to cross by automobile is _____" (N=373) [Open-ended responses]. These
969 questions were not included on the professional version of the questionnaire.

970 Figure 4. Flash flood warning message provided in questionnaire, for survey question 27. The 971 message was adapted from previously issued NWS warning products for the Boulder area. 972 Figure 5. Respondents' estimates of the likelihood of flash flooding in Boulder if a warning 973 (N=405) is issued for Boulder. The graph depicts results for the public sample, and the table in 974 the upper right depicts the median and range of the estimates for the public and professional 975 samples, as in Figure 2. Survey questions 6: "If a flash flood warning is issued for Boulder, 976 please put an "X" on the line that describes your best estimate of how likely it is that flash 977 flooding will occur in Boulder in the next 24 hours." [Respondents were given a diagram with a 978 scale ranging from 0% to 100%, with a magnified section between 0% and 1%.] Figure 6. Respondents' likelihood of taking protective action if they received a flash flood warning 979 980 (N=393). The graph depicts results for the public sample, and the table in the upper left depicts 981 the median and range of the estimates for the public and professional samples, as in Figure 2. 982 Survey question 24: "How likely is it that you would take protective action if you were to receive the following flash flood notifications for your location? Flash flood warning, ..." [Response 983 984 options: Not at all likely, Not very likely, Somewhat likely, Very likely, Extremely likely (coded 985 on a 1-to-5 scale), or Don't know].

Table 1. Summary of response rates and numbers of respondents for the mail, university, and full public (mail plus university) samples, and for the geolocated, student, and non-student subsamples.

	Mail sample	University sample	Public sample
Distributed	1000	200	1200
Invalid address	130	Not applicable	130
Valid (= distributed – invalid)	870	200	1070
Returned completed	408	43	451
Response rate (= completed / valid)	47%	22%	42%
Reported zip code missing or not in study area	20	13	33
Sample for analysis (= completed – zip code not in study area)	388	30	418
Reported zip code in study area but does not match survey mailing address	16	Not applicable	16
Geolocated subsample (= sample for analysis – zip code does not match)	372	0	372
Student subsample	23	30	53
Non-student subsample (= sample for analysis – student subsample)	365	0	365

Table 2. Sociodemographic characteristics of the Boulder public sample (excluding missing data) and of the City of Boulder, Colorado, USA (estimated based on 2010 Census data, unless otherwise noted; U.S. Census Bureau 2010, Mulder 2012).

	Boulder public sample	City of Boulder
Sociodemographic characteristic	(N=418)	(population 97,385)
Age (median)	50 years	30-34 years
Gender (% male)	53%	51%
Race (% white)	92%	88%
Residence ownership	73%	$48\%^{\mathrm{a}}$
Length of residence in Boulder (median)	17 years	-
Education (% Bachelor's degree or higher)	81%	69% ^b
Annual pre-tax household income (median)	\$60,000 to \$74,999	\$51,779
Primary language (% English-speaking)	97%	86%°
Student at University of Colorado Boulder	14%	21% ^d

^a Percentage of housing units that are owner occupied

^b For those age 25 or older. In the public sample, 85% of those age 25 or older have a Bachelor's degree or higher education.

^c Percentage of those age 5 or older who sometimes or always speak a language other than English at home.

^d Estimated based on enrollment of 28,572 students at University of Colorado Boulder in the spring 2010 semester (University of Colorado Boulder 2010), of whom an estimated 71% live in Boulder (on- or off-campus; Boulder Economic Council 2011), compared to Boulder's 2010 Census population.

Table 3. Respondents' perceptions of whether their residence was located in a designated (100year or 500-year) floodplain, comparing students and non-students in the full public sample. N=394 (excluding missing responses). Percentages in the table are calculated based on the values in each row.

	Perceived location ^a			
	In floodplain	Not in floodplain	Don't know	Total
Student at university	7	7	38	52
	(13%)	(13%)	(73%)	(100%)
Non-student	73	152	117	342
	(21%)	(44%)	(34%)	(100%)
Total	80	159	155	394
	(20%)	(40%)	(39%)	(100%)

^a Survey question H9: "Is your residence in a designated 100-year or 500-year floodplain?" [Response options: "Yes, it is in a 100-year floodplain", "Yes, it is in a 500-year floodplain", "No, it is not in a 100-year or 500-year floodplain", "Don't know", "Other (please describe)"]. "Yes" responses were combined and "Other" responses were recoded based on the open-ended response provided. Table 4. Respondents' perceptions of whether their residence was located in a designated (100year or 500-year) floodplain, compared to their actual residence location, for the geolocated subsample. N=348 (excluding missing responses). Percentages in the table are calculated based on the values in each row.

	Perceived location			
	In floodplain	Not in floodplain	Don't know	Total
Actual location: In floodplain	16	6	11	33
	(48%)	(18%)	(33%)	(100%)
Actual location: Not in floodplain	56	145	114	315
	(18%)	(46%)	(36%)	(100%)
Total	72	151	125	348
	(21%)	(43%)	(36%)	(100%)

Table 5. Perceived likelihood of different types of impacts if a flash flood occurs in Boulder^a, for the public sample (N=384-406) and for the professional sample [NWS forecasters (N=6), public officials (N=8), and broadcasters (N=6)] from Morss et al. (2015a). In the table, impacts are presented in decreasing order of likelihood for the public sample (not the order presented in the survey). "Economic losses or effects" was not included on the professional version of the questionnaire.

	Public	Forecasters	Public officials	Broadcasters
Type of impact	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)
Economic losses or effects	4.5 (0.8)	-	-	-
Disrupted transportation	4.4 (0.8)	4.0 (0.9)	5.0 (0.0)	4.8 (0.4)
Damage to buildings or other property	4.3 (0.8)	4.0 (0.6)	5.0 (0.0)	4.7 (0.5)
Ecological damage	4.2 (0.9)	4.2 (1.5)	5.0 (0.0)	4.8 (0.4)
Degraded water quality	4.0 (1.0)	3.7 (1.6)	5.0 (0.0)	4.0 (0.9)
People separated from loved ones or pets	3.8 (1.0)	3.8 (1.3)	5.0 (0.0)	3.8 (0.8)
People injured	3.7 (0.9)	3.3 (1.0)	5.0 (0.0)	3.7 (1.0)
People killed	3.0 (1.0)	2.7 (0.8)	4.6 (0.5)	2.7 (1.2)

^a Survey question 8: "If a flash flood hit Boulder, how likely do you think each of the following impacts would be?" [Response options for each type of impact: Not at all likely, Not very likely, Somewhat likely, Very likely, Extremely likely (coded on a 1-to-5 scale), or Don't know]. The question also included an "Other impacts (please describe)" item, to which 50 respondents provided a rating or open-ended response.

Table 6. Perceived importance of different factors in contributing to flash flooding^a, for the Boulder public sample (N=394-404) and for the NWS forecasters (N=6), public officials (N=8), and broadcasters (N=6). In the table, contributing factors are presented in decreasing order of importance for the public sample (not the order presented in the survey).

	Public	Forecasters	Public officials	Broadcasters
Contributing factor	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)
Elevation compared to stream or street level	4.5 (0.7)	4.5 (0.8)	4.4 (0.7)	4.5 (0.6)
Nearness to a creek, stream, or drainage ditch	4.5 (0.7)	4.2 (0.8)	4.9 (0.4)	4.7 (0.5)
Amount of rainfall during the last 24 hours	4.5 (0.7)	3.7 (0.8)	3.9 (0.6)	4.5 (0.6)
Amount of rainfall during last hour	4.4 (0.8)	4.7 (0.5)	4.6 (0.5)	4.8 (0.4)
Nearness to a canyon	4.3 (0.8)	4.2 (1.0)	4.9 (0.4)	4.3 (1.2)
Burned land from past wildfires in area	3.9 (1.0)	4.2 (0.8)	4.3 (0.7)	4.7 (0.5)
Nearness to a dam	3.8 (1.1)	3.2 (1.0)	3.3 (0.9)	3.7 (1.0)
Nearness to a lake, pond, or detention basin	3.5 (1.0)	2.7 (0.5)	3.0 (0.5)	3.8 (1.2)

^a Survey question 11: "The likelihood of flash flooding at a given location depends on several factors. How important do you think each of the following factors is in determining the likelihood of flash flooding at a given location?" [Response options for each factor: Not at all important, Not very important, Somewhat important, Very important, Extremely important (coded on a 1-to-5 scale), or Don't know]. The question also included an "Other factors (please describe)" item, to which 20 respondents provided a rating or open-ended response.

Table 7. Summary of respondents' descriptions of the difference between a flash flood watch and a flash flood warning (the two major types of flash flood alerts provided by the U.S. NWS).^a The left-hand column shows the major categories of responses, based on the qualitative analysis. For each category, the middle column shows the percent of public respondents coded into that category, and the right-hand column shows an example public response. Many of the responses were coded into more than one category, as illustrated by the examples. Description categories in italic text were mentioned by at least one of the 20 Boulder-area professionals in their responses to the same survey question. N=386, excluding missing responses to question.

Category of description of watch/ warning difference	% of public respondents	Example public response
Likelihood	56%	"Watch - flooding possible; warning - flooding likely."
Imminence	30%	"Warning is immediately, watch is the potential."
Occurrence	20%	"Warning: flash flooding already occurring upstream, watch: conditions favorable to flash flooding, but not occurring yet."
Environmental conditions	18%	"Warningflash flood likely. Watchconditions for flash flood present."
Actions required	13%	"Flood watch puts us on alert/standby, warning triggers flood action plan."
Seriousness	10%	"Warning means likely enough for great danger; watch is much less serious, but reason to keep tuned for potential warning."
Certainty	5%	"Watch=may be building but no confirmation. Warning=it's coming, and we are pretty certain."
<i>Timing</i> (including temporal coverage and lead time)	4%	"The warning precedes the watch? Or is it the other way?"
<i>Location</i> (including spatial coverage and proximity)	2%	"A warning is specific as to time and locality - fairly high probability. A watch is general - next few hours, large area, moderate probability."
Accuracy	0.5%	"A warning is more accurate than a watch. A watch is less certain."
Other	2%	"I have never heard of a flash flood watch."

^a Survey question 25: "What differences, if any, are there between a flash flood warning and a flash flood watch?" [Open-ended response].

Independent variable	Parameter estimate (standard error)	Significance
Sociodemographic characteristics		
Age (years)	0.010 (0.004)	p=0.007
Gender (female=1; male=0)	0.09 (0.09)	p=0.35
Education (years)	-0.02 (0.04)	p=0.65
Student at university (yes=1; no=0)	0.24 (0.16)	p=0.15
Length of residency in Boulder (years)	-0.006 (0.004)	p=0.15
Residence ownership (rent=1; own=0)	0.05 (0.13)	p=0.69
Flash flood experience and preparations		
Prior experience (direct major=1; other=0)	-0.07 (0.15)	p=0.66
Reported prior preparations (yes=1; no=0)	0.22 (0.09)	p=0.01
Perceptions and understandings of flash flood risks		
Perceived residence in floodplain? (yes=1; don't know, no=0) ^a	0.13 (0.12)	p=0.27
Perceived residence in floodplain? (don't know=1; yes, no=0)	-0.05 (0.11)	p=0.66
Likelihood of Boulder flash flooding in next year (%)	0.0002 (0.002)	p=0.92
Seriousness of consequences (1-7 scale)	0.02 (0.03)	p=0.56
Personal control over impacts (1-7 scale)	-0.04 (0.02)	p=0.13
Likelihood of people killed (1-5 scale)	0.10 (0.05)	p=0.04
Personal safety from flash flooding (1-5 scale)	-0.13 (0.04)	p=0.001
Only Boulder Creek at risk (1-5 scale)	-0.03 (0.04)	p=0.43
Depth of water safe to cross on foot (feet)	-0.003 (0.006)	p=0.60
Importance of 24-hour rain (1-5 scale)	0.02 (0.07)	p=0.65
Importance of 1-hour rain (1-5 scale)	0.02 (0.06)	p=0.68
Perceptions and interpretations of warnings		
Watch/warning difference (correct=1; other=0)	0.40 (0.09)	p<0.0001
Likelihood of flash flood if warning (%)	0.004 (0.001)	p=0.007
Trust in forecasts and warnings (1-5 scale)	0.49 (0.06)	p<0.0001
Adjusted R ²	0.35	
F	10.69***	p<0.0001

Table 8. Results from multiple linear regression with respondents' likelihood of protective action if they received a warning as the dependent variable (N=397). Independent variables significant at p<0.1 are indicated in bold text.

^a The three categories for the perceived residence location variable (Yes, in floodplain; No, not in floodplain; Don't know) are represented in the regressions as two dummy variables, with No as the reference category.

Table 9. Summary of respondents' descriptions of actions that a person should take in response to a flash flood warning.^a The left-hand column shows the major categories of responses, based on the qualitative analysis. For each category, the middle column shows the percent of respondents coded into that category, and the right-hand column shows one or more example responses. Many of the responses were coded into more than one category, as illustrated by the examples. N=405, excluding missing responses to question.

	% of	
Action	respondents	Example public response(s)
Move to higher location	84%	"Climb to safety" "Run to higher ground" "Get to higher ground and hold on" "Climb a tree" "Get to a multilevel building and get to the top" "Drive uphill, get out of car and continue uphill on foot" "Get as high as possible"
Move to different location	18%	"Drive to flatland, away from Boulder Creek away from mountains and to higher land""Run like nuts""Get to nearest safety shelter, hospital, firehouse"
Avoid risky areas	12%	"Stay away from creeks + rivers" "Move away from creek areas" "Find higher ground away from electric lines"
Go inside	10%	"Get inside a strong building" "Go in a commercial building or knock on a door"
Assess situation	4%	"Think! Assess vulnerability of location and act accordingly""Determine if the flood will be in your area and take appropriate action""Have high ground picked out nearby and go to it if you see the water and debris coming"
Be alert	3%	"Raise alert level and make plan for possible action" "Be aware of nearby floodways/drainages"
Seek more information	1%	"Try to obtain more info about where to go for safety"
Depends	7%	"Go to higher place or leave area if there is time" "It depends on where you are?"
Don't know	1%	"Honestly, I have no idea"
Other	8%	"Check to hear if it is a practice warning or a real one - then call loved ones and go to a safe location" "Call for help and look for high ground"

^a Survey question 16: "Please complete each statement in your own words: ... If you hear a flash flood warning and you are outdoors walking, biking, recreating, or working, you should _____".



Figure 1. Residence locations for respondents in the geolocated subsample (N=372), overlaid on a map of the Boulder-area landscape and the designated Boulder County 100-year (light blue) and 500-year (dark blue) floodplains. The large floodplain that runs from west to east near the center of Boulder is along Boulder Creek. Boulder Creek has a drainage area of approximately 1160 km². In the geolocated subsample, 21 respondents (6%) lived in the 100-year floodplain, 15 (4%) lived in the 500-year floodplain, and 336 (90%) lived outside the designated 100- or 500-year floodplain. The symbol color depicts the respondents' perceived location: in 100-year or

500-year floodplain (yellow), not in 100-year or 500-year floodplain (pink), don't know (orange), and missing response (white); see also Table 4.



Figure 2. Respondents' estimates of the likelihood of flash flooding in Boulder in the next year. The graph depicts results for the public sample (N=406, excluding missing responses). The table in the upper right of the graph depicts the median and range of the estimates for the public sample and for the forecasters (N=6), public officials (N=8), and broadcasters (N=6) sampled in the study of Boulder-area flash flood professionals (Morss et al. 2015a). Survey question 4: "In the diagram below, please put an "X" on the line that describes your best estimate of how likely it is that flash flooding will occur in Boulder in the next year." [Respondents were given a diagram with a scale ranging from 0% to 100%, with a magnified section between 0% and 1% (Woloshin et al. 2000).]



Figure 3. Respondents' perceptions of the depth of fast-flowing water that is safe to cross by foot or by car. Survey question 17: "The deepest amount of fast-flowing water that is safe to cross by foot is _____" (N=376) and survey question 18: "The deepest amount of fast-flowing water that is safe to cross by automobile is _____" (N=373) [Open-ended responses]. These questions were not included on the professional version of the questionnaire.

THE NATIONAL WEATHER SERVICE IN DENVER HAS ISSUED A * FLASH FLOOD WARNING FOR... CENTRAL AND EAST BOULDER COUNTY IN NORTHEAST COLORADO * UNTIL 1145 PM MDT * AT 927 PM MDT...NATIONAL WEATHER SERVICE DOPPLER RADAR INDICATED VERY HEAVY RAIN FROM A THUNDERSTORM IN THE WESTERN PART OF BOULDER. THIS STORM WAS MOVING EAST AT 5 MPH. * LOCATIONS IN THE WARNING INCLUDE BUT ARE NOT LIMITED TO BOULDER. THIS INCLUDES THE FOLLOWING STREAMS AND DRAINAGES... BOULDER CREEK, SKUNK CREEK, BEAR CREEK, GOOSE CREEK, AND FOURMILE CANYON CREEK. DOPPLER RADAR ESTIMATES THAT RAIN FROM THE STORM IS FALLING AT THE RATE OF 2 TO 3 INCHES IN 45 MINUTES. ANOTHER 1 TO 2 INCHES OF RAIN CAN BE EXPECTED BEFORE DIMINISHING. PRECAUTIONARY/PREPAREDNESS ACTIONS... A FLASH FLOOD WARNING MEANS THAT FLOODING IS IMMINENT OR OCCURRING. IF YOU ARE IN THE WARNING AREA MOVE TO HIGHER GROUND IMMEDIATELY. RESIDENTS LIVING ALONG STREAMS AND CREEKS SHOULD TAKE IMMEDIATE PRECAUTIONS TO PROTECT LIFE AND PROPERTY. DO NOT ATTEMPT TO CROSS SWIFTLY FLOWING WATERS OR WATERS OF

Figure 4. Flash flood warning message provided in questionnaire, for survey question 27. The message was adapted from previously issued NWS warning products for the Boulder area.

UNKNOWN DEPTH BY FOOT OR BY AUTOMOBILE. TURN AROUND...DO NOT DROWN.



Figure 5. Respondents' estimates of the likelihood of flash flooding in Boulder if a warning (N=405) is issued for Boulder. The graph depicts results for the public sample, and the table in the upper right depicts the median and range of the estimates for the public and professional samples, as in Figure 2. Survey questions 6: "If a flash flood warning is issued for Boulder, please put an "X" on the line that describes your best estimate of how likely it is that flash flooding will occur in Boulder in the next 24 hours." [Respondents were given a diagram with a scale ranging from 0% to 100%, with a magnified section between 0% and 1%.]



Figure 6. Respondents' likelihood of taking protective action if they received a flash flood warning (N=393). The graph depicts results for the public sample, and the table in the upper left depicts the median and range of the estimates for the public and professional samples, as in Figure 2. Survey question 24: "How likely is it that you would take protective action if you were to receive the following flash flood notifications for your location? Flash flood warning, ..." [Response options: Not at all likely, Not very likely, Somewhat likely, Very likely, Extremely likely (coded on a 1-to-5 scale), or Don't know].