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1 **Factors of influence on flood risk perceptions related to**
2 **Hurricane Dorian: an assessment of heuristics, time dynamics**
3 **and accuracy of risk perceptions**
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15 **Abstract.** Flood damage caused by hurricanes is expected to rise globally due to climate and socio-economic
16 change. Enhanced flood preparedness among the coastal population is required to reverse this trend. The
17 decisions and actions taken by individuals are thought to be influenced by risk perceptions. This study
18 investigates the determinants that shape flood risk perceptions, as well as the factors that drive flood risk
19 misperceptions of coastal residents. We conducted a survey among 871 residents in flood-prone areas in Florida
20 during a five-day period in which the respondents were threatened to be flooded by Hurricane Dorian. This
21 approach allows for assessing temporal dynamics in flood risk perceptions during an evolving hurricane threat.
22 Among 255 of the same households, a follow-up survey was conducted to examine how flood risk perceptions
23 vary after Hurricane Dorian failed to make landfall in Florida. Our results show that the flood experience and
24 social norms have the most consistent relationship with flood risk perceptions. Furthermore, participants
25 indicated that their level of worry regarding the dangers of flooding decreased after the near-miss of Hurricane
26 Dorian, compared to their feelings of worry during the hurricane event. Based on our findings, we offer
27 recommendations for improving flood risk communication policies.

28 **Keywords**

29 Flood risk perception; hurricanes; near-miss events

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31 1. Introduction

32 Florida is one of the most at risk states in the United States for hurricanes (Basolo et al., 2017; Klotzbach et al.,
33 2018). Hurricanes such as Katrina in 2005, Sandy in 2012, and Ian in 2022 resulted in catastrophic losses (Bostrom
34 et al., 2018; Conroy, 2022). These losses from hurricanes are rising due to population and economic growth, and
35 potentially climate change (Coronese et al., 2019; Knutson et al., 2019; Webster et al., 2005). Given the fact that
36 climate change may increase the frequency of floods induced by hurricanes, residents' efforts to protect
37 themselves and reduce their losses are crucial. Risk reduction strategies, such as evacuation and floodproofing
38 measures are important responses to a hurricane threat to avoid damages and loss of life (Basolo et al., 2017;
39 Botzen et al., 2019).

40 Given rising hurricane risk, one would expect an increase in hurricane preparedness activities. However, many
41 households are currently underprepared for natural hazards (Basolo et al., 2009; Murti et al., 2014), which may be
42 due to a low perception of risk (Dash & Gladwin, 2007; Lindell & Perry, 2012; Peacock et al., 2005). Moreover,
43 individual perceptions of risk are often at odds with expert estimates of risk (Duží et al., 2017), with some
44 individuals underestimating their risk and others overestimating the risk (Dueñas-Osorio et al., 2012). It is useful
45 to understand how individual flood risk perceptions compare with expert risk assessments, as well as the factors
46 influencing these perceptions, to improve flood risk communication strategies and flood risk management policies
47 (Brown & Damery, 2002; Bradford et al., 2012; Senkbeil et al., 2019). For instance, policy makers can adapt
48 current risk communication strategies to enhance support for flood risk reduction measures among the public
49 (Bradford et al., 2012; Peacock et al., 2005).

50 Most prior analyses of flood risk perceptions associated with a hurricane threat rely on data collected at a single
51 moment using cross-sectional surveys conducted after a hurricane has occurred (Basolo et al., 2017; Burnside et
52 al., 2007; Demuth et al., 2016; Lechowska, 2018; Matyas et al., 2011). However, such an approach may not give
53 adequate insights into risk perceptions during a hurricane threat. Risk perceptions may also vary after the hurricane
54 event, depending on the severity of the experienced impacts. Understanding these dynamics regarding risk
55 perceptions is important since many emergency hurricane preparations are made shortly before a hurricane makes
56 landfall. Additionally, it is often observed that structural adjustments to properties to limit future disaster damage
57 are made shortly after a disaster (Bubeck et al., 2012a). Both emergency preparedness actions taken during a threat
58 and structural damage mitigation actions taken afterwards are likely to be guided by individual risk perceptions,
59 among other factors.

60 Empirical studies that examine flood risk perceptions during a direct threat of a hurricane making landfall are
61 limited. Exceptions are Meyer et al. (2014) and Botzen et al. (2022). Meyer et al. (2014) documented the dynamics
62 of coastal residents' risk perceptions as Hurricane Isaac and Sandy approached the coast of Louisiana and New
63 Jersey in 2012 using a real-time survey. Botzen et al. (2022) utilised a real-time hurricane survey approach at the
64 end of the 2020 hurricane season to study the evacuation intentions and behaviour of coastal households in Florida.
65 They compared these findings with evacuation intentions at the beginning of the hurricane season using a cross-
66 sectional survey. Neither Meyer et al. (2014) nor Botzen et al. (2022) offered an analysis of the factors influencing
67 flood risk perceptions, as is done in our study.

68 The objectives of our study are to understand the temporal dynamics in flood risk perceptions shortly before a
69 hurricane makes landfall and afterwards, and to obtain insights into the factors that relate with these risk
70 perceptions, including how they compare with objective indicators of the risk respondents faced at the time of the
71 survey. Our study analyses data collected during the period in which Hurricane Dorian approached Florida in 2019
72 using a real-time survey. By resurveying part of the original sample a few months after the storm our paper also
73 contributes to the flood risk perceptions literature by exploring these dynamics in the context of a near-miss
74 hurricane event. Research on near-miss hurricanes has shown that people may underestimate the dangers of
75 subsequent hazardous situations based on the experience of the near-miss, reasoning that the negative outcome did
76 not materialize last time (Dillon et al., 2011; Dillon & Tinsley, 2016). These insights have been collected through
77 vignette surveys, which are based on hypothetical scenarios. Our research goes beyond these previous studies by
78 examining perceptions in response to a Category 5 hurricane predicted to make landfall in Florida. As such, the
79 main innovation of our study is that we examine how various factors relate with dimensions of flood risk
80 perceptions during an imminent threat of a hurricane as well as changes in these perceptions following an actual
81 near-miss event.



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82 The remainder of this paper is structured as follows: Section 2 provides a theoretical background and our
83 hypotheses about factors related to flood risk perceptions. Section 3 describes the survey and statistical methods.
84 Section 4 presents the results, and Section 5 discusses the key findings. Section 6 concludes.

85 2. Theoretical background

86 Risk perceptions form an integral part of decision theories in behavioural economics and psychology, which
87 postulate that perceiving a high risk is a necessary condition for taking risk reduction actions (Kahneman &
88 Tversky, 1979; Hertwig & Wulff, 2022). Two thought processes that explains how people perceive and respond
89 to risks are System 1 and System 2 thinking (Kahneman, 2011). The former refers to an intuitive thinking process
90 that operates quickly, effortless and automatically. Furthermore, this mode of thinking has been associated with
91 heuristics. Heuristics refer to mental shortcuts that simplify the complex reality surrounding risks (Tversky &
92 Kahneman, 1973). By contrast, System 2 considers a more analytical risk assessment by evaluating the available
93 information more systematically and with more effort (Kahneman, 2011). For example, flood likelihood and
94 potential consequences are likely to be assessed by individuals based on information that is available to them.

95 Since individual perceptions of risk are expected to be shaped by System 1 and System 2, our explanatory
96 variables, as well as our hypotheses, are grounded in System 1 and System 2 thinking. We examine the influence
97 of experience, in line with the availability heuristic, and herding as part of System 1 thinking processes on flood
98 risk perception. The former refers to a type of cognitive bias in which an event's probability is evaluated based on
99 relevant examples that come to mind (Tversky & Kahneman, 1973). The latter, on the other hand, refers to the
100 mirroring of behaviour of other individuals. In the case of a highly uncertain or risky issues, individuals are more
101 likely to mirror behaviour (Kunreuther, 2021). The influence of actual risk and the development of Hurricane
102 Dorian on risk perception is analysed as part of System 2 thinking in our study, because accounting for such
103 information in one's judgement about risk takes considerable effort, in contrast to the heuristic-based judgements
104 that guide System 1 thinking processes.

105 2.1 Heuristics (system 1)

106 Consistent with the availability heuristic, a substantial amount of literature has found that previous experience with
107 a flood positively impacts the perceived flood probability as exposure to a flood may make the risk easier to recall
108 and more salient (Bradford et al., 2012; Peacock et al., 2005; Reynaud et al., 2013; Richert et al., 2017). Therefore,
109 we expect that past flood experience has a positive relationship with flood risk perceptions.

110 H1

111 Respondents who have experienced a flood have a higher perception of flood risk.

112 In addition to actual experience, and consistent with the availability heuristic, we argue that the perception of
113 specific characteristics and risks associated with a hazard, at one moment in time when the hazard is salient, may
114 make it cognitively easier to judge that similar experiences regarding the hazard and its associated risks in general
115 can occur in the future. In the case of Dorian, people faced the possibility of catastrophic damages and developed
116 risk perceptions, such as perceptions about the strength and severity of possible impacts. Individuals with high
117 perceptions of these specific hurricane characteristics may find future hurricane hazards, including their induced
118 flooding, easier to imagine. Thus, we expect high perceptions of specific hurricane characteristics (awareness of
119 living in a Dorian impact area and the perceived hurricane wind speed on the Saffir-Simpson Hurricane Wind
120 Scale) to increase perceived flood risk.

121 H2

122 Respondents with a high perception of specific Dorian characteristics have a higher perception of flood risk.

123 In a situation where individuals lack objective information regarding a hazard, they may dependent on local
124 government officials responsible for risk management instead. This might be the case in our context if people were
125 unaware of information on risk, or are unwilling to incur search costs associated with collecting information on
126 risk (Kunreuther & Pauly, 2004). Previous studies have found that individuals distrusting local government
127 officials in charge of flood risk management have a higher perception of risk regarding natural hazards (Siegrist
128 et al., 2005). Terpstra (2011) has shown that respondents who trust local risk management assess flood probabilities



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129 as lower. Hence, we expect that trust in the capabilities of local government officials responsible for flood risk
130 management lowers flood risk perceptions.

131 **H3**

132 Respondents who have more trust in the flood management capabilities of local government officials have a
133 lower perception of flood risk.

134 Few household survey studies have examined social factors as a driver of risk perceptions (Lechowska, 2018; Van
135 der Linden, 2015). We elicit the prescriptive dimension of social norms in our study (Cialdini et al., 1991).
136 Prescriptive social norms in the context of hurricane induced floods can be defined as the degree of social pressure
137 an individual feels to view floods as a risk that requires action (Van der Linden, 2015). It is hypothesised that
138 individual risk perceptions are amplified if social referents (friends, family, acquaintances) view an event as a risk
139 that should be acted upon (Swim et al., 2009).

140 **H4**

141 Respondents who acknowledge that important social referents (friends, family, acquaintances) believe that
142 someone in their (the respondent) situation ought to act upon the risk of floods have a higher perception of flood
143 risk.

144 **2.2 Objective risk characteristics (system 2)**

145 In line with System 2 thinking, previous studies have found a positive relationship between indicators of actual
146 flood risk and flood risk perception (Botzen et al., 2015; O'Neill et al., 2016; Richert et al., 2017; Rufat & Botzen,
147 2022). As such, we expect the flood probability at one's residence to be positively related to flood risk perception.
148 Furthermore, we expect that the floor of one's residency influences perceived flood risk, because those living on
149 lower floors are more exposed to flood water than people residing on upper floors (Lechowska, 2018). A similar
150 reasoning holds for people who reside in homes with a basement. Overall, we expect the presence of residence
151 characteristics that signal a high exposure to flooding, to be positively associated with perceptions of flood risk.

152 **H5a**

153 Respondents whose home is situated in an area with a high flood risk have a higher flood risk perception than
154 those whose home is situated in an area with a lower flood risk.

155 **H5b**

156 Respondents who occupy the ground floor at their home have a higher perception of flood risk than those who
157 live on an upper floor.

158 **H5c**

159 Respondents with a basement, cellar or crawlspace in their home have a higher flood risk perception than those
160 who do not have a basement, cellar or crawlspace in their home.

161 The flood risk caused by a hurricane making landfall varies as the characteristics of a hurricane develop over time
162 (Musinguzi & Akbar, 2021). Risk communication strategies regarding flood risk aim to raise awareness and
163 conform risk perceptions with the objective risk that residents face as the risk evolves (Kellens et al., 2013). In
164 the case of Hurricane Dorian, the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) informed
165 inhabitants in real-time, as the hurricane was approaching the coast of Florida, about the current level of hurricane
166 intensity. We expect high flood risk perceptions within periods in which the wind speed of the storm was high.
167 Furthermore, it has been observed that perceived risk, especially the sense of danger, is likely to decrease after a
168 near-miss of catastrophic damages (Baker et al., 2009). In the context of a near-miss situation, people may assume
169 that they escaped the danger and perceive the intervening good fortune as an indicator of resiliency (Dillon et al.,
170 2011; Tinsley et al., 2012). In addition, risk perceptions are likely to be high during the imminent threat of a
171 hurricane as flood risk is likely to be salient. As a result, we expect the level of worry and concern to decline
172 between the period during the threat of Hurricane Dorian and after the threat had dissipated.

173 **H6**



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174 Respondents who finished the survey during time periods in which the maximum wind speed of Hurricane Dorian
175 was high have a higher flood risk perception.

176 **H7**

177 During a direct threat of a hurricane respondents have a higher flood risk perception compared to when this threat
178 has dissipated.

179 **2.3 Personal characteristics**

180 Besides heuristics and objective risk characteristics, personal characteristics such as risk preferences have been
181 identified as shaping risk perception (Feyisa et al., 2023; Villacis et al., 2021). In economic theories of decision
182 making, risk preferences/attitudes refer to the willingness of an individual to face a potentially risky situation
183 (Feyisa et al., 2023). Negative attitudes may result in an elevated view of risk levels, such as the probability of
184 loss (Prince & Kim, 2021). Therefore, we expect this personal characteristic to be positively associated with
185 perceived flood risk. Risk aversion is explicitly modelled as a determinant of risk perception, as implemented in
186 studies such as Cullen et al. (2018), Feyisa et al. (2023) and Villacis et al. (2021).

187 **H8**

188 Respondents who are risk averse have a higher flood risk perception than those who are risk seeking.

189 Locus of control may also be associated with risk perception (Breakwell, 2014; Ahmed et al., 2020). Locus of
190 control can be defined as an individual's belief about whether they have control over outcomes in their life (Rotter,
191 1966). People with an internal locus of control are of the opinion that their own efforts determine life outcomes in
192 their lives. In contrast, external locus of control types are of the opinion that these outcomes are out of their control
193 and often arise due to fate (Rotter, 1966). Since internal locus of control types may believe they have the propensity
194 to moderate their level of risk, e.g. by taking risk reduction measures, we predict that they are more likely to worry
195 less about risk than externals.

196 **H9**

197 Respondents who have a high internal local of control have a lower flood risk perception than those with an
198 external locus of control.

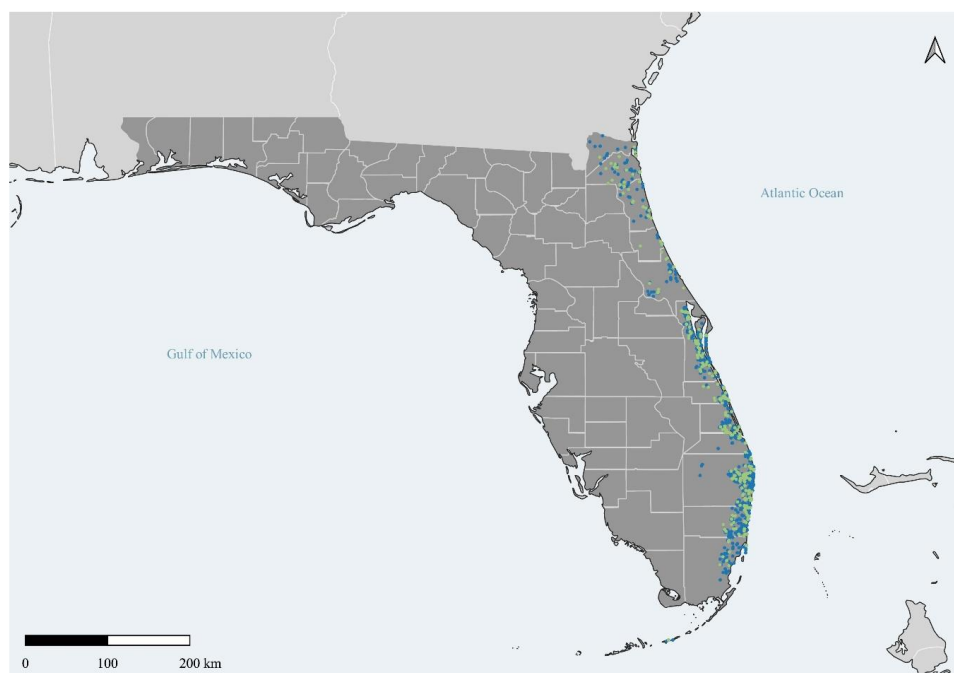
199 **3. Methods**

200 **3.1 Survey instrument and implementation**

201 We conducted the real-time survey on the evening of August 29, 2019, till September 2, 2019. In total 871
202 responses were collected using telephone interviews. All participants are residents of Florida living in potential
203 flood areas based on the FEMA flood zone maps. The sampled respondents lived in neighbourhoods that were
204 forecasted to be potentially hit by Hurricane Dorian by the National Hurricane Centre (NOAA, n.d.). While the
205 projected path of Dorian remained uncertain during the five-day survey period, the survey sample was updated
206 over time to include areas where flood impacts were expected to be the largest. Figure 1 shows the geographical
207 distribution of survey respondents.



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209 **Fig. 1** Locations of respondents in Florida in our initial survey (in blue dots) and follow-up survey (in green dots)

210 The second survey was administered several months after the near-miss of catastrophic damages from Dorian,
211 among a subset of the first survey sample, in order to analyse how risk perceptions at the individual level changed
212 after Hurricane Dorian. Particular care was taken to ensure similar sample characteristics across surveys in order
213 to meaningfully compare samples in the analysis. Responses were collected using both phone interviews and online
214 questionnaires. Participants who completed the second survey were offered a payment of 20 dollars. This amount
215 was raised to 50 dollars to increase the survey response rate. Non-responders were reminded through a postal mail
216 letter in which they were also informed of the monetary incentive. In total, 255 responses were collected. The
217 sample's main socio-demographic characteristics are similar across the two surveys (see Table 1).

218 The gender distribution of the first survey is also comparable to that of the population of Florida. However,
219 individuals over the age of 65 are overrepresented in the sample, as 49% of the respondents are 65 years and over
220 compared to the 21% of citizens in Florida. Furthermore, the sample is skewed towards respondents with a college
221 degree or higher (62%) compared to the Florida population (30%). Lastly, the median annual gross household
222 income range is \$75,000 to \$124,999, which is higher than the \$57,703 median household income after tax in 2018
223 in Florida (U.S. Census Bureau, n.d.).

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232 **Table 1.** Socio-demographic characteristics of survey 1 and survey 2

Variable	Sample survey 1 (871)		Sample survey 2 (255)	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
<i>Gender</i>	868		254	
Male	416	47.93%	128	50.39%
Female	452	52.07%	126	49.61%
<i>Age (years)</i>	809		240	
Mean (SD)	62 (16.5)		62 (17.1)	
<i>Education</i>	849		253	
Some high school	23	2.71%	7	2.77%
High school graduate	130	15.31%	26	10.28%
Some college	170	20.02%	52	20.55%
College graduate	325	38.28%	96	37.94%
Post graduate	201	23.67%	72	28.46%
<i>Household income 2018</i>	663		199	
Less than \$10,000	24	3.62%	8	4.02%
\$10,000 to \$24,999	57	8.60%	15	7.54%
\$25,000 to \$49,999	98	14.78%	23	11.56%
\$50,000 to \$74,999	145	21.87%	49	24.62%
\$75,000 to \$124,999	167	25.19%	58	29.15%
More than \$125,000	172	25.94%	46	23.12%

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234 **3.2 Measures**

235 **3.2.1 Dependent variables of general flood risk perceptions**

236 A total of four measures were used to elicit subjective judgements about flood risk: two qualitative questions
 237 regarding feelings about risk and two quantitative predictions of the flood probability and the cost to repair damage
 238 in case of a flood. The coding of these variables can be found in Table S1 in the Supplementary Information. The
 239 quantitative question regarding the flood probability asked respondents to judge the yearly likelihood that a flood
 240 would occur at their homes on a logarithmic scale. Bruine de Bruin et al. (2011) and Woloshin et al. (2000)
 241 observed that a logarithmic answer design performs well in eliciting perception of low likelihood risks.
 242 Furthermore, we asked participants to indicate how worried they feel about the danger of a flood at their home, as
 243 well as their feeling of concern about the consequences of flooding (following Botzen et al., 2015; Robinson &
 244 Botzen, 2018; 2019).

245 **3.2.2 Independent variables**

246 A range of socio-demographic information was collected, including respondents' gender (1=female), age,
 247 education, income and homeownership. These variables are included as control variables in our analysis.

248 One question was used to assess prior experience with flooding due to natural disasters. Respondents were asked
 249 to recall how often their current home has been flooded during the time they had lived there. Responses were
 250 dichotomised: 0 = no experience, 1 = at least one experience. To measure trust, we asked respondents to indicate
 251 how much they feel they can trust the flood limiting capabilities of local government officials on a 4-point Likert
 252 scale anchored from 1 = not at all to 4 = completely. Furthermore, we asked respondents two questions about the
 253 extent to which they feel social pressure regarding the purchase of flood insurance and the implementation of risk
 254 reduction measures on a 5-point Likert scale anchored from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree.

255 Two questions were used to assess Dorian specific risk perceptions. One question asked respondents to assess their
 256 level of certainty that the area they live in will be affected by Hurricane Dorian. Respondents were also asked to
 257 report the wind speed of Hurricane Dorian on the Saffir-Simpson Hurricane Wind Scale, based on the last time
 258 they had received this information.



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259 With regard to objective flood risk, three questions were asked to respondents to elicit the characteristics of their
260 residence. Specifically, we inquired whether part of the building the participant occupies includes the ground floor
261 level, and about the presence of a basement, cellar or crawlspace in the home. Furthermore, we gathered spatial
262 information regarding objective flood risk using FEMA flood zone maps and respondents' zip codes. This
263 information allowed us to geospatially classify the location of participants as either living within a 100-year flood
264 zone (FEMA zone A) or outside of a 100-year flood zone.

265 Lastly, regarding individual preferences, both locus of control and risk preferences were elicited using a 10-point
266 Likert scale. Respondents had to indicate how much they felt in control over their lives and how much risk, in
267 general, they are willing to take. This qualitative survey question to elicit willingness to take risks in general has
268 been shown to predict risk-taking behaviour across different contexts (Dohmen et al., 2011).

269 3.3 Statistical analysis

270 3.3.1 Flood risk perceptions

271 Since the dependent variables are ordinal outcomes, we adopt ordered logistic regressions to assess the impact of
272 independent variables on each of the flood risk perception dimensions. The ordinal nature of the dependent
273 variables are accounted for using this method. Furthermore, regarding the interval distance of the answer options
274 no assumptions are made (Liddell & Kruschke, 2018). For each independent variable the assumption of
275 proportional odds applies, meaning that the coefficient estimate β is the same across logit equations for the different
276 cut points (Fullerton, 2009).

277 A series of correlation tests of the explanatory variables were run to analyse multicollinearity. Taking 0.6 as a
278 threshold value from the commonly recommend threshold range of 0.6-0.8 (Tay, 2017), social norms regarding
279 risk mitigation and social norms regarding insurance were found to be highly correlated ($r = 0.643$). As a result,
280 we created a new variable by synthesising the observations of these two variables (Cronbach alpha = 0.779) into
281 one. The reason is that the high correlation implies that the two questions measure the same underlying construct,
282 i.e. a tendency to comply with social norms.

283 3.3.2 Change in flood risk perception

284 In order to analyse a potential change in the risk perception dimensions, during Hurricane Dorian and afterwards,
285 change variables were calculated by subtracting the observations of the first survey from the observations of the
286 second survey, for each risk perception dimension. Furthermore, logit regressions were performed for each change
287 variable to examine determinants of change in perceptions of risk. The dependent variable Y_i in the model is a
288 dummy variable representing negative change (excluding positive change) or positive change (excluding negative
289 change) in the risk perception of individual i , with the reference category indicating no change in risk perception.
290 Independent variables were chosen for inclusion if they remained constant across individuals, in other words, if
291 they were unaffected by the near-miss of Hurricane Dorian, namely: socio-demographic variables, residence
292 characteristics, and flood experience. The socio-demographic and residence characteristics were only measured in
293 the first survey, as significant changes were not anticipated.

294 3.3.3 Flood risk misperception

295 Respondents were classified into groups that either underestimate, correctly estimate or overestimate risk. To do
296 so, we compared the subjective valuation (SV) for the three different risk dimensions of each participant with the
297 objective valuation (OV), allowing the error margins (EM) to differ according to previous studies regarding
298 perceptions of flood risk (Botzen et al., 2015; Mol et al., 2020). Therefore, we consider the perceived risk estimate
299 to be accurate when $OV(1 - EM) \leq SV \leq OV(1 + EM)$. The error margin for the perceived flood probability and
300 hurricane wind speed is anchored at 0%, while the error margin for perceived flood damage caused by Hurricane
301 Dorian is fixed at 50%. The error margin of 0% was chosen for perceived flood probability and hurricane wind
302 speed because the objective estimates, the FEMA flood zones and Saffir-Simpson Hurricane Wind Scale
303 respectively, represent distinct categories. As a result, the estimates of respondents are either considered as
304 correctly estimating the category, or not. The modelled flood damage data, on the other hand, is continuous and as
305 such an interval was chosen for the error margin to reflect flood damage model uncertainty.

306 The objective flood damage was derived using a model cascade; first, the actual storm track of Hurricane Dorian
307 was obtained from NOAA (Historical Hurricane Tracks, n.d.). The storm track was then translated into a spiderweb



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308 format using ‘Delft 3D’ software that provides spatially explicit meteorological data, speed, and direction for the
 309 hurricane (Deltares, n.d.). The spiderweb data was used to force the Delft 3D Flexible Mesh to obtain inundation
 310 depths for all respondent locations. The inundation depths are all translated into a damage fraction by using
 311 HAZUS depth damage curves (FEMA, n.d.). Finally, by multiplying the reported value of the houses by the
 312 damage fraction, an objective estimate of flood damage is obtained per respondent.

313 In order to investigate the drivers of flood risk misperception, two logit regressions for each risk indicator were
 314 estimated. The dependent variable Y_i in the model is a dummy variable depicting under-estimation (excluding
 315 over-estimation) or over-estimation (excluding under-estimation) of the risk dimensions of individual i . For all
 316 models the reference category is a correct estimation by the participants.

317 4. Results

318 4.1 Descriptive statistics of risk perceptions

319 During the first day of the survey the forecast indicated that Hurricane Dorian was predicted to make landfall in
 320 the middle of the east coast of Florida, with the uncertainty cone covering almost the entire state. Midway through
 321 the survey period landfall in Florida was still likely, but the hurricane was expected to turn away from the coast
 322 over time. On the last day of the survey, the predicted rightward shift became stronger (NOAA, n.d.). However,
 323 landfall in Florida was still within the cone of uncertainty. Furthermore, hurricane and flood warnings were issues
 324 along the coastline of Florida during the entire duration of data collection (NOAA, n.d.). As a result, respondents
 325 faced the threat of suffering flood damage from Hurricane Dorian during the entire time the survey was conducted.

326 It is notable that almost all participants had heard of the approaching hurricane (92%), of which the majority
 327 correctly indicated that Dorian was a hurricane (93%) instead of a tropical storm (6%). A small proportion of the
 328 sample stated that they did not know whether Dorian was a hurricane or tropical storm (1%). Nevertheless, 1 in 4
 329 participants were unaware that they lived in an area that could be affected by the hurricane.

330 Moreover, almost all respondents in the second survey indicated that their primary source of information to stay
 331 updated about the approaching hurricane was the television (91%). In contrast, social media and face-to-face
 332 communication were less commonly utilised. Only 3% of respondents used Instagram or Twitter, while 18% of
 333 respondents used Facebook to gather information about Dorian. Respondents who followed specific social media
 334 accounts to acquire information about the storm, mainly followed the weather channel (14%).

335 In addition, there is a high perception of the flood probability among respondents (Table 2). 80% of respondents
 336 expect a yearly flood probability of 1/100 or higher at their home. Furthermore, the majority of the participants
 337 (81%) who live in the 1/100 flood zone reported a flood probability of 1/100 or higher, which shows that many
 338 respondents’ flood risk perceptions align with the relatively high flood risk they face in reality.

339 **Table 2.** Comparison of actual and perceived flood probability

Category of flood probability	FEMA flood zone A		Total
	Yes	No	
N	523	238	761
More often than 1 in 10 years	12.43%	11.34%	12.09%
Exactly 1 in 10 years	19.69%	22.27%	20.50%
Between 1 in 10 years and 1 in 100 years	15.68%	17.65%	16.29%
Exactly 1 in 100 years	33.08%	27.31%	31.27%
Between 1 in 100 years and 1 in 1000 years	3.25%	1.26%	2.63%
Exactly 1 in 1000 years	4.40%	8.40%	5.65%
Less often than 1 in 1000 years	11.47%	11.76%	11.56%

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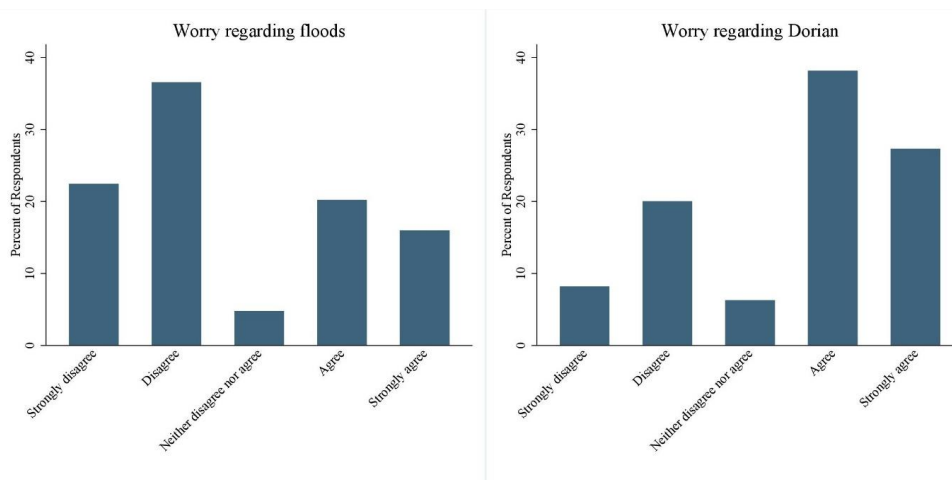
341 However, this awareness does not result in feelings of concern about flooding, as a majority of respondents
 342 believed that the flood probability at their home is too low to be concerned about the consequences of a flood
 343 (54%). Similarly, the majority of the sample indicated that they strongly disagree or disagree with the statement
 344 “I am worried about the danger of a flood at my current residence” (59%) (Figure 2).



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345 While the majority of the sample stated that they do not feel generally worried about the danger of a flood at their
346 residence, feelings of worry with regards to possible damage caused by Dorian specifically are present to a greater
347 extent. Only 28% of the respondents indicated that they strongly disagree or disagree with the statement concerning
348 feelings of worry about the hurricane causing damage to their home or home contents. As such, respondents were
349 more worried about damages caused by the approaching hurricane (65%) than flooding in general (36%).

350



351

352 **Fig. 2** Distribution of responses to statements about worry of general flood damage (left) and damage caused by
353 Hurricane Dorian (right)

354 4.2 Regression Analysis

355 Flood risk perception is measured using four indicators in this study, namely worry about flooding, concern
356 regarding flood consequences, perceived flood probability, and the estimated cost to repair damage in case of a
357 flood. We present the results of the models for each dimension of flood risk in Table 3. Time fixed effects are
358 included in the estimations, but we suppress those coefficient estimates in the interest of conserving space.

359 Regarding socio-demographic variables, the predictor age is significantly correlated with worry about flooding.
360 The negative coefficient for age indicates that older people are less likely to be worried about the dangers of
361 flooding at their current residence compared to younger people. Moreover, the negative coefficient for completion
362 of some college indicates a lower damage estimate. Homeownership has statistically significant impact on
363 perceived flood probability and estimated damage.

364 We find a strong effect of flood experience and social norms across models. With the exception of estimated flood
365 damage, flood experience and social norms were found to be statistically significant in estimating the level of
366 worry, level of concern, and perceived flood probability. The positive coefficient on the flood experience variable
367 implies that those who have experienced flooding as a result of natural disasters are more likely to worry about
368 flooding, feel concerned about flood consequences at their home, and have a higher perception of the flood
369 probability compared to those who have not experienced flooding at their current residence. In addition, trust was
370 found to be negatively related with the level of concern. That is, those who trust the ability of government officials
371 to limit flood risk are less likely to feel concerned regarding the flood probability at their homes.

372 With the exception of worry, we find no effect for respondents' awareness of living in an area that was expected
373 to be affected by Hurricane Dorian on flood risk perception. Respondents who indicated that they were certain that
374 the area they live in is expected to be affected by Hurricane Dorian are more likely to feel worried about the
375 dangers of floods at their residence compared to respondents who were not sure whether they live in an area that
376 might be affected by the hurricane.



12

377 With regards to housing characteristics, the presence of a basement, cellar or crawlspace in one's house is
378 significantly related to the level of worry, but not to the level of concern, perceived flood probability and estimated
379 damage.

380 The regression models including the time fixed effects can be found in the Supplementary Information. Time
381 dummy variables, referring to the time and date within which respondents finished the survey categorized by when
382 maximum sustained wind speeds were published by the National Hurricane Centre, concerning the second and
383 third day of the survey period are significant in estimating levels of worry and concern. Participants who completed
384 the survey during time periods which have significant coefficient estimates have an increased likelihood of feeling
385 worried and concerned about the dangers and consequences of flooding compared to participants who completed
386 the questionnaire at the very beginning of the data collection.

387 Regarding the individual characteristics variables, we find no relationship between risk aversion and flood risk
388 perceptions, as well as between internal local of control and flood risk perceptions.



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389 **Table 3.** Ordered logistic regression model of variables of influence on flood risk perception dimensions

Variable	Worry	Concern	Estimated flood probability	Estimated flood damage
Age	-0.016* (0.007)	-0.012 (0.006)	-0.012 (0.008)	-0.002 (0.007)
Gender	0.174 (0.204)	0.179 (0.196)	0.155 (0.207)	0.283 (0.188)
Education				
- High school graduate	0.905 (0.487)	1.734 (0.910)	0.873 (0.690)	-1.220 (0.746)
- Some college	0.003 (0.470)	1.188 (0.887)	0.395 (0.682)	-1.838* (0.758)
- College graduate	0.446 (0.480)	1.259 (0.890)	0.690 (0.681)	-1.116 (0.717)
- Post graduate	0.391 (0.513)	1.251 (0.906)	0.695 (0.686)	-1.201 (0.767)
Income	-0.071 (0.084)	0.075 (0.076)	-0.063 (0.089)	0.163 (0.0923)
Home owner	0.085 (0.352)	-0.071 (0.376)	-0.870* (0.409)	1.140** (0.393)
Experience flooding	0.854*** (0.273)	0.911*** (0.271)	1.683*** (0.299)	0.222 (0.240)
Social norms	0.355*** (0.045)	0.331*** (0.048)	0.297*** (0.045)	-0.071 (0.046)
Trust government	-0.135 (0.105)	-0.213* (0.103)	-0.109 (0.113)	0.033 (0.106)
Awareness living in Dorian impact area	0.291** (0.108)	-0.020 (0.100)	-0.077 (0.118)	0.153 (0.119)
Perceived wind speed Dorian	0.034 (0.132)	-0.041 (0.132)	0.019 (0.125)	-0.012 (0.117)
Home ground floor	-0.393 (0.396)	-0.661 (0.391)	-0.418 (0.458)	0.637 (0.388)
Basement	0.721** (0.256)	0.288 (0.277)	0.006 (0.275)	-0.264 (0.234)
FEMA flood zone	0.076 (0.212)	-0.126 (0.198)	-0.051 (0.215)	-0.095 (0.203)
Risk aversion	-0.027 (0.034)	-0.029 (0.034)	0.029 (0.039)	0.013 (0.035)
Internal locus of control	-0.052 (0.036)	-0.015 (0.033)	0.003 (0.037)	-0.022 (0.039)
Log likelihood	-561.615	-581.744	-610.013	-726.640
Pseudo R ²	0.126	0.102	0.103	0.042
Observations	426	426	395	384

390 Notes: Time dummy variables are suppressed. Robust standard errors in parentheses. Significance levels:
 391 *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001.

392 **4.3 Differences in risk perception before and after the hurricane threat**

393 Paired sample t-tests were performed to determine whether flood risk perceptions changed significantly during
 394 and after the threat of Hurricane Dorian. Most changes in flood risk perception are statistically insignificant, except
 395 for feelings of worry about the dangers of flooding. The mean decreased from 2.6 to 2.4 (p=0.017), suggesting
 396 that worry regarding flooding is higher during periods of extreme weather in line with our hypothesis.



14

397 With regard to the explanatory variables, all changes in personal beliefs and experiences are statistically
398 insignificant. Significant changes are observed for personal preferences variables. The mean of risk aversion
399 decreased from 3.9 to 2.8 ($p < 0.001$). This implies that during the hurricane threat people were more risk averse,
400 which is not surprising in the context of an emergency situation. Feelings of control, on the other hand, slightly
401 increased. However, the change in means was not found to be statistically significant.

402 4.3.1 Exploratory regression analysis

403 Furthermore, we looked at potential predictors regarding the change in the risk perception dimensions (Table S3,
404 Supplementary Information). With the exception of flood experience and education, we find no effect of the
405 independent variables on the change of flood risk perception before and after Hurricane Dorian. Experience of a
406 flood increases the likelihood of feeling less worried and concerned about the dangers and consequences of a flood
407 at respondents' residence after Dorian. Respondents who have completed a higher level of education are less likely
408 to feel a lower level of concern about the flood consequences after Dorian.

409 4.4 Objective risk assessment

410 As can be seen in Table 4, the majority of participants overestimated the wind speed of the hurricane while it was
411 a Category 1 or 2 hurricane. Furthermore, the majority of respondents either underestimated or overestimated the
412 wind speed of Dorian while it was a Category 3 hurricane. As such, most of the misperceptions occurred while the
413 hurricane wind speed was low. In contrast, during the three day period in which Dorian developed into a Category
414 4 and 5 hurricane, the majority of respondents correctly estimated the wind speed of the storm. In total, 115
415 participants (16%) underestimated the wind speed of Hurricane Dorian, 511 participants (69%) correctly estimated
416 the hurricane category, and 110 participants (15%) overestimated the strength of Dorian.

417 **Table 4.** Distribution of hurricane wind speed estimates on the Saffir-Simpson Hurricane Wind Scale per day
418 (at 0% error margin)

	Category Hurricane Dorian				
	1	2	3	4	5
Underestimation	0 (0.00%)	12 (44.44%)	30 (21.43%)	47 (15.56%)	26 (11.40%)
Correct within 0% error margin	12 (30.77%)	1 (3.70%)	67 (47.86%)	229 (75.83%)	202 (88.60%)
Overestimation	27 (69.23%)	14 (51.85%)	43 (30.71%)	26 (30.71%)	0 (0.00%)

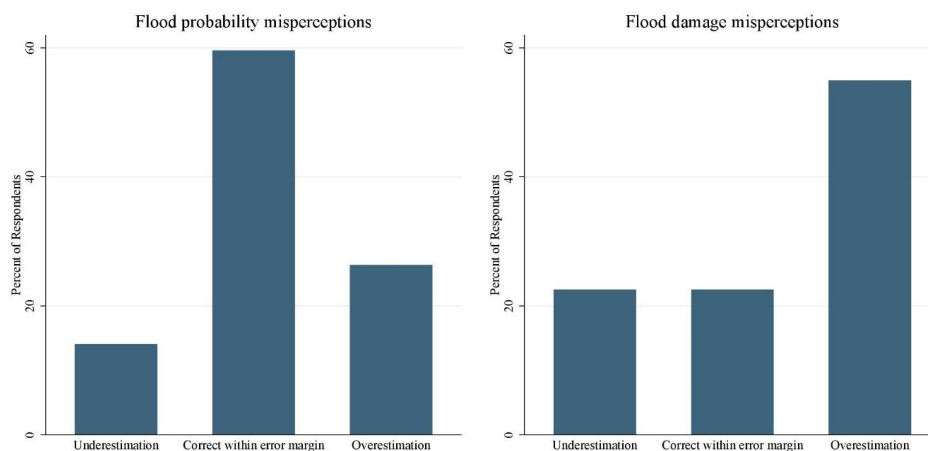
419

420 With regard to the perceived yearly flood probability at the residence of respondents, 423 (60%) participants
421 correctly stated that they live in an area with a flood probability of 1 in 100 years or less. In total, 287 participants
422 either underestimated or overestimated the probability of a flood. More precisely, 100 participants (14%)
423 considered the recurrence interval of a flood at their current residence as more than 1 in 100 years even though
424 they live in a 1 in 100 year flood zone, thereby underestimating the flood probability. A total of 187 (26%)
425 participants, on the other hand, overestimated the flood probability at their current residence, estimating the return
426 period as 1 in 100 years or less while living outside the FEMA flood zone A.

427 Figure 3 provides an overview of the distribution of under-, correct, and over-estimations for anticipated flood
428 damage. The vast majority of respondents, namely 356 participants (55%), overestimated the cost to repair the
429 damage of their home and its contents in the case of a flood.



15



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431 **Fig. 3** Distribution under-, correct, and over-estimations for anticipated flood probability (left, EM=0%) and
432 damage (right, EM=50%)

433 4.4.1 Regression analysis

434 Table S4 (Supplementary Information) reports regression results for the three dimensions of flood risk perception.
435 The negative coefficient for the variable concern indicates that respondents who perceive the flood probability as
436 sufficiently high to be concerned about the consequences of a flood are less likely to underestimate the flood
437 probability. In addition, those who are concerned are less likely to underestimate potential flood damage, while
438 those who are risk averse are more likely to overestimate the damage.

439 With regard to residence characteristics, the positive coefficient for occupation of the ground floor indicates that
440 individuals who live on the ground floor are more likely to overestimate the flood probability at their home. This
441 result makes sense, since individuals who live on the ground floor are more at risk regarding floods.

442 Regarding personal preferences, being risk averse makes it more likely that respondents will overestimate the cost
443 to repair their home and home contents in case of a flood. In other words, the more risk averse respondents are,
444 the more pessimistic they are in their estimation of the cost to repair the damage to their home caused by a flood.



16

445 **5. Discussion**

446 **Table 5.** Summary of hypotheses

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#	Description	Results			
		Worry	Concern	Flood probability	Estimated damage
H1	Respondents who have experienced a flood have a higher perception of flood risk.	S	S	S	NS
H2	Respondents with a high perception of specific Dorian characteristics have a higher perception of flood risk.	PS	NS	NS	NS
H3	Respondents who have more trust in the flood management capabilities of local government officials have a lower perception of flood risk.	NS	S	NS	NS
H4	Respondents who acknowledge that important social referents (friends, family, acquaintances) believe that someone in their (the respondent) situation ought to act upon the risk of floods have a higher perception of flood risk.	S	S	S	NS
H5a	Respondents whose home is situated in an area with a high flood risk have a higher flood risk perception than those whose home is situated in an area with a lower flood risk.	NS	NS	NS	NS
H5b	Respondents who occupy the ground floor at their home have a higher perception of flood risk than those who live on an upper floor.	NS	NS	NS	NS
H5c	Respondents with a basement, cellar or crawlspace in their home have a higher flood risk perception than those who do not have a basement, cellar or crawlspace in their home.	S	NS	NS	NS
H6	Respondents who finished the survey during time periods in which the maximum wind speed of Hurricane Dorian was high have a higher flood risk perception.	PS	PS	NS	NS
H7	During a direct threat of a hurricane respondents have a higher flood risk perception compared to when this threat has dissipated.	S	NS	NS	NS
H8	Respondents who are risk averse have a higher risk perception than those who are risk seeking.	NS	NS	NS	NS
H9	Respondents who have a high internal locus of control have a lower flood risk perception than those with an external locus of control.	NS	NS	NS	NS

448 Notes: S = supported, PS = partially supported, NS = not supported.



449 The results described in section 4 concerning our hypotheses are summarised in Table 5. Overall, flood experience
450 and social norms are the most consistent predictor of flood risk perception. Various studies have observed the role
451 experience plays in shaping flood risk perception (Bubeck et al., 2012b; Lechowska, 2018). In contrast, few papers
452 discuss the role of socio-cultural context, which includes the influence of social norms, in relation to flood risk
453 perceptions (Lechowska, 2018), which we find to be a key explanatory variable. Future studies on flood risk
454 perceptions should include the socio-cultural context in order to approach flood risk perceptions in a more holistic
455 manner.

456 The results are consistent with the availability heuristic (H1), in line with previous research (Bradford et al., 2012;
457 Botzen et al., 2015; Peacock et al., 2005; Reynaud et al., 2013; Richert et al., 2017; Rufat & Botzen, 2022). Our
458 assessment shows that the experience of a flood significantly and positively influences the flood risk perception
459 dimensions of worry, concern, and perceived flood probability, but not estimated damage. The latter effect may
460 be explained by the previously experienced floods not resulting in substantial damage. Furthermore, our findings
461 provide additional insights to the literature on the availability heuristic in flood risk perception. We find that a
462 direct flood experience influences flood risk perceptions to a greater extent than a high perception of specific
463 hazard characteristics (H2). This result indicates that the experience of flooding matters regarding the availability
464 heuristic, rather than being in a situation where the flood hazard is salient.

465 In addition, our findings do not strongly support the negative effect of trust on flood risk perceptions (H3). Previous
466 research has suggested that higher levels of trust reduce perceptions of flood risk (Siegrist et al., 2005; Terpstra,
467 2011). While trust concerning government officials and their capability to limit flood risk negatively relates to
468 concern regarding flood consequences in our study, we find no significant effect of trust on the other flood risk
469 perception dimensions.

470 Social norms, on the other hand, are strongly related to risk perceptions. We find that social norms relate positively
471 and significantly to worry regarding flooding, concern regarding flood consequences, and the perceived flood
472 probability, confirming H4. Risk behaviour research in the context of flooding has found similar results (Lo, 2013;
473 Poussin et al., 2014), indicating that individual uptake of flood risk reduction measures is amplified the more social
474 referents recognize and act upon a risk. As such, our results add to the risk perception literature as social norms do
475 not only influence the uptake of flood risk reduction measures, but are also associated with higher flood risk
476 perceptions.

477 System 2 thinking processes, which include analytical risk judgements, are also found to influence risk perception.
478 The positive relationship between objective and perceived flood risk is in line with previous literature (Botzen et
479 al., 2015; O'Neill et al., 2016; Richert et al., 2017). With regard to residence characteristics, we find that the
480 presence of a basement is positively related to the level of worry regarding flooding.

481 Furthermore, we find that the development of the hurricane forecasts concerning the hurricane wind speed has no
482 impact on perceived flood probabilities. This finding suggests that the cognitive assessment of flood risk (flood
483 probabilities) is largely insensitive to shifts in the maximum wind speed. In contrast, feelings about risk (worry
484 and concern) are more susceptible to these changes. We find that worry and concern regarding floods are higher
485 during periods in which the hurricane category is high.

486 Our data shows that after experiencing Hurricane Dorian, all dimensions of risk perception dropped. Previous
487 studies have found similar results, demonstrating that people have a diminished risk perception after facing a near-
488 miss natural hazard (Dillon et al., 2011; Dillon & Tinsley, 2016). However, the current analysis finds only partial
489 support for H7, as worry was the only variable to decrease significantly after Hurricane Dorian. Regarding the
490 explanatory variables, we find a significant decrease in risk aversion after the near-miss of Hurricane Dorian. The
491 decline of risk aversion suggests that in the context of natural hazards risk preferences vary over time, with
492 individuals being more risk averse during a direct threat and less risk averse following a near-miss, rather than
493 being a stable personality trait (Schildberg-Hörisch, 2018).

494 With regard to the over- and under-estimations of risk dimensions, many respondents have accurate perceptions
495 of the risks they face. Most respondents correctly recalled the maximum wind speed of Hurricane Dorian,
496 especially when it was high (Category 4 of 5), but mis-estimated it when the wind speed was low (Category 1 or
497 2). These results may indicate an enhanced communication of, or interest in, the risk as Dorian proceeded to rapidly
498 intensify by September 1. Similarly, most of the respondents correctly perceived the flood probability at their
499 homes. The overall correct estimation of the flood probability is in contrast to some previous work (Botzen et al.,



18

500 2015; Mol, 2020). Floods are much more frequent in Florida compared with the areas focused on in these previous
501 studies, which may explain a more rational appraisal of the flood probability in Florida. Regarding the estimated
502 damage, more respondents overestimated (55%) than underestimated (23%) the cost to repair damage in case of a
503 flood. The results show that being risk averse contributes to this overestimation. Respondents who think that the
504 flood probability is above their threshold level of concern, on the other hand, are less likely to underestimate the
505 cost of repairing the damage to their home and home contents in case of a flood. This result is consistent with the
506 findings of Botzen et al. (2015), who found that individuals who assessed the flood probability to be below their
507 threshold level of concern are more likely to underestimate their flood damage.

508 **5.1 Policy implications**

509 We found that during a direct threat of a hurricane, in which risk of flooding is high, individual risk perceptions
510 are high as well. However, misperceptions still prevail. 1 in 4 participants incorrectly perceived themselves as
511 living in an area that could not be impacted by Hurricane Dorian. Furthermore, we find that most people over-
512 estimated the wind speed of Hurricane Dorian when it was low (Category 1 or 2). With regard to damage
513 perceptions, most people overestimate the cost of repairing damage in case of a flood. Taken together, these results
514 regarding misperceptions show the importance of improving risk communication strategies, especially in cases
515 where risk perceptions are significantly lower than objective risk. Risk communication during the storm can be
516 improved by spreading more information about the storm and the areas it can affect to the inhabitants of these
517 areas. Furthermore, we find that flood risk perceptions are high during an imminent hurricane threat. Periods in
518 which risk perceptions are more likely to be high are suitable moments to motivate and inform people about
519 appropriate dry and wet flood-proofing measures using risk communication campaigns (Botzen et al., 2020;
520 Bubeck et al., 2012b). Therefore, communication policies during a hurricane threat should not only focus on the
521 risk itself, but also on the risk reduction measures people can implement during times of heightened risk
522 perceptions.

523 Based on our result, we recommend that raising awareness and activating social norms should be the focus of these
524 campaigns. The decline in worry regarding the dangers of a flood in combination with the strong influence of
525 previous flood event experience on flood risk perception highlights the need to preserve the memory of past floods.
526 Enlisting the help of those whom inhabitants feel trust for or trust as experts could lead to employing the most
527 influential sources in the communication of flood risk information. However, the effectiveness of activating social
528 norms depends on the careful design of communication messages and is highly context dependent (Bicchieri &
529 Dimant, 2022; Hauser et al., 2018).

530 Moreover, promoting flood risk awareness in the absence of a natural disaster is especially important after a near-
531 miss hazard, since our findings show that risk perceptions decline after the near-miss. The uniqueness of each
532 storm should be stressed in communication strategies, with the possibility of a direct hit for each hurricane being
533 taken serious in order to prevent the underestimation of flooding caused by natural disasters.

534 **6. Conclusion**

535 Flood damage caused by hurricanes is predicted to continue to increase in the future. Flood preparedness and
536 support of flood risk management policies among the public are needed to reverse this trend. However, empirical
537 studies on household preparedness show that many households are underprepared for hurricane induced floods,
538 which to a larger extent could be due to low flood risk perception. We investigated various determinants of flood
539 risk perceptions and aimed to understand flood risk misperceptions of coastal residents in Florida in order to give
540 recommendations for flood risk communication strategies.

541 The novelty of our approach can be considered the main addition to the literature, as we employed a real-time and
542 follow-up survey during and after the threat of Hurricane Dorian. The former allows for a relatively unique and
543 important understanding of flood risk perceptions and their drivers during a period in which the hurricane threat
544 is heightened, while the latter provides a longitudinal view of the change in risk perceptions after the close call of
545 Hurricane Dorian making landfall in Florida.

546 Overall, the results show that while there is a high awareness of the flood probability, this awareness does not
547 necessarily translate into a high concern or worry about flooding. However, participants tended to perceive the
548 approaching hurricane as more of a threat with regard to the possible damage caused by Dorian. Still, 1 in 4
549 participants were unaware that they were living in an area that was predicted to be impacted by Hurricane Dorian.



19

550 After the near-miss, participants indicated that they felt less worried regarding the dangers of flooding and risk
551 aversion declined.

552 Regarding the drivers of the flood risk perceptions, we find that previous flooding experience, in line with the
553 availability heuristic, and social norms have the most consistent influence⁴. Furthermore, we observe a significant
554 relationship with variables representing System 2 thinking, although to a lesser extent than the System 1 processes.

555 Based on our results, the following policy recommendations can be drawn. Information campaigns should aim to
556 preserve the memory of past floods among the population, as well as focus on activating social norms.
557 Furthermore, the observation that worry regarding the dangers of flooding declined after a near-miss shows the
558 importance of regular campaigns promoting risk awareness after a near-miss. In order to prevent the
559 underestimation of flooding caused by hurricanes, each possibility of a direct hit should be taken seriously.

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561 **Data availability**

562 The raw and processed data are not publicly available as the participants of this study did not give written consent
563 for their data to be shared publicly.

564 **Competing interest**

565 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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21

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